

1 **Long-term assessment of best cathode position to maximise microbial fuel cell**
2 **performance in horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetlands**

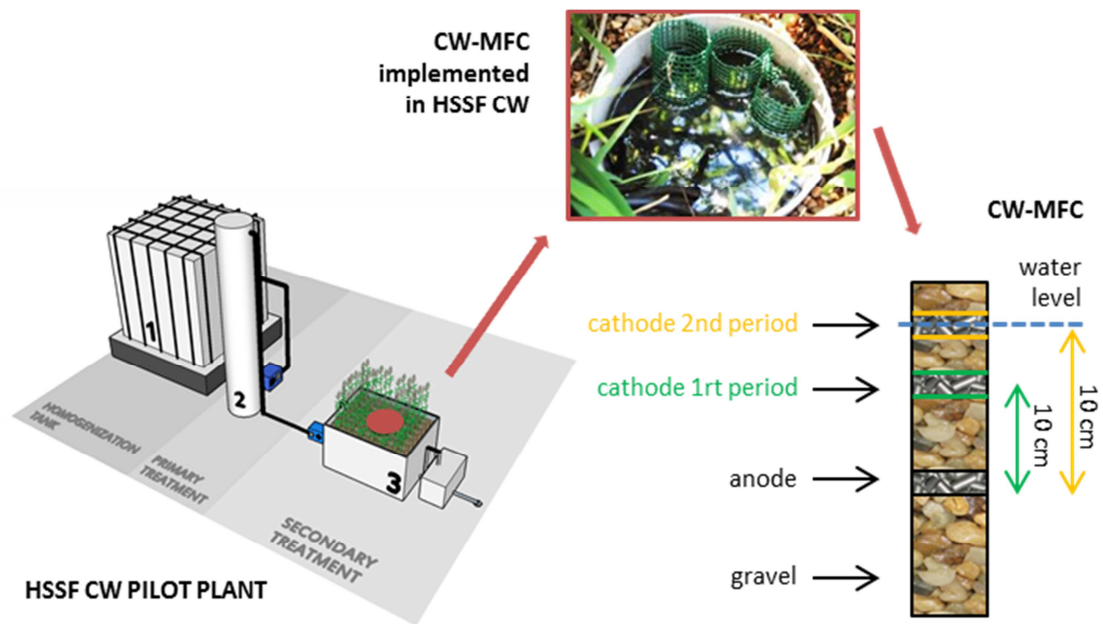
3 Clara Corbella¹, Marianna Garfí¹ and Jaume Puigagut^{1*}

4 ¹ GEMMA. Department of Hydraulic, Maritime and Environmental Engineering,
5 Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya-BarcelonaTech, c/ Jordi Girona 1-3, Building D1,
6 E-08034 Barcelona, Spain

7
8 *Corresponding author:

9 Tel: 934010898 ; Fax: +34 934017357

10 E-mail address: jaume.puigagut@upc.edu



12
13
14
15 **Corbella, C., Garfí, M., Puigagut, J. (2016) Long-term assessment of best cathode position**
16 **to maximise microbial fuel cell performance in horizontal subsurface flow constructed**
17 **wetlands. Science of the Total Environment, 563–564 (448–455)**

18
19

20 **Abstract**

21 The cathode of microbial fuel cells (MFC) implemented in constructed wetlands (CW)
22 is generally set in close contact with water surface to provide a rich oxygen
23 environment. However, water level variations caused by plants evapotranspiration in
24 CWs might decrease MFC performance by limiting oxygen transfer to the cathode .
25 Main objective of this work was to quantify the effect of water level variation on MFC
26 performance implemented in HSSF CW. For the purpose of this work two MFCs were
27 implemented within a HSSF CW pilot plant fed with primary treated domestic
28 wastewater. Cell voltage (E_{cell}) and the relative distance between the cathode and the
29 water level were recorded for one year. Results showed that E_{cell} was greatly influenced
30 by the relative distance between the cathode and the water level, giving an optimal
31 cathode position of about 1 to 2 cm above water level. Both water level variation and
32 E_{cell} were daily and seasonal dependent, showing a pronounced day/night variation
33 during warm periods and showing almost no daily variation during cold periods. Energy
34 production under pronounced daily water level variation was 40% lower (80 ± 56
35 $\text{mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$) than under low water level variation (131 ± 61 $\text{mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$). Main
36 conclusion of the present work is that of the performance of MFC implemented in
37 HSSF CW is highly dependent on plants evapotranspiration. Therefore, MFC that are to
38 be implemented in constructed wetlands shall be designed to be able to cope with
39 pronounced water level variations.

40 **Keywords:** microbial fuel cells, constructed wetlands; evapotranspiration; cathode
41 limitation; energy production

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Microbial Fuel Cells (MFCs) are bioelectrochemical systems that generate electricity
44 from organic matter oxidation using bacteria as catalysts (Logan, 2008). Electrons
45 produced during the oxidation are transferred to the electrode (anode) from where they
46 flow through a conductive material and a resistor to reduce an electron acceptor at the
47 cathode (Rabaey and Verstraete, 2005; Logan et al., 2006). The current generation in
48 MFCs depends on the redox gradient between the anode and cathode. For MFC to
49 produce an electric current two areas are required, one under reduced redox conditions
50 where organic matter is oxidized and the other one under higher redox potential where
51 terminal electron acceptors are reduced. Horizontal subsurface flow constructed

52 wetlands (HSSF CWs) are engineered treatment basins filled up with granular media
53 and planted with macrophytes that are used mainly for the treatment of domestic
54 wastewater. In HSSF CWs the presence of both organic matter and naturally generated
55 redox gradients can be exploited to produce energy via MFCs (Corbella et al., 2014;
56 2015). The implementation of MFCs in CWs (and in particular on HSSF CW) is in its
57 first stage and current scientific information available on the topic is limited. So far,
58 some studies have been developed in pilot-scale systems (Doherty et al., 2015;
59 Villaseñor et al., 2013), though most of them were based on laboratory-scale
60 experimental designs (Yadav et al., 2012; Fang et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2013) and used
61 synthetic wastewater instead of real domestic wastewater. In HSSF CWs, redox
62 potential decreases with depth generating a vertical redox gradient between the upper
63 layer, which is in higher redox conditions, and the deeper layers where anaerobic
64 environment predominates (García et al., 2003; Pedescoll et al., 2013; Dusek et al.,
65 2008). Main configuration for MFC implementation in HSSF CWs relies on setting a
66 cathode at the surface of the system while the anode remains buried in the deeper zone
67 of the treatment bed. Evapotranspiration caused by plants induces marked daily
68 variations on water level within the treatment bed and therefore, has a notable influence
69 on wetland's redox conditions (Mann and Wetzel, 1999; Pedescoll et al., 2013). Notable
70 fluctuations of water table caused by plants evapotranspiration may vary MFC
71 performance on daily and seasonal terms by changing the availability of oxygen at the
72 cathode. Consistent with this, cathode has been considered to be one of the major
73 sources of limitation in CW-MFCs due to the slow kinetics of oxygen reduction and the
74 scarcity of oxygen in CW environment (Doherty et al. 2015; Corbella et al. 2015).
75 However, although most of the reported CW-MFCs include plants in the experimental
76 designs, none of them consider the effect of evapotranspiration on cathode performance
77 (Fang et al., 2013; Villaseñor et al. 2013). Up to date daily fluctuations of CW-MFC
78 performance have been attributed to the photosynthetic activity of plants (Villaseñor et
79 al., 2013; Liu et al. 2014) with no specific mention to water level variation caused by
80 plants evapotranspiration. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the
81 influence of water level fluctuations on the performance of MFCs implemented in
82 HSSF CW that, as far as authors know, is currently unaddressed. To this purpose the
83 relative distance between cathode and water level was continuously monitored for one
84 year in two MFCs implemented in HSSF CW pilot plant fed with real domestic

85 wastewater. Results shown in this study provide useful information to optimise the
86 architecture of microbial fuel cells that are to be implemented in HSSF CWs.

87

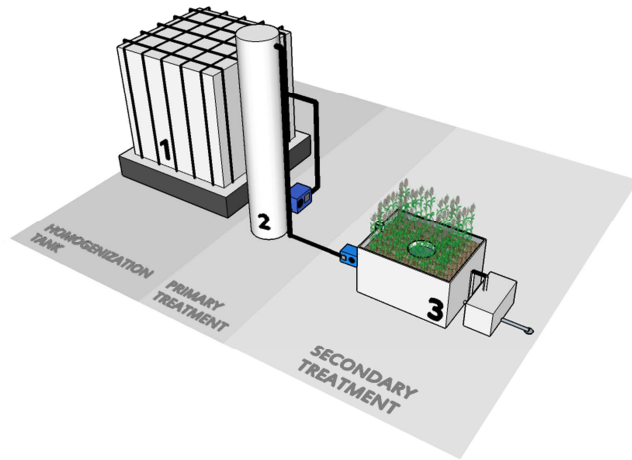
88 **2. Materials and methods**

89

90 Pilot plant description

91 The pilot plant was located in Barcelona and it was set up in March 2011. It consisted of
92 one wetland of 0.4 m² of surface with a gravel matrix having an initial porosity of about
93 40% and a depth of 35 cm (Figure 1). Water level inside the wetland was kept at about
94 30 cm depth (5 cm below the gravel surface). The wetland was planted with common
95 reed (*Phragmites Australis*) and was very mature by the time this work was carried out
96 (year 2013). The wetland had a sampling area of 20 cm diameter located in the centre of
97 its surface. This area was not filled with gravel and was used to take samples and to
98 place the probes and microbial fuel cells.

99 The wetland was fed with urban wastewater which was pumped directly from the
100 municipal sewer. Initially wastewater was coarsely screened and after that it was stored
101 in a 1.2 m³ tank of five hours of hydraulic retention time (HRT) before being conveyed
102 to the primary treatment. In the tank, wastewater was continuously stirred to avoid
103 solids sedimentation. Primary treatment consisted of a hydrolytic up-flow sludge
104 blanket reactor (HUSB reactor) of 115 L of total volume that was operated at four hours
105 of HRT. Secondary treatment consisted of one horizontal sub-surface flow constructed
106 wetland fed under a continuous flow of 0.875 l/h (design HRT was that of 2.6 days).



107

108 Figure 1. Constructed wetlands pilot plant. *Left picture*: the wetland during summer
109 2013. *Right figure*: a scheme of the pilot plant process line.

110

111 Wastewater physical and chemical analysis

112 Water quality parameters (total and soluble chemical oxygen demand (COD) and
113 ammonia) were measured at the influent, middle part, and effluent of the wetland. They
114 were analysed once every week or two weeks according to Standard Methods (APHA-
115 AWWA-WEF, 2005). The influent and effluent flow was daily monitored which
116 allowed us to calculated evapotranspiration rates and removal efficiencies on a mass
117 balance basis. Air temperature was obtained from a close meteorological station
118 (Department of Astronomy and Meteorology, University of Barcelona).

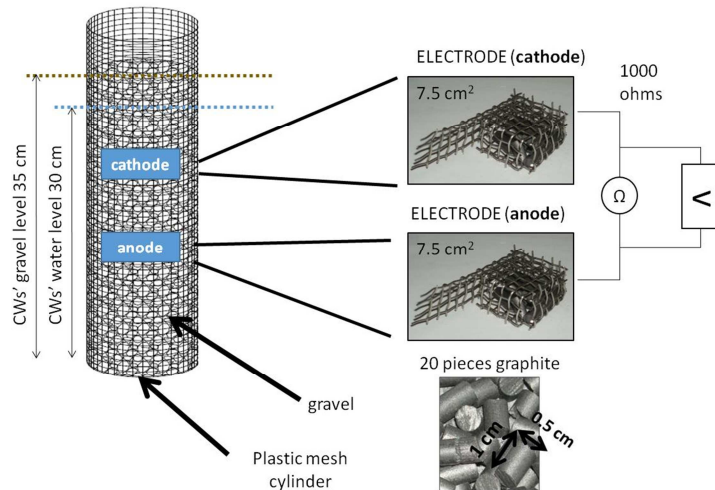
119

120 MFC's configuration and monitoring

121 Three MFC were implemented within the HSSF CW pilot plant. Two MFC were
122 operated at closed circuit and one was left at open circuit. For the purpose of this work
123 only the two MFC working under closed circuit will be considered. MFCs implemented
124 consisted of a plastic mesh of 40 cm length and 5 cm of diameter filled with 35 cm of
125 gravel in order to simulate wetlands' characteristics (Figure 2). The anode and cathode
126 were made of twenty cylindrical graphite rods (1 cm length and 0.6 cm diameter) each,
127 covered by a mesh of stainless steel (marine grade 316L) (Figure 2). They were cubic

128 shaped with a projected surface of 7.5 cm^2 and 1 cm high. The external circuit was
 129 closed by connecting both electrodes with one external resistance of 1000 ohms by
 130 means of cooper wires. Epoxy materials were used to preserve metal connections from
 131 wastewater corrosion. MFC were placed in the central part of the treatment bed which
 132 was empty of gravel (Figure 2).

133



134

135 Figure 2. MFC experimental set up. On the upper picture we can see the MFC
 136 implemented within the wetland. On the bottom picture we can see the schematics of
 137 MFC and the picture of the electrodes implemented.

138 MFCs were monitored during two consecutive periods of six months each in which two
 139 different cathode positions were tested. Different cathode positions were applied in
 140 order to get a wider range of the relative distance between cathode and water level.
 141 During the first period (from February to July 2013) cathode was placed 5 cm below the
 142 design water level. During the second study period (from August 2013 to January
 143 2014), cathode was placed at the same level than the design water level. In both cases,
 144 anodes were located 10 cm below cathodes (15 cm and 10 cm below the design water
 145 level, respectively).

146 MFCs were connected to a datalogger (Datataker DT50 series 3) which collected a
 147 value of voltage across the external resistance every 15 minutes. Current was calculated
 148 following ohms law and power calculated by means of $P=V^2/R$, where P represents
 149 power, V is voltage and R regards the external resistance. Current and power density

150 values were related to the projected anodic area, which was considered to be the base of
151 the electrode (7.5 cm^2) in order to be able to express energy or power production per
152 wetland surface.

153 Statistical analyses

154 Differences among experimental conditions for any of the considered parameters were
155 determined by carrying out an ANOVA test, T-tests and Wilcoxon tests depending on
156 the type of dataset considered. Data normality and homogeneity of variances were
157 determined by performing the Kolmogorov-Smirnoff and Levenne tests, respectively.
158 Differences among experimental conditions were considered significant at p values
159 bellow 0.05. All statistical analyses were performed using the software package R 3.0.2.
160

161 **3. Results and discussion**

162 Plant treatment performance and organic matter available for MFC functioning

163 Soluble and total COD and ammonia were surveyed in the inlet, middle and outlet of
164 the wetland along both periods. As it can be seen in Table 1, despite the high variability
165 of results, the organic matter concentration in the inlet in terms of both soluble and total
166 COD, was higher during the first period than during the second one ($p \text{ value} < 0.05$).
167 However, no statistical differences were found between removal efficiencies in both
168 periods. Accordingly, removal efficiencies for total COD were that of $61 \pm 19\%$ and
169 $60 \pm 10\%$ to the first and second period, respectively. COD removal efficiencies were
170 slightly lower than those found in the literature, where reported values range from 65 to
171 80 % (Puigagut et al., 2007). However, it is worth to mention that organic loading in our
172 pilot plant (ca. $15 \text{ g COD} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) was slightly higher than that generally
173 recommended for HSSF CW (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009). The amount of fuel for MFC
174 functioning is of capital importance for MFC performance (Liu et al., 2004). In our
175 study organic matter in the vicinity of the MFC was of similar extent in both study
176 periods (ca. $140 \pm 50 \text{ mg/L}$ and ca. $90 \pm 30 \text{ mg/L}$ for the total and soluble COD,
177 respectively for the first study period and ca. $170 \pm 70 \text{ mg/L}$ and ca. $120 \pm 30 \text{ mg/L}$ for the
178 total and soluble COD, respectively for the second study period). Finally, it is worth
179 mentioning that the effect that MFC might have exerted on wastewater treatment
180 efficiency will not be considered in the present work since MFC active electrodes
181 represented a very small proportion ($\approx 0.02\%$) of the total treatment bed volume.

182 Table 1. Total and soluble chemical oxygen demand (COD) and ammonia
 183 concentrations at inlet, middle and outlet of the wetland during the first and second
 184 period. Note: average values are based on n=16 per experimental period.
 185

			FIRST PERIOD			SECOND PERIOD		
			in	middle	out	in	middle	out
COD	Total	<i>mg O₂/L</i>	323±33	137±53	126±61	254±94	175±70	99±26
	Soluble	<i>mg O₂/L</i>	178±51	88±29	96±43	132±58	122±33	80±24
Ammonia		<i>mg NH₄- N/L</i>	41±7	-	19±19	29±7	-	24±18

186

187 In terms of ammonia, again, inlet ammonia concentration was higher during the first
 188 period than during the second one (p value<0.05). Both periods were of six months each
 189 and, therefore, the performance of the pilot plant was affected by seasonal variations. It
 190 is reported that nitrogen removal is influenced by temperature (Vymazal et al., 2007)
 191 leading to larger removal efficiencies achieved on warm than colder periods. This
 192 behaviour was specially marked during the first study period. Thus, the average removal
 193 efficiency during all the period was that of 60±40%, but the mean value obtained from
 194 February to mid-May was that of 29±24% and from mid-May to end of July that of
 195 98±2%.

196 Temperature is described to affect HSSF CW microbial processes and its treatment
 197 performance (García et al. 2010). CW-MFCs function in a microbial basis and
 198 therefore, as in conventional MFCs, temperature may also affect their performance
 199 (Jadhav and Ghangrekar, 2009). Accordingly, meteorological data from both periods
 200 was analysed to ensure they were comparable in terms of temperature. Results showed
 201 very similar average temperatures at the first and the second periods (16±6 and 17±6 °C,
 202 respectively) thus being comparable despite the fact that both experimental conditions
 203 were tested during different periods (February-July and August-January).

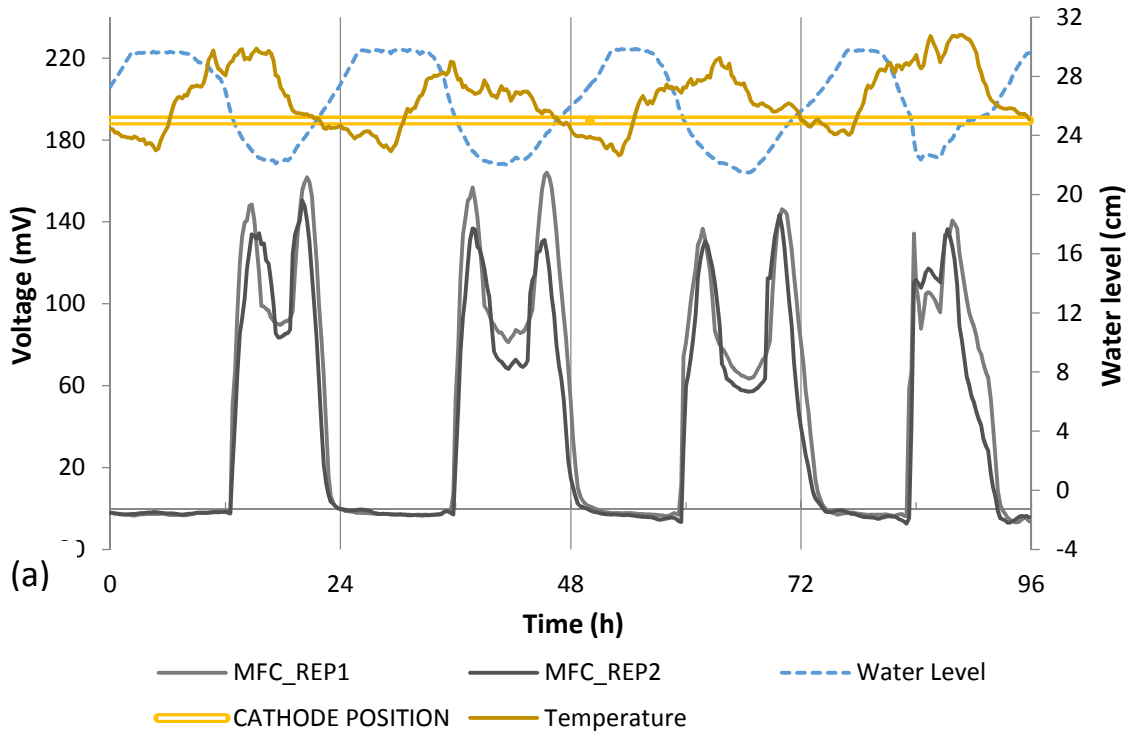
204 Daily cell voltage pattern

205 Figure 3a and 3b depict a representative cell voltage pattern recorded under intense
 206 evapotranspiration during the first and second experimental periods, respectively.
 207 Figure 4 depicts a representative voltage pattern recorded under low evapotranspiration

208 conditions during the second experimental period. It is worth mentioning that during the
209 first experimental period, where the cathode was set at 5 cm below the design water
210 level, cell voltage was close to zero for the most part of the day during cold periods
211 (low evapotranspiration conditions due to the absence of plants). From Figure 3a and 3b
212 it is possible to see that cell voltage was dependent on the water level variation along
213 the day. During the first study period (where cathode was located 5 cm below water
214 level) higher MFC performances were generally recorded from noon to about 6 pm
215 (Figure 3a) when cathode was exposed to the atmosphere due to a lower water level
216 caused by evapotranspiration. During the second experimental period (where cathode
217 was located at water level) higher MFC performances were recorded during hours where
218 evapotranspiration was not intense (Figure 3b). Accordingly, cell voltages remained
219 high during most part of the night and dropped during daylight when the cathode was
220 well above the water level and reached a drying state that hampered any electrons flow
221 (short-circuit conditions). Our results on cell voltage pattern are in accordance to that
222 previously stated in current literature where marked daily oscillations of MFC voltage
223 were recorded (Villaseñor et al., 2013). However, daily cell voltage oscillation of MFC
224 implemented in wetlands has been attributed so far to the photosynthetic activity of
225 plants (Villaseñor et al., 2013; Doherty et al., 2015). Our results suggest that, even
226 though carbon exudates are a good carbon source for powering a MFC (De
227 Schamphelaire et al., 2008), main factor governing the cell voltage in our system was
228 the availability of oxygen at the cathode which was related to water level variation
229 caused by plants evapotranspiration.

230

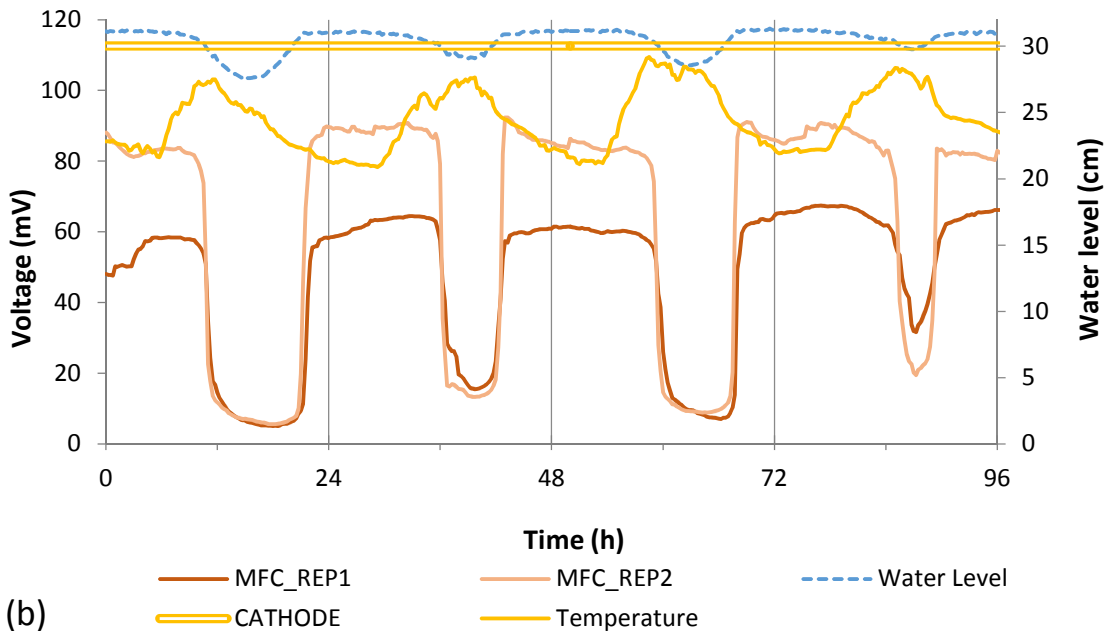
231



232

233

234



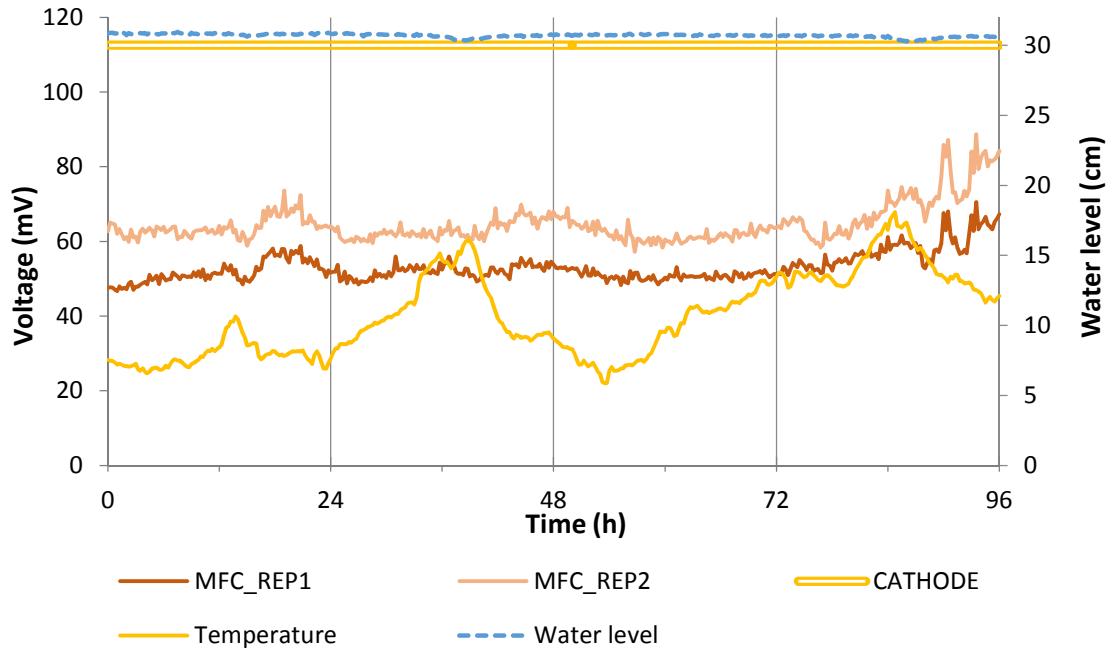
235

236 Figure. 3 Representative cell voltage patterns (two replicates, REP1 and REP2)

237 recorded during high evapotranspiration conditions for the first experimental period (a)

238 and second experimental period (b). *Note:* negative cell voltage values are the result of
239 small inaccuracies of the measurement equipment.

240



241

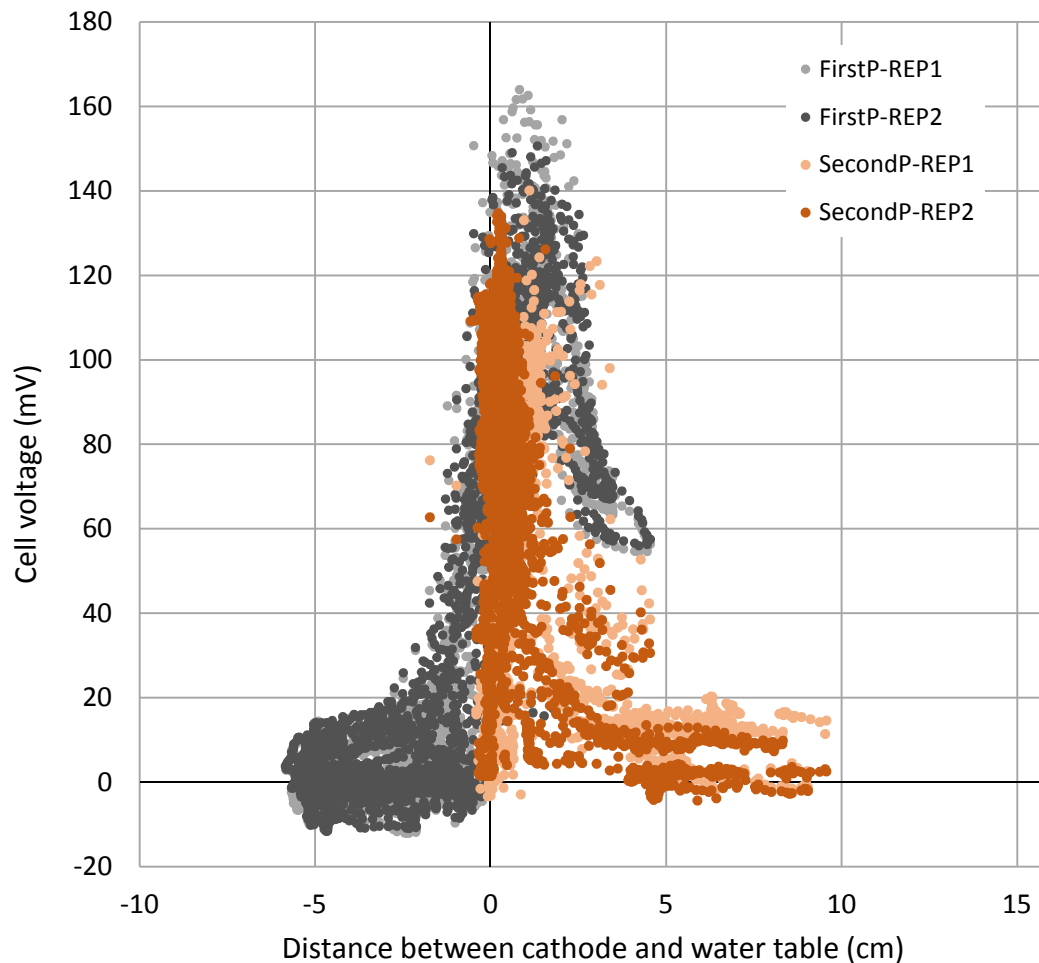
242 Figure. 4 Representative cell voltage patterns (two replicates, REP1 and REP2)
243 recorded under low evapotranspiration conditions for the second experimental period.

244 Best cathode position to maximise MFC performance

245 Figure 5 depicts the cell voltage recorded along the one-year study period against the
246 relative position between cathode and the water level. Results show that both during the
247 first and the second period, only when cathode was slightly above water level (position
248 around 1 to 2 cm above water level) cell voltage was maximised. These results
249 suggested that, even though it is reported that the upper water layer of HSSF CWs is
250 under higher redox conditions (García et al., 2003; Pedescoll et al., 2013), the real
251 oxidized layer from which we can benefit by implementing MFC is of very little extend.
252 Consequently, when cathode was even slightly submerged there was not enough redox
253 gradient between electrodes (anode-cathode) for MFC to produce any significant
254 current. Performance of cathodes is therefore, considered for the authors of this work as
255 the main source for MFC performance limitation. Our results are in accordance to that
256 previously reported in conventional MFCs, where cathodes have been described as the
257 main limiting factor of microbial fuel cell performance (Anh et al., 2014; Fan et al.,

258 2008). Actually, it has been demonstrated that power generation is dependent on oxygen
259 availability at the cathode (Oh et al., 2004; Ahn et al. 2014; Ferreira-Aparicio and
260 Chaparro, 2014, Zhang et al., 2013) and also that air cathodes, compared to aqueous
261 ones, lead to higher cell output not only due to higher oxygen concentrations but also to
262 higher mass transfer rates (Fan et al., 2008). Furthermore, in conventional MFCs,
263 cathodes' flooding (Ferreira-Aparicio and Chaparro, 2014; Zhang et al., 2013), air
264 humidity and water pressure (Ahn et al. 2014) have been described to be factors
265 affecting oxygen accessibility. For all that, the authors believe that in order to avoid
266 cathode limitation in MFC implemented in CW, cell architecture shall address the
267 possibility to cope with intense water level variations. To this regard, authors believe
268 that a cathode based on a thick layer of graphite placed at the upper part of the treatment
269 bed will allow the CW-MFC to have always an active cathode zone for oxygen
270 reduction, regardless the water level within the wetland. According to our results, water
271 level can vary up 10 cm from the design water level (Figure 3a; Figure 5). Therefore,
272 the thickness of the graphite layer shall be, at least, that of 10 cm.

273



274

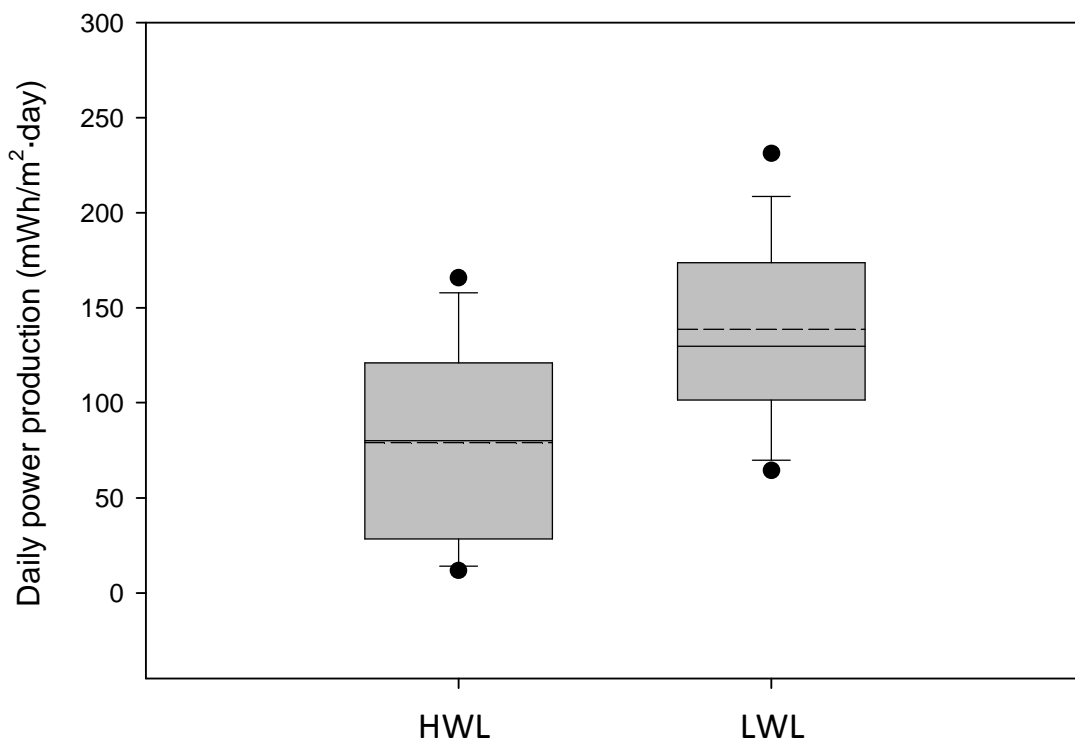
275 Figure 5. Voltage plotted against the relative distance between cathode and water table
 276 from both replicates (REP1 and REP2). *Note*¹: Negative values of relative distance
 277 between cathode and water level means that the cathode is below water level. *Note*²:
 278 negative cell voltage values are the result of small inaccuracies of the measurement
 279 equipment.

280 Effect of water level variation on cell voltage and energy production

281 Cell voltage and energy production was assessed by comparing MFC performance
 282 under conditions of low water level variation (LWL) and high water level variation
 283 (HWL), regardless the study period considered. We want to point out that, as mentioned
 284 before, cell voltage along the day during cold months of the first study period the MFC
 285 was close to zero. Therefore, these data will not be considered for the purposes of this
 286 section. Voltage and energy produced under LWS conditions was calculated from the
 287 cold months of the second experimental period. Results showed that maximum cell
 288 voltage values were recorded for MFC working under HWL conditions. Accordingly,

289 under very intense evapotranspiration conditions most of the cell voltages recorded
290 achieved values higher than 120 mV, while during the LWL these figures were rarely
291 achieved. However, when daily maximums were statistically compared, no significant
292 differences could be detected.

293 Contrary to voltages generated, energy produced ($\text{mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$) was significantly lower
294 ($p < 0.05$) under HWL conditions when compared to LWL conditions. More precisely,
295 energy produced under HWL conditions was, in average terms, 40% lower (80 ± 56
296 $\text{mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$) than that under LWL conditions ($131 \pm 61 \text{ mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$) (Figure 6). This
297 result was due to the fact that MFC operated under higher water level variations resulted
298 in periods of high cell voltage and periods where cell voltage remained essentially
299 constant and close to zero. On the contrary, MFC operated under low water level
300 variations resulted in a nearly constant cell voltage signal along the day.



301

302 Figure 6. Daily energy production during high water level variation conditions (HWL)
303 and low water level variation conditions (LWL).

304 Significance of energy production with MFC in the context of constructed wetlands

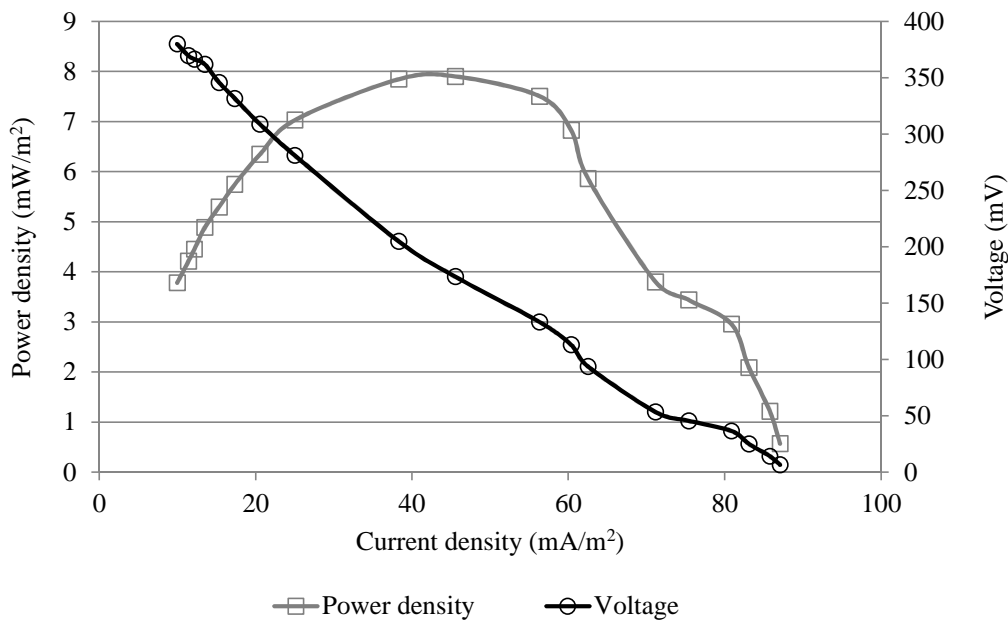
305 Constructed wetlands (CWs) is a technology that consumes little energy for the
306 treatment of domestic wastewater ($<0.1 \text{ kWh/m}^3$) (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009).
307 However, due to its large surface requirements (about $5 \text{ m}^2/\text{PE}$) CWs implementation is
308 generally restricted to the sanitation of small human settlements ($<10,000$ inhabitants).
309 In order to not only overcome the large surface requirements of CWs but also to
310 increase its treatment efficiency, active aeration has been considered a suitable strategy
311 (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009; Austin and Nivala, 2009). However, CWs aeration
312 increases the energy devoted to the treatment of wastewater when compared to passive,
313 more traditional wetlands configuration. Current figures of energy consumption for
314 completely aerated wetlands range from 0.16 to 0.49 kWh/m^3 (Kadlec and Wallace,
315 2009; Austin and Nivala, 2009). Under this condition we can estimate that MFC
316 implemented in CWs using the energy production figures here reported may cover less
317 than 1% of the total energy demand (note that for the estimation we have assumed that
318 one PE generates about $0.15 \text{ m}^3/\text{day}$ of wastewater and that MFC energy production is
319 that of $131 \text{ mWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$ and that only one third of the wetland is actually suitable for
320 energy production via MFC since most of the COD is consumed within the first third of
321 the wetland length). However, recent works carried out on the optimization of wetlands
322 aeration have shown that the aeration of a small surface area of horizontal sub-surface
323 flow constructed wetlands (8% of the total area) might be enough to increase treatment
324 efficiency and reduce surface requirements (Labella et al., 2015). Under this situation
325 the energy requirements are lower when compared to full surface aeration (0.029
326 $\text{kWh/m}^2 \cdot \text{year}$). Therefore, under this lower energy requirements for aeration the energy
327 provided to the wetlands by means of MFCs would be about the 50% of the total energy
328 demand (note that for the estimation we have assumed the same conditions that in the
329 previous calculation).

330 Influence of oxygen availability on the internal resistance: Impedance analysis

331 As it has been stated before, water level variation influenced the oxygen availability at
332 the cathode, what in turn affected cells' performance. In this section this influence is
333 assessed in terms of MFCs' overpotentials and ohmic losses. To this aim, two
334 polarization curves were performed during the first period of MFC operation. One of
335 the polarization curves was performed when cathode position was under sub-optimal

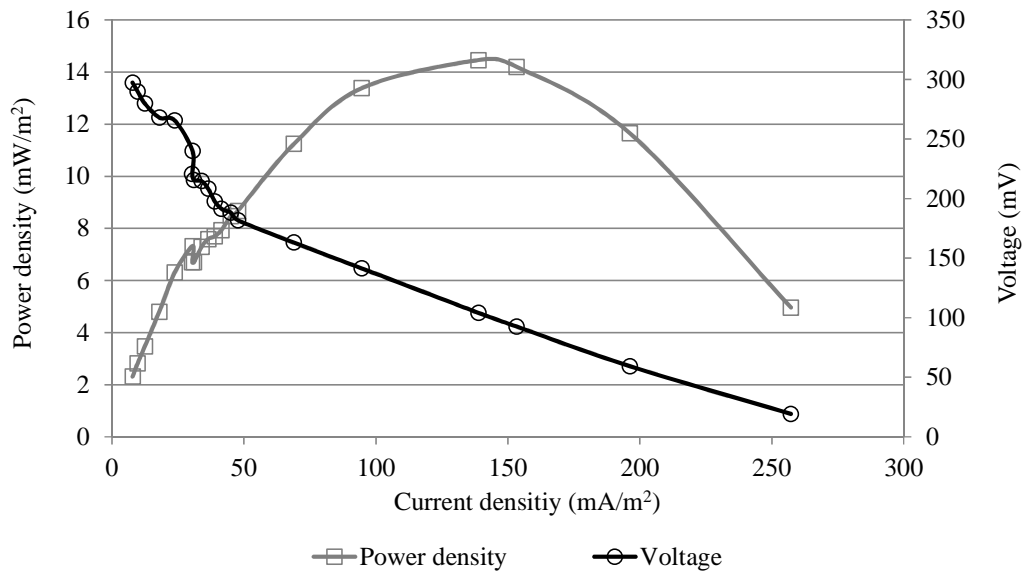
336 conditions (cathode submerged 2 cm below water level) (Figure 6a) whereas the other
 337 polarization curve was performed close to optimal conditions (cathode was in line with
 338 water level) (Figure 6b). Overpotentials are generally current dependent and can occur
 339 both at the anode and the cathode. Logan et al. (2006) divides them into activation
 340 losses, bacterial metabolism losses and mass transport or concentration losses. The latter
 341 arise due to insufficient mass transfer of chemical species to or from the electrode what
 342 limits the reaction rate (Logan, 2008). Results showed in Figure 3 confirm that the lack
 343 of oxygen availability at the cathode when it was submerged increased concentration
 344 losses to the extent of preventing electrons to flow. Accordingly, Rabaey et al., (2008)
 345 reports that oxygen reduction at non-catalysed materials cause large overpotentials.
 346 Moreover, open circuit voltage and internal resistance are also a manner to analyse
 347 MFCs' performance. The internal resistance, which is also current dependent, is defined
 348 as the sum of all internal losses (Logan et al., 2006) and it is reported that cathode is one
 349 of the main factors contributing to it (Fan et all, 2008). In fact, the cathode as the power
 350 limitation has also been reported in a plant-MFC (Strik et al., 2008).

351 a)



352

353 b)



354

355 Figure 6. Polarization curves made on the same MFC (the same replicate) during
 356 normal operation: a) under optimal cathode position (in line with water level) and b)
 357 under suboptimal cathode position (2 cm below water level).

358 Polarization curves were made in order to electrochemically characterize MFCs
 359 working under two different cathode positions relative to water level. Maximum power
 360 and their corresponding current densities registered were 7.9 mW/m² and 45.5 mA/m²
 361 for the case of MFC under suboptimal cathode conditions (that is to say cathode
 362 submerged about 2 cm) and 14.5 mW/m² and 138.8 mA/m² for the case of MFC close
 363 to optimal conditions (cathode in line with water level). Accordingly, the internal
 364 resistances estimated from the polarization curves were that of 5080Ω and 1000Ω,
 365 respectively. This result is in accordance to the fact that the maximum power is
 366 achieved when the internal resistance is equal to the external (Lefebvre et al., 2011).
 367 Internal resistance can be estimated as the slope of the linear section of the polarization
 368 curve (Logan et al., 2006). Results obtained from this estimations showed that under
 369 both conditions internal resistance estimated was in the range of external resistances at
 370 which maximum power was reached (6466Ω and 1064Ω for suboptimal and optimal
 371 cathode conditions respectively) and therefore that at maximum point $R_{ext}=R_{int}$. Overall,
 372 this analysis based on impedance shows that cathode position under optimal conditions
 373 reduces the internal resistance of the system and, therefore, maximises cell performance.

374

375 **4. Conclusions**

- 376 • Water level variation in constructed wetlands caused by evapotranspiration has a
377 great effect of microbial fuel cell performance.
- 378 • Cathode shall remain between 1 to 2 cm above water level in order to optimize
379 cell performance.
- 380 • Microbial fuel cell having a fixed cathode and operated under high water level
381 variation produced about 40% less energy (80 ± 56 mWh/m²·day) than that under
382 low water level variation (131 ± 61 mWh/m²·day). Therefore, cell architecture
383 shall address the possibility to cope with intense water level variation to
384 optimise cell performance.
- 385 • Water level variation influences cathode performance by increasing the overall
386 internal resistance of the system.

387

388 5. Acknowledgments

389 This study was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation (MICINN)
390 (project CTM2010-17750). Clara Corbella kindly acknowledges her PhD scholarship
391 (2014 FI_AGAUR, Generalitat de Catalunya).

392

393 6. References

394 Ahn, Y., Zhang, F., & Logan, B. E. (2014). Air humidity and water pressure effects on
395 the performance of air-cathode microbial fuel cell cathodes. *Journal of Power Sources*,
396 247, 655–659.

397 APHA-AWWA-WEF, 2005. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and
398 Wastewater. 21st ed. American Public Health Association, Washington, DC.

399 Austin, D. and Nival, J. 2009. Energy requirements for nitrification and biological
400 nitrogen removal in engineered wetlands. *Ecological Engineering*, 35, 184-192.

401 Corbella, C., Garfí, M., & Puigagut, J. (2014). Vertical redox profiles in treatment
402 wetlands as function of hydraulic regime and macrophytes presence: Surveying the
403 optimal scenario for microbial fuel cell implementation. *The Science of the Total*
404 *Environment*, 470-471, 754–8.

405 Corbella, C., Guivernau, M., Viñas, M. and Puigagut, J. (2015) Operational, design and
406 microbial aspects related to power production with microbial fuel cells implemented in

407 constructed wetlands, *Water Research*, 84, 232-242.

408 De Schamphelaire, L., Van den Bossche, L., Dang, H. S., Höfte, M., Boon, N., Rabaey,
409 K., Verstraete, W., 2008. Microbial fuel cells generating electricity from rhizodeposits
410 of rice plants. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 42(8), 3053–8.

411 Doherty, L., Zhao, Y., Zhao, X., Hu, Y., Ao, X., Xu, L. and Liu, R. (2015). A review of
412 a recently emerged technology: Constructed wetland – Microbial fuel cells. *Water*
413 *Research*, 85(15), 38-45

414 Dušek, J., Pícek, T., & Čížková, H. (2008). Redox potential dynamics in a horizontal
415 subsurface flow constructed wetland for wastewater treatment: Diel, seasonal and
416 spatial fluctuations. *Ecological Engineering*, 34(3), 223–232.

417 Fan, Y., Sharbrough, E., & Liu, H. (2008). Quantification of the internal resistance
418 distribution of microbial fuel cells. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 42(21), 8101–
419 7.

420 Fang, Z., Song, H.-L., Cang, N., & Li, X.-N. (2013). Performance of microbial fuel cell
421 coupled constructed wetland system for decolorization of azo dye and bioelectricity
422 generation. *Bioresource Technology*, 144, 165–71.

423 Ferreira-Aparicio, P., & Chaparro, A. M. (2014). Influence of the gas diffusion cathode
424 structure on the performance of an air-breathing proton exchange membrane fuel cell.
425 *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 39(8), 3997–4004.

426 García, J., Ojeda, E., Sales, E., Chico, F., Píriz, T., Aguirre, P., & Mujeriego, R. (2003).
427 Spatial variations of temperature, redox potential, and contaminants in horizontal flow
428 reed beds. *Ecological Engineering*, 21(2-3), 129–142.

429 García, J., Rousseau, D.P.L., Morató, J., Lesage, E., Matamoros, V., Bayona, J.M.
430 (2010) Contaminant Removal Processes in Subsurface-Flow Constructed Wetlands: A
431 Review. *Water Research*, 40(7), 561-661
432 Gonzalez del Campo, A., Cañizares, P.,
433 Rodrigo, M.A., Fernández, F., J., Lobato, J. Microbial fuel cell with an algae-assisted
434 cathode: A preliminary assessment. *Journal of Power Sources*. 2013, 242, 638-645.

434 Jadhav, G.S., Ghangrekar, M.M. (2009) Performance of microbial fuel cell subjected to
435 variation in pH, temperature, external load and substrate concentration. *Bioresource*
436 *technology*, 100(2), 717-723

437 Kadlec, R.H., Wallace, S. (2009) *Treatment Wetlands*. Second edition. ISBN 978-1-

438 56670-526-4. CRC Press.

439 Labella, A., Caniani, D., Hughes-Riley, T., Morris, R.H., Newton, M.I., Hawes, P.,
440 Puigagut, J., García, J. and Uggetti, E. 2015. Assessing the economic suitability of
441 aeration and the influence of bed heating on constructed wetlands treatment efficiency
442 and life-span. *Ecological Engineering*, 83, 184-190.

443 Lefebvre, O., Uzabiaga, A., Chang, I. S., Kim, B.-H., & Ng, H. Y. (2011). Microbial fuel
444 cells for energy self-sufficient domestic wastewater treatment-a review and discussion
445 from energetic consideration. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 89(2), 259–70.

446 Liu, H., Ramnarayanan, R., & Logan, B. E. (2004). Production of electricity during
447 wastewater treatment using a single chamber microbial fuel cell. *Environmental Science
448 & Technology*, 38(7), 2281–5.

449 Liu, S., Song, H., Wei, S., Yang, F., Li, X. (2014) Bio-cathode materials evaluation and
450 configuration optimization for power output of vertical subsurface flow constructed
451 wetland - Microbial fuel cell systems. *Bioresource Technology*. 166. 575-583

452 Logan, B.E. (2008) *Microbial Fuel Cells*. ISBN 978-0-470-23948-3. John Wiley &
453 Sons.

454 Logan, B. E., Hamelers, B., Rozendal, R., Schröder, U., Keller, J., Freguia, S. and
455 Rabaey, K. (2006). Microbial fuel cells: methodology and technology. *Environmental
456 Science & Technology*, 40(17), 5181–92.

457 Mann, C. J., & Wetzel, R. G. (1999). Photosynthesis and stomatal conductance of
458 *Juncus effusus* in a temperate wetland ecosystem. *Aquatic Botany*, 63(2), 127–144.

459 Oh, S., Min, B., & Logan, B. E. (2004). Cathode performance as a factor in electricity
460 generation in microbial fuel cells. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 38(18), 4900–
461 4.

462 Pedescoll, A., Sidrach-Cardona, R., Sánchez, J. C., & Bécares, E. (2013).
463 Evapotranspiration affecting redox conditions in horizontal constructed wetlands under
464 Mediterranean climate: Influence of plant species. *Ecological Engineering*, 58, 335–
465 343.

466 Puigagut, J., Villaseñor, J., Salas, J. J., Bécares, E., & García, J. (2007). Subsurface-
467 flow constructed wetlands in Spain for the sanitation of small communities: A
468 comparative study. *Ecological Engineering*, 30(4), 312–319.

469 Rabaey, K., Read, S. T., Clauwaert, P., Freguia, S., Bond, P. L., Blackall, L. L., &
470 Keller, J. (2008). Cathodic oxygen reduction catalyzed by bacteria in microbial fuel
471 cells. *The ISME Journal*, 2(5), 519–27.

472 Rabaey, K., & Verstraete, W. (2005). Microbial fuel cells: novel biotechnology for
473 energy generation. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 23(6), 291–8.

474 Stottmeister, U., Wießner, a., Kusch, P., Kappelmeyer, U., Kästner, M., Bederski, O.,
475 Moormann, H. (2003). Effects of plants and microorganisms in constructed wetlands for
476 wastewater treatment. *Biotechnology Advances*, 22(1-2), 93–117.

477 Strik, D. P. B. T. B., Snel, J. F. H., & Buisman, C. J. N. (2008). SHORT
478 COMMUNICATION. Green electricity production with living plants and bacteria in a
479 fuel cell, (January), 870–876.

480 Villaseñor, J., Capilla, P., Rodrigo, M. a, Cañizares, P., & Fernández, F. J. (2013).
481 Operation of a horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland--microbial fuel cell
482 treating wastewater under different organic loading rates. *Water Research*, 47(17),
483 6731–8.

484 Vymazal, J. (2007). Removal of nutrients in various types of constructed wetlands. *The*
485 *Science of the Total Environment*, 380(1-3), 48–65.

486 Yadav, A. K., Dash, P., Mohanty, A., Abbassi, R., & Mishra, B. K. (2012). Performance
487 assessment of innovative constructed wetland-microbial fuel cell for electricity
488 production and dye removal. *Ecological Engineering*, 47, 126–131.

489 Zhang, X., Shi, J., Liang, P., Wei, J., Huang, X., Zhang, C., & Logan, B. E. (2013).
490 Power generation by packed-bed air-cathode microbial fuel cells. *Bioresource*
491 *Technology*, 142, 109–14.

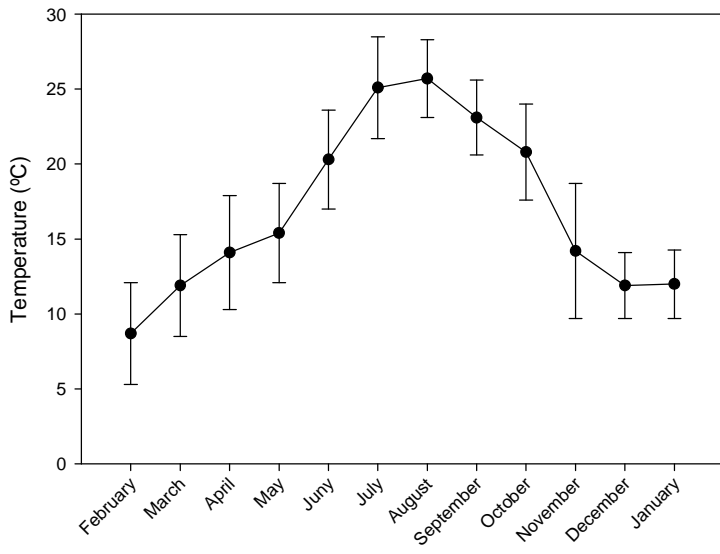
492 Zhao, Y., Collum, S., Phelan, M., Goodbody, T., Doherty, L., & Hu, Y. (2013).
493 Preliminary investigation of constructed wetland incorporating microbial fuel cell:
494 Batch and continuous flow trials. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 229, 364–370.

495

496 Supplementary material

497 Figure S1. Average monthly temperatures.

498 Figure S1. Average monthly temperatures.



499

