

# Evaluation of Performance and Microbial Community of NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N Bioreactors

Khanitchaidecha W<sup>1\*</sup>, Koshy P<sup>2</sup>, Kamei T<sup>3</sup>, Nakaruk A<sup>4,5</sup> and Kazama F<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Naresuan University, Thailand

<sup>2</sup>School of Materials Science and Engineering, The University of New South Wales, Australia

<sup>3</sup>International Research Centre for River Basin Environment, University of Yamanashi, Japan

<sup>4</sup>Center of Excellence for Environmental Health and Toxicology, Naresuan University, Thailand

<sup>5</sup>Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Naresuan University, Thailand

## Abstract

Nitrogen contamination of groundwater has become an increasingly serious issue affecting the quality of drinking water. An energy efficient and low cost drinking water treatment method involving two attached growth bioreactors were developed for both NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal and NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal. Continuous flow of the groundwater through the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor resulted in the removal of NH<sub>4</sub>-N by nitrification without any aeration. The efficiency of NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal was determined to be 70% in the laboratory and 95% in on-site trials. The higher efficiency of the on-site bioreactor resulted from the presence of various groups of local microorganisms (8 groups and 3 classes) which were cultivated from the on-site groundwater. The NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor was capable of removing NO<sub>3</sub>-N from the groundwater efficiently by hydrogenotrophic denitrification at low H<sub>2</sub> supply rates. A high NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal efficiency of 98% was found in the bioreactors that used both local microorganisms and other microorganisms that were cultivated from a drinking water system. Although the microbial community present in both NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors were different, the dominant bacterial taxonomic groups were found to be similar, i.e., *Betaproteobacteria* and *Gammaproteobacteria*. The NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors are alternative methods with high efficiency and various microbial groups for nitrogen-contaminated groundwater treatment.

**Keywords:** Nitrogen contaminated groundwater; Nitrification; Hydrogenotrophic denitrification; Microbial community

## Introduction

Nitrogen is one of the most significant contaminants commonly present in groundwater. Nitrogen can be present in different forms in contaminated water and these include ammonium-nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub>-N), nitrite-nitrogen (NO<sub>2</sub>-N) and nitrate-nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub>-N). Groundwater is commonly polluted by anthropogenic activities such as disposal of sewage, and industrial effluents and fertilizer uses [1,2] and produced naturally by mineralization of organic matter *in situ* and by sorption of metal oxide [3]. Groundwater is a major drinking water source and there are severe health risks that arise from consumption of nitrogen-contaminated water. The World Health Organization (WHO) has set up guidelines for safe drinking water, whereby the specified concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub>-N, NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N must be lower than 1.5, 0.9 and 11.3 mg/L, respectively [4].

Several technologies have been developed for removing nitrogen from the groundwater to provide safe drinking water. These technologies can be broadly categorised as *in-situ* technology (applying to aquifer) [5,6] and *ex-situ* technology (applying to pumped groundwater) [7,8]. The *ex-situ* technology is more preferable compared to the former because of the ease in operation and maintenance. Two well-known *ex-situ* technologies for nitrogen removal are nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification. The nitrification process has been proposed for treating water containing NH<sub>4</sub>-N contaminants; the basic operating concept involves NH<sub>4</sub>-N oxidation to NO<sub>3</sub>-N under a supply of oxygen (air). The hydrogenotrophic denitrification process is used for removing NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N under hydrogen supply and involves the reduction of both NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N to nitrogen gas (N<sub>2</sub>). One of the major issues with the bioreactors for nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification developed in previous studies are the high costs which make them unsuitable for use in remote areas. These

high costs arise from the costs of infrastructure and maintenance, the high levels of energy consumption and the technical difficulties in operation.

The objective of this research work is to develop attached growth bioreactors that are simple to operate, energy-efficient and economical for removing NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N from groundwater. The performance of both bioreactors containing various initial microorganisms is discussed, while tests were done to determine the major groups present in the microbial communities.

## Materials and Methods

### Reactor set-up and operation

**Bioreactor for NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal:** The NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor consisted of a 2 cm $\phi$ ×100 cm long acrylic column that contained 250 cm<sup>2</sup> polyester fibre carriers (supported by NET Co. Ltd., Japan). The fibre carriers were kept along the column for the purpose of microorganisms' attachment and water pathway. The synthetic NH<sub>4</sub>-N groundwater (influent) was allowed to flow to the top of the fibre carriers at a flow rate of 2.9 L/day; then the influent penetrated through the fibre carriers until the end of column (effluent). The effluent was collected frequently

**\*Corresponding author:** Khanitchaidecha W, Department of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Naresuan University, Phitsanulok, Thailand, Tel: (66)-55-964-058; E-mail: [wilawank1@gmail.com](mailto:wilawank1@gmail.com)

**Received** October 15, 2013; **Accepted** November 13, 2013; **Published** November 18, 2013

**Citation:** Khanitchaidecha W, Koshy P, Kamei T, Nakaruk A, Kazama F (2013) Evaluation of Performance and Microbial Community of NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N Bioreactors. J Microb Biochem Technol S12: 007. doi:10.4172/1948-5948.S12-007

**Copyright:** © 2013 Khanitchaidecha W, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited

for further analysis. A schematic diagram of the operating NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor is presented in Figure 1a. Before starting the bioreactor, 200 mL of concentrated activated sludge from the drinking water system in Kofu city (in Yamanashi, Japan) was fed to the bioreactor for providing the initial microorganisms on the fibre carriers.

Another NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor was scaled up and established at Chyusal area (Kathmandu Valley, Nepal), which was the location of this research program. The on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor was composed of a 25 cmϕ×160 cm long acrylic column and contained approximately 1m<sup>2</sup> of polyester fibre carriers. The fibre carriers covered three stainless steel holders (2 cmϕ×150 cm, 8 cmϕ×150 cm and 12 cmϕ×150 cm), which were concentrically arranged in the bioreactor (Figure 1b). Droplets of groundwater were generated via 20 small droppers provided around the top of the fibre carriers and the overall flow rate was 200-250 L/day. During the experiment (with no activated sludge addition), the local microorganisms present in the groundwater were cultivated and attached to the fibre carriers [9].

**Bioreactor for NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal:** The NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor consisted of an 11.5×16×16 cm acrylic container (working volume 3L) that contained 660 cm<sup>2</sup> polyester fibre carriers (supported by NET Co. Ltd., Japan). The fibre carriers covered a stainless steel holder and were

provided for microorganism attachment (Figure 2). The synthetic NO<sub>3</sub>-N groundwater (influent) was fed continuously to the bioreactor at a flow rate of 9.6 L/day. H<sub>2</sub> gas was supplied via a H<sub>2</sub> generator (HG260, GL Science, Japan) to the reactor at a flow rate of 70 mL/min. The liquid inside the reactor was completely mixed at 150 rpm using a stirrer. A schematic diagram of the set up is illustrated in Figure 2. Before starting the experiment, 200 mL of concentrated activated sludge (from the drinking water system in Kofu city) was fed to the bioreactor to provide initial microorganisms for attachment on the fibre carriers.

Another laboratory NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor (11.5×16×16 cm; working volume of 3 L) was set up, and this was comprised of the fibre carriers taken from the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor. The local microorganisms were used as the initial microorganisms for this bioreactor. In this experiment, the bioreactor was operated under the same conditions as the previous NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor. The operating conditions used for all experiments are summarised in Table 1.

### Synthetic groundwater preparation

In this research, the groundwater at Chyusal was standardised in order to prepare the synthetic groundwater. The amount (mg/L) of different ions in the groundwater at Chyusal was determined to be:

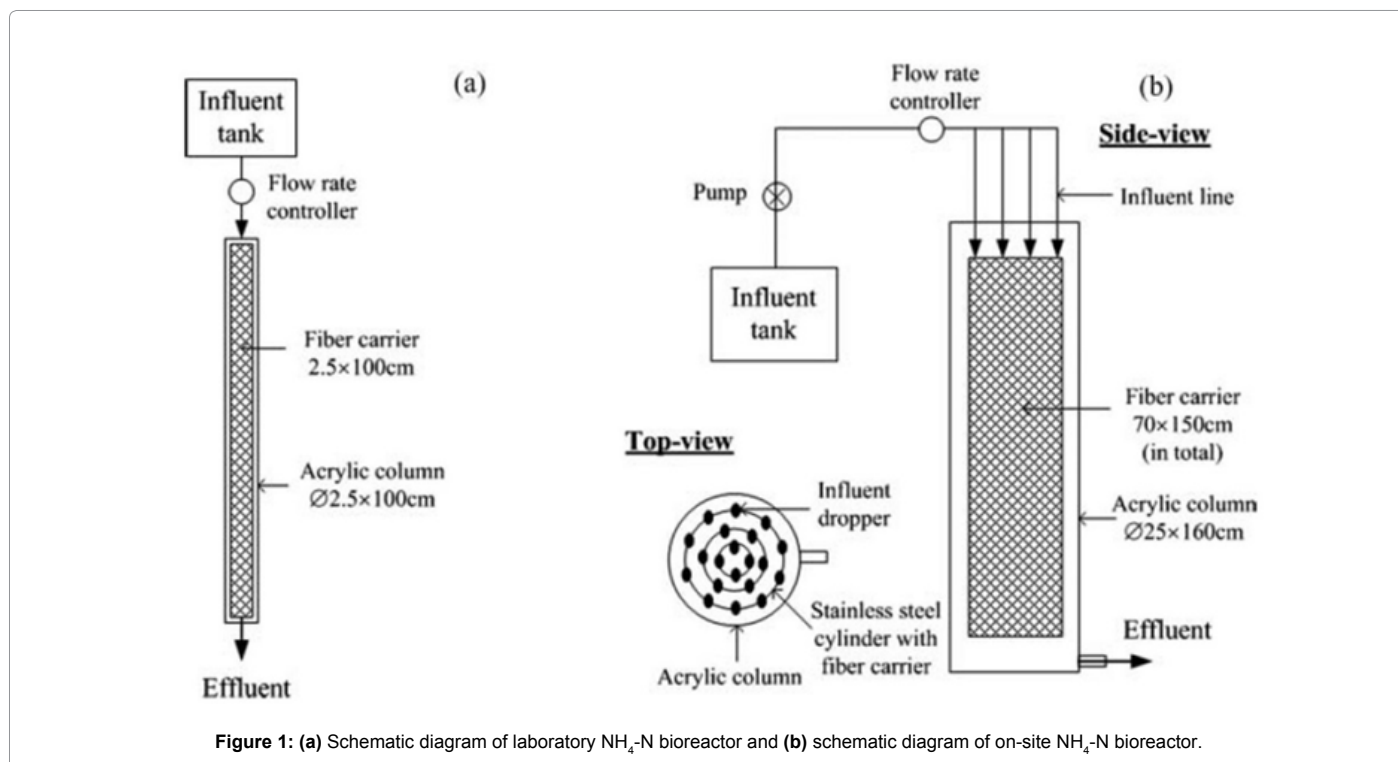
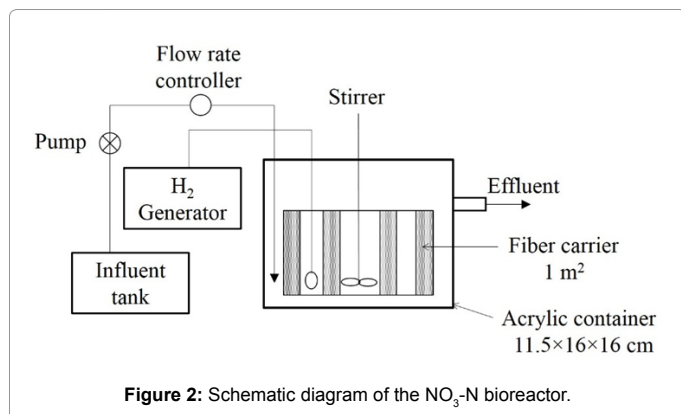


Figure 1: (a) Schematic diagram of laboratory NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor and (b) schematic diagram of on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor.

Bioreactor	Experiment	Initial Microorganisms Source	Operating Conditions				Period (days)
			NH <sub>4</sub> -N (mg/L)	NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg/L)	Air Supply (mL/min)	H <sub>2</sub> Supply (mL/min)	
NH <sub>4</sub> -N bioreactor	I	Activated sludge from drinking water system	30	-	-	-	60
	II	On-site groundwater	30	-	-	-	300
NO <sub>3</sub> -N bioreactor	III	Activated sludge from drinking water system	-	30	-	70	30
	IV	On-site groundwater	-	30	-	70	30

Table 1: Summary of the operating conditions used in the experimental studies.



NH<sub>4</sub>-N 15; Ca<sup>2+</sup> 34; Mg<sup>2+</sup> 10; K<sup>+</sup> 20; Na<sup>+</sup>30; SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>30; and Cl<sup>-</sup> 42 [10]. The NH<sub>4</sub>-N containing synthetic groundwater was prepared by adding the following chemicals (g/L):(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> 0.14; NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 0.48; KCl 0.05; CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O 0.11; MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O 0.10; and Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>·12H<sub>2</sub>O 0.02. The synthetic NO<sub>3</sub>-N containing groundwater was prepared by adding the following chemicals (g/L): NaNO<sub>3</sub> 0.18; NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 0.48; KCl 0.05; CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O 0.11; MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O 0.10; and Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>·12H<sub>2</sub>O 0.02.

### Analytical methods

**Water quality:** The concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub>-N, NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N in both the influent and effluent were measured using phenate, colorimetric and ultraviolet spectrophotometric screening methods, respectively in accordance with the standard methods used for the examination of water and wastewater [11]. The NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal efficiency of the NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors were calculated using Equations 1 and 2, respectively.

$$\text{NH}_4 - \text{N removal efficiency} = \left(1 - \frac{[\text{NH}_4 - \text{N}]_{\text{eff}}}{[\text{NH}_4 - \text{N}]_{\text{inf}}}\right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{NO}_3 - \text{N removal efficiency} = \left(1 - \frac{[\text{NO}_3 - \text{N}]_{\text{eff}} + [\text{NO}_2 - \text{N}]_{\text{eff}}}{[\text{NO}_3 - \text{N}]_{\text{inf}}}\right) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where, [NH<sub>4</sub>-N]<sub>inf</sub> = NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentration (mg/L) in the influent

[NH<sub>4</sub>-N]<sub>eff</sub> = NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentration (mg/L) in the effluent

[NO<sub>3</sub>-N]<sub>inf</sub> = NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration (mg/L) in the influent

[NO<sub>3</sub>-N]<sub>eff</sub> = NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration (mg/L) in the effluent

[NO<sub>2</sub>-N]<sub>eff</sub> = NO<sub>2</sub>-N concentration (mg/L) in the effluent

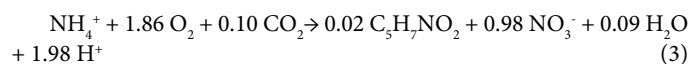
### Microbial analysis

The microbial communities present on the fibre carriers were identified by using a culture-independent method based on 16S rRNA gene sequencing. The total nucleic acids extracted from the fibre carriers were used as the template for amplifying 16S rRNA genes by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The amplified DNA fragments were cloned into the *E. coli* strain DH5α [12-14]. The clonal DNAs obtained from the 16S rRNA gene libraries were subjected to restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis by separate digestion with HhaI and HaeIII (Takara, Shiga, Japan). The nucleotide sequence data from the representative clones of each of the RFLP groups were compared with those in the database of Ribosomal Database project by using the CLASSIFIER program developed by Michigan State University [15].

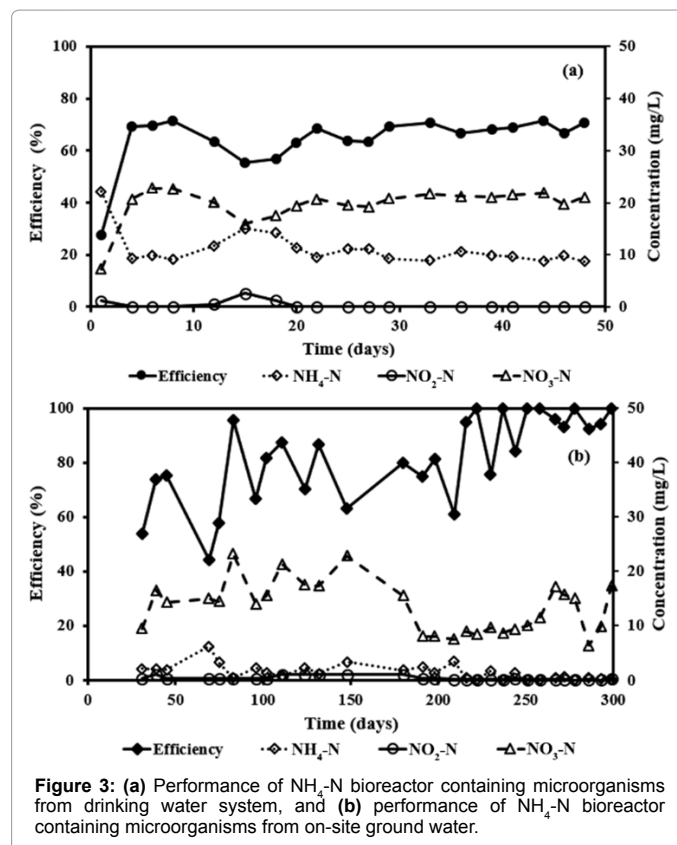
## Results and Discussion

### Performance of NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor

The NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor (containing initial microorganisms from the drinking water system) was operated by feeding the synthetic NH<sub>4</sub>-N groundwater through it. The experimental results showed that the NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency was 28% on the 1<sup>st</sup> day and it increased significantly to 68% on the 4<sup>th</sup> day. This indicates that microorganisms are present which are responsible for NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal (e.g. nitrifiers), and moreover, the concentrations of these microorganisms were increasing rapidly. The presence of high amounts of these microorganisms is indicated by the stable value (70%) of the NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency for 50 days. Previous studies [16,17] have identified that the major biological process for removing NH<sub>4</sub>-N from contaminated water is nitrification. In the nitrification process, NH<sub>4</sub>-N is oxidised to NO<sub>3</sub>-N via the formation of intermediate NO<sub>2</sub>-N, and high amounts of oxygen are required for complete nitrification (Equation 3 [18]).



From Figure 3a, the NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentration was seen to decrease from 40 mg/L in the influent to 10 mg/L in the effluent, while the NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration increased from zero in the influent to 20 mg/L in the effluent. These results clearly support the occurrence of nitrification in this bioreactor. It should be noted that although the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor had no air and/or oxygen supply entering it, oxygen from the air could have diffused into the reaction, and this appears to have been utilized for nitrification by the microorganisms. However, the oxygen levels appear to be insufficient for complete NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal and thus the maximal removal efficiency was ~70% in this experiment. From the results, it



is seen that the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor developed in this research can be used as an alternative method for biological groundwater treatment. The advantages of this bioreactor are lower energy consumption from aeration and pumping systems comparing to the reactors used in previous studies [19,20].

The NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor was scaled-up and operated at the site (Chyasal) and for this purpose; the microorganisms attached on the fibre carriers were cultivated from the local microorganisms present in the groundwater at Chyasal. From the experimental results, it is seen that the on-site bioreactor required a longer period to achieve the NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency of 70%; however the efficiency of NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal was seen to gradually increase to ~95% in 220 days. The NO<sub>2</sub>-N in the effluent was very low (<3 mg/L) as the previous NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor. The higher efficiency of the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor is believed to result from the differences in the microbial community present in these two bioreactors, and this is discussed in the following section.

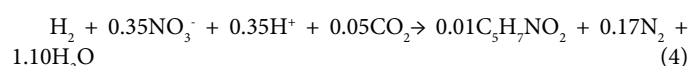
### Microbial community in NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor

At the conclusion of the previous experiments, the microorganisms attached to the fibre carriers of the two NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactors were identified. As seen in Figures 4a and 4b, the bioreactor that used microorganisms from the drinking water system contained 5 groups and 3 classes of bacteria, of which *Alphaproteobacteria* (25%), *Betaproteobacteria* (24%) and *Nitrospirae* (20%) were the most abundant phylogenetic groups. In contrast, bacteria in the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor consisted of 8 groups and 4 classes of which *Firmicutes* (34%) and *Alphaproteobacteria* (26%) were the dominant groups. Therefore, the greater variety of bacteria and the rich of *Firmicutes* were reasons for enhancing the nitrification process of the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor. Another significant reason for enhancement of the bioreactor performance was the increase in total microorganisms in accordance with increasing fibre carriers area. *Firmicutes* contains the 3 classes of *Bacilli*, *Clostridia* and *Mollicutes* and are found in food- and beverage-related industries. Moreover, the abundance of *Firmicutes* in laboratory-scale nitrification bioreactor and wastewater treatment plant was also reported in literatures [21,22].

### Performance of NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor

From the previous sections, the effect of the microbial community on the performance of bioreactor and dominant microbial community was observed to be different in different initial microorganisms (i.e., from the drinking water system and on-site groundwater). Two NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors were set up: one using the initial microorganisms from the drinking water system and another using the local microorganisms which were taken from the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor. The results for 30 days of experimental testing are shown in Figures 5a and 5b; both bioreactors were able to achieve high NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal efficiencies >90%. The efficiency of bioreactor that used initial microorganisms from the drinking water system reached 95% within two days, with both the NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations in the effluent being <5 mg/L. On the other hand, the bioreactor that used local microorganisms required a longer period of 20 days to achieve a similar efficiency of 95%. This longer duration is attributed to the following: the microorganisms responsible for nitrification were present in greater concentrations in the fibre carriers, and thus the microorganisms responsible for denitrification (i.e., hydrogen-oxidising denitrifiers) were cultivated at a slower rate. The presence of NO<sub>2</sub>-N in the effluent indicates the cultivation of small numbers of hydrogen-oxidising denitrifiers. The decrease in the NO<sub>2</sub>-N concentration to almost zero in 25 days reflects

the rich presence of hydrogen-oxidising denitrifiers in the bioreactor. To confirm the occurrence of hydrogenotrophic denitrification in the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor, the supply of H<sub>2</sub> to the bioreactors was stopped after finishing the experiments. However, this resulted in a cessation of the NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal (data not shown). Therefore, NO<sub>3</sub>-N was removed by hydrogenotrophic denitrification, as presented in Equation 4 [23]. From the results, it can be concluded that the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor can remove NO<sub>3</sub>-N from groundwater at a very high efficiency, and moreover, this system has advantages of being simple, easy to operate and requiring less H<sub>2</sub> comparing to the reactors used in previous studies [24,25].



### Microbial community of NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor

At the end of the experimental work, the microbial community in the fibre carriers in both NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors were identified. The results reveal that the microbial community in the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor that used initial microorganisms from the drinking water system consisted of 7 bacterial taxonomic groups and 3 classes, with the *Betaproteobacteria*

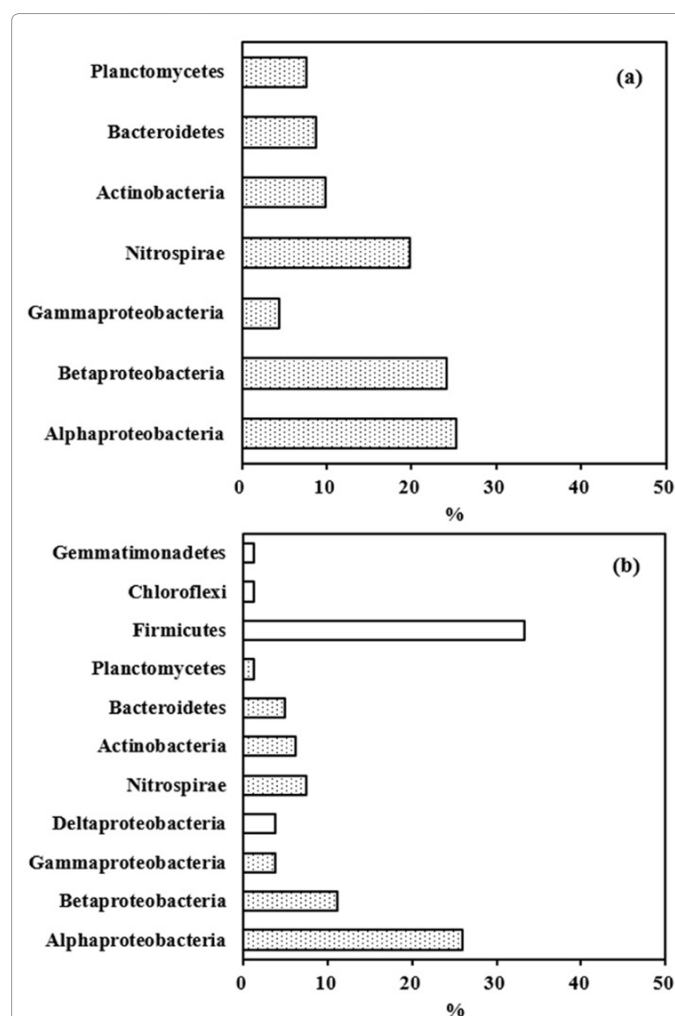


Figure 4: Details of the microbial community present in the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor based on the use of initial microorganisms from (a) the drinking water system and (b) the on-site groundwater.

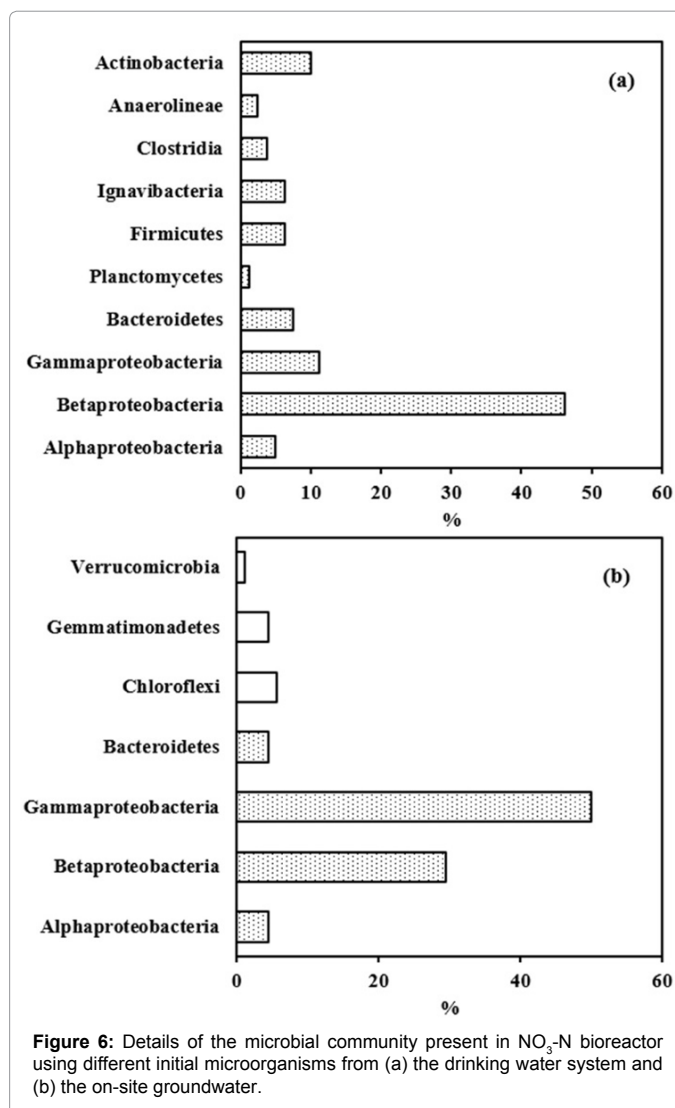
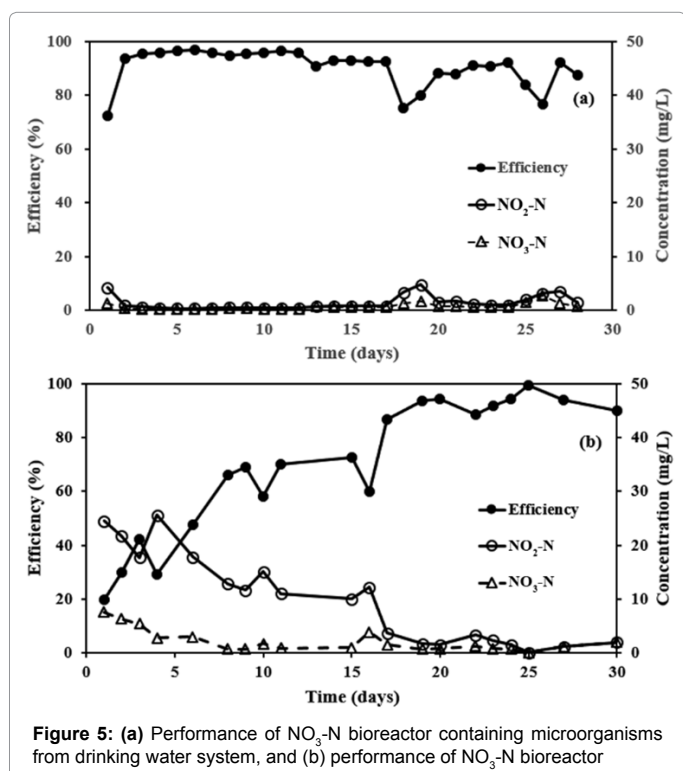
being the most abundant phylogenetic group (47%). On the other hand, in the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor that used local microorganisms, the microorganism community consisted of 5 groups and 3 classes, with *Gammaproteobacteria* and *Beta proteobacteria* being the dominant types at 50% and 30%, respectively. Regarding literatures [24,26], *Proteobacteria* is the most microorganisms reported as hydrogen-oxidising denitrifiers and especially of *Betaproteobacteria*. *Thauera* is example of *Beta proteobacteria* responsible for hydrogenotrophic denitrification, its denitrification rate was 0.1-0.2 mg N/mg VSS-d [27]. In addition, *Gammaproteobacteria* including *Escherichia*, *Acinetobacter* and *Methylobacter* was detected significantly in the groundwater in the Kathmandu Valley [9].

The microbial community in the latter had lower numbers of bacterial groups compared to both the former NO<sub>3</sub>-N reactor and also compared to the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor. This is because in the second NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor, the microorganisms responsible for hydrogenotrophic denitrification were cultivated from the local microbial community which is rich in nitrifiers. Therefore the groups of hydrogen-oxidising denitrifiers were limited in the microbial groups in the on-site bioreactor alone, as indicated by the similarity in the microbial groups in Figures 5b and 6b.

Based on the experimental results, the groundwater is kept in the bioreactor for 1-2 hours (NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor) and 4-6 hours (NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor). The effect of the presence of the microorganisms (e.g. *Firmicutes*, *Betaproteobacteria*, etc.) on the drinking water quality is currently unknown or very limited, and thus further studies are required to investigate these effects.

## Conclusions

Simplistic NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors were developed for removing nitrogen-containing species (NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N) from the groundwater. In the NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor, nitrification occurred and its



**Figure 6:** Details of the microbial community present in NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor using different initial microorganisms from (a) the drinking water system and (b) the on-site groundwater.

efficiency was in the range of 70-95%. The high amounts of *Firmicutes* phylogenetic group, along with a diverse variety of other microbes resulted in the greater NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency of the on-site NH<sub>4</sub>-N bioreactor that used local microorganisms. A very high NO<sub>3</sub>-N removal efficiency of 98% was achieved in the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors using local microorganisms and microorganisms from the drinking water system. This is because *Proteobacteria* is the most abundant microorganisms in both NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactors. However, the NO<sub>3</sub>-N bioreactor using local microorganisms required a longer duration for cultivation. Furthermore, the microorganisms remaining in the treated groundwater will be further analysed before implying the bioreactors to the drinking water system in remote areas.

## Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful for the financial support provided by the Global COE program (University of Yamanashi, Japan) which has allowed this research to be undertaken.

## References

1. Andrade AIASS, Stigter TY (2009) Multi-method assessment of nitrate and pesticide contamination in shallow alluvial groundwater as a function of hydrogeological setting and land use. *Agricultural Water Management* 96: 1751-1765.

2. American Public Health Association (1998) Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater. (19<sup>th</sup> Edn), Springfield, New York, USA.
3. Buss SR, Herbert AW, Morgan P, Thornton SF, Smith JWN (2004) A review of ammonium attenuation in soil and groundwater. *Quarterly Journal of Engineering Geology and Hydrogeology* 37: 347–359.
4. World Health Organization (2004) Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality. (2<sup>nd</sup> Edn), Geneva, Switzerland.
5. Chaplin BP, Schnobrich MR, Widdowson MA, Semmens MJ, Novak PJ (2009) Stimulating in situ hydrogenotrophic denitrification with membrane-delivered hydrogen under passive and pumped groundwater conditions. *Journal of Environmental Engineering* 135: 666-676.
6. Huagen KS, Semmens MJ, Novak PJ (2002) A novel in situ technology for the treatment of nitrate contaminated groundwater. *Water Research* 36: 3497-3506.
7. Schipper LA, Vojvodic-Vukovic M (2000) Nitrate removal from groundwater and denitrification rate in a porous treatment wall amended with sawdust. *Ecological Engineering* 14: 269-278.
8. Moreno B, Gómez MA, Ramos A, González-López J, Hontoria E (2005) Influence of inocula over start up of a denitrifying submerged filter applied to nitrate contaminated groundwater treatment. *J Hazard Mater* 127: 180-186.
9. Tanaka Y, Nishida K, Nakamura T, Chapagain SK, Inoue D (2012) Characterization of microbial communities distributed in the groundwater pumped from deep tube wells in the Kathmandu Valley of Nepal. *Journal of Water and Health* 10: 170-180.
10. Khanitchaidecha W, Shakya M, Nakano Y, Tanaka Y, Kazama F (2012) Development of an attached growth reactor for NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal at a drinking water supply system in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health Part A* 47: 734-743.
11. American Public Health Association (1998) Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater. (19<sup>th</sup> Edn), Springfield, New York, USA.
12. Matsuzawa H, Tanaka Y, Tamaki H, Kamagata Y, Mori K (2010) Culture-dependent and independent analyses of the microbial communities inhabiting the Giant Duckweed (*Spirodela polyrrhiza*) Rhizoplane and isolation of a variety of rarely cultivated organisms within the Phylum Verrucomicrobia. *Microbes and Environments* 25: 302-308.
13. Kane MD, Poulsen LK, Stahl DA (1993) Monitoring the enrichment of isolation of sulphate-reducing bacteria by using oligonucleotide hybridization probes designed from environmentally derived 16S rRNA sequences. *Applied Environmental and Microbiology* 59: 682-686.
14. Weisburg WG, Burns SM, Pelletier DA, Lane DJ (1991) 16S ribosomal DNA amplification for phylogenetic study. *Journal of Bacteriology* 173: 697-703.
15. Michigan State University (2012).
16. de Vet WW, Kleerebezem R, van der Wielen PW, Rietveld LC, van Loosdrecht MC (2011) Assessment of nitrification in groundwater filters for drinking water production by qPCR and activity measurement. *Water Research* 45: 4008-4018.
17. Li A, Li X, Yu H (2013) Aerobic sludge granulation facilitated by activated carbon for partial nitrification treatment of ammonia-rich wastewater. *Chemical Engineering Journal* 218: 253-259.
18. Tchobanoglous G, Burton F, Stensel HD (2004) *Wastewater Engineering, Treatment and Reuse* (4<sup>th</sup> edn), McGraw-Hill, Singapore.
19. Morita M, Uemoto H, Watanabe A (2008) Nitrogen-removal bioreactor capable of simultaneous nitrification and denitrification for application to industrial wastewater treatment. *Biochemical Engineering Journal* 41: 59-66.
20. Liu Y, Shi H, Xia L, Shi H, Shen T, et al. (2010) Study of operational conditions of simultaneous nitrification and denitrification in a Carrousel oxidation ditch for domestic wastewater treatment. *Bioresource Technology* 101: 901-906.
21. Biswas R, Bagchi S, Bihariya P, Das A, Nandy T (2010) Stability and microbial community structure of a partial nitrifying fixed-film bioreactor in long run. *Bioresour Technol* 102: 2487-2494.
22. Ye L, Shao M, Zhang T, Tong A, Lok S (2011) Analysis of the bacterial community in a laboratory-scale nitrification reactor and a wastewater treatment plant by 454-pyrosequencing. *Water Res* 45: 4390-4398.
23. Ergas SJ, Reuss AF (2001) Hydrogenotrophic denitrification of drinking water using a hollow fibre membrane bioreactor. *Journal of Water Supply: Research and Technology – AQUA* 50: 161–171.
24. Mansell BO, Schroeder ED (2002) Hydrogenotrophic denitrification in a microporous membrane bioreactor. *Water Res* 36: 4683–4690.
25. Mo H, Oleszkiewicz JA, Cicek N, Rezamia B (2005) Incorporating membrane gas diffusion into a membrane bioreactor for hydrogenotrophic denitrification of groundwater. *Water Science and Technology* 51: 357-364.
26. Karanasios KA, Vasiliadou IA, Pavlou S, Vayenas DV (2010) Hydrogenotrophic denitrification of potable water: A review. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 180: 20-37.
27. Mao Y, Xia Y, Zhang T (2013) Characterization of Thauera-dominated hydrogen-oxidizing autotrophic denitrifying microbial communities by using high-throughput sequencing. *Bioresour Technol* 128: 703-710.

This article was originally published in a special issue, **Bioresource Technology** handled by Editor(s). Dr. Dr. Tingyue Gu, Ohio University, USA; Prof. Minghua Zhou, Nankai University, China