

INVESTIGATION ON INDIGENOUS BACTERIA FOR INDIVIDUAL BTEX
DEGRADATION POTENTIALS AND RELATIVE PATHWAYS USED

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

ALPER YAVAŞ

IN PARTIAL FULLFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
BIOTECHNOLOGY

JANUARY 2018

Approval of the thesis:

**INVESTIGATION ON INDIGENOUS BACTERIA FOR INDIVIDUAL BTEX
DEGRADATION POTENTIALS AND RELATIVE PATHWAYS USED**

submitted by **ALPER YAVAŞ** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of **Master of Science in Biotechnology Department, Middle East Technical
University** by,

Prof. Dr. Gülbin Dural Ünver
Dean, Graduate School of **Natural and Applied Sciences**

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Can Özen
Head of Department, **Biotechnology**

Prof. Dr. Bülent İçgen
Supervisor, **Environmental Engineering Dept., METU**

Prof Dr. Mahmut Parlaktuna
Co-supervisor, **Pet. and Nat. Gas Engineering Dept., METU**

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Gülay Özcengiz
Department of Biological Sciences, METU

Prof. Dr. Bülent İçgen
Environmental Engineering Dept., METU

Prof. Dr. Mahmut Parlaktuna
Pet. and Nat. Gas Engineering Dept., METU

Prof. Dr. Aysun Ergene
Biology Dept., Kırıkkale University

Prof. Dr. Mustafa Akçelik
Biology Dept., Ankara University

Date: 25.01.2018

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name: Alper Yavaş

Signature :

ABSTRACT

INVESTIGATION ON INDIGENOUS BACTERIA FOR INDIVIDUAL BTEX DEGRADATION POTENTIALS AND RELATIVE PATHWAYS USED

Yavaş, Alper
M.S., Department of Biotechnology
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Bülent İçgen
Co-supervisor: Prof. Dr. Mahmut Parlaktuna

January 2018, 138 pages

Monoaromatic hydrocarbons including benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene collectively called as BTEX are found in the composition of crude oil and gasoline as an additive and thought to be the most serious contaminants of soil and groundwater. It is expected that indigenous bacteria isolated from petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated sites probably have degradation potential for the BTEX compounds. In this study, out of 22, 19 bacterial strains were selected as potential degraders for at least one of the BTEX compounds. The degradation abilities of the bacterial strains were determined by using HS-GC/MS and 9 bacterial strains namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *S. nematodiphila* Ba11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. johnsonii* Sb01 and *M. luteus* Sr11 were chosen as efficient degraders for pathway analyses. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) was first performed for the detection of catabolic genes. PCR results revealed that most of the bacterial strains harbored the *todC1* gene and only two of them carried the *tbmD* gene. To evaluate biodegradation pathways, BTEX intermediates produced during degradation were also analyzed by using GC/MS. The results showed that monooxygenation

pathway was more common within bacterial strains although dioxygenation genotype (*todC1*) was more prevalent. Intermediate analyses and PCR-detection of catabolic genes revealed that benzene was degraded by *R. plancticola* Ag11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 through monooxygenation pathway. Toluene was metabolized through side chain monooxygenation pathway by the strain *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and ring monooxygenation pathway by the strain *M. luteus* Sr11. During ethylbenzene degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11, *P. koreensis* Hg11 and *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 styrene pathway was mainly used. Comparison of PCR-detection and intermediate analysis results led to conclude that new primer sets were required to detect all possible subfamilies of the ring hydroxylating monooxygenase and side chain monooxygenase genes. The study revealed five efficient bacterial strains namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 with their corresponding pathways for aerobic degradation of the individual BTEX compounds.

Keywords: Monoaromatic hydrocarbons, BTEX, Polymerase chain reaction, catabolic gene

ÖZ

LOKAL BAKTERİ İZOLATLARINDA BTEX DEGRADASYON POTANSİYELİ VE YOLAKLARININ ARAŞTIRILMASI

Yavaş, Alper
Yüksek lisans, Biyoteknoloji Bölümü
Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Bülent İçgen
Ortak Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Mahmut Parlaktuna

Ocak 2018, 138 sayfa

BTEX olarak adlandırılan benzen, toluen, etilbenzen ve ksileni kapsayan monoaromatik hidrokarbonlar, ham petrolün yapısında ve ilave madde olarak akaryakıt ürünlerinde mevcut olup toprak ve yer altı sularının en ciddi kirletici maddeleri olarak kabul edilirler. Petrol hidrokarbonlarıyla kirlenmiş bölgelerden izole edilen yerel bakterilerin BTEX bileşikleri üzerinde bozunma potansiyeline sahip olması beklenmektedir. Bu çalışmada, 22 bakteri suşu arasından 19' u en az bir BTEX bileşiği için potansiyel parçalayıcı olarak seçilmiştir. Daha sonra bakteri suşlarının BTEX degradasyon yetenekleri HS-GC/MS ile ölçülmüş ve içlerinden 9 bakteri türü, sırasıyla *R. plancticola* Agll, *S. aureus* Ba01, *S. nematodiphila* Ba11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *P. koreensis* Hgll, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. johnsonii* Sb01 ve *M. luteus* Sr11 bakterileri etkin BTEX parçalayıcısı olup bozulma yolağı analizi için seçilmiştir. Bu nedenle Polimeraz Zincir Reaksiyonu (PZR) ile katabolik genlerin saptanması gerçekleştirildi. PZR sonuçları, bakteri kökenlerinin çoğunun *todC1* genini barındırdığını ve sadece ikisinde *tbmD* geninin bulunduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bakterilerin bozunmada kullandıkları yolakları belirlemek için BTEX degradasyonu sırasında oluşan ara ürünler GC/MS kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre,

dioksijenasyon genotipi (*todC1*) daha yaygın olduđu halde monooksijenasyon yolađının bakteri suşlarında daha sık görüldüğünü ortaya koymuştur. Ara ürün analizleri ve katabolik genlerin PZR ile saptanması ile birlikte benzenin *R. plancticola* Ag11 ve *M. luteus* Sr11 tarafından monooksijenasyon yolađı ile bozunduđunu ortaya koymuştur. Tolüen ise *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10' da metil monooksijenasyonu yolađı ile ve *M. luteus* Sr11'de halka mono oksijenasyon yolađı ile metabolize edilmiştir. *R. plancticola* Ag11, *P. koreensis* Hg11 ve *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 etilbenzen degradasyonunda stiren yolađını kullanmıştır. Bu çalışma, beş etkin parçalayıcı olan *R. plancticola* Ag11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 ve *M. luteus* Sr11 bakterilerinin her bir BTEX bileşeni için aerobik bozunma yolaklarını ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Monoaromatik hidrokarbonlar, BTEX, Polymerase chain reaction, katabolik gen

yeğenim Ömer'e

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Bülent İçgen for his valuable guidance, encouragement and patience throughout my thesis study.

Special thanks to my co-supervisor Prof. Dr. Mahmut Parlaktuna and Neslihan Has for their help about technical issues in my experiments performed at Petroleum Research Center in METU.

I wish to thank examining committee members for their comments and contributions.

I would like to thank my friends, Dilan Camille Aydın, Özge Yücel, Ruken Dilara Zaf and Hale Demirtepe for their help, support and sharing their experiences with me throughout my research.

I also thank all the members of İçgen Team whom we have shared memorable times.

Finally, my deepest thanks are dedicated to my family for their endless patience and encouragement, support and confidence in me throughout my life.

This study was partially supported by ODTÜ-BAP, through the project 03-11-2016-001

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xv

CHAPTERS

1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Petroleum hydrocarbons, their derivatives and ecological importance.....	1
1.1.1 Composition of crude petroleum oil	3
1.1.2 Importance of BTEX.....	5
1.2 Remediation strategies for hydrocarbon contaminated sites	9
1.2.1 Physical-chemical vs. biological methods	10
1.2.2 Bioremediation of hydrocarbons by microorganisms	10
1.2.3 Microbial degradation of BTEX	11
1.2.4 BTEX-degrading bacteria	11
1.3 Factors affecting biodegradation of BTEX	15
1.4 Pathways for aerobic BTEX degradation	17
1.5 Monitoring catabolic genes and enzymes involved in aerobic BTEX degradation	18
1.5.1 Initial oxidation enzymes in the aerobic degradation of BTEX.....	19
1.5.2 Aromatic ring cleavage enzymes in the aerobic BTEX degradation	28
1.6 Intermediates produced during aerobic BTEX degradation	30

1.6.1	Intermediates produced during aerobic benzene degradation	31
1.6.2	Intermediates produced during aerobic toluene degradation	32
1.6.3	Intermediates produced during aerobic ethylbenzene degradation	32
1.6.4	Intermediates produced during aerobic xylene degradation	33
1.7	Aim of the study	34
2	MATERIALS AND METHODS	35
2.1	Culture media	35
2.1.1	Nutrient broth	35
2.1.2	Nutrient agar.....	35
2.1.3	Bushnell Haas broth	35
2.2	Study area and sample collection	36
2.3	Selection of BTEX-degrading bacteria.....	37
2.4	Determination of emulsification indices of bacterial isolates	38
2.5	Analysis of aerobic BTEX degradation rates of bacterial isolates	38
2.6	Analysis of the aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of the bacterial isolates.....	39
2.6.1	Total DNA extraction.....	39
2.6.2	PCR analysis of catabolic genes in aerobic BTEX degradation	41
2.6.3	Sequencing of PCR amplicons.....	44
2.6.4	Detection of intermediates during BTEX degradation.....	44
3	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	47
3.1	Selection of BTEX-degrading bacteria.....	47
3.2	Determination of emulsification (E ₂₄ %) indices	48
3.3	Analysis of aerobic BTEX degradation abilities of bacterial strains.....	50
3.4	Analysis of the aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of the bacterial strains	66
3.4.1	PCR analyses of catabolic genes.....	67

3.4.2	Detection of intermediates during BTEX degradation.....	83
3.5	Conclusion.....	93
3.6	Future prospects and recommendations	95
REFERENCES		97
APPENDICES		115
A.	RAW DATA OF BTEX DEGRADATION.....	115
B.	MULTIPLE SEQUENCE ALIGNMENTS OF PCR AMPLICONS.....	117
C.	INTERMEDIATES OF BTEX DEGRADATION.....	129

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1.1 Properties of BTEX compounds (Mitra & Roy, 2011)	6
Table 1.2 Aerobic monoaromatic hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria and biodegradation characteristics (Jeon & Madsen, 2013)	15
Table 1.3 Biosurfactatns produced by different microorganisms.....	16
Table 1.4 Genes encoding the initial step enzymes of bacterial aerobic toluene degradation	18
Table 2.1 Bacterial isolates used in the study.....	36
Table 2.2 PCR primers and the conditions used in the study	43
Table 3.1 Selection of BTEX degraders	48
Table 3.2 Degradation characteristics of efficient BTEX compounds degrading bacterial strains	65
Table 3.3 Description of BTEX degradation profiles of all the bacterial strains used in the study	82
Table 3.4 Degradation characteristics of BTEX compounds by efficient degraders and their degradation pathways.....	89

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1.1 An aerial view of the oil spilled from Deepwater Horizon platform into the Gulf of Mexico in 2010 (from REUTERS) on the left and a deliberately opened pipeline from Kuwait to slow the assault of American forces during the first Gulf War (by Anne Casselman) on the right side	2
Figure 1.2 The history of the worst petroleum oil disasters in the world (from REUTERS).....	3
Figure 1.3 The various fractions of hydrocarbons comprising crude oil	4
Figure 1.4 Bacterial anaerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG).....	12
Figure 1.5 Main principles of aerobic hydrocarbon degradation by microorganisms (Olajire & Essien, 2014)	13
Figure 1.6 Aerobic routes in toluene degradation as a model (modified from KEGG)..	14
Figure 1.7 The role of biosurfactant (rhamnolipid) produced by <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. in the uptake of hydrocarbons (Rosenberg & Ron, 2013)	17
Figure 1.8 Genetic orientation and structure of <i>dmpKLMNOPQBCDEFGHI</i> , <i>tbuCA2VBUAISRDEFGKIHJ</i> and <i>touFEDCBAKLMNOP-fdx-cdo-hmsd</i> operons in <i>P. putida</i> CF600, <i>R. pickettii</i> PK01 and <i>P. stutzeri</i> OX1 respectively (Armando & Díaz, 2004)	20
Figure 1.9 Phylogenetic analysis of catabolic genes encoding the large α -subunit of aromatic ring hydroxylating monooxygenases among different bacterial species. R, indicates the type and numbers shows the families. T indicates TOL type.	21
Figure 1.10 Schematic representation and genetic orientation of aromatic RHMO found in different bacteria. Intergenic regions longer than 200 bp in TOU and BMO operons are shown with, * and #, respectively (Armando & Díaz, 2004).....	22
Figure 1.11 Circular map of TOL plasmid pDK1 (Yano <i>et al.</i> , 2010).....	23
Figure 1.12 Genetic orientation and structure of <i>xylUWCMABN</i> (upper pathway) operon encoding the initial attack enzymes, and <i>xylXYZLTEGFJQKHI</i> (lower pathway) operon	

encoding the catechol <i>meta</i> -cleavage enzymes in <i>P. putida</i> mt-2 (Armando & Díaz, 2004).....	24
Figure 1.13 Structural organization of toluene 2,3-dioxygenase enzyme (Armando & Díaz, 2004).....	25
Figure 1.14 Genetic orientation and structure of <i>todFC1C2BADEGIH</i> operon in <i>P. putida</i> F1 (Armando & Díaz, 2004).....	26
Figure 1.15 Phylogenetic analysis of catabolic genes encoding the large α -subunit of aromatic ring hydroxylating dioxygenases among different bacterial species. N and D indicate types. Numbers show families. Subfamilies are designated as A, B and C. (Baldwin <i>et al.</i> , 2003).....	27
Figure 1.16 Modes of aerobic aromatic ring cleavage (modified from KEGG)	28
Figure 1.17 Genetic orientation of <i>catA</i> and <i>pca</i> operons in <i>P. putida</i> and <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (Jiménez <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	29
Figure 1.18 Routes of aerobic benzene degradation (modified from KEGG)	31
Figure 1.19 Routes of aerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG).....	32
Figure 1.20 Routes of aerobic ethylbenzene degradation (modified from KEGG)	33
Figure 1.21 Routes of aerobic xylene degradation (modified from KEGG).....	34
Figure 2.1 GC based total hydrocarbon profiles of Kırıkkale-Kızılırmak river water (Onur <i>et al.</i> , 2015).....	37
Figure 2.2 Experimental setup for selection of BTEX degraders	38
Figure 2.3 Experimental setup for the measurement of BTEX degradation	39
Figure 2.4 Experimental flow in PCR-detection of catabolic genes	42
Figure 2.5 Experimental setup for the detection of intermediates in BTEX degradation	45
Figure 3.1 E ₂₄ (%) indices of the bacterial strains	49
Figure 3.2 Benzene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses	51
Figure 3.3 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of benzene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), incubation with <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11 (b), <i>S. aureus</i> Ba01 (c), <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11 (d), <i>S. warnerii</i> Co11 (e), <i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12 (f), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10 (g),	

<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11 (h), <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12 (i), <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11 (j). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.	53
Figure 3.4 Toluene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses.....	54
Figure 3.5 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of toluene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), <i>P. plecoglossicida</i> Ag10 (b), <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11 (c), <i>S. aureus</i> Al11 (d), <i>S. aureus</i> Ba01 (e), <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11 (f), <i>S. warneri</i> Co11 (g), <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10 (h), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10 (i), <i>S. aureus</i> Li12 (j), <i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11 (k), <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12 (l), <i>C. testosteroni</i> Ni11 (m), <i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01 (n), <i>P. agglomerans</i> Sn11 (o), <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11 (p), <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Zn01 (r). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.....	57
Figure 3.6 Ethylbenzene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses.....	58
Figure 3.7 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of ethylbenzene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11 (b), <i>S. aureus</i> Al11 (c), <i>S. aureus</i> Ba01 (d), <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11 (e), <i>D. acidovorans</i> Cd11 (f), <i>S. warneri</i> Co11 (g), <i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12 (h), <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10 (i), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11 (j), <i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11 (k), <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12 (l), <i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01 (m), <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11 (n). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.	61
Figure 3.8 Xylene degradation rates of bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses	62
Figure 3.9 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of xylene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), <i>D. acidovorans</i> Cd11 (b), <i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12 (c), <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10 (d), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10 (e), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11 (f), <i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01 (g). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.	63
Figure 3.10 BTEX degradation percentages of all the bacterial strains used in the study	64
Figure 3.11 Initial oxidation steps of aerobic benzene (a), toluene (b), ethylbenzene(c) and xylene (d) degradation. Related genotypes are denoted on the reaction arrows. (modified from KEGG).....	66

Figure 3.12 Agarose gel electrophoresis of chromosomal DNA extracted from the bacterial strains used in the study; *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10 (lane 1), *R. planticola* Ag11 (lane 2), *S. aureus* Al11 (lane 3), *S. aureus* Ba01 (lane 4), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (lane 5), *D. acidovorans* (lane 6), *S. warneri* Co11 (lane 7), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (lane 8), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 9), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (lane10), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (lane 11), *S. aureus* Li12 (lane 12), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (lane 13), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (lane 14), *C. testosteroni* Ni11 (lane 15), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (lane 16), *P. agglomerans* Sn11 (lane 17), *M. luteus* Sr02 (lane 18), *M. luteus* Sr11 (lane 19), *A. haemolyticus* Zn01 (lane 20). M, Thermo Fisher Lambda DNA/HindIII DNA ladder; from bottom to top: 125, 564, 2027, 2322, 4361, 6557, 9416 and 23130 bp, respectively. chr, chromosomal DNA.

.....67

Figure 3.13 The *tbmD* gene in the first oxidation step of benzene (a) and toluene (b) degradation68

Figure 3.14 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.....69

Figure 3.15 The *tbmD* gene harboring bacterial strains (a) *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 1), *M. luteus* (lane 2), negative control (lane 3). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively (a). Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).....69

Figure 3.16 Phylogenetic analysis of *tbmD* (ring hydroxylating monooxygenase) genes among bacterial strains. Scale bar at the bottom of the tree stands for nucleotide changes per site.71

Figure 3.17 The *todCl* gene in the first oxidation step of benzene (a), toluene (b) and ethylbenzene (c) degradation72

Figure 3.18 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for *P. koreensis* Hg10. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.....73

Figure 3.19 The <i>todC1</i> gene harboring bacterial strains (a) <i>R. planticola</i> Ag11 (lane 1), <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11 (lane 2), <i>S. warneri</i> Co11 (lane 3), <i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12 (lane 4), <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10 (lane 5), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10 (lane 6), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11 (lane 7), <i>S. aureus</i> Li12 (lane 8), <i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11 (lane 9), <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12 (lane 10), <i>C. testosteroni</i> Ni11 (lane 11), <i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01 (lane 12), <i>P. agglomerans</i> Sn11 (lane 13), <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11 (lane 14). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA Ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively. Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).	73
Figure 3.20 Phylogenetic analysis of <i>todC1</i> genes (ring hydroxylating dioxygenase) among bacterial strains. Scale bar at the bottom of the tree stands for nucleotide changes per site	75
Figure 3.21 The routes of aerobic aromatic ring cleavage	76
Figure 3.22 The <i>cata</i> gene in the intradiol cleavage of aromatic ring	77
Figure 3.23 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl ₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.	77
Figure 3.24 The <i>cata</i> gene harboring bacterial strains (a) <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11 (lane 1), <i>S. aureus</i> Ba01 (lane 2), <i>D. acidovorans</i> Cd11 (lane 3), <i>A. calcoaceicus</i> Fe10 (lane 4), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11 (lane 5), <i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11 (lane 6), <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11 (lane 7), negative control (lane 8). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively (a). Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).	78
Figure 3.25 The <i>C23O</i> gene in the extradiol cleavage of aromatic ring	79
Figure 3.26 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl ₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11. M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively.....	80
Figure 3.27 The <i>c23o</i> gene harboring bacterial strains (a) <i>P. plecoglossicida</i> Ag10 (lane 1), <i>R. planticola</i> Ag11 (lane 2), <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11 (lane 3), <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10 (lane 4), <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11 (lane 5), negative control (lane 6). M, Solis Biodyne 100 bp DNA	

ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1500, 2000 and 3000 bp, respectively. Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).....81

Figure 3.28 GC/MS chromatograms showing the intermediate products during benzene degradation while incubation with *R. plancticola* Ag11 (a), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (b) and *M. luteus* Sr11 (c). Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.....84

Figure 3.29 GC/MS chromatograms showing the intermediate products during toluene degradation while incubation with *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (a) and *M. luteus* Sr11 (b). Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.85

Figure 3.30 GC/MS chromatograms showing the intermediate products during ethylbenzene degradation while incubation with *R. plancticola* Ag11 (a), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (b), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (c). Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.....87

Figure 3.31 GC/MS chromatogram showing the intermediate products during xylene degradation while incubation with *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10. Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.....88

Figure 3.32 Schematic representation of aerobic benzene degradation (modified from KEGG)90

Figure 3.33 Schematic representation of aerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG)91

Figure 3.34 Schematic representation of aerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG)92

Figure 3.35 Schematic representation of aerobic ethylbenzene degradation (modified from KEGG).....93

ABBREVIATIONS

ATSDR	Agency for Toxic Substances and Diseases Registry
BHB	Bushnell Haas Broth
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
BSTFA	Bis (trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide
C12O	Catechol 1,2 dioxygenase
C23O	Catechol 2,3 dioxygenase
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
GC/MS	Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry
HS-GC/MS	Headspace Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry
IACR	International Agency for Cancer Research
MEGA	Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis
NA	Nutrient Agar
NB	Nutrient Broth
PAHs	Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
RNA	Ribonucleic Acid
TMO	Toluene Monooxygenation
TOD	Toluene Dioxygenation
TPH	Total Petroleum Hydrocarbon

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Petroleum hydrocarbons, their derivatives and ecological importance

Petroleum-based hydrocarbons are main source of energy in daily life and raw materials for various industries. The usage of petroleum and petroleum products are increasing day by day since world's population continues to grow. World annual petroleum production is predicted to reach twelve million metric tonnes (Koshlaf & Ball, 2017). British Petroleum stated that global oil consumption growth averaged 1.6 million barrels per day (Mb/d), above its 10-year average (1.2%) in 2016 (British Petroleum, 2017). However, it has been estimated that, due to natural and anthropogenic effects between 1.7 to 8.8 million metric tonnes of petroleum are released into the environment annually (Sihag *et al.*, 2014). Petroleum hydrocarbon contamination may happen due to industrial effects, municipal runoffs, effluent leakages, spills from underground gasoline storage tanks, during transportation of petroleum, offshore petroleum drilling activity, and accidental spills (Figure 1.1) (Das *et al.*, 2011).



Figure 1.1 An aerial view of the oil spilled from Deepwater Horizon platform into the Gulf of Mexico in 2010 (from REUTERS) on the left and a deliberately opened pipeline from Kuwait to slow the assault of American forces during the first Gulf War (by Anne Casselman) on the right side

Many accidental spills and blowouts have occurred since the discovery of petroleum to date as shown in Figure 1.2 As an example to tanker spills Exxon Valdez oil spills in 1989 and large accidental ocean blowout in the BP/Deepwater Horizon in 2010, known as the largest marine hydrocarbon discharge to date due to human activity can be given (Kleindienst *et al.*, 2016). Figure 1.2 shows the historical map of worst oil disasters since 1978. The most recent is an explosion on the Deepwater Horizon platform in the Gulf of Mexico on April 20, 2010 led to the largest offshore oil spill in history. Gulf War oil spill, also known as Persian Gulf oil spill is the largest oil spill of all times caused by the deliberate act of man rather than accidental spillage to hamper American forces during the assault and 300 million gallons of oil were released into Persian Gulf (Vallero & Letcher, 2013).

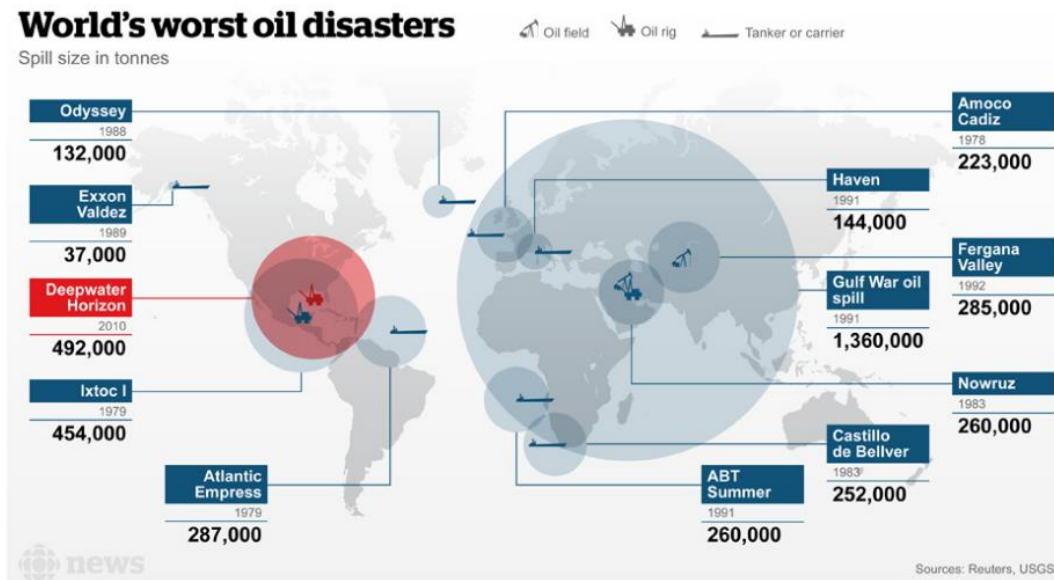


Figure 1.2 The history of the worst petroleum oil disasters in the world (from REUTERS)

Petroleum hydrocarbons are defined as serious pollutants because they are recalcitrant (Costa *et al.*, 2012). On earth, all life forms and natural habitats are affected by this pollution (Sajna *et al.*, 2015). Once crude oil and other petroleum related products leaked to environment, primary biological effect occurs by blocking the availability of water, oxygen, nutrients and light, affecting soil fertility, plant growth and germination (Martine *et al.*, 2010).

1.1.1 Composition of crude petroleum oil

Petroleum is formed over millions of years by thermal decaying of any kind of organic material. Once extracted, petroleum is dark, sticky and viscous liquid (Varjani *et al.*, 2007). Crude oil is a mixture containing varying proportion of carbon and hydrogen atoms (Seidel *et al.*, 2015). It can be categorized in four broad fractions Figure 1.3; saturates (aliphatic, branched, and cycloalkanes), aromatics (monoaromatics and polyaromatics), resins and asphaltenes (Bagi *et al.*, 2013). Saturates with the lack of double bond, represent the highest percentage of petroleum oil. They are divided depending on chemical structures into alkanes and cycloalkanes (Abbasian *et al.*, 2015).

Aromatic hydrocarbons have one or more benzene ring coupled with different alkyl side chains (Meckenstock *et al.*, 2016). When compared to saturates and aromatics, resins and asphaltenes contain non-hydrocarbon polar compounds like nitrogen and sulfur (Chandra *et al.*, 2013).

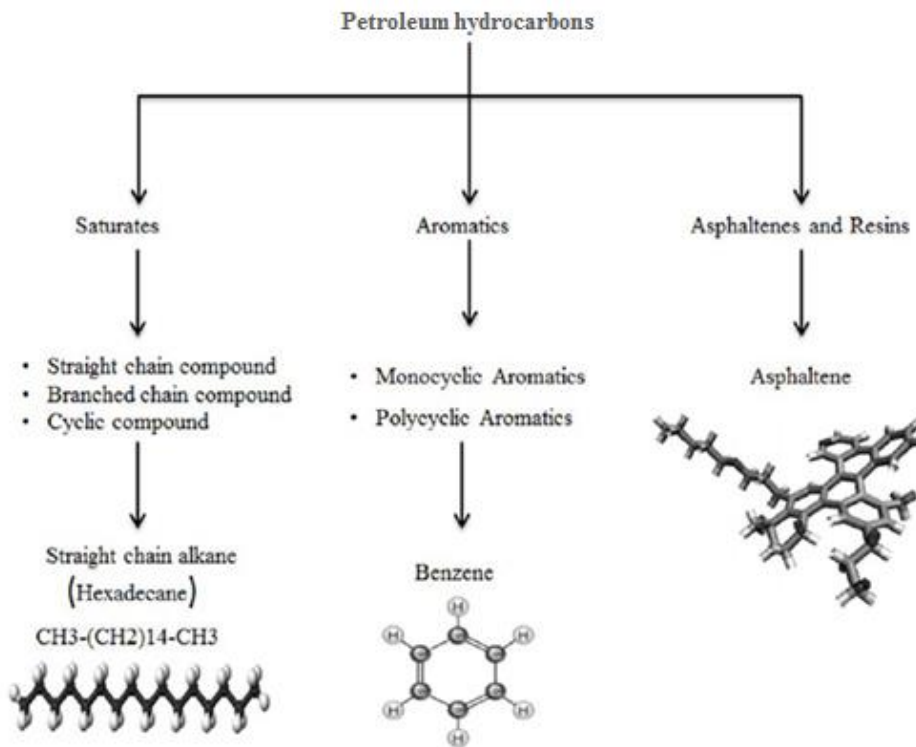


Figure 1.3 The various fractions of hydrocarbons comprising crude oil

Monoaromatic hydrocarbons including benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene, also called as BTEX are belong to the group of aromatics in the fraction of crude oil (El-Naas *et al.*, 2014). Since BTEX are highly volatile, flammable and many hazardous effects to human health an environment, they are thought as primary contaminants in soil, air, groundwater and marine environment (Stasik *et al.*, 2015).


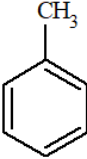
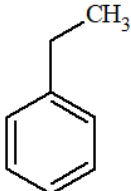
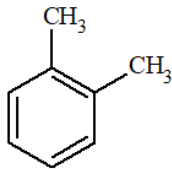
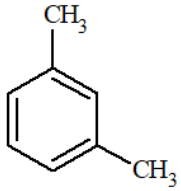
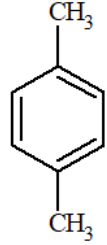
1.1.2 Importance of BTEX

Aromatic hydrocarbons belong to the group of top chemicals by production volume because of their broad range of usage in world's industry (Atlas *et al.*, 2015). In particular, monoaromatic hydrocarbons including benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and *o*-, *p*-, *m*-xylenes commonly called as BTEX are one of the components of crude oil and gasoline and thought to be most significant contaminants for soil, marine environment and groundwater (Abbasian *et al.*, 2015). Apart from accidental leakages of crude oil into the environment, BTEX are found in the environment because of the fact that they are in association with anthropogenic emission of combustion processes as well as vehicle exhausts (El-Naas *et al.*, 2014). BTEX are also consumed as industrial solvents during the synthesis of many organic compounds such as plastics, synthetic fibers and pesticides (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008). Moreover, monoaromatic hydrocarbons are highly volatile, flammable, toxic and carcinogenic (Olajire & Essien, 2014).

1.1.2.1 Benzene

Benzene, also known as benzol, is a colorless liquid with sweet odor and it is highly inflammable (Brugnone *et al.*, 1998). It has basic aromatic hydrocarbon ring made up of six carbon atoms bonded to each other and twofold hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon atoms with equal number (Table 1.1) (Fruscella, 2000). Benzene, coming from both natural and environmental sources is found in air, water and soil depending on its intended use (Luttrell & Conley, 2011). Benzene can vaporize into air and relatively water soluble (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2011). Nowadays it is mostly produced from crude oil and classes in the top 20 chemicals by production volume in the US (Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), 2007). Many industrial companies make use of benzene as precursor molecule to synthesize other hydrocarbon based chemicals such as styrene (for plastics) and cumene (for different resins) and cyclohexane (for nylon and synthetic fibers) (Snyder *et al.*, 1993).

Table 1.1 Properties of BTEX compounds (Mitra & Roy, 2011)

Name	Molecular formula	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Density (kg/l)	T _m (°C)	T _b (°C)	Vapor pressure (kPa)	Aqueous solubility (mg/L)
Benzene		78.1	0.878	5.5	80.1	10.13	1,780
Toluene		92.1	0.867	-95	110.8	2.93	515
Ethylbenzene		106.2	0.867	-95	136.2	0.93	152
<i>o</i> -xylene		106.2	0.880	-25	144.4	0.67	175
<i>m</i> -xylene		106.2	0.864	-48	139.0	0.80	200
<i>p</i> -xylene		106.2	0.860	13	138.4	0.87	198

Density, vapor pressure, aqueous solubility measured at 20°C. T_m, melting point; T_b, boiling point

Additionally, it is used in the production of various types of rubbers, lubricants, detergents, pesticides, drugs and dyes (Weisel, 2010). The presence of benzene in the environment is also arisen from natural sources including gas emissions from volcanoes and forest fires. Most people expose to benzene through inhalation, food, beverages and

contaminated drinking water. The exposure to benzene through food or beverages is not as much as through air (ATSDR, 2007). Exposure to very high level of benzene in air (10.000-20.000 ppm) even in short time (5-10 minutes) can cause death. Lower levels can lead to unconsciousness, drowsiness, dizziness, rapid hearth rate, headaches, tremors, confusion. When eating food or drinking liquids contaminated with high amount of benzene, death, coma, tachycardia, sleepiness, dizziness, convulsions, vomiting, irritation of the stomach (Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), 2012). Long-term exposure to benzene may have harmful effects on tissues that produce blood cells, mainly in bone marrow (Zhang *et al.*, 2010). It damages the blood production and decreases the crucial blood components. Reduction of red blood cells can cause anemia. Decrease in other constituents in blood may lead to excessive bleeding (Arnold *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, exposure to benzene has been linked to a particular type of leukemia known as acute myeloid leukemia (Finkelstein, 2000). It can also cause cancer through attenuating the immune system (Snyder, 2012). Benzene was already determined as carcinogenic to humans by both the International Agency for Cancer Research (IACR) and EPA.

1.1.2.2 Toluene

Toluene, also known as toluol or methylbenzene, is a colorless, clear liquid with its characteristic odor (Haley, 1987). Unlike benzene, toluene contains one methyl group bonded to benzene ring (Table 1.1), (Fabri *et al.*, 2000) It is naturally found in the composition of crude oil and in the tolu balsam tree (ATSDR, 2015). Since toluene has good solvent properties, it is widely used in various industrial process such as making paints, leather tanning, rubber, printing, fingernail polish, adhesives, lacquers and paint thinners (EPA, 2016). It is also used during the production of some aromatic hydrocarbon-based industrial products including trinitrotoluene, polyurethane, toluene diisocyanate, benzoic acid, benzoyl chloride (Fishbein, 1985). To increase the octane rate, toluene is added to gasoline along with benzene and xylene (ATSDR, 2015). Depending on where it is used for or produced from, toluene can be found in air, water and soil. Due to its relative solubility in water, toluene, leaked from underground

gasoline storage tanks, can transfer into groundwater and surface waters (Wilbur *et al.*, 2004). People are exposed to toluene through breathing, drinking and contacting with toluene containing staffs (Pierce *et al.*, 2002). It has been concluded that toluene may have serious effects on nervous system leading to temporary action such as unconsciousness, dizziness and headaches. If a continuous exposure to toluene occurs, that may result in dizziness, headaches and even death by interfering the breath and heart rate (Clough, 2014).

1.1.2.3 Ethylbenzene

Ethylbenzene is a colorless liquid, with an odor similar to that of gasoline (ATSDR, 2015). Compared to benzene, ethylbenzene has ethyl group as side chain linked to basic aromatic ring (Table 1.1), (Banton, 2014). Ethylbenzene is found in the air as 2 parts of ethylbenzene per million parts of air (ATSDR, 2010). It evaporates at room temperatures and it is highly flammable (Cannella, 2007). Crude oil naturally contains ethylbenzene (Henderson *et al.*, 2007). In the US, large amount of ethylbenzene is produced and used in many industrial processes like production of styrene and gasoline, paints, pesticides, glues, tobacco products and automotive products (ATSDR, 2015). Ethylbenzene in soil and surface waters can contaminate groundwater because it is relatively soluble in water (EPA, 2015). People are exposed to ethylbenzene by inhalation and drinking (Tang *et al.*, 2000). For humans, eye and throat irritation can be seen in the short-term exposure to high concentration of ethylbenzene and this may result in vertigo and dizziness (Saillenfait *et al.*, 2003). It was stated by the IARC that long-term exposure to ethylbenzene may lead to cancer in humans (IARC, 2011).

1.1.2.4 Xylenes

The terms xylene, xylenes, and total xylenes can be used interchangeably since there are three forms of xylene depending on two methyl groups binding to different positions on benzene ring; *ortho*-xylene, *meta*-xylene and *para*-xylene (Table 1.1). The term total xylenes encompass all tree forms of xylene and mix xylene also contains 6-15% ethylbenzene (Denayer *et al.*, 2011). Xylene, also known as xylol or dimethylbenzene, is

mainly produced synthetically but is it also found naturally in crude oil (Kandyala *et al.*, 2010). Xylene is a colorless, flammable liquid with sweet odor. By production volume, xylene is among the top 30 chemicals in the US and it is primarily used as solvent in the leather, cleaning, printing and rubber industry (ATSDR, 2005). It is also used in the production of chemical compounds such as plastics (Jiang *et al.*, 2015). People are exposed to xylenes at 3.7 ppm in air and 0.53-1.1 ppm in water (Niaz *et al.*, 2015). Usually, xylene is taken from air by inhalation. In some cases, it can be taken from drinking waters or food if there is a serious oil spills accidentally around the place people live in (Rajan & Malathi, 2014). It has been previously stated that three forms of xylene have similar effect on human health (Jacobson & McLean, 2003). Short-term exposure to xylenes may cause irritation of eyes, throat, nose, skin, disrupting breathe capacity, damaged function of lungs, slow response to a visual stimulus, impaired memory and stomach aches (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2005). Long-term exposure to xylene may have number of effects on nervous system including headaches, deficiency in muscle coordination, confusion, dizziness and death (Buesa & Peshkov, 2009). Studies, carried out in animals demonstrate that high level of xylene can cause disruption in the liver and hazardous effects on the nervous system, heart, lungs and kidneys (Schupp *et al.*, 2005). According to both the IACR and EPA, there is no clear evidence and acceptable information to say that whether xylene is a carcinogenic or not.

Thus, contamination of air, soil and water with petroleum or petroleum-based products accidentally and by human effects, exposure to BTEX is inevitable. For this reason, development of new technologies for removal of BTEX from environment and attenuation the risk of these compounds, have gained great interest over the last decades.

1.2 Remediation strategies for hydrocarbon contaminated sites

BTEX can migrate tens to thousands kilometer far away from contaminated site by passing through groundwater from air and soil since they are highly soluble in water relative to other petroleum hydrocarbons (Mazzeo *et al.*, 2010). These monoaromatic hydrocarbons are very stable molecules due to the lack of an activating group such as

oxygen or nitrogen substituent renders them recalcitrant to degradation (Mitra & Roy, 2011). Alternative methods including physical, chemical and biological treatments have been developed to remediate environment contaminated with BTEX.

1.2.1 Physical-chemical vs. biological methods

Physical and chemical treatments of hydrocarbons are conventional and engineering based methods. They are expensive due to the transportation of large amount of contaminated materials for *ex situ* remediation and cost of soil washing, excavation, chemical inactivation and incineration (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008). Alternative physico-chemical remediation strategies are dilution, dispersion, volatilization, sorption and abiotic transformations etc. (Chandra *et al.*, 2013). The high costs and inefficient yield of these conventional physical and chemical techniques have promoted the development of alternative strategies for *in situ* applications, especially based on biological remediation capabilities of plants (Singh & Jain, 2003) and microorganisms (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008). Bioremediation, a green technology can be defined as using of living organisms to degrade or remove pollutants from contaminated sites. It is an environmentally friendly, efficient, economic and versatile technology.

1.2.2 Bioremediation of hydrocarbons by microorganisms

Bioremediation is a cutting-edge technology in which microorganisms detoxify, reduce or degrade dangerous organic pollutants to harmless compounds like H₂O, CH₄ and CO₂ and biomass that has no adverse effect on environment (Ron & Rosenberg, 2014). Terrestrial and aquatic systems contaminated with petroleum hydrocarbons can be remediated by microbial bioremediation application (Varjani *et al.*, 2015). Different microorganisms play a crucial role in biogeochemical reactions and in many cases they are the only living organisms having ability in the production of modified forms of molecules needed for other organisms in nature. There is a high probability that microorganisms isolated from petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated soil, sediments or water have ability to degrade hydrocarbons (Ron & Rosenberg, 2014). Biodegradation of hydrocarbons is energetically favorable reaction because microorganisms use

hydrocarbons as a carbon sources that is essential for the synthesis of all cellular components (Abbasian *et al.*, 2015). Various research studies focusing on hydrocarbon biodegradation have been performed in last decade (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008; Sajna *et al.*, 2015; Sunita *et al.*, 2016).

1.2.3 Microbial degradation of BTEX

Biodegradation of hydrocarbons naturally found in petroleum or produced by synthetically is a complex process (Kim *et al.*, 2014). Generally, microorganisms have a huge metabolic diversity making them pervasive in different environmental conditions. Since they are very common in nature, biotechnological applications including petroleum bioremediation can be managed by the utilization of hydrocarbon degrading microorganisms (Atlas & Bragg, 2009). Microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi and algae are capable of BTEX biodegradation in oil contaminated sites (Fritsche & Hofrichter, 2008). Their reported activity in degradation ranged from 0.003% to 100% for marine bacteria (Hollaway *et al.*, 1980), 0.13% to 50% for soil bacteria (Mulkins & Stewart, 1974) and 0.6% to 82% for soil fungi (Kostka *et al.*, 2011). In BTEX biodegradation, bacteria are known as most active agent and primary degraders (Meckenstock *et al.*, 2016). In several studies, it is reported that combined populations with broad enzymatic capacity are advantageous for the complete degradation of complex mixtures of hydrocarbons such as crude oil in soil or marine environment (Singh & Celin, 2010)

1.2.4 BTEX-degrading bacteria

Bacteria isolated from different environment or found indigenously, are the most prominent agent in hydrocarbon biodegradation in the place contaminated by oil spills or industrial factors (Wackett, 2003). Until today, several bacteria belong to different genera including *Burkholderia*, *Acinetobacter* (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006), *Pseudomonas*, *Comamonas*, *Rhodococcus*, *Mycobacterium* (Lee *et al.*, 2012), *Gordonia*, *Brevibacterium*, *Micrococcus* (Jin *et al.*, 2013), *Arthobacter*, *Sphingomonas*, *Alcaligenes*, *Acidovorax*, *Bacillus*, *Marinobacter* (Guzik *et al.*, 2013), *Agrobacterium*, *Ralstonia*,

Cladophialopora, *Aquaspirillum*, *Variovorax*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Bordetella*, *Bradyrhizobium* and *Nocardia* (Jiang *et al.*, 2015) have been isolated from soil and marine environments and determined as active petroleum degraders.

Biodegradation of BTEX can be performed under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Although comprehensive genetic and metabolic information are available for aerobic BTEX degradation, our knowledge on anaerobic BTEX degradation is still scarce.

1.2.4.1 Anaerobic BTEX degradation

With the increasing number of studies under nitrate-, iron-, or sulphide-reducing conditions the presence of anaerobic bacteria capable of BTEX degradation have also been shown (Weelink *et al.*, 2010). Under anaerobic conditions, the first step of degradation mediated by the addition of fumarate to the methyl group to form benzylsuccinate (Widdel *et al.*, 2010). The reaction is catalyzed by benzylsuccinate synthase (Figure 1.4). Then in subsequent oxidation reaction, benzyl succinate is converted to benzoyl-CoA an identical intermediate product in anaerobic BTEX biodegradation (Dou *et al.*, 2008).

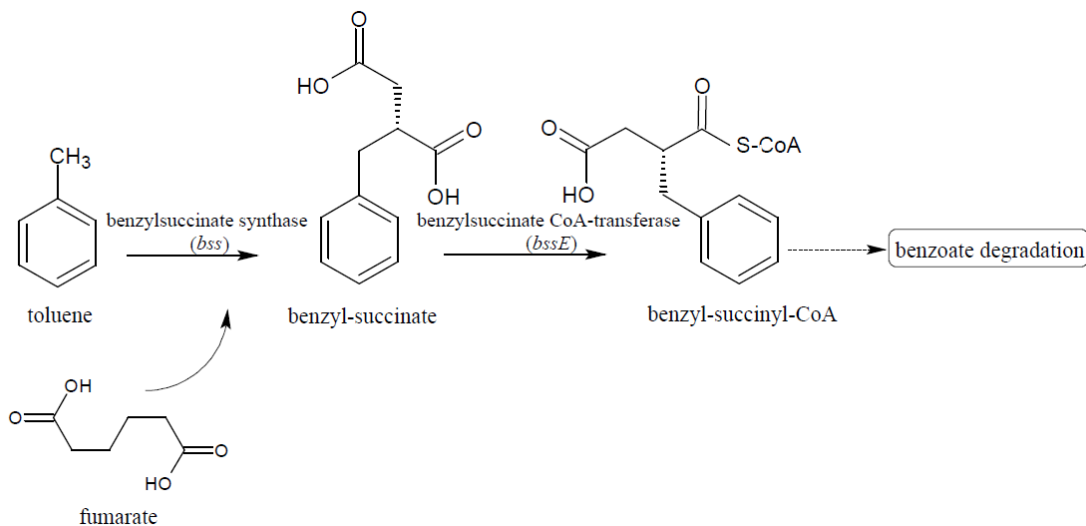


Figure 1.4 Bacterial anaerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG)

1.2.4.2 Aerobic BTEX degradation

The most efficient and complete degradation of hydrocarbons is catalyzed under aerobic conditions (Jindrová *et al.*, 2002). Figure 1.5 shows the main principles of aerobic hydrocarbon degradation. In the aerobic BTEX degradation, the initial attack of hydrocarbons is an oxidative process that is started by the incorporation of oxygen into hydrocarbon. All these enzymatic reactions are catalyzed by oxygenases (Bombach *et al.*, 2010). Step by step, hydrocarbons are converted to intermediate products of central metabolism like tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA) and further transformed to precursor molecules like pyruvate and acetyl-CoA (Cao *et al.*, 2009).

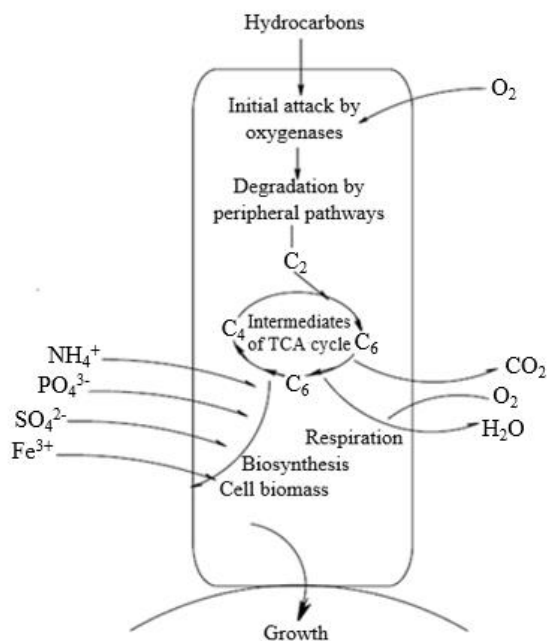


Figure 1.5 Main principles of aerobic hydrocarbon degradation by microorganisms (Olajire & Essien, 2014)

As shown in Figure 1.6, in aerobic BTEX degradation studies, toluene is generally used as a model hydrocarbon since it represents basic characteristics of all monoaromatic hydrocarbons, having benzene ring and methyl group as an alkyl side chain (Harayama *et al.*, 1999). As in the case of toluene, the aerobic BTEX degradation is initiated by incorporation of oxygen atoms into aromatic ring or alkyl group by mono or

dioxygenase enzymes (Nicholson & Fathepure, 2005). Catechol or catechol derivatives are produced as identical intermediates in aerobic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation reactions. That is followed by aromatic ring fission through the activity of ring cleavage dioxygenases (Dalvi *et al.*, 2012).

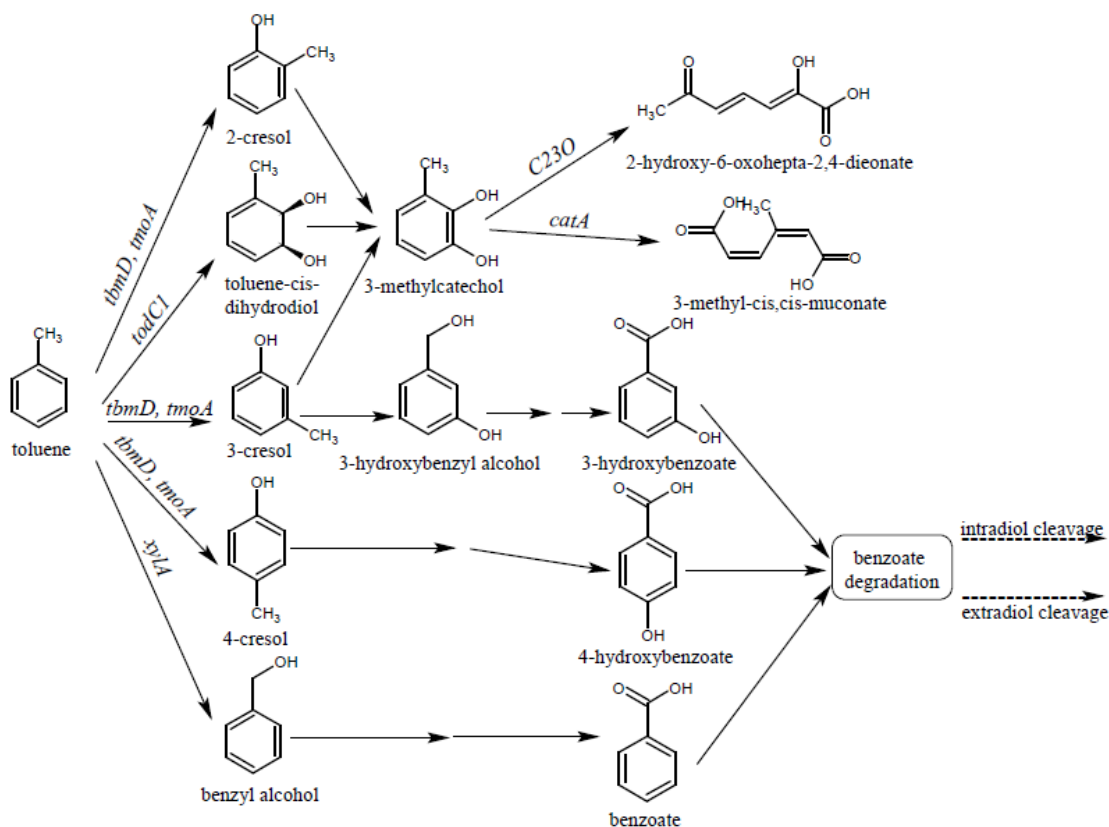


Figure 1.6 Aerobic routes in toluene degradation as a model (modified from KEGG)

Many aerobic bacteria capable of BTEX degradation have been isolated and characterized from different environments such as activated sludge (Deng *et al.*, 2017), hydrocarbon contaminated site (Baquiran *et al.*, 2012), groundwater from hot springs (Chen & Taylor, 1995) and bioreactor (Li & Goel, 2012).

Table 1.2 Aerobic monoaromatic hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria and biodegradation characteristics (Jeon & Madsen, 2013)

Microorganisms	Substrates	References
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. strain CFS-215 <i>Arthrobacter</i> sp. strain HCB	Benzene, toluene, and <i>p</i> -xylene	Alvarez & Vogel, 1991
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. B1 <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. X1	Benzene, toluene, and <i>p</i> -xylene	Chang <i>et al.</i> , 1997
<i>Pseudomonas</i> strain PP01	Benzene, toluene, <i>p</i> -xylene	Oh <i>et al.</i> , 1994
<i>Thermus aquaticus</i> ATCC 25104 <i>Thermus</i> sp. ATCC 27978	Benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene, <i>o</i> -, <i>m</i> -, and <i>p</i> -xylene	Chen & Taylor, 1995
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. D8	Benzene, toluene, and phenols	Chang <i>et al.</i> , 1997
<i>Rhodococcus rhodochrous</i>	Benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene, <i>o</i> -, <i>m</i> -, and <i>p</i> -xylene	Deeb & Cohen, 1999
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> F1 <i>Ralstonia pickettii</i> PKO1 <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> <i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i> KR1 <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> PaW15	Toluene	Parales <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> F1	Benzene, toluene and phenol	Reardon <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Burkholderia</i> JS150	Toluene and phenol	Rogers & Reardon, 2000
<i>Bacillus</i> sp. <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Toluene, ethyl benzene, and <i>o</i> -xylene	Amor <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> F1 <i>Ralstonia pickettii</i> PKO1	Benzene and toluene Toluene	Alagappan & Cowan, 2004 Demir, 2004
<i>Rhodococcus pyridinovorans</i> PYJ1 <i>Planococcus</i> sp. strain ZD22	Benzene, toluene, and <i>m</i> -xylene Benzene	Jung & Park, 2004 Li <i>et al.</i> , 2006

1.3 Factors affecting biodegradation of BTEX

Microorganisms are highly sensitive to changes in their surrounding environment. Many factors including type of pollutant, type of microorganisms, availability, volatilization and dispersion into aqueous phase affect biodegradation rate of hydrocarbons (Chandra *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, rate of biodegradation is also influenced by environmental conditions such as pH, temperature, water content, salinity, oxygen availability, carbon and nitrogen source, and other nutrients (Varjani *et al.*, 2016). One of the factor influencing the degradation is the type of hydrocarbon (Barathi & Vasudevan, 2001).

The easiness of hydrocarbon degradation can be ordered as follow: straight chain alkanes > branched alkanes > monoaromatic hydrocarbons > cyclic alkanes > polyaromatic hydrocarbons (Das *et al.*, 2011). In most cases, complete degradation of polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) is infeasible (Li *et al.*, 2008; Ghosal *et al.*, 2016). For successful bioremediation, physico-chemical conditions and bioavailability of hydrocarbons play very significant role. Hydrocarbons have oil-like structure and their hydrophobic behavior makes them unavailable for microorganisms in aqueous environment (Saeki *et al.*, 2009). To enhance the availability of hydrocarbons, wide variety of hydrocarbon degraders produce a dispersing agent called as biosurfactant (Table 1.3) (Sotirova *et al.*, 2009).

Table 1.3 Biosurfactatns produced by different microorganisms

Biosurfactants	Microorganisms	References
Sophorolipids	<i>Candida bombicola</i>	Daverey & Pakshirajan, 2009
Rhamnolipids	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Kumar <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Lipomannan	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Muthusamy <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Rhamnolipids	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Youssef <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Surfactin	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Youssef <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Glycolipid	<i>Aeromonas sp.</i>	Adebusoye <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Glycolipid	<i>Bacillus sp.</i>	Tabatabaee & Assadi, 2005

Biosurfactants renders the hydrocarbons available for microorganisms to utilize it by increasing the surface area. Once the surface tension is reduced by the emulsifying activity of biosurfactans, hydrocarbons are formed in a micelles and these encapsulated microdroplets in the microbial cell surface, can be taken into cell and degraded enzymatically (Rosenberg & Ron, 2013) (Figure 1.7).

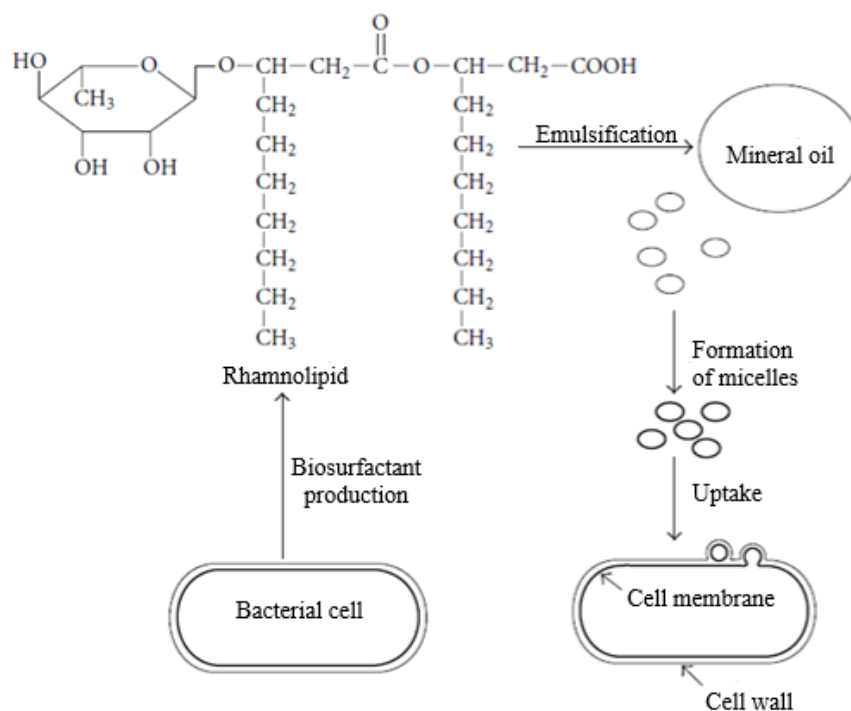


Figure 1.7 The role of biosurfactant (rhamnolipid) produced by *Pseudomonas* sp. in the uptake of hydrocarbons (Rosenberg & Ron, 2013)

1.4 Pathways for aerobic BTEX degradation

Five different initial attack pathways are named depending on the activity of enzyme catalyzing the incorporation of oxygen into different positions (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). All initial attack reactions are achieved by mono or dioxygenase enzyme systems. Aromatic ring can be directly oxidized by monooxygenation; toluene monooxygenation pathway (TMO) (Parales *et al.*, 2008) or dioxygenation; toluene dioxygenation pathway (TOD) reactions (Shinoda *et al.*, 2004). Depending on the position of incorporated oxygen atom on aromatic ring, TMO pathways are divided into three group as T2MO, T3MO and T4MO (Choi *et al.*, 2013). Unlike direct ring oxidation, monoaromatic hydrocarbon degradation can be initiated by the oxidation of alkyl-side chain (TOL-pathway) found in toluene and xylenes (Figure 1.6) (Ikuma & Gunsch, 2013)

1.5 Monitoring catabolic genes and enzymes involved in aerobic BTEX degradation

The genes encoding the aerobic BTEX degradation enzymes are commonly found in operons (TMO and TOD pathways) and often located on catabolic plasmids (TOL plasmid) (Nebe *et al.*, 2009). After initial oxidation reactions, intermediates are further converted to form catechol (from benzyl alcohol), 3-methylcatechol (from toluene *cis*-dihydrodiol and *m*-cresol) and protocatechuate (from *p*-cresol) which are directed to *ortho* or *meta* cleavage and then metabolized to TCA intermediates (Cao *et al.*, 2009). Genes encoding these key enzymes catalyzing both initial oxidation reactions and subsequent ring cleavage reactions can be used as marker genes to detect BTEX-degrading bacteria from BTEX-contaminated sites (Table 1.4) (Lünsmann *et al.*, 2016).

Table 1.4 Genes encoding the initial step enzymes of bacterial aerobic toluene degradation

Gene	Enzyme	Reference organism	Pathway	Reference
<i>tom/tbm/tbc</i>	toluene-2-monooxygenase	<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> G4, <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. JS150	TOM/T2MO	Zylstra & Gibson, 1989
<i>tbu/tbh</i>	toluene-3-monooxygenase	<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> G4, <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. JS150	TBU/T3MO	Johnson & Olsen, 1995
<i>tmo</i>	toluene-4-monooxygenase	<i>Ralstonia pickettii</i> PKO1, <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> AA1	T4MO	Yen <i>et al.</i> , 1991
<i>tod</i>	toluene dioxygenase	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> F1	TOD	Zylstra & Gibson, 1989
<i>xyl</i>	toluene/xylene monooxygenase	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> mt-2	TOL	Suzuki <i>et al.</i> , 1991

In addition to bacterial oxygenases, hydrocarbon degradation can be mediated by heme-containing cytochrome P450 enzymes found in all living organisms (Van Beilen & Funhoff, 2007). Although there are several studies demonstrating the activity of cytochrome P450 enzymes on degradation of straight-chain alkanes in bacteria and detoxification of polyaromatic-based drug metabolites in human, mechanism of possible aerobic BTEX degradation catalyzed by cytochrome P450 enzymes has not been well established (Wang & Shao, 2013).

1.5.1 Initial oxidation enzymes in the aerobic degradation of BTEX

The first common step of aerobic BTEX degradation is the activation of benzene ring by oxidation reactions. As indicated in previous section, there are two distinct oxidation mechanisms namely monooxygenation and dioxygenation. In monooxygenation system, oxygen is incorporated into aromatic ring or alkyl side chain depending on the key enzymes whereas in dioxygenation, only aromatic ring is oxidized by introducing two oxygen atoms (Kovacs, 2003).

1.5.1.1 Ring hydroxylating monooxygenases

Direct oxidation of aromatic ring can be initiated by ring hydroxylating monooxygenases (RHMO) including toluene monooxygenase and phenol hydroxylase oxidizing the *o*-, *m* and *p* positions (Leahy *et al.*, 2003). Different operons have been described in bacteria having ring monooxygenation ability (Figure 1.8) (Armando & Díaz, 2004). In such cases, bacteria harbor toluene monooxygenase to activate toluene or benzene and phenol hydroxylase to transform phenolic metabolites into catechols (Arengi *et al.*, 2001; Cafaro *et al.*, 2004).

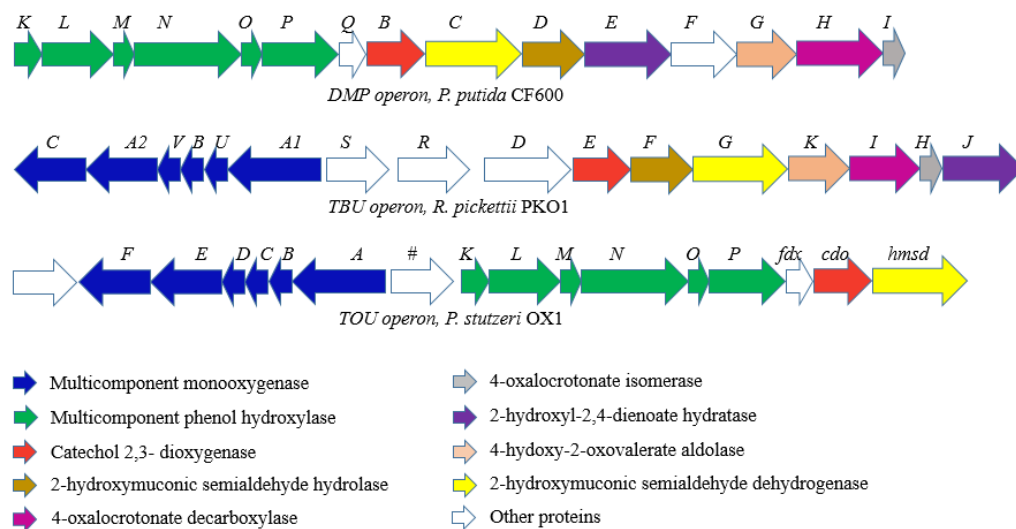


Figure 1.8 Genetic orientation and structure of *dmpKLMNOPQBCDEFGHI*, *tbuCA2VBUAISRDEFGKIHJ* and *touFEDCBAKLMNOP-fdx-cdo-hmsd* operons in *P. putida* CF600, *R. pickettii* PKO1 and *P. stutzeri* OX1 respectively (Armando & Díaz, 2004)

Various monooxygenases including phenol hydroxylase (Kasak *et al.*, 1993), alkene/aromatic monooxygenase (Coufal *et al.*, 2000), salicylate hydroxylase (Bosch *et al.*, 1999) etc., have been studied in different microorganisms (Figure 1.10). In the phylogenetic analysis done by Baldwin *et al.* (2003), catabolic genes encoding the large subunits of toluene monooxygenases from different organisms were aligned (Figure 1.9). According to this alignment, two types were determined differed in their mode of action; ring hydroxylating monooxygenases (Type R) including toluene/benzene monooxygenase and phenol hydroxylase and side-chain monooxygenases (Type T) harbored by TOL plasmid. With some exceptions, ring hydroxylating monooxygenases can be divided into three families depending on the substrate specificity; two families of toluene monooxygenases (R.2 and R.3) and one family of phenol hydroxylases (R.1).

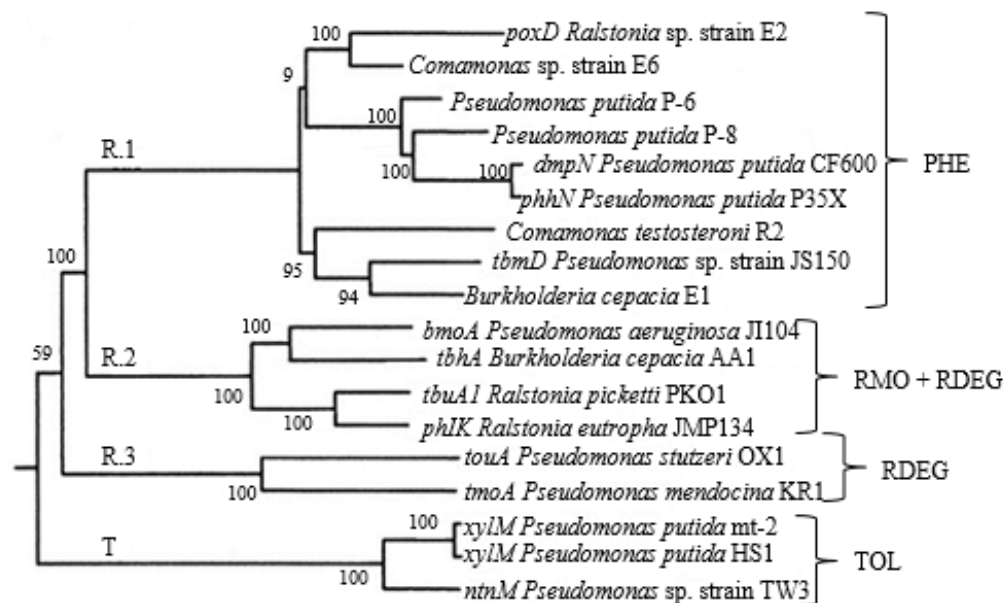


Figure 1.9 Phylogenetic analysis of catabolic genes encoding the large α -subunit of aromatic ring hydroxylating monooxygenases among different bacterial species. R, indicates the type and numbers shows the families. T indicates TOL type.

Multicomponent monooxygenases catalyze the initial oxidation reaction of various monoaromatic hydrocarbons by NAD(P)H-dependent hydroxylation (Leahy *et al.*, 2003). They are composed of three or four components including a hydroxylase protein consisting two or three subunits ($\alpha\beta$ or $\alpha\beta\gamma$), a catalytic effector protein, a NADH-dependent oxidoreductase and a ferredoxin with a Rieske-iron center (Powlowski & Shingler, 1994).

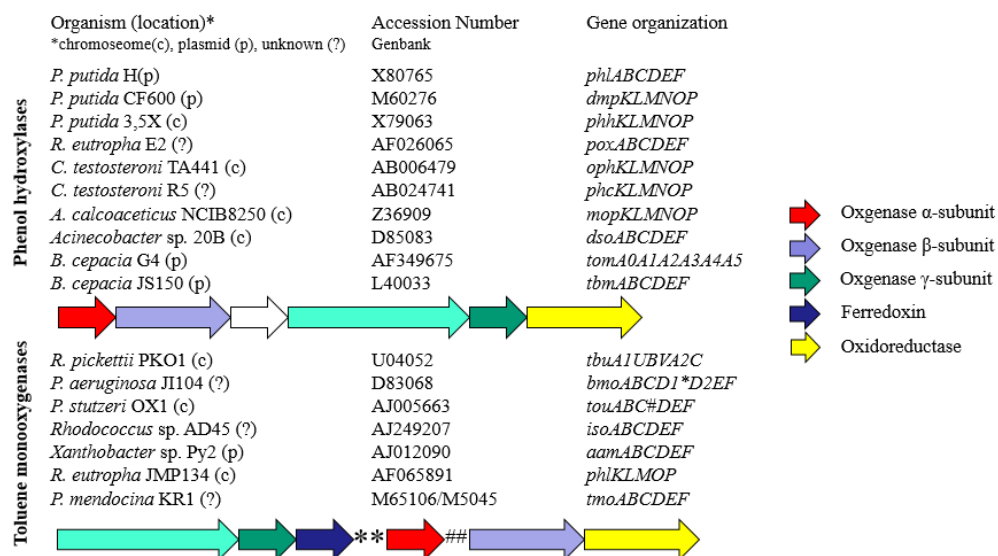


Figure 1.10 Schematic representation and genetic orientation of aromatic RHMO found in different bacteria. Intergenic regions longer than 200 bp in TOU and BMO operons are shown with, * and #, respectively (Armando & Díaz, 2004).

1.5.1.2 Alkyl side chain monooxygenases

The enzymes catalyzing the archetypal toluene degradation pathway (TOL) were shown firstly on plasmid pWW0 of *Pseudomonas putida* mt-2 (Williams & Murray, 1974). Bacteria harboring this ~110-130 kb plasmid, gain ability to grow on *m*-, *p*-xylene, and toluene. Toluene and xylenes can be used as only source of carbon by the activity of genes located on catabolic and regulatory part of plasmid, comprised in 39 kb sequence length (Figure 1.11) (Yano *et al.*, 2010).

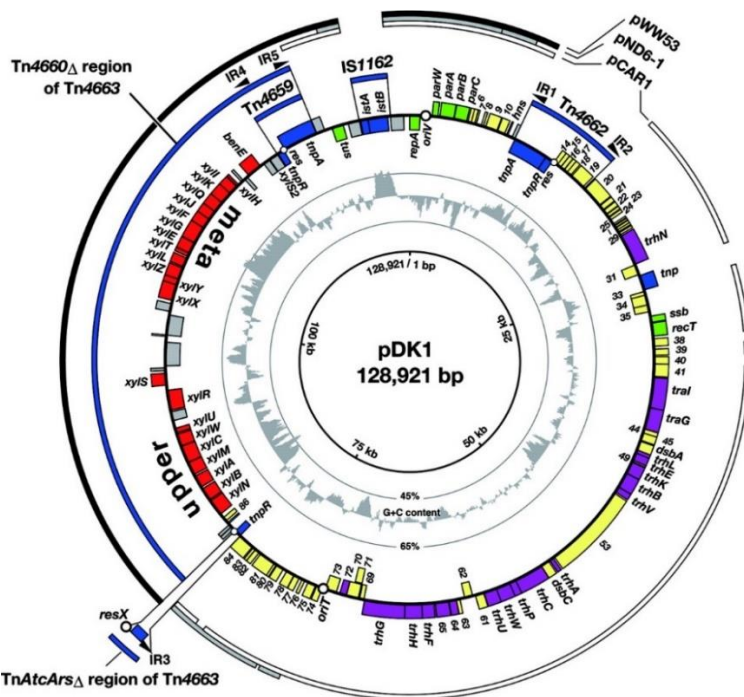


Figure 1.11 Circular map of TOL plasmid pDK1 (Yano *et al.*, 2010)

In TOL plasmid, catabolic genes responsible for subsequent degradation of hydrocarbons, are encoded on two distinct operons (Benjamin *et al.*, 1991). In the upper pathway, oxidation enzymes are produced by *xylUWCMABN* operon, forming benzoates derivatives while in the lower pathway (Venkata *et al.*, 2009), the enzymes catalyzing the oxidation and decarboxylation of benzoates to catechols, extradiol cleavage of catechol derivatives and further conversion to TCA intermediates are encoded on *xylXYZLTEGFJQKIH* operon (Figure 1.12) (Armando & Díaz, 2004).

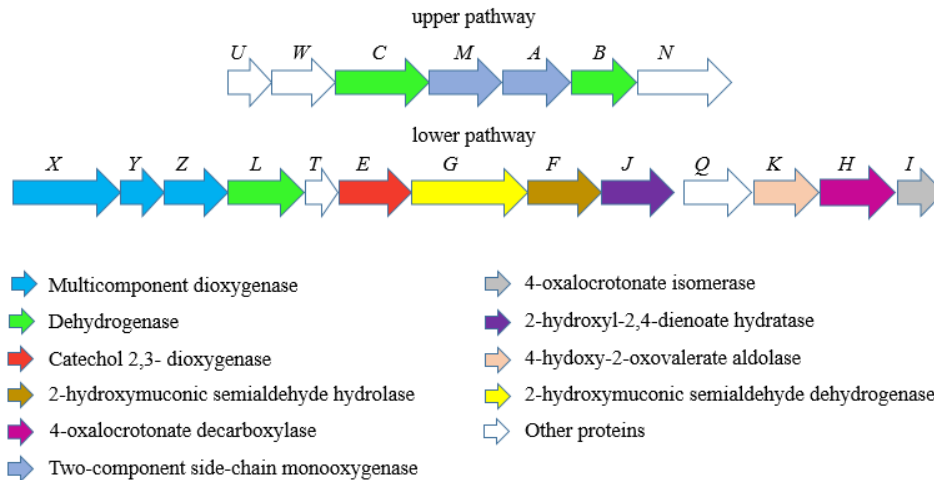


Figure 1.12 Genetic orientation and structure of *xyIUWCMABN* (upper pathway) operon encoding the initial attack enzymes, and *xyWXYZLTEGFJQKHI* (lower pathway) operon encoding the catechol *meta*-cleavage enzymes in *P. putida* mt-2 (Armando & Díaz, 2004)

1.5.1.3 Ring hydroxylating dioxygenases

Ring hydroxylating dioxygenases (RHDO) oxidizing aromatic compounds produce *cis*-dihydrodiols that are then transformed by NAD-dependent *cis*-dihydrodiol dehydrogenase into catechol derivatives (Friemann *et al.*, 2009). Ring hydroxylating dioxygenases need ferrous iron (Fe^{++}), oxygen and reduced pyridine nucleotide from NAD to catalyze the reaction (Gibson & Parales, 2000). They are soluble and multicomponent enzymes consisting two or three distinct proteins including terminal oxygenase and electron transport chains (Figure 1.13).

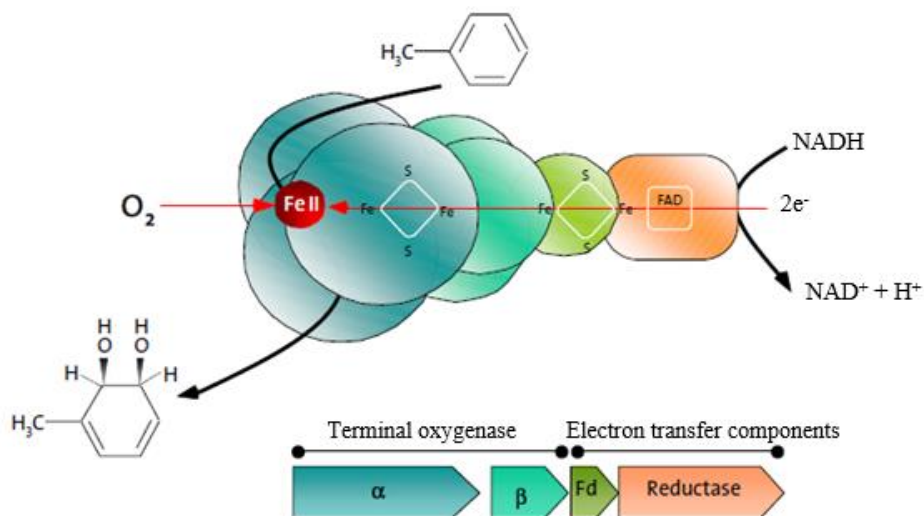


Figure 1.13 Structural organization of toluene 2,3-dioxygenase enzyme (Armando & Díaz, 2004)

In electron transport chain, the electrons are carried from NADPH to the catalytic terminal oxygenase component where the conversion of aromatics into cis-dihydrodiols takes place. Depending on the type of organisms, electron transport chains comprise either two distinct proteins; an iron-sulphur ferredoxin and a flavoprotein reductase or an entire iron-sulphur flavoprotein reductase (Figure 1.13). The terminal catalytic component is an iron-sulphur heteromer protein complex consisting large α -subunit (50 kDa) and a small β -subunit (20 kDa). Substrate binding site and non-heme mononuclear Fe^{++} center constitute α -subunit. These enzymes are also called as Rieske-type non-heme iron oxygenases because all monomers found in the structure of α -subunit and flavoprotein reductase contains Rieske-type [2Fe-2S] clusters (Parales & Ju, 2011).

In RHDO enzyme system, toluene 2,3-dioxygenase, catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and other enzymes for further reactions, are encoded in the TOD operon *todFC1C2BADEGIH* (Figure 1.14) (Armando & Díaz, 2004).

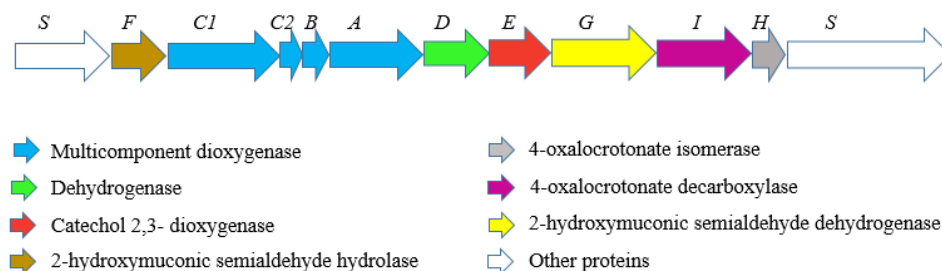


Figure 1.14 Genetic orientation and structure of *todFC1C2BADEGIH* operon in *P. putida* F1 (Armando & Díaz, 2004)

Ring hydroxylating dioxygenases have been classified several times depending on their subunit composition, function and sequence similarity of large α -subunit of terminal oxygenase component. Substrate specificity and evolutionary history of α -subunits are closely related but distinct types are evident. In the first type N, naphthalene dioxygenases are found further divided into two subfamilies (N.1 and N.2) each with various further subfamilies (Figure 1.15) (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). Biphenyl dioxygenases and simple aromatic hydrocarbon dioxygenases constitute the second type of aromatic dioxygenases including two families designated as D.1 and D.2. Similarity between the sequences of alkyl-benzene dioxygenases and biphenyl dioxygenases have been shown in previously (Furukawa *et al.*, 1993). D.1.B and D.1.C subfamilies of biphenyl dioxygenase from gram-negative organisms and D.1.A subfamily of alkyl-benzene dioxygenases found in the D.1 family. In the second family of D type aromatic dioxygenases, there are two subfamilies of biphenyl dioxygenases from gram-negative organisms (D.2.A and D.2.B) and toluene dioxygenase subfamily (D.2.C) (Figure 1.15).

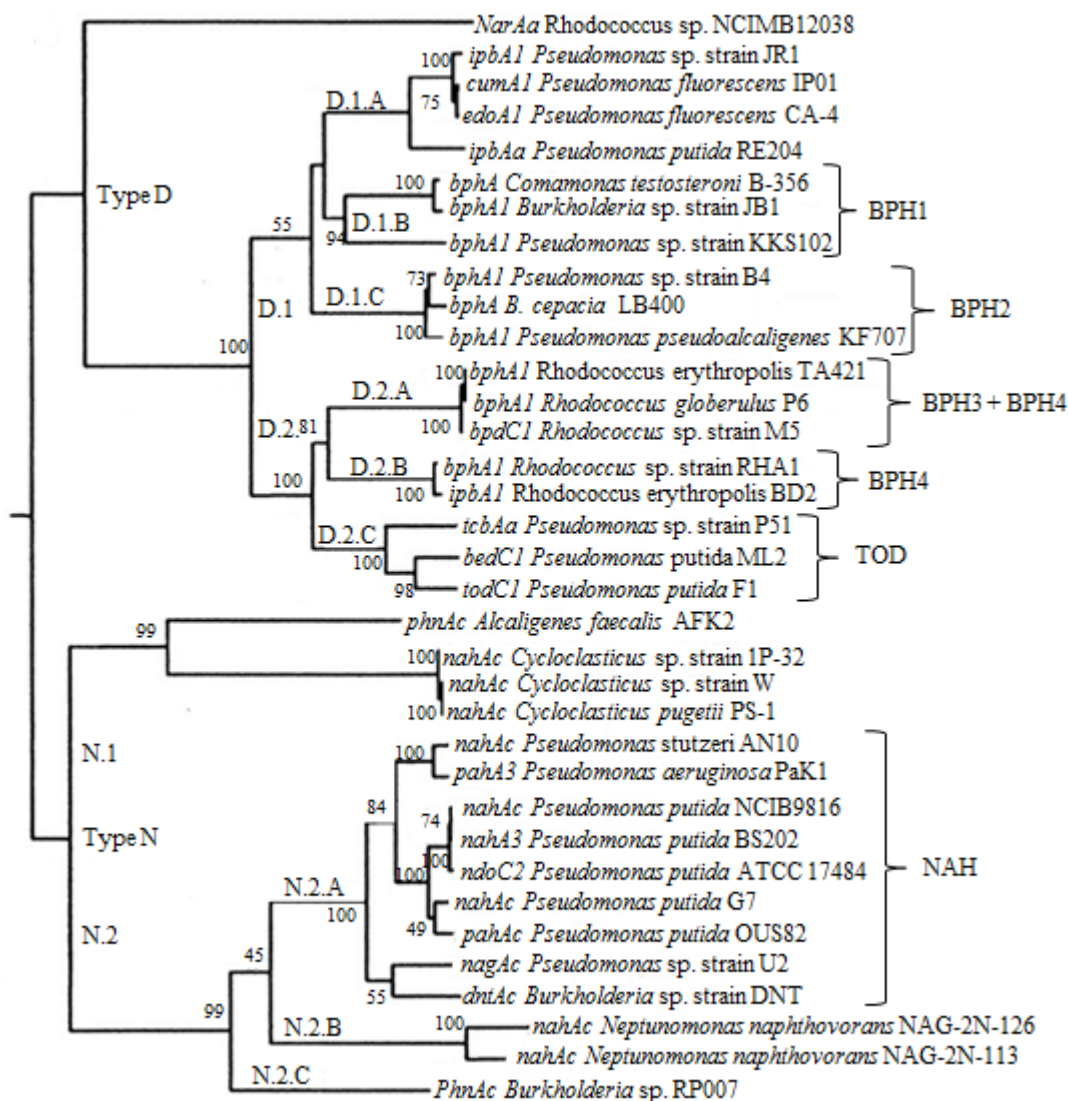


Figure 1.15 Phylogenetic analysis of catabolic genes encoding the large α -subunit of aromatic ring hydroxylating dioxygenases among different bacterial species. N and D indicate types. Numbers show families. Subfamilies are designated as A, B and C. (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003).

1.5.2 Aromatic ring cleavage enzymes in the aerobic BTEX degradation

In aerobic degradation of aromatic compounds, catechol or catechol-derived products are formed by the activity of monooxygenases or dioxygenases. These central metabolites are then further metabolized into TCA cycle by ring cleavage catechol dioxygenases (Alfreider *et al.*, 2003). Ring cleavage dioxygenases can be divided into two major group depending on the type of ring fission as intradiol (*ortho*) and extradiol (*meta*) dioxygenases (Fetzner, 2012). Both classes typically utilize non-heme iron as a cofactor. Intradiol catechol dioxygenases contain ferric iron and extradiol dioxygenases harbor ferrous iron (Vetting & Ohlendorf, 2000). While intradiol cleavage enzymes cleaves the aromatic ring between two hydroxyl group, extradiol cleavage breaks the aromatic ring next to one of the hydroxyl group (Vaillancourt *et al.*, 2006) (Figure 1.16).

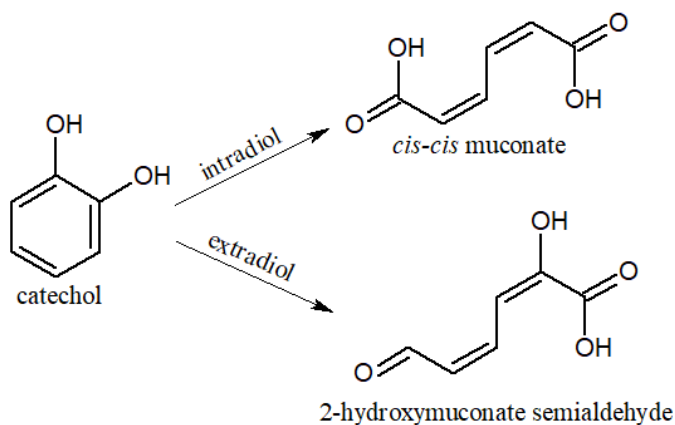


Figure 1.16 Modes of aerobic aromatic ring cleavage (modified from KEGG)

Since catechol and its derivatives are key intermediates in the aerobic degradation of all aromatic hydrocarbons, catabolic genes encoding the catechol dioxygenase enzymes are called as marker genes (Marcos *et al.*, 2009). By using marker genes, the presence of aromatic hydrocarbon degrading bacteria can be investigated in contaminated sites (Guo *et al.*, 2015). Amplification of these functional genes is generally carried out by PCR by using specific primers and various molecular techniques have been developed to

elucidate the genetic diversity among species (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006; Kasuga *et al.*, 2007)

1.5.2.1 Intradiol ring cleavage dioxygenases: *ortho* cleavage

In aerobic BTEX degradation, intradiol cleavage is catalyzed by catechol dioxygenases or protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenases (Borowski & Siegbahn, 2006). The reactions are ended up with *cis-cis* muconic acid or its derivatives (Whiteley & Lee, 2006). Catechol 1,2 dioxygenases (C12O) contain non-heme non-iron sulfur Fe^{3+} as a prosthetic group. In *Pseudomonas*, *cat* and *pca* operons are shown on (Figure 1.17). The genes *catA* encoding the C12O convert catechol into *cis-cis* muconic acid (Harwood & Parales, 1996) and further transformation to TCA cycle is catalyzed by different enzymes encoded by *pca* operon, also involved in protocatechuate degradation (Jiménez *et al.*, 2002).

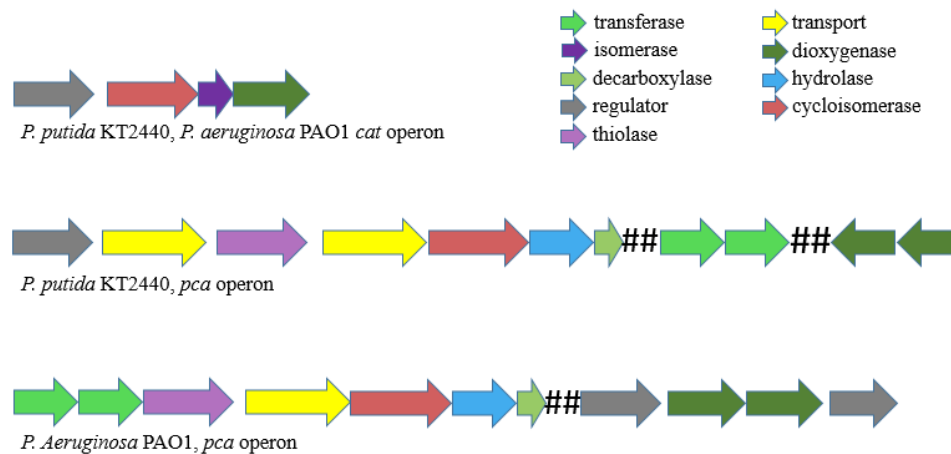


Figure 1.17 Genetic orientation of *catA* and *pca* operons in *P. putida* and *P. aeruginosa* (Jiménez *et al.*, 2002)

Depending on their substrate specificity, intradiol catechol dioxygenases can be divided into several subfamilies (Whiteley & Lee, 2006). Structure and function of various catechol 1,2 dioxygenases have been identified so far from different microorganisms

including *Sphingomonas* (Bruijninx *et al.*, 2008), *Rhodococcus*, *Arthobacter* (Miller, 2008) and *Geobacillus* (Giedraityte & Kalėdienė, 2009), *Pseudomonas* (Guzik *et al.*, 2011).

1.5.2.2 Extradiol ring cleavage dioxygenases: meta cleavage

Extradiol cleavage reactions are initiated by catechol 2,3-dioxygenases (*C23O*) and protocatechuate 2,3 or 4,5-dioxygenases and resulting in muconic semialdehydes (Wojcieszynska *et al.*, 2012). Genetic organization of the lower pathways including the *C23O* related genes were previously shown in Figure 1.12-Figure 1.8. Catechol 2,3 dioxygenases can be divided into several subfamilies; I.2.A, I.2.B and I.2.C within family I.2 and I.3.A and I.3.B within family I.3 (Eltis & Bolin, 1996). Subfamily 1.2.A commonly consists *C23O* sequences from fluorescent *Pseudomonas* bacteria while subfamily I.2.B mainly contains *C23O* sequences from *Sphingomonas* bacteria. Subfamily 1.2.C includes *C23O* genes mainly involved in phenol degradation derived from a wide variety of bacterial genus including *Ralstonia*, *Comamonas*, *Pseudomonas* and *Burkholderia*. It was previously reported that *C23O* genes belong to the subfamily I.2.A, are widely distributed in hypoxic, petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated groundwater, making them crucial in the degradation of BTEX under oxygen-limited environments. It was also observed that *Betaproteobacteria* are very common in these environments (Táncsics *et al.*, 2010). PCR primer sets for the detection of *C23O* genes belong to the subfamilies I.2.A and I.2.B have been reported in several studies (Mesarch *et al.*, 2000; Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). Family I.3 with its subfamilies I.3.A and I.3.B includes *C23O* sequences from different *Rhodococcus* and *Pseudomonas* species mainly responsible for biphenyl degradation (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006).

1.6 Intermediates produced during aerobic BTEX degradation

Mineralization of BTEX has been reported several times under aerobic conditions (Jindrova *et al.*, 2002). However, variety of pathways are considered to be responsible for an effective degradation of BTEX compounds directed by two enzymatic systems known as monooxygenases and dioxygenases (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008). Therefore,

microbial consortium is involved in many cases for complete mineralization of BTEX (Daghio *et al.*, 2015). For these reasons, deciphering the exact degradation pathways by detecting the key metabolites is needed for productive BTEX bioremediation. Different intermediates are produced during the aerobic degradation of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylenes and each pathway has identical intermediate.

Intermediates in BTEX degradation pathways can be detected by analytical techniques like capillary electrophoresis-UV array detector (Wang *et al.*, 2003), solid-phase microextraction followed by high performance liquid chromatography (González *et al.*, 2017) and gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (Choi *et al.*, 2013).

1.6.1 Intermediates produced during aerobic benzene degradation

Aerobic benzene degradation can be catalyzed by monooxygenases and dioxygenases (Aburto *et al.*, 2009). In monooxygenation, one oxygen atom is incorporated into aromatic ring and phenol is produced as intermediate. As for dioxygenation, two oxygen atom is added to benzene ring and cis-dihydrobenzenediol is formed (Hendrickx, *et al.*, 2006). Regardless of type of first oxidation reactions, catechol is produced in all degradation pathways for benzene degradation (Marcos *et al.*, 2009). Catechol is then further mineralized into TCA cycle by the activity of catechol dioxygenases (Figure 1.18) (Arengi *et al.*, 2001).

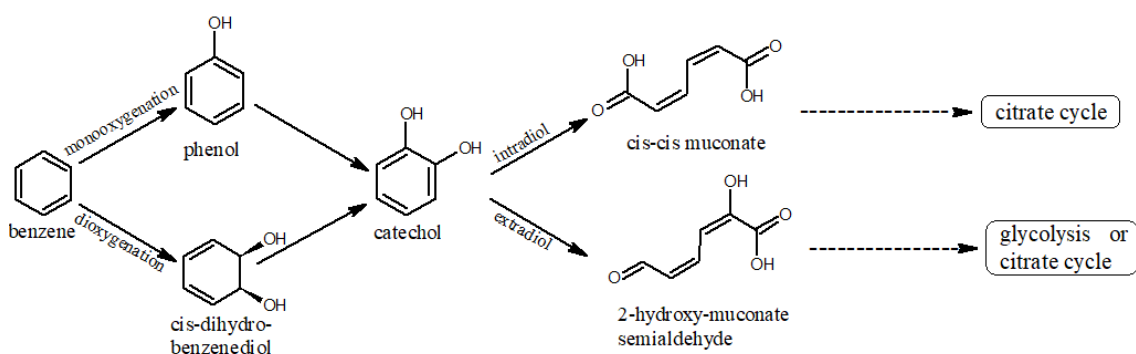


Figure 1.18 Routes of aerobic benzene degradation (modified from KEGG)

1.6.2 Intermediates produced during aerobic toluene degradation

In aerobic toluene degradation three different enzyme systems take place (Parales *et al.*, 2008). Direct oxidation of the ring is catalyzed by monooxygenases and dioxygenases. While 2-, 3-, 4-cresol are produced by monooxygenase activity, toluene dihydrodiol is formed by dioxygenase activity (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). Catechol or catechol derivatives are produced as central intermediates and ring fission is occurred as intradiol or extradiol cleavage (Figure 1.19) (Tuan *et al.*, 2011)

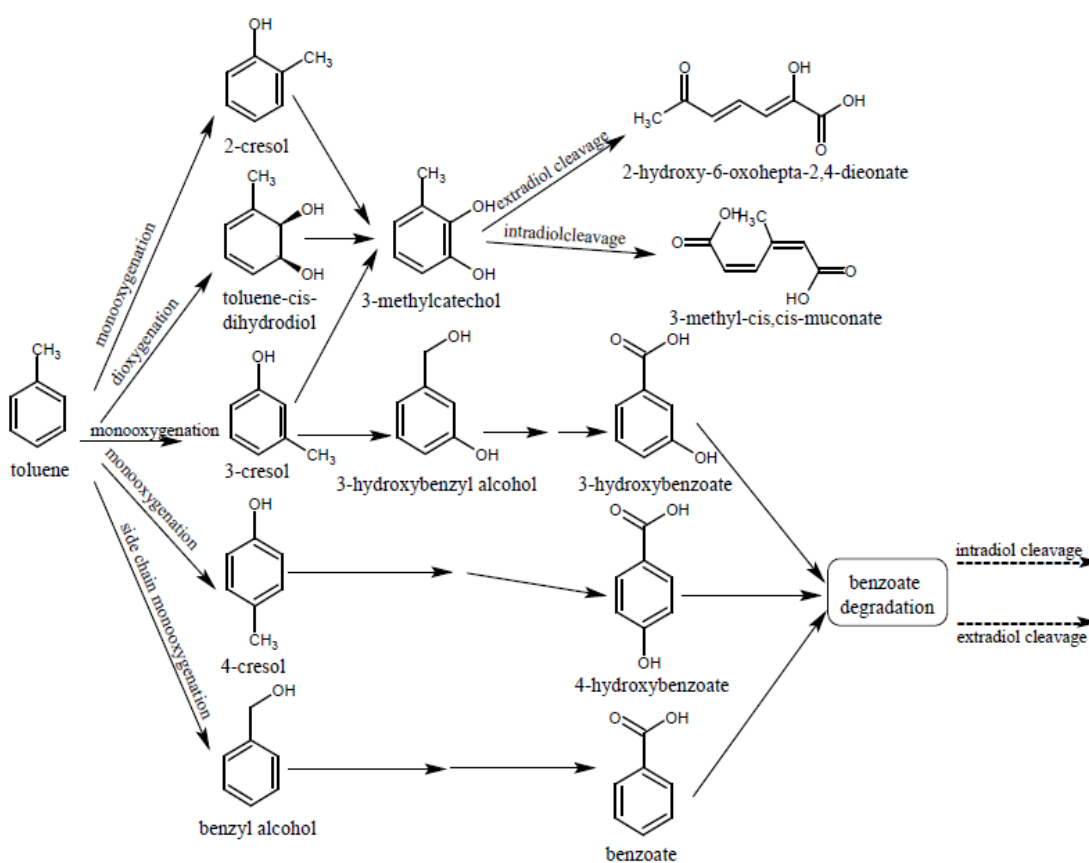


Figure 1.19 Routes of aerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG)

1.6.3 Intermediates produced during aerobic ethylbenzene degradation

In the initial step of aerobic ethylbenzene degradation, there are two routes catalyzed by monooxygenases and dioxygenases (Ma *et al.*, 2007). In the monooxygenase system, styrene is formed as first intermediate. After that reaction is divided into two

pathways(Choi *et al.*, 2013). On the other hand, as a product of dioxygenase activity, cis-1,2-dihydroxy-2,3-dihydroethylbenzene is formed (Figure 1.20). Catechol derivatives are cleaved as intradiol or extradiol by the activity of catechol dioxygenases (Sei *et al.*, 1999).

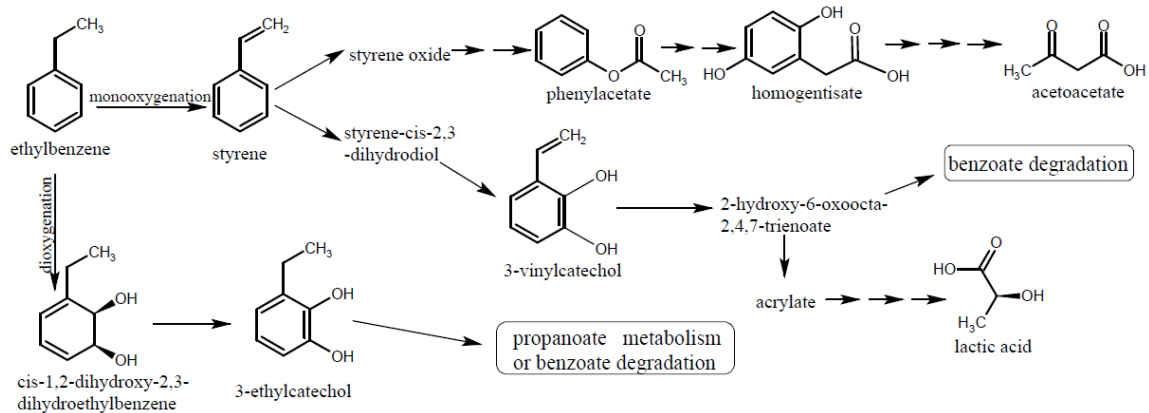


Figure 1.20 Routes of aerobic ethylbenzene degradation (modified from KEGG)

1.6.4 Intermediates produced during aerobic xylene degradation

Unlike benzene, toluene and ethylbenzene degradation, xylene degradation is catalyzed by different enzyme system (Barbieri *et al.*, 1993). Toluene/xylene monooxygenase enzyme system incorporate oxygen atom into one of the methyl group bound to aromatic ring (Shim & Wood, 2000). Firstly, methyl benzyl alcohols are formed. Then they are transformed to benzoates and benzaldehydes subsequently (Siani *et al.*, 2006). Methylcatechols are formed as central intermediate (Figure 1.21).

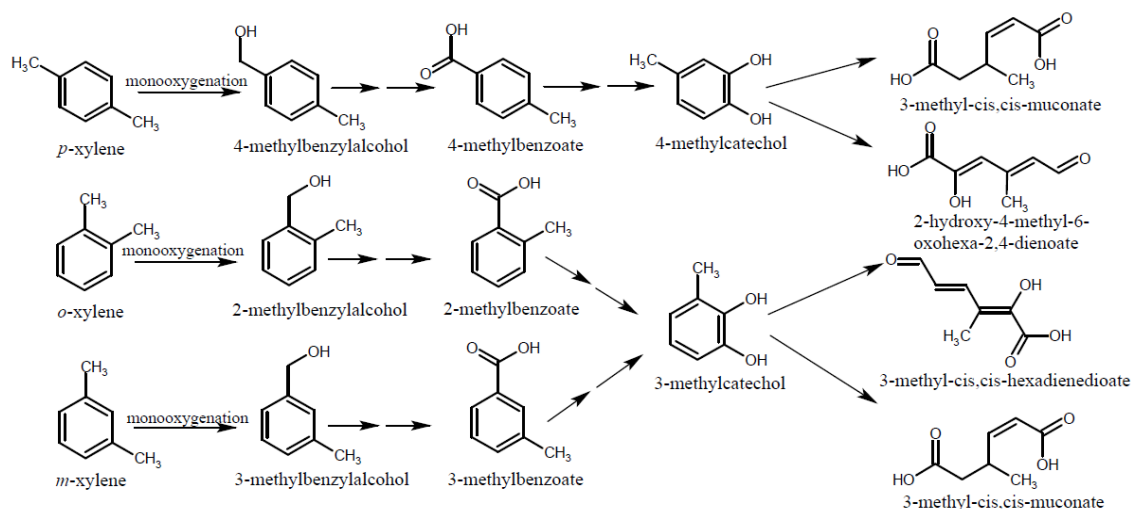


Figure 1.21 Routes of aerobic xylene degradation (modified from KEGG)

1.7 Aim of the study

Aromatic hydrocarbons are common groundwater and soil contaminants due to their frequent usage in industrial processes and leakages of petroleum during drilling, transportation and storage. Among them, monoaromatic hydrocarbons also known as BTEX are relatively water soluble compared to other hydrocarbons allowing them to transfer far away from contaminated sites. Bioremediation seems to be as more advantageous for removing of BTEX from environment due to its cost effectiveness. Biodegradation of BTEX has been well studied and many bacteria have been found as BTEX degraders. However, distribution of the catabolic genes and exact metabolic pathways used during the aerobic degradation of individual BTEX compounds are still unclear. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to evaluate individual BTEX compounds degradation potential of the indigenous bacteria of petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated surface water and to predict the pathways used during degradation.

CHAPTER 2

MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Culture media

Culture mediums used in the study are described below:

2.1.1 Nutrient broth

Nutrient Broth (NB) (Merck, Germany) was prepared by weighing 8 g for 1 L distilled water. The suspension was mixed and dissolved in appropriate flasks. The solution was sterilized in autoclave at 121°C for 15 min. Sterilized medium was stored at 4°C and routinely used for bacterial growth for further experiments.

2.1.2 Nutrient agar

Nutrient Agar (NA) (Merck, Germany) was prepared by weighing 20 g of medium in 1 L distilled water. NA powder was dissolved completely by boiling and sterilized in autoclave at 121°C for 15 min. After autoclaving and cooling down, NA medium was poured onto petri dishes.

2.1.3 Bushnell Haas broth

Bushnell Haas Broth (BHB) was prepared according to the protocol as follows; 0.2 g magnesium sulfate, 0.02 g calcium chloride, 1 g monopotassium phosphate, 1 g dipotassium phosphate, 1 g ammonium nitrate, 0.05 g ferric chloride in 1 L distilled water (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). Ingredients were dissolved completely by heating and pH was adjusted to 7.0. The medium then was sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C for 15 min. The BHB medium was routinely used for degradation tests containing BTEX as an only source of carbon.

2.2 Study area and sample collection

Bacterial isolates used in the study were previously isolated from Kızılırmak River in Kırıkkale province from following coordinates; 39°22'16.39"N, 33°26'49.26"E, 890 m to 39°57'22.98"N, 33°25'04.35"E, 679 m in close vicinity to a petrol refinery. 22 bacteria were identified by 16S rRNA sequencing method (Table 2.1) and their hydrocarbon degradation abilities were demonstrated by Onur *et al.* 2015.

Table 2.1 Bacterial isolates used in the study

Bacterial strains	EMBL accession number	References
<i>Pseudomonas plecoglossicida</i> Ag10	KJ395363	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Raoultella planticola</i> Ag11	KJ395359	Koc <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Al11	KJ395360	Yilmaz <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Ba01	KJ395371	Yilmaz <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Stenotrophomonas rhizophila</i> Ba11	KJ395362	Yilmaz <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Delftia acidovorans</i> Cd11	KJ209817	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Staphylococcus warneri</i> Co11	KJ395373	Yilmaz <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> Cr07	KJ395365	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Cu12	KJ395364	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	KJ395366	Akbulut <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg10	KJ395377	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg11	KJ395378	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Li12	KJ395370	Yilmaz <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Serratia nematodiphila</i> Mn11	KJ395369	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Mn12	KJ395367	Akbulut <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Comamonas testosteroni</i> Ni11	KJ395372	Icgen & Yilmaz, 2014
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> Pb06	KJ395380	Aktan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Acinetobacter johnsonii</i> Sb01	KJ395376	Akbulut <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> Sn11	KJ395361	Cerit <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i> Sr02	KJ395374	Koc <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i> Sr11	KJ395375	Koc <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Zn01	KJ395368	Akbulut <i>et al.</i> , 2014

Total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) contamination of Kırıkkale-Kızılırmak river were determined previously by Gas Chromatography in Petroleum Research Center at Middle East Technical University (Onur *et al.*, 2015).

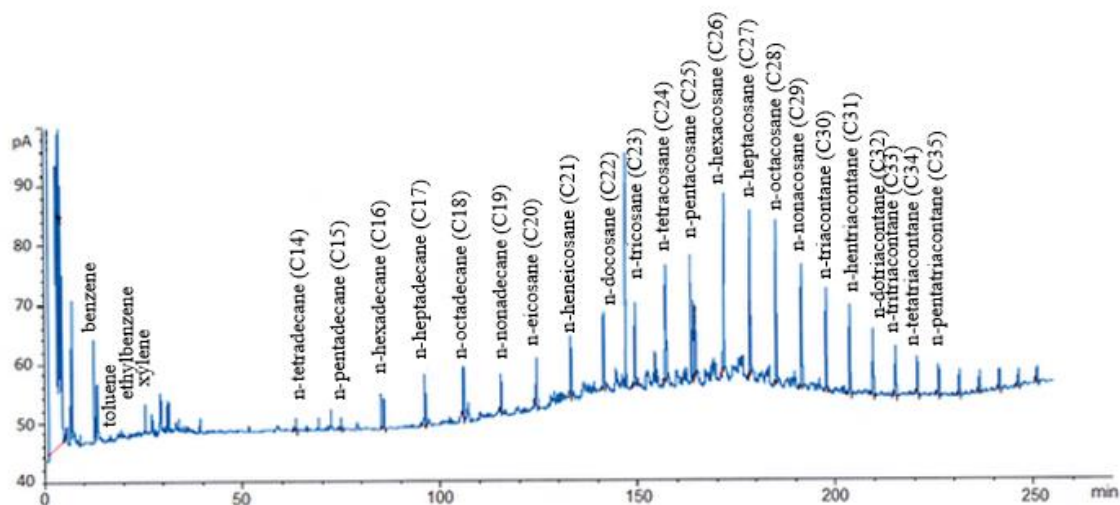


Figure 2.1 GC based total hydrocarbon profiles of Kırıkkale-Kızılırmak river water (Onur *et al.*, 2015)

2.3 Selection of BTEX-degrading bacteria

Pre-selection of BTEX degraders was carried out as described in the following procedure (Singh & Celin, 2010) Overnight grown bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 10.000 rpm for 5 min and cell pellets were washed two times with BHB medium to remove NB medium completely. Washed cell pellets were resuspended in BHB medium to obtain approximately 10^8 cell/mL 100 μ L resuspended cells were inoculated into 100 mL flasks that contain 20 mL BHB medium and 1 % (v/v) benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and 0.5 % xylene (Sigma Aldrich, Germany) separately as a sole source of carbon. Three weeks incubation was performed in aerobic conditions at 25°C in orbital shaker at 150 rpm. At the end of incubation, by observing the turbidity of medium bacterial growth was investigated (Figure 2.2).

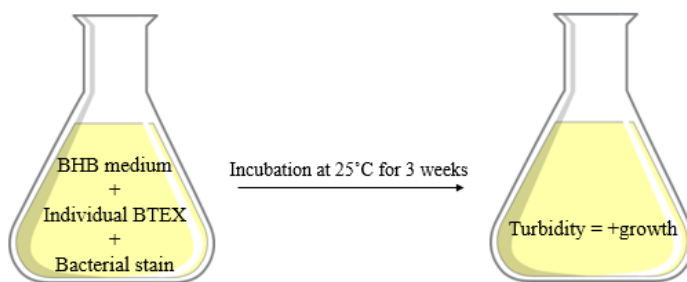


Figure 2.2 Experimental setup for selection of BTEX degraders

2.4 Determination of emulsification indices of bacterial isolates

The emulsification index of each strain was determined by following the protocol developed by Desai & Banat (1997). Each strain was grown in 15 ml eppendorf tubes containing NB medium, for 7 days at 30-37°C. After that the cells were separated by centrifugation at 6000 rpm for 20 min. Supernatants including the biosurfactants were taken. For each strain, 1 ml supernatant suspension and 1 mL benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene were added separately as carbon source into one cylindrical tube and mixed by vortexing vigorously for 2 min and incubated 24 hours at room temperature. After incubation was completed, the emulsification index was measured by the formula as indicated below.

$$E24(\%) = \frac{\text{Height of emulsified layer}}{\text{Total height of solution}} \times 100$$

2.5 Analysis of aerobic BTEX degradation rates of bacterial isolates

Head Space Gas Chromatography and Mass Spectrometry (HS-GC/MS) system were used at Petroleum Research Center in Middle East Technical University to precisely determine the BTEX degradation rates of bacterial strains which are previously determined as potential BTEX degraders. Following protocol was used with some modifications (Choi *et al.*, 2013) Prior to analysis, bacteria, were grown in NB medium for overnight. After incubation bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation. Cell pellets were washed twice by BHB medium and cell concentration were adjusted to 10^8 cell/mL and inoculated as 100 μ L into 40 mL serum bottles containing BHB medium

and 1 % (v/v) benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and 0.5 % xylene (Sigma Aldrich, Germany) separately as only source of carbon in 5 mL total volume. Samples were incubated at 25°C, 150 rpm for three weeks in aerobic conditions. After incubation, samples were transferred to headspace vials and residual BTEX were analyzed by using a QP2020 GCMS HS-20 (Shimadzu Corporation, Japan) rtx-624 column with 60 m x 0.25 mm x 1.4 µm dimensions (Figure 2.3). Helium was used as carrier gas. The temperature of the GC oven was adjusted to rise from 45°C to 90°C at 8°C/min after which it was increased to 220°C at 6°C/min and held 5 min. Temperature of the sample line and transfer line was 110°C. Equilibration time was 30 min.

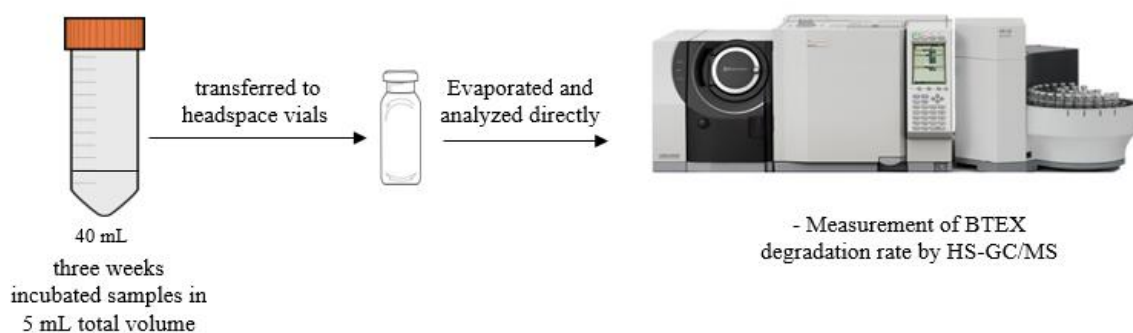


Figure 2.3 Experimental setup for the measurement of BTEX degradation

2.6 Analysis of the aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of the bacterial isolates

In order to investigate degradation pathways used by bacterial isolates, some molecular biological and biochemical tests were performed.

2.6.1 Total DNA extraction

Total DNA extraction for 22 bacterial isolates was done by following protocol developed by (Eltis & Bolin, 1996) with some modifications. Buffers and solutions used in the total DNA extraction are given below:

- Resuspension buffer; 50 mM glucose, 25 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM EDTA, (pH:8)
- Lysis solution; 0.2 N NaOH, 1% (mg mL⁻¹) sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)
- Neutralization solution; 3 M potassium acetate (pH:4.8)
- 60 µL of Proteinase K (20 mg mL⁻¹) (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany)
- Phenol (saturated with 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH:8), chloroform (equal volume)
- Lysozyme (10 mg mL⁻¹ in 10 mM Tris-Cl, pH:8)
- RNase (Thermo Fisher, USA)
- 70% Ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany)
- Absolute isopropanol (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany)

1 mL overnight grown cultures in NB were transferred into 1.5 mL eppendorf tubes and cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8.000 rpm for 5 min. Supernatants were removed and cell pellets were resuspended in 200 µL resuspension buffer by pipetting gently. After that 400 µL lysis solution were added. For Gram-positive bacteria, 5 µL lysozyme (10 mg mL⁻¹) were added into suspension. Eppendorf tubes were incubated at 37°C for 1-3 h until complete lysis was observed. RNase were added with a final concentration of 1 mg mL⁻¹ to remove total RNA before DNA separation. 150 µL neutralization buffer were added onto solution and incubated 5 min at room temperature. After centrifugation at 13.000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C the supernatant containing the genomic and plasmid DNA was transferred to fresh eppendorf tubes. An equal volume of phenol/chloroform was added into suspension and mixed well but gently by pipetting. Centrifugation was applied at 13.000 rpm for 10 min. Two distinct layer was observed separated by thin white layer that contain proteins. Upper aqueous phase containing DNA was harvested carefully by micropipette and transferred to fresh eppendorf tubes. Phenol/chloroform step was repeated until white interphase was disappeared. To remove remaining phenol in solution, an equal volume of chloroform was added and centrifuged at 13.000 rpm for 10 min. Upper layer was collected by micropipette and transferred to fresh eppendorf tubes. In order to precipitate DNA 6:10 volume of pure isopropanol was added into solution and mixed very gently until white precipitate was visible. In some cases, tubes were incubated at -20°C to improve the precipitation yield. After that tubes were centrifuged at 13.000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C. Supernatants were discarded carefully by using micropipette. DNA pellets were washed by 300 µL 70% ethanol and

centrifuged at 13.000 rpm for 10 min at 15°C. Supernatants were removed and tubes were exposed to air drying at 37°C to remove ethanol completely. After air dry, DNA was resuspended in 100-200 µL TE buffer. Total DNA extracted from 22 bacterial isolates was run on 1% agarose gel for 1 hour at 80V. The concentration and purity of isolated DNA was measured by using Colibri Microvolume Spectrophotometer (Titertek Berthold, Germany). The samples were stored at -20°C and used routinely as template in the PCR-detection of catabolic genes (Figure 2.4).

2.6.2 PCR analysis of catabolic genes in aerobic BTEX degradation

PCR analysis was carried out to amplify the genes encoding the aerobic BTEX degradation enzymes in bacterial isolates. The primers used in the study and their target genes are represented in Table 2.2. Primers were synthesized by Alpha DNA, Canada. First of all, optimization was done for each primer by changing the reference annealing temperature and MgCl₂ concentration (Table 2.2). After that optimized conditions were applied to all bacterial isolates. PCR was performed in a 50 µL reaction mixture containing 10 ng template DNA, 10 pmol of forward and reverse primers 200 µM of each dNTPs and 5 mL of 10x PCR buffer and MgCl₂ and 0.2 µL *Taq* DNA polymerase (NEB, USA). Amplifications were performed in Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad T-100, USA) and PCR temperature/time profile used for all primers was an initial denaturation of 5 min at 95 °C followed by 30 cycles of denaturation for 1 min at 94 °C, annealing for 1 min at the optimized temperature and elongation for 1 min at 68 °C. The last step was final extension for 5 min at 68 °C. The PCR products were run on 1% agarose gel for 1 hour at 80 V and then stained with ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. 100 bp DNA ladder (NEB, USA) was used as size marker and standard curves for each agarose gel picture were drawn to estimate the molecular weight of PCR amplicons.

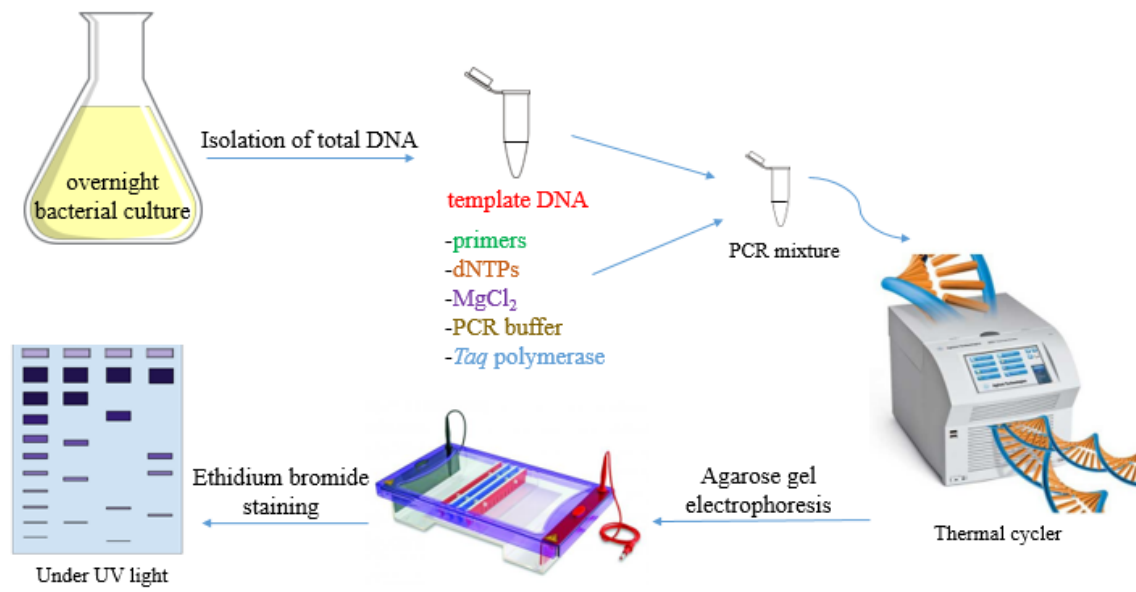


Figure 2.4 Experimental flow in PCR-detection of catabolic genes

Table 2.2 PCR primers and the conditions used in the study

	Target sequence	Substrates	Primer sequence (F-R) (5'→3')	Amplicon size (bp)	Annealing temperature (°C)	MgCl ₂ (mM)	References
<i>tbmD</i>	Subfamily 1 of α-subunits of hydroxylase component of monooxygenases	B, T, E	GCCTGACCATGGATGC(C/G)TACTGG CGCCAGAACCCTTGT(C/A/G)(A/G)TCCA	640	65.5	2	Hendrickx <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>tmoA</i>	Subfamily 2 of α-subunits of hydroxylase component of monooxygenases	B, T	CGAAACC GGCTT(C/T)ACCAA(C/T)ATG ACCGGGATATTT(C/T)TCTTC(C/G)AGCCA	505	61.5	2	Hendrickx <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>todC1</i>	Subfamilies D.1.B+D.1.C+ D.2.A+D.2.B+D.2.C of α-subunits of Type D iron-sulfur aromatic dioxygenases	B, T, E	CAGTGCCGCCA(C/T)CGTGG(C/T)ATG GCCACTTCCATG(C/T)CC(A/G)CCCCA	510	66	2	Hendrickx <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>xylA</i>	Electron transfer component of two-component side chain monooxygenases	T, X	CCAGGTGGAATTTTCAGTGGTTGG AATTAAC TCGAAGCGCCACCCCA	291	64	2	Hendrickx <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>tol</i>	Subfamily 5 of hydroxylase component of two-component side chain monooxygenases	T, X	TGAGGCTGAACTTTACGTAGA CTCACCTGGAGTTGCGTAC	475	55	2	Baldwin <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>nahAc</i>	Naphthalene dioxygenase	T, E	CAAAA(A/G)CACCTGATT(C/T)ATGG A(C/T)(A/G)CG(A/G)G(C/G)GACTTCTTTCAA	377	47	2.5	Baldwin <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>phhN</i>	Subfamily 1 of α-subunits of hydroxylase component of monooxygenases	B, T	GTGCTGAC(C/G)AA(C/T)CTG(C/T)TGTC CGCCAGAACCA(C/T)TT(A/G)TC	206	49	4	Baldwin <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>C23O-I</i>	Subfamily I.2.C of catechol extradiol dioxygenases	BTEX	CTGGATCATGCCCTGTTGATG CCACAGCTTGCTTCACTCCA	216	55	2	Mesarch <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>C23O-II</i>	Subfamily I.2.A of catechol extradiol dioxygenases	BTEX	CCGCCGACCTGATC(A/T)(C/G)CATG TCAGGTCA(G/T)CACGGTCA(G/T)GA	242	61.5	2	Hendrickx <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>catA</i>	Catechol 1,2 dioxygenase	BTEX	GCCAACGTCGACGTCTGGCA CGCCTTCAAAGTTGATCTGCGTGGT	282	57	2	Mesarch <i>et al.</i> , 2000

B, benzene; T, toluene; E, ethylbenzene; X, xylene; F, forward; R, reverse

2.6.3 Sequencing of PCR amplicons

The PCR amplicons were sequenced in one way with corresponding primers by using 3730x1 DNA synthesizer (Applied Biosystems, USA). Then sequences were validated and multiple sequence alignment was performed by using the NCBI Basic Local Alignment Search Tool BLASTn software. The phylogenetic tree with 1000 bootstrap replicates was constructed by Neighbor-Joining method in Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) program version 7.

2.6.4 Detection of intermediates during BTEX degradation

GC/MS analysis was carried out at Petroleum Research Center in Middle East Technical University to detect the key intermediates produced during BTEX degradation. The following protocol developed by Choi *et al.* (2013) was applied with some modifications. Bacterial isolates showing high degradation rates were selected for this analysis. These bacterial isolates were grown in NB for overnight. After incubation, bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation. Cell pellets were washed twice by BHB medium and cell concentration were adjusted to 10^8 cell mL^{-1} and inoculated as 100 μL into 40 mL serum bottles containing BHB medium and 1% (v/v) benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and 0.5% xylene separately as only source of carbon in 5 mL total volume. Samples were incubated at 25°C, 100 rpm for two weeks in aerobic conditions. After incubation, prior to GC/MS analysis intermediate products were extracted. For this purpose, the pH of the medium was adjusted to 3 and hydrocarbons were transferred to organic phase by using 5 mL ethyl acetate repeating two times and then dried over with anhydrous Na_2SO_4 . Anhydrous samples were concentrated with evaporator to a volume of 500 μL . After that, extracts were derivatized with 25 μL bis (trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetimide, trimethylchlorosilane (BSTFA + TMCS) (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) and incubated at 70°C in water bath for 20 min. Samples were then analyzed using QP2020 GC/MS (Shimadzu Corporation, Japan) rtx-5MS column with 30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μL dimensions (Figure 2.5). Helium was used as carrier gas. The temperature of the GC oven was programmed to increase from 70 °C to 260°C at 8 °C/min and held 5 min; increased to 300 °C at 10°C/min and held 5 min. Total analysis time was 37 min.

Flow rate was 1.2 mL/min. Injection temperature and volume was 250°C and 1 μ L, respectively. Chromatograms were interpreted by using NIST 17 mass spectral library and intermediates were determined.

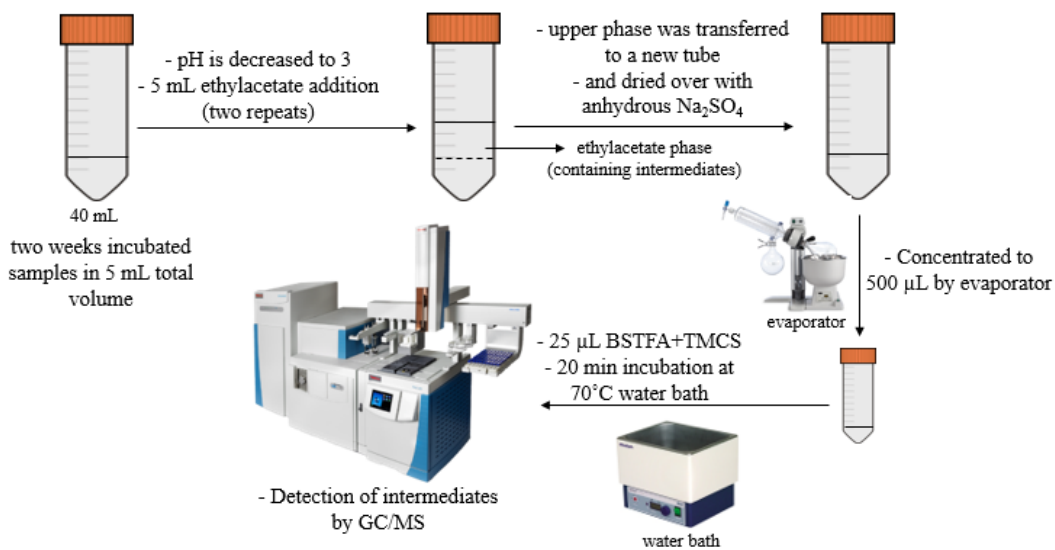


Figure 2.5 Experimental setup for the detection of intermediates in BTEX degradation

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Selection of BTEX-degrading bacteria

BTEX-degrading bacteria are widely distributed in diverse environments contaminated with petroleum hydrocarbons (Chandra *et al.*, 2013). To confirm BTEX degradation, bacterial isolates can be tested in the laboratory by growing them in BHB or MSM medium containing BTEX as sole sources of carbon (Singh & Celin, 2010). A total 22 hydrocarbon degrading bacterial strains previously isolated from Kırıkkale-Kızılırmak river by Içgen & Yılmaz (2014) were further tested for their BTEX degradation ability in this study. Except for *E. faecalis* Cr07, *E. faecalis* Pb06 and *M. luteus* Sr02, the rest of 19 bacterial strains were determined as the degrader of at least one of the BTEX compounds (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Selection of BTEX degraders

Bacterial strains	BTEX degradation profiles			
	benzene	toluene	ethylbenzene	xylene
<i>Pseudomonas plecoglossicida</i> Ag10	-	+	-	-
<i>Raoultella planticola</i> Ag11	+	+	+	-
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Al11	-	+	-	-
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Ba01	+	+	+	-
<i>Stenotrophomonas rhizophila</i> Ba11	+	+	+	-
<i>Delftia acidovorans</i> Cd11	-	-	+	+
<i>Staphylococcus warneri</i> Co11	+	-	-	-
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> Cr07	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Cu12	+	-	+	+
<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	-	+	+	+
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg10	+	+	-	+
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg11	-	-	+	+
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Li12	-	+	-	-
<i>Serratia nematodiphila</i> Mn11	+	+	+	-
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Mn12	+	+	+	-
<i>Comamonas testosteroni</i> Ni11	-	+	-	-
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> Pb06	-	-	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter johnsonii</i> Sb01	-	+	+	+
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> Sn11	-	+	-	-
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i> Sr02	-	-	-	-
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i> Sr11	+	+	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Zn01	-	+	-	-

+, growth; -, no growth

BTEX degradation was shown in the genus of *Pseudomonas*, *Raoultella*, *Staphylococcus*, *Senotrophomonas*, *Delftia*, *Acinetobacter*, *Serratia*, *Comamonas*, *Pantoea* and *Micrococcus* and no bacterial strain was found to degrade all BTEX compounds. Many BTEX-degrading bacteria, including different members of the genus have been isolated from diverse aerobic and anaerobic environments (Ghosal *et al.*, 2016) however, so far, there has been no evidence for the degradation of the BTEX compounds by the species of *Raoultella*, *Pantoea* and *Micrococcus* as revealed in this study.

3.2 Determination of emulsification (E₂₄%) indices

In biodegradation, bioavailability of the hydrocarbons is considered as a key limiting factor due to their low aqueous solubility and high hydrophobicity (Olajire & Essien, 2014). To enhance the bioavailability of hydrocarbons, microorganisms produce a

dispersing agent called as biosurfactant (Ron & Rosenberg, 2002). Emulsification index (E₂₄) test is performed to infer the dispersing activity of biosurfactants (Peele *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, BTEX degraders found in this study were further characterized for their E₂₄% indices. The bacterial strains showed E₂₄% activity in between 10 and 67 % for benzene, 8 and 75 % for toluene, 7 and 67 % for ethylbenzene and 21 and 83 % for xylene (Figure 3.1).

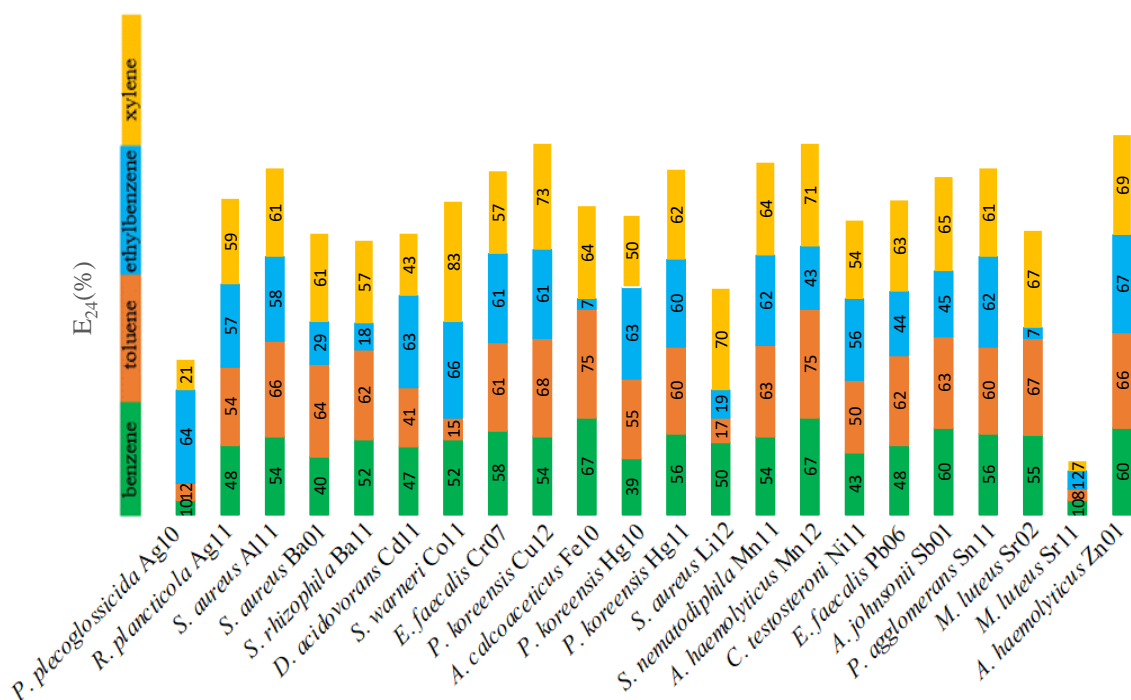


Figure 3.1 E₂₄ (%) indices of the bacterial strains

13 strains for benzene and ethylbenzene, 16 strains for toluene and 20 strains for xylene showed more than 50% emulsification activity. Wide variety of bacteria like *Acinetobacter*, *Burkholderia*, *Actinomycetes*, *Bacillus*, *Aeromonas* and *Pseudomonas* have been isolated and defined as biosurfactant producer (Koshlaf & Ball, 2017). Rodríguez *et al.*, (2009) indicated that bacteria showing emulsification indices higher than 50% have been designated as potential biosurfactant producers. Therefore, E₂₄% activity of bacteria suggested to be taken into account for efficient bioremediation

process (Varjani, 2017). However, the primary selection of BTEX compounds degraders test and E24% results revealed many contradictions between degradation and emulsification activities. For example, *E. faecalis* which was determined as non-degrader for BTEX, showed higher than 50% emulsification index for each individual BTEX compound. Moreover, the highest E24% index for xylene was measured in *S. warneri* Co11 with the rate of 83% but xylene degradation was not observed in this strain. These results indicated that E24% indices tests alone were not sufficient to get information about the BTEX degradation potential of the bacteria.

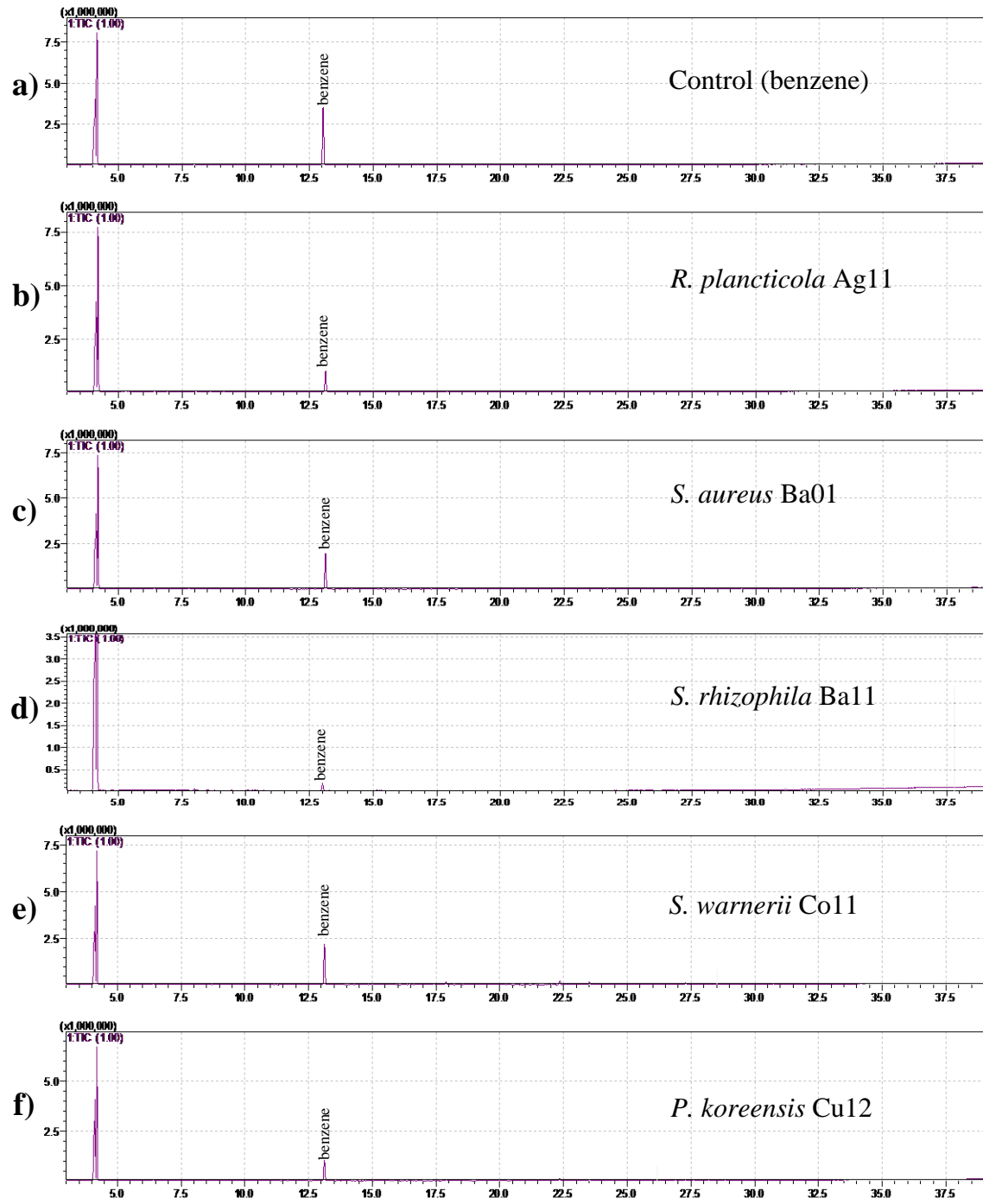
3.3 Analysis of aerobic BTEX degradation abilities of bacterial strains

Monitoring of BTEX degradation can be carried out by analytical methods like GC and GC/MS. BTEX-degraders previously selected by preliminary tests were further analyzed by HS-GC/MS to determine the BTEX degradation abilities. Raw data of HS-GC/MS analyses are given in Appendix A.

Benzene degradation was measured by HS-GC/MS in 7 benzene degraders namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *S. warneri* Co11, *P. koreensis* Cu12, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 and *M. luteus* Sr11. The initial amount of benzene was 8.12 mg/mL in each test tube After 21 days of incubation, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 removed 100% of benzene whereas *S. rhizophila* Ba11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 degraded 95% of benzene (Figure 3.2-3.3-3.10). Many bacteria have been demonstrated having the ability to degrade benzene so far (Nicholson & Fathepure, 2005; Padhi & Gokhale, 2017). However, benzene degradation by *S. nematodiphila* and *R. plancticola* was shown for the first time in this study with 100 and 75% degradation, respectively. In addition, there is no study in the literature demonstrating benzene degradation by *S. rhizophila* Ba11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 as high as 95%.



Figure 3.2 Benzene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses



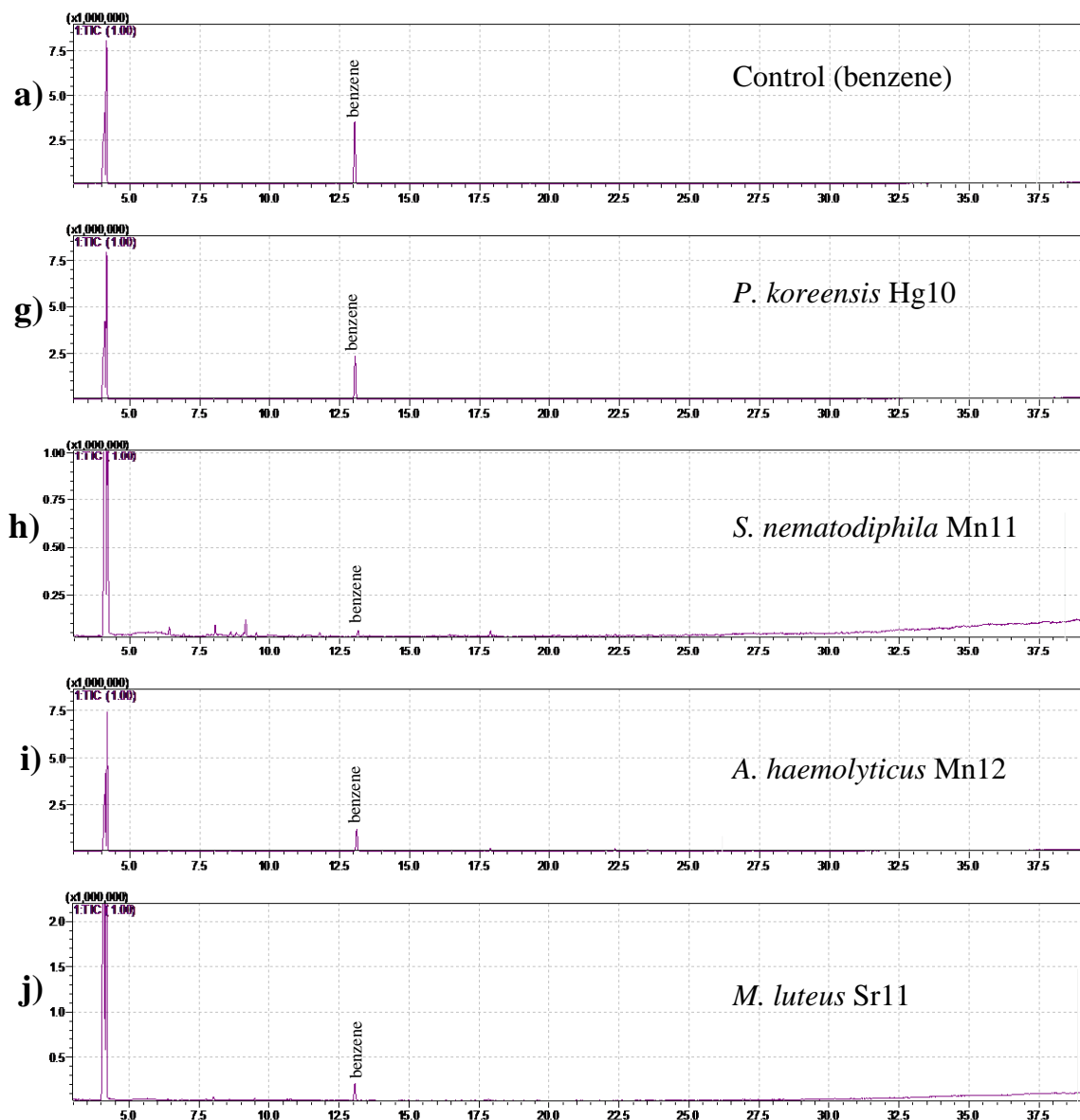


Figure 3.3 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of benzene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), incubation with *R. plancticola* Ag11 (b), *S. aureus* Ba01 (c), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (d), *S. warnerii* Co11 (e), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (f), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (g), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (h), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (i), *M. luteus* Sr11 (j). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.

Toluene is used as a model hydrocarbon in BTEX biodegradation studies due to its chemical properties (Armando & Díaz, 2004). Therefore, variety of bacteria have been isolated and defined as toluene degraders (Choi *et al.*, 2013). By preliminary degradation tests in this study, 16 potential toluene degraders namely *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10, *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Al11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *S. warneri* Co11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *S. aureus* Li12, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12, *C. testosteroni* Ni11, *A. johnsonii* Sb01, *P. agglomerans* Sn11, *M. luteus* Sr11, *A. haemolyticus* Zn01 made toluene most prominent hydrocarbon within other BTEX compounds. Degradation of toluene was measured by HS-GC/MS and degradation rates reached up to 100 % (Figure 3.4-3.5-3.10). The initial amount of toluene was 5.26 mg/mL in each test tube. The most efficient bacterial strains were *S. aureus* Ba01, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *P. koreensis* Hg10 removed 100 % of toluene and *M. luteus* Sr11 degraded 99% of toluene. Toluene degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11, *C. testosteroni* Ni11 and *P. agglomerans* Sb01 were also demonstrated for the first time in this study.

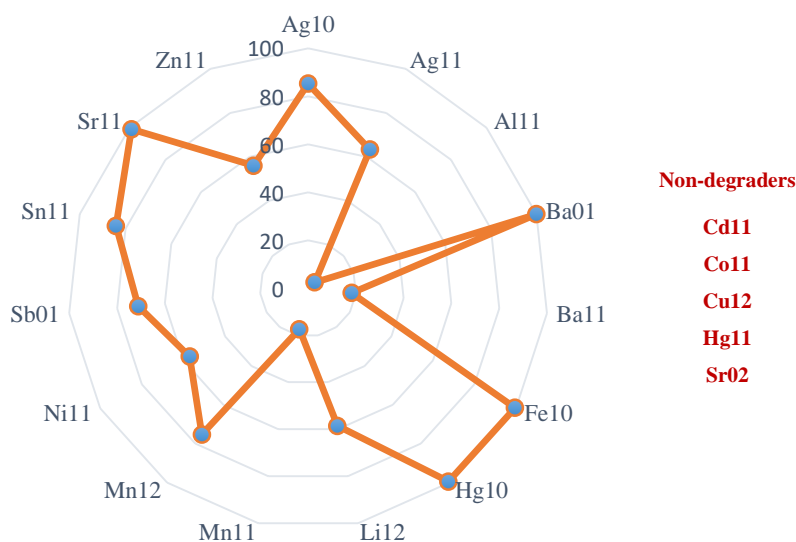
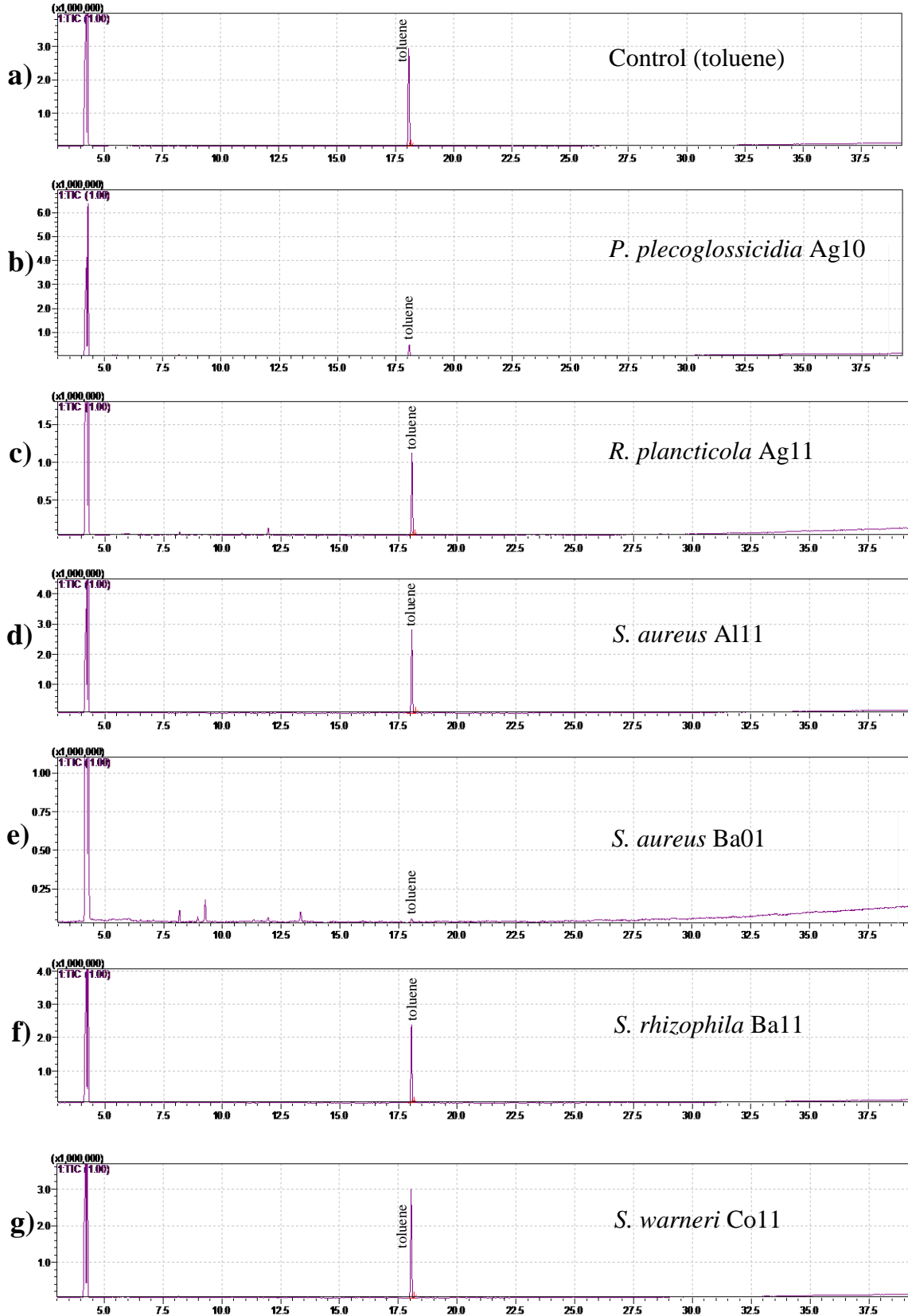
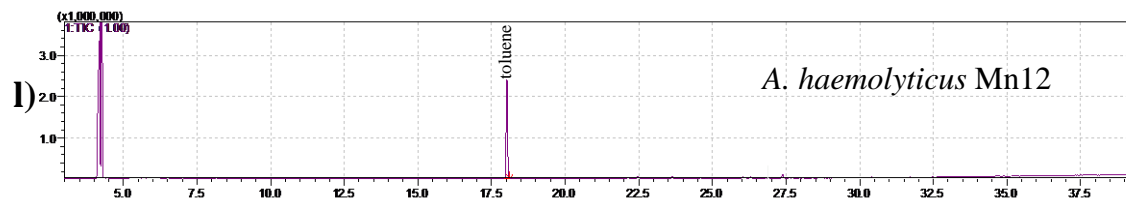
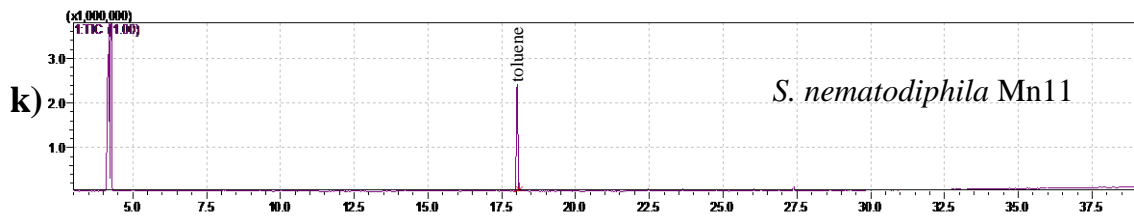
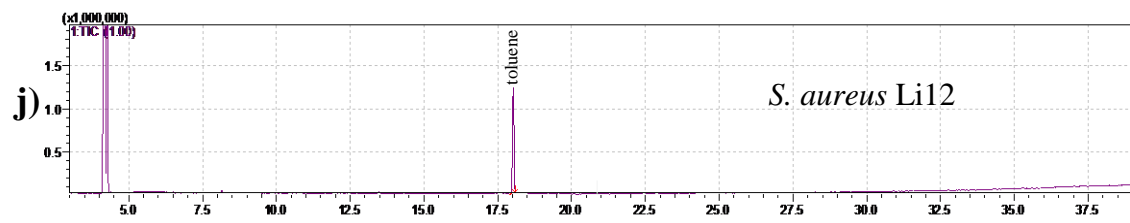
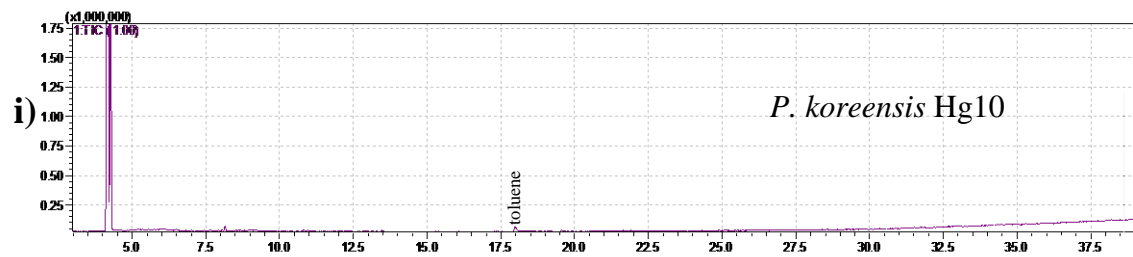
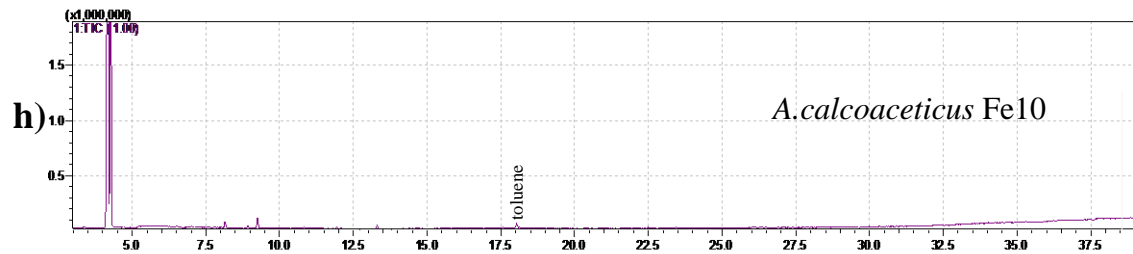
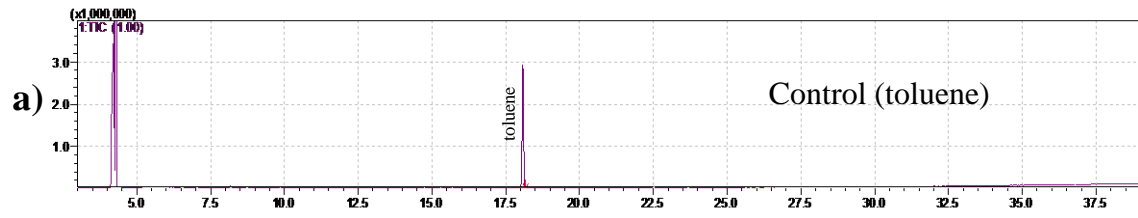


Figure 3.4 Toluene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses





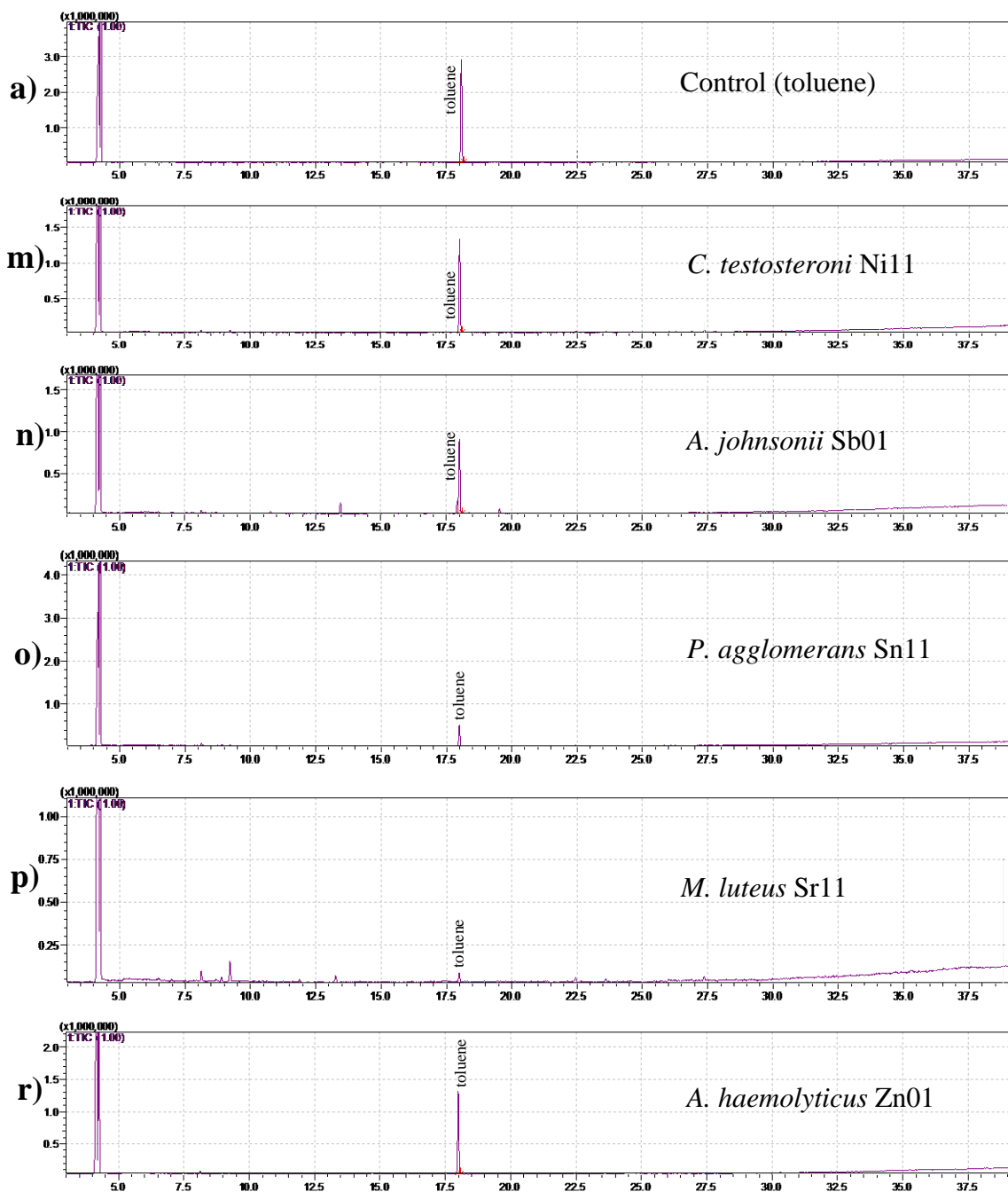


Figure 3.5 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of toluene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10 (b), *R. plancticola* Ag11 (c), *S. aureus* Al11 (d), *S. aureus* Ba01 (e), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (f), *S. warneri* Co11 (g), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (h), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (i), *S. aureus* Li12 (j), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (k), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (l), *C. testosteroni* Ni11 (m), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (n), *P. agglomerans* Sn11 (o), *M. luteus* Sr11 (p), *A. haemolyticus* Zn01 (r). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.

Bacteria having ability to degrade benzene or toluene usually mineralize ethylbenzene as well due to similar enzymatic activity (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). HS-GC/MS was carried out to analyze the degradation rates of 10 bacteria namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Al11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *D. acidovorans* Cd11, *S. warneri* Co11, *P. koreensis* Cu12, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12, *A. johnsonii* Sb01, *M. luteus* Sr11 previously found to be potential ethylbenzene degraders by preliminary degradation tests. The initial amount of ethylbenzene was 2.34 mg/mL in each test tube. Degradation rates were observed up to 100 % in bacterial strains (Figure 3.6-3.7-3.10). The most striking degradation was measured in *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 and *P. koreensis* Hg11 with 100 % and 90 % degradation rates, respectively. *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *D. acidovorans* Cd11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12, *A. johnsonii* Sb01 was shown as ethylbenzene degraders for the first time in this study.

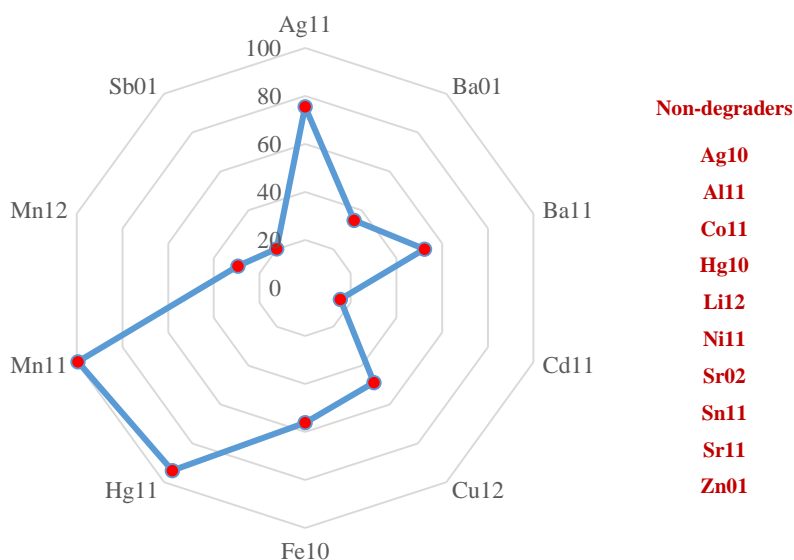
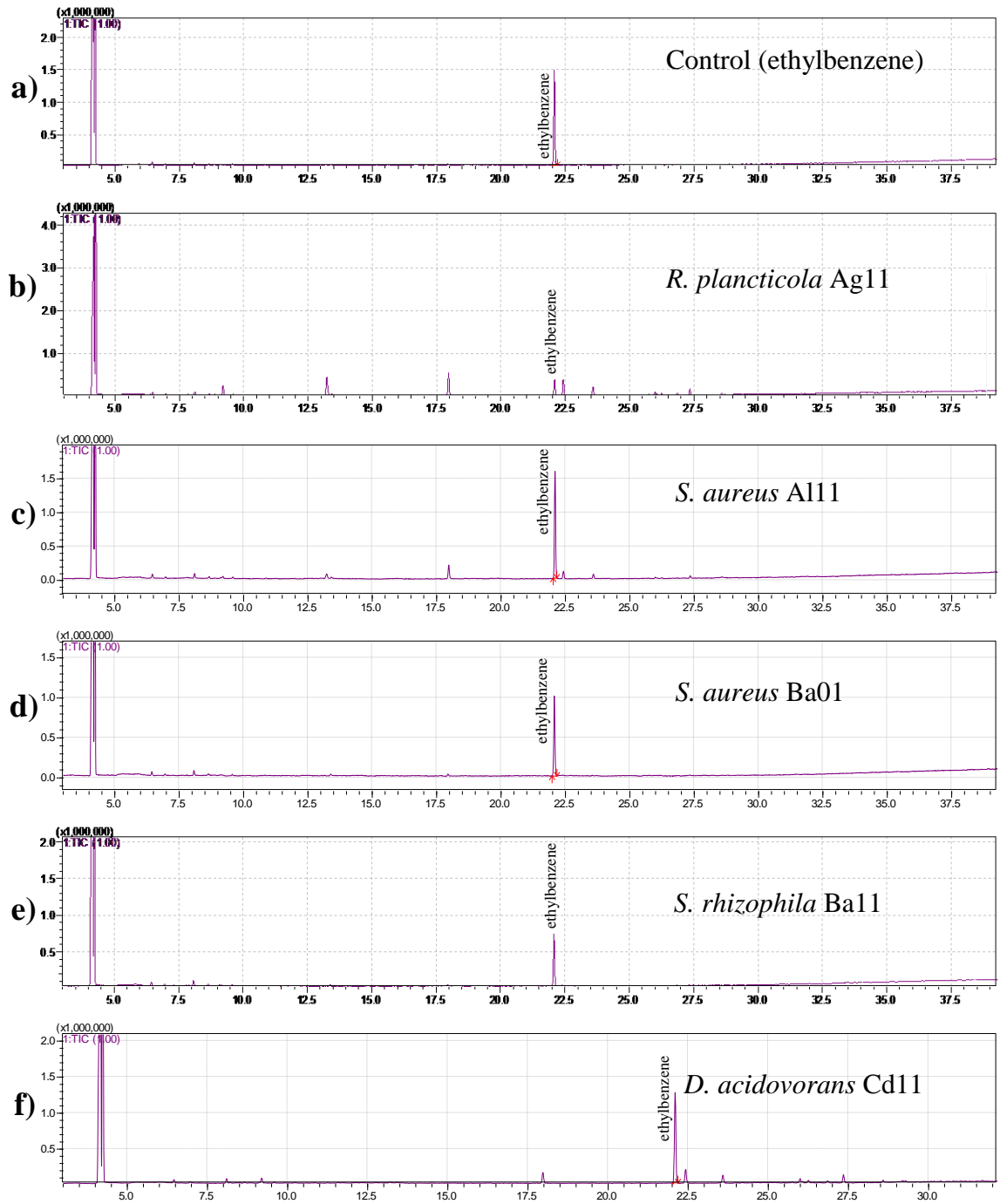
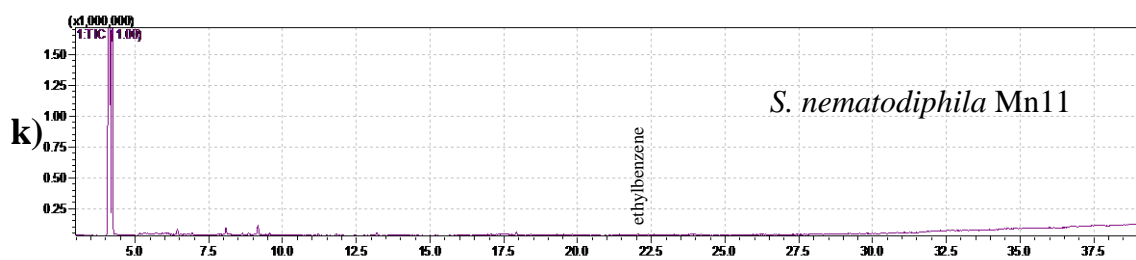
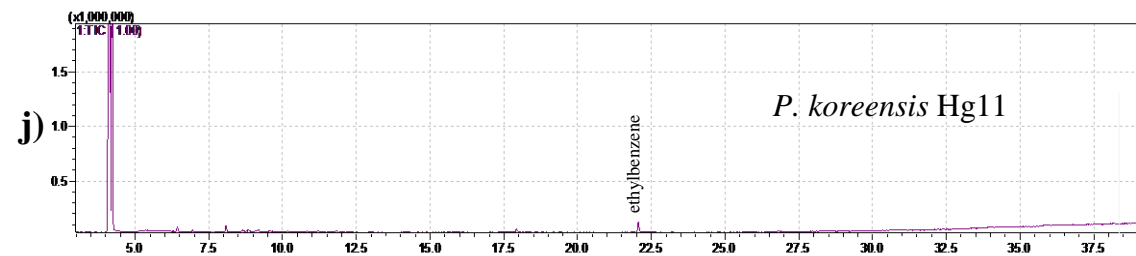
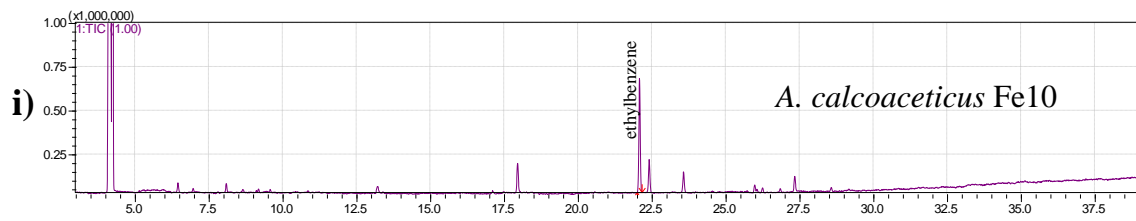
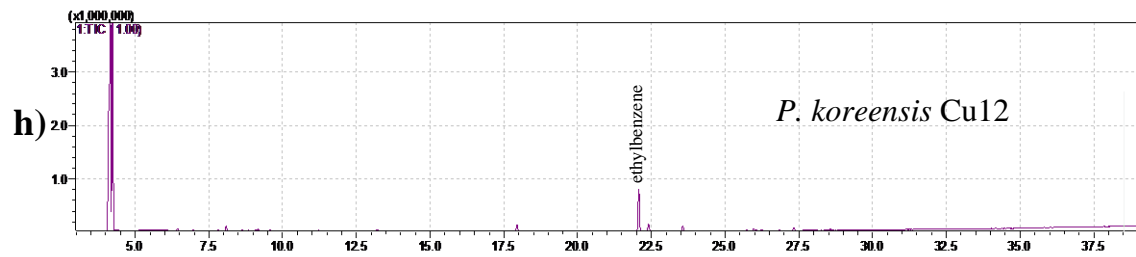
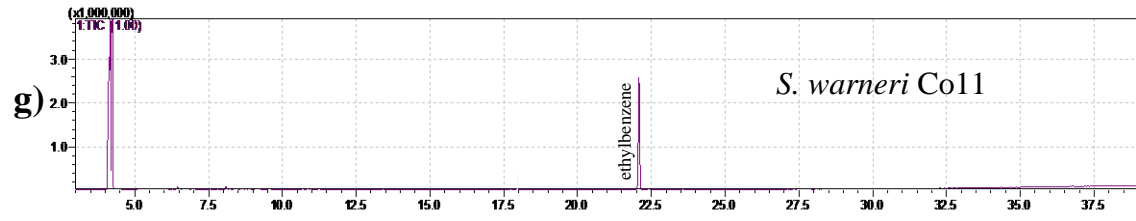
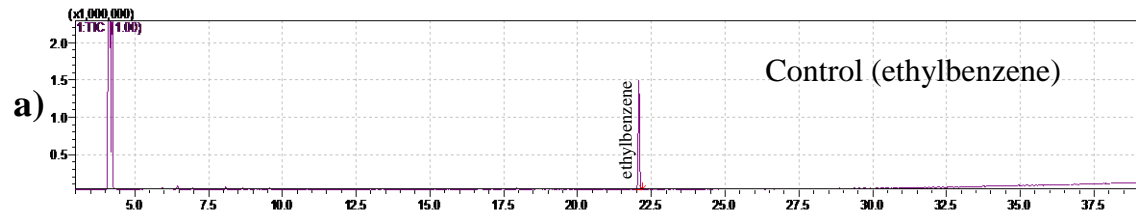


Figure 3.6 Ethylbenzene degradation abilities of the bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses





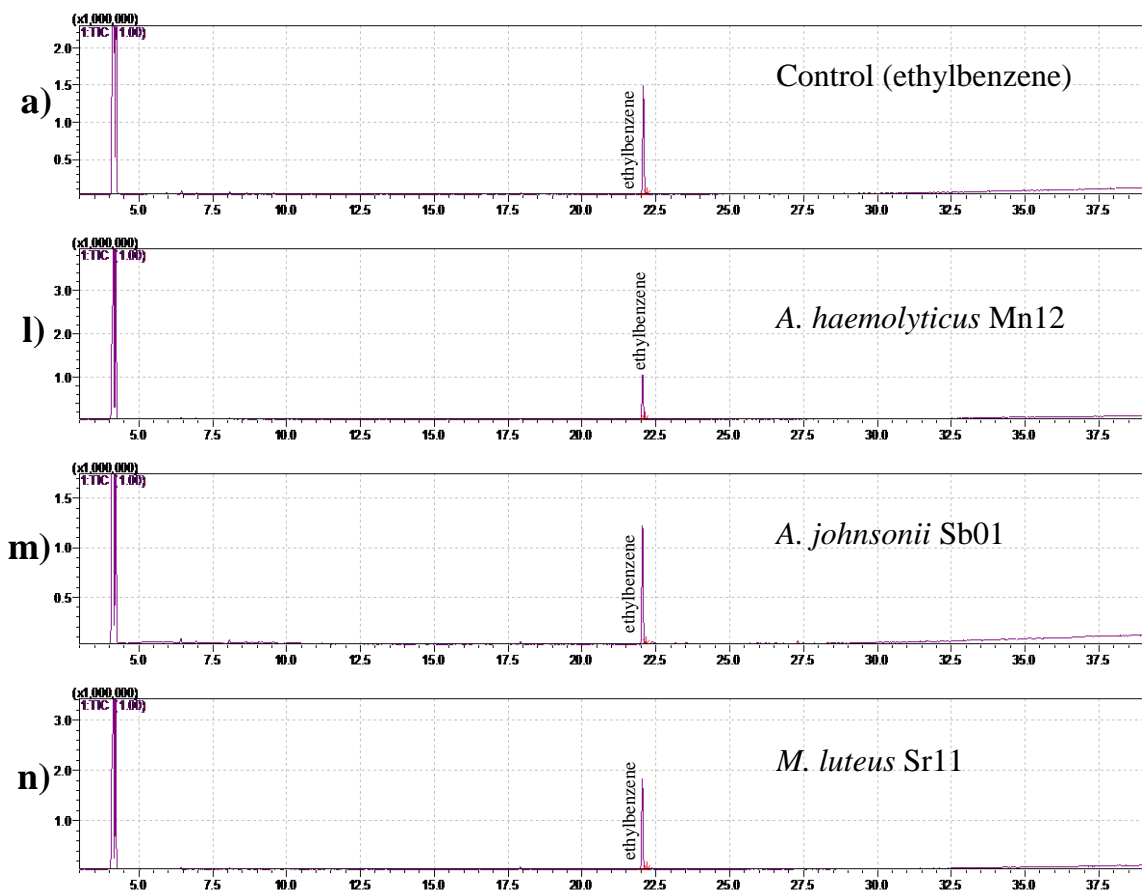


Figure 3.7 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of ethylbenzene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), *R. plancticola* Ag11 (b), *S. aureus* A111 (c), *S. aureus* Ba01 (d), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (e), *D. acidovorans* Cd11 (f), *S. warneri* Co11 (g), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (h), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (i), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (j), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (k), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (l), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (m), *M. luteus* Sr11 (n). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.

Xylene has three isomers known as *-o*, *-p* and *-m* xylene and degradation characteristics of each isomer is different due to enzyme activity (Armando & Díaz, 2004). Xylene is more recalcitrant compound compared to others (Li & Goel, 2012). Results of preliminary degradation test showed that only 6 bacteria were able to degrade xylene. HS-GC/MS analyses were performed for the 6 bacterial strains (Figure 3.8-3.9-3.10). The initial amount of xylene was 8.94 mg/mL in each test tube. *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 showed the highest degradation for xylene with 45 %. The strains *D. acidovorans* Cd11, *P. koreensis* Cu12, Hg10, Hg11 and *A. johnsonii* Sb01 were shown for the first time as xylene degraders in this study. Unlike benzene, toluene and ethylbenzene, xylene degradation is catalyzed by different enzyme systems encoded on TOL plasmid usually found in *Pseudomonas* related species (Choi *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, xylene degradation is less common in bacteria (Heinaru *et al*, 2016) The usage of mix xylene as sole source of carbon in this study might be the reason of low degradation ability because *o*-xylene is very recalcitrant compound and its degradation ability has been demonstrated only for a few bacteria (Shadi *et al.*, 2015).

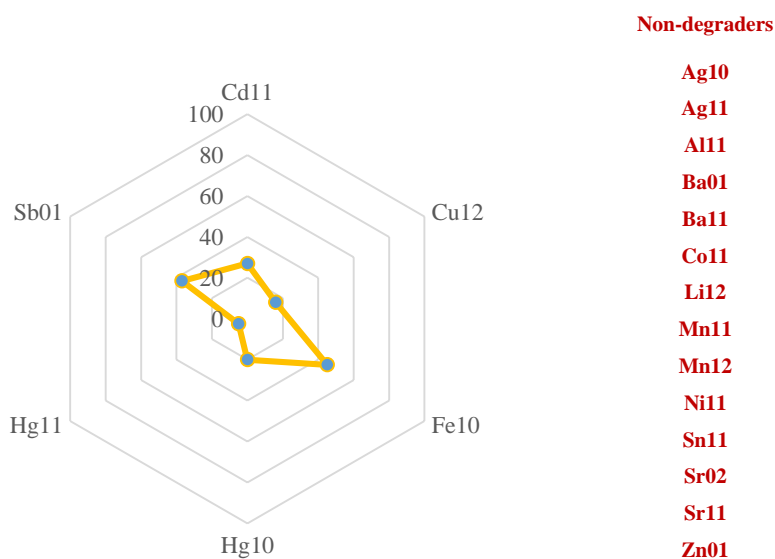


Figure 3.8 Xylene degradation rates of bacterial strains and non-degraders obtained from HS-GC/MS analyses

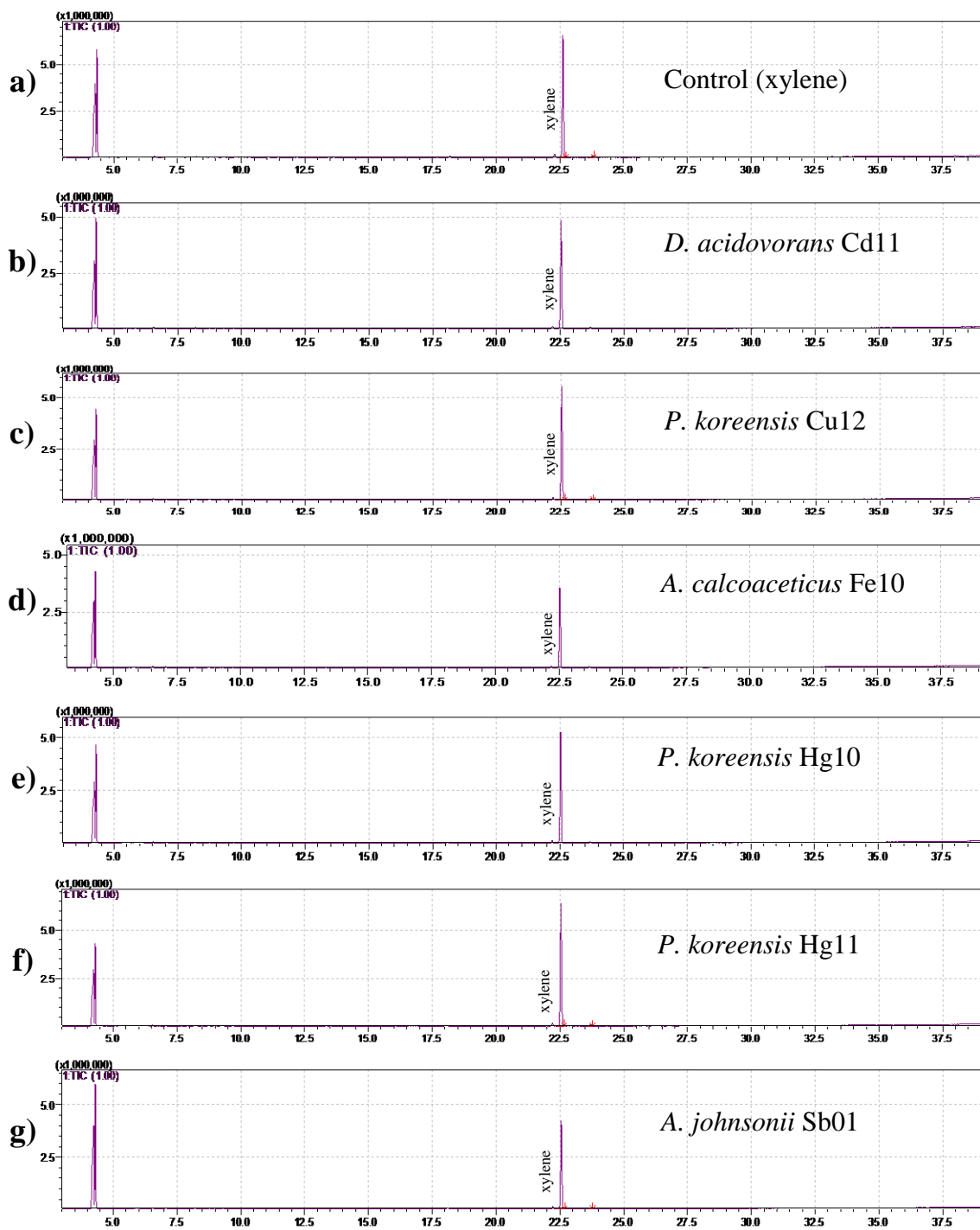


Figure 3.9 HS-GC/MS chromatograms of xylene biodegradation; control without bacterial isolates (a), *D. acidovorans* Cd11 (b), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (c), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (d), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (e), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (f), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (g). Abundance factors of analytes are given on the upper left corner of each chromatogram.

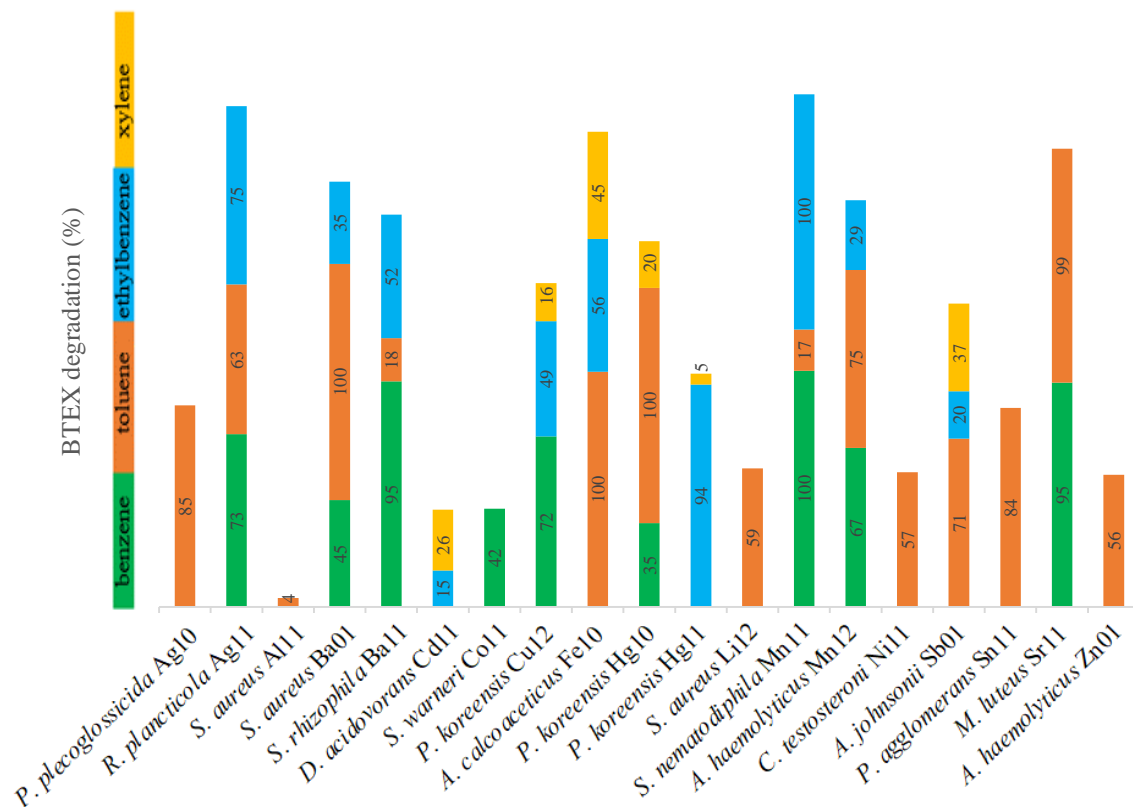


Figure 3.10 BTEX degradation percentages of all the bacterial strains used in the study

Out of 19, 9 bacterial strains were defined as efficient BTEX degraders listed in able 3.2. In addition to % BTEX degradation, degradation rates of bacterial strains were also calculated. The highest degradation rates were 0.39 mg/mL/day in *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, 0.25 mg/mL/day in *S. aureus* Ba01, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *P. koreensis* Hg10, 0.11 mg/mL/day in *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 and 0.19 mg/mL/day in *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 for benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene, respectively. It can be seen in Figure 3.10 that lowest degradation percentage was observed in xylene. However, degradation rates revealed that its degradation was faster than ethylbenzene due to the high initial amount. The percentage of xylene degradation could be risen by decreasing the initial concentration or increasing the incubation time of degradation.

Table 3.2 Degradation characteristics of efficient BTEX compounds degrading bacterial strains

	Benzene (initial amount: 8.12 mg/mL)			Toluene (initial amount: 5.26 mg/mL)			Ethylbenzene (initial amount: 2.34 mg/mL)			Xylene (initial amount: 8.94)		
	Residual amount (mg/mL)	Degradation ability (%)	Degradation rate (mg/mL/day)	Residual amount (mg/mL)	Degradation ability (%)	Degradation rate (mg/mL/day)	Residual amount (mg/mL)	Degradation ability (%)	Degradation rate (mg/mL/day)	Residual amount (mg/mL)	Degradation ability (%)	Degradation rate (mg/mL/day)
<i>R. planticola</i> Ag11	2.18	73	0.28	1.94	63	0.16	0.58	75	0.08	8.94	0	0
<i>S. aureus</i> Ba01	4.44	45	0.18	0	100	0.25	1.52	34	0.03	8.94	0	0
<i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	0.37	95	0.37	4.3	18	0.04	1.12	52	0.05	8.94	0	0
<i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	8.12	0	0	0.02	100	0.25	1.02	56	0.06	4.90	45	0.19
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	5.24	35	0.14	0.02	100	0.25	2.34	0	0	7.16	20	0.08
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11	8.12	0	0	5.26	0	0	0.14	94	0.10	8.52	5	0.02
<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	0	100	0.39	4.34	17	0.04	0	100	0.11	8.94	0	0
<i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	8.12	0	0	1.52	71	0.18	1.86	20	0.02	5.6	37	0.15
<i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	0.42	95	0.37	0.05	99	0.25	2.34	0	0	8.94	0	0

3.4 Analysis of the aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of the bacterial strains

There have been many studies showing that BTEX compounds are degraded through a variety of pathways (Farhadian *et al.*, 2008; Choi *et al.*, 2013). In the analysis of degradation pathways, one of the most powerful tool is detection of catabolic genes by PCR (Tuan *et al.*, 2011). Degradation pathways predicted by genotype analysis can be additionally confirmed through the GC/MS analysis of potential metabolites produced during BTEX degradation (Choi *et al.*, 2013). In this study, for deciphering the BTEX biodegradation pathways of the bacterial strains, PCR was carried out by using specific primers for the catabolic genes listed on Table 2.2 and predicted pathways were then further confirmed through detecting the intermediates by GC/MS analyses. Aerobic routes in benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene degradations are summarized in Figure 3.11.

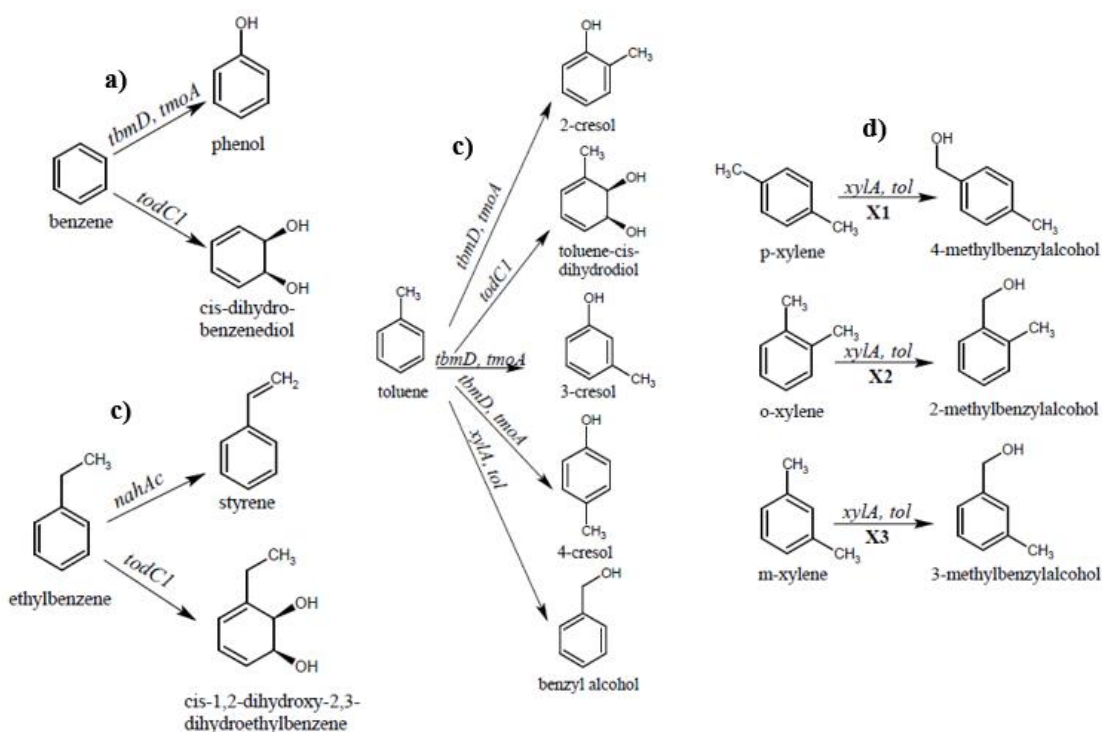


Figure 3.11 Initial oxidation steps of aerobic benzene (a), toluene (b), ethylbenzene(c) and xylene (d) degradation. Related genotypes are denoted on the reaction arrows. (modified from KEGG)

3.4.1 PCR analyses of catabolic genes

Aerobic BTEX degradation genes are encoded either on chromosomal or plasmid DNA (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). Total DNA, therefore, was isolated to obtain both chromosomal and plasmid DNA of the bacterial strains for PCR analysis.

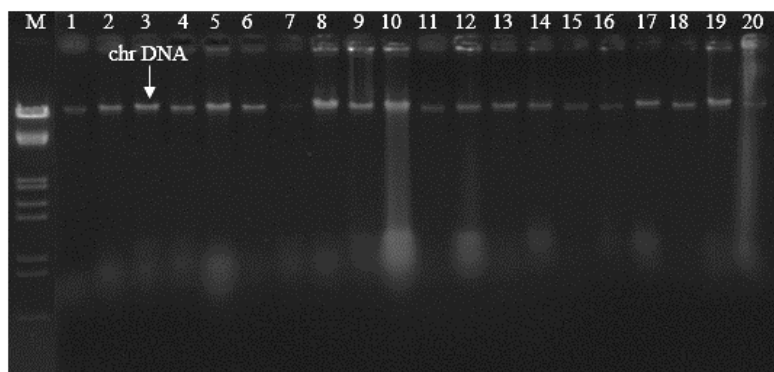


Figure 3.12 Agarose gel electrophoresis of chromosomal DNA extracted from the bacterial strains used in the study; *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10 (lane 1), *R. planticola* Ag11 (lane 2), *S. aureus* Al11 (lane 3), *S. aureus* Ba01 (lane 4), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (lane 5), *D. acidovorans* (lane 6), *S. warneri* Co11 (lane 7), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (lane 8), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 9), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (lane10), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (lane 11), *S. aureus* Li12 (lane 12), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (lane 13), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (lane 14), *C. testosteroni* Ni11 (lane 15), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (lane 16), *P. agglomerans* Sn11 (lane 17), *M. luteus* Sr02 (lane 18), *M. luteus* Sr11 (lane 19), *A. haemolyticus* Zn01 (lane 20). M, Thermo Fisher Lambda DNA/HindIII DNA ladder; from bottom to top: 125, 564, 2027, 2322, 4361, 6557, 9416 and 23130 bp, respectively. chr, chromosomal DNA.

3.4.1.1 PCR analysis of initial attack genes

Aerobic BTEX degradation is initiated by different enzyme systems including ring hydroxylating monooxygenases, side chain monooxygenases and ring hydroxylating dioxygenases (Jiménez *et al.*, 2002). These enzymes are encoded by catabolic genes located on chromosomal and/or plasmid DNA (Armando & Díaz, 2004). To date, numerous catabolic genes related to BTEX degradation have been characterized by PCR (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, to predict the degradation pathways of the bacterial strains in this study, initial oxidation genes *tbdD*, *tmoA*, *phhN*, *xylA*, *tol*, *todC1* and *nahAc* were analyzed by PCR amplification.

3.4.1.1.1 PCR analysis of *tbmD* gene

Ring hydroxylating monooxygenases catalyze the first step of aerobic BTEX degradation by incorporating oxygen atom into different positions on aromatic ring (Johnson & Olsen, 1995). For the detection of *tbmD* gene (Figure 3.13) in the bacterial strains, PCR was performed. *A. calcoaceticus* was used to optimize PCR conditions by changing the annealing temperature ranging from 63°C to 66°C and MgCl₂ concentration ranging from 1.75 to 3 mM (Figure 3.14). Best results were obtained at 66°C temperature and 1.75 mM MgCl₂ concentration and preferred as optimum conditions for PCR-detection of *tbmD* gene. The *tbmD* gene was detected in only *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *M. luteus* Sr11 by the amplification of PCR products with the expected sizes of 640 bp (Figure 3.15).

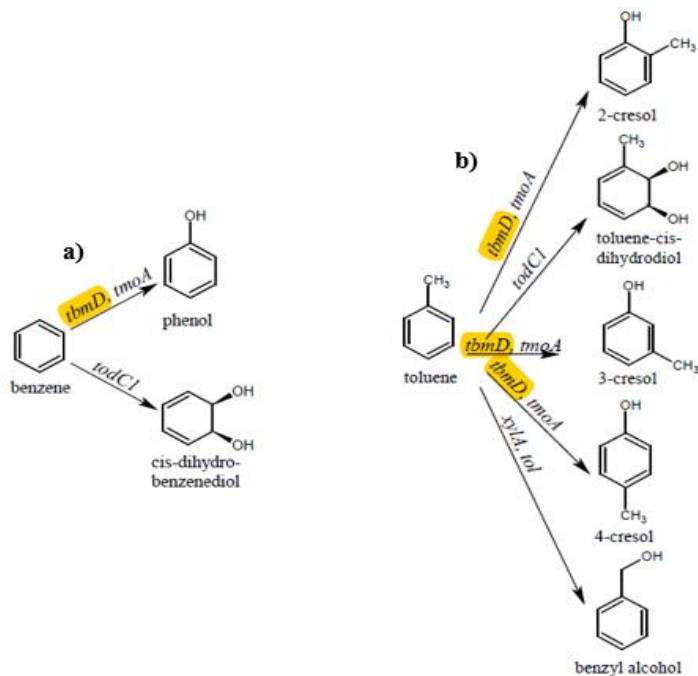


Figure 3.13 The *tbmD* gene in the first oxidation step of benzene (a) and toluene (b) degradation

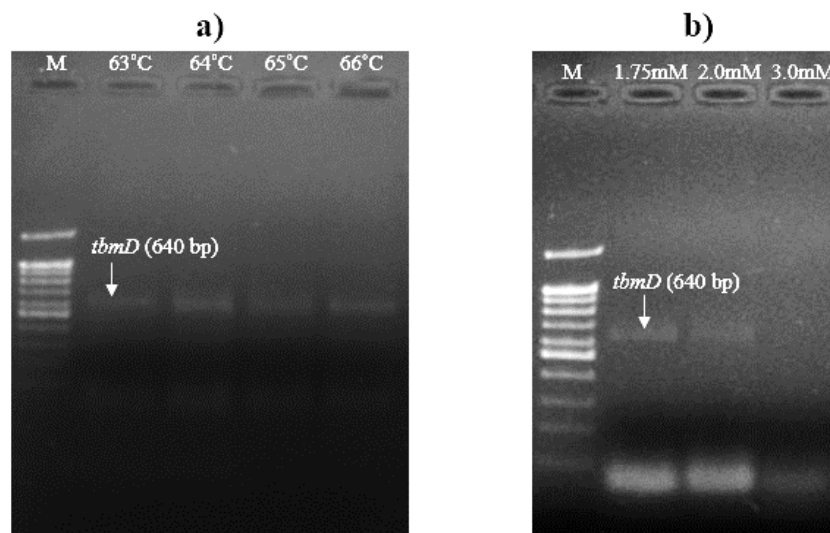


Figure 3.14 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) (a) and MgCl_2 concentrations (mM) (b) for *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.

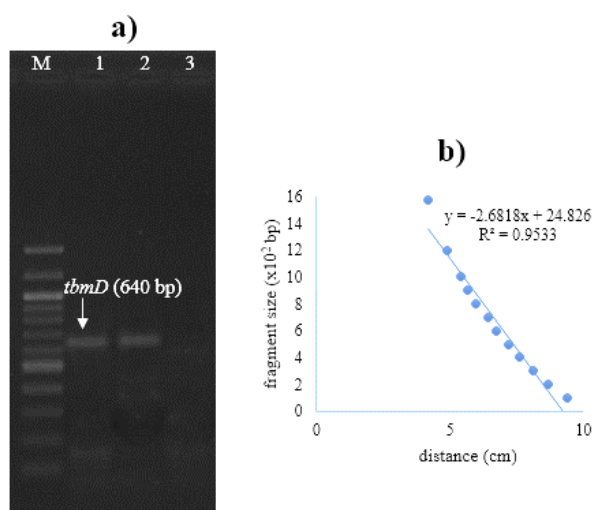


Figure 3.15 The *tbmD* gene harboring bacterial strains (a) *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 1), *M. luteus* (lane 2), negative control (lane 3). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively (a). Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).

Due to strong DNA and protein homology among ring hydroxylating monooxygenases it is not possible to design a primer set targeting specific gene (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). There have been many studies focusing on the catabolic genes of the bacterial degraders (Choi *et al.*, 2013). Degenerated primers are mainly used in PCR targeting the conserved regions of catabolic genes (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). The *tbmD* primer set was used to detect all possible genes encoding α -subunit of subfamily 1 of the hydroxylase component of aromatic monooxygenases (Figure 1.9) (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). By using *tbmD* primer set Hendrickx *et al.*, (2006) amplified *tbmD* gene in different bacterial species like *Pseudomonas putida*, *Stenotrophomonas* sp., *Pseudomonas veronii*, *Ralstonia eutropha*, *Variovorax* sp., *Pseudomonas marginalis*. In this study, the presence of *tbmD* gene in and *M. luteus* Sr11 was demonstrated for the first time. Alternative to *tbmD*, *tmoA* and *phhN* primers were used to detect different subfamilies of ring hydroxylating monooxygenase genes but no PCR products were obtained. By using *tbmD* primer, all possible ring hydroxylating monooxygenase sequences were targeted including toluene monooxygenases and phenol hydroxylases. Further phylogeny analysis PCR amplicons is needed to understand the sequence homology between all possible ring hydroxylating monooxygenases.

3.4.1.1.2 Sequence analysis of *tbmD* amplicons

Two *tbmD* sequences were compared to 10 different *tbmD*-like sequences obtained from NCBI database and phylogenetic tree was constructed accordingly (Figure 3.16). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to assume phylogenetic tree. Multiple sequence alignment and pairwise distance matrix are given in Appendix B. As can be seen on phylogenetic tree, *tbmD* sequences showed sequence similarities with phenol hydroxylase sequences in between 72 and 99%. These results revealed that *tbmD* sequences in this study belonged to R.1 type phenol hydroxylases, also demonstrated by Baldwin *et al.* (2003).

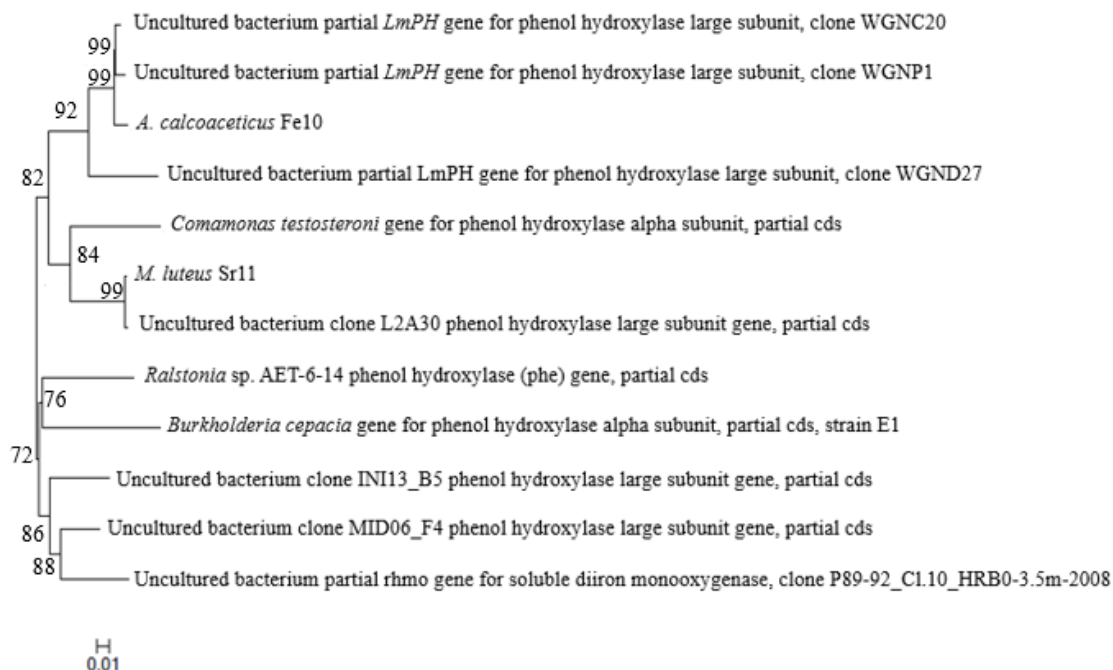


Figure 3.16 Phylogenetic analysis of *tbmD* (ring hydroxylating monooxygenase) genes among bacterial strains. Scale bar at the bottom of the tree stands for nucleotide changes per site.

3.4.1.1.3 PCR analysis of *todC1* gene

Aromatic hydrocarbon degradation is also catalyzed by ring hydroxylating dioxygenases including benzene dioxygenase, toluene dioxygenase, ethylbenzene dioxygenase, naphthalene dioxygenase etc. (Witzig *et al.*, 2006). These enzymes are generally encoded on chromosomal DNA (Armando & Díaz, 2004). For the detection of *todC1* gene (Figure 3.17) in the bacterial strains used in the study, PCR was performed. *P. koreensis* Hg10 was used to optimize PCR conditions by changing the annealing temperature ranging from 64°C to 67°C and MgCl₂ concentration ranging from 2.0 to 3.0 mM (Figure 3.18). Best results were obtained at 65°C temperature and 2.0 mM MgCl₂ concentration and chose as optimum conditions for PCR-detection of *todC1* gene. The *todC1* gene was detected in 14 bacterial strains namely *R. planticola* Ag11, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *S. warneri* Co11, *P. koreensis* Cu12, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. aureus* Li12, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12, *C.*

testosteroni Ni11, *A. johnsonii* Sb01, *P. agglomerans* Sn11, *M. luteus* Sr11 by PCR amplification with the expected sizes of 510 bp (Figure 3.19).

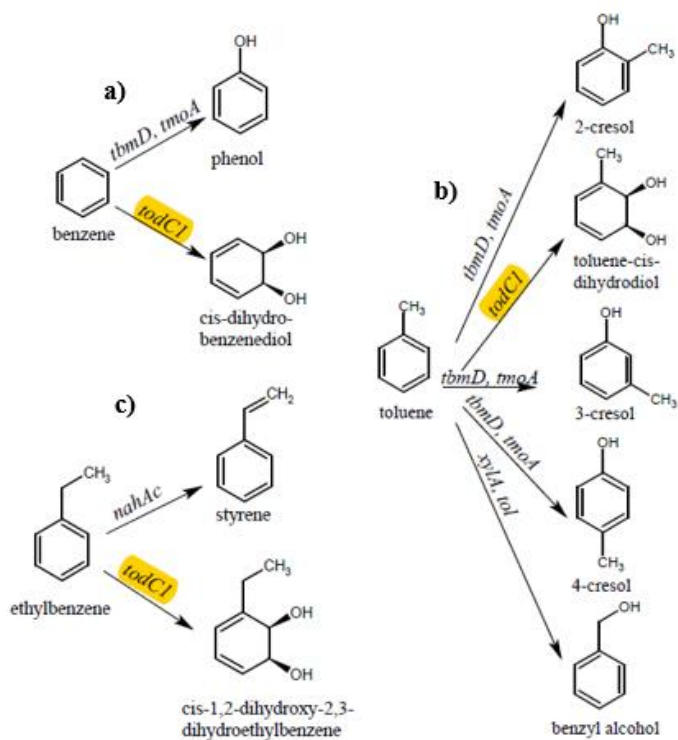


Figure 3.17 The *todC1* gene in the first oxidation step of benzene (a), toluene (b) and ethylbenzene (c) degradation

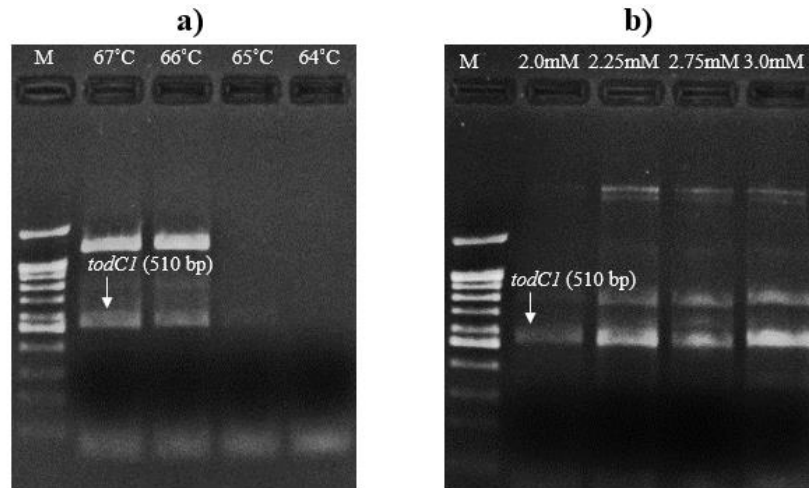


Figure 3.18 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for *P. koreensis* Hg10. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.

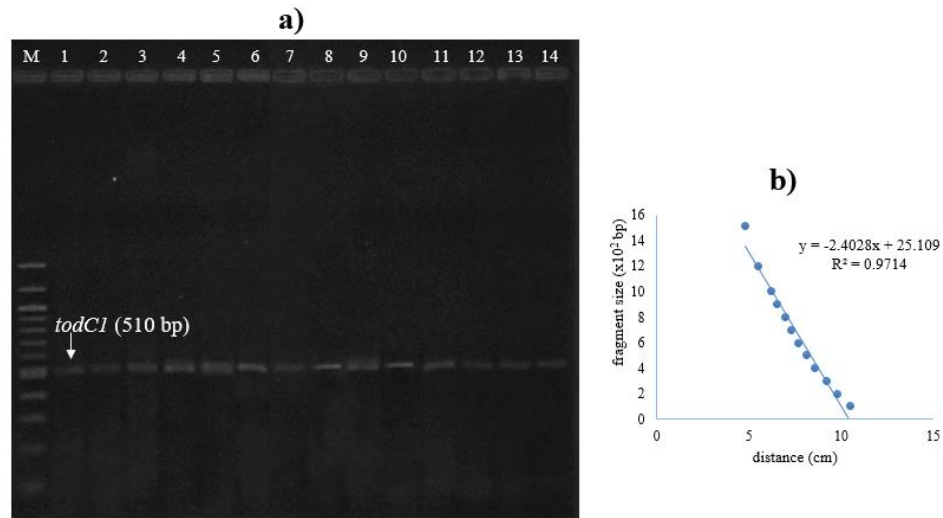


Figure 3.19 The *todCI* gene harboring bacterial strains (a) *R. planticola* Ag11 (lane 1), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (lane 2), *S. warneri* Co11 (lane 3), *P. koreensis* Cu12 (lane 4), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 5), *P. koreensis* Hg10 (lane 6), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (lane 7), *S. aureus* Li12 (lane 8), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (lane 9), *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 (lane 10), *C. testosteroni* Ni11 (lane 11), *A. johnsonii* Sb01 (lane 12), *P. agglomerans* Sn11 (lane 13), *M. luteus* Sr11 (lane 14). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA Ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively. Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).

todCI primer set was used in this study previously designed by Hendrickx *et al.*, (2006). This primer set targets the all five subfamilies (Figure 1.15) of the iron–sulfur oxygenase α -subunits of the ring hydroxylating dioxygenases involved in BTE degradation (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). *todCI* and *todCI*-like genes were previously shown in *Pseudomonas putida*, *Pseudomonas jessenii*, *Pseudomonas marginalis* (Dejonghe, *et al.*, 2006), *Thauera* sp. (Shinoda *et al.*, 2004), *Klebsiella pneumonia*, *Raoultella ornithinolytica* (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009), *Serratia marcescens* (González *et al.*, 2013), *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* (Kim *et al.*, 2008), *Acinetobacter* sp. (Kim & Lee, 2011). The *todCI* gene in *P. agglomerans* was detected for the first time in this study. Alternative to *todCI*, *nahAc* primer was also used to amplify naphthalene dioxygenase genes but no PCR detection was obtained. By using *todCI* primer, all possible ring hydroxylating dioxygenases like toluene, benzene, ethylbenzene, naphthalene and biphenyl dioxygenases (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, PCR products amplified by *todCI* primer need further phylogeny analysis to make a comparison among sequences.

3.4.1.1.4 Sequence analysis of *todCI* amplicons

todCI gene was found to be harbored in 14 bacterial strains namely *R. planticola* Ag11, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *S. warneri* Co11, *P. koreensis* Cu12, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. aureus* Li12, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11, *A. haemolyticus* Mn12, *C. testosteroni* Ni11, *A. johnsonii* Sb01, *P. agglomerans* Sn11, *M. luteus* Sr11. Each *todCI* amplicon was sequenced and phylogenetic tree was constructed among bacterial strains to analyze the evolutionary relationship (Figure 3.20). Sequence similarities for *todCI* amplicons in bacterial strains ranged in between 62 and 99%. The closest *todCI* sequence homology was found in between *A. haemolyticus* Mn12 and *S. warneri* Co11 with 99% similarity. Multiple sequence alignment and pairwise distance matrix are given in Appendix B. This result might be an indication for the occurrence of horizontal transfer of BTEX catabolic genes among the aquifer community. The presence of catabolic genes in phylogenetically distant bacteria reveals the occurrence of horizontal transfer of these genes in the aquifer (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). The same observation was also done by Cavalca *et al.* (2004) who proposed interspecies transfer

of the *tmoA* genes in a BTEX contaminated aquifer based on the occurrence of *tmoA* genes in different BTEX degrading bacteria like *Mycobacterium*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Bradyrhizobium*.

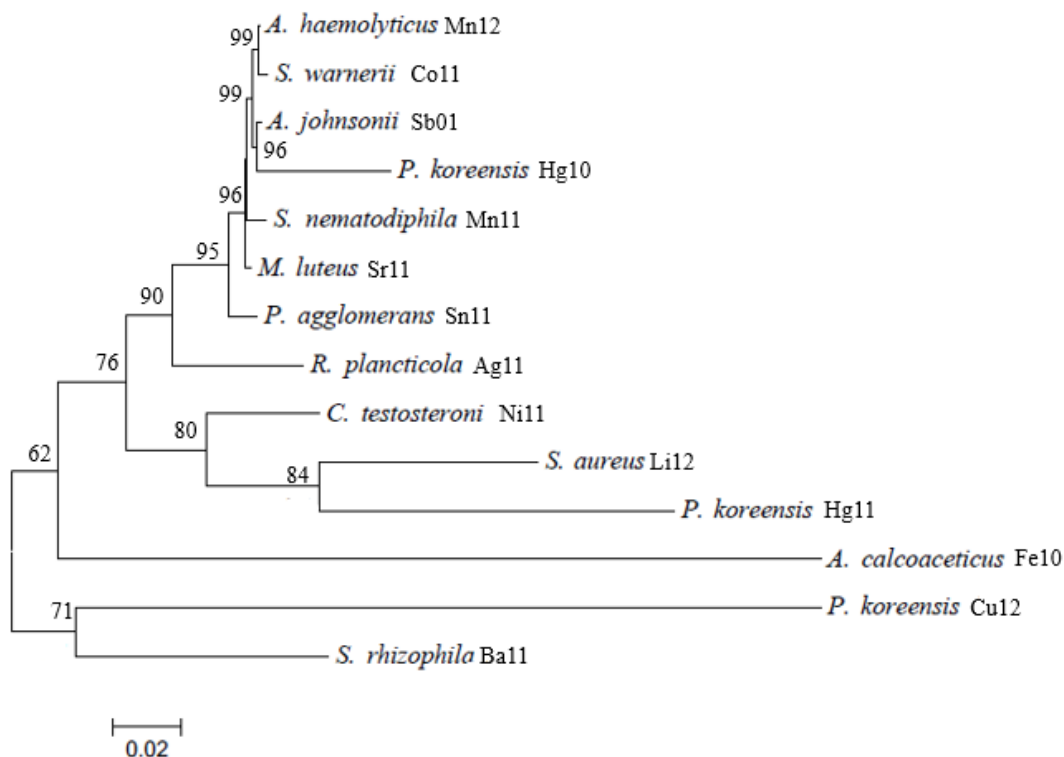


Figure 3.20 Phylogenetic analysis of *todC1* genes (ring hydroxylating dioxygenase) among bacterial strains. Scale bar at the bottom of the tree stands for nucleotide changes per site

3.4.1.1.5 PCR analysis of *xyl* genes

Toluene and xylene degradation can be catalyzed by different enzyme system known as side chain monooxygenases, encoded on TOL plasmid (Heinaru *et al.*, 2016). This plasmid is commonly harbored in *Pseudomonas* sp. and other related bacteria (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). Two different primer sets namely *xylA* (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006) and *tol* (Baldwin *et al.*, 2003) were used in this study to detect all possible *xyl*-like genes in the bacterial strains. However, no PCR-detection was observed. By using these

primers Hendrickx *et al.*, (2006) were amplified *xylA* genes in many *Pseudomonas* species.

3.4.1.2 PCR analyses of ring cleavage genes

As can be shown in Figure 3.21, a common step in aromatic hydrocarbon degradation is intradiol or extradiol cleavage of catechol-like intermediates by catechol dioxygenase enzymes (Tuan *et al.*, 2011). Catechol dioxygenase genes used as marker for monitoring of aromatic hydrocarbon degradation (Lillis *et al.*, 2010). Many comprehensive studies have been performed to detect catechol dioxygenase genes by PCR-based methods (Silva *et al.*, 2012; Wojcieszńska *et al.*, 2012; Guzik *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, detection of catechol 1,2 dioxygenase (*catA*) and catechol 2,3 dioxygenase (*C23O*) genes were also performed in this study.

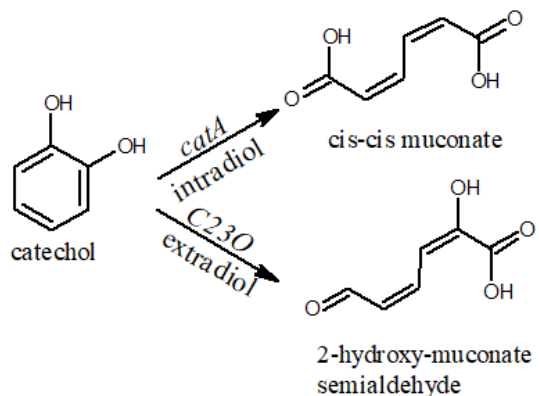


Figure 3.21 The routes of aerobic aromatic ring cleavage

3.4.1.2.1 PCR analysis of *catA* gene

Intradiol cleavage of catechol and its derivatives can be catalyzed by catechol 1,2 dioxygenase (Guzik *et al.*, 2011). The genes encoding the catechol 1,2 dioxygenase enzyme are located on *cat* operon (Nelson *et al.*, 2002). *catA* primer was used to amplify the partial region of catechol 1,2 dioxygenase gene involved in intradiol cleavage (Figure 3.22). Optimization of PCR conditions was carried out in using *R. plancticola*

Ag11 by changing annealing temperature of primer ranging from 58°C to 60°C and MgCl₂ concentration ranging from 2.0 to 3.0 mM (Figure 3.23). Best results were obtained at 60°C temperature and 2.0 mM MgCl₂ concentration and preferred as optimum conditions for PCR amplification of *catA* gene.

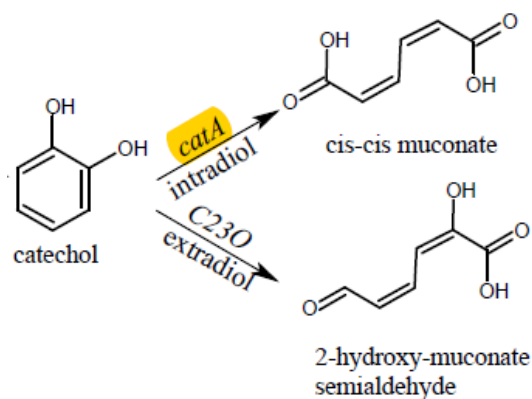


Figure 3.22 The *catA* gene in the intradiol cleavage of aromatic ring

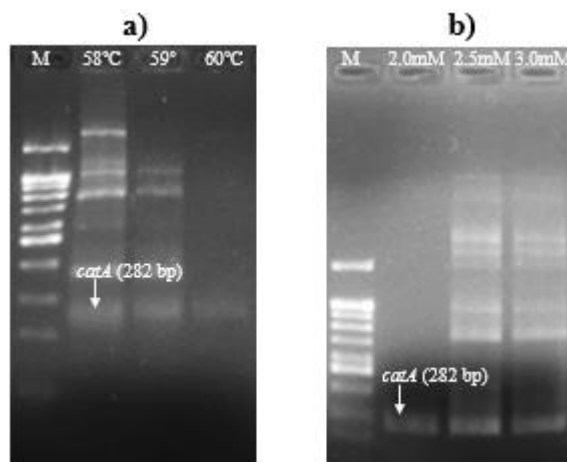


Figure 3.23 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for *R. plancticola* Ag11. M, Quick-Load 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000 and 1500 bp, respectively.

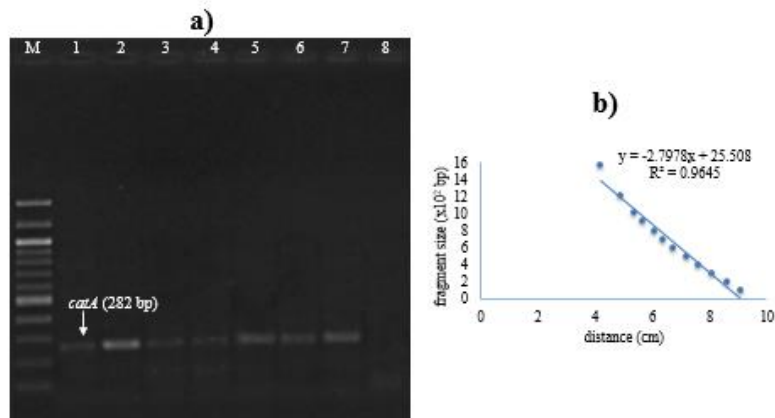


Figure 3.24 The *catA* gene harboring bacterial strains (a) *R. plancticola* Ag11 (lane 1), *S. aureus* Ba01 (lane 2), *D. acidovorans* Cd11 (lane 3), *A. calcoaceicus* Fe10 (lane 4), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (lane 5), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (lane 6), *M. luteus* Sr11 (lane 7), negative control (lane 8). M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively (a). Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).

PCR products with the expected sizes of 282 bp were confirmed in *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *D. acidovorans* Cd11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 (Figure 3.24). Catechol 1,2 dioxygenase enzymes are very common in aromatic hydrocarbon degradation, and it has also been demonstrated in variety of bacteria so far (Saxena & Thakur, 2005; Giedraityte & Kalėdienė, 2009). However, the *catA* gene was detected for the first time by this study in *R. plancticola* Ag11.

3.4.1.2.2 PCR analysis of *C23O* gene

Catechol 2,3 dioxygenase, one of the key enzymes in aerobic BTEX degradation, catalyze the extradiol cleavage of the aromatic ring (Borowski & Siegbahn, 2006) as shown in . Genes encoding the catechol 2,3 dioxygenase enzymes located on chromosomal (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006) and plasmid DNA (Táncsics *et al.*, 2012). *C23O*-I primer set (Mesarch *et al.*, 2000) was used in the study for targeting the subfamily I.2.C

related catechol dioxygenase genes suggested to be widely distributed in BTEX degrading bacteria (Mesarch *et al.*, 2000).

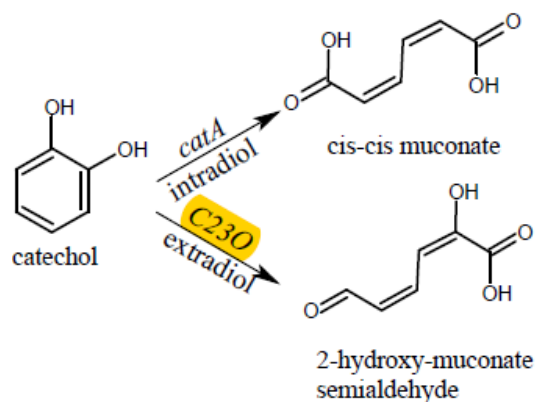


Figure 3.25 The *C23O* gene in the extradiol cleavage of aromatic ring

For the detection of *C23O* gene in bacterial strains, PCR was performed. *R. plancticola* was used for the optimization of PCR conditions by changing the annealing temperature ranging from 54°C to 56°C and MgCl₂ concentration ranging from 2.0 to 3.0 mM (Figure 3.26). Best results were obtained at 55°C temperature and 2.0 mM MgCl₂ concentration and preferred as optimum conditions for PCR amplification of the *C23O* gene. The *C23O* gene was detected in 5 bacterial strains namely *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10, *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. korensis* Hg11 by PCR detection with the expected sizes of 216 bp (Figure 3.27). *C23O*-II primer (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006) was also used for targeting the subfamily I.2.A related catechol dioxygenases. However, no PCR detection was obtained within the bacterial strains. Since the *C23O* genes have strong diversity with their different subfamilies, alternative primer sets have been developed to detect them through PCR. Bacterial strains used in this study found to mainly belong to the subfamily I.2.C. This subfamily includes *C23O* sequences involved in BTEX degradation derived from a wide variety of other bacterial genera (*Pseudomonas*, *Comamonas*, *Burkholderia* and *Ralstonia*) (Hendrickx *et al.*, 2006). For the detection of all possible *C23O* sequences belong to different subfamilies

in bacterial strains, therefore, alternative primer sets should be used or new primer sets should be designed.

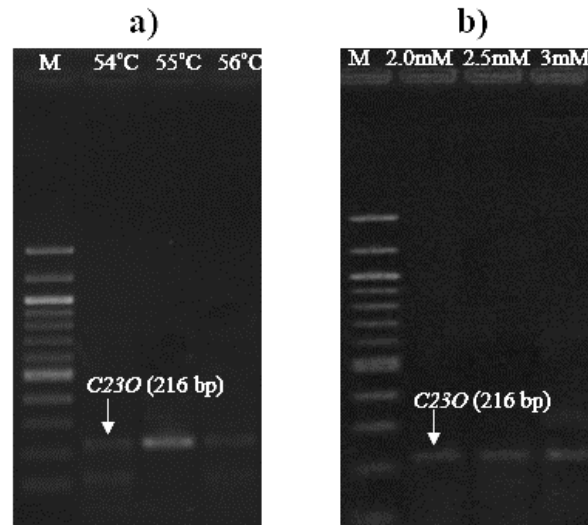


Figure 3.26 Optimization of PCR conditions at various annealing temperatures (°C) (a) and MgCl₂ concentrations (mM) (b) for *R. plancticola* Ag11. M, NEB 3231 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200 and 1517 bp, respectively.

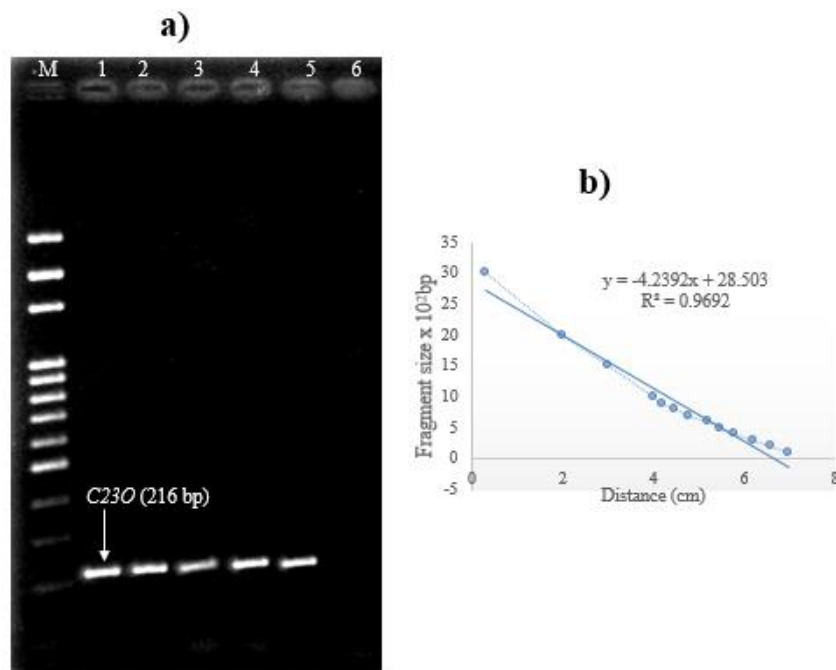


Figure 3.27 The *c23o* gene harboring bacterial strains (a) *P. plecoglossicida* Ag10 (lane 1), *R. planticola* Ag11 (lane 2), *S. rhizophila* Ba11 (lane 3), *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (lane 4), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (lane 5), negative control (lane 6). M, Solis Biodyne 100 bp DNA ladder from bottom to top 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1500, 2000 and 3000 bp, respectively. Standard curve of agarose gel for molecular weight estimation (b).

The BTEX compounds degradation abilities and corresponding genotypes of the bacterial strains were summarized in Table 3.3. Out of 20, 9 bacterial strains, (highlighted in yellow) namely *Raoultella planticola* Ag11, *Staphylococcus aureus* Ba01, *Stenotrophomonas rhizophila* Ba11, *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus* Fe10, *Pseudomonas koreensis* Hg10, *Pseudomonas koreensis* Hg11, *Serratia nematodiphila* Mn11, *Acinetobacter johnsonii* Sb01, *Micrococcus luteus* Sr11 were chosen as efficient BTEX degraders and further analyzed for their pathway used.

Table 3.3 Description of BTEX degradation profiles of all the bacterial strains used in the study

Bacterial strains	% BTEX degradation				Initial attack genes							Cleavage genes		
	benzene	toluene	ethylbenzene	xylene	<i>tbmD</i>	<i>tmoA</i>	<i>todC1</i>	<i>xylA</i>	<i>tol</i>	<i>nahAc</i>	<i>phhN</i>	<i>catA</i>	<i>C23O-II</i>	<i>C23O-I</i>
<i>Pseudomonas plecoglossicida</i> Ag10	-	85	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
<i>Raoultella planticola</i> Ag11	73	63	75	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Al11	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Ba01	45	100	34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
<i>Stenotrophomonas rhizophila</i> Ba11	95	18	52	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
<i>Delftia acidovorans</i> Cd11	-	-	15	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
<i>Staphylococcus warneri</i> Co11	41	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Cu12	72	-	49	16	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	-	99	56	45	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg10	35	99	-	19	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas koreensis</i> Hg11	-	-	94	5	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> Li12	-	59	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Serratia nematodiphila</i> Mn11	100	17	99	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Mn12	67	75	29	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Comamonas testosteroni</i> Ni11	-	57	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter johnsonii</i> Sb01	-	71	20	37	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> Sn11	-	84	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i> Sr11	95	99	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
<i>Acinetobacter haemolyticus</i> Zn01	-	56	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

todC1, ring hydroxylating dioxygenase genes; *tbmD*, *tmoA* and *phhN* ring hydroxylating monooxygenase genes; *xylA* and *tol*, side chain monooxygenase genes; *nahAc*, naphthalene dioxygenase gene; *catA*, catechol 1,2 dioxygenase gene; *c23o*, catechol 2,3 dioxygenase genes; -, not detected; +, detect

3.4.2 Detection of intermediates during BTEX degradation

Aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of the bacterial strains were first predicted by PCR analyses of the catabolic genes. Due to diversity of genes and corresponding enzymes in BTEX degradation, further analyses were needed as suggested by Jiménez *et al.* (2002). For deciphering the actively used degradation pathways of efficient BTEX degraders (Table 3.3), intermediates during the degradation of BTEX compounds were detected through GC/MS analyses. Raw data of GC/MS chromatograms and MS ionization are given in Appendix C.

3.4.2.1 Detection of intermediates during benzene degradation

Benzene is degraded to phenol or cis-benzenedihydrodiol and catechol is produced at the end of each route as an identical product (Armando & Díaz, 2004). Four bacterial strains namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. rhizophila* Ba11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 and *M. luteus* Sr11 were previously determined as efficient benzene degraders. The bacterial strains were further used to analyze the intermediates produced during benzene degradation. As an intermediary product phenol was detected in the degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11 and *M. luteus* Sr11. No identical intermediate was detected in the degradation by *S. nematodiphila* Ba11. Catechol was detected in the degradation by *S. nematodiphila* (Figure 3.28). Similarly, phenol and catechol were detected as intermediary products in benzene degrading *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* BD-a59 in the study done by Choi *et al.* (2013).

3.4.2.2 Detection of intermediates during toluene degradation

Toluene has five different biodegradation pathways catalyzed by variety of enzyme systems (Leusch & Bartkow, 2010). Cresols are produced by the activity of monooxygenation (González *et al.*, 2013). Side chain monooxygenation leads to production of benzyl alcohol (Heinaru *et al.*, 2016) and dioxygenation is ended up with cis-toluenedihydrodiol (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009). At the end of each pathway catechol derivatives are formed. Five bacterial strains in this study were defined as efficient toluene degraders namely *R. plancticola* Ag11, *S. aureus* Ba01, *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *P. koreensis* Hg10 and *M. luteus* Sr11. Their intermediates were analyzed by GC/MS during toluene degradation. Benzyl alcohol and 4-cresol were detected in the degradation of toluene by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *M. luteus*, respectively (Figure 3.29). Choi *et al.* (2013) were reported the detection of 4-hydroxytoluene, 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde, and 4-hydroxybenzoate were detected as intermediates in in toluene degrading *Pseudomonas* sp. In the degradation of toluene by other toluene degraders, no related intermediate could be detected.

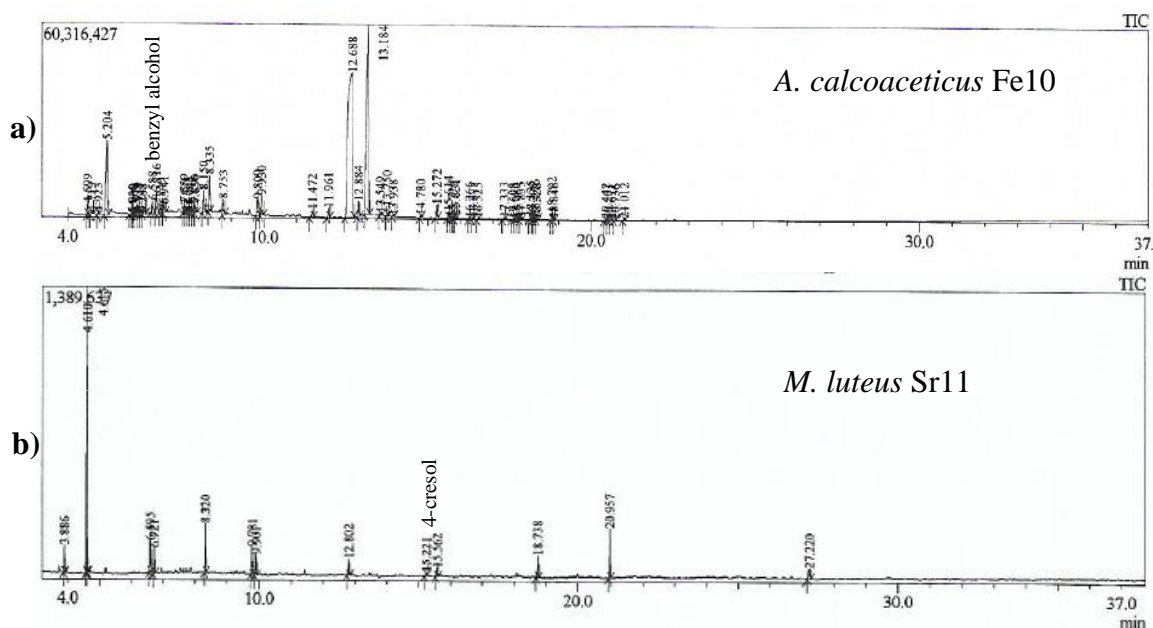


Figure 3.29 GC/MS chromatograms showing the intermediate products during toluene degradation while incubation with *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (a) and *M. luteus* Sr11 (b). Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.

3.4.2.3 Detection of intermediates during ethylbenzene degradation

Ethylbenzene can be catalyzed by dioxygenases including toluene dioxygenase and naphthalene dioxygenase producing cis-ethylbenzenediol and styrene, respectively (Ma *et al.*, 2007). *R. plancticola* Ag11, *P. koreensis* Hg11, *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 were previously selected as efficient ethylbenzene degraders due to GC/MS analyses. In the degradation of ethylbenzene by *R. plancticola* Ag11, homogentisic acid was detected. By GC/MS analyses, lactic acid and acetoacetic acid were also detected in the ethylbenzene degradation by *P. koreensis* Hg11. As a metabolite, phenylacetic acid was found in the degradation of ethylbenzene by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (Figure 3.30). Metabolites of styrene pathway were also previously demonstrated in *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* BD-a59 by Choi *et al.*, (2013).

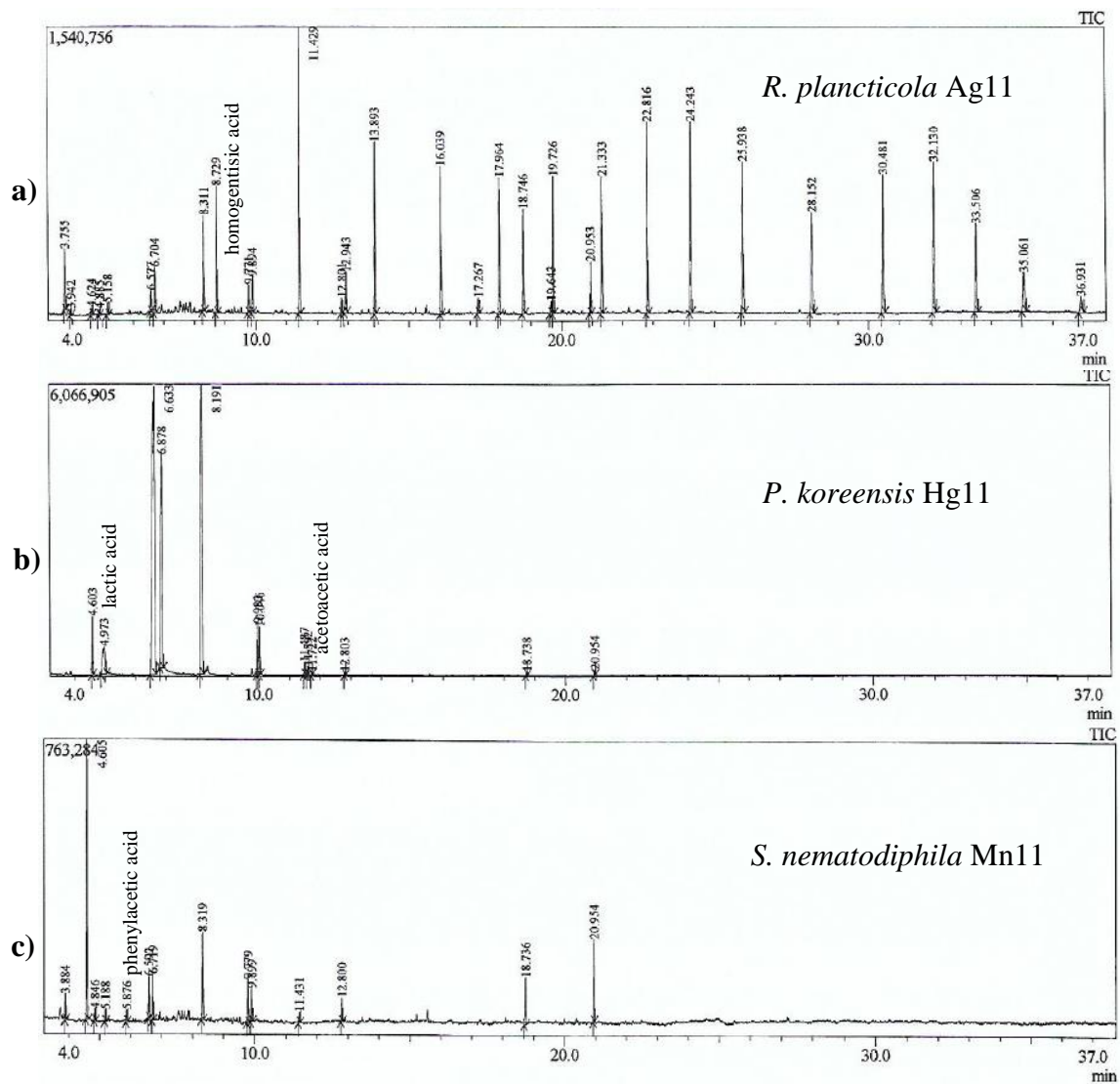


Figure 3.30 GC/MS chromatograms showing the intermediate products during ethylbenzene degradation while incubation with *R. plancticola* Ag11 (a), *P. koreensis* Hg11 (b), *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 (c). Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.

3.4.2.4 Detection of intermediates during xylene degradation

Xylenes are metabolized to methylbenzyl alcohols and methyl benzoates subsequently (Choi *et al.*, 2013). Mixed form of xylene was used in this study comprising *-o*, *-m* and *-p* isomers. The previously defined bacterial strains namely *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *A. johnsonii* were selected from xylene degraders and intermediates produced during xylene degradation by these two strains were determined by GC/MS. Three form of methyl benzoates (-2, -3, -4) were detected in the degradation of xylenes by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 (Figure 3.31) and none of the metabolite was detected in the degradation of xylene by *A. johnsonii* Sb01. The degradation of *o*-xylene in *B. cepacia* MB2 catalyzes through the oxidation of a methyl substituent of *o*-xylene to 2-methylbenzyl alcohol by xylene monooxygenase, which is followed by the subsequent conversion of 2-methylbenzyl alcohol to 2-methylbenzaldehyde and 2-methylbenzoate as reported by Jørgensen (1995).

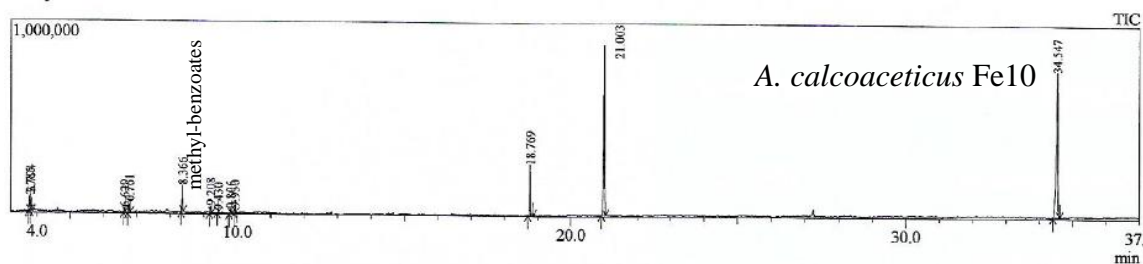


Figure 3.31 GC/MS chromatogram showing the intermediate products during xylene degradation while incubation with *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10. Main intermediates detected are indicated on each chromatogram.

Aerobic BTEX degradation pathways of efficient BTEX degraders were first predicted by PCR detection of the initial attack genes and then confirmed by intermediate analyses produced during degradation. The degradation characteristics of BTEX compounds by efficient degraders were summarized in Table 3.4 including degradation percentages, intermediates detected by GC/MS analysis during degradation, corresponding genotypes, and identified biodegradation pathways.

Table 3.4 Degradation characteristics of BTEX compounds by efficient degraders and their degradation pathways

Bacterial strains	Substrates	Degradation (%)	Intermediates	Initial attack genes							Cleavage genes			Pathway used
				<i>todC1</i>	<i>tbmD</i>	<i>tmoA</i>	<i>xylA</i>	<i>tol</i>	<i>phhN</i>	<i>nahAc</i>	<i>catA</i>	<i>C23O-I</i>	<i>C23O-II</i>	
<i>R. planticola</i> Ag11	B	73	phenol											B1
	T	63	-											T2
	E	75	homogentisic acid	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	E1.1
	X	-	na											nd
<i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	B	-	na											B2
	T	99	benzyl alcohol											T5
	E	56	na	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	E2
	X	45	methyl-benzoates											X1/X2/X3
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11	B	-	na											B2
	T	-	na											T2
	E	94	acetoacetate, lactic acid	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	E1.1/E1.2
	X	5	na											nd
<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	B	100	catechol											B2
	T	17	na											T2
	E	99	phenylacetic acid	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	E1.1
	X	-	na											nd
<i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	B	95	phenol											B1
	T	99	4-cresol											T4
	E	-	na	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	E2
	X	-	na											nd
<i>S. aureus</i> Ba01	B	45	na											nd
	T	100	-											nd
	E	34	na	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	nd
	X	-	na											nd
<i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	B	95	-											B2
	T	18	na											T2
	E	52	na	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	E2
	X	-	na											nd
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	B	35	na											B2
	T	99	-											T2
	E	19	na	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	E2
	X	-	na											nd
<i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	B	-	na											B2
	T	71	na											T2
	E	20	na	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	E2
	X	37	-											nd

b, benzene; t, toluene; e, ethylbenzene; x, xylene; *todC1*, ring hydroxylating dioxygenase genes; *tbmD*, *tmoA* and *phhN*, ring hydroxylating monooxygenase genes; *xylA* and *tol*, side chain monooxygenase genes; *nahAc*, naphthalene dioxygenase gene; *catA*, catechol 1,2 dioxygenase genes; *C23O*, catechol 2,3 dioxygenase genes; -, not detected; +, detected; na, not analyzed; nd, not determined; for pathway abbreviations see Figure 3.28-29.

With these results, *R. plancticola* Ag11 degraded benzene by monooxygenation pathway, annotated as B1 (Figure 3.32). However, none of the genes related to monooxygenation pathways were detected by PCR. These results indicated that primers *tbmD*, *tmoA* and *phhN* were not suitable for the detection of all possible monooxygenase genes in the bacterial strains used in the study. The *todC1* gene involved in BTE degradation was detected in *R. plancticola* Ag11 but no intermediate was found related to dioxygenation pathway during the degradation of BTE. This may be due to the unstable characteristic of *cis*-toluene dihydrodiol as suggested by Jouanneau & Meyer (2006), the first produced metabolite of dioxygenation pathway. Detection of homogentisic acid justified that *R. plancticola* Ag11 metabolizes ethylbenzene by utilizing styrene pathway (E1.1) (Figure 3.35).

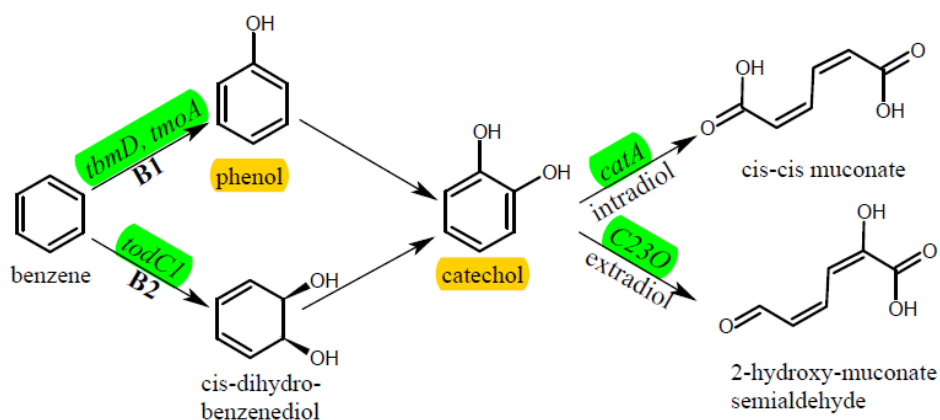


Figure 3.32 Schematic representation of aerobic benzene degradation (modified from KEGG)

An efficient benzene and toluene degrading strain *M. luteus* Sr11 was also evaluated by means of intermediates produced during degradation. In benzene and toluene degradation, detection of phenol and 4-cresol, respectively as key intermediates showed that degradations were initiated through monooxygenation pathways B1 and T4 (Figure 3.32-33). The presence of *tbmD* gene in *M. luteus* Sr11 was further supported the confirmation of monooxygenation pathway identified.

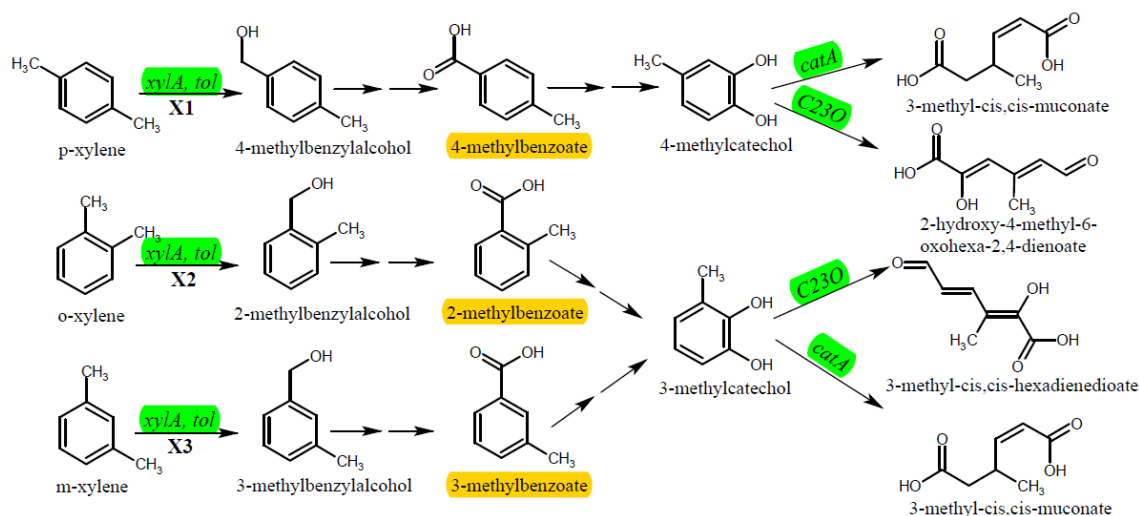


Figure 3.34 Schematic representation of aerobic toluene degradation (modified from KEGG)

In the degradation of ethylbenzene by *P. koreensis* Hg11, acetoacetic acid and lactic acid were found as intermediates. From these results, it was confirmed that ethylbenzene was degraded through styrene pathway and then divided into two branches namely E1.1 and E1.2 as shown in Figure 3.35.

Intermediates produced during the degradation of benzene and ethylbenzene by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 were also analyzed. Detection of catechol in benzene degradation could not give any clue about the exact initial degradation pathway because catechol was produced in both monooxygenation and dioxygenation pathways (Figure 3.32). Presence of *todC1* in *S. nematodiphila* rendered the usage of dioxygenation pathway more favorable. Phenylacetic acid was also detected in ethylbenzene degradation by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11. Thus, it can be concluded that *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 degraded ethylbenzene through styrene pathway E1 (Figure 3.35).

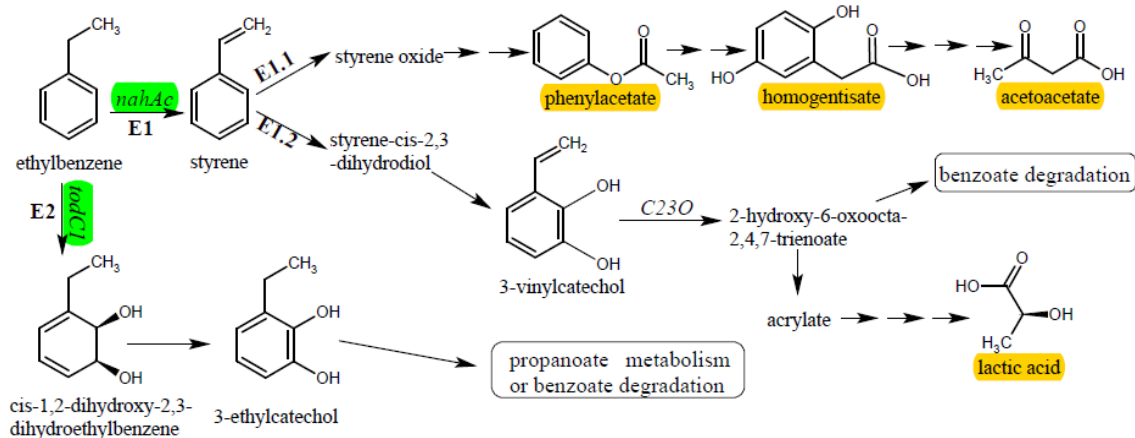


Figure 3.35 Schematic representation of aerobic ethylbenzene degradation (modified from KEGG)

PCR-detection results showed that *todC1* was found to be most common gene among the bacterial strains used in the study. Therefore, it was predicted that bacteria harboring the *todC1* gene used ring dioxygenation pathway. However, the intermediate *cis*-dihydrodiols could not be detected through GC/MS analyses. This was attributed to the unstable behavior of *cis*-dihydrodiols made its detection difficult as confirmed in the study done by Kim *et al.* (2002). Therefore, the experimental conditions of GC/MS should be improved to detect unstable metabolites during degradation.

3.5 Conclusion

1. Out of 22 hydrocarbon degrading bacterial strains, 19 were selected as potential BTEX degrader belonging to the genera *Pseudomonas*, *Raoultella*, *Staphylococcus*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Delftia*, *Acinetobacter*, *Serratia*, *Comamonas*, *Pantoea* and *Micrococcus*.
2. HS-GC/MS analyses were carried out to precisely determine the BTEX degradation abilities of bacterial strains. Almost 100 % of benzene by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11; 100 % of toluene by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10, *M. luteus* Sr11, *S. aureus* Ba01 and *P. koreensis* Hg10; 100 % of ethylbenzene by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11; and 45 % of xylene by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 was removed. *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 showed the highest degradation rates in

benzene with 0.39 mg/mL/day and ethylbenzene degradation with 0.11 mg/mL/day, whereas the highest toluene and xylene degradation rates were observed in *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 with 0.25 and 0.19 mg/mL/day respectively.

3. Phenol was detected in the degradation of benzene by *R. plancticola* Ag11 and *M. luteus* Sr11. Based on these results, *M. luteus* Sr11 and *R. plancticola* Ag11 degraded benzene over the monooxygenation pathway although *R. plancticola* Ag11 had *todC1* gene. Other efficient benzene degraders most likely used dioxygenation pathway due to the presence of *todC1* gene.
4. Detection of benzyl alcohol and 4-cresol in *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 and *M. luteus* Sr11, revealed that *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 metabolized toluene by using side chain monooxygenation pathway and *M. luteus* Sr11 convert toluene to 4-cresol through the monooxidation of the ring at 4th position. Except for *S. aureus* Ba01, all other efficient toluene degraders contained *todC1* gene, therefore, it was predicted that dioxygenation pathway was used in toluene degradation.
5. In ethylbenzene degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11, *P. koreensis* Hg11 and *S. nematodiphila* Mn11 homogentisic acid, acetoacetic acid/lactic acid and phenylacetic acid were detected, respectively. Based on these results, it was concluded that styrene pathway was used for the degradation of ethylbenzene by these strains.
6. In the degradation of xylene by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10 detection of methylbenzoates led to the conclusion that xylene was metabolized through side-chain monooxygenation pathway by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10.
7. Different *todC1* amplicons in 14 bacterial strains were compared to database and strong homology was found with toluene/benzene dioxygenase genes among all these strains. The sequence homology ranged in between 62 and 99 %. These results pointed out the horizontal transfer of dioxygenase genes among bacterial strains studied.

3.6 Future prospects and recommendations

- The degradation patterns of BTEX degraders should be evaluated in different mediums combined with BTEX mixtures for efficient bioremediation of all the BTEX compounds together.
- Bioavailability of BTEX is limited for microorganism due to hydrophobic nature. Before the field scale applications, biosurfactant producing abilities of bacteria and type of biosurfactants should be determined for efficient bioremediation.
- To prove the efficiency of bioremediation process, besides genetic and pathway analysis, the effects of environmental factors such as pH, temperature, presence of other substrates and their concentration, oxygen demand and dynamics of microbial consortia should be evaluated.
- The activity of efficient BTEX degrading bacteria should be determined in the presence of other bacteria.
- Genetically modified organisms can also be used to improve the hydrocarbon degradation efficiency, but other limitations may complicate the procedure, such as problems with international legislations
- Crude enzymes may also be used to transform the contaminant into less-toxic or nontoxic compounds. Enzymatic remediation can be simpler than microbial one. The use of crude enzymes does not generate toxic byproducts and whole cell competitiveness is not necessary.

REFERENCES

- Abbasian, F., Lockington, R., Mallavarapu, M., & Naidu, R. (2015). A Comprehensive Review of Aliphatic Hydrocarbon Biodegradation by Bacteria. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 176,(3), 670-699.
- Abbasian, F., Lockington, R., Megharaj, M., & Naidu, R. (2015). A Review on the Genetics of Aliphatic and Aromatic Hydrocarbon Degradation. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 178(2), 224-250.
- Aburto, A., Fahy, A., Coulon, F., Lethbridge, G., Timmis, K. N., Ball, A. S., & McGenity, T. J. (2009). Mixed aerobic and anaerobic microbial communities in benzene-contaminated groundwater. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 106(1), 317-328.
- Adebusoye, S. A., Ilori, M. O., Amund, O. O., Teniola, O. D., & Olatope, S. O. (2007). Microbial degradation of petroleum hydrocarbons in a polluted tropical stream. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 23(8), 1149-1159.
- Akbulut, S., Yilmaz, F., & Icen, B. (2014). Surface water isolates of hemolytic and non-hemolytic *Acinetobacter* with multiple drug and heavy metal resistance ability. *Journal of Water and Health*, 12(1), 1-12.
- Aktan, Y., Tan, S., & Icen, B. (2013). Characterization of lead-resistant river isolate *Enterococcus faecalis* and assessment of its multiple metal and antibiotic resistance. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 185(6), 5285-5293.
- Alagappan, G., & Cowan, R. M. (2004). Effect of temperature and dissolved oxygen on the growth kinetics of *Pseudomonas putida* F1 growing on benzene and toluene. *Chemosphere*, 54(8), 1255-1265.
- Alfreider, A., Vogt, C., & Babel, W. (2003). Expression of Chlorocatechol 1, 2-Dioxygenase and Chlorocatechol 2,3-Dioxygenase Genes in Chlorobenzene-Contaminated Subsurface Samples. *Society*, 69(3), 1372-1376.
- Alvarez, P. J. J., & Vogel, T. M. (1991). Substrate interactions of benzene, toluene, and para-xylene during microbial degradation by pure cultures and mixed culture aquifer slurries. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 57(10), 2981-2985.
- Amor, L., Kennes, C., & Veiga, M. C. (2001). Kinetics of inhibition in the biodegradation of monoaromatic hydrocarbons in presence of heavy metals. *Bioresource Technology*, 78(2), 181-185.
- Arenghi, F. L. G., Berlanda, D., Galli, E., Sello, G., & Barbieri, P. (2001). Organization and Regulation of *meta* Cleavage Pathway Genes for Toluene and *o*-Xylene Derivative Degradation in *Pseudomonas stutzeri* OX1. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 67(7), 3304-3308.

- Armando, H., & Díaz, J. (2004). Characterization of the genetic potential, catabolic structure and degradative activities against BTEX in microbial communities from aquifers under adaptation to organic contaminants. *Naturwissenschaften*.
- Arnold, S. M., Angerer, J., Boogaard, P. J., Hughes, M. F., O'Lone, R. B., Robison, S. H., & Schnatter, A. R. (2013). The use of biomonitoring data in exposure and human health risk assessment: benzene case study. *Critical Reviews in Toxicology*, 43(2), 119-53.
- Atlas, R., & Bragg, J. (2009). Bioremediation of marine oil spills: When and when not - The Exxon Valdez experience. *Microbial Biotechnology*, 2(2 SPEC. ISS.), 213-221.
- Atlas, R. M., Stoeckel, D. M., Faith, S. A., Minard-Smith, A., Thorn, J. R., & Benotti, M. J. (2015). Oil Biodegradation and Oil-Degrading Microbial Populations in Marsh Sediments Impacted by Oil from the Deepwater Horizon Well Blowout. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 49(14), 8356-8366.
- ATSDR. (2007). Toxicological Profile for Benzene. *Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR)*, (August), 438.
- ATSDR. (2010). Toxicological Profile for Ethylbenzene. *Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR)*, (November), 341.
- ATSDR. (2015). Toxicological Profile for Toluene - Draft. *U.S. Department of Health and Human Services*, (September).
- ATSDR Agency for Toxic Substances & Disease Registry. (2015). Ethylbenzene-ToxFAQs™. *Atsdr*, 1-2.
- Bagi, A., Pampanin, D. M., Brakstad, O. G., & Kommedal, R. (2013). Estimation of hydrocarbon biodegradation rates in marine environments: A critical review of the Q10 approach. *Marine Environmental Research*, 89, 83-90.
- Baldwin, B. R., Nakatsu, C. H., & Nies, L. (2003). Detection and Enumeration of Aromatic Oxygenase Genes by Multiplex and Detection and Enumeration of Aromatic Oxygenase Genes by Multiplex and Real-Time PCR. *Society*, 69(6), 3350-3358.
- Banton, M. (2014). Ethylbenzene. In *Encyclopedia of Toxicology* (pp. 516-518).
- Baquiran, J. P., Thater, B., Songco, K., & Crowley, D. E. (2012). Characterization of Culturable PAH and BTEX Degrading Bacteria from Heavy Oil of the Rancho La Brea Tarpits. *Polycyclic Aromatic Compounds*, 32(5), 600-614.
- Barathi, S., & Vasudevan, N. (2001). Utilization of petroleum hydrocarbons by *Pseudomonas fluorescens* isolated from a petroleum-contaminated soil. *Environment International*, 26(5-6), 413-416.
- Barbieri, P., Palladino, L., Di Gennaro, P., & Galli, E. (1993). Alternative pathways for *o*-xylene or *m*-xylene and *p*-xylene degradation in a *Pseudomonas stutzeri* strain. *Biodegradation*, 4(2), 71-80.

- Benjamin, R. C., Voss, J. A., & Kunz, D. A. (1991). Nucleotide sequence of *xylE* from the TOL pDK1 plasmid and structural comparison with isofunctional catechol-2,3-dioxygenase genes from TOL pWW0 and NAH7. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 173(8), 2724-2728.
- Bombach, P., Richnow, H. H., Kästner, M., & Fischer, A. (2010). Current approaches for the assessment of *in situ* biodegradation. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 86(3), 839-852
- Borowski, T., & Siegbahn, P. E. M. (2006). Mechanism for catechol ring cleavage by non-heme iron intradiol dioxygenases: A hybrid DFT study. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 128(39), 12941-12953.
- Bosch, R., García-Valdés, E., & Moore, E. R. B. (1999). Genetic characterization and evolutionary implications of a chromosomally encoded naphthalene-degradation upper pathway from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* AN10. *Gene*, 236(1), 149-157.
- British Petroleum. (2017). BP Statistical Review of World Energy 2017. *British Petroleum*, (66), 1-52.
- Brugnone, F., Perbellini, L., Romeo, L., Bianchin, M., Tonello, A., Pianalto, G., Zanon, G. (1998). Benzene in environmental air and human blood. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 71(8), 554-559.
- Buesa, R. J., & Peshkov, M. V. (2009). Histology without xylene. *Annals of Diagnostic Pathology*, 13(4), 246-256.
- Cafaro, V., Izzo, V., Scognamiglio, R., Notomista, E., Capasso, P., Casbarra, A., Di Donato, A. (2004). Phenol Hydroxylase and Toluene/*o*-Xylene Monooxygenase from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* OX1: Interplay between Two Enzymes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 70(4), 2211-2219.
- Calvo, C., Manzanera, M., Silva-Castro, G. A., Uad, I., & González-López, J. (2009). Application of bioemulsifiers in soil oil bioremediation processes. Future prospects. *Science of the Total Environment*, 407(12), 3634-3640.
- Cannella, W. J. (2007). Xylenes and Ethylbenzene. In *Kirk-Othmer Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology* (pp. 10-25).
- Cao, B., Nagarajan, K., & Loh, K. C. (2009). Biodegradation of aromatic compounds: Current status and opportunities for biomolecular approaches. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 85(2), 207-228.
- Cavalca, L., Dell'Amico, E., & Andreoni, V. (2004). Intrinsic bioremediability of an aromatic hydrocarbon-polluted groundwater: Diversity of population and toluene. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 64(4), 576-587.
- Cerit, S., Yilmaz, F., & Içgen, B. (2015). Challenging tin toxicity by a novel strain isolated from freshwaters. *Desalination and Water Treatment*, 53(12), 3244-3252.

- Chandra, S., Sharma, R., Singh, K., & Sharma, A. (2013). Application of bioremediation technology in the environment contaminated with petroleum hydrocarbon. *Annals of Microbiology*, 63(2), 417-431.
- Chang, B. V., Wu, W. Bin, & Yuan, S. Y. (1997). Biodegradation of benzene, toluene, and other aromatic compounds by *Pseudomonas* sp. D8. *Chemosphere*, 35(12), 2807-2815.
- Chatterjee, A., Babu, R. J., Ahaghotu, E., & Singh, M. (2005). The effect of occlusive and unocclusive exposure to xylene and benzene on skin irritation and molecular responses in hairless rats. *Archives of Toxicology*, 79(5), 294–301.
- Chen, C. I., & Taylor, R. T. (1995). Thermophilic biodegradation of BTEX by two *Thermus* Species. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 48(6), 614–624.
- Choi, E. J., Jin, H. M., Lee, S. H., Math, R. K., Madsen, E. L., & Jeon, C. O. (2013). Comparative genomic analysis and benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and *o*-, *m*-, and *p*-xylene (BTEX) degradation pathways of *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* BD-a59. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 79(2), 663-671.
- Clough, S. R. (2014). Toluene. In *Encyclopedia of Toxicology* (pp. 595–598).
- Costa, A. S., Romão, L. P. C., Araújo, B. R., Lucas, S. C. O., Maciel, S. T. A., Wisniewski, A., & Alexandre, M. R. (2012). Environmental strategies to remove volatile aromatic fractions (BTEX) from petroleum industry wastewater using biomass. *Bioresource Technology*, 105, 31-39.
- Coufal, D. E., Blazyk, J. L., Whittington, D., Wu, W. W., Rosenzweig, C., Lippard, S. J. (2000). Sequencing and analysis of the *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath) soluble methane monooxygenase genes. *European Journal of Biochemistry/FEBS*, 267(8), 2174-2185.
- Daghio, M., Tatangelo, V., Franzetti, A., Gandolfi, I., Papacchini, M., Careghini, A., Bestetti, G. (2015). Hydrocarbon degrading microbial communities in bench scale aerobic biobarriers for gasoline contaminated groundwater treatment. *Chemosphere*, 130, 34-39.
- Dalvi, S., Azetsu, S., Patrauchan, M. A., Aktas, D. F., & Fathepure, B. Z. (2012). Proteogenomic elucidation of the initial steps in the benzene degradation pathway of a novel halophile, *Arhodomonas* sp. strain rozel, isolated from a hypersaline environment. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 78(20), 7309-7316.
- Das, N., Chandran, P., Das, N., & Chandran, P. (2011). Microbial Degradation of Petroleum Hydrocarbon Contaminants: An Overview. *Biotechnology Research International*, 2011, 1-13.
- Daverey, A., & Pakshirajan, K. (2009). Production of sophorolipids by the yeast *Candida bombicola* using simple and low cost fermentative media. *Food Research International*, 42(4), 499-504.

- Deeb, R. A., & Alvarez-Cohen, L. (1999). Temperature effects and substrate interactions during the aerobic biotransformation of BTEX mixtures by toluene-enriched consortia and *Rhodococcus rhodochrous*. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 62(5), 526-536.
- Demir, G. (2004). Degradation of toluene and benzene by *Trametes versicolor*. *Journal of Environmental Biology*, 25(1), 19-25.
- Denayer, J. F. M., De Vos, D., & Leflaive, P. (2011). Separation of Xylene Isomers. In *Metal-Organic Frameworks: Applications from Catalysis to Gas Storage* (pp. 171-190).
- Deng, Y., Yang, F., Deng, C., Yang, J., Jia, J., & Yuan, H. (2017). Biodegradation of BTEX Aromatics by a Haloduric Microbial Consortium Enriched from a Sediment of Bohai Sea, China. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 183(3), 893-905.
- Desai, J. D., & Banat, I. M. (1997). Microbial production of surfactants and their commercial potential. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews: MMBR*, 61(1), 47-64.
- DOU, J., LIU, X., & HU, Z. (2008). Anaerobic BTEX degradation in soil bioaugmented with mixed consortia under nitrate reducing conditions. *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 20(5), 585-592.
- El-Naas, M. H., Acio, J. A., & El Telib, A. E. (2014). Aerobic biodegradation of BTEX: Progresses and Prospects. *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, 2(2), 1104-1122.
- Eltis, L. D., & Bolin, J. T. (1996). Evolutionary relationship among extradiol dioxygenases. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 178(20), 5930-5937.
- EPA. (2012). Benzene. *US Environmental Protection Agency*, (1).
- EPA United States Environmental Protection Agency. (2015). Basic Information|EPA Research|EPA.
- Fabri, J., Graeser, U., & Simo, T. A. (2000). Toluene. In *Ullmann's Encyclopedia of Industrial Chemistry*.
- Farhadian, M., Vachelard, C., Duchez, D., & Larroche, C. (2008). In situ bioremediation of monoaromatic pollutants in groundwater: A review. *Bioresource Technology*, 99(13), 5296-5308.
- Fetzner, S. (2012). Ring-cleaving dioxygenases with a cupin fold. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 78(8), 2505-2514.
- Finkelstein, M. M. (2000). Leukemia after exposure to benzene: Temporal trends and implications for standards. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine*, 38(1), 1-7.
- Fishbein, L. (1985). An overview of environmental and toxicological aspects of aromatic hydrocarbons II. Toluene. *Science of the Total Environment*, The, 42(3), 267-288.

- Friemann, R., Lee, K., Brown, E. N., Gibson, D. T., Eklund, H., & Ramaswamy, S. (2009). Structures of the multicomponent Rieske non-heme iron toluene 2,3-dioxygenase enzyme system. *Acta Crystallographica Section D: Biological Crystallography*, 65(1), 24-33.
- Fritsche, W., & Hofrichter, M. (2008). Aerobic Degradation by Microorganisms. In *Biotechnology: Second, Completely Revised Edition* (Vol. 11-12, pp. 144-167).
- Fruscella, W. (2000). Benzene. In *Kirk-Othmer Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology*.
- Furukawa, K., Hirose, J., Suyama, A., Zainki, T., & Hayashida, S. (1993). Gene components responsible for discrete substrate specificity in the metabolism of biphenyl (*bph* operon) and toluene (*tod* operon). *Journal of Bacteriology*, 175(16), 5224-5232.
- Ghosal, D., Ghosh, S., Dutta, T. K., & Ahn, Y. (2016). Current state of knowledge in microbial degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs): A review. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7, 1369-1375.
- Gibson, D. T., & Parales, R. E. (2000). Aromatic hydrocarbon dioxygenases in environmental biotechnology. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 11(3), 236-243.
- Giedraityte, G., & Kalėdienė, L. (2009). Catechol 1,2-dioxygenase from α -naphthol degrading thermophilic *Geobacillus* sp. strain: purification and properties. *Central European Journal of Biology*, 4(1), 68-73.
- González, J. L., Pell, A., López-Mesas, M., & Valiente, M. (2017). Simultaneous determination of BTEX and their metabolites using solid-phase microextraction followed by HPLC or GC/MS: An application in teeth as environmental biomarkers. *Science of the Total Environment*, 603-604, 109-117.
- Guo, G., Fang, T., Wang, C., Huang, Y., Tian, F., Cui, Q., & Wang, H. (2015). Isolation and characterization of two novel halotolerant Catechol 2, 3-dioxygenases from a halophilic bacterial consortium. *Scientific Reports*, 5(1), 17603.
- Guzik, U., Greń, I., Hupert-Kocurek, K., & Wojcieszńska, D. (2011). Catechol 1,2-dioxygenase from the new aromatic compounds - Degrading *Pseudomonas putida* strain N6. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 65(3), 504-512.
- Guzik, U., Hupert-Kocurek, K., Sitnik, M., & Wojcieszńska, D. (2013). High activity catechol 1,2-dioxygenase from *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* strain KB2 as a useful tool in *cis,cis*-muconic acid production. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek, International Journal of General and Molecular Microbiology*, 103(6), 1297-1307.
- Haley, T. J. (1987). Toluene. *Dangerous Properties of Industrial Materials Report*, 7(4), 2-14.
- Harayama, S., Kishira, H., Kasai, Y., & Shutsubo, K. (1999). Petroleum biodegradation in marine environments. *Journal of Molecular Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 1(1), 63-

- Harwood, C. S., & Parales, R. E. (1996). The B-Ketoadipate Pathway and the Biology of Self-Identity. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.*, *50*, 553-90.
- Heinaru, E., Naanuri, E., Grünbach, M., Jõesaar, M., & Heinaru, A. (2016). Functional redundancy in phenol and toluene degradation in *Pseudomonas stutzeri* strains isolated from the Baltic Sea. *Gene*, *589*(1), 90-98.
- Henderson, L., Brusick, D., Ratpan, F., & Veenstra, G. (2007). A review of the genotoxicity of ethylbenzene. *Mutation Research - Reviews in Mutation Research*, *635*(2), 81-89.
- Hendrickx, B., Dejonghe, W., Faber, F., Boëne, W., Bastiaens, L., Verstraete, W., Springael, D. (2006). PCR-DGGE method to assess the diversity of BTEX mono-oxygenase genes at contaminated sites. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, *55*(2), 262-273.
- Hendrickx, B., Junca, H., Vosahlova, J., Lindner, A., Rüegg, I., Bucheli-Witschel, M., Springael, D. (2006). Alternative primer sets for PCR detection of genotypes involved in bacterial aerobic BTEX degradation: Distribution of the genes in BTEX degrading isolates and in subsurface soils of a BTEX contaminated industrial site. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, *64*(2), 250-265.
- Hollaway, S. L., Faw, G. M., & Sizemore, R. K. (1980). The bacterial community composition of an active oil field in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, *11*(6), 153-156.
- Içgen, B., & Yilmaz, F. (2014). Co-occurrence of antibiotic and heavy metal resistance in Kizilirmak River isolates. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, *93*(6), 735-743.
- Ikuma, K., & Gunsch, C. K. (2013). Functionality of the TOL plasmid under varying environmental conditions following conjugal transfer. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, *97*(1), 395-408.
- Jacobson, G. A., & McLean, S. (2003). Biological monitoring of low level occupational xylene exposure and the role of recent exposure. *Annals of Occupational Hygiene*, *47*(4), 331-336.
- Jeon, C. O., & Madsen, E. L. (2013). In situ microbial metabolism of aromatic-hydrocarbon environmental pollutants. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*.
- Jiang, B., Zhou, Z., Dong, Y., Tao, W., Wang, B., Jiang, J., & Guan, X. (2015). Biodegradation of Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene, and *o*-, *m*-, and *p*-Xylenes by the Newly Isolated Bacterium *Comamonas* sp. JB. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, *176*(6), 1700-1708.
- Jiménez, J. I., Miñambres, B., García, J. L., & Díaz, E. (2002). Genomic analysis of the aromatic catabolic pathways from *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440. *Environmental Microbiology*, *4*(12), 824-841.

- Jin, H. M., Choi, E. J., & Jeon, C. O. (2013). Isolation of a BTEX-degrading bacterium, *Janibacter* sp. sb2, from a sea-tidal flat and optimization of biodegradation conditions. *Bioresource Technology*, *145*, 57-64.
- Jindrov, E., Citocova, M., Demnerov, K., & Brenner, V. (2002). Bacterial Aerobic Ethylbenzene and Xylene. *REVIEW Foha Microbiol*, *47*(2), 83-93.
- Jindrová, E., Chocová, M., Demnerová, K., & Brenner, V. (2002). Bacterial aerobic degradation of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene. *Folia Microbiologica*, *47*(2), 83-93.
- Johnson, G. R., & Olsen, R. H. (1995). Nucleotide sequence analysis of genes encoding a toluene/benzene-2-monooxygenase from *Pseudomonas* sp. strain JS150. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *61*(9), 3336-3346.
- Jørgensen, C., Nielsen, B., Jensen, B. K., & Mortensen, E. (1995). Transformation of o-xylene to o-methyl benzoic acid by a denitrifying enrichment culture using toluene as the primary substrate. *Biodegradation*, *6*(2), 141-146.
- Jouanneau, Y., & Meyer, C. (2006). Purification and characterization of an arene cis-dihydrodiol dehydrogenase endowed with broad substrate specificity toward polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon dihydrodiols. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *72*(7), 4726-4734.
- Jung, I. G., & Park, C. H. (2004). Characteristics of *Rhodococcus pyridinovorans* PYJ-1 for the biodegradation of benzene, toluene, *m*-xylene (BTX), and their mixtures. *J Biosci Bioeng*, *97*(6), 429-431.
- Kandyala, R., Raghavendra, S. P. C., & Rajasekharan, S. T. (2010). Xylene: An overview of its health hazards and preventive measures. *Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Pathology : JOMFP*, *14*(1), 1-5.
- Kasak, L., Horak, R., Nurk, A., Talvik, K., & Kivisaar, M. (1993). Regulation of the catechol 1,2-dioxygenase- and phenol monooxygenase- encoding *pheBA* operon in *Pseudomonas putida* PaW85. *Journal of Bacteriology*, *175*(24), 8038-8042.
- Kasuga, I., Nakajima, F., & Furumai, H. (2007). Diversity of catechol 2,3-dioxygenase genes of bacteria responding to dissolved organic matter derived from different sources in a eutrophic lake. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, *61*(3), 449-458.
- Kim, D., Kim, Y.-S., Kim, S.-K., Kim, S. W., Zylstra, G. J., Kim, Y. M., & Kim, E. (2002). Monocyclic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation by *Rhodococcus* sp. strain DK17. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *68*(7), 3270-8.
- Kim, J. M., Le, N. T., Chung, B. S., Park, J. H., Bae, J. W., Madsen, E. L., & Jeon, C. O. (2008). Influence of soil components on the biodegradation of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and *o*-, *m*-, and *p*-xylenes by the newly isolated bacterium *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* BD-a59. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *74*(23), 7313-7320.
- Kim, L. H., & Lee, S. S. (2011). Isolation and characterization of ethylbenzene degrading *Pseudomonas putida* E41. *Journal of Microbiology*, *49*(4), 575-584.

- Kim, S.-J., Park, S.-J., Jung, M.-Y., Kim, J.-G., Madsen, E. L., & Rhee, S.-K. (2014). An uncultivated nitrate-reducing member of the genus *Herminiimonas* degrades toluene. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *80*(10), 3233-43.
- Kleindienst, S., Gilbert, J. A., Handley, K. M., Weisenhorn, P., Overholt, W. A., & Society, T. O. (2016). Responses of microbial communities to hydrocarbon exposures. *Oceanography*, *29*(3), 136-149.
- Kleindienst, S., Seidel, M., Ziervogel, K., Grim, S., Loftis, K., Harrison, S., Joye, S. B. (2015). Chemical dispersants can suppress the activity of natural oil-degrading microorganisms. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *112*(48), 14900-14905.
- Koc, S., Kabatas, B., & Içgen, B. (2013). Multidrug and heavy metal-resistant *Raoultella planticola* isolated from surface water. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, *91*(2), 177-183.
- Koshlaf, E., & S Ball, A. (2017). Soil bioremediation approaches for petroleum hydrocarbon polluted environments. *AIMS Microbiology*, *3*(1), 25-49.
- Kostka, J. E., Prakash, O., Overholt, W. A., Green, S. J., Freyer, G., Canion, A., Huettel, M. (2011). Hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria and the bacterial community response in Gulf of Mexico beach sands impacted by the deepwater horizon oil spill. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *77*(22), 7962-7974.
- Kovacs, J. a. (2003). How Iron Activates O₂. *Science*, *299*(5609), 1024-1025.
- Kumar, M., León, V., De Sisto Materano, A., Ilzins, O. A., & Luis, L. (2008). Biosurfactant production and hydrocarbon-degradation by halotolerant and thermotolerant *Pseudomonas* sp. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, *24*(7), 1047-1057.
- Leahy, J. G., Batchelor, P. J., & Morcomb, S. M. (2003). Evolution of the soluble diiron monooxygenases. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*, *27*(4), 449-479.
- Lee, S. H., Jin, H. M., Lee, H. J., Kim, J. M., & Jeon, C. O. (2012). Complete genome sequence of the BTEX-degrading bacterium *Pseudoxanthomonas spadix* BD-a59. *Journal of Bacteriology*, *194*(2), 544-544.
- Leusch, F., & Bartkow, M. (2010). A short primer on benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylenes (BTEX) in the environment and in hydraulic fracturing fluids. *Griffith University - Smart Water Center*, 1-8.
- Li, H., Liu, Y. H., Luo, N., Zhang, X. Y., Luan, T. G., Hu, J. M., Lu, J. Q. (2006). Biodegradation of benzene and its derivatives by a psychrotolerant and moderately haloalkaliphilic *Planococcus* sp. strain ZD22. *Research in Microbiology*, *157*(7), 629-636.
- Li, L., & Goel, R. (2012). Biodegradation of Naphthalene, Benzene, Toluene, Ethyl Benzene, and Xylene in Batch and Membrane Bioreactors. *Environmental Engineering Science*, *29*(1), 42-51.

- Li, X., Li, P., Lin, X., Zhang, C., Li, Q., & Gong, Z. (2008). Biodegradation of aged polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) by microbial consortia in soil and slurry phases. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 150(1), 21-26.
- Lillis, L., Clipson, N., & Doyle, E. (2010). Quantification of catechol dioxygenase gene expression in soil during degradation of 2,4-dichlorophenol. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, 73(2), 363-369.
- Lünsmann, V., Kappelmeyer, U., Taubert, A., Nijenhuis, I., Von Bergen, M., Heipieper, H. J., Jehmlich, N. (2016). Aerobic toluene degraders in the rhizosphere of a constructed wetland model show diurnal polyhydroxyalkanoate metabolism. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 82(14), 4126-4132.
- Luttrell, W. E., & Conley, N. L. (2011). Benzene. *Journal of Chemical Health and Safety*.
- Ma, H., Xu, J., Chen, C., Zhang, Q., Ning, J., Miao, H., Li, X. (2007). Catalytic aerobic oxidation of ethylbenzene over Co/SBA-15. *Catalysis Letters*, 113(3-4), 104-108.
- Marcos, M. S., Lozada, M., & Dionisi, H. M. (2009). Aromatic hydrocarbon degradation genes from chronically polluted Subantarctic marine sediments. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, 49(5), 602-608.
- Martinez-Gomez, C., Vethaak, D., Hylland, K., Burgeot, T., Kohler A, Lyons, B. P., Davies, I. M. (2010). A guide to toxicity assessment and monitoring effects at lower levels of biological organization following marine oil spills in European waters. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 67(6), 1105-1118.
- Mazzeo, D. E. C., Levy, C. E., de Angelis, D. de F., & Marin-Morales, M. A. (2010). BTEX biodegradation by bacteria from effluents of petroleum refinery. *Science of the Total Environment*, 408(20), 4334-4340.
- Meckenstock, R. U., Boll, M., Mouttaki, H., Koelschbach, J. S., Cunha Tarouco, P., Weyrauch, P., Himmelberg, A. M. (2016). Anaerobic degradation of benzene and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. *Journal of Molecular Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 26(3), 92-118.
- Mesarch, M. B., Nakatsu, C. H., & Nies, L. (2000). Development of Catechol Monitoring Bioremediation by Competitive Quantitative PCR Development of Catechol 2,3-Dioxygenase-Specific Primers for Monitoring Bioremediation by Competitive Quantitative PCR. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 66(2), 678-683.
- Mesgari Shadi, A., Yaghmaei, S., Vafaei, F., Khataee, A. R., & Hejazi, M. S. (2015). Degradation of benzene, toluene, and xylene (BTX) from aqueous solution by isolated bacteria from contaminated sites. *Research on Chemical Intermediates*, 41(1), 265-275.
- Mitra, S., & Roy, P. (2011). BTEX : A Serious Ground-water Contaminant. *Research Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 5(5), 394-398.

- Mulkins-Phillips, G. J., & Stewart, J. E. (1974). Distribution of hydrocarbon-utilizing bacteria in Northwestern Atlantic waters and coastal sediments. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, 20(7), 955-962.
- Muthusamy, K., Gopalakrishnan, S., Ravi, T. K., & Sivachidambaram, P. (2008). Biosurfactants: properties, commercial production and application. *Current Science*, 94(6), 736-774.
- Nebe, J., Baldwin, B. R., Kassab, R. L., Nies, L., & Nakatsu, C. H. (2009). Quantification of aromatic oxygenase genes to evaluate enhanced bioremediation by oxygen releasing materials at a gasoline-contaminated site. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 43(6), 2029-2034.
- Nelson, K. E., Weinel, C., Paulsen, I. T., Dodson, R. J., Hilbert, H., Martins dos Santos, V. A. P., Fraser, C. M. (2002). Complete genome sequence and comparative analysis of the metabolically versatile *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440. *Environmental Microbiology*, 4(12), 799-808.
- Niaz, K., Bahadar, H., Maqbool, F., & Abdollahi, M. (2015). A review of environmental and occupational exposure to xylene and its health concerns. *EXCLI Journal*, 24, 1167-1186
- Nicholson, C. A., & Fathepure, B. Z. (2005). Aerobic biodegradation of benzene and toluene under hypersaline conditions at the Great Salt Plains, Oklahoma. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 245(2), 257-262.
- Oh, Y., S, Shareefdeen, Z., Baltzis, B. C., & Bartha, R. (1994). Interactions between benzene, toluene, and *p*-xylene (BTX) during their biodegradation. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 44(4), 533-538.
- Olajire, A. A., & Essien, J. P. (2014). Aerobic Degradation of Petroleum Components by Microbial Consortia. *Journal of Petroleum & Environmental Biotechnology*, 5(5), 1-22.
- Onur, G., Yilmaz, F., & Içgen, B. (2015). Diesel Oil Degradation Potential of a Bacterium Inhabiting Petroleum Hydrocarbon Contaminated Surface Waters and Characterization of Its Emulsification Ability. *Journal of Surfactants and Detergents*, 18(4), 707-717.
- Ortega-González, D. K., Zaragoza, D., Aguirre-Garrido, J., Ramírez-Saad, H., Hernández-Rodríguez, C., & Jan-Roblero, J. (2013). Degradation of benzene, toluene, and xylene isomers by a bacterial consortium obtained from rhizosphere soil of *Cyperus* sp. grown in a petroleum-contaminated area. *Folia Microbiologica*, 58(6), 569-577.
- Padhi, S. K., & Gokhale, S. (2017). Benzene biodegradation by indigenous mixed microbial culture: Kinetic modeling and process optimization. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 119, 511-519.

- Parales, R. E., Ditty, J. L., & Harwood, C. S. (2000). Toluene-degrading bacteria are chemotactic towards the environmental pollutants benzene, toluene, and trichloroethylene. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 66(9), 4098-4104.
- Parales, R. E., & Ju, K. S. (2011). Rieske-Type Dioxygenases: Key Enzymes in the Degradation of Aromatic Hydrocarbons. In *Comprehensive Biotechnology, Second Edition*, 6, 115-134.
- Parales, R. E., Parales, J. V., Pelletier, D. A., & Ditty, J. L. (2008). Diversity of microbial toluene degradation pathways. *Advances in applied microbiology*, 64, 1-23.
- Patowary, K., Patowary, R., Kalita, M. C., & Deka, S. (2016). Development of an efficient bacterial consortium for the potential remediation of hydrocarbons from contaminated sites. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7, 1092-1098.
- Peele, K. A., Ch, V. R. T., & Kodali, V. P. (2016). Emulsifying activity of a biosurfactant produced by a marine bacterium. *3 Biotech*, 6(2).
- Pierce, C. H., Chen, Y., Dills, R. L., Kalman, D. A., & Morgan, M. S. (2002). Toluene metabolites as biological indicators of exposure. *Toxicology Letters*, 129(1-2), 65-76.
- Pinholt, Y., Struwe, S., & Kjøller, A. (1979). Microbial changes during oil decomposition in soil. *Ecography*, 2(3), 195-200.
- Powlowski, J., & Shingler, V. (1994). Genetics and biochemistry of phenol degradation by *Pseudomonas* sp. CF600. *Biodegradation*, 5(3-4), 219-236.
- Rajan, S. T., & Malathi, N. (2014). Health hazards of xylene: A literature review. *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research*, 8(2), 271-274.
- Reardon, K. F., Mosteller, D. C., & Bull Rogers, J. D. (2000). Biodegradation kinetics of benzene, toluene, and phenol as single and mixed substrates for *Pseudomonas putida* F1. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 69(4), 385-400.
- Rodrigues, D. F., Sakata, S. K., Comasseto, J. V., Bicego, M. C., & Pellizari, V. H. (2009). Diversity of hydrocarbon-degrading *Klebsiella* strains isolated from hydrocarbon-contaminated estuaries. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 106(4), 1304-1314.
- Rodríguez-Rodríguez, C. E., Rodríguez-Cavallini, E., & Blanco, R. (2009). Bacterial contamination of automotive fuels in a tropical region: The case of Costa Rica. *Revista de Biología Tropical*, 57(3), 489-504.
- Rogers, J. B., & Reardon, K. F. (2000). Modeling substrate interactions during the biodegradation of mixtures of toluene and phenol by *Burkholderia* species JS150. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 70(4), 428-435.
- Ron, E. Z., & Rosenberg, E. (2002). Biosurfactants and oil bioremediation. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 13(3), 249-252.
- Ron, E. Z., & Rosenberg, E. (2014). Enhanced bioremediation of oil spills in the sea. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 27, 191-194

- Rosenberg, E., & Ron, E. Z. (2013). Biosurfactant. *The Prokaryotes*, 281-294.
- Saeki, H., Sasaki, M., Komatsu, K., Miura, A., & Matsuda, H. (2009). Oil spill remediation by using the remediation agent JE1058BS that contains a biosurfactant produced by *Gordonia* sp. strain JE-1058. *Bioresource Technology*, 100(2), 572-577.
- Saillenfait, A. M., Gallissot, F., Morel, G., & Bonnet, P. (2003). Developmental toxicities of ethylbenzene, *ortho*-, *meta*-, *para*-xylene and technical xylene in rats following inhalation exposure. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 41(3), 415-429.
- Sajna, K. V., Sukumaran, R. K., Gottumukkala, L. D., & Pandey, A. (2015). Crude oil biodegradation aided by biosurfactants from *Pseudozyma* sp. NII 08165 or its culture broth. *Bioresource Technology*, 191, 133-139.
- Sarkar, P., Rai, A. R., & Ghosh, S. (2013). Degradation of aromatic petroleum hydrocarbons (BTEX) by a solvent tolerant bacterial consortium. *Journal of Urban and Environmental Engineering*, 7(2), 274-279.
- Saxena, P., & Thakur, I. S. (2005). Purification and characterization of catechol 1,2-dioxygenase of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* for degradation of 4-chlorobenzoic acid. *Indian Journal of Biotechnology*, 4(1), 134-138.
- Schupp, T., Bolt, H. M., & Hengstler, J. G. (2005). Maximum exposure levels for xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in cars. *Toxicology*, 206(3), 461-470.
- Sei, K., Asano, K. I., Tateishi, N., Mori, K., Ike, M., & Fujita, M. (1999). Design of PCR primers and gene probes for the general detection of bacterial populations capable of degrading aromatic compounds via catechol cleavage pathways. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 88(5), 542-550.
- Services, H. (2005). Toxicological Profile for. *Atsdr*, (August).
- Shim, H., & Wood, T. K. (2000). Aerobic degradation of mixtures of chlorinated aliphatics by cloned toluene-*o*-xylene monooxygenase and toluene *o*-monooxygenase in resting cells. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 70(6), 693-698.
- Shinoda, Y., Sakai, Y., Uenishi, H., Uchihashi, Y., Hiraishi, A., Yukawa, H., Kato, N. (2004). Aerobic and Anaerobic Toluene Degradation by a Newly Isolated Denitrifying Bacterium, *Thauera* sp. Strain DNT-1. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 70(3), 1385-1392.
- Siani, L., Papa, R., Di Donato, A., & Sannia, G. (2006). Recombinant expression of Toluene *o*-Xylene Monooxygenase (ToMO) from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* OX1 in the marine Antarctic bacterium *Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* TAC125. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 126(3), 334-341.
- Sihag, S., Pathak, H., & Jaroli, D. P. (2014). Factors Affecting the Rate of Biodegradation of Polyaromatic Hydrocarbons. *International Journal of Pure and Applied Bioscience*, 2(3), 185-202.

- Silva, A. S., De Oliveira Camargo, F. A., Andreazza, R., Jacques, R. J. S., Baldoni, D. B., & Bento, F. M. (2012). Enzymatic activity of catechol 1,2-dioxygenase and catechol 2,3-dioxygenase produced by *Gordonia polyisoprenivorans*. *Quimica Nova*, 35(8), 1587-1592.
- Singh, R., & Celin, S. M. (2010). Biodegradation of BTEX (Benzene , Toluene , Ethyl Benzene and Xylene) Compounds by Bacterial Strain under Aerobic Conditions. *J. Ecobiotechnol.*, 2(4), 27-32.
- Singh, O. V., & Jain, R. K. (2003). Phytoremediation of toxic aromatic pollutants from soil. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 63(2), 128-135.
- Snyder, R. (2012). Leukemia and benzene. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 9(8), 2875-2893.
- Snyder, R., Witz, G., & Goldstein, B. D. (1993). The toxicology of benzene. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 100, 293-306.
- Sotirova, A., Spasova, D., Vasileva-Tonkova, E., & Galabova, D. (2009). Effects of rhamnolipid-biosurfactant on cell surface of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Microbiological Research*, 164(3), 297-303.
- Stasik, S., Wick, L. Y., & Wendt-Potthoff, K. (2015). Anaerobic BTEX degradation in oil sands tailings ponds: Impact of labile organic carbon and sulfate-reducing bacteria. *Chemosphere*, 138, 133-139.
- Suzuki, M., Hayakawa, T., Shaw, J. P., Rekik, M., & Harayama, S. (1991). Primary structure of xylene monooxygenase: Similarities to and differences from the alkane hydroxylation system. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 173(5), 1690-1695.
- Tabatabaee, a, & Assadi, M. M. (2005). Isolation of biosurfactant producing bacteria from oil reservoirs. *Iranian Journal of Environmental Health, Science and Engineering*, 2(1), 6-12.
- Táncsics, A., Szabó, I., Baka, E., Szoboszlay, S., Kukolya, J., Kriszt, B., & Márialigeti, K. (2010). Investigation of catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and 16S rRNA gene diversity in hypoxic, petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated groundwater. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology*, 33(7), 398-406.
- Táncsics, A., Szoboszlay, S., Szabó, I., Farkas, M., Kovács, B., Kukolya, J., Kriszt, B. (2012). Quantification of subfamily I.2.C catechol 2,3-dioxygenase mRNA transcripts in groundwater samples of an oxygen-limited BTEX-contaminated site. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 46(1), 232-240.
- Tang, W., Hemm, I., & Eisenbrand, G. (2000). Estimation of human exposure to styrene and ethylbenzene. *Toxicology*, 144(1-3), 39-50.
- Tuan, N. N., Hsieh, H. C., Lin, Y. W., & Huang, S. L. (2011). Analysis of bacterial degradation pathways for long-chain alkylphenols involving phenol hydroxylase, alkylphenol monooxygenase and catechol dioxygenase genes. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(5), 4232-4240.

- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2011). *Benzene. Report on Carcinogens, Twelfth Edition.*
- US Environmental Protection Agency. (2016). EPA History.
- Vaillancourt, E. H., Bolin, J. T., & Eltis, L. D. (2006). The Ins and Outs of Ring-Cleaving Dioxygenases. *Critical Reviews in Biochemistry and Molecular Biology*, 41, 241-267.
- Vallero, D. A., & Letcher, T. M. (2013). *Unraveling Environmental Disasters. Unraveling Environmental Disasters.*
- Van Beilen, J. B., & Funhoff, E. G. (2007). Alkane hydroxylases involved in microbial alkane degradation. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 74(1), 13-21.
- Varjani, S. J. (2017). Microbial degradation of petroleum hydrocarbons. *Bioresource Technology*, 233, 277-286.
- Varjani, S. J., Rana, D. P., Bateja, S., Sharma, M. C., & Upasani, V. N. (2007). Screening and identification of biosurfactant (bioemulsifier) producing bacteria from crude oil contaminated sites of Gujarat, India. *International Journal of Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology (An ISO Certified Organization)*, 3297(2), 9205-9213.
- Varjani, S. J., Rana, D. P., Jain, A. K., Bateja, S., & Upasani, V. N. (2015). Synergistic ex-situ biodegradation of crude oil by halotolerant bacterial consortium of indigenous strains isolated from on shore sites of Gujarat, India. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 103, 116-124.
- Varjani, S. J., & Upasani, V. N. (2016). Biodegradation of petroleum hydrocarbons by oleophilic strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* NCIM 5514. *Bioresource Technology*, 222, 195-201.
- Venkata Mohan, S., Falkentoft, C., Venkata Nancharaiyah, Y., Sturm, B. S. M., Wattiau, P., Wilderer, P. A., Hausner, M. (2009). Bioaugmentation of microbial communities in laboratory and pilot scale sequencing batch biofilm reactors using the TOL plasmid. *Bioresource Technology*, 100(5), 1746-1753.
- Venosa, A. D., & Zhu, X. (2003). Biodegradation of crude oil contaminating marine shorelines and freshwater wetlands. *Spill Science and Technology Bulletin*, 8(2), 163-178.
- Vetting, M. W., & Ohlendorf, D. H. (2000). The 1.8 crystal structure of catechol 1,2-dioxygenase reveals a novel hydrophobic helical zipper as a subunit linker. *Structure*, 8(4), 429-440.
- Wackett, L. P. (2003). *Pseudomonas putida* versatile biocatalyst. *Nature Biotechnology*, 21(2), 136-8.
- Wang, C. Y., Huang, C. T., & Hsieh, Y. Z. (2003). Determination of metabolites of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene by β -cyclodextrin modified capillary electrophoresis. *Journal of Separation Science*, 26(1-2), 69-74.

- Wang, W., & Shao, Z. (2013). Enzymes and genes involved in aerobic alkane degradation. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 4(1), 116-122.
- Weelink, S. A. B., van Eekert, M. H. A., & Stams, A. J. M. (2010). Degradation of BTEX by anaerobic bacteria: Physiology and application. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Biotechnology*, 9(4), 359-385.
- Weisel, C. P. (2010). Benzene exposure: An overview of monitoring methods and their findings. *Chemico-Biological Interactions*, 184(1-2), 58-66.
- Whiteley, C. G., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Enzyme technology and biological remediation. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 38(3-4), 291-316.
- Widdel, F., Knittel, K., & Galushko, A. (2010). Anaerobic Hydrocarbon-Degrading Microorganisms: An Overview. *Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology*, 3, 1997-2021.
- Wilbur, S., Bosch, S., & Services, H. (2004). Interaction profile for Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene and Xylenes (BTEX). *Public Health*, (May), 154.
- Williams, P. A., & Murray, K. (1974). Metabolism of benzoate and the methylbenzoates by *Pseudomonas putida* (arvilla) mt 2: evidence for the existence of a TOL plasmid. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 120(1), 416-423.
- Witzig, R., Junca, H., Hecht, H. J., & Pieper, D. H. (2006). Assessment of toluene/biphenyl dioxygenase gene diversity in benzene-polluted soils: Links between benzene biodegradation and genes similar to those encoding isopropylbenzene dioxygenases. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 72(5), 3504-3514.
- Wojcieszynska, D., Hupert-Kocurek, K., Jankowska, A., & Guzik, U. (2012). Properties of catechol 2,3-dioxygenase from crude extract of *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* strain KB2 immobilized in calcium alginate hydrogels. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 66, 1-7.
- Yano, H., Miyakoshi, M., Ohshima, K., Tabata, M., Nagata, Y., Hattori, M., & Tsuda, M. (2010). Complete nucleotide sequence of TOL plasmid pDK1 provides evidence for evolutionary history of IncP-7 catabolic plasmids. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 192(17), 4337-4347.
- Yen, K. M., Karl, M. R., Blatt, L. M., Simon, M. J., Winter, R. B., Fausset, P. R., Chen, K. K. (1991). Cloning and characterization of a *Pseudomonas mendocina* KR1 gene cluster encoding toluene-4-monooxygenase. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 173(17), 5315-5327.
- Yilmaz, F., Orman, N., Serim, G., Kochan, C., Ergene, A., & Içgen, B. (2013). Surface water-borne multidrug and heavy metal-resistant *Staphylococcus* isolates characterized by 16S rDNA sequencing. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, 91(6), 697-703.

- Youssef, N., Simpson, D. R., Duncan, K. E., McInerney, M. J., Folmsbee, M., Fincher, T., & Knapp, R. M. (2007). *In situ* biosurfactant production by *Bacillus* strains injected into a limestone petroleum reservoir. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 73(4), 1239–1247.
- Zhang, L., McHale, C. M., Rothman, N., Li, G., Ji, Z., Vermeulen, R., Lan, Q. (2010). Systems biology of human benzene exposure. *Chemico-Biological Interactions*.
- Zylstra, G. J., & Gibson, D. T. (1989). Toluene degradation by *Pseudomonas putida* F1. Nucleotide sequence of the *todC1C2BADE* genes and their expression in *Escherichia coli*. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 264(25), 14940-14946.

APPENDIX A

RAW DATA OF BTEX DEGRADATION

Table A.1 Amount of benzene measured by HS-GC/MS after degradation by bacterial strains

Samples	Benzene (diluted) (μg)	Dilution factor	Benzene (μg)
<i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11	4.36656	2500	10916.4
<i>S. aureus</i> Ba01	8.9034	2500	22258.5
<i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	0.74843	2500	1871.08
<i>S. warneri</i> Co11	9.48227	2500	23705.7
<i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12	4.51952	2500	11298.8
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	10.4861	2500	26215.3
<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	0.01735	2500	43.3750
<i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12	5.30898	2500	13272.5
<i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	0.84071	2500	2101.78
Control (benzene)	16.23633	2500	40590.8

Table A.2 Amount of toluene measured by HS-GC/MS after degradation by bacterial strains

Samples	Toluene (diluted) (μg)	Dilution factor	Toluene (μg)
<i>P. plecoglossicida</i> Ag10	1.55136	2500	3878.40
<i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11	3.86647	2500	9666.18
<i>S. aureus</i> Al11	10.13648	2500	25341.2
<i>S. aureus</i> Ba01	0.00282	2500	7.05000
<i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	8.60595	2500	21514.9
<i>S. warneri</i> Co11	10.67474	2500	26686.9
<i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	0.05186	2500	129.650
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	0.05183	2500	129.575
<i>S. aureus</i> Li12	4.36011	2500	10900.3
<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	8.69222	2500	21730.6
<i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12	2.60603	2500	6515.08
<i>C. testosteroni</i> Ni11	4.53679	2500	11342.0
<i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	3.0364	2500	7591.00
<i>P. agglomerans</i> Sn11	1.666	2500	4165.00
<i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	0.10595	2500	264.875
<i>A. haemolyticus</i> Zn01	4.64667	2500	11616.7
Control (toluene)	10.52967	2500	26324.2

Table A.3 Amount of ethylbenzene measured by HS-GC/MS after degradation by bacterial strains

Samples	Ethylbenzene (dilution) (µg)	Dilution factor	Ethylbenzene (µg)
<i>R. plancicola</i> Ag11	1.1517	2500	2879.25
<i>S. aureus</i> Ba01	3.06264	2500	7656.60
<i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	2.24013	2500	5600.33
<i>D. acidovorans</i> Cd11	3.96848	2500	9921.20
<i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12	2.40491	2500	6012.28
<i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	2.0568	2500	5142.00
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11	0.27942	2500	698.550
<i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	0.02263	2500	56.5750
<i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12	3.3126	2500	8281.50
<i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	3.74994	2500	9374.85
Control (Ethylbenzene)	4.69412	2500	11735.3

Table A.4 Amount of xylene measured by HS-GC/MS after degradation by bacterial strains

Samples	Xylene (diluted) (µg)	Dilution factor	Xylene (µg)
<i>D. acidovorans</i> Cd11	13.29611	2500	33240.3
<i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12	15.02216	2500	37555.4
<i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	9.78636	2500	24465.9
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	14.34366	2500	35859.2
<i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11	17.05074	2500	42626.9
<i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	11.26997	2500	28174.9
Control (Xylene)	17.88847	2500	44721.2

APPENDIX B

MULTIPLE SEQUENCE ALIGNMENTS OF PCR AMPLICONS

```
AB017631.1 -----CCGCCTGACCATGGAC
GQ870381.1 -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1 -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1 -----
LT604143.1 -----
AB016861.1 -----CCGCCTGACGATGGAT
KT021791.1 -----TGACCATGGAT
HF561957.1 GAGGGGATCAGGGTCCACGATTGGGACAAGTGGGGAGACCCTTTCCGTCTGACCATGGAC
JF806589.1 -----
JQ069989.1 -----
```

```
AB017631.1 GCCTACTGGAAGTACCAGGGCGAAAAAGAGAAAAAGCTCTACGCCGTGATCGAGGCCTTT
GQ870381.1 -----CCAGGGCGAGAAGGAGAGGAAGTTCTACGCCGTGATCGAGGCCTTC
Sr11-tbmD_C9 ---AGTCTTCGTGTTAAGTCTCATGTCAGGGCAGGAACTTTACGCCGTGATCGACGCGTTC
LT604176.1 -----CCAGGGTGAGAAGGAGAGGAAGCTCTACGCCGTGATCGACGCGTTC
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----CAGTTCGCTCATAACAGGGCAGGAGCTTTACGCCGTGATCGACGCGTTC
LT604161.1 -----CCAGGGCGAGAAGGAGAGGAAGCTCTACGCCGTGATCGACGCGTTC
LT604143.1 -----CCAGGGGAAAAAGGAGAGGAAACTCTACGCCGTGATCGACGCGTTC
AB016861.1 GCGTACTGGAATACCAGGGCGAGAAGGAGAAGAAGCTGTACGCCGTGCTCGATGCGTTC
KT021791.1 GCGTACTGGAAGTATCAGGGCGAAAAAGGAGAAGAAGCTCTACGCCGTGATTGAGGCCTTT
HF561957.1 GCCTACTGGAAGTACCAGGGCGAGAAGGAGAAGAAGCTCTACGCCGTGATCGAGGCCTTC
JF806589.1 -----TACGCCGTGATCGAGGCCTTC
JQ069989.1 -----TACGCCGTGATCGAGGCCTTC
***** ** * ** ** **
```

```
AB017631.1 GCCCAGAACAACGGCCAGTTGGGCGTGACCGATGCGCGCTATCTCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
GQ870381.1 GCCCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTGGGCGTGACCGACGCGCGCTACGTCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
Sr11-tbmD_C9 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTGGAGGTGAGCGACGCGCGCCACATCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
LT604176.1 GCGCAGAATAACGGCCAGTTGGGTGTGAGTGACGCCCGTTACATCAACGCCCTGAAGCTG
Fe10-tbmD_C9 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTGGGGGTGAGCGACGCGCGCTACATCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
LT604161.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTGGGCGTGAGCGACGCGCGCTACATCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
LT604143.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTGGGCGTGAGCGACGCGCGCTACATCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
AB016861.1 ACGCAGAACAACGCGTTCCTCGGCGTGACCGACGCGCGCTACATCAACGCGCTGAAGCTG
KT021791.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGTCAGCTCGGCATCAGCGATGCGCGCTACGTCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
HF561957.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTCGGCGTCAGCGACGCGCGCTACATCAACGCGCTGAAGCTC
JF806589.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTCGGCGTGGCCGACGCGCGCTACATCAATGCGCTGAAGCTC
JQ069989.1 GCGCAGAACAACGGCCAGCTCGGCGTGGCCGACGCGCGCTACGTCAACGCGCTCAAGCTG
* ***** ** * * * ** ** * ** ** **
```

AB017631.1 TTCATTACAGGGCGTGGTGCCGCTGGAGTATTACGCCACCACCGGGTTTTGCCCATGCGGGC
 GQ870381.1 TTCCTCCAGGGCGTGACGCCGCTGGAGTACGGCGCGCACCCGGGCTTCGCCCACGTGGGC
 Sr11-tbmd_C9 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGTCCGGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGCGG
 LT604176.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGTCCGGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGCGG
 Fe10-tbmd_C9 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGTCCGGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGCGG
 LT604161.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGTCCGGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGGGC
 LT604143.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGTCCGGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGCGG
 AB016861.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGACGCCGCTTGAATATCTCGCGCATCGCGGTTTCGCGCACGTGCGG
 KT021791.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTCACGCCACTGGAATACAACGCGCACCCGTGGGTTTTGCCACGTGCGG
 HF561957.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGACGCCGCTCGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTATGCGCATGTGCGG
 JF806589.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGACGCCGCTGGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGGGC
 JQ069989.1 TTCATCCAGGGCGTGACGCCGCTGGAGTATTACGCGCACCCAGGCTTCGCCCACGTGGGC
 *** * ***** ** ** ** * ** ** * ** * * * ** * ** * * **

AB017631.1 CGGCATTTACCCGGTGCAGGGGACGCGTGGCGGCGCAGATGCAGTCCATCGACGAGCTG
 GQ870381.1 CGGCATTTACGGGGGCGCGCGCGCGTGGCCGCGCAGATGCGGTCCATCGACGAGCTG
 Sr11-tbmd_C9 CGGCAATTTACCGGCGCTGGCCCGCGCGTAGCAGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAAGT
 LT604176.1 CGGCAATTTACCGGCGCGCGGAGCGCGGTTGGCGGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAAGT
 Fe10-tbmd_C9 CGGCAATTTACCGGCGCTGGCGCGCGCGTAGCAGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAAGT
 LT604161.1 CGGCAATTTACCGGCGCGCGGCGCGCGTGGCAGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAAGT
 LT604143.1 CGGCAATTTACCGGCGCGCGGCGCGCGTGGCGGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAAGT
 AB016861.1 CGGCATTTACCGGCGAGGGCGCGCGCATCGCGTGGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAGTTG
 KT021791.1 CGTCAGTTACCGGGCGAAGGTGCGCGCGTGGCTGCGCAGATGCAGTCCATCGACGAAGT
 HF561957.1 CGGCAGTTACCGGCGAAGGCGCGCGCGTGGCAGCGCAGATGCAGAGCATCGACGAGTTG
 JF806589.1 CGGCAGTTACCGGCGAAGGCGCGCGCGTGGCGGCGCAGATGCAGTCCGATCGACGAGCTG
 JQ069989.1 CGCCAGTTACCCGGTGAAGGTGCGCGCGTGGCGCGCAGATGCAGTCCATCGACGAGCTG
 ** ** *

AB017631.1 CGCCACTTCCAGACCGAGACCCATGCGCTGTCCAACATAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCATG
 GQ870381.1 CGCCATTTCCAGACAGAGACGCATGCGCTGAGCCACTACAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCATG
 Sr11-tbmd_C9 CGTCACTACCAGACGCAGGCGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGCACTTAACGGCATG
 LT604176.1 CGCCATTACCAGACGCAGGCGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGCACTTCAACGGGATG
 Fe10-tbmd_C9 CGTCACTACCAGACGCAGGCGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGCACTTCAACGGCATG
 LT604161.1 CGTCACTACCAGACGCAGGCGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGCACTTCAACGGCATG
 LT604143.1 CGTCACTACCAGACGCAGGCGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGCACTTCAACGGCATG
 AB016861.1 CGGCACTACCAGACCGAAACGCACGCGATGTCGACGTACAACAAGTCTTCAACGGCTTC
 KT021791.1 CGCCATTACCAGACCGAGACGCATGCGATCTCGCACTACAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCATG
 HF561957.1 CGGCACTACCAGACCGAAACGCACGCGCTCTCGCACTACAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCCTG
 JF806589.1 CGCCACTACCAGACCGAGACCCACGCGATCTCGCACTACAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCATG
 JQ069989.1 CGCCACTACCAGACCGAGACGCACGCCGTGAGCCACTACAACAAGTACTTCAACGGCATG
 ** ** *

AB017631.1 CACAGCTCCAG-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTTTCTGTCGGT--GCCAAGTCCTTT
 GQ870381.1 CACAACGCATC-GCAGTGGTACGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCCTTC
 Sr11-tbmd_C9 CACAGCGCCGAACCACTGGTTCGACCGCATGTGGTACCTGTGATGTGCCAAGTCGTTT
 LT604176.1 CACAGCGCCAA-CCATTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--TCCGAAGTCGTTT
 Fe10-tbmd_C9 CACAGCCCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCGTTT
 LT604161.1 CACAGCCCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCGTTT
 LT604143.1 CACAGCCCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTATCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCGTTT
 AB016861.1 CATCATTCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCGTTT
 KT021791.1 CACAGCCCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCGTTT
 HF561957.1 CACCAGTCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCCTTC
 JF806589.1 CACCAGTCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCCTTC
 JQ069989.1 CACCAGTCGAA-CCACTGGTTCGACCGGTCTGGTACCTGTCCGT--GCCAAGTCCTTC
 ** *

AB017631.1 ATCGTGCAGCGCTGGATCGACAAATGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCGCGTGTGACCCTGGTG
GQ870381.1 ATCGTGCAGCGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCG-----
Sr11-tbmd_C9 ATCGTGCAGGGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTTCTGGGAAGCCCAGGCG-----
LT604176.1 ATCGTGCAGGGTTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTTCCG-----
Fe10-tbmd_C9 ATCGTGCAGGGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTTCTGGGGGAAGCCCAGGGGCG-----
LT604161.1 ATCGTGCAGGGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTTCCG-----
LT604143.1 ATCGTGCAGGGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCG-----
AB016861.1 ATCGTGCAGCGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCGGCTGCTCACGCTGGTC
KT021791.1 ATCGTTCAGCGCTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCGGCTGCTGACCATCGTC
HF561957.1 ATCGTGCAGAAGTGGATCGACAAGTGGTTCTGGCGCGGCTACCGCCTGCTCACGCTCGTC
JF806589.1 ATCGTGCAGCAGTGGATCGACAAG-----
JQ069989.1 ATCGTGCAGAAGTGGATCGACAAG-----
***** **

AB017631.1 GCCATGATGCAGGATTACATGCTGCCCAAGCGCGTGATGAGCTGGAAGGAAGCCTGGGAG
GQ870381.1 -----
Sr11-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604176.1 -----
Fe10-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604161.1 -----
LT604143.1 -----
AB016861.1 GCGATGATGATGGACTACATGCAGCCGAAGCGCGTGATGAGCTGGCGCGAGTCGTGGGAG
KT021791.1 GCGATGATGCAGG-----
HF561957.1 GCGATGATGGACTACATGCTCCCG-----
JF806589.1 -----
JQ069989.1 -----

AB017631.1 ATGTATGCCGAGGAAAACGGCGCGCTCTGTTCCGCGACCTGGCGCGCTACGGCATTTCG
GQ870381.1 -----
Sr11-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604176.1 -----
Fe10-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604161.1 -----
LT604143.1 -----
AB016861.1 ATGTACGCGGAGCAGAACGGCGCGCTGTTCAAGGATCTCGCGCGCTACGGCATTTCG
KT021791.1 -----
HF561957.1 -----
JF806589.1 -----
JQ069989.1 -----

AB017631.1 GAGCCCGCAGGCTGGAAGCTGGCCTGCCAAGGTAAGGACCACATCAGCCACCAGGCCTGG
GQ870381.1 -----
Sr11-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604176.1 -----
Fe10-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604161.1 -----
LT604143.1 -----
AB016861.1 GAGCCGAAGGGCTGGCAGGACGCCTGCCAAGGCAAGGACCACATCAGCCACCAGGCATGG
KT021791.1 -----
HF561957.1 -----
JF806589.1 -----
JQ069989.1 -----

AB017631.1 AACATCTTCTACAACATAACGGCGCGCCACCTTTTCACACCTGGGTGCCCGGCGAGCAG
GQ870381.1 -----
Sr11-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604176.1 -----
Fe10-tbmd_C9 -----
LT604161.1 -----
LT604143.1 -----
AB016861.1 TCGACATTCTACGGCTTCAACGCGCGTTCGCGTTCCACACGTGGGTGCCGACCGAGGAC
KT021791.1 -----

```

HF561957.1 -----
JF806589.1 -----
JQ069989.1 -----

AB017631.1  GAGATGCAGTGGCTGTCCGAAAAATACCCGGACAGCTTTGACAAGCACTACCGTCCCCGC
GQ870381.1  -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1  -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1  -----
LT604143.1  -----
AB016861.1  GAGATGGCGTGGCTGTCCGCGAAGTATCCCGACTCGTTTCGACCGCTATTACGCCCCGCGC
KT021791.1  -----
HF561957.1  -----
JF806589.1  -----
JQ069989.1  -----

AB017631.1  CTGGAGCACTACCTTGCCGAGCAGCAGGCCGCAAGCGCTTTTACAGCAAGACCCTGCC
GQ870381.1  -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1  -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1  -----
LT604143.1  -----
AB016861.1  TTCGACTACTGGGGAGAGCAGGCGAAGGCCGCAACCGCTTCTACATGAAGACGCTGCC
KT021791.1  -----
HF561957.1  -----
JF806589.1  -----
JQ069989.1  -----

AB017631.1  ATGCTGTGCACCACCTGCCAGATCCCTATGGGCTTCACCGAGCCCGGTGACGCCACCAAG
GQ870381.1  -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1  -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1  -----
LT604143.1  -----
AB016861.1  ATGCTGTGCCAGACCTGCCAGATCCCGATGCTGTTACCGAGCCCGCAACCCGACGAAG
KT021791.1  -----
HF561957.1  -----
JF806589.1  -----
JQ069989.1  -----

AB017631.1  ATCTGCTATCGCGAGTCCGACTACGAGGGCAGCAAATACCACTTCTGCAGCGACGGCTGC
GQ870381.1  -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1  -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1  -----
LT604143.1  -----
AB016861.1  ATCGGCGCGCGGAGTCGAACTACCTCGGC-----
KT021791.1  -----
HF561957.1  -----
JF806589.1  -----
JQ069989.1  -----

```

```

AB017631.1   AAGCATG
GQ870381.1   -----
Sr11-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604176.1   -----
Fe10-tbmD_C9 -----
LT604161.1   -----
LT604143.1   -----
AB016861.1   -----
KT021791.1   -----
HF561957.1   -----
JF806589.1   -----
JQ069989.1   -----

```

Figure B.1 Multiple sequence alignment of partial *tbmD* sequences by Clustal Omega. Asterisks denote identical nucleotides.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe 10											
2. <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	0.120										
3. LT604161.1 Uncultured bacterium partial LmPH gene for phenol hydroxylase large subunit clone WGNC20	0.014	0.113									
4. LT604143.1 Uncultured bacterium partial LmPH gene for phenol hydroxylase large subunit clone WGNP 1	0.019	0.120	0.012								
5. LT604176.1 Uncultured bacterium partial LmPH gene for phenol hydroxylase large subunit clone WGND27	0.086	0.143	0.077	0.086							
6. JF806589.1 Uncultured bacterium clone MID06_F4 phenol hydroxylase large subunit gene partial cds	0.104	0.120	0.092	0.097	0.132						
7. GQ870381.1 Uncultured bacterium clone LZB48 phenol hydroxylase large subunit gene partial cds	0.120	0.004	0.113	0.120	0.143	0.120					
8. HF561957.1 Uncultured bacterium partial rhmo gene for soluble diron monooxygenase clone P89-92_Cl.10_HRB0-3.5m-2008	0.143	0.151	0.137	0.139	0.164	0.085	0.151				
9. JQ069989.1 Uncultured bacterium clone INI13_D2 phenol hydroxylase large subunit gene partial cds	0.136	0.127	0.129	0.136	0.162	0.081	0.127	0.114			
10. KT021791.1 <i>Ralstonia</i> sp. AET-6-14 phenol hydroxylase (phe) gene partial cds	0.146	0.144	0.144	0.148	0.171	0.141	0.144	0.157	0.123		
11. AB017631.1 <i>Comamonas testosteroni</i> gene for phenol hydroxylase alpha subunit partial cds	0.162	0.116	0.153	0.155	0.173	0.139	0.116	0.173	0.158	0.165	
12. AB016861.1 <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> gene for phenol hydroxylase alpha subunit partial cds strain E1	0.164	0.174	0.164	0.165	0.199	0.146	0.174	0.146	0.155	0.164	0.199

Figure B.2 Pairwise distance matrix of partial *tbmD* sequences among bacterial strains and reference bacteria

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -CGA---TAGATTGAACGATGGAGG-CCAG---GCAAGCGCGCCCCAGCGGAGGGGAAGG
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 CCGG-----GGCTGGTACTCCGA-----AGATCGGCCCCAGAAGG
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----GGCGGTAATGGAACAGGTAGCTGCAGCATGGTGCTAGGGCTGGACTAG
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 -----TAGGGTCCCGCGGGCCGGACAT-GCAG-CTTCCTTGACTGACCAGTCTACTT
 Li12-todC1-f_B8 -----TGGAACCCAGT-CGGGGGGACGT-GGAAGTTTGCGTGTATG-GGTACACGAGT
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 -----GGGGGTGAAGGGGCGA-GAACGAAAGCTTTCAAAGAGGCAGGCCGG
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 -----TTGCACGGCAGTGAGCGGGACGT-GGATACATCGTGGTATGGGGTGGATTGGA
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----TTGGCCACAGGAGAGCAGAAAGT---GCAGCTATCGTGGTAGGGGAGTGCATG
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 -----CGGGGCATGCAAGTAC---TG-CACGCGTTGCTAGCGCTACC-ACT
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 -----ACGGGGTAATGAAAGGAGT---GCAGCTGTGTTTCATACTGGCTGGCCAG
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -----AGATGTGGAGTGAAAGTAGCTGCA-GCCGTGCCTCCTATGGGGTGTGCGTAGGG
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 CAGGCCCGCTAGAAGGGCGGGAAGCGGAC---AGCGTGGTCTAGTGGCTGTACCAGGT
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 --GGG--GTGAGGTATGCATGGCG-CTGC-ACTGCGTTCCTTGCAGC-TACCACCAGGT
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 CAAGG--GTGAGTAGTGGACAGGAGCTGCA-GCTGTGGTTCGTAGTGGTACCGCCAGTTG

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 GGAGGCAGGGAAATGG--AACCTTTTTGTCTGCGGGTGTCCG-----G
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 G--GAG---TAGCTCC----CATACGTTGTCGCCGTATTCGAGCCCCAGGCTCCGGTG
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 GTCGTCTCAGTACTCGCCGCATTCTTGCCATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 G-----GACACT-----GGACCGATACTGGTGCCCTACCGCAGCTCCTTCTCT---G
 Li12-todC1-f_B8 GGTGGAAGTGAAACCACAGATGCTCGAGCCGGAACCGCGTCCCACCG-----G
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 GGGCGGAATGACAAGGGGAACATCTTGCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 GGTGGCAAGTGGAAAGGCACAGGTGCTTGAATTGAACCGAACAAAGCCG-----G
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 GTGGTGTAAATACACCCCCAGGTGCTTGTCTTGTACCTTACAAGGCCG-----G
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 GGTGGGTTACGACCCGCAAGTGATCTTGTCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 GGTCTTACGACAACGCACACATCTTGTCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 GGTGGCAGGAGAAAGCAGATGATCTTGTCAATGTACCTTACAAGGCCG-----G
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 GAGCTCACGACACCGCAGGCAATCTTGTCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 GAGCTTACGACACCGCCGCGATCTTGTCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 CAGCTCACGACACCGCCAGCAATCTTGTCAATGTGCCTTACGAGGCCG-----G

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 GGCCGGCCTTCGCGTG--CCTCCACACTAAGGAATGGGAGTTCCCGCTAACGCCCGGGTA
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 CAACGGCAGTCCCACCCATCGGGACTGCGAGCG--AG-ACCTTCGCCGTATGGCGAAGCT
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 AATCC---TTCACGTG--CCTGAACGAAAGGAAT-G--ACCTT-CGCTGATGGCCCCGCT
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 AATGG---TAAAGGCAATCCGGAGGAAAAGGATGTGG-ATAC--CTCCAAGTCTGTAT
 Li12-todC1-f_B8 AATCC---TTCTCGTA--TTGAACTCCATCCGCCAG-ATCCA-CGTGAATTT--GCTAA
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 AATCC---TTCGCGTG--CATGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-AGCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 AATCC---TTCTCGTG--CCTGAACATACATCGACCCG-ATCCC-GGTGAATGCCCTAATA
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 AATCC---TTCTCGTG--CCTGACCTCGATTGAATGG-ATGCC-GCTGAAAGCCCCAGTA
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 ATTCC---TTCGCGTG--CCTGAACAACAAGAAATGG-AGCCCCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 AATCC---TTCGCGTG--CCTGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-AGCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 AATCC---TTCACGTG--CCTGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-AGCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 AATCC---TTCGCGTG--CCTGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-AGCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 AATCC---TTCGCGTG--CCTGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-ATCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 AATCC---TTCGCGTG--CCTGAACAAGAAGGAATGG-ATCCC-GCTGAAGGCCCGGGTA

* *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 CAAACCCC-TCTCGGCCCTTCTTTTCTCCTCCTTCCCTCATCAACACTCTATAACCACAAGA
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 CTGTCCCGGATCCCCCGATCCT--CGGTT-GCGGAT--CCTCGCGTCCGGCTTGAGG
 Bal1-todC1-f_D7 CTGTCCCTA-CAATGGCCTGATTTTCCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCCCGCTCCTCGCAT
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 GAATGGGA-ACAGGGATTTTCTCACTCCTTC-ACTCATGAACAAGTAGCAAACCTCGACA
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 TTTTGTGCT-TGAGGGTGGACTTTTTCGGGACG-GGCTAGGAAAGGGAAGTATAACCTCGACA
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 GAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 TAAACCTA-CTAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGGGAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGAAGT-AACCTCGACA
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 GAAACCTA-CAATGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACCATGTAGACCTCGACA
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 GAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 GAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 GAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 GAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 TAAACCTA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 GAAAC-CA-CAAGGGCCTGATTTTTCGCCAAC-TGGGATGAGAACGCTGTAGACCTCGACA

*

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 CCTATCTTTGGCGAGGCGCAAATTTCTACATGTCACCAACCTGCTTCTATCGCCCCCGCGG
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 CATTCTATTTTTCCAACGGACAAACCCAATGCAGACGATCGGTAA----TGTGTGGTTGT
 Bal1-todC1-f_D7 TCTATTTCTTTCCCAAGGACAAATTTCTATGTGGACCACATGCTCTG----TGTGGTTGTGG
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACCTGCTCCA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 CGTA--TCTGGGCGAGGCGAAGTTCTACATGGACCACATGCTCGA----CCGCACCGAG-

* * * * *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 CCGCGCCCCAAGCCATCCCGGGCGTGCATGAATTGG--TCCTTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 GGGGCGGACATGGAAATGGCAGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Bal1-todC1-f_D7 CCGGCACCATGAGCAATCCAGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCACAAATGAGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 GCCGGCACCGAAGCGATCCCGGGCGTGCAGAAGTGGGTCATTCCCTGTAAGTAAATTC

** * ***** ** * * * * *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 CCCGCAGATCACTTTTGCACCTACATGTTCCATGCCGGGATAAATTCTCTCTTTT-TGGT
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Ball1-todC1-f_D7 GCCGCAAAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 GCCGCACAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACCTGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCTCATCTGTCTGGC
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 GCCGCAGAGCAGTTTTGCAGCGACATGTACCATGCCGGGACGACCTCGCATCTGTCTGGC
 ***** * ** ***** * ** ** * ***** ** * * * * *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 ATCTGGGCAGACCTGCTAAAAAATTTTTATGGCCGTTTCTGTGTC--CTCCGCCGTGTAGC
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Ball1-todC1-f_D7 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCATAATACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCAACATTTGGC
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 ATCCTGGCAGGCCTGCCAGAAGACCTTGAAATGGCCGACCTTGCTCCGCCGACAGTTGGC
 *** ***** ***** * ** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 TAGTCCTACGCTCTTGATTGAAGGGGTCACTGAATGTAGAAAAAATTTACCGCCCCCTT
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAAGGTTAGCGATTGAATAG
 Ball1-todC1-f_D7 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAAGCCTCTCGGTCTCTGTT
 Hg11-todC1-f_A8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAAGGGTGGTGGGGGG----
 Lil2-todC1-f_B8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAACGACACCGGTTTTGAGG
 Mn11-todC1-f_C8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACTGGCAGT-GGCATCTGGTGCCTGCATGTGGC
 Mn12-todC1-f_D8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAACACTGACCGGTTTTGAGG
 Ag11-todC1-f_B7 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAACAGCTGCTTTTAAGGTG
 Hg10-todC1-f_H7 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACTGGAAAG-TGGCAAATGGTGGTCACTCCTGGG
 Sr11-todC1-f_H8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAACAGGTGTCTTTTGCCCTC
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAACATTATTGTGGCCCCC
 Ni11-todC1-f_E8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACTGGAAAG-TGGCAAAGGTCCGTCACTCGTGGG
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAATGGTGGTCACTCGTGGG
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 AAGCAGTACCGTGCGTCATGGGGCGGACATGGAAG-TGGCAAAGGTGGTCACTCGTGGG
 ** ** * * * * *

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 TACTACAGTGTGCTCGGTTACTTTTTTTACTGCTCAA-----
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 GCTTTAGAAGTA-----
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 GGTGGGGGGGAGATGGAACCTAACAGAGAGAAGAGCTCGCTATTTTCCTTTCGTTTTTTT--
 Hgl1-todC1-f_A8 -----
 Lii12-todC1-f_B8 TTAAACCGGCAATCCTGATGATTCTGGCCGGCGTCTACCCTGAAGAGGCGCAGTTGCGCT
 Mnl1-todC1-f_C8 CAGGGGGGAAAGATGGGAATGTGAGAGTGGAGACTGCGTCTACTCCGGCTGCCGTTGCTGG
 Mnl2-todC1-f_D8 TTAAACCGGCAATCCTGATGATTCTGGCCGGCGTCTGACGCTGAAAAGGCGCAGTTGCGCT
 Agl1-todC1-f_B7 AAATGGGGAATACTGATGATTCAGACCTCTCGACGCT----GAAGAGG-CGCATTGCGCT
 Hgl10-todC1-f_H7 GCGGACATGGAAGTGGCACCCTTGACATAGCGCCCG---GTGTAGGCCGGCATCCGCG
 Srl1-todC1-f_H8 CTATGTGACGTTTCCAAATTTTAGATCTAAGACCCCT-----
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 CAATGGGGGTGACCTTTTAGCCAAAGTGTGATACT----TTCTTTAAAACAATATCGA
 Nil1-todC1-f_E8 GCGGACATGGAAG-----TGGC--AAGAGGTGAGAGG---TTGTCCAATTCC-----
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 GCGGACATGGAAG-----TGGC--AACTCCGGGGACT---AGTAG-----
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 GCGGACATGGAAG-----TGGC--AATTG-----

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 ----CCTACTACGATATAAATTTGCTGCCA---TCGATTT-----
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 -----
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----TTTTGTTTTTTTTTTT-----
 Hgl1-todC1-f_A8 -----
 Lii12-todC1-f_B8 TAAAGCAGCAGCAGCGGCTATTTACGCGCGGCGT----TGACGCGCTAACGACACCTGGGG
 Mnl1-todC1-f_C8 GAAAACCACACCGGCAAATTTCTCGGATGGCCAGCTACCCGTCTTTCAAAGAGAAA-----
 Mnl2-todC1-f_D8 TAAAGCAGCAGCAGCGGCTATTTACGCGCG---G-CGTTGACGCGCTAACGACACCTGGGG
 Agl1-todC1-f_B7 TAAAGCAGCCGACGGCTATTTGCGCGGGGTGACGCCATA-----CGACACCTGGGG
 Hgl10-todC1-f_H7 GCGGGCCCGGATCGTACCTTGGGTATCGGCACGGCTGAAACGCACCCCTTGAGCTGCGA
 Srl1-todC1-f_H8 -----ATTTATTTGCTTTTCTACCGCAAATTTAGCCGGTTCCCGCTCAT---C
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 G-----ATTCATTGAAATATGATCGCCAAGTCTTATTTGGACCGTTATCAA----C
 Nil1-todC1-f_E8 -----
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 -----
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
 Fe10-todC1-f_G7 -----
 Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----
 Hgl1-todC1-f_A8 -----
 Lii12-todC1-f_B8 CGGACATGGAAGTGGCAATTGGTTTTATGGTGTGATGTTGTATG---TGTGTGGTTGTT
 Mnl1-todC1-f_C8 -AACTATGGCAACCCCTGCAAAAGATATCCCGCAACGTGTGACGAGCAGCTCCAA
 Mnl2-todC1-f_D8 CGGACATGGAATTGGCAGTGGTG-----
 Agl1-todC1-f_B7 CGGACATGGAATGGCAC-----
 Hgl10-todC1-f_H7 GGCGATCGATATTCGGTGTATGCAGATGCGGGTGTCCGTAGCAGGACAGGTAATCGCGG-
 Srl1-todC1-f_H8 CGGCAGTAA-----
 Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -GGAAGTGTGTTGCTTTAAAAAGTGGTTGG-----GGGGGACATGGGAAATTGG-
 Nil1-todC1-f_E8 -----
 Col1-todC1-f_E7 -----
 Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
Fe10-todC1-f_G7 -----
Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----
Hg11-todC1-f_A8 -----
Lil2-todC1-f_B8 GTCGCTTCATGTGCCTTTAACCCGTTCTCGTTCTCTTTAGCGGTTAGGTGG-----
Mn11-todC1-f_C8 CCAGGTTCAACGGT-----TCAAACCCGGTCTGGTGGTGGGGCTGGAACATAACT
Mn12-todC1-f_D8 -----GGTCGTTTTTTTTTTTCGGTTTTTTGTGTGT-G-----
Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----
Hg10-todC1-f_H7 CGCAGTTGATCGCACATGATGTACAGCACGTTGCGCACG-GGGTTGGATGGGGCGTACAT
Sr11-todC1-f_H8 -----
Sn11-todC1-f_G8 CC-----
Ni11-todC1-f_E8 -----
Co11-todC1-f_E7 -----
Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
Fe10-todC1-f_G7 -----
Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----
Hg11-todC1-f_A8 -----
Lil2-todC1-f_B8 -----
Mn11-todC1-f_C8 GGATTCGGCCTGATACCGTGTGCA-----CACCCGCCGTATCGGTGAA-
Mn12-todC1-f_D8 -----GCTGTTTTTGGGTTTTGTGCTTGGTGTTTTTTGT-----
Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----
Hg10-todC1-f_H7 GGAAGTGGCAGCTTGTTTGGTTTCTGGCTCGCTTGTGACCTCTTAAGGAATGGGTAAAT
Sr11-todC1-f_H8 -----
Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -----
Ni11-todC1-f_E8 -----
Co11-todC1-f_E7 -----
Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
Fe10-todC1-f_G7 -----
Ball-todC1-f_D7 -----
Hg11-todC1-f_A8 -----
Lil2-todC1-f_B8 -----
Mn11-todC1-f_C8 CGGTCACCTGATCAAGGACTCCGCCTTGGCCAACTGACCATCACCGGTGTGTGCAAATTC
Mn12-todC1-f_D8 -----
Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----
Hg10-todC1-f_H7 TGGATCCCTGGTCGAGTTTTGTAACATCGAGAGGCAGGTACCGCTTTTGT-----
Sr11-todC1-f_H8 -----
Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -----
Ni11-todC1-f_E8 -----
Co11-todC1-f_E7 -----
Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

```

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
Fel0-todC1-f_G7 -----
Bal1-todC1-f_D7 -----
Hgl1-todC1-f_A8 -----
Lil2-todC1-f_B8 -----
Mnl1-todC1-f_C8 AGCGAATTGAGTATGCACATGCCGCTGAGCTCCCGACCCCGGGGTGCCGGCGATCTACCG
Mnl2-todC1-f_D8 -----
Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----
Hgl0-todC1-f_H7 GTTTCCGTGG-----TTGGTTGTA---TTCTTCGGTAGGGATTCCCTCAGTTGCACCT
Srl1-todC1-f_H8 -----
Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -----
Nil1-todC1-f_E8 -----
Col1-todC1-f_E7 -----
Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

```

```

Cul2-todC1-f_F7 -----
Fel0-todC1-f_G7 -----
Bal1-todC1-f_D7 -----
Hgl1-todC1-f_A8 -----
Lil2-todC1-f_B8 -----
Mnl1-todC1-f_C8 CAATTTAGCTTGG
Mnl2-todC1-f_D8 -----
Ag11-todC1-f_B7 -----
Hgl0-todC1-f_H7 GT----AGATTTT
Srl1-todC1-f_H8 -----
Sn11-todC1-f_G8 -----
Nil1-todC1-f_E8 -----
Col1-todC1-f_E7 -----
Sb01-todC1-f_F8 -----

```

Figure B.3 Multiple sequence alignment of partial *todC1* sequences by Clustal Omega. Asterisks denote identical nucleotides.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. <i>A. haemolyticus</i> Mn12	0.00												
2. <i>M. luteus</i> Sr11	0.005	0.00											
3. <i>P. agglomerans</i> Sn11	0.019	0.014	0.00										
4. <i>A. johnsonii</i> Sb01	0.003	0.005	0.019	0.00									
5. <i>C. testosteroni</i> Ni11	0.095	0.090	0.087	0.095	0.00								
6. <i>S. nematodiphila</i> Mn11	0.008	0.008	0.019	0.011	0.095	0.00							
7. <i>S. aureus</i> Li12	0.172	0.166	0.166	0.172	0.101	0.169	0.00						
8. <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg11	0.213	0.210	0.210	0.213	0.202	0.210	0.169	0.00					
9. <i>P. koreensis</i> Hg10	0.044	0.046	0.054	0.041	0.128	0.049	0.202	0.245	0.00				
10. <i>P. koreensis</i> Cu12	0.322	0.324	0.330	0.324	0.343	0.327	0.316	0.330	0.349	0.00			
11. <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> Fe10	0.283	0.281	0.292	0.281	0.330	0.286	0.373	0.387	0.292	0.452	0.00		
12. <i>S. warnerii</i> Co11	0.003	0.008	0.022	0.005	0.093	0.011	0.169	0.213	0.046	0.322	0.283	0.00	
13. <i>S. rhizophila</i> Ba11	0.158	0.158	0.163	0.158	0.213	0.163	0.267	0.283	0.188	0.294	0.357	0.158	0.00
14. <i>R. plancticola</i> Ag11	0.065	0.063	0.060	0.065	0.090	0.065	0.166	0.207	0.104	0.341	0.322	0.068	0.169

Figure B.4 Pairwise distance matrix of partial *todC1* sequences among bacterial strains

APPENDIX C

INTERMEDIATES OF BTEX DEGRADATION

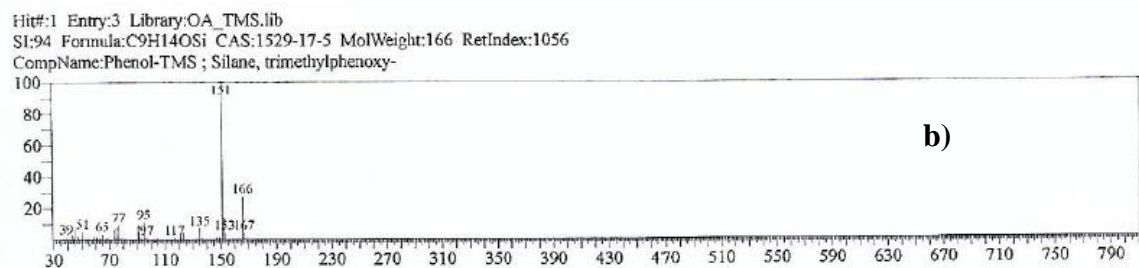
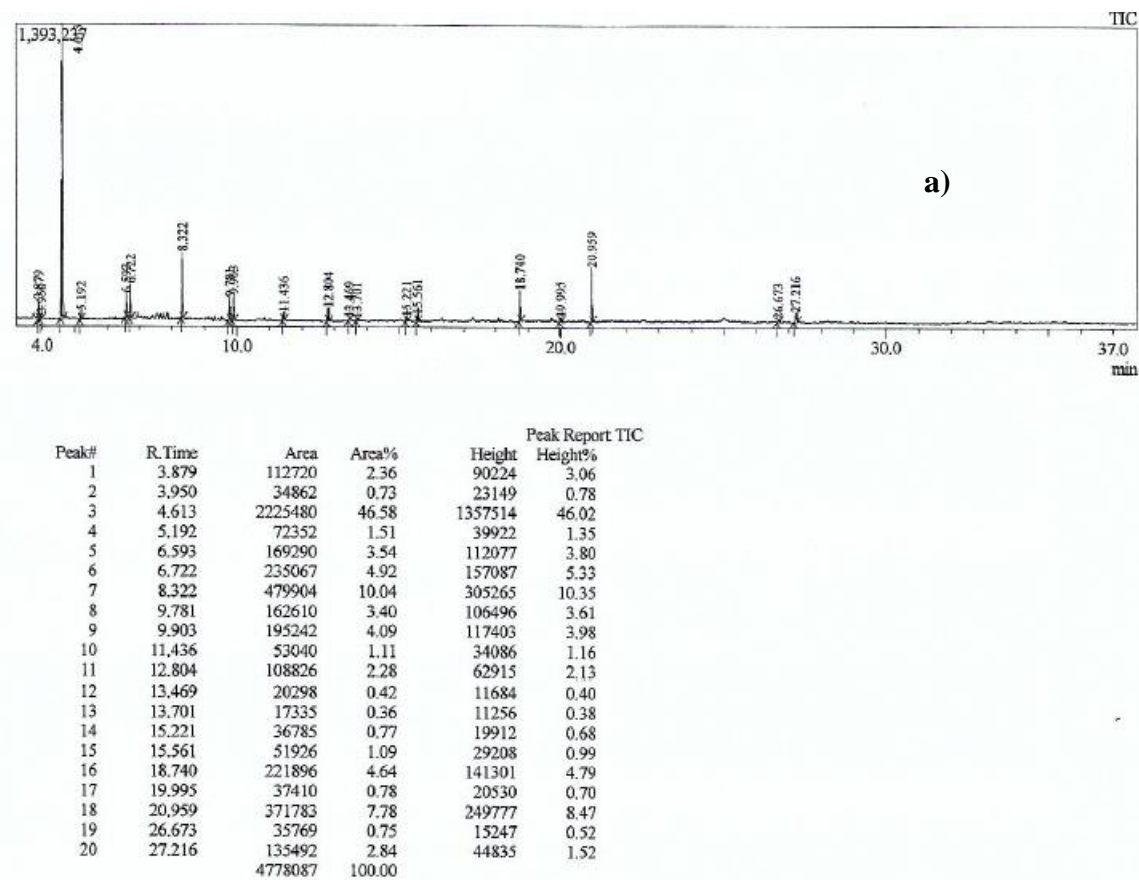
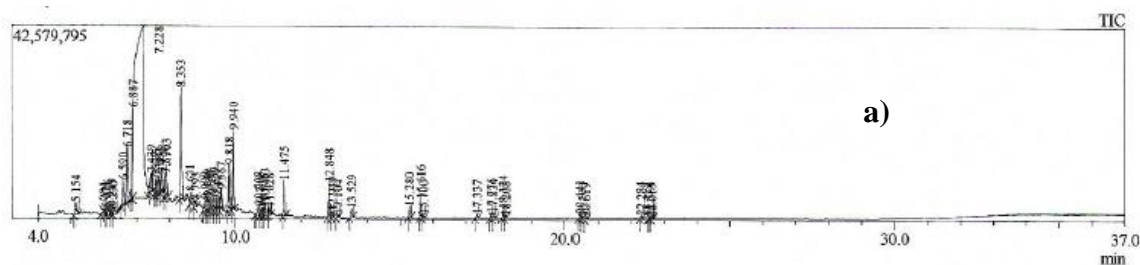


Figure C.1 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), MS ionization dendrogram of phenol (b) produced during benzene degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11.



Peak Report TIC

Peak#	R.Time	Area	Area%
1	5.154	9203602	0.76
2	6.004	2472585	0.21
3	6.071	2654614	0.22
4	6.136	5210532	0.43
5	6.245	4185738	0.35
6	6.290	5220080	0.43
7	6.590	15529377	1.29
8	6.718	36498470	3.03
9	6.887	39690039	3.30
10	7.228	720898787	59.91
11	7.439	9804775	0.81
12	7.577	5763478	0.48
13	7.605	8010197	0.67
14	7.683	7981694	0.66
15	7.759	9713990	0.81

Hit#:2 Entry:16050 Library:W9N11.lib
 SI:91 Formula:C6H6O2 CAS:120-80-9 MolWeight:110 RetIndex:0
 CompName:1,2-Benzenediol (CAS) \$\$ Pyrocatechol \$\$ BRENZCATECHIN \$\$ C.I. 76500 \$\$ Fourrine 68 \$\$ Pyrocatechin \$\$ o-Benzenediol \$\$ Fouramin

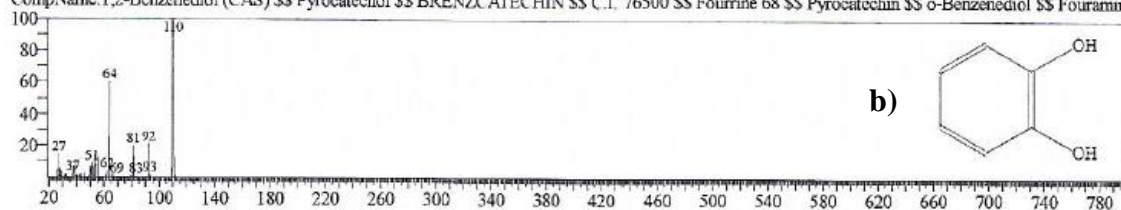
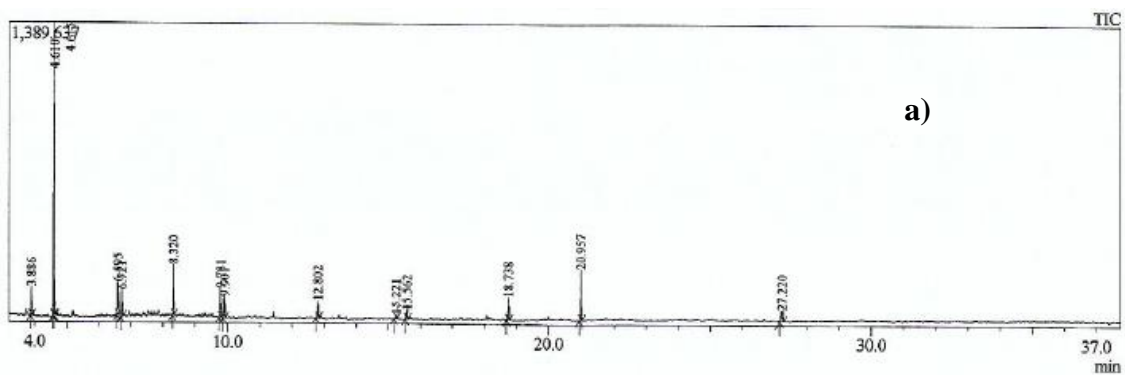


Figure C.2 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), MS ionization dendrogram of catechol (b) produced during benzene degradation by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11.



Peak#	R. Time	Area	Area%	Height	Height%
1	3.886	150976	3.42	130692	3.36
2	4.610	1121613	25.38	1139705	29.32
3	4.615	1097223	24.83	1355348	34.87
4	6.595	210032	4.75	149509	3.85
5	6.721	186781	4.23	121097	3.12
6	8.320	351117	7.94	231039	5.94
7	9.781	216422	4.90	132997	3.42
8	9.901	167876	3.80	98997	2.55
9	12.802	128643	2.91	76921	1.98
10	15.221	37119	0.84	19801	0.51
11	15.562	60719	1.37	38707	1.00
12	18.738	177821	4.02	105394	2.71
13	20.957	368513	8.34	235033	6.05
14	27.220	144771	3.28	51311	1.32

Hit#:1 Entry:3 Library:OA_TMS.lib
 SI:94 Formula:C9H14OSi CAS:1529-17-5 MolWeight:166 RetIndex:1056
 CompName:Phenol-TMS ; Silane, trimethylphenoxy-

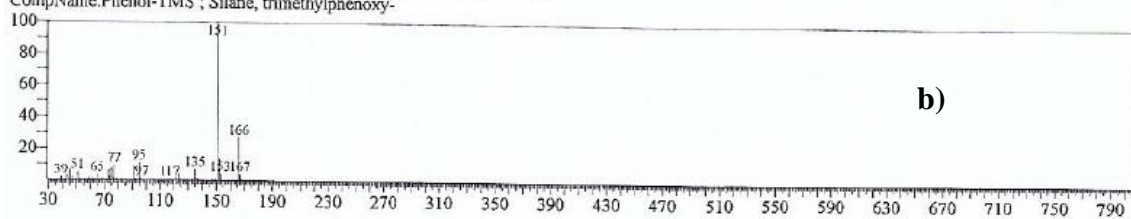
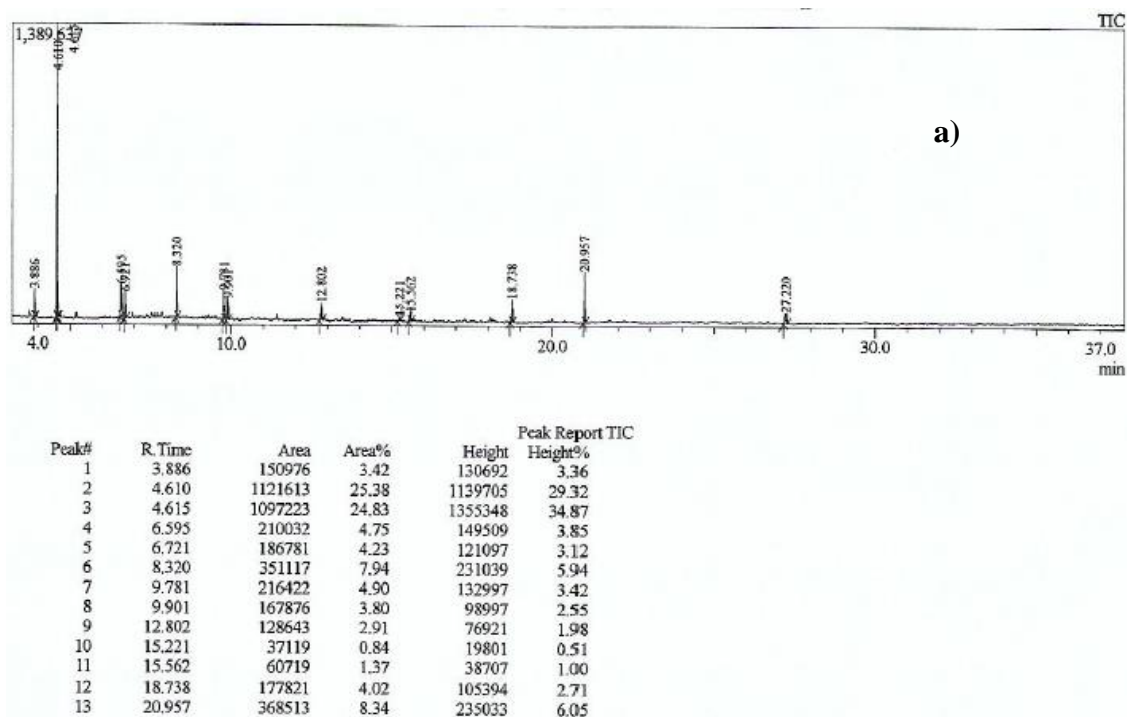


Figure C.3 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), MS ionization dendrogram of phenol (b) produced during benzene degradation by *M. luteus* Sr11.



Hit#:3 Entry:18 Library:OA_TMS.lib
 SI:41 Formula:C10H16OSi CAS:17902-32-8 MolWeight:180 RetIndex:1158
 CompName:4-Cresol-TMS ; Silane, trimethyl(4-methylphenoxy)-

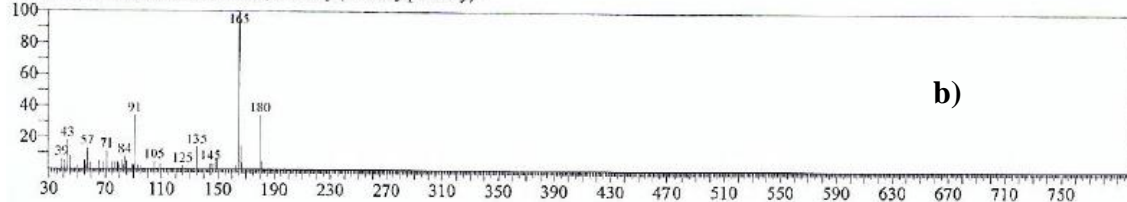
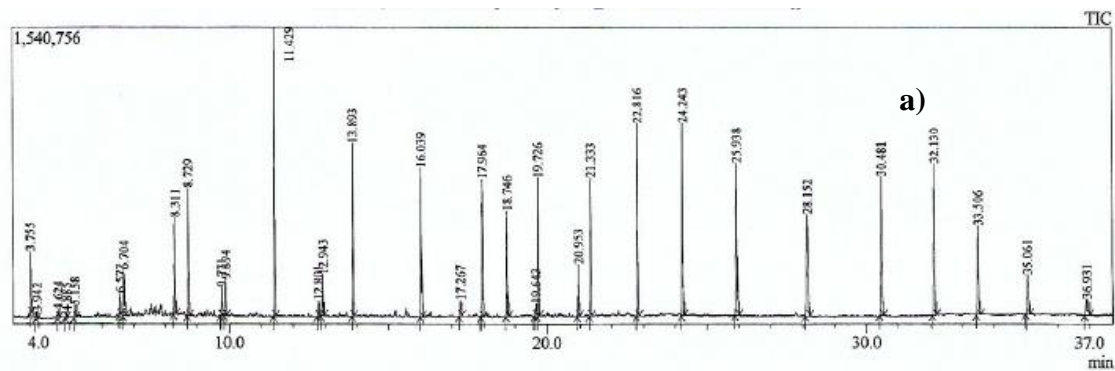


Figure C.5 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), and MS ionization dendrogram of 4-cresol (b) produced during toluene degradation by *M. luteus* Sr11.



Peak Report TIC

Peak#	R.Time	Area	Area%	Height	Height%
1	3.755	532504	1.97	317549	2.19
2	3.942	55231	0.20	35922	0.25
3	4.624	75544	0.28	39965	0.28
4	4.885	58295	0.22	32833	0.23
5	5.158	147354	0.55	61243	0.42
6	6.577	202286	0.75	112065	0.77
7	6.704	417456	1.54	237633	1.64
8	8.311	812995	3.01	499417	3.45
9	8.729	970057	3.59	661462	4.56
10	9.771	243921	0.90	148292	1.02
11	9.894	302484	1.12	190559	1.31
12	11.429	2177527	8.06	1501484	10.36
13	12.801	146375	0.54	82606	0.57
14	12.943	419810	1.55	212420	1.47
15	13.893	1340265	4.96	897327	6.19

Hit#:2 Entry:146 Library:OA_TMS.lib
 SI:66 Formula:C17H32O4Si3 CAS:55334-62-8 MolWeight:384 RetIndex:1850
 CompName:Homogentisic acid-3TMS ; Benzeneacetic acid, 2,5-bis[(trimethylsilyl)oxy]-, trimethylsilyl ester

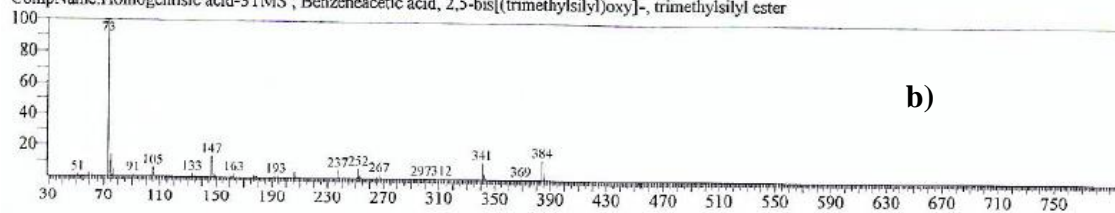
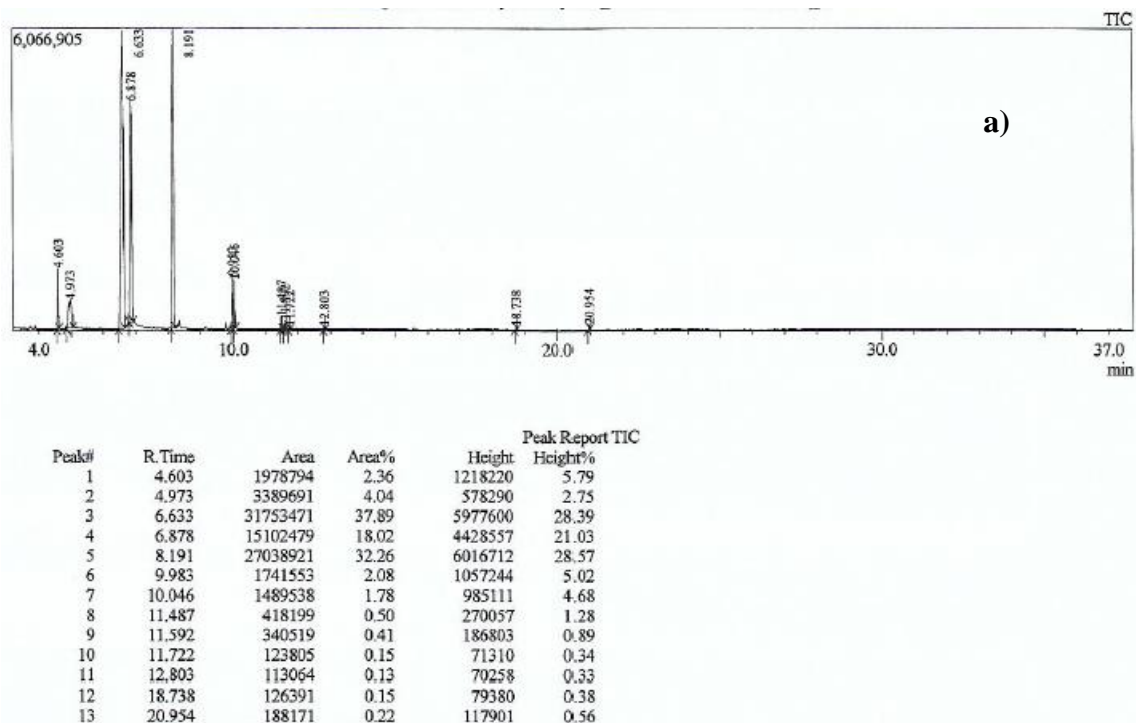
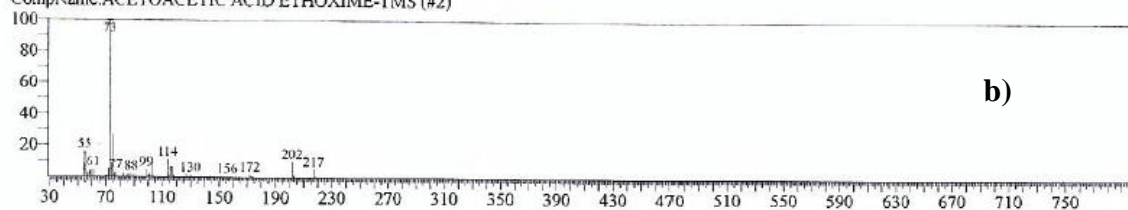


Figure C.6 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), and MS ionization dendrogram of homogentisic acid (b) produced during ethylbenzene degradation by *R. plancticola* Ag11.



Hit#:4 Entry:492 Library:OA_LIBRARY2.lib
 SI:65 Formula:C9H19NO3Si CAS:0-00-0 MolWeight:217 RetIndex:0
 CompName:ACETOACETIC ACID ETHOXIME-TMS (#2)



Hit#:4 Entry:400 Library:OA_LIBRARY2.lib
 SI:72 Formula:C9H22O3Si2 CAS:0-00-0 MolWeight:234 RetIndex:0
 CompName:LACTIC ACID-2TMS

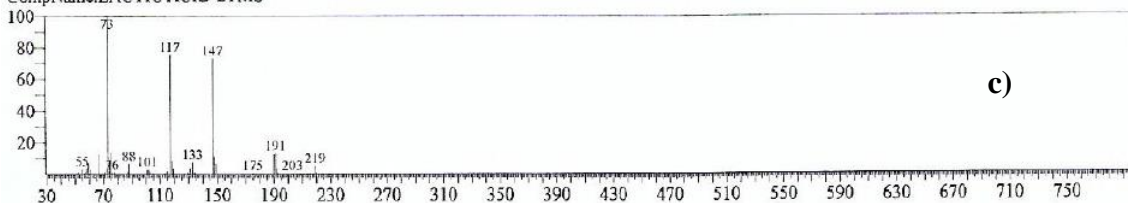
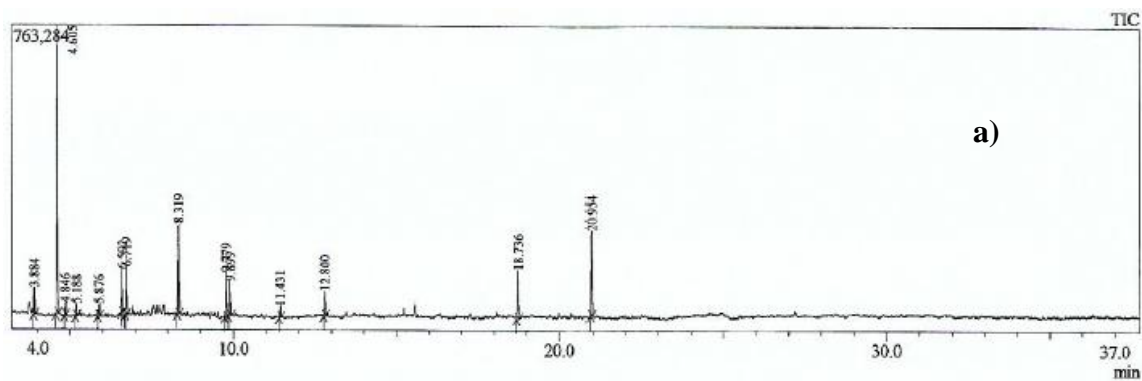


Figure C.7 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), and MS ionization dendrogram of acetoacetic acid (b) and lactic acid (c) produced during ethylbenzene degradation by *P. korensis* Hg11.



Peak#	R.Time	Area	Area%	Height	Height%
1	3.884	84697	2.82	66879	3.41
2	4.605	1061309	35.36	724913	36.92
3	4.846	43248	1.44	31265	1.59
4	5.188	50464	1.68	29664	1.51
5	5.876	48282	1.61	30645	1.56
6	6.592	162954	5.43	109631	5.58
7	6.719	181486	6.05	119669	6.09
8	8.319	360652	12.02	227516	11.59
9	9.779	188070	6.27	111898	5.70
10	9.899	142261	4.74	86499	4.40
11	11.431	48155	1.60	28110	1.43
12	12.800	102319	3.41	62054	3.16
13	18.756	209552	6.98	122371	6.23
14	20.954	317634	10.58	212565	10.82

Hit# 2 Entry: 52 Library: OA_TMS.lib
 SI: 62 Formula: C₁₁H₁₆O₂Si CAS: 2078-18-4 MolWeight: 208 RetIndex: 1302
 CompName: Phenylacetic acid-TMS ; Benzeneacetic acid, trimethylsilyl ester

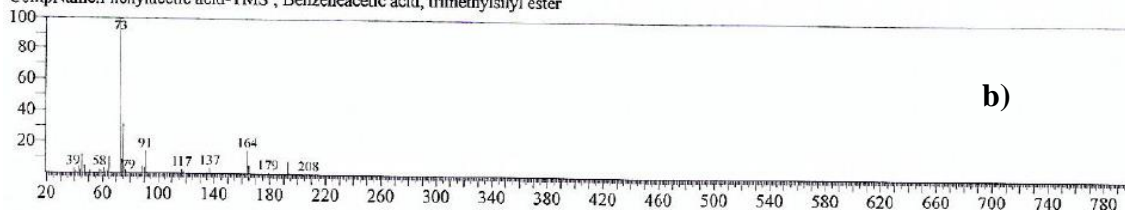
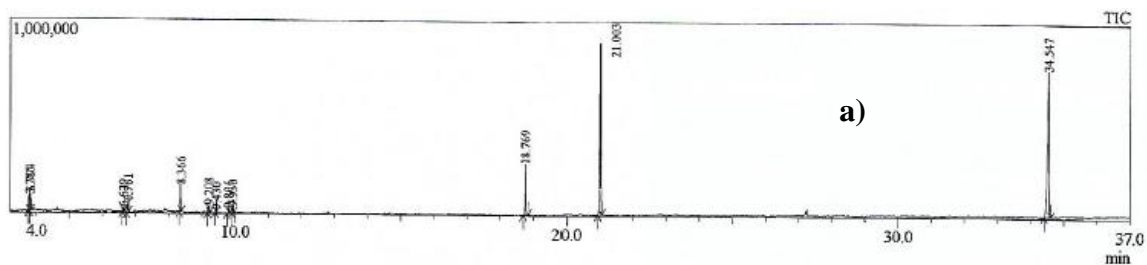


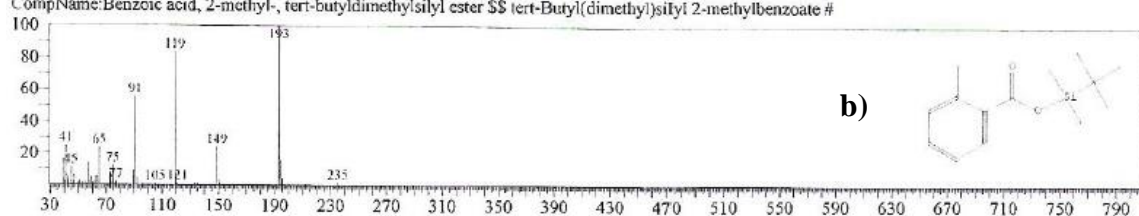
Figure C.8 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), and MS ionization dendrogram of phenylacetic acid (b) produced during ethylbenzene degradation by *S. nematodiphila* Mn11.



Peak Report TIC

Peak#	R.Time	Area	Area%
1	3.785	151584	2.95
2	3.794	120671	2.35
3	6.629	32946	0.64
4	6.761	81847	1.59
5	8.366	195239	3.80
6	9.208	62754	1.22
7	9.430	12822	0.25
8	9.806	46033	0.90
9	9.930	37426	0.73
10	18.769	323931	6.31
11	21.003	1495613	29.14
12	34.547	2571363	50.10

Hit#:3 Entry:323945 Library:W9N11.lib
 SI:80 Formula:C14H22O2Si CAS:78324-00-2 MolWeight:250 RetIndex:1496
 CompName:Benzoic acid, 2-methyl-, tert-butyl(dimethyl)silyl ester \$\$ tert-Butyl(dimethyl)silyl 2-methylbenzoate #



Hit#:5 Entry:323947 Library:W9N11.lib
 SI:77 Formula:C14H22O2Si CAS:959296-29-8 MolWeight:250 RetIndex:1496
 CompName:tert-Butyl(dimethyl)silyl 3-methylbenzoate \$\$ Benzoic acid, 3-methyl-, tert-butyl(dimethyl)silyl ester

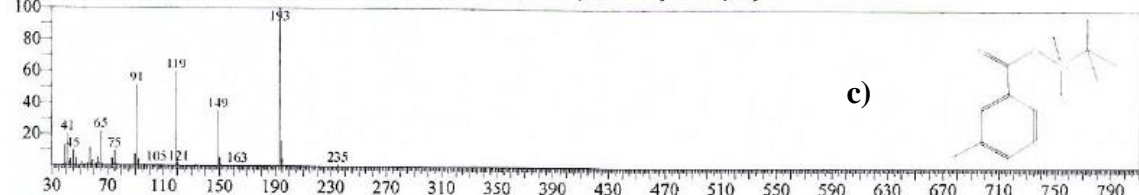


Figure C.9 GC chromatogram of intermediates detected (a), MS ionization dendrogram of 2-methylbenzoate (b), 3-methylbenzoate (c) and 4-methylbenzoate (d) produced during xylene degradation by *A. calcoaceticus* Fe10.

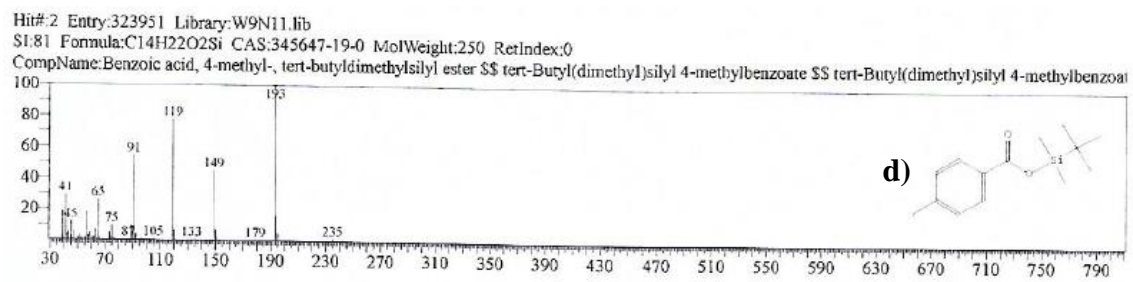


Figure C.9 cont'd