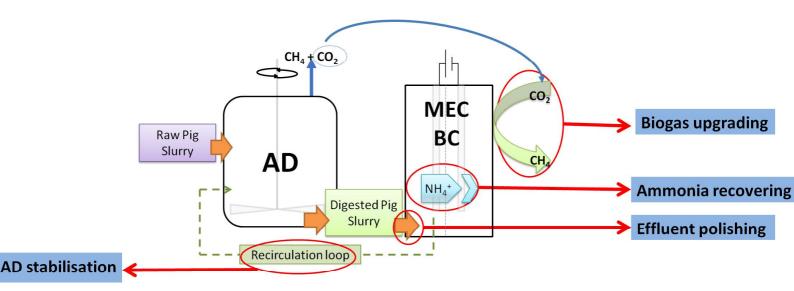


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*Highlights

Highlights

- AD and an electromethanogenic biocathode were operated as an integrated system.
- Methane production of 79 L m⁻³ d⁻¹ was achieved in the biocathode.
- Ammonium removal in the MEC anode compartment achieved 14.46 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹.
- The MEC stabilised the AD when the organic and nitrogen loading rates were doubled.

- 1 Anaerobic digestion and electromethanogenic microbial electrolysis
- 2 cell integrated system: increased stability and recovery of ammonia and
- 3 methane
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ABSTRACT

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The integration of anaerobic digestion (AD) and a microbial electrolysis cell (MEC) with an electromethanogenic biocathode is proposed to increase the stability and robustness of the AD process against organic and nitrogen overloads; to keep the effluent quality; to recover ammonium; and to upgrade the biogas. A thermophilic lab-scale AD, fed with pig slurry, was connected in series with the bioanode compartment of a two-chambered MEC. In turn, the biocathode of the MEC was poised at -800 mV vs Standard Hydrogen Electrode and fed with CO2 to increase the methane production of the system. After doubling its organic and nitrogen loading rate, the AD operation became stable thanks to the connection of a recirculation loop with the MEC effluent. Ammonium removal in the anode compartment of the MEC achieved 14.46 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹, while obtaining on average 79 L CH₄ m⁻³ d⁻¹ through the conversion of CO₂ in the cathode compartment. The microbial analysis showed that methylotrophic Methanossiliicoccaceae (Methanomassiliicoccus genus) was the most abundant among the metabolically active archaea in the AD during the inhibited state; while, on the cathode, Methanobacteriaceae family (Methanobrevibacter Methanobacterium genus) shared dominance with and Methanomassiliicoccaceae and Methanotrichaceae families (Methanomassiliicoccus and Methanothrix genus, respectively).

Keywords

27 Electromethanogenesis, biocathode, anaerobic digestion, ammonia, biogas upgrading, RNA

1. Introduction

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The increasing global demand for fossil fuels, their tendency to be scarcer, and the need to control the greenhouse gas emissions when using them are requiring new strategies for energy production. An alternative to conventional refineries for clean and renewable energy production is the biorefinery. Biorefineries can recover nutrients and other products of interest from energetic crops, organic wastes and other waste fluxes [1]. This concept goes beyond the philosophy of petrochemical refineries, including sustainable management practices and closed cycle processes whenever possible. Wastes, whether domestic, industrial, agricultural or from livestock are a great opportunity to recover water, energy, chemical products and nutrients, and have a big potential for application in biorefineries [2]. Not only meeting environmental protection objectives, but also recovering energy and resources from wastes should be addressed in a circular economy [3]. The combination of anaerobic digestion (AD) and bioelectrochemical systems (BES) is an integrated strategy that can be implemented with different objectives and configurations [4, 5] and can attain the goals of the biorefinery concept [6, 7]. On the one hand, nutrients can be recovered from ammonium-rich wastewater such as pig slurry or digested pig slurry thanks to cation or anion transport through exchange membranes that takes places in BES [8]. The main example of this application is the recovery of ammonium, which can be reused as fertiliser [9-13]. Otherwise, the AD effluent would need to be processed or managed properly due to its high nutrient content. Ammonia recovery has been demonstrated in various BES including microbial fuel cells (MFCs) [10, 11] and microbial electrolysis cells (MECs) [14]. In MECs, a higher current density would greatly enhance ammonium recovery, and thus MECs exhibit a better performance for ammonium recovery than MFCs [15]. On the second hand, BES can operate with low organic loading rates and may be used to polish the effluent of the AD [16-18] or even to absorb higher organic concentrations in the digestates due to AD destabilisation or inhibition [18, 19]. Previous work has shown that integrated or multi-step systems can increase the energy production from complex substrates [4]. The combination of AD and BES for effluent polishing has been studied mainly using energy recovering MFC, to treat the effluent of a two-stage biogas process [20], digested landfill leachate [21], digested swine

wastewater [22], a digested mixture of swine manure and rice bran [23] or digested wastewater from processing potato industries [17]. Instead, the use of MEC mode proposed in this work for AD effluent polishing has been scarcely reported [19]. On the third place, the combination of the previous advantages can be applied to increase the stability of the AD process through the use of a submersible microbial desalination cell [24] or the establishment of a recirculation loop with the BES [25]. The latter strategy has proven to be effective for the control of AD inhibition due to organic and nitrogen overloads, while recovering ammonia and maintaining the effluent quality and the methane production of the AD. Other studies have reported an increased stability of the AD process when inserting electrodes in the reactor [26-28]. However, this latter configuration does not allow for ammonia recovery, as proposed in the present work. Finally, BES have been applied to increase the methane content of the biogas produced in the AD by the use of MECs with electromethanogenic biocathodes [29, 30]. Since biogas consists mainly of methane (CH₄, 40-75%) and carbon dioxide (CO₂, 15-60%) it needs upgrading prior to its use as vehicle fuel or for injection in the natural gas grid intended to adjust the calorific. Conventional techniques for biogas upgrading focus on CO₂ removal without changing CH₄ mass [31], while electromethanogenesis performed in MEC allows for the conversion of CO₂ into CH₄ [32-34]. An alternative configuration to electromethanogenic MECs, by inserting electrodes in the AD reactor and applying a potential, allows for the in situ biogas upgrading, reporting an increase in methane yield [26, 35-37]. An increase of 59.7% in methane yield was achieved in a AD-MEC coupled system compared to the AD alone [38]. MECs for CO₂ conversion to methane have been operated mainly with synthetic medium [39, 40] and there is a lack of studies with real high strength wastewater fed for the anode compartment. The present study contributes to the body of knowledge by using a real high strength wastewater, digested pig slurry, to feed the anode compartment. The multiple ways of AD and BES combination suggest that a more comprehensive strategy can help to settle most of the limitations of the AD process, which up to now has not been assessed. Several studies have addressed the use of BES with a combined objective, such as Zepilli et al.

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[40], who operated a methane-producing MEC with a synthetic solution of soluble organic compounds, simulating the composition of a municipal wastewater, with the purpose of COD and ammonium removal, and methane production. Instead, the scientific novelty of this study was to investigate an integrated AD-MEC system fed with a high strength wastewater, such as pig slurry, and designed with a multiple purpose: i) to increase the stability and robustness of the AD process against organic and nitrogen overloads, ii) to keep the effluent quality, iii) to recover nutrients, and iv) to upgrade the biogas. None of the reported bioelectrochemical systems has simultaneously addressed these four purposes. Therefore, the application of MEC technology could be also implemented to overcome simultaneously the main limitations of AD. Furthermore, further study on the active microbial populations enriched in the bioanode and biocathode of the BES is needed to gain insight on potential resilience strategies as well as to complement previous studies [30, 40]. Until now, studies were centred on the description of the most predominant existent microorganisms on methanogenic biocathodes [29, 32, 34, 41, 42], while this study presents a novel focus on the metabolically active biomass. This novel approach bridge the gap to distinguish those active microorganisms from total microbial community in the biofilm communities in MECs. The main aim of this study was to assess the performance of a lab-scale AD-MEC integrated system as a strategy to stabilise a pig slurry thermophilic AD under an organic and nitrogen overload, recover ammonia and increase the methane content of the biogas produced by the AD, in terms of chemical oxygen demand and ammonia removal, methane yield and energy efficiency of the process. The evolution of the active microbial community of the AD and the MEC bioelectrodes (both the anode and the cathode) was evaluated in terms of composition and activity by means of high throughput sequencing (16S rRNA versus 16S rDNA based Illumina-Miseg) and quantifying total and metabolically active populations (16SrRNA and mcrA gene and transcripts) by qPCR.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental set-up

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A 4 L lab-scale thermophilic anaerobic continuous stirred tank reactor (AD) was used in the assays. It consisted of a cylindrical glass reactor (25 cm diameter) with a 4 L working volume. The

digester was fitted with a heat jacket with hot water circulating to keep the temperature at 55 °C. The AD reactor was connected in series with the anode compartment of a two-chambered MEC (0.5 L in each compartment) and had a recirculation loop between both reactors. The anode of the MEC was carbon felt (dimensions: 14 x 12 cm; thickness: 3.18 mm; Alfa Aesar GmbH & Co KG, Karlsruhe, Germany) that had been inoculated with anode-inoculum from a mother MFC and had been operated with digested pig slurry as feeding solution for 9 months. The cathode chamber was filled with granular graphite with diameter ranging from 1 to 5 mm (Typ 00514, enViro-cell Umwelttechnik GmbH, Oberursel, Germany), leaving a net volume of 265 mL. Prior to being used, in order to remove metals and organic residues, the granular graphite was treated as described in Sotres et al. (2016) [43]. An A304 stainless steel mesh was used as electron collector in each compartment (dimensions: 14 x 12 cm; mesh width: 6 x 6 mm; wire thickness: 1 mm; Feval Filtros, S.L., Barcelona, Spain). The anode and cathode compartments were separated by a cation exchange membrane (CEM) (dimensions: 14 x 12 cm; Ultrex CMI-7000, Membranes International Inc., Ringwood, NJ, USA). The cathode compartment was inoculated with 30 mL of a resuspension of the anaerobic granular sludge of an UASB (volatile suspended solids content of 33 g L-1) that had been operated with methanol in order to enrich the biomass in methanogenic archaea, as described elsewhere [44]. The resuspension was done by vortex mixing during 10 minutes in a 50 mL tube containing 30 g of granular sludge and 25 mL of Ringer 1/4 sterilised solution. A three electrodes configuration was used, where the anode was the counter electrode, the cathode was the working electrode and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode (Bioanalytical Systems, Inc., USA, +197 mV vs. standard hydrogen electrode (SHE)) was inserted in the cathode compartment. All potential values in this paper are referred to SHE. A potentiostat (VSP, Bio-Logic, Grenoble, France) was used for data monitoring, which was connected to a personal computer for electrode potentials and current recording every 5 min using EC-Lab software (Bio-Logic, Grenoble, France). The anode was fed with filtered digested pig slurry (125 µm) from the AD and the cathode compartment was fed with a synthetic solution which contained (per litre of deionised water): 5 g L⁻¹ of NaHCO₃, NH_4CI , 0.87 g; $CaCl_2$, 14.7 mg; KH_2PO_4 , 3 g; Na_2HPO_4 , 6 g; $MgSO_4$, 0.246 g; and 1 mL L^{-1} of a trace elements solution as described elsewhere [45].

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2.2 Reactor operation

The AD was fed with pig slurry (Table 1) and operated for 222 days in three different phases, with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 10 days (Table 2). In Phase 1, the organic loading rate (OLR) and nitrogen loading rate (NLR) were established at 3.92 kg_{COD} m⁻³ day⁻¹ and 0.22 kg_N m⁻³ day⁻¹, respectively. In Phase 2, the OLR and NLR were doubled to force the inhibition of the reactor [25]. And finally, in Phase 3, keeping the OLR and NLR equal to Phase 2, a recirculation loop with the MEC was connected (50% of the AD feed flow rate) to recover the AD. Samples of the AD effluent were taken once a week in order to assess the operation of the reactor.

The MEC was operated in continuous in series with the AD poising the cathode potential at -800

mV *vs* SHE. The solutions of both the anode and the cathode compartment were fed in continuous at 20 mL h⁻¹ and mixed by an external pump. The HRT was of 32.4 h and 14.1 h for the anode and cathode compartment, respectively (with respect to the net volume of each compartment), with an OLR and NLR of the anode compartment for each phase specified in Table 2. The MEC was operated at room temperature during the entire assay (23±2 °C).

Table 1. Characterisation of the raw pig slurry used as feeding solution in the anaerobic digester (AD) in Phase 1 and Phases 2 and 3 (n=number of samples; mean±standard deviation).

Parameter	Raw pig slurry		
raiailletei	Phase 1 (n=6)	Phase 2 and 3 (n=12)	
pH (-)	7.1±0.1	6.8±0.2	
COD (g _{O2} kg ⁻¹)	43.96±2.04	80.55±6.40	
NTK (g L ⁻¹)	2.41±0.00	4.29±0.17	
$N-NH_4^+$ (g L^{-1})	1.59±0.08	2.97±0.25	
TS (g kg ⁻¹)	24.40±0.52	47.95±2.53	
VS (g kg ⁻¹)	16.37±0.43	32.79±1.88	

Table 2. Operational conditions for the AD reactor and the MEC (mean±standard deviation).

	AD			MEC		
Phase	Period (d)	OLR (kg _{COD} m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	NLR (kg _N m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	Recirculation (% feed flow rate)	OLR (kg _{COD} m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	NLR (kg _N m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)
1	1 - 78	3.92±0.61	0.22±0.03	0	7.87±0.76	0.74±0.04
2	78 - 126	7.00.4.00	0.40±0.06	0	40.40.0.50	0.40.040
3	126 - 222	7.39±1.36		50	43.12±3.58	2.42±0.13

2.3. Analytical methods and calculations

Samples were analysed for pH, chemical oxygen demand (COD) and ammonium (N-NH₄⁺) according to Standard Methods 5220 [46]. Methane content of the biogas produced by the AD was analysed using a gas chromatograph (CP-3800, Varian, USA). Methane was measured (through the determination of dissolved methane) in the cathode samples according to Henry's Law and the following method [47]. Around 2 mL catholyte samples were collected with a 5 mL syringe and injected with a needle in a 4 mL vacutainer. The vacutainers were shaken vigorously for 30 s and then allowed to stand for 1 h. Headspace gas was analysed for CH₄ using a gas chromatograph (CP-3800, Varian, USA). Dissolved CH₄ was computed using the equation:

$$X_L = \frac{C_{CH_4} \cdot MV_{CH_4} \cdot MW_{CH_4} \cdot (V_T - V_L + \propto V_L) \cdot 1000}{V_L}$$
 (1)

where X_L is the concentration of CH₄ (mg L⁻¹) in the solution, C_{CH4} is the concentration of CH₄ (%) in the headspace 1 h after shaking, MV_{CH4} is the molar volume of CH₄ at 25 °C (0.041 mol L⁻¹), MW_{CH4} is the molecular weight of CH₄ (16 g mol⁻¹), V_T is the volume (mL) of the vacutainer, V_L is the volume (mL) of the solution, and α is the water:air partition coefficient at 25 °C (0.03). Methane production was normalised to the net volume of the cathode compartment (0.265 L).

Partial alkalinity (PA, titration from the original pH sample to pH 5.75, an alkalinity which corresponds roughly to bicarbonate alkalinity) and total alkalinity (TA, titration to pH 4.3) were determined to obtain intermediate alkalinity (IA, titration from 5.75 to 4.3, approximately the VFA alkalinity) [48]. The IA:TA ratio was used as a tool to monitor anaerobic digestion, considering that the process was stable when the IA:TA was below 0.3 [49]. COD and ammonium removal efficiency in the MEC was calculated as the ratio of the difference between anode influent and effluent concentrations and the influent concentration [25].

2.4. Electrochemical measurements and calculations

The current density (A m⁻²) of the MEC was calculated as the quotient between the intensity recorded by the potentiostat (A) and the area of the anode (m²). The Coulombic efficiency (CE), or

the fraction of electrons obtained from the consumption of COD that are available for methane production at the cathode was calculated as:

$$CE = \frac{M \int_0^t I dt}{F b q \Delta COD}$$
 (2)

The energy efficiency relative to electrical input recovered as methane (EE_e, Equation 3), the energy efficiency relative to the energy content of the substrate (EE_s, Equation 4) and the energy efficiency with respect to the energy input and the energy in the substrate (EE_{e+s}, Equation 5) were:

$$EE_e = \frac{n_{CH_4} \Delta G_{CH_4}}{\int_0^t I E_{ap} dt}$$
 (3)

 $EE_s = \frac{n_{CH_4} \Delta G_{CH_4}}{n_S \Delta G_S}$ (4)

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$$EE_{e+s} = \frac{n_{CH_4} \Delta G_{CH_4}}{\int_0^t I E_{ap} dt + n_S \Delta G_S}$$
 (5)

where M is the molecular weight of the final electron acceptor, I is the current (A), F is Faraday's constant (96485 C mol⁻¹), b is the number of electrons transferred per mole of O_2 , q is the volumetric influent flow rate (L d⁻¹), ΔCOD is the difference in the influent and effluent COD, n_{CH4} are the moles of produced methane, ΔG_{CH4} is the molar Gibbs free energy of CH₄ oxidation by oxygen to carbon dioxide (-817.97 kJ mol⁻¹), E_{ap} is the applied voltage calculated as the difference between the cathode and anode potentials (V), n_S are the moles of acetate consumed and ΔG_S is the molar Gibbs free energy of acetate oxidation to carbon dioxide (-844.61 kJ mol⁻¹).

Finally, the cathodic methane recovery efficiency (R_{cat}), defined as the fraction of electrons reaching the cathode that are recovered as methane, was calculated as:

$$R_{cat} = \frac{8 F n_{CH_4}}{\int_0^t I dt}$$
 (6)

Cyclic voltammetries (CV) in turnover conditions, i.e. in the presence of substrate, were performed using a potentiostat (VSP, Bio-Logic, Grenoble, France) after the cathode inoculation (day 0) and at the end of Phase 2 and 3 (day 78 and 222 of the assays, respectively), in order to study the

electroactive microbial biofilm developed on the cathode. The same three-electrode configuration used for the MECs operation was maintained for the set up of the CV. The start (E_i) and vertex (E_f) potentials were -800 and +400 mV vs SHE, respectively, and the scan rate was set at 1 mV s^{-1} .

2.5. Microbial community analysis

The bacterial communities in the biofilm harboured in the bioanode and the biocathode of the MEC at the end of Phase 2 and 3 and in the AD biomass at the end of each Phase (1, 2 and 3) were analysed by culture-independent molecular techniques such as quantitative PCR (qPCR) and high throughput sequencing (MiSeq, Illumina) of partial 16S rDNA and 16S rRNA massive libraries. To stabilise the nucleic acid, especially RNA, samples were stored at -80 °C. The inoculum of the cathode and the biofilm settled up on the anode had been characterised in previous work [44, 50]. Briefly, regarding eubacteria, the cathode inoculum was dominated by Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes and Synergistetes (61, 14 and 8%, respectively); Methanosarcinaceae (52%) was the predominant archaea family (methylotrophs genus, Methanomethylovorans and Methanolobus) [44]. In the case of MEC anode biofilm, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes and Proteobacteria were the dominant eubacterial phyla (35, 30 and 11%, respectively), and the predominant archaea family was Methanotrichaceae, (87%) [44, 50].

2.5.1 Nucleic acid extraction and cDNA synthesis

Simultaneous total genomic DNA and RNA (including rRNA) were extracted in triplicate from known weights of each sample, which consisted in effluent from the AD, a piece of carbon felt from the anode (1 cm²) and granular graphite collected from the cathode compartments for the biocathode biofilm. The PowerMicrobiome[™] RNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA) was used according to manufacturer's instructions, and cDNA was obtained from total RNA following the protocol described elsewhere [50]. Henceforth, the term cDNA or 16S rRNA is used to refer to the extracted RNA or 16S transcripts as amplicons from cDNA as a measure of gene expression and microbial activity, whereas DNA or 16S rDNA terms are used referring to the extracted genomic DNA and 16SrDNA amplicons from DNA.

2.5.2 Quantitative PCR assay (qPCR)

Total gene copy numbers and gene transcripts of eubacterial *16S rRNA* gene and *mcrA* gene (methanogenic archaeal methyl coenzyme-M reductase) were quantified by means of qPCR. Each sample was analysed in triplicate by means of the three independent DNA and RNA (cDNA) extracts. The analysis was carried out following the protocol described elsewhere [25]. The standard curve parameters of the qPCRs were as follows (for *16S* rRNA and *mcr*A, respectively): a slope of -3.244 and -3.532; a correlation coefficient of 0.998 and 0.999; and an efficiency of 103 and 92%.

2.5.3 High throughput sequencing and data analysis

Simultaneous DNA and RNA (cDNA) extracts obtained from the AD and the bioanode and biocathode biofilm, used for qPCR analysis, were also assessed by 16SrRNA gene based- MiSeq, following the specific steps described elsewhere [25]. The Bayesian Classifier tool of the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) was used to taxonomically classify the obtained Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) [51]. The data obtained from sequencing datasets for eubacterial and archaeal populations was submitted to the Sequence Read Archive of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the study accession number SRP072956.

A statistical multivariate analysis by means of correspondence analysis (CA) on the OTUs abundance matrix of Eubacterial *and* Archaeal was performed. The obtained samples and OTUs scores were depicted in a 2D biplot, which represented the phylogenetic assignment of the predominant OTUs (relative abundance above 1 %). The diversity of the samples was evaluated with the number of OTUs, the inverted Simpson index, Shannon index and Goods coverage using the Mothur software v.1.34.4 (http://www.mothur.org) [52], normalising all the estimators to the lowest number of reads among the different samples.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Performance of the AD (Phase 1 and Phase 2)

The AD showed a stable operation during Phase 1 (Figure 1), with an average COD removal efficiency of 54±8% and a methane production of 0.45±0.06 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹ (Table 3). The IA:TA ratio

was kept below 0.3, corroborating the stability of the reactor. When the OLR and NLR of the AD were doubled in Phase 2, the reactor showed a fast inhibition, reducing the value of COD removal to 18% and the methane production to 0.23 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹, 50% of the obtained in the previous phase (Figure 1a and b). VFA accumulated, reaching values of 5670 mg L⁻¹ for acetate, 1850 mg L⁻¹ for propionate and over 1000 mg L⁻¹ for butyrate (Figure 1c), and the IA:TA ratio increased to 0.44 (Figure 1d) confirming the instability of the AD reactor.

Table 3. Summary of the main parameters for the AD and the MEC reactors in the different phases. Results for the AD correspond to the stable period of each phase (mean±standard deviation).

Parameter	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3
AD			
CH ₄ production (m ⁻³ m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	0.45±0.06	0.27±0.04	0.38±0.04
COD removal efficiency (%)	54±8	28±8	22±5
IA:TA	0.22±0.04	0.40 ± 0.08	0.50±0.03
рН	7.8±0.1	7.8±0.1	7.6±0.1
MEC			
COD removal efficiency (%)	24±8	14±5	21±6
N-NH ₄ ⁺ removal efficiency (%)	30±6	18±5	20±5
CE (%)	3.5±1.8	2.1±1.4	1.5±0.5
CH ₄ production (L m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	79±34	63±15	78±29
R _{cat} (%)	45±37	61±18	59±13
EE _e (%)	50±41	62±17	85±23
EE _s (%)	4.2±2.3	3.0±1.5	1.4±0.7
EE _{e+s} (%)	3.6±1.4	2.9±1.4	1.4±0.7
Energy input (kWh m ⁻³ _{CH4})	39±33	15.8±4.5	11.5±3.4
AD-MEC			
COD removal efficiency (%)	-	42±6	41±6

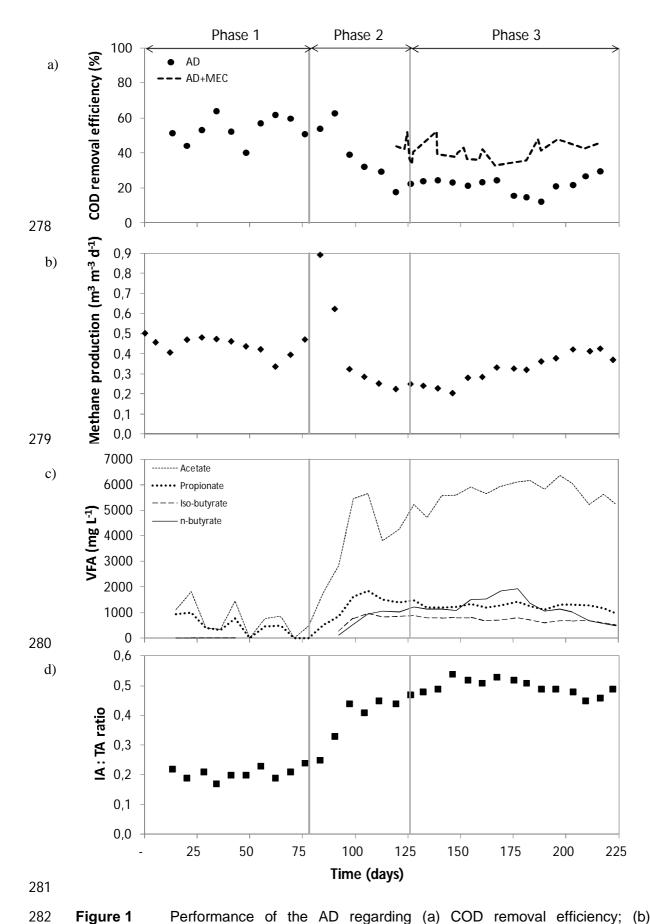


Figure 1 Performance of the AD regarding (a) COD removal efficiency; (b) methane production; (c) VFA concentration; and (d) IA:TA ratio.

3.2 Performance of the MEC (Phase 1 and Phase 2)

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The MEC fed with the effluent of the AD during Phase 1 showed a stable performance regarding current density production during the first 30 days of operation (Figure 2), with an average current density of 0.4 A m⁻². Afterwards, the current density production became instable, showing peaks of up to 4.5 A m⁻² (average of 1.5 A m⁻²) and was drastically reduced from day 64 onward due to the degradation of the stainless steel mesh used as electron collector in the anode compartment (data corresponding to the instable period was not considered for calculations). The mesh was replaced at the beginning of Phase 2. This change produced some period of instability at the beginning of Phase 2, but afterwards the MEC showed a current density production similar to the obtained in Phase 1. The COD removal efficiency of the MEC in Phase 1 was of 24±8%, with a maximum removal of 3.2 kg_{COD} m⁻³ d⁻¹, and the CE was of 3.5±1.8% (Table 3). In Phase 2 the COD removal efficiency and the CE decreased to 14±5% and 2.1±1.4%, respectively. Since CE is related with the substrate concentration, the increase in COD of the influent resulted in a decrease in CE [53]. The ammonium removal efficiency in Phase 1 was of 30±6%, corresponding to 6.64 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹. The removal efficiency decreased to 18±5% during Phase 2, although the absolute flux was higher (12.87 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹) as a result of the increased NLR. Previous work performed with the same MEC but with an abiotic cathode fed with NaCl (0.1 g L⁻¹) and higher organic and nitrogen loading rates (28.50±1.80 kg_{COD} m⁻³ day⁻¹ and 1.73±0.09 kg_N m⁻³ day⁻¹, respectively) achieved a nitrogen removal rate of 12.97±2.04 g N-NH₄+ m⁻² d⁻¹, similar to the one obtained in Phase 2 and almost doubling the rate obtained in Phase 1 in this study [25]. And values as high as 86 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹ were reported with a submersible microbial desalination cell fed with synthetic solution [24].

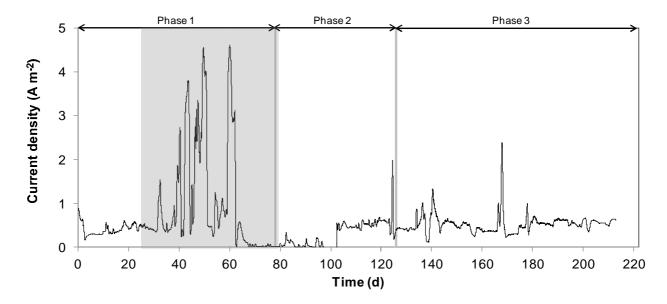


Figure 2 Current density profile obtained during the operation of the MEC. Data corresponding to the instable period (shaded) was not considered for calculations.

3.3 Performance of the AD-MEC combined system with recirculation loop (Phase 3)

When the recirculation loop with the MEC was connected in Phase 3, the performance of the AD started to recover, with COD removal values achieving 30% (below 20% in the end of Phase 2) and a maximum methane production of 0.43 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹, representing a 100% increase with respect to the production at the end of Phase 2, and nearly recovering the values achieved in Phase 1. However, the VFA concentration and the IA:TA ratio were similar to the previous phase. Interestingly, the overall performance of the AD-MEC integrated system maintained the COD removal in a range of 33-52%, in spite of the poorer performance of the AD, concomitant to an ammonium removal of 20±5% (14.46 g N-NH₄+ m⁻² d⁻¹). The MEC showed a current density production similar to the obtained at the beginning of Phase 1. The CE of the MEC decreased with respect to Phase 1, as described in Phase 2. The low CEs obtained are to be expected when working with complex substrates where other electron acceptors may be present [54-56]. Much higher CEs have been previously reported, such as 72-80% [40].

3.4 Biocathode operation performance

Methane production in the cathode compartment was around 0.079 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹. A volume of biogas of 0.2 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹ could be treated in this MEC with biocathode, assuming a typical biogas

composition of 60% CH₄ and 40% CO₂ (490.78 kJ mol⁻¹) to obtain methane with a purity prochain to 100% (817.97 kJ mol⁻¹) Higher methane productions have been achieved in previous works, such as 0.16 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹ [39], or 0.28 m³ m⁻³ d⁻¹ [57]. The highest R_{cat} was achieved in Phase 2 (61±18%), although the high variability of the obtained results makes the observed differences between phases not to be significant (Table 3). A recent review on bioelectrochemical power-to-gas, collected R_{cat} of previous studies between 19 to 156%, were values >100% were likely the result of microbially influenced corrosion of the cathode by methanogens [58]. The obtained results for R_{cat} in the present study are below the 96% previously reported by Cheng et al. (2009) [32], the 84-86% obtained by Zeppilli et al. (2014) [40], or the 69% reported by Batlle-Vilanova et al. (2015) [30]. But they are much higher than the 23.1% achieved by Van Eerten-Jansen et al. (2001) [59] or the 24.2 ± 4.7% reported by Zhen et al. (2015) [42]. The EEe was between 50 and 85%, values similar to the obtained in batch mode with a twochambered MEC using graphite granules as electrodes (57%) [33]. The low CE achieved in this MEC made also the obtained EEs (between 1.4 and 3.6%) to be low in comparison with the previous work (between 23 and 54%). Figure 3 shows the cyclic voltammograms obtained after the cathode inoculation and at the end of Phases 2 (78 days) and 3 (222 days). The curve obtained at the start of the operation showed a low response to the different applied potentials, as a result of the recent inoculation. The performance of the biocathode increased at the voltage of -800 mV at the end of the assay (Phase 3), coincidently with the period of the best EE_e.

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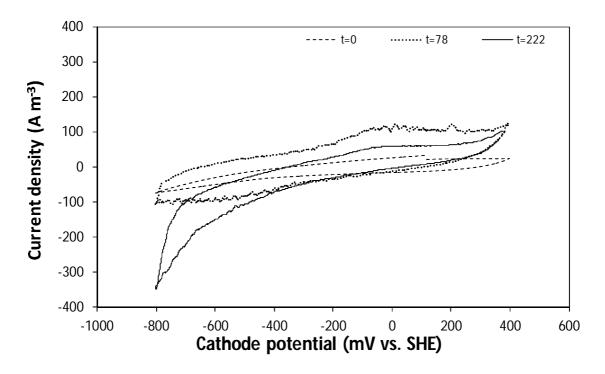


Figure 3 Cyclic voltammograms of the MEC after the cathode inoculation (t=0 d) and at the end of Phase 2 and 3 ((t=78 d and t=222 d, respectively).

3.5 Considerations about biogas upgrading and ammonia recovery application

In dual-chamber MECs for methane production, water is usually used for electron donor in the anode chamber, since it is a widely available and cheap source [60]. However, the electric energy input is considerable higher compared to a BES using wastewater oxidation in the bioanode [58]. In this study, the average energy input for biomethane production from CO₂ in the biocathode in Phase 3 was 11.5±3.4 kWh m⁻³ (Table 3). In a previous work, Van Eerten-Jansen et al. [59] achieved an energy input of 73.5 kWh m⁻³ in an electromethanogenic biocathode operated in continuous with water as electron donor. The energy input was reduced to 15.4 kWh m⁻³ following the oxidation of hexacyanoferrate (II).

The values of electricity consumption obtained in this studies are similar to the ones corresponding for conventional biogas upgrading technologies, such as pressure swing adsorption (0.25 kWh m⁻³), water scrubbing (<0.25 kWh m⁻³), organic physical scrubbing (0.24-0.33 kWh m⁻³) or chemical scrubbing (<0.15 kWh m⁻³) [61]. It is noteworthy that these values refer to the volume of biogas

treated, not to the volume of methane produced, as the previous ones. Furthermore, conventional technologies are based on CO_2 removal, instead of CO_2 conversion to CH_4 proposed in this study. Finally, it is noteworthy that the energy consumption of the MEC is not only invested in methane production, but also used for ammonia recovery. The energy consumption for this latter aim represented on average 3 kWh kg⁻¹_{Nrecovered}, while the values reported for conventional techniques for ammonia removal range are 13 kWh kg⁻¹_{N removed} in a nitrification denitrification process, 5 kWh kg⁻¹_{N removed} in a Sharon-Anammox process, or 9 kWh kg⁻¹_{N recovered} in NH₃ stripping [62].

There are still many challenges to overcome in order for AD-MEC coupled system with electromethanogenic biocathode to be applied in large scale systems for biogas upgrading and ammonia recovery. Mainly, the use of phosphate buffer in the cathode compartment to avoid pH increase is not a sustainable approach for scaled systems [7] and an alternative should be implemented. Furthermore, the use of the buffer hinders the recovery of ammonia by stripping of the catholite and adsorption that has been used in previous work [25].

3.6. Microbial community assessment

The microbial community structure and activity of the samples taken from the AD and the biofilm harboured on the electrodes of the MEC was characterised by means of qPCR technique and sequenced by MiSeq.

3.6.1 Quantitative analysis by qPCR

Figure 4 shows qPCR results for *16S* rRNA and *mcr*A gene copy numbers of the seven samples analysed, either for DNA (present microorganisms) and cDNA (active microorganisms). In the AD samples eubacteria remained in the same order of magnitude for *16S* rRNA gene copy numbers g⁻¹ during the stable, inhibited and recovered states; while showed a decrease of one order of magnitude for *mcr*A (from 1.26·10⁸ to 2.18·10⁷ gene copy numbers g⁻¹) at the end of Phase 2 due to the inhibition caused by doubling the OLR and NLR. The connexion of the recirculation loop reduced the inhibition and helped to recover the methanogenic population, returning to levels similar to those existing prior to the inhibition (1.38·10⁸ gene copy numbers g⁻¹). The same behaviour was observed at cDNA-based qPCR, showing a decrease of one order of magnitude for *mcr*A transcripts copy numbers in the AD sample of the end of Phase 2 and corroborating that the

methanogenic population was suffering inhibition. The magnitude of the reduction in mcrA gene copy numbers when the AD was submitted to inhibition by an organic and nitrogen overload was similar to the described in previous work [50, 63]. In Phase 1 free ammonia nitrogen (FAN) concentration was in the range of 400-670 mg L⁻¹. Concentrations of FAN above 900 mg L⁻¹ were reached during Phase 2, when the OLR and NLR were doubled, with a maximum of 1186 mg FAN L-1 at the end of the Phase. At these levels the first signs of inhibition may occur according to previous studies [64, 65]. Once the recirculation loop was established in Phase 3, FAN levels remained in a range of 365-740 mg L⁻¹. Regarding the MEC, gene copy numbers for 16S rRNA for the anode and cathode biofilm were of the same order of magnitude both for Phase 2 and 3 samples, either in DNA or in cDNA forms. On the contrary, mcrA gene copy numbers of the anode sample increased at the end of the recirculation phase, probably due to the parallel increase of methanogenic population in the AD. In the case of the cathode biofilm, mcrA gene copy numbers g⁻¹ for DNA-based gPCR at the end of the assay were within 10⁶ gene copy numbers g⁻¹, coincidently with the values obtained in a previous work with methanogenic biofilm harboured by granular graphite [30]. While a total methanogenic population decrease was observed from the initial cathode to the final sample (DNA level), mcrA expression belonging to methanogenic archaea increased one order of magnitude (from 1.40·10⁵ to 2.63·10⁶ transcript copy numbers g⁻¹). From these results, it is clear that the AD methanogenic population decreased due to the organic and nitrogen overload and then could be recovered thanks to the establishment of the recirculation loop with the MEC. Furthermore, the methanogenic cathode of the MEC was progressively

enriched in metabolically active methanogenic archaea.

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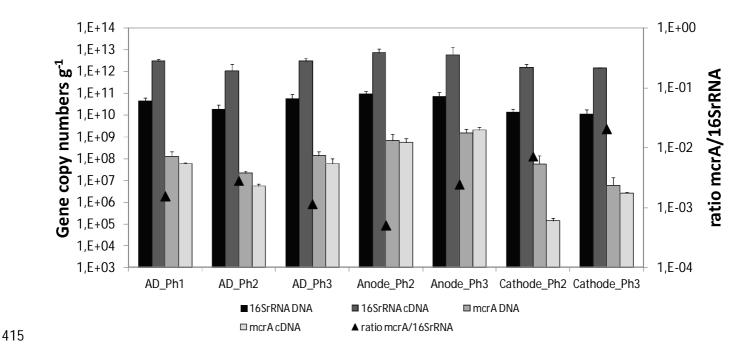


Figure 4 Gene copy numbers for 16S rRNA and mcrA genes and ratio between them of DNA and cDNA, of the AD effluent at the end of Phases 1, 2 and 3, and the biofilm harboured on the anode and cathode of the MEC at the end of Phase 2 and 3.

3.6.2 High Throughput Sequencing (16S-based MiSeq) results for eubacteria and archaea

Table 4 shows the number of reads obtained for the AD samples and the anode and cathode biofilms of the MEC for eubacteria (6822 OTUs) and archaea (900 OTUs). Figure 5a shows the relative abundance of eubacterial *phyla* for the seven samples, regarding DNA (present microorganisms) and cDNA (metabolically active microorganisms) forms. The three AD samples showed a similar eubacterial composition at DNA level, dominated by *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Proteobacteria*, with relative abundances in the ranges of 64-68%, 12-18% and 5-10%, respectively. Previous studies, performed also in a thermophilic AD running on pig slurry, found that the *Firmicutes phylum* was the predominant one [25, 66]. The sample from the end of Phase 2 showed a decrease in *Firmicutes* and *Proteobacteria phyla* with respect to Phase 1 and the sample at the end of Phase 3, while *Bacteroidetes* increased slightly. At cDNA level, although *Firmicutes* was still the predominant *phylum* (46-75% of relative abundance), *Proteobacteria* active microorganisms clearly surpassed *Bacteroidetes* (19-40% and 1-5%, respectively) and were increasingly more abundant over time, while *Firmicutes* showed the opposite tendency.

Bacteroidetes was the predominant phylum in the anode of the MEC both in Phase 2 and 3 samples (34 and 41%, respectively), according to DNA-based sequencing, while Proteobacteria revealed as the most active one in Phase 2 sample (65%) and Bacteroidetes and Proteobacteria shared dominance in the final sample (18 and 16%, respectively). These three phyla have been identified in previous studies in BES [67, 68]. In the case of the cathode biofilm, the domination of Firmicutes at DNA level in Phase 2 and 3 samples (56 and 31%, respectively), shared by Proteobacteria in Phase 3 sample (33%), shifted to a clear dominance of Proteobacteria in both samples at cDNA level (59 and 68%). At family level Clostridiaceae 1 and Peptostreptococcaceae were the most present and active groups in the three AD samples (Figure 5b). Porphyromonadaceae, which was the third more abundant family (6-9%) at DNA level, showed a low activity according to cDNA sequencing (below 1%). Planococcaceae and Pseudomonadaceae revealed as active families at the end of Phase 2 (21 and 12%, respectively), as Campylobacteraceae at the end of Phase 2 (13%), although they were below 3% in DNA form abundance. Regarding the samples of the MEC anode, Planctomyceraceae and Porphyromonadaceae stood out in the Phase 2 sample when looking at DNA sequencing results (12 and 16%, respectively), but were replaced by Desulfuromonadaceae and Pseudomonadaceae families according to cDNA (21 and 18%, respectively). In Phase 3 anode sample Porphyromonadaceae and Planctomycetaceae were the most abundant families at DNA (12%) and cDNA (14%) levels, respectively. Finally, the cathode biofilm was dominated by Clostridiaceae in Phase 2 and 3 samples at DNA level (34 and 12%, respectively), but by metabolically active Phodocyclaceae and Desulfovibrionaceae according to cDNA results (14 and 37%, respectively). Thus, a clear differentiation between total eubacteria and active eubacterial microorganisms, especially in the biomass harboured by the MEC electrodes, has been shown. Figure 5c shows the relative abundance of archaea families of the seven samples. Although Methanobacteriaceae showed a high abundance in the three AD samples (74-86%), the most active archaeal populations were Methanomicrobiaceae in Phase 1 and Phase 3 AD samples (58 and 56%, respectively) and Methanossiliicoccaceae in Phase 2 sample (54%). Members of Methanomassiliicoccaceae family have recently been described as obligate hydrogen-consuming

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methanogens, reducing methanol and methylamines instead of carbon dioxide [69, 70]. A recent study has reported an increase of this family at high OLR, and concluded that an additional methanogenic pathway might contribute to methane production at high OLR [71]. It has also been reported that this family emerged in the recovery process of a thermophilic AD after an organic overload [72], since methanol could be produced fermentatively from lactate by a kind of Clostridium species. Methanogenic population in the AD showed higher differences between existing vs active composition than eubacteria. On the contrary, Methanotrichaceae, the predominant family on the MEC anode Phase 2 and Phase 3 samples in presence (75 and 48%, respectively) was also active (74 and 31%, respectively), independently of being on a low relative abundance in the AD. On the other hand, Methanossiliicoccaceae and Methanomicrobiaceae increased in presence and activity over time, probably due to the high activity of these families in the AD. When looking at the cathode biofilm, Methanotrichaceae (genus Methanothrix, formerly known as Methanosaeta) was the dominant family at the Phase 2 sample either in presence and activity (53 and 68%, respectively), while in the Phase 3 sample it dominated at DNA but not at cDNA level (36% and 0.3%, respectively). Methanotrix (Methanosaeta) genus was also detected in a methanogenic cathode by Xu et al. (2014) [29] and Cai et al. (2016) [73]. It has been recently described that Methanotrix (Methanosaeta) is capable of accepting electrons via direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) for the reduction of carbon dioxide to methane [74], so a deeper study is necessary to understand the role of these species in the cathode biofilm of the methanogenic MEC. Methanomassiliicoccaceae (genus Methanomassiliicoccus) and Methanobacteriaceae (genus Methanobacterium and Methanobrevibacter) were also families with high relative abundances at DNA level (15-31%), being the most active ones in the Phase 3 sample (57 and 33%, respectively) as well. Previous works have showed a clear dominance of Methanobacteriaceae family in methanogenic biocathodes [29, 32, 34, 41, 42], differing from the results obtained in this study. The high relative abundance of the methylotrophic Methanomassiliicoccaceae family among the active archaea suggests that methanol must be present in the cathode compartment, although it was not monitored in the present study. Methanol produced in the anode compartment due to the fermentation of organic compounds could migrate

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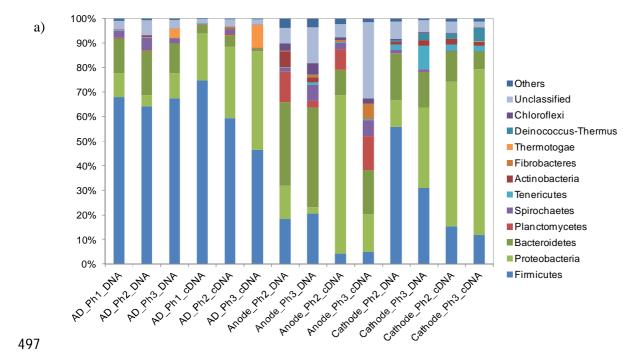
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to the cathode compartment through the CEM. Methanol could be also produced at very low O₂ partial pressure, from methane by ammonia oxidising bacteria (AOB) which can partially oxidise CH₄ to methanol when using ammonia as an energy source [75]. The genera *Nitrosomonas*, a well known AOB, was present in the biocathode samples, although at low relative abundance (<0.01%). Besides, some methane oxidising archaea and bacteria can also carry out anaerobic oxidation of methane [76], although so far they are poorly known and it cannot be determined if they are present in the biocathode.



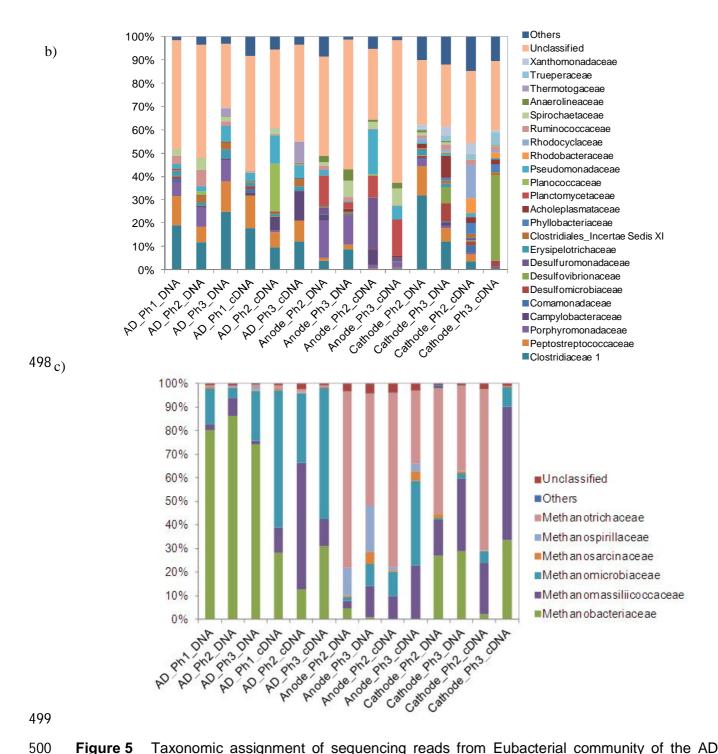


Figure 5 Taxonomic assignment of sequencing reads from Eubacterial community of the AD effluent at the end of Phases 1, 2 and 3, and the biofilm harboured on the anode and cathode of the MEC at the end of Phase 2 and 3 for DNA and cDNA, at a) phylum b) family levels; and c) for Archaeal community at family level. Relative abundance was defined as the number of reads (sequences) affiliated with any given taxon divided by the total number of reads per sample. Phylogenetic groups with relative abundance lower than 1% were categorized as "others".

3.6.3. Biodiversity analysis

Table 4 shows the results for the biodiversity analysis performed on the AD samples and the anode and cathode biofilms of the MEC samples. The Inverted Simpson and Shannon indexes of the AD samples for eubacteria at DNA level decreased during Phase 2 and recovered in Phase 3, showing the opposite behaviour for archaea. The biodiversity of the bioanode and the biocathode increased regarding archaeal population, either in total (DNA) or in metabolically active (cDNA). On the contrary, eubacteria decreased its biodiversity, result that agrees with the trend observed in other studies [77].

	Reads	Inverted Simpson	Shannon
Eubacteria			
ADPh1-DNA	116316	14.67±0.07	3.94±0.01
ADPh2-DNA	142940	13.00±0.07	3.85±0.01
ADPh3-DNA	117089	13.61±0.08	4.02±0.01
Anodei-DNA	95391	38.16±0.22	4.90±0.01
Anodef-DNA	96879	34.12±0.20	4.87±0.01
Cathodei-DNA	65906	16.12±0.06	4.29±0.00
Cathodef-DNA	61741	35.48±0.09	4.57±0.00
ADPh1-cDNA	163191	7.55±0.03	3.07±0.01
ADPh2-cDNA	152610	7.26±0.04	3.39±0.01
ADPh3-cDNA	214052	6.54±0.03	2.78±0.01
Anodei-cDNA	147740	8.58±0.05	3.71±0.01
Anodef-cDNA	171251	9.24±0.05	3.54±0.01
Cathodei-cDNA	56424	3.65±0.00	4.53±0.00
Cathodef-cDNA	93469	5.22±0.02	3.01±0.01
Archaea			
ADPh1-DNA	97511	2.87±0.01	1.67±0.01
ADPh2-DNA	59777	3.41±0.00	2.10±0.00
ADPh3-DNA	71736	3.33±0.01	1.84±0.00
Anodei-DNA	183422	1.58±0.00	1.18±0.01
Anodef-DNA	140800	2.83±0.01	1.90±0.01
Cathodei-DNA	220361	1.77±0.01	1.44±0.01
Cathodef-DNA	92290	4.92±0.02	2.40±0.01
ADPh1-cDNA	59671	3.95±0.00	2.26±0.00
ADPh2-cDNA	82628	5.97±0.02	2.61±0.00
ADPh3-cDNA	91203	6.75±0.02	2.54±0.00
Anodei-cDNA	125143	2.02±0.01	1.60±0.01
Anodef-cDNA	99696	6.35±0.02	2.55±0.01
Cathodei-cDNA	99324	2.37±0.01	1.76±0.01
Cathodef-cDNA	64740	4.61±0.01	2.23±0.00

3.6.4 Correspondence analysis

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Correspondence analysis results for eubacteria and archaea community are shown in Figure 6a and 6b, respectively. Regarding eubacteria, AD samples were clustered together, especially in the case of DNA, while for cDNA form the samples were more disperse and detached from the first ones. This cluster included the Phase 2 DNA sample of the cathode biofilm, which separated lately at the end of the assay. When looking at the Phase 2 cathode sample for active microorganisms (cDNA), it was nearer to the anode samples, although the Phase 3 sample differentiated completely from all the samples analysed. Finally, the anode samples clustered clearly in two groups, one for DNA and a second one for cDNA, showing that the metabolically active population (cDNA sequencing) was different from total population (DNA sequencing). Archaeal results for the AD biomass showed that the three DNA samples were prochain, so little differences in composition were detected between inhibited and stable states. On the contrary, cDNA samples, related to the active microorganisms, were distant from DNA samples and Phase 1 and 3 samples were clustered together while Phase 2 sample moved away from them. This means that active microorganisms in the initial sample shifted to a different active community during Phase 2 due to the inhibition and, once recovered with the recirculation loop, went back to the previous composition. Regarding the anode and cathode communities, Phase 2 DNA and cDNA samples resembled and an evolution was observed for the Phase 3 samples, moving away from the initial composition, especially for cDNA. Interestingly, the biocathode cDNA Phase 3 sample approached to the cDNA AD sample of Phase 2, suggesting that the active population of the cathode resembled the AD population under inhibition.

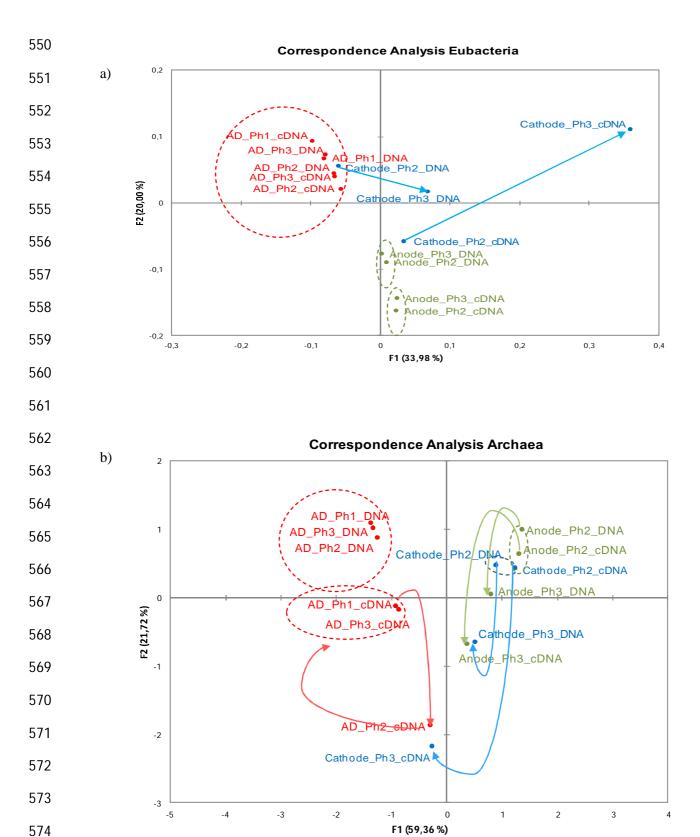


Figure 6 Correspondence Analysis of the AD effluent at the end of Phases 1, 2 and 3, and the biofilm harboured on the anode and cathode of the MEC at the end of Phase 2 and 3 for DNA and cDNA samples regarding (a) Eubacteria and (b) Archaea community.

4. Conclusions

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The integration of anaerobic digestion (AD) and a microbial electrolysis cell (MEC) with a methanogenic biocathode has proven to be a promising strategy to treat high strength wastewaters with a multiple purpose. The methane production of the AD could be recovered after the inhibition of the reactor due to the doubling of the organic and nitrogen loading rate thanks to the connexion of a recirculation loop with the MEC. Ammonium removal in the anode compartment of the MEC achieved 14.46 g N-NH₄⁺ m⁻² d⁻¹, while obtaining on average 79 L CH₄ m⁻³ d⁻¹ through the conversion of CO₂ in the cathode compartment. The microbial analysis showed that methylotrophic Methanossiliicoccaceae family (Methanomassiliicoccus genus) was the most abundant among active archaea in the AD during the inhibited state. On the other hand, in the cathode Methanobacteriaceae family (Methanobrevibacter and Methanobacterium genera), usually found to the most abundant in methanogenic biocathodes. shared dominance with be Methanomassiliicoccaceae (Methanomassiliicoccus genus) and Methanotrichaceae (Methanothrix genus) families.

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