

1 AIR BREATHING CATHODE-MICROBIAL FUEL CELL WITH
2 SEPARATOR BASED ON IONIC LIQUID APPLIED TO SLAUGHTERHOUSE
3 WASTEWATER TREATMENT AND BIO-ENERGY PRODUCTION
4

5 Francisco Mateo-Ramírez, Hasna Addi, Francisco José Hernández, Carlos Godínez, Antonia
6 Pérez de los Ríos, El Mostapha Lofti, Mohammed El Mahi and Luis Javier Lozano Blanco
7

8
9
10 Abstract

11
12 The present work explores the catalytic and electric performance of a microbial fuel cell
13 (MFC) implemented with high chemical oxygen demand (COD) industrial wastewater
14 from Spain. The polymer inclusion membrane based on 70% [MTOA+][Cl-] IL was used
15 as separator and showed a good efficiency in power production and COD removal.
16 Outputs of 72% in COD conversion, 200 mV voltage and 32 mW m⁻³ power density were
17 obtained, demonstrating that slaughterhouse wastewater is a good feedstock for the scale-
18 up of this technology. Furthermore, the effect of the microbial fuel cell on the
19 physical/chemical parameters of the slaughterhouse wastewater was analyzed. The
20 concentration of nitrite, orthophosphate, sulfate and ammonium was reduced by more
21 than half. Air breathing cathode-microbial fuel cells based on polymer ionic liquids
22 inclusion membranes allow the treatment of an industrial and high load slaughterhouse
23 wastewater with good depuration and electrical performance efficiency.
24

25
26 INTRODUCTION

27
28 Nowadays, there is a general consensus in society and the scientific community that we
29 are facing two major problems of global scope: water scarcity and the use of non-
30 renewable energy. The number of people facing water stress (water supplies below 1700
31 m³ per person) or water scarcity (below 100m³ per person) situations is increasing.
32 Currently 40% of the world population live in areas with hydric problems and it has been
33 estimated that by 2025 this figure will have increased to 66%. This lack of access to safe
34 water supply and sanitation has devastating consequences such as hundreds of millions of

35 cases of water related diseases and more than 5million deaths every year as well as large
36 unquantified impacts on economic productivity (1). Nearly half the cost of current
37 standard wastewater is related to the energy input into the processes and the major
38 percentage is related to aeration and treatment of the sludge generated during the
39 treatment process (2) These high costs and difficulties in maintaining treatment
40 infrastructure make it difficult to implement environmental strategies in countries with
41 waste treatment and supply limitations. One way to reduce wastewater treatment cost is
42 to directly reduce the energy inputs needed in each part of the treatment process. In this
43 critical social context, microbial fuel cells (MFCs) have emerged as a promising
44 technology that can overcome these two global problems. Microbial fuel cell microbes
45 oxidize organic matter under anaerobic condition in the anodic compartment and transfer
46 resulting electrons directly to a cathode, where the protons and electrons produced in the
47 anode could be combined with oxygen to form water. Current may be produced from
48 simple substratum (e.g. acetate, lactate or glucose) but what is really innovative was the
49 finding that current can also be generated from complex substrates like domestic and
50 industrial wastewaters. By using organic matter in wastewaters as a fuel, we can
51 simultaneously produce energy and purify wastewater (3). Furthermore, the use of
52 membranes based on ionic liquids could open up this field of improvement in MFCs.
53 Ionic liquids could reduce the cost of the expensive proton exchange membranes and
54 improve the efficiency of MFCs. Ionic liquids (ILs) are organic salts remaining as liquids
55 near room temperature. They consist of an organic cation such as imidazolium,
56 pyridinium, pyrrolidinium, phosphonium, ammonium, and a polyatomic inorganic anion
57 or organic anion such as tetrafluoroborate, hexafluorophosphate, chloride,
58 trifluoromethylsulfonate, bis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl]imide) (4). In this work, we have
59 investigated the application of new MFC technology based on ionic liquid membranes to
60 the treatment of high COD content wastewaters from industrial slaughterhouses.
61 Chemical and electrical performance of microbial fuel cells (MFCs) fed with a non-
62 conventional slaughterhouse industrial wastewater was analyzed. New polymer inclusion
63 membranes based on the ionic liquid [MTOA⁺][Cl⁻] was used as separator. The power
64 density of the microbial fuel cells as well as the COD reduction and other physical-
65 chemical parameters such as total suspended solids (TSS), nitrite, orthophosphate, sulfate
66 and ammonium was analyzed.

67

68

69 MATERIALS AND METHODS

70

71 Reagents

72

73 The ionic liquid methyltrioctylammonium chloride, [MTOA+][Cl⁻] (purity >97%),
74 poly(vinylchloride) (PVC) of high molecular weight and tetrahydrofuran (THF) were
75 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich- Fluka Chemical Co. (Madrid, Spain). Substrates,
76 solvents and other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich-Fluka Chemical Co,
77 and were of the highest purity available.

78

79 Experimental setup

80

81 The experiments were carried out in 250 mL microbial fuel cells provided with a single
82 anodic chamber and with a cathode and membrane clamped at the tip of the anodic
83 chamber leaving the cathode exposed to the air. Biofilm was grown on 100 mL of
84 graphitic granules (Graphite Store, USA) at the anode (150 mL of wastewater) with
85 electrons conducted by a graphite rod (Graphite Store, USA). Cathodes were made out of
86 platinum dispersed on Vulcan (Alfa Aesar) on a carbon cloth substrate (0.5mg cm⁻²).

87

88 As ion exchange membrane a polymer ionic liquid inclusion membrane based on 70%
89 methyltrioctylammonium chloride ([MTOA+][Cl⁻]) on a polyvinylchloride matrix was
90 used. Based on previous experiments (5) a 70% [MTOA+][Cl⁻] load was considered an
91 optimum ionic liquid load. Experiments were conducted under external electrical load
92 where anodes and cathodes were connected in closed circuit with a 1 kΩ resistor (see Fig.
93 1).

94

95 Experiments were conducted at a controlled temperature of 25 °C with two replicates per
96 condition (average values are reported). In every case, reactors additional to the MFCs,
97 named 'Controls' and 'Baselines' have been used simultaneously. Baselines consisted of
98 sealed anaerobic reactors containing carbon granules as sole biofilm support (but
99 unconnected to external components) with 100 mL of graphite granules and 160 mL of
100 wastewater. They served to compare the outputs from MFCs under certain conditions
101 with those from an anaerobic digester with biofilm under the same conditions. Controls
102 consisted of sealed anaerobic reactors with 160 mL of wastewater; they served to compare

103 the outputs from MFCs under certain conditions with those from an anaerobic reactor
104 with suspended microflora. The experiments were maintained for 240 h (10 days). In each
105 experiment, voltage measurements were taken every 4 h and samples taken for
106 wastewater characterization and electrical polarization measurements.

107

108 Wastewater characterization

109

110 The wastewater used as substrate for the experiments was obtained from a local
111 slaughterhouse (Spain). A thorough characterization of the water was conducted in order
112 to assess the initial values for the critical parameters, which are reported in the first
113 column of Table 2. It is interesting to note that this water has a high COD content (5520
114 mg L⁻¹) compared with typical values found in domestic sewage water (500–1500 mg
115 L⁻¹ range).

116

117 Analytical methods

118

119 Microbial fuel cells were sampled by withdrawing a 5 mL aliquot using a plastic syringe.
120 The sample was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 5 min and filtered in a 0.45 µm membrane
121 filter. An aliquot portion was reserved for COD analysis using the method AFNOR T90-
122 101.6 For COD measurements, a Spectroquant Nova 30 spectrophotometer (Merck,
123 Germany) was used. Soluble COD removal (COD)_R is defined as the ratio between the
124 total COD consumed in the process and the initial, the COD consumed being the
125 difference between the initial chemical oxygen demand [COD]₀ and the chemical oxygen
126 demand at a given time:

127

$$128 \quad COD_R(\%) = \frac{([COD]_0 - [COD]_f)}{[COD]_0} \times 100$$

129

130 total suspended solids, hardness, alkalinity and ion analysis were determined using
131 common standard methods (6,7).

132

133 Polarization method

134

135 Polarizations were carried out through a self-made variable resistor box (11 MΩ–1Ω).

136 The voltage value in each case was taken once the cell had reached pseudo-steady-state
137 at the corresponding resistor value (it was taken as approximately 1 min). The polarization
138 method and its calculation is based on Logan's method (8).

139

140 Coulombic efficiency

141

142 The coulombic efficiency (CE) is the application of the concept of selectivity in microbial
143 fuel cells. It corresponds to the electric charge that has accumulated during processing by
144 the substrate removed, and is defined as the ratio between the number of coulombs
145 transferred to the anode from the substrate and the maximum number of coulombs
146 transferred if the entire substrate was able to produce current, i.e.:

147

$$148 \quad Y_Q = \frac{\text{coulombs produced}}{\text{total theoretical coulombs}} \times 100$$

149

150 $Y_Q = \frac{\text{coulombs transferred}}{\text{total theoretical coulombs produced}}$

151

152 The total coulombs obtained is determined by integrating current versus time in order to
153 obtain the coulombic efficiency of a MFC fed batch mode, C_b , evaluated over a period
154 of time t_b , and is calculated as:

155

$$156 \quad Y_Q = \frac{M_m \int_0^t i(t) dt}{F \cdot \Delta COD \cdot b \cdot V} \times 100 = CE(\%)$$

157

158 where:

159

160 CE: Coulombic efficiency

161 M_m : molecular mass of oxygen m_m (32 g mol^{-1})

162 $i(t)$: rated current ($A = C \text{ s}^{-1}$)

163 F: Faraday constant ($96485 \text{ C per mol of } e^-$)

164 ΔCOD : variation of COD during the time t_b ($COD_0 - COD_t$)

165 b: moles of electrons produced per mole of oxygen ($b = 4$)

166 V: volume of liquid in the anode chamber (0.25 L)

167

168 The integral of the numerator, which is equivalent to the accumulated charge, was
169 calculated by the trapezoidal method.

170

171 Preparation and SEM-EDX characterization of polymer ionic liquid inclusion membrane.

172

173 The polymer ionic liquid inclusion membranes (PILIMs) were prepared by dissolving
174 210mg of [MTOA+][Cl⁻] and 70mg of PVC in 3mL of THF. This solution was poured
175 into a Fluka glass ring (inner diameter 28 mm, height 30 mm) on a Fluka glass plate, and
176 allowed to settle overnight until total evaporation of THF had occurred, to obtain a thin
177 plastic membrane. A scanning electron microscope (SEM) Hitachi S-3500 N and an
178 Bruker AXS analyzer for energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis with high vacuum
179 mode and variable pressure mode was used to study the morphological appearance, the
180 overall chemical composition and the distribution of the chemical elements of interest
181 present in the membranes. The PILIMs were characterized by SEM-EDX immediately
182 after preparation (fresh membranes) and after use in the microbial fuel cell.

183

184 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

185

186 Characterization of polymeric ionic liquid membrane used as separator in MFC

187

188 Polymer inclusion membrane based on [MTOA+][Cl⁻] ionic liquid was used as the
189 separator in an MFC for slaughterhouse depuration. The ionic liquid membranes were
190 characterized before and after use by scanning electron microscope (SEM-EDX) with the
191 purpose of providing information about the topography, morphology and chemical
192 composition of the membrane. Figure 2 shows SEM micrographs of the [MTOA+][Cl⁻]
193 before (fresh) and after use in the MFCs. The micrograph of the fresh sample of
194 [MTOA+][Cl⁻] 70wt% is shown in Fig. 2(a), highlighting the completely mottled surface
195 of this sample. As can be observed in Fig. 2(b), the membrane appearance changed after
196 use in the microbial fuel cell. Figure 3 (EDX spectrum) and Table 1 (EDX normalize %
197 wt) show the results of the analysis before and after working as MFCs with
198 slaughterhouse wastewater. In Fig. 3 we can observe from EDX analysis an important
199 reduction of the Cl content of the membrane, since the spectrum of the membrane after
200 use involves an increase of the relative peak heights C/Cl with respect to the fresh
201 membrane. The relative peak heights of identical elements in the different compounds are

202 related to their respective concentrations. So we can conclude that some ionic liquid has
203 been released from the membrane. In spite of the important reduction of the Cl content in
204 the EDX analysis, it does not mean that the ionic liquid has been completely removed
205 from the membrane. The stability of polymer ionic liquid membranes based on
206 [MTOA+][Cl⁻] in water has also been studied. The membrane based on the ionic liquid
207 [MTOA+][Cl⁻] was capable of retaining an important amount of ionic liquid after the
208 fourth operating cycle.⁵ The reduction of Cl⁻ could be due not only to losses of the ionic
209 liquid but also to the EDX technique. The EDX spectra are taken from a sample of only a
210 few micrometers thick/depth. After using the membrane in the MFC some of the ionic
211 liquids from the surface membrane could be released and some material could be
212 deposited on the membrane surface, as can be observed in micrographs (Fig. 2). These
213 both could reduce the signal due to the ionic liquid. Furthermore, new chemical elements
214 (Na, Mg, P, S, Ca, Fe, Al, Si) were found absorbed in the membranes after use which
215 could come from the slaughterhouse wastewater. Besides the EDX of the global
216 membrane, two points of different SEM morphology were analyzed (point 1 and point 2).
217 Higher O and C concentration was found in point 1 than in point 2. This could be due to
218 CO₂ - o haemoglobin deposits on the membrane. Higher chloride content in point 2 than
219 in point 1 could be explained because of the lower deposits in 2 than in 1, which allows
220 the EDX technique to 'see' the ionic liquid of the membrane. These membranes act in the
221 microbial fuel cell as proton exchange membranes. Considering that the active phase in
222 the membrane is an ionic liquid, which is an organic salt, the transport mechanism could
223 be explained by the solution diffusion model due to the interaction between the proton
224 and the negative charge of the ionic liquid.

225

226 Slaughterhouse waste water treatment by the microbial fuel cell.

227

228 The evolution of the COD in the microbial fuel cells during the experimental run is
229 illustrated in Fig. 4. As can be seen, the speed of removal of organic matter is high in the
230 first 72 h. The experiments were maintained for 240 h (10 days). In absolute terms, the
231 COD removal after 10 days of experiment was 72%. Despite being a remarkable value,
232 however this level of COD conversion is not as high as those reported for urban and
233 industrial wastewaters (between 85 and 95%) (8–12). One possible explanation for this
234 lower value is inhibition of microbial growth due to the common presence of antibiotics
235 in slaughterhouse waters (13,14). This fact could also be explained by the high COD of

236 the slaughterhouse wastewater compared with conventional wastewater. Regarding the
237 COD removal rate (Fig. 4), this parameter is higher at the beginning of the experiments
238 in the MFCs than the removal rate observed in the controls and baseline reactors. Since
239 in these reactors only conventional anaerobic digestion is taking place, it seems
240 reasonable to infer that the kinetic of the organic matter degradation is improved in the
241 microbial fuel cell system with respect to the conventional anaerobic system. This could
242 be explained because the biofilm formed and selected electroactive bacteria facilitates
243 organic matter degradation more efficiently than the pool compounded by all kinds of
244 bacteria in suspension and because degradation of the organic matter in the anode is
245 facilitated by the catalytic reduction of oxygen in the cathode. In addition to the COD
246 evolution, a number of physicochemical parameters were also monitored. Table 2 shows
247 absolute values for the results of the characterization of these parameters at the end of the
248 experiment both for the MFC and for the control and baselines. First, the results show
249 moderate variation of pH and alkalinity both towards the alkalinity side. The pH of the
250 anodic chamber decisively influences the metabolic activity and therefore affects the
251 mechanism of proton and electron generation from electroactive bacteria. It is worth
252 noting that protons are not accumulated in the anodic chamber and are transported through
253 the ionic liquid membranes. With regards to the speciation of the main ions a different
254 behaviour is observed among them. For example, it is interesting to note that the vast
255 majority of ions decrease their concentration (nitrite, orthophosphate, sulfate and
256 ammonium) by more than half. To explain this behaviour, we have to focus not only on
257 conditions of oxidation in the anodic chamber but also on other phenomena such as the
258 consumption by microorganisms in the biofilm. It is likely that more than one mechanism
259 is acting on each ion so that results can be a consequence of several conflicting trends.
260 The decrease in the orthophosphates values could be due to the conversion into organic
261 phosphates because of the growth of microflora. As can be seen in Table 2 the nitrites and
262 sulphate concentration is also reduced. In the absence of oxygen, nitrites and sulphates
263 act as oxygen donors and also they could be used as nutrients for growing
264 microorganisms. That reduction is more extensive in the microbial fuel cell than in the
265 control and baseline which could be because growing the biofilm and water oxidation is
266 faster in microbial fuel cells than in controls and baselines. The ammonium concentration
267 is also reduced with respect to the initial values. This is also used as a nutrient by
268 microorganisms, and the reduction is also higher in MFCs than in controls and baselines.
269 Kjeldahl nitrogen is increased in microbial fuel cells, controls and baselines. The increase

270 in the former could be explained by the conversion of inorganic ammonium in organic
271 ammonium. From Table 2 it can also be observed that total phosphate, nitrites,
272 ammonium and sulphates ions concentration were higher in baseline and MFC (which
273 contains graphitic granules) than in controls (without graphitic granules). In order to study
274 this behaviour, 100 mL of graphitic granules were put in contact with 160 mL of distilled
275 water for 10 days, and the ions content in the water analyzed. The results are shown in
276 Table 3. As can be seen in Table 3, an increase in phosphate, nitrites, ammonium and
277 sulphates ions was produced in water after contacting the graphitic granules. The release
278 of anions from the graphitic granules could explain the higher concentration in systems
279 containing graphitic material. Surprisingly, anions such as chlorides, and hardness
280 remained practically unchanged in the MFCs.

281

282 Electric performance of the microbial fuel cell

283

284 Voltage evolution during the experiments is reported in Fig. 5, which shows an initial
285 induction period during the first 24–48 h in which voltage is low (lower than 50mV)
286 corresponding to stage of rupture of long-chain molecules and formation of the biofilm.
287 It is important to note that fresh slaughterhouse water was used rather than urban
288 wastewater, the former containing a higher concentration of microorganisms. After that,
289 a period of fast exponential growth is observed followed by a plateau where the electrical
290 potential is maintained around 200mV. Figure 6 displays the polarization curve for this
291 water after 96 h. As can be seen, the maximum power density obtained was 32 (mWm^{-3})
292 corresponding to an internal resistance of 3.91 k Ω . The internal resistance value is not as
293 lower than literature probably due to the high organic matter concentration of
294 slaughterhouse wastewater and having in mind that the first 48 h could be considering in
295 this case as an ‘activation time’. Starting the experiment at 48 h could decrease the value
296 of the internal resistance and increase the maximum power density.^{15,16} Figure 7 shows
297 the evolution over time of the coulombic efficiency for the different membranes tested.
298 As can be seen from Figs 5 and 7, the behaviour of the coulombic efficiency was similar
299 to that observed for the voltage. As the experiment progressed the coulombic efficiency
300 increased. This behaviour could be explained by growth of the biofilm converting the
301 organic matter into electricity (17).

302

303 CONCLUSIONS

304

305 The MFC, implemented with a polymeric ionic liquid membrane as separator in the
306 cathode and slaughterhouse wastewater as fuel in the anode, presents good catalytic and
307 electric efficiency in terms of COD removal and power production. The 70%
308 [MTOA⁺][Cl⁻] ionic liquid membrane has been successfully used in the MFC air-
309 breathing cathode and it constitutes the key to its excellent performance as a proton
310 exchange membrane. Outputs of 72% in COD conversion, 200 mV voltage and
311 32mWm⁻³ power density were obtained, showing that slaughterhouse wastewater could
312 be a good feedstock for MFCs. A reduction in the ions concentrations of nitrite,
313 orthophosphate, sulfate and ammonium was also found.

314

315 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

316

317 This work was partially supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation
318 (MICINN) and by the FEDER (Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional), ref. CICYT
319 ENE2011-25188 and by the SENECA Foundation 18975/JLI/2013 grants.

320

321

322 REFERENCES

323

324 1) Porto M, Human health and sanitation. Water and ethics series on Water and Ethics,
325 Essay 6, Paris (2004).

326

327 2) Vassallo P, Paoli C and Fabiano M. Energy required for the complete treatment of
328 municipal wastewater. *Ecol Eng* 35:687–694 (2009).

329

330 3) Hernández-Fernández FJ, Pérez de los Ríos AP, Salar-García MJ, Ortiz-Martínez VM,
331 Lozano-Blanco, Godínez C et al., Recent progress and perspectives in microbial fuel cells
332 for bioenergy generation and wastewater treatment. *Fuel Process Technol* 138:284–297
333 (2015).

334

335 4) Hernández-Fernández FJ, Pérez de los Ríos A, Mateo-Ramírez F, Godínez C, Lozano-
336 Blanco LJ, Moreno JI et al., New application of supported ionic liquids membranes as
337 proton exchange membranes in microbial fuel cell for waste water treatment. *Chem Eng*

338 J 279:115–119 (2015).

339

340 5) Hernandez-Fernandez FJ, Pérez de los Ríos A, Tomás-Alonso F and Rubio AM. On
341 the stability of polymeric ionic liquids inclusion membranes in aqueous solutions. Paper
342 in preparation.

343

344 6) AFNOR,90: Documentation: Catalogage: Choix des Accès à la Description
345 Bibliographique. Paris: AFNOR, 1997.

346

347 7) Rodier J, L'analyse de l'eau (eaux naturelles, eaux ré siduaires, eau de mer), 7th edn.
348 Dunod Edn, Paris, France (1984).

349

350 8) Logan BE, Exoelectrogenic bacteria that power microbial fuel cells. *Nat Rev Microbiol*
351 7:375–381 (2009).

352

353 9) Min B, Kim J, Oh AS, Regan JM and Logan BE. Electricity generation from swine
354 wastewater using microbial fuel cells. *Water Res* 39:4961–4968 (2005).

355

356 10) Rabaey K and Verstraete W. Microbial fuel cells: novel biotechnology for energy
357 generation. *Trends Biotechnol* 23:291–298 (2005).

358

359 11) Rabaey K and Keller J. Microbial fuel cell cathodes: from bottleneck to prime
360 opportunity? *Water Sci Technol* 57:655–659 (2008).

361

362 12) Liu Z and Liu J. Study of operational performance and electrical response on
363 mediator-less microbial fuel cells fed with carbon and protein rich substrates. *Biochem*
364 *Eng J* 45:185–191 (2009).

365

366 13) Xu J, Sheng GP, Luo HW, Li WW, Wang LF and Yu HQ. Fouling of proton exchange
367 membrane (PEM) deteriorates the performance of microbial fuel cell. *Water Res*
368 46:1817–1824 (2012).

369

370 14) Angosto JM, Fernández-López JA and Godínez C. Brewery and liquid manure
371 wastewaters as potential feedstocks for microbial fuel cells: a performance study. *Environ*

372 Technol 36:68–78 (2015).

373

374 15) Cirik K. Optimization of bioelectricity generation in fed-batch microbial fuel cell:
375 effect of electrode material, initial substrate concentration, and cycle time applied. Appl
376 Biochem Biotechnol 173:205–214 (2014).

377

378 16) Köroglu EO, Özkaya B and Çetinkaya AY. Microbial fuel cells for energy recovery
379 from waste. Int J Energy Sci (IJES) 4:28–30 (2014).

380

381 17) Larrosa-Guerrero A, Scott K, Head IM, Mateo F, Ginesta A and Godinez C. Effect
382 of temperature on the performance of microbial fuel cells. Fuel 89:3985–3994 (2010)

383

384

Table 1. EDX spectrum data (normalized weight) of fresh samples and used (after operation) samples (global, point 1, point 2) of 70 wt% [MTOA+][Cl-] membranes.

		70 w/w% [MTOA+][Cl-]		
Element	(Fresh)	After operation global	After operation point 1	After operation point 2
	C. Norm (%wt)	C. Norm (%wt)	C. Norm (%wt)	C. Norm (%wt)
C	36.05	36.57	38.99	37.02
N	13.76	14.16	11.36	12.02
O	9.27	39.24	36.15	29.50
Cl	40.91	1.07	4.51	14.28
Na	-	0.80	0.95	-
Mg	-	0.54	0.49	-
P	-	1.37	0.86	0.53
S	-	3.67	2.39	4.63
Ca	-	0.85	2.26	1.45
Fe	-	1.73	0.58	-
Al	-	-	0.84	0.35
Si	-	-	0.62	0.23

Table 2. Comparison of physicochemical parameters before and after water treatment in MFC, control and baseline.

Water parameter	Method	Initial	Final Values		
			MFC	Baseline	Control
pH	[-]	6.86	7.65	7.47	7.97
TSS, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-105	1.57	1.52	1.46	1.24
COD, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-101	5520	1500	1650	1650
Total phosphate, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-022	43.56	52.63	53.54	57.17
Ortophosphates, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-110	19.24	2.36	3.54	2.72
Kjeldhal nitrogen, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-110	103.6	207.2	221.2	221.2
Nitrites, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-013	3.41	0.48	0.6	0.98
Ammonium, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-015	88.51	40.12	51.25	62.48
Sulphates, mg L ⁻¹	Rodier	350.17	115.17	106.83	183.5
Chlorides, mg L ⁻¹	AFNOR 90-014	1121.8	1121.8	1121.8	1121.8
Hardness, mg L ⁻¹ CaCO ₃	Rodier	1036	1036	1436	1276
Alkalinity, meq L ⁻¹	Rodier	167.6	223.6	239.6	127.6

Table 3. Phosphate, nitrites, ammonium and sulphates ion concentration in distilled water and after equilibration of 160 mL of water with 100 mL of graphitic granules.

	NO ₂ ⁻ (ppm)	HPO ₄ ²⁻ (ppm)	NH ₄ ⁺ (ppm)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (ppm)
Distilled water	LD < 0.07	LD < 0.76	1.21	0.26
Sample 1	0.48	66.61	81.20	10.72
Sample 2	0.60	48.38	163.79	9.93

Figure 1. Schematic of the device used for these experiments.

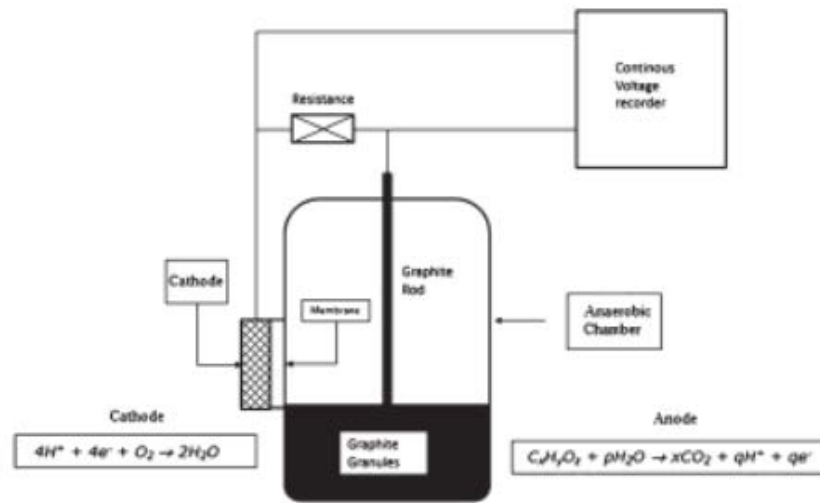


Figure 2. Scanning electron micrograph of the membrane with [MTOA+][Cl⁻] ionic liquid before (fresh, a) and after use (b) in the MFC 1 and 2 in Fig.2 (b) denote where EDX analysis was carried out (see below).

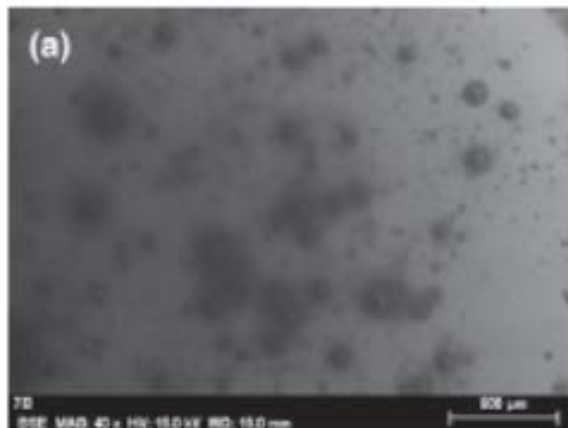


Figure 3. EDX spectra of the [MROA+][Cl-] (70 wt%) membrane, fresh and after operation (global, point 1 and point 2, see Fig.2.)

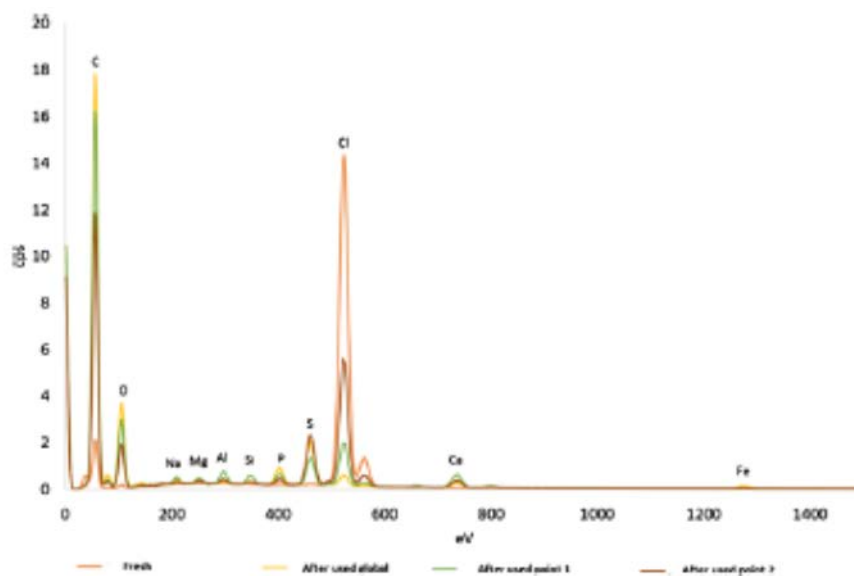


Figure 4. COD reduction in MFC with 70% (w/w) [MTOA+][Cl-] and PVC membranes, controls and baselines.

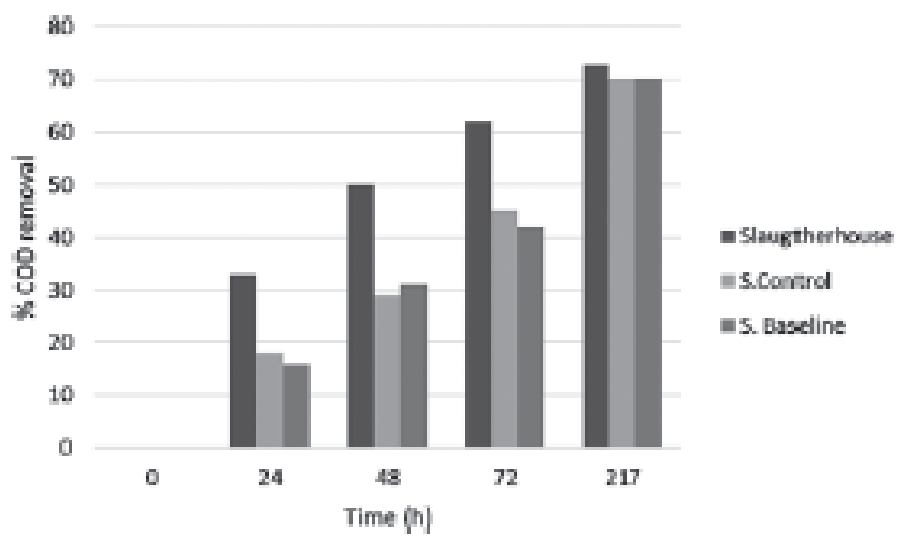


Figure 5. Voltage vs time in the microbial fuel cell using polymer inclusion membrane based on 70% (w/w) [MTOA+][Cl⁻] and PVC using slaughterhouse wastewater as feedstock.

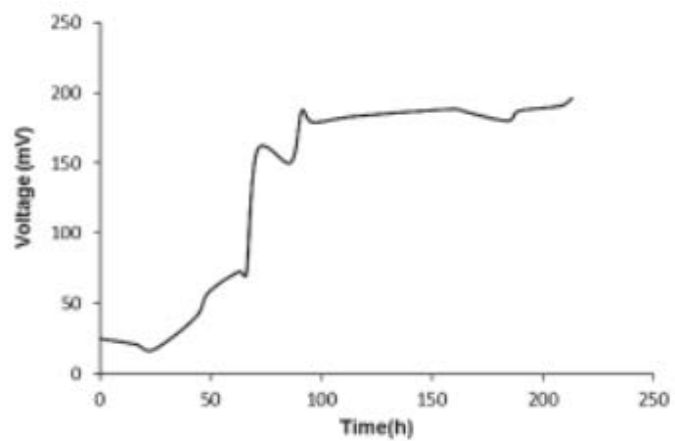


Figure 6. Polarizations of MFCs using slaughterhouse as feedstock and a polymer inclusion membrane based on [MTOA+][Cl-]. Polarization curve for MFCs (V vs. I) Power output curve (W vs. I). Calculations are based on anode liquid volume.

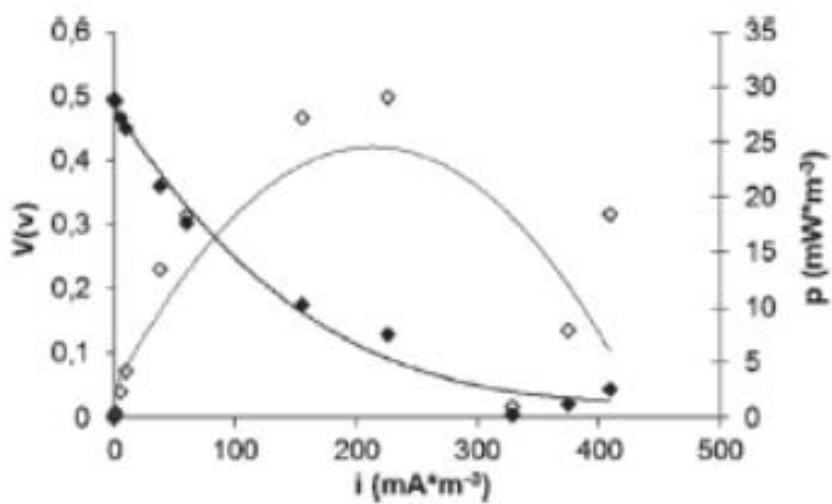


Figure 7. Profile of the coulombic efficiency (YQ) of the MFC using slaughterhouse as a feedstock and a polymer inclusion membrane based on 70% (w/w) [MTOA+][Cl⁻] and PVC.

