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Technical Note

Bacterial acquisition of hexachlorobenzene-derived carbon in contaminated soil



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HIGHLIGHTS

- Bacteria in contaminated soil can gain carbon from hexachlorobenzene.
- Methylobacterium and Pseudomonas acquire HCB-derived carbon.
- Pentachlorophenol is a likely intermediate of HCB biodegradation.

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ABSTRACT

Pesticides are a class of xenobiotics intentionally released into the environment. Hexachlorobenzene (HCB) was used as a fungicide from 1945, leaving behind many contaminated sites. Very few studies have examined the biodegradation of HCB or the fate of HCB-derived carbon. Here we report that certain bacterial populations are capable of deriving carbon from HCB in contaminated soil under aerobic conditions. These populations are primarily Proteobacteria, including Methylobacterium and Pseudomonas, which predominated as detected by stable isotope probing (SIP) and 16S rRNA gene amplicon pyrosequencing. Due to the nature of SIP, which can be used as a functional method solely for assimilatory processes, it is not possible to elucidate whether these populations metabolized directly HCB or intermediates of its metabolism produced by different populations. The possibility exists that HCB is degraded via the formation of pentachlorophenol (PCP), which is further mineralized. With this in mind, we designed primers to amplify PCP 4-monooxygenase-coding sequences based on the available pcpB gene sequence from Methylobacterium radiotolerans JCM 2831. Based on 16S rRNA gene analysis, organisms closely related to this strain were detected in ¹³C-labeled DNA. Using the designed primers, we were able to amplify pcpB genes in both total community DNA and ¹³C-DNA. This indicates that HCB might be transformed into PCP before it gets assimilated. In summary, this study is the first report on which bacterial populations benefit from carbon originating in the pesticide HCB in a contaminated soil.

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1. Introduction

Hexachlorobenzene (HCB) was used as a fungicide starting in 1945 for crop, onion, and sorghum seeds protection. Although its intentional production was stopped, it can still be released unintentionally during some chemical syntheses (Barber et al., 2005). HCB is classified among persistent organic pollutants (POPs) by the Stockholm Convention on POPs, which aims to eliminate

and restrict the production and use of these compounds (http://www.pops.int). In spite of its persistence, some studies have been published reporting bacterial transformation of HCB, e.g. by Prytula and Pavlostathis (1996), Yuan et al. (1999) or Brahushi et al. (2004). Very few studies, however, have investigated the identity of microorganisms associated with HCB metabolism. The HCB-transforming microorganisms identified so far include Dehalococcoides sp. CBDB1 (Jayachandran et al., 2003) and other Dehalococcoides strains (Taş et al., 2010), which are capable of HCB dehalorespiration, and genetically engineered Sphingobium chlorophenolicum ATCC 39723, which is capable of partial HCB degradation (Yan et al., 2006). The first bacterium reported to mineralize HCB is Nocardioides sp. PD653 with the proposed

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biodegradation pathway (Fig. 1) being initiated by the oxidative dehalogenation of HCB into pentachlorophenol (PCP). Further metabolites include tetrachlorohydroguinone and dichlorohydroquinone (Takagi et al., 2009). Although the strain PD653 was able to mineralize HCB, it was not clear whether this strain used HCB as a source of carbon and/or energy. Aerobic growth on HCB as the sole carbon source was detected in members of the genera Azospirillum and Alcaligenes, which dominated the HCB-utilizing community isolated from a contaminated site (Liu et al., 2009). Yet information is still missing which will help elucidate if HCB can be metabolized directly in soil under aerobic conditions. The aim of this study was to demonstrate the assimilation of HCB-derived carbon under aerobic conditions and identify the bacteria that acquired carbon from HCB. In order to achieve this aim, stable isotope probing (SIP) was employed, which benefits from the provision of a stable isotope (mostly ¹³C)-labeled substrate to a community and subsequent tracking of the label in cellular biomarkers, such as nucleic acids (for reviews see Chen and Murrell, 2010; Madsen, 2010; Uhlík et al., 2013). In this study, the microbial community of an aged contaminated soil was provided with 13C-HCB, and populations incorporating ¹³C were identified by pyrosequencing analysis of 16S rRNA genes amplified from ¹³C-labeled DNA.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Soil samples

The contaminated soil was collected from a chemical factory in Neratovice, Czech Republic. Due to industrial production, the site has experienced variable levels of multiple contaminants (exact data are not available). The actual amount of HCB at the time of sampling was $38.1~\rm mg\,kg^{-1}$ dry matter. Other contaminants included DDT (9.5 $\rm mg\,kg^{-1}$), lindane (261.5 $\rm mg\,kg^{-1}$), and heavy metals. The soil samples were used for the isolation of metagenomic DNA, amplification of 16S rRNA genes and their pyrosequencing as well as SIP experiments. DNA isolation was performed with PowerMax Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

2.2. SIP and ¹³C-DNA isolation

SIP microcosms were established in triplicates in sterile 100 mL serum bottles (Sigma–Aldrich, USA). First, 200 μ L of either fully 13 C-labeled or unlabeled HCB (Alsachim, France and Sigma–Aldrich, USA, respectively) solution in ether (corresponding to the amount 400 μ g of HCB) was pipetted onto the bottom of each bottle allowing ether to completely evaporate in the fume-hood. Second, 2 g of homogenized, sieved soil was placed into each of the bottles and moistened with 400 μ L of mineral salt solution [in g L $^{-1}$: 1 (NH4)2SO4, 2.7 KH2PO4, 10.955 Na2HPO4·12H2O, 0.03 Ca(NO3)2, 0.01 FeSO4, 0.2 MgSO4]. The bottles were sealed to maintain stable atmosphere with continuous sublimation of HCB, which was allowed to be gradually trapped by indigenous soil microbes during the incubation at 25 °C in the dark. Harvesting of the microcosms was accomplished after 2 and 4 weeks.

Isolated metagenomic DNA (13C-enriched as well as control unlabeled DNA) was subjected to isopycnic centrifugation performed on Discovery 90 Ultracentrifuge with TFT 80.2 rotor (Sorvall, USA) at conditions of 145 000 xg for 72 h in 1.5 mL cuvettes. Using Beckman Fraction Recovery System (Beckman Coulter, USA) and Harvard Pump 11 Plus Single Syringe (Harvard Apparatus, USA), each gradient was fractionated into 50 µL fractions (with flow rate 200 µL min⁻¹). Buoyant densities (BDs) of fractions were determined using Digital Handheld Refractometer (Reichert Analytical Instruments, NY, USA) based on refractive indices of fractionated gradient constructed with no DNA. After DNA from each fraction was retrieved by isopropanol precipitation with glycogen, 16S rRNA genes were quantified by real-time qPCR in relation to a standard curve constructed with Pseudomonas stutzeri [M300 genomic DNA (Ginard et al., 1997). Real-time PCR conditions were as follows: each 12 µL reaction contained iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, USA), 0.4 µM primers 786f: 5'-GATTAGATACCCTGGTAG-3' and 939r: 5'-CTTGTGCGGGCCCCCGTCAATTC-3' (Baker et al., 2003), and 2 µL of template DNA. Cycling program was set to 95 °C for 5 min, 30 cycles of 95 °C for 40 s, 55 °C for 40 s, 72 °C for 60 s, and a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Fractions with ¹³C-enriched DNA were compiled and further analyzed as ¹³C-DNA (or 'heavy' DNA).

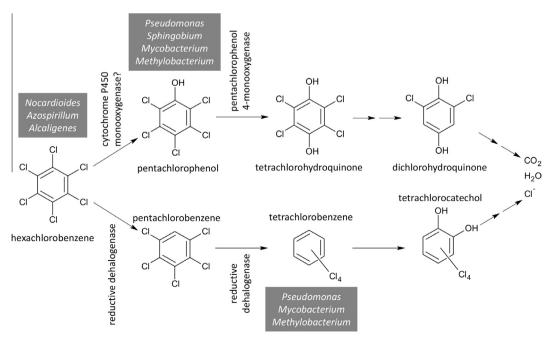


Fig. 1. Summary of possible degradation pathways for HCB together with bacterial genera which acquire carbon from certain intermediates based on sequenced genomes and data available in the literature. Enzymes for the key reaction steps are displayed.

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