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9 **Microbial communities from different types of natural wastewater treatment systems:**  
10 **vertical and horizontal flow constructed wetlands and biofilters.**

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32

33 **Abstract**

34

35 The prokaryotic microbial communities (Bacteria and Archaea) of three different systems  
36 operating in Denmark for the treatment of domestic wastewater (horizontal flow constructed  
37 wetlands (HFCW), vertical flow constructed wetlands (VFCW) and biofilters (BF)) was  
38 analysed using endpoint PCR followed by Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE).  
39 Further sequencing of the most representative bacterial bands revealed that diverse and  
40 distinct bacterial communities were found in each system unit, being  $\gamma$ -Proteobacteria and  
41 Bacteroidetes present mainly in all of them, while Firmicutes was observed in HFCW and BF.  
42 Members of the Actinobacteria group, although found in HFCW and VFCW, seemed to be  
43 more abundant in BF units. Finally, some representatives of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\delta$ -Proteobacteria,  
44 Acidobacteria and Chloroflexi were also retrieved from some samples. On the other hand, a  
45 lower archaeal diversity was found in comparison with the bacterial population. Cluster  
46 analysis of the DGGE bacterial band patterns showed that community structure was related to  
47 the design of the treatment system and the organic matter load, while no clear relation was  
48 established between the microbial assemblage and the wastewater influent.

49

50 Keywords: microbial community, PCR-DGGE, domestic wastewater, constructed wetlands,  
51 biofilters.

52

## 53 **1. Introduction**

54

55 Natural wastewater treatment systems such as constructed wetlands, biological sand filters  
56 and other decentralised solutions are becoming an increasingly relevant alternative to  
57 conventional systems when treating wastewater from small communities and dwellings due to  
58 its efficiency, low establishment costs and low operation and management requirements. In  
59 order to treat wastewater effectively, several factors have to be taken into account, e.g. the  
60 system's capacity, the plant species used, colonization characteristics of certain microbial  
61 groups, and the interactions of biogenic compounds and particular contaminants (wastewater  
62 components) with the filter bed material (Stottmeister, 2003). Although filtration is  
63 considered an important process in these removal mechanisms, additional interactions occur  
64 among media, plants and water. Many processes and relations between them take place:  
65 microbial-mediated processes, chemical networks, volatilization, sedimentation, sorption,  
66 photodegradation, plant uptake, transpiration flux and accretion (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009).  
67 The importance of microbial processes has been further studied as many reactions are  
68 microbiologically mediated (Stottmeister 2003, Kadlec and Wallace, 2009).

69

70 The most stable microbiota in these systems is found in the biofilm associated to the plant's  
71 roots and/or attached to the surface of the filter bed material. This complex microbial  
72 community created by interactions with wastewater, is mainly responsible for the degradation  
73 performance of the system (Sleytr et al., 2009). Furthermore, the diversity of microorganisms  
74 in this environment may be critical for its proper functioning and maintenance (Ibekwe,  
75 2003). To improve the design of these systems, a detailed knowledge of the structure of these  
76 communities should be acquired in order to understand the biological processes that are  
77 taking place within them (Truu et al., 2009, Dong and Reddy, 2010). Recently, several studies  
78 have characterized microbial populations in laboratory scale units, sand filters and full scale  
79 constructed wetlands under specific conditions (Ragusa et al., 2004, Vacca et al., 2005,  
80 Baptista et al., 2008, Calheiros et al., 2009, Krasnits et al., 2009, Sleytr et al., 2009, Zhang et  
81 al., 2010, Dong and Reddy, 2010). However, there is a general lack of information on the  
82 diversity and changes of the microbial communities in long-term operation systems treating  
83 domestic wastewater at real time scale (Krasnits et al., 2009).

84

85 Increased removal efficiency of nitrogen from wastewater is one of the key issues for further  
86 development of constructed wetlands and other decentralised technologies. The diversity of  
87 microorganisms involved in the N-cycle is expected to be high in these systems. In fact,  
88 previous studies have suggested that archaeal nitrifiers, denitrifying fungi, aerobic

89 denitrifying bacteria and heterotrophic nitrifying microorganisms may play an important role  
90 in nitrogen transformations in constructed wetlands (Truu et al., 2005). Most importantly, the  
91 effects of biofilms on nitrogen transformation and removal have not been adequately studied  
92 and modelled. As microorganisms affect processes like nitrification, denitrification, uptake,  
93 and sedimentation, they have to be taken into consideration when modelling the  
94 transformation and removal of nitrogen from wastewater (Mayo and Bigambo, 2004). Thus, a  
95 first step for establishing the role of biological communities in N-removal in constructed  
96 wetlands is to evaluate the diversity of microorganisms under different conditions and  
97 systems. With this purpose recent studies have introduced the characterization of bacterial  
98 communities by means of molecular methods based on 16S rRNA gene analysis (Sleytr,  
99 2009).

100

101 The aim of this study was to compare the composition of microbial communities of three  
102 different types of domestic wastewater treatment systems used in Denmark: Horizontal Flow  
103 Constructed Wetlands (HFCW), Vertical Flow Constructed Wetlands (VFCW) and Biofilters  
104 (BF, with combined configurations of vertical or horizontal flow) using the PCR-DGGE  
105 based method. The systems were composed of different bed filling media, namely soil, sand  
106 and LWA (lightweight aggregate). In this work, we enlarged the microbial analysis by  
107 analyzing both the bacterial and archaeal populations, focusing in the possible influence of the  
108 water influent composition, the design and the bed filling of the treatment systems in the  
109 structure of these microbial communities.

110

## 111 **2. Material and methods**

112

### 113 *2.1 Site description*

114

115 The wastewater treatment systems (WWTS) investigated were rural facilities used in  
116 Denmark for the treatment of domestic wastewaters. All the systems were built following  
117 Danish guidelines and comply with Danish wastewater discharge standards (for details see  
118 Brix and Arias, 2005). The layout of all the studied systems included a primary treatment  
119 step, using a sedimentation tank with a hydraulic residence time proportional to the number of  
120 people served and a minimum of 2 m<sup>3</sup>. The second treatment step differs depending on the  
121 system chosen by the users among an array of technical possibilities approved by the Danish  
122 EPA.

123 Three types of systems were selected for the study: two horizontal flow constructed wetlands  
124 (HFCW) with soil beds, two vertical flow constructed wetlands (VFCW) with sand bed and

125 two LWA Biofilters (BF) fitted with a Filtralite-P<sup>®</sup> bed for the removal of phosphorous  
126 (Jenssen et al., 2010). The systems differed in flow configuration, operational and bed media  
127 characteristics.

128

129 The HFCWs studied have been operational for over 20 years. The systems were built  
130 following national guidelines (Miljøministeriet Miljøstyrelsen, 1990) and were composed of  
131 two soil filled beds operating in parallel with the necessary structures for distribution and  
132 collection of domestic water. After the treatment water was discharged to nearby  
133 watercourses (for details see Brix et al., 2009).

134

135 VFCWs were also built following the Danish design and construction guidelines  
136 (Miljøministeriet Miljøstyrelsen 2005). The domestic wastewater was pre-treated in a  
137 sedimentation tank; after that, water was loaded sequentially on the system surface at a rate of  
138 approx. 20 pulses/d to an unsaturated bed filled with sand, where it was homogeneously  
139 distributed in the surface trickling vertically. Once the water percolated through a one meter  
140 deep bed, it was collected at the bottom and evacuated. In order to improve the water quality,  
141 and enhance denitrification capacity, treated water was recycled back to the pumping well in  
142 one of the two systems studied, where conditions should favour the process (for details see  
143 Brix and Arias, 2005).

144

145 BFs are media filled systems that combine unsaturated conditions and a water saturated bed.  
146 The first section of the system operates unsaturated; it is housed in a fibreglass dome filled  
147 with a lightweight aggregate (LWA) from which wastewater is pumped at a rate of around 25  
148 pulses/day. The second step of the treatment system involves the flow of water through a  
149 saturated bed filled with Filtralite -P<sup>®</sup> media, which is a LWA product chemically enriched,  
150 specifically engineered for phosphorus removal (see details in Jenssen et al., 2010). Different  
151 wastewater treatment systems studied are shown in Figure 1 and their operational and design  
152 characteristics are shown in Table 1.

153

154 The flow conditions within the systems control the oxygen availability and therefore, anoxic  
155 conditions predominated in saturated HFCWs while oxic conditions prevail in VFCWs  
156 (Vymazal et al., 2006; Brix and Arias, 2005).

157

158 On the other hand, because of the combination of two different modules, oxic conditions are  
159 found in the first section of BF systems, while anoxic conditions develop in the P removal  
160 bed.

## 161 2.2 Soil and water sampling

162

163 Soil samples were taken in May 2010 from each system (Figure 1 and Figure 2), the two  
164 HFCW (HFCW 1 and HFCW 2), the two BF (BF 1 and BF2) and the two VFCW (1 and 2).  
165 When sampling HFCW, because of the horizontal flow, two separated zones were  
166 differentiated and samples were taken at the influent (I) and effluent (E) zone, and considered  
167 separately. In the case of BF, samples were also taken in two different parts of the system: in  
168 the first module (also represented as I) and in the main bed (E). Sampling points are shown  
169 with arrows in Figure 1.

170

171 Three subsamples were collected in each sampling point at random by means of a core (1 m  
172 length, 2.54 cm diameter) and then mixed to yield one composite sample per point. Samples  
173 were stored at 4°C, and processed within 24h.

174

175 Grab water samples from influent and effluent were taken in three sampling campaigns, once  
176 a month between March and May 2010. Each campaign consisted of three consecutive  
177 sampling days. Samples were frozen at -20°C until they were processed.

178

## 179 2.3 Water analysis

180

181 The water quality parameters measured included *in situ* measurements of water temperature,  
182 oxygen saturation and electric conductivity as standard water control by means of calibrated  
183 electrodes. Additional water quality analysis included BOD5 determination using  
184 APHA5210B method, and nitrogen species such as total nitrogen (Kjeldhal Method),  
185 ammonia (APHA 4500 NH<sub>3</sub> D method), nitrite (APHA 4500 NO<sub>2</sub> B method) and nitrate  
186 (APHA 4500-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> F method).

187

## 188 2.4 Soil DNA extraction

189

190 A total of 100 g for each composite sample were collected in 100 ml of sterile saline solution  
191 (9 % NaCl) and sonicated for 5 minutes in an ultrasonic water bath (Selecta, Barcelona,  
192 Spain). Samples were also vortexed 1 min to release the biofilm attached to the solution into  
193 the liquid phase. Subsequently, 10 ml were recovered and concentrated by centrifugation (5  
194 min, 8,000 g), and then samples were stored at -20°C until further processing. DNA  
195 extractions were performed using the EZNA® Soil DNA kit (Omega Bio-Tek, Doraville,  
196 USA) following the manufacturer's recommendations.

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## *2.5 PCR amplification, DGGE and sequencing of 16S rRNA genes*

Amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments for DGGE analysis was performed by using the bacterial specific primer set 358F with a 40bp GC clamp, and the universal primer 907RM (Sánchez et al., 2007). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was carried out with a Biometra thermocycler using the following program: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 5 min, 10 touchdown cycles of denaturation (at 94 °C for 1 min), annealing (at 63.5 °C to 53.5 °C for 1 min, decreasing 1°C each cycle), and extension at 72 °C for 3 min. This procedure was followed by 20 additional cycles at an annealing temperature of 53.5 °C. During the last cycle of the program, the length of the extension step was 15 min at 72 °C.

Primers 344F-GC and 915R were used for archaeal 16S rRNA gene fragment amplification (Casamayor et al., 2002). The PCR protocol included an initial denaturation step at 94 °C for 5 min, followed by 20 touchdown cycles of denaturation (at 94 °C for 1 min), annealing (at 71 °C to 61 °C for 1 min, decreasing 1 °C each cycle), and extension (at 72 °C for 3 min); 20 standard cycles (annealing at 55 °C, 1 min) and a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min.

PCR mixtures contained 1-10 ng of template DNA, each deoxynucleoside triphosphate at a concentration of 200µM, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, each primer at a concentration of 0.3 µM, 2.5 U Taq DNA polymerase (Invitrogen) and PCR buffer supplied by the manufacturer. Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) at a final concentration of 600 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> was added to minimize the inhibitory effect of humic substances (Kreader, 1996). The volume of reactions was 50 µl. PCR products were verified and quantified by agarose gel electrophoresis, with a low DNA mass ladder standard (Invitrogen).

The DGGE was run in a DCode system (Bio-Rad) as described by Muyzer et al. (1998). A 6% polyacrylamide gel with a gradient of 40-80% DNA denaturant agent was cast by mixing solutions of 0% and 80% denaturant agent (100% denaturant agent is 7 M urea and 40% deionized formamide). Seven hundred ng of PCR product were loaded for each sample and the gels were run at 100 V for 18 h at 60°C in 1 x TAE buffer (40 mM Tris [pH 7.4], 20 mM sodium acetate, 1 mM EDTA). The gel was stained with SybrGold (Molecular Probes) for 45 min, rinsed with 1 x TAE buffer, removed from the glass plate to a UV-transparent gel scoop, and visualized with UV in a Chemi Doc EQ (Bio-Rad). Prominent bands were excised from the gels, resuspended in milli-q water overnight and reamplified for their sequencing.

233 Purification of PCR products from DGGE bands and sequencing reactions were performed by  
234 Macrogen (South Korea) with primer 907RM for Bacteria and primer 915R for Archaea. PCR  
235 products of the reamplified bands were used as DNA template in a sequencing reaction with  
236 the Big Dye Terminator version 3.1 sequencing kit in an automatic ABI 3730XL Analyzer-96  
237 capillary type. Sequences were subjected to a BLAST search (Altschul et al., 1997) to obtain  
238 an indication of the phylogenetic affiliation.

239

240 Fifty-six 16S bacterial rRNA gene sequences were submitted to the EMBL database  
241 (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/embl>) and received the following accession numbers: from HE716787  
242 to HE716842.

243

### 244 *2.6 Analysis of DGGE patterns and statistical analyses*

245

246 Digitalized DGGE images were analysed with the Quantity One software (Bio-Rad, Hercules,  
247 USA). Bands occupying the same position in the different lanes of the gels were identified. A  
248 matrix was constructed for all lanes, taking into account the presence or absence of the  
249 individual bands. Raup-Crick index was used for absence-presence data as this index utilizes  
250 a randomization procedure (Monte Carlo) comparing the observed number of species  
251 occurring in both samples in 200 pairs of random replicates of the pooled sample. The PAST  
252 program (Hammer et al 2004) was used for these analyses.

253

254 DGGE banding data were used to calculate the Shannon–Weaver index as a measure of the  
255 diversity of microbial communities. It was calculated using the following function:

$$256 \quad H' = - \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} p_i \ln p_i$$

257 Where n is the number of bands in the sample and  $p_i$  the relative intensity of the band.

258

## 259 **3. Results and discussion**

260

261 The aim of this study was to investigate the factors affecting the structure of prokaryotic  
262 communities established in three different types of natural wastewater treatment systems,  
263 each with different substrate and configuration. Analysis of bacterial and archaeal community  
264 composition from the substrate samples collected was performed by means of PCR-DGGE.  
265 The banding patterns for the 16S rRNA gene DGGE-PCR amplicons are presented in Fig. 2  
266 for Bacteria and Archaea. Clear differences could be observed in both gels concerning band



267 position, intensity and band number for the different samples, demonstrating that different  
268 bacterial and archaeal communities developed in the different systems.

269

270 In the bacterial DGGE, a high number of bands could be observed in all lanes (Fig. 2A). Band  
271 richness fluctuated from 31 in HFCWII to 17 in the BF1E system (Table 2). Significant  
272 differences were found in total band richness among the influents and effluents ( $p < 0.05$ ),  
273 influents harbouring higher richness than effluents (27 and 21 mean band richness for  
274 influents and effluents respectively). Similar results were found for Shannon diversity indexes  
275 (2.65 and 2.25 for influents and effluents respectively). On the other hand, although archaeal  
276 amplification was also found, the DGGE banding profile clearly revealed a lower diversity in  
277 comparison with the bacterial community (Fig. 2B).

278

279 Excision of prominent bacterial DGGE bands and subsequent sequencing allowed the  
280 characterization of the predominant microorganisms in the different systems studied.  
281 Informative sequences were obtained from 56 bacterial bands. The number of bases used to  
282 calculate each similarity value is also shown in Table 3, as an indication of the quality of the  
283 sequence. Unfortunately, bands recovered from the archaeal DGGE gel yielded sequences  
284 with a very poor quality that have not been included in this study. The most represented  
285 taxonomic groups in all samples belonged to the  $\gamma$ -Proteobacteria (26% of recovered bands)  
286 and Bacteroidetes (26%). Firmicutes (15%) were present in all systems with the exception of  
287 samples from VFCW. Members of the Actinobacteria group, although found in HFCW and  
288 VFCW, seemed to be more abundant in BF systems. Finally, some representatives of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  
289  $\delta$ -Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria and Chloroflexi were also retrieved in some of the samples.

290

291 Most of the sequences corresponded to uncultured microorganisms (71% of the retrieved  
292 sequences), while others matched with a high percentage of similarity to cultured bacteria  
293 (29%). In general, typical bacteria from soil and wastewater environments were found in all  
294 the systems analyzed. For example, we could retrieve in HFCW typical soil bacteria such as  
295 sequences related to *Acinetobacter* sp. ( $\gamma$ -Proteobacteria), *Arthrobacter* sp (from the  
296 Actinobacteria group, also found in samples from VFCW and BF), and *Bacillus* sp.  
297 (Firmicutes), all of them potential denitrifying bacteria. Besides, other non-culturable matches  
298 corresponding to different groups were present. *Acinetobacter* sp. is commonly present in  
299 activated sludge (Snaird et al. 1997) especially in those where enhanced biological phosphate  
300 removal is observed (Ivanov et al., 2005). On the other hand, *Arthrobacter* sp has been related  
301 to the nitrogen cycle, particularly to nitrogen fixation (Cacciari et al. 1971). The fact that

302 some aerobic microorganisms have been found suggests that although HFCW systems are  
303 mostly all the time saturated, enough oxygen is present to allow proliferation of these  
304 microbial groups, with the subsequent possibility of nitrification in the system. Oxygen is  
305 present probably due to plant aeration and also because the upper part of the bed normally  
306 remains unsaturated.

307

308 Concerning the Bacteroidetes phylum, a group of chemoheterotrophic bacteria known by its  
309 ability to degrade complex organic matter, sequences with a high similarity at the species  
310 level were found. Thus, some of the retrieved sequences related to *Flavobacterium* sp.,  
311 another potential denitrifying bacteria, and have been detected in VFCW and BF; it is a  
312 typical genus that can be found in activated sludge (Park et al. 2007). Another sequence  
313 similar to the denitrifying *Thauera terpenica* (cultured closest match 99.6% similarity) was  
314 also observed in VFCWs. Other species were also found in BF systems, such as sequences  
315 related to the  $\gamma$ -Proteobacteria *Xanthomonas* sp., *Dokdonella* sp., and some denitrifying  
316 bacteria such as *Rhodanobacter* sp. and *Stenotrophomonas* sp.

317

318 The application of molecular techniques (PCR-DGGE profiling) on different wastewater  
319 treatment systems has allowed the identification of some players and their potential role in the  
320 nitrogen removal processes. The diversity of N-cycling bacteria found in the analyzed  
321 systems is an indicator of the multiple possibilities of biological nitrogen transformations  
322 inside them. In addition, this profiling method is a useful tool to classify microbial  
323 community under different substrates by clustering and diversity analyses.

324

325 A cluster analysis of bacterial DGGE banding patterns based in band richness is shown in Fig.  
326 3. Samples separated in two clusters; samples coming from VFCW and BFI, corresponding to  
327 unsaturated samples with a high organic load (Table 1), clustered together in one of the two  
328 main clusters, while all the other samples, corresponding to saturated systems with low  
329 organic load, clustered in another group. As there is almost no relation between the influent  
330 and effluent bacterial communities inside the same wetland, these results suggest that factors  
331 other than the influent wastewater, such as the organic load and the design of the treatment  
332 system, contribute to shape the microbial community.

333

334 Previous studies have shown that shifts in the structure of bacterial communities can be  
335 associated with changes in a number of soil properties, including soil texture and soil nitrogen  
336 availability (Dong et al, 2010). The substrate is an important component since it supports  
337 plant growth (in case of planted wetland systems), as well as the establishment of a microbial

338 biofilm, and it influences the hydraulic processes (Stottmeister et al., 2003). A porous matrix  
339 substrate such as LWA will probably favour the development of biofilms. Additionally, recent  
340 studies concluded that the type of substrate is one of the main factors influencing bacterial  
341 communities (Vacca et al, 2005, Calheiros et al, 2009). However, none of these studies took  
342 place in real constructed wetlands; both of them consisted in different pilot systems, with the  
343 same influent water. In our study, no relation between the microbial assemblage and the  
344 substrate was found, as different communities were retrieved within systems with the same  
345 substrate. On the contrary, from the cluster analysis we did observe two separated groups that  
346 appeared to be influenced by factors such as the organic load, as well as for the  
347 absence/presence of oxygen, since one of the groups is composed only by samples from  
348 unsaturated samples, which receive a higher load of organic matter (VFCW and influent of  
349 BF), and the other group by saturated conditions with a lower load of organic matter (HFCW  
350 influent and effluent zone, and BF effluent zone). Since influent water is different for each  
351 system, the results suggest a community configuration more related with the design of the  
352 treatment system and its operational conditions. These results are in consonance with the  
353 work carried out by Baptista et al. (2008), who suggested that stochastic processes could play  
354 an important role in the microbial community assembly in engineered and natural systems.

355  
356 Different authors, such as Ibekwe et al (2003) and Calheiros et al. (2009) indicated that the  
357 diversity of the bacterial community in the constructed wetlands systems might influence the  
358 final effluent quality, and so the engineering should be directed to develop a higher diversity  
359 in order to enhance processes such as nitrification and denitrification (Ibekwe et al. 2003).  
360 The Shannon index obtained for our samples showed a very similar diversity for all the  
361 samples. Significant differences ( $p$ -value $<0.05$ ) were only found between HFCW and BF.

362  
363 On the other hand, despite we could not retrieve sequences directly affiliated to known  
364 nitrifiers, nitrogen removal occurred in all the systems evaluated, although the removal rates  
365 were different among systems (Table 1). Saturated systems did not reach high nitrification  
366 rates but they were able to denitrify almost all the nitrified ammonia. Unsaturated systems  
367 were capable of high nitrification rates but total nitrogen removal was lower than unsaturated  
368 CW.

369  
370 The removal of nitrogen in constructed wetlands is usually limited by the nitrification process,  
371 and in order to reach high total nitrification rates is important that biological nitrification takes  
372 place. Additionally, in order to increase denitrification rates in the unsaturated systems, the  
373 establishment of recycling or an additional step is a must. In this sense, the application of

374 molecular techniques in this study has revealed the presence of several groups of denitrifiers.  
375 Finally, the diversity for bacterial groups has proven to be higher than for archaeal  
376 representatives. Further studies are needed to assess the activity of these groups under  
377 different conditions, and to go deeper into the functional groups present in each system.

378

#### 379 **4. Conclusions**

380

381 -The application of molecular techniques (PCR-DGGE profiling) on different wastewater  
382 treatment systems showed that there is no relation between the influent and effluent bacterial  
383 communities inside the same treatment system.

384

385 -Different systems with the same configuration and substrate, showed different microbial  
386 community.

387

388 -High diversity of bacteria was found in all systems studied. A lower archaeal diversity was  
389 found in comparison with the bacterial population

390

391 -Microbial community structure was related to the design of the treatment systems and the  
392 organic matter load.

393

394 -Microbial community structure was affected by oxygen conditions in the substrate (saturated  
395 or unsaturated).

396

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398

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486 **Figure legends**

487

488 **Figure 1** Schemes of the three types of systems studied; a) HFCW, b) VFCW, c) BF. 1) inlet, 2)  
489 sedimentation tank, 3) pumping well, 4) bed, 5) outlet well, 6) recycling, 7) P removal system, 8) LWA  
490 dome biofilters. Arrows indicate the sampling sites of each system.

491

492 **Figure 2** Negative images of DGGE gels with PCR products amplified with bacterial (A) and archaeal (B)  
493 primer sets from samples of the different systems: HFCW (Horizontal Flow Constructed Wetlands), BF  
494 (Biofilters) and VFCW (Vertical Flow Constructed Wetlands); 1 and 2 are replicates from each system; when  
495 applied, I: Influent zone, E: Effluent zone.

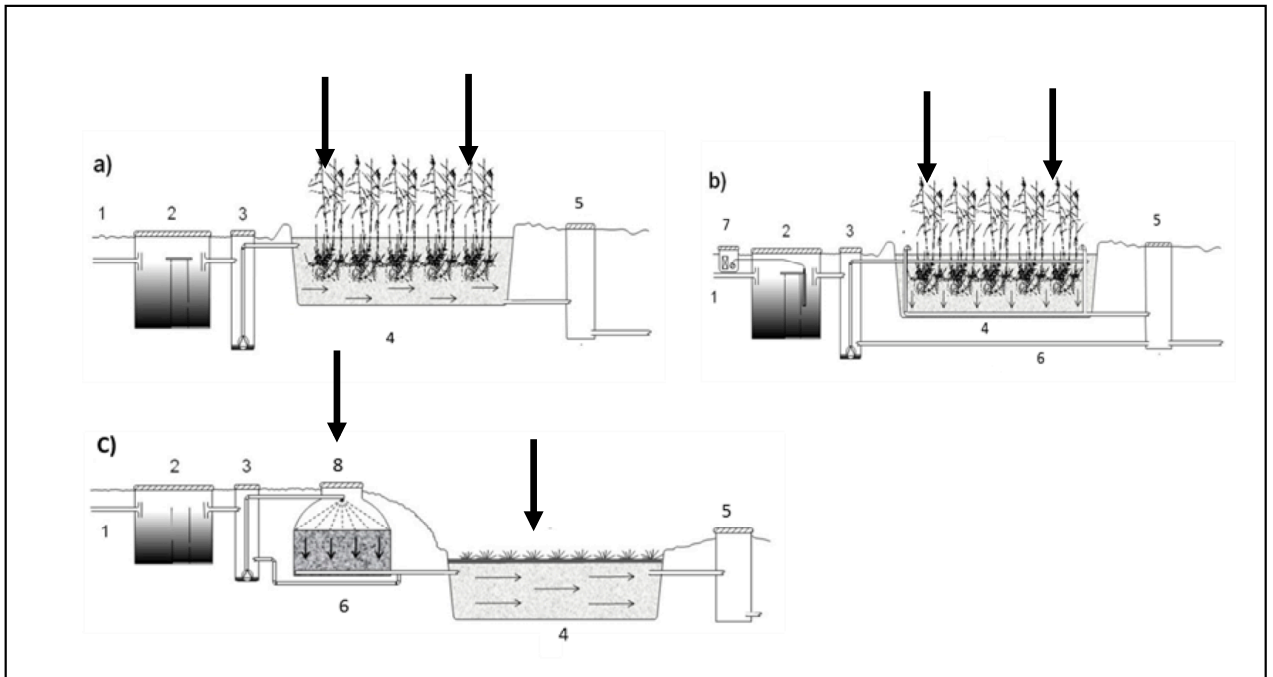
496

497 **Figure 3** Cluster analysis of bacterial DGGE profiles, determined by the Raup-Crick method.



498 Fig. 1

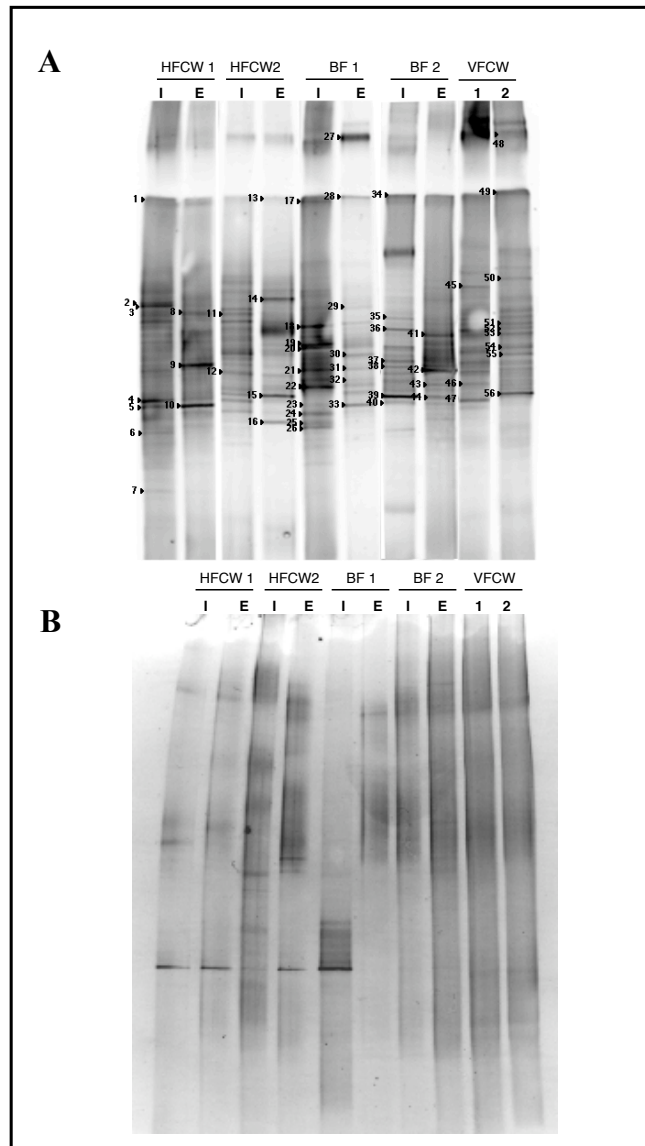
499



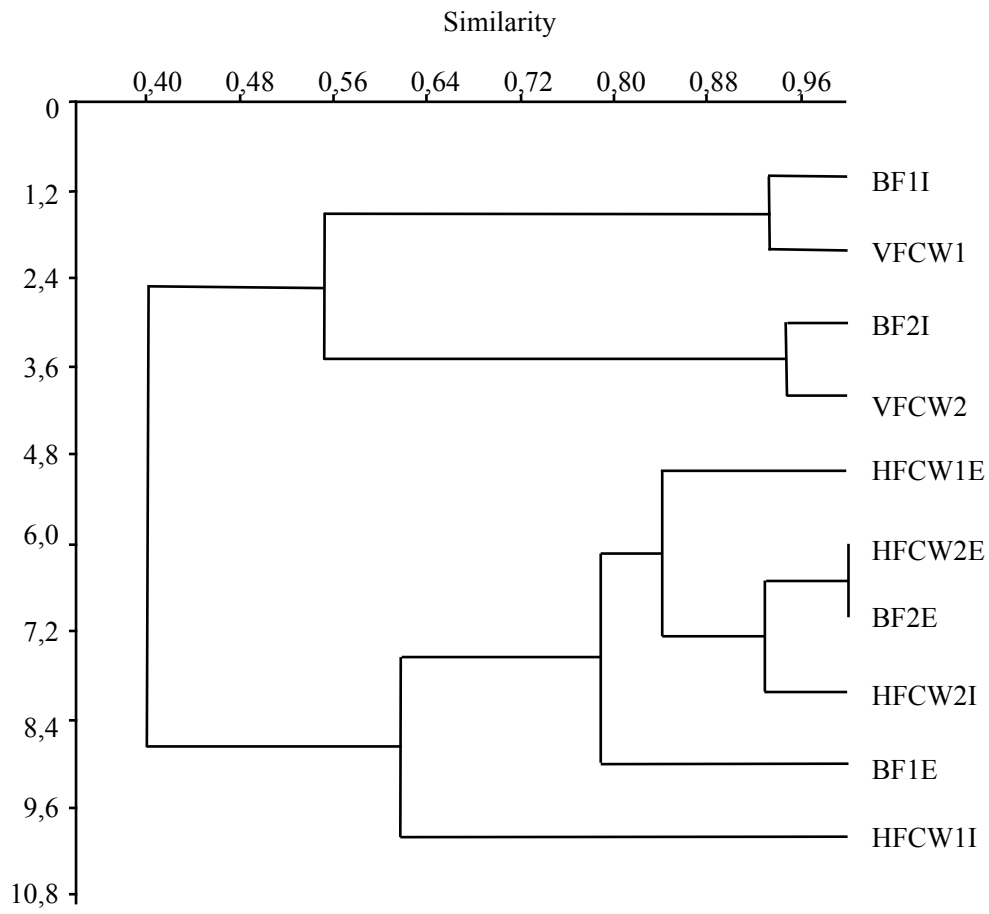
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502 Fig. 2  
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512 **Table 1** Description of the systems evaluated. The averages of nitrification and total nitrogen removal  
513 percentages are based on six month sampling (n= 9)

<b>Location</b>	<b>System</b>	<b>Area (m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>PE served</b>	<b>Recycling</b>	<b>Years of operation</b>	<b>Hydraulic conditions</b>	<b>NH<sub>4</sub>- N (%)</b>	<b>Total N (%)</b>	<b>BOD5 (mg/l)</b>
Bjødstrup	HFCW1	470	80	No	>20	Saturated	60	64	103
Moesgaard	HFCW2	520	80	No	>20	Saturated	23	34	-
Friland 1	VFCW1	90	30	Yes	1	Unsaturated	99	84	169
Tisset	VFCW2	15	2	No	4	Unsaturated	99	21	240
Friland 2	BF1	50	4	No	6	Both	59	44	290
Janne	BF2	50	6	Yes	6	Both	91	85	280

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**Table 2** Shannon diversity index (H) and band richness calculated for each sample from bacterial data

System	H	Band richness
HFCW 1 I	2,84	31
HFCW 1 E	2,83	24
HFCW 2 I	2,96	26
HFCW 2 E	2,33	18
BF 1 I	2,27	26
BF 1 E	2,02	17
BF 2 I	2,51	26
BF 2 E	1,81	23
VFCW 1	2,32	25
VFCW 2	2,24	27

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**Table 3** Phylogenetic affiliation of sequences obtained from DGGE bands with closest uncultured and cultured matches. Number of bases used to calculate the sequence similarity is shown in parentheses in the fourth column

System	Band	Closest match	%similarity (n° bases)	Taxonomic group	Acc n° (GenBank)	Cultured closest match (% similarity)	
HFCW1 Influent	DKBF_1	Uncultured bacterium clone t15dG9Hb69	89.9 (473)	Bacteroidetes	FM956379	<i>Owenweeksia hongkongensis</i> (85.2)	
	DKBF_2	<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. Wuba16	98.7 (522)	γ-proteobacteria	AF336348		
	DKBF_3	<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. OVT1-RT-4	98.9 (518)	γ-proteobacteria	EF523604		
	DKBF_4	Uncultured bacterium clone LaYa5b-79	97.4 (531)	Firmicutes	GV291613	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. PCWCS27 (97.4)	
	DKBF_5	Uncultured <i>Geobacter</i> sp. clone MFC-A36	86.2 (355)	δ-proteobacteria	FJ262598	<i>Geobacter metallireducens</i> (86.2)	
	DKBF_6	Uncultured Desulfuromonadales bacterium	93.5 (445)	δ-proteobacteria	AM934934	<i>Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans</i> (88.0)	
	DKBF_7	Uncultured Acidobacteria bacterium	88.9 (417)	Acidobacteria	FJ824900	<i>Holophaga</i> sp. (87.0)	
HFCW1 Effluent	DKBF_8	Uncultured bacterium clone nbw447d07c1	83.2 (417)	γ-proteobacteria	GQ096652	<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. (82.3)	
	DKBF_9	Uncultured <i>Bacillus</i> sp. Clone GASP-MA351_F05	99.1 (523)	Firmicutes	EF663435	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. IDA4917 (99.1)	
	DKBF_10	<i>Arthrobacter oxydans</i> strain Mm2H	99.6 (494)	Actinobacteria	GU391465		
HFCW2 Influent	DKBF_11	Uncultured bacterium clone Pav-112	92.4 (472)	Chloroflexi	DQ642421	<i>Chloroflexi</i> bacterium (84.3)	
	DKBF_12	Uncultured bacterium clone LaYa5a-55	86.5 (455)	Firmicutes	GU291506	<i>Exiguobacterium</i> sp (86.3)	
HFCW2 Effluent	DKBF_13	<i>Sphingobacterium faecium</i> strain c121	92.5 (467)	Bacteroidetes	FJ950587	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. PCWCS27 (100)	
	DKBF_14	<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. Wuba16	98.7 (531)	γ-proteobacteria	AF336348		
	DKBF_15	Uncultured bacterium clone LaYa5b-79	100 (541)	Firmicutes	GU291613		
	DKBF_16	Bacillales bacterium Gsoil 1105 gene	99.6 (523)	Firmicutes	AB245375		<i>Eubacterium</i> sp (97.6)
BF1 Influent	DKBF_17	Uncultured bacterium clone MBR-3	85.9 (396)	Bacteroidetes	FM200879	<i>Niastella</i> sp (83.5)	
	DKBF_18	Uncultured bacterium clone AF-2	83.3 (405)	γ-proteobacteria	AF143844	<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. A3-6 (83.1)	
	DKBF_19	Uncultured <i>Rickettsiella</i> sp. clone B09-03G	93.6 (436)	γ-proteobacteria	FJ543061	<i>Rickettsiella melolonthae</i> (92.9)	
	DKBF_20	Uncultured bacterium clone nbw133d11c1	83.2 (380)	β-proteobacteria	GQ024037	<i>Polaromonas</i> sp. (81.8)	
	DKBF_21	Uncultured Xanthomonadaceae bacterium clone GASP-MA1S2_A03	95.5 (493)	γ-proteobacteria	EF662389	<i>Xanthomonas perforans</i> (94.8)	
	DKBF_22	Uncultured Gamma proteobacteria clone AI-2M_F10	99.0 (494)	γ-proteobacteria	EF219801	<i>Dokdonella</i> sp. (95.3)	
	DKBF_23	Uncultured bacterium gene	86.3 (345)	Firmicutes	AB525472	<i>Geobacillus stearothermophilus</i> (83.6)	
	DKBF_24	Uncultured bacterium clone 1-20	95.3 (425)	Chloroflexi	AY548939	<i>Dehalococcoides</i> sp. (86.3)	
	DKBF_25	Uncultured Betaproteobacteria bacterium	97.2 (416)	β-proteobacteria	CU922449	<i>Burkholderia</i> sp. (88.5)	
	DKBF_26	Uncultured Acidobacteria bacterium clone RUGL1-382	98.6 (490)	Acidobacteria	GQ421153	<i>Holophaga</i> sp. oral clone CA002 (89.0)	
BF1 Effluent	DKBF_27	<i>Flavobacterium</i> sp.	100 (509)	Bacteroidetes	FJ889628	<i>Epilithonimonas</i> sp. (99.0)	
	DKBF_28	Unidentified bacterium clone MEB004	99.2 (514)	Bacteroidetes	EF154088		
	DKBF_29	<i>Pedobacter</i> sp.	85.5 (437)	Bacteroidetes	AM988953		
	DKBF_30	Uncultured bacterium clone R3B6L	94.3 (498)	Firmicutes	GQ423904		<i>Trichococcus pasteurii</i> (94.3)
	DKBF_31	<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	91.6 (480)	γ-proteobacteria	FJ772057		
	DKBF_32	Uncultured bacterium clone AK 1DE1_09D	86.9 (442)	γ-proteobacteria	GQ396993		<i>Lysobacter</i> sp. (86.)
	DKBF_33	<i>Arthrobacter</i> sp.	90.3 (467)	Actinobacteria	FN392694		
BF 2 Influent	DKBF_34	<i>Chryseobacterium</i> sp	91.6 (478)	Bacteroidetes	FN550150	<i>Owenweeksia hongkongensis</i> (85.2)	
	DKBF_35	Uncultured bacterium clone H2SRC13	93.4 (468)	Bacteroidetes	FM174354		
	DKBF_36	Uncultured bacterium clone KD4-4	98.3 (516)	Bacteroidetes	AY218633		
	DKBF_37	Uncultured bacterium clone Con3d08	99.6 (526)	γ-proteobacteria	GQ401680		
	DKBF_38	Uncultured bacterium clone Con3d09	98.7 (538)	γ-proteobacteria	GQ401681		
	DKBF_39	<i>Arthrobacter stackebrandtii</i>	99.6 (514)	Actinobacteria	AJ640198		
	DKBF_40	<i>Arthrobacter stackebrandtii</i>	99.4 (534)	Actinobacteria	AJ640198		
	DKBF_41	Uncultured bacterium clone 96-12	99.8 (536)	Firmicutes	GU212517		<i>Planomicrobium</i> sp. (99.8)
BF 2 Effluent	DKBF_42	Uncultured bacterium clone 96-12	100 (537)	Firmicutes	GU212518	<i>Planomicrobium</i> sp. (99.1)	
	DKBF_43	<i>Bacillus</i> sp PU1	83.9 (447)	Firmicutes	FN555708		
	DKBF_44	<i>Arthrobacter</i> sp.	85.8 (440)	Actinobacteria	DQ158002		
	DKBF_45	Uncultured bacterium clone KD3-110	87.9 (458)	Bacteroidetes	AY218600	<i>Lishizhenia caseinilytica</i> (84.1)	
VFCW 1	DKBF_46	Uncultured Gamma proteobacterium clone SM2E10	82.8 (415)	γ-proteobacteria	AF445726	<i>Arenimonas</i> sp. (82.7)	
	DKBF_47	Uncultured bacterium clone AKAU 4119	94.0 (483)	Actinobacteria	DQ125870	<i>Arthrobacter</i> sp. (94.1)	
	DKBF_48	<i>Flavobacterium gelidilacus</i>	96.6 (503)	Bacteroidetes	NR_025538	<i>Flavobacteria symbiont</i> (83.1)	
DKBF_49	Uncultured bacterium clone glb 266b	84.8 (417)	Bacteroidetes	EU978754			
DKBF_50	Uncultured bacterium clone CYCU-0287	98.1 (516)	Bacteroidetes	DQ232441	<i>Chitinophaga</i> sp. (89.2)		
DKBF_51	<i>Brevundimonas</i> sp	88.6 (458)	α-proteobacteria	AY 576767			
DKBF_52	Uncultured bacterium clone VC100	89.0 (405)	Bacteroidetes	EU593808	<i>Arenibacter</i> sp (86.8)		
DKBF_53	Antarctic bacterium R-8890 R-8890 strain	99.6 (520)	β-proteobacteria	AJ440995	<i>Rhodofera ferrireducens</i> (97.1)		
DKBF_54	Uncultured pseudoxanthomonas	90.6 (490)	γ-proteobacteria	EU836188	<i>Stenotrophomonas</i> sp (90.6)		
DKBF_55	Uncultured Beta proteobacteria	84 (416)	γ-proteobacteria	FM992014	<i>Luteimonas</i> sp (82.0)		
DKBF_56	Uncultured bacterium gene	99.8 (523)	β-proteobacteria	AB196024	<i>Thauera terpenica</i> (99.6)		

