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Interaction between physical heterogeneity and microbial processes in subsurface sediments: a laboratory-scale column experiment

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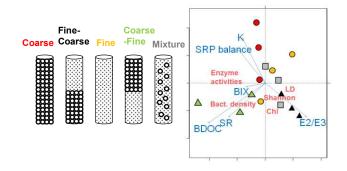
- ¹ Interaction between physical heterogeneity and microbial processes
- ² in subsurface sediments: a laboratory-scale column experiment
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9 Abstract

10 Physical heterogeneity determines interstitial fluxes in porous media. Nutrients and organic matter 11 distribution in depth influence physicochemical and microbial processes occurring in subsurface. 12 Columns 50 cm long were filled with sterile silica sand following 5 different setups combining fine 13 and coarse sands or a mixture of both mimicking potential water treatment barriers. Water was 14 supplied continuously to all columns during 33 days. Hydraulic conductivity, nutrients and organic 15 matter, biofilm biomass and activity were analysed in order to study the effect of spatial grain size 16 heterogeneity on physicochemical and microbial processes and their mutual interaction. Coarse 17 sediments showed higher biomass and activity in deeper areas compared to the others; however, they resulted in incomplete denitrification, large proportion of dead bacteria in depth, and low functional 18 19 diversity. Treatments with fine sediment in the upper 20 cm of the columns showed high 20 phosphorous retention. However, low hydraulic conductivity values reported in these sediments 21 seemed to constraint biofilm activity and biomass. On the other hand, sudden transition from coarse-22 to-fine grain sizes promoted a hot-spot of organic matter degradation and biomass growth at the

- 23 interface. Our results reinforce the idea that grain-size disposition in subsurface sandy sediments
- 24 drives the interstitial fluxes, influencing microbial processes.

25 TOC Art



26

Keywords: sediment heterogeneity, infiltration columns, hydraulic conductivity, biofilm biomass,
hot-spots, microbial processes

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Bacterial communities inhabiting surface and subsurface sediments catalyse a number of ecosystem processes, including uptake, storage and mineralization of dissolved organic matter, as well as 31 assimilation of inorganic nutrients.^{1,2} Processes occurring in subsurface sediments are not only 32 33 relevant in natural environments (such as in river hyporheic zones), but also in man-made applications for water quality improvement (such as land based wastewater disposal or managed 34 35 aquifer recharge facilities). Infiltration systems are water treatment systems that rely on water percolation³ through a porous medium whereby the quality of the effluent improves progressively 36 37 during the infiltration path as a consequence of the combination of biological, chemical and physical processes^{4,5} driven by microbial activity⁶ at the cost of progressively reducing infiltration rates.⁷ In 38 39 this sense, infiltration systems may be advantageous in many aspects; they may increase (by recharge) groundwater supplies, provide further treatment to infiltrating water, and reduce 40 degradation of stream-water quality.⁸ Infiltration systems may also enable water reuse thereby 41

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42 preserving valuable freshwater resources.⁹ Some examples of infiltration systems are Rapid
43 Infiltration Basin Systems (RIBS), Slow Sand Filtration Systems (SSFS), Soil-Aquifer treatment
44 (SAT) among others.

45 Biofilms colonizing subsurface sediments offer the potential for biotransformation of organic compounds, thereby providing an in situ method for treating contaminated groundwater supplies.¹⁰ 46 also relevant for emerging compounds degradation.¹¹ Processing by extracellular enzymes is the 47 primary mechanism for the microbial degradation of polymeric and macromolecular organic matter 48 49 into low-molecular-weight molecules which can then cross bacterial cell membranes, becoming available for bacterial growth and nutrient cycles.¹² Extracellular enzyme activities are good proxies 50 51 to determine nutrient demands and decomposition capabilities of microorganisms, as well as to 52 characterize the quantity and quality of available dissolved organic carbon and nutrients in the environment.¹² 53

Heterotrophic bacteria assimilate dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and concomitantly release 54 substantial amounts of carbon in the form of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS).¹³ The EPS 55 layer traps and stores particulates and nutrients for cell metabolism and is generally thought to 56 comprise the major component of bacterial biofilm.¹⁴ It can also affect the physical characteristics of 57 58 porous medium through the reduction of available pore spaces for flow and alteration of water retention,¹⁵⁻¹⁶ significantly reducing hydraulic conductivity and enhancing dispersion of solutes.¹⁷ 59 60 Microbial processes and biomass accrual in subsurface sediments are determined by the surrounding 61 physical and chemical conditions. The link between physicochemical and biological parameters is complex^{18,19} but the consideration of the interactions of soil microorganisms with their physical and 62 63 chemical environments is crucial for substantially advance in our understanding of microbial ecology.¹⁹⁻²¹ Recently, some studies addressed water quality changes resulting from infiltration in 64 porous media^{3,5} and biofilm accumulation in infiltration systems (a term called bioclogging).²² Link 65

between physicochemical and biological processes in porous media has also been studied by other
 authors.^{14,19,20,23,24,25}

Spatial heterogeneity of particle grain sizes distribution determines the specific physical and chemical 68 69 conditions in subsurface sediments. Sediment grain size and distribution are key parameters 70 determining interstitial fluxes, which also modulate the distribution of electron donors and acceptors and, consequently, the distribution of microbial processes in subsurface sediments.²⁶, Related to this, 71 Higashino²⁷ proposed a model where grain diameter plays an important role in determining both 72 73 hydraulic conductivity and microbial oxygen uptake rate. Small hydraulic conductivity resulted in 74 small dissolved oxygen transfer but large microbial oxygen uptake rate. In coarse sand they stated 75 that even dissolved oxygen transfer rate can be large owing to a large hydraulic conductivity, 76 microbial oxygen uptake rate is small since available surface area for colonization by biofilms is reduced. On the other hand, Essandoh, Tizaoui and Mohamed²⁸ concluded that the type of soil affects 77 78 the performance of soil columns; specifically they stated that low hydraulic conductivity results in low microbial growth and low DOC removal. Similarly, Dodds, Randel and Edler²⁹ stated that 79 80 microbial activity may be greatest with the largest particle size because of increased water exchange 81 through pores, and smallest particle size would promote denitrification. As the influence of substratum type or grain size on biogeochemical processes and biofilm 82

83 accumulation is not clear and it remains poorly understood, further investigation is needed to focus 84 on the interaction between physicochemical and biological parameters in different spatial grain size 85 distributions. The present work addresses the link between physicochemical and microbial processes 86 in subsurface sediments using laboratory-scale infiltration columns of different sediment grain sizes 87 and distribution. The objectives are to understand the influence of subsurface sediment heterogeneity 88 on (1) physicochemical water parameters; (2) biofilm biomass and activity and (3) the relationship 89 between these parameters and how they influence biogeochemical processes occurring in sediment infiltration systems. For this purpose, we designed a number of column setups (mimicking potential 90

sand filter treatments) with different combinations of fine and coarse sands placed in differentcolumns.

93 We expected that coarse sediment would display higher infiltration rates, which would transfer higher 94 quantity of dissolved oxygen (DO), nutrients and organic matter during the infiltration process. This 95 will promote biofilm activity and biomass in deeper areas in columns having coarse sediment. On the 96 other hand, low hydraulic conductivity in fine sediments would promote anaerobic zones potential to 97 denitrification processes, but biofilm activity and biomass in depth will be limited due to reduced 98 transport of nutrients and organic matter in depth. Also we expect high phosphorous retention in fine 99 sediments compared to coarse ones. Mixture of coarse and fine sand would enable the coexistence of 100 slow and rapid zones which would promote aerobic and anaerobic processes at the same layers, as 101 well as enhancing biogeochemical processes and biomass development which could be responsible of 102 stronger bioclogging. Bilayer columns of coarse sediment in the upper part and fine sediment in the 103 bottom part would take advantage of high transfer of DO, nutrients and organic matter in the coarse 104 layer, and anaerobic conditions and phosphorous retention in the fine layer.

- 105 **2. Experimental**
- 106 **2.1 Experimental design and sampling**

The laboratory experiment consisted in flow-through columns filled with sediments of different grain sizes. We used two different grain sizes: coarse sand (0.9 - 1.2 mm) and fine sand (0.075 - 0.250 mm), placed in columns 50 cm long and 4.6 cm diameter to create 5 treatments (3 replicate per treatment for a total of 15 columns) with different spatial distribution of fine and coarse sand. All the sand had been previously burned (450 °C for 4 hours) and cleaned with distilled water to ensure it was free from organic matter.

We designed a column setup (mimicking potential sand filter treatments) with five combinations of fine and coarse sands (see Fig. 1). Each column was filled to a height of 40 cm. A layer of 10 cm of

water was left above the sediment surface. Infiltration was performed with synthetic water (13 mg L^{-1} 115 Na₂SO₄, 16.1 mg·L⁻¹ Na₂SiO₃, 29.4 mg·L⁻¹ CaCl₂*2H₂O, 0.6 mg·L⁻¹ KCl, 3 mg·L⁻¹ MgSO₄*7H₂O, 116 26.5 mg·L⁻¹ Na₂CO₃, 0.6 mg·L⁻¹NH₄H₂PO₄, 7.3 mg·L⁻¹ (NH₄)(NO₃), and 4.27 mg·L⁻¹ humic acids in 117 118 MQ water) reproducing the chemical signature of a well characterized pristine river (Fuirosos stream, Spain).³⁰ Nutrient and organic matter concentrations where slightly enhanced to facilitate biofilm 119 120 colonization of the sediment. An inlet water tank (50 L) was placed on top of each group of 5 121 columns to produce a flow-through system. Water tanks were refilled when necessary to ensure 122 continuous infiltration. The experiment was performed at a constant temperature (20 °C) with a 12:12 light:dark cycle (incident light was 130-150 μ mol photons m⁻²·s⁻¹). The portion of the columns filled 123 with sand was kept in the dark to mimic subsurface conditions by wrapping them with opaque 124 125 material. Light conditions were allowed in the surface sediment as in real infiltration sand basins. At the start of the experiment, a bacterial inoculum extracted from natural sediment (from Fuirosos 126 stream) was added to all the columns (700 ml, $1.27 \cdot 10^7$ cel·ml⁻¹). 127 128 During the 33 days of experiment, physical and chemical water characteristics (pH, DO, conductivity 129 and temperature) were measured twice per week in the inlet tanks to ensure homogeneous conditions 130 during all the experiment. Water samples from the inlet tanks and the outlet of each of the columns 131 were taken on days 15, 20, 30 and 33 to measure dissolved nutrients and organic matter content 132 (nitrates/nitrites, ammonium, phosphates, dissolved organic carbon –DOC-, and several dissolved organic matter –DOM- quality properties). DO in sediment at three different depths and flow at the 133 134 outlet of the columns, were measured weekly. All measurements were performed during the light 135 cycle and at the same time (after 6 hours of the start of the light conditions) to reduce variability 136 between measurements due to day/night cycles. 137 At the end of the experiment, columns were dismantled for sediment biofilm biomass and activity

measurements at three different depths (0-2 cm, 18-22 cm, 36-38 cm). These depths corresponded to

the top (inlet) and the bottom (outlet) of the column, and an intermediate point which in two of the

- 140 configurations correspond to the interface between coarse and fine grain sizes. Sediment samples
- 141 were analysed for bacterial density, bacterial viability, chlorophyll-a content –chl-a-, extracellular
- 142 polymeric substances EPS- content, extracellular enzyme activity and functional diversity. Each
- 143 layer of sediment was sampled totally and homogenized. Sub-samples of 1ml of sediment were then
- 144 collected using an uncapped syringe.

145 **2.2 Physical and chemical water analyses**

146 *2.2.1 Flow and hydraulic conductivity*

147 Flow rate (Q) was measured manually at the outlet of each individual column. Hydraulic

148 conductivity K (in cm/s) was calculated using Darcy's law:

149
$$K = \frac{QL}{\Delta h A} \tag{1}$$

where Δh is the piezometric head difference (set at a constant value of 1108 ± 9 cm), *L* is total length of the sediment (= 40 cm), *A* is the cross-section area (= 16.619 cm²), and *Q* is measured in cm³/s.

Advection time is a measure of the time that takes water to go through the sediment. Advection time(t) was calculated using the formula:

155 $\mathbf{t} = (\mathbf{\emptyset} \cdot \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{A}) / \mathbf{Q}$ (2)

where \emptyset is the porosity of the sediment (0.4 for the coarse sediment and 0.32 for the fine sediment).

158 2.2.2 Chemical water analyses

Physicochemical water parameters (pH, DO, conductivity and temperature) were measured with
specific probes (HQd Field Case, HACH) in the supply tanks. To measure DO at different depths
(surface, 20 cm and 40 cm) without perturbing the sediment biofilm, a non-invasive method was used
by fixing oxygen sensor spots inside the wall of the columns and measuring dissolved oxygen
concentration using an optical fiber (PreSens).

164 Samples for dissolved nutrients and organic matter determination were filtered in pre-burned (4

hours, 450°C) filters (GF/F, 0.7 μm, Whatmann). After filtering, samples for dissolved inorganic

166 nutrients were frozen until analysis. DOM spectroscopic properties were analysed in fresh. Samples

167 for DOC analysis were acidified and kept at 4°C until analysis. Inorganic nutrients were analysed as

168 following: nitrate by ionic chromatography (761 Compact IC 1.1 Metrohm), phosphate by the

169 Murphy-Riley³¹ spectrophotometric method, and ammonium by the spectrophotometric sodium

170 salicylate protocol.³² DOC was analysed with TOC-V CHS/TNM-1 SHIMADZU. Spectroscopic

171 properties were analysed in order to characterize potential changes in DOM quality and included the

172 following parameters: the Slope ratio (SR) described in Helms et al.³³ which is inversely correlated to

- 173 organic matter molecular weight; the Fluorescence Index (FI) described in Cory and Mcknight³⁴
- 174 indicative of the origin of the organic matter; the Biological Index (BIX, Huguet et al.)³⁵ as indicator
- 175 of recent biological activity and the E2/E3 index which is related to photo reactivity (Minero et al.).³⁶

176 Biodegradable dissolved organic carbon (BDOC) was analysed once, following the protocol

177 described by Servais et al.³⁷

178 **2.3 Sediment biofilm biomass and activity**

179 2.3.1 Bacterial density

180 Bacterial density was determined by flow cytometry (FACSCalibur, Becton Dickinson) following a

- 181 protocol adapted from Amalfitano et al.³⁸ Filter-sterilized (filtered by 0.2 μm) simplified synthetic
- 182 water (without nutrients and organic carbon, 10 ml) and formaldehyde (100 µl, 37%) were added to

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183 each sediment sample. Samples were kept in the dark at room temperature until analysis. Sediment 184 samples were sonicated for 1 minute, shook for 30 seconds, and sonicated again for 1 minute to 185 extract the biofilm from sediment grains (Ultrasons, Selecta). A sub-sample of the obtained extract (1 186 ml) was pipetted into a glass vial and 9 ml of detaching solution was added. Detaching solution 187 consists of NaCl (130mM), Na₂HPO₄ (7 mM), NaH₂PO₄ (3 mM), formaldehyde (37%), sodium pyrophosphate decahydrate 99% (0.1% final concentration), and tween 20 (0.5% final concentration), 188 189 and it helps to separate cells avoiding aggregation. Samples were then shaken for 30 minutes (150 190 rpm) at dark and room temperature conditions. Samples were left 10 minutes at 4 °C, and sonicated 191 with ice during two cycles of 1 minute. After shaking for 1 minute, samples were left for 5 minutes 192 for sedimentation of larger particles and 1 ml of supernatant was transferred in an Eppendorf. 193 Nycodenz (1 ml) was added to the bottom of the Eppendorf and samples were centrifuged (14000 194 rpm) for 90 minutes at 4 °C. Purified extract (400 µl) was stained with Syto13 (4µl Fisher, 5µM 195 solution) and incubated in the dark for 30 minutes. Stained samples were counted using flow 196 cytometry (FACSCalibur, Becton Dickinson). To normalize fluorescence data, a bead solution (10µl of 10^6 beads·ml⁻¹, Fisher 1.0 µm) was added to the samples in a known concentration. Results are 197 reported as bacterial cells $\cdot 10^6$ /g sediment dry weight. 198

199 2.3.2 Bacterial viability

200 A bacterial extract from fresh sediment samples was first prepared to obtain a homogeneous and 201 dispersed cell suspension. Pyrophosphate (5ml, 50mM) was added to fresh sediment samples³⁹ and 202 they were incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature and soft shaking. Samples were then sonicated for one minute with ice to avoid cell disruption.⁴⁰ A sub-sample of the obtained extract (1 203 204 ml) was diluted with filter-sterilized simplified synthetic water (1:50). A sub-sample of the diluted 205 extract (400 µl) was stained with propidium iodide and Syto 9 (8 µl, BacLight Bacterial Viability Kit).⁴¹ Syto 9 penetrates all bacterial membranes and stains the cells fluorescent green, while 206 propidium iodide only penetrates cells with damaged membranes, and the combination of the two 207

stains produced red fluorescing cells.⁴² Samples were incubated in the dark for 15 minutes. According to Falcioni et al.⁴¹ to normalize fluorescence data, a bead solution (40μ l of 10^6 beads·ml⁻¹, Fisher 1.0 µm) was added to the samples in a known concentration. Bacterial viability was measured by flow cytometry (FACSCalibur, Becton Dickinson). Results are reported as the ratio between live cells (L) and dead cells (D) -LD ratio-.

213 2.3.3 Chlorophyll-a

214 Samples for chl-a analysis were placed in glass vials and kept in dark at (-20°C) until analysis. Chl-a

concentration was determined as described by Jeffrey and Humphrey⁴³. Acetone 90% (10 ml) was

added to each sediment sample in order to extract the chl-a and kept in dark for 8-12 hours at 4°C.

217 Sediment samples were sonicated and filtered (GF/C, 1.4 µm, 47 mm). Absorbance was measured at

430, 665, and 750 nm. Results are given as μg of chlorophyll-a/g sediment dry weight.

219 2.3.4 Content of polysaccharides in extracellular polymeric substances

220 EPS were extracted by a cation exchange resin (CER) and the content of polysaccharides measured spectrophotometrically following the protocol described by Dubois et al.⁴⁴ Sediment samples for EPS 221 222 analysis were placed in plastic flasks and frozen until analysis. Previous to analyses, CER (Dowex 223 Marathon C sodium form, Sigma-Aldrich) was conditioned with HCl (4M) and NaOH (1M) 224 following manufacturer instructions, and the samples were left to reach room temperature. Then, 225 samples were placed in an Eppendorf with 1ml of simplified synthetic water plus 0.3 g of CER. After 226 shaking them carefully, samples were incubated with ice for one hour in a shaker (250 rpm). Samples 227 were then centrifuged (11000 rpm) for 15 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant (500 µl) from each sample 228 was pipetted into glass tubes. A phenol solution (12.5 μ l, 80% w/w) was added to the glass tubes. 229 After carefully shaken, 1.25 ml of H₂SO₄ (95.5%) was added to the samples. Glass tubes were 230 capped. After 10 minutes, samples were carefully shaken and incubated for 20 minutes in a water 231 bath (30 °C). Absorbance (485 nm) was measured in a spectrophotometer. To determine EPS

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concentration, a glucose standard was prepared. Further transformation of results to sediment dry
weight was performed. Results are given in µg glucose-equivalents/g dry weight.

234 2.3.5 Extracellular enzyme activities

Extracellular enzyme activities β -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21), β -xylosidase (EC 3.2.1.37), phosphatase

(EC 3.1.3.1 -2) and leucine-aminopeptidase (EC 3.4.11.1) were measured with spectrofluorometry

237 using fluorescent-linked artificial substrates (Methylumbelliferyl (MUF)-β-D-glucopyranoside,

238 MUF-β-D-xyloside, MUF-phosphate and L-leucine-7-amido-4-methylcoumarin hydrochloride (Leu-

AMC), Sigma-Aldrich). All enzyme activities were measured under saturating conditions (0.3 mM).⁴⁵

Fresh sediment samples were placed in a 15 ml tube with synthetic water (4 ml) and 120µl of

artificial substrate. A blank for each artificial substrate was prepared with synthetic water in order to

determine the abiotic hydrolysis of the substrate itself. Samples and blanks were incubated for 1 hour

in the dark with agitation. After 1-hour incubation, glycine buffer (4 ml, pH 10.4) was added in order

to stop the reaction and maximize MUF and AMC fluorescence. Samples were centrifuged (2000 g)

for 2 minutes, and the supernatant (350 μl) of each sample was placed into a 96 wells black plate

246 (Greiner bio-one). Fluorescence was measured at excitation/emission wavelengths of 365/455 (MUF

fluorescence) and 364/445 (AMC fluorescence) in a fluorimeter plate reader (Tecan, infinite M200

248 Pro). To determine extracellular enzyme activities, MUF and AMC standards were prepared and

249 measured for their fluorescence. Results are given in nmol MUF/g dry weight h or nmol AMC/g dry

250 weight h.

244

251 2.3.6 Functional diversity

Biolog Ecoplates microplates (AEX Chemunex) were used to determine functional diversity of sediment communities. Each microplate contains three replicate wells of 31 carbon sources and a blank (no substrate). To obtain an extract of the microbial community from the sediment samples a similar procedure to that used for bacteria viability was used. Pyrophosphate (5 ml, 50 mM) was added to the sediment samples which were then incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature and

11

257 soft shaking. Samples were sonicated for one minute with ice. A sub-sample of the obtained extract 258 (1 ml) was diluted with filter-sterilized simplified synthetic water (1:50). Microplates were inoculated 259 under sterile conditions with 130 μ l of the diluted extract to each well and incubated in dark 260 conditions at 20 °C for 14 days. Absorbance was measured every 24 hours at 590 nm (Tecan, infinite 261 M200 Pro). The color measured in each well, a measure of the capability of the inoculated 262 community to metabolize the specific substrate, was corrected by the color measured in the blank 263 well from each microplate. During the incubation, absorbance measurements increased following a 264 sigmoidal pattern, and after 14 days of incubation the absorbance was saturated. Absorbance data of 265 each substrate, when the average well color (AWCD) was 0.5, was used to calculate functional diversity by means of the Shannon diversity index.⁴⁶ 266

267 **2.4 Data treatment**

Normalized hydraulic conductivity with respect to the original value (K/K_0 , K being actual hydraulic 268 269 conductivity and K₀ the initial one at each column) was calculated as a function of time and analyzed 270 with ANCOVA analysis. Oxygen balance was calculated from the differences between column 271 outlets and inlets. To study the relationship between oxygen balance and normalized hydraulic 272 conductivity Pearson's correlation was performed. Nutrient and DOC balances were calculated from 273 the differences between column outlets and inlet tanks and process rates were calculated dividing 274 nutrient balances by advection time. For these parameters, differences between treatments were analyzed with two factors ANOVA (factor: day and treatment). Differences in DOM properties 275 276 between treatments were also analyzed with ANOVA (factor: day and treatment). For better 277 understanding the relationship between physic-chemical parameters and biological processes 278 occurring in the columns, values of hydraulic conductivity measured the last day of the experiment 279 were analyzed through ANOVA to detect differences between treatments. Biological data from sediment samples and DO from the last sampling day were analyzed by a two-way ANOVA test for 280 281 differences between treatments and depths and their interaction. Whenever significant differences

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were detected, further Tukey's post hoc tests were performed. Differences between treatments at eachdepth were further analyzed.

284 To integrate physic-chemical and biological data along the column, a redundancy analysis (RDA) 285 was performed using one matrix with biofilm biomass and activity values, fitted with another matrix 286 containing physic-chemical parameters (nutrient and DO balances, DOM properties and absolute K 287 values) measured the last day of the experiment in each treatment. Since biofilm biomass and activity 288 was measured at three different depths, data was integrated by depth layers to obtain one number per 289 parameter and treatment. Complementarily, ANOSIM analysis was performed to detect differences 290 between treatments. Further, Pearson's correlation was performed. All statistical analyses were 291 carried out with R statistics (vegan package) excepting ANOSIM analysis which was performed 292 using PRIMER v.6 Software. For multivariate analysis, variables were previously scaled using the 293 scale command in R. For ANOVA analysis all variables were logarithmically transformed to bring 294 the variables close to the normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk normality test). In all the parameters 295 three replicates were used.

296

3. Results

3.1 Physicochemical parameters

298 Flow measured at the start of the experiment was 1.07 ± 0.42 ml/s in Coarse treatment; 0.17 ± 0.03 299 ml/s and 0.13 ± 0.02 ml/s in Fine-Coarse and in Fine treatments, respectively; 0.39 ± 0.18 ml/s in 300 Coarse-Fine treatment and 0.31 ± 0.1 ml/s in Mixture treatment. Hydraulic conductivity displayed a 301 clear decreasing trend with time (Fig. S1). ANCOVA analysis did not show significant differences in 302 normalized K values between treatments although results showed that in the Coarse and Coarse-fine 303 columns K reduction started later as compared to the other treatments, which showed a sharp 304 reduction in the first days. All columns showed a negative oxygen balance indicating consumption of 305 oxygen from the column inlet to the outlet. Oxygen consumption increased along the experiment 306 reaching values of -6 mg O_2/L at the end of the experiment. Oxygen consumption was correlated with

307	reduction of hydraulic conductivity (Fig. S2) however at the start of the experiment slightly positive
308	oxygen balance values were reported possibly due to still high instability of the system. On the last
309	day of the experiment, the highest K values were measured in treatments displaying coarse sand at
310	the upper layers (Coarse and Coarse-fine treatments, Table 1). Absolute DO values showed a
311	significant decrease in depth ($p < 0.01$, Table 1). The minimum value reported for DO was 2 mg/L.
312	No significant differences in DO were detected between treatments at any given depth but slight
313	oxygen production occurred at the surface of the sediment especially in Fine-Coarse, Fine and
314	Mixture treatment (Table 1). Coarse and Coarse-Fine treatment resulted in high DO consumption rate
315	(Table 2). Coarse treatment showed also the shortest advection time meaning that water passed faster
316	through the sediment. On the other hand, Fine-Coarse and Fine treatments showed the longest
317	advection times indicating more time for water to pass through the sediment (Table 2).
318	After 30 days from the start of the experiment all the ammonium supplied at the inlet (1.26 mg N-
319	NH ₄ /L) was eventually fully transformed in all treatments (Fig. S3). However, Coarse treatment was
320	showing the highest ammonium consumption rate (Table 2). N-NOx balance showed mainly positive
321	values indicating nitrate/nitrite production. No significant differences were detected between
322	treatments in N-NOx balances, but when analyzing N-NOx production rates Coarse treatment
323	resulted in the highest values (Table 2). Phosphorus was mainly retained through all sediment
324	columns and the highest retention was measured for Fine-Coarse and Fine treatments (Fig. S4). Mean
325	DOC at the inlet tanks was 1.39 ± 0.38 mg/L, at the outlet was 1.44 ± 0.28 mg/L, this results in a very
326	small balance and no differences between treatments were detected.
327	Even though no differences were detected in DOC concentrations differences in DOM properties
328	were reported (Table S1): the Coarse treatment showed the lowest SR and BIX values, while the
329	Coarse-Fine one reported the highest BIX value. E2/E3 values were highest for the Fine-Coarse
330	treatment. The highest BDOC value was observed in the Coarse-fine treatment and the lowest one
331	corresponded to the Fine.

333 Bacterial density, chlorophyll and EPS content in sediments showed a strong vertical gradient in 334 depth with highest values at the surface declining sharply in the top 20 cm (Fig. 2). This depth pattern 335 was different depending on the treatment. Bacterial density at the surface was not significantly 336 different between treatments, but at 20 cm depth, the highest values were measured at the Coarse-fine 337 treatment and at 40 cm the highest values were measured at the Coarse treatment. The highest 338 chlorophyll-a concentration at the surface was measured at the Fine-coarse and fine treatment, and at 339 20 cm depth highest values were found in the Coarse-fine treatment. Mixture treatment showed the 340 lowest EPS concentration at 20 and 40 cm depth.

The LD ratio (live to dead bacteria) was below 1 for all treatments, and increased in depth except in the Coarse treatment (Fig. 3). Functional diversity decreased with depth (Fig. 3); the lowest value was detected in the Coarse column at 20 and 40 cm depths, and the highest was reported for the Finecoarse column at 20 cm. Analyzing the functional fingerprint, no significant differences were detected between treatments, but that at the surface was different from the ones observed at 20 and 40 cm depth (ANOSIM, r = 0.567, p = 0.0001).

Extracellular enzyme activities showed a gradient in depth (Table 3). The Coarse-fine treatment
showed higher β-glucosidase and β-xylosidase activities in the surface compared to the other
sediments. This treatment also showed higher β-xylosidase and phosphatase activities at 20 cm depth.
The Coarse treatment showed higher β-glucosidase and leucine-aminopeptidase activities at 40 cm
depth.

352 **3.3 Integrating physicochemical and biological responses**

353 Integrating values for each individual column and performing an RDA analysis, data corresponding

to biofilm activity, biomass and functional diversity was fitted with the environmental variables

- 355 (nutrient balances, hydraulic conductivity and DOC properties measured the last day of the
- experiment) to study the conjunction between biofilm and physical properties (Fig. 4). Treatments

15

displaying coarse sand in the first 20 cm (Coarse and Coarse-fine), are placed on the left of the graph;

showing the lowest E2/E3 values and the highest β -glucosidase, β -xylosidase and leucine-

aminopeptidase activities. However, differences between the Coarse-fine and the Coarse treatments

360 do exist. The former resulted in higher phosphatase activity, bacterial density, BDOC, BIX, FI, and

361 SR. On the other hand, the Coarse treatment was characterized by highest hydraulic conductivity,

362 lowest phosphorous retention, highest NOx production, and low LD ratio as well as low functional

363 diversity.

364 On the right part of the same graph (Fig.4) we can find the treatments with low hydraulic

365 conductivity (Fine, Fine-coarse and Mixture), all involving fine sand in the upper 20 cm and sharing

low values of β -glucosidase, β -xylosidase and leucine-aminopeptidase activities, and high E2/E3

367 values and oxygen consumption. However, interpretation of E2/E3 index should be done cautiously

since its values and the tendencies between treatments vary among time. Significant differences were

detected between all treatments (ANOSIM, r = 0.6, p = 0.001), except for Fine and Mixture treatment which could not be discriminated.

371 Pearson's correlations were performed for the last day of the experiment with biological and

372 physicochemical parameters. Significant correlations (r > 0.5, p < 0.05) are described as follows:

373 hydraulic conductivity was positively correlated with positive balances of N-NOx and phosphorous

374 indicating production of N-NOx and no retention of phosphorous. BDOC was positively correlated

375 with bacterial density. Extracellular enzyme activities were positively correlated between them and

bacterial density was positive correlated with all of them. Shannon Index was positively correlated

with chl-a content, LD ratio and E2/E3 index. Negative balance of DO was positively correlated with
 transformation of N-NH4.

4. Discussion

4.1 Effects of sediment heterogeneity on physicochemical parameters

382 Saturated hydraulic conductivity (K) is the most relevant parameter driving flow and transport in 383 porous media. As expected, hydraulic conductivity was highest in the Coarse treatment, while the 384 presence of fine sediments in the other treatments resulted in lower conductivity values. This coincides with Baveye et al.⁴⁷ and Pavelic et al.⁹ who found higher saturated hydraulic conductivity in 385 386 coarse-textured materials as compared to fine-textured materials. As expected, high hydraulic 387 conductivity results on high transfer of nutrients, organic matter and DO in depth, which allow for 388 high nitrification rates. Reduction in K as a function of time was mostly associated to biological 389 clogging. However, sharp K reduction at the beginning of the experiment in treatments with fine sediment in the upper layer could be related to sediment compaction⁴⁸. In the columns, reduction of 390 391 hydraulic conductivity was correlated to oxygen consumption. DO is energetically the most favourable electron acceptor and strongly influences the succession of biogeochemical processes 392 within the subsurface.⁴⁹ Specifically, DO is consumed during the mineralization of organic matter 393 394 and nitrification of ammonium in the oxic zone. However, decrease of oxygen in subsurface 395 sediments could be also related to slow DO supply resulting from the reduction of K and corresponding water fluxes with time.⁵⁰ Contrarily to what expecting, no denitrification was achieved 396 397 in any treatment due to DO concentrations were not low enough. As phosphorous reduction is 398 enhanced by the presence of fine sediment, we expect adsorption to be the main process affecting phosphorous reduction. However, it also could be related to high P uptake by autotrophs,⁵¹ as 399 400 treatments with fine sediment in the upper part showed high Chl-a concentration at the surface and 401 high phosphorus reduction.

Low SR values reported in the Coarse treatment are indicative of low organic matter degradation (SR
 values are inversely correlated to organic matter molecular weight).³³ Oppositely, transition from

404 coarse-to-fine sediment could promote biological activity as indicated by high BIX values³⁵ and high
 405 SR values.

406 **4.2 Linking physicochemical parameters to biofilm biomass and activity**

In general, biomass and biofilm activity decrease with depth (e.g., Freixa et al.)⁵². This is related to
oxygen and nutrients being the limiting factor controlling bacterial growth and metabolic activity¹⁸
and these resources decreasing in depth.^{53,54} The experiment show significant interaction between
treatment and depth for most biological parameters, indicating that the sediment grain size

distribution was affecting differently the activity and biomass patterns in depth.

412 Sediments displaying high hydraulic conductivity values are expected to lead to fast transport of

413 organic matter into deeper sediments⁵⁵ due to high infiltration rates. This could explain high bacterial

414 biomass concentrations at large depths in coarse sediments. However, the low proportion of live

415 bacteria in depth and the high reduction on functional diversity in these sediments coincide with less

416 degraded organic matter. Also high leucine-aminopeptidase activity achieved in coarse sediments

417 could be an indicator of organic material released because of cell lysis.⁵⁶

418 The coarse-to-fine transition promotes the accumulation and transformation of organic matter at the 419 interface. This was suggested by the highest capacity to degrade polysaccharides as demonstrated by high C-acquiring enzyme activities, β-glucosidase and β-xylosidase activities. The former is related 420 to cellulose degradation, while the latter is promoted by the presence of hemicellulose.⁵⁷ High 421 422 phosphatase activity in the transition compared to the other treatments could be related to high chl-a 423 content, since algae are also responsible for this activity but may be also linked to low availability of 424 inorganic phosphorus due to its low retention capacity which may enhance bacterial phosphatase 425 activity. High enzyme activities in Coarse-fine treatment coincide with biogeochemical aspects 426 explained above (high BIX and SR values) implying that the coarse-to-fine transition promotes the 427 transformation of organic matter into biodegradable, low-molecular-weight molecules.

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428 In the treatments displaying low hydraulic conductivity, nutrients and organic matter transport to 429 deeper areas are limited, resulting in low microbial activity and biomass in depth. High E2/E3 values 430 measured in such treatments on the last day of the experiment could be indicative of the photodegradability and photo-reactivity of DOC;^{58,59} however this statement should be interpreted with 431 432 caution since results in E2/E3 index are not consistent throughout the sampling days. High Chl-a 433 concentration measured in these treatments could be favored by high advection time which resulted 434 in slow flow and increased the contact time between water, sediment and light in the upper part of the 435 columns. This in turn could be responsible of slight higher values of DO in the upper part of these 436 columns due to release of oxygen from photosynthetic activity. However, as advection times were 437 much shorter (between 12 minutes and 1 hour) than day/night cycles we expect that the pulses in DO 438 due to algal metabolism will be rapidly dislocated through the columns and then having limited effect 439 on biogeochemical processes. Further work will be necessary to clearly understand specific effects of 440 daily primary production pulses and consequent daily variability on the physicochemical parameters 441 in infiltration systems.

The non-homogeneity of sediment grain size, despite the spatial homogeneity (Mixture treatment)
contrarily to what expected, did not favor microbial colonization or extracellular enzyme activity.
Furthermore, it resulted in the lowest values of EPS concentration in depth. Since not many
differences were accountable between the Fine and the Mixture treatments, we could state that the
presence of fine grain size sediments would determine the majority of the biogeochemical processes
that take place in the subsurface.

To sum up, sediments composed even partially by coarse sands which display high infiltration rates, transfer high quantity of nutrients and organic matter in depth which promote high bacterial density in deeper areas compared to fine sand sediments. Although not seeing differences in oxygen concentration between treatments; nitrification rates and oxygen consumption rates are greater for coarse sediment. Related to this, higher rates of infiltration may be associated with higher potential 453 process rates. However, low water residence times in coarse sediments result in low functional 454 diversity and a decrease in the proportion of live bacteria in depth. On the other hand, the presence of 455 fine sands limits biofilm activity and biomass in depth due to low infiltration which at the same time 456 reduce nutrient load in depth. According to this, biofilm activity, biomass and process rates could be 457 limited by low nutrient load. On the other hand, phosphorous retention is enhanced by fine sediment. 458 Transition of coarse to fine grain size sediments promote the accumulation of organic matter in the 459 interface, favoring its decomposition to smaller and more biodegradable compounds and creating hot-460 spots of bacterial activity and biomass.

461 The present work concludes that biological and physicochemical parameters are influenced by the 462 grain size and the grain size distribution of the sediment. In relation to our hypothesis, coarse 463 sediment allows for high biomass in depth and high process rates due to high input load, while fine 464 sediment promotes accumulation of algae in the upper part of the columns and ameliorates 465 phosphorous retention but biomass in subsurface is constrained by low input loads. However, in 466 contrast to our hypothesis mixture of coarse and fine sediment behaves similarly than only fine sediment. Interestingly, bilayer of coarse sediment in the upper part and fine sediment in the bottom 467 promotes high biomass in the interface between the two layers resulting in high microbial organic 468 469 matter degradation and nutrient recycling and also allows for phosphorous retention mainly thanks to 470 the fine layer.

In short, it is important to account for the implications of grain size and spatial transitions between layers in subsurface sediments in order to understand and improve biological and physical knowledge about processes occurring either in natural or in artificial infiltration systems. It is important to take into account that implications of sediment heterogeneity on microbial biomass and activity are not fully characterized by the topsoil few cm, but rather influenced by the grain size spatial distribution of at least the top 40 cm.

477 Supporting Information

478	The supporting information is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.
479	DOM properties measured in each treatment during the experiment (Table S1), temporal
480	variation of normalized hydraulic conductivity for each treatment (Figure S1), relationship
481	between oxygen balance and normalized hydraulic conductivity (Figure S2), temporal
482	variation of ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite balances (Figure S3), temporal variation of
483	phosphorous balance (Figure S4).
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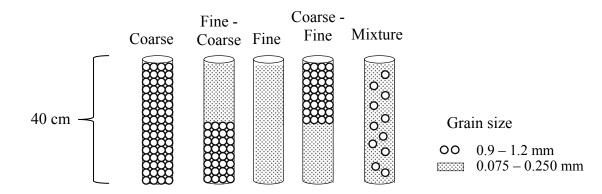
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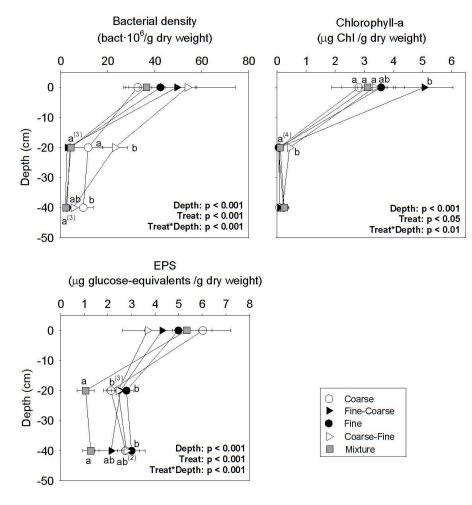
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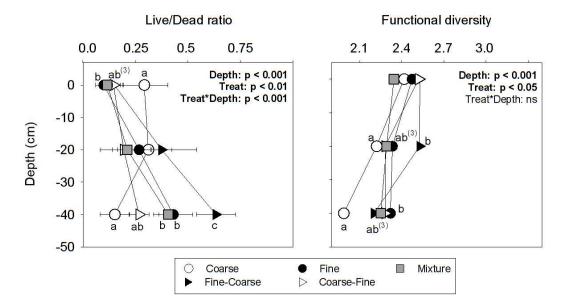


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Figure 1 Scheme of the column configurations regarding grain size distributions used in this experiment. Three replicate columns were used for each treatment.

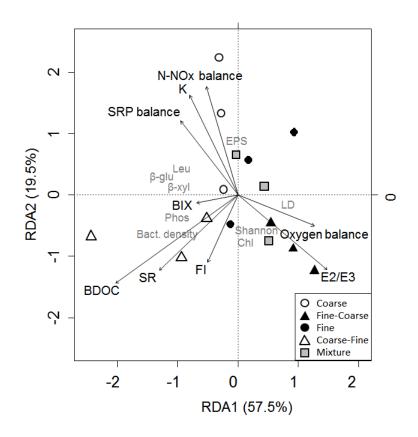


667 Figure 2 Absolute values of biofilm biomass (bacterial density; chlorophyll-a content and EPS content) 668 measured in sediment at different depths at the end of the experiment. Letters indicate significant differences 669 between treatments (Treat) on each depth after Tukey's post-hoc analysis. Superscripts indicate the number of 670 treatments in the same group.



672 Figure 3 LD ratio values and functional diversity measured as Shannon diversity. Letters indicate significant

differences between treatments (Treat) on each depth after Tukey's post-hoc analysis. Superscripts indicate thenumber of treatments in the same group.



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Figure 4 RDA analysis with data from sediment biofilm fitted with physicochemical data from the last day of the experiment. ANOSIM analysis detect differences between treatments (ANOSIM R = 0.604, p = 0.001).

6	7	8
6	7	9

Table 1 Hydraulic conductivity and dissolved oxygen measured the last day of the experiment in each treatment

K (m/day)		O ₂ surface (mg/L)	O ₂ – 20 cm (mg/L)	O ₂ – 40 cm (mg/L)
Coarse	$0.3078^{b} \pm 0.1086$	5.46 ± 0.78	3.86 ± 0.13	2.92 ± 0.44
Fine – coarse	$0.1019^{a} \pm 0.0602$	7.75 ± 2.90	5.43 ± 4.10	3.44 ± 2.27
Fine	$0.1319^{a} \pm 0.0505$	8.22 ± <i>3.68</i>	3.47 ± 0.71	1.91 ± 0.73
Coarse – fine	$0.1867^{ab} \pm 0.1133$	5.84 ± 0.85	2.98 ± 0.35	2.15 ± 0.74
Mixture	$0.1120^{\mathbf{a}} \pm 0.0334$	8.66 ± 0.19	4.86 ± 1.29	3.33 ± 0.85

680 Values are the mean of the replicates $(n=3) \pm sd$. Letters next to the means indicate significant different groups

681 after Tukey's post-hoc analysis (p < 0.05).

Table 2 Advection time and process rates for ammonium, nitrates and nitrites (NOx), phosphorous (SRP) and
 dissolved oxygen (DO) along the infiltration columns

	Advection time (seconds)	N-NH4 (µg N/L∙s)	N-NOx (µg N/L∙s)	SRP (µg P/L∙s)	DO (µg O2/L·s)
Day	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001
Treat	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001
Treat*day	ns	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.01
Coarse	$736^{\mathbf{a}} \pm 700$	$-1.70^{b} \pm 1.17$	$2.14^{b} \pm 1.61$	$0.0007^{a} \pm 0.0380$	$-5.05^{\circ} \pm 1.61$
Fine - Coarse	$3890^{\circ} \pm 2313$	$-0.36^{a} \pm 0.10$	$0.22^{a} \pm 0.29$	$-0.0181^{b} \pm 0.0222$	$-0.82^{a} \pm 0.83$
Fine	$2500^{bc} \pm 1482$	$-0.52^{a} \pm 0.23$	$0.38^{a} \pm 0.29$	$-0.0231^{b} \pm 0.0299$	$-1.53^{ab} \pm 1.50$
Coarse – Fine	$1577^{ab} \pm 1160$	$-0.75^{a} \pm 0.43$	$0.63^{a} \pm 0.73$	$-0.0142^{\mathbf{b}} \pm 0.0170$	$-2.03^{b} \pm 2.00$
Mixture	$2029^{ab} \pm 1231$	$-0.49^{a} \pm 0.15$	$0.49^{a} \pm 0.19$	$-0.0124^{b} \pm 0.0177$	$-1.01^{ab} \pm 1.20$

Values are the mean of the four sampling days $(n = 12) \pm sd$. Positive process rates indicate production while

12 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.1 = 50.0 = 50

negative process rates means removal/consumption. Letters next to the means indicate significant differences
 between treatments (Treat) after Tukey's post-hoc analysis.

	Depth (cm)	Coarse	Fine - coarse	Fine	Coarse - fine	Mixture
β-glu	0	$3.90^{ab} \pm 0.28$	$2.30^{a} \pm 0.92$	$2.39^{a} \pm 0.13$	$7.39^{b} \pm 1.51$	$3.93^{ab} \pm 0.04$
Depth: p < 0.001	20	1.32 ± 0.56	0.32 ± 0.38	0.71 ± 0.75	2.30 ± 1.73	0.84 ± 0.79
Treat: p < 0.001 Treat*Depth: ns	40	$1.08^{b} \pm 0.58$	$0.15^{a} \pm 0.12$	$0.48^{a} \pm 0.35$	$0.42^{a} \pm 0.04$	$0.38^{a} \pm 0.12$
β-xyl	0	$1.14^{ab} \pm 0.39$	$0.61^{a} \pm 0.51$	$1.06^{ab} \pm 0.37$	$1.22^{b} \pm 0.45$	$0.66^{a} \pm 0.24$
Depth: p < 0.001	20	$0.17^{ab} \pm 0.14$	$0.01^{a} \pm 0.02$	$0.06^{a} \pm 0.11$	$0.90^{b} \pm 0.74$	$0.07^{a} \pm 0.13$
Treat: p < 0.001 Treat*Depth: ns	40	0.10 ± 0.09	0.00 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.31	0.00 ± 0.00
Phos	0	6.20 ± 0.29	12.31 ± 3.68	8.69 ± 2.91	9.56 ± 1.01	9.88 ± 2.95
Depth: p < 0.001	20	$3.36^{a} \pm 0.57$	$2.24^{a} \pm 0.30$	$3.38^{a} \pm 2.43$	$6.06^{b} \pm 1.63$	$2.81^{a} \pm 0.57$
Treat: p < 0.05 Treat*Depth: ns	40	$2.31^{ab} \pm 0.69$	$1.14^{a} \pm 0.28$	$2.41^{ab} \pm 0.76$	3.86^b ± 0.89	$1.98^{ab} \pm 0.56$
Leu	0	4.10 ± 0.58	5.84 ± 2.94	6.40 ± 3.09	7.43 ± 0.83	2.58 ± 0.66
Depth: p < 0.001	20	$4.86^{b} \pm 0.84$	$1.96^{a} \pm 1.12$	$2.52^{ab} \pm 1.14$	$3.98^{ab} \pm 0.95$	$3.28^{ab} \pm 0.78$
Treat: p < 0.05 Treat*Depth: p < 0.1	40	$4.42^{b} \pm 0.59$	$1.18^{a} \pm 0.41$	$1.73^{a} \pm 1.01$	$3.37^{ab} \pm 1.78$	$1.59^{a} \pm 0.98$

Table 3 Enzyme activities measured at different depths in each treatment

689 Values are the mean of the replicates (n=3) \pm sd, expressed as nmolMUF/g dry weight h for β -glucosidase (β -

 $glu), \beta-xylosidase (\beta-xyl) and Phosphatase (Phos); and nmolAMC/g dry weight h for Leucine-aminopeptidase$

691 (Leu). Letters next to the means indicate significant differences between treatments (Treat) after Tukey's post-

692 hoc analysis comparing treatments at each depth. Values in bold indicate the highest activity measured at each

693 depth.