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3	Functional gene markers for fumarate-adding and dearomatising key enzymes in
4	anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation in terrestrial environments
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23 Abstract

24 Anaerobic degradation is a key process in many environments either naturally or anthropogenically 25 exposed to petroleum hydrocarbons. Especially for the degradation of aromatic hydrocarbons, 26 considerable advances into the biochemistry and physiology of selected anaerobic degraders have 27 been achieved over the last decades. However, researchers have only recently begun to explore the 28 ecology of complex anaerobic hydrocarbon degrader communities directly in their natural habitats, 29 as well as in complex laboratory systems using tools of molecular biology. Mainly, these approaches 30 have been facilitated by the establishment of a suite of targeted marker gene assays, allowing for 31 rapid and directed insights into the diversity as well as the identity of intrinsic degrader populations 32 and degradation potentials established at hydrocarbon-impacted sites. These are based on genes 33 encoding either peripheral or central key enzymes in aromatic compound breakdown, such as 34 fumarate-adding benzylsuccinate synthases, dearomatising aryl-CoA reductases, or on aromatic ring-35 cleaving hydrolases. Here, we review recent advances in this field, explain the different detection 36 methodologies applied, and discuss how the detection of site-specific catabolic gene markers has 37 improved the understanding of processes at contaminated sites. Functional marker gene-based 38 strategies may be vital for the development of a more elaborate population-based assessment and 39 prediction of aromatic degradation potentials in hydrocarbon-impacted environments.

41 Introduction – anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation by microbes

42 Petroleum hydrocarbons are amongst the most important and ubiquitous contaminants in aquatic 43 and terrestrial systems. Hydrocarbons typically occur as complex mixtures of aliphatic compounds 44 (alkanes, alkenes and cycloalkanes), monoaromatic hydrocarbons (i.e. classical BTEX compounds like 45 benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylenes) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs, e.g. 46 naphthalene, anthracene, etc.) in the environment. Petroleum hydrocarbons are generally harmful 47 for organisms and can be very persistent in the environment [Wilkes and Schwarzbauer, 2010], especially with increasing molecular complexity. Hydrocarbons with a high molecular weight or long 48 49 chain aliphatic compounds (> C16) are mostly hydrophobic, solid waxes with a low mobility and 50 bioavailability. Aromatic hydrocarbons are generally stabilised by high resonance energy levels within 51 the delocalised π -electron system of the aromatic ring. Notwithstanding, many bacteria are in fact 52 able to utilise aromatic hydrocarbons as an electron donors and carbon sources under a variety of redox conditions [Fuchs et al., 2011; Schink, 2002; Widdel et al., 2010]. Since aromatic compounds 53 54 lack functionalization by carboxyl-, hydroxyl- or amine groups to facilitate biochemical attack [Wilkes 55 and Schwarzbauer, 2010], degraders have evolved a number of catabolic pathways allowing them to 56 capitalise on such substrates.

57 Catabolic pathways

58 Under oxic conditions, aromatic compounds are first activated by the addition of hydroxyl groups to 59 destabilise the aromaticity by various mono- or dioxygenases [Pérez-Pantoja et al., 2010]. Oxygen is 60 strictly necessary as a co-substrate for ring activation reactions. The ring systems of the activated 61 compounds are then metabolised by various peripheral pathways into a few di-hydroxylated central 62 intermediates. The ring structure is then opened by either a meta- or ortho-cleavage, breakdown 63 products are then further degraded before entering central metabolism mostly as succinyl- or acetyl-CoA. Due to the superior redox potential of the H_2O/O_2 redox couple, molecular oxygen is a 64 thermodynamically and kinetically preferred electron acceptor for biodegradation [Fuchs et al., 65 2011]. 66

67 In contrast, when hydrocarbon loads exceed the availability of oxygen, anaerobic biodegradation of aromatic hydrocarbons becomes a pivotal process, particularly in contaminated subsurface 68 69 environments (i.e. in groundwater),. Yet the microbes involved in anaerobic degradation and their 70 biochemistry eluded scientific investigators for most of the last century. Beginning from the late 71 1980s, first systematic insights became apparent [Evans and Fuchs, 1988]. Similar to aerobic 72 pathways, anaerobic aromatic compound degradation involves a number of peripheral funnelling 73 pathways, where the crucial initial activation occurs (Fig. 1). The activated compounds are then 74 converted to central metabolites, which are then further degraded via conserved pathways to acetyl-75 CoA for assimilation, complete oxidation to CO_2 , or for release to methanogenic partners [Fuchs et 76 al., 2011].

77 Currently, three alternative strategies for the anaerobic activation of aromatic hydrocarbons are known [Heider, 2007; Widdel and Rabus, 2001]: (1.) The addition of a methyl or methylene group of 78 79 substituted aromatic compounds across the double bond of fumarate (so-called "fumarate-80 addition"); (2.) hydroxylation independent of molecular oxygen in the degradation of substituted benzenes such as ethylbenzene [Johnson et al., 2001; Kniemeyer and Heider, 2001]; and (3.) 81 82 carboxylation, described for the activation of non-substituted naphthalene and benzene [Abu Laban 83 et al., 2010; Holmes et al., 2011; Meckenstock and Mouttaki, 2011] and phenanthrene [Davidova et 84 al., 2007]. Fumarate-addition was first described for the activation of toluene catalysed by the 85 enzyme benzylsuccinate synthase (BSS) of Thauera aromatica strain K172 [Biegert et al., 1996]. 86 Benzylsuccinate is then further degraded via CoA-thioesters to benzoyl-CoA, which is the central 87 metabolite in anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation [Fuchs et al., 2011].

Activation by fumarate-adding enzymes is not only found for aromatic compounds such as toluene, xylenes and ethylbenzene [Heider, 2007; Widdel and Rabus, 2001]. The same mechanism is also used for the activation of 2-methylnaphthalene by naphthylmethylsuccinate synthases (NMS) [Annweiler et al., 2000; Musat et al., 2009], for the degradation of cresols [Müller et al., 1999] and also for the activation of *p*-cymene in certain denitrifiers [Strijkstra et al., 2014]. Fumarate addition is also known

93 to be involved in the activation of non-aromatic compounds. These include short- and long-chain 94 alkanes [Callaghan et al., 2008; Grundmann et al., 2008; Kniemeyer et al., 2007; Kropp et al., 2000; 95 Rabus et al., 2001], cyclic alkanes [Musat et al., 2010; Rios-Hernandez et al., 2003] and also linear 96 alkylbenzenesulfonate detergents [Lara-Martin et al., 2010]. A dual nomenclature is in use for alkane-97 activating enzymes: alkylsuccinate synthases, ASS [Callaghan et al., 2008] and 1-methylalkylsuccinate 98 synthases, MAS [Grundmann et al., 2008]. In summary, the genes of fumarate-adding enzymes (FAE) 99 can be considered as widely applicable catabolic markers for anaerobic hydrocarbon degradation in 100 the environment [von Netzer et al., 2013].

101 Though not yet directly demonstrated by in vitro assays, numerous studies including the 102 identification of upregulated genes encoding carboxylases from the same enzyme family as enzymes 103 involved in decarboxylation reactions in ubiquinone biosynthesis (UbiD-like carboxylases) [Schühle 104 and Fuchs, 2004] support the concept of carboxylation as conserved initial reaction during anaerobic 105 degradation of benzene and naphthalene [Abu Laban et al., 2010; Bergmann et al., 2011a; Luo et al., 106 2014; Meckenstock and Mouttaki, 2011; Mouttaki et al., 2012]. Upon carboxylation of benzene, 107 benzoate can be directly funnelled into the central benzoyl-CoA degradation pathway by the action 108 of an ATP-dependent benzoate CoA-ligase. An alternative activation mechanism, anaerobic 109 hydroxylation of benzene to phenol has been reported for Geobacter metallireducens [Zhang et al., 110 2013]. However, the enzymes or genes involved in such a reaction are still unknown.

111 All known peripheral pathways for anaerobic degradation of aromatic compounds converge at the 112 level of benzoyl-CoA or benzoyl-CoA analogues as central intermediates (Fig. 1). In the so-called 113 benzoyl-CoA degradation pathway, the aromatic ring is first desaturated by benzoyl-CoA reductases. 114 There are two enzyme classes known for the initial dearomatization step [Boll et al., 2014; Fuchs et 115 al., 2011]: Either the ATP-dependent benzoyl-CoA reductase BcrCBAD/BzdNOPQ/BadDEFG (class I 116 BCR) in facultative anaerobes like Thauera aromatica, Azoarcus and Aromatoleum spp. and 117 Rhodopseudomonas palustris, or the ATP-independent benzoyl-CoA reductase BamBCDEFGHI (class II 118 BCR) in strict anaerobes like *Geobacter metallireducens*. Subsequently, the ring cleaving hydrolase

119 (BamA/BzdY/Oah) precedes successive β -oxidation-like reactions, yielding CO₂ and three molecules 120 of acetyl-CoA which can be funnelled into central metabolism (Fig. 1).

121 The degradation of PAHs substantially differs from that of monocyclic aromatic compounds and has 122 so far only been studied for the bicyclic model compound naphthalene (Fig. 1). Here the 2-naphthoic 123 acid formed by carboxylation is thought to be activated by an ATP-dependent, 2-naphthoyl-CoA 124 forming ligase. The subsequent degradation pathway involves three different aryl-CoA reductases, 125 one of which is ATP-dependent [Eberlein et al., 2013a; Eberlein et al., 2013b]. The 2-naphthoyl-CoA 126 reductase (NCR) is a member of the old yellow enzyme (OYE) family, which are flavoproteins with a 127 flavin mononucleotide cofactor [Stott et al., 1993]. The NCR dearomatises the non-activated ring of 128 the bicyclic 2-naphthoyl-CoA by a two-electron reduction to 5,6-dihydronaphthoyl-CoA (DHNCoA). 129 The latter is subsequently reduced by a second OYE to 5,6,7,8-tetrahydronaphthoyl-CoA (THNCoA) 130 [Estelmann et al., 2015]. The reduction of the activated ring of THNCoA is then accomplished by an 131 ATP-dependent THNCoA reductase forming a hexahydronaphthoyl-CoA product [Eberlein et al., 132 2013b]. The genes encoding an ATP-dependent class I benzoyl-CoA reductase of the Azoarcus-type 133 are present in the genome of sulphate-reducing enrichment culture N47 [Bergmann et al., 2011b] as 134 well as the pure culture NaphS2 [DiDonato et al., 2010]. The ATP-dependence of THNCoA reduction was additionally demonstrated in vitro [Eberlein et al., 2013b]. The degradation of the 135 136 hexahydronaphthoyl-CoA has not been demonstrated in vitro yet, but is likely to proceed via 137 cyclohexane ring-containing intermediates as evidenced by metabolite analyses [Annweiler et al., 138 2002].

139 Anaerobic degraders

A wide diversity of bacterial cultures and enrichments is known to mineralise aromatic hydrocarbons under anoxic conditions using various electron acceptors. Generally, hydrocarbons can be metabolised by single organisms or by syntrophic consortia. Organisms capable of initially attacking and metabolising aromatic hydrocarbons are typically to be found within the *Rhodocyclaceae* (*Betaproteobacteria*), *Geobacteraceae*, *Desulfobacteraceae*, *Syntrophobacteraceae* 6 145 (Deltaproteobacteria) and Peptococcaceae (Clostridia) [Heider and Schühle, 2013; Weelink et al., 146 2010; Widdel et al., 2010]. Betaproteobacteria (especially Thauera and Azoarcus strains) are 147 recognised as key organisms for BTEX degradation under nitrate-reducing conditions [Weelink et al., 148 2010]. The strains described so far activate toluene or xylene isomers by fumarate addition, and 149 ethylbenzene by anaerobic hydroxylation of the side chain [Weelink et al., 2010]. Notably, 150 Betaproteobacteria have also been reported as secondary degraders in two benzene-degrading 151 enrichment cultures, apparently drawing on metabolites produced by initial degradation of benzene 152 by bacteria within the *Peptococcaceae* [Luo et al., 2014; van der Zaan et al., 2012] (see below).

153 Several sulphate-reducing Deltaproteobacteria enriched from the terrestrial subsurface have been 154 described to mineralise BTEX compounds [Abu Laban et al., 2015; Beller et al., 1996; Bombach et al., 155 2010; Bozinovski et al., 2012; Sun and Cupples, 2012; Weelink et al., 2010] or PAHs [Meckenstock 156 and Mouttaki, 2011]. Members of the Geobacteriaceae (Geobacter spp.), also belonging to the 157 Deltaproteobacteria, are generally recognised as key organisms for BTEX mineralization under iron-158 reducing conditions [Weelink et al., 2010]. However, also distinct members of the Rhodocyclaceae 159 (Georgfuchsia sp.) within the Betaproteobacteria have recently been substantiated as respective 160 iron-reducing degraders [Pilloni et al., 2011; Weelink et al., 2009].

Gram-positive *Peptococcaceae* also represent a major group involved in anaerobic aromatic compound degradation under various electron-acceptor conditions. Sulphate-reducing or ironreducing *Peptococcaceae* have been described being capable of mineralising and assimilating carbon from toluene, benzene, xylenes and cresols [Abu Laban et al., 2009; Kunapuli et al., 2010; Pilloni et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2014b; Weelink et al., 2010; Winderl et al., 2010].

Additionally, several *Peptococcaceae* have been identified as primary degraders of BTEX compounds in syntrophic consortia under different electron-acceptor conditions, e.g. for benzene degradation coupled to nitrate reduction [Luo et al., 2014; van der Zaan et al., 2012], sulphate reduction [Herrmann et al., 2010; Taubert et al., 2012], iron reduction [Kunapuli et al., 2007] or for toluene

- degradation under methanogenic conditions [Abu Laban et al., 2015; Fowler et al., 2014; Sun et al.,
 2014b].
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173 Gene markers for anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation

The discovery and functional identification of a number of key-enzymes involved in the catabolic pathways detailed above has led to the successful establishment of several specific functional marker gene assays now widely used to detect natural populations of anaerobic aromatic compound degraders in the environment. In the following, these are reviewed for both peripheral and central reactions of anaerobic aromatic compound catabolism.

179 Detection assays for markers of peripheral pathways

180 The detection of FAE genes is arguably the most commonly used strategy for detecting anaerobic 181 aromatic compound degraders, because of their well-defined functional affiliation and widespread 182 occurrence [Callaghan et al., 2010; von Netzer et al., 2013; Winderl et al., 2007]. Their unique 183 reaction mechanism - the addition of a hydrocarbon substrate radical to fumarate - is linked to conserved protein motifs, facilitating the development of specific functional marker gene PCR assays. 184 185 Indeed, several primer sets targeting genes of the Bss α -subunit (partially detecting also 186 alkylsuccinate synthases, Ass) have been developed (see Table 1). The first primers for a qualitative 187 (and quantitative) detection of a relatively short (~130 bp) fragment of the bssA gene were published 188 for denitrifying Betaproteobacteria by Beller et al. [2002]. Later, this assay was extended also 189 towards recovering bssA of sulphate-reducing aromatic compound degraders [Beller et al., 2008]. 190 While the primers of Washer and Edwards [2007] were specifically designed for fermenting toluene 191 degraders within a methanogenic enrichment culture, the PCR assay of Winderl et al. [2007] 192 (generating a ~800 bp amplicon) was the first to recover a wide diversity of catabolic gene lineages 193 affiliated to iron- and sulphate-reducing Deltaproteobacteria from several contaminated aquifers. 194 Staats et al. [2011] targeted a distinct ~500 bp fragment of the bssA gene using primers modified 195 from Botton et al. [2007], to detect a diversity of iron- and nitrate-reducing aromatic compound196 degraders in a landfill-leachate plume.

The utility of the *bssA* gene as a functional marker for anaerobic aromatic compound degraders has also been demonstrated for a wider diversity of contaminated field samples and enrichment cultures from terrestrial and marine systems, along with the introduction of a number of new primers capable of detecting alkylsuccinate synthase (*assA*) [Callaghan et al., 2010] and also naphthylmethylsuccinate synthase (*nmsA*) genes [von Netzer et al., 2013]. Yet today, the optimization of existing FAE detection assays for a more comprehensive recovery of catabolic gene diversities at contaminated sites is still ongoing [von Netzer et al., 2013].

204 Detection assays for markers of central pathways of monocyclic aromatic compound degradation

205 Apart from FAE genes, functional markers targeting conserved enzymes of the benzoyl-CoA 206 degradation pathway have also been successfully employed to detect anaerobic mono-aromatic 207 compound degraders. These assays allow insights into the diversity and identity of degrader 208 populations even when fumarate-addition is not involved in upstream catabolism. The first primers 209 introduced for a qualitative detection of subunits of class I BCRs (bcr/bzd) were published by Hosoda 210 et al. [2005] and Song and Ward [2005]. However, the use of these assays was not straightforward, 211 as non-BRC gene fragments were also recovered at high frequency. To provide a more reliable PCR-212 based approach targeting class I BCRs in environmental DNA, these assays were later modified by 213 Kuntze et al. [2011] with the design of two independent primer pairs targeting Azoarcus-type BCRs 214 (Azoarcus spp. and "Aromatoleum aromaticum EbN1") as well as Thauera-type class I BCRs (Thauera, 215 Magnetospirillum and Rhodopseudomonas spp.). Specific primers were also developed by Löffler et 216 al., targeting the bamB gene coding for the active site subunit of class II BCRs from obligate 217 anaerobes [Löffler et al., 2011].

The design of degenerate primer sets to amplify conserved gene fragment of the ring-cleaving
hydrolases of Gram-negative monoaromatic compound degraders has also been possible [Kuntze et

220 al., 2008; Staats et al., 2011], due to the conservation of respective bamA/bzdY/oah genes. Two 221 additional assays selective for two phylogenetic subclusters of bamA, the "GMT-cluster" (targeting 222 the genera Geobacter, Magnetospirillum, Thauera, Rhodomicrobium) and the "SA-cluster" (Gram-223 negative/Gram-positive sulphate-reducing degraders as well as Synthrophus, Azoarcus and 224 Aromatoleum spp.) were designed later to recover a wider diversity of degraders, including also 225 Gram-positives [Kuntze et al., 2011]. Thus in the meantime, the bamA gene is also established as a 226 widely applied biomarker for anaerobic degradation of monocyclic aromatic compounds [Andrade et 227 al., 2012; Li et al., 2012; Porter and Young, 2013, 2014; Sun et al., 2014a].

228 Assays for functional marker of anaerobic PAH degradation

229 In comparison to the well-studied anaerobic degradation pathways of monocyclic aromatic 230 hydrocarbons, knowledge with respect to the genes/enzymes involved in anaerobic PAH degradation 231 is still rather limited. Until very recently, the lack of any experimentally verified enzyme involved in 232 anaerobic PAH catabolism largely hampered the development of respective functional marker gene 233 assays. The recent discovery of the dearomatising 2-naphthoyl-CoA reductase (NCR) and its gene, 234 ncr, has now opened a door for designing targeted assays for detecting anaerobic naphthalene 235 degraders [Eberlein et al., 2013b]. NCRs are highly conserved among the established naphthalene 236 degrading, sulphate-reducing cultures N47 and NaphS2 (amino acid sequence identities >65%, 237 highest amino acid sequence identities to other enzymes <40%). They can therefore be readily 238 distinguished from other related enzymes of the OYE family, which have different functions [Stott et 239 al., 1993]. Based on these findings, a primary PCR-based assay has been developed for the targeted 240 detection of *ncr* genes in environmental samples, which reliably detected *ncr* genes in the known 241 sulphate-reducing, naphthalene-degrading pure cultures and enrichments: NaphS2, S3 and S6 and N47 [Morris et al., 2014]. False-positive results were not obtained with DNA from organisms 242 243 harbouring most closely related genes (e.g. Thauera aromatica encoding a cyclohexa-1,5-dienoyl-CoA 244 oxidase) [Thiele et al., 2008]. The new assay has been applied to degrader enrichments from different contaminated groundwater systems, successfully identifying *ncr* genes closely related to
that of the naphthalene-degrading culture N47 [Morris et al., 2014].

247 Though this *ncr*-targeting assay can be regarded as a pioneering tool for the monitoring of anaerobic 248 PAH degraders, several limitations have to be taken into account. First, this ncr-assay was developed 249 based on the very small number of reference sequences of ncr genes available, i.e. from 250 naphthalene-degrading, sulphate-reducing Deltaproteobacteria. Therefore, its utility for the 251 detection of *ncr* genes from other phylogenetic lineages stills needs to be demonstrated. Second, 252 with the DHNCoA reductase encoded by the *dhncr* genes of the naphthalene-degraders N47 and 253 NaphS2, a second OYE-like enzyme involved in anaerobic naphthalene degradation has recently been 254 identified, which showed only 33-34% amino acid sequence similarity to NCR [Estelmann et al., 255 2015]. Future studies should test whether *dhncr* genes can also be detected by *ncr* assays. Moreover, 256 a preliminary metagenome analysis of phenanthrene-degrading enrichment cultures has suggested 257 the presence of multiple sequences of OYE encoding genes (M. Boll et al., unpublished data). 258 Whether they are detected by the *ncr*-targeting assay is also still unknown.

259 Primer selection

260 The primary amino acid sequence of FAEs is more conserved towards the C-terminus [Lehtiö and 261 Goldman, 2004]. Therefore, conserved primer motifs are more readily found towards the 3'-end of 262 FAE genes. We currently recommend the reverse primer 8543r (Table 1), developed for more optimal 263 performance [von Netzer et al., 2013] from previous permutations [Callaghan et al., 2010; Washer 264 and Edwards, 2007; Winderl et al., 2007], as most suited candidate for covering a wide diversity of 265 FAE gene lineages (Fig. 2). The selectivity of the PCR assay should thus be guided by the forward 266 primer, and also by the annealing temperature [von Netzer et al., 2013]. For detecting a wide range 267 of bssA genes sensu stricto (s.str., Fig. 2), the forward primer 7772f (Table 1) has been successfully 268 used in numerous studies [Acosta-González et al., 2013; Herrmann et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2014b; 269 Winderl et al., 2010; Winderl et al., 2007; Yagi et al., 2010]. Other f-primers are recommended to

270 recover the more deeply-branching *bssA* genes *sensu lato* (s.l.), i.e. the FAE-B f-primer for clostridial
271 *bssA* and homologues, or the FAE-N f-primers for *nmsA* genes (Table 1).

272 The primer pair bzdNf/bzdNr, designed for amplifying a 700 bp fragment of the y-subunit of the 273 Azoarcus-type class I BCR has been successfully applied to DNA extracted from pure cultures as well 274 contaminated sites, as well as the bcrCf/bcrCr primer pair, designed for amplifying a 800 bp fragment 275 from the γ-subunit of the *Thauera*-type class I BCR [Fahrenfeld et al., 2014; Kuntze et al., 2011]. For 276 class II BCRs, the developed bamBf/bamBr primers only yield a ~300 bp gene fragment of the active 277 subunit, and several bamB homologs have been recovered [Löffler et al., 2011], suggesting its 278 applicability rather on a more general level of class II BCR detection, rather than as a detailed 279 phylogenetic marker.

280 For a wide range of *bamA/bzdY/oah* genes, the forward primer SP9F in combination with the reverse 281 primer ASP1R [Kuntze et al., 2008] as well as the slightly modified combination oah f/oan r [Staats 282 et al., 2011] has been successfully used in numerous studies, thus demonstrating its applicability for 283 detecting a wide range of anaerobic monoaromatic compound degraders [Andrade et al., 2012; 284 Higashioka et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012; Porter and Young, 2013; Sun et al., 2014a]. Two additional 285 primer sets were designed using the same forward primer SP9F but different reverse primers ASP23R 286 and ASP33R targeting ring opening hydrolase subclusters including Gram-positive anaerobic 287 monoaromatic compound degraders as described above [Kuntze et al., 2011].

288 Screening methods

A qualitative check for the presence of potential anaerobic aromatic compound degraders within a DNA sample should always start with a simple PCR for respective catabolic genes. However, more elaborate downstream analyses of the amplicons are necessary for further details. For a phylogenetic placement of degrader lineages and a dissection of degrader diversity, cloning and sequencing of peripheral and central gene markers is well established [Callaghan et al., 2010; Kuntze et al., 2008; Kuntze et al., 2011; Porter and Young, 2013; Staats et al., 2011; Winderl et al., 2007]. However it

should be noted that amplicons generated with the often highly degenerate catabolic gene primers can be problematic in cloning [von Netzer et al., 2013; Winderl et al., 2007], and that sequence yield will be directly dependent on the specificity of the chosen primer pair for the degraders present in a given sample, and on the abundance of possibly co-amplified PCR artefacts such as primer dimers or unspecific amplicons.

300 Moreover, fingerprinting based on terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) 301 analysis can be used for the rapid screening of larger numbers of FAE gene amplicons in a 302 sequencing-independent manner [Pilloni et al., 2011]. Although T-RFLP analysis is not a strong 303 diagnostic tool, the identity of distinct T-RFs can cautiously be elucidated via cross-referencing of 304 fragment lengths to reference sequences digested in silico, possibly even based on dual-digests to 305 increase discriminative confidence [von Netzer et al., 2013]. Similarly, denaturing gradient gel 306 electrophoresis (DGGE) fingerprinting of bamA gene pools has also been applied to analyse the 307 community structure of anaerobic degraders [Andrade et al., 2012; Li et al., 2012].

308 qPCR with FAE-, *bzdN*- and *bamA*- gene primers has been repeatedly employed for the quantification 309 of anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degraders in environmental samples [Beller et al., 2002; Beller et 310 al., 2008; Fahrenfeld et al., 2014; Staats et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2014a; Winderl et al., 2008]. However, 311 compared to cloning and sequencing, qPCR reactions need to fulfil even more rigid stringency 312 criteria, while many of the primer sets used to date are highly degenerate (Table 1). This is why 313 quantification is often done for specific FAE sub-lineages, where less degenerate primers can be 314 employed. qPCR detection chemistries have relied either on SYBR-Green [Beller et al., 2008; Staats et 315 al., 2011; Sun et al., 2014a] or on lineage-specific qPCR probes [Beller et al., 2002; Winderl et al., 2008]. 316

As a more recent development, next-generation sequencing is also increasingly applied to characterise amplicon pools of environmental functional markers. In contrast to next-generation sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons, which is already well-established and many standardised

data handling pipelines are available [Caporaso et al., 2010; Cole et al., 2009; DeSantis et al., 2006;
Schloss et al., 2009], next-generation sequencing of functional markers is currently still developing.
While first reports of the application of next-generation sequencing strategies to aerobic
hydrocarbon degradation genes [Penton et al., 2013; Wallisch et al., 2014] and also to reductive
dehalogenase genes [Hug and Edwards, 2013] are published, a dedicated next-generation sequencing
pipeline for peripheral or central genes in anaerobic aromatic compound degradation is currently still
unpublished.

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328 Functional marker gene-based advances in the understanding of biodegradation

329 processes

Obviously, the notable suite of marker gene assays described above has been instrumental for the investigation of anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degraders in diverse laboratory cultures and directly in environmental samples. Especially in combination with isotopic labelling strategies, the first has proven of value to identify novel degraders, affiliate novel catabolic genes and to elucidate microbial interactions (e.g. syntrophy) in defined degrader assemblages. In the field, relevant insights into degrader diversity, spatial distribution of degraders and the controls of their activity in natural settings have been provided.

337 Catabolic marker gene-based insights into degrader cultures and enrichments

In the lab, the detectability of *Azoarcus*-related *bssA* sequence types was first demonstrated for denitrifying, toluene-degrading lab microcosms with aquifer sediment by Beller et al. [2002]. *BssA* of iron-reducing, toluene-degrading enrichments obtained from the landfill-contaminated Banisveld aquifer was affiliated to an as-of-then unidentified betaproteobacterial lineage. This was particularly interesting, as *Deltaproteobacteria* related to *Geobacter* had been previously assumed to dominate BTEX degradation at the site [Botton and Parsons, 2007]. In fact, the detected *bssA* phylotype was only later identified to represent the novel iron-reducer *G. toluolica* [Weelink et al., 2009], now
evident as key toluene degrader *in situ*.

346 Under sulphate reduction, bssA genes affiliated to members of the Desulfobulbaceae were detected 347 in both toluene and xylene-degrading laboratory enrichments from the BTEX-contaminated Zeitz 348 aquifer [Herrmann et al., 2009; Jehmlich et al., 2010]. Distinct and deeply-branching sequence types 349 were found in xylene-degrading microcosms, related to known naphthylmethylsuccinate synthase 350 (nmsA) genes and the "T-cluster" bssA homologues (Fig. 2) first discovered in the field [Winderl et al., 351 2007]. This demonstrates how the detection of catabolic gene marker in laboratory enrichments may 352 help to affiliate previously unidentified sequence types found directly in the field to putative 353 functions, albeit such interpretation must of course be with caution.

354 A novel deltaproteobacterial bssA sequence type, the so-called "F1-cluster" was affiliated to key 355 toluene degraders within the Desulfobulbaceae by stable isotope probing (SIP) of DNA with aquifer sediments obtained from the tar oil-contaminated Flingern aquifer [Pilloni et al., 2011], thus 356 357 excluding a role of presumed Geobacteraceae in toluene degradation in situ. Dominating 358 desulfobulbal bssA sequence types were also identified in toluene-degrading sulphate-reducing 359 enrichments obtained from less contaminated zones of the BTEX-contaminated Zeitz aquifer, while 360 distinct clostridial bssA sequences where detected in parallel enrichments from highly contaminated 361 zones [Kuppardt et al., 2014]. This has allowed for first insights into possible degrader niche 362 partitioning depending on contamination levels in situ.

Washer and Edwards [2007] were the first to demonstrate the expression of deeply-branching *bssA* sequence types within a methanogenic, toluene-degrading enrichment culture from a contaminated Pensacola aquifer. An affiliation of this *bssA* lineage to degraders within the *Peptococcaceae* (*Clostridia*) was suggested by Winderl et al. [2010], who retrieved related "F2-cluster" *bssA* phylotypes form labelled DNA of sulfidogenic SIP incubations of tar-oil contaminated Testfeld Süd aquifer sediments dominated by *Desulosporosinus* spp.. Later, Fowler et al. [2012] substantiated the

369 placement of this bssA lineage upon catabolic analysis of a methanogenic, toluene-degrading 370 enrichment culture from the Fort Lupton aquifer. Via RT-qPCR, Fowler et al. [2014] could even show 371 the active expression of clostridial bssA mRNA in the same microcosms. Similar clostridial bssA 372 sequences affiliated to Desulfosporosinus spp. were recently also detected in methanogenic toluene-373 degrading microcosms enriched from contaminated sludge and soil [Sun et al., 2014b], as well as in 374 methanogenic and sulphate-reducing toluene-degrading enrichments prepared from oil sands tailing 375 ponds [Abu Laban et al., 2015]. All of these studies highlight the paramount and previously 376 underestimated importance of clostridial anaerobic aromatic compound degraders in contaminated 377 terrestrial systems.

378 The ring-cleaving bamA genes were first shown to be detectable in a number of sulphate- [Kuntze et 379 al., 2008] or nitrate-reducing aromatic compound-degrading enrichment cultures [Li et al., 2012]. 380 They have also been found in a number of anaerobic monoaromatic hydrocarbon-degrading pure 381 cultures which do not have a published genome yet, e.g. Georgfuchsia toluolica [Staats et al., 2011], 382 Desulfosarcina spp., Desulfobacterium anilini and strains of the Gram-positive Desulfotomaculum 383 gibsoniae and D. thermobenzoicum [Kuntze et al., 2011], in p-xylene-degrading enrichment cultures 384 dominated by Desulfosarcina ovata [Higashioka et al., 2011], as well as in toluene-degrading denitrifying enrichments hosting bamA genes related to T. chlorobenzoica [Li et al., 2012]. In 385 386 contrast, a diversity of different bamA genes has recently been reported for a number of sulphate-387 reducing, denitrifying, and methanogenic toluene-degrading enrichments obtained from various soil 388 and sludge samples [Sun et al., 2014a]. As mentioned above, also the applicability of a new detection 389 assay for N47-related ncr genes has been demonstrated for distinct degrader enrichments from 390 contaminated groundwater [Morris et al., 2014]. In summary, functional marker gene analysis is a 391 highly useful tool for the rapid and targeted screening of novel degrader isolates and enrichments for 392 their specific catabolic potentials.

393 Catabolic marker gene-based insights into environmental systems

394 Directed catabolic gene approaches for anaerobic toluene degraders directly in the field were first applied for a number of tar-oil contaminated aquifers in Germany, revealing several hitherto 395 396 unidentified and site-specific populations of intrinsic degraders especially at sites dominated by 397 sulphate reduction [Winderl et al., 2007]. In a follow-up depth-resolved study conducted at the 398 Flingern aquifer, Winderl et al. [2008] showed that degraders carrying the "F1-cluster" bssA genes 399 were quantitatively enriched at the sulfidogenic lower fringe of the hydrocarbon plume, consistent 400 with the hypothesis that degraders are limited by dispersive mixing of electron donors and acceptors 401 in situ, and demonstrating the potential of quantitative catabolic marker gene assays to identify hot-402 spots of aromatic compound degradation in the field.

At the Vandenberg Air Force base (CA), Beller et al. [2008] used a qPCR assay designed to specifically detect *bssA* genes of sulphate-reducing and syntrophic BTEX degraders. They monitored comparative degrader abundance and dynamics in two field lanes of artificial BTX injection, one of them with additional ethanol amendment. While initial stimulation of degraders by the treatment was more pronounced for non-ethanol amended wells, higher absolute abundance of *bssA* genes was reached under simultaneous ethanol injection. This indicates that at least some anaerobic aromatic compound degraders may have been thriving also on the amended ethanol.

Callaghan et al. [2010] have investigated intrinsic *bssA* diversity in sediments from hydrocarbon contaminated Fort Lupton (CO) and Casper (WY) aquifers, revealing a limited diversity of *bssA* sequence types affiliated to the sulphate-reducing *Desulfobulbaceae* at both sites. In contrast, a surprising diversity of intrinsic *bssA* genes was demonstrated for the coal-tar contaminated South Glens Falls aquifer (NY). Besides unknown betaproteobacterial sequence types and such related to *Georgfuchsia toluolica*, clostridial *bssA* genes were also detected directly in the field [Yagi et al., 2010].

417 Investigating the landfill-leachate contaminated Banisveld aquifer, Staats et al. [2011] also revealed a 418 low diversity of bssA sequence types, most of them related to bssA genes from G. toluolica and other 419 Betaproteobacteria, to be found at elevated abundance within the plume. In fact, the iron-reducing 420 G. toluolica was originally isolated from the same site [Weelink et al., 2009], thus demonstrating how 421 catabolic gene detection assays can be used to query the relevance of specific degraders in situ. 422 Similarly, Oka et al. [2011] used comparative qPCR with assays specific for bssA of 423 betaproteobacterial (denitrifying) and deltaproteobacterial (sulphate-reducing or syntrophic) 424 anaerobic hydrocarbon degraders. In different monitoring wells at a former coal gasification plant in 425 Glassboro (NJ), hydrocarbon degraders were shown to be enriched by up to 2 orders of magnitude in 426 contaminated wells. Recently, a novel bssA lineage distinct from previously known proteobacterial 427 sequence types was revealed in sediments of a Swedish lake not polluted by aromatic compounds 428 [Osman et al., 2014], thus emphasising that untapped catabolic potentials and degrader lineages may 429 remain to be uncovered also in pristine habitats.

Besides earlier work on intrinsic *bssA* lineages, the first direct evidence for environmental *nmsA* gene pools has recently also been reported for the Flingern site [von Netzer et al., 2013]. Apart from hosting a toluene dominated plume, this site is also known to contain PAHs. In fact, a previous study on key metabolites has indicated the presence of naphthyl-2-methyl-succinic acid and methylnaphthyl-2-methylsuccinic acid, which would be expected upon the activation of 2- and 1methylnaphtalene after addition to fumarate [Jobelius et al., 2010]. Thus the deeply-branching *nmsA* phylotypes may indeed represent the intrinsic methylnaphthalene degraders at the site.

Genes for central aromatic compound catabolism have also been utilised as functional markers for degraders in the field. Introduced by Song and Ward [2005] for contaminated estuarine sediments, the concept was demonstrated for a gasoline-contaminated aquifer in Jumamoto (Japan), by Hosoda et al. [2005], thus demonstrating that a substantial diversity of class I *bcrA* genes were detectable at this site. BcrA was significantly enriched in wells of high comparative contamination, evident also as distinct communities found between differentially impacted wells.

443 At the Banisveld site, the detection bssA genes mentioned above was for the first time combined 444 with a screening for intrinsic, ring-cleaving bamA genes [Staats et al., 2011]. Not unexpectedly, the 445 diversity of *bamA* genes was much larger than that of intrinsic *bssA* genes. Interestingly, the 446 abundance of markers in distinct plume compartments shown by qPCR was inverted: bamA was 447 relatively more abundant outside plume. An even more comprehensive assessment of BTEX-catabolic 448 genes (bssA, bcrC, bamB and bamA) was performed for DNA extracted from benzene-loaded in situ 449 microcosms incubated in two aquifers with high (Ruhr area) or low (Gneisenau) benzene 450 contamination in Germany dominated by either iron- or sulphate-reducing conditions, respectively 451 [Kuntze et al., 2011]. The results revealed a general consistency of key populations affiliated to 452 known degraders within the genera Azoarcus and Geobacter detected via the different assays for the 453 sites. Quantitative site monitoring of class I BCR (bzdN) genes of facultative anaerobes throughout 454 the plume of the Bemidji crude oil spill has also recently been reported [Fahrenfeld et al., 2014], 455 suggesting significantly increased gene abundances close to the oil spill. It must be noted, however, 456 that central catabolic genes such as *bamA* may be generally much more readily detectable in anoxic 457 habitats than specific peripheral markers of aromatic hydrocarbon degradation, simply because 458 benzoyl-CoA is a central intermediate not only in the anaerobic degradation of petrochemicals, but 459 also of humic acids, aromatic amino acids and of lignin monomers [Andrade et al., 2012; Porter and 460 Young, 2013].

461

462 Conclusions and outlook

Anaerobic aromatic compound degradation can be regarded as the key process reducing hydrocarbon contamination in natural environments. For a better understanding of the microbes conveying these important ecosystem services, comprehensive functional marker assays for their detection, identification and quantification are a vital tool. The distinct marker strategies spanning key mechanisms in anaerobic activation and degradation of aromatic compounds reviewed here, allow for a straightforward and targeted tracing of degrader populations in space and time ("4D").

As detailed above, several key features of anaerobic aromatic compound degradation have emerged 469 470 from the application of these detection strategies in lab and field. First, the importance of several novel or previously unrecognised degrader lineages especially within the Rhodocyclaceae, 471 Desulfobulbaceae and Peptococcaceae has been substantiated for numerous terrestrial systems, 472 473 often hosting novel catabolic gene phylotypes. Second, clear patterns of the site-specific degrader 474 populations have become apparent, driven by a selection of both electron acceptors as well as the 475 nature of the contamination. Third, the role of syntrophy is now recognised as a key trait in many 476 degrader enrichments, not only under methanogenic conditions, where primary aromatic compound 477 degradation by fermenters would be expected, but also under other anaerobic respiration modes. 478 Potentially, this represents an ecological stabilisation of degrader assemblages under fluctuating 479 availability of electron donors or acceptors.

480 It is now relevant to consider how these advances can become apparent on the level of 481 contaminated site monitoring or bioremediation strategies. Here, functional marker gene-based 482 approaches are still awaiting a more routine implementation. Nevertheless, a number of recent 483 respective advances should be mentioned. Already Kazy et al. [2010] indicated a significant 484 correlation between anaerobic toluene degradation rates and qPCR bssA counts in anaerobic 485 microcosms prepared with material from a hydrocarbon contaminated aquifer. More recently, 486 toluene degradation activity stimulated by the addition of nitrate was quantitatively monitored via 487 bssA transcript-to-gene ratios across a contaminant plume directly in the field [Brow et al., 2013]. 488 Both represent relevant advances towards a future implementation of marker gene-or transcript-489 based prediction of biodegradation rates in complex natural systems. Here, the observed substrate-490 specificity of especially the peripheral markers may be vital to functionally and quantitatively 491 interpret field data [Acosta-González et al., 2013; Wöhlbrand et al., 2013].

To develop concepts of population-based management, a combination with other complementary strategies to assess biodegradation may become necessary, such as metabolite detection [Callaghan, 2013], the application of isotopic pathway identification [Kümmel et al., 2013], and of course high-

495 throughput metagenomics and transcriptomics. Although the application of the latter has not been reported to date specifically for contaminated aquifers, respective reports for other hydrocarbon-496 impacted systems are available [An et al., 2013; Kimes et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2014; Tan et al., 2015]. 497 498 Such non-target, non-PCR amplification based sequencing approaches have the potential to further 499 enhance our perspective of anaerobic hydrocarbon degrader microbiomes. Only with a clear 500 understanding of the diversity, abundance and distribution of intrinsic degraders, it will become 501 possible to better understand their ecology and to possibly manipulate their activity in complex 502 contaminated systems.

503

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Table 1. Overview of marker genes assays and primers currently used for the targeted detection of anaerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degraders.

Reference	Primer name		Target gene	Target lineage	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Amplicon (bp)	qPCR applicable
Beller et al. 2002			bssA	denitrifying Betaproteobacteria	ACGACGGYGGCATTTCTC GCATGATSGGYACCGACA	130	tested
Winderl et al. 2007	7772f 8546r		bssA	Beta- & Deltaproteobacteria, Clostridia	GACATGACCGACGCSATYCT TCGTCGTCRTTGCCCCAYTT	800	tested
Beller et al. 2008	SRBf SRBr		bssA	sulfate-reducing Deltaproteobacteria	GTSCCCATGATGCGCAGC CGACATTGAACTGCACGTGRTCG	100	
Callaghan et al. 2010			assA	targets also bssA	TTTGAGTGCATCCGCCAYGGICT TCGTCRTTGCCCCATTTIGGIGC	700	
Staats et al. 2011	bssA3f bssAr		bssA	denitrifying and iron-reducing Betaproteobacteria (Georgfuchsia toluolica)	TCGAYGAYGGSTGCATGGA TTCTGGTTYTTCTGCAC	500	tested
von Netzer et al.	FAE-B	7768f 8543r	<i>bssA</i> s.l.	Clostridial bssA, bssA sensu lato, nmsA	CAAYGATTTAACCRACGCCAT TCGTCRTTGCCCCAYTTNGG	800	
2013	FAE-N	7363f 7374f 8543r	nmsA	nmsA sensu stricto	TCGCCGAGAATTTCGAYTTG TTCGAYTTGAGCGACAGCGT TCGTCRTTGCCCCAYTTNGG	1200	
Fowler et al. 2014	MBssA1F MBssA1R		bssA	Desulfosporosinus spp. (methanogenic enrichment)	ATGCCCTTTGTTGCCAGTAT GCTGCATTTCTTCGAAACCT	223	tested
Song & Ward 2005	bzAQ41F bzAQ4R		<i>bcrA</i> s.l.	bcrA homologues of Alpha-, Beta- & Gammaproteobacteria	GTGGGCACCGGNTAYGGNMG GGTTCTTGGCGAYNCCNCCNGT	450	
Hosoda et al. 2005	bcr-1f bcr-2r		bcrA	Thauera aromatica, Azoarcus evansii, Rhodopseudomonas palustris	GTYGGMACCGGCTACGGCCG TTCTKVGCIACICCDCCGG	480	tested
Kuntze et al. 2008	bamA-SP9-f bamA-ASP1-r		bamA	Alpha-, Beta-, Deltaproteobaceria	CAGTACAAYTCCTACACVACBG CMATGCCGATYTCCTGRC	300	tested
Löffler et al. 2011	bamBf bamBr		bamB	Deltaproteobacteria, Clostridia	ATGMGGTAYGSAGARACHGG CCSGCRWRYTTCADYTCCG	320	
Staats et al. 2011	oah_f oah_r		bamA	iron reducers (<i>Rhodocyclaceae, Geobacteraceae</i>)	GCAGTACAAYTCCTACACSACYGABATGGT CCRTGCTTSGGRCCVGCCTGVCCGAA	350	tested
	bamA-ASP23-r bamA-ASP33-r	`	bamA	GMT cluster SA cluster	TTTTCCTTGTTGVSRTTCC CAKYYSGGGAASAGRTTKG	800 700	
Kuntze et al. 2011	bzdNf bzdNr		bzdN	Azoarcus-type class I benzoyl-CoA reductases	GAGCCGCACATCTTCGGCAT TRTGVRCCGGRTARTCCTTSGTCGG	700	tested
	bcrCf bcrCr		bcrC	<i>Thauera</i> -type class I benzoyl-CoA reductases	CGHATYCCRCGSTCGACCATCG CGGATCGGCTGCATCTGGCC	600	
Morris et al. 2014	Ncr_for Ncr_rev		Ncr	Deltaproteobacteria (N47, NaphS2)	TGGACAAAYAAAMGYACVGAT GATTCCGGCTTTTTTCCAAVT	320	tested

813 Figure legends

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Fig. 1. Overview of important peripheral and central pathways in the anaerobic degradation of
aromatic hydrocarbons. Genes of key enzyme in use as marker genes for degraders in the
environment are: BssA – benzylsuccinate synthase alpha-subunit; NmsA – naphthylmethylsuccinate
synthase alpha-subunit; BamB – ATP-independent benzoyl-CoA reductase beta-subunit;
BcrA/BcrC/BzdN – ATP-dependent benzoyl-CoA reductase subunits; Ncr – 2-naphthoyl-CoA
reductase; BamA – ring cleaving 6-oxocylcohex-1-ene-1-carbonyl-CoA hydrolase.

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Fig. 2. Overview of the phylogeny of known pure culture and environmental FAE gene sequences. Several lineages are collapsed with only a few representatives named. Additionally, the demonstrated range of coverage for selected primer pairs is indicated. S.str. = *sensu stricto*, s.l. = *sensu lato*. Outgroup: related pyruvate formiate lyase genes (PFL). The scale bar represents 10% amino acid sequence divergence. The dendrogram was developed as in von Netzer et al. [2013]



