



All ecosystems potentially host electrogenic bacteria



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ABSTRACT

Instead of requiring metal catalysts, MFCs utilize bacteria that oxidize organic matter and either transfer electrons to the anode or take electrons from the cathode. These devices are thus based on a wide microbial diversity that can convert a large array of organic matter components into sustainable and renewable energy. A wide variety of explored environments were found to host electrogenic bacteria, including extreme environments. In the present review, we describe how different ecosystems host electrogenic bacteria, as well as the physicochemical, electrochemical and biological parameters that control the currents from MFCs. We also report how using new molecular techniques allowed characterization of electrochemical biofilms and identification of potentially new electrogenic species. Finally we discuss these findings in the context of future research directions.

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1. Introduction

In recent years, industrialization and the global economic system have led to the overexploitation of fossil fuels, especially oil and gas. Indeed, shortage of these latter products has resulted in a global energy crisis warning [1–3]. Alternative green energy has attracted great attention for new means of electricity production, including by

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microorganisms [4,5]. One promising yet challenging emerging technology uses microbial fuel cells (MFCs), in which microorganisms generate electricity by exchanging electrons with electrodes while oxidizing organic or inorganic matter [6,7]. This principle makes use of the fact that bacterial exocellular electron transfer plays an important role in anaerobic microbial communities that degrade organic matter and those that use insoluble electron acceptors (such as iron- and manganese-oxide) for growth [8,9].

The ability of microorganisms to produce electricity was demonstrated at least one hundred years ago by immersing a platinum electrode in a suspension of *Escherichia coli* and *Saccharomyces* [10]. However, a greater interest in this phenomenon only arrived several decades later, when anaerobic bacteria such as *Clostridium butyricum* were used to enhance current density and power output [11]. During this same period, the first fuel cell was conceived with two chambers (one anodic and one cathodic) separated by an ion exchange membrane [12]. Since then, the design of MFCs has evolved, and electrical current output now reaches 2.87 kW m^{-3} [13]. While most prokaryotes can potentially generate electricity [1,14,15], only a few bacteria have been highlighted to form electrochemically active biofilm (EAB) to date. EAB is a generic term used to designate biofilm that are able to transfer electrons towards a final electron acceptor (such as electrodes in a MFC system), thus acting as the catalyst for redox reactions. Different pathways are currently known to be involved in this electron transfer. These species will be detailed later in this review.

Although biofilm construction is rapid and highly durable, EAB diversity can be highly variable depending on culture conditions (which can favor certain bacterial populations), which can therefore modulate electricity production. For example, Logan and Regan [16] reported that power production could vary from $<1 \text{ mW} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ to $>1500 \text{ mW} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ on the basis of different MFC architectures that use oxygen as the final electron acceptor. This huge variability could be explained by the different existing MFC types that produce more or less current, since the design of the MFC system affects power generation [17].

Different environments have been explored in an attempt to understand the diversity of microorganisms involved in this exocellular electron transfer. Many different types of environments harbor EAB, including anaerobic sludge from treatment plants, anaerobic sediment, and even soil. Although it is supposed that bacteria may belong to the rare biosphere, they may dominate when electrode are in contact with sample [18,19]. Since one of the most promising applications of MFC could be the treatment of wastewater, many efforts have been targeted at wastewater treatment plants, paper mill effluents, etc. [20–24].

The focus of this review is on environments that host EAB, the principle communities of these ecosystems, and their electrogenic potential. Ecosystems that host EAB and the optimal conditions for growth and electron transfer will be described in detail.

2. Electrogenic microorganisms

Many diverse electroactive microorganisms have been studied to date in an effort to improve the energy production of MFCs. An inventory of enrichment cultures as well as pure strains known to be involved in MFCs was made until late 2008 [15,25].

Different EAB communities can interact as consortia and generate energy. This is generally what characterizes natural ecosystems such as wastewater, river, rice field soils or compost [22,26–31]. Identification of single electrochemically active species in these natural environments has been performed with type strains that correspond to predominant species in wild EA biofilms. The few strains of bacteria directly isolated from EAB have displayed a higher electrochemical performance than their type strains [25,27]. For example, *Ochrobactrum anthropi* YZ-1, a strain isolated from EAB originally obtained in a primary clarifier overflow from a wastewater treatment plant, produced $89 \text{ mW} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. This value is two-fold higher than its type strain [32].

The comparison of electroactivity between pure cultures and microbial consortia in wastewater reveals a greater power density with higher columbic efficiency for the consortia [15,33].

3. Do all ecosystems host electrogenic bacteria?

The presence of diverse EAB raises the question of which environments are the most electrogenic. Although most electrical current studies have focused on effluent from diverse wastewater treatment facilities, EAB appear to be widely distributed as suggested by studies of different environmental types (Table. 1) [34]. Many soil and aquatic environments have been tested over the years, complicating the ability to address an exhaustive list. Furthermore, none of these studied environments have been tested under the same MFC conditions. Instead, many studies have focused on optimization and progress towards improving MFCs, even if accurate comparisons of natural inoculums and their electrical performances are lacking. Therefore, even if these advances are highly useful to future MFC commercialization, a basic understanding of MFC biology and electrochemistry is still necessary.

3.1. Natural environments

Various aquatic natural environments have been investigated (Table. 1), and one river with phototrophic biofilm has been reported to have a current of $3.7 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ [35]. River offers further possibilities such as sediment that could perform from about 0.2 to $0.3 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ [36–38]. Environments that assure the transition between continental and marine environments can lead to power production. Mangrove sediment is naturally rich in organic matter due to tides and rich forest litter [39], resulting in a potential for energy output as high as $12 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ [34, 40]. Beach sediments that play the same role as mangroves produce a current density with values ranging from 0.8 to $8.9 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ [26,34]. Even tidal mud has a slight potential to produce current [41]. Sampling direct microbial biofilm from salt marsh [34,42] or marine sediment [26] provides current densities from approximately 4.45 to 85 and $2 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$, respectively. Two types of MFC can be employed in marine and salt marsh sediment: a traditional MFC, in which sediment is sampled and serves as the inoculum for a reactor; and a benthic MFC (BMFC), in which two electrodes are placed in situ (the anode is placed under the sediment and the cathode is floating). The BMFC design could be applied to any type of environment, but it is more often used in marine environments, since they could be an energy source for different autonomous oceanographic or environmental sensors [43–45].

Microbial fuel cells have been extensively exploited in aquatic environments such as marine sediments or wastewater [27,31]. Terrestrial environments have been comparatively underexploited despite they hold a high diversity of microorganisms and a wide variety of organic and/or inorganic matters widespread [27,34,46].

Soils that support plant growth (Table. 1) are naturally rich in nutrients (e.g. carbohydrates, amino acids, aliphatic acids, enzymes, vitamins...) and should correspond to an electrogenic environment [46]. Indeed, plants produce organic acids such as acetate that are known to induce a high power density and enrich EAB [47,48]. For example, one previous study demonstrated the potential of rice paddy fields to produce a current density reaching approximately $0.1 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ [49]. Soils with plants are not the only terrestrial ecosystem that can host EAB; rich soils such as compost can also offer a promising host environment for electricity production. Compared to ordinary soil, compost is more enriched in organic matter; this could increase bacterial activity and thus the potential to produce electricity using a MFC system. Composts can display current production up to four times greater than natural soil [29]. This confirms that composition and richness of organic matter greatly affect MFC potential. Garden compost is another good source of organic matter and EAB for MFC, as it displays a current production ($1.5 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$) on the same order as industrial composts ($1.1 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$) [29,50]. Anaerobic soils produce a good electrical current density

Table 1
Electrochemical activity of various environments.

Environments	MFC architecture	Natural or enriched samples	Poised potential (V)	Carbon sources	Electrode materials	Performances ($A \cdot m^{-2}$)	References
Aquatic							
Anaerobic lake sediment	BMFC ^a	Natural	–	Acetate	Carbon fiber brush	0.125	[74]
Deep-ocean coldseep	BMFC	Natural	0.3	–	Graphite rod	0.085	[71]
Volcanic lake	BMFC	Natural	–	Acetate	Carbon paper	0.2	[70]
Anoxic marine marsh sediment	Single chamber MFC ^b	Enriched	0.5	Acetate	Graphite	0.2	[69]
Beach sand	Single chamber MFC	Natural	–0.1	Acetate	Graphite plate	0.6	[26]
Mangrove	Single chamber MFC	Enriched	–0.3	Acetate	Cylindrical graphite rod	10.27	[34]
Natural marine biofilm	Single chamber MFC	Natural	–0.1	Acetate	Graphite plate	2.6	[26]
Saline microbial mat	Single chamber MFC	Enriched	–0.3	Acetate	Cylindrical graphite rod	4.45	[34]
Salt marsh	Single chamber MFC	Natural	0.1	Acetate	Carbon felt	85	[42]
Acidic river	SMFC ^c	Natural	–	–	Graphite	3.5	[28]
Aquaculture pond sediment	SMFC	Natural	–	Cellulose	Graphite plate	0.02	[60]
Freshwater aquaculture sediment	SMFC	Natural	–	–	Graphite plate	0.03	[59]
Acid hydrometallurgical mining process waters	Two chamber MFC	Enriched	–	–	Graphite plate	0.433	[67]
River sediment	Two chamber MFC	Natural	–	Glucose	Carbon paper	3.5	[36]
Sea sediment	Two chamber MFC	Natural	–	Glucose	Carbon paper	2.8	[36]
Terrestrial							
Hydrocarbon contaminated soils	Air cathode MFC	Natural	0.25	Phenol	Carbon felt	0.18	[22]
Anaerobic soils	Single chamber MFC	Enriched	–0.3	Acetate	Cylindrical graphite rod	9.15	[34]
Garden compost leachate	Single chamber MFC	Natural	0.1	Acetate	Carbon felt	9.9	[27]
Iron rich soils	Single chamber MFC	Enriched	–0.3	Acetate	Cylindrical graphite rod	2.33	[34]
Living (rice) plant (rhizodeposit)	SMFC	Natural	–	Hogland's hydroponics solution	Graphite granules	0.12	[46]
Silt-rich soil	Two chamber MFC	Enriched	–	Lactate	Graphite felt	0.375	[75]

^a Benthic microbial fuel cell.

^b Microbial fuel cell.

^c Sediment microbial fuel cell.

ranging from 8.6 to $9.2 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [20]. Less typical soils also offer promise for MFC technologies. For example, iron-rich soil induces a current density around $2.3 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [34].

3.2. Anthropogenic environments

Since effluents are organically rich and could potentially host EAB, many studies have been conducted to develop devices in which wastewater and organic wastes are converted into energy by living microorganisms (Table 1). The Kraft pulp mill effluent can reach a current density of about $5.1 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [51], while the highest current recorded using wastewater was ranging from 200 to $300 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [52]. Since MFC technology has a great potential to decrease organic content and simultaneously produce energy, diverse industrial wastewater sources have been investigated including potato wastewater [53], municipal wastewater [54,55], cassava mill wastewater [56], and even domestic wastewater treatment plants [57]. Current between different wastewater effluents can range from $0.01 A \cdot m^{-2}$ for brewery and bakery wastewater up to more than $0.1 A \cdot m^{-2}$ for paper wastewater [58]. As in situ MFC offers a great possibility to enhance bioremediation; other organically rich environments have been investigated. The better example is aquaculture pond (Table 1), where although, the current production is relatively low (0.02 – $0.03 A \cdot m^{-2}$), average chemical oxygen demand (COD) and total nitrogen (TN) removal efficiencies of $80.6 \pm 0.3\%$ and $83.0 \pm 0.01\%$ were obtained [59–61]. Nonetheless, groundwaters are also man-contaminated environments that had been tested for

electricity efficiency and bioremediation using MFC. With hydrocarbon contamination, MFC produce up to $0.6 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [62] while MFC use for nitrate removal could reach up to $1 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [63].

As suggested by Dunaj et al. [64], MFC performance and EAB diversity depend strongly on soil composition and the availability of organic matter. MFCs have been shown as efficient technology combining electricity generation and treatment of recalcitrant compounds such as petroleum hydrocarbons [22,62,65]. For instance, a MFC inserted into a waterlogged soil contaminated with hydrocarbons (Table 1) by simultaneous biodegradation of 27.6% hydrocarbon, 90% phenol removal and generation of $29.45 mW m^{-2}$ power densities [22].

By contrast, organic contaminated soils are limited to about $0.1 A \cdot m^{-2}$ [22,66], although they perform extremely well in remediation with the MFC system.

3.3. Extreme environments

Some extreme environments can reduce the limitations of MFC, such as the pH gradient between the anode and cathode compartments (Table 1). For example, acidic sediments display a current production reaching $3.5 A \cdot m^{-2}$ that correlates with the organic content of the sediment and its bacterial diversity [28]. Other acidic environment have been found to perform electricity production such as acid hydrometallurgical mining process waters or even aerobic sludge with associated performance about 0.4 and $0.2 A \cdot m^{-2}$ respectively [67,68]. Thermophilic bacteria showing a growth optimal temperature at $60^\circ C$ have

also potential for electricity production with *Thermincola carboxydophila* that reach a performance from 0.209 to 0.254 A · m⁻² [69]. Hydrothermal ecosystems can also be electroactive, including the Furnas Lake ecosystem, which displays a low current density around 0.2 A · m⁻² [70]. Deep oceans are also a source of EAB. Indeed, Monterey Canyon, composed by cold seeps, had shown electrical performance of 0.1 A · m⁻² using BMFC [71]. This performance is supported by sulfur and iron cycle with Deltaproteobacteria such as *Desulfuromonas*, *Desulfocapsa* and *Syntrophus*. Other deep-sea vents could potentially host EAB. Even if the natural environment is not directly tested using BMFC for example, the submarine volcano, located at Loihi Seamount, host the species *Mariprofundus ferrooxydans* belonging to Zetaproteobacteria [72] that is able to produce about 0.5 A · m⁻² [73].

There is a broad diversity of potential electrogenic environments to exploit. Nevertheless, electrical current production depends on the characteristics of the sample, especially its organic matter content. The sample origin used for the MFC system is another important factor, since bacterial diversity is variable and can thus affect the production of energy. Indeed, highly conductive environments such as sea ecosystems are generally able to produce greater current density than other types of ecosystems.

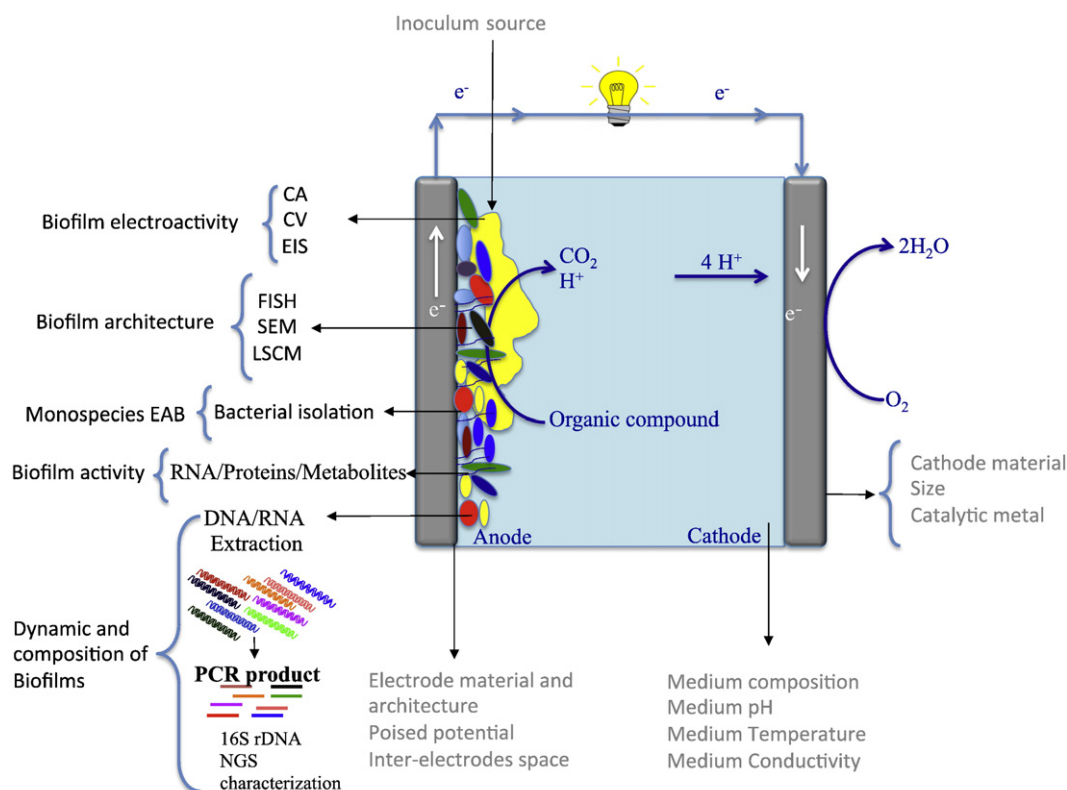
As shown above, EABs seem to be widespread and colonize a huge environmental diversity. Actually, these prokaryotes can be found almost everywhere, like in natural environments (e.g. river, sea, compost) as well as in extreme areas (e.g. acidic ecosystems, deep sea vents). However, more studies are required to highlight EAB diversity. Indeed, there is evidence that extremophile bacteria, such as *A. ferrooxidans*, *M. ferrooxidans* or *T. carboxydophila* are involved in current production. Thus, extreme environments harboring similar microorganisms seem to be an interesting area to explore (e.g. desert soils, tundra, Arctic water).

Although, numerous environments haven't been explored yet, nonetheless, the diversity of ecosystems investigated to date suggests the important distribution of EABs in probably all kind of ecosystems.

4. Biological and electrochemical characteristics of EAB

Electrical current studies have essentially focused on biofilms associated with the anode, since one of the primary hindrances to current production is the cathode, where a slow oxygen reduction rate occurs. Here, a cathodic biofilm could increase the kinetics. The fact that the diversity of microorganisms involved in current production depends on available carbon sources and the materials employed [76] complicates the comparison of electricity output between different systems. Furthermore, it remains useful to include this characterization in comparative studies as microbial ecology is sensitive to a wide panel of parameters (Scheme 1) such as pH [77–79], temperature [77,80–83], substrate [78,63,84,85] or in the case of MFC, the nature of electrode material and MFC architecture or design [78,83,86–88] and poised potential [17,89–92]. However, a study using similar conditions could permit the comparison of different ecosystems and their associated communities. Miceli et al. [34] reported that the microbial community differs according to the inoculum used, thus indicating that EAB differ depending on various sample location parameters.

One interesting approach to optimize current output would be to mature EAB through successive enrichments of the dominant EAB community, resulting in a higher current output [93]. Finally, it appears that whichever community is involved in power generation depends on a wide range of factors, particularly sampling location [34,93].



Scheme 1. A schematic of microbial fuel cell. In blue characters are indicated the main reaction occurring within MFC and producing electricity. Microbial electricity generation in these systems is dependent on microbial inoculum source, the biofilm community composition, their spatial organization within the biofilm, the nature of electron donors, the structure and composition of electrodes materials, the imposed potential... In black characters are indicated electrochemical and microbiological analyses that can be performed. CA, chronoamperometry; CV, cyclic voltammetry; EIS, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy; FISH, fluorescent in situ hybridization; SEM, scanning electron microscopy; LSCM, laser scanning confocal microscopy; NGS, new generation sequencing. In gray characters are indicated parameters that may be modulated to improve electrical performance.

4.1. Structure and function of electrogenic communities of EABs

4.1.1. Molecular and imagery tools

Presuming that bacteria within electroactive biofilms play direct or indirect functional roles in the current generation, their identification is required, as well as that of the inoculum to determine the ability of electrodes to select certain bacterial populations from the reservoir. Using new molecular techniques, scientists are discovering new electrogenic bacteria. The structure of EABs may be determined by using fingerprinting techniques like denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis fingerprinting (DGGE) [36,68,94,95], terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) [96] or single strand conformation polymorphism (SSCP) [42]. Fingerprinting is a useful technique that can allow to quickly obtain an overview of the diversity within and between samples, but does not allow identification of rare biosphere and non-dominant organisms. For this technique, identification must be performed by sequencing after DGGE analysis and band-cutting. In the case of DGGE technique, identification must be performed by sequencing after DGGE analysis and band-cutting. The ribosomal RNA sequencing by high throughput metagenomic approach using new generation sequencing (NGS) technics is a powerful new tool that allows microbiologists to improve the accuracy of biofilm diversity identification [97–101] and to construct bacterial phylogenies (Scheme 1). The functional diversity might be performed by targeting a specific functional group such as denitrifying bacteria [102]. The 16S rRNA phylogenetic information might be used to set up growth conditions for bacterial isolation from EABs by adapting growth conditions of the close related known species. Furthermore, using phylogenetic information to construct highly specific ribosomal RNA probes as a means of identifying and tracking specific microorganisms within electroactive biofilms by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) to visualize targeted bacteria distribution.

Characterization of biofilm architecture may be imaged by different microscopic techniques (Scheme 1), such as laser scanning confocal microscopy (LSCM) mainly used for complex EABs by adding a green fluorescent nucleic acid stain to stain Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, or scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) or atomic force microscopy (AFM) (Scheme 1). LSCM coupled to FISH technic allows to visualize the distribution of targeted populations by using specific probes in a three dimensional structure [103–106]. Raman microscopy could also be used as a noninvasive approach for in situ observation [107]. Scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM/EDX) is nice surface analysis technique providing information about chemical elements present into the biofilm structure and on its surface. This approach requires, nonetheless a prerequisite sample treatment [108–111]. Comparatively, AFM, doesn't demand any preliminary preparation of the biofilm to be observed. This advanced method shows adhesion force of cells with the surface they colonize. Moreover, its high resolution enabling observation at micrometric scales [112] could be exploited for microbial fuel cell, for providing interesting information on electron transfer mode. TEM, a well known microscopic technic, is mainly used to characterize electrode surface material in MFC [113–116] or bacterial structure such as pili [117].

Other technics are used to characterize biofilms at physiological level as shown in Scheme 1, by profiling gene expression by transcriptomic approach [117,118] or identifying proteins by proteomics or by identifying all produced metabolites by the EAB by metabolomics analysis.

Using these technics to study bacterial physiology of electrochemically active biofilms made by single species or a mixture of species has exciting potential in the comprehension of MFC functioning and in the improvement of current production. These technics should improve our understanding of bacterial dynamics within MFCs and show that under an imposed potential certain communities are mostly enriched while others disappear and certain functions might be more expressed.

4.1.2. Electrochemical parameters

Biofilm formation and power output are directly affected by electrochemical parameters. First, the type of circuit used can alter the microbial community structure. In an open circuit, bacterial diversity is primarily influenced by the anode materials [30], whereas in a closed-circuit configuration, EAB growth is induced by power generation [17]. In one experiment, microbial anodes formed from compost leachate on carbon cloth electrodes were kept in an open circuit, and then the anodes were polarized at -0.2 V/SCE. By delaying the polarization, current production reached $9.4 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ after only 3–9 days of polarization, whereas the anodes that were polarized from the beginning attained $6\text{--}8 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ within 36 days [31]. The authors attributed these differences to the biofilm architecture, in which a thinner and more heterogeneous biofilm delayed polarization as compared to the thick and homogeneous biofilm resulting in full polarization.

There is no systematic rule to determine whether the power output will be better under an open- or closed-circuit operation, based on the inoculum source and the electrode material. Furthermore, in a closed-circuit, external resistance affects both the power output and biofilm growth. Thus, power output increases as external resistance decreases, due to a decrease in the internal resistance within the biofilm [119]. However, a very low external resistance promotes better biofilm growth and thus reduces electron transfer with the anode. The resistance within a MFC system is also linked to the space between the electrodes. A large space between the anode and the cathode yields a large resistance within the system; conversely, decreasing this space lowers the resistance and increases the power output [82]. The anode potential also affects power output. Biofilms grow rapidly at low anode potentials, with a large abundance of EAB such as *Geobacter sulfurreducens*; in contrast, biofilms are more diverse and produce less electricity at higher potentials [52]. Electron transfer through the extracellular matrix towards the anode is dependent on the electron concentration on the anode, which may also directly affect EAB physiology.

4.2. Electroactive biofilm composition

Aquatic environments host a wide microbial diversity and are thus a potential reservoir for EAB. *Geobacter* sp. and *Shewanella* sp. are generally found, although species from Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi and Cyanobacteria are also present [70,120]. Proteobacteria members typically dominate within biofilms. Among this group, *Geobacter* sp. is the most dominant and frequently identified EAB. In some cases where *Geobacter* sp. is absent from biofilms it can be replaced by other iron- and sulfate-reducing bacteria [111]. In raw paper mill effluent, *Geobacter* is not found, whereas *Desulfuromonas* is the predominant species [122]. Two acidophilic species from acidic sediments, *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* and *Acidiphilum* spp., have been reported to predominate within biofilms on the anode [28]. Wastewaters have been extensively studied, and there is strong evidence that bacteria involved as sulfate-reducing bacteria in the sulfur cycle can play an important role in wastewater treatment using MFC technology [54,57,123,124].

Marine biofilm diversity has also been investigated as a source of EAB, since the conductive property of marine environments suggests the potential for current output. Sediment MFCs are essentially exploited in this case. Sampling biofilms directly from seawater yields a large diversity of species mainly dominated by Bacteroidetes, *Halomonas* and *Marinobacterium*; this diversity offers a higher power production than can be obtained from sediments sampled nearby, which are essentially composed of *Mesoflavibacter* [26]. In salt marshes, the composition of microbial communities associated with the anode is dominated by *Marinobacter* and *Desulfuromonas* [42]. These authors noted that the bioanode performance was decreased at the highest salinity ($60 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$), as well as the proportion of *Desulfuromonas* spp. relative to *Marinobacter* spp., suggesting that electron transfer to the anode is mainly performed by *Desulfuromonas*. Although the same inoculum is

used, the physico-chemical parameters may favor different bacterial populations and/or alter their activity. Deltaproteobacteria dominate in high-salt content mangrove sediments, with a current output of $4.3 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. By contrast, a greater diversity of EAB that includes Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria and Clostridia is observed in low-salt content mangrove sediments, producing $10.77 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. These findings suggest the occurrence of interactions like syntrophy, which could favor current production [34].

Terrestrial ecosystems produce current when electrochemical systems are applied. During MFC operation, different communities are enriched depending on what type of soil is used. Generally, Proteobacteria dominate on the anode biofilm, particularly the Deltaproteobacteria, represented by *Geobacter* spp. [27,54,55,64]. There is evidence from hydrocarbon-polluted soil that some Betaproteobacteria are involved in both current output and hydrocarbon remediation [66].

When *Geobacter* spp. are absent or in low abundance, Clostridia appear to dominate on the anode biofilm [34,64,125]. Since a large part of Clostridia enrichment appears to be related to *Clostridium* [125], the nitrogen cycle (and N_2 -fixing bacteria) could play a key role in anaerobic current production. Therefore, it is possible that N_2 -fixing bacteria could operate alone by oxidizing the substrate through N_2 -fixation; alternatively, they could act in syntrophy by fermenting the substrates.

Plant roots, such as those in rice paddy fields, host an important diversity of bacteria involved in electrical performance. Deltaproteobacteria and Clostridia are reported to dominate when agricultural soil is used in MFCs and fed with glucose [64]. When electrodes are introduced in rice paddy fields, a wide diversity of Deltaproteobacteria (*Geobacter* spp., *Myxococcus*, *Deferrisoma*, and *Desulfobulbus*) and Alphaproteobacteria (*Rhizobiales*) dominate with the presence of Archaea from the Crenarchaeota group [30,126]. Here again, there is strong evidence that iron-, nitrogen- and sulfate-dependent bacteria play a key role in the anode-associated community. Acidobacteria such as *Geothrix* can also be enriched [49]. When rice paddy field soil is supplemented with cellulose, the community is dominated by rod-shaped cells affiliated with *Rhizobiales* and possessing filamentous appendages [126].

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used, the physico-chemical parameters may favor different bacterial populations and/or alter their activity. Deltaproteobacteria dominate in high-salt content mangrove sediments, with a current output of $4.3 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. By contrast, a greater diversity of EAB that includes Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria and Clostridia is observed in low-salt content mangrove sediments, producing $10.77 \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. These findings suggest the occurrence of interactions like syntrophy, which could favor current production [34].

Aerobic bacteria that catalyze the reduction of oxygen at the cathodes can form a biocathode. The inoculum can be derived from different sources including bacteria present in the anode inoculum within a membrane-less single chamber MFC, from the air, and even from water. Mono- or multispecies biofilms can also be constructed at the cathode.

Biofilms at the cathode are less studied than those formed at the anode, even though the same trend is observed. Indeed, communities associated with the electrode will evolve depending on electrochemical sets such as circuit type [17] and electrode material [35] or environmental sets [129]. A limited number of bacterial populations may be specifically enriched on the cathode [130], although the opposite trend has also been reported [131]. This difference can be explained by the inoculum source, the substrate, and even the cathode material. The main concern with these studies is their lack of replicates and reproducibility. Biocathodes are mainly colonized by aerobic bacteria, which catalyze oxygen reduction. High-throughput sequencing techniques have demonstrated that Proteobacteria (including the three classes Alpha-, Beta- and Gammaproteobacteria) and Bacteroidetes dominate on cathodic biofilms [17,35,128–131]. Other studies have reported the enrichment of *Rhodobacter* and *Hydrogenophaga* [17], and the dominance of *Desulfobulbus*, *Comamonas* and *Desulfovibrio* [129]. Interestingly, the latter study reported that *Desulfobulbus* and *Desulfovibrio* were also enriched within the anodic biofilm, suggesting that sulfate-reducing bacteria can play a role in both the anode and cathode compartments. Bacteria such as *Nitrospira*, *Nitrobacter* or *Nitrosomonas* could also be found in denitrifying biocathode [132,133].

5. Extracellular electron transfer pathways

Monospecific EA-biofilms have been extensively investigated to decipher their electron transfer mechanisms. The thorough examination of electron transfer over the years has led to numerous discoveries of how microorganisms exchange electrons with extracellular insoluble electron donors and acceptors [134]. Briefly, electrons can be exchanged between microorganisms and electrode surfaces via three different pathways: (i) direct electron transfer (DET), (ii) mediated electron transfer (MET), and (iii) indirect electron transfer (IET).

In DET, electrons can be transferred directly to the electrode surface by cell membrane-bound c-type cytochromes composed of multiheme proteins [15,134,135]. DET can also occur through electrically conductive pili or “nanowires” [135,136]. These two pathways have been reported in pure cultures of *Geobacter sulfurreducens* and *Shewanella oneidensis* [15,136,137].

In MET, redox mediators are involved in electron transfer. They can be naturally secreted by microorganisms, or they can be artificial molecules added to the medium [135]. Mediators are essential for microorganisms that cannot transfer electrons, as they enable electron shuttle from cell membrane to electrode even at larger distance [15,135,138]. For example, *Shewanella sulfurreducens* can use flavin as a natural mediator for its electron transport [15].

The third mechanism referred by Sydow et al. ([1]), is the IET. In this mechanism a wide range of microbial electron donors and acceptors (e.g. hydrogen, formic acids) are electrochemically synthesized and utilized by microorganisms. Moreover, electroactive (metabolic) substances can be secreted by microorganisms and transfer electrons between microbes and electrodes [15].

All three mechanisms detailed here have been examined in pure culture. Currently, genetic tools offer the best approach to improve the characterization of these pathways and to optimize EAB performance. Numerous model organisms can be used for this (such as *G. sulfurreducens*) due to the availability of their complete genomic sequences and their efficiency in electrochemical systems. Genetic tools have been similarly applied to study other microorganisms, including *S. oneidensis* and *G. metallireducens* [139]. The continuing investigation of genetic systems will offer many excellent opportunities to improve electrical current densities [15].

6. Future prospects

Although, great strides have been made in recent years in characterization of EAB and the isolation of new electrogenic bacteria, there are many undiscovered electrogenic bacteria. An accurate study of microbial diversity within EAB formed in different environments, coupled with improvements in culture conditions and analytical technology suggest that many more discoveries will be forthcoming. Moreover, using inocula from extreme environments will lead to discover new electrogenic bacteria and probably new modes of electron transfer to electrodes.

While it is clear that model organisms are well-suited to study detailed electrophysiological mechanisms, studies could be enhanced by the gradual addition of other bacterial species. Such an effort will improve our understanding of how the connection network occurs within electrochemically active multispecies biofilms. In order to improve our understanding of their role in natural systems, researchers must: focus on developing innovative strategies to isolate novel microorganisms from natural EA-biofilms; and make these microorganisms available for detailed physiological studies.

The contribution of electrical conductivity from the biofilm matrix must be investigated in order to improve the electron transfer rates between microorganisms and electrodes. In addition, the composition of exopolymeric components should be determined and their genetic determinants must be identified in order to obtain mutants that can decipher these roles. These factors are important, because the composition and spatial organization of each bacterial species within the biofilm, as well as their signaling exchanges, may be crucial for the expression of genes required in producing cytochromes, nanowires, mediators, and even the conductive matrix. Moreover, process-engineering approaches should be adopted for the design of MFC architecture and parameters, in order to improve the electron transfer rate while minimizing mass transfer effects.

Technological advances that facilitate whole-genome sequencing could be coupled with experimental evolution approaches to determine the amount and type of genetic changes that accumulate in evolving populations on electrodes over several generations; in this approach the biofilm of a known EAB could be used to inoculate the next MFC, and so on. Mutation rates can change over evolutionary time, leading to the preferential accumulation of genetic variants that are better adapted to the MFC environment. It is possible to identify genetic changes between ancestral and derived organisms on a whole-genome scale.

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