

## Perspectives of surface plasmonic resonance optical fibre sensors for anaerobic digestion

Jacob Lamb, Olivier Bernard, Shiplu Sarker, Kristian Lien, Dag Roar Hjelme

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1 Perspectives of surface plasmonic resonance optical fibre sensors for anaerobic  
2 digestion

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4 Jacob J. Lamb<sup>1</sup>, Olivier Bernard<sup>2</sup>, Shiplu Sarker<sup>3</sup>, Kristian M. Lien<sup>4</sup> & Dag Roar Hjelme<sup>1</sup>

5

6 <sup>1</sup>Department of Electronic Systems & ENERSENSE, NTNU, Trondheim, Norway

7 <sup>2</sup>BIOCORE, Biological control of artificial ecosystems, Université Côte d'Azur, Inria, INRA,  
8 Sophia-Antipolis, France

9 <sup>3</sup>Department of Manufacturing and Civil Engineering, NTNU, Gjøvik, Norway

10 <sup>4</sup>Department of Energy and Process Engineering & ENERSENSE, NTNU, Trondheim,  
11 Norway

12

13 **Corresponding author**

14 jacob.j.lamb@ntnu.no

15

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## 37 **1 Abstract**

38 Biogas production is becoming significantly viable as an energy source for replacing fossil-  
39 based fuels. The further development of the biogas production process could lead to  
40 significant improvements in its potential. The improvement of anaerobic digestion detection  
41 technologies is the cornerstone to reach higher methane productivities and develop fully  
42 automatized processes to decrease operational costs. New sensors are requested to automatic  
43 obtain a better interpretation of the complex and dynamical internal reactor environment. This  
44 will require detailed systematic detection in order to realise a near-optimal production  
45 process. There is currently a disparity between the complexity of anaerobic digestion, and on-  
46 line detection. By improving the durability, sensitivity and cost of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> sensor  
47 technology, further understanding of the anaerobic digestion process may allow the  
48 prevention of process failure. Furthermore, the detection of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> directly in the liquid  
49 phase would drastically reduce the time for distinguishing an imbalance in the microbial  
50 community. The emergence of surface plasmonic resonance (SPR) sensing with optical fibres  
51 coupled with the H<sub>2</sub>-sensitive metal palladium, allows detection of dissolved hydrogen in  
52 liquid. By implementing these SPR sensors into anaerobic digestion, improvements to the  
53 biogas production process, even at small scales, may be achieved by guided the process in the  
54 optimum direction, avoiding the collapse of the biological process. This review intends to  
55 assess the feasibility of on-line, cost-effective, rapid, and efficient detection of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> in  
56 anaerobic digestion by SPR.

57

## 58 **2 Introduction**

59 One route to production of renewable, clean energy is through biogas production, where  
60 biogas is derived from organic waste materials. The production of biogas is achieved through  
61 the anaerobic digestion (AD) of the organic waste materials by various microorganisms (1).  
62 Another route to renewable, clean energy is the so-called Power-to-Gas route, where surplus  
63 renewable electrical energy is used to produce  $H_2$  by electrolysis. However,  $H_2$  utilisation is  
64 facing unsolved bottlenecks related to  $H_2$  transport and storage. An attractive alternative to  $H_2$   
65 distribution is to convert  $H_2$  to methane in a biological methanation process (2,3). Methane  
66 has a much higher volumetric energy content than  $H_2$  and thus a lower storage transport cost,  
67 and can be distributed in existing natural gas infrastructure (4). By utilising the methanation  
68 process,  $H_2$  can be used to reduce the  $CO_2$  in the biogas produced (2,3). A promising  
69 approach is to input  $H_2$  to the biogas reactor such that the methanation takes place within the  
70 reactor (2). However, increasing the concentration of dissolved  $H_2$  in the reactor can inhibit  
71 the production of biogas and accumulate VFAs, and in the worst case cause the whole  
72 biological process to collapse (5).

73 Due to the complexity of the biogas production process, it is not always straight-forward to  
74 determine the state of the AD process from measuring the chemical variables within the  
75 digester (1). Despite this, the hydrogen content of produced biogas is a very sensitive  
76 indication of imbalance between microbial groups within the digester (6–8). Although  
77 hydrogen is straightforward to measure in the gas-phase, dissolved hydrogen in the liquid  
78 phase is considered more appropriate as the liquid to gas mass transfer of hydrogen introduces  
79 a significant delay in detection (9). Therefore, dissolved  $H_2$  is recognised as a better approach  
80 to an early warning indicator and an excellent complement to VFA monitoring (5). Dissolved  
81  $H_2$  concentrations are, therefore, required control parameters for biogas production  
82 monitoring and utilising  $H_2$  for further methanation of  $CO_2$  (2,3). It is essential that dissolved  
83  $H_2$  be monitored closely to gain an understanding of the current biological process within the  
84 digester.

85 Cost-effective sensor technologies for monitoring and analysis of  $H_2$  within the reactor are  
86 crucial for improving efficiency, productivity and cost of biogas production in many plants.  
87 There are many methods for achieving monitoring of a variety of parameters within  
88 bioreactors. These may rely on sample extraction, but in some cases, the sensor can be

89 interfaced directly with the internal environment of the bioreactor. Despite this, there are still  
90 improvements required to make ideal sensors for the measurement of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> within the  
91 biogas production process. Ideally, a monitoring system must have cost-effective, accurate,  
92 specific, stable and sensitive sensors, which can send data to software programs for analysis.  
93 This data can then be computationally analysed, allowing the correlation of the sensor data to  
94 a specific parameter or process model. Furthermore, with the increase in small-scale plants,  
95 there is a significant demand for sensor technologies that do not have an associated high cost.

96 In this review, contemporary sensor technologies that can combine AD with on-line sensor  
97 technologies focusing on dissolved H<sub>2</sub> are discussed and compared to current industry  
98 methods. The contemporary technologies presented have the potential for improving the  
99 efficiency, economic costs and productivity of biogas plants, as well as allowing on-line  
100 dissolved H<sub>2</sub> monitoring to facilitate H<sub>2</sub> injection for methane upgradation.

### 101 **3 Sensors Requirements for State of an Anaerobic Digester** 102 **Determination**

103 There are distinctive ways that sensors can be fused into the AD plant to satisfy the on-line  
104 observing prerequisite. The sensors utilized for estimations of factors inside an AD plant can  
105 require the extraction of digestate from the bioreactor, filtration and external sampling (at-line  
106 sensor), the sensor to be located inside the digester (in-line sensor), or to be removed from the  
107 digester and sampled in a lab (disconnected sensor) (10).

108 The in-line sensors must be impervious to pressure (somewhat above atmospheric pressure)  
109 and temperature (somewhere in the range of 35°C and 55°C), as well as having the capacity to  
110 be cleaned. Also, they must be significantly impervious to obstruction by fouling. Ideal  
111 sensors must provide proper detection quality, having high precision, specificity and  
112 sensitivity. The collected information must then automatically be processed and used in the  
113 supervision system. The figured estimations should deliver consistency and be steadiness  
114 despite changes in medium changes in biological or chemical contents. In practice, the  
115 benefits of the sensor in terms of increasing process reliability and efficiency must be  
116 compared to its price, including manpower requirement for human intervention (setup,  
117 calibration, cleaning).

118 For live, on-line detection of an AD plant to be valuable, the reaction time of the sensors is a  
119 critical trademark (10). Even though the delay of measurements is explicit to every sensor and  
120 application, the time required to acquire an outcome must be small (< 10 minutes) concerning  
121 the biological dynamics within the digester. All the more explicitly, the time required to  
122 acquire a sensor outcome will depend altogether on the retention time of the AD reactor,  
123 duration of analysis and the dead volume of the filtration framework utilised. Also, it must be  
124 a lot quicker than the time required for the gathering of H<sub>2</sub> to happen to distinguish and avoid  
125 a stress event. With this in mind, the sensor framework must be tailored to the procedure with  
126 satisfactory sampling locations. Otherwise, the low effectiveness of the process control will  
127 occur (11).

128 The location of the sensor inside the digester is fundamental, as the digester can be  
129 homogeneous or inhomogeneous. This depends mainly on the feedstock type, process size  
130 and AD technologies. Also, there are AD methods that have intended inhomogeneous  
131 chemical gradients inside the reactor (e.g., up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) &  
132 fluidised bed reactors), and this is exacerbated with the expansion of reactor size. Despite this,  
133 if the digestate is homogeneous, the sensor can be set anywhere inside the bioreactor, and the  
134 signal from the sensor will represent the real state; however, if it is significantly  
135 inhomogeneous, several sensors might be required to decipher the state of the digester  
136 completely.

137 There are three primary phases (solid, liquid and gas), inside an AD plant. These phases have  
138 diverse properties, factors and prerequisites when considering in-line sensors. The liquid  
139 phase of the anaerobic digester is an intricate blend of different microorganisms, substrates,  
140 nutrients, products, metabolites and dissolved gases. Because of the diffusion rate of  
141 components from liquid to gas, it is attractive to make estimations specifically from the liquid  
142 phase of the digester. This can decrease the lag time between changes in the AD biological  
143 dynamics and identification of these changes.

## 144 **4 Traditional H<sub>2</sub> Detection**

### 145 **4.1 Dissolved H<sub>2</sub> detection**

146

147 Dissolved H<sub>2</sub> produced in AD has long been recognised as an early warning indicator and an  
148 excellent complement to VFA monitoring (5,9). Additionally, the *in situ* hydrogen injection  
149 into the anaerobic digester is a promising process aimed at increasing the biogas methane  
150 content, at the expense of the CO<sub>2</sub> content. It has been hypothesised that adding hydrogen  
151 directly into the anaerobic digester may change microbial community composition promoting  
152 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis pathways (12). This enhances the biological production of  
153 methane by 20-40% (2,13), potentially achieving a purity of up to 90% (12,14–16) when  
154 combined with *ex situ* upgrading. This allows existing biogas plants to be utilised for H<sub>2</sub>,  
155 eliminating the need for hydrogen storage (which can be of safety concern) (17). Despite this,  
156 dissolved H<sub>2</sub> can potentially inhibit production of methane, and in the worst case cause the  
157 whole biological process to collapse (5). Moreover, injection of H<sub>2</sub> to a level exceeding a 4:1  
158 stoichiometric ratio between H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> tends to deplete CO<sub>2</sub> resulting in the rise of pH (13),  
159 and inhibiting the autotrophic hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis process (18). Furthermore,  
160 the oxidation of acetate towards methane production is only thermodynamically favourable  
161 when the partial pressure of H<sub>2</sub> is below 74 Pa (19,20). Therefore, dissolved H<sub>2</sub> must be  
162 monitored continually, especially if H<sub>2</sub> is directly injected into the anaerobic digester for  
163 methane upgradation.

164 Since the critical concentration of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> is only 74 Pa (19,20) and difficult to measure,  
165 the concentration of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> in anaerobic biogas production is currently calculated from  
166 a gas fraction of H<sub>2</sub> detected in the gas phase of the digester. However, due to the limited H<sub>2</sub>  
167 mass-transfer coefficient, there is a significant time delay between an increase in H<sub>2</sub>  
168 concentration in the liquid and an increase in the gas phase of the digester. Such time delays  
169 represent a severe limitation for optimal process control (5,9). Extraction techniques designed  
170 for off-line dissolved H<sub>2</sub> monitoring are time-consuming and not an option for the rapid  
171 process control desired. Other techniques based on the transfer of H<sub>2</sub> from the liquid through a  
172 gas-permeable membrane followed by gas phase quantification (gas chromatography or mass  
173 spectrometry), are considered too sophisticated and expensive for on-line monitoring.  
174 Therefore, there is a definite need for an effective, reliable, and cost-effective sensor for  
175 continuous on-line monitoring of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> in anaerobic bioprocesses.

#### 176 **4.1 Gas-Phase Detection**

177 Detection of H<sub>2</sub> gas in the headspace of the anaerobic digester is straight-forward to measure  
178 but is delayed significantly due to the mass-transfer coefficient of H<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the main



179 drawback of the detection in the headspace is that sudden changes in dissolved H<sub>2</sub> levels will  
180 not be detected for some time, and, therefore, process failure could occur before any signals  
181 of an H<sub>2</sub> increase are detected. Despite this, membrane-covered Clark-type electrodes can be  
182 adapted to measure H<sub>2</sub> in the headspace of the reactor, with negligible biofouling of the  
183 membrane occurring when in gas-phase. Thermal conductivity sensors like those provided by  
184 BlueSens (BlueSens, Germany) can also gauge the concentration of H<sub>2</sub> gas in the headspace.  
185 These sensors use a small heated filament to detect thermal conductivity of the gases in  
186 simple gas mixtures, allowing the determination of the percentage of specific gases of interest  
187 within a mixture.

188 Palladium metal oxide semiconductor (Pd-MOS) sensors have also been studied for their  
189 suitability for H<sub>2</sub> detection in the gas phase of AD (21). The palladium can become palladium  
190 hydride in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>, a rapid and reversible reaction that can alter the conductivity of  
191 the metal and used to determine the ppm of H<sub>2</sub>. Alternatively, gas chromatography (GC)  
192 instruments equipped with thermal conductivity detectors can be used to determine H<sub>2</sub> (8).  
193 GC is a very accurate method of H<sub>2</sub> detection in the gas phase and is regularly used as a  
194 reference measurement technique for all other H<sub>2</sub> detection methods.

## 195 **4.2 Liquid-Phase Detection**

196 H<sub>2</sub> can be detected using a membrane-covered Clark-type electrode (22) in the liquid phase as  
197 well. There are extraction and H<sub>2</sub> permeable membrane methods designed for dissolved H<sub>2</sub>  
198 monitoring within the digester, but these can be expensive and time-consuming processes.  
199 The membrane requiring Clark-type electrodes can be used for on-line monitoring of  
200 dissolved H<sub>2</sub> in the liquid-phase, which relies on the oxidation of H<sub>2</sub> at a Pt electrode and  
201 dissociation of molecular hydrogen at a Pd electrode (23,24). Unfortunately, these are prone  
202 to biofouling on the membrane surface. Once biofouling occurs, the measurements from this  
203 type of electrode are mostly unreliable, and, therefore, the membrane must regularly be  
204 replaced to avoid this. So far all reported electrochemical sensors for H<sub>2</sub> detection suffer from  
205 membrane fouling resulting in a short lifetime, low selectivity and low signal-to-noise ratio  
206 (24). Although these Clark-type sensors can operate at room temperature, temperature  
207 fluctuations must also be taken into account to maintain correct O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> calculations (25).

208 Measurements of dissolved hydrogen can also be performed using hydrogen microsensors  
209 like those provided by Unisense (Unisense A/S, Denmark). Microsensors allow H<sub>2</sub> to diffuse  
210 from the internal liquid phase of the anaerobic digester through a silicone membrane to a

211 platinum anode that is polarized against an internal reference. The current between the  
212 palladium electrode and the reference is linearly indicative of the dissolved hydrogen at the  
213 tip of the sensor. The current change is in the picoamp range and is measured using a  
214 picoammeter. An alternative method for dissolved H<sub>2</sub> detection was described by Björnsson et  
215 al. (2001). Here, a liquid-to-gas membrane was utilised to extract dissolved H<sub>2</sub> from the liquid  
216 phase, through a Teflon membrane placed in the internal environment of the anaerobic  
217 digester. The H<sub>2</sub> was then detected using a Pd-MOS sensor (26).

### 218 **4.3 Remarks**

219 The methods outlined here suffer from disadvantages including sample preparation,  
220 contamination and biofouling. GC is a real proven alternative at very high accuracy, but  
221 requires advanced systems for auto-sampling, transfer of the sample and filtering, and  
222 requires a significant amount of time to obtain a measurement. Forms of ultrafiltration are  
223 required for liquid phase detection to produce a clear particle-free sample for GC and  
224 electrochemical detection methods. This filtration will result in biofouling in the long term, a  
225 property that must be considered when using such methods for detection in the liquid phase.

226 Measurements undertaken in the gas phase of the reactor have limited issues with biofouling  
227 of filtration systems; however, the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S in the biogas massively reduces the  
228 sensitivity of the sensor systems (21). Additionally, the mass-transfer rate of H<sub>2</sub> from the  
229 liquid phase to the gas phase is prolonged, resulting in significant delays when detecting H<sub>2</sub>  
230 spikes in the AD process (9).

## 231 **5 Software Sensors**

232 Using mathematical approaches, information provided by on-line sensor systems can be  
233 extended. The two strategies for achieving this are based on methods of data analysis and the  
234 representation of the dynamics of the plant by mathematical models.

### 235 **5.1 Observers**

236 The incorporation of software sensors with on-line sensor systems allows the prediction of the  
237 biological process state by estimating non-measured variables. In the case of dissolved H<sub>2</sub>  
238 measurements, estimations of the dominating microbial processes within the reactor can be  
239 made. Additionally, software sensor systems are a vital supporting component of closed-loop  
240 central strategies. These approaches are also known as state observers or state estimators, and

241 have a large amount of theoretical background. Assimilation of the real-time on-line  
242 measured variable(s) can be combined with the theoretical knowledge base of the AD process  
243 through a mathematical model allowing the prediction of variables that have a low frequency  
244 or no sampling. Depending on the desired accuracy, the frequency of sampling, sensor  
245 information quality and frequency of sampling, different strategies for the design of an  
246 appropriate software sensor can be applied.

247 Linear frameworks, or extensions thereof, are popular approaches to software sensing. The  
248 most known algorithms for achieving software sensors are based on extended Kalman filters  
249 (EKF) and extended Luenberger observers (ELO) (27). Despite their popularity, the required  
250 local linear approximation of the process model reduces the certainties of the stability and  
251 convergence properties for wide operating ranges. Furthermore, perfect knowledge of the  
252 model and its parameters are assumed by these algorithms, allowing the approach to be  
253 sensitive to any inaccuracy within the model parameters.

254 To reduce the dependency of the algorithms on parameter uncertainty, different strategies  
255 have been developed by using the mass balance information from the reactor as the base of  
256 the estimation scheme. Although mass balance only represents the process partially, it can  
257 robustly deal with any missing information. Moreover, estimates of kinetics for some  
258 processes in the model can be achieved with the support of gaseous flow rates using  
259 asymptotic observers (28). These methods can achieve a linear observer by relying on  
260 changes of variables cancelling nonlinear terms within the process (29). However, the dilution  
261 rate controls the convergence rate when utilising asymptotic observers. Simultaneous  
262 estimating of model parameters and the state of the process can be performed with adaptive  
263 observers (30). Alternatively, using the process model and its known parameters allows the  
264 tailoring of nonlinear observers with the nonlinearity of the process accounted for by the  
265 algorithm (31). A significant limitation of the implementation and calibration of such  
266 observer algorithms is their inherent complexity.

267 Internal observers offer a flexible method by providing guaranteed estimate intervals where  
268 the state of the variable lies, avoiding reconstruction of precise numerical values (32,33). This  
269 has been observed successfully for use in AD (34,35). Due to the uncertainty of  
270 concentrations in the influent, this parameter is inherently difficult to use to estimate the  
271 process accurately. To overcome this, an algorithm that simultaneously estimates the influent  
272 concentrations using both input and state observers has been shown to alleviate this drawback

273 (36). Further development of these observers has resulted in their extension to handle spatial  
274 distributions within the anaerobic digester (37,38).

## 275 **6 Emerging SPR Sensor Technologies**

276 More recently, various optical sensor principles have been proposed for H<sub>2</sub> monitoring (39–  
277 51). Sensors based on the H<sub>2</sub> uptake in palladium appear particularly promising. The volume  
278 expansion of palladium films or nanoparticles caused by metal-hydride formation can be  
279 measured very accurately using optical techniques (39,40,44,47,49,50). Additionally, the  
280 surface plasmon resonance (SPR) of gold (when coupled to palladium in a layer stack), can be  
281 measured accurately, with the plasmon resonance frequency being modulated by the  
282 hydrogenation of the palladium layer (43,45,48).

283 SPR sensors exploit the interaction of incident electromagnetic waves with the oscillation of  
284 the plasmon wave of a material (e.g., gold). When the momentum of incident electromagnetic  
285 waves matches the momentum of the surface plasmon waves in the gold, the electromagnetic  
286 waves are coupled to the plasmon wave and are diminished (FIG??). The frequency of the  
287 plasmon wave can be altered by changes in the materials used, therefore changing the  
288 wavelength of incident electromagnetic waves absorbed. An example of this is the use of a  
289 bare, cladding-less optical fibre with a gold and palladium layer-stack (Fig). The incident  
290 electromagnetic wave interacts with the plasmon wave on the surface of the gold layer.  
291 Furthermore, this plasmon wave can be modulated by changes in the permittivity of the gold.

292 By adding an H<sub>2</sub>-sensitive layer of palladium, the formation of palladium hydride effects the  
293 electrical field of the gold, changing its permittivity, and changing the momentum of the  
294 surface plasmon resonance of the gold. The interaction of the incident electromagnetic waves  
295 with the gold will be changed, causing different electromagnetic waves to be diminished.  
296 Using spectroscopic methods, this will culminate in a shift in apparent absorption of  
297 electromagnetic waves as a consequence of H<sub>2</sub> presence.

298 In order to engineer an SPR-based sensor with palladium as the sensing material for use in the  
299 liquid phase of an anaerobic digester, the thicknesses of the gold and palladium layers, and  
300 the incident angle of the light to the layers must be considered. Using a straight-forward  
301 model accounting for the refractive indexes of the silicon optical fibre, gold, palladium and  
302 water, a considerable variation in sensor ability is observed as a function of the incident angle

303 (FIG). This is also apparent with varied thicknesses of the two metal layers (FIG). To achieve  
304 a dissolved H<sub>2</sub> sensor with high sensitivity and high signal using only gold and palladium  
305 metal layers, an incident angle of XX, with metal thicknesses of XX of gold and XX of  
306 palladium is required. Although the thickness of the metal is straight-forward to achieve with  
307 sputtering deposition techniques, the angle of incidence requires further design  
308 considerations.

309 The metal layers can be deposited on the side surface of the fibre. Increases in the incident  
310 light angle can be performed on such designs by placing the optical fibre in a d-loop (Fig), or  
311 by using a Bragg grating fibres (Fig). This will allow the incident light angle to be optimised  
312 for coupling of the electromagnetic wave to the SPR wave of the gold layer. Alternatively, the  
313 metal layer stack can be deposited on the end-tip of a fibre, acting as a mirror (Fig). With the  
314 use of a multimode fibre, this will allow the electromagnetic wave to achieve coupling with  
315 the SPR wave of the gold layer. Furthermore, the metal layer stack could be deposited onto a  
316 transparent patch and installed on the internal space of the reactor behind a glass window.  
317 Probing of the sensor patch would then be achieved using an external optical fibre, reducing  
318 complexity and cost.

## 319 **7 Calibration of SPR Sensors**

320 With using palladium as the sensing material, the selectivity for hydrogen is very high.  
321 Therefore, calibration can be achieved straightforwardly by use of GC measurements of  
322 hydrogen concentration in the liquid phase.

323 Before a palladium-based SPR sensor can be utilised, the consistency and accuracy of the  
324 sensor must be confirmed. Different SPR sensor datasets must be comparable to establish  
325 successful data analysis. A variety of pre-processing methods can be applied to the data sets  
326 to achieve this. Some examples include deviation (52), filtering (53) normalisation,  
327 standardisation, centring, weighing and scaling (54) of the data sets. Pre-processing is a  
328 powerful and sensitive component in data analysis (55), where consideration of the chosen  
329 method is required depending on the type of data used. The exclusion of irrelevant data is also  
330 a pre-processing method that is essential. This can be achieved by normalisation or baseline  
331 subtraction/correction. Matching of the data set to known dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
332 determined by GC can then be performed.

## 333 **8. Promising Perspectives of SPR Sensors in AD**

334 SPR sensors are advantageous as they can also be applied to other variables revealing the  
335 internal state of the complex anaerobic process. Acetic acid is a VFA that can be produced  
336 during certain stages within the AD of biomass. At high concentrations, it will inhibit the  
337 activity of many microorganisms within the digester (REF NEEDED). Using SPR  
338 technologies, measurements can be made of acetic acid with the receptor dye aluminium  
339 phthalocyanine chloride deposited on a layer of gold (56). This design has been shown to  
340 sense acetic acid in a liquid environment (56), suggesting its adaptation into AD may provide  
341 an accurate only measurement of acetic acid.

342 By utilising colloidal copper nanoparticles, detection of ammonia concentrations have been  
343 observed utilising SPR (57). By suspending colloidal copper nanoparticles in a solgel on a  
344 transparent disk behind an observation window within the digester, direct measurements of  
345 ammonia levels would be possible by external probing of the sensor disk with an optical fibre.

346 Methane concentration is usually measured in the gas-phase of the digester; however, it is  
347 also possible to measure this variable within the liquid-phase of the digester. By depositing a  
348 layer of modified polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) polymer that contains cryptophane-A  
349 molecules as the receptor, on top of a layer of gold, methane may be detected using SPR (58).  
350 This detection is due to the selective, yet reversible, affinity of cryptophane-A to methane.

351 The  $H_2S$  must be removed from the exhaust gases by bio-filtration methods. It is imperative  
352 that the post-filtration gas has no  $H_2S$  component, and therefore, this gas must be monitored  
353 continuously. Titanium oxide is known to react with  $H_2S$ , producing titanium sulphide. This  
354 reaction has been observed to cause a change in the resonance frequency of the surface  
355 electrons of silver (59). The resonance can then interfere with incident light, as a function of  
356 the  $H_2S$  concentration in the gas.

357 Although these variables have been detected using developed surface plasmon detection  
358 techniques, they are all yet to be adapted for utilisation in an anaerobic digester.

## 359 **9 Perspective and Challenges for the Developments of SPR** 360 **Sensors**

361 The main limitations for palladium-based SPR sensors detecting dissolved  $H_2$  in an AD are  
362 palladium poisoning by  $H_2S$ , biofouling and the chemical complexity of the digestate.  
363 Moreover, the repeatability of the data from the sensor in a specific digester may change as a  
364 result of influent changes, and the comparability between different digestors with different  
365 feedstocks may also be a challenge. This can be due to a variety of reasons were certain  
366 unknowns within a complex mixture affect the dissolved hydrogen detection of the palladium-  
367 based SPR sensor.

368  $H_2S$  is produced in small quantities in AD and has a negative effect on the sensitivity of  
369 palladium to  $H_2$ . Interferences of  $H_2S$  to palladium is partly reversible, but to some extent, it  
370 is irreversible (21). This has to be considered when developing a mathematical model for the  
371 sensor, as the level of poisoning will have some dynamic trend due to  $H_2S$  poisoning being  
372 partly reversible. Sample preprocessing is also possible by significantly increasing the pH of  
373 the sample to remove  $H_2S$ ; however, this is not desirable as it adds another step to the  
374 detection of  $H_2$ .

375 As with many sensor systems placed inside the liquid phase of an anaerobic digester,  
376 biofouling is a real limitation. There are plenty of methods for filtration of samples available  
377 that significantly reduce biofouling on the sensor at the cost of filter biofouling. An  
378 alternative is to utilise thin non-stick films of XXX on top of the palladium layer, to limit  
379 fouling of the sensor. Additionally, by allowing the sensor patch to be replaceable, the sensor  
380 could easily be replaced routinely without replacing any of the other components within the  
381 sensor setup.

382 Despite this, the selectivity of palladium for  $H_2$  in such a complex mixture allows many  
383 variables within the digestate to be ignored by this sensor. Therefore, the ability for the sensor  
384 to detect a rapid rise in dissolved  $H_2$  (irrespective of providing an entirely accurate  
385 concentration measurement), would allow rapid altercations to be made to avoid biological  
386 inhibition and potential biological process collapse. This will give the controller of the plant  
387 valuable time to rectify the biological process, by eliminating the delay in  $H_2$  detection in the  
388 gas phase due to the slow mass transfer of  $H_2$  between liquid and gas phases.

389 Optically-based SPR sensors integrated directly into the AD would result in rapid on-line  
390 dissolved  $H_2$  detection within the liquid phase. Direct integration of these sensors (whether  
391 directly placed within the reactor, or behind an observation window), and negligible time

392 required to achieve sensor-H<sub>2</sub> interactions, will allow instantaneous measurements of the  
393 dissolved H<sub>2</sub> within the anaerobic digester. The development of an on-line sensor system  
394 based on SPR sensors for detection of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> for use in AD, coupled with automated  
395 post-treatment of the sensor data sets is a realistic alternative to traditional H<sub>2</sub> detection  
396 methods as.

## 397 **10 Concluding Remarks**

398 Current AD plants require sensor advances that permit the estimation of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> on-line,  
399 not only in large-scale plants but in small scale plants also. These advances will give the  
400 operators of AD plants the possibility to acquire not only a higher comprehension of the  
401 perplexing dynamics inside the AD plant but additionally foresee the heading of the reactor.  
402 Traditional variable estimations required extensive and sophisticated instrumentation.  
403 Additionally, with difficult extraction and preparation, experts are required leading to  
404 increased expenses. These costly, for the most part, off-line procedures are highly accurate,  
405 albeit typically do not depict an altogether precise display of the interior AD plant condition  
406 due to the potential time delay in obtaining the information. New sensor frameworks for  
407 detecting the internal dissolved H<sub>2</sub> condition of an AD plant must most likely show high  
408 sensitivity, specificity and precision while keeping up the practicality of an on-line  
409 information stream.

410 New sensor frameworks may expect parts to be disposable (e.g., SPR sensor patches);  
411 however, they must be able to achieve comparable detection attributes between disposable  
412 parts. The lifetime of such sensor segments like the sensor patches might be short in  
413 traditional terms; however, must be low-cost so they can be replaced as required. These  
414 sensors must be simple, small and isolated to encourage this. SPR optical-based sensor  
415 advances for liquid phase dissolved H<sub>2</sub> detection can fulfil the necessities as future on-line  
416 biogas sensors, and will fundamentally avoid the identification delay as seen with traditional  
417 gas-phase detection.



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423

424 **Figures**

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426 **References**

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