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Self-powered supercapacitive microbial fuel cell: The ultimate way of boosting and harvesting power

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1 **Self-Powered Supercapacitive Microbial Fuel Cell: The Ultimate Way of Boosting**  
2 **and Harvesting Power**

3

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22

23

24 **Abstract**

25

26 In this work, for the first time, we demonstrate a supercapacitive microbial fuel cell  
27 which integrates the energy harvesting function of a microbial fuel cell (MFC) with the  
28 high power operation of an internal supercapacitor. The pursued strategies are: i) the  
29 increase of the cell voltage by the use of high potential cathodes like bilirubin oxidase  
30 (BOx) or iron-aminoantipyrine (Fe-AAPyr); ii) the use of an additional capacitive  
31 electrode (additional cathode, AdC) which is short-circuited with the MFC cathode and  
32 coupled with the MFC anode (MFC-AdC). The high working potential of BOx cathode  
33 and the low impedances of the additional capacitive electrode and the MFC anode  
34 permitted to achieve up to 19 mW ( $84.4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $152 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ), the highest power value ever  
35 reported for MFCs. Exploiting the supercapacitive properties of the MFC electrodes  
36 allows the system to be simpler, cheaper and more efficient without additional electronics  
37 management added with respect to an MFC/external supercapacitor coupling. The use of  
38 the AdC makes it possible to decouple energy and power and to achieve recharge times in  
39 the order of few seconds making the system appealing for practical applications.

40

41 **Keywords:** microbial fuel cell, supercapacitor, additional cathode, EDLC, high  
42 current/power

## 43 **1. Introduction**

44

45 Microbial fuel cell (MFC) is a promising biotechnology for multiple applications such as  
46 wastewater treatment and energy production from organic compounds (Rinaldi et al.,  
47 2008). Enhancement of MFCs performance through anode and cathode electrodes  
48 materials development has been the main focus of the past decade for the scientists all  
49 over the world (Rinaldi et al., 2008). In general, MFCs can be based on anodes made of  
50 carbonaceous (Wei et al., 2011) and not carbonaceous electro-conductive materials  
51 (Pocaznoi et al., 2012; Guerrini et al., 2014). Anodes feature high surface area in order to  
52 accommodate electroactive bacteria that degrade organics and transfer electrons through  
53 an external load. On the other side, cathode catalysts can be from different families of: i)  
54 carbonaceous high surface materials (Watson et al. 2013), ii) platinum-based materials  
55 (Liu et al., 2015), iii) non-platinum based materials (Antolini, 2015), iv) enzymatic  
56 (Schaetzle et al., 2009; Higgins et al. 2011), and v) microbial (Jang et al., 2013; Ishii et  
57 al. 2014). Such organic/inorganic materials as well as biotic matter work as catalysts or  
58 co-catalyst enhancing the oxygen reduction rate and complete the redox reaction of the  
59 MFC. It has been previously shown that at neutral working pH, enzymes (bilirubin  
60 oxidase and laccase) based catalysis posses the highest open circuit potentials (OCPs)  
61 among the existing catalysts for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) (Mano et al., 2003;  
62 Soukharev et al., 2004).

63 Current/power generated from MFC systems is over 3 orders of magnitude lower  
64 compared to traditional hydrogen- or methanol-fuelled FC (Logan and Rabaey, 2012) and  
65 therefore a smart design is necessary in order to harvest the low energy produced and for

66 the subsequent delivering of the high power pulses which are required for powering  
67 devices. Supercapacitors are electrochemical energy storage systems which deliver high  
68 specific power (up to 10 kW kg<sup>-1</sup>) at required energy levels (Conway, 1999).  
69 Electrochemical double layer capacitors (EDLC) use high surface area carbon electrodes  
70 that store/deliver charge by an intrinsically fast and highly reversible electrostatic process  
71 (Béguin et al., 2014).

72 Supercapacitors have been externally combined to the MFCs in order to harvest  
73 appropriately the energy of the system. The external supercapacitors are recharged by the  
74 MFCs and provide high power output during the discharge. This combination has been  
75 already investigated by several groups (Wang et al.; 2015). The smart design and  
76 efficient series/parallel connection of MFCs with external supercapacitors allowed to  
77 power small electronics devices (Papaharalabos et al., 2013, 2014), sensors (Donovan et  
78 al., 2011, 2013; Di Lorenzo et al., 2014; Ewing et al., 2014; Dewan et al., 2014; Park et  
79 al. 2012), a mobile phone (Ieropoulos et al., 2013), robotics prototypes (Ieropoulos et al.,  
80 2005, 2010, 2012) and the pump required to manage the wastewater flow in MFCs  
81 (Ledezma et al., 2013).

82 The size of the supercapacitor to be connected with the MFC is a crucial design point.  
83 Indeed, the commercially available EDLCs with capacitance on the order of Farads  
84 require a substantial recharging time (on the order of several min or even hours) at the  
85 low current regimes of MFCs (on the orders of  $\mu\text{A}$ ). Every generated high current/power  
86 pulse requires a long time before its repetition, and consequently the tool that is powered  
87 by the MFC/external EDLC is switched on periodically, with long standby steps.

88 The capacitive behavior of the MFC anode has been recently investigated (Deeke et al.,  
89 2012; Feng et al., 2012). It has been also reported an MFC anode decoration with  
90 ruthenium oxide to improve the capacitive response of MFCs (Lv et al., 2012) but its  
91 high cost prevents the usage in large scale MFCs.

92 Designing and improving the capacitive response of the MFC electrodes is a challenging  
93 task for creating an integrated MFC-internal supercapacitor system. The capacitive  
94 electrodes are expected to accomplish high power discharges, being simultaneously  
95 recharged by the MFC redox reactions taking place at the electrode/organics containing  
96 solution and electrode/O<sub>2</sub> interfaces.

97 This approach has been already exploited in the field of biofuel cells where the first use  
98 of enzymatic biofuel cells (BFC) as internal supercapacitor was recently demonstrated by  
99 Pankratov et al. (2014a; 2014b). In this case, the high surface area, carbonaceous anode  
100 and cathode of the BFC operated as the electrodes of the supercapacitor. Higher  
101 performances have been recently obtained by Agnès et al. (2014) using a glucose-oxygen  
102 enzymatic biofuel cell with maximum open circuit voltage of  $\approx 800$  mV. The BFC-  
103 supercapacitor hybrid system had the highest power achieved of approximately 18 mW  
104 (Agnès et al., 2014).

105 To our best knowledge, for the first time, in this study we report on supercapacitive  
106 MFCs where anode and cathode simultaneously harvest energy from wastewater and  
107 work as self-powered EDLC. The power delivered by supercapacitors increases with cell  
108 voltage and with the decrease of the equivalent series resistance (ESR). We demonstrate  
109 how the power output of the MFC can be dramatically improved by two strategies: i) the  
110 use of non-platinum group metal, like iron-aminoantipyrine (Fe-AAPyr) and of bilirubin

111 oxidase (BOx) cathodes to increase cell voltage, and ii) the usage of a third, capacitive  
112 electrode based on high surface area carbon to decrease ESR. The latter is an “additional  
113 cathode” (AdC) which is short-circuited with the MFC cathode and is coupled with the  
114 MFC anode to give a self-powered supercapacitor (MFC-AdC). This is the first time that  
115 the concept of AdC electrode is used. The proof-of-concept is demonstrated using a  
116 commercial high surface area carbon brush as the additional cathode and by galvanostatic  
117 tests at different currents from 1mA up to 45 mA.

118

## 119 **2. Materials and Methods**

120

### 121 **2.1 MFC configuration and electrolyte composition**

122

123 Single glass bottle MFC (Cataldo Arbore, Milan, Italy) with 125 mL volume was used. A  
124 lateral hole of 2.25 cm<sup>2</sup> allowed the insertion of the cathode that was there screwed using  
125 a metallic clamp. Membraneless configuration allowed the exposure of anode and  
126 cathode to the same electrolyte. A reference electrode (Ag/AgCl 3M KCl) was included  
127 for the basic electrochemical studies.

128 The electrolyte was composed of a mixture of 50% volume of activated sludge from  
129 Albuquerque Southeast Water Reclamation Facility (New Mexico, USA) and 50%  
130 volume of phosphate buffer saline solution (PBS) and KCl 0.1M. PBS was made using  
131 KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (1.77 g) and K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (15.16 g). The pH of the electrolyte was 7.5±0.02. An air  
132 breathing cathode configuration was used and the tests were run in ambient conditions.  
133 The experiments have been carried out in Albuquerque at a constant temperature that was



134 22±1 °C and at 1600 meters above sea level. At that altitude, oxygen concentration is  
135 roughly 20% lower compared to sea level due to the lower air pressure. This parameter  
136 has to be taken into account when comparing the performance of air-breathing MFCs.

137

## 138 **2.2 MFC electrode materials and additional cathode material**

139

140 Anode electrodes were based on a carbon brush (Millirose, USA) of diameter 3 cm,  
141 length of 3 cm and projected area of 9 cm<sup>2</sup>. The anodes were pre-colonized by mixed  
142 cultures bacteria taken from previous experiments running for over 4 months (Santoro et  
143 al., 2015a). Three different cathodes based on activated carbon (AC), iron-  
144 aminoantipyrine (Fe-AAPyr) and bilirubin oxidase (BOx) enzymes were used. All the  
145 cathodes tested had the same current collector that was metallic stainless steel mesh  
146 (McMaster, USA).

147 AC-based cathode was prepared by mixing 70%wt high surface area AC (Norit SX Ultra,  
148 Sigma Aldrich), 10%wt carbon black (CB, Alfa Aesar) and 20%wt PTFE (60% solution,  
149 Sigma Aldrich) for 5 min in a coffee grinder. The carbon black was added to enhance the  
150 composite electrode conductivity. After mixing, the composite material was pressed at 2  
151 mT into a pellet die for 5 min (Santoro et al., 2014). The composite loading was 35±5 mg  
152 cm<sup>-2</sup>, the geometric area was 2.25 cm<sup>2</sup> and this value was used for the power  
153 normalization. The cathode has not been heated as previously shown (Santoro et al.,  
154 2014). The volume used for power normalization refers to the chamber volume of 125  
155 mL.

156 The same procedure was followed to prepare Fe-AAPyr based cathode except that Fe-  
157 AAPyr was added into the mixture and mixed vigorously, before pressing at 2 mT. The  
158 preparation of Fe-AAPyr has been previously described (Santoro et al., 2015b). The Fe-  
159 AAPyr loading was  $1.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ . Synthetic approach for preparation of Fe-AAPyr  
160 was based on Sacrificial Support Method developed at University of New Mexico. (Serov  
161 et al., 2014a, 2014b)

162 The preparation of BOx cathode instead was based on AC (70%wt), 10%wt CB and  
163 20%wt PTFE ground for 5 min and then pressed at 2 mT for 5 min. After that,  
164 isopropanol ( $40 \mu\text{L cm}^{-2}$ ) was added on the top to create a hydrophilic/hydrophobic  
165 gradient. A multi-walled nanotube paper (MWNTP, Buckeye Composite) was then fused  
166 together on the top using pressure 0.25 mT for 5 min). At last, 10 mg of BOx (Amano  
167 Enzyme, USA) dissolved in 50 mM PBS solution was then drop-casted onto the MWNTP  
168 surface. The cathodes were kept at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  over night for enzyme immobilization. Before the  
169 utilization, the liquid was dried and then the cathode was screwed on the lateral hole of  
170 the bottle (Santoro et al., 2013).

171 The additional cathode for the supercapacitor was carbon brush (Millirose, USA) of  
172 diameter 2 cm and projected area of  $4 \text{ cm}^2$  that was coated with a 95%wt AC- 5%wt  
173 Nafion layer (0.3 g total). The carbon brush was immersed into a solution based on  
174 Nafion (0.5% alcoholic solution Dupont, 1.0 mL), AC (100 mg) and water-isopropanol  
175 solution (1 mL) and then was dried in ambient atmosphere over night. The addition of  
176 AC allowed the increase in surface area of the carbon brush and consequently in the  
177 capacitance of the overall additional cathode brush. The additional cathode was  
178 completely immersed into the electrolyte and short-circuited with the MFC cathode.

179

## 180 **2.3 Electrochemical measurements**

181

182 Electrochemical measurements have been done using a potentiostat (SP-50, Bio-Logic,  
183 France). Electrochemical tests consisted in the repetition of a sequence of the following  
184 steps: rest (OCV) – galvanostatic (GLV) discharge at different currents ( $i_{\text{pulse}}$ , A) from 1  
185 mA up to 45 mA) over 10 ms, 2 s or complete discharge down to 0V cell voltage. The  
186 use of the reference electrode permitted to simultaneously monitor the MFC anode and  
187 cathode (eventually short circuited with the AdC cathode) potentials as well as the cell  
188 voltage during the sequence repetition. The analysis of the GLV discharge data is detailed  
189 in the ESI section

190

## 191 **3. Results and discussion**

192

### 193 **3.1 Supercapacitive Microbial Fuel Cell**

194

195 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 1**

196

197 In rest conditions, the cell voltage ( $V_{\text{max, OC}}$ ) of an MFC is determined by the equilibrium  
198 potentials of the half-reactions taking place at the electrodes. The anaerobic anode  
199 equilibrium potential of acetate oxidation at pH=7 is equal to ~-500 mV vs Ag/AgCl. The  
200 theoretical potential for the oxygen reduction reaction at pH=7 is ~620 mV vs Ag/AgCl  
201 (Erable et al., 2012). The anaerobic (bio-anode) and aerobic (cathode) environments of

202 the MFC polarize the carbon electrodes towards values that are more negative and  
203 positive than the typical equilibrium potential (near 0 mV vs Ag/AgCl (Béguin et al.,  
204 2014)) exhibited by metal and catalyst-free carbons in the de-aerated electrolytes (e.g.  
205 supercapacitors electrolytes). The electrode processes cause the formation of  
206 electrochemical double layers at the MFC electrode/electrolyte interfaces (Conway,  
207 1999).

208 The excess of negative and positive charges, at the polarized anode and cathode surfaces  
209 respectively, is balanced by positive and negative counter ions coming from the ionic  
210 species dissolved in the solution. Electrolyte ions migrate to oppositely charged  
211 electrodes forming an electrochemical double layer at each high-surface area  
212 carbonaceous electrode of the MFC. The MFC is electrostatically storing charge at  
213  $V_{\max,OC}$ , hence it is storing energy like in the case of an EDLC. The MFC anode and  
214 cathode can be then discharged by a rapid electrostatic process. Their surface charges are  
215 neutralized and ions are released in the bulk wastewater solution. The energy that was  
216 electrostatically stored can thus be delivered by high and short galvanostatic discharge  
217 pulses (GLV) and high power output is achieved. Subsequent rest, i.e. setting the MFC in  
218 OC without any external load applied, restores the electrode equilibrium potentials. The  
219 carbon electrodes are polarized again, the double-layers at each electrode are re-  
220 established, and the internal EDLC is recharged. Under these conditions, the system  
221 operates a self-powered supercapacitor (Fig. 1.a and Fig. 1.b).

222 Fig. 1.c reports the cell voltage trend of a MFC under a rest (OC) - galvanostatic  
223 discharge pulse (GLV) - OC sequence. Fig. 1.c also highlights the parameters that were  
224 used for the evaluation of the system performance (see Supplemental Information).

225

226 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 2**

227

228 For the first time, this concept was proven by the data reported in Figure 2 that shows the  
229 MFCs cell voltage and electrode potential profiles under the sequence test reported in  
230 Fig. 1.c, by 2 s ( $t_{\text{pulse}}$ ) discharge pulse at 3 mA ( $i_{\text{pulse}}$ ). The MFCs investigated had  
231 different cathodes described before as AC, Fe-AAPyr and BOx and the cells are labeled  
232 with the cathode acronyms. The AC, Fe-AAPyr and BOx MFCs features  $V_{\text{max}}$ , OC of 590  
233 mV, 650 mV and 790 mV, respectively. This trend follows the equilibrium cathode  
234 potentials of 105, 175 and 315 mV vs Ag/AgCl for AC, Fe-AAPyr and BOx cathodes.  
235 Higher cathode potentials of BOx compared to other catalysts have been previously  
236 shown (Mano et al., 2003). In all the investigated MFCs the equilibrium anode potential  
237 was  $\approx$ -500 mV vs Ag/AgCl which is close to the theoretical value.

238 The pulse caused the decrease of  $V_{\text{max}}$ , OC by ohmic ( $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$ ) and capacitive  
239 ( $\Delta V_{\text{capacitive}}$ ) contributions (Fig. 1.c). The  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  cell voltage losses were in the range of  
240 311 mV to 383 mV (Fig. 2 a,c,e) which were due to ESRs of 105-130  $\Omega$  (Table S1,  
241 calculation in SI). Monitoring the MFC electrode potentials during the pulse permitted to  
242 identify the cathode as the main contributor of  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  and, hence, of ESR for all the  
243 MFCs (Fig. 2.b,d,f). Cathode overpotentials at  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  equal to 3 mA were 299 mV for BOx,  
244 followed by Fe-AAPyr with 339 mV and AC with 344 mV and accounted for over 90%  
245 of the total MFC  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  and ESR. The high electrode thickness ( $\approx$ 1 mm) that is required  
246 to avoid wastewater leakage through the breathing cathode could be one of the  
247 parameters that determine the high cathode impedances (in the order of 100  $\Omega$ , as

248 evaluated by dividing the cathode overpotential by  $i_{\text{pulse}}$ ). The lowest ohmic losses of  
249 BOx cathode can be related to the utilization of CNT in the electrode preparation. CNT  
250 enhanced electronic conductivity compared to AC-based electrodes. The anodes based on  
251 carbon brush colonized by electro-active bacteria featured very low overpotentials within  
252 few mV (accounted for less than 10% of the total MFC  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  and ESR). This suggests  
253 that using high surface area and high conductivity carbon brush contributed to very low  
254 anode impedance that varied in a small range of 4-13  $\Omega$ .

255 For all the MFCs, the  $\Delta V_{\text{capacitive}}$  cell voltage loss of the different MFCs was negligible  
256 and similar, indicating comparable cell capacitance (C) response. The values of C  
257 estimated by the cell voltage slope (s) (Conway, 1999) were between 80 and 100 mF  
258 (Table S1, calculation in SI). The electrode profile analyses indicated that anode and  
259 cathode almost equally contribute to C with electrode capacitances of ca. 200 mF.

260 Capacitance (C), equivalent series resistance (ESR), and maximum cell voltage under  
261 operation ( $V_{\text{max}}$ ), which in turn depends on ESR (see SI), determine the practical  
262 maximum energy ( $E_{\text{max}}$ ) and power ( $P_{\text{max}}$ ) and the charge/discharge time constant ( $\tau$ ) of  
263 the supercapacitor. Indeed, these parameters are related by the following equations:

$$264 \quad E_{\text{max}} = \frac{1}{2} C \times V_{\text{max}}^2 \quad (1)$$

$$265 \quad P_{\text{max}} = i_{\text{pulse}} \times V_{\text{max}} \quad (2)$$

$$266 \quad \tau = \text{ESR} \times C. \quad (3)$$

267 C and ESR were used to estimate  $\tau$  (Table S1) which was in the order of 10 s, thus  
268 demonstrating the fast rate capability of the supercapacitive system. Table S1 reports the  
269 practical values of  $E_{\text{max}}$  and  $P_{\text{max}}$ , and of the useful energy delivered during the pulse  
270 ( $E_{\text{pulse}}$ ) and average pulse power ( $P_{\text{pulse}}$ ) evaluated by the GLV curves at 3 mA reported on

271 Fig. 2. These values were calculated by taking into account that the highest feasible cell  
272 voltage ( $V_{\max}$ ) is the voltage of the charged cell in open circuit conditions ( $V_{\max, \text{OC}}$ )  
273 decreased by  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  after the pulse (see Figure 1.c), which in turn depends on  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  (eqs.  
274 SI9 and SI10). The energy and power values increase in the order  $\text{AC} < \text{Fe-AAPyr} <$   
275  $\text{BOx}$ , thus following the MFC voltage trend.

276

277 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 3**

278

279 On the basis of  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  and ESR that were evaluated by the test reported in Fig. 2, we  
280 calculated the  $P_{\max}$  that can be delivered by the three MFCs at different  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  as described  
281 in the Data Analysis Section of the SI, and the data are reported in Fig. 3. The Figure  
282 reports  $P_{\max}$  values that are 3-5 times higher compared to the highest values obtained  
283 during conventional MFC operations that with the same configuration were equal to 2  
284  $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  (BOx) (Santoro et al., 2013),  $1.67 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (Fe-AAPyr) (Santoro et al., 2015b) and  
285  $1.17 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (AC) (Santoro et al., 2015b) referred to the geometric area of the cathode, the  
286 limiting electrode.

287 Fig. 3 even indicates that the MFCs can deliver pulse currents up to 4 mA (AC and Fe-  
288 AAPyr) and 5 mA (BOx). We calculated that the highest  $P_{\text{pulse}}$  of 1.47 mW ( $6.53 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  
289  $11.76 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ) can be delivered by the BOx MFC at 3.7 mA, followed by Fe-AAPyr-MFC  
290 (0.90 mW ( $4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $7.2 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ) at 2.7 mA) and AC (0.67 mW ( $2.98 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $5.36 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ) at  
291 2.2 mA).

292 Data in Table S1 and Fig. 3 demonstrate that the utilization of cathodes with high  
293 working potentials is a reasonable option to increase the electric work and the power  
294 output of the designated current pulse.

295

### 296 **3.2 MFC-AdC Response**

297 ESR,  $C$ ,  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  and  $t_{\text{pulse}}$  are the key parameters to be optimized in order to achieve high  
298 maximum energy ( $E_{\text{max}}$ ) and power ( $P_{\text{max}}$ ) and, more importantly, high practical values of  
299 energy ( $E_{\text{pulse}}$ ) and power ( $P_{\text{pulse}}$ ) delivered during the pulses. The practical values of  $E_{\text{max}}$   
300 and  $P_{\text{max}}$  depend on the highest feasible cell voltage ( $V_{\text{max}}$ ), namely the voltage of the  
301 charged cell in open circuit conditions ( $V_{\text{max, OCV}}$ ) decreased by  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  after the pulse,  
302 which in turn depends on ESR and  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  (see SI). ESR has to be minimized in order to  
303 increase power output. The performance of the MFCs reported above was mainly  
304 affected by the cathode ohmic losses. In order to overcome cathode limitation, an  
305 additional cathode (denoted as AdC) was short-circuited with the MFC cathode,  
306 embedded into the same electrolyte, and used as the positive electrode of the internal  
307 supercapacitor (Fig. 1.b). The AdC was a carbon brush coated with activated carbon (AC)  
308 to increase its surface area and electrode capacitance. The brush was used for its low  
309 electrode resistance demonstrated in the previous section 3.1.

310 The AdC was short-circuited with the MFC cathode and it was brought to the high  
311 potential value of the latter. This caused the formation of an electric double-layer at the  
312 short-circuited brush/wastewater interface and the internal, positive charge of the AdC  
313 (Fig. 1.b). Coupling the AdC with the MFC anode provides an internal, self-powered  
314 EDLC that can be rapidly discharged by an electrostatic process to give high power



315 output. According to the Kirchhoff law, the highest current will flow through the lowest  
316 resistance branches of the circuit that models our system, i.e. the MFC anode and AdC  
317 electrode resistances and the electrolyte resistance. The MFC cathode is then excluded  
318 with positive effect on ESR and power output.

319 The MFC-AdC cells with AC, Fe-AAPyr and BOx cathodes short-circuited with the AdC  
320 are labeled with AC-AdC, Fe-AAPyr-AdC, and BOx-AdC. Fig. 3 shows the cell voltage  
321 and electrode potential profiles under 2 s discharge pulse at 3 mA. The MFC-AdC  
322 performances are summarized in Table S1.

323 Fig. 2 a, c, e demonstrate that the use of the AdC with  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  equal to 3 mA dramatically  
324 decreases  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  down to 66 mV, 50 mV and 56 mV with AC, Fe-AAPyr and BOx  
325 cathodes, without modifying the corresponding  $V_{\text{max, OC}}$ . The MFC-AdC ESRs evaluated  
326 by  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  are 6-8 times lower than MFCs' and reduced to 16-22  $\Omega$ . Fig. 2b, d, f evinces  
327 that this result is due to the very low potential losses of the AdC-short circuited cathodes,  
328 in turn related to their low impedances of  $\approx 13 \Omega$ . Given that the cell capacitance did not  
329 significantly change (except for the cell with Fe-AAPyr-AdC which exhibited 60 mF),  
330 the time response  $\tau$  was substantially lowered to 2 s.

331 Table S1 demonstrates that the decreases of  $\Delta V_{\text{ohmic}}$  had the main effect on  $V_{\text{max}}$  and on  
332 energy and power values which substantially increased. The highest performance was  
333 achieved with the BOx-AdC cell which at 3 mA featured a practical operation voltage of  
334 734 mV and  $P_{\text{pulse}}$  of 2 mW ( $t_{\text{pulse}} = 2$  s). These are extremely high values that have never  
335 been reported before for microbial fuel cells.

336

337 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 4**

338

339 The MFC-AdC cells were also tested at different pulse currents and the voltage profiles  
340 analyzed to extract the  $P_{\max}$  vs  $I_{\text{pulse}}$  plots reported in Fig. 4 (see SI). The significant  
341 decrease in ESR allow to achieve pulse current up to 45-50 mA that were roughly 10  
342 times higher than the 4-5 mA possible with MFC.  $P_{\max}$  was 19 mW ( $84.4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $152 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ )  
343 with BOx cathode, 14 mW ( $62.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $112 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ) with Fe-AAPyr and 6 mW ( $26.7$   
344  $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ ,  $49 \text{ Wm}^{-3}$ ) with AC cathode. These values are roughly one order of magnitude  
345 higher than those achieved without AdC (Fig. 3), thus indicating the successful utilization  
346 of the AdC.

347

348 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 5**

349

350 Fig. 5 shows the MFC-AdC average pulse power  $P_{\text{pulse}}$  delivered at different currents over  
351 10 ms and 2s pulses. Even under such test, the BOx-AdC cell outperformed the other  
352 MFC-AdCs having 10 ms power output of 12 mW, followed by 9.5 mW of Fe-AAPyr-  
353 AdC and 4 mW of AC-AdC (Fig. 5.a). As it expected, the power decreases at pulse  
354 length of 2 s and the highest  $P_{\text{pulse}}$  was 5 mW for BOx-AdC, followed by 3 mW for Fe-  
355 AAPyr-AdC and 2 mW for AC-AdC (Fig. 5.b).

356

357 **3.3 Supercapacitive recharging time and durability experiments**

358

359 **PLEASE INSERT HERE FIGURE 6**

360

361 Despite the higher OCP of the BOx, it has been shown previously that enzymes are not  
362 durable for long period of time mainly due to denaturation or deactivation (Santoro et al.  
363 2013). Moreover, currently, the cost of BOx is very high limiting practical utilization for  
364 wastewater treatment purposes. At the contrary, Fe-AAPyr is a reliable catalyst for  
365 oxygen reduction reaction at neutral pH due to its stability and low cost aiming to be a  
366 good candidate for large-scale application (Santoro et al. 2015a). Consequently, the  
367 recharging time and durability tests have been carried out considering the MFC-AdC with  
368 Fe-AAPyr cathode for possible real and long terms application.

369 Fig. 6.a shows the voltage and electrode potential profiles of the Fe-AAPyr-AdC cell  
370 under an OC-GLV-OC sequence with 2s-pulses at 6 mA and 20 s rest. The rest of 20 s  
371 was enough to restore the equilibrium electrode potentials and “recharge” the cell at the  
372  $V_{\max, OC}$  voltage (Fig. 6.b). Each cycle overlapped indicating the reversibility of the  
373 process. This underlines that the self-recharge of the internal EDLC is reversible and fast  
374 and can take place in the order of seconds.

375 The cycling stability of the Fe-AAPyr-AdC was proved over 1000 OC-GLV-OC steps  
376 which were performed by 10 ms-pulses at 10 mA followed by 10s rest. The first four  
377 (Fig. S1c) and last four (Fig. S1d) cycles are also reported. The cell voltage as well as the  
378 anodic and cathodic potentials during the initial and final cycles had very similar trend  
379 thus indicating that high current regimes (10 mA) do not affect the performances of the  
380 cell. Equilibria anode and cathode potentials are recovered in few seconds and this  
381 permits a stable, long-time operation.

382

### 383 **3.4 Significance of the Supercapacitive Microbial Fuel Cell**

384

385 In this first proof of concept, we demonstrate that current/power output is comparable  
386 with MFC/external supercapacitor systems' with the advantage of much shorter  
387 recharging time: sec/min instead of hours. This permits to increase power output  
388 frequency that is an appealing feature for real applications where devices need to be  
389 frequently powered. Notably, the AdC size can be independently sized which makes it  
390 possible to de-couple energy and power and to address target application requirements,  
391 from sensor to external pump powering for self-sustainable systems. At last, the proposed  
392 concept is sustainable in terms of materials, processes and energy cost. Further works  
393 will be addressed to cell design and materials optimization for system scaling up.

394

#### 395 **4. Conclusions**

396

397 To the best of our knowledge, for the first time a supercapacitive system with MFC anode  
398 and cathode used as negative and positive electrodes of a self-rechargeable, internal  
399 supercapacitor is demonstrated. The use of high voltage operation cathodes and the  
400 additional capacitive cathode electrode permitted to achieve the exceptionally high power  
401 of 19 mW under pulse currents as high as 45 mA. The power normalized to the geometric  
402 cathode area results  $84 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . This is the highest performance ever achieved by an MFC  
403 system. With respect to MFC/external supercapacitor coupling, MFC-AdC is a more  
404 efficient, simple and cheap way of harvesting energy from the MFC system and does not  
405 require any additional electronics management.

406

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408

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413

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## Figures Content

**Figure 1.** Microbial Fuel Cell configuration with anode and cathode of the MFC used as EDLC electrodes. Red and blue circles indicate cations and anions, respectively (a). MFC-AdC configuration with short circuited AdC-cathode and anode of the MFC used as EDLC electrodes (b). Current/Cell Voltage trends during the OC – GLV- OC sequence used for the electrochemical test. The labels indicate the parameters used for the evaluations of the system performance (c).

**Figure 2.** Cell voltage (a,c,e) and electrode potential (b,d,f) profiles of MFC and MFC-AdC cells with AC (a,b), Fe-AAPyr (c,d) and BOx (e,f) cathodes under 5s rest and 2 s pulses at 3 mA.

**Figure 3.** Calculated  $P_{\max}$  vs.  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  plots of the MFCs assembled with AC, BOx and Fe-AAPyr cathodes.

**Figure 4.**  $P_{\max}$  vs.  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  plots of the three MFCs having the additional cathode calculated at different pulse currents.

**Figure 5.**  $P_{\text{pulse}}$  vs.  $i_{\text{pulse}}$  plots for MFC-AdC cells for pulse time of 10 ms (a) and 2 s (b).

**Figure 6.** Cell voltage (a) and anode and cathode potentials (b) profile of a Fe-AAPyr-AdC cell under an OC-GLV-OC sequence with 2s-pulses at 6 mA and 20 s rest.

Figure 1

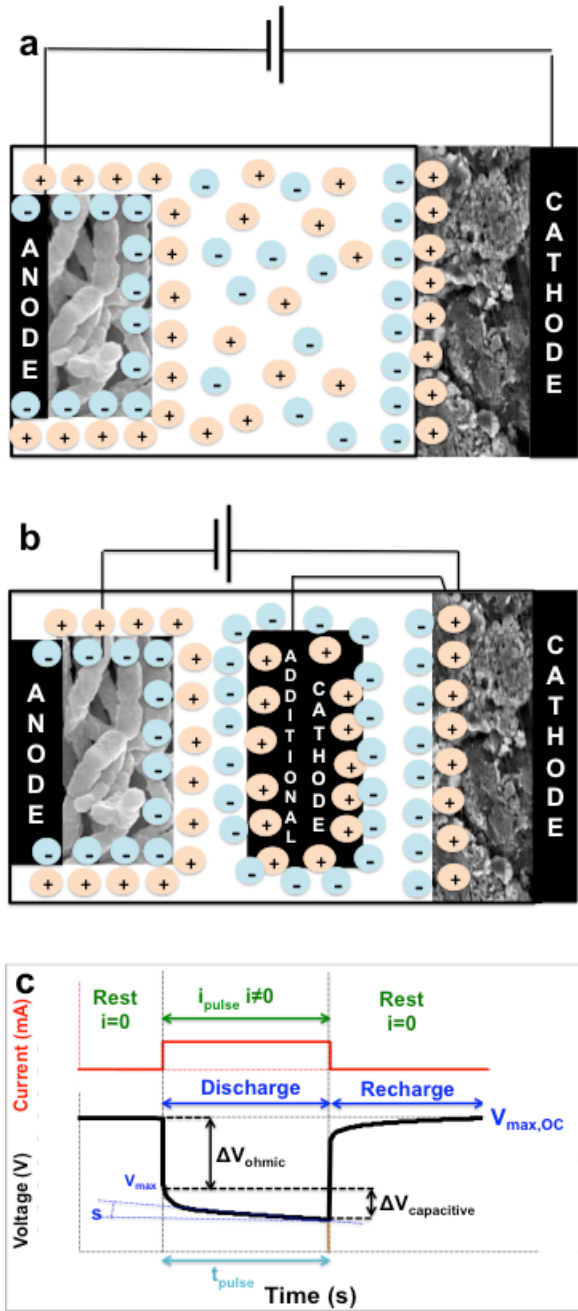




Figure 2

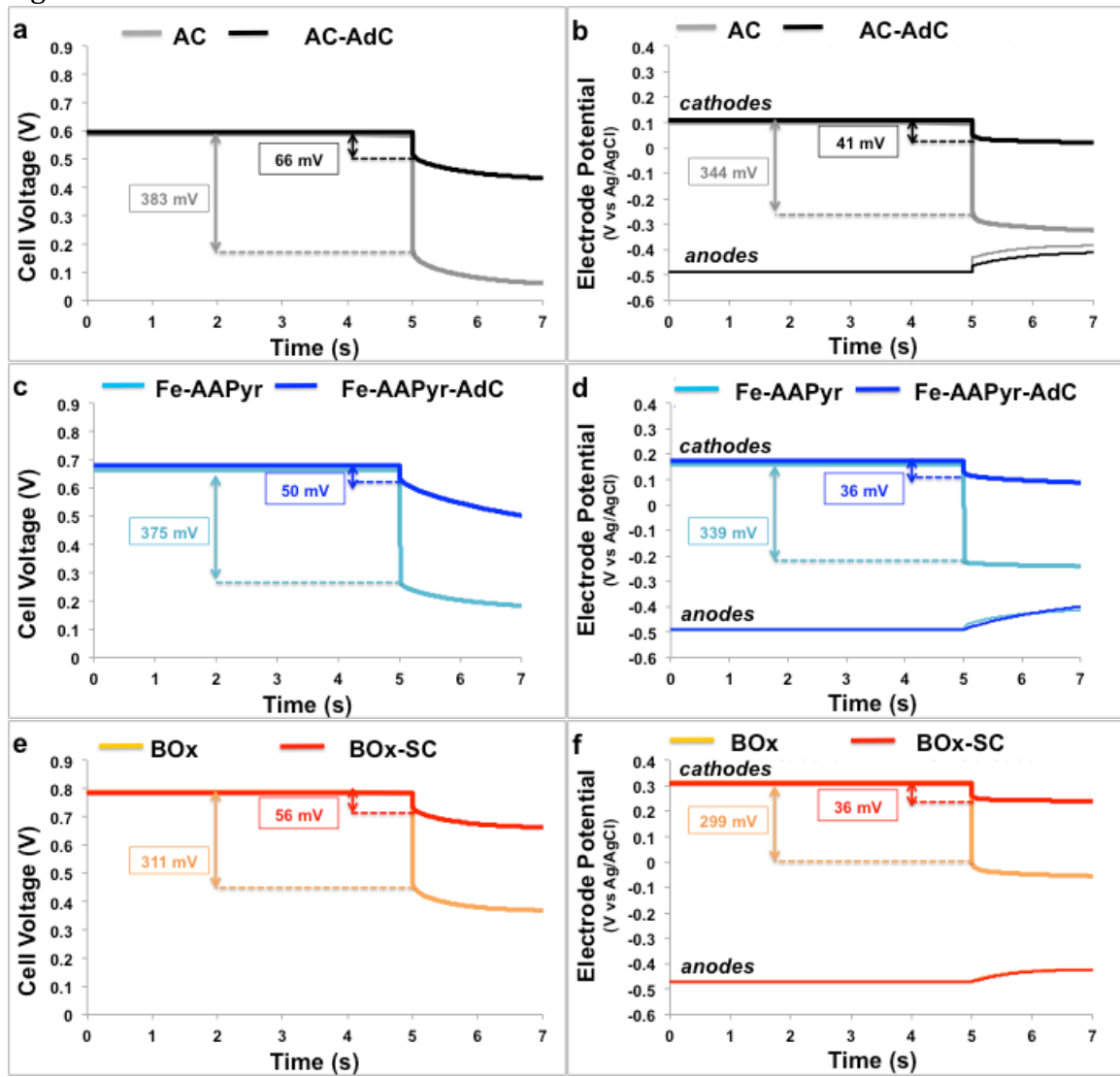


Figure 3

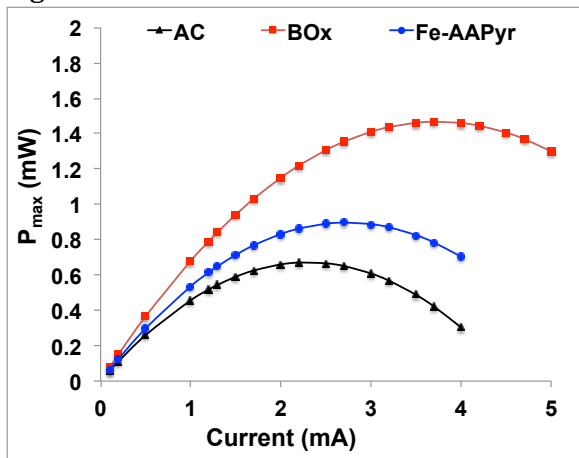


Figure 4

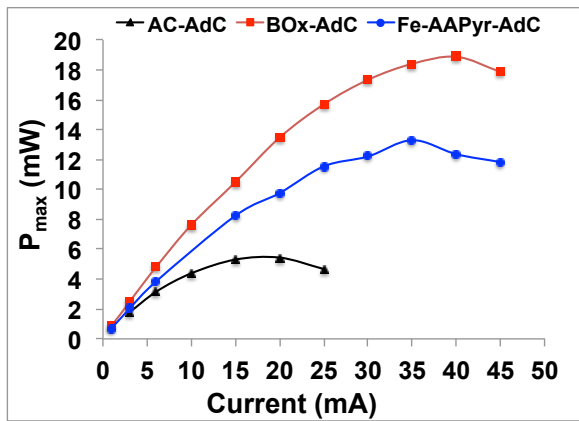


Figure 5

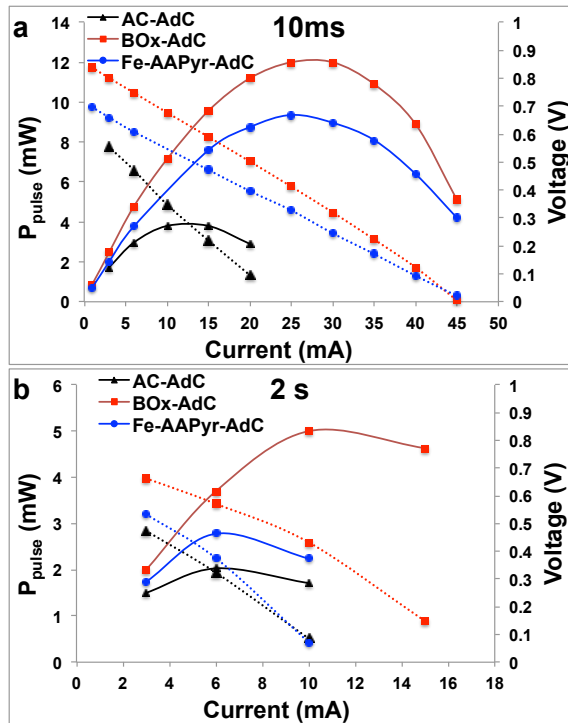


Figure 6

