Full Length Research Paper

# Evaluation of full-strength paper mill effluent for electricity generation in mediator-less microbial fuel cells

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In the search for renewable, sustainable and affordable energy sources, microbial fuel cells (MFCs) offer the advantage of a biological oxidation of pollutants to the direct generation of electricity by microorganisms. We thus examined the biodegradability and suitability of unamended paper mill effluent for power production in MFCs. In addition, an investigation of the response from indigenous waste microbes upon introduction of an exogenous *Enterobacter cloacae* culture was performed. Unamended effluent alone reached a substrate degradation rate (SDR) of 0.112 kg COD/m<sup>3</sup>day and 29.4  $\pm$  2.4% total chemical oxygen demand (tCOD) removal, the power density peaked at 24  $\pm$  3 mW/m<sup>2</sup> and 47.7% glucose increase at the termination of the reactor cycle after 12  $\pm$  3 days. The introduction of *E. cloacae* in separate setups lowered electricity generation, but benefited remediation, power density decreased to 13  $\pm$  2 mW/m<sup>2</sup> whereas the SDR increased to 0.257 kg COD/m<sup>3</sup>day. Also, there was 44.1% glucose removal in the presence of *E. cloacae*. It was concluded that unamended paper mill effluent can fuel electricity generation in MFCs with its concomitant remediation. The addition of *E. cloacae* to live paper mill effluent may be antagonistic in terms of electricity generation.

**Key words:** Microbial fuel cells, paper mill effluent, bioremediation, substrate degradation rate, wastewater, renewable energy, electricity.

## INTRODUCTION

Over the years, various methods have been designed and tested in the treatment and recovery of water from paper mill effluent. The paper manufacturing industry was ranked amongst the largest consumers of freshwater and polluters globally (Ali and Sreekrishnan, 2001). In addition, a value as high as 11 g/l tCOD has been reported (Thompson et al., 2001; Basu et al., 2009) which is detrimental to aquatic life. As a result, chemical, physical (clarification and filters), aerobic biological treatments and/or anaerobic incubation in appropriate operation tanks have been put in place (Thompson et al., 2001).

Despite the considerable feats achieved such as water recirculation and reduction of pollutants prior to disposal, conventional treatments are limited by fouling of membranes and filters, poor dissolution of oxygen in wastewater and tremendous input of electricity in aeration tanks (Thompson et al., 2001; Ahn and Logan, 2010). On the other hand, the hallmark of anaerobic treatment of effluents has been the substantial reduction of sludge accompanied by a chemical reduction otherwise recalcitrant to aerobic treatment (Bogaert et al., 2010).

An increasing number of studies, within the field of renewable energy, have considered anaerobic treatment for the generation of volatile fatty acids, biogases (Kaksonen et al., 2003; Najafpour et al., 2009) and direct generation of electricity in microbial fuel cells — MFCs (Nimje et al., 2009; Cha et al., 2010; Kassongo and Togo, 2010). In the latter, effluent is degraded by microorganisms in an anoxic chamber with the release of electrons that are captured by an electrode and channelled externally to a final electron acceptor in an aerated compartment. Protons are also released and migrate through a selectively permeable membrane to

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reduce oxygen to water (Mohan et al., 2008; Mathuriya and Sharma, 2009). Recent works involving paper mill effluent have been focused on single-chambered MFC designs at ambient temperatures. For example, upon improving conductivity of the effluent supernatant with addition of 100 mM PBS in a 500 h fed-batch configuration, up to  $672 \pm 27 \text{ mW/m}^2$  maximum power density (Pd) and 76 ± 4% tCOD removal were attained (Huang and Logan, 2008). However, the maximum P<sub>d</sub> was reduced to  $210 \pm 7 \text{ mW/m}^2$  and tCOD removal was  $26 \pm 2\%$  when effluent of the same type was fed to MFCs operated in a continuous flow system (Huang et al., 2009). Mathuriya and Sharma (2009) also attempted to generate bioelectricity while achieving bioremediation of different wastes, including paper industry wastewater. They found that an increase of operational parameters namely temperature, agitation, and effluent concentration directly increased the P<sub>d</sub> within a specific range.

However, little has been documented on the feasibility of electricity generation from a full-strength paper mill effluent while achieving significant remediation in H-type MFCs. In this study, attention was devoted to keep, strictly at minimum, any input of nutrient (s) and/or energy to allow for practical projections in future upper-scale studies. In addition, molecular analyses of electrodes were performed to identify the anodophilic microbial species.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Experimental setups and analyses

The H-type MFCs, as described by Nambiar et al. (2009), were used. Briefly, each 250 ml reactor (anode and cathode chambers) consisted of 200 ml of respective solutions separated by a proton exchange membrane (Nafion<sup>™</sup> 117). Paper mill effluent from Mondi Paper (Springs, South Africa) was used as the anolyte while the catholyte comprised of 0.02 M potassium ferricyanide in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.8). The external circuit was linked by a 470  $\Omega$  resistor. Following collections, samples not used in setups were stored at 4°C to delay possible changes in biochemical composition (Najafpour et al., 2009). Three sets of MFCs were set up as previously explained (Kassongo and Togo, 2010). The operation of the MFCs was performed at ambient temperature (22 ± 3°C). Each MFC setup was run for 10 to 14 days and voltage was measured at 2 h intervals using a TopTronic T830 digital multimeter (APelectronics, South Africa), while pollution indicators such as tCOD and solids were measured at the beginning and at the end of every MFC cycle. Ohm's law (I = V/R) was applied to calculate the current and subsequent power density (P<sub>d</sub>) calculated using:  $P_d = (VI)/A$ , where, V is the voltage; I is the current and A is the surface area (Rabaey and Verstraete, 2005). In addition, the power yield, the substrate degradation rate (SDR) and the coulombic efficiency ( $\varepsilon_{cb}$ ), were calculated according to Huang and Angelidaki (2008), Mohan et al. (2008) and Antonopoulou et al. (2010) respectively.

#### Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The preparation of anodes (fixing, dehydration and coating) was

performed to assess the density of microbial population on carbon electrode surface (Kassongo and Togo, 2010).

#### Anode biofilm diversity studies

To gain insight on microfloral community diversity playing participating in electricity generation and bioremediation, diversity of microorganisms on the anode was investigated using molecular techniques. The latter entailed DNA extraction, PCR, DGGE and sequencing.

#### **DNA** extraction

At the termination of reactors, anodes were transferred to 20 g of 2 mm glass beads in 50 ml sterile reinforced clostridial medium and shaken by hand for 5 min to dislodge cells from surfaces. The medium was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 min at 4°C, the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was re-suspended then mixed with Zymo Research ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA MiniPrep<sup>™</sup> kit (Inqaba Biotechnical Industries, South Africa) as per manufacturer's instructions to prepare ultra-pure genomic DNA templates for PCR.

#### PCR-amplification

One tube contained: 25 µl of 2 X PCR Master mix (Tag DNA polymerase in reaction buffer, MgCl<sub>2</sub> and dNTPs - 0.4 mM of each), 1 µl each for reverse and forward primer 16S rDNA (UNIV1392R: 5'-ACG GGC GGT GTG TRC-3', EUB968F AAC GCG AAG AAC CTT AC with GC clamp), 22 µl DNase and RNase-free water (Fermentas, USA) and 1 µl of the extracted DNA aliquot. A second tube was incubated with all the components for PCR but without the isolated DNA in order to check for any possible contaminations which may have occurred in the course of the experiments. Applied Biosytems 2720 Thermal Cycler was used for PCR and set at the following parameters: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation (30 s at 94 °C), annealing (45 s at 60°C and extension - 90 min at 72°C), and a final extension at 72°C for 7 min before storage at -4°C. An agarose gel electrophoresis was later conducted to confirm for the presence, quality and purity of PCR products (Jong et al., 2006).

#### Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE)

The goal with DGGE was to examine the microbial diversity of samples by running a mix of amplified 10  $\mu$ I PCR products and 5  $\mu$ I of the DGGE loading dye in 6% PAG at 130 V, 60°C for 4 h. After that the gel was stained in 250 ml 0.5 X TAE buffer (10 mg/ml<sup>-1</sup> ethidium bromide) for 15 min followed by a distaining for 15 min in 0.5 X TAE buffer without ethidium bromide (Muyzer et al., 1993). Dominant bands were cut and template DNA removed from the DGGE gel by immersing in 50  $\mu$ I TE buffer at 4°C overnight (Lee et al., 2003). A second re-amplification as specified previously (without GC clamp on the forward primer) followed by another agarose gel electrophoresis were performed to confirm the presence of DNA before sequencing (Azbar et al., 2009) at Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (South Africa).

#### Sequencing and phylogenetic tree

Sequences received from Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (South Africa) were edited with FinchTV and a nucleotide BLAST search for highly similar sequences was performed in the NCBI database.

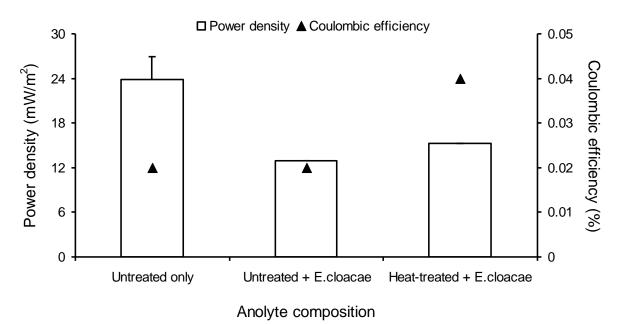


Figure 1. Maximum power densities and respective coulombic efficiencies from different MFC setups fed with paper mill effluent.

The strongest matches obtained were used together with the sequence of the isolate to construct the phylogenetic tree in the DNAMAN sequence analysis software.

#### Statiscal analysis

Experiments were performed in triplicates and reported as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation.

## RESULTS

## **Effluent profile**

The pH of the effluent was  $6.61 \pm 0.1$  with a conductivity of 4.65 mS/cm at sampling. Initially, tCOD and total solids were  $43.7 \pm 0.3$  g/l and  $584 \pm 0.2$  mg/l, respectively. The glucose concentration was  $1.4 \pm 0.02$  g/l. These parameters remained relatively stable during storage.

## **Electricity generation**

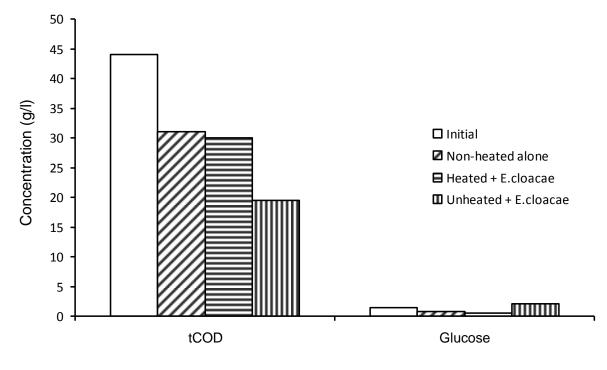
Without *Enterobacter cloacae*, setups did not have stable potential differences. However, introduction of *E. cloacae* in the medium generally reduced both the magnitude and the variations of power densities, stabilising voltage readings close to 0.3 mV. The maximum power density from inherent waste microbes in the presence of *E. cloacae* was  $13 \pm 2 \text{ mW/m}^2$ . The highest power density,  $24 \pm 3 \text{ mW/m}^2$ , was observed on setups with wastewater only (Figure 1).

Although, setups using paper mill effluent only generated the highest maximum power density, its coulombic efficiency ( $\epsilon_{cb} = 0.02\%$ ;  $P_{T} = 0.1 \ \mu W/kg \ COD_R$ ) was lower than that for sterile effluent acted upon by *E. cloacae* ( $\epsilon_{cb} = 0.04\%$ ;  $P_{T} = 0.3 \ \mu W/kg \ COD_R$ ). However, the maximum power density for untreated waste incubated with *E. cloacae* ( $P_d = 13 \pm 2 \ m W/m^2$  and  $\epsilon_{cb} = 0.02\%$ ) was lower than that for sterile wastewater using *E. cloacae* ( $P_d = 15.3 \ m W/m^2$ ) (Figure 1).

## **Bioremediation**

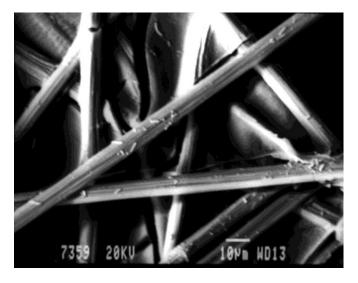
Pollution parameters such as tCOD and total solids were reduced in all set ups. However, glucose concentration was increased in reactors containing the unamended effluent together with *E. cloacae* (Figure 2). There was a direct relationship between the final pH of setups and the solids removal efficiencies. Up to 98.8% settable solids removal efficiency and a final pH of 7.42 when *E. cloacae* was used together with microorganisms inherent to paper mill effluent. In the absence of *E. cloacae*, unamended waste achieved a settable solids removal efficiency of 20.1% and a final pH of 6.17. The presence of *E. cloacae* most likely contributed to the final pH values higher than those initially (6.61 ± 0.1); the pH dropped in the absence of *E. cloacae* compared to setups where it was introduced.

Organic matter degradation was inversely proportional to the maximum electricity generated across different MFC configurations. Two setup types; sterile effluent with *E. cloacae* alone and unamended effluent only, had



## Parameter

Figure 2. Bioremediation profile of paper mill effluent in different setups after MFC cycles in relation to initial concentrations.



**Figure 3.** A scanning electron micrograph of a sparsely colonised anode electrode.

relatively close SDRs, 0.125 kg COD/m<sup>3</sup> day and 0.112 kg COD/m<sup>3</sup> day, respectively. Addition of *E. cloacae* to native effluent increased the SDR to 0.257 kg COD/m<sup>3</sup>day (55.4 ± 0.7% COD removal efficiency and  $\epsilon_{cb}$  = 0.02%) resulting in 13 ± 2 mW/m<sup>2</sup>, the lowest maximum

power per anode surface area.

## Microscopy

There was a sparse microbial colonisation of electrodes by rod-shaped bacteria and isolated micro-colonies of round-shaped bacteria as illustrated in Figure 3. However, similar electrodes showed a dense microbial population when incubated in reactors fed with reinforced clostridial medium (RCM) used as a control (micrograph not shown). Thus, the density of microorganisms on electrode surfaces was directly proportional to the power generated.

## Molecular analyses

PCR amplicons from the anodophilic microorganisms (after reactor setups) showed a smear on the denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) without a distinctive separation of bands. An arbitrary cut on the DGGE was performed, sequenced and subsequently analysed (BLAST search) for the 16S ribosomal partial sequence, revealing 99% identity to strains of the *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* subsp. *mesenteroides* (Figure 4). The complete GenBank search revealed a total of 102

81	Anode isolate
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM198-1 (HM218817
46	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM11-1 (HM218055)
40 28	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM178-1 (HM218732)
63	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM175-3 (HM218714)
69	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM165-6 (HM218669)
87	<i>L mesenteroides</i> subsp. <i>mesenteroides</i> strain NM150-4 (HM218591)
18	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM14-3 (HM218072)
63 93	<i>L mesenteroides</i> subsp. <i>mesenteroides</i> strain NM169-5 (HM218684)
22	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM182-5 (HM218757)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM178-4 (HM218735)
58	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM171-7 (HM218694)
5	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM195-2 (HM218801)
100	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM173-2 (HM218702)
100	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM173-7 (HM218706)
34 99	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM195-5 (HM218804)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM175-5 (HM218716)
8	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM11-4 (HM218058)
52	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM189-2 (HM218785)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM184-2 (HM218764)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM26-5 (HM218131)
96	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM33-4 (HM218175)
4	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM183-5 (HM218762)
36 19	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM196-3 (HM218808)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM190-1 (HM218789)
	L mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides strain NM186-2 (HM218772)

# 0.05

**Figure 4.** An unrooted phylogenetic tree of the 16S ribosomal RNA, partial sequence. Species matching (all 99% identity) the paper mill effluent anodophilic isolate and their respective GenBank accession numbers are shown in brackets. Bootstrap values (1000 replications) are indicated at the nodes.

different strains with the same percentage of identity to the paper mill effluent isolate.

## DISCUSSION

This study used a concentrated paper mill effluent which contained alkalis used throughout a wood processing plant. It could be expected that such a non-pre-treated wastewater containing strong oxidizing chemicals would increase the survival pressure for microbial life and not necessarily favourable to electron generation and transport (Huang et al., 2009; Hakeem and Bhatnagar, 2010). Therefore, the lack of a steady state in power generation and a sparse microbial growth on electrodes were noted (Mathuriya and Sharma, 2009). The fluctuation in power densities may also be attributed to the breakdown of cellulose which is a very slow process and may even get intermittent in stagnant conditions or in absence of ideal mixing of bacteria within the wastewater (Huang and Logan, 2008). Moreover, a lack of microbial acclimation may have resulted in lack of stability of power densities (Wang et al., 2009). Nonetheless, addition of exogenous E. cloacae in setups reduced both the magnitude and frequency of fluctuations of electricity with a bimodal distribution of power densities in most cases. Presumably, E. cloacae may have contributed with a supplementary metabolic pathway noted by an increase in pH as well as an accelerated removal of certain substrates such as glucose, thus shifting the dynamics in MFCs. Further investigations will look at the nature of such metabolites and their possible involvement as additional electron shuttles in the medium. At present, E. cloacae is capable of degrading cellulose-rich materials with a direct transfer of electrons to a carbon electrode without a requirement for exogenous mediators (Rezaei et al., 2009). This is in line with the power generated exclusively with E. cloacae observed on setups fed with sterile cellulose-rich paper mill effluent in this study.

There was a break down of pollutants and reduced sludge when *E. cloacae* degraded paper mill effluent together with inherent waste microbes (up to 98.8% settable solids removal efficiency); however, the drop in glucose removal (44.1%) may be an indication of an absence of synergism with the exogenous culture. Two possible mechanisms may explain this lack of microbial cooperation. First, microorganisms may have decreased the degradation of glucose and resorted to using excess electrons which are ordinarily captured by the anode. Alternatively, *E. cloacae* may be consuming or inhibiting metabolites which can be viewed as precursors toward power generation by mixed microbial consortia in the effluent (Trzcinski et al., 2010).

It could have been expected to have the setup of sterile effluent acted on by *E. cloacae* to yield the highest maximum power density due to its highest coulombic efficiency (0.0004%) coupled to a low SDR and a relatively high power yield. Surprisingly, setups with unamended effluent generated the highest power possibly due to the lowest SDR and the increase of glucose (up to 47.7%) in the medium; whereas it was being decreased in all other setups. The slow degradation of organics together with the glucose buildup may have amounted to a long-term energy store for microorganisms toward the high electricity generated. However, the highest power yield in sterile waste metabolised by *E. cloacae* holds an indication on the adaptation of the microbial culture and the continuation of electricity generation above power densities of both untreated waste alone and those of untreated waste with *E. cloacae* (Mohan et al., 2008).

The coulombic efficiency has long been an important gauge for comparison amongst power generation studies. However, additional factors may need to be considered such as waste composition, including both biotic and abiotic factors. For example, initially high tCOD content can induce bacteriostatic and bacteriocidal effects on certain microbial populations, resulting in reduced coulombic efficiencies (Min et al., 2005; Jong et al., 2006), hence the SDR was also considered. Interestingly, the coulombic efficiencies and power yield may be low in this study, but electricity generated can be significant when taking into consideration the projection of the total effluent discharge volume produced daily by a processing mill over a year, assuming that the scale-up generates electricity within the same proportion as in a pilot study (Wen et al., 2010). The lack of defined bands in the DGGE may be an indication of consortia of closelyrelated species which could not be properly separated on polyacrylamide (Trzcinski et al., 2010). This observation was also supported by a phylogenetic analysis revealing a large number of strains (102) matching the paper mill effluent anodophilic isolate at the same level of identity (based on 16S rRNA partial sequence) which belonged to facultative and gram-positive lactic acid bacteria from Leuconostoc mesenteroides subsp. mesenteroides. The very little DNA to be amplified owing to little microbial colonization of electrodes resulted in a low intensity of bands in the DGGE (Riemann et al., 1999). In addition, Leuconostoc strains are commonly found and extensively used in dairy products and plant materials (Hemme and Foucaud-Scheunemann, 2004; McSweeney and Sousa, 2000). Therefore, the predominance of sparse microbial growth on electrodes in a medium is not of preference such as paper mill effluent. This exploratory study has established that full-strength paper mill effluent can be metabolised and serve as both carbon and energy sources to endogenous microbes with a detectable electricity generation in fuel cells.

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