1	ANALYSIS OF MICROBIAL COMMUNITY DURING BIOFILM DEVELOPMENT IN AN
2	ANAEROBIC WASTEWATER TREATMENT REACTOR
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18 ABSTRACT

19 The formation, structure and biodiversity of a multispecies anaerobic biofilm inside an Upflow 20 Anaerobic Sludge Bed (UASB) reactor fed with brewery wastewater was examined using 21 complementary microbial ecology methods such us Fluorescence in situ Hybridization, 22 Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis and cloning. The biofilm development can be roughly 23 divided into three stages: an initial attachment phase (0-36 hours) characterised by random 24 adhesion of the cells to the surface; a consolidation phase (from 36 hours to 2 weeks) defined by 25 the appearance of microcolonies; and maturation phase (from 2 weeks to 2 months). During the 26 consolidation period proteobacteria with broad metabolic capabilities, mainly represented by 27 members of alpha-Proteobacteria class (Oleomonas, Azospirillum), predominated. Beta-, 28 gamma-, delta- (both syntrophobacteria and sulfate-reducing bacteria) and epsilon- (Arcobacter 29 sp.) Proteobacteria were also noticeable. Archaea first appeared during the consolidation period. 30 A Methanospirillum-like methanogen was detected after 36 hours and this was followed by the 31 detection of Methanosarcina, after four days of biofilm development. The mature biofilm 32 displayed a hill and valley topography with cells embedded in a matrix of exopolymers where the 33 spatial distribution of the microorganisms became well-established. Compared to the earlier 34 phases the biodiversity had greatly increased. Although alpha-Proteobacteria remained as 35 predominant, members of the phyla Firmicutes, Bacteroidete and Thermotogae were also 36 detected. Within the domain Archaea, the acetoclastic methanogen Methanosaeta concilii 37 become dominant. This study provides insights on the trophic web and the shifts in population 38 during biofilm development in an UASB reactor.

40 Introduction

41 Biofilms are structured microbial communities made up of groups of cells suspended in a 42 self-produced hydrated polymeric matrix of variable density and permeated by channels [13, 14]. 43 In most natural and engineered environments, a multispecies microbial community is the 44 prevailing life form [58]. Although many species are implicated, biofilm development has been 45 mainly studied using systems composed by one or two species which have led the formulation of 46 a development model, in which the formation of biofilms occurs in multiple steps: (i) approach of 47 microbes to a surface, (ii) initial attachment mainly governed by van der Waals and electrostatic 48 forces; (iii) formation of microcolonies; and (iv) biofilm maturation in which microcolonies are 49 stabilized by increased cell-surface adhesion due to the accumulation of extracellular polymer 50 substance (EPS) [21, 51, 57, 58]. Mature biofilms show a complex structure (the mushroom or 51 the tulip model) with extensive presence of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) full of 52 channels through which a liquid phase is free to move [34, 60].

53 Biofilms play an important role in wastewater treatment as they form the basis of diverse 54 aerobic and anaerobic reactors (trickling filters, rotating biological contactors...) and are 55 characterized by their feasibility and efficiency. Pollutants are anaerobically processed and 56 eliminated by means of the complex food chain established within the biofilm [30]. Consequently, 57 the process efficiency is the result of the biofilm microbial diversity. Nevertheless, studies of 58 biofilm growth in wastewater treatment systems have focused mainly on the influence of 59 operational parameters, physicochemical factors and the properties of the supports on biofilm 60 development [26, 56]. On the other hand, activity, adhesion, biomass and other conventional 61 parameters have been measured to assess the microbial community [22, 29, 52]. Reports based 62 on microbial ecology techniques are scarce [8, 19, 49].

63 Conventional cultivation-dependent microbiological techniques fail to give an indication of 64 biodiversity (about 99% of the bacterial cells in biofilms can not be cultured on standard media 65 [60]) or the architecture of a biofilm. During the last 15 years, molecular techniques based on

16S rRNA/rDNA have been successfully applied to microbial ecology research. Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE) [39, 40], Fluorescence in situ Hybridization (FISH) [7, 50, 54], together with molecular cloning, have opened up new perspectives for the study of microbial ecosystems [5]. FISH combined with Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CLSM) makes it possible to study biofilms in natural [34], industrial [35] and engineered [15] environments without destroying their critical architecture. An excellent review of the application of molecular ecology techniques to wastewater treatment systems has recently been published [42].

The aim of this study was to investigate in detail the formation of a multispecies anaerobic biofilm inside a reactor. The Upflow Anaerobic Sludge Bed (UASB) reactor was chosen as it is widely used throughout the world. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and CLSM combined with FISH were used to monitor the development and structure of the biofilm. Biodiversity was evaluated with three rRNA-based complementary methods: FISH, DGGE and cloning and sequencing of 16S rDNA.

Methods

81 Experimental set-up: A laboratory scale UASB reactor (0.9 L) was operated for five 82 months. Intact and crushed granular sludge (2.5 g VSS L-1) from a full-scale UASB reactor 83 treating brewery wastewater (MAHOU, Guadalajara, Spain) was used as inoculum. The reactor 84 was fed with industrial wastewater from a brewery (4000 mg L-1 COD: 2400 mg l-1 BOD: 1.3 g 85 L-1 TSS; 100 mg I-1 TNK; 15 mg L-1 NH4+, 15 mg L-1 P) pH 7.0, and operated with a hydraulic 86 retention time of 24 hours at 30°C. The typical composition of brewery wastewater is (in mM per 87 g of COD): 1.6 acetate, 1 propionate, 6-8 ethanol, and less than 0.2 of butyrate, lactate, 88 succinate and glucose. The VFA in the effluent after UASB treatment is around 10% of their 89 content in the effluent (23, 61).

Once the reactor reached steady state (organic loading rate: 1 g-COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹; sludge loading rate 0.35 g-COD g-VSS⁻¹ d⁻¹; efficiency of COD removal: 85-90%, no volatile fatty acids accumulated), biofilms were allowed to develop on vertical glass slides submerged in the reactor.

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95 *Growth curve:* Once the reactor reached steady state, a growth curve during the 10 first 96 days of biofilm development was obtained to provide insights on the initial period of biofilm 97 development. At the beginning of the experiment, several Falcon 3911 MicroTest III assay plates 98 were vertically placed inside the reactor. Subsequently three of them were removed at each 99 sampling time. The biofilm formation was determined by optical density at 560 nm as previously 100 described [25]

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Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH): Supports consisting glass slides with 10-wells (75X25 mm, with wells of 5 mm diameter) (Superior, Marienfeld, Germany) were hung vertically by a nylon line at a distance of a few centimetres over the sludge bed. All the slides were introduced at the start of the biofilm formation experiment and they were removed at different

106 times (1, 2, 4, 12, 24 and 36 hours, and 2, 4, 8, 18, 25, 30 and 60 days) for *in situ* hybridization. 107 Samples were rinsed with filtered water to remove loosely attached planktonic forms and 108 immediately fixed with ethanol for Gram-positive bacteria detection or with 4% paraformaldehyde 109 in phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS) during 4 hours at 4 °C for Gram-negative bacteria. 110 The samples were then washed in PBS, and stored in PBS: Ethanol (1:1) solution at -20°C. All 111 samples were further dehydrated by immersion in 50%, 80% and 100% ethanol solutions for 112 three minutes each time. Hybridization was performed following the protocol described 113 elsewhere [6, 32]. The probes used in this work are listed in Table 1. The NON338 probe was 114 used as negative control. The total cells present in the samples were determined by direct 115 counting of 4',6'-diamin phenylindol (DAPI, 1mg/ml) stained cells when possible. Samples were 116 examined under a Zeiss Axiovert 200 microscope. Structural and morphological studies on intact 117 biofilms were carried out with a Confocal Radiance 2000 scanning system coupled to a Zeiss 118 Axiovert S100 TV confocal laser-scanning microscope.

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Scanning electron microscopy (SEM): Samples for scanning electron microscopy were prepared as follows: biofilms were grown on glass slides (Φ 0.5 cm, FEDELCO, ER-308). The location of the slides and sampling protocol were similar to FISH procedure. Once a sample was taken out from the reactor it was fixed with glutaraldehyde (2.5% v/v) in 0.2 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.1) and dehydrated with graded ethanol solutions (10%, 30%, 50%, 70%, 90% and 100% ethanol). The samples were dehydrated by the critical point drying method and coated with gold. Micrographs were taken with a Phillips XL30 EDAX DX4i SEM.

127

DNA extraction and 16S rRNA amplification: Two- and 60-day old biofilms were detached from the slides using Triton X-100 (0.25%) solution. DNA was extracted using FastDNA kit for soils BIO101 according to the manufacturer's protocol. The 16S rRNA genes from mixed microbial DNA were amplified by PCR. To obtain almost complete 16S rRNA gene, two 132 oligonucleotide primer pairs were used: 27F and 1492R (annealing T: 56°C) for the domain 133 Bacteria [28] and 25F and 1492R (annealing T: 52 °C) for the domain Archaea [28]. For 134 subsequent DGGE analysis, a fragment of DNA was amplified with two primer pairs: 341F-GC 135 and 907R (annealing T: 52 °C) for the domain Bacteria [11] and 622F-GC and 1492R (annealing 136 T: 42°C) for the domain Archaea [12] (GC clamp: 5'-CGC CCG CCG CGC CCC GCG CCC GTC 137 CCG CCC CCG CCC-3'). PCR reactions were performed with the following thermocycler 138 program: pre-denaturation at 94 °C for 5 min, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 1 min, 139 annealing at corresponding temperature for 1 min, and elongation at 72 °C for 3 min (1 min for 140 DGGE use); and post-elongation at 72 °C for 10 min.

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142 Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE): The PCR products of the same length 143 were separated by DGGE [36], which was performed according to the Dcode-System (BioRad, 144 Germany). Polyacrylamide gels 6% (wt/vol, acrylamide-bisacrylamide 37.5:1) were prepared 145 with denaturing gradients ranging from 30% to 60% (in which 100% denaturant contained 7M 146 urea and 40% v/v formamide) and were run at 60°C and 80V for 15 h. Bands detected by 147 fluorescence using a UV transilluminator were excised and re-amplified for sequencing.

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149 Clone libraries, ARDRA analysis and sequencing: For a further comparison between 150 young and mature biofilm communities, two- and 60-day old biofilms were analyzed by clone 151 libraries. The 16S rRNA gene amplificates (length 1465 and 1467 bp for Bacteria and Archaea, 152 respectively) were cloned using TOPO Cloning Kit (Invitrogen Corporation, San Diego, 153 California) and then transformed into competent E. coli cells. Plasmid inserts were screened by 154 Amplified Ribosomal DNA Restriction Analysis (ARDRA) using the enzyme Sau3AI (BioLabs 155 Inc., New England). Fragments were separated by 2% (w/v) agarose (Pronadisa, Madrid) gel 156 electrophoresis and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. Clones were grouped according to 157 their restriction patterns defining different Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs). Subsequently,

two clones of each OTU were amplified by PCR using the M13 primer set (Invitrogen).
Automated DNA sequencing was performed with an ABI model 377 sequencer (Applied
Biosystems).

161

162 Sequence analysis: All sequences obtained in this work were compared with the 163 databases by using Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) [1] to identify the closest 164 sequence. Sequence data were aligned and analyzed with the ARB program package [31]. 165 Parsimony was used to construct phylogenetic trees.

166

167 *Nucleotide sequence accession numbers:* The sequences obtained in this study have 168 been deposited in the GenBank database under accession numbers AY692039 to AY692074.

169

170 **Results**

Three complementary approaches were used to monitor the kinetics of biofilm formation, their phylogenetic diversity, and the spatial distribution of the populations: SEM, FISH and DNA sequencing after direct cloning of the 16S rRNA gene as well as resolution by DGGE of amplified fragments of this gene.

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176 SEM: Microscopic examination showed an erratic colonization sequence during the first 177 few hours of biofilm formation. The cell density on the surface changed continuously without a 178 trend and the microorganisms were widely spaced on the surface of the support (Fig. 1, 3h-24h). 179 After two days, the growth tended to stabilize, the production of a matrix of exopolymers began 180 and the first microcolonies could be observed (Fig 1, 4d). The microcolonies then progressively 181 spread to form a biofilm (Fig. 1, 8d-14d). SEM images showed that the mature biofilm consisted 182 of both densely populated and less dense areas during the growth period (Fig. 1, 60d), results 183 that were similar to those previously reported [52].

These data were corroborated by monitoring the adhered cells during the first 10 days (Fig. 2). The growth curve showed that adhesion behaviour was random during the first 36 hours, corresponding to the period before growth of microcolonies was observed by SEM. Subsequently, a constant rate of adhesion was observed which tended to stabilize in the final stage of the studied period.

This microscopic analysis also revealed extensive morphological diversity including different kinds of spirillum, straight and curved rods and small coccoid cells (Fig. 1, 4d detail). Two methanogens could be identified due to their particular shape: *Methanospirillum*-like cells appeared after one day of growth whereas *Methanosaeta*-like cells were clearly identified after four days.

194

FISH. Based on SEM and growth curve results, to determine the spatial distribution of the microorganisms the development of the biofilm was divided roughly into three stages: initial attachment (0-36 hours), consolidation (from 36 hours to 2 weeks) and maturation (from 2 weeks to 2 months).

199 Different groups belonging to the domain *Bacteria* (α , β , γ -*Proteobacteria*, 200 Syntrophobacter, sulfate-reducing bacteria, Bacteroides and Gram-positive bacteria) were 201 analyzed by FISH and quantified for each stage. During initial attachment, the number of 202 microorganisms reached 10⁶ cells/cm² (total DAPI stained cells), with a percentage of hybridized 203 cells between 50-70% (probes EUB338 plus ARC915 versus DAPI stained cells). Of those, 85-204 95% corresponded to the domain *Bacteria*. During this period, α -Proteobacteria (35-55% of 205 detected bacterial cells, Fig. 3A) was the most representative group. β - and γ -Proteobacteria (5-206 15% each) were also detected, always associated to colonies of α -Proteobacteria (Fig. 3B and 207 3C). The presence of Syntrophobacter (5-10%) and sulfate-reducing bacteria (5-8% each) was 208 also noticeable (Fig. 3D and 3E). The presence of archaea could be detected after only 36 209 hours, although these microorganisms were always scarce in comparison to bacteria. These

cells had the form of long bowed rods that formed small *Methanospirillum*-like filaments, which hybridized with the MG1200 (*Methanomicrobiales*) probe (Fig. 3F), confirming the results of SEM.

213 The consolidation stage of the biofilm was marked by the formation of colonies that 214 began to interconnect but still appeared as independent entities (Fig. 3H), β-Proteobacteria were 215 specifically located on the edges of the colonies. These colonies were mainly made up of α -216 Proteobacteria together with the other groups detected: y-Proteobacteria, Syntrophobacter and 217 sulfate-reducing bacteria which had not a tendency to occupy specific positions within the 218 colonies. Archaea were basically represented by Methanospirillum-like cells (probe MG1200: 219 Methanomicrobiales), as large rods and small filaments scattered throughout the bacterial 220 colonies forming a network. Methanosarcina genus (probe MS1414) were observed after four 221 days of growth, making up dense packed within the bacterial colonies (Fig. 3H and 3I), although 222 in smaller amounts than Methanospirillum-like cells. In addition to this Methanobacteriales group 223 (probe MEB859, Fig. 3G) was found in very small quantities. The presence of Methanosaeta 224 was not detected.

225 Mature biofilm covered almost the entire surface of the support, with cells embedded in 226 an exopolymeric matrix. 3D reconstructions based on biofilm sections obtained using confocal 227 microscopy revealed their spatial distribution. The groups detected were not very different from 228 previous stages. The main body was formed mostly of bacteria, with the archaeal cells clearly defined within it (Fig. 3J). They were basically α -Proteobacteria, with β -Proteobacteria always 229 230 located on the edge of the biofilm and y- and δ -Proteobacteria scattered within it. Bacteroides 231 and Gram-positives were also detected at this stage. Archaea appeared as individual cells or 232 short filaments that spread forming a network throughout the biofilm; however, it was mainly 233 composed of Methanosaeta filaments. It appears that Methanospirillum was displaced by 234 Methanosaeta. As noted before, densely packed groups of very bright Methanosarcina were 235 normally located inside the colonies (Fig. 3J).

237 DGGE profiles: Changes in microbial diversity during biofilm formation were studied 238 using DGGE profiling. Figure 4 shows the band patterns resolved with DGGE after partial 16S 239 rRNA gene amplification using specific primers for the domains Archaea and Bacteria. Archaea 240 were not detected during the first 24 hours of development. Since then and during the rest of the 241 studied period, a stable pattern was maintained for this domain (Fig. 4A). The bacterial patterns 242 were highly variable during the first two days reflecting large changes in diversity in this domain 243 at the beginning of the growth (Fig. 4B). After that, the bacterial diversity remained fairly 244 constant.

245 All visible bands were excised from the DGGE fingerprints, re-amplified, purified and 246 sequenced. A total of eleven bacterial bands and three archaeal bands yielded sequences that 247 were analyzed using the BLAST program. The taxonomic affiliations of the 16S rRNA partial 248 sequences are shown in Table 2. All sequenced bacterial bands belonged to Proteobacteria, 249 Firmicutes, Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes phyla. Some of them were present only during the 250 initial period: B5 (Flavobacteriaceae), B7 (Hydrogenophilaceae) and B11 (Nocardiaceae). Bands 251 B2 (Acetobacteraceae), B3 (Rhodocyclaceae), B9 (Syntrophomonadaceae) and B10 252 (Campylobacteraceae) were also detected in the consolidation period. The remaining bands 253 were found in the consolidation and mature stage: B4 (Comamonadaceae), B1 254 (Syntrophobacteraceae), B6 and B8 (order Clostridiales). In the case of the domain Archaea, 255 the bands belonged to Methanosarcinales (A1 and A2) and Methanomicrobiales orders from the 256 Methanomicrobia class.

257

Clone libraries. Two specific periods during the biofilm formation were studied by cloning: after two days, at the beginning of the consolidation stage when the microorganisms can be considered to be specifically attached to the support, and after two months, when the biofilm is mature. Almost complete 16S rRNA sequences were amplified from total DNA extracted from

the biofilm using universal primers for the bacterial and archaeal domains. ARDRA analysis of the 90 (bacterial Domain) and 85 (archaeal Domain) clones for the two day-old biofilm and 77 (bacterial Domain) and 96 (archaeal Domain) clones for the sixty days-old biofilm allowed us to group them and to define different Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) which were formed from clones with the same restriction band pattern (Table 2).

After two days of biofilm formation, 5 different OTUs were detected for *Bacteria* domain and 1 for *Archaea* domain, while after 60 days, 6 and 3 OTUs were found, respectively. The 16S rRNA gene sequences were affiliated with mainly uncultured bacteria from different habitats and only remotely related to known bacterial species (Table 3).

271 Taxonomic similarities and phylogenetic relationships showed that most of the bacteria 272 belonged to the phylum Proteobacteria (Table 3, Fig. 6): two OTUs could be included in the α 273 class, one was related to Acetobacteraceae (Cb1) and the other to Rhodospirillaceae (Cb2); 274 another one in the β class was related to *Rhodocyclaceae* (Cb3); one OTU in the δ class was 275 related to sulfate-reducing bacteria (Cb4); and one OTU in the ε class was related to the 276 Arcobacter genus (Cb5). Many of the remaining sequences were members of Gram-positive 277 bacteria: three OTUs belonging to the Clostridiales (Cb6, Cb7 and Cb8). Members of the 278 Flavobacterium-Cytophaga group (Cb9) and Thermotogae phylum (Cb10) were also identified.

Three methanobacteria were identified inside the domain *Archaea* (Table 3, Fig. 6). Two could be included in the *Methanosarcinales* order: *Methanosaeta* (Ca1 and Ca2) and *Methanosarcina* genera (Ca3). The other sequences belonged to the *Methanomicrobiales* order, probably to the *Methanospirillum* genera (Ca4).

283

284 Discussion

The main phases described for single-species biofilm formation were also observed during the development of a multispecies anaerobic biofilm. It is known that microbial cells might be affected by the adsorption-desorption processes caused by the electrostatic and shearing

288 forces that take place between a surface charges and charges on the bacterial surface [30]. This 289 could explain the behavior observed during the initial stage of development in which the 290 microbial adhesion to the support was a random process, as indicated by SEM (Fig. 1) and 291 supported by optical density measurements (Fig. 2), FISH (Fig. 3 A, to F) and the band patterns 292 denerated with DGGE (Fig. 4). In this study, the influence of physicochemical and operational 293 conditions on the growth trend was minimized since the reactor was operated at steady-state 294 throughout the entire experiment and the environmental conditions were expected to be fairly 295 constant. It should be noted that neither archaea nor Gram-positive bacteria appeared during the 296 first 36 hours. It is plausible that the chemical characteristics of their external envelopes, and the 297 lower number of fimbriae of Gram-positive with respect to the Gram-negative bacteria could be 298 critical factors during the initial colonization and could be implicated in their delay in colonizing 299 the surface.

300 According to the accepted model, once beyond this initial stage, the influence of the 301 stochastic processes and physicochemical conditions waned and the nature of the bacteria-302 surface interaction could be determined by the attachment of bacterial fimbriae [18] and by the 303 excretion of an exopolymeric matrix [18, 53]. Such a matrix was observed after 1-2 days and 304 marked the beginning of the consolidation stage. From this point on the physical structure of 305 biofilm evolved, changing from isolated microcolonies to a mature stage in which the cells were 306 embedded in the matrix, adopting rounded shapes stabilized by EPS (Fig. 1, 60th day). In addition, the bacterial diversity of the biofilm, confirmed by FISH and DGGE band patterns, 307 308 remained fairly constant in comparison with the initial stage. This implies that the basis of the 309 microbial community and therefore the main pathways of the trophic web were formed during the 310 consolidation stage.

311 Once irreversible adhesions to the surface had occurred and the microcolonies started to 312 form, the first community mainly comprised α -*Proteobacteria* according to FISH. *Oleomonas* 313 *sagaranensis* (Cb1, B2) is able to form aggregates [27] producing some EPS, so facilitating its

adhesion to the surface. This characteristic and its high metabolic versatility [27]—are
advantages that make this microorganism a pioneer in the colonization of the surface. At the
same time *Azospirillum* (Cb2), which also has a broad metabolic capability, appeared. These
two α-*Proteobacteria* could participate in the breakdown of organic polymers.

318 In general, the microorganisms that initiated the formation of the biofilm have a broad 319 metabolic flexibility that facilitated invasion of the surface. The intermediates produced after the 320 lysis of macromolecules could be degraded by proteobacteria: Oleomonas (Cb1, B2), Azonexus 321 (B3), Azospirillum (Cb2), a y-Proteobacteria (enterobacteria were detected by FISH), Arcobacter 322 (Cb5, B10), or sulfate reducers (FISH data) [10], or by the firmicutes Thermovirga (B9). 323 Syntrophobacteria (B1) was a expected member of the microbial community because it is 324 implicated in the degradation of fatty acids and others intermediate products during fermentation 325 to acetate and hydrogen. However Syntrophobacteria appeared in low proportions (FISH data) 326 in the first stages. We must emphasize that Azonexus is able to grow under microaerophilic 327 conditions, in line with the observation that the β -Proteobacteria were always located in the 328 exterior zones of the microcolonies where they had access to traces of oxygen present in the 329 reactor. The presence of a microorganism related to the class Flavobacteria (Cb9, B5) seems 330 odd because they are typical of aerobes environments. Nonetheless, sequences similar to 331 Cytophaga have been found in anaerobic environments such as sulfate-reducing enrichment 332 cultures [41] and in granular sludge [12]. It has been suggested that the Cytophaga-333 Flavobacterium cluster play an important role in the degradation of complex organic matter in 334 anaerobic marine sediments [45]. This role might be extended to all anaerobic environments.

According to the FISH results, major microbial groups within the biofilm maintained the same architecture during biofilm maturation. Nevertheless, with time, new members appeared thus increasing the complexity of the ecosystem. In the maturation stage, some new sequences were retrieved (Cb6, Cb7, Cb8, B6, B8). Based on the closest genus described (*Aminobacterium*, *Catabacter* and *Clostridium*), these sequences belong to the Gram-positive

340 class Clostridia, which together with Bacteroidetes members (FISH data) could be involved not 341 only in hydrolysis and but also in fermentation steps. Some closely related sequences have 342 been found in methanogenic sludge (AF323770, not published) and granular sludge [16], 343 suggesting that these microorganisms are extremely widespread in anaerobic systems and that 344 they must have an important role in anaerobic digestion Even thought, an interesting observation 345 was that microorganisms from the phylum Thermotogae were detected in the mature biofilm. 346 Mesophilic Thermotogae have been isolated from anaerobic ecosystems [37, 59] and also 347 several similar sequences have been reported in an anaerobic reactor (AB195923, not 348 published).

349 With regard to the domain Archaea, all microorganisms identified in the biofilm 350 corresponded to methanogenic archaea. They were absent until 36 hours of biofilm 351 development. During the consolidation stage, the number of methanogens grew in parallel with 352 increase in microcolony size, mainly represented by Methanospirillum sp., a hydrogenotrophic 353 methanogen that began to form an increasingly complex network within the bacterial colonies 354 (FISH data, A3). Because of the energy released, the biomass yield is lower for acetate-355 consuming methanobacteria than for hydrogen-consumers favoring initial predominance 356 of. Methanospirillum over Methanosarcina and Methanosaeta. The increased number of 357 fermentative microorganisms implied a higher availability of acetate for acetoclastic 358 methanogens, which appeared later than hydrogenotrophic ones. The first acetoclastic 359 methanogen to appear was the genus Methanosarcina (Ca3,A1), which was found in the biofilm 360 as dense, bright packs. In the case of granular sludge, it has been reported [20] that substrates 361 that are easily fermented-such as the brewery wastewater used to feed our reactor-are 362 degraded mainly on the surface of granular sludge, while the intermediate products are 363 converted into acetate in the middle layers. This would explain the position in the biofilm of 364 *Methanosarcina*, which has a high Ks (4.02 mmoles L⁻¹) for acetate. DGGE and clone libraries 365 showed the presence of Methanosaeta genus (Ca1, Ca2, A2) in the former steps but it was

impossible to detect by FISH. This implies that few of these microorganisms were present (lessthan 1%) but their metabolic role was negligible.

368 In the evolution to a mature biofilm, Methanospirillum hungateii, was displaced over time 369 by Methanosaeta concilii. This archaea is the dominant methanogen in the anaerobic granular 370 sludge reactors [2, 47, 48], which was used to inoculate our reactor, M. concilii is an exclusively 371 acetoclastic organism with a slow growth rate (Vmax = $0.11 d^{-1}$). This could explain its early 372 detection by means of PCR-based technologies whereas with FISH it only appeared in 373 abundance in the mature stages of the biofilm. It is well known [33] that the complexity of the 374 trophic web of an engineered ecosystem leads to the prevalence of acetate over hydrogen as 375 the final product of the fermentation, resulting in overgrowth of Methanosaeta compared to 376 Methanospirillum.

The techniques based on the 16S rRNA gene allowed us to describe the development and diversity in the microbial community of an anaerobic biofilm. The insight gained on the formation of biofilms during anaerobic wastewater treatment can be applied to control anaerobic bioreactor technology for a wide range of applications.

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Table 1. _rDNA oligonucleotide probes used in this study

Probe	Specificity	Probe sequence (5'-3')	Reference
EUB338	Bacteria	GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT	3
ARC915	Achaea	GTGCTCCCCCGCCAATTCCT	50
NON338	Negative control	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGC	55
ALF968	α -Proteobacteria	GGTAAGGTTCTGCGCGTT	42
BET42a	β-Proteobacteria	GCCTTCCCACTTCGTTT	32
GAM42a	γ-Proteobacteria	GCCTTCCCACATCGTTT	32
SRB385	Sulfate-reducing bacteria	CGGCGTCGCTGCGTCAGG	3
DSS658	Desulfosarcina, Desulfococcus	TCCACTTCCCTCTCCCAT	33
DSV698	Desulfovibrio sp.	GTTCCTCCAGATATCTACGG	33
SYN835	Syntrophobacter	GCAGGAATGAGTACCCGC	24
BAC1080	Bacteroides	GCACTTAAGCCGACACCT	17
LGC354	Gram-positive bacteria with	TGGAAGATTCCCTACTGC	36
	low G+C content		
HGC69A	Gram-positive bacteria with	TATAGTTACCACCGCGT	44
	high G+C content		
MEB859	Methanobacteriales (except	GGACTTAACAGCTTCCCT	9
	Methanothermaceae)		
MC1109	Methanococcales	GCAACATAGGGCACGGGTCT	43
MG1200	Methanomicrobiales	CGGATAATTCGGGGCATGCTG	43
MSSH859	Methanosarcinales	CTCACCCATACCTCACTCGGG	9
MS1414	Methanosarcinales (except	CTCACCCATACCTCACTCGGG	43
	Methanosaeta)		
MX825	Methanosaeta	TCGCACCGTGGCCGACACCTAGC	43

Table 2.

Band ^a	Pb	Closest relative (Accession number)	S° (%)
B1	c,m	Syntrophobacter fumaroxidans (X82874)	92
B2	i,c	Clone I79 (AY692039), this work	99
		Oleomonas sagaranensis (D45202)	97
B3	i,c	Uncultured IMCC1716 (DQ664239), freshwater bacteria	99
		Azonexus fungiphilum (AJ630292)	97
B4	c,m	Uncultured clone SsB12 (AB291302), UASB reactor	92
		Hydrogenophaga defluvii (AJ585993)	90
B5	i	Clone I73 (AY692051), this work	99
		Flavobacterium frigoris (AJ557887)	93
B6	c,m	Clone M77 (AY692049), this work	99
		Catabacter hongkongensis (AY574991)	91
B7	i	Dechloromonas aromatica (CP000089)	98
B8	c,m	Clone M78 (AY692048), this work	99
		Aminobacterium colombiense (AF069287)	90
B9	i,c	Clone BA128 (AF323770), methanogenic consortium	99
		Thermovirga lienii (DQ071273)	96
B10	i,c	Clon I92 (AY692047) this work	99
		Arcobacter sp. R-28314 (AM084114)	98
B11	i	Rhodococcus opacus (AY027583)	99
A1	c,m	Uncultured CLONG74 (DQ478747), anaerobic sludge	98
		Metanosarcina mazei (AY196685)	94
A2	c,m	Clone M1 (AY692055), this work	98
		Methanosaeta concilli (X51423)	96
A3	c,m	Uncultured methanospirillum (DQ478753), UASB reactor	100
		Methanoculeus palmolei (Y16382)	95
		• • •	

Sequences from NCBI database with the highest similarity to each band. For uncultured microorganisms a brief description of the environment of origin is given.

563

^{a)} A: *Archaea*, B: *Bacteria* ^{b)} Period, i: initial, c: consolidation, m: mature 564

^{c)} Similarity 565

Table 3.

Abundance of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) determined with each clone library and sequences from NCBI database with the highest similarity to each OTU. For uncultured microorganisms, a brief description of the environment of origin is given.

OTU ^a	Pb	Abundance (%)	Closest relative (accession number)	S ^c (%)
			α-Proteobacteria	
Cb1	С	16.7	Oleomonas sagaranensis (D45202)	97
Cb2	С	5.6	Azospirillum brasilense (X79733)	96
			β-Proteobacteria	
Cb3	С	27.8	Dechloromonas sp. LT-1 (AY124797)	98
			δ-Proteobacteria	
Cb4	m	36.3	Uncultured bacterium PL-37B10 (AY570628), oil	99
			reservoir.	
			ε-Proteobacteria	
Cb5	С	38.9	Uncultured Arcobacter sp. DS081 (DQ234164),	99
			mangrove bacterioplankton.	
		07.0		~-
Cb6	m	27.3	Uncultured bacterium CLONG96 (DQ478749),	95
0.7		40.0	UASB reactor.	00
CD7	m	18.2	Uncultured bacterium SJA-136 (AJ009493),	96
			anaeropic inchloropenzene-transforming micropial	
ChQ	m	0.1	Lincultured bactorium SHA 74 (A 1206755)	04
CDO		9.1	dechlorinate consortium	94
Ch9	c	11 1	Flavobacterium frigidarium (AY771722)	93
000	U		Thermotogae	00
Cb10	m	9.1	Uncultured bacterium (AB195923), anaerobic	99
0.010		011	reactor.	00
			Methanomicrobia	
Ca1	с	100	Methanosaeta concilii (X51423)	99
Ca2	m	91.7	Methanosaeta concilii (X51423)	98
Ca3	m	6.2	Methanosarcina mazei (AE008384)	98
Ca4	m	2.1	Methanospirillum hungatei (M60880)	96

568 ^{a)} Ca: Archaea, Cb: Bacteria

569 ^{b)} Period, c: consolidation, m: mature

^{c)} Similarity

571 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

572 Figure 1. Micrographs of a biofilm over time using scanning electron microscopy. 1000x 573 magnification for all the pictures except for 60 days (200x). Details shown in the inner square 574 are 4000x. (B)

575

- 576 Figure 2. Growth curve of a biofilm during the first 10 days of development.
- 577

578 Figure 3. FISH of different development stages of a biofilm viewed by epifluorescence and CLS 579 microscopies. A, B, C, D, E and F: 36 hours. G, H and I: 4 days. J: 60 days. The samples A, B, 580 D. E, F, I were simultaneously stained with DAPI (blue) and specific-group Cy3-labeled probes 581 (red). (A) α -Proteobacteria (ALF338-Cy3). (B) β -Proteobacteria (BET42a-Cy3). (D) Sulfate-582 reducing bacteria (SRB385-Cy3). (E) Syntrophobacter (SYN835-Cy3). (F) Methanomicrobiales 583 (MG1200-Cy3), with Methanospirillum-like red rods. (G) Overlay of Methanobacteriales 584 (MEB859-Cv3, red) and Archaea (ARC915-fluos, green). The samples C and H were 585 simultaneously hybridized with a bacterial probe (EUB338-fluos, green) and other probes: (C) y-586 Proteobacteria (GAM42a-Cy3, yellow) and (H) Archaea (ARC915-Cy3, red). (I) Detail of 587 Methanosarcina group (ARC915-Cy3). (J) Orthogonal CLMS section of the XZ plane of a mature 588 biofilm hybridized with specific probes for Archaea and Bacteria (ARC915-Cy3, red and 589 EUB338-fluos, green). All the micrographs have a 630x magnification with the exception of I 590 which has a 1000x magnification.

591

592 Figure 4. DGGE fingerprint for Archaea (A) and Bacteria (B) throughout the experiment.

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Figure 5. Archaeal phylogenetic tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences retrieved from the cloning analysis. The bar scale represents 10 nucleotide substitutions per 100 nucleotides. The tree was constructed using parsimony.

from the cloning analysis. The bar scale represents 10 nucleotide substitutions per 100
nucleotides. The tree was constructed using parsimony.
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Figure 6. Bacterial phylogenetic tree based on complete 16S rRNA gene sequences retrieved







Figure 4







