

Exploration of Electrochemically Active Bacterial Strains for Microbial Fuel Cells: An Innovation in Bioelectricity Generation

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Abstract

The field of MFC technology has endured immense development during the past couple of decades. During this period, electrically connected microbial communities (e - communities) were studied extensively which helps the scientists in designing better versions of MFCs. Mixed bacterial culture and sometimes pure culture is widely used as an efficient exoelectrogens for the successful operation of MFCs. As the literature review, many microorganisms belong to firmicutes and actinobacteria phyla and all classes of proteobacteria, archaea are widely used in MFCs for power generation. In addition mixed bacterial culture from anaerobic sludge, industrial wastes etc are also used for enhanced power generation in MFC. In the present paper, we review the prominent exoelectrogens used in MFCs operation an innovation towards bioelectricity generation. Understanding the role and mechanism of electron transfer broaden the exploration of microbes towards waste treatment and simultaneous electricity using MFC technology in various sectors generation. Synergistic and interspecies interaction also helps a lot to improve the current generation in MFC. Recently, many researchers are tried genetic engineering of particular organism and results in enhanced production and accumulation of flavin molecules and thus improved the electricity generation compared to wild type. In the light of specific characters of microorganism, the ecological knowledge of microbial resources is essential for extending the foundation and future developments in MFC. Understanding of bioelectricity production by various exoelectrogens and its changes over time in the MFC opens up a new world to combat excess energy consumption in future.

Keywords: Microbial fuel cells, Exoelectrogens, Bioelectricity, Extracellular electron transfer

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INTRODUCTION

Richard, E. Smalley (late noble laureate) said that “Energy is the single most important problem facing humanity today.” The global energy demand is increasing rapidly, especially in emerging market economies, because of population and economic growth. Recklessness in extracting the fossil fuels from natural sources and lavishness in using them are arguably the two worst ways of fossil fuel abuses. If this situation persists, the exhaustion of fossil fuels would be unavoidable, leading to the global energy crisis, which would affect the world economy as a whole [Alcayde *et al.*, 2018]. These increase in demands and fast dwindling of conventional fossil fuel reserves instigate serious deliberations on the need to target on nonconventional sources of energy. Thus, the researches that aim at developing an alternative source of energy are progressing exponentially to handle the situation of the global energy crisis. One sensible step that can alleviate the crisis to a great extent is the extraction of energy from renewable sources. India is one of the largest producers of energy from renewable sources. As per the 2019 reports, 21% of the total installed power capacity is generated from renewable energy. Paradoxically, biomass stores in itself, immense energy reserves that can be tapped and channeled only through strategic approach to produce different forms of energy. Production of biogas from biomass is one of the most practiced methods to solve our energy needs. Electricity production from biomass has been realized to be a promising method in the near future. In such rural areas where supplying electricity at subsidized pricing is an excellent problem due to high distribution costs and transmission losses, biomass fuels can be the best cost - effective solution [Logan, 2004].

“Waste to electricity” has become practical to some extent and this technology helps in the reduction of CO₂ emission, thereby decreasing global warming. A number of technologies have been developed by various concerns (both private and public) to extract energy from biomass. Among this the use of fuel cell has evolved to be successful for producing energy from biomass. Among fuel cells, Microbial Fuel Cells (MFCs) are economically cheap and alternative forms of bioenergy where electrical energy can be extracted from organic

waste matter and renewable biomass by microbial degradation. Such microorganisms are named as exoelectrogens. Most of the microorganism transfers the electrons to the anode through simple respiratory electron transport chain consists of various membrane protein subunits for extracellular electron transfer. Different exoelectrogens exhibits different mechanism of electron transfer, which depends on the many factors. Still comprehensive awareness of electron transfer mechanism that occurring at bacteria - electrode interface in microbial fuel cell that affect the kinetic loss is lacking. In this context, studying microbial interactions with the electrode and their electroactivity could help to improve the exploitation of such microbes for bioelectricity production. In the present review, we tried to explore and introduce some commonly used exoelectrogens (till 2019) and predicted mechanism of electron transfer of commonly used microbes. An extensive scope lies ahead in the scaling up of MFCs, for the large - scale conversion of organic wastes and biomass into electricity, for powering vehicles, mobile electronic devices, and buildings. Thus, the research and development of biomass energy using fuel cell can be a good means of renewable energy, which in future can replace fossil fuels.

Bioelectricity generation from Microbial Fuel Cells using exoelectrogens as a catalyst

Bacteria can generate electricity; this is a fact known for almost a century [Logan and Regan 2006]. In MFCs, bacteria oxidize organic and inorganic matter to generate electricity [Logan *et al.*, 2006]. A typical MFC consists primarily of 2 chambers - anodic and cathodic chamber which contain anode and cathode respectively. A proton exchange membrane (PEM) is used to separate the two chambers. The anodic chamber consists of microorganisms; a suitable substrate is added to it for the favorable growth of it. These microorganisms degrade the substrate and release electrons that are transported through an external circuit to the cathode. The protons which are generated pass selectively through the PEM. These electrons and protons that are produced due to the microbial metabolism in the anodic chamber travel to the cathode chamber and then produce water by reaction with oxygen [Sharma and Li, 2010]. The electrons can also be transferred to the

anode with the help of mediators or shuttle system [Rabaey *et al.*, 2004; Rabaey *et al.*, 2005a]. It can be achieved by direct membrane transport [Bond and Lovely, 2003] or by nanowires that are produced by the bacteria [Reguera *et al.*, 2005; Gorby *et al.*, 2006]. Chemical mediators can be added to the MFCs for the production of electricity by bacteria [Park and Zeikus, 1999; Bond *et al.*, 2002]. In some systems, bacteria do not use any mediators for electron transfer [Logan, 2004]. MFC devices convert the chemical energy into electrical energy by the process of oxidation of carbon and other organic matters [Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2010] with the help of EABs [Angenent *et al.*, 2004; Logan, 2009]. In MFCs, the major microbial population includes *Geobacter* [Lovely *et al.*, 1993; Nevin *et al.*, 2008] and *Shewanella* [Gorby *et al.*, 2006; Watson and Logan, 2010]. Photosynthetic bacteria can also be efficiently used in the operation of MFCs. Cyanobacteria such as *Anabaena* and *Nostoc* can also be used as biocatalysts in MFCs [Tanaka *et al.*, 1985]. Mixed cultures of microbial population, for example, a natural microbial community such as domestic and industrial wastewater, sediments from marine, lake and pond as well as anaerobic sludge were also used in MFCs [Logan, 2005; Rabaey *et al.*, 2005; Feng *et al.*, 2008]. The synergistic relationship works on the symbiotic functioning between photosynthetic bacteria (synthesize the organic matter by photosynthesis) and heterotrophic bacteria (utilize organic matter synthesized due to photosynthesis) were also used in MFCs for electricity generation [Tharali *et al.*, 2016]. Most of the MFC studies are carried out at room temperature and only very few exoelectrogens are studied under thermo/hyperthermophilic condition. Such as *Ferroglobus placidus*, *Geoglobus ahangau* and *Pyrococcus furiosus* exhibited electroactive behavior under extreme conditions [Sekar *et al.*, 2017; Yelmazel *et al.*, 2018]. Recently, halophilic bacterium such as *Bacillus circulans* BBL03 isolated from sea salt harvesting area was reported to exhibited high electricity production capacity as high as 26.51 $\mu\text{A cm}^2$ from the 1% of chitin biomass [Gurav *et al.*, 2019]. MFC technology also has the wide application in bioremediation of toxic waste and biohydrogen generation as a clean source of energy in transportation and power generation sectors. As per the literature review more than

120 different species of microorganisms are identified as electrochemically active and used for the various applications in MFC technology. This review tried to provide an outline about the various exoelectrogens and its combination used in various MFCs to explore in various researches and industrial objectives.

Exoelectrogens in MFCs

In MFCs, microorganisms play a vital role in determining the power generation since it act as biocatalyst for the degradation of organic compounds. Electrochemically Active Bacteria (EAB) are the most suitable for the operation of MFCs as they have the ability for Extracellular Electron Transfer (EET) from the interior of the bacterial cell to the anode [Ortega *et al.*, 2013]. *Geobacter sulfurreducens* is the most commonly identified exoelectrogen for MFCs application [Holmes *et al.*, 2004; Lovley, 2006; Kiely *et al.*, 2011]. It is reported that *Geobacter* spp. produces and transfers electrons directly to the anode through highly conductive pili. *Shewanella oneidensis* is another model exoelectrogens [Ringeisen *et al.*, 2006; Bretschger *et al.*, 2007; Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2009; Watson and Logan, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2018]. Most other exoelectrogens make direct physical contact with the anode or mediate electron transfer through electron shuttles (mediators), which typically do not reach sufficient concentrations to maintain high current densities. Either a pure type or a mixed type culture was usually are typically used for the MFCs operation [Malvankar *et al.*, 2012]. But most of the studies revealed that mixed bacterial culture is more efficient than pure bacterial culture. This is because, when bacteria exist in mixed colonies, electron transfer generally occurs synergistically. Scientists also shared the general impression that EAB is benefitted by the presence of non - conducting bacteria by means of quorum sensing. Sometimes mixed culture in MFC may decrease the current generation due to the presence of dominant methanogenic bacteria such as anaerobic sludge. MFC experiments using a pure culture of bacteria have revealed that many microorganisms, from firmicutes and actinobacteria phyla and all classes of proteobacteria, archaea are reported to be exoelectrogenic [Koch and Harnisch, 2016; Liu *et al.*, 2018]. Some marine isolates

such as *Pseudomonas mendocina* NR 802, *P. pseudoalcaligenes* and *Bacillus circulans* are also used for the low voltage power generation [Kumari *et al.*, 2015; Gurav *et al.*, 2019]. Temperature is one of the influencing factors on performance of MFCs. Most of the experiments in MFCs are carried out at room temperature, which is considered as the ambient temperature for the microbial growth. In contrast, Tkach *et al.* have reported about the electroactivity of pure culture of *Enterobacter* spp. ALL - 3 at 10 °C [Tkach *et al.*, 2015]. In addition, some hyperthermophilic archaeon such as *Ferroglobus placidus*, *Geoglobus ahangau* and *Pyrococcus furiosus* are reported to be electrochemically active without any mediators under extreme environmental condition [Yelmazel *et al.*, 2018; Sekar *et al.*, 2017]. Liu *et al.* have reported about the synergistic relationship between two microorganisms for efficient current generation in MFC system. They synthetically prepared binary culture of *Bacillus subtilis* RH33 and *S. oneidensis* MR1 and achieved a sustained power density of 277.4 mW m⁻² for 500 hr. Here RH 33 produce electron shuttle riboflavin and MR1 effectively utilize this riboflavin for efficient electron transfer. Thus both mediated and direct electron transfer is enhanced [Liu *et al.*, 2017]. Cell - to - cell communication between the interspecies is another main method adopted by the microorganism for the exchange of nutrient and route for trafficking constituents. Dubey *et al.* and Pande *et al.* have reported about such cell - to - cell communication between *E.coli* and *Actinobacter baylyi* through a network of nanotubes. Thus can enhance the MFC performance by the exchanging the nutrients and electrons between the species that are distantly located from the electrode [Dubey *et al.*, 2016; Pande *et al.*, 2015]. Moreover, other than bacterial isolates, yeast - *Pichia stipites* are also reported to have the ability to transfer electron to the external anode through electron shuttle - flavin [Wu *et al.*, 2014]. In addition to electricity generation, application of microbes in waste treatment and bioremediation makes MFC a promising technology in various sectors for waste management. Based on the availability of the biomass/waste, microbes used of its treatment also vary. For example, acidophilic microorganism was identified as effective in current generation by degrading inorganic sulfur compounds [Ni *et al.*,

2016]. Toxics such as vanadium (V) and chromium (VI) were degraded and removed using microbial metabolism of *Shewanella iochica* PV – 4 along with current generation [Wang *et al.*, 2017]. Islam *et al.* have reported that *Klebsiella varriicola* can effectively utilize palm oil effluent than anaerobic sludge and produced a power density of 1.7 W m⁻³ [Islam *et al.*, 2017b]. Holkar *et al.* reported for the first time potential of *Klebsiella* spp C to remove anthraquinone based dye from textile waste and produced a current density of 533 mA m⁻² [Holkar *et al.*, 2018]. These open up new possibilities to bioremediate toxic waste using MFC technology. In addition to bioelectricity, production of biohydrogen from MFCs is also attracting much attention due to its wide application as clean energy source in various sectors. Various biomass are used for biohydrogen production, among which lignocellulosic biomass is now reported to be efficient for the biohydrogen production using dark fermentation [Kumar *et al.*, 2018]. However comprehensive knowledge on exoelectrogens and its specific properties of electron transfer is essential to enhance the extracellular electron transfer. While considering all these literatures, it is clear that almost all types of bacteria namely gram positive and gram negative bacteria are prominently can act as exoelectrogens in most of the MFC applications. While comparing with gram-negative bacteria, relative less number of gram-positive bacteria is effectively applied for MFC application. It includes *Clostridium butyricum*, *Clostridium beijerinckii*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Paenibacillus lautus*, and *Bacillus thuringiensis*. Most of the reported gram-positive bacteria are either belongs to facultative or obligate anaerobic. Some other potential bacteria used for the MFCs applications are enlisted in Table 1. All these details will help to the researchers to explore these exoelectrogens to improve the bioelectricity production and simultaneously for the waste treatment using MFCs in future.

Electron transfer mechanism in MFCs

Cytochromes

Microorganisms use many electron transfer mechanisms in MFCs. Fig. 1 shows the different methods of electron transfer in MFCs. One of the electron transfer mechanisms of microorganisms is through cytochrome. Such

Table 1. The list of microorganisms employed in some distinct MFC research works during the period from 1912 – 2019 [Modified and updated from the source Konovalova et al., 2018]

| Microorganisms used | Gram +/- | Type | Substrate used | MFC configuration | Voltage | Current/Power density | Reference |
|-----------------------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------|-------------------|--|---|-----------------------------|
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | - | FA | Asparagine, starch | - | 0.308 V (asparagine) 0.534 V (starch) | - | Potter, 1912 |
| <i>Saccharomyces sp.</i> | - | FA | Glucose | - | 0.320 V | - | Allen, 1966 |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | - | FA | Glucose | - | 0.530 V | 0.18 mA cm ⁻² | Delaney et al., 1984 |
| <i>Proteus vulgaris</i> | - | FA | Glucose | Single | 0.35 V | 3.5 mA | Thurston et al., 1985 |
| <i>Proteus vulgaris</i> | - | FA | Glucose | Dual | - | 21.7 x 103 mA | Bennetto et al., 1985 |
| <i>Pseudomonas methanica</i> | - | Aerobe | Methane | Dual | 0.6 V | 2.5x10 ⁻³ mA cm ⁻² | Park and Zeikus, 2000 |
| <i>Proteus vulgaris</i> | - | FA | Sucrose | - | 0.35 V | 3.5 mA | Park et al., 2001 |
| <i>Proteus vulgaris</i> | - | FA | Sucrose | Dual | 0.75 V | 0.45 mA | Bond et al., 2002 |
| <i>Desulfuromonas acetoxidans</i> | - | FA | Sodium acetate | Single | - | 0.45 mA | Bond, and Lovley; 2003 |
| <i>Geobacter metallireducens</i> | - | Anaerobe | Aromatic compounds | Single | 0.2 V | - | Kim et al., 2002 |
| <i>Geobacter sulfurreducens</i> | - | OA | Acetate | Dual | 0.47 V | 0.4 mA | Gil et al., 2003 |
| <i>Shewanella putrefaciens</i> | - | FA | Phosphate buffer with NaCl | - | 0.72 V | 0.04 mA | Chaudhuri, and Lovley, 2003 |
| <i>Shewanella oneidensis</i> | - | FA | Wastewater | - | - | 1.35 mA | Niessen et al., 2004 |
| <i>Rhodospirillum rubrum</i> | - | Anaerobe | Glucose | - | - | 0.59 mA | |
| <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> | + | OA | Glucose, Starch | Dual | 0.473 V | Glucose - 1.1 mA cm ⁻² Starch - 1.3 mA cm ⁻² | |
| <i>Clostridium beijerinckii</i> | + | OA | Glucose, Lactate | Dual | 0.759 V | Glucose - 1.33 mA cm ⁻² Lactate - 0.7 mA cm ⁻² | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|----------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|---|---|--------------------------------|
| <i>Shewanella affinis</i> | - | FA | Solution of mineral salts, Cysteine | Dual | 0.033 V | - | Logan <i>et al.</i> , 2005 |
| <i>Geobacter sulfurreducens</i> | - | OA | Mineral solution | Single | - | 24.33 mA m-3 | Du <i>et al.</i> , 2011 |
| <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> | + | Aerobe | Glucose Sucrose | Single | Glucose - 0.298 V Sucrose - 0.207 V | Glucose - 2.14 mA Sucrose - 1.01 mA | Suresh and Bulchandani, 2012 |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | - | FA | Glucose Sucrose Starch | - | Glucose - 0.307 V, Sucrose - 0.248 V, Starch - 0.203 V, Glucose - 0.183 V, Sucrose - 0.170 V, 0.727 V 0.368 V | Glucose - 1.57 mA Starch - 1.11 mA Glucose - 0.65 mA Sucrose - 0.64 mA | |
| <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> | + | FA | Glucose Sucrose | - | 0.445 V | 22.68 mA cm-2 11.4 mA cm-2 | Kumari <i>et al.</i> , 2015 |
| <i>Paenibacillus lautus</i> | + | Aerobe | Glucose | Dual | 0.627 V | 13.93 mA cm-2 | |
| <i>Pseudomonas pseudoalcaligenes</i> | - | Aerobe | Glucose | Dual | 0.4 V | 19.68 mA cm-2 4 x 103 mA | Tkach <i>et al.</i> , 2016 |
| <i>Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila</i> | - | Aerobe | Glucose | Dual | 0.445 V | 105 ± 42 mV | -Ni <i>et al.</i> , 2016 |
| <i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i> | - | Aerobe | Glucose | Dual | 0.627 V | 0.25 A m-2 0.20 A m-2 | Riccobono <i>et al.</i> , 2017 |
| <i>Enterobacter sp.</i> | - | Anaerobe | Wastewater | Single | 0.4 V | 5 A m-2 | Colombo <i>et al.</i> , 2017 |
| <i>Acidithiobacillus</i> and <i>Ferroplasma</i> | - | Anaerobe | Anaerobe | Mining wastewater | Dual | - | |
| <i>Geobacter sulfurreducens</i> | - | Anaerobe | Wastewater | Dual | - | 56.9 mW m-2 6.9 mW m-2 | Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2017 |
| <i>Shewanella putrefaciens</i> | - | Anaerobe | Wastewater | Dual | - | 533 mA m-2 | Holkar <i>et al.</i> , 2018 |
| <i>Spirulina</i> | - | - | Wastewater | Dual | - | 18.78 A m-2 | Lin <i>et al.</i> , 2018 |
| <i>Pseudomonas fragi</i> | - | Aerobe | Nutrient broth | Dual | 510 mV | 6.18 W m-3 5.83 W m-3 | Islam <i>et al.</i> , 2017b |
| <i>Shewanella oneidensis</i> | - | Anaerobe | - | - | - | 14.78 W m-3 153 mW m-2 | Ruslan <i>et al.</i> , 2018 |
| <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> | - | FA | - | - | - | | |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | - | FA | RB19 dye wastewater | Dual | - | | |
| <i>Shewanella oneidensis</i> | - | Anaerobe | - | - | - | | |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | - | Aerobe | Palm oil effluent | Dual | - | | |
| <i>Klebsiella variicola</i> | - | FA | Palm oil effluent | Dual | - | | |
| <i>Pseudomonas</i> and <i>Klebsiella</i> | - | - | Palm oil effluent | Dual | - | | |
| <i>Shewanella</i> | - | Anerobe | Waste sludge | Single | - | | |

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|----------|----------------|--------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Bacillus thuringiensis | + | FA | Wetland | - | 35 mW m ⁻² | Treesubsantorn et al., 2019 |
| Bacillus circulans | + | FA | Chitin biomass | Dual | 26 μ A cm ⁻² | Gurav et al., 2019 |
| Aeromonas hydrophila | - | FA | Chitin biomass | Dual | 8.77 μ A cm ⁻² | |
| Shewanella oneidensis | - | Anaerobe | Chitin biomass | Dual | 6.17 μ A cm ⁻² | |
| Pseudomonas aeruginosa | - | Aerobe | Wastewater | Single | 2887 \pm 13 μ W m ⁻² | |
| Pseudomonas aeruginosa | - | Aerobe | Wastewater | Single | 1906 \pm 7 μ W m ⁻² | |
| Pseudomonas fluorescens | - | Aerobe | Wastewater | Single | 1896 \pm 15 μ Wm ⁻² | Ilamathi et al., 2019 |
| Pseudomonas fluorescens | - | Aerobe | Wastewater | Single | 1028 \pm 9 μ Wm ⁻² | |

FA - Facultative anaerobe; OA - Obligate anaerobe

organisms have the ability to oxidize various substrates and produce carbon dioxide by using citric acid cycle. Electrons generated during this process are transferred to Fe (III), presumably through menaquinone and cytochromes that can be detected in the cell [Gorby et al., 1991]. Another type of microorganism, such as *Geobacter*, *Shewanella* and *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, which are inhabitant of metal reducing sediment uses multi heme proteins i.e., C - type cytochromes [Breuer et al., 2014; Ruslan and Vadivedu, 2018; Aiyer, 2020]. The multi heme cytochromes in such microorganism contribute higher power density and other advances in the field of bioelectricity generation. The process of Direct Electron Transfer (DET) through outer membrane cytochromes requires a physical contact between the cytochromes on the bacterial cell and the fuel cell anode [Schroder, 2007]. Heme group in the cytochromes has a metal ion that is surrounded by a porphyrin ring and acts as an active site for redox reactions. The position of heme group differs according to different cytochrome but they are always located in deep pore inside the protein that is usually surrounded by non - polar amino acids. If the orientation of cytochrome on the surface of the electrode is unfavorable, then it will not allow the direct transfer of electrons between the electrode and active center [Qiao et al., 2010]. Microorganisms such as *Geobacter sulfurreducens* excrete flavin that are seen bound to the cytochrome [Okamoto et al., 2014]. In the outer membrane, the cytochrome are arranged in a particular pattern with the heme located in the opposites shorter and longer cross beam ends [Hong and Pachter, 2016].

Shewanella oneidensis uses cytochromes for the facilitation of electron transfer. These organisms have a network of C - type cytochromes which help in facilitated electron transfer from quinone in the inner membrane. Here the cytochrome C molecules are localized on the surface of bacterial cell which transfer electron to Cr (V) or Cr (VI) through direct or indirect transportation [Belchik et al., 2011]. *Shewanella lohica* was found to have more cytochrome C genes when compared to *S. oneidensis* in the metal reductase containing locus [Wang et al., 2017]. More detailed studies into the EET of this

bacterium might throw more light into cytochrome - based transfer mechanisms.

Pili or nanowires

Pili are non flagellar hair like appendages made up of polypeptide that are present in bacterial cells. They are seen in many secretion pathways. These are mostly associated with the outer membrane cytochrome in most of the exoelectrogens causes the direct electron transfer [Malvankar *et al.*, 2012; Kumar *et al.*, 2018]. They are also involved in several cellular functions such as attachment of cells to the substrate, cell-cell signaling, and transfer of genetic materials from one another (conjugation) and biofilm formation [Kline *et al.*, 2010]. A class of appendages, pilin like structures which are termed as nanowires found in bacteria. Proteins such as prepilin peptidases are found in bacteria required for the expression of pili through pilin secretion pathway [Gorby *et al.*, 2006]. In *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, the transfer of electrons can occur through pili [Reguera *et al.*, 2005]. In some strains where there are no direct contacts between cells, pili can extend its appendages to allow the shuttling of electrons out of the cells by synthesizing their soluble mediators such as phenazine, riboflavin etc. [Rabaey *et al.*, 2004; Qiao *et al.*, 2008]. In *Geobacter* species, pili are involved in the reduction of Fe (III). Gene namely *Pil A*, that encode for a pilin protein are expressed in higher level when *Geobacter* is grown

in Fe (III) oxide. This indicates that this gene is required for the insoluble Fe (III) oxide reduction [Childers *et al.*, 2002]. In case of *Shewanella japonica*, pili play a key role in formation of biofilm and are expected to form a thick biofilm [Thormann *et al.*, 2004].

Extracellular mediators

The external mediators are used in case of MFCs using a single population model where there is dependence between power output and external mediators [Bond *et al.*, 2002]. In the absence of exogenous mediators, organisms such as *Shewanella* and *Geobacter* can transfer electron through extracellular electrons acceptors [Kim *et al.*, 1999; Bond *et al.*, 2002].

In *Shewanella japonica*, the metabolic pathways are coupled to extracellular electron transfer processes for the utilization of different carbon sources such as glucose, sucrose, and fructose for the generation of electricity. Organisms such as *S. oneidensis* and *Shewanella japonica* synthesises soluble mediators that can mediate electron transfer [Biffinger *et al.*, 2011]. The *Geobacteriaceae* can use insoluble extracellular electron acceptors to transfer the electrons outside the cell to Mn (IV) and Fe (III) oxides and thus provide electricity [Lovley, 2017]. However, the greatest disadvantage of mediator molecules is that, they work by the principle of diffusion, which is a relatively slow process. Moreover,

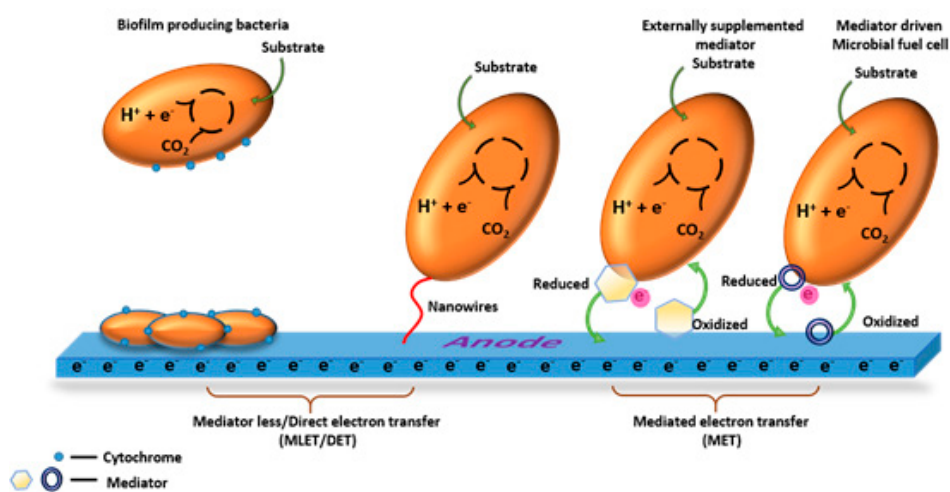


Fig. 1. Illustration of different methods of electron transfer in MFCs, mediator -less/direct electron transfer (DET) and mediated electron transfer (MET) [Source: Rabaey *et al.*, 2004; Rabaey *et al.*, 2005; Rabaey *et al.*, 2007; Schroder, 2007; Logan, 2009]

electron transport via mediators follows indirect mechanism of transfer of electrons [Lovley, 2017]. MFC with some non exoelectrogens make of external mediators for the efficient electron transfer. But most of the mediators used are highly toxic and expensive. Thus the exploration of such external mediators is not encouraged for the MFC application. Therefore the use of naturally produced electron mediators is mainly used by some non exoelectrogens for the efficient electron transfer in MFC. Such as Yeast, which do not have the capability to produce mediators, can utilize the electron mediators secreted by *Bacillus*. Spp WS - XY1 and *Klebsiella pneumonia* and enhanced the performance in MFC through synergistic interaction [Islam *et al.*, 2017a; Wu *et al.*, 2014].

Cable bacteria

Some bacteria seem to mediate long range interspecies electron transport from anaerobic region to aerobic regions. This is facilitated by forming long chains comprising of cells in which each cell is stacked upon the other. This is most commonly seen in *Desulfobulbacaea* and is involved in oxidation of sulphide minerals in anoxic environments [Pfeffer *et al.*, 2012; Lovley, 2017]. It is proposed that cable bacteria carry the electrons during this oxidation process through this chain of cells to the oxic zone where it is transferred to the external oxygen. The electrons are carried through highly electro - conductive ridges that run along the central region of all the member cells. However, this mode of electron transfer is detected to be confined within the cells and is not transmitted to the external environment. It is expected that detailed studies of their ecology and mode of transfer of electrons would be valuable in utilizing this technique in MFCs.

Conductive biofilms

Biofilm plays a key role in MFCs, since the formation of biofilm on the anode oxidizes the organic compounds and thus helps in the transfer of electrons to the anode. Earlier studies showed that most biofilms are electronically insulators, but biofilms generated by *Geobacter sulfurreducens* shows some electronic conductivity. The extracellular electron transfer through a conductive biofilm is found to be an effective mechanism for high power density [Malvankar *et*

al., 2012]. *G. sulfurreducens* is able to produce high current densities due to their ability to produce conductive biofilms [Malvankar *et al.*, 2011]. Studies show that higher amount of biofilm with conductive nature can enhance the performance of the density of fuel cell. These biofilms provide lower resistance to the electron flow in MFCs and also it lowers the activation energy barrier required for the transfer of electron between the anode and the biofilm [Malvankar *et al.*, 2012]. Highly structured microbial communities are seen attached to the electrodes that can form electrochemically active biofilms [Logan and Rabaey, 2012].

A 3D hybrid using reduced graphene oxide is constructed to produce biofilm in *S. oneidensis* MR1. These GO can act as macroporous network which would enhance the incorporation of a large amount of bacteria into biofilm matrix and can be utilized for multi complexed conductive pathways, thereby enhancing EET between bacteria and electrode. Thus, the performance of the MFCs can be enhanced [Yong *et al.*, 2014]. In some bacteria, conduction of electrons to the anode was takes place through the membrane bound conductive materials in the biofilm matrix. [Laspidou and Rittmann, 2004]. In a study conducted using *Geobacter sulfurreducens*, pure culture of *G. sulfurreducens* can produce high power density than mixed species of biofilms [Ishii *et al.*, 2008; Nevin *et al.*, 2010]. They form thick biofilm that is metabolically active and produce a high current density [Reguera *et al.*, 2006; Nevin *et al.*, 2008]. Microbial biofilm can act as biocatalyst by oxidizing complex organic matter to produce electric current [Rabaey and Rozendal, 2010]. A hybrid based on the graphene carbon nanotube is built in the anode to act as a network for bacteria in MFCs. This network allows the biofilm to attach into the carbon surface firmly. The graphene provides high mechanical flexibility and surface area facilitating high extracellular electron transfer between microbial biofilm and the electrode. This offers a large amount of area for bacterial growth to occur, thus enhancing the power density of the MFCs and a maximum power density of $97.9\mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$ was recorded [Zhao *et al.*, 2015]. All these studies evident the facts that, biofilm forming exoelectrogens are more suitable

for the bioelectricity generation compared to others. Since it can form a stable and comfort film on the surface of the anode and can transfer and mediate the electrons directly to the anode without any loss.

Different mechanisms of Extracellular Electron Transfer (EET)

EET by Gram-negative microorganisms

Most of the electrochemically active bacteria are Gram-negative in nature. This is because of the characteristic location of C-type cytochromes and other electrochemically active moieties and structures along the exterior end of outer membrane. Mostly, electron transfer in Gram-negative bacteria takes place through direct transfer mechanisms as discussed earlier. Most prominent electricigens reported so far - *Geobacter* species and *Shewanella* species are Gram-negative. Other famous Gram-negative bacteria include *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas species*. Various mechanism of electron transfer system are existing in nature, among which the two most prominent predicted models for electron transfer

mechanism were OMC system in *Geobacter* species and Mtr pathway in *Shewanella* species. *Geobacter sulfurreducens* shows the EET through direct electron transfer by thick biofilm formation [Reguera *et al.*, 2006]. The presence of cytochrome can achieve the transport of electrons through the multilayer biofilm to the anode. Fig. 2A illustrates the EET pathway by *Geobacter sulfurreducens* through outer membrane cytochrome (Omc) complex. In this system, metal reduction associated cytochrome (Mac A) acts as a transmitter for the transfer of intracellular electrons to periplasmic C-type cytochrome (Ppc A), followed by the transfer of electrons to the Omc complexes (Omc Z) on the outer membrane and then to the extracellular electron acceptor. Another method was through the nano-wires or pili, which can enable physical contact with the bacterial cell and surface of the anode [Reguera *et al.*, 2006]. One proposed model of electron transfer was based on the electron delocalization through π -stacking of aromatic amino acid residue in the pili [Malvankar *et al.*, 2011; Malvankar *et al.*, 2015]. Another is based

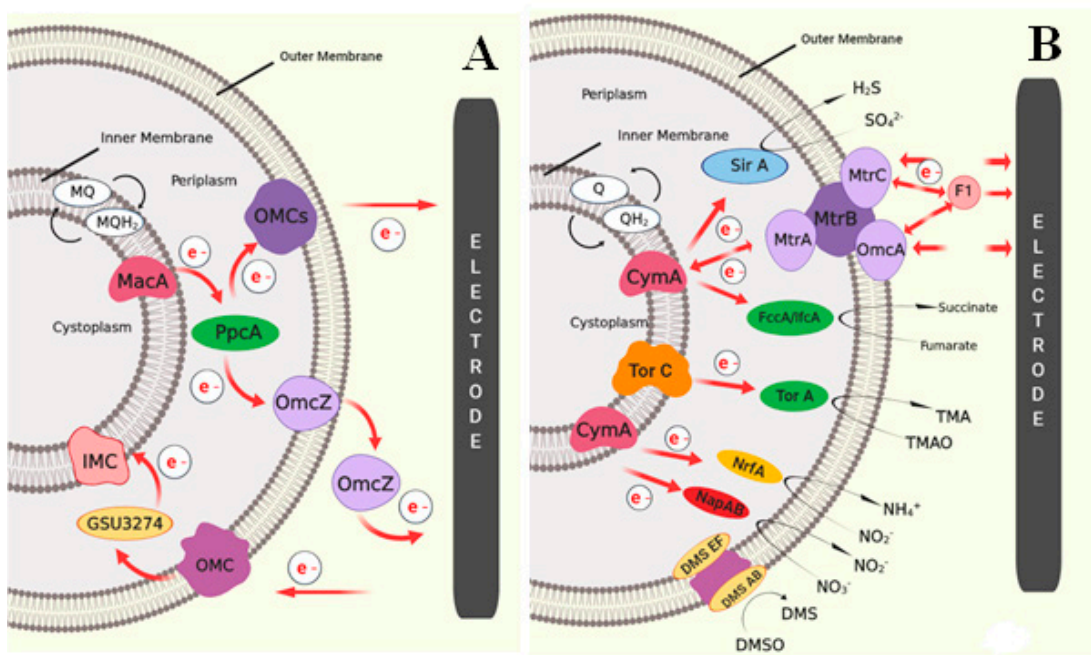


Fig. 2. Schematic image of proposed EET of two metal reducing Gram-negative bacteria in MFCs: (A) EET pathway shown by *G. sulfurreducens* through outer membrane cytochrome (Omc) complex, and (B) EET pathway shown by *S. oneidensis*, where electrons are transferred from quinones to *CymA* or *TorC* complex then get transferred to *MtrABC* complex [Sources: Kracke *et al.*, 2015; Kumar *et al.*, 2018]

on the hopping of electrons along the redox active protein to the final electron acceptor [Malvankar *et al.*, 2012]. Another proposed model of EET transfer was based on the Mtr pathway in *S. oneidensis*. The proposed EET pathway adopted by *Shewanella oneidensis* are shown in Fig. 2B.

Here the oxidation of electron carriers like quinols catalysed by the tetraheme cytochromes such as TorC and CymA. Thus, generate a proton gradient for the energy conversion in the form of ATP. TorC and CymA interact with different redox partners in the periplasm and outer membrane molecules as the electron acceptors. Like TorA in the periplasm utilizes trimethylamine N - oxide compound [Dos Santos *et al.*, 1998], sulphite can be reduced by SirA [Shirodkar *et al.*, 2011], nitrite by NrfA [Gao *et al.*, 2009], nitrate by NapAB [Simpson *et al.*, 2010] and fumarate by FccA and IfcA reductase molecules [Maier *et al.*, 2003]. In addition, *S. oneidensis* can also utilize extracellular insoluble metal as electron acceptor such as electrodes. This method was suggested as the most widely explored method for EET. Here, decaheme cytochrome (MtrA) can take up electrons from the CymA and transfer to the extracellular MtrC, which transfer the electron finally to the extracellular acceptor. MtrA, MtrC

and MtrB form a complex on the outer membrane and MtrB helps to organize and stabilize the MtrA and MtrC together. White *et al.* also detected the presence of OmcA molecule anchored to the Mtr complex, which can also transfer the electrons to the exogenous electrode [Myers and Myers, 2000; Coursolle and Gralnick, 2010; Shi *et al.*, 2012; White *et al.*, 2013; Breuer *et al.*, 2015]. In addition to direct electron transfer by biofilm formation, *S. oneidensis* can also transfer electrons indirectly using secretion of flavin molecules [Marsili *et al.*, 2008; Okamoto *et al.*, 2013]. It is reported that, genetic engineering effort on EET pathways and metabolism of a membrane-associated CymA, can further increased the electrochemical performance of the MFCs by enforcing overexpression of CymA in *S. oneidensis* [Vellingiri *et al.*, 2019]. Based on this, Liu *et al.* tried to design *S. oneidensis* to enhance flavin – biofilm hybrid through synthetic biological approach to enhance both direct and mediated electron transfer. For that, ptet promoter was constructed for the expression of flavin biosynthesis gene (rib ADEHC). This enable enhanced flavin synthesis in *S. oneidensis*. Hydrophobic entities in the cell membrane inhibit its transport; thus porin gene

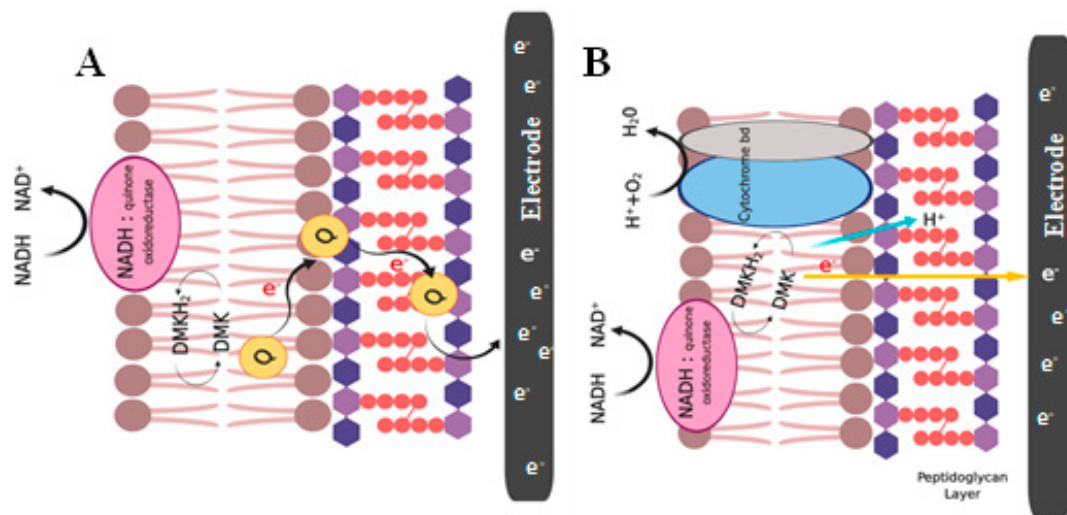


Fig. 3. Schematic representation of EET mechanism of Gram-positive bacteria *Enterococcus faecalis* via (A) NADH oxidoreductase, quinone act as a self-generated mediators which transport electrons through outer thicker peptidoglycan layer to the electrode where cytochrome bd oxidase was not involved; (B) EET pathway through the presence of cytochrome bd in the lipid bilayer without the use of endogenous mediators [Sources: Pankratova *et al.*, 2018]

(Opr F) originated in *P. aeruginosa* was incorporated into *S. oneidensis* for the efficient transport of synthesized flavin across the cell membrane and thus enhanced the overall electron transfer and thereby the performance of MFC [Liu *et al.*, 2018]. Other microorganisms like *M. thermoaceticus* can transfer electron through cytochrome or Ech complex, but no experimental data supports this hypothesis. Recently, Wood - Ljungdahl pathway proposed by Nelvin *et al.* in *A. woodii* provided breakthrough in the field of bioelectrochemical techniques [Nevin *et al.*, 2010]. *A. woodii* belongs to the Na⁺ dependent acetogens, which lack cytochromes. Wood - Ljungdahl pathway in *A. woodii* was coupled with the generation of Na gradient across the membrane. Later, Muller *et al.* evidenced the presence of novel membrane bound Rnf complex, which was responsible for Na⁺ transport [Muller *et al.*, 2008]. The F₁F₀ ATP synthase also harvested the Na gradient. This gradient results in generation of electron conversion and transfer of an electron to the outer electron acceptor [Biegel *et al.*, 2011]. Such Rnf complex pathway of electron transfer is also detected in *C. ljungdahl* [Kopke *et al.*, 2010; Schuchmann and Muller, 2014].

EET by Gram - positive microorganisms

In contrast, Gram - positive bacteria are preferably non - electrogenic as they are covered by thick cell envelope which comprises of insulating peptidoglycan, lipopolysaccharides and lipid bilayers [Pankratova *et al.*, 2019]. These compounds mask most of the electroactive membrane structures such as cytochromes from interacting with the external environment. This may be one reason why they are poor performers when it comes to exchange of electrons with the external environment. However, there are a few electrochemically active species reported so far, such as *Bacillus* spp., *Lactococcus lactis*, *Enterococcus faecalis* [Wu *et al.*, 2014; Pankratova *et al.*, 2019], *Eubacterium*, *Clostridium butyricum* [Park *et al.*, 2001] and *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* [Yamazaki *et al.*, 2002]. The schematic representation of proposed EET mechanism of Gram-positive bacteria *Enterococcus faecalis* are shown in Fig. 3(A and B). Pankratova *et al.* studied the mechanism in *E. faecalis* by external supplemented with heme. Thus two heme proteins such as catalase and cytochrome bd are

assembled [Winstedt *et al.*, 2000; Frankenberg *et al.*, 2002]. Reduction of demethylmenaquinone (DMK) takes place at the periplasmic space by various membrane associated dehydrogenases such as NADH: quinone oxidoreductase. This can generate proton gradient across the membrane. The presence of quinone acts as self-generated mediators which transport electrons through outer thicker peptidoglycan layer to the extracellular electrode in the absence of cytochrome. The presence of cytochrome bd in the lipid bilayer was composed of two protein subunits, CydA and CydB, and three heme prosthetic groups [Borisov *et al.*, 2011; Safarian *et al.*, 2016]. In the case of *E. faecalis*, glycolysis and pyruvate dehydrogenase activity yields 4 mol of NADH per mole of glucose, potentially providing eight electrons and can be transferred to an extracellular electrode.

As the electroactive moieties are masked from the external environment, the main mode of electron transfer in Gram-positive bacteria is proposed to be via soluble mediators secreted by the cells. Numerous studies proposed that these bacteria were capable of producing diffusible mediators for enabling mineral reduction. The advantage of such mediators in Electron Transfer (ET) is that they can carry electrons embedded deep inside the cells or the inner layers of biofilm to the anode surface. *L. lactis* produce quinones, the electrochemical properties of which have been established [Pankratova *et al.*, 2019]. ET in *Bacillus* is mediated chiefly by flavin molecules [Nimje *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2014]. These are the electrochemically active mediators reported in *Shewanella* spp. too. In *Bacillus*, Flavin molecules are proposed to act by two methods: (1) by enhancing Mediated Electron Transfer (MET) in other membranes (2) by inhibiting the growth of methanogens when grown in consortia [Islam *et al.*, 2017a]. Further, recent study revealed the presence of electrochemically active EPS in *Bacillus* spp. [Xiao *et al.*, 2017]. The presence of these polymers makes the biofilm of the *Bacillus* spp. electrochemically active, which is an added advantage to the performance of MFCs with *Bacillus* as the chief electrogenic species.

Exploration of extremophiles such as *Ferroplasma acidiphilum*, *Geoglobus ahangau* and *Pyrococcus furiosus* in MFC broaden the possibility of application of such technologies

for energy production in extreme conditions. All these are hyperthermophilic in nature and reported to produce the current at 90 °C without any external mediators. Another advantage of these extremophiles is that they can metabolize wide range of carbohydrates [Sekar *et al.*, 2017; Yelmazel *et al.*, 2018]. *Pyrococcus furiosus* uses simple respiratory electron transport chain via of membrane bound hydrogenase (MBH). This bacterium contains trehalose/maltose binding protein (TMBP) for the efficient transport of maltose into the cell. Where, it is hydrolyzed to glucose and enters the glycolytic pathway. In the case of hyperthermophiles, rather than NADH, ferridoxin connects the carbon metabolism and respiratory chain [Sapra *et al.*, 2003; Sekar *et al.*, 2017]. More studies in the area of EET transport mechanism in such extremophiles open up a new technology to operate under extreme conditions. Apart from bacteria, EET is also reported in other groups such as archaea and eukarya. Obligate anaerobes such as hyperthermophilic archaea and methanogenic archaea possess electrogenic properties in lesser magnitudes when compared to that of bacteria. Archaeal species with reported activity are *P. furiosus* (225 mW m⁻²) [Sekar *et al.*, 2017], *F. placidus* (680 mA m⁻²) and *Geoglobus ahangari* (570 mA m⁻²) [Yilmazel *et al.*, 2016]. Among eukaryotes, members of Saccharomycetaceae are known to generate electricity. Yeast based MFCs made a power of the magnitude of 20 - 70 mW m⁻² [Hubenova and Mitov, 2015a] and that with *Candida* spp. IR11 made a power of ~21 mW m⁻² [Hubenova and Mitov, 2015b]. Several studies report better performance by the yeast cells and other fungi when the media are either optimized [Hubenova *et al.*, 2010], or the cells were immobilized on anode surface [Hubenova and Mitov, 2015a]. Biomass availability also determines its pathway of electron transfer. For example, halophilic bacterium namely *Bacillus circulans* BBL03 generated a current density of 26.508 μA cm⁻² utilizing chitin as biomass [Gurav *et al.*, 2019] Chitin is hydrolysed by the secretion of chitinase results in the production of metabolites such as lactate, formate, acetate, etc. These metabolites further acts as electron donor. It was also reported that, *Echinodosus cordifolus* plant can support and maintain the growth of *Bacillus thuringiensis* in MFC system and results

in generation of sustained power density of 20-35 mW m⁻² for more than 180 days [Treesibsunton *et al.*, 2019].

Ecology of exoelectrogenic microorganism

In nature, electron transport/exchange between distinct species or to the external electron acceptors is a tedious process that helps bacterial cells to survive. The exoelectrogenic bacteria establish connections either with the external environment or with other electrogenic species in its microenvironment which enable them to explore nutrients and the environment which are otherwise inaccessible to them. Thus, many genetically and metabolically distinct bacteria are seen to establish different types of connections among them. It is pretty fascinating that most of these connections are mediated by electron shuttle/exchange because a deep understanding of such mechanisms will be of great help in developing better modes of electron tapping in MFCs.

Direct interspecies electron transfer mechanism

Direct Interspecies Electron Transfer (DIET) is a tool by which many bacterial species living as consortia in some anaerobic environments establish connections with each other for the benefit of either of them. They do so by means of conductive pili, cytochromes, minerals and abiotic carbon [Lovley, 2017]. Other structures such as nanotubes are also involved in similar mechanisms [Pande *et al.*, 2015; Dubey *et al.*, 2016; Lovley, 2017]. A number of electrochemically active bacterial species possess long conductive pili generally known as e - pili. These structures are used to establish connections with far - off cells in the environment. Electron transports through these connections take place either by means of C -type cytochromes embedded along their inner regions [Malvankar *et al.*, 2012] or through membrane vesicles [Hasegawa *et al.*, 2015]. Electron shuttle through embedded structures are relatively faster when compared to other modes. Still, transport of electrons through the intercellular connections employing membrane vesicles and other soluble electron carriers are relatively faster than that by extracellular mediators, as the shuttle through the interiors of cells is more specific and targeted when compared to efflux of electrons into the external environment. As reported earlier, direct interspecies electron transfer is also

mediated by nanotubular structure which extent from cytoplasm of one bacterial cell to another [Dubet *et al.*, 2016; Pande *et al.*, 2015].

Synergistic interactions

At times, some bacterial species in co - cultures are seen to establish trans - membrane connections through which they exchanged soluble molecules. Such connections seem to enhance the metabolic activities of the members. For example, such a relationship between the cells of *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* and *Clostridium acetobutylicum* empowered *D. vulgaris* to grow in sulphate free environments. This was made possible by the shuttle of ferredoxin from *D. vulgaris* to *C. acetobutylicum*. The ferredoxin is produced by *D. vulgaris*, reduced inside the cell during metabolism, and then transported via DIET to the interiors of *C. acetobutylicum* cells, where it is oxidized. The oxidized ferredoxin is then carried back to *D. vulgaris*, thus facilitating metabolic electron shuttle between two distinct species of bacteria [Benomar *et al.*, 2015; Lovley, 2017]. Another example of synergistic interactions facilitated by cell - cell connections is the co - existence of *G. sulfurreducens* and *G. metallireducens*. *G. metallireducens* derive electrons from ethanol substrates converting them to acetate. *G. sulfurreducens* survive solely on the electrons and the acetate derived from DIET. These two species are connected through e - pili and therefore, it is not necessary that these two types of species remain in close proximity within the environment. This pattern of electron exchange was confirmed by microscopic examinations too, and the cells appeared as distinct clusters embedded in a grid of e - pili [Lovley, 2017; Summers *et al.*, 2010]. Liu *et al.* have reported about the synergistic electron transfer between *S. onediensis* MR - 1 and *B. subtilis* RH33 and generated a sustained power density of 277.4 mW m⁻² for more than 500 hr [Liu *et al.*, 2017]. Pande *et al.* have reported about the interspecies communication between *A. baylyi* and *E. coli* via nanotubular structure. This enables distribution of nutrient and metabolic function within the connected microbial communities. This connection may also help to transfer the electrons between the cells and finally to the anode.

Conclusions and future prospective

Building an extensive literature review

on various exoelectrogens is the foundation to uncover the ecology and complexity of MFC bacterial communities. Different electron transfer mechanisms exhibited by different organisms are detailed in the present review paper. Moreover, predicted mechanism exhibited by model organisms that belong to both gram-positive and gram-negative are also described in the current manuscript. The exoelectrogenic bacteria establish connections either with the external environment or with other electrorophic species in its microenvironment which enable them to explore nutrients and the environment which are otherwise inaccessible to them. A deep understanding into such mechanisms will be of great help in developing better modes of electron tapping in MFCs. Genetic engineering of such model organisms can boost EET rate. In the light of specific characters of microorganism required for MFC applications, in various industrial sectors, the ecological knowledge of microbial resources is essential for extending the foundation and future developments in MFC. Understanding of bioelectricity production by various exoelectrogens and its changes over time in the MFC opens up a new world to combat excess energy consumption.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

All datasets generated or analyzed during this study are included in the manuscript and/or the Supplementary Files.

ETHICS STATEMENT

This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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