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1 Biogas upgrading with hydrogenotrophic methanogenic biofilms

2

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15

16 Abstract

17 Hydrogen produced from periodic excess of electrical energy may be added to biogas reactors
18 where it is converted to CH₄ that can be utilized in the existing energy grid. The major challenge
19 with this technology is gas-to-liquid mass transfer limitation. The microbial conversions in reactors
20 designed for hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis were studied with microsensors for H₂, pH, and
21 CO₂. The H₂ consumption potential was dependent on the CO₂ concentration, but could partially
22 recover after CO₂ depletion. Reactors with 3-dimensional biofilm carrier material and a large gas
23 headspace allowed for a methanogenic biofilm in direct contact with the gas phase. A high density
24 of *Methanoculleus sp.* in the biofilm mediated a high rate of CH₄ production, and it was calculated
25 that a reactor filled with 75% carrier material could mediate a biogas upgrading from 50 to 95%
26 CH₄ within 24 h when an equivalent amount of H₂ was added.

27 Keywords: microsensor, biofilm, CO₂ limitation, methane, methanogenesis, mass transfer

28

29

30 1. Introduction

31 The rising concern for the increase in atmospheric CO₂ content and the dependence on fossil fuels
32 emphasize the need for a shift towards renewable energy sources. Renewable energy technologies
33 as wind power and solar power periodically produce energy that cannot be utilized in the power
34 grid. A storage of this excess energy remains one of the major challenges in a society relying on
35 renewable energy sources (Götz et al. 2016).

36 An important source of renewable energy is biogas produced in anaerobic digesters (Weiland 2010).
37 Sludge, waste, manure, agricultural residues etc. are degraded in anaerobic digesters to produce
38 CH₄ that can be used for electricity and heat production. The organic matter is broken down in a
39 series of reactions yielding a biogas consisting of CH₄ (50-70%), CO₂ (30-50%) and trace gasses. If
40 biogas should be used in the natural gas grid, a CH₄ content of at least 95% and removal of sulfur-
41 and silicon-containing gasses are required. The CO₂ can be removed by various techniques as water
42 scrubbing, scrubbing with organic solvents, pressure swing absorption, chemical washing and
43 membrane technologies (Weiland 2010; Ghorbanian et al. 2014; Gaj 2017; Angelidaki et al. 2018).
44 Another way of removing the CO₂ is to use the excess energy from wind and solar power to
45 produce H₂ that is converted to CH₄ when combining with CO₂ in an anaerobic bioreactor. The
46 upgraded CH₄ can be stored and later utilized on demand (Angelidaki et al. 2018), or it can be
47 converted to more storage friendly fuels as methanol and dimethyl ether (Alvarez-Galvan et al.
48 2011). Homoacetogenic bacteria also utilize the substrates H₂ and CO₂, producing acetate that
49 subsequently fuel acetotrophic methanogenesis (Angelidaki et al. 2011). Methane has the advantage
50 over H₂ that the volumetric energy density is higher and the infrastructure for CH₄ utilization and
51 storage already exists (Luo et al. 2012).

52 Hydrogen addition has been successfully applied in small scale reactors where the H₂ was readily
53 consumed by the inherent microbial community (e.g. Luo et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2013; Díaz et al.

54 2015; Agneessens et al. 2017) and the biogas was upgraded to 95-99% CH₄ (Luo et al. 2012; Wang
55 et al. 2013; Díaz et al. 2015). The reported problems revolve around pH increase and CO₂ limitation
56 (Luo et al. 2012; Bassani et al. 2015; Garcia-Robledo et al. 2016). During anaerobic digestion CH₄
57 production occurs at pH values of 6.5-8.5 with a pH optimum between 7 and 8, which would make
58 pH control necessary to maintain the CH₄ production in liquid-based reactors for biogas upgrading
59 (Demirel and Scherer 2008; Weiland 2010). The addition of H₂ could cause volatile fatty acids
60 (VFAs) to accumulate in the reactor by inhibiting degradation of VFAs due to the increase in H₂
61 concentration and due to stimulation of homoacetogenesis leading to acidification and reactor
62 failure (Schmidt and Ahring 1993; Cord-Ruwisch et al. 1997; Liu et al. 2016).

63 One of the major challenges with the H₂ to CH₄ technology is the introduction of H₂ into the
64 anaerobic digester, where the mass transfer tends to be inefficient due to a low H₂ solubility.
65 Efficient H₂ to liquid mass transfer is essential for developing this technology, ensuring that H₂ is
66 consumed in the reactor and does not escape to the gas phase (Luo et al. 2012). The H₂ can either be
67 introduced *in-situ* to the main reactor or *ex-situ* to a secondary reactor with a specialized design
68 (Angelidaki et al. 2018; Jensen et al. 2018). In small-scale reactors, the H₂ has been introduced by
69 bubbling (Luo et al. 2012; Luo and Angelidaki 2013a; Bassani et al. 2016), hollow fiber membranes
70 (Luo and Angelidaki 2013b; Wang et al. 2013; Díaz et al. 2015), silicone membranes (Garcia-
71 Robledo et al. 2016) and headspace injection (Agneessens et al. 2017). The H₂ injection method
72 needs to be designed so that the gas-liquid contact and gas retention time is extended while the
73 bubble size is decreased (Bassani et al. 2016; Jensen et al. 2018). Hydrogen injection combined
74 with gas recirculation has been tested in a full-scale reactor, but a relatively large bubble size
75 limited full conversion of the H₂ (Jensen et al. 2018). Hollow fiber membranes and silicone
76 tubing/membranes have been shown to facilitate a full conversion of the H₂ without bubbling
77 (Wang et al. 2013; Díaz et al. 2015; Garcia-Robledo et al. 2016), but upscaling of such technologies

78 may be difficult. A trickling filter supporting a methanogenic biofilm has been implemented in
79 biogas upgrading with H_2 , demonstrating that a quite efficient gas-biofilm mass transfer can be
80 obtained with this technology (Rachbauer et al. 2016). Several biofilm carrier materials have been
81 implemented in wastewater treatment and anaerobic digestion to increase the surface area and retain
82 the microbial community (E.g. Pérez et al. 1997; Cresson et al. 2008; Pandey and Sarkar 2007;
83 Gagliano et al. 2017), and there are thus several options to choose among for biogas upgrading
84 based on biofilm technology.

85 In this study, we seek to address some of the major challenges with biofilm mediated H_2 to CH_4
86 conversion, focusing on CO_2 limitation and gas-to-liquid mass transfer. The effect of CO_2 depletion
87 was investigated at a microscale by supplying H_2 through a silicone membrane. We hypothesized
88 that supply through a silicone membrane would facilitate full H_2 conversion making it an ideal
89 system to study H_2 conversion and CO_2 limitation by determining the microscale dynamics of H_2 ,
90 CO_2 and pH under varying CO_2 supply rates. We propose that large headspace reactors, fitted with
91 carrier material covered by methanogenic biofilm, could lower the mass transfer limitations seen by
92 other reactor approaches and thereby promote conversion of H_2 and CO_2 to CH_4 . Our hypothesis
93 was tested by measuring microscale H_2 profiles in the biofilms, determining the CH_4 production
94 rates, VFAs accumulation over time, and analyzing the microbial community composition.

95

96 2. Materials and methods

97 2.1 CO_2 limitation of methanogenesis

98 A mini-reactor with two compartments separated by a silicone membrane was designed according
99 to Garcia-Robledo et al. (2016). The mini-reactor was constructed of a Plexiglas cylinder closed
100 with a rubber stopper in the bottom. The Plexiglas cylinder was separated into two compartments by

101 a stainless steel mesh (mesh size 0.1 cm) casted into a 0.1 cm thick silicone rubber membrane (Dow
102 Corning 732 Multi-Purpose Sealant). Gas flow through the bottom compartment was ensured by
103 inserting two hypodermic needles through the butyl rubber stopper in the bottom compartment. One
104 needle was connected to a gas mixer (Brooks Instruments 0260 with Thermal Mass Flow
105 Controllers GF40) and the other needle allowed the gas to exit. The gas flow ($100 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) was
106 conducted through Tygon tubing and all gases were humidified by bubbling through demineralized
107 water to avoid excessive evaporation from the analyzed samples. In the upper compartment, an
108 about 0.5 cm thick layer of digestate mixed with 40-60 μm glass beads rested directly on the
109 silicone membrane. It was necessary to ensure that there was no turbulent mixing in the analyzed
110 digester content during the microsensor analysis, and stabilization with chemically inert glass beads
111 was used to ensure that diffusion was the only means of transport. The upper compartment was
112 covered with Parafilm and flushed with humidified argon. This allowed microsensors to be
113 introduced through a hole in the Parafilm to measure chemical parameters down through the
114 digestate. Samples of mesophilic digester content were obtained from Bånlev biogas plant (Trige,
115 Denmark), sieved through a 0.1 cm mesh and mixed with glass beads for physical stabilization. The
116 digester content was transferred to the experimental set-up within 3 h of sampling. Bånlev biogas
117 plant has a mesophilic reactor treating agricultural waste products with a hydraulic retention time of
118 ~ 23 days. The CH_4 production rate is $0.6\text{-}1 L_{\text{CH}_4} \cdot L_{\text{slurry}}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$. The dynamics and time
119 course of H_2 consumption as affected by CO_2 depletion was investigated by flushing a mixture of
120 75% H_2 and 25% N_2 through the lower compartment of the mini-reactor. Measurements of H_2 , CO_2
121 and pH were done every second hour until stable profiles were observed. Hereafter, the H_2 was kept
122 at 75% while the CO_2 concentration was gradually increased from 0% and up to 20% to evaluate
123 the relationship between CO_2 concentration and H_2 consumption.

124

125 2.2 Methanogenic biofilm

126 The methanogenic biofilm growing on the carrier material was contained in 1 L serum bottles
127 sealed with a butyl rubber stopper that were regularly flushed with 80% H₂ and 20% CO₂ and
128 incubated at 38 °C. The serum bottles had three 1 cm drilled holes in the side allowing for
129 microsensor profiling of the biofilm. Butyl rubber stoppers sealed the holes except for during
130 profiling. The carrier material tested was EXPO-NET BIO-BLOK Filter Media (EXPO-NET,
131 Denmark A/S). The controls were flushed with either 80% N₂/ 20% CO₂ or 80% H₂/ 20% CO₂ and
132 had no biofilm carrier material. Each treatment had four replicates. All bottles were inoculated with
133 300 ml digester content from Bånlev Biogas plant leaving a headspace of ~75%. The digester
134 content was sieved through a 0.1 cm screen before inoculation. The liquid phase in the bottles was
135 partially exchanged once a week during the first 5 weeks by removing 10-50 mL and resupplying
136 with mineral medium (Angelidaki et al. 2009). The amount of medium exchange was increased
137 from 10 mL to 50 mL at week 5 since a decrease in the CH₄ production rate was observed. The
138 buffer capacity of the mineral medium had been increased as compared to the original recipe by
139 adding NaHCO₃ to a concentration of 0.25 mol · L⁻¹ to match the bicarbonate concentration in
140 digestate. The original medium contained Na₂S and resazurin, but these were excluded in the
141 applied medium. To minimize the amount of CH₄ originating from degradation of organic matter,
142 nutrients were only supplied by mineral medium. The bottles were flushed 1-2 times per week with
143 a gas mixture of 80% H₂ and 20% CO₂. The pressure was recorded with a pressure gauge (Keller,
144 Eco 1) before flushing the bottles and adjusted to a slight overpressure of 0.25 bar after flushing.
145 Periodic wetting of the biofilm was achieved by turning the bottles upside down 1-5 times a week.
146 The CH₄ production rates were determined after one, two, five, six, seven and eight weeks of
147 incubation. All the bottles were flushed with a gas mixture of 80% H₂ and 20% CO₂. Gas samples
148 were collected from the headspace with a glass syringe (SGE Analytical Science) by penetrating the

149 butyl rubber stopper with a 0.4 mm hypodermic needle. The gas samples were transferred to Labco
150 Exetainers flushed with N₂. The CH₄ content in the gas samples was determined within 1 day of
151 sampling using a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (SRI Instruments,
152 SRI 310C). Concentration profiles of H₂ were determined in the slurry from the H₂/CO₂ controls
153 and in the biofilms on the BIO-BLOK. The headspace of the bottles was flushed with a humidified
154 mixture of 80% H₂ and 20% CO₂ at 600 mL · min⁻¹ during profiling to ensure a defined gas
155 composition and to avoid contamination with air. In the bottles containing the biofilm and carrier
156 material, the microsensor was introduced through the prepared holes while the bottle was oriented
157 horizontally. When H₂ concentration profiles were recorded in the slurry, the microsensor was
158 introduced from above through the neck of the bottle while the diameter of the opening was
159 restricted to ~0.9 cm with Parafilm. Replicate profiles were recorded in several spots. The VFA
160 content of the slurry was analyzed using a gas chromatograph (System 7890A Agilent
161 Technologies, United States), equipped with a flame ionization detector and a HP-INNOWAY
162 column (30 m · 0.250 mm · 0.25 μm) (Agilent Technologies).

163

164 2.3 Sensors and recording of profiles

165 A H₂ microsensor with a sulfide trap making it insensitive to sulfide was applied (Nielsen et al.
166 2015). The H₂ microsensors applied had a tip size of 20-60 μm and a sensitivity of 1.3-6.1 pA ·
167 (μmol · L⁻¹)⁻¹. A newly developed electrochemical CO₂ microsensor (Revsbech et al. 2019) was
168 applied. The CO₂ microsensors had a tip size of 30-60 μm and a sensitivity of 0.03-1.4 pA · (μmol ·
169 L⁻¹)⁻¹. The least sensitive sensors were made especially for measurement of very high CO₂
170 concentrations as the very sensitive sensors exhibited non-linear response at high CO₂. Since the
171 CO₂ sensor is sensitive to H₂S, the H₂S was removed by adding FeCl₂ to a concentration of 5 mmol

172 $\cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ before application of the CO_2 microsensor. The absence of H_2S was confirmed by analysis with
173 a H_2S microsensor (Jeroschewski et al. 1996). Microprofiles of CO_2 through pasteurized digester
174 content placed in a similar set-up did not indicate that other substances in the digester content
175 interfered with the CO_2 measurements (data not shown). Further, simultaneous pH profiles were
176 recorded with a pH microelectrode with an external Ag/AgCl reference (Unisense A/S). The
177 microsensors were connected to a multimeter with pA channels for the H_2 and CO_2 microsensors
178 and a mV channel for the pH microsensor (Unisense A/S). The multimeter was connected to a
179 computer collecting the digitized data. The vertical positions of the microsensor tips were controlled
180 by a motorized micromanipulator connected to the computer, and concentration measurements were
181 done every 50 or 100 μm . Data acquisition was performed with the software Sensor Trace Pro
182 (Unisense A/S). During microsensor profiling the silicone membrane mini-reactor or serum bottle
183 was submerged in a water bath kept at 38 °C. Calibration of the H_2 microsensor was performed in
184 demineralized water by adding various volumes of water saturated with H_2 . The H_2 saturated water
185 was slowly extracted with a 10 mL syringe equipped with a 1.2 mm needle, followed by extraction
186 of demineralized water to mix the solution in the syringe in ratios of 25%, 50% and 80% H_2 . A new
187 solution was prepared for each concentration. The microsensor was placed in a 15 mL Falcon tube
188 with a stopper where the H_2 solutions were carefully added and the calibration was performed. The
189 solubility of H_2 in water at 38 °C is 728 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ at 1 atm pressure according to Crozier and
190 Yamamoto (1974). The calibration of the CO_2 microsensor was done by adding various volumes of
191 a 100 $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ KHCO_3 solution to 0.5 L of acidic water (pH ~1). The pH microsensor was
192 calibrated in standard buffers (VWR chemicals). All calibrations were performed at 38 °C. In the
193 mini-reactor microprofiles of H_2 , CO_2 and pH were recorded, while in the methanogenic biofilm
194 only H_2 and pH profiles were recorded.

195

196 2.4 Modelling

197 Modelling of the H₂ reaction rate was performed using the program “Profile” by Berg et al. (1998).
198 A H₂ diffusion coefficient in water at 38 °C of $7.0 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ was used (Unisense A/S). The
199 digestate diffusivity (D_s) was described according to $D_s = \varphi \cdot D$ where D is the diffusivity in water
200 and φ is the porosity. The porosity of the digestate with glass beads was 0.63 (Garcia-Robledo et al.
201 2016). In the biofilm, a φ of 0.9 was assumed as this value and thereby (by $D_s = \varphi \cdot D$) derived D_s
202 values previously gave good fits to experimentally derived $\varphi \cdot D_s$ values in a dense biofilm (Glud et
203 al. 1995). The H₂ flux was determined from the H₂ gradient at the surface of the biofilm using
204 Fick’s first law of diffusion (Crank 1975) using the same expression for diffusion coefficient as in
205 the modeling approach.

206

207 2.5 Statistics

208 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests were performed in R (R version 3.3.1) with the interface
209 R commander (Rcmdr Version 2.2-5).

210

211 2.6 DNA extraction and amplicon sequencing

212 All reactors were sampled for sequencing at the end of the experiments. In replicates containing
213 slurry as well as carrier material both were sampled. DNA was extracted using the FastDNA Spin
214 Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, USA) according to the supplier’s recommendation. Prior to DNA
215 extraction the slurry or carrier material were subjected to enzyme digestion according to Juretschko
216 et al. (1998). The V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene was universally amplified in
217 accordance with previously described protocols (Albertsen et al. 2015), and subsequently barcoded

218 for sequencing using the Nextera XT protocol (Illumina, USA). The obtained libraries were
219 sequenced in equimolar concentrations on a MiSeq platform using reagent kit v3 (2x300 PE)
220 (Illumina, USA).

221 The raw sequencing reads were quality checked using trimmomatic (version 0.32) (Bolger et al.
222 2014) and merged using FLASH (version 1.2.7) (Magoc et al. 2011). The reads were then formatted
223 for use with the UPARSE pipeline (Edgar et al. 2013), screened for chimeric sequences and
224 clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at 97 % sequence similarity using
225 USEARCH7. Taxonomy was assigned using the RDP algorithm implemented in QIIME (Caporaso
226 et al. 2010) using SILVA database release S132 (Quast et al. 2013). The microbial community data
227 was analyzed using R (version 3.5.2) (R Core Team, 2019) and RStudio (version 1.1.463)
228 (<http://www.rstudio.com>) using the package ampvis2 (version 2.4.2) (Andersen et al. 2018).
229 Microbial community structure was visualized using heatmaps.

230

231

232 3. Results and discussion

233 3.1 Time course and dynamics of CO₂ depletion

234 It has not previously been possible to measure CO₂ microprofiles in chemically aggressive
235 substrates like digester content, and the data presented here are thus the first direct measurements
236 illustrating the spatial effects of CO₂ limitation on hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. It was
237 possible to investigate this effect by supplying hydrogen to digester content in the previously
238 described membrane mini-reactor. Hydrogen was readily consumed in a narrow zone next to the
239 membrane until the process became CO₂ limited after several hours of flushing with H₂/N₂.
240 Initially, when high CO₂ was still present, H₂ was consumed in a very narrow zone of 0.6 mm next

241 to the membrane at an integrated rate of $0.58 \text{ nmol} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. CO_2 depletion for 10 h led to a pH
242 increase from 8.5 to 9.5. The integrated H_2 consumption rate decreased to $0.22 \text{ nmol} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ and
243 the H_2 penetration into the slurry increased to 1.7 mm. The surface of the digester content moved
244 1.5 mm during the 10 h due to evaporation (Fig. 1). It should be noted that the CO_2 profiles are
245 dissimilar from normal gas profiles where there is a straight curve through inactive layers between
246 source and sinks. In the CO_2 profiles presented here there is an abrupt decrease at the slurry surface.
247 This is caused by the high bicarbonate concentration in the slurry with which CO_2 is in equilibrium
248 delayed by the slow dehydration of carbonic acid (e.g. Mustafa et al. 2017). The depletion of CO_2
249 thus led to pH increase, a decrease in H_2 consumption rate and an expansion of the H_2 consumption
250 zone which is consistent with the findings of other studies (Luo et al. 2012; Bassani et al. 2015;
251 Garcia-Robledo et al. 2016). The effect of H_2 addition through silicone membranes/tubing on CO_2
252 and pH will, however, be very local in a full-scale reactor setup where the tubing is submerged in
253 digester content. A localized effect could explain the limited VFA accumulation observed in some
254 studies (Luo and Angelidaki 2013a; Wang et al. 2013). If the effect is local, the potential negative
255 effects of VFA accumulation would not affect the entire reactor until low CO_2 concentrations are
256 present throughout the reactor.

257 A supply of H_2 through silicone membranes or hollow fiber membranes can mediate a full
258 conversion, but the approach is associated with a risk of clogging (Luo and Angelidaki 2013b), and
259 fragility must also be a major problem in a scenario with heterogeneous digester content. The initial
260 maximum specific rate of $\sim 16 \text{ nmol H}_2 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1A) corresponds to a CH_4 production rate of
261 $\sim 8 L_{\text{CH}_4} \cdot L^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ which is ~ 10 times higher than the average CH_4 production rate in the Bånlev
262 biogas reactor. In a biofilm reactor only a minor part of the whole reactor would, however, be
263 occupied with active biofilm, so the actual rate per reactor volume would be much lower.

264 3.2 CO_2 concentration supporting methanogenesis

265 After CO₂ depletion, CO₂ was stepwise resupplied starting with 2% CO₂ and then gradually
266 increasing the CO₂ concentration to 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, and 20% CO₂. The profiles were
267 allowed to stabilize for 2 h between each increase in CO₂ concentration. It is evident that the H₂
268 consumption zone moved closer to the membrane and that the H₂ flux increased when the CO₂
269 concentration was increased (Fig. 2). At 5% CO₂, the H₂ consumption zone was 2.2±0.1 (SD, n=3)
270 mm and the H₂ flux was 0.23±0.01 (SD, n=3) nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹. The addition of 10% CO₂ yielded a
271 consumption zone of 1.3±0.0 (SD, n=3) mm and a H₂ flux of 0.33±0.00 (SD, n=3) nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹.
272 When 18% CO₂ was added the H₂ consumption zone was 1.0±0.1 (SD, n=3) mm and the H₂ flux
273 was 0.45±0.06 (SD, n=3) nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹. Finally, when 20% CO₂ was supplied, the average
274 consumption zone was 1.0±0.1 (SD, n=3) mm and the H₂ flux was 0.52±0.12 (SD, n=3) nmol · cm⁻²
275 · s⁻¹ (Fig. 2). Evaporation resulted in the surface of the digester content moving closer to the silicone
276 membrane during the experiment, decreasing 1.5 mm during the course of the experiment. The
277 surface was always >1 mm away from the H₂ consumption zone (Fig. 2AB), but the loss of water
278 by evaporation might have elevated the microbial density and thereby contributed to the elevated
279 activity. The rise in ion strength might, on the other hand, have decreased the cell-specific activity.
280 A water loss by evaporation could have been avoided by keeping the humidifier vessel at a higher
281 temperature. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the data in Fig. 2CD showed a significant effect of
282 CO₂ concentration on both H₂ flux (p=2.8·10⁻¹⁰) and width of H₂ consumption zone (p=3.4·10⁻¹⁰).
283 The initial H₂ consumption rate of 0.58 nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹ obtained from the data in Fig. 1A was not
284 exceeded even when 20% CO₂ was resupplied, resulting in a consumption rate of 0.52 nmol · cm⁻² ·
285 s⁻¹. The initial CO₂ concentration was comparable to a 5% CO₂ supply, but the initial H₂
286 consumption rate was 60% higher than when 5% CO₂ was re-supplied and the H₂ consumption zone
287 was 3 times wider after the CO₂ re-supply (Figs. 1 and 2). This points to a relatively slow recovery
288 of the H₂ consumption potential after re-introduction of CO₂, and it is likely that some of the

289 apparently positive effect of CO₂ higher than 5% (Fig. 2) was due to gradual physiological recovery
290 during the period when CO₂ was elevated. Experiments with longer stabilization periods for each
291 stepwise addition of CO₂ did not show any positive effect on H₂ consumption above about 6% CO₂
292 (Garcia-Robledo et al. 2016), while others have observed inhibition of methanogenesis below 12%
293 CO₂ (Agneessens et al. 2017). Even though the H₂ consumption potential was dependent on the
294 CO₂ availability, it is apparent from Figs. 1 and 2 that CO₂ was always in excess and never fully
295 consumed in the H₂ consumption zone. In environments where methanogens occur, CO₂
296 concentrations are normally high as in anaerobic digesters (30-50% in the headspace) and it does
297 not appear that there is any microbial selection for high CO₂ affinity. The experiments resulting in
298 Figs. 1 and 2 were repeated 7 times (data not shown), all showing similar chemical profiles and
299 conversion rates.

300 3.3 Development of a methanogenic biofilm

301 The CH₄ production rates in the 1 L reactors were determined one, two, five, six, seven and eight
302 weeks after incubation. The CH₄ production rates for both the controls were relatively stable
303 throughout the experiments. The CH₄ production rate for the BIO-BLOK was highest at the
304 beginning of the experiment, decreased during the first 5 weeks of incubation, and then started
305 increasing again after 6 weeks. The CH₄ production rate in the BIO-BLOK was four times higher
306 than the H₂/CO₂ control one and two weeks after incubation, two times higher five and six weeks
307 after incubation, three times higher after seven weeks and four times higher after eight weeks of
308 incubation (Fig. 3). At all time points there was a significant difference (t-test, p=<0.05) between
309 the CH₄ production rate of the H₂/CO₂ control and the BIO-BLOK which shows that there is an
310 effect of the presence of the carrier material on the CH₄ production rate. The composition of the
311 microbial community was analyzed by amplicon sequencing and the 15 most abundant operational
312 taxonomic units (OTUS) indentified (Fig. 4), and it appears that the genus *Methanoculleus* was

313 highly enriched in the biofilm as compared to the treatments without carrier material. Methanogens
314 were thus enriched in the biofilm as hypothesized (Fig. 4). Due to periodic wetting with slurry we
315 still expect significant occurrence of slurry organisms in the biofilm, but syntrophic bacteria like
316 “Syntrophomonadaceae” were present in lower numbers in the biofilm as compared to the N₂/CO₂
317 control, as were fermentative bacteria like “Clostridia” and “Rikenellaceae”.

318 The CH₄ production rate of the BIO-BLOK decreased until week five where the loading of media
319 and contact with the slurry was increased. The loading of medium and increased contact of the
320 carrier material with the slurry resulted in an increase in the CH₄ production rate, indicating that
321 supply of constituents in the slurry or removal of constituents in the biofilm were essential for
322 optimal biofilm functioning. VFA accumulation was limited and acidification does not seem likely
323 as an explanation for the decrease in the CH₄ production rate. It appears that a biofilm was
324 established within the first week of incubation, and during the following weeks the CH₄ production
325 potential was highly dependent on frequent contact with the slurry. Other studies report stabilization
326 of the biofilm development after 10-90 days (Pérez et al. 1997; Cresson et al. 2008; Brileya et al.
327 2014; Rachbauer et al. 2016; Pandey and Sarkar 2017) which is reasonably within the timeframe of
328 this study. However, the previous studies on methanogenic biofilms have not attempted to promote
329 biofilm formation by direct exposure to the gas phase. With this approach nutrients were only
330 periodically available, and it appears that nutrient availability may have determined the CH₄
331 production potential in the present study. Likewise, mineral nutrient addition increased CH₄
332 production in a fixed-bed biomethanation reactor (Alitalo et al. 2015), suggesting the relevance of
333 nutrient availability during biofilm-based biomethanation. The CH₄ production rate was relatively
334 stable in both the N₂/CO₂ and H₂/CO₂ control throughout the experiment while the biofilm reacted
335 to the change in medium loading and wetting.

336 3.4 Hydrogen consumption in the biofilm

337 A H₂ microsensors were applied to determine the H₂ concentration profiles in the slurries and
338 biofilms while the bottles were continuously flushed with a mixture of 80% H₂ and 20% CO₂ (Fig.
339 5). Profiles were recorded at several locations in the BIO-BLOK incubations where variation in the
340 H₂ flux and width of the H₂ consumption zone was observed. The consumption zone was up to 0.5
341 mm, the H₂ flux ranged from 0.73-3.11 nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹, and the minimum H₂ concentration in the
342 biofilm ranged from 0-400 μmol · L⁻¹. The presence of H₂ in the bottom biofilm layers at some
343 locations illustrate relatively poor biofilm formation at these locations. In the H₂/CO₂ control slurry,
344 the H₂ profiles showed limited variation and the H₂ was fully consumed in a surface zone of 0.9±0.1
345 mm (SD, n=17) mm. Figure 5 shows typical examples of H₂ concentration profiles from slurry and
346 biofilm. The average H₂ flux in the H₂/CO₂ control slurry was 1.14±0.16 (SD, n=17) nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹
347 while the H₂ flux at the biofilm/gas interface was 2.11±0.60 (SD, n=40) nmol · cm⁻² · s⁻¹. Hence,
348 the H₂ flux in the BIO-BLOK biofilm was approximately twice as high as the H₂ flux in the H₂/CO₂
349 control slurry and significantly different (t-test, p=2.5·10⁻⁸). This is in agreement with our
350 hypothesis that the carrier material's direct exposure to the gas phase would stimulate biofilm
351 formation and make it more beneficial for the microorganisms to occupy the carrier material than to
352 grow in the slurry. The high rate of H₂ consumption in the biofilm is in accordance with the
353 enrichment of *Methanoculleus* (Fig. 4).

354 3.5 Hydrogen consuming pathway

355 The VFA content in the slurry was analyzed one, five and eight weeks after incubation where
356 acetate was the only detected VFA. In the bottles, acetate concentrations changed at an average rate
357 of -1.63±1.05 (SD, n=3) μmol · d⁻¹ in the N₂/CO₂ control, -4.16±2.38 (SD, n=4) μmol · d⁻¹ in the
358 H₂/CO₂ control and 6.76±2.20 (SD, n=4) μmol · d⁻¹ in the BIO-BLOK slurry between day 10 and
359 38. Between day 38 and 59, the acetate concentrations changed at an average rate of -8.28±1.78
360 (SD, n=4) μmol · d⁻¹ in the N₂/CO₂ control, 0.54±0.88 (SD, n=4) μmol · d⁻¹ in the H₂/CO₂ control

361 and 13.64 ± 16.44 (SD, $n=4$) $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ in the BIO-BLOK slurry. Acetate was the only VFA that was
362 detected which contradicts inhibition of VFA degradation by H_2 which has been observed in other
363 studies (Luo et al. 2012; Luo and Angelidaki 2013a). In the first part of the experiment, acetate was
364 primarily degraded in both the N_2/CO_2 and H_2/CO_2 control while it accumulated in the BIO-BLOK
365 slurry. In the second part of the experiment, acetate was degraded in the N_2/CO_2 control but
366 accumulated in the H_2/CO_2 control and the BIO-BLOK slurry. The acetate accumulation rate was
367 25 times higher in the BIO-BLOK compared to the H_2/CO_2 control. The acetate concentration in the
368 present study was ~ 2 -12 times lower in the control and ~ 3 -28 times lower than in H_2 amended
369 reactors reported in other studies (Luo et al. 2012; Agneessens et al. 2017; Agneessens et al. 2018).
370 Acetate mainly accumulates in the start-up phase, but in this study the acetate concentration was
371 measured 1, 5 and 8 weeks after start of incubation which might explain the relatively low acetate
372 concentrations (Mulat et al. 2017; Agneessens et al. 2018). According to our measurements, the
373 CH_4 production accounted for 74-85% of the H_2 consumption in the H_2/CO_2 control. However, the
374 acetate accumulation data indicates that only about 0.1% of the H_2 consumption resulted in net
375 acetate accumulation in the H_2/CO_2 control. The 15-25% discrepancy in the hydrogen addition
376 budget may partially be due to reduction of CO_2 to biomass.

377 The H_2 flux measurements show a higher flux into the biofilm than into an equivalent area of the
378 surface in the liquid control, reflecting the pronounced enrichment of the genus *Methanoculleus* that
379 is associated mainly with hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (Dianou et al. 2001; Holmes and Smith
380 2016) (Fig. 4). The comparatively higher H_2 influx into the biofilm means that the CH_4 production
381 in the BIO-BLOK reactors should have been even higher as compared to the H_2/CO_2 controls than
382 the difference in surface area indicates. The CH_4 production rate in the BIO-BLOK incubations
383 was, however, only 2-4 times higher than in the H_2/CO_2 control, in spite of the carrier material
384 surface area being 7-8 times higher, indicating that the entire surface area might not have been

385 colonized. The high H₂ flux as compared to the total CH₄ production rate could also have been due
386 to high rates of homoacetogenesis. However, only 0-0.2% of the H₂ consumption resulted in net
387 acetate accumulation in the BIO-BLOK slurry. The pH at the surface of the biofilm was determined
388 in two locations of the biofilm with a pH microelectrode at day 58, and the pH was 7.6 and 8.1
389 which is in agreement with very limited acetate accumulation. Hence, homoacetogenesis does not
390 explain the discrepancy between the H₂ flux and CH₄ production rate, and limited colonization of
391 the carrier material appears as the most likely explanation. A contributing factor to the apparent
392 discrepancy could be that the surface area stated by the BIO-BLOK supplier might not be realized
393 when a relatively thick biofilm is covering the material.

394 The N₂/CO₂ control produced CH₄ throughout the experiment, confirming breakdown of organic
395 matter to sustain methanogenesis at low rates. The methanogenesis persisted although 40% of the
396 inoculum was exchanged with mineral medium and only a limited amount of complex organic
397 matter must have remained.

398

399 3.6 Fitting carrier material in a full-scale reactor

400 The biogas reactor at Foulum biogas plant (Tjele, Denmark) was used as a point of reference for
401 calculating the amount of carrier material needed in a reactor. The headspace was assumed to be
402 75% of the total reactor volume and the carrier material to occupy 15% of the total volume of the
403 reactor. The calculations are based on the H₂ flux in the BIO-BLOK incubations. The H₂
404 consumption was assumed independent of CO₂ concentration above 20% and linearly decrease to
405 half of the 20% rate when the CO₂ concentration was 2% (according to the data in Fig. 2). The H₂
406 flux was assumed to respond to the H₂ concentration according to $J = \sqrt{\frac{2 \cdot D \cdot C}{R}}$, where J is the H₂
407 flux (mol · m⁻² · h⁻¹), D is the diffusion coefficient (m² · h⁻¹), C is the H₂ concentration at the biofilm
408 surface (mol · m⁻³) and R is the specific H₂ consumption rate (mol · m⁻³ · h⁻¹) (Revsbech et al. 1980).

409 The surface of the BIO-BLOK was assumed to be the $300 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$ claimed by the company. The
410 initial CO_2 content of the biogas was assumed to be 50% and H_2 was added in a four times
411 volumetric equivalent. If a CH_4 content of >95% is required (Weiland 2010) a retention time of ~4
412 days is necessary with such a reactor configuration. Assuming this concentration dependency of the
413 H_2 consumption rate, the H_2 consumption substantially slows down at low concentrations. If the
414 carrier material occupies 75% of the total volume of the reactor, the retention time necessary would
415 decrease to one day. The carrier material should be fitted in the reactor in a fashion that would
416 allow supply of nutrients to the biofilm. This could be achieved by periodically sprinkling the
417 carrier material with digester content. Since digester content is rather heterogeneous and contain
418 fragments of organic matter that are only partially degraded it would be necessary to sieve/filtrate
419 the digester content (as was done in this study) to allow for sprinkling. This would also aid in
420 preventing clogging of the biofilm carrier material with non-biofilm material. The biofilm would
421 remain moist by the sprinkling, water vapor in the biogas and the H_2O produced during
422 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. Apart from the benefit of a very efficient mass transfer, the
423 problems with pH increase would be minimal since methanogenesis relies on the CO_2 in the gas
424 phase and not the bicarbonate pool in the digester content. Any metabolic effect on pH in the
425 biofilm will thus not be due to the catabolic metabolism, but there could be minor effects by
426 anabolic metabolism. The biofilm approach tested in this investigation is in principle similar to the
427 trickling filter approach tested by Rachbauer et al. (2016), but the mass transfer was by our
428 approach facilitated by not having the hydrogen influx into the biofilm slowed down by diffusion
429 through a water layer above the biofilm. A similar effect could have been obtained by only periodic
430 watering of the trickling filter biofilm.

431

432 4. Conclusion

433 The successful application of H₂ addition to bioreactors is highly dependent on efficient gas-to-
434 liquid mass transfer and on controlling the negative effects of CO₂ limitation leading to pH increase.
435 The microbial community partially recovers after CO₂ depletion, but hydrogenotrophic
436 methanogenesis is highly dependent on CO₂ concentration and there appears to be no selection
437 for low CO₂ affinity. Carrier material allowed for establishing a methanogenic biofilm for biogas
438 upgrading that was dominated by the genus *Methanoculleus* that is known to be associated with
439 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. A bioreactor based on a gas-exposed methanogenic biofilm
440 could lower the gas-to-liquid mass transfer limitations as well as the negative effects of CO₂
441 depletion and pH increase.

442

443 Conflict of interest

444 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

445

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450

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620

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

621 Figure captions

622 Figure 1: Profiles in membrane reactor 1 h after addition of slurry while supplied with 75% H₂ and
623 25% N₂ below the membrane (A+C). Profiles in the reactor 10 h after supplying with a gas mixture
624 of 75% H₂ and 25% N₂ (B+D). H₂ (○), CO₂ (●), pH (●), modelled H₂ concentration (black line) and
625 modelled H₂ consumption rate (red line box). The depth scale is the reading on the
626 micromanipulator. The surface of the silicone membrane was at 6 mm on that scale. The surface of
627 the slurry decreased from 0.8 to 2.6 mm during the 10 h of CO₂ depletion.

628 Figure 2: Selected H₂ (A) and CO₂ (B) concentration profiles when a mixture of 75% H₂ and 5%
629 (●), 10% (○), 18% (◆) or 20% (◇) CO₂ was supplied. Note different scale on horizontal axis. The
630 depth scale is the reading on the micromanipulator. The surface of the silicone membrane was at 6
631 mm on that scale. The surface of the slurry decreased from 2.7 to 3.4 mm during the experiment.
632 The H₂ flux and width of consumption zone as a function of CO₂ supply are plotted in panels C and
633 D, respectively.

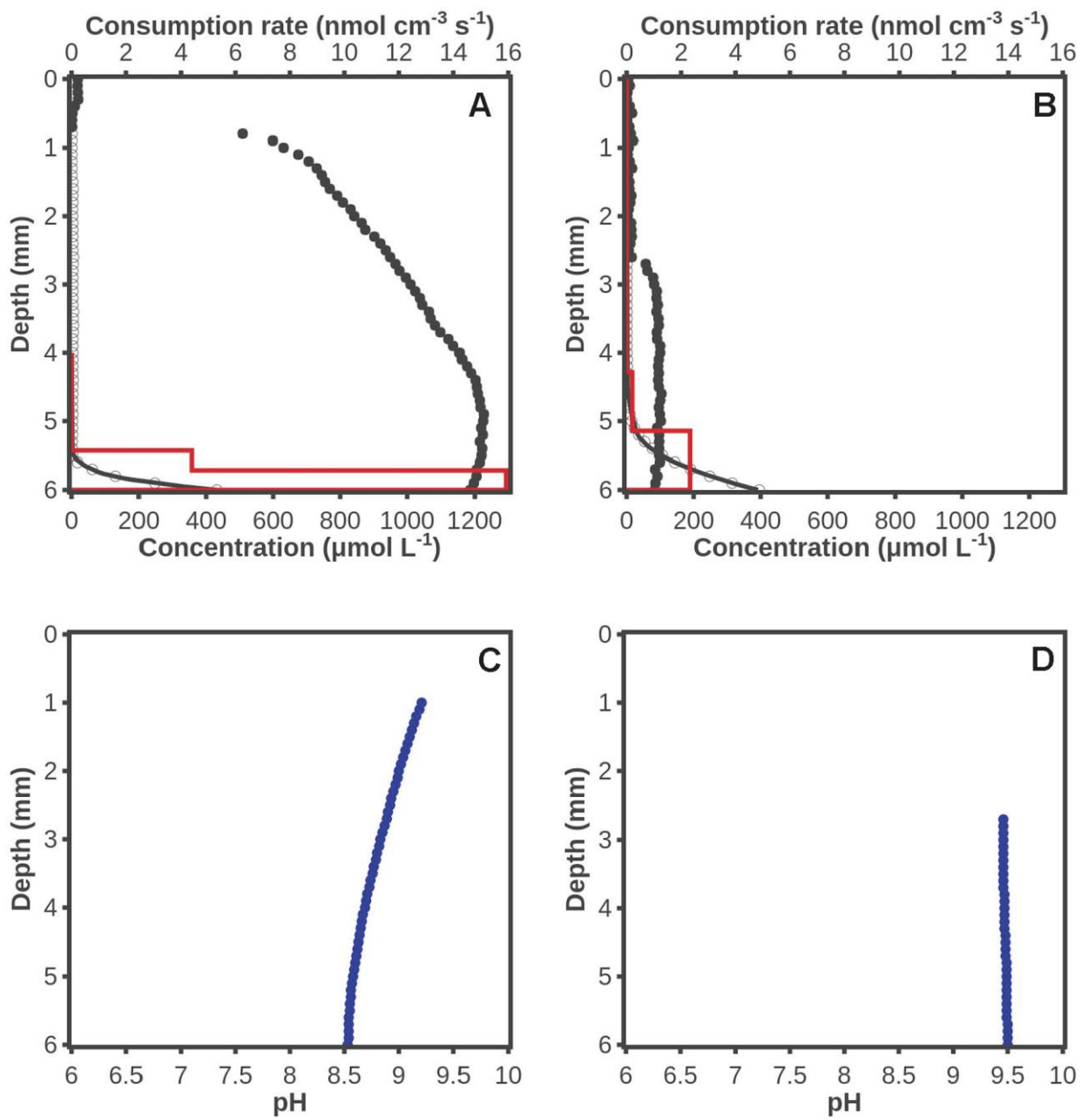
634 Figure 3: Average CH₄ production rate (\pm SD, n=4) as a function of time for the N₂/CO₂ control
635 (filled circle), H₂/CO₂ control (filled square) and BIO-BLOK (filled diamond).

636 Figure 4: Examples of H₂ concentration profiles. H₂ concentration profiles in the control H₂/CO₂
637 slurry (left) and BIO-BLOK biofilm (right).

638 Figure 5: Microbial community analysis. Heat map of read abundance showing the 15 most
639 abundant OTUs.

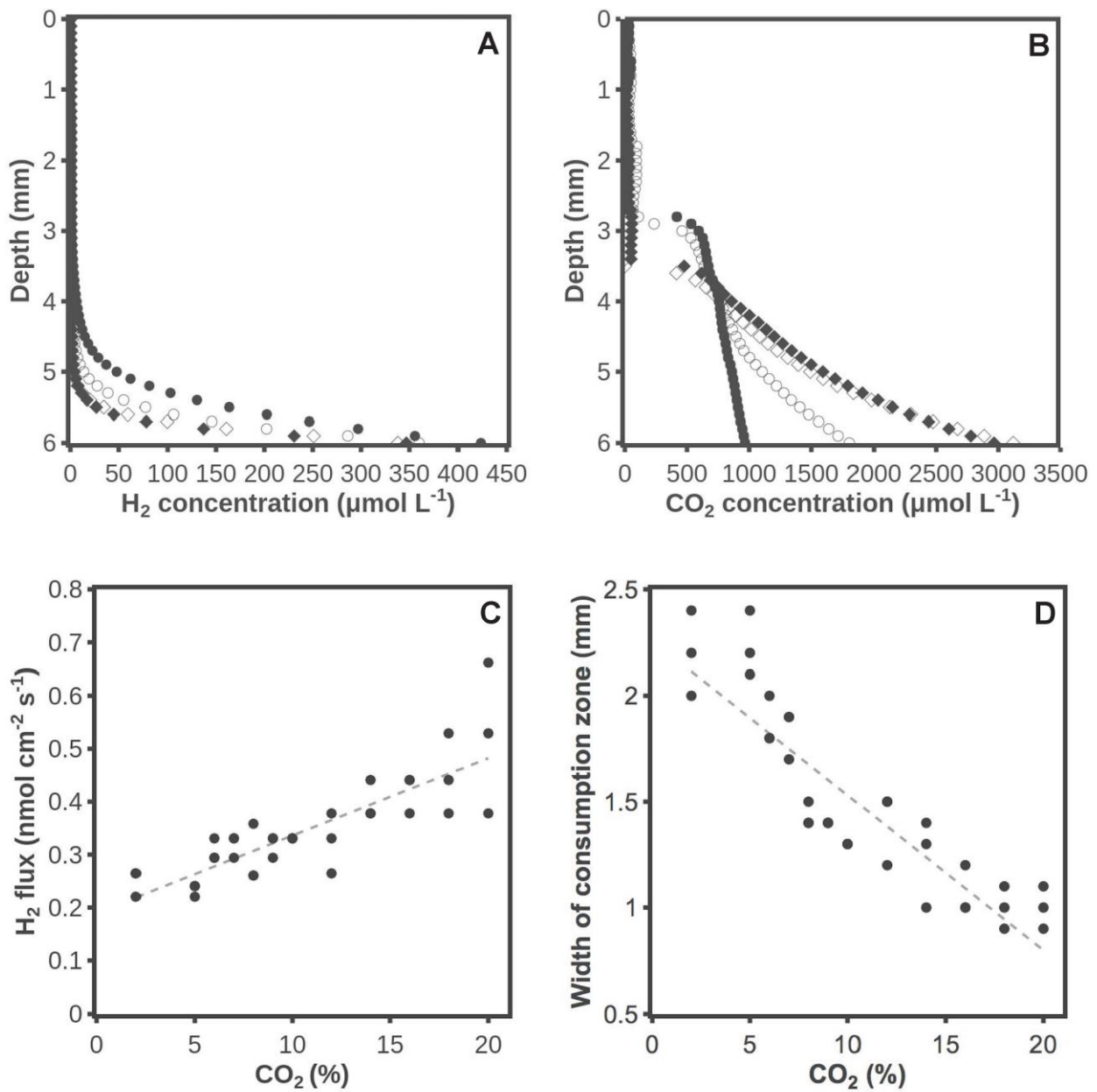
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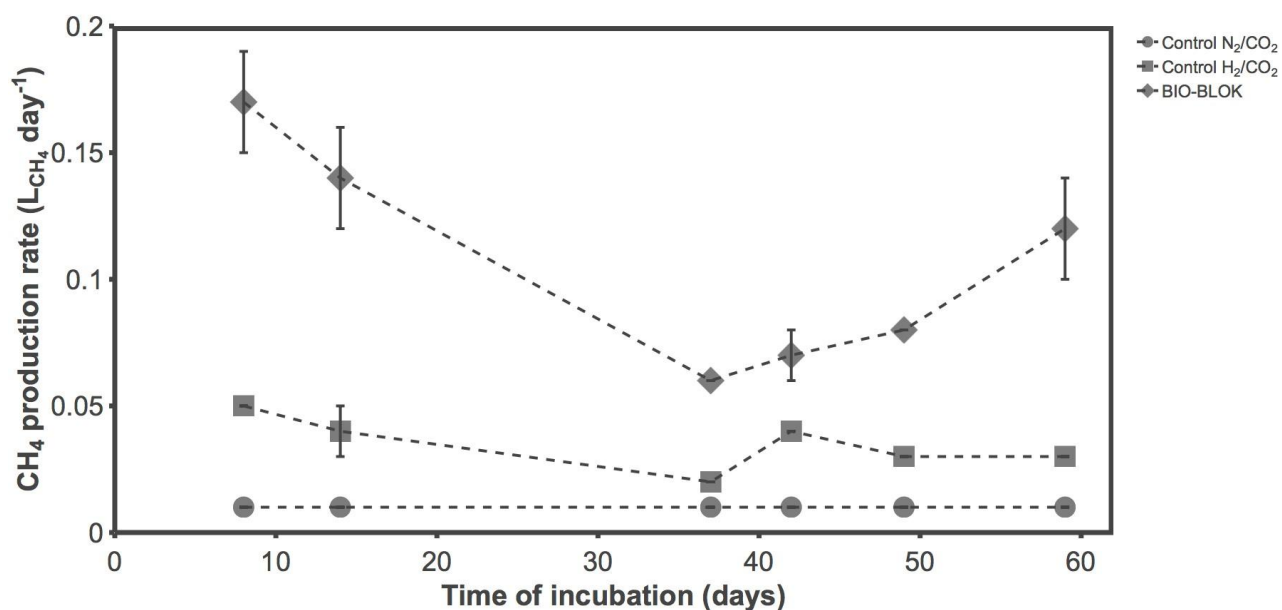
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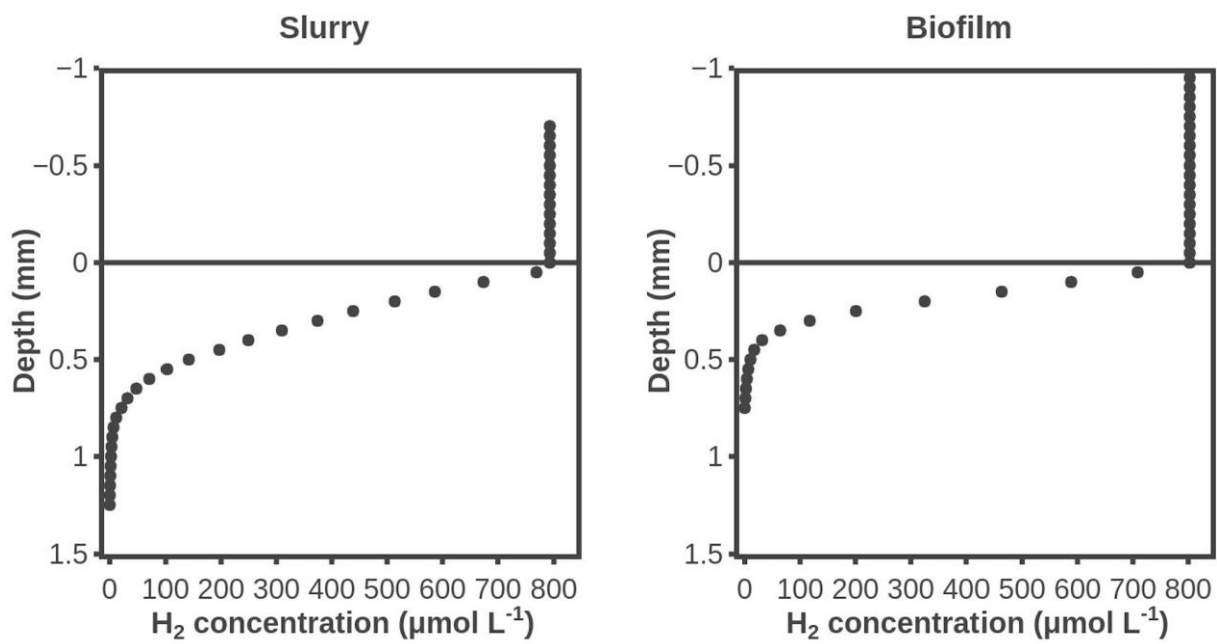
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	Control N ₂ /CO ₂				Control H ₂ /CO ₂				BIO-BLOK slurry				BIO-BLOK carrier			
Methanoculleus	9.8	10.3	9	10	10.4	9.1	8.4	10.3	4.2	6.1	8.5	7.4	24.3	28.6	24.8	23.3
Syntrophomonadaceae	9.3	8.5	9.5	9.7	6.4	8.3	10.6	7.1	8.2	7.3	6.2	7.1	4.5	5.1	4.2	4.5
Clostridia	8.5	10.6	9.1	8.2	7.4	6.2	4.8	5.9	6.3	5.9	6.3	4.9	4.3	3.3	4.1	3.8
Rikenellaceae	6.3	7.5	7.4	6.3	6.5	6.7	4.5	6.4	5	6.9	7.3	6.8	3.8	3.7	4.8	3.8
W27	2	2.1	2.2	2.6	8.7	6.9	6.2	8.4	6.7	7.7	8	5.9	5.2	3	4.3	3.3
DMER64	5.3	6.3	6.3	5.5	5.4	5.7	3.9	5.2	4.3	5.7	5.7	5.7	2.9	3	4	3.2
Fastidiosipila	3	3.1	4.2	3.3	2.8	2.4	2.6	2.5	3	2.7	2.9	2.2	3.1	6.7	5.7	5.1
MBA03	2.1	1.5	1.4	1.8	2.5	3	2.9	3.1	4.1	3.7	3.4	4.4	4.3	3.5	3	4.6
MBA03	2.2	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.6	3.1	2.6	3	4.1	3.8	3.5	4	3.6	3.3	2.9	4.1
Ruminococcaceae	5	4.8	4.8	4.5	3.3	2.9	3.6	3	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.2	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.2
Lentimicrobiaceae	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.7	1.1	2.3	1	1.3	3.1	1.6	2.7	2.5	1.5	1.1	1.7	2.2
MBA03	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.8	2	1.9	2	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.7	2.4	2.2	2.1	3
ST-12K33	3.3	3.8	3.8	3	2.1	1.8	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.8	2.1	1.6	0.8	0.7	1	0.8
Alkaliphilus	1.2	0.5	0.5	1.3	1.7	2	2.5	1.9	2.5	2.3	1.6	3.5	2.3	1.7	1.8	2.3
MBA03	1.2	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.7	2	1.7	2.7

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% Read Abundance
10.0
1.0
0.1



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648 Highlights

- 649 • Hydrogen addition resulted in CO₂ limitation and pH increase
- 650 • Hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis was highly dependent on CO₂ concentration
- 651 • A methanogenic biofilm was established on carrier material
- 652 • The methanogenic biofilm had a high rate of methanogenesis
- 653 • The methanogenic biofilm was enriched in the genus *Methanoculleus*

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