A scalable, Rotating Disc Bioelectrochemical Reactor (RDBER) suitable for the cultivation of both cathodic and anodic biofilms

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Abstract

This study discusses the construction and operation of a membrane-less bioelectrochemical reactor that employs rotating working electrodes with a surface area of up to 1 m^2. As a proof-of-principle for an aerobic microbial electrosynthesis process, *Kyrpidia spormannii* was cultivated in the reactor. Optical coherence tomography was used to examine the spatial distribution of the cathodic biofilm. After 24 days 87% of the cathode surface was covered with biofilm that was characterized by a radial increase in its biovolume towards the circumcenter of the electrodes reaching up to 92.13 μm^3 μm^{-2}. To demonstrate the versatility of the system, we further operated the reactor as a microbial electrolysis cell employing a co-culture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens.* Anodic current densities of up to 130 μA cm^{-2} were measured during these batch experiments. This resulted in a maximum production rate of 0.43 liters of pure hydrogen per liter reactor volume and day.

Graphical Abstract

Highlights

• **Construction of a 10 L membrane-less, pressurizable bioelectrochemical reactor**

• **Rotating working electrodes with up to 1 m² electrode surface**

• **Electroautotrophic cultivation and quantification of *K. spormannii* biofilms**

• **Initial cell density crucial for successful *K. spormannii* biofilm formation**

• **Anodic operation as MEC with *Shewanella* / *Geobacter* coculture**

Keywords

1. Introduction

Tapering off fossil resources by renewable commodities that are based on a circular utilization of resources is key to the transition towards a sustainable economy (Lieder and Rashid, 2016). In this context, future (bio)chemical transformations of raw materials and waste streams must be fueled by renewable electrical energy (Krieg et al., 2018a). The so-called microbial electrosynthesis (MES) is a promising biotechnological example for such a conversion of electricity and carbon dioxide into value-added organic compounds (Nevin et al., 2010). This process relies on electroactive microorganisms that serve as a biocatalyst on the cathode of a bioelectrochemical system (BES) (Logan et al., 2019). By applying a voltage to the BES, typically water is oxidized at the anode into oxygen and protons. Driven by a power source the released electrons are subsequently used either directly or indirectly by the autotrophic, cathodic biofilm as the sole energy and electron source for the reduction of CO_2. Although MES could theoretically outperform abiotic carbon utilization technologies as well as established gas fermentations in some specific applications, the technology is not yet economically feasible on a large scale (Christodoulou and Velasquez-Orta, 2016; Jourdin et al., 2020; Jourdin and Burdyny, 2021; Prévoteau et al., 2020; Wood et al., 2021). However, the novel electroautotrophic species *Kyrpidia spormannii* EA-1[T] was isolated from a thermophilic cathodic community recently (Reiner et al., 2018a, 2018b). This thermoacidophilic 'Knallgas' bacterium is a natural producer of polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) and was shown to thrive on cathodes as the sole electron and energy source for the reduction of CO_2 (Reiner et al., 2020). Hence, *K. spormannii* is a promising candidate for MES - not only since PHAs are precursors for biodegradable bioplastics - but also due to the organisms comparably good biofilm-formation abilities on cathodes. Thus, it was shown that *K. spormannii* forms robust biofilms with a thickness of well over 100 µm – an important prerequisite for MES as stated recently by Vassilev and colleagues (Barham et al., 1984; Hackbarth et al., 2020; Vassilev et al., 2022). Although it seems to be an intrinsic property of electroautotrophic organisms, the molecular details of extracellular electron uptake (EET) from a cathode are also subject to keen

debate with regard to *K. spormannii* (Jung et al., 2020; Pillot et al., 2022a; Prévoteau et al.,

2020; Reiner et al., 2020).

While - with respect to the inanimate components of a MES system - much effort has been put

into studying the effect of material and structural properties of electrodes, the development of

new and, in particular, scalable reactor concepts for MES has been rather sidelined (Enzmann

et al., 2019b; Guo et al., 2015; Kerzenmacher, 2017; Pillot et al., 2022a, 2022b; Zhang et al.,

2021). This is in spite of the fact that whether microbial electrochemical technologies (METs)

can carve a niche in a future sustainable economy depends strongly on the availability of a

suitable reactor technology. Typical reactor systems for the cultivation of electroactive

microorganisms in laboratory settings are cube, bottle, or flat-plate-type reactors (Enzmann et

al., 2019a; Krieg et al., 2018b). Especially for MES applications, a semipermeable membrane

is commonly required to spatially separate anode and cathode compartments. Membranes can

be advantageous when extremely high Coulombic efficiencies are desired, as they avoid

chemical short circuits caused by diffusion of electrochemically active chemicals (Krieg et al.,

2018b). Moreover, due to anodically produced oxygen a membrane is particularly crucial if

strict anaerobes, such as acetogenic or methanogenic organisms, serve as cathodic

biocatalysts for MES (Gildemyn et al., 2017). However, the utilization of membranes leads to

significantly increased surface-specific ohmic losses as a plain result of an increased distance

between anode and cathode, but also through diffusion limitations often caused by hardly

mixed zones around the membranes. The latter may also result in undesirable pH shifts in the

separated compartments (Gildemyn et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2017; Krieg et al., 2018b;

Prévoteau et al., 2020; Zeppilli et al., 2016). Finally, most membranes are not autoclavable

(according to the manufacturer), sensitive to fouling and prone to leakage due to lack of

mechanical stability (Utesch and Zeng, 2018). The above-mentioned disadvantages of

membranes, along with the resulting complexity of the reactor set-up, lead to a high-

maintenance reactor system which is likely to be very cost-intensive in long-term operation

(Kracke et al., 2018).

Here, we present the concept of a membrane-less, scalable rotating disc bioelectrochemical reactor (RDBER) for aerobic MES and other pure culture bioelectrochemical applications. The reactor is fully autoclavable and can be pressurized to at least 0.5 bar. Moreover, it is equipped with an optical window allowing for in vivo monitoring of biofilm development on the electrodes using optical coherence tomography (OCT). The systems design is inspired by a so-called rotating biological contactor (RBC) (Hassard et al., 2015). RBC is a fixed-film bioreactor used in wastewater treatment that consists of closely spaced discs that are mounted on a common horizontal shaft and are typically partially submerged in liquid. Cortez and colleagues highlight the low maintenance and operating costs, ease of process control and monitoring, and low land requirements as particular advantages of RBC (Cortez et al., 2008). This is mainly due to the fact that the flow velocity across the biofilm enhancing substrate supply is not achieved by energy-intensive pumping of high volumes or stirring, but by rotation of the biofilm-covered discs. The first steps in the "electrification" of RBCs have already been successfully carried out on a laboratory scale (Cheng et al., 2012, 2011; Rodziewicz et al., 2019; Sayess et al., 2013): Several attempts have been made to use conductive rotating discs as cathode or anode of a bioelectrochemical system. However, these studies consistently focus on the purification of wastewater. Hence, biotechnological requirements for a pure culture MES process (e.g., working with pure cultures under sterile conditions, control of temperature and pH, or pressurizability to increase the solubility of the gaseous substrates like CO_2) were not considered in the reactor design.

The RDBER operates in either anodic (as a microbial electrolysis cell) or cathodic mode with an effective working electrode area of up to 1 m^2 (depending on the number of graphite discs mounted). As a proof of principle for an axenic, aerobic MES-process we cultivated *K. spormannii* in the system and correlated the OCT-derived, spacial resolved biovolume of the cathodic biofilm with the radius of the rotating cathodes. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the developed system can also be operated as a microbial electrolysis cell (MEC). In a MEC, electroactive organisms oxidize organic matter into CO_2 and protons, whereby the released electrons are transferred from the organisms to the anode, which serves as a terminal

respiratory electron acceptor. From the anode, the electrons are then transferred to the counter

electrode (cathode) by means of a voltage source, in order to reduce protons abiotically into

hydrogen. For MEC-operation of the RDBER a co-culture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and

Geobacter sulfurreducens was cultivated as an anodic biofilm on the rotating working

electrodes. Both organisms are well-studied electroactive model organisms for extracellular

electron transfer of respiratory electrons to insoluble electron acceptors such as an anode of

a MEC (Edel et al., 2022; Korth and Harnisch, 2019; Logan et al., 2019).

Thus, by cultivating defined pure cultures in different operating modes (anodic/cathodic) in

each case, we were able not only to demonstrate the general functionality of the system, but

also to provide a first insight into the range of possible applications offered by the RDBER as

a technological platform for METs.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Reactor Design

The design of the reactor system is illustrated in detail in Fig. 1. The reaction chamber,

consisting of the reactor jacket (component b in Figs. 1A and 1C) and two flanges, was

designed as a horizontal cylinder made of polypropylene. The inner diameter of the jacket

measuring 238 mm and the length of 230 mm result in an inner volume of the reaction chamber

of 10 L. An inspection window made of polycarbonate (Fig. 1A, component a) was integrated

in the front flange allowing the observation of the foremost working electrode (Figs. 1A and 1C,

component d). A circular recess milled in the center of the window serves as a guide and seat

for the shaft bearing (component f in Fig. 1A). Figure 1C shows a cross-sectional view of the

RDBER illustrating the arrangement of the electrodes in the reaction chamber. The shaft, which

was made of high-purity titanium and sealed from the environment by a shaft seal, is located

concentrically in the reactor. A precisely aligned shaft bearing in the rear flange, together with

the fixed bearing in the front window, ensures that the shaft runs as friction-free and balanced

as possible. For compensation of the temperature-related expansion of the shaft relative to the

reaction chamber, the bearing in the rear flange was designed as a floating bearing. The shaft

was manufactured as a threaded rod onto which working electrode holders (custom made

titanium nuts) are mounted. The working electrode discs made of graphite are clamped

between two holders in each case and centered in the process. This ensures that the discs

are in contact with the shaft and thus also with the voltage source. In total, up to 14 working

electrode discs with a thickness of 3 mm and a diameter of 210 mm can be mounted on the

shaft. This corresponds to an active working electrode surface (front and back) of up to 1 m²

and, relative to the reaction chamber volume, a surface-to-volume ratio of 100 m² m^{-3}.

Since in RBC-like systems the cross-flow across the biofilm is adjusted by the rotational speed

of the rotating substrate (here the working electrode), a high-resolution stepper motor

(component c, Figs. 1A and 1B) was implemented (Lexium MDrive Motion Control, Schneider

Electric) on the rear flange. The employment of such a stepper motor allows, in addition to the

load-independent control of the rotational speed, the position-accurate visualization of selected

locations on the substrate. Apart from the toothed belt wheel required for this purpose, a double

leg carbon brush holder (Fig. 1B, component l) with silver-graphite brushes was attached to

the end of the titanium shaft (Fig. 1C, component n). Via this brush holder, electrical contact

was made from the potentiostat to the rotating shaft and thus also to the working electrodes.

The counter electrodes were made of titanium sheet with an iridium mixed oxide coating

(platinode type 177, Umicore) in the form of half-rounds (Fig. 1C, component m) and connected

to each other by means of four titanium threaded rods (Fig. 1C, component o). Exactly cut

pieces of titanium pipe (component p in Fig. 1C) are mounted between each two anode sheets

to provide the desired distance between the working and counter electrodes. The distance

between anode and cathode amount to 5.5 mm. A total of up to 15 fixed counter electrode

sheets with an active area of approx. 0.5 m² can be installed in the reaction chamber in this

way. The four titanium threaded rods are led out of the reaction chamber through the rear

flange (Fig. 1B, component i) and can thus be connected to the potentiostat. Cable bushings

made of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) provide the necessary sealing.

In order to supply the growing biofilm with CO_2-enriched media during cathodic operation, the

gas-saturated and pre-tempered culture medium was pumped by means of a gear pump with

an autoclavable pump head (REGLO-Z Digital, Z-1830 P, Ismatec) (Fig. 1D, component t) from

an optional stainless-steel (component r in Fig. 1D) double jacket container via a compression

fitting (Fig. 1D, component e) located in the front flange into the reaction chamber. The medium

was then circulated in the overall system via two screw fittings (parts h and j in Fig. 1B) located

on the rear flange. During operation the volume flow was led via the compression fitting j (Fig.

1B) connected to the reference electrode holder containing an Ag/AgCl reference electrode

(part q in Fig. 1D) (SE23I, Meinsberg Sensortechnik). The second screw connection h (Fig.

1B) served as an outlet for any gas that may have formed and collected in the reaction

chamber.

Fig. 1: 3D renderings of the RDBER: (A) Front view of the reaction vessel, (B) rear view of the reaction

vessel, (C) cross-section of the reaction vessel, (D) full system with stainless-steel vessel and piping. (a

– inspection window, b – reactor jacket, c – stepper motor , d – working electrode disc, e – inlet to

reaction chamber, f – shaft journal bearing, g – outlet of heating jacket, h – gas outlet, i – connector to

counter electrode, j – outlet of reaction chamber and connection to reference electrode holder, k – inlet

to heating jacket, l – carbon brush holder as connector to rotating working electrodes, m – counter

electrodes , n – working electrode shaft , o – counter electrode shaft, p – counter electrode spacers, q

– reference electrode, r - double jacketed vessel with integrated pH electrode, s – OCT probe head, t –

magnetic gear pump, u – magnetic stirrer).

To ensure constant temperatures in the reaction chamber, heating channels were milled into

the 31 mm thick polypropylene jacket. These channels were flushed with heating liquid and

are shown in the cross-section of the reaction chamber (Fig. 1C). Inlet k and outlet g (Fig. 1B)

of the heating jacket were placed at the rear flange of the reaction chamber and coupled to a

circulation thermostat via clamping ring connections. Simultaneously the growth medium was

heated supportively in the optional stainless-steel double jacket vessel during cathodic

operation (Fig. 1D, part r). Moreover, the gaseous substrates for electroautotrophic growth

were continuously passed through the headspace of the stainless-steel vessel under pressure.

The inlet and outlet of the substrate gases are equipped with sterile filters to prevent

contamination. By installing a pH electrode (Ceragel CPS71D, Endress + Hauser) in the

vessel, the pH value and temperature was logged and the circulation thermostat was regulated.

The RDBER was aligned and rigidly fixed on a base frame. Moreover, a holder on which the

OCT probe (component s in Fig. 1D) can be fixed was mounted to the base frame.

2.2 Strains and preculture conditions

Electroautotrophic experiments were conducted with a population of *K. spormannii* EA-1^T

previously adapted to cathodic growth (Jung et al., 2020). The preculture for RDBER

experiments was grown from freezer stocks in a modified R2A medium (yeast extract 5 g L^{-1},

tryptone 1 g L^{-1}, casamino acids 0.5 g L^{-1}, sodium pyruvate 0.5 g L^{-1}, MgSO$_4$·7 H$_2$O 0.05 g L^{-1},

K$_2$HPO$_4$ 0.1 g L^{-1}, MOPS 10 mM - pH 6) at 60 °C without agitation. The heterotrophically grown

pre-culture of *K. spormannii* was washed two times with ES-medium (pH 3.5; 10 mM NH$_4$Cl,

2.5 mM NaCl, 0.3 mM KH$_2$PO$_4$, 0.12 mM MgSO$_4$, 0.1 mM CaCl$_2$, 1 mL L^{-1} Wolfe's mineral

elixir) before inoculating the autoclaved RDBER setup (Reiner et al., 2018a). Depending on

the desired planktonic cell number per working electrode surface ratio the initial optical density

(OD$_{600}$) in the RDBER was 0.1 or 0.3 respectively. A counting chamber (Bürker-Türk) was

consulted in order to determine the specific cell number per OD$_{600}$ and Volume (an OD$_{600}$ of 1

corresponded to 3.16±0.25 * 10^7 *K. spormannii* cells per mL).

A mixed culture of the model organisms *Shewanella oneidensis* MR-1 and *Geobacter*

sulfurreducens PCA was employed as biocatalyst during anodic operation of the RDBER.

S. oneidensis was precultured aerobically in LB-Medium (Lennox), while the cultivation of the

G. sulfurreducens preculture was conducted under anoxic conditions in BES-Medium

[0.42 g L^{-1} KH_2PO_4, 0.22 g L^{-1} K_2HPO_4, 0.2 g L^{-1} NH_4Cl, 0.38 g L^{-1} KCl, 0.36 g L^{-1} NaCl,

0.21 g L^{-1} $MgCl_2$, 11.92 g L^{-1} HEPES – after autoclaving the medium was complemented with

1 mL L^{-1} 0.4 mM $CaCl_2$ solution, 10 mL L^{-1} NB trace mineral solution, 1.0 mL selenite–

tungstate solution (13 mM NaOH, 17 µM Na_2SeO_3, and 12 µM Na_2WO_4), 10 mL vitamin

solution (German Type Culture Collection, DSMZ, media 141) and then sparged in rubber

sealed bottles with N_2/CO_2 (80:20 vol%) for 30 minutes]. For preculturing, the BES-medium

was complemented with 20 mM sodium acetate as electron donor and disodium fumarate

(40 mM) as electron acceptor. The final pH was set to 7.4. Before inoculating the reactor with

a mixture of *G. sulfurreducens* and *S. oneidensis* in a 9 to 1 ratio to an initial OD_{600} of 0.1, the

cells were washed two times in BES-Medium.

2.3 Cultivation of cathodic *K. spormannii* biofilms

After pumping the previously inoculated ES-Medium omitting any organic carbon source

(Reiner et al., 2020) into the sterile RDBER, the medium temperature was adjusted to 60 °C.

The headspace of the mixing vessel was pressurized to 0.5 bar and continuously flushed with

a mixture of 99.5% CO_2 (v/v) and 0.5% O_2 (v/v) while the liquid phase was continuously stirred

at 300 rpm. The additional stirring of the medium in the mixing vessel by means of a magnetic

stirrer (see component u in Fig. 1D) ensured improved mass transfer of the gases and

increased the heat transfer of the heated jacket into the medium. The cultivation medium

enriched with the gaseous substrates was pumped through the RDBER at a constant

volumetric flow rate of 500 mL min^{-1}. In order to achieve different planktonic cell number per

working electrode surface ratios, either only one or all electrodes were mounted (714 cm^2 vs.

1 m^2 working electrode surface). The rotational speed of the working electrodes amounted to

one revolution per minute. A constant current density of 1 µA cm^{-2} was applied for 24 h

immediately after inoculation by means of a potentiostat (Interface 5000P, Gamry Instruments,

Warmister, USA). After this initial polarization phase, the current density was set to 3 µA cm^{-2}

by the end of the experiment. The experiments were stopped upon detection of no further

biofilm   increase.

2.4 Anodic operation as Microbial Electrolysis Cell

10 L of inoculated BES-medium containing 20 mM sodium acetate and 20 mM sodium lactate

as carbon source was pumped in the previously autoclaved RDBER. Chronoamperometric

batch experiments were performed at 30 °C and a constant working electrode potential of 0 mV

vs. SHE (standard hydrogen electrode) was set. For anodic operation the stainless-steel

mixing vessel was omitted while the pipeline was shorted with a pH-electrode holder. Evolving

reaction gases (e.g. Hydrogen and CO_2) were collected at the upper outlet h (see Fig. 1B) and

led through a MilliGascounter (Ritter, Germany) into a gas sampling bag. Analysis of collected

gases was conducted by means of a Micro GC (490 Micro GC, Agilent Technologies,

Germany) using two different carrier gases (argon and helium) and two stationary phases (CP-

Molsieve 5 Å Plot and PoraPLOT U J&W GC columns, Agilent Technologies, Germany).

Moreover, liquid samples were taken twice a day in order to quantify the concentration of

organic acids by means of a Metrohm 881 Compact Pro Ion Exchange Chromatograph with a

Metrosep Organic Acids 250/7.8 column (Metrohm, Switzerland).

2.5 OCT imaging and digital image processing

A GANYMEDE II spectral domain OCT system (Thorlabs GmbH, Dachau, Germany) equipped

with a LSM04 objective lens was employed for 3D biofilm visualization (Thorlabs GmbH,

Dachau, Germany). Prior to each OCT acquisition, the stepper motor was consistently halted

in the same pre-assigned position. Together with the fixed position of the OCT probe holder,

this allowed reproducible visualization of a selected radial cathode section. OCT 3D data sets

(C-scans) were acquired regularly over the visualizable radial area (see Fig. 2). Each spot was

scanned with a size of 10.0 mm × 6.0 mm × 2.0 mm (L × W × H) and pixel resolutions of

8 µm px^{-1} (lateral, xy-plane) and 2.06 µm px^{-1} (axial, z-direction). Adjacent OCT data sets were

then stitched to depict the whole radius of the cathode. The generated OCT datasets were

then analyzed, merged, and finally assembled into a height profile (6 mm × 70 mm; H × W).

The visualized rectangular area was then trimmed into an isosceles trapezoid for final

evaluation. The trapezoid represents a circular sector of the round disc, which abuts the outer

radius of the substrate and was shortened to 70 mm by cutting off the tip. 110 of these

trapezoids could thus be approximately combined to form a circular ring with an outer diameter

of 21 mm and an inner diameter of 70 mm. Finally, the mean biovolume $\overline{BV}$, the mean

accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^{*}$, and the mean coverage $\overline{SC}$ over the radius were determined from the

cropped trapezoid (detailed view Figure 2). In addition, the trapezoid was divided into 7 further

10 mm long sub-trapezoids to obtain detailed information about the spatial distribution of

biovolume (BV) along the radius of the circular blank. ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012), operated

with in-house made macros (Bauer et al., 2019), was used to calculate topographic

representations of the bulk-biofilm interface (height maps) and the structural parameters used

for biofilm characterization.

Fig. 2: Representation of the visualized area and the analyzed trapezoidal sections of the generated

OCT data sets.

2.6 Parameters for biofilm characterization

The calculation of the biofilm structure parameters - biovolume BV ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}$), mean biovolume $\overline{BV}$ ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}$), mean biofilm accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^*$ ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}\,d^{-1}$) and mean substratum coverage $\overline{SC}$ (-) was based on height maps according to Wagner and Horn(Wagner and Horn, 2017).

Biovolume BV is defined as the measured biofilm volume V_{BF} (μm^3) per specific area of a single small trapezoid A_{ST} (μm^2)

$$BV = \frac{V_{BF}}{A_{ST}}$$

whereas $\overline{BV}$ is being defined as

$$\overline{BV} = \frac{\sum V_{BFn}}{\sum A_{STn}}$$

Where n indexes the individual small trapezoids.

Mean biofilm accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^*$ corresponds to $\overline{BV}$ derived by time:

$$\overline{BV}^* = \frac{\partial \overline{BV}}{\partial t}$$

Finally, mean substratum coverage $\overline{SC}$ is described as

$$\overline{SC} = \frac{\sum A_{STn} - A_{uc}}{\sum A_{STn}}$$

355   with the area of uncovered substratum A_{uc} (biofilm thickness = 0 µm).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Cultivation of cathodic *K. spormannii* biofilms

In order to prove the functionality of the newly developed reactor concept, two different pure

culture cultivations of electroactive microorganisms were performed in the RDBER. Moreover,

initial cultivation experiments performed with *K. spormannii* were designed to answer the

question of whether an RBC-like reactor could even be a potential technological platform for

upscaling a biofilm-based, aerobic MES process that was previously demonstrated in small-

scale, custom-made flow cells (Hackbarth et al., 2020; Jung et al., 2020). Thus, as many

process parameters as possible were transferred from the established flow cell cultivation to

the cultivation of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER for a preliminary cultivation experiment (see

Table 1). After several days of reactor operation, OCT analysis of the cathode revealed

isolated tower-like structures formed on the cathode. However, their quantity and height

decreased sharply again in the course of a few days (Fig. S1). Moreover, the surface coverage

of the substratum never exceeded 20% even after one month of cultivation. In summary, no

continuous biofilm could be detected on the cathodes by OCT during the preliminary

cultivations. When examined more closely, there were two particular process parameters that

deviated from the flow cell experiments due to the entirely divergent reactor concept of the

RDBER: Firstly, the initial cell number per cathode area, and secondly, the hydraulic retention

time in the reaction chamber (0.5 min in the flow-cells compared to 18.4 min in the RDBER).

However, since in an RBC-like reactor the flow velocity over the substratum depends on the

angular velocity of the substrate rather than the hydraulic residence time (HRT), we assumed

that HRT was not likely to be the key process parameter that hindered biofilm growth during

the preliminary cultivation experiments. In particular, because care was taken to ensure that

the angular velocity of the circular blank at the outermost radius should not exceed the optimum

flow velocity for cultivation of *K. spormannii* in the flow cell system. Using the circumference of

the circular blanks, it was calculated that a velocity of 11 mm s^{-1} is achieved at the outermost

radius at a rotational speed of 1 U min^{-1}, which is within the range of the flow velocity over the

cathode in the flow cell system based on the previously conducted CFD simulation (Hackbarth

et al., 2020). Hence, we hypothesized, that the 44 times lower initial cell number per cathode

surface ratio (3.4 * 10^9 cm^{-2} in the flow-cells vs. 7.6 * 10^7 cm^{-2} for the preliminary RDBER

experiments) might be the limiting factor for consistent biofilm growth. Previously it was shown

that at the initially uncovered cathode a part of the dissolved oxygen might be abiotically

reduced into reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Hackbarth et al., 2020; Jung et al., 2020). As the

initial cell number decreases, the cumulative ROS-detoxification capacity of the cells also

decreases, possibly preventing a sufficient initial cathode coverage that serves as an insulator

to minimize abiotic ROS formation. Therefore, we adjusted the cell number to cathode surface

ratio for the subsequent experiments. Besides increasing the initial OD$_{600}$ from 0.1 to 0.3, we

also reduced the working electrode area to 700 cm^2, in order to avoid the need of a tremendous

amount of preculture, which would not have been cultivatable in our laboratory infrastructure

yet. Furthermore, the current density of the system was limited by galvanometry to 1 μA cm^{-2}

for 24 h (and then to 3 μA cm^{-2} for the rest of the experiment) to minimize initial ROS-formation.

Operation of the RDBER under adapted process conditions now resulted in the formation of

nearly continuous *K. spormannii* biofilms covering more than 90% of the cathode. Figure 3

shows a timeseries of height maps derived from OCT datasets covering a radial excerpt of the

working electrode.

407 Table 1: Listing of important process parameters comparing the RDBER cultivations of *K. spormannii*
408 performed in this study and flow cell cultivations performed in another study. LSV – Linear sweep
409 voltammetry, CA – Chronoamperometry.

Process parameter	Flow-cell cultivation (Hackbarth et al., 2020)	Preliminary cultivation (this study)	Optimized cultivation (this study)
Medium	ES-medium	Es-medium	Es-medium
pH	3.5	3.5	3.5
Gas mixture	CO_2/O_2 (99.5:0.5)	CO_2/O_2 (99.5:0.5)	CO_2/O_2 (99.5:0.5)
Pressure	1.5 bar	0.5 bar	0.5 bar
Temperature	60 °C	60 °C	60 °C
Circulation pump speed	100 mL min^{-1}	500 mL min^{-1}	500 mL min^{-1}
Volume reaction chamber	50 mL	8500 mL	9850 mL
Hydraulic retention time	0.5 min	17 min	19.7 min
Flow velocity / angular velocity over / of substratum at r = 210 mm	up to 21 mm s^{-1}	up to 11 mm s^{-1}	up to 11 mm s^{-1}
Electroanalytics	potentiostatic LSV (first 24 h), then CA (-500 mV vs. SHE)	potentiostatic LSV (first 24 h), then CA (-500 mV vs. SHE)	galvanostatic 1 µA cm^{-2} (first 24 h), then 3 µA cm^{-2}
Volume system (incl. pipes, etc.)	850 mL	9500 mL	10850 mL
Initial OD_{600}	0.1	0.1	0.3
Working Electrode Surface	20 cm^2	10000 cm^2	700 cm^2
Initial cell number per working electrode ratio	1.34 * 10^9 cm^{-2}	3.0 * 10^7 cm^{-2}	1.47 * 10^9 cm^{-2}

Fig. 3: Time series of selected OCT-derived height maps of the optimized cultivation of *K. spormannii* in the 10 L-RDBER. The same radial section has been visualized on the working electrode in each case in order to show the spatial distribution of the biofilm along the rotating working electrode. Colors are coded from black (0 mm) to white (80 μm). The calculated biovolumes (BV) of the subtrapezoids are shown below the height profiles.

The first visible biofilm structures formed after a lag phase of 8 days near the shaft, i.e. at

regions with comparatively low shear stress. A spatially resolved calculation of the local

biovolume clearly shows that BV decreases with larger radius towards the edge of the circular

blank. So, with an increased angular velocity of the substratum and therefore a higher flow

velocity over the biofilm, the biovolume of the *K. spormannii* biofilm is decreasing. After 24 days

BV reached the maximum values measured in the course of the experiment in all segments.

The maximum BV in the outer region of the cathode averaged 25 μm^3 μm^{-2}, only about a

quarter of the max BV of approximately 92.13 μm^3 μm^{-2} observed in the inner visualized region.

It should also be mentioned that in an abiotic control experiment, no growth-like precipitation

was detected on the cathodes after 24 days. The extent to which the biovolume can be used

to draw conclusions about the productivity (i.e., CO_2-fixation rate) of the *K. spormannii* biofilm

is not conclusive from this data. Nevertheless, it is known that compressed and denser biofilms

generally exhibit higher turnover rates, since more catalytically active biomass is present per

biovolume. At the same time, denser biofilm structures might hamper the diffusion of substrates

and products within the biofilm (de Beer et al., 1994; Horn and Morgenroth, 2006), whereas

the heterogeneity of the biofilm structure will also influence diffusion reaction (van den Berg et

al., 2020). Certainly, the increased shear force at increased angular velocity affects the biofilm

height to some extent as well. This effect may also be exploited in a future biotechnological

process. Thus, a fluctuating and short-term increase of the rotational speed could serve for an

optimal harvesting of the biomass from the substratum. In this way, the planktonic biomass

could be partially and discontinuously extracted from the reactor, creating a self-sustaining

system, since some of the detached cells can recolonize uncovered areas of the substratum.

In order to compare the results of the RDBER system with those of the previously published

flow cell experiments, calculated $\overline{BV}$ values were fitted by a logistic growth function ($R^2 = 0.98$):

$$\overline{BV} = 40.718 + \frac{(3.055 - 40.718)}{1 + \left(\frac{t}{17.765}\right)^{11.14}}$$

The course of the plotted values of $\overline{BV}$ shows a significantly longer lag phase compared to the

flow cell experiments. The highest biofilm accumulation rate of 6 μm^3 μm^{-2} d^{-1} was reached

between days 17 and 18 and was 45% lower compared to the flow cell experiments (see figure

6 in (Hackbarth et al., 2020)). Moreover, the maximal achieved mean biovolume in the RDBER

system was 42 μm^3 μm^{-2}, which accounted to around 25% of the max. mean biovolume in the

flow-cells. The highest coverage of 87% was reached on day 24, with $\overline{SC}$ not describing a

steeply increasing degressive course like in the flow-cell experiments, but a linear course until

the biofilm finally detached. The biofilm in the RDBER system thus showed a generally weaker

and slower growth per area of cathode surface. Notwithstanding, to our knowledge, this data

shows the first successful cultivation of an aerobic, electroautotrophic organism in a BES at

this scale (700 cm^{-2} working electrode). One of the reasons for the comparatively slow growth

of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER was probably the moderate, limited current density (3 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$)

- especially in contrast to the measured currents of the flow cell experiments (between 13 and

20 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$ at a constant working electrode potential of -500 mV vs. SHE). Although excessive

ROS production does not occur if the current density is too low, the biocatalyst may not have

enough electrons available for rapid and, above all, complete coverage of the substrate. Thus,

in future experiments, the maximum current density should be limited to that extent only during

the initial start-up phase and should also be increased as the surface coverage increases.

Fig. 4: Plot of calculated biofilm parameters of the optimized cathodic operation of the RDBER over time [mean biovolume ($\overline{BV}$), mean biofilm accumulation rate ($\overline{BV}^*$), and mean substrate coverage ($\overline{SC}$)].

In addition to the limitation of the electron donor, reduced substrate availability due to lower

solubility of the gaseous substrates at reduced pressure in the RDBER (0.5 bar) compared to

the flow cells (1.5 bar) has to be assumed. Indeed, in their computational model of a microbial

electrosynthesis process, Cabau-Peinado et al. demonstrated that CO_2 limitations can occur

and thus may play a role in low turnover rates of a MES system (Cabau-Peinado et al., 2021).

According to the manufacturer, the shaft seal of the titanium shaft in the rear flange is currently

the only tender spot that limits the maximum pressure in the system to 0.5 bar. Both the reactor

periphery and the entire reactor jacket can be pressurized to at least 1.5 bar. Therefore, future

reactor generations should incorporate a shaft seal in the rear bearing that is designed for

higher pressure ranges in order to assess the impact of the pressure on the biofilm

development in the RDBER. Another approach to reduce a possible substrate limitation may

also consist in operating the RDBER in a similar way to an RBC. Here, the reactor would be

only half filled with medium, while the gas phase - now present in the reactor chamber - would

be flushed with the substrate gases. The fixed film would then move periodically through a

highly concentrated CO_2 atmosphere. Furthermore, the actual influence of the HRT in relation

to the influence of the rotational speed of the working electrodes on the biofilm growth has to

be investigated experimentally in order to exclude a possible growth limitation due to a too low

substrate (carbon dioxide) and/or nutrient loading.

Based on these experiments, we were able to show that an RBC-like reactor is, in principle, a

feasible way to upscale the previously flow cell-based cultivation of *K. spormannii* for bioplastic

production from electricity and CO_2. Since the pumping power required for successful

cultivation of *K. spormannii* in an upscaled flow cell process would presumably render the

overall process quickly uneconomical, an RBC-like reactor might be an interesting option to

generate HRT independent crossflow velocities across the working electrode. Furthermore,

the cultivation experiments of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER highlighted the crucial role of the

start-up phase in aerobic MES processes. The impact of reactive oxygen species should not

be underestimated in the development of future MES processes. Therefore, for the necessary

development of targeted strategies, it is important to better understand the formation of reactive

oxygen species at cathodes under physiological conditions, as well as the different

detoxification mechanisms of electroautotrophic microorganisms.

3.2 Anodic operation as Microbial Electrolysis Cell

Following the successful cultivation of an electroautotrophic species in the RDBER, we used

the reactor to cultivate a defined coculture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter*

sulfurreducens. The experiments were performed as batch experiments with a full set of the

14 working electrodes (here anodes) with a total surface area of 1 m^2. Acetate and lactate

served as carbon source with an initial concentration of 20 mM each. The current density at a

constant working electrode potential of 0 mV vs. SHE was recorded over the experimental

course of roughly 9 days (see Fig 5). After an initial polarization phase of a few hours,

characterized by negative current densities most likely due to the depletion of residual oxygen

in the system, the current steadily increased until it peaked at 130 µA cm^{-2} after about 4 days.

Subsequently, the current density drops again to slowly decrease to about 90 µA cm^{-2} after

9 days. Almost uniform in shape runs the graph of the gas evolution rate recorded by means

of a MilliGascounter from the gas outlet of the RDBER. The hydrogen fraction in the outflowing

gas was examined regularly using a MicroGC and remained almost constant over the entire

experimental period (88.1 ± 1.2%). Daily liquid sampling of the reactor's broth was conducted

to determine the concentration of the organic acids via ion chromatography.

Fig. 5: Correlation of current density, gas evolution rate and substrate specific degradation rate with calculated biofilm parameters obtained during anodic operation of the RDBER. A coculture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens* was cultivated at a working electrode potential of 0 mV vs. SHE in a MEC-like operation. For a clearer representation, the graphs of current density and gas evolution rate were smoothed with an FFT filter. Raw data of organic acid concentrations, as well as the applied fits (displayed in color), are provided in the Supplementary Material.

The course of the concentration values over time was fitted and derived after time to obtain

the specific degradation rates for acetate and lactate, respectively (please refer to Fig. S2

material for original data and fit). In this context, it was important to consider that *Shewanella*

degrades one molecule of lactate into one molecule of acetate and CO_2 or formate. Since the

acetate concentration did not increase during the experiment, it was therefore assumed that

the acetate produced by *Shewanella* was directly metabolized by *Geobacter*. This was taken

into account when calculating the specific acetate degradation rate. Since both the peak in

current data, and in the gas production rate, correlate with the peak in acetate degradation rate

on day 4, these data clearly demonstrate that *Geobacter* is accounting for most of the current

production, as *Shewanella* is not capable of metabolizing acetate. The maximum degradation

rate for acetate was 5 mmol d^{-1} m^{-2} cathode surface and 1.5 mmol d^{-1} m^{-2} for lactate,

respectively. Regular OCT scans of a radial anode section provided the basis for calculating

$\overline{BV}$ and $\overline{SC}$. Figure 5 shows the mean biofilm accumulation rate ($\overline{BV}^*$) derived from a logarithmic

fit through the calculated $\overline{BV}$ values ($R^2 = 0.99$):

$$\overline{BV} = 0.343 + \frac{14.646 - 0.343}{1 + 10^{(4.083-t) * 0.404}}$$

The highest biofilm accumulation rate of almost 3 μm^3 μm^{-2} d^{-1} is likewise reached after about

4 days. Again, based on the correlations with the degradation rate, conclusions can be drawn

that *Geobacter* cells appear to be the predominant species in the biofilm. This is also consistent

with the literature findings that attribute rather modest biofilm capabilities to *Shewanella*

compared to *Geobacter* (Engel et al., 2019). After 9 days the anodic biofilm covered around

90% of the observed working electrode surface. Interestingly, the mean surface coverage does

not increase linearly as in the cathodic cultivation experiments of *K. spormannii*, but rather

logarithmically. Hence, it can be concluded that the growth pattern seen in the cathodic

experiments is not so much an intrinsic phenomenon of the RDBER, but probably due to the

abiotic formation of ROS on uncovered cathodes described above. On the other hand, or in

addition, this distinct growth pattern could also be the consequence of a synergistic effect

between the two microorganisms *S. oneidensis* and *G. sulfurreducens* (Engel et al., 2019).

Comparing the performance of the RDBER with other single-chamber upscaling attempts of

MECs, it is apparent on the one hand that there is still room for improvement in terms of current

densities (up to 130 µA cm^{-2} in this study), but on the other hand the excellent surface to reactor

volume ratio (100 m^2 m^{-3}) of the RDBER is worth emphasizing (see Table 2). Although this

reached maximum current density is higher than those measured by Huang et al. or by Cotterill

et al. (60 µA cm^{-2} and 79 µA cm^{-2} respectively), Wang and colleagues were able to realize

tenfold higher current densities using glucose-containing medium, than those achieved in the

RDBER (Cotterill et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). Furthermore, this value

was surpassed again significantly by the current densities reported by Singh et al. (3400 µA

cm^{-2}) (Singh et al., 2021). However, when comparing current densities, it is important to keep

in mind that in most MEC studies a constant voltage is applied to the anode and cathode by

means of a simple power supply, whereas in our study a potentiometric control of the working

electrode potential by means of a potentiostat was used to operate the RDBER. Although a

potentiostat allows reproducible electrochemical conditions to be generated, the current

densities achieved may be lower than with power supply operation.

Regarding the gas production of the RDBER as another crucial criterion for assessing reactor

performance, a maximum hydrogen production rate of 0.43 L L^{-1} d^{-1} (volume hydrogen per

reactor volume and day) was achieved on day four. Compared to other single-chamber

upscaling attempts, this value is up to several orders of magnitude higher than most of the

previously achieved rates (Cotterill et al., 2017; Cusick et al., 2011; Gil-Carrera et al., 2013;

Park et al., 2022). Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that some of these studies were

conducted using real wastewater as substrate, which generally has lower substrate loading

than the synthetic medium used in this study (Cotterill et al., 2017; Cusick et al., 2011; Gil-

Carrera et al., 2013). However, under the selected process conditions, the hydrogen

production rate achieved with the RDBER does not approach the rates achieved by Wang et

al. and Singh et al. (1.67 and 5.9 L L^{-1} d^{-1}, respectively) (Singh et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021).

Finally, when evaluating the discussed performance parameters, it should be noted that the

experiments conducted here are only short-term batch tests to validate the functionality of the

system. The above studies were conducted in a continuous operating mode for a significantly
longer period of time, up to several months, allowing a more productive biofilm to grow on the
working electrode over the longer cultivation period. In addition, the ion chromatographic data
also indicate that the biofilm may have already reached a degree of substrate limitation (Fig.
S2). Furthermore, it can be assumed that the optimal speed of the working electrodes will have
to be determined specifically for each future application of the RDBER and thus for each
specific microbial community. Although the comparability of the studies listed in Table 2 proves
to be difficult to some extent, since other fundamental parameters (e.g., temperature, pH,
electrode materials, electrochemical operating conditions, carbon source and loading rate,
HRT, and the microbial community) may differ significantly in addition to the reactor system
itself, it nevertheless appears that the RDBER - especially if reactor performance is further
enhanced - can compete quite well alongside with existing MEC reactor concepts.

615 Table 2: Comparison of RDBER performance with other up-scaled single-chamber MECs in the

616 literature.

Reference	Volume [L]	WE Material	WE Surface [m²]	WE Surface to Volume Ratio [m² m⁻³]	Operation Mode	Substrate	Max. H₂ production rate [L_{H2} L_R⁻¹ d⁻¹]	Max. current density [µA cm⁻²]
(Rader and Logan, 2010)	2.5	graphite brushes	-	-	continuous	acetate	0.53	-
(Cusick et al., 2011)	1100	graphite brushes	16.5	15	continuous (HRT 24 h)	winery wastewater	0.19	700
(Gil-Carrera et al., 2013)	10	carbon felt	-	-	continuous (HRT 10 h)	municipal wastewater	0.05	-
(Huang et al., 2019)	40	graphite felt	-	18	continuous (HRT 48 h)	24 mM acetate	0.0039	60
(Wang et al., 2021)	10	carbon cloth	0.42	42	continuous (HRT 62 h)	5 g L⁻¹ Glucose	1.67	1370
(Cotterill et al., 2017)	175	graphite felt	34	16.4	continuous (HRT 5 h)	domestic wastewater	0.012	79
(Singh et al., 2021)	10	carbon cloths	1	100	continuous (HRT 12/34 h)	50 mM Acetate 2 g L⁻¹ Glucose	5.9	3400
This study	10	graphite discs	1	100	batch (10 days)	20 mM acetate 20 mM lactate	0.43	130

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, the study aimed on the design of a novel, scalable electrochemical reactor
concept that meets the requirements of biotechnological pure culture cultivations. During the
construction of the single-chamber system, emphasis was laid on a long operating lifetime and
low-maintenance operation. The successful cultivation of different electroactive model
organisms, both in anodic and cathodic operation, prove on the one hand the basic functionality
of the system. On the other hand, we were able to demonstrate that an increase in the working
electrode area is not only possible by numbering up individual small reactor systems, as is
often the case for METs. Although the experiments discussed here suggest that the RDBER
might be a viable reactor concept, in particular for specific niche processes like the aerobic,
microbial electrosynthesis, there should be no doubt that more data from long-term studies

under optimized and continuous operating conditions are needed to reliably evaluate the performance of the RDBER compared to other reactor concepts. However, we think that if microbial electrochemical technologies are to become truly competitive, a greater range of creative reactor designs that can be scaled up without excessive numbering-up is necessary. A further scale-up of the RDBER is conceivable as well: While the diameter of the electrode discs is limited mainly by the angular velocity at the outer edge, the shaft can be extended (and equipped with more electrodes) until it is unable to statically support its own weight.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Max Hackbarth: Investigation, Conceptualization, Methodology, Visualization. **Johannes Gescher:** Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. **Harald Horn:** Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. **Johannes Eberhard**

Reiner: Investigation, Conceptualization, Methodology, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft

& Editing.

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