

Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0960-8524(16)31703-5
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2016.12.035>
Reference: BITE 17411

To appear in: *Bioresource Technology*

Received Date: 16 September 2016
Revised Date: 8 December 2016
Accepted Date: 9 December 2016

Please cite this article as: Puig, S., Ganigué, R., Batlle-Vilanova, P., Dolors Balaguer, M., Bañeras, L., Colprim, J., Tracking bio-hydrogen-mediated production of commodity chemicals from carbon dioxide and renewable electricity, *Bioresource Technology* (2016), doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2016.12.035>

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Tracking bio-hydrogen-mediated production of commodity chemicals from carbon dioxide and renewable electricity

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20 **Abstract**

21 This study reveals that reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂) to commodity chemicals can
22 be functionally compartmentalized in bioelectrochemical systems. In the present
23 example, a syntrophic consortium composed by H₂-producers (*Rhodobacter* sp.) in the
24 biofilm is combined with carboxidotrophic *Clostridium* species, mainly found in the bulk
25 liquid. The performance of these H₂-mediated electricity-driven systems could be
26 tracked by the activity of a biological H₂ sensory protein identified at cathode potentials
27 between -0.2V and -0.3V vs SHE. This seems to point out that such signal is not strain
28 specific, but could be detected in any organism containing hydrogenases. Thus, the
29 findings of this work open the door to the development of a biosensor application or
30 soft sensors for monitoring such systems.

31

32

33 **Keywords:** bioelectrochemical systems; biofuels; CO₂ transformation; white biotechnology.

34

1. Introduction

Biological production of added-value products from carbon dioxide (CO₂) and renewable electricity is a promising approach to recycle a greenhouse gas into carbon-neutral commodity chemicals. However, this remains a nascent concept with limited proof-of-concept studies using either pure bacterial cultures (Nevin et al., 2011, 2010; Tremblay and Zhang, 2015) or mixed populations (Bajracharya et al., 2015; Batlle-Vilanova et al., 2016; Ganigué et al., 2015; Jourdin et al., 2015b, 2014; Kuroda and Watanabe, 1995; Marshall et al., 2013b, 2012, Mohanakrishna et al., 2016, 2015; Patil et al., 2015).

The production of H₂, either biological or electrocatalytic, plays a key role in H₂-mediated biological production as it governs the availability of reducing power, and thus the transformation of CO₂ to organic products (Agler et al., 2011; Blanchet et al., 2015). Recently, the role of H₂ as a mediator has been highlighted. Jourdin and co-workers showed biologically induced H₂ production at -0.85 V vs SHE and further utilisation by acetogens within the biofilm (Jourdin et al., 2016). In a second study, Blanchet et al. poised the cathode at two different potentials (-0.36 and -0.66 V vs SHE) to test the effect of H₂ in biological production of carbon-based commodities. Acetogenic activity was only observed at -0.66 V vs SHE, demonstrating the importance of H₂ as intermediate of biological production of carbon-based commodities (Blanchet et al., 2015). To date, acetate is the main product of bioelectrocatalysed reduction of CO₂. Recently, Ganigué and co-workers proved that butyrate and small amounts of ethanol and butanol can be produced using CO₂ as a sole carbon substrate (Ganigué et al., 2015). In the latter work, acetate was the initial product, and butyrate accumulation was observed three days after. Later on, the high concentrations of organic acids, low

fermentation pH, and the increase of available reducing power presumably led to the re-assimilation of acetate and butyrate and their conversion into ethanol and butanol.

As of today, continuous research efforts have allowed to characterize the different electron transfer mechanisms in bioanodes and to understand their function. However, little is known on the electron-transfer mechanisms in biological production of commodity chemicals from CO₂. In this work, we have characterized electrochemically and microbiologically different H₂-mediated electricity-driven systems for CO₂ capture and transformation into added value compounds (acetate, butyrate, ethanol and butanol) with the aim of providing a deeper understanding of these systems, and particularly on how electrons flow from a solid-state cathode to a terminal electron acceptor.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Bioelectrochemical systems

Four identical 240 mL two-chambered H-type bioelectrochemical systems (BES) were used in this study. Table S1 compares the maximum commodity chemicals produced in these systems. The differences between product concentrations and spectrum could be related to slight differences in the operational conditions applied (pH₂, CO₂ feast-famine conditions and pH). In all cases, anodic and cathodic chambers were separated by a cationic exchange membrane (CMI-7000, Membranes International Inc., USA), and maintained in constant stirring to avoid mass transfer limitations. Sampling ports and electrodes were housed in gas-tight butyl-rubber septa closing both anode and cathode compartments. Titanium rod (Ti plus 50 g·m⁻² Pt, Magneto, The Netherlands) and carbon graphite (9 cm², NuVant's ELAT[®] LT2400W, FuelCellsEtc, USA) were used as anode and cathode electrodes, respectively. Net anodic and cathodic compartments

85 volumes were both set to 100 mL. BES were covered with aluminium foil throughout
 86 the experiment to prevent phototrophic activity.
 87 Biocathodes were inoculated using 5 mL of an enriched carboxydophilic mixed culture
 88 grown on syngas (32% CO, 32% H₂, 8% CO₂ and 28% N₂) in a lab-scale reactor. This
 89 mixed culture exhibited a sustained production of C₂ and C₄ organic acids and
 90 alcohols (Ganigué et al., 2015). The inoculum was dominated by species of the genus
 91 *Clostridium*: *C. carboxidivorans*/ *C. ragsdalei*/ *C. kluyveri*. A synthetic medium containing
 92 2-bromoethanesulfonate to inhibit methanogenesis was used in both anode and
 93 cathode (Ganigué et al., 2015). The synthetic medium was prepared with deionised
 94 water and contained per litre: 1 g KH₂PO₄, 1 g NaCl, 0.25 g NH₄Cl, 0.25 g MgOH, 0.1 g
 95 KCl, 0.03 g CaCl₂. Additionally, 1 mL·L⁻¹ of trace metal solution (concentration per litre:
 96 20 g nitrilotriacetic acid, 10 g MnSO₄·H₂O, 8 g Fe(SO₄)₂(NH₄)₂·6H₂O, 2 g CoCl₂·6H₂O, 0.2 g
 97 CuCl₂·2H₂O, 0.2 g NiCl₂·2H₂O, 0.2 g Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O, 0.2 g Na₂SeO₄, 0.2 g Na₂WO₄, 2 mg
 98 ZnSO₄·7H₂O), and 1 mL·L⁻¹ of vitamin solution (concentration per litre: 100 mg
 99 Pyridoxine hydrochloride, 50 mg Thiamine hydrochloride, 50 mg Riboflavin, 50 mg
 100 Nicotinic acid, 50 mg DL-Calcium pantothenate, 50 mg p-Aminobenzoic acid, 50 mg
 101 Thioic acid, 20 mg Biotin, 20 mg Folic acid, 1 mg Vitamin B12), were added to the
 102 medium.
 103
 104 The temperature of all BES was maintained at 34±1°C, and no pH control was applied.
 105 Pure CO₂ (Praxair, Spain) was sparged regularly every 2-3 days for a period of 5 minutes
 106 to warrant substrate availability. This sparging time ensured saturation of dissolved
 107 carbon (at 34°C, concentration at saturation is 26.9 mM C-CO₂) as assayed regularly in
 108 control set-ups. Liquid samples (10 mL) were taken periodically (thrice a week, on
 109 average) from both anodes and cathodes for the monitoring of the concentration of

110 products and pH. The volume withdrawn was replaced with freshly prepared mineral
111 medium.

112

113 2.2 Electrochemical instrumentation

114 A 5-channel potentiostat (BioLogic, Model VSP, France) was connected to the BES.
115 Software from the same producer (EC-Lab v10.37) was used to run simultaneous
116 multitechnique electrochemistry routines, which included chronoamperometry (CA),
117 cyclic voltammetry (CV) and differential pulse voltammetry (DPV). A cathode potential
118 (E_{cat}) of -0.8 V vs. SHE was used for CA. This potential was set at -0.8V vs. SHE to drive
119 bioelectrocatalyzed reduction through H_2 , following a similar strategy as that reported
120 in recent publications (Bajracharya et al., 2015; Jourdin et al., 2015b; Marshall et al.,
121 2013a; Patil et al., 2015). The cathodic potential was monitored with an Ag/AgCl
122 reference electrode (0.197 V vs. SHE), model RE-5B BASi, United Kingdom). The
123 parameters for CV were as follows: scan rate: 1 mV/s; E_i = -0.8 V vs. SHE; E_f = 0.0 V vs.
124 SHE. Four CV cycles were performed in each routine, but only data from the last cycle is
125 shown. The parameters for DPV were as follows: E_{initial} (E_i) = 0.0 V vs. SHE and E_{final} (E_f) = -
126 0.8 V vs. SHE; pulse height: 50 mV; pulse width: 300 ms; step height: 1 mV; step time:
127 1,000 ms; scan rate: 1 mV/s; current averaged over the last 20% of the step (1 s, 300
128 points). DPV and CV data were analysed with SOAS software (Fourmond et al., 2009) to
129 identify the oxidation and reduction peaks.

130

131 2.3 Microcosms based experimentation

132 To further characterize the electrotrophic activity of the biocathode community,
133 different experiments were carried out in four tailor-made single-chamber BES
134 (microcosms) as described in Pous et al. (Pous et al., 2014). Each microcosm, with a final
135 working volume of 14 mL, was composed of a graphite rod (Sofacel, Spain) with a

136 projected surface area of 7.85 cm² as a working electrode, a platinum wire as a counter
137 electrode and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode (model RE-5B BASi, United Kingdom). The
138 microcosms were also covered with aluminium foil throughout the experiment to
139 prevent phototrophic activity.

140

141 Two sets of experiments were carried out using a pure culture of *Rhodobacter*
142 *capsulatus* (DSM1710) and mixed cultures from BES 3 and 4. These experiments had
143 two aims: i) to demonstrate that a defined *Rhodobacter* culture could produce
144 hydrogen at the cathode and ii) to assign a role of the unidentified redox peak observed
145 in the electrochemical characterization of these systems. The working electrode of each
146 microcosm was operated chronoamperometrically at -0.8 V vs. SHE, the same cathode
147 potential poised at the parents BES. Pure CO₂ was flushed regularly every 2-3 days for 5
148 minutes to ensure substrate availability. Once a stable reductive current density was
149 reached, broth was replaced with fresh medium to remove planktonic cells and to
150 ensure observations were related only to the biofilm activity.

151 Experiments with a pure culture of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (DSM1710) were
152 performed. Cultures were obtained from DSMZ (www.dsmz.de) and maintained at
153 recommended culturing conditions using mineral media DSM27 and ATCC1704 media.
154 Active cultures at early exponential conditions in 10 mL liquid media were used as
155 inocula for microcosm experiments. *Rhodobacter capsulatus* was inoculated and tested
156 for H₂ production and electroactive properties. Once the role of *Rhodobacter sp* was
157 elucidated, two microcosms were started-up using 5 mL of inoculum from the BES 3 and
158 4 cathodes and 9 mL of fresh medium were sequentially tested in dark-light transient
159 conditions to assess the activity of the Photosystem I. The microcosm was exposed 24
160 hours to illumination using a light-emitting diode (LED) (6.5W, 320lm, 50-60Hz, OSRAM
161 42706).

162

163 *2.4 Analyses*

164 The concentration of organic acids (acetate and butyrate) and alcohols (ethanol and
 165 butanol) were analysed using an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent, USA)
 166 equipped with a DB-FFAP column and a flame ionisation detector. The composition of
 167 the gas phase was analysed with an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (GC) equipped
 168 with an HP-Molesieve column and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) to detect H₂,
 169 oxygen, nitrogen, methane, carbon monoxide and CO₂. The pH and conductivity were
 170 regularly measured from both effluents (pH-Meter Basic 20⁺, EC-Meter Basic 20⁺, Crison
 171 Instruments, Spain).

172

173 *2.5 Determination of bacterial community structure*

174 Bacterial communities from biofilm and bulk liquid samples were taken at day 36 of BES
 175 4 and analyzed using conventional molecular methods. All four BES had the same
 176 inoculum. Samples were taken from BES 4 which produced carboxylates and alcohols
 177 (Table S1). Samples were collected aseptically using basic microbiological precautions in
 178 a continuous CO₂ from the biocathode. DNA was extracted using the FastDNA[®] SPIN kit
 179 for soils (MP, Biomedicals) following exactly manufacturer's instructions. DNA from
 180 biofilms was extracted directly from 0.5 cm² (projected surface) of carbon cloth. DNA of
 181 suspended cells was extracted from pelleted 4 mL samples. A preliminary PCR-DGGE
 182 analysis of samples was performed using the V3-V5 hypervariable region of the 16S
 183 rRNA gene as described previously (Prat et al., 2009; Vilajeliu-Pons et al., 2015) to check
 184 for differences among replicates.

185

186 Four replicates were selected for the analysis of the V1-V3 variable region of the 16S
 187 rRNA gene of Bacteria. Amplicons were obtained using the D88 (5'-

188 GAGAGTTTGATYMTGGCTCAG-3') and R519 (5'-ACCGCGGCTGCTGGCAC-3') universal
 189 primers. Barcodes and Illumina adaptors were fused to primers. Sequences were
 190 obtained with the Illumina MiSeq platform (paired-end method PE300) using
 191 conventionally adapted protocols. Sequencing was performed by DNA Vision (Gosselies,
 192 Belgium). Paired end sequences were joined and refined using QIIME (Quantitative
 193 Insights Into Microbial Ecology, v. 1.9.0) software package (Caporaso et al., 2010) with
 194 default parameters. Minimum sequence quality was set to q28 and only sequences with
 195 a minimum overlapping fragment of 25 bp were considered. A homogenous subset of
 196 sequences, corresponding to the lower number of sequences found in a single sample,
 197 was randomly obtained for each sample and used for comparisons. All comparisons
 198 between samples and taxonomic assignments were made using an Operational
 199 Taxonomic Unit (OTU) based approach at a similarity cutoff level of 97% (roughly at the
 200 species level). OTUs having less than 10 sequences were discarded from the analysis.
 201 Representative sequences for each OTU were assigned taxonomically using either
 202 QIIME (Green Genes dataset release gg_13_5_otus), or after Blast searches at the NCBI.

203

204 **3. Results and discussion**

205 *3.1 Structure of the electrosynthetic microbiome*

206 The microbial community of the biocathode had a rather low diversity with few clearly
 207 dominant phylotypes both at the biofilm and the bulk liquid samples (Shanon's diversity
 208 index < 2.0). A total of 48,263 sequences were distributed selectively according to the
 209 sample type in 69 OTUs containing at least ten sequences. More than 80% of sequences
 210 (38,720 sequences) distributed in only ten OTUs, thus reinforcing the low diversity of
 211 the microbial community. This situation revealed a low functional redundancy in the
 212 BES, most likely related to the limited range of incubation conditions applied to the
 213 system (Konopka, 2009). Sequences were distributed mostly within the *Proteobacteria*

214 (65.9% of sequences) and the *Firmicutes* (29.8%) both in the bulk liquid and the biofilm
 215 samples. However, significant differences of the microbial community structure
 216 between the two sample types were observed at lower taxonomic levels (Weighted
 217 Unifrac test, $p < 0.001$, Figure 1). *Proteobacteria* distributed mainly within the
 218 *Alphaproteobacteria* in the biofilm sample but not in the bulk media, where
 219 *Betaproteobacteria*, specifically the *Rhodocyclales*, appeared as the dominant
 220 population. *Clostridiales* were the most abundant *Firmicutes* in both sample types.
 221
 222 Highly represented phylotypes of both sample types revealed interesting differences at
 223 the genus and species level that suggested a functional compartmentalization of the
 224 cathode cell (Table 1). Interestingly, highly differentiated populations in terms of
 225 relative abundance between the two cell compartments included potentially
 226 autotrophic bacteria representatives. Alphaproteobacteria accumulated in the cathode
 227 surface, forming thick layers of low-diversity biofilms expanding over several
 228 micrometres on top of the carbon cloth (Figure S1). All alphaproteobacteria belonged to
 229 the Rhodobacteraceae and distributed in nine different OTUs. Eight of them,
 230 representing almost all alphaproteobacterial sequences found in the biofilm sample
 231 (99.8%), showed a high similarity to either *Paenirhodobacter enshiensis* DW2-9^T (97.4%)
 232 or *Rhodobacter capsulatus* SB1003 (96.8%). Unfortunately, no clear differentiation
 233 between the two species could be obtained with the available sequence data.
 234 *Rhodobacter* species and other Purple Nonsulfur Bacteria (PNB) have been proven as H₂
 235 producers in anoxic conditions (Lubner et al., 2010). Net hydrogen production in
 236 *Rhodobacter* sp. is mainly due to its nitrogenase activity and is essentially driven by light
 237 through photosystem I (Smith, 2002). *Paenirhodobacter enshiensis* DW2-9^T has recently
 238 been described as a non-pigmented cell within the Rhodobacteraceae. Unfortunately,
 239 hydrogen production through nitrogenase activity has not been reported for this

species so far, but it is unlikely to occur via nitrogenase activity since no homologs of *nifH*, *nifD* and *nifK* (the structural genes for nitrogen fixation) can be found in the complete genome draft sequence (Wang et al., 2015). Autotrophic *Firmicutes*, namely *Clostridium ljungdahlii* and *Clostridium autoethanogenum* in view of 16S rRNA gene similarity, showed a completely different distribution and accumulated almost exclusively in the bulk liquid. Carboxydotrophic clostridia can fix CO and/or CO₂ into organic molecules through the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (Köpke et al., 2010), and excrete organic acids and alcohols as fermentation products. An external source of reducing power, hydrogen or carbon monoxide in conventional syngas fermentation is required for conversion of CO₂ as the sole carbon source (Köpke et al., 2010). Based on the relative abundance of carboxydotrophs in both bulk liquid and biofilm, it is plausible to assume that in the present system, autotrophic conversion of CO₂ to organic matter may take place preferably in the bulk liquid, and not in direct contact with the cathode surface. However, the latter cannot be completely excluded as *C. ljungdahlii*, which has been proven to produce C₂ and small amounts of C₄ electrotrrophically (Nevin et al., 2011), was also detected in biofilm samples.

3.2 Electrochemical characterization

Turnover cyclic voltammetries (CV) and differential pulse voltammetries (DPV) were used to characterise electrochemically the BES capable to reduce CO₂ to organic acids and alcohols. Figure 2 depicts two representative CVs under turnover conditions (in the presence of CO₂), an abiotic control carried out before inoculation of bacteria, and a second one in which C₂ and C₄ organic acids and small amounts of alcohols were produced. Two redox pairs (differing significantly from the abiotic control) were

identified, one at -0.55 V vs SHE and the second one at -0.24V vs SHE. The redox pair at -0.55V vs SHE is typically observed in H₂-producing biocathodes, in which the biofilm catalyses this reduction, decreasing the important energy losses associated to the catalytic hydrogen production (Batlle-Vilanova et al., 2014).

270

The second redox pair was identified at a formal potential of -0.244 V vs SHE at pH 4.63. The anodic (E_{pA}) and cathodic (E_{pC}) peak potentials were -0.230 and -0.259 V vs SHE, respectively. The peak separation ($\Delta E_p = E_{pA} - E_{pC}$) may allow the identification of the mass-transfer regime (Harnisch and Freguia, 2012), and is often used as a criterion to identify a reversible processes and fast charge exchange (Rieger, 1994). For reversible redox couples controlled by diffusive mass transfer, the anodic and cathodic peak potentials difference, ΔE_p , is always $0.059/z$ V at 25°C, where z is the number of electrons transferred in the half-reaction. The experimental ΔE_p was calculated as 0.028 ± 0.005 V ($n=10$). According to a temperature-corrected ΔE_p of $0.061/z$ at 34°C, 2 electrons were theoretically exchanged in this redox pair. A complementary calculation of the number of electrons and protons exchanged in the reaction was done following the methodology proposed by Bard and Faulkner (Bard and Faulkner, 2011), and resulted in the involvement of 2 electrons and 1 proton.

284

285 *3.3 Relation between the redox pairs and the end-products*

DPV with small-amplitude pulses characterization offers better sensitivities compared to normal pulse voltammetry (Bard and Faulkner, 2011), and were used to further characterize the redox peak appearing at -0.244 V vs SHE. The correlation between pH-value and the half-wave potential (Figure 3A), and between pH and peak intensity of the half-wave potential (Figure 3B) was analysed experimentally. Results showed that the formal potential of the redox-active pair was shifted towards a more positive value

292 with decreasing pH. The slope of the graph $E_{1/2}$ vs pH was -0.049 V per pH unit, close to
 293 the theoretical value (0.061 V at 34°C). This shift in the formal potential demonstrated
 294 that the observed reduction reaction was proton dependent. The intensity of the half-
 295 wave potential decreased at lower pHs from close to 0 A at pH 7 to $-1500 \cdot 10^{-6}$ A at pH 5
 296 (Figure 3B), suggesting that electrotrophic activity was enhanced at lower pH values.
 297 Figure 4 shows four representative DPVs obtained at different time points during the
 298 experimental period, and at which CO₂ reduction yielded different end-products
 299 (acetate, butyrate, ethanol and butanol). In all cases the reduction peak appeared at
 300 around -0.24V vs SHE, shifting to more negative values at lower cathode pHs (Figure
 301 3A). The peak was barely visible at the beginning of the experiment, when the
 302 concentration of products in the broth was negligible, but it became clearly visible
 303 when the production of organic acids and small amounts of alcohols started in the BES
 304 (B, C and D). The intensity (area) of the peak increased as the cells produced longer
 305 carbon-chain molecules and alcohols indicating higher levels of activity. It was, thus,
 306 hypothesized that the redox peak area could be related to distinct metabolic reactions.
 307
 308 The comparison of the formal potential observed experimentally to the reduction
 309 potential of several primary cofactors potentially involved in CO₂ transformation
 310 pathways (Table 2) suggested that NADH and/or NADPH ($E = -0.265$ V and -0.269 V vs
 311 SHE at 34°C and pH 5, respectively) could be involved in the reduction reactions
 312 observed in the BES. NAD(P)H are biological electron carriers that play an important
 313 role in maintaining the intracellular redox balance, and contribute to homeostasis in
 314 microorganisms (Wang et al., 2013). These are intracellular cofactors and cannot be
 315 detected using CVs and DPVs. However, NAD(P)H are involved in the different H₂
 316 producing reaction in *Rhodobacter sp* (Lubner et al., 2010; Shafaat et al., 2013;

Swierczek et al., 2010; Tikhonov, 2014) , in photosystem, nitrogenases and hydrogenases complexes.

319

Rhodobacter sp. typically have a group of hydrogenases and nitrogenases capable of catalysing a reversible reduction of protons to hydrogen (Friedrich et al., 2011; Geelhoed et al., 2010; Shafaat et al., 2013). In strictly anaerobic bacteria, Fd_{red} , NADH, and cytochromes are the electron donors for the reduction of protons (Geelhoed et al., 2010). These cofactors have similar reduction potentials to the redox pair experimentally observed.

326

327

3.4 Electrotrophy in bio- H_2 -mediated electricity-driven systems

Batch experiments were conducted in microcosms to gain further insights on the nature and role of the unidentified redox peak. Each microcosm was inoculated using either a pure culture of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* or fermentation broth from the cathodes of BES 3 and 4, respectively and poised at -0.8 V vs SHE.

Two microcosms experiments with a pure culture of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* were done to demonstrate that a defined *Rhodobacter* sp could produce hydrogen at the cathode using electrons as electron donor. The electroactive properties of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* were confirmed just after inoculation with concomitant current demand.

The electrons from the cathode electrode were taken by *Rhodobacter capsulatus* to enhance the production of H_2 at a rate of $18.87 \text{ mmols } H_2 \cdot L^{-1} \cdot d^{-1}$ (coulombic efficiency: 60%).

340

Further electrochemical characterization (Figure 5) proved that the biofilm evolved to a biological H_2 producing system. Moreover, the unidentified redox peak previously

343 observed in bioelectrochemical systems (Figure 4) also appeared shifted because of the
344 pH difference. However, the low signal (area) observed associated to the low
345 concentration of biomass present in these microcosms did not enabled further
346 characterization of this pair. For this reason, experiments with mixed population from
347 the BES 3 and 4 with higher biomass concentration were done.

348

349 CVs in mixed cultures microcosms were also performed before inoculation and after 95
350 hours of operation, once stable reductive current densities were reached (Figure S2).
351 The redox pair between -0.2 and -0.3 V vs SHE was observed just after inoculation. The
352 subsequent medium replacement to remove planktonic cells did not alter the
353 characteristics of the redox peak, clearly indicating that this was linked to direct
354 transfer of electrons from the solid state electrode to the cells firmly attached to the
355 electrode and excluding any signal from an excreted metabolite. In this respect, the
356 biocathodic biofilm was subsequently exposed to different conditions to elucidate if the
357 observed peak could be related to photosystem, nitrogenases or hydrogenases
358 activities.

359

360 The hypothesis that the peak was linked to the activity of the photosystem was tested
361 in a microcosm by assessing the response of the biofilm to dark-light transient
362 conditions. Results of DPVs (Figure 6) did not show any differences in the expression of
363 the redox peak after exposing it to natural light or artificial light (320 lumens) for at
364 least 24 hours, proving that H₂ producing was not light dependent. These results agree
365 with the presence of *Paenirhodobacter* like bacteria in the cathode. *P. enshiensis* lacks
366 photosynthetic membrane structures and pigments and grows chemoheterotrophically,
367 while all *Rhodobacter* species known so far are photosynthetic (Wang et al., 2014).

368

Therefore, this redox pair could be related to the activity of nitrogenases and/or hydrogenases in *Rhodobacter* species. Phototrophs can also produce hydrogen through nitrogenases (Geelhoed et al., 2010), although and reduction of protons to H₂ by a nitrogenase will only take place in the absence of nitrogen or as a by-product of nitrogen fixation (Rivera-Ortiz and Burris, 1975; Smith, 2002). However, the medium used in this test contained ammonium, being this hypothesis unlikely. Duché et al., described that *Rhodobacter capsulatus* has another class of soluble, nonstandard [NiFe] hydrogenases (Duché et al., 2005). This membrane bound hydrogenase is the sensory or regulatory hydrogenase (RH). These proteins contain an active site similar to the Standard [NiFe] hydrogenases, exhibit high binding affinities for H₂, which allows them to mediate H₂-dependent signal transduction (Lubitz et al., 2014). However, these enzymes exhibit extremely low levels of activity, approximately 100-fold lower than the metabolic hydrogenases. Under reducing conditions or in the presence of hydrogen, the RH interacts as a homodimer with a histidine protein kinase for downstream regulation of metabolic hydrogenase protein transcription.

This [NiFe]-hydrogenase was also described by Bernhard and co-workers (Bernhard et al., 2001) as an H₂ sensor in the proteobacterium *Ralstonia eutropha*. The detection of physiologically important gases such as H₂ by organisms is mediated by biological sensors that convert the molecular signal into a cellular response (Bernhard et al., 2001). This signal could be used to track the performance of a bio-H₂-mediated production of commodity chemicals from CO₂ and renewable electricity. This redox pair signal reported in this study was also observed by others researchers (Jourdin et al., 2016, 2015a; Sharma et al., 2013) in autotrophic hydrogen-producing biofilms. Those biofilms were mainly composed by *Proteobacteria*; *Betaproteobacteria*; *Rhodocyclales* and *Rhodocyclaceae* detected in 16S rRNA analysis (Jourdin et al., 2015a) or

395 *Curvibacter*, *Deltaproteobacteria*, *Desulfovibrionales*, *Desulfobacteraceae* and
396 *Syntrophobacteraceae* characterized by Fluorescence in Situ Hybridization. This seems
397 to point out that such signal is not strain specific, but could be detected in any organism
398 containing a hydrogenase. Thus, the findings of this work open the door to the
399 development of a biosensor application or soft sensors for monitoring such systems.

400

401 **4. Conclusions**

402 This study reveals: i) a syntrophic consortium in which an electro-active cathodic biofilm
403 composed mainly by *Rhodobacter* sp. reduces protons to hydrogen, which is uptaken by
404 the planktonic cells (i.e. *Clostridium* sp.) to reduce carbon dioxide to organic acids and
405 small amounts of alcohols; ii) *Rhodobacter* sp. could produce H₂ from the cathode
406 electrode; and iii) the performance of H₂-mediated electricity-driven systems could be
407 tracked by the activity of a biological H₂ sensory protein in *Rhodobacter* sp. identified at
408 cathode potentials between -0.2 V and -0.3 V vs SHE.

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412 **Acknowledgements**

413 The authors would like to thank the Spanish Ministry (CTQ2014-53718-R and CTM2013-
414 43454-R) and the University of Girona (MPCUdG2016/137) for their financial support.
415 LEQUIA and IEA have been recognised as consolidated research groups by the Catalan
416 Government (2014-SGR-1168, and 2014-SGR-484). R.G. gratefully acknowledges
417 support from Ghent University BOF postdoctoral fellowship (BOF15/PDO/068). P.B-V
418 gratefully acknowledges the Catalan Government for the pre-doctoral grant received
419 (2015FI-B2 00076).

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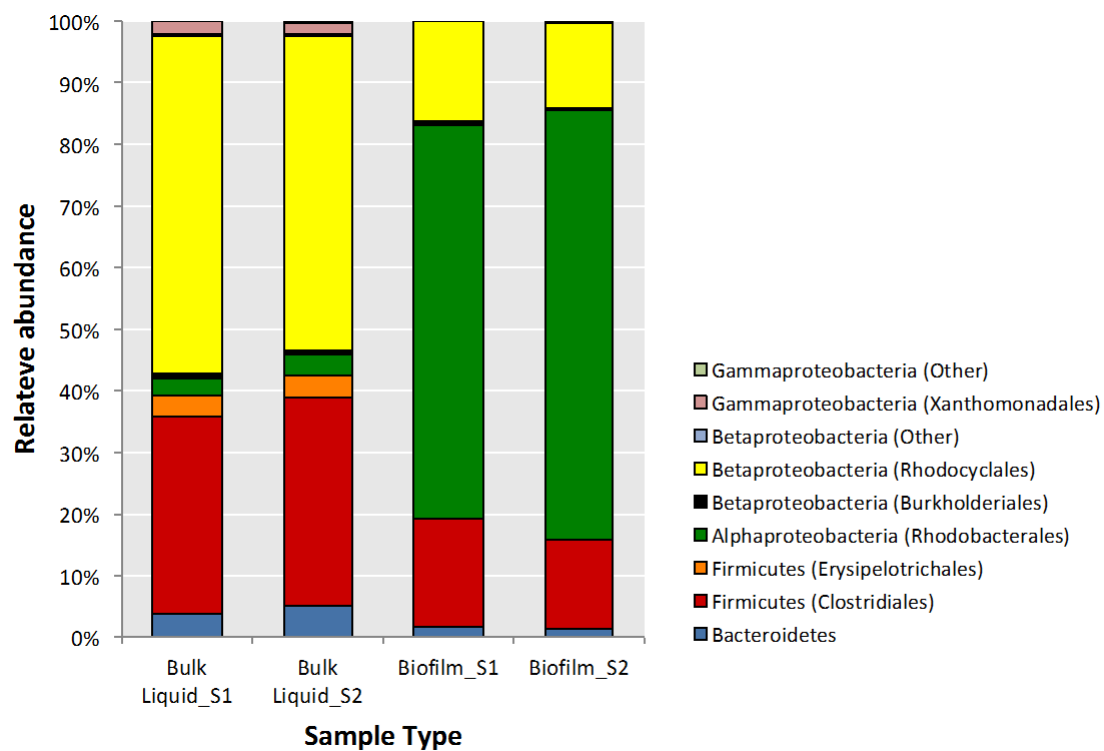
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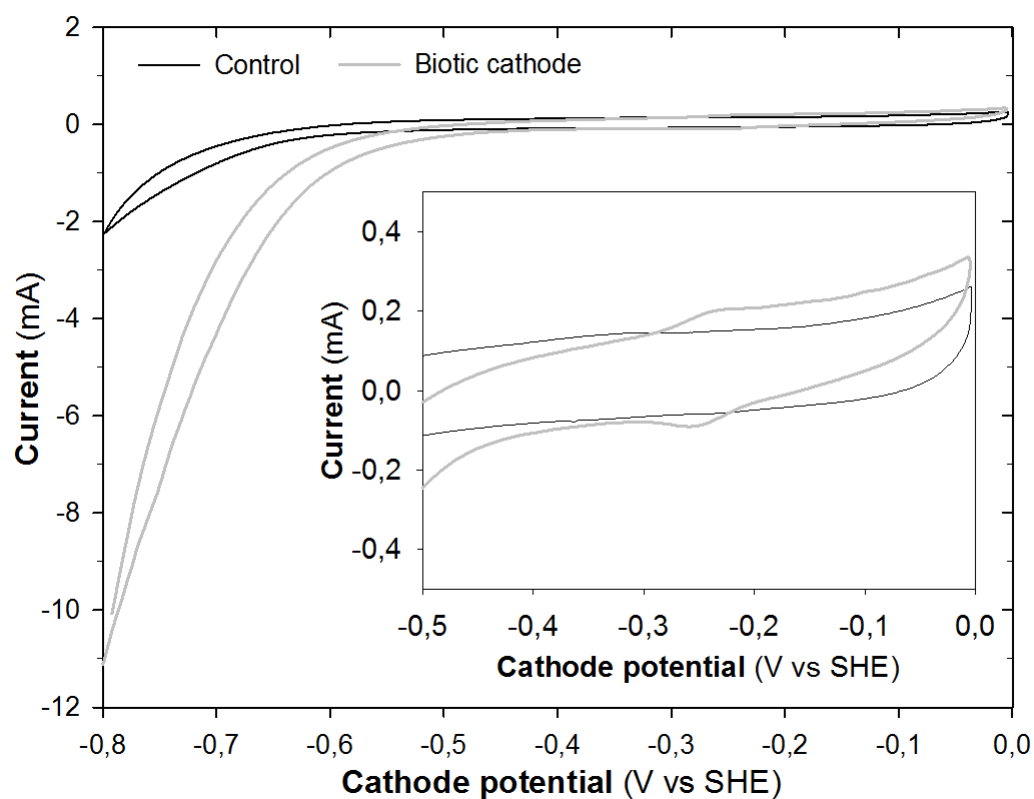


Figure 2. Turnover cyclic voltammograms under abiotic (devoid of cells, black line) and biotic (in the presence of a biofilm, grey) conditions. The scan rate was 1 mV s^{-1} .

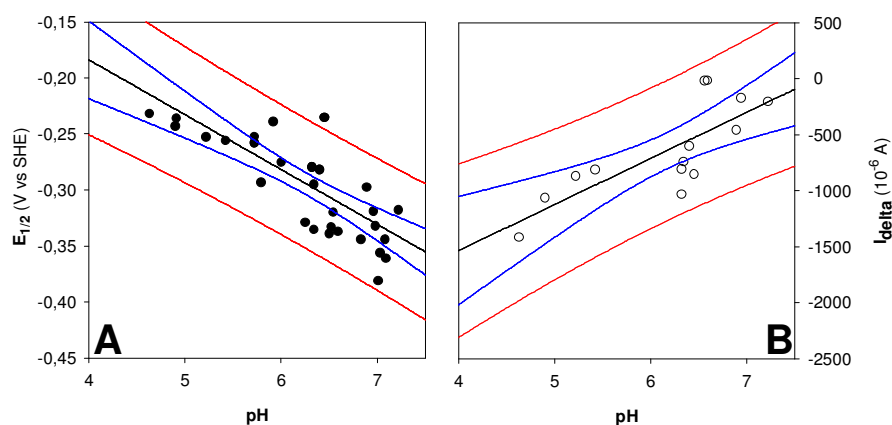


Figure 3. A) Correlation between pH-value and the half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$), and B) correlation between pH and peak intensity of the half-wave potential. Determination done using DPV technique. Scan rate: $1 \text{ mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and pulse height: 50mV. The regression line (in black) with 95% confidence band (in blue) and with 95% prediction band (in red) were calculated for the experimental data.

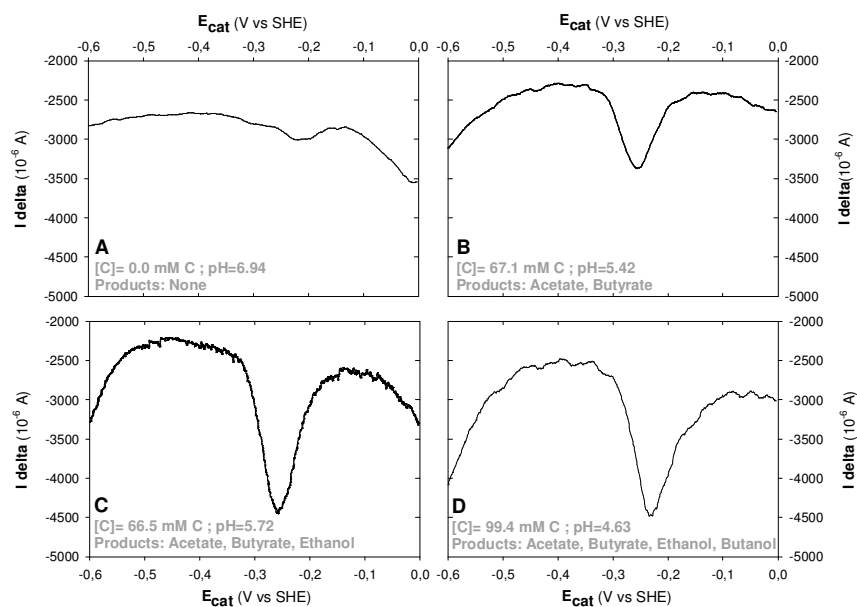


Figure 4. Representative DPVs (scan rate: $1 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; pulse height: 50mV) during the experimental period with different added value production (acetate, butyrate, ethanol and butanol) from CO_2 . [C]: Concentration of carbon.

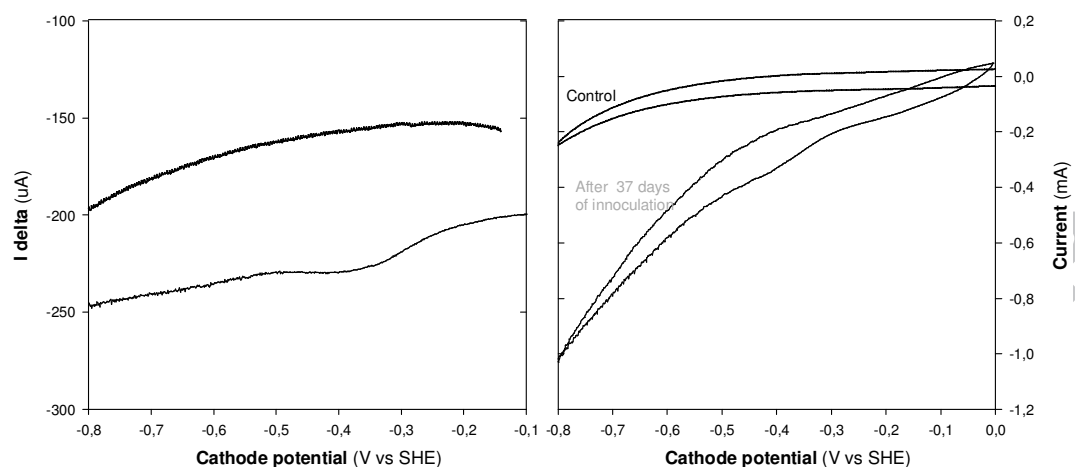


Figure 5. Representative DPVs (scan rate: $1 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; pulse height: 50mV; left) and turnover CVs (scan rate: $5 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; right) during the experimental period (before (black) and 37 days after the inoculation (grey)) of the microcosms with *Rhodobacter capsulatus*.

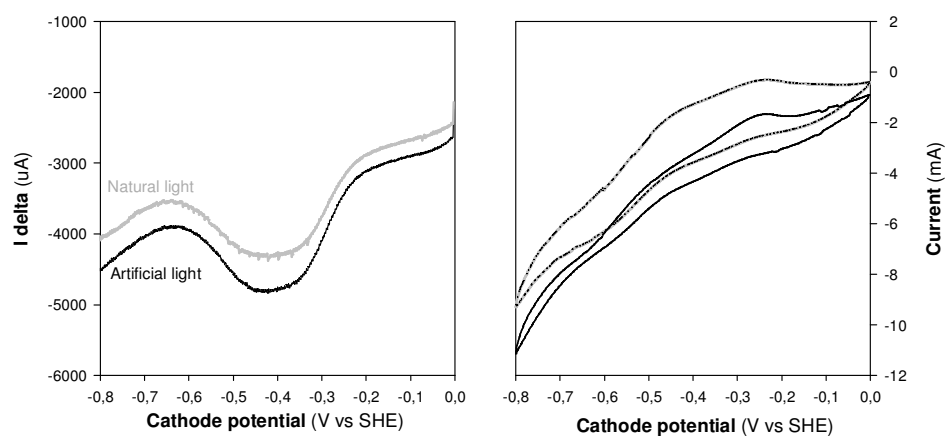


Figure 6. Representative DPVs (scan rate: $1 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; pulse height: 50 mV ; left) and turnover CVs (scan rate: $5 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; right) during the experimental period with natural light (grey) and artificial light (black) of the microcosms.

Most probable Identification (% similarity)	Sequence Similarity Range (%)	Number of OTUs	Relative abundance			
(% of sequences)						
			Bulk liquid_ S1	Bulk liquid_ S2	Biofilm_	
S1	Biofilm_					
S2						
Bacteroidetes						
(NR_041278) <i>Bacteroides coprocola</i> strain M16	88.5	1	3.8	5.1	1.8	1.2
Firmicutes						
(NR_117443) <i>Clostridium ljungdahlii</i> strain ATCC 55383	98.0-97.0	2	14.6	17.8	1.7	1.5
(NR_044849) <i>Clostridium thermobutyricum</i> strain JW171K	92.7-92.4	2	8.3	9.7	1.8	2.0
(NR_042516) <i>Clostridium nitrophenolicum</i> strain 1D	98.4	1	<0.1	<0.1	3.6	2.7
(NR_116828) <i>Paenibacillus prosopidis</i> strain PW21	81.0	1	2.8	1.6	ND	ND
Alphaproteobacteria						
(NR_125604) <i>Paenirhodobacter enshiensis</i> strain DW2-9	97.0	1	1.8	3.3	52.8	58.3
Betaproteobacteria						
(NR_074103) <i>Dechlorosoma suillum</i> strain PS	95.2	4	50.1	51.4	14.0	11.9
Gammaproteobacteria						
(NR_132712) <i>Pseudoxanthomonas jiangsuensis</i> strain wax	93.1	OTU9	1.6	0.9	ND	ND

Table 2. Reduction potentials (ΔE) in volts (vs SHE) of primary cofactors. Data was taken from ^{*}Hoelzle et al.(Hoelzle et al., 2014) and [†]Thauer et al.(Thauer et al., 1977).

Haft-reaction↓	Temperature→	T=34°C				
	T=25°C pH=7	pH=4,5	pH=5	pH=6	pH=7	pH=8
[*] Cyt. C(Fe^{3+}) + $e^- \rightarrow$ Cyt. C(Fe^{2+})	0.223	0.223	0.223	0.223	0.223	0.223
[†] FMN + $2\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow$ FMNH ₂	-0.190	-0.049	-0.079	-0.140	-0.201	-0.262
[†] FAD + $2\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow$ FADH ₂	-0.220	-0.079	-0.109	-0.170	-0.231	-0.292
[*] NAD ⁺ + $\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow$ NADH	-0.320	-0.250	-0.265	-0.296	-0.326	-0.357
[*] NADP ⁺ + $\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow$ NADPH	-0.324	-0.254	-0.269	-0.300	-0.330	-0.361
[†] Fd + $2e^- \rightarrow$ Fd ²⁻	-0.401	-0.401	-0.401	-0.401	-0.401	-0.401

List of Figures:

Figure 1. Relative abundance of sequences (%) affiliated to taxonomic groups (Phylum or Class) in samples of liquid medium or biofilm.

Figure 2. Turnover cyclic voltammograms under abiotic (devoid of cells, black line) and biotic (in the presence of a biofilm, grey) conditions.

Figure 3. A) Correlation between pH-value and the half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$), and B) correlation between pH and peak intensity of the half-wave potential. Determination done using DPV technique.

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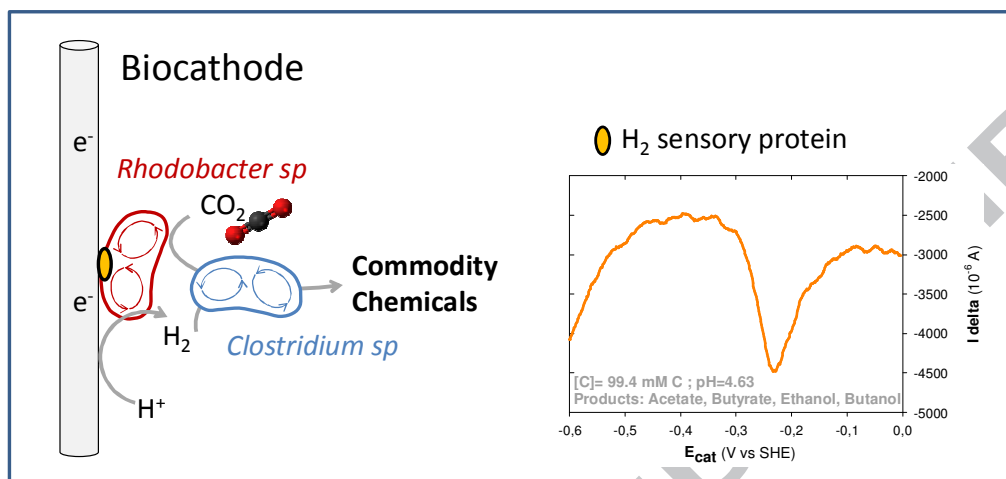
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List of Tables:

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Table 2. Reduction potentials (ΔE) in volts (vs SHE) of primary cofactors. Data was taken from ^{*}Hoelzle et al.(Hoelzle et al., 2014) and [†]Thauer et al.(Thauer et al., 1977).

Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- 1) Microbiome function is compartmentalized in bioelectrocatalysed reduction of CO₂.
- 2) *Rhodobacter* sp. could produce H₂ from the cathode electrode.
- 3) This system could be tracked by the H₂ sensory protein activity in *Rhodobacter* sp.