



Pillot, Guillaume ; Sunny, Soniya ; Comes, Victoria ; Kerzenmacher, Sven

Optimization of growth and electrosynthesis of PolyHydroxyAlkanoates by the thermophilic bacterium *Kyrpidia spormannii*

Journal Article as: peer-reviewed accepted version (Postprint)

DOI of this document\* (secondary publication): <https://doi.org/10.26092/elib/3202>

Publication date of this document: 01/08/2024

\* for better findability or for reliable citation

**Recommended Citation (primary publication/Version of Record) incl. DOI:**

Guillaume Pillot, Soniya Sunny, Victoria Comes, Sven Kerzenmacher,  
Optimization of growth and electrosynthesis of PolyHydroxyAlkanoates by the thermophilic bacterium *Kyrpidia spormannii*, *Bioresource Technology Reports*, Volume 17, 2022, 100949, ISSN 2589-014X,  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biteb.2022.100949>.

Please note that the version of this document may differ from the final published version (Version of Record/primary publication) in terms of copy-editing, pagination, publication date and DOI. Please cite the version that you actually used. Before citing, you are also advised to check the publisher's website for any subsequent corrections or retractions (see also <https://retractionwatch.com/>).

This document is made available under a Creative Commons licence.

The license information is available online: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

**Take down policy**

If you believe that this document or any material on this site infringes copyright, please contact [publizieren@suub.uni-bremen.de](mailto:publizieren@suub.uni-bremen.de) with full details and we will remove access to the material.

# Optimization of growth and electrosynthesis of PolyHydroxyAlkanoates by the thermophilic bacterium *Kyrpidia spormannii*

Guillaume Pillot<sup>a</sup>, Soniya Sunny<sup>a</sup>, Victoria Comes<sup>a</sup>, Sven Kerzenmacher<sup>a</sup>.

<sup>a</sup> Center for Environmental Research and Sustainable Technology (UFT), University of Bremen, 28359 Bremen, Germany

## ABSTRACT

The electrosynthesis of valuable compounds by biofilms on electrodes is being intensively studied since few years. However, so far, the actual biofilms growing on cathodes produce mainly small and relatively inexpensive compounds such as acetate or ethanol. Recently, a novel Knallgas bacterium, *Kyrpidia spormannii* EA-1 has been described to grow on cathodes under thermophilic and microaerophilic conditions, producing significant amounts of PolyHydroxyAlkanoates (PHAs). These PHA are promising sustainable bioplastic polymers with the potential to replace petroleum-derived plastics in a variety of applications. However, the effect of culture conditions and electrode properties on the growth of *K. spormannii* EA-1 biofilms and PHA production is still unclear.

In this study, we report on the optimization of growth and PHA production in liquid culture and on the cathode of a Microbial Electrosynthesis System. Optimization of the preculture allows to obtain high cell density of up to  $8.5 \text{ Log}_{10} \text{ cells}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  in 48h, decreasing the time necessary by a factor of 2.5. With respect to cathodic biofilm formation, this study was focused on the optimization of three main operating parameters, which are the applied cathode potential, buffer pH, and the oxygen concentration in the feed gas. Maximum biofilm formation and PHA production was observed at an applied potential of -844mV vs. SCE, pH 6.5, O<sub>2</sub> saturation of 2.5%. The PHA concentration in the biofilm reached a maximum of  $\approx 26.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  after optimization,

28 but at 2.9% the coulombic efficiency remains relatively low. We expect that further nutrient  
29 limitation will allow the accumulation of more PHA, based on a dense biofilm growth. In  
30 conclusion, these findings take microbial electrosynthesis of PHA a step forward towards practical  
31 implementation.

32

### 33 INTRODUCTION

34 Microbial Electrosynthesis Systems (MES) are emerging technologies for the sustainable  
35 production of organic compounds and fuels. This technology is based on the ability of some  
36 microorganisms, called electrotrophs, to use electrons from the cathode of an electrochemical  
37 system as energy source, fixating CO<sub>2</sub> into biomass and side products (Rabaey and Rozendal,  
38 2010). Feeding the system with renewable electricity (solar panels, wind turbines etc.), and  
39 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> makes it a ground breaking concept to reduce the escalation of the current  
40 climatic situation (Lovley and Nevin, 2011). Since the first proof-of-concept, a decade ago,  
41 research has been carried out on the characterization and optimization of these processes  
42 (Prévost et al., 2020). Different aspects have been investigated - the biocatalyst, the conditions  
43 of culture, and the engineering of the system – in order to increase the productivity and the value  
44 of the molecules produced. Until recently, the technology was limited to the production of low  
45 added-value acetic acid by homoacetogenic biofilms, with low product concentration ( $\approx 12 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ )  
46 (Vassilev et al., 2019) and low competitiveness compared to fermentation processes. In the last years,  
47 the range of products has expanded, associating different metabolisms to elongate the carbon chain  
48 up to butyric or caproic acid, with product concentrations up to  $3.2 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  and  $1.5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , respectively  
49 (Jourdin et al., 2018).

50 In order to increase the competitiveness of MES in comparison to classic fermentation, it is  
51 necessary to develop new biocatalysts able to produce high value-added compounds at high rate.  
52 Two strategies are being investigated, the engineering of novel metabolic pathways in already  
53 described electrotrophs (Kracke et al., 2018), or the isolation of new electrotrophs from the  
54 environment with interesting metabolic capabilities. The discovery of novel metabolisms requires  
55 to focus on extreme or unusual environments where microorganisms evolved in response of  
56 stresses by developing new metabolisms (Coker, 2016). Extreme conditions, such as high  
57 temperature, salinity, pressure or extreme pH are also profitable for MES operation (Jourdin and  
58 Burdyny, 2021). Indeed, the increase of optimal temperature is known to increase the metabolic  
59 rate of microorganisms, avoid contaminations and increase electrolyte conductivity. Higher  
60 salinity increases the conductivity of the electrolyte and general performances. The acidic or  
61 alkaline pH tolerances allow higher pH imbalance at the electrodes. Higher pressure increases CO<sub>2</sub>  
62 solubility and availability. So far, only few extremophilic electrotrophs have been identified. Two

63 acetogenic thermophiles, *Moorella thermoacetica* and *Moorella thermoautotrophica* were tested  
64 at temperatures up to 70°C (Faraghiparapari and Zengler, 2017). Pillot et al. (2020, 2021) have  
65 shown the enrichment of electrorophic communities from deep-sea hydrothermal vents,  
66 dominated by *Archaeoglobales*, producing pyruvate, glycerol, and acetate at 80°C in seawater.  
67 These communities were dominated by *Archaeoglobales*, known to use the Wood–Ljungdahl  
68 pathway to fix CO<sub>2</sub>. Alqahtani et al. (2019) have shown the enrichment of halophilic  
69 homoacetogens in MES, dominated by *Marinobacter* sp., from Red Sea Brine Pool. Unfortunately,  
70 the metabolic ability of these electrotroths doesn't seem yet to increase the range of products or  
71 increase yields in a significant way. Recently, Reiner et al. (2020) have reported on a  
72 thermoacidophilic electrorophic community enriched from geothermal hot springs on the Azores.  
73 From this community, they succeeded to isolate a novel microaerophilic Knallgas bacterium,  
74 *Kyrpidia spormannii* EA-1, able to produce PolyHydroxyAlkanoates (PHA) from CO<sub>2</sub> on a  
75 cathode. Since this isolation, two additional strains were isolated from Pantelleria Island in Italy  
76 (Hogendoorn et al., 2020)

77 PHA are of great biotechnological interest as precursor for bioplastic production. They are bio-  
78 based and biodegradable polyesters, used as energy storage in intracellular granules or involved in  
79 maintenance of anoxic photosynthesis and sulfur cycle in microbial mats (Obruca et al., 2020).  
80 More than 150 different monomers can be combined leading to extremely different properties.  
81 Different species have been described to produce PHA, such as *Alcaligenes latus*, *Cupriavidus*  
82 *necator*, and *Pseudomonas putida*. PHA accumulation is usually produced by fermentation of  
83 feedstock and promoted when an essential nutrient for growth (N, P or S sources or electron  
84 acceptor) is present in limited amount in the cultivation medium, whereas an organic carbon source  
85 is in excess (Kourmentza et al., 2017). The actual production cost of PHA is still 3-4 times higher  
86 compared to conventional polymers such as polypropylene or polyethylene (Panuschka et al.,  
87 2019). Electrosynthesis of PHA could drastically reduce the production cost, by replacing costly  
88 organic carbon source by inexpensive CO<sub>2</sub>, and increasing the purity of the end product for  
89 heterotrophic production and replace explosive H<sub>2</sub>:O<sub>2</sub> gas mixes by electricity and O<sub>2</sub> for the  
90 autotrophic production.

91 In this context, *Kyrpidia* strains are excellent candidates as biocatalyst for PHA electrosynthesis.  
92 However, prior to assess the competitiveness of the process a significant effort of optimization is

93 necessary. These microaerophilic organisms are highly sensitive to O<sub>2</sub> concentration and  
94 experimental conditions can highly influence their growth rate and productivity. Previous  
95 cultivation methods of this strain required more than 7 days of liquid culture to obtain significant  
96 growth, slowing down its characterization and optimization in MES. In this study, we aimed to  
97 optimize the growth of *K. spormannii* EA-1 in liquid culture and on cathode for the production of  
98 PHA. For the optimization in liquid media, a protocol for the culture in serum bottle of another  
99 Knallgas bacteria, *Aquifex aeolicus* (Uzarraga et al., 2011), was adapted and optimized by  
100 experimental design on different factors: the quantity of gaseous substrate represented by the ratio  
101 gas/liquid, the redox state of the medium (anaerobic/aerobic preparation), the mixing during  
102 incubation and the electron donor nature. For the electrotrophic growth on cathode, the electrode  
103 potential, the oxygen concentration and the pH of the media were tested independently and the  
104 associated current consumption, biofilm produced, and accumulation of PHA were quantified.

## 105 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 106 Bacterial strain and culture media

107 *K. spormannii* EA-1 cultures were obtained from cryostock from the Applied Biology group of  
108 Johannes Gescher at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (Germany) and sub-cultured at 4% in  
109 100 ml serum bottles closed with a rubber stopper and filled with ES-medium before inoculation  
110 of the experimental design media or Microbial Electrochemical Systems (MES). The ES medium  
111 was prepared anaerobically (medium with low redox potential, coded N<sub>2</sub>) or not (medium with  
112 high redox potential, coded O<sub>2</sub>), with the following content (all procured from Carl Roth,  
113 Germany) per litre: 0.53 g NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 0.15 g of NaCl, 0.04 g of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.2 g of yeast extract, 1 ml  
114 of 0.1 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.12 ml of 1 M MgSO<sub>4</sub>, and 1 ml of Wolfe's Mineral Elixir (Wolin et al., 1963)  
115 and was adjusted at pH 5.5. In the anaerobic preparation, the media was supplemented with 0.5 g/L  
116 of Cysteine-HCl and 1mg/L of Resazurin, boiled for 15 min and cooled down under N<sub>2</sub> degassing.  
117 The volume in the serum bottles was adjusted at 50 ml media + 60 ml gas head space or 25 ml  
118 media + 85ml gas head space and autoclaved. After inoculation, the headspace of the serum bottle  
119 was replaced by air at atmospheric pressure, and as electron donor either 20mM of Acetate a  
120 mixture of H<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> (80:20) at an overpressure of 1.5 bar were added for the liquid cultures,  
121 depending on the condition tested. The media were incubated at 60°C and either shaken at 150

122 rpm in an incubator (Incubator 3032, GFL, Germany) or kept static (Incudrive H, Schuett Biotec,  
123 Germany).

## 124 **Experimental design for the optimization of liquid culture growth**

125 The software Design Expert v13.0 was used to perform a two-level factorial design with four  
126 factors: shaking of the media, substrate used, redox state of the medium, and ratio gas/liquid. The  
127 conditions for the 16 runs are presented Table 1. Three responses were measured each day for 3  
128 days to evaluate the growth of *K. spormannii*: optical density (OD) at 600 nm, qPCR  
129 quantification, and PHA quantification (see below for details). Each run was performed as  
130 triplicate and the average of each response was used during the ANOVA test. The selection of the  
131 factors was performed on the full factor interactions with the auto-selection using the Akaike  
132 Information Criterion (AIC) and respecting the hierarchy. The OD<sub>600nm</sub> measurement was  
133 performed on a spectrophotometer and the OD<sub>600nm</sub> at 24h, 48h and 72h was normalized to the  
134 OD<sub>600nm</sub> after inoculation.

## 135 **Microbial Electrochemical System for electrotrophic growth experiments**

136 Optimization of biofilm growth was performed in a 6-electrode battery glass reactor (working  
137 volume of 1 l), previously described (Erben et al., 2021), for the optimization of cathode potential,  
138 and in H-cells (working volume 250 ml) to allow the separation of conditions for optimization  
139 with respect to O<sub>2</sub> concentration and pH. The cathode was a 2.25 cm<sup>2</sup> exposed surface of graphite  
140 plate (Müller & Rössner GmbH & Co KG, Germany), the anode was a Ir-Ta mesh (Umicore,  
141 Belgium; ~15×15 mm), and the reference electrode was a Saturated Calomel Electrode (SCE,  
142 offset of -215mV vs. SHE at 60°C, Sensortechnik Meinsberg, Germany). The cathodes were rinsed  
143 with DI water and cleaned in an ultrasonic bath for 5 mins prior to be connected to a potentiostat  
144 (IPS Elektroniklabor, PGU-MOD-500mA, Münster, Germany) by titanium wires. The media was  
145 filled in the systems, 0.1 M of PBS buffer with required pH was added, then the systems were  
146 closed and autoclaved. The systems were agitated with a magnetic stirrer at 150 rpm. The gas  
147 mixture (N<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> at 77.5:20) was purged continuously in the system using flow meters (Analyt-  
148 MTC, Germany) and the additional O<sub>2</sub> concentration in this gas flow was adjusted with a flow  
149 meter and monitored by an oxy-meter (Oxy-4 Mini, PreSens, Germany). The MES were placed in  
150 an incubator (Schuett Biotec.de, Incudrive H, Germany) at a constant temperature of 60°C. When

151 the conditions were stabilized after 4 h, the system was inoculated at 2%(v/v) with a liquid culture  
152 obtained after 48h with the optimal conditions identified in the previous part.

### 153 **Fluorescence microscopy**

154 Fluorescence microscopy analysis was used for visual confirmation and quantification of biofilm  
155 formation on the cathode after the electrochemical experiments. Upon completion of the  
156 experiment, bacterial cells were fixed to the electrode using 4% glutaraldehyde in PBS 0.1M for  
157 30 mins and later washed in DI water. The fixed electrodes were stained with 2  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  DAPI  
158 (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) and Nile Red (Carl Roth, Germany) and incubated in the dark for  
159 30 mins. The stained biofilm on the electrode material were visualised using a Zeiss Microscope  
160 Axioscope 5/7 (Solid-State Light source Colibri 3 (Type RGB-UV), Microscopy Camera Axiocam  
161 702 mono) (Zeiss, Germany) at 250x magnification (Objective ApoChrom 25x) under oil  
162 immersion and subsequently the z-stacks were automatically captured with the motorized stage on  
163 the Zen software (Zeiss, Germany, version 3.0). The fluorescence microscopy image data were  
164 further processed to obtain the Z projection of the image stacks and the cell counting was done  
165 using Cellc12 software (Selinummi et al., 2005)

### 166 **Biofilm quantification by means of qPCR**

167 After the experiment, the cathodes containing the biofilm were taken from the bioelectrochemical  
168 reactor and sonicated for 10 min in 10 ml DI water in order to detach the biofilm from the electrode  
169 surface. Furthermore, the 16S rRNA gene was partially amplified by the qPCR method in an Eco  
170 48 Real Time PCR System (PCRmax, United Kingdom), using the qPCRBio SyGreen 2x-Mix  
171 (Nippon Genetics Europe, Germany), and the primers Alyc630F (5'-  
172 GAGAGGCAAGGGGAATTCC-3') and 806R (5'- GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'). A  
173 standard curve was prepared through cloning method using pGEM(R)-T Easy Vector System II  
174 (Promega) and JM109 Competent Cells (Promega). The plasmid was extracted with PureYield™  
175 Plasmid Miniprep System (Promega) and quantified on a Quantus™ Fluorometer using the  
176 QuantiFluor(R) dsDNA System (Promega). The quantification of copies of 16S rDNA was divided  
177 by the number of copies naturally present per cell (5 copies·cell<sup>-1</sup> according to rrnDB database),  
178 to obtain the number of cells·ml<sup>-1</sup>.



## 179 PHA quantification

180 Sonicated biofilm samples (see above) were prepared by alkaline hydrolysis according to  
181 Watanabe et al., (2012) with 1 ml of sample in 500  $\mu$ l of 3N NaOH, heated at 100°C for 3 h, then  
182 neutralized with 500  $\mu$ l of 3M HCl. A standard solution of poly(3-hydroxy-butyrate) (average Mn  
183 ~500,000, Sigma Aldrich) was prepared using the same method. A HPLC system (Alliance,  
184 Waters) equipped with a UV/Vis detector (2489 Detector, Waters) monitored at 210 nm was used  
185 for the analysis of crotonic acid produced by the hydrolysis step. The column was a Waters Atlantis  
186 C18, (Waters, United Kingdom, 250 mm  $\times$  4.5 mm, particle size 5  $\mu$ m). The column temperature  
187 was set to 30 °C. The mobile phase was 0.014 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at a flow rate of 0.7 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Before  
188 injection, samples were filtered through 0.45  $\mu$ m pore size membrane filter (Minisart High Flow,  
189 Sartorius, Germany). A volume of 10  $\mu$ L was injected into the instrument for analysis.

## 190 Coulombic Efficiency

191 The Coulombic efficiency (CE) of the PHA production was calculated using the formula:

$$192 \quad CE (\%) = \frac{C_p}{C_t} \times 100 = \frac{F \times n_e \times \Delta[P] \times V_{catholyte}}{\int_{t_0}^t i(t) \cdot dt}$$

193  $C_T$ : total coulombs consumed

194  $C_P$ : coulombs found in the product

195  $n_e$ : Number of mol of electrons per mol of product

196  $F$ : Faradays constant (96.485 C/mol)

197  $\Delta[P]$ : Variation of product concentration from  $t_0$  to  $t$

198  $V_{catholyte}$ : Volume of reaction

199

200 The total amount of current consumed by the system was calculated by integrating the area under  
201 current (A) vs. time (s). The quantity of electrons contained in the final product was calculated  
202 using 66 e<sup>-</sup> equivalent per mole of PHB (Islam Mozumder et al., 2015), obtained from the  
203 stoichiometry of PHA production in autotrophic condition, using 33 moles of H<sub>2</sub> for the production  
204 of 1 monomer of PHA.

## 205 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 206 Optimization of growth of *Kypridia spormannii* in liquid media

207 The effect of four factors on the growth of *K. spormannii* EA-1 in liquid media was tested: The  
208 shaking of the bottle, the substrate used, the media preparation (aerobic, anaerobic, addition of  
209 reducing agent) and the gas/liquid volume ratio. These four factors directly or indirectly affect the  
210 oxygen concentration, which can be limiting or toxic (O<sub>2</sub> quantity and transfer), the growth kinetics  
211 (H<sub>2</sub> or Acetate), and the redox state of the medium (resazurin, H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>). The growth was measured  
212 by three techniques: OD<sub>600nm</sub> determination, qPCR quantification, and PHA production. The  
213 respective graphs are presented in Supporting Information. The ANOVA analysis of the  
214 experimental design on the 3 responses are presented in Table 2.

215 As shown in Supporting Information, in most experimental runs the OD<sub>600nm</sub> increased, a  
216 maximum of  $0.993 \pm 0.09$  was observed in case of run 7. Only the Run 14 and 6 didn't show any  
217 growth during the 4 days of experiment. This might be due to an excess of O<sub>2</sub> concentration during  
218 the inoculation in the case of Run 14 (aerobic media, high mixing, no reducing agents) or a limited  
219 O<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the case of Run 6. The runs 7 and 15 showed a delay in the growth with a plateau  
220 only at 3 days, while all others plateaued after 2 days. The coefficient of determination R<sup>2</sup> obtained  
221 by the ANOVA model for 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h were all relatively high, with a Predicted R<sup>2</sup> in  
222 reasonable agreement with the Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> (difference is less than 0.2), and the Adequate Precision  
223 is greater than 4, indicating that the ANOVA model is significantly representative. It allows to  
224 identify that the shaking of the media and the use of H<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> instead of acetate had a significant  
225 positive effect on the OD<sub>600nm</sub> after 24 h, to obtain a maximum OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.312. The media  
226 preparation method had only an effect in combination with the substrate used. After 48 h, the use  
227 of H<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub>, with anaerobic media preparation and a ratio 25 ml media/85 ml gas had a positive  
228 effect on the OD<sub>600nm</sub> compared to their respective alternatives, yielding a maximum of 0.754. The  
229 shaking presented a significant effect only in combination with substrate and ratio factors.

230 Finally, when assessed after 72 h, only the media preparation didn't have a significant effect on  
231 growth. A maximum OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.983 was achieved with static culturing with acetate and a ratio  
232 of 25 ml liquid and 80 ml gas. These results indicate that a faster growth is obtained during the  
233 first day with H<sub>2</sub> as substrate, to then reach a limitation with O<sub>2</sub> concentration after 48 h and  
234 subsequently reach a plateau with most of conditions after 72 h. The OD<sub>600nm</sub> measurement is a

235 quick technique to assess the growth of most microorganisms but can be falsified by the production  
236 of intracellular granules or EPS, increasing artificially the absorbance with a constant number of  
237 cells. To overcome this potential issue, a second quantitative method was performed, based on the  
238 quantification of the 16S rDNA by qPCR.

239 The qPCR measurement shows a cell concentration (corrected with the number of copies of 16S  
240 rDNA per cells) of  $5.32 \pm 0.22 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  after inoculation, increasing up to a maximum of  
241  $8.43 \pm 0.56 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  in the run 9 after 72 h. Only Run 6 didn't show any growth, with slight  
242 growth on Run 14, that was not visible on the  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$ , potentially due to a higher detection  
243 threshold with  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$  measurement or heterogeneity in the samples. Most of the runs with acetate  
244 (3, 5, 6, 12, 14 and 15) showed lower growth than the runs with  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$ . The fit statistics of the  
245 ANOVA indicated that all 3 models were significant (Table 2). The model shows higher cell  
246 density with  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$  and a gas/liquid ratio of 50/60 after the first day, and with acetate and a ratio  
247 of 25/85 at 48 h and 72 h. The maximum cell concentrations in the identified optimal conditions  
248 are 7.23, 7.80 and  $8.40 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  at 24 h, 48 h and 72 h respectively. The difference between  
249 the qPCR and  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$  results, with poor correlations (maximum of  $R^2=0.766$  at 48 h) presented  
250 Fig 1-A, could be explained by the production of PHA over the growth, only detected with  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$   
251 measurements.

252 The PHA quantification shows an increase from  $3.0 \pm 0.3\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  to up to  $29.3 \pm 1.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  on run  
253 7 after 72 h. The coefficients of determination at 24 h and 48 h are close to 1 but decrease to 0.83  
254 after 72 h. The statistics of the ANOVA models show a good fit to our data. During the first days,  
255 the shaking, the use of  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$ , the anaerobic media preparation in combination with a volume  
256 ratio of 25/85 are significant factors on the PHA production, allowing to reach maximums of  
257  $14.9 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  at 24 h and  $18.8 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  at 48 h. After 72 h, the use of acetate in a static culture became  
258 the best conditions to reach a maximum PHA production of  $26.3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ . As previously observed  
259 on  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$ , the use of  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$  as substrate and a good mixing allow a faster growth and PHA  
260 production, but additionally, the presence of a reduced media seems to induce the production of  
261 PHA. The higher PHA production in the absence of shaking after 72 h could also be explained by  
262 the lower  $\text{O}_2$  dissolution into the liquid. Indeed, in *Cupriavidus necator*, it was reported that  $\text{O}_2$   
263 limitation enhance the PHA production, as energy storage, until the cells retrieve more favourable  
264 conditions (Kourmentza et al., 2017).

265 After 72 h of culture, most of the conditions reached a plateau or a decline, with high growth  
266 (Supporting Information), which is a net improvement from the previous culturing method  
267 requiring more than 7 days. Interestingly, our result seems to indicate a faster growth on H<sub>2</sub> than  
268 on acetate, while the Gibbs free energy of the reaction of acetate oxidation release more energy  
269 ( $\Delta G^0$  Acetate/O<sub>2</sub> = -882 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> at 60°C) than the hydrogen oxidation ( $\Delta G^0$  H<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> = -261 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>  
270 at 60°C) (Amend and Shock, 2001). However, it is known that acetate needs an activation step  
271 by the Acetyl-coenzyme A synthetase, that catalyzes the ATP- and CoA-  
272 dependent activation of acetate generating acetyl-CoA, AMP and pyrophosphate (acetate + ATP  
273 + CoA → acetyl-CoA + AMP + PP<sub>i</sub>) prior to enter the metabolism (Reiner et al., 2018b). In the  
274 hydrogenotrophic pathway, the H<sub>2</sub> is directly converted into H<sup>+</sup>, used further by the ATP synthase  
275 to produce ATP (Brigham, 2019). This initial ATP consumption for acetate can explain the lag-  
276 time before growth in this condition. Similar results were observed in strains FAVT5 and COOX1,  
277 with doubling times of 3.6 h on H<sub>2</sub> and 6 h on Acetate (Hogendoorn et al., 2020).

278 To better understand the effect of the media redox state and the ratio liquid/gas, the concentration  
279 of oxygen available in the serum bottles was calculated at 25°C, which is the temperature of media  
280 preparation and inoculation. The dissolved oxygen during aerobic media preparation plays a minor  
281 role in the total oxygen amount, as only 6.4 and 12.8 μmol of oxygen are present in 25 ml and  
282 50 ml of media, respectively. However, the air flushed in the headspace of the bottle after  
283 autoclaving brings 0.799 mmol and 0.564 mmol of oxygen when the bottle is filled with 25 ml and  
284 50 ml of media, respectively. On the other hand, the reducing agent added to the anaerobic media  
285 preparation (Cystein-HCl), and in a minor part the redox indicator resazurin, will react with O<sub>2</sub>  
286 and remove up to 0.079 and 0.160 mmol in the 25 ml and 50 ml media, respectively.

287  
288 The total H<sub>2</sub> reaches 4.46 and 3.15 mmol with 25 ml and 50 ml of media, respectively. Considering  
289 the stoichiometry of already reported *Kyrpidia* strains of 1 mole of H<sub>2</sub> for 0.36 mole of O<sub>2</sub>, the  
290 availability of O<sub>2</sub> is limiting in our condition (Hogendoorn et al., 2020). As the oxygen sensitivity  
291 of *K. spormannii* EA-1 has not been evaluated yet, this difference of concentration can affect the  
292 growth significantly. *Aquifex aeolicus*, another microaerophilic (hyper)thermophilic bacteria, can  
293 grow with O<sub>2</sub> concentration as low as 7.5 ppm (Deckert et al., 1998). Moreover, the volume ratio

294 and the shaking influence the oxygen and hydrogen transfer to the liquid media during their  
295 consumption.

296 As previously mentioned, the difference of growth quantification by OD<sub>600nm</sub> measurement and by  
297 qPCR can be explained by the absorbance of PHA at 600 nm. Figure 1-B represents the correlation  
298 between the OD<sub>600nm</sub> and the PHA measurement for the 3 different sampling times. At t<sub>0</sub>, a poor  
299 correlation is observed, with R<sup>2</sup> at 0.02, but increase quickly above 0.81 after 24 h, with a ratio  
300 converging to 28.4 ± 6.78 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> of PHA per OD unit. Poorer correlations were observed between  
301 qPCR measurements and PHA quantification (Fig 1-C), with R<sup>2</sup> at 0.22, 0.47, 0.79 and 0.70 on  
302 samples after inoculation, 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h respectively. The average ratio PHA/qPCR were  
303 16.0, 10.1, 6.9 and 4.1 µg·cell<sup>-1</sup>, at 0 h, 24 h, 48 h and 72 h respectively, indicating a divergence  
304 of energy into cell multiplication rather than to PHA production during the course of the culture.

305 Concerning the PHA production, Kourmentza et al. (2017) report PHA concentrations between  
306 0.08 to 2.7 g·L<sup>-1</sup> (based on reactor volume) produced by different strains using organic carbon  
307 sources. Comparatively, our production of PHA is relatively low (maximum of 29.3 ± 1.2 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>  
308 <sup>1</sup>), and could probably be optimized by nutrient limitation, as previously described. In this work,  
309 we mainly aimed to the fast growth of the cells, without applying a nutrient-limitation step that is  
310 expected to enhanced PHA accumulation. Up to 90% of the dry cell mass can be composed of  
311 PHA (Verlinden et al., 2007). In our case, assuming a mass of 10<sup>-12</sup> g·cell<sup>-1</sup>, we could theoretically  
312 reach 0.24 g·L<sup>-1</sup> of PHA, which would be in the lower range of previously reported product  
313 concentrations.

#### 314 Optimization of biofilm formation by *Kyrpidia spormannii* growing on a cathode

315 Three factors were considered in this study for the optimization of biofilm formation on the  
316 cathode: the cathode potential, the oxygen concentration of the sparging of the media, and the pH  
317 of the buffered media. The initial conditions were a potential of -525mV, O<sub>2</sub> concentration of 5%  
318 and a pH of 5.5. The current consumption was recorded over 2.8 days, with a plateau after 1 to 2  
319 days, allowing to calculate a stabilized current value for further consideration. The Figure 2 shows  
320 the results obtained on the maximum stabilized current consumption, the lag time before obtaining  
321 90% of this stabilized current, the biofilm quantification at the end of the experiment by  
322 microscopy and qPCR and the PHA quantification and coulombic efficiency associated.

323 *Optimization of cathode potential*

324 The potential screening exhibit two different behaviours over two separate range of potentials  
325 (Figure 2, dark-green histograms in the first horizontal panel, Supporting Information). At the most  
326 positive potentials, from -325 to -525 mV vs. SHE, no clear trend is observed with current density  
327 around  $0.03 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , while at lower potential, we can see an exponential increase of the maximum  
328 current ( $R^2=0.975$ ), from  $0.44 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at -625 mV vs SHE to  $3.77 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at -1425 mV. This  
329 increase of current while decreasing the potential is expected by the abiotic reduction of the oxygen  
330 on the graphite electrode, with standard potential at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  and pH 5.5 estimated at  $1.10 \text{ V}$  vs. SHE  
331 (according to coefficients in Bratsch, 1989). As both abiotic and biotic reaction use  $\text{O}_2$  as reactant,  
332 it is then difficult to dissociate the abiotic reaction to the biotic activity of the biofilm. However,  
333 the lag-time (Figure 2, light-green histograms in the first horizontal panel) to reach this maximum  
334 current is a proxy of the biofilm growth. Indeed, the system is at equilibrium when inoculating the  
335 reactor, then, the only increase of current expected is due to biofilm formation, observed by  
336 microscopy. This lag time increases to around 0,37 days between -725 and -1025 mV vs. SHE,  
337 with a peak at  $0,65 \pm 0,36$  days for -625 mV vs. SHE. This difference of lag time could be linked  
338 to a denser biofilm, requiring more time to fully grow.

339 The quantification of the biofilm at the end of the experiment (Figure 2 and 3) indicates a  
340 preference for more positive potential, with an increase from  $9.5 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  of electrode at -  
341 325 mV vs. SHE to the maximum of 10.5 at -625 mV vs. SHE, followed by a decrease down to  
342  $8.4 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at -1425 mV vs. SHE on microscopic cell counting. A slight deviation of  
343 quantification is observed with the qPCR method, with higher values, probably indicating the death  
344 of a part of the biofilm at low potential, not observed in microscopy, but which DNA remains  
345 attached to the electrode and quantified by qPCR. This would be corroborated by the known  
346 production of toxic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  or other radicals from two-electron oxygen reduction at low potentials  
347 (Pang et al., 2020). Indeed, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production on graphite material was previously reported  
348 between -900 to -400 mV vs. SHE in pure oxygen atmosphere, with faradaic efficiency decreasing  
349 from 80% to 25% when the potential is more negative (Da Pozzo et al., 2005). However,  
350 considering the increase of current at low potential, the total amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is expected to be  
351 higher than at more positive potential, leading to increased death of cells in the biofilm.

352 A similar effect is observed on the PHA production, with increase from 17.8 to 25.6  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$   
353 between -325 to -625 mV, followed by a decrease down to 17.0  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at -1425 mV. The  
354 coulombic efficiency was calculated at 1.9% at -325 mV decreasing to 0.2% at -1425 mV, with a  
355 peak up to 1.7 % at -625 mV. This effect can be explained by the abiotic reaction of oxygen at  
356 lower potential, diverging electrons from the cathode to the formation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  molecules.  
357 The overall PHA production is relatively low compared to the cells attached to the electrode, with  
358 a ratio at only  $9.0\cdot 10^{-9}$   $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cell}^{-1}$  (versus 4.1  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cell}^{-1}$  in liquid media). This could be explained by  
359 an insufficient detachment step of the PHA by sonication of the biofilm, but microscopy of the  
360 electrode after sonication didn't show any signal with Nile Red staining. It could also be explained  
361 by the higher availability of electron donor and acceptor in the MES, with constant electron flow  
362 from the cathode and oxygen flow from the gas bubbling. Indeed, in presence of sufficient electron  
363 donor and acceptor, the cells proliferate and doesn't accumulate much PHA. According to the cell  
364 concentration and assuming a yield of 90% of the dry mass as PHA, we could theoretically reach  
365 3.4 mg of PHA per  $\text{cm}^2$  of cathode (versus 25.6  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  in our conditions). The potential of -  
366 625 mV vs. SHE was then selected for further experiments, as it presented the best biofilm growth,  
367 the highest PHA production and one of the highest coulombic efficiency.

#### 368 *Optimization of oxygen concentration*

369 Looking at the oxygen effect on biofilm growth and PHA production, presented Figure 2, we can  
370 see an overall trend with the increase of current consumption from 0.25  $\text{mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  to 0.59  $\text{mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$   
371 while increasing the oxygen concentration from 0.5% up to 20%. However, the lag time (Figure  
372 2, light-green histograms in the second horizontal panel) to achieve this maximum current  
373 consumption present a bell curve with a maximum of 0.73 days at 2.5%. At concentration higher  
374 than 5%, this delay is reduced to around 0.06 days. This really short delay (1.4 h) is most likely  
375 not the result of a microbial growth as it is shorter than the optimal generation time of 3.6 h reported  
376 for *Kyrpidia* strains (Hogendoorn et al., 2020) on  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$ . Thus, we can assume that most part of  
377 this current consumption is due to abiotic oxygen reduction, especially when increasing  $\text{O}_2$   
378 concentration. The quantification of the biofilm exhibits a similar trend, both in microscopic or  
379 qPCR quantification, with maximum biofilm density observed at 2.5% with around 10.2  
380  $\text{Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , decreasing down to 8.7-9.0  $\text{Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at 20%. Looking at the PHA  
381 production, an optimum of 22.7  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  is also observed at 2.5%  $\text{O}_2$ , with higher CE up to 2.17%.

382 These values decrease to  $16.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and 1.02% at 20%  $\text{O}_2$ . Interestingly, no increase of PHA  
383 production was observed at lower concentration, as it would be expected by the limitation of  
384 electron acceptor previously reported in other PHA producers (Kourmentza et al., 2017). Then we  
385 can conclude that the optimal  $\text{O}_2$  concentration for *K. spormanni* EA-1 is 2.5% amongst the tested  
386 conditions in this work, in agreement with the microaerophilic preference previously reported  
387 (Reiner et al., 2018a). The optimal  $\text{O}_2$  concentration for *Kyrpidia* strains in liquid culture is still  
388 unknown, but similar  $\text{O}_2$  optimum of 2.5% was observed in other Knallgas bacteria, such as  
389 *Mycobacterium genavense* (Realini et al., 1998).

#### 390 *Optimization of pH of buffered media*

391 Once the optimal potential and  $\text{O}_2$  concentration were identified, the effect of the pH of the media  
392 was studied. As *Kyrpidia* was described as acidophilic, the pH was tested between 3.5 and 8.5.  
393 Results associated are presented Figure 2. Looking at the current consumption, a bell curve shape  
394 is observed with a maximum at  $0.40 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at pH 4.5, decreasing down to  $0.19 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at pH  
395 8.5. The delay before stabilization of the current was however more chaotic, with high values  
396 around 0.74 days at pH 4.5 and 5.5, intermediate values of 0.32 days at pH 7.5, and values below  
397 0.07 days at pH 3.5, 6.5 and 8.5. The biofilm quantification shows variation of only 1  $\text{Log}_{10}$   
398 between the different pH, with optimum of  $10.1\text{-}10.4 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at pH 6.5, decreasing at 8.8-  
399  $9.4 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  at pH 8.5. Finally, the PHA quantification exhibit also a maximum at pH 6.5  
400 with  $26.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  produced with a CE of 2.93%. The PHA production decrease slowly to  $19.2$   
401  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  when decreasing the pH to 3.5 and quickly to  $19.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  when increasing the pH to 7.5-  
402 8.5. Thus, an optimum biofilm growth and PHA production is observed at pH 6.5.

403 The production rate obtained after optimizing the growth conditions reached  $96 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ . This  
404 value remains relatively low compared to industrial production of PHA from feedstock. However,  
405 as previously mentioned, any substrate limitation step was applied here, as the main goal of this  
406 work was to produce a dense biofilm prior to this PHA accumulation phase. Further work on  
407 substrate limitation of the formed biofilm will allow to more accurately evaluate the industrial  
408 potentiality of this new technology.



## 409 CONCLUSION

410 This study aimed at identifying the optimal conditions for the growth of *Kyrpidia spormannii* EA-  
411 1 either in liquid preculture or on the cathode of a Microbial Electrosynthesis System. The results  
412 allowed to reduce the culture time from 7 days to 48h by optimizing the substrate, the incubation  
413 condition and the media preparation. These results are particularly relevant for the synthesis of  
414 PHA in liquid media through lithoauto- or hetero-trophy. The growth of the biofilm was optimized  
415 and shows maximum growth of  $10.4 \text{ Log}_{10}\text{cells}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and PHA production of  $26.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  or  $96$   
416  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$  at  $-625 \text{ mV vs. SHE}$ ,  $2.5\% \text{ O}_2$  atmosphere, and a pH of 6.5. These conditions are a  
417 starting point to study the effect of nutrient limitation on the formed biofilm for the PHA  
418 accumulation in future works. Also, we expect that further optimization of the cathode material  
419 and surface modification could increase the initial biofilm growth and PHA production. Only after  
420 these optimizations, a meaningful evaluation of the competitiveness of this process for the  
421 industrial production of PHA, compared to the heterotrophic or hydrogenotrophic pathways of  
422 other PHA producers, will be possible.

## 423 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

424 There are no conflicts to declare.

## 425 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

426 We are grateful for the financial support from the German Ministry of Education and Research  
427 (BMBF) under the program 033RC006B.

428

429 E-supplementary data can be found in online version of the paper.

430

## 431 REFERENCES

432 Alqahtani, M.F., Bajracharya, S., Katuri, K.P., Ali, M., Ragab, A., Michoud, G., Daffonchio, D.,  
433 Saikaly, P.E., 2019. Enrichment of *Marinobacter* sp. and Halophilic Homoacetogens at the  
434 Biocathode of Microbial Electrosynthesis System Inoculated With Red Sea Brine Pool. *Front.*  
435 *Microbiol.* 10, 2563. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02563>

436 Amend, J.P., Shock, E.L., 2001. Energetics of overall metabolic reactions of thermophilic and  
437 hyperthermophilic Archaea and Bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* 25, 175–243.  
438 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6976.2001.tb00576.x>

439 Bratsch, S.G., 1989. Standard Electrode Potentials and Temperature Coefficients in Water at  
440 298.15 K. *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 18, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.555839>

441 Brigham, C., 2019. Perspectives for the biotechnological production of biofuels from CO<sub>2</sub> and H  
442 2 using *Ralstonia eutropha* and other ‘Knallgas’ bacteria. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*  
443 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-09636-y>

444 Coker, J.A., 2016. Extremophiles and biotechnology: Current uses and prospects. *F1000Research*.  
445 <https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.7432.1>

446 Da Pozzo, A., Di Palma, L., Merli, C., Petrucci, E., 2005. An experimental comparison of a graphite  
447 electrode and a gas diffusion electrode for the cathodic production of hydrogen peroxide. *J.*  
448 *Appl. Electrochem.* 35, 413–419. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S10800-005-0800-2>

449 Deckert, G., Warren, P. V., Gaasterland, T., Young, W.G., Lenox, A.L., Graham, D.E., Overbeek, R.,  
450 Snead, M.A., Keller, M., Aujay, M., Huber, R., Feldman, R.A., Short, J.M., Olsen, G.J.,  
451 Swanson, R. V., 1998. The complete genome of the hyperthermophilic bacterium *Aquifex*  
452 *aeolicus*. *Nature* 392, 353–358. <https://doi.org/10.1038/32831>

453 Erben, J., Wang, X., Kerzenmacher, S., 2021. High current production of *Shewanella oneidensis*  
454 with electrospun carbon nanofiber anodes is directly linked to biofilm formation. *bioRxiv* 8,  
455 2021.01.28.428465. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.01.28.428465>

456 Faraghiparapari, N., Zengler, K., 2017. Production of organics from CO<sub>2</sub> by microbial  
457 electrosynthesis (MES) at high temperature. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 92, 375–381.  
458 <https://doi.org/10.1002/JCTB.5015>

459 Hogendoorn, C., Pol, A., Picone, N., Cremers, G., van Alen, T.A., Gagliano, A.L., Jetten, M.S.M.,  
460 D’Alessandro, W., Quatrini, P., Op den Camp, H.J.M., 2020. Hydrogen and Carbon Monoxide-  
461 Utilizing *Kyrpidia spormannii* Species From Pantelleria Island, Italy. *Front. Microbiol.* 11.  
462 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00951>

463 Islam Mozumder, M.S., Garcia-Gonzalez, L., Wever, H. De, Volcke, E.I.P., 2015. Poly(3-  
464 hydroxybutyrate) (PHB) production from CO<sub>2</sub>: Model development and process  
465 optimization. *Biochem. Eng. J.* 98, 107–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2015.02.031>

466 Jourdin, L., Burdyny, T., 2021. Microbial Electrosynthesis: Where Do We Go from Here? *Trends*  
467 *Biotechnol.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2020.10.014>

468 Jourdin, L., Raes, S.M.T., Buisman, C.J.N., Strik, D.P.B.T.B., 2018. Critical biofilm growth  
469 throughout unmodified carbon felts allows continuous bioelectrochemical chain elongation  
470 from CO<sub>2</sub> up to caproate at high current density. *Front. Energy Res.* 6, 1.  
471 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fenrg.2018.00007>

472 Kourmentza, C., Plácido, J., Venetsaneas, N., Burniol-Figols, A., Varrone, C., Gavala, H.N., Reis,  
473 M.A.M., 2017. Recent advances and challenges towards sustainable polyhydroxyalkanoate  
474 (PHA) production. *Bioengineering.* <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering4020055>

475 Kracke, F., Lai, B., Yu, S., Krömer, J.O., 2018. Balancing cellular redox metabolism in microbial  
476 electrosynthesis and electro fermentation – A chance for metabolic engineering. *Metab.*  
477 *Eng.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymben.2017.12.003>

478 Lovley, D.R., Nevin, K.P., 2011. A shift in the current: New applications and concepts for microbe-  
479 electrode electron exchange. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*  
480 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2011.01.009>

481 Obruca, S., Sedlacek, P., Slaninova, E., Fritz, I., Daffert, C., Meixner, K., Sedrlova, Z., Koller, M.,  
482 2020. Novel unexpected functions of PHA granules. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*  
483 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-020-10568-1>

484 Pang, Y., Xie, H., Sun, Y., Titirici, M.M., Chai, G.L., 2020. Electrochemical oxygen reduction for  
485 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production: Catalysts, pH effects and mechanisms. *J. Mater. Chem. A.*  
486 <https://doi.org/10.1039/d0ta09122g>

487 Panuschka, S., Drosch, B., Ellersdorfer, M., Meixner, K., Fritz, I., 2019. Photoautotrophic production  
488 of poly-hydroxybutyrate – First detailed cost estimations. *Algal Res.* 41, 101558.  
489 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ALGAL.2019.101558>

490 Pillot, G., Davidson, S., Shintu, L., Ali, O.A., Godfroy, A., Combet-Blanc, Y., Bonin, P., Liebgott, P.P.,  
491 2020. Electrotrophy as potential primary metabolism for colonization of conductive surfaces  
492 in deep-sea hydrothermal chimneys. *bioRxiv.* <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.11.11.377697>

493 Pillot, G., Davidson, S., Shintu, L., Tanet, L., Combet-Blanc, Y., Godfroy, A., Bonin, P., Liebgott, P.-  
494 P., 2021. Thriving of hyperthermophilic microbial communities from a deep-sea sulfidic  
495 hydrothermal chimney under electrolithoautotrophic conditions with nitrate as electron  
496 acceptor. *bioRxiv* 2021.03.26.437165. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.03.26.437165>

497 PrévotEAU, A., Carvajal-Arroyo, J.M., Ganigué, R., Rabaey, K., 2020. Microbial electrosynthesis  
498 from CO<sub>2</sub>: forever a promise? *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*  
499 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2019.08.014>

500 Rabaey, K., Rozendal, R.A., 2010. Microbial electrosynthesis - Revisiting the electrical route for  
501 microbial production. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2422>

502 Realini, L., De Ridder, K., Palomino, J.C., Hirschel, B., Portaels, F., 1998. Microaerophilic conditions  
503 promote growth of *Mycobacterium genavense*. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 36, 2565–2570.  
504 <https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.36.9.2565-2570.1998>

505 Reiner, J.E., Geiger, K., Hackbarth, M., Fink, M., Lapp, C.J., Jung, T., Dötsch, A., Hügler, M., Wagner,  
506 M., Hille-Reichel, A., Wilcke, W., Kerzenmacher, S., Horn, H., Gescher, J., 2020. From an  
507 extremophilic community to an electroautotrophic production strain: identifying a novel  
508 Knallgas bacterium as cathodic biofilm biocatalyst. *ISME J.* 14, 1125–1140.  
509 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-020-0595-5>

510 Reiner, J.E., Jung, T., Lapp, C.J., Siedler, M., Bunk, B., Overmann, J., Gescher, J., 2018a. *Kyrpidia*  
511 *spormannii* sp. nov., a thermophilic, hydrogenoxidizing, facultative autotroph, isolated from  
512 hydrothermal systems at São Miguel Island, and emended description of the genus *Kyrpidia*.  
513 *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.* 68, 3735–3740. <https://doi.org/10.1099/ijsem.0.003037>

514 Reiner, J.E., Lapp, C.J., Bunk, B., Spröer, C., Overmann, J., Gescher, J., 2018b. Complete genome  
515 sequence of *Kyrpidia* sp. strain EA-1, a thermophilic knallgas bacterium, isolated from the  
516 Azores. *Genome Announc.* 6. <https://doi.org/10.1128/genomeA.01505-17>

517 Selinummi, J., Seppälä, J., Yli-Harja, O., Puhakka, J.A., 2005. Software for quantification of labeled  
518 bacteria from digital microscope images by automated image analysis. *Biotechniques* 39,  
519 859–862. <https://doi.org/10.2144/000112018>

520 Uzarraga, R., Auria, R., Davidson, S., Navarro, D., Combet-Blanc, Y., 2011. New cultural  
521 approaches for Microaerophilic Hyperthermophiles. *Curr. Microbiol.* 62, 346–350.  
522 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00284-010-9712-4>

523 Vassilev, I., Kracke, F., Freguia, S., Keller, J., Krömer, J.O., Ledezma, P., Viridis, B., 2019. Microbial  
524 electrosynthesis system with dual biocathode arrangement for simultaneous acetogenesis,  
525 solventogenesis and carbon chain elongation. *Chem. Commun.* 55, 4351–4354.  
526 <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9cc00208a>

527 Verlinden, R.A.J., Hill, D.J., Kenward, M.A., Williams, C.D., Radecka, I., 2007. Bacterial synthesis of  
528 biodegradable polyhydroxyalkanoates. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2007.03335.x)  
529 [2672.2007.03335.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2007.03335.x)

530 Watanabe, Y., Ichinomiya, Y., Shimada, D., Saika, A., Abe, H., Taguchi, S., Tsuge, T., 2012.  
531 Development and validation of an HPLC-based screening method to acquire  
532 polyhydroxyalkanoate synthase mutants with altered substrate specificity. *J. Biosci. Bioeng.*  
533 113, 286–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiosc.2011.10.015>

534 Wolin, E.A., Wolin, M.J., Wolfe, R.S., 1963. Formation of methane by bacterial extracts. *J. Biol.*  
535 *Chem.* 238, 2882–2886. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0021-9258\(18\)67912-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0021-9258(18)67912-8)

536

537