```
Exploring the capacity for anaerobic biodegradation of polycyclic aromatic
 1
 2
     hydrocarbons and naphthenic acids by microbes from oil-sands process
     affected waters.
 3
 4
     Benjamin D Folwell<sup>1</sup>, Terry J McGenity<sup>1</sup>, Andrew Price<sup>2</sup>, Richard J Johnson<sup>2</sup>, and
 5
     Corinne Whitby<sup>1</sup>*
 6
 7
     Running title: Anaerobic biodegradation of PAHs and NAs by microbes from OSPW
 8
 9
     <sup>1</sup>School of Biological Sciences, University of Essex, Wivenhoe Park, Colchester,
10
     CO4 3SQ, UK.
11
     <sup>2</sup>Oil Plus Ltd., Dominion House, Kennet Side, Newbury, RG14 5PX, UK.
12
13
     *Corresponding author:
14
     cwhitby@essex.ac.uk.
15
     Tel: +44 1206 872062 Fax +44 1206 872592
16
17
     Article Type: Special issue ISMOS-4.
18
19
     Word Count: 3939
20
21
22
23
24
25
```

26 Abstract

Both polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and naphthenic acids (NAs) 27 are natural components of fossil fuels but are also widespread, toxic and 28 29 environmentally persistent pollutants. They are the major cause of environmental toxicity in oil sands process waters (OSPW). This study aimed to investigate the 30 anaerobic biodegradation of the PAHs: pyrene and 2-methylnaphthalene, and the 31 NAs, adamantane-1-carboxylic acid, and a 'natural' NA mixture (i.e. acid-extractable 32 NAs from OSPW) under sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions by a 33 microbial community derived from an oil sands tailings pond. Using gas-34 chromatography mass spectrometry (GC-MS), the rate of biodegradation was 35 measured in relation to changes in bacterial community composition. Only 2-36 methylnaphthalene was significantly degraded after 260 days, with significantly more 37 degradation under sulfate-reducing (40%) than methanogenic conditions (25%). 38 During 2-methylnaphthalene biodegradation, a major metabolite was produced and 39 tentatively identified as 2-naphthoic acid. Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis 40 (DGGE) demonstrated an increase in intensity of bands, during the anaerobic 41 biodegradation of 2-methylnaphalene, which derived from species of the genera 42 Fusibacter, Alkaliphilus, Desulfobacterium, Variovorax, Thaurea and 43 Hydrogenophaga. Despite the biodegradation of 2-methylnaphthalene, this study 44 45 demonstrates that, under anaerobic conditions, NAs and high molecular weight PAHs are predominantly likely to persist in OSPW. Therefore alternative remediation 46 strategies are required. 47

48

Keywords polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon, naphthenic acids, oil sands process
 waters, anaerobic biodegradation

51 **1. Introduction**

Oil sands operations in Canada produce more than 200 million barrels of 52 crude oil per year (Del Rio et al., 2006). During oil-sand refining, vast quantities of 53 54 wastewaters known as tailings are generated that have to be stored indefinitely in settling basins or ponds until strategies for reclamation are devised and approved. 55 Tailings are composed of solids (e.g. sand, silt) and oil sands process-affected water 56 (OSPW) that contains complex mixtures of toxic carboxylic acids known as 57 naphthenic acids (NAs). It has been estimated that in Canada alone > 840 million m³ 58 of OSPW has accumulated and is being stored in tailings ponds (Siddique et al., 59 2011). There have been very few studies on anaerobic NA biodegradation despite 60 the fact that, as most tailings ponds mature, they become anoxic (Whitby, 2010); and 61 62 in sulfate-depleted ponds, methane is produced in very large quantities (Clemente & Fedorak, 2005; Fedorak et al., 2002; Holowenko et al., 2000). For example, methane 63 released from Syncrude's largest tailings pond, the Mildred Lake Settling Basin, has 64 been estimated to be up to 43000 m^3 day⁻¹ (Holowenko et al., 2000, Siddique et al., 65 2006). It is not understood whether NAs present in tailings ponds can act as 66 substrates in methane biogenesis in situ. Holowenko et al. (2001) demonstrated that 67 methanogenesis was stimulated by the model NA compounds 3-cyclohexylpropanoic 68 acid and 4-cyclohexanepentanoic acid in microcosms containing tailings pond water 69 (Holowenko et al., 2001). Furthermore, Siddique et al. (2006; 2007; 2011) have 70 shown that short chain alkanes, BTEX compounds (benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene 71 and xylenes) and longer chain alkanes (up to C_{18}) are degraded under methanogenic 72 conditions in OSPW (Siddique et al., 2011). Additionally, to date, only a limited 73 number of hydrocarbons have been shown definitively to biodegrade anaerobically in 74 other environments (reviewed by Widdel et al. (2010). This has been shown using 75

76 either pure cultures or in microcosms (containing soil, river sediment, aquifer 77 material or marine sediment) under methanogenic conditions or using nitrate, iron III, manganese IV, sulfate or carbon dioxide as terminal electron acceptors (Widdel et 78 79 al., 2010). In addition to the environmental problems caused by NAs, recalcitrant polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) have been found in environments 80 surrounding the oil sands developments in Alberta, Canada (Timoney & Lee 2009; 81 Kelly et al., 2009). Detailed information on anaerobic degradation of high molecular 82 weight PAHs (HMW-PAHs) is scarce, and there is debate whether PAHs having 83 84 three or more rings can support growth under anoxic conditions or whether they are only partially oxidised through co-metabolism with growth substrates such as lower 85 molecular weight hydrocarbons (Ambrosoli et al., 2005; Meckenstock et al., 2004). 86

87 Addition of sulfate to tailings inhibits methanogenesis by stimulating bacterial competition (Holowenko et al., 2000). Therefore, if NAs or other hydrocarbons in 88 OSPW, such as HMW-PAHs, can be degraded under sulfate-reducing conditions, it 89 90 will not only contribute to the bioremediation of these toxic, recalcitrant pollutants, but it may also reduce the amount of methane produced by OSPW stored in tailings 91 ponds. The aim of the present study was to investigate the anaerobic biodegradation 92 of HMW-PAH, pyrene (Pyr), adamantane-1-carboxylic acid (A1CA, a NA), a 'natural' 93 94 NA mixture, (i.e. acid-extractable NAs from OSPW) compared to the more readily 95 degradable low molecular weight PAH (LMW-PAH) 2-methylnaphthalene (2-MN), under sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions. The rate of biodegradation was 96 measured in relation to changes in bacterial community composition. 97

98

99

101 **2. Methods**

102 **2.1 Environmental sample**

The tailings pond water sample used in this study, (designated 20m) was supplied by L. Gieg, (University of Calgary) and was collected in summer 2010 at a depth of 20 m from a Suncor tailings pond, in Alberta Canada. The sample was maintained at 4°C prior to use.

107

108 2.2 PAH and NA compounds

Pyrene (Pyr), 2-methylnaphthalene (2-MN) and adamantane-1-carboxylic acid (A1CA) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Gillingham UK at > 98% purity. The 'natural' NA mixture was the acid-extractable fraction from a Suncor OSPW sample and was supplied by L. Gieg (University of Calgary). The OSPW samples were acidified to pH 2 and NAs were extracted using dichloromethane according to the method of Holowenko et al. (2002).

115

116 **2.3 Biodegradation experiment**

The basal medium for all anaerobic cultures contained per litre of anaerobic 117 water: K₂HPO₄, 0.652 g; NaH₂PO₄.H₂O, 0.173 g; NH₄HCO₃, 0.443 g; NaHCO₃, 3.73 118 g and 1 mL Resazurin solution (0.5 g L⁻¹). The basal medium for sulfate reducers 119 was made as above with the addition of NaSO₄ at 4 g L¹. Basal medium (92.5 mL) 120 was dispensed into serum bottles which were closed with butyl rubber stoppers and 121 crimp sealed. The gas phase was replaced with H₂/CO₂ (80%/20%) (in order to 122 initiate anaerobic growth) to a pressure of 1.5 bar, and autoclaved. Thereafter, 2.5 123 mL each, of three filter sterilized solutions (A, B and C), were added by syringe to 124 each bottle. Solution A contained: 1mL each of 4 vitamin solutions; 1 mL of trace 125

elements solution, and 1 mL of amino acid solution added to 20 mL sterile anaerobic 126 water (see supplementary information for details). Solution B contained L ⁻¹ 127 anaerobic water: Na₂S, 2.402 g. Solution C contained L⁻¹ of anaerobic water: 128 CaCl₂.2H₂O, 4.410 g; MgCl₂.6H₂O, 4.066 g. Individual cultures were amended with 129 either Pyr, A1CA, 'natural' NAs or 2-MN (5 mg L⁻¹ final concentration) as the sole 130 carbon and energy source as described in Johnson et al. (2011). Bottles were 131 inoculated with a 2% (v/v) of 20m tailing pond water sample. Abiotic controls 132 containing either Pvr, A1CA, 'natural' NAs or 2-MN (5 mg L⁻¹ final concentration) and 133 anaerobic medium were also prepared. Procedural blanks containing the 20m 134 inoculum and anaerobic media only were also prepared. All bottles were incubated 135 statically in the dark at 20°C for 260 days. Sampling of triplicate bottles was carried 136 137 out at 0, 130 and 260 days. After 130 days the gas phase was changed to N₂/CO₂ (80%/20%). At 0, 130 and 260 days a 30 mL sub-sample was removed, centrifuged 138 at 3435 x g for 10 min and acidified to pH 2 with HCl for ethyl acetate extraction 139 according to the method of Johnson et al. (2011). 140

141

142 **2.4 Solvent extraction, GC-MS and analysis**

To remove hydrocarbon contamination all glassware was soaked overnight in 143 Decon⁹⁰ (Decon), rinsed three times with distilled water, baked until dry, and rinsed 144 three times with acetone (Fisher) (Johnson et al., 2011). The internal standard 4-145 phenylbutanoic acid (Acros Organics) (final concentration 2 mg L⁻¹) was used for all 146 NA samples and 2-MN, whilst the internal standard 2-MN (Acros Organics) (final 147 concentration 2 mg L⁻¹) was used for all pyrene amended samples. Each NA from 148 the supernatants was extracted by acidifying to pH 2 (using 2 drops of concentrated 149 HCI) and extracted three times with 15 mL of HPLC-grade ethyl acetate (Fisher 150

151 Scientific) using a separating funnel. Each HMW-PAH was extracted as above except samples were extracted with HPLC-grade acetone (Fisher). Solvent extracts 152 were pooled, dried with 5–10 g anhydrous Na_2SO_4 (Fisher Scientific), and the 153 organic acids concentrated by rotary evaporation (Buchi) at 40°C. Samples were 154 transferred to a gas chromatography vial (Chromacol) and stored at – 20°C. Prior to 155 analysis, all samples were reduced to dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen at 156 40°C and reacted with N,O-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (Supelco, Bellefonte, 157 PA, USA) at 60°C for 20 min to form trimethylsilyl derivatives. Derivatized samples 158 were resuspended in 1mL dichloromethane (HPLC, Acros Organics). Samples were 159 separated by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) using an Agilent 160 7890 GC interfaced with an Agilent 5975C MS. Samples were injected with a 1 µl 161 162 splitless injection (injector temperature 250°C) onto a 30 m x 250 µm x 0.25 µm Rtx - 1MS column using helium as the carrier gas at a constant flow of 1 mL min⁻¹. Oven 163 temperatures were programmed with an initial increase from 40°C to 250°C at 10°C 164 min⁻¹ and a final hold at 250°C for 10 minutes. For PAHs, oven temperatures were 165 programmed with an initial increase from 40°C to 300°C at 10°C min⁻¹ and a final 166 hold at 300°C for 10 minutes. The transfer line was held at 230°C onto a source for 167 the MS which was in full scan mode (scan range 50-550 Da). Data was analysed 168 and integrated with Agilent GC Chemstation. Agilent GC Chemstation was used to 169 170 tentatively identify metabolites through mass spectral analysis.

171

172 **2.5 Methane measurements**

Headspace samples (50 μ l) were taken to measure methane and analysed by gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID) (PU 4500 Chromatograph, Philips). The oven temperature of the GC-FID was set to 100°C,

with the FID maintained at 150° C. Gases were separated on a 1.5m stacked stainless steel column using N₂ as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹.

178 **2.6 Sulfide measurements**

Sulfide measurements were performed according to the method of Cord-Ruwisch (1985). A 50 μ l sample of culture was mixed with 950 μ l of 5 mM CuSO₄ and 50 mM HCl and the optical density measured at 480 nm on a spectrophotometer (Cecil CE2021).

183

184 **2.7 Bacterial community analysis.**

Total nucleic acids were extracted from cell pellets obtained from centrifugation of 30 185 mL sub samples at each time point. Cells were suspended in lysis buffer and were 186 187 lysed with lysozyme (2 mg/ml), sodium dodecyl sulfate (1%), and lauryl-sarkosyl (1%). Proteinase K (1 mg/ml) was added and the tubes were incubated at 37°C for 1 188 h. Lysates were first extracted with 1 volume of phenol- chloroform-isoamyl alcohol 189 (25:24:1, pH 8.0) and then with 1 volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1). The 190 191 nucleic acids in the aqueous phase were precipitated with 5 M NaCl (0.1 vol) and 100% ethanol (2 vol) at -20°C, and then washed with 70% ethanol. DNA pellets 192 193 were dried and suspended in 100 µl of water (Grabowski et al., 2005). PCR amplifications were performed using the primers F341 GC 194 (CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG) and R534 (CCAGCAGCCGCGGTAAT) and 195 thermocycling consisted of 95°C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 196 57°C for 30 s, 72°C for 1.5 min, 72°C for 10 min. as described by Muyzer et al. 197 (1993) using a Gene Amp PCR system 9700 Thermocycler (Applied Biosystems). 198 Each 50 µl PCR reaction mixture contained approximately 50-100 ng of DNA 199 template, primers (0.4 µM), dNTPs (0.1 mM), Taq polymerase (1.25 U, Qiagen), and 200

201	1x PCR buffer (Qiagen). PCR products were analysed by 1% (w/v) 1 x TAE agarose
202	gel electrophoresis stained with ethidium bromide (10 mg mL ⁻¹) and viewed under
203	UV transillumination (Alpha Innotech). DGGE analysis of 16S rRNA gene fragments
204	was performed as previously described (McKew et al., 2007) using the Bio-Rad D
205	Code system on 8% polyacrylamide gels and a denaturing gradient from 40% to
206	60% and silver stained using the modified protocol of Acuña Alvarez et al. (2009).
207	Selected DGGE bands were excised, re-amplified and sequenced by Source
208	Bioscience (Nottingham, UK).
209	
210	2.9 Statistical analysis
211	Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS PASW statistics version 18.0
212	and Primer E.
213	
214	
215	
216	
217	
218	
219	
220	
221	
222	
223	
224	
225	

226 **3. Results**

227 3.1 Anaerobic degradation of 2-MN

At day 260, the relative percentage of Pyr, A1CA and 'natural' NAs remaining 228 229 was not significantly different from that at day 0 under either sulfate-reducing (Fig. 1A) or methanogenic conditions (Fig. 1B) (p=0.1). After 260 days, the cultures grown 230 under sulfate-reducing conditions had degraded $40\% \pm 7.89$ of the 2-MN (Fig. 1A) 231 and under methanogenic conditions had degraded $25\% \pm 8.21$ of the 2-MN (Fig. 1B), 232 demonstrating significant degradation of 2-MN compared to the abiotic control 233 (p<0.05). Furthermore, the sulfate-reducing cultures degraded significantly more 2-234 MN than the methanogenic cultures (p < 0.05) by day 260. All killed controls showed 235 no significant abiotic losses. 236

237 After 130 days and 260 days there was no significant production of methane in the cultures incubated with Pyr, A1CA or 'natural' NAs compared to abiotic 238 controls (Fig. 1C). After 130 days, 2-MN cultures under methanogenic conditions 239 demonstrated a significant increase in methane concentration compared to both the 240 2-MN abiotic controls and the 2-MN cultures under sulfate-reducing conditions 241 (p<0.05). At day 130 the cultures containing 2-MN grown under methanogenic 242 conditions contained 110 \pm 19.2 µmol methane and 290 \pm 28.9 µmol by day 260, a 243 significant increase compared to abiotic controls (p<0.05) (Fig 1C). In the sulfate-244 245 amended enrichments, by day 130 and 260 there was no significant production of sulfide in the cultures incubated with Pyr, A1CA or environmental NA cultures 246 compared to abiotic controls (p=0.1) (Fig. 1D). However, with cultures incubated with 247 248 2-MN under sulfate-reducing conditions, there was a significant increase in dissolved sulfide concentration by day 130 and day 260 compared to the 2-MN abiotic controls 249 and the 2-MN cultures under methanogenic conditions (p<0.05). At day 130 the 250

cultures incubated with 2-MN under sulfate-reducing conditions contained 1.6 mM \pm 0.389 sulfide , and by day 260 sulfide production had significantly increased to 2.68 mM \pm 0.312 (*p*<0.05) (Fig. 1D).

Degradation of 2-MN by cultures grown under sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions resulted in the production of a major metabolite, the mass spectrum of which is presented in Fig 2. The metabolite (denoted Metabolite 1) had a molecular mass of 244 and was tentatively identified as the trimethylsilylated ester of 2-naphthoic acid (Supplementary information Fig.1). No metabolites were detected in either the abiotic or killed controls.

260

261 **3.2 Bacterial community analysis**

PCR-DGGE analysis of the 16S rRNA gene was performed to determine 262 changes in the bacterial community composition, and the DGGE fingerprints for the 263 2-MN communities under both sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions are 264 shown in Fig. 3A and B. DGGE fingerprints from the other hydrocarbon enrichments 265 were also obtained, as shown in Supplementary Fig. S2 (sulfate-reducing 266 conditions), Supplementary Fig. S3 (methanogenic conditions) and Supplementary 267 Table S1. Bacterial community changes in cultures incubated with Pyr, A1CA and 268 environmental NAs were observed, however analysis of the DGGE banding patterns 269 270 demonstrated that 2-MN amended cultures were more distinct. Comparisons of the bacterial community composition during the biodegradation of 2-MN under both 271 sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions show that changes are apparent by 272 day 130 and day 260 compared to day 0, with numerous bands becoming more 273 prominent. Reproducibility among triplicates remained at a high level throughout. 274 Bands were excised, sequenced, and the closest BLAST*n* match is presented in 275

Table 1. From the sulfate-reducing community, DGGE bands 5, 7 and 9 were specific to the day 130 and day 260 2-MN communities and had a high 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to *Desulfonatronum thiodismutans* (97%), *Variovorax dokdonensis* (98%) and *Thaurea aromatica* (97%), respectively. DGGE band 4 had a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity (96%) to *Desulfobacterium autotrophicum* and was present in enrichments containing 2-MN at days 0, 130 and 260.

Under methanogenic conditions, DGGE bands 12, 14, 17 and 18 were uniquely present in the 2-MN enrichments at day 130 and day 260 and had a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to *Fusibacter paucivorans* (95%), *Alkaliphilus* spp. (95%), *Xanthobacter* spp. (99%) and *Hydrogenophaga caeni* (98%), respectively. DGGE band 17 had 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity (94%) to *Sphingobium astaxanthinifaciens* and was present in enrichments containing 2-MN at days 0, 130 and 260.

289

290 **4. Discussion**

To date there have been very few studies on anaerobic NA biodegradation, 291 despite the fact that as most tailings ponds mature they become anoxic (Whitby, 292 2010). In this study, the low molecular weight polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon 293 (LMW-PAH), 2-methylnaphalene (2-MN) was degraded under both sulfate-reducing 294 295 and methanogenic conditions to produce 2-naphthoic acid as an intermediate metabolite. Previous studies have also shown the production of 2-naphthoic acid 296 during the degradation of 2-MN under both sulfate-reducing (Annweiler et al., 2000; 297 298 2002; Musat et al., 2009) and methanogenic conditions (Bergio-Clavijo et al., 2012). 2-MN metabolism is known to have a mechanism similar to that seen in anaerobic 299 toluene degradation (Annweiler et al., 2000; Meckenstock et al., 2004). In order to 300

301 form 2-naphthoic acid, a fumarate is added at the methyl group, resulting in the intermediate naphthyl-2-methyl-succinic acid. Naphthyl-2-methyl-succinic acid is 302 then oxidized to naphthyl-2-methylene-succinic acid (Annweiler et al., 2000). Further 303 304 metabolism of 2-naphthoic acid proceeds in the same manner as described for naphthalene (Zhang et al., 2000). However, in this study no further metabolites were 305 detected under either sulfate-reducing conditions or methanogenic conditions. The 306 inability to detect other metabolites in the present study may be due to the amount of 307 substrate added, as fumarate addition products were detected by Annweiler et al. 308 (2000), at a 2-MN concentration of 100 mg L^{-1} whereas in this study 5 mg L^{-1} of 2-309 MN was used. However, Bergio-Clavijo et al. (2012) were unable to detect any 310 fumarate addition products at a 2-MN concentration of 130 mg L⁻¹ after 125 days 311 incubation after previously detecting them at this concentration during toluene 312 degradation over a period of 50 days (Fowler et al., 2012). 313

However, in the present study Pyr, A1CA and the 'natural' NAs were not 314 degraded anaerobically by day 260 under sulfate-reducing or methanogenic 315 conditions. The anaerobic biodegradation of HMW-PAHs has been tentatively 316 demonstrated under sulfate-reducing (Rothermich et al., 2002), nitrate-reducing 317 (Ambrolosi et al., 2005) and methanogenic (Trably et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2006; 318 Chang et al., 2003) conditions. In a comparison of all three conditions, Chang et al. 319 (2007) demonstrated biodegradation of a range of PAHs, including Pyr under the 320 various anaerobic conditions with communities isolated from river sediment. 321 Comparison of the PAH degradation rates under three different reducing conditions 322 produced the following order: sulfate-reducing > methanogenic > nitrate reducing 323 conditions (Chang et al., 2007). This supports the results of the present study in 324 which, by day 260, 40% of 2-MN was degraded under sulfate-reducing conditions 325

and 25% was degraded under methanogenic conditions. However, in the studies of Chang et al. (2003), Chang et al. (2006) and Chang et al. (2007), there was no detection of mineralisation, cell growth or characteristic metabolites, so the measured decrease in PAH concentration could be ascribed to partial and cometabolic oxidation (Foght, 2008; Meckenstock et al., 2004; Safinowski & Meckenstock., 2006).

Based on the appearance of DGGE bands during incubation with 2-MN at day 332 130 and day 260, (which were absent at day 0), the bacteria most likely to be 333 334 contributing to the biodegradation of the 2-MN under sulfate-reducing conditions, were the Deltaproteobacterium Desulfonatronum (band 5), the Betaproteobacteria, 335 Variovorax (band 7) and Thaurea (band 9). Thaurea species have previously been 336 337 shown to degrade toluene under nitrate-reducing conditions (Mechichi et al., 2002) and phenol in anoxic conditions (Breinig et al., 2000). Variovorax spp. have 338 previously been associated with anaerobic 2-MN degradation in bacterial 339 communities at 7°C (Eriksson et al., 2003) and benzene degradation in petroleum 340 contaminated aquifers (Rooney-Varga et al., 1999). However, neither 341 Desulfonatronum nor Thaurea have previously been associated with the degradation 342 of 2-MN under sulfate reducing conditions. A Desulfobacterium spp. (band 4) was 343 also detected, however it was not enriched during biodegradation of 2-MN, so it is 344 345 unlikely that it contributed directly to 2-MN degradation in this case. However, Desulfobacterium spp. are known to degrade aromatic compounds such as *m*-cresol 346 (Müller et al., 1999), catechol (Gorny & Schink 1994) and phenol (Bak & Widdel 347 1986). 348

349 Under methanogenic conditions, the bacteria most likely contributing to the 350 biodegradation of the 2-MN were the Firmicutes, *Fusibacter* (band 12) and

351 Alkaliphilus (band 14), the Alphaproteobacterium Xanthobacter (band 17) and the Betaproteobacterium Hydrogenophaga (band 18). Hydrogenophaga caeni have 352 demonstrated anaerobic growth on R2A agar (Chung et al., 2007) and 353 354 Hydrogenophaga sequences have been detected in anaerobic biofilms from OSPW samples (Golby et al., 2012). Fusibacter species have previously been isolated from 355 oil-producing wells, which has led some to infer an ability to degrade hydrocarbons 356 anaerobically (Ravot et al., 1999), while Alkaliphilus species have been shown to 357 degrade crotonate, a short chain carboxylic acid, under methanogenic conditions 358 359 (Cao et al., 2003). Bacterial species closely related to the Clostridiaceae have previously been detected in 2-MN methanogenic enrichment cultures, suggesting 360 that they may play an important role in the methanogenic metabolism of 2-MN 361 362 (Berdugo-Clavijo et al., 2012). An increasing number of studies are showing the importance of organisms closely affiliated with members of the phylum Firmicutes 363 and class Clostridia in the anaerobic biodegradation of hydrocarbons. This was 364 365 summarised by Gray et al. (2010) who clustered microbial community information from 26 different studies related to hydrocarbon-associated environments and found 366 that the Firmicutes were frequently detected in diverse habitats and represented 367 31% of the surveyed bacterial sequences (Gray 2010). It must be noted that the 368 change of gas phase at day 130 may be responsible for some of the community 369 370 changes and biodegradation observed, however no significant degradation of the 2-MN was observed in the day 130 samples. In addition, the production of methane 371 during the biodegradation of 2-MN under methanogenic conditions suggests that 372 373 syntrophic metabolism between the hydrocarbon utilizing bacteria and hydrogen / acetate utilizing archaeal methanogens was occurring. This was implied by Berdugo-374 Clavijo et al. (2012) whose 2-MN degrading communities were shown to be 375

376 dominated by two archaeal members *Methanosaeta* and *Methanoculleus*. In the 377 present study, the focus was on the bacterial communities, as they were more likely 378 to be the primary hydrocarbon degraders in such a syntrophic relationship.

379 Previous studies into the anaerobic communities in OSPW have demonstrated unexpectedly diverse communities to be present (Penner & Foght 380 2010). Bacterial clone libraries from mature fine tailings were shown to be composed 381 of Proteobacteria including presumptive nitrate, iron, or sulfate-reducing, 382 hydrocarbon-degrading species belonging to genera such as Thauera, Rhodoferax 383 and Desulfatibacillum as well as a number of Firmicutes within the order Clostridiales 384 as in the current study (Penner & Foght 2010). Ramos-Pedron et al. (2010) 385 characterized microbial communities by 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing from 386 OSPW treated with gypsum. Deep anaerobic layers were dominated by syntrophs 387 (Pelotomaculum, Syntrophus and Smithella spp.), sulfate- and sulfur-reducing 388 bacteria (Desulfocapsa and Desulfurivibrio spp.), as well as other anaerobes that 389 390 have been previously implicated in hydrocarbon utilization such as *Thauera*, which were found in the 2-MN degrading communities in the current study. However, the 391 nature of the substrates used by the identified organisms is not known (Ramos-392 Pedron et al., 2010). Furthermore, Golby et al. (2012) cultivated mixed-species 393 biofilms from OSPW under anaerobic conditions. Pyrosequencing of the resulting 394 revealed they were composed of Hydrogenophaga (19.5%), 395 communities Rhodoferax (9.9%), Methyloversatilis (9.9%), *Magnetospirillum* (6.5%), 396 and Acidovorax (4.0%). Species from some of these genera have been shown to be 397 associated with NA biodegradation (Golby et al., 2012), and Hydrogenophaga were 398 found in methanogenic 2-MN communities in the present study. 399

400

401 **5. Conclusions**

The present study demonstrated that a microbial community from OSPW was 402 capable of the anaerobic biodegradation of significantly more 2-MN under sulfate-403 404 reducing conditions than under methanogenic conditions and provided an insight into the bacteria required to achieve this. However, in the same time period there was no 405 significant anaerobic degradation of the NAs or the HMW-PAH, pyrene. Therefore, if 406 a similar lack of biodegradation is found in anoxic OSPW, then natural attenuation by 407 anaerobic biodegradation is likely not to be a feasible means of removing both NA 408 and PAH contamination from OSPW. Possible solutions to this are: aeration, as both 409 NAs (Whitby 2010) and PAHs (Kanaly & Harayama 2010) are known to degrade 410 much more rapidly under oxic conditions, or enhancing biodegradation through co-411 412 metabolism with lower molecular weight compounds (Meckenstock et al., 2004). Nevertheless, it is conceivable that with sufficient time for communities to adapt, 413 anaerobic degradation of some of these compounds will occur. These results have 414 implications for future remediation strategies of tailings ponds because if microbial 415 communities cannot be influenced to anaerobically degrade NAs and other toxic 416 components of OSPW then, unless alternative remediation options are explored, 417 their long-term persistence will cause significant environmental issues. 418

419

420 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Farid Benyahia and John Green (University of Essex, UK) for technical assistance. They would also like to thank Dr Lisa Gieg (University of Calgary, Canada) for supplying the environmental sample used in this study. This work was supported by a NERC CASE studentship (NE/H017542/1) with Oil Plus Ltd. and the University of Essex.

426 **References**

- Acuña Alvarez, L., Exton, D. A., Timmis K. N., Sugget D. J. & McGenity T. J. (2009).
 Characterization of marine isoprene-degrading communities. *Environ Microbiol*, *11*, 3280–3291.
- Ambrosoli, R., Petruzzelli, L., Minati, J. L. & Marsan, F. A. (2005). Anaerobic PAH
 degradation in soil by a mixed bacterial consortium under denitrifying
 conditions. *Chemosphere, 60*, 1231-1236.
- Annweiler, E., Materna, A., Safinowski, M., Richnow, H. H., Michaelis, W., Rainer, U.
 & Meckenstock, R. U. (2000). Anaerobic degradation of 2-Methylnaphthalene
 by a sulfate-reducing enrichment culture. *Appl Environ Microb*, 66, 5329-5333.
- Annweiler, E., Michaelis, W. & Meckenstock, R. U. (2002). Identical ring cleavage
 products during anaerobic degradation of Naphthalene, 2-Methylnaphthalene,
 and Tetralin indicate a new metabolic pathway. *Appl Environ Microb, 68,* 852858.
- Bak, F. & Widdel, F. (1986). Anaerobic degradation of phenol and phenol derivatives
 by *Desulfobacterium phenolicum* sp. nov. *Arch Microbiol*, 146, 177-180.
- Berdugo-Clavijo, C., Dong, X., Soh, J., Sensen, C. W. & Gieg, L. M. (2012).
 Methanogenic biodegradation of two-ringed polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*, *81*, 124–33.
- 445 Breinig, S., Schiltz, E. & Fuchs, G. (2000). Genes involved in anaerobic metabolism 446 of phenol in the bacterium Thauera aromatica. *J Bacteriol*, *182*, 5849–5863.
- Cao, X., Liu, X. & Dong, X. (2003). *Alkaliphilus crotonatoxidans* sp. nov., a strictly
 anaerobic, crotonate-dismutating bacterium isolated from a methanogenic
 environment. *Int J Syst Evol Micr*, *53*, 971–975.

- Chang, B., Chang, S. & Yuan, S. (2003). Anaerobic degradation of polycyclic
 aromatic hydrocarbons in sludge. *Adv Environ Res, 7*, 623-628.
- 452 Chang, B. V, Chiang, B. W. & Yuan, S. Y. (2007). Anaerobic degradation of 453 nonylphenol in soil. *J Environ Sci Heal B*, *42*, 387–392.
- Chang, W., Um, Y. & Holoman, T. R. P. (2006). Anaerobic polycyclic aromatic
 hydrocarbon (PAH) degradation coupled to methanogensis . *Biotechnol Lett*,
 28, 425-430.
- Chung, B. S., Ryu, S. H., Park, M., Jeon, Y., Chung, Y. R. & Jeon, C. O. (2007). *Hydrogenophaga caeni* sp. nov., isolated from activated sludge. *Inter J Syst Evol Micr*, *57*, 1126–30.
- Clemente, J. S. & Fedorak, P. M. (2005). A review of the occurrence, analyses,
 toxicity, and biodegradation of naphthenic acids. *Chemosphere*, *60*, 585-600.
- Cord-Ruwisch, R. (1985). A quick method for the determination of dissolved and
 precipitated sulfides in cultures of sulfate-reducing bacteria. *J Microbiol Meth*,
 464 4, 33-36.
- Del Rio, L.F., Hadwin, A. K. M., Pinto, L. J., MacKinnon M. D. & Moore M. M. (2006).
 Degradation of naphthenic acids by sediment micro-organisms. *J Appl Microbiol*, *101*, 1049–61.
- Eriksson, M., Sodersten, E., Yu, Z., Dalhammar, G. & Mohn, W. W. (2003).
 Degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons at low temperature under
 aerobic and nitrate-reducing conditions in enrichment cultures from northern
 soils. *Appl Environ Microb*, *69*, 275–284.
- Fedorak, P., Coy, D., Salloum, M. & Dudas, M. (2002). Methanogenic potential of
 tailings samples from oil sands extraction plants. *Can J Microbiol, 48*, 21-33.

- Foght, J. (2008). Anaerobic biodegradation of aromatic hydrocarbons: Pathways and
 prospects. *J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol*, *15*, 93-120.
- Fowler, S. J., Dong, X., Sensen, C. W., Suflita, J. M. & Gieg, L. M. (2012).
 Methanogenic toluene metabolism: community structure and intermediates. *Environ Microbiol*, *14*, 754–64.
- Golby, S., Ceri, H., Gieg, L. M., Chatterjee, I., Marques, L. L. R. & Turner, R. J.
 (2012). Evaluation of microbial biofilm communities from an Alberta oil sands
 tailings pond. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*, *79*, 240–50.
- 482 Gorny, N. & Schink, B. (1994). Anaerobic degradation of catechol by Desulfobacterium sp. strain Cat2 proceeds via carboxylation 483 to protocatechuate. Appl Environ Microb, 60, 3396-3400. 484
- Grabowski, A., Blanchet, D. & Jeanthon, C. (2005). Characterization of long-chain
 fatty-acid-degrading syntrophic associations from a biodegraded oil reservoir. *Res Microbiol 156*, 814-821.
- Gray, N. D., Sherry, A., Hubert, C., Dolfing, J. & Head, I. M. (2010). Methanogenic
 degradation of petroleum hydrocarbons in subsurface environments
 remediation, heavy oil formation, and energy recovery. *Advances Appli Microbiol*, 72, 137–161.
- Holowenko, F., MacKinnon, M. & Fedorak, P. (2000). Methanogens and sulfatereducing bacteria in oil sands fine tailings waste. *Can J Microbiol, 46*, 927937.
- Holowenko, F. M., Mackinnon, M. D. & Fedorak, P. M. (2001). Naphthenic acids and
 surrogate naphthenic acids in methanogenic microcosms. *Water Res*, 35,
 2595-2606.

- Holowenko, F. M., Mackinnon, M. D. & Fedorak, P. M. (2002). Characterization of
 naphthenic acids in oil sands was waters by gas chromatography-mass
 spectrometry. *Water Res*, 36, 2843-2855.
- Johnson, R. J., Smith, B. E., Sutton, P. a, McGenity, T. J., Rowland, S. J. & Whitby,
 C. (2011). Microbial biodegradation of aromatic alkanoic naphthenic acids is
 affected by the degree of alkyl side chain branching. *ISME J*, *5*, 486–96.
- Kanaly, R. A. & Harayama, S. (2010). Advances in the field of high-molecular-weight
 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon biodegradation by bacteria. *Microb Biotechnol*, 3, 136-164.
- Kelly, E. N., Short, J. W., Schindler D. W., Hodson, P. V., Ma, M., Kwan, A. K. &
 Fortin B. L (2009). Oil sands development contributes polycyclic aromatic
 compounds to the Athabasca River and its tributaries. *P Natl Acad Sci USA*, *106*, 22346–22351.
- McKew, B. A., Coulon, F., Osborn, A. M., Timmis, K. N. & McGenity, T. J. (2007).
 Determining the identity and roles of oil-metabolizing marine bacteria from the
 Thames estuary, UK. *Environ Microbiol*, *9*, 165–76.
- Stackebrandt, E., Gad'on, N. & Fuchs, G. (2002).Phylogenetic and metabolic
 diversity of bacteria degrading aromatic compounds under denitrifying
 conditions, and description of *Thauera phenylacetica* sp. nov., *Thauera aminoaromatica* sp.nov., and *Azoarcus buckelii* sp. nov. *Arch Microbiol, 178*,
 26–35.
- Meckenstock, R. U., Safinowski, M. & Griebler, C. (2004). Anaerobic degradation of
 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol, 49*, 27-36.

521 Müller, J. A., Galushko, A. S., Kappler, A. & Schink, B. (1999). Anaerobic 522 degradation of m-cresol by *Desulfobacterium cetonicum* is initiated by 523 formation of 3-hydroxybenzylsuccinate. *Arch Microbiol*, *172*, 287–294.

524 Musat, F., Galushko, A., Jacob, J., Widdel, F., Kube, M., Reinhardt, R. & Rabus, R. 525 (2009). Anaerobic degradation of naphthalene and 2-methylnaphthalene by 526 strains of marine sulfate-reducing bacteria. *Environ Microbiol, 11*, 209–19.

527 Muyzer, G., Dewaal, E. C. & Uitterlinden, A. G. (1993). Profiling of complex 528 microbial-populations by denaturing gradient gel-electrophoresis analysis of 529 polymerase chain reaction-amplified genes-coding for 16S rRNA. *Appl* 530 *Environ Microbiol*, 59, 695-700.

Penner, T. J. & Foght, J. M. (2010). Mature fine tailings from oil sands processing
 harbour diverse methanogenic communities, *Can J Microbiol*, *56*, 459–470.

Ramos-Padrón, E., Bordenave, S., Lin, S., Bhaskar, I. M., Dong, X., Sensen, C. W.

& Gieg, L. M. (2011). Carbon and sulfur cycling by microbial communities in a
gypsum-treated oil sands tailings pond. *Environ Sci Technol*, *45*, 439–446.

Ravot, G, Magot, M., Fardeau, M. L., Patel, B. K., Thomas, P., Garcia, J. L. &
Ollivier, B. (1999). *Fusibacter paucivorans* gen. nov., sp. nov., an anaerobic,
thiosulfate-reducing bacterium from an oil-producing well. *Int J Syst Bacteriol*,
49, 1141–1147.

Rooney-Varga, J. N., Anderson, R. T., Fraga, J. L., Ringelberg, D. & Lovley, D. R.
(1999). Microbial communities associated with anaerobic benzene
degradation in a petroleum-contaminated aquifer. *Applied Environ Microb*, 65,
3056–3063.

Rothermich, M. M., Hayes, L. A. & Lovley, D. R. (2002). Anaerobic, sulfatedependent degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in petroleumcontaminated harbor sediment. *Environ Sci Technol, 36,* 4811-4817.

- Rowland, S. J., Scarlett A. G., D. Jones D., West C. E. & Frank, R. A. (2011).
 Diamonds in the rough: Identification of individual naphthenic acids in oil
 sands process water. *Environ Sci Technol, 45*,3154-3159.
- Safinowski, M. & Meckenstock, R. U. (2006). Methylation is the initial reaction in
 anaerobic naphthalene degradation by a sulfate-reducing enrichment culture.
 Environ Microbiol, 8, 347–352.
- Siddique, T., Fedorak, P. M. & Foght, J. M. (2006). Biodegradation of short-chain n alkanes in oil sands tailings under methanogenic conditions. *Environ Sci Technol, 40*, 5459-5464.
- Siddique, T., Fedorak, P., Mckinnon, M. & Foght, J. (2007). Metabolism of BTEX and
 naphtha compounds to methane in oil sands tailings. *Environ Sci Technol, 41*,
 2350-2356.
- Siddique, T., Penner, T., Semple, K. & Foght, J. M. (2011). Anaerobic
 biodegradation of longer chain n-alkanes coupled to methane production in oil
 sands tailings. *Environ Sci Technol, 45*, 5892-5899.
- Trably, E., Patureau, D. & Delgenes, J. (2003). Enhancement of polycyclic aromatic
 hydrocarbons removal during anaerobic treatment of urban sludge. *Water Sci Technol*, 48, 53-60.
- 565 Timoney, K.P. & Lee, P. (2009). Does the Alberta Tar Sands Industry Pollute? The 566 Scientific Evidence. *Open Conser Biol, 3*, 65–81.
- Whitby, C. (2010). Microbial naphthenic acid degradation. *Adv Appl Microbiol, 70*,
 93-125.

569	Widdel, F., Knittel, K. & Galushko (2010). Anaerobic hydrocarbon degrading
570	microorganisms: an overview. In Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid
571	Microbiology. Timmis, K. N., McGenity, T. J., Meer, J. R. & de Lorenzo V.
572	(eds). Springer, 1998–2015.
573	Widdel, F. & Rabus, R. (2001). Anaerobic biodegradation of saturated and aromatic
574	hydrocarbons. Curr Opin Biotech, 12, 259–76.
575	Zhang, X., Sullivan, E. R. & Young, L. Y. (2000). Evidence for aromatic ring
576	reduction in the biodegradation pathway of carboxylated naphthalene by a
577	sulfate reducing consortium. Biodegradation, 11, 117–124.
578	
579	
580	
581	
582	
583	
584	
585	
586	
587	
588	
589	
590	
591	
592	
593	

594 **Titles to Figures and Tables**

Fig. 1. Degradation of Pyr, A1CA, environmental NAs (NAs) and 2-MN after 260 days incubation compared to abiotic controls (at day 260) under both sulfatereducing (A) and methanogenic conditions (B). Relative percentage remaining after 0 days (light bars) and 260 days (dark bars). (C): Methane production in methanogenic and sulfate-reducing cultures at day 260. (D): sulfide production in methanogenic and sulfate-reducing cultures at day 260. S = cultures under sulfatereducing conditions. Error bars represent standard error of the mean (*n*=3).

602

Fig. 2. Example gas chromatograms showing degradation of 2-MN over time under
 sulfate-reducing (A) and methanogenic conditions (B). The internal standard was 4 phenylbutyric acid.

606

Fig. 3. DGGE fingerprint of the bacterial communities grown on 2-MN under sulfatereducing (A) and methanogenic conditions (B). Numbers indicate the bands excised and sequenced. Band numbers correspond to those in Table 1.

610

Table 1. Blast*n* analysis of the 16S rRNA genes from excised DGGE bands.

612

613

- 614
- 615
- 616

617

619 Supplementary information

620

Supplementary Fig. S1. Mass spectrum of metabolite 1, tentatively identified as 2 naphthoic acid (siliylated) detected in 2-MN cultures under both sulfate-reducing and
 methanogenic conditions.

624

Supplementary Fig. S2. Composite image of DGGE gel (using F341 and R534 primers) from the sulfate-reducing cultures demonstrating bacterial community structure in the presence of Pyr, A1CA, Natural NAs and 2-MN at day 130 and day 260. The bands indicated (1-10) were excised and sequenced. Band numbers correspond to those in Supplementary Table S1.

630

Supplementary Fig. S3. Composite image of DGGE gel (using F341 and R534 primers) from the methanogenic cultures demonstrating bacterial community structure in the presence of Pyr, A1CA, Natural NAs and 2-MN at day 130 and day 260. The bands indicated (11-18) were excised and sequenced. Band numbers correspond to those in Supplementary Table S1.

636

Supplementary Table S1. Blast*n* analysis of the 16S rRNA genes from excised
 DGGE bands from the methanogenic and sulfate-reducing cultures.

639

640

641

642

644 **Composition of anaerobic media**

The basal medium for all anaerobic cultures contained L^{-1} of anaerobic water: K₂HPO₄, 0.652 g; NaH₂PO₄. H₂O, 0.173 g; NH₄HCO₃, 0.443g; NaHCO₃, 3.73 g and Resazurin solution (0.5 g L^{-1}) 1mL. The medium for sulfate reducers was made as above with the addition of NaSO₄ at 4 g L^{-1} .

The trace elements solution for all anaerobic cultures contained L^{-1} of anaerobic water: concentrated HCl, 1 mL; FeCl₂. 4H₂O, 2000mg; CoCl₂ x 6 H₂O, 190 mg; ZnCl₂, 70 mg; CuCl₂, 2 mg; H₃BO₃, 6 mg; Na₂MoO₄, 36 mg; NiCl₂ .6 H₂O, 24 mg. 50 mL portions were filter sterilised and stored in N₂ flushed, crimp sealed serum bottles, with gas phase filled with N₂ to 1.5 bar.

The amino acids solution for all anaerobic cultures contained 100 mL⁻¹ anaerobic water: Arginine, 871 mg; Histidine, 775.8 mg; Threonine, 595.6 mg. 50 mL portions were filter sterilised and stored in N₂ flushed, crimp sealed serum bottles, with gas phase filled with N₂ to 1.5 bar.

Vitamin solution A for all anaerobic cultures contained 250 mL⁻¹ anaerobic 658 water: Biotin, 12.5 mg; p-aminobenzoate (Na-salt), 55 mg; pantothenate (Ca-salt), 659 12.5 mg; folic acid (dihydrate), 5 mg; lipoic acid (thiocitic acid), 12.5 mg; pyridoxine, 660 25 mg; nicotinamide137.5 mg. Aliquots (50 mL) were filter sterilised and stored in N2 661 flushed, crimp sealed serum bottles, with gas phase filled with N₂ to 1.5 bar. Vitamin 662 solutions B, C and D for all anaerobic cultures contained 100 mL⁻¹ anaerobic water: 663 thiamine HCI, 10mg; riboflavine, 5 mg and cyanocobalamin, 25 mg respectively. 50 664 mL portions were filter sterilised and stored in N2 flushed, crimp sealed serum 665 bottles, with gas phase filled with N₂ to 1.5 bar. The Na₂S solution for all anaerobic 666 cultures contained 100 mL⁻¹ anaerobic water: Na₂S, 24.02 g. Aliquots (50 mL) were 667 filter sterilised and stored in N₂ flushed, crimp sealed serum bottles, with gas phase 668

669	filled with N_2 to 1.5 bar. The Ca and Mg solution contained L^{-1} of anaerobic water:
670	CaCl ₂ .2H ₂ O, 4.410 g; MgCl ₂ .6H ₂ O, 4.066 g. 50 mL portions were filter sterilised and
671	stored N_2 flushed, in crimp sealed serum bottles, with gas phase filled with N_2 to 1.5
672	bar.
673	
674	
675	
676	
677	
678	
679	
680	
681	
682	
683	
684	
685	
686	
687	
688	
689	
690	
691	
692	



Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.



 Table 1 Blastn analysis of the 16S rRNA genes from excised DGGE bands.

DGGE band	Closest match	Sequence length(bp)	% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity	Environment from which closest match was derived	Genbank accession number of most closely related sequence
4	Desulfobacterium autotrophicum	193	96	Marine	<u>NR 074942.1</u>
5	Desulfonatronum thiodismutans	194	97	Freshwater	<u>NR_025163.1</u>
7	Variovorax dokdonensis	184	98	Soil	<u>NR_043615.1</u>
9	Thaurea aromatica	193	97	Activated sludge	<u>NR_026153.1</u>
12	Fusibacter paucivorans	192	95	Oil producing well	<u>NR_024886.1</u>
14	Alkaliphilus spp.	191	95	Methanogenic	NR_041892
16	Sphingobium astaxanthinifaciens	176	94	Freshwater	NR_041535.1
17	Xanthobacter spp.	205	97	Soil	NR_026353
18	Hydrogenophaga caeni	196	98	Activated sludge	<u>NR_043769.1</u>

Supplementary Table S1. Blast*n* analysis of the 16S rRNA genes from excised DGGE bands from the methanogenic and sulfate-reducing cultures.

DGGE	Closest match from Blast <i>n</i>	Sequence	% 16S rRNA gene	Environment from which	Genbank accession number
band		length (bp)	sequence identity	closest match was derived	of most closely related
					sequence
1	Alkaliphilus spp.	199	98	Methanogenic	NR_041892.1
2	Fusibacter spp.	217	95	Oil producing well	NR_024886.1
3	Clostridium acetobutylicum	210	99	Soil	AE_001437
4	Desulfobacterium autotrophicum	193	96	Marine	NR_074942.1
5	Desulfonatronum thiodismutans	223	97	Freshwater	NR_025163.1
6	Sanguibacter spp.	179	96	Marine sediment	NR_042311
7	Variovorax dokdonensis	184	98	Soil	NR_043615.1
8	Acidovorax defluvii	201	95	Activated sludge	NR_026506.1
9	Thaurea aromatica	193	97		NR_041011.1
10	Perlucidibaca piscinae	192	94	Freshwater	NR_043919.1

11	Proteocatella sphenisci	204	98	Antarctic soil	NR_041885.1
12	Fusibacter paucivorans	192	95	Oil producing well	NR_024886.1
13	Anoxynatronum sibiricum	218	94	Freshwater	NR_025256
14	Alkaliphilus sp.	221	95	Methanogenic	NR_041892
15	Corynebacterium spp.	187	98	Soil	NR_102500
16	Sphingobium astaxanthinifaciens	176	94	Freshwater	NR_041535.1
17	Xanthobacter sp.	205	97	Soil	NR_026353
18	Hydrogenophaga caeni	196	98	Activated sludge	NR_043769.1



Supplementary Fig. S1. Mass spectrum of metabolite 1, tentatively identified as 2naphthoic acid (siliylated) detected in 2-MN cultures under both sulfate-reducing and methanogenic conditions.



Supplementary Fig. S2. Composite image of DGGE gel (using F341 and R534 primers) from the sulfate-reducing cultures demonstrating bacterial community structure in the presence of Pyr, A1CA, Natural NAs and 2-MN at day 130 and day 260. The bands indicated (1-10) were excised and sequenced. Band numbers correspond to those in Supplementary Table S1.



Supplementary Fig. S3. Composite image of DGGE gel (using F341 and R534 primers) from the methanogenic cultures demonstrating bacterial community structure in the presence of Pyr, A1CA, Natural NAs and 2-MN at day 130 and day 260. The bands indicated (11-18) were excised and sequenced. Band numbers correspond to those in Supplementary Table S1.