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1 Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy on biofilm electrodes –
2 conclusive or euphonious?

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10

11 **Abstract:** Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is a versatile tool that is also exploited to
12 study bioelectrochemical systems and biofilm electrodes. EIS can be used to examine characteristics
13 of biofilm electrodes, which are not accessible by direct current measurements like biofilm resistance
14 and biofilm capacitance. EIS in microbial electrochemistry is sometimes applied superficially or
15 evaluation of presented data is not comprehensive due to misinterpretation or missing data validation.
16 This hinders a more widespread application of this method, not only for determination of specific
17 biofilm electrode parameters, but also from a more practical perspective, e.g. as tool for in situ
18 condition monitoring of biofilm electrodes. We discuss how a careful choice of the experimental setup
19 as well as extraordinary diligent EIS data interpretation using electrical equivalent circuit models can
20 lead to conclusive data and meaningful insights. We illustrate the special challenges of studying biofilm
21 electrodes on the example of graphite anodes. We provide an initial guidepost on how to use EIS on
22 biofilm electrodes that requires several preconditions, careful choice of experimental parameters and,
23 nearly mandatory for novices like us, the consultation of experienced operators of EIS.

24

25 **Keywords**

26 Microbial electrochemical technologies, Electroactive microorganisms, Exoelectrogens, Alternating
27 current, Biofilm properties.

28

29 **1. Why using EIS for the study of biofilm electrodes?**

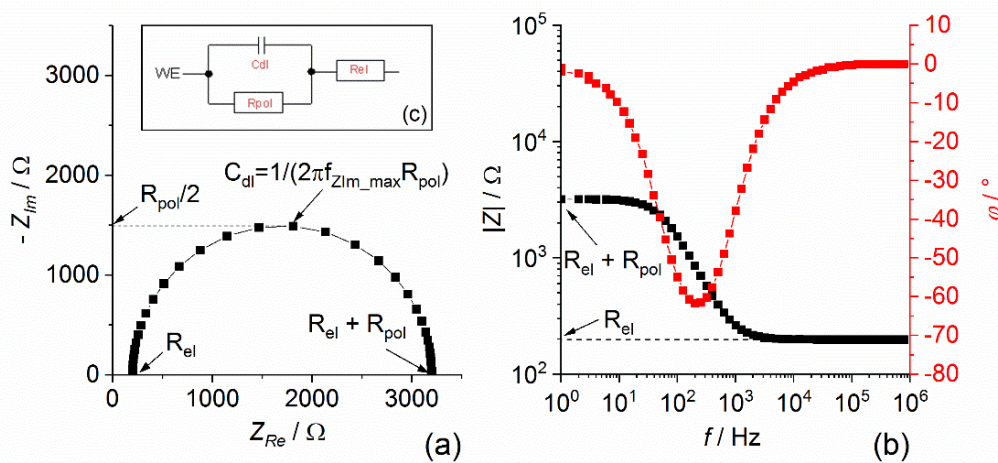
30 Microbial electrochemistry has developed from the periphery to the center of bioelectrochemistry.
31 Microbial electrochemistry is the study, engineering and application of interactions of microbial cells
32 with solid electron conductors (electrodes). For the versatile types of interaction please see Schröder
33 et al 2015 [1]. Here we focus on the most-immediate interaction: biofilm electrodes. Biofilm electrodes
34 are composed of electroactive microorganisms (EAM) embedded in (their self-produced) matrix of
35 exopolymeric substances (EPS) on the surface of the electrode. The electrode serves either as terminal
36 electron acceptor (biofilm anodes) or as electron donor (biofilm cathodes). Biofilm electrodes are the
37 beating heart of primary microbial electrochemical technologies (MET). MET are a fascinating
38 technology platform [1,2] departing from its archetype the microbial fuel cell (MFC) [3,4] and recently
39 moving towards building electronic circuits based on microbial wires [5]. Using biofilms electrodes in
40 primary MET, e.g. biosensors [6,7], does not only require comprehensive knowledge of their
41 electrochemical and metabolic performance as well as their ecology [8]. It also creates the need of in
42 situ monitoring of physical integrity and functionality [9].

43 Biofilm electrodes are assessed at different hierarchical levels (subcellular – cellular – biofilm) using a
44 whole arsenal of techniques [10]. These include electrochemical methods. Most popular are direct
45 current (DC) methods, e.g. chronoamperometry (CA) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) [11]. Using DC
46 methods always mixtures of non-faradaic current and faradaic current, including pseudo-capacitive
47 currents, e.g. caused by excess electrons stored in the outer membrane cytochromes of *Geobacter*
48 spp. biofilms, are recorded as well as only the sum of overpotentials. Distinction of different
49 overpotentials and their causation, e.g. diffusion, activation or resistance, is highly tedious or even
50 impossible. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) uses alternating current (AC) and thereby
51 enables to obtain properties difficult to determine otherwise [12]. EIS allows to detangle ohmic as well
52 as frequency dependent resistance that is the impedance Z . Furthermore, using EIS the capacitive (ZC)
53 and inductive (ZI) nature as well as diffusion processes (e.g. Warburg impedance ZW) can be
54 examined [13]. Thus, EIS is a helpful method that can provide unprecedented insights into electrode
55 properties. EIS is not only applied, for instance on lithium-ion batteries or fuel cells, but also for
56 biosensing and biofilm electrodes [14,15]. However, its application is not straightforward and needs
57 an experienced operator, but especially knowledge on the electrochemical system under study. This
58 combination seems to be rare when EIS is applied on biofilm electrodes. At the same time, highly
59 valuable work exists that can be used as a foundation for the increased meaningful application of EIS
60 on biofilm electrodes. Here we like to provide an overview on important basics of EIS in general as well
61 as main aspects that specifically have to be considered when applying EIS on biofilm electrodes. Within
62 this article we intend to provide a “guidepost” that helps interested researchers as well as newcomers
63 in the field of EIS to find their way to conclusive application of EIS on biofilm electrodes.

64 **2. A brief introduction into EIS and its application on biofilm electrodes**

65 This article solely refers to EIS in the frequency range using potential perturbation. Therefore, a small
66 ΔE is applied at a defined frequency range and the current response I_t is measured. The application
67 of galvanostatic EIS, potential step functions, random signals or advanced EIS measurements in the
68 time domain [16,17] are not subject of this article, as these have not yet been applied on biofilm
69 electrodes to the best of our knowledge.

70 EIS is based on recording the current response I_t to a sinusoidal potential perturbation stimulus E_t
 71 (see also BOX1). The impedance spectrum is obtained by sweeping E_t at constant ΔE through a
 72 frequency range, being for biofilm electrodes usually in the mHz to MHz range. Two types of graphs
 73 are commonly used to visualise and interpret EIS data [18]. The Nyquist Plot (or Complex Plane Plot,
 74 see Figure 1a) shows the imaginary part ($Z_{Im} = i|Z|\sin\varphi$) over the real part ($Z_{Re} = |Z|\cos\varphi$) of the
 75 impedance, whereas the Bode plot (Figure 1b), shows the absolute magnitude of the impedance $|Z|$,
 76 also called modulus, and the phase shift φ at two different Y-axes over the \log_{10} of the applied
 77 frequencies.



78
 79 **Figure 1:** Idealised EIS data of an electrode immersed into an electrolyte with (a) Nyquist plot and (b)
 80 Bode Plot. The system is modelled with (c) an electrical equivalent circuit with two resistors in series
 81 and a capacitor in parallel, WE: Working electrode C_{dl} : Capacitance of the electrochemical double layer,
 82 R_{pol} : Polarisation resistance of the electrode, R_{el} : Electrolyte resistance (the value depends on the
 83 distance between working electrode and reference electrode), $f_{Z_{Im_max}}$: frequency at maximum Z_{Im} (own
 84 data, J. Kretschmar, PhD thesis, 2017).

85 In the following, we highlight the challenges especially associated to the experimental setup for EIS on
 86 biofilm electrodes. Specific data analysis such as model based evaluation of EIS data or data validation
 87 can be covered only limitedly and the reader is referred to textbooks [13,18,19] or specific literature,
 88 e.g. [20,21]. Evaluation of artefacts in EIS, e.g. caused by induction, are discussed, e.g. by Veal et al.
 89 [22].

90 **BOX1 Basics of Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy**

91 The Impedance Z can be described analogously to Ohm's law:

92
$$Z = \frac{E_t}{I_t} = \frac{\Delta E \sin(2\pi ft)}{\Delta I \sin(2\pi ft + \varphi)} \quad \text{Eq. 1 [19]}$$

93 E : potential [V], I : current [A], $2\pi f = \omega =$ angular velocity [$rad\ s^{-1}$], t : time [s], φ : phase shift
 94 [rad] or [$^\circ$], E_t and I_t represent E and I as function of time. E_t is applied as AC potential perturbation
 95 at constant ΔE while I_t is measured.

96 The phase shift φ relates the sinusoidal wave of I_t and E_t . I_t can be leading (being ahead of) or lagging
 97 (being behind of) E_t in the phasor diagram. The phase shift φ is depending on the properties of the
 98 electrochemical system (leading corresponds to capacitance, lagging to inductance). To describe this

99 relationship for a sinusoidal AC signal over time, Z needs to be represented as a complex function and
100 therefore, consists of a real part (Z_{Re}) and an imaginary part (Z_{Im}) described by $i = \sqrt{-1}$ or $i^2 = -1$.

101 $Z = Z_{Re} - iZ_{Im}$ Eq. 2 [19]

102 Electrical circuit elements being purely imaginary such as capacitors or inductors, show $\varphi =$
103 $\pm 90^\circ$ (or $\pm \frac{\pi}{2} rad$) whereas purely ohmic resistors show $\varphi = 0$ (only Z_{Re}). For capacitive elements,
104 e.g., the electrochemical double layer, the phase shift φ between E_t and I_t is related to charge storage.
105 The most simple example is a capacitor with $\varphi = +90^\circ$. Here, the capacitor stores charge during half
106 the time of one oscillation period of E_t and releases charge during the other half. To conclude,
107 depending on the properties of the electrochemical system, I_t resulting from E_t does not only differ in
108 terms of the amplitude but also in terms of φ .

109 **BOX2 Prerequisites for EIS on electroactive biofilms**

110 Meaningful EIS requires i) **linearity**, ii) **time invariance (stability)** with iii) **guaranteed causality and iv)**
111 **finiteness of Z** for the applied frequencies, f . Linearity means that the relation of the potential
112 stimulus and the current answer of the biofilm electrode must be linear and is independent from the
113 amplitude of the stimulus. For electrochemical systems that are usually highly non-linear this is only
114 true for small potential perturbations of $\Delta E \approx 10 mV$, as $\Delta E < 10 mV$ worsen the signal to noise
115 ratio, whereas $\Delta E > 10 mV$ increases the risk to leave the pseudo-linear region. Time invariance
116 means that the systems remains stable until perturbation and returns to its initial state after
117 perturbation. Causality means that the current response of the system is strictly determined by the
118 applied potential perturbation. Finiteness means that there is always a response (I_t) of the system to
119 the applied stimulus [23]. Biofilm electrodes fulfil these preconditions to a limited extend, as especially
120 time invariance is difficult to achieve over several hours.

121 **3. Preconditions and consequences for experimentation and data evaluation**

122 EIS on biofilm electrodes follows the same steps like in other fields, that are i) a setting up a suitable
123 experimental system, ii) choice of parameters (e.g. ΔE and range of f), iii) data evaluation and iv) data
124 validation [14,23]. In the following, we focus on challenges of EIS measurement being specific for
125 biofilm electrodes. A comprehensive overview on using EIS for MET is given by Yoho et al. [23].

126 **Experimental setup**

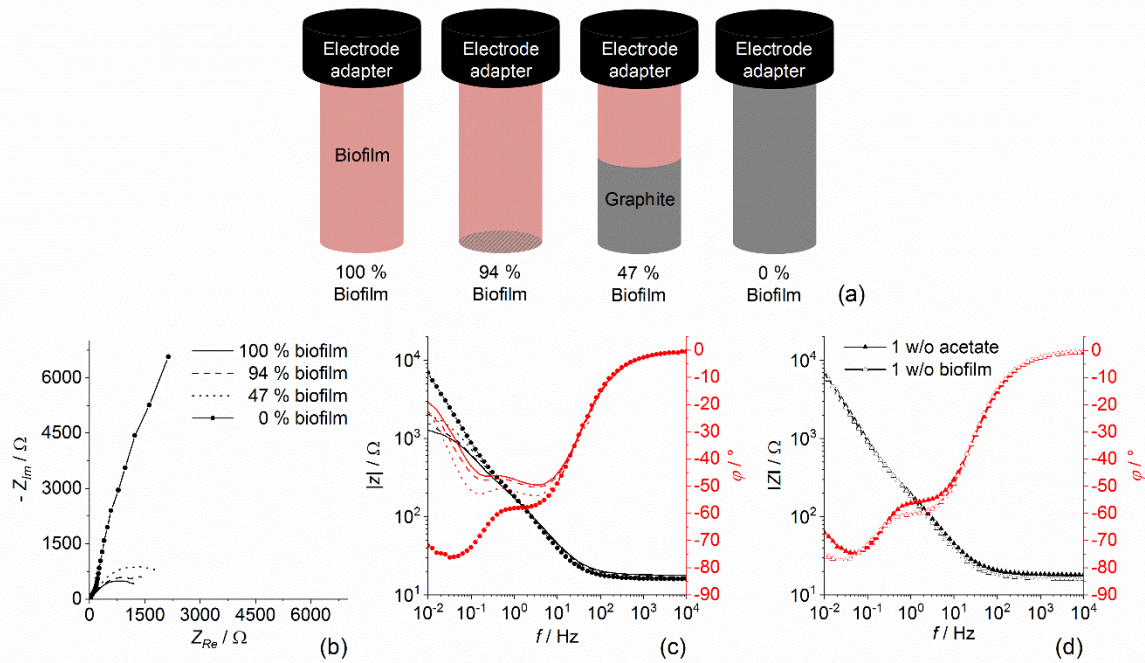
127 Electrode size, shape and material have a substantial impact on EIS data. For biofilm electrodes
128 carbonaceous materials are very common due to their biocompatibility, chemical and microbial
129 stability and low price [24]. Unfortunately, carbonaceous materials such as graphite felt or graphite
130 rods possess a high capacitance ($\sim 1 mF cm^{-2}$) as already shown by ter Heijne et al. 2015 [25] that
131 influences the accurate determination of biofilm properties such as charge transfer, biofilm and
132 diffusion resistances, and biofilm capacitance as a measure of biofilm thickness or mass [25,26]. The
133 challenge of using graphite electrodes to determine specific biofilm properties is exemplarily shown in
134 Figure 2 a-c. Here, fractions of mature *Geobacter* spp. dominated biofilm were successively removed
135 from a monolithic graphite anode ($A = 3.34 cm^{-2}$) implemented in a flow cell ($V = 100mL$) while all
136 other parameters remained constant, i.e. temperature, substrate concentration ($c = 2mmol L^{-1}$
137 acetate), anode potential ($E_a = 0.399 V vs. SHE$) and stirrer speed (250 rpm). The Nyquist plot
138 (Figure 2 b) and the Bode Plot (Figure 2 c) show results of EIS using $\Delta E = 10 mV$ and a range of $f =$

139 10 mHz – 10 kHz. It is evident that successive removal of biofilm changes the impedance only to a
140 limited extent. Total biofilm removal, however, may indicate a massive contribution of capacitance of
141 the naked graphite electrode that is shown by the wide opened arc in Figure 2 b. Furthermore, when
142 removing the biofilm partially, capacitance seems to increase due to the increasing diameter of the
143 small arcs in Figure 2 b. This seems counterintuitive, as biofilm capacitance should decrease during
144 biofilm removal. Another explanation might be that without biofilm, the data shows “infinite” charge
145 transfer resistance of the naked graphite electrode. If a biofilm is present, a finite charge transfer
146 resistance is introduced that decreases with increasing biofilm coverage and therefore, a semi-circle
147 appears.

148 Figure 2 d shows the effect of removal of acetate (sole energy and carbon source) from the electrolyte
149 solution for an electrode fully covered with biofilm compared to an electrode without biofilm. Here, it
150 seems that limiting the metabolism of the biofilms has apparently a similar impact as total removal of
151 the biofilm. This could be a consequence of the dominating capacitance of the graphite electrode,
152 changed diffusion regimes or increased charge transfer resistance due to reduced metabolic activity.

153 One possible way to overcome, e.g. limitations induced by the capacitance of electrode backbones, is
154 the use of materials with low capacitance but sufficient biocompatibility. Ter Heijne et al. 2018 [26]
155 successfully used Fluorinated Tin Oxide as anode material to identify capacitance of biofilm anodes
156 with up to $450 \mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$ as a measure of biofilm growth.

157 Mass transport and especially diffusion is also influencing. As often stirring is used to prevent mass
158 transfer limitations in solution, diffusion at and in biofilm electrodes also plays a crucial role when
159 interpreting EIS data [25,27,28]. Noteworthy, from a practical perspective stirring may interfere with
160 the measurement by compromising the causality, e.g., due to induction caused by magnetic stirrers
161 [23]. EIS data displays different types of diffusion: i) semi-infinite linear diffusion that appears as a 45°
162 line in Nyquist plots (i.e. the Warburg impedance Z_W), ii) finite space diffusion that appears as 45° line
163 followed by vertical line in low frequency regions and iii) finite length diffusion that appears as 45° line
164 followed by a half circle in low frequency regions of a Nyquist plot, for details please see, e.g. [23,29]
165 (another convenient overview is: Matt Lacey – Battery Science and Electrochemistry, URL:
166 <http://lacey.se/science/eis/diffusion-impedance/>). Using stirring, EIS data of biofilm electrodes may
167 furthermore show transition from semi-infinite linear diffusion to finite length diffusion. However,
168 using a rotating disc electrode Babauta and Beyenal [27] showed that diffusion in biofilms is only rarely
169 affected by mass transport in solution. To conclude, EIS is very suitable for evaluating mass transfer
170 effects at biofilm electrodes, in biofilms or porous electrodes whereby systematic studies on this topic
171 are rare.



172

173 **Figure2:** Effect of biofilm removal from graphite rods and change of substrate concentration for fully
 174 intact biofilms on EIS data, (a) scheme of successive biofilm removal with pink parts showing biofilm
 175 and grey parts showing the graphite electrode, (b) Nyquist Plot and (c) Bode Plot of successively
 176 removing *Geobacter* spp. dominated biofilms at constant substrate concentration (2 mmol L^{-1} acetate),
 177 (d) combination of complete biofilm removal and complete substrate (acetate) removal at fully intact
 178 *Geobacter* spp. dominated biofilm electrodes, red data in (c) and (d) shows phase shift φ of I_t . (own
 179 data, J. Kretzschmar, PhD thesis, 2017).

180 3.1. Choice of parameters

181 EIS on biofilm electrodes is mostly performed with a potential perturbation at a set electrode potential
 182 to sustain metabolic activity of the EAM. EIS at open cell potential (OCP) is also possible, but bears the
 183 risk of instability that is losing time invariance. It is very difficult and takes at least hours to achieve
 184 steady state conditions at OCP for *Geobacter* spp. dominated biofilm anodes.

185 Generally, ΔE between 10 -20 mV has been shown as suitable [23]. The frequency range defines the
 186 duration of the measurement and hence, has a direct influence on achieving time invariance. This is of
 187 special notice for measurements at OCP as well as biofilm electrodes facing non-constant substrate
 188 concentration or substrate limiting conditions, e.g. in batch operation. Consequently, EIS on biofilm
 189 electrodes should be limited to small frequency ranges and frequencies higher than 10 mHz. Careful
 190 data validation (see paragraph 3.3) is required to assure time invariance as well as linearity and
 191 causality.

192 3.2. Model based evaluation

193 EIS is analysed by fitting the acquired data to a mathematical model of an electrical equivalent circuit
 194 (EEC) describing electrochemical processes in the system under observation. EEC models consist of a
 195 limited number of electric circuit elements including capacitors and resistors as well as diffusion
 196 processes and others [19,21,23]. This is challenging, especially when examining porous biofilm
 197 electrodes in stirred experimental setups. Increasing the number of EEC elements may improve the fit
 198 but not the understanding of the system and it also increases the challenge of model validation.

199 Therefore, we need to differentiate two cases where EIS on biofilm electrodes can be applied. The first
200 case is application of EIS to improve mechanistic understanding of electrochemical processes in biofilm
201 electrodes. The second case is to use EIS as a tool for rather simple condition monitoring of biofilm
202 electrodes, e.g. for sensors.

203 In the first case the prime option is using “white box models” that rely on validated physical equations
204 of the examined electrochemical system. This is challenging for biofilm electrodes due to unknown
205 constants and manifold functional dependencies and needs careful design of the experimental setup,
206 as exemplarily shown in [26]. Several EEC models have been proposed for analysis of EIS data of biofilm
207 electrodes, see e.g. [15,21,26]. Yet, these differ significantly and there is no “gold standard” that is
208 generally applicable due to the heterogeneities of the experimental setups and biofilms. Therefore, it
209 is of high importance to always publish the used EEC model to enable the verification of presented
210 data. The values derived from EEC elements with direct physical meaning, e.g. resistor ($Z = R = \frac{E}{I}$) or
211 capacitor ($Z_c = \frac{1}{i\omega C}$) are relatively easy to interpret. Versatile EEC elements such as the CPE ($Z_{CPE} =$
212 $\frac{1}{(i\omega)^\alpha A_{CPE}}$) may enable fitting but have to be used with great care. The CPE parameters A and α are
213 frequency independent constants. If $\alpha = 1$, A represents a pure capacitor with $\varphi = -90^\circ$. For $\alpha = 0$
214 the CPE represents a resistor with $\varphi = 0^\circ$ and for $\alpha = -1$ an inductor with $\varphi = 90^\circ$ [21]. Furthermore,
215 semi-infinite linear diffusion can be described with a CPE using $\varphi = 45^\circ$ or $\alpha = 0.5$. This makes the
216 CPE a versatile element. However, fitting the CPE in an EEC without further information may not allow
217 to unravel detailed physical-chemical characteristics of the underlying processes. This disadvantage
218 turns into an advantage in the second case, where EIS is applied for condition monitoring of biofilm
219 electrodes. Here, the intention is not to decipher specific electrochemical processes but changes of
220 these processes and therefore allows to apply CPE in rather unspecific “grey box models”. Grey box
221 models are easier to develop and still allow determination of structural or functional changes of the
222 biofilm electrode such as the biofilm integrity (see Figure 2). Nevertheless, they are only applicable to
223 one specific setup and do not reveal specific numbers of, e.g. diffusion constants, resistance or
224 capacitance.

225 3.3. Data validation

226 When using EIS it is crucial to prove linearity, causality and stability of the system under observation
227 (see BOX 2). The Kramers-Kronig (K-K) relation is used by default for validation of EIS data
228 [13,23,30,31]. The K-K relation is the mathematical proof that the studied system fulfils the four
229 requirements of EIS by calculating Z_{Re} from Z_{Im} and vice versa. There exist several methods to carry
230 out K-K transformation in practice, some are described in [18]. Usually, software for EIS also contains
231 a K-K function for data validation. However, K-K transforms are only mathematical results that do not
232 reflect the real physical properties of the system [13] and are also sensitive for stochastic errors [18].

233 A much simpler but more robust alternative to the K-K transform is to perform a forward as well as
234 backward scan of the applied range of f , meaning performing EIS from high to low and from low to
235 high frequencies. Validity is confirmed in first approximation, if the results of the both scans are
236 identical. Unfortunately, K-K transforms, simple frequency scans and even simple replicates are rarely
237 reported for EIS on biofilm electrodes making it difficult to verify the published data.

238 **4. Conclusions**

239 EIS can be a valuable tool to study biofilm electrodes providing advantages over common DC methods.
240 Several pitfalls during application of EIS on biofilm electrodes and data evaluation define the need of
241 careful design of the experimental setup in order to avoid interference, e.g. by the electrode material
242 (capacitance) or stirring (diffusion). Furthermore, definition of measurement parameters such as
243 frequency range and electrode potential need care to assure linearity and stability. Here, frequency
244 range, amplitude of the perturbation signal and applied electrode potential are of specific interest, as
245 e.g. measurements at OCP requires time and careful experimentation to achieve steady state. Finally,
246 we highly recommend performing validation of EIS data of biofilm electrodes. It is a necessity to
247 improve and enhance the meaningful application of EIS in microbial electrochemistry. EIS allows to
248 derive parameters such as biofilm capacitance, charge transfer resistance or diffusion at biofilm
249 electrodes or in-situ monitoring of the biofilm integrity. For the latter it is worth to evaluate the
250 applicability of grey box models or the use of indirect or contactless EIS for biofilm characterization as
251 shown by Turick et al. [32]. Finally, we encourage to consider using EIS in a meaningful way to evaluate
252 biofilm electrodes or MET in general, e.g. for monitoring membrane fouling [33].

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302 The first ever-sound article on how to use EIS in microbial electrochemistry and microbial
303 electrochemical technologies is not only highly cited, but certainly still worth a good read. Especially
304 for the novices in the field

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307 As time invariance that is a prerequisite for conclusive EIS is hard to achieve on biofilm electrodes
308 fast time-domain measurements seem highly promising. This article provides a very informative
309 introduction on impedance measurements in time domain while highlighting potential limitations
310 like low precision and noise sensitivity jointly with solutions to overcome these.

- 311
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- 330 The chapter provides the most comprehensive systematic information to EIS on MET that goes far
331 beyond this contribution. It also represents a convenient introduction to the overall topic including,
332 e.g., basics of EIS, practical examples for data interpretation and validation.
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