



**Electrical decoupling of microbial electrochemical reactions
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1 **Electrical decoupling of microbial electrochemical reactions**
2 **enables spontaneous H₂ evolution**

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17

18

19 **Broader context box**

20

21 H₂ complements renewable electricity as a renewable fuel carrier and chemical building
22 block, but H₂ evolution is an endothermic reaction that requires external energy input to
23 close the thermodynamic gap of water splitting. This study demonstrated unassisted H₂
24 evolution by using an electrical decoupling strategy with a tailored power management
25 system (PMS), which can overcome the thermodynamic gap and achieve uphill reactions
26 by electrically decoupling the reactions and temporarily storing the energy generated
27 from anodic organic oxidization reactions. This approach greatly simplifies
28 electrochemical H₂ production systems and advances a new H₂ economy.

29

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Hydrogen evolution is not a spontaneous reaction, so current electrochemical H₂
32 systems either require an external power supply or use complex photocathodes.
33 We present in this study that by using electrical decoupling H₂ can be produced
34 spontaneously from the wastewater. A power management system (PMS) circuit
35 was deployed to decouple bioanode organic oxidation from abiotic cathode proton
36 reduction in the same electrolyte. The special PMS consisted a boost converter
37 and an electromagnetic transformer, which harvested energy from the anode
38 followed by voltage magnification from 0.35 V to 2.2~2.5 V, enabling *in situ* H₂
39 evolution for over 96 h without consuming any external energy. This
40 proof-of-concept demonstrated a cathode faradic efficiency of 91.3% and a

41 maximum overall bioelectrochemical H₂ conversion efficiency of 28.9%. This
42 approach allows true self-sustaining wastewater to H₂ evolution, and system
43 performance can be improved via PMS and reactor optimization.

44

45 **KEYWORDS**

46 Hydrogen, decoupling, microbial electrolysis, power management system, boost
47 converter, flyback converter

48

49 INTRODUCTION

50 Hydrogen is a desired fuel and medium for fuel cell vehicles and largescale
51 energy storage solutions, and it is an essential chemical building block for
52 industries that produce fertilizers, polymers, plastics, pharmaceuticals, and many
53 critical products.¹⁻⁴ Plus, hydrogen provides a complementary alternative to
54 renewable electricity, and it can be produced using renewables such as solar and
55 wind via water splitting or biomass and wastewater via fermentation and microbial
56 electrolysis.⁵⁻⁸

57

58 Traditional water splitting requires a theoretical 1.23 V to overcome the
59 thermodynamic barrier ($\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + 0.5 \text{O}_2$, $\Delta G^0 = 237.13 \text{ kJ/mol}$), and in reality
60 1.8~2.0 V is used to overcome the potential losses associated with internal
61 resistance, junction potential, and overpotential on electrode surface.^{9, 10}
62 Electrochemical H_2 production therefore has always relied on an external bias that
63 requires energy input and additional infrastructure. This is true even for
64 sustainable H_2 production from renewable sources, such as artificial
65 photosynthesis (APS) that utilizes solar energy to substitute part of the electricity
66 input,^{11, 12} as well as microbial electrolysis cells (MEC) that employ a variety of
67 organic matters as the electron donor to reduce external voltage demand.^{7, 13, 14}
68 Direct photoelectrolysis of water at the interface of semiconductor and electrolyte
69 has been a popular APS pathway, but an external bias is still needed because

70 most semiconductors, such as Si, InP, and GaAs, do not produce sufficient
71 voltage to drive water-splitting due to the larger junction gap of 1.6 to 2.3 eV.¹⁵⁻¹⁸
72 This external bias can be greatly reduced when the anodic water oxidation is
73 replaced by microbial organic oxidization, because bacteria utilizes the chemical
74 energy embedded in organics to compensate the energy required for anode
75 oxidation, and as a result the thermodynamic driving force required for H₂
76 production dramatically reduced from 1.23 V (water oxidation) to 0.12 V (acetate
77 oxidation).^{18, 19} Additionally, as a variety of organics, even wastewater, can be
78 oxidized by microbial metabolism, people attempted to approach a goal of
79 sustainable fuel supply based on the enormous and readily achievable waste
80 streams produced in human society.²⁰ However, the aforementioned H₂
81 production from wastewater still relied on additional power such as electricity or
82 solar, which is not a true waste-to-hydrogen situation. In a previous work by
83 Suraniti, et al, an enzymic biofuel cell was coupled with water electrolysis to
84 achieve H₂ production in a glucose medium.²¹ An electrical booster and an
85 electromagnetic transformer were included in the external circuit to condition the
86 voltage produced by the biofuel cell and drive water electrolysis. The study
87 demonstrated that electric circuits could help overcome the thermodynamic gap
88 and achieve uphill reactions, though the system was only operated for 200 min.²¹
89 There has been no study that achieved spontaneous H₂ evolution from
90 wastewater without any external energy input.

91

92 Considering the limited and intermittent nature of power supply from renewable
93 sources, a new strategy that decouples the two half electrochemical reactions in
94 an electrolyzer was recently proposed by inserting a reversible redox mediator
95 into the electrolyzer. Hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) on the cathode and
96 oxygen evolution reaction (OER) on the anode were not directly coupled rather
97 mediated by the reversible reactions of a mediator, so the HER and OER could be
98 decoupled and occur at different specific production rates.^{4, 22, 23} Several
99 mediators such as polyoxometalate phosphomolybdic acid, V^{3+} , and nickel
100 (oxy)hydroxides, have been demonstrated capable of decoupling the
101 electrochemical reactions of water splitting.^{22, 24, 25} The concept of decoupling was
102 originally proposed to separate the OER and HER in order to prevent the
103 crossover of produced O_2 and H_2 ,⁴ but we hypothesize here the different reaction
104 rates on the anode and cathode enabled by the decoupling strategy may open up
105 opportunities for *in situ* energy storage and utilization. The reactions being
106 decoupled don't have to be the OER and HER but could be any redox pair in an
107 electrochemical cell.

108

109 In this study, we demonstrate the proof-of-concept that spontaneous H_2 evolution
110 could be achieved from wastewater by using a tailored power management
111 system (PMS) to decouple the electrochemical reactions with O_2 as a redox

112 mediator. Since the electrochemical reactions occurred in one common
113 electrolyte, water splitting won't be able to occur spontaneously due to the
114 aforementioned thermodynamic barrier, but this barrier can be overcome by
115 electrically decoupling the reactions and temporarily storing the energy generated
116 from anodic organic oxidation reactions in the PMS. During this time, the PMS
117 raised the voltage output high enough to enable spontaneous H₂ evolution on the
118 cathode. Because no external energy (even sunlight) was applied to the system,
119 rather the H₂ evolution was solely driven by the PMS, which accumulated energy
120 from the anodic bio-oxidation of the wastewater, making the overall process
121 spontaneous and exothermic. In addition, we characterized the mechanisms of
122 the decoupling strategy, PMS design, reactor performance, and the energy flow.

123

124 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

125 **Principle of the electrical decoupling that enabled spontaneous H₂ evolution**

126 Decoupling strategies are used to do more with less, and a free pulley example is
127 used here to explain the decoupled electrochemical reactions that enabled the
128 endothermic H₂ evolution without an external power supply. **Fig. 1A** shows that
129 when a balloon is directly connected to a basket, a higher lifting force is required
130 to lift the load. This is similar as a conventional electrochemical cell, which
131 requires high enough external voltage to overcome the thermodynamic barrier of
132 H₂ evolution. **Fig. 1A** shows a traditional microbial electrolysis cell (MEC), where

133 the theoretical cell electromotive force (E_{emf} (V)) is -0.12 V ($-0.41 - (-0.29 \text{ V})$),
134 indicating that a $> 0.12 \text{ V}$ external bias is needed to overcome the thermodynamic
135 barrier for H_2 production. In reality, the external voltage used was $0.6\text{-}1.2 \text{ V}$ due to
136 overpotential and other losses.^{7, 8, 13}

137

138 In contrast, **Fig. 1B** shows when a free pulley is used, a much smaller effort is
139 needed to lift the same load. This is analogous to the principle used in this study,
140 where the O_2 mediator and a power management system (PMS) served as an
141 “electric pulley” to decouple the anodic and cathodic reactions and transform the
142 driving force. By inserting a pair of O_2 reduction (blue) and oxidation (pink)
143 electrodes into the reactor, the bioanode organic oxidation was decoupled from
144 the cathode proton reduction, and the PMS then enables a temporary storage of
145 the electrical energy harvested in the organic oxidization- O_2 reduction reaction,
146 which was termed as “energy generation part”, and raised the output potential to
147 realize the spontaneous “ H_2 evolution part”, which was the newly formed H_2O
148 oxidization-proton reduction reaction. The PMS had dual functions: magnifying
149 the output voltage of the energy generation part, and transfer the harvested
150 energy electromagnetically thus achieve DC isolation between the two pairs of
151 electrodes. This is significant because without the electrical decoupling using the
152 PMS, the two electrochemical reactions in one common electrolyte cannot
153 perform separately due to their intrinsic electric connection via the solution.

154

155 The PMS primarily consisted of an energy harvesting circuit and an
156 electromagnetic transformer placed on a specially designed flyback converter.²¹,
157 ²⁶ The energy harvesting circuit can harvest the energy generated from the
158 bioanode, generally at the maximum power point,²⁷ so there is enough potential to
159 power the whole PMS without the need for any external energy. The flyback
160 converter is a key component that allows DC isolation that electrically decouples
161 the chemical reactions. In the control experiment using just the energy harvesting
162 circuit to connect the external circuit of two reactions, a stable output voltage was
163 achieved from the energy generation part but no current was detected in the H₂
164 evolution part. Without DC isolation, all the chemical oxidation and reduction
165 reactions are connected in the electrolyte as well as through the circuit to a same
166 electrical reference, making the whole system short circuited. The primary and
167 secondary windings of the electromagnetic transformer are not electrically
168 connected, so the circuits of the energy generation part and the H₂ evolution part
169 are DC isolated which enables two different electrical references: anode oxidation
170 (GND1) and cathode reduction (GND2) as shown in **Figure 2A**, hence avoiding
171 the short circuit between the PMS input and output. The input energy from the
172 energy generation part is periodically transferred from the first winding to the
173 second winding of the transformer, and therefore the flyback converter is operated
174 in a charge-discharge cycle to power H₂ generation.^{27, 28}

175

176 The input and output of the decoupled circuit

177 The flyback converter's capability in DC isolation and energy transfer were
178 presented via voltage input and output measured by an oscilloscope (**Figure 2B,**
179 **2C**). **Figure 2B** presents the output voltage from the energy harvesting circuit with
180 pulse-frequency modulation (PFM) control by using constant duty cycle and
181 variable frequency that is a modulation technique used in low power energy
182 harvesters. The same voltage profile was also the flyback converter's voltage
183 input, which was boosted to 2.16 V with a considerable ripple caused by the
184 production of gas bubbles on the cathode surface. The boosted voltage varied
185 according with the setting of the energy harvesting circuit control and the
186 performance of energy generation part. This boosted voltage was able to power
187 the flyback and at the same time be isolated to further support H₂ evolution.
188 **Figure 2C** shows a fairly constant voltage that represents the flyback converter's
189 output voltage. This voltage (2.32 V) is similar as the flyback input voltage (2.16
190 V), because the flyback converter's function in this study is DC isolation and
191 electromagnetic energy transfer. The output voltage was kept stable at around 2.3
192 V with a different electrical reference from the energy generation part (**Fig. 2C**).
193 The voltage sign is deliberately measured negative to power the water splitting for
194 H₂ production.

195

196 The PFM control used in the circuit design in this study could keep the output
197 voltage of the energy generation part at a stable 0.35 V level, which ensures a
198 stable input for the H₂ evolution part and leads to a 2.3 V output throughout the
199 operation cycle. As a result, H₂ could be continuously generated till the complete
200 consumption of organic substrates. This demonstrates the stability and
201 practicability of this system. Without such PFM control, the energy generation part
202 would output a decreasing voltage over time. The input voltage of H₂ evolution
203 part, which was boosted at a fixed magnification, would decrease correspondingly
204 and soon result in the interrupt of H₂ production when the transferred voltage
205 could no longer support water splitting. Considering unlimited wastewater supply
206 in actual situation, this system would be able to achieve long-term spontaneous
207 H₂ production. When wastewater was replaced every 4 days to ensure stable
208 supply of substrates, multiple cycles of operation without external energy supply
209 were achieved without apparent performance decay (**SI, Figure S1**).

210

211 **Performance of the system**

212 Each test of the system was operated in the synthetic wastewater (an acetate
213 medium) for 96 hours, and stable electric output and H₂ generation were
214 observed (**Figure 3**). **Figure 3A** shows H₂ bubbles were continuously produced
215 from the cathode at a high rate without any external energy input (see the video
216 clip in **SI**). Stable H₂ generation was observed during the experiment, credited to

217 stable current input for H₂ evolution (**Figure 3B**). The time-course output voltage
218 of energy generation part was kept consistent at the maximum power point of 0.35
219 V by the PFM control circuit, while a 2.2~2.5 V voltage output was obtained from
220 the PMS and applied on the H₂ evolution part (**Figure 3C**). This *in situ* conversion
221 of voltage enabled spontaneous H₂ evolution without an external assistance.
222 Because of voltage magnification, the current reduced from 2.0~2.8 mA in the
223 energy generation part to less than 0.1 mA in the H₂ evolution part, conforming to
224 the principle of total energy conservation (**Figure 3D**). Considering the
225 degradation of organic substance in the anode, the conductivity of medium
226 decreased from 12.84 to 9.86 mS/cm, which led to the increase of internal
227 resistance between the anode and cathode of the energy harvesting part, thus the
228 current output gradually decreased along the cycle. Accordingly, the current
229 profiles on input to the hydrogen evolution part and output from the energy
230 generation part were analogous in shape (**Figure 3D**). To avoid the interfere of
231 the ripples in data, average powers during each 24 h were used to show the
232 power output/input of the energy generation/H₂ evolution parts, respectively
233 (**Figure 3E**). The power generation from organic degradation in the anode ranged
234 from 0.67 to 0.95 mW during the operation, which averaged at 0.76, 0.72, 0.74,
235 and 0.68 mW within each day, respectively. From such energy input, average
236 outputs of 0.15, 0.14, 0.14, and 0.12 mW were used for water splitting via the
237 PMS magnification and transformation during the same operation period (**Figure**

238 **3E)**. Over 90% of the acetate in the anode was removed, representing a
239 satisfactory treatment of wastewater. The corresponding Coulombic efficiency
240 was 34.2%. The spontaneous H₂ production rate was 2.75 mL/L/day, and the
241 yield was 0.034 mol H₂/mol acetate. This is lower than reported abiotic or
242 microbial electrolysis process (which could range from 10¹ to 10⁵ mL/L/day) due
243 to the absence of external voltage application,⁵⁻⁸ but comparable to previous
244 reports that used enzymes to generate H₂ from glucose (0.051 mol H₂/mol
245 glucose).²¹ Based on the total coulomb input into the H₂ evolution circuit, a H₂
246 production rate of 3.05 mL/L/day could be obtained per operation cycle with a
247 corresponding Faradic Efficiency of 91.3%. To further improve H₂ production
248 performance, the O₂ evolution anode may be replaced by a bioanode to reduce
249 the thermodynamic gap of the H₂ evolution part. In this way, a lower input voltage
250 and a larger current would be realized to produce H₂ at higher rates and
251 efficiencies. The main advantages of this study however come from the low
252 operational cost, zero energy input, and long sustainability with concurrent
253 benefits of wastewater treatment.

254

255 **System efficiency and energy analysis**

256 **Figure 4** shows the energy efficiency and energy flow of the system. During a
257 typical 96-h operation, an average 0.73 mW of power was generated from the
258 energy generation part during organic degradation on the bioanode. This power

259 was subsequently consumed by the energy harvesting circuit, the flyback
260 converter, and the H₂ evolution reaction, respectively. **Figure 4A** demonstrates
261 the energy harvesting circuit had an efficiency of 70% (a fixed value by the
262 manufacturer), and the flyback converter had an efficiency of 45.1%, resulted a
263 maximum efficiency of 31.6% by the PMS. However, due to the ripple in current,
264 the efficiency of the PMS fluctuated and averaged at 19.2% with a corresponding
265 average flyback efficiency of 27.4% (**Figure 4A**). The energy flow presented in
266 **Figure 4B, 4C** shows how much power each part of the system consumed to
267 enable the spontaneous H₂ generation from organic matter. In the case when
268 PMS showed a maximum efficiency, a highest power of 0.25 mW was achieved in
269 the H₂ evolution reaction, representing 31.6 % of the produced power from the
270 energy generation part (**Figure 4B**). The energy harvesting circuit consumed 0.24
271 mW to drive the magnification of voltage. This circuit is a commercial circuit by
272 Texas Instruments with a known power consumption.²⁷ The flyback converter
273 required another 0.30 mW to operate, which occupied the most fraction, 38.0%, of
274 the total produced power. The losses in the flyback converter were primarily on
275 the transformer and diode, where the transformer incurred core and conduction
276 losses as well as resistance on windings, while the diode presented losses on
277 threshold voltage and forward resistance. However, to compare with similar
278 flyback converter designed for other low power energy systems, the > 25%
279 energy conversion efficiency was normal.²⁶ **Figure 4C** showed the energy flow

280 calculated using average PMS efficiency. In average, 0.14 mW was used by the
281 H₂ evolution reaction, representing 19.2% of the total generated power. Further
282 considering the 91.3% H₂ generation efficiency on the cathode, the overall
283 conversion efficiency could reach a maximum of 28.9% and an average of 17.5%.

284

285 Even though the efficiency could be improved, this proof-of-concept study
286 demonstrates that without this electric decoupling the electrochemical reactions
287 and temporary energy storage/transfer would not be achieved, not to mention
288 spontaneous H₂ evolution. This invention itself saved energy and presumably cost
289 compared with previous studies that used external power source to realize water
290 splitting. The system efficiency can be further improved by improving the
291 efficiencies of both the energy harvesting circuit and the flyback converter, using
292 bioanode to replace the OER anode to reduce the load of the PMS, and
293 optimizing the configuration design to reduce the internal resistance.

294

295 **CONCLUSIONS**

296 This study demonstrates an electric decoupling method that enabled spontaneous
297 H₂ production from organic waste treatment. The PMS decoupled bioanode
298 organic oxidation from cathode proton reduction in the same electrolyte. The
299 tailored PMS realized this decoupling by using an energy harvesting circuit to
300 collect the energy generated from organic chemicals and magnified the voltage

301 from 0.35 V to 2.2~2.5 V *in situ*, where the electromagnetic transformer
302 transferred the energy and allowed water splitting without consuming any external
303 energy. Without such decoupling strategy, some types of external energy input
304 such as an external power supply, another renewable energy system, or sunlight
305 incidence, is necessary to close the thermodynamic gap of water electrolysis.
306 Thus, a real self-sustaining wastewater-to-hydrogen spontaneous conversion was
307 achieved. The system demonstrated good conversion efficiency, with the H₂
308 producing rate of 2.75 mL/L/day, the cathode faradic efficiency of 91.3%, and the
309 maximum overall bioelectrochemical energy to H₂ conversion efficiency of 28.9%.

310

311 **EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE**

312 **Power management system (PMS)**

313 The tailored PMS was designed to have two major circuits (**Figure 2**). One circuit
314 was for energy harvesting that collected the electricity generated from organic
315 degradation and boosted the input voltage by >6 times as the output voltage. This
316 integrated energy harvesting circuit utilized a pulse-frequency modulation boost
317 converter/charger (BQ25505, Texas Instruments Inc.) to boost the voltage from
318 0.35 V (the output voltage of energy generation part) to ~2.2 V to power water
319 electrolysis. The minimum voltage necessary to power the BQ25505 is 0.1 V per
320 the manufacturer's instruction, and no external energy was needed for the
321 operation of this circuit. The second circuit was a flyback converter (a

322 transformer-based DC-DC converter), which was designed specifically for this
323 study using the theory of Pulse-Width Modulated DC-DC Power Converters by
324 Marian K Kazimierczuk.²⁹ The flyback converter built for this study (Figure 2, the
325 blue dotted box) comprises of a transformer 78601/9MC from Murata Power
326 Solutions (*T*), a Fast Switching Diode Vishay 1N4448 (*D*), a capacitor 100uF (*C*),
327 a MOSFET 3NL01C (*S*). The control was performed by an oscillator/timer TS3003
328 from Silicon Lab, delivering a Pulse-Width Modulation in 9 kHz of frequency and a
329 duty cycle of 50%. Such oscillator was powered by the 2.3 V output of the energy
330 harvesting circuit, so no external energy was needed.

331

332 The transformer magnetizing inductance L_m played a critical role on PMS energy
333 storage because even if no current was flowing at the secondary windings of the
334 transformer, current would flow through the primary on L_m (Figure 2A), and that is
335 how the PMS in this study was storing the magnetic energy. When the MOSFET
336 (*S*) was ON and the diode (*D*) was OFF, the primary of the transformer was
337 storing energy on L_m . While when the MOSFET (*S*) was OFF and the diode (*D*)
338 was ON, energy was transferred from the primary to the secondary windings of
339 the transformer and then passed to the capacitor (*C*). This cycle of energy storage
340 and transfer in high frequency (9kHz on the flyback converter and variable
341 frequency for the energy harvesting circuit using a PFM) enabled the
342 spontaneous water splitting without any external energy.

343

344 **System construction**

345 The microbial electrochemical water electrolyzer contained three functional
346 components, the energy generation part, the PMS (introduced in the previous
347 section), and the H₂ evolution part (**Figure 1**). All these components were
348 assembled in a cubic-shape reactor that had a 7 cm inner diameter and 5 cm
349 depth (Perspex) (**SI, Figure S2**). The energy generation part consisted of a
350 bioanode that employ bacteria to degrade organics to generate electrons, and an
351 abiotic Pt/C air cathode that conducted O₂ reduction. The anode was made of a
352 carbon brush (5 cm diameter and 5 cm length) to support biofilm growth and
353 conduct electrons. The air cathode of 7 cm in diameter was made from one
354 carbon base layer, four polytetrafluoroethylene diffusion layers and one catalyst
355 layer (0.5 mg Pt/cm²).³⁰ The catalyst layer faced electrolyte and the diffusion layer
356 was in contact with air. A Ag/AgCl reference electrode (RE-5B, BASi, IN, USA;
357 +0.210 V versus standard hydrogen electrode, 25 °C) was used for electrical
358 character measurement. The H₂ evolution part included a platinum wire anode for
359 O₂ generation and a platinum microelectrode (MF-2005, BASi, IN, USA) for H₂
360 evolution. The O₂ generation electrode was placed adjacent to the
361 aforementioned air cathode to allow O₂ consumption. A piece of glass fiber was
362 placed in between the O₂ generation anode and the H₂ evolution cathode to
363 further secure the separation of the produced H₂ from any remaining O₂. The

364 whole electrolyzer was sealed up tightly using screws, rubber gasket and glue. An
365 air bag was connected on the top of the reactor for gas collection.

366

367 **System operation**

368 Figure 1B shows the system schematic and electrode connection. The external
369 circuit of the bioanode connected to the O₂ reduction cathode via the energy
370 harvesting circuit in the PMS, while the external circuit of the water oxidation
371 anode connected to the H₂ evolution cathode via the flyback converter in the
372 PMS. The bioanode was inoculated using anaerobic sludge obtained from a
373 municipal wastewater treatment plant.³¹ The bioanode was grown in a microbial
374 electrolysis cell using a nickel-foam cathode under an applied voltage of 0.8 V for
375 30 days before transferring to the experiment reactor.³² During the time of
376 acclimation, the bioanode was enriched with electroactive biofilm and could stably
377 support a current around 10 mA. The bioanode could support a stable voltage
378 output of 0.35 V and maintained a stable current output during multiple cycles of
379 operation (**SI, Figure S1**). The electrolyte utilized for conducting experiments in
380 this study contained (per liter): 1.64 g NaAc, 0.31 g NH₄Cl, 0.1 g CaCl₂, 0.1 g
381 MgCl₂, and 100 mM phosphate buffer.³³ The reactor was operated in fed-batch
382 mode with a cycle time of 96 h. The operation of the PMS was solely powered by
383 the electricity generated from the system itself.

384

385 **Analyses and calculations**

386 The output voltage of the energy generation part and the voltage output of PMS
387 for H₂ evolution were recorded every 30 min by a data acquisition system (2700,
388 Keithley Instruments, OH, USA).³⁴ The current (I) in both parts were calculated by
389 $I=U/R$ (mA), respectively, where U (mV) was the voltage across a 0.5 Ω
390 resistance and R was 0.5 Ω . Power (P) was calculated from $P=UI$ (mW)³⁵. Gases
391 collected in the air bag were tested using a gas chromatograph (Model 8610C,
392 SRI Instruments).¹⁹ Hydrogen volume was calculated by multiplying the total
393 volume of the collected gas with the hydrogen content measured by a gas
394 chromatograph. The chemical oxygen demand (COD), electrolyte conductivity,
395 and pH were measured using the standard methods.³²

396

397 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

398 Supplemental Information includes 1 video can be found with this article online.

399

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404

405 **Author Contributions**

406 X.C., F.L.L and Z.J.R. wrote the manuscript. X.C. and F.L.L. conducted the
407 experiment and characterization. Y.B. and L.L. assisted in reactor operation and
408 analyses. X.W.C., M.T., and Y.W. assisted in circuit testing and energy related
409 calculations.

410

411 **Declaration of Interests**

412 The authors declare no competing interests.

413

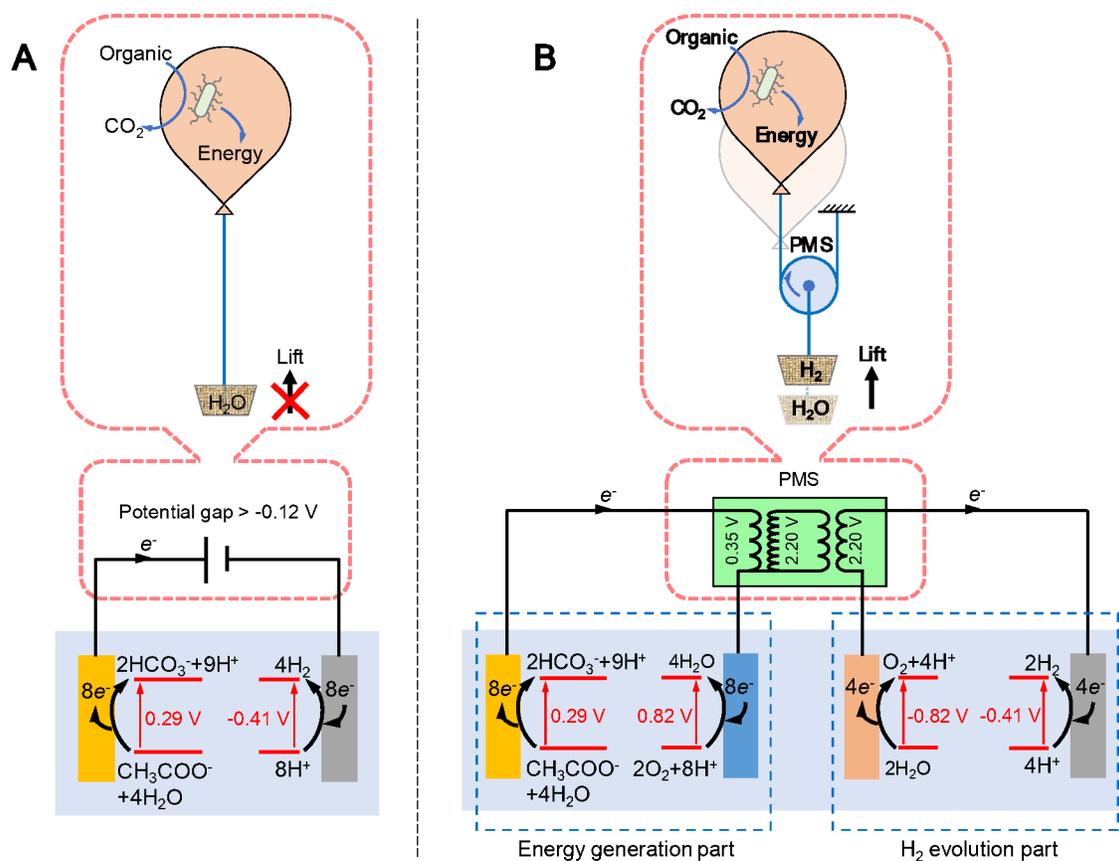
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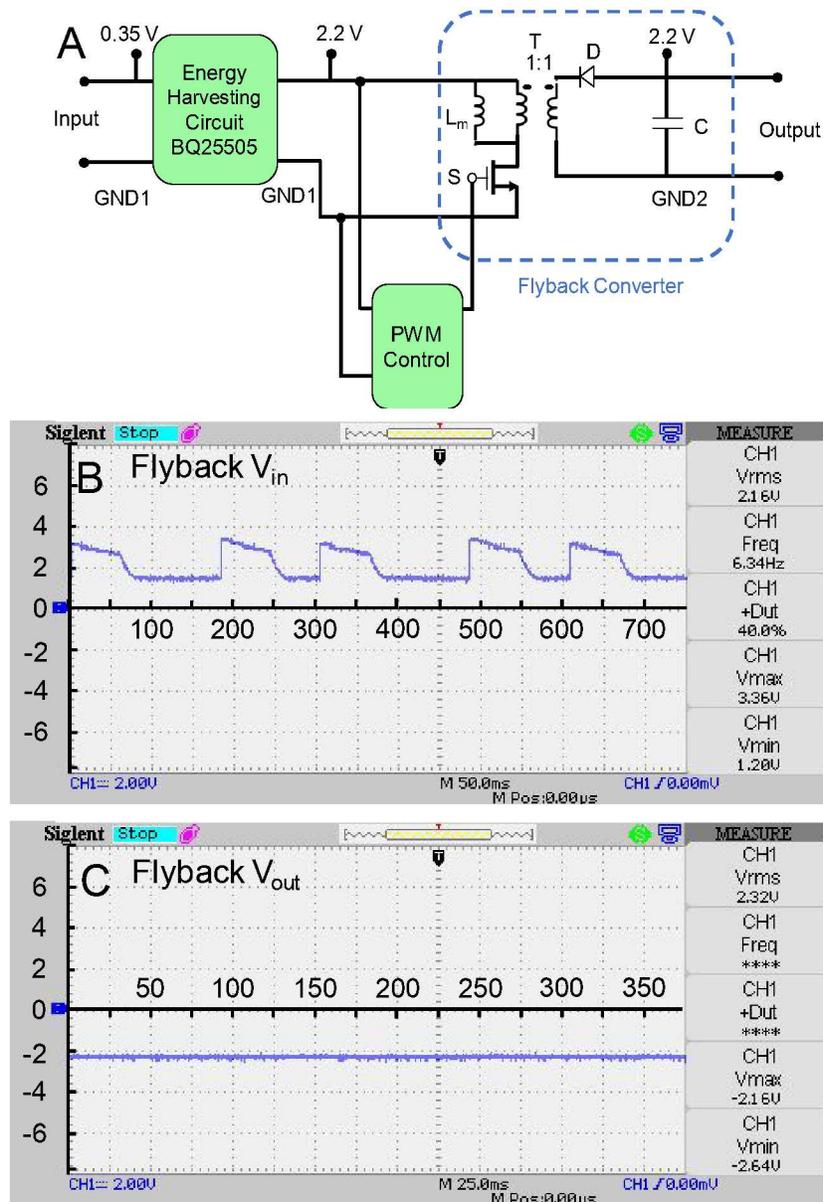
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482 **Figure 1** Schematic of the traditional electricity-driven microbial electrolysis H₂
 483 evolution (A) and new spontaneous H₂ evolution enabled by using tailored PMS to
 484 decouple the electrochemical reactions (B). Balloon represents the lifting force and
 485 basket represents the objective mass to be uplifted. PMS: power
 486 management system.

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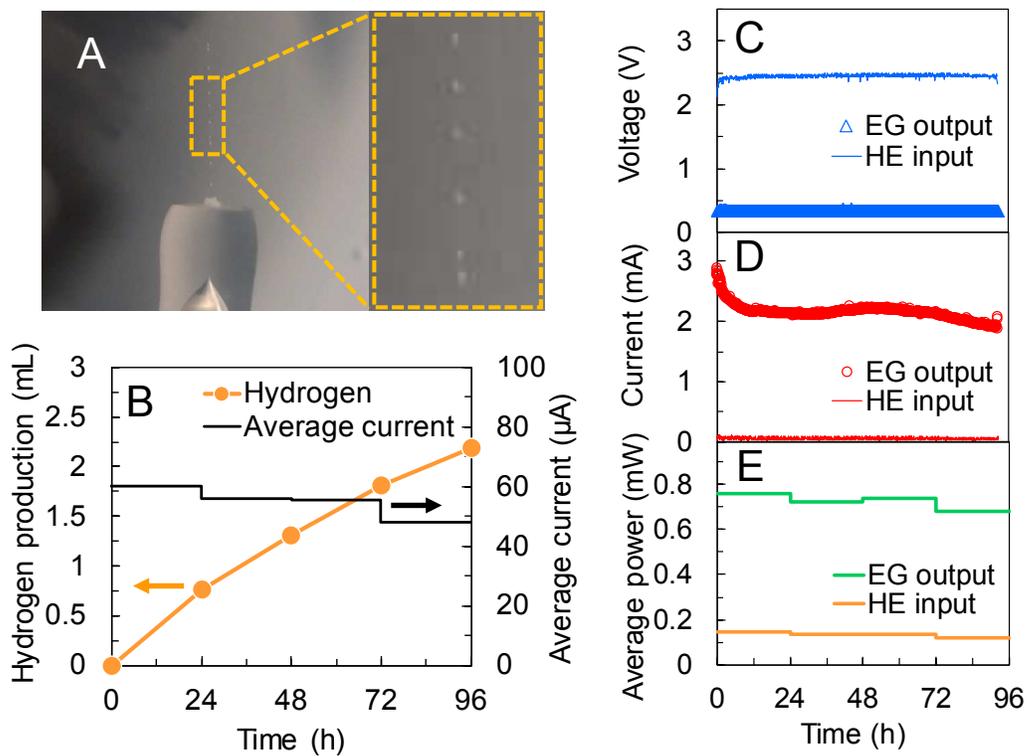


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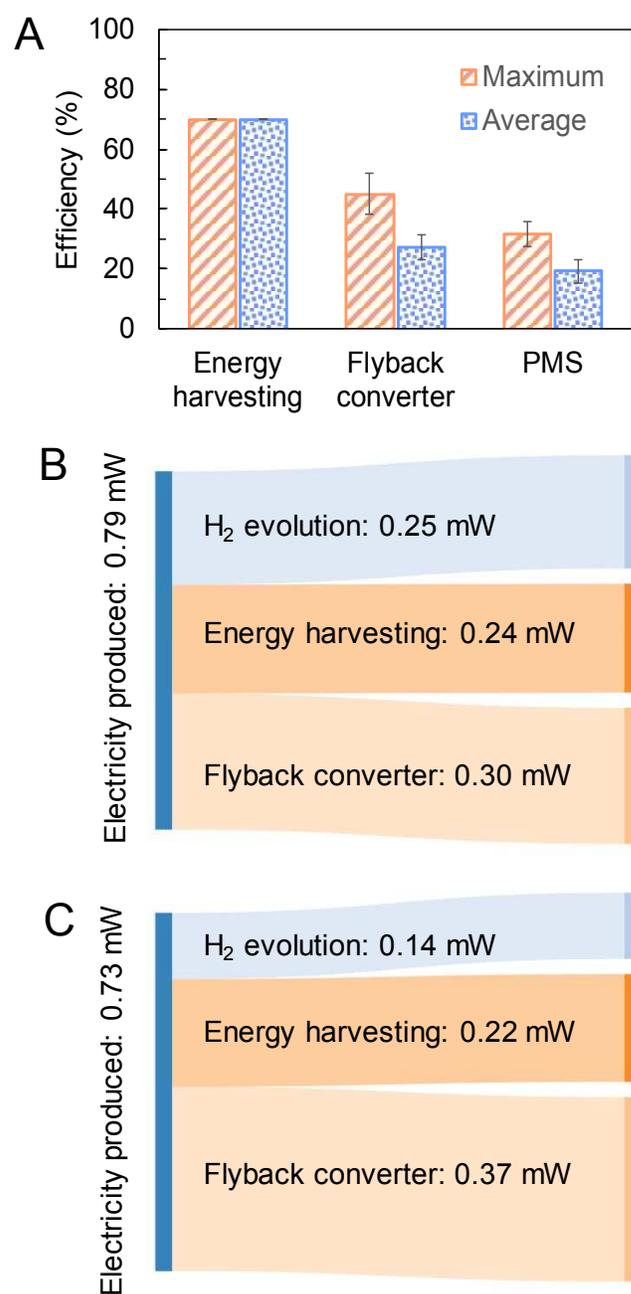
490 **Figure 2** Power management system design (A) and the testing results of the
 491 flyback converter input voltage (B) and output voltage (C). The output voltage
 492 from the energy harvesting circuit was also the flyback converter input voltage,
 493 which was controlled by pulse-frequency modulation using constant duty cycle
 494 and variable frequency. PWM: pulse width modulated; (B) and (C) were
 495 real-time screen shots of the oscilloscope when testing the input and output
 496 voltage of the flyback converter, where V_{rms} (RMS = root mean square)
 497 represented the effective voltage value, +Dut represented the curve positive
 498 duty cycle.

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501 **Figure 3** Photo showed H₂ bubbles were continuously generated on the cathode
 502 without external energy input (A); Hydrogen production and average current in the
 503 hydrogen evolution circuit (B); Time-course voltage (C), current (D), and average
 504 power (E) of the energy generation part output (EG output) and H₂ evolution part
 505 input (HE input).
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Figure 4 Efficiency of the energy harvesting circuit, flyback converter and PMS (A), power flow of the spontaneous H₂ evolution system with maximum PMS efficiency (B) and average PMS efficiency (C).