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**MICROBIAL REDUCTIVE DECHLORINATION OF WEATHERED
POLYCHLORINATED DIBENZO-*P*-DIOXINS AND
DIBENZOFURANS IN CONTAMINATED SEDIMENTS**

By

HUI LIU

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Microbial Reductive Dechlorination of Weathered Polychlorinated Dibenzo-*p*-dioxins
and Dibenzofurans in Contaminated Sediments

By HUI LIU

Dissertation Director:

Dr. Max Häggblom

Sediments contaminated with weathered polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) are problematic around the world. River Kymijoki is highly contaminated with PCDFs mainly originating from the production of the wood preservative Ky-5 until the 1980s. Limited information is available on the *in situ* microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs. The overall objectives of my work were to assess the potential for anaerobic microbial dechlorination of weathered PCDFs and to gain information on the application in bioremediation and detoxification of contaminated sediment using Kymijoki River sediments as a case model. Experiments in mesocosms (30 L), microcosms (200 mL) and enrichment cultures (40 mL) demonstrated the potential for dechlorination of weathered PCDFs as well as spiked PCDD/Fs by the indigenous microorganisms of Kymijoki River sediment. The relative decrease of highly chlorinated dibenzofurans (CDFs) was accompanied with an increase of tetra- and penta-CDFs over a 7-year period in mesocosms. Amendment with halogenated co-substrates,

tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB) and pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB), and bioaugmentation with *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 selectively stimulated dechlorination of weathered PCDFs after 18 months in microcosms. Dechlorinating enrichment cultures were established from the microcosms and spiked with 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F and octaCDF with PCNB as a co-substrate. 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was dechlorinated mainly via 1,2,3-triCDD to 2,3-di-CDD and 2-mono-CDD over 13 months incubation. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF was slow and less extensive compared to that of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, with 2,4-di-CDF as the most abundant dechlorination product accumulating after 13 months. More extensive dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was observed in the presence of PCNB, which demonstrated that PCNB was capable of enhancing the dechlorinating potential of the indigenous microorganisms in Kymijoki sediments. Dechlorination of spiked octa-CDF was observed with the production of hepta-, hexa-, penta- and tetra-CDFs over 5.5 months incubation. DGGE analysis revealed diverse *Chloroflexi* community in mesocosms and a highly selected *Chloroflexi* community in the enrichment cultures. One of the stimulated *Chloroflexi* populations clustered closely with the Pinellas subgroup of *Dehalococcoides*. Our results suggest that dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs contaminants may be mediated by indigenous microbial populations as a means for *in situ* bioremediation of PCDD/F contaminated sediments.

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Chapter 1

Current Knowledge of Microbial Reductive Dechlorination of Freshly Spiked and Weathered Polychlorinated Dibenzo- *p*-dioxins and Dibenzofurans in Contaminated Sediments

1.1. Abstract

Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) are a group of heterocyclic organohalogen compounds that have extremely low water solubility, low vapor pressure and high octanol-water partition coefficients. Therefore, they tend to associate with organic particles. Sediments and soils thus become their important and ultimate sinks in the environment. They are mainly produced as unwanted byproducts during chlorine involved industrial processes and incinerations of organic waste. Currently, PCDD/F contamination is found everywhere with several highly contaminated sites that arouse great concern due to their toxicity, resistance and consequently continuous impact to the health of human beings. The Kymijoki River in Finland is one of the most contaminated sites in the world with PCDD/Fs up to 193,000 µg/kg dry weight (d.w.) of sediment. Microbial reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs is one of few known reactions of highly chlorinated congeners, in which chlorines are substituted by hydrogen in a step by step sequence and generating less chlorinated congeners. These are then more susceptible to subsequent reactions including attack by mono- and dioxygenases. Much effort has been made to enrich, isolate and identify the microorganisms responsible for PCDD/F dechlorination. *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 and *Dehalococcoides* spp. CBDB1 are the two known isolates that are capable of dechlorinating select PCDD/F congeners. Another highly enriched culture, *Dehalococcoides* DCMB5, was also capable of dechlorinating certain triCDDs. These strains all belong to the phylum of *Chloroflexi*. In addition, microbial molecular techniques as well as phylogenetic analysis of various microbial consortia all indicated that bacteria in the phylum of *Chloroflexi* are involved in the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs.

Dechlorination of PCDD/Fs is extremely slow with time frames of months or years. Efforts to stimulate this process include the addition of PCDD/F structural analogs, additional electron donors, and bioaugmentation using known PCDD/F dechlorinating bacteria such as *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 and *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain CBDB1. Successful stimulation of PCDD/F dechlorination has been reported for spiked congeners of various enrichment cultures. Several studies showed that the profiles of weathered PCDDs changed in present sediment layers compared to archived sediment layers samples. However, the knowledge on dechlorination potentials of indigenous microorganisms in contaminated sediment on weathered PCDFs is very limited. It should be noted that certain environmental factors will affect the dechlorination process. These factors include temperature, pH value, salinity, alternative electron donors and acceptors in the environment, and physical chemical properties of sediments or soils. Successful strategies to remediate PCDD/F contaminated sediments are limited by various aspects, including inadequate knowledge of dechlorination pathway of PCDD/Fs, and limited bioavailability of PCDD/Fs in sediment or soils, limited knowledge of responsible dechlorinating bacteria and the overall dechlorinating community.

1.2. Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) contamination in sediments and soils

1.2.1. Sources, sinks, properties, toxicity and environmental behavior of PCDD/Fs

Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) are a group of heterocyclic ring-structured organohalogen compounds that are made up of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen and chlorines (Fig. 1-1). PCDDs consist of two benzene rings connected to each other by two oxygen bridges with eight substituents of either hydrogen or chlorine (Fig. 1-1a). For PCDFs, two benzene rings are connected via one oxygen bridge and one carbon-carbon bond, with the remaining eight substitutions on the benzene rings being hydrogen or chlorine (Fig. 1-1b). There are 75 PCDD congeners and 135 PCDF congeners that differ in the number and position of chlorine substitution. The general nomenclature dioxins will be adopted in this paper, which includes all 210 PCDD/Fs and 12 coplanar polychlorinated PCBs (PCB-77, -81, 105, 114, 118, 123, 126, 156, 157, 167, 169, 189), which usually exist as a mixture of various congeners in the environment and arouse great social and scientific concerns due to the severe environmental and health problems coming from their environmental persistence, reaction recalcitrance and biological toxicity.

1.2.1.1. Sources of PCDD/Fs

Unlike other halogenated compounds, such as PCBs, chlorinated solvents or pesticides, PCDD/Fs have never been produced intentionally and in large amounts. They are discharged into the environment mainly as impurities or unwanted by-products from a

variety of processes and in varying quantities depending upon the source. Anthropogenic sources are the principal routes for PCDD/Fs entering the environment (Fiedler et al., 1990, 1996; Esposito et al., 1980; Hutzinger & Fiedler, 1988a, 1988b; Rappe, 1993; and see review by Kulkarni et al., 2008). Three major sources have been identified: industrial processes, thermal or combustion processes, and environmental reservoirs.

The industrial sources discharge PCDD/Fs as unwanted byproducts and impurities into the environment, including the manufacture of chlorinated compounds such as chlorophenols, chlorophenolic pesticides, chlorinated benzenes and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (Hagenmaier and Brunner, 1987; Masunaga et al., 2001), chlorine bleaching by pulp and paper industry (LaFleur et al., 1990), dry cleaning distillation residues, and metal refining industries (Wagrowski et al., 2000; Anderson and Fisher, 2002). Chlorophenols are known as one of the most important combustion precursors of PCDD/Fs in the gas phase at temperatures between 400 and 800 °C. The major mechanisms for PCDD/F formation include self-condensation of chlorophenols and chlorophenoxy acids as well as cyclization of intermediates (see review by Altarawneh et al., 2009). Insufficient oxygen supply and limited transit time will increase the emission of PCDDs in the gas phase during combustion of chlorophenol formulations (Jansson et al., 1978). During chlorine involved bleaching and dry cleaning processes, PCDD/Fs can be formed through chlorination of naturally occurring phenolic compounds like those present in wood pulp (Rappe et al., 1987). Metal refining industries that need a high temperature operation, such as steel production and metal recovery furnaces are typical sources of PCDD/F emissions into the environment (Anderson and Fisher, 2002).

PCDD/Fs from combustion sources enter the environment through three major ways: 1) emission into the atmosphere (Buser et al., 1978; Andersson et al., 1998; Shen et al., 2009; Liu 2009; Nakai et al., 2007); 2) fly ash disposal in the landfills, then through water leachate back to the environment (Koester and Hites, 1992b; Cheung et al., 2007; Lundin and Marklund, 2007); and 3) wastewater effluent (Hoffman et al., 1995). Thermal or combustion sources include large stationary plants, such as incinerators for municipal solid waste and hazardous waste, sewage sludge, sintering plants and many types of recycling plants. Some individual sources like automobile exhaust, home heating activity, cigarette smoke, and combustion of landfill gas also contribute to the emission of PCDD/F to the environment (Hart et al., 1991; Hoffman et al., 1995; Schettler et al., 1999; Im et al., 2002). In addition to volcanic eruptions, PCDD/Fs are also generated by various fire accidents, e.g. PCB fires, building fires, and forest fires (Hoffman et al., 1995; Ingersoll et al., 1997). After being emitted from these combustion sources, lightly chlorinated dioxins (relative higher vapor pressure) can travel atmospherically, some dioxins can also react in the atmosphere, and some dioxins (lower vapor pressure, highly chlorinated dioxins) will deposit to Earth through wet or dry deposition, and some eventually accumulate in biota (Tysklind et al., 1993; Lohmann, 1998; Nessel et al., 1991; Koester and Hites, 1992a).

Once PCDD/Fs are associated with organic matter, deposited in soils, sediments, landfill sites, sewage sludge or compost, they can be redistributed and circulated in the environment via water leachate, sediment or dust re-suspension and transport, or directly

as components when these “reservoirs” are applied onto agricultural and horticultural soils (Hutzinger, 1985a, 1985b; Kjeller and Rappe, 1995; Rotard et al., 1994).

Dioxins are also generated through a variety of geogenic and biogenic processes. Recent studies suggest that biomass burning and subsequent deposition (Gaus et al., 2001; Green et al., 2001) contribute to the PCDD/Fs in sediments and clays too. Enzymatic oxidative dimerization of natural chlorophenols has been reported to produce PCDD/Fs in peat and forest soils (Hoekstra, 1999; Silk, 1997). The photochemical synthesis of octa-CDD and partially hepta-CDDs from pentachlorophenol (PCP) in atmospheric condensed water has been proposed as the most significant source of octa-CDD and hepta-CDDs into the environment (Baker et al., 2000).

Historical events associated with the production and application of the herbicide Agent Orange during the Vietnam War (Alastair, 1978) and the Seveso industrial accident (Bertazzi et al., 1998; Alastair, 1977) have discharged large amounts of highly toxic 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD into the environment. About 3 kg of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD was released to the local environment of Seveso, Italy (Meharg and Osborn 1995), and around 221 to 336 kg of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD were released to local soils and sediments as impurities of the Agent Orange in Vietnam during the war (Stellman et al., 2003). Impurities of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD was mainly produced during the process of manufacturing 2,4,5-trichlorophenol (TrCP), which is the precursor of 2,4,5-trichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4,5-T) (Fig. 1-2). Agent Orange is made up of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T at the ratio of 1:1. Therefore, 2,3,7,8-tetraCDD in Agent Orange mainly comes from 2,4,5-T (Hites, 2010).

1.2.1.2. Physical properties determine the toxicity, sink and behavior of PCDD/Fs in environment

Table 1-1 summarizes the physical properties of different PCDD/F congeners selected by Mackay et al. (1992). The key properties that affect the environmental behavior of PCDD/Fs include water solubility, C^s , octanol-water partition coefficient, K_{ow} , vapor pressure, P , and Henry's law constant, H . As chlorination increases, both vapor pressure and water solubility decrease, while the octanol-water partition coefficient increases. Although the water solubility of mono-chlorinated and octa-chlorinated congeners varies greatly, they are all highly hydrophobic. As a result of their hydrophobicity, chlorinated dioxins are expected to associate with organic particles and ultimately deposit into soil or sediment as their environmental sink. The different properties of lesser chlorinated products and higher chlorinated parent congeners (increasing solubility and vapor pressure accompanied with decreasing octanol-water partition coefficient and increasing Henry's law constants as the number of chlorine substitution decreased) affect their bioavailability and thus the ultimate fate of these compounds in the environment.

PCDD/Fs have extremely low water solubility, low vapor pressure, and high octanol-water partition coefficients (Table 1-1). Consequently, biotic exposure to PCDD/F toxicity is chronic and widespread as a result of their hydrophobicity and recalcitrance in the environment. The toxicity of PCDD/Fs is primarily associated with a specific substitution pattern of chlorines on the two benzene rings. Among all the 210 congeners of PCDD/Fs, 2,3,7,8-chlorine substituted tetra-CDD/Fs are the most toxic congeners and

can be highly accumulated in fatty tissues of animals and humans due to their high octanol-water coefficients (K_{ow}) (Harding and Pomeroy, 1990; Koistinen, 1990; Cooper et al., 1992). Seven of the 75 possible PCDD congeners and ten of the 135 PCDF congeners contain chlorine substitutions at 2-, 3-, 7-, and 8- lateral positions (Table 1-2). 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD is the most toxic congener among all the PCDD/Fs (Van der Berg et al., 1998, 2006). It and other 2,3,7,8-substituted congeners are toxic to biota through a common mechanism, which is binding to the cellular aryl hydrocarbon (Ah) Receptor (Poland and Knutson, 1982). The toxicity of these 2,3,7,8-substituted congeners varies with altered potency determined by their relative agonism to the Ah Receptor (Haws et al., 2006).

PCDD/F contamination in the environment is generally found as mixtures containing different kinds of congeners and different homolog groups as well as other dioxin-like compounds including certain PCBs. To measure the total toxicity of such a mixture as a single value and make toxicities comparable, the concept of “International Toxic Equivalents” (TEQ) has been developed (Van den Berg et al., 2006). In this toxicity weighing system, each of the less toxic compounds has been attributed a specific “Toxic Equivalency Factor” (TEF), representing its toxicity relative to 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD, which has been assigned a reference value of 1. When reporting results, the concentration of each congener is multiplied by the corresponding TEF, as shown in equation 1-1:

$$TEQ = \sum_{i=1}^n TEF_i \times M_i \quad (1-1)$$

where TEF_i : TEF value of certain congener i in one sample, M_i : mass of certain congener i in gram in one sample, n : the total number of congeners detected in each sample.

These values are then summed to give a total toxic equivalency (TEQ). It should be mentioned that the TEQ scheme refers only to adverse effects resulting from the interactions with the cellular aryl hydrocarbon (Ah) receptors (Boening, 1998; Kerkvliet, 2002). Other toxic effects of PCDD/Fs and similar compounds are not quantified by this method. TEF values are different for different animal species. Currently there are two common schemes for calculating TEQs: International TEQ and TEF (I-TEQ, I-TEF), and the World Health Organization TEQ and TEF (WHO-TEQ, WHO-TEF). The I-TEF scheme is proposed by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, Committee on Challenges to Modern Society (NATO/CCMS) (Kutz et al., 1990). The TEF and TEQ approach assigns each of the 17 toxic 2,3,7,8- chlorine substituted PCDD/Fs a TEF. The remaining non 2,3,7,8-substituted congeners are considered biologically inactive with regard to the Ah receptor (Boening, 1998; Kerkvliet, 2002), and a TEF of zero has been assigned to them. In 1998, WHO revised and expanded the I-TEF scheme to provide TEF values for humans and wildlife (Van den Berg et al., 1998) and further updated them for human beings in 2005 (Table 1-3) (Van den Berg et al., 2005). The two schemes are different from each other by assigning 1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD WHO-TEF of 1, while I-TEF is 0.5; and WHO-TEF for octa-CDD/F is 0.0001, while I-TEF is 0.001.

1.2.2. PCDD/F contamination in sediments and soils

Sediments and soils are the most important environmental sinks for PCDD/Fs. Table 1-4 summarizes some of the current known PCDD/F contamination in sediments and soils around the world. Most of the contamination listed in Table 1-4 occurred between

1950s~1970s as a combined result of combustion and industrial processes. Studies found that the PCDD/F levels near industrial areas in the United States were very low until about the 1920s and reached their environmental peak amount between the 1970s and 1980s (Alcock and Jones, 1996; Czuczwa et al., 1984). Among worldwide PCDD/F contamination data, three major hotspots can be identified: 1) Kymijoki River, Finland; 2) Newark Bay, Passaic River, NJ, USA; and 3) Bitterfeld area, Germany.

The Kymijoki River in Finland was heavily contaminated with PCDD/Fs as impurities and by-products of chlorinated phenols from 1940s to 1980s due to the manufacture of chlorophenolic fungicide Ky-5 in the city of Kuusankoski (Malve et al., 2003). Large amounts of PCDD/Fs were discharged into the river sediment as impurities of Ky-5 during this time. Concentrations of PCDD/Fs as high as 120-193,000 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (d.w.) in the river sediment were reported (Salo et al., 2008). Although the production of Ky-5 was banned in the 1980s, the river sediment itself still remains a major source of PCDD/Fs to the Gulf of Finland (Salo et al., 2008).

In the USA, many areas have been identified with PCDD contamination due to the production, transportation and storage of Agent Orange, including Newark Bay (NJ) (Bopp, 1991), and the Passaic River (NJ) (Wenning et al., 1993). Passaic River sediment was reported to contain PCDDs in the range of 415-23,300 ng/kg d.w. and PCDFs 37-8,400 ng/kg d.w. (Wenning et al., 1993). In addition to these Agent Orange associated hotspots, many other places in USA were also identified as having contamination by PCDD/Fs. Love Canal in the state of NY was contaminated by PCDD/Fs as a result of

the dumping place of municipal and chemical wastes during 1940-1953 (Smith et al., 1983). Times Beach (MO) soils were contaminated with dioxins due to the application of hexachlorophene industrial waste as road pavement in 1972 to 1976 (Hites, 2010). Houston ship channel sediments contain PCDD/Fs up to 140 ng WHO-TEQ/kg d.w. as consequence of petrochemical transports as well as municipal and industrial discharges that happened in the 1960s (Suarez et al., 2006).

Similarly, the application of Agent Orange during the Vietnam War in 1970s caused PCDD/F contamination in many parts of Vietnam. High concentrations of PCDD/Fs in the sediment and soil of Vietnam have been reported (Schechter et al., 2001). The total concentration of PCDD/Fs in southern Vietnam soil was 11-1,800 µg/kg d.w. as a consequence of spraying with the herbicide Agent Orange, and Bien Hoa soil was found to contain PCDD/Fs around 12-1,792 µg/kg d.w. where used to be the storage place of Agent Orange, the Bien Hung lake sediment contained PCDD/Fs 208-2,104 ng/kg d.w. (Schechter et al., 2001).

The Bitterfeld area of Germany has been heavily contaminated with PCDD/Fs from the 1950s to the 1990s mainly due to the metal refining industry. Rastatt soil contained PCDD/Fs at 4-7,926 ng/kg d.w. (She et al., 1996). Spittelwasser River sediments contained PCDD/Fs up to 120,000 pg I-TEQ/g d.w. (Bunge et al., 2001, 2003). Pevestorf sediments contain PCDD/Fs up to 500 ng/g d.w. (Götz et al., 2007). Grosser Arbersee sediment contained around 1,000-2,300 ng/kg d.w. PCDD/Fs (Bruckmeier et al., 1997).

In addition to the above hotspots, PCDD/F contamination has been reported for many other places in the world mainly due to combustion and / or industrial activities (Table 1-4). The Seveso industrial accident in 1976 discharged 1.5-580 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2$ of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD, the most toxic congener, into the nearby soil (Bertazzi et al., 1998). A number of lake and river sediments in China (Liu et al., 2009; Terauchi et al., 2009, Ren et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008) have been reported with PCDD/F contamination at different concentrations. Many other places are also been reported for PCDD/F contamination, such as Korea (Koh et al., 2004), Canada (Shen et al., 2008; 2009), UK (Rose, 1996), Japan (Nakai et al., 2007). In summary, PCDD/Fs contamination is ubiquitous in the world with sediment and soils being their most important sinks and consequently attracts social and scientific concerns on their burden in such places.

1.3. Microbial reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs

1.3.1. Microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked and weathered PCDD/Fs and PCBs

Because of their persistence and recalcitrance in the environment, the natural attenuation rate of PCDD/Fs is very slow and with limited extent. This process is highly restricted to a few environmental conditions and varies among different homologs (for reviews see Wittich, 1998a, b; Chang, 2008; Field and Sierra-Alvarez 2008; Hiraishi et al., 2008; Bunge and Lechner, 2009).

Aerobic degradation of PCDD/Fs by bacteria is restricted to chlorinated congeners with less than 4 chlorine atoms. Complete mineralization can occur to the non-chlorinated aryl

ring of congeners with one or no chlorine substituents, in which aerobic bacteria gain carbon and energy for growth (Wittich, 1998a, b; Hong et al., 2004). Co-metabolism is the common mechanism for aerobic bacteria attacking di- to tetra-chlorinated congeners while utilizing another growth substrate (Habe et al., 2001; Hong et al., 2002). In this case, PCDD/Fs are metabolized to chlorinated salicylic acid or chlorocatechols.

White-rot fungi are capable of co-metabolizing a number of PCDD/F congeners via the activity of extracellular lignin and manganese peroxidases and cytochrom P450 monooxygenases (Takada et al., 1996; Valli et al., 1992; Manji and Ishihara, 2004; Mori and Konda 2002).

Under anaerobic conditions, bacteria mediate the step-wise reductive dechlorination of PCDD/F congeners. This is one of the very few known mechanisms that transform highly chlorinated congeners in environment. In this process, PCDD/Fs may serve as an electron acceptor and anaerobic bacteria may gain energy for growth. This process is also known as (de)halorespiration, in which electron transfer was coupled with proton gradient across the membrane, thus driving ATP formation (Holliger et al., 1999; Smidt et al., 2000). The environmental importance of microbial reductive dechlorination lies in the initial attack of highly chlorinated congeners that are otherwise recalcitrant to microbial activities. The resulting less chlorinated congeners are more susceptible for subsequent aerobic degradation.

1.3.1.1. Microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked PCDD/Fs and PCBs

Knowledge of microbial reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs has mostly been obtained from the study of a few selected single spiked PCDD congeners using different enrichment cultures or sediment microcosms derived from freshwater, estuarine and marine sediments (Table 1-5).

Adriaens and Grbic-Galic (1994 and 1995) reported the first evidence of biologically mediated reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs. They observed lesser chlorinated congeners of CDD/Fs, which accounted for up to 30% of the initially spiked penta-, hexa- and hepta-CDD/Fs in active anaerobic microcosms using Hudson River sediment as inoculum incubated for more than 2 years. Beurskens et al. (1995) reported the first microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD using a sediment-free enrichment culture derived from hexachlorobenzene dechlorinating microcosms from Rhine River sediments over a time course of 20 days. In their experiment, 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was reductively dechlorinated to both 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDDs, which were further dechlorinated to 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs at a ratio of 5:2. Trace amount of 2-mono-CDD was also observed. Later work by Ballerstedt et al. (1997) using Saale River (Germany) sediments found that dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD produced 1,3-di-CDD as the main product with minor amounts of 1,2,4- and 1,2,3-tri-CDDs. The authors analyzed the dechlorination of 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDDs using a subculture of the original sediment consortium (Ballerstedt et al. 1997). They found that 1,2,4-tri-CDD yielded only 1,3-di-CDD, while 1,2,3-tri-CDD was slowly dechlorinated to equal amounts of 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDD. They concluded that the dechlorination pathway of

1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD to 1,3-di-CDD was primarily via the lateral removal of chlorine atom via 1,2,4-tri-CDD. Bunge et al. (2001) reported a similar dechlorination pathway for spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD using an anaerobic microbial consortium enriched from Spittelwasser sediments (Germany). They proposed the concept of “regiospecific dechlorination” pathway of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, and 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDDs. In their explanation, the Spittelwasser microorganisms were capable of simultaneous dechlorination of *peri* and lateral chlorines, and / or restricted to dechlorination at positions flanked by chlorine atoms on both sides. In addition to the positive dechlorination results of sediment microcosms and enrichment cultures derived from above mentioned sites for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, Arthur Kill sediments (NJ, USA) (Vargas et al., 2001), Graving Dock and Paleta Creek sediment (SD, USA) as well as pristine sediment from Tuckerton (NJ, USA) (Ahn et al., 2005) have shown similar dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD. In addition to different dechlorination pathways, dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD has been observed with carbon isotope fraction by a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 very recently (Liu et al., 2010). The 1,2,4-triCDD dechlorination product was enriched in ^{13}C relative to 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD in cultures with and without perchloroethene (PCE) as a co-substrate. The further dechlorination product 1,3-di-CDD was depleted in ^{13}C relative to 1,2,4-tri-CDD. However, no carbon isotope fractionation factors could be determined for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD in their study. Similar carbon isotope fractionation during sequential reductive dechlorination of 1,2,4- and 1,2,3-tri-CDDs was also reported by Ewald and co-workers (2007). Their study showed that the intermediate 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs were enriched, and the final product 2-mono-CDD significantly depleted in ^{13}C .

Only two studies have been conducted on dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF, including one enrichment cultures derived from Paleta Creek sediment (USA) (Ahn et al., 2005) and one pure isolate of *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 (Fennell et al., 2004). Tri-, di- and mono-CDFs were detected in both studies as the dechlorination products, but due to the lack of commercially available standards, no conclusive dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF is available currently.

Fu and co-workers (2005) studied the dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDD using Passaic River sediment (NJ, USA) in the presence of acetate, butyrate, and benzoate. They found that the relative yields of dechlorination product formation did not exceed 30% of the mother congener. The dechlorination of spiked octa-CDD, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDD, 1,2,3,4,7,8-, 1,2,4,6,8,9-, 1,2,4,6,7,9-hexa-CDDs, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, 1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF, and 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD was also tested using different sediment sources (Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994, 1995; Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996; Kao et al., 2001). They demonstrated the dechlorination activity and identified several dechlorination products, but there was no conclusive pathway being identified yet.

Microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked single PCB congeners or PCB mixtures has been observed in enrichment cultures and sediment microcosms derived from many places over the world (Table 1-6). Compared to PCDD/Fs, dechlorination knowledge of PCB single congener and mixtures are better understood in numbers of PCB congeners

and mixtures being studied and dechlorination pathways being demonstrated (Brown et al., 1984; Quensen et al., 1988, 1990; Van Dort and Bedard, 1991; Hartkamp-Commandeur et al., 1996; Kuo et al., 1999; Williams, 1997; Chen et al., 2001; Zonaroli et al., 2010; Baba et al., 2007; Krumins et al., 2009; for reviews see Bedard and Quensen, 1995; Bedard, 2003; 2008).

1.3.1.2. Dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs and PCBs in contaminated sediments

Evidence for the microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs and PCBs in the environment is available from a few studies conducted with soil or sediment (Table 1-7 and 1-8). Dated sediment cores from aquatic depositional systems have the potential to provide knowledge on the chronologies of pollutant input as well as provide information on the possible fates of these pollutants. To date, only a few studies have been performed in this category. Beurskens et al. (1993) observed significant disappearance of four higher chlorinated dioxin (PCDDs) congeners when compared with archived sediment samples in Lake Ketelmeer, Rhine River sedimentation area, the Netherlands. Gaus et al. (2002) reported that sediment age was correlated with increasing proportions of lower chlorinated PCDDs and decreasing proportions of octa-CDD for Queensland sediment (Australia). These limited studies conducted directly to the sediments in the field provided very important evidence of microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs *in situ*, yet with inadequate knowledge about the dechlorination process over time and the response of microbial community in the sediment.

In addition to the knowledge obtained by comparing profiles of weathered PCDD/Fs vs. sediments at different age, dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs were also observed in microcosms or enrichment cultures derived from the contaminated sites.

Historical contamination of PCDD in Passaic River sediments, hepta- and penta-CDDs in particular, decreased in anaerobic microcosms over two months after spiking high concentration (ppm) of similar highly oxidized compounds to sediments (Barkovskii et al., 1994). Aged 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD was stoichiometrically converted to tri- and mono-CDDs in a microbial consortium derived from dioxin-contaminated Passaic River sediments (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996). Using the same sediment source (Passaic River, USA), Albrecht et al. (1999) demonstrated the dechlorination capability of indigenous microorganisms. Sediment-associated 2,3,7,8-substituted PCDD/F residues in general and 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD in particular, may be dechlorination products of octa-CDD and hepta-CDDs, which may be further dechlorinated to 2-mono-CDD. The addition of organic acids, 2-monobromodibenzo-*p*-dioxin and hydrogen stimulated the reactions.

By employing polytopic vector analysis (PVA) as a statistical pattern recognition technique, Barabás et al. (2004) estimated the dechlorination of dioxins in the field for the first time. They identified a dechlorination fingerprint in the sediment of Passaic River, New Jersey, with a highly positive 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD component and a highly negative hepta-CDD component. About 2~4% of their data variance was contributed by dechlorination, which equaled an average of 1.2 µg/kg of 2,3,7,8-TCDD per sample at

the expense of hepta-CDD. This postulation was further validated by the ratio of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD/ total 2,3,7,8-PCDD, which indicated dechlorination in the laboratory incubations. Their work combines laboratory and field scale analysis, which provide strong support on the occurrence of natural PCDD/F dechlorination.

Yoshida et al. (2005) incubated polluted river sediment (Japan) in anaerobic microcosms for more than 1 year with periodic supplementation of organic medium. They found that the total concentration and TEQ level of aged PCDD/Fs in the sediment decreased without significant accumulation of 1-3CDD/Fs congeners as intermediates or end products during the overall period of incubation after a lag time of a few weeks. They also observed an increasing amount of catechol and salicylic acid in the aqueous phase.

Compared to weathered PCDD/Fs, the knowledge of dechlorination of weathered PCBs were obtained by comparing PCB profiles at different layers of sediments and different locations as well as to the congener profiles of commercial PCB mixtures (Aroclor products). The first changing PCB distribution pattern was reported for the lower layers of Hudson River sediment when compared to commercial Aroclor 1242 (Brown et al., 1984). Alder et al. (1993) found dechlorination of both spiked Aroclor 1242 and historical (pre-existing) PCBs in cultures established with New Bedford Harbor sediment resulting in accumulation of di-, tri- and tetra-chlorobiphenyls. Later, Adriaens et al. (1995) detected more mono-, di- and tri-PCBs with decreased mol% of tetra-, penta-, and hexa-, hepta-PCBs in anaerobic microcosm inoculated with Aroclor 1242 contaminated Hudson River sediment after 400 days than that of starting time point as well as Aroclor

1242 standard. Different locations of Woods Pond sediment (MA, USA) contained characteristic congener distribution of Aroclor 1260 with decreased percentages of key hexa-, and hepta-CBs as well as increased percentages of tri-, tetra- and penta-CBs as compared to Aroclor 1260 (Bedard and May, 1996). Margar et al. (2005) reported sediment depth associated preferential loss of *meta*- and *para*- chlorines of PCBs and accumulation of lower chlorinated congeners dominated by *ortho*- chlorine substitutions in Lake Hartwell (SC, USA).

1.3.1.3. Dechlorination patterns of PCDD/Fs and PCBs

Chlorine substitutions on PCDD/F congeners can be categorized into two groups: (1) *peri* chlorines at positions of -1, -4, -6, and -9; (2) lateral chlorines at positions of -2, -3, -7, and -8. As indicated above from the different dechlorination pathways of PCDDs, these two groups of chlorines have different tendencies of being substituted by hydrogen during dechlorination. Two different dechlorination pathways have been shown with 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, 1,2,4- and 1,2,3-tri-CDDs by many researchers using river, estuarine and marine sediments (Beurskens et al., 1995; Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Vargas et al., 2001; Bunge, 2001; Ahn et al., 2005). Dechlorination of these congeners can occur on either *peri* or lateral chlorines sequentially or simultaneously depending on the source of inoculum. Different reaction rates of *peri* dechlorination vs. lateral dechlorination will result in different dominant dechlorination pathways. Theoretical analysis by Gibbs free energy, molecular orbital calculation as well as density-functional calculations indicated that reductive dechlorination of octa-CDD would tend to occur at the lateral chlorines, which is thus not likely to result in dominant formation of laterally substituted toxic

congeners (Huang et al., 1996; Wehrmeier et al, 1998; Lynam et al., 1998; Fueno et al., 2002). However, dechlorination of PCDD/Fs mediated by microorganisms is very complicated and affected by environmental conditions. Consequently, the ultimate dechlorination pathway of PCDD/Fs will be determined not only by the number and positions of chlorines, but also by the microbial populations (Wiegel and Wu, 2000) available in the contaminated sediments.

Chlorine substitutions of PCB congeners are categorized into three groups based on their relative positions to the carbon bridge: (1) *ortho* chlorines at position of -2, -2', -6, and -6'; (2) *meta* chlorines at positions of -3, -3', -5, and -5'; (3) *para* chlorines at positions of -4 and -4'. Microbial reductive dechlorination of PCBs has been observed for all three positions with varied preferences in microcosms or enrichment cultures derived from different sites (for reviews see Bedard, 2003, 2008; Bedard and Quensen, 1995). For PCBs, generally, higher chlorinated biphenyls are preferentially dechlorinated over lower chlorinated congeners, resulting in the accumulation of mono-, di-, and trichlorobiphenyls (Quensen and Tiedje, 1997). The removal of chlorine from a PCB congener is not completely determined by the position (*ortho*-, *meta*- or *para*-) of the chlorine relative to the opposite phenyl ring; the surrounding chlorine configuration, the chlorine configuration on the opposite ring, and the total number of chlorines on both rings (Brown et al., 1987; Bedard and Quensen, 1995) all affect specificity of dechlorination. This similar mechanism holds true for PCDD/F dechlorination too. The regioselectivity of PCDD/F dechlorination not only depends on the number of chlorines, but also the position of the chlorine substitution, the chlorine configuration on the both

benzene rings. Dechlorination products of 1,2,4-tri-CDD have been reported to be mainly 1,3-di-CDD (Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Bunge et al., 2001; Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005). In comparison, dechlorination products of 1,2,3-tri-CDD included 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs as combined results of *peri* and lateral dechlorination (Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Bunge et al., 2001).

1.3.2. Reductive dechlorination properties of pure culture and highly enriched mixed/sediment-free cultures

1.3.2.1. PCDD/F dechlorination by pure and highly enriched cultures

The pseudo-first-order transformation rates of aged PCBs in contaminated sediments tend to be orders of magnitude lower than those of freshly spiked PCBs (concentration ranged from 20-500 mg/kg) (Brown et al., 1984; Quensen et al., 1988, 1990; Anid et al., 1991; Bedard et al., 1992). Abramowicz and co-workers (1993) reported that the dechlorination rate of aged PCB in Hudson River sediments was 80% of that of the freshly spiked PCBs. These observations could provide some references for understanding the very limited dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs and PCBs *in situ*. Obviously, the extreme hydrophobicity, poor bioavailability and limit transportability of PCDD/Fs are important factors that affect the dechlorination rates of PCDD/Fs under natural conditions. But there are almost certainly others, including abiotic factors such as presence of humic acid, which also affect dechlorination of PCDD/Fs *in situ* (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1998). Dechlorination of PCDDs mediated by model humic constituents (MHCs) including resorcinol, 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (3,4-DHBA), and catechol, ceased at tetra-CDDs in microbial consortium derived from Passaic River sediment,

microbial activity caused the further dechlorination to produce tri-, di- and mono-CDDs (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1998). The key to determine the role of these other factors on dechlorination of PCDD/Fs will be to identify microorganisms involved in the dechlorination process, and to elucidate how they deal with the stresses posed by PCDD/Fs and how their activity may be enhanced.

In recent years, much research focus has been given to the development of methods to unequivocally demonstrate ongoing reductive dechlorination in anaerobic environments, on approaches to stimulate such reactions, and on characterization of the microbial communities responsible for anaerobic dechlorination of PCDD/Fs, with the goal of developing successful and comprehensive strategies for the bioremediation of PCDD/Fs contamination in the world. Currently, there are only two known pure cultures and one highly enriched culture from the genus *Dehalococcoides* that are capable of dechlorinating various PCDD/Fs congeners (Table 1-9) (Bunge et al., 2003, 2008; Fennell et al., 2004; Liu and Fennell, 2008; Liu et al., 2010).

Dehalococcoides ethenogenes strain 195 was initially identified and isolated as a perchloroethene (PCE) dechlorinator (Maymó-Gatell et al., 1997). In the presence of butyric acid and PCE, a mixed culture containing strain 195 was capable of dechlorinating 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, with 1,2,4-tri-CDD as the first intermediate before 1,3-di-CDD in 250 days (Fennell et al., 2004). TriCDFs were the only detectable dechlorination products of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF in the same period for strain 195 (Fennell et al., 2004). Strain 195 also dechlorinated lateral chlorines of 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF to

generate non-2,3,7,8 substituted penta and tetra-CDFs in the presence of butyric acid (Liu and Fennell, 2008). However, it is not known if these processes are growth supporting. Strain 195 was also capable of dechlorinating 2,3,4,5,6-PCB to 2,3,4,6- and 2,3,5,6-PCB then further to 2,4,6-PCB in presence of butyric acid and PCE (Fennell et al., 2004). Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was also coupled with carbon isotope fractionation with ^{13}C enriched in 1,2,4-tri-CDD compared to 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD and ^{13}C depleted in 1,3-di-CDD compared to 1,2,4-tri-CDD. However, no carbon isotope fractionation factors could be determined for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Liu et al., 2010). He et al. (2006) reported the debromination activities of strain 195 on octa- brominated diphenyl ethers (octa-BDE) producing hepta- through penta-BDEs within six months. More extensive debromination of tetra- and di-BDEs was observed with an enriched culture containing strain 195 during 3 months incubation.

Dehalococcoides sp. CBDB1 was initially known for its ability to dechlorinate chlorinated benzenes (Adrian et al., 2000). Bunge et al. (2003) investigated its capability of dechlorinating spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, 1,2,3-/1,2,4-tri-CDD, and 1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD. Their study showed a preferred removal of *peri*-chlorines followed by subsequent lateral removal, with 2-mono-CDD as a final product for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD. The dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was coupled to the growth of strain CBDB1. The dechlorination rate of 1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD was relatively slower than that of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, producing 2,3,7,8- and 1,3,7,8-tetra-CDD. 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD could be further dechlorinated to 2,3,7-tri-CDD and then to 2,7- and 2,8-di-CDD. Strain CBDB1 was also reported to carry out *para* and *meta* dechlorination of Aroclor 1260 and 1248 (Adrian et al., 2009). Strain

CBDB1 was also capable of dechlorinating 2,3-chlorophenol (Adrian et al., 2007). The electron donor and carbon sources for the above dechlorination reaction are H₂ and acetate.

Dehalococcoides sp. DCMB5 was recently enriched from Spittlewasser creek sediment by Bunge and co-workers (2008). It was initially enriched with spiked 1,2,4-tri-CDD (Ewald et al. 2007) and finally isolated in two-liquid phase cultures with 1,2,3-trichlorobenzene in presence of mixed organic acid solution (Bunge et al. 2008). Both 1,2,4-triCDD and 1,2,3-trichlorobenzene are growth supporting electron acceptors for strain DCMB5. This highly enriched culture can mediate the sequential *peri*-dechlorination of 1,2,4-tri-CDD to produce 2-mono-CDD as an end product (Bunge et al., 2008).

In addition to *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195, *Dehalococcoides* sp. CBDB1, and highly enriched *Dehalococcoides* sp. DCMB5, one sediment-free triCDDs dechlorinating mixed culture was enriched from the sediment of River Saale, Germany (Ballerstedt et al., 2004). This sediment-free tri-CDD dechlorinating mixed culture was enriched from River Saale sediment (Germany) using pyruvate, lactate, and fumarate as electron donors (Ballerstedt et al., 2004). It is capable of mediating *peri*-dechlorination of 1,2,4-tri-CDD to produce 1,3-di-CDD and then to 2-mono-CDD; *peri* and lateral dechlorination of 1,2,3-tri-CDD to produce 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs and then to 2-mono-CDD.

1.3.2.2. PCB dechlorination by pure and highly enriched cultures

The knowledge of PCB dechlorinators is relatively well established and helps to understand the process of PCDD/Fs dechlorination. Several enrichment cultures and different bacteria phylo-types have been reported for their PCB dechlorinating activities (Table 1-10).

Chloroflexi o-17 is the first PCB dechlorinator in pure culture reported in the literature (Cutter et al., 2001). It mediates the doubly flanked *meta*- and flanked *ortho*-dechlorination of 2,3,5,6-PCB (Cutter et al., 2001). This process was demonstrated to support growth of the bacterium. *Dehalococcoides* sp. DF-1 initially co-existed with a *Desulfovibrio* sp., and mediates the *para*-dechlorination of 2,3,4,5-PCB to support its growth (Wu et al., 2002). May et al. (2008) succeeded in maintaining its dechlorination capability in pure culture. Phylotypes DEH10, SF1 and SF2 were isolated from sediment of Baltimore Harbor, co-existing as a mixed culture and were consistently detected via 16S rRNA gene analysis (Fagervold et al., 2005, 2007). This group of phylotypes is capable of mediating dechlorination of various PCB congeners through different routes to gain energy for growth (Fagervold et al., 2005, 2007). *Dehalococcoides* sp. JN is a sediment free culture enriched from the sediment of Housatonic River, USA, which is capable of carrying out process N dechlorination (flanked *para* dechlorination) of commercial Aroclor 1260 to support its growth (Bedard et al., 2007).

PCDD/F dechlorination is ubiquitously observed in various anoxic habitats (Beurskens et al. 1995; Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994, 1995; Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996;

Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Kao et al., 2001; Vargas et al., 2001; Bunge, 2001; Ahn et al., 2005; Fu et al., 2005). Anaerobic microbial communities usually exhibit strong interactions among their members including dependence between non-dechlorinating and dechlorinating species (Wu et al. 2002), which is most likely the case for PCDD/Fs-dechlorinating communities. Dechlorinating species may be dependent on non-dechlorinating species producing vital growth factors, or maintaining low level of inhibitory factors for dechlorinating species. There might be important syntrophic relationship between the different members of the community. Unlike PCB dechlorinating enrichments (soil/sediment free culture; Hartcamp-Commandeur et al., 1996; Cutter et al., 1998), there is only one sediment-free enrichment capable of dechlorinating tri-CDDs (Ballerstedt et al., 2004) and one *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain DCMB5 enriched with 1,2,4-tri-CDD and isolated on 1,2,3-trichlorobenzene (Bunge et al. 2008). The other two *Dehalococcoides* strain 195 and CBDB1 were initially isolated as PCE or chlorobenzene dechlorinators and their capability of dechlorinating PCDD/Fs were later demonstrated (Fennell et al. 2004; Liu and Fennell 2008, Bunge et al. 2000, 2003). The limited cultivation and isolation of PCDD/F dechlorinating microorganisms are most likely due to the limited bioavailability of the extreme hydrophobicity and stable stereochemical structure of PCDD/F congeners (Shiu et al., 1988)

Despite of all the difficulties, it is still of special interest to enrich and to characterize indigenous microbial communities responsible for the dechlorination processes in various sediments. This might provide information on the actual potential of sediments to undergo *in situ* natural remediation. Additional isolates will give more information about

the dynamics of microbial transformation of environmentally significant PCDD/F congeners both in culture and in the natural environment. Isolation and characterization of the bacteria or consortia responsible for microbial reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs would allow for a better understanding of the mechanisms of this activity in the environment. This would provide a better prediction of both the dechlorination potential and products of PCDD/Fs.

1.3.2.3. Phylogeny of dechlorinating communities

Known PCDD/F as well as PCB dechlorinating bacteria all belong to the phylum of *Chloroflexi*, which is a deep-branching phylogenetic group dominated by uncultured microorganisms and most closely related to the green non-sulfur bacteria. The detection of 16S rRNA gene sequences affiliated with the phylum *Chloroflexi*, including *Dehalococcoides* and its relatives, in contaminated sediments as well as dechlorinating enrichment cultures indicated their widespread existence in the environment (Dennis et al., 2003; Duhamel et al., 2004; Fennell et al., 2001; Gu et al., 2004; He et al., 2003; Hendrickson et al., 2002; Kassenga et al., 2004; Löffler et al. 2000; Major et al. 2002; Richardson et al., 2002; Smits et al. 2004) and their importance in dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs (Holoman et al., 1999; Yoshida et al., 2005; Hiraishi et al., 2005; Ahn et al., 2007, 2008, Krumins et al., 2009). Multiple nonidentical reductive-dehalogenase-homologues (*rdh*) genes are commonly detected in *Dehalococcoides* (Hölscher et al., 2004) on the base of whole genome analysis. *Dehalococcoides ethenogene* Strain 195 and CBDB1 are reported to contain 17 (Seshadri et al., 2005) and 32 (Kube et al., 2005) reductive dehalogenase (*rdh*) genes, respectively, although the

overall functions of these genes are still unclear. This information suggests that members of *Chloroflexi* are habitating a wide range of contaminated environments and play important roles in the transformation of PCDD/Fs and other chlorinated contaminants.

In addition to the evidence for *Dehalococcoides* spp. as mediators of PCDD/F and PCB dechlorination, also other bacteria are capable of carrying out microbial reductive dechlorination (see Häggblom and Barrot, 2003). Ye et al. (1992) reported that anaerobic sporeformers (survived heat and ethanol) in upper Hudson River sediment may have been responsible for *meta* dechlorination of Aroclor 1242, while the heat and ethanol sensitive microorganisms were responsible for *para* dechlorination of Aroclor 1242. Hiraishi et al. (2001) reported that the quinone profiles of the microbial population in PCDD/F heavily polluted soil were distinctly separate from that of non-polluted soils, and the size of *in situ* microbial population was reversely related to the level of PCDD/F pollution. PCDD/F conamination exhibited a significant effect on microbial populations in soil or sediment in terms of quantity and activity. By using a most-probable-number technique, Kim and Rhee (1997) found that the time course of Aroclor 1248 dechlorination was reversely related to the growth of dechlorinators. Dechlorination ensued after dechlorinator populations increased by 2 orders of magnitude, and once the dechlorination activity reached a plateau, the number of dechlorinators started to decrease.

In summary, the process of microbial mediated reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs consists of the sequential reduction of highly chlorinated, toxic and bioaccumulable

PCDD/Fs into lower chlorinated congeners that are normally less toxic and more susceptible to subsequent mineralization by aerobic bacteria (see reviews Field and Sierra-Alvarez 2008; Chang, 2008). Respiratory microbial reductive dechlorination (also known as dechlororespiration) is a process by which dechlorinating microorganisms derive energy for growth via mediating the removal of chlorine by hydrogen and employing the organohalides as ultimate electron acceptors. If occurring *in situ*, it has a good potential of mediating a detoxification of the contaminated sites when hydrogen substitution occurs to the lateral chlorines (2,3,7,8-) of PCDD/Fs. With this prospect, microbial reductive dechlorination could ultimately become a competitive alternative method to the expensive and invasive traditional sediment remediation methods such as dredging or capping.

1.3.3. Environmental Factors that Affect the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs

The successful dechlorination under laboratory conditions provides us possible strategies to remediate PCDD/F contamination in sediments and soils. However, for successful application in the field, we have to find strategies to explore the full capacity of PCDD/F dechlorinating microbes. One aspect is to investigate the relationship between different dechlorinators in terms of interspecies transfer of halogenated intermediates of PCDD/Fs, which contribute to the combined turnover of PCDD/F congeners. The other aspect is to investigate the relationship between dechlorinators vs. non-dechlorinators in the environment. Dechlorinators may depend on non-dechlorinators to provide growth factors such as vitamin B12, or may depend on non-dechlorinators to limit growth

inhibitors (Kim and Rhee, 1999, review by Hiraishi, 2008). As for microorganisms in general, environmental factors including temperature, pH value, salinity, available electron donors, alternate electron acceptors and the physical and chemical properties of sediments or soils, also affect the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs.

The only reported optimal temperature for remarkable reduction of PCDD/F in microcosm inoculated with polluted river sediment in Japan was 25-37 °C, compared to much lower reduction yield at higher or lower temperatures (Yoshida et al., 2005). The PCDD/F dechlorination of mixed culture derived from river Saale (Germany) was inhibited by pasteurization, but not remarkably sensitive to inhibitors of methanogens, sulfate-reducing bacteria or gram-positive bacteria. Other available information about effect of temperature on dechlorination was obtained by PCB dechlorinators. Ye et al. (1992) observed that sporeformers from Hudson River sediment do not dechlorinate Aroclor 1242 when incubated above 37 °C. Wu et al. (1997) reported the different temperature ranges for PCB dechlorination processes N, P, and LP. Process N occurs at 8-30 °C, process P occurs at 2-34 °C, process LP occurs at 18-30°C. In most cases, these dechlorinations occur below 40 °C, this might be due to their existence in the sediment and soil is seldom above 40 °C.

To date, no study has been reported on the effect of pH on dechlorination of PCDD/Fs. However, several similar studies have been done with PCB dechlorinators. Rysavy et al. (2005) reported the inhibition of pH between 8 and 8.5 for dechlorination of 3,4,5-PCB. Yan et al. (2006) reported the profound effects of different concentrations of sodium

bicarbonate on the dechlorination of 2,3,4,5-PCB in sediment cultures containing *Dehalococcoides* like organisms as putative dechlorinators. This can be an indirect effect of pH on dechlorination of PCB, since sodium bicarbonate is one of the determine factors of pH value in the medium.

Fu et al. (2001) evaluated the transformation of PCDD/Fs in river sediments under different geochemical conditions including freshwater, estuarine and marine environments. The yield of dechlorinated products increased with salinity in general and the production of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD increased with decreased salinity and the amendment of dissolved organic matter on the contrary. Barkovskii and co-workers reported that lateral dechlorination patterns of PCDD/Fs were dominant under freshwater conditions (Barkovskii & Adriaens, 1996; Fu et al, 2001).

The effect of electron donors on dechlorination has been studied by several groups of scientetists. The major electron donors that have been studied include H₂, acetate, lactate, pyruvate, propionate, and butyrate. H₂ is one of the most important electron donors for dehalorespiring microorganisms under anaerobic conditions. During dechlorination process, the substitution of chlorine atom by hydrogen atom is coupled with electron transfer across the cell membrane and thus drives ATP formation to support growth or metabolic activity of microorganisms (Holliger et al., 1999; Smidt et al., 2000). And this process is It is reported that 1.0 atm H₂ in the headspace completely inhibit dechlorination of 3,4,5-PCB in microcosm but not in the pre-enriched sediment cultures;

0.001 atm H₂, on the contrary, enriched the PCB dechlorinators, decreasing the lag period prior to dechlorination (Rysavy et al., 2005).

The effect of organic substrates on dechlorination was studied as early as 1990, when Nies and Vogel (1990) found that the relative rates and extents of dechlorination of Aroclor 1242 was greatest for methanol-, glucose-, and acetone-fed anaerobic cultures and least for acetate-fed cultures, although significant dechlorination over time was observed in all treatments. Pulliam Holoman et al. (1998) showed that changing the mixed carbon source of butyrate, propionate and acetate with acetate only as electron donor resulted in a dramatic shift in the microbial community. The dechlorination rate of 2,3,5,6-tetrachlorobiphenyl with acetate alone was greater than in the enrichment with a mixture of fatty acids.

In addition to various possible electron donors, alternate electron acceptors in the environment also affect dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs. The presence of alternate electron donors provided different anaerobic conditions, including methanogenesis, sulfidogenesis, iron-reducing conditions.

Reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs has been observed mainly under methanogenesis conditions. However, some exception was reported (Alder et al., 1993; Barkovskii et al., 1994; Cutter et al., 1998; Bunge et al., 2003, Ahn et al., 2005, 2008). Ye et al. (1992) found that methanogenesis was not required for the *meta*- dechlorination

of Aroclor 1242 by sporeforming dechlorinators in upper Hudson river sediment, however, responsible for *para* dechlorination of Aroclor 1242 (Ye et al., 1995).

Addition of sulfate inhibited or extended the lag phase of PCB dechlorination (Alder et al., 1993; Berkaw et al., 1996; Brown et al., 1990; Suflita et al., 1988; Hartkamp-Commandeur, 1996), including microcosms enriched with strain DF-1 (Wu et al., 2002a). However, ferrous sulfate (FeSO_4) was reported to stimulate extensive anaerobic PCB dechlorination in Hudson River sediment cultures (Zwiernik et al., 1998). Sulfate was explained to stimulate growth of sulfate reducing bacteria, which were responsible for PCB dechlorination, while Fe^{2+} restricted sulfide bioavailability and toxicity by forming the insoluble precipitate FeS . However, this has not been confirmed in other studies. Fu et al. (2005) reported that sulfidogenic conditions resulted in a lower 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD formation from spiked hepta-CDD using estuarine sediment of Passaic River. Ahn et al. (2005) reported that dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD occurred to a greater extent under methanogenic than under sulfogenic conditions.

Under iron-reducing conditions, Rysavy et al. (2005) reported the inhibition of Fe^{2+} at pH of 8.5 for dechlorination of 3,4,5-trichlorobiphenyl. Efficient 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD removal (up to 86%) was observed under anaerobic reductive dechlorination conditions, whereas, no significant tetra-CDD removal in the microcosm prepared under aerobic or iron reduction conditions (Kao et al. 2001). Vargas et al. (2001) found very limited dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD under anaerobic sulfate reducing or iron-reducing conditions using Arthur Kill estuarine sediment over 31 months.

Physical and chemical characteristics of contaminated sediment also affect the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs. In a study on the impact of organic and inorganic electron transfer molecules on the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs in reduced environments, Adriaens et al. (1996) found that resorcinol, catechol, 3,4-dichlorobenzoate, Vitamin B12 and zerovalent zinc all mediated the dechlorination of octa-CDD/F and/or 1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDD to lesser chlorinated congeners. Their later study (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1998) showed that *peri*-dechlorination of PCDD was stimulated by model humic constituents (MHCs) with production of hepta-, hexa- and tetra-CDDs, whereas, microbial activity mediated the further dechlorination to tri-, di- and mono-CDDs. Fu et al. (1999) investigated the dissolved organic carbon DOC-mediated dechlorination of dioxin by using 1,2,3,4,6,7,9-hepta-CDD, Aldrich humic acid (AHA) and polymaleic acid (PMA) as model compounds. Hexa- and penta-CDDs were dominant in all incubations with comparable yields observed in the presence of humic constituents of catechol and resorcinol when normalized to phenolic acidity. The end points of microbial reductive dechlorination were mono-CDDs. Dechlorination of PCBs was found to be consistent with the total organic carbon content in the sediment (Kjellerup et al., 2008). Finally, the sediment type and particle size were found to have minimal influence on the dechlorination reactions (Kjellerup et al., 2008, Kim and Rhee, 2001). Kim and Rhee (2001) also showed that the physical sediment characteristics did not influence the dechlorination pattern in sediment spiked with Aroclor 1248.

In addition to the above mentioned environmental factors, PCDD/F concentrations will also affect the dechlorination. Hiraishi et al. (2005) reported a statistically well-fit first order kinetic relationship between the concentrations of PCDD/Fs and incubation time (r^2 ranged 0.9196~0.9766) in semi-anaerobic sediment microcosms. Concentrations of PCDD/Fs in these microcosm ranged from 18 ~2,900 pmol/g d.w.. In another study, the rate of one chlorine removal of 1,2,4-tri-CDD increased with the increasing concentration of 1,2,4-tri-CDD (Ballerstedt et al., 2004). Laboratory PCB dechlorination was reported to be dependent on the concentration of total PCB concentration (Abramowicz et al., 1993; Fish 1996; Rhee et al., 1993; and Sokol et al., 1995), which may be a result of different biomass of PCB dechlorinators or different affinity of dechlorinating enzymes. Thus the knowledge of the size of the dechlorinating populations in the contaminated sites will indicate the potential for further dechlorination of dioxins *in situ*. In this regard, it is very important to find any relationship between the PCDD/F concentration and the biomass of the dechlorinators. Additionally, PCDD/F concentrations vary from site to site, so we need to know the impact of PCDD/F concentrations on dechlorination, the bioavailability under different PCDD/F concentration levels.

In addition to the effect of PCDD/F concentration, the co-existence of other halogenated compounds will also affect the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs. May and co-workers (2006) tested the stimulatory and inhibitory effects of organohalides (26 PCBs, 12 chlorobenzenes, and 6 chloroethenes) on the dechlorinating activities of PCB-dechlorinating bacterium *Chloroflexi* o-17. They found that Aroclor 1260 and 246-PCB were not dechlorinated by the culture, but inhibited the dechlorination of 2,3,5,6-PCB.

The dechlorination of 2,3,4- and 2,3,5-PCBs, and 1,2,3,5- and 1,2,4,5-tetrachlorobenzene occurred only when a more extensively chlorinated parent compound was present for *Chloroflexi* o-17. Ahn and co-worker's work showed the stimulating effect of several halogenated structure analogs of PCDD/Fs on the dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/Fs using enrichment cultures derived from various sediments (Ahn et al., 2005, 2007, 2008).

1.4. Strategies to enhance microbial reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs

Microbial reductive dechlorination of highly chlorinated PCDD/Fs by indigenous microorganisms is a slow process and happens only to limited extent, which is especially true under field conditions (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996; Beurskens et al., 1993; Albrecht et al., 1999; Barabás et al., 2004). Hence, the stimulation of PCDD/F dechlorination has been attempted by adding a wide range of halogenated compounds as co-substrates for the purpose of “priming” the dechlorination reactions. These halogenated co-substrates are known as “haloprimers” (Bedard et al., 1998). Many PCDD/F structural analogs have been tested for such purpose, including 2-monobromodibenzo-p-dioxin, brominated phenols, chlorinated benzenes and chlorinated anisoles (Table 1-11). These “haloprimers” are relatively easier to be dechlorinated and can be used to initially stimulate the growth of dechlorinators or induce the expression of responsible dechlorinating enzymes.

The first successful enhancement of PCDD/F dechlorination was observed for the aged PCDD/Fs in Passaic River sediment (USA) when amended with 2-monobromodibenzo-*p*-dioxin and H₂ in presence of acetate, butyrate, and benzoate (Albrecht et al., 1999). After this, enhancement of dechlorination has been investigated mostly with spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005, 2008). Ahn et al. (2005) tested the priming effects of 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB), 2,3,4,5-tetrachloroanisole (TeCA), 2,3,4,5-tetrachlorophenol (TeCP), 2,3,5,6-tetrachlorobenzoate (TeCBA), 2',3',4'-trichloroacetophenone (TrCAP), phenol, 2-chlorophenol (CP), 3-CP, 4-CP, 2-bromophenol (BP), 3-BP, 4-BP on the dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F using estuarine sediments from San Diego Bay (CA, USA) and Tuckerton (NJ, USA). Their work showed that TeCB, TeCA, TeCP and TrCAP plus lactate and propionate displayed the most effective stimulation on the dechlorination of tetra-CDD/Fs compared to no dechlorination without these amendments and less dechlorination and long lag phase for the other priming compounds. TeCB was dechlorinated to 1,3- and 1,2-DiCB within 3 months. No other information was available for the fate of priming compounds. Later the authors characterized the response of microbial community accompanied with the enhanced dechlorination activity (Ahn et al. 2007, 2008). Distinct microbial populations were enriched with each priming compound, and *Chloroflexi*-like rRNA genes were detected and associated with the dechlorination reactions. The authors postulate that specific *Chloroflexi* related to *Dehalococcoides* are involved in the reductive dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Ahn et al., 2007).

In addition to 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDD was enhanced by 2-bromodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (2-BrDD) in estuarine sediments of the Passaic River (NJ, USA) (Fu et al., 2005). Their results showed that 2-BrDD not only increased the dechlorination yields, but also decreased the formation of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD through the enhanced lateral dechlorination over *peri* chlorines. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF by *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 can also be enhanced by adding 1,2,3,4-TeCB (Liu and Fennell, 2008). Besides adding priming co-substrates to initiate dechlorination reactions in the system, Ahn and co-workers (2008) also used the mixed culture of *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 to bioaugment this reaction.

Compared to PCDD/Fs, the successful enhancement of PCB dechlorination has been reported for not only single spiked congeners but also PCB mixtures. One of the early enhancements of PCB dechlorination was reported for spiked 2,2',4,4',5,5'- and 2,2',4,4',6,6'-PCBs by adding 2,3,6-trichlorobenzoate using Rhine River sediment (the Netherlands) (Hartkamp-Comandeur et al., 1996). 2,3,6-Trichlorobenzoate (2,3,6-TrBT) was dechlorinated to 2,5-dichlorobenzoate (2,5-DiBT) during this process. In addition to these two congeners, dechlorination of 3,3',4,4'- and 3,4,4',5-PCBs was enhanced by toluene or 3-chlorobenzoate-adapted sediments (Taiwan) (Kuo et al., 1999). Adding 0.1g Fe⁰/g sediment was found to enhance the dechlorination of 3,4,5-trichlorobiphenyl (3,4,5-PCB) and 2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-heptachlorobiphenyl (2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-PCB) in Baltimore Harbor sediment (Rysavy et al. 2005). While the stimulating effect of FeSO₄ on the dechlorination of Aroclor 1242 was observed by Zwiernik and co-workers for the sediment of Hudson River (1998). In both cases, Fe⁰ and Fe²⁺ behaved as the electron

donor and also inhibitor of S^{2-} . Sulfate was used to stimulate the growth of sulfate reducing bacteria that were able to dechlorinate PCBs.

In addition to an effect on single PCB congeners, enhanced dechlorination was observed for PCB mixtures like Aroclor 1242, 1260 by adding brominated biphenyls (Bedard et al., 1998; Wu et al., 1999) and bromo- or iodo-benzoates (Deweerd and Bedard, 1999). Adding certain inhibitors such as sodium molybdate has been demonstrated to enhance the dechlorination of PCB mixtures using Japanese burnt soil as inoculum (Baba and Katayama, 2007). Different priming compounds are known to prime different dechlorination patterns (N, P, LP) for PCB (Bedard et al., 1998). Bedard et al. (1998) reported that the concentration of 2,6-polybrominated biphenyl (2,6-PBB) as a priming compound affected the rate and final extent of PCB dechlorination; the optimal range was 200-500 μ M. Dechlorination of historical PCBs has been enhanced by adding a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 and pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) (Krumins et al., 2009).

Much effort has been made to enhance the reductive dechlorination of microorganisms, including the stimulation effects of several haloprimers as co-substrates. However, the question that still remains to be answered is to what extent the structure analog co-substrates will be able to enhance PCDD/F dechlorination. One major concern or enhancing microbial reductive dechlorination is the accumulation of secondary products, including volatile fatty acid (acetate, propionate), metal (iron, magnesium), and various dechlorination intermediates either from dioxin or from haloprimers, which may lead to

an increased toxicity or generate secondary problematic environmental pollutants. In order to resolve these issues, defined system need to be employed to monitor the possible side reactions of electron donors besides dechlorination, ecotoxicity experiments need to be done to test the toxic or inhibit impact on the indigenous microbes.

1.5. Hypothesis and objectives

Although dechlorination of PCDD/Fs have been shown with several spiked congeners by pure isolates or enrichment cultures derived from various contaminated sediments, limited knowledge is available for dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs, in particular for weathered PCDFs associated with sediments for many years. There is still a lack of information on the strategies to stimulate such activities *in situ*. Amendment with structural analog co-substrates (“haloprimer”) or bioaugmentation with known dechlorinating bacteria were shown to enhance dechlorination of spiked PCDD/Fs, yet their effect on the dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs in contaminated sediments is unknown. The consistent detection of *Chloroflexi* bacteria in PCDD/F dechlorinating community indicated their important role in the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs. However, only two isolates and one highly enriched culture of *Dehalococcoides* belonging to *Chloroflexi* are capable of dechlorinating certain spiked PCDD/F congeners.

In order to resolve the issues mentioned above, Kymijoki River sediment in Finland was used as a case model to assess the potential for anaerobic microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDFs and to gain information on the application in bioremediation and detoxification of contaminated sediments. This river has been heavily

contaminated with weathered PCDFs due to the production of chlorophenolic fungicide Ky-5 from 1940s to 1980s (Malve et al., 2003), with high concentration of PCDD/Fs from 120-193,000 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (d.w.) in the river sediment (Salo et al., 2008). In view of the current knowledge of microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked and weathered PCDD/Fs in contaminated sediments, it was hypothesized that long-term (> 50 years) contamination of weathered PCDD/Fs has enriched for a group of dechlorinating microorganisms. Three objectives were proposed to demonstrate the hypothesis: 1) find evidence of dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment; 2) investigate the feasibility of stimulating dechlorination of weathered PCDFs by different amendments; 3) enrich and identify the dechlorinating microorganisms responsible for dechlorination. Experiments in mesocosms (30 L), microcosms (200 mL) and enrichment cultures (40 mL) were set up to determine each objective, as described detail in Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

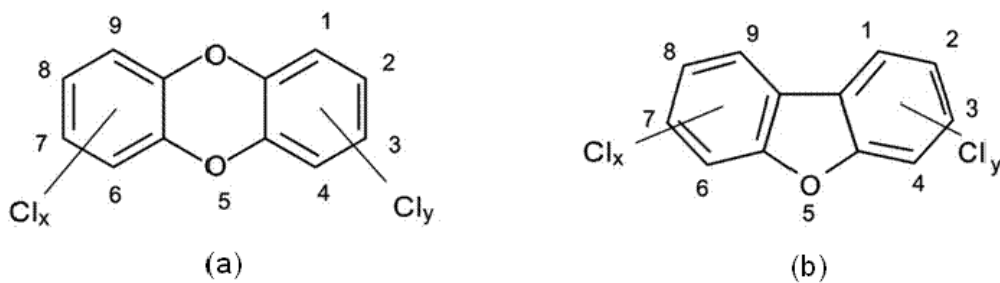


Figure 1-1. Molecular structure of polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) (a) and dibenzofurans (PCDFs) (b). *x* and *y* indicate the number of chlorine substitutions.

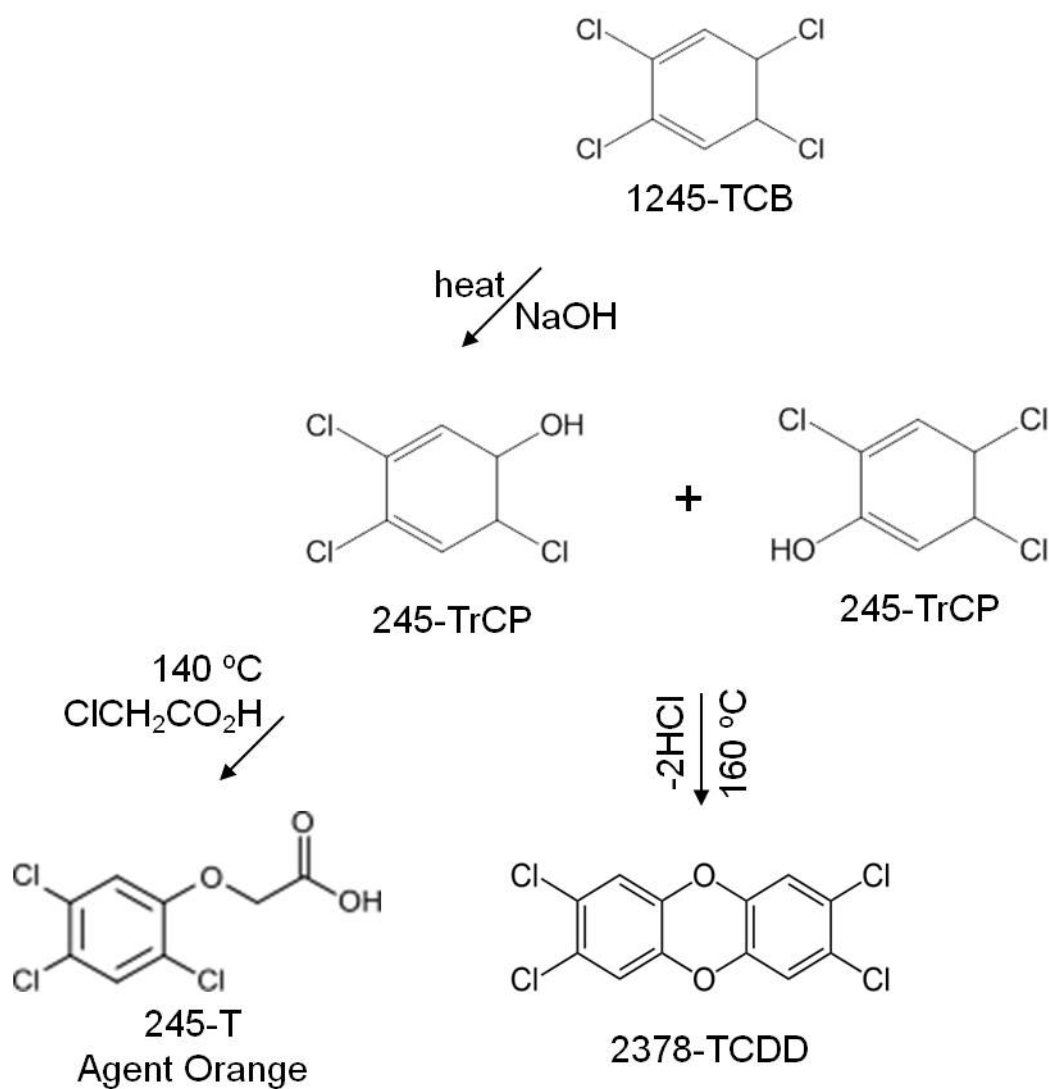


Figure 1-2. Production of 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD during the manufacture processes of 2,4,5-trichlorophenol (245-TrCP) from 1,2,4,5-tetrachlorobenzene (1245-TCB) and 2,4,5-trichlorophenoxyacetic acid (245-T) from 245-TrCP. Agent Orange is made up of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (24-D) and 245-T at 1:1 ratio (Adapted from Hites, 2010).

Table 1-1. Key properties of polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans
(Adapted from Mackay et al., 1992).

Congener	Water Solubility	Vapor Pressure	Henry's Law Constant	
	C ^s	P	H	Log K _{ow}
	(mg/m ³)	(Pa ×10 ⁻⁵)	(Pa m ³ /mol)	
1-mono-CDD	417	1200	8.38	4.2-5.47
2-mono-CDD	257-1260	1600-1700	14.82	4.2-5.71
23-di-CDD	14.9-34.1	39-40	6.61	4.7-6.23
27-di-CDD	3.75-311	12~13	8.11	4.7-6.72
28-di-CDD	16.7	13~14	2.13	4.7-5.6
124-tri-CDD	8.41-8.5	10	3.84	5.1-7.77
1234-tetra-CDD	0.47-25.6	0.63-10.44	3.77	5.5-8.97
1237-tetra-CDD	0.042-0.48	0.1-0.07	0.77	5.5-8.81
1368-tetra-CDD	0.168-26.4	0.07-5.8	0.71	5.5-9.43
2378-tetra-CDD	0.0072-19.4	0.00933-6	0.0021-7.93	5.38-7.70
12347-penta-CDD	0.0855-5.78	0.0088-0.1	0.264	6.60-10.05
123478-hexa-CDD	0.004-0.044	0.00051-0.396	4.52	7.3-10.89
1234678-hepta-CDD	0.00203-0.561	0.000075-0.193	0.133	7.92~11.98
octa-CDD	0.00007-0.18	0.000011-2.4	0.683	7.53-13.08
28-di-CDF	14.5	39	6.377 ^a	4.91-6.16
2378-tetra-CDF	0.419-3.51	0.2-12.28	1.5	5.82~7.70
23478-penta-CDF	0.236-0.515	0.035-2.17	0.505 ^a	6.92~7.82
123478-hexa-CDF	0.00825	0.0032-0.8093	1.454 ^a	7.7
1234678-hepta-CDF	0.00135-0.0108	0.00047-1.93	1.425 ^a	7.92~9.25
1234789-hepta-CDF	0.00004	0.00062-0.1011	---	6.9
octa-CDF	0.00116	0.0005-0.026	0.1	7.6~13.93

All properties were chosen to be representative of those that occur at 25 °C.

a: calculated constant (Mackay, 1992)

Table 1-2. Total numbers of isomers and 2,3,7,8-substituted congeners in each homolog group of the PCDD/Fs.

Abbreviation	# of possible congeners	# of possible 2378-substituted congeners
mono-CDD	2	0
di-CDD	10	0
tri-CDD	14	0
tetra-CDD	22	1
penta-CDD	14	1
hexa-CDD	10	3
hepta-CDD	2	1
octa-CDD	1	1
mono-CDF	4	0
di-CDF	16	0
tri-CDF	28	0
tetra-CDF	38	1
penta-CDF	28	2
hexa-CDF	16	4
hepta-CDF	4	2
octa-CDF	1	1

Table 1-3. WHO-TEF (2005) values of 2,3,7,8- substituted PCDD/Fs and dioxin-like PCBs for humans and mammals (Adapted from van den Berg, 2006).

Congeners	WHO 2005 TEF	Congeners	WHO 2005 TEF
Dioxins		Biphenyls	
2378-tetra-CDD	1	33'44'-TeCB (77)	0.0001
12378-penta-CDD	1	344'5-TeCB (81)	0.0003
123478-hexa-CDD	0.1	233'44'-PnCB (105)	0.00003
123678-hexa-CDD	0.1	2344'5-PnCB (114)	0.00003
123789-hexa-CDD	0.1	23'44'5-PnCB (118)	0.00003
1234678-hepta-CDD	0.01	2'344'5-PnCB (123)	0.00003
octa-CDD	0.0003	33'44'5-PnCB (126)	0.1
Furans		233'44'5-HxCB (156)	0.00003
2378-tetra-CDF	0.1	233'44'5'-HxCB (157)	0.00003
12378-penta-CDF	0.03	23'44'55'-HxCB (167)	0.00003
23478-penta-CDF	0.3	33'44'55'-HxCB (169)	0.03
123478-hexa-CDF	0.1	233'44'55'-HpCB (189)	0.00003
123678-hexa-CDF	0.1		
234678-hexa-CDF	0.1		
123789-hexa-CDF	0.1		
1234678-hepta-CDF	0.01		
1234789-hepta-CDF	0.01		
octa-CDF	0.0003		

Table 1-4. Global PCDD/F contamination in soils and sediments as well as some major problematic sites.

Location	Source	PCDD/Fs (µg/kg d.w.)	Period	Reference
Kymijoki River sediment, Finland	Manufacture of Fungicide Ky5	120-193,000	1940s- 1980s	Salo et al., 2008
Gulf of Finland sediment, Finland	Manufacture of Fungicide Ky-5	1.03-52.9		
Brentella Canal sediment, Italy	Municipal and industrial activities	3-64 ^a	1920s- 1970s	Frignani et al. 2001
Seveso soil, Italy	Industrial accident of chlorophenol manufacture	1.5-580 ^b	1976	Bertazzi et al. 1998
Southern Vietnam soil, Vietnam	Herbicide Agent orange spray	11-1800	1970s	Schechter et al. 2001
Bien Hoa soil, Vietnam	Agent orange storage	12-1792	1970s	Schechter et al. 2001

Location	Source	PCDD/Fs (µg/kg d.w.)	Period	Reference
Newark Bay, USA	Diamond Shamrock-Occidental, AO manufacture	4-8 ^c	---	Bopp 1991
Passaic River sediment, USA	Manufacture of chlorinated compounds	0.5-32	1970s	Wenning et al. 1993
Love Canal, USA	Dumping of municipal and chemical waste	---	1940-1953	Smith et al. 1983
Times Beach, USA	Road pavement of hexachlorophene contaminated clay	---	1972-1976	Hites 2010
Rastatt soil, Germany	Dust from thermal metal recycling processes	8	1985	She et al. 1996
Spittelwasser River sediment, Germany	Magnesium and chlorine industry	Up to 120 ^a	---	Bunge et al. 2001, 2003
Pevestorf sediments, Germany	Metallurgical processes	Up to 507	1950s	Götz et al. 2007

Location	Source	PCDD/Fs (µg/kg d.w.)	Period	Reference
Grosser Arbersee sediment, Germany	Gaseous emission from mining and smelting or iron-ores and glass production	2.3	1960s- 1990s	Bruckmeier et al. 1997
Lake sediment of Erie and Ontario, Canada	Industrial discharge	10	1970s	Shen et al. 2008
Lake Superior sediment, Canada	Atmospheric deposition	18	---	Shen et al. 2009
Lake Huron sediments, Canada	Atmospheric deposition	27	---	Shen et al. 2009
Taihu sediment, China	---	1.3	---	Zhang et al. 2005
Eastern city soil, China	Combustion	1.1	---	Liu, 2009
Eastern city sediment, China	Combustion	1.5	---	Liu, 2009
Hongkong marine sediment, China	---	2.5-6.3	---	Terauchi et al. 2009

Location	Source	PCDD/Fs (µg/kg d.w.)	Period	Reference
East River sediment, China	Copper industry	2.1-4.8	---	Ren 2009
Daliao River sediment, China	Organochlorine production	3.0	1980s- present	Zhang et al. 2008
Daliao Soil, China	Organochlorine productions and metal industry	8.7	1980s - present	Zhang et al. 2008
Lake sediments, UK	Atmospheric deposition and local municipal activities	4.5	---	Rose 1996
Nose soil, Japan	Municipal waste incinerator	559	---	Nakai et al. 2007
Hachiouji soil, Japan	Municipal waste incinerator	68.4	---	Nakai et al., 2007
Akita Paddy soil, Japan	Herbicide application	18-540	---	Kiguchi et al. 2007

Location	Source	PCDD/Fs (µg/kg d.w.)	Period	Reference
Coastal area sediments, Caribbean	---	3.3	---	Mohammed et al. 2009
Hyeongsan River sediment, Korea	---	1.6	---	Koh et al. 2004
Port Jackson sediments, Australia	industrial	4.4 ^d	---	Birch et al. 2007

a: µg I-TEQ/kg d.w,
b: 2378-tetra-CDD, µg/m²;
c: 2378-tetra-CDD, kg;
d: µg WHO-TEQ/kg d.w,

Table 1-5. Microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked PCDD/Fs in enrichment cultures and sediment microcosms.

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
123478-hexa-CDD		<i>Peri</i> -preferred			
124689-hexa-CDD		dechlorination with			Adriaens and
124679-hexa-CDD	$145 \pm 15^*$	higher removal rate	Hudson River sediment, USA	---	Grbic-Galic, 1994,
1234678-hepta-CDD		than autoclaved			1995
12468-penta-CDF		control			
1234678-hepta-CDF					
1234-tetra-CDD	0.5	123-, 124- \rightarrow 13-, 23- \rightarrow 2-	Sediment-free, HxCB pre-enriched, Rhine River sediment, the Netherlands, 20 days.	Lactate	Beurskens et al., 1995
octa-CDD	11.4 ± 0.5	Hp-, hexa-, penta-, tetra-, tri-, di- and mono-CDDs	Passaic River sediment, USA, 7 months	Acetate, butyrate, benzoate	Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
1234-tetra-CDD	50	124-, 123- \rightarrow 13 (main)	Saale River sediment, Germany,	Pyruvate, acetate, benzoate, fumarate,	Ballerstedt et al., 1997
123-, 124-tri-CDD	10	124- \rightarrow 13 123- \rightarrow 13,23			
2378-tetra-CDD	~0.78	Up to 86% removal of 2378-tetra-CDD	2378-tetra-CDD contaminated sediments or anaerobic sludge, Taiwan,	Acetate, sludge cake	Kao et al., 2001
1234-tetra-CDD	2	124- \rightarrow 13	Arthur Kill Estuary sediment, USA, 3 yrs	---	Vargas et al., 2001
1234-tetra-CDD	50	124-, 123-	Spittelwasser River sediment, Bitterfeld, Germany	Fumarate, Pyruvate, acetate and benzoate	Bunge et al., 2001
123-tri-CDD	25	13-, 23-			
124-tri-CDD	25	13-			

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
1234-tetra-CDD	31	124- \rightarrow 13- \rightarrow 2-	Graving dock and Paleta Creek, San Diego, USA	Lactate and propionate	Ahn et al., 2005
1234-tetra-CDF	49	124- \rightarrow 13- Tri-, di-CDFs	Shelter dock, San Diego; Tuckerton sediment, NJ; USA Paleta Creek sediment, USA		
1234678-hepta-CDD	0.47	Hx-, penta-, tetra-, tri-, di- and/or mono-CDDs	Passaic River Estuary sediment, NJ, USA	Acetate, butyrate, and benzoate	Fu et al., 2005

*: concentration in ng/g

Table 1-6. Microbial reductive dechlorination of spiked PCBs in enrichment cultures and sediment microcosms.

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
2356-PCB	350	236-, 25-, 26-, <i>ortho</i> and <i>meta</i> dechlorination	Wood pond sediment, MA, USA	---	Van Dort and Bedard, 1991
Aroclor 1254	---	<i>Meta</i> and <i>para</i> chlorines were preferentially removed, resulting in accumulation of <i>ortho</i> -substituted mono-, di-, and tri-chlorobiphenyls	Hudson River sediment, NY, USA New Bedford Harbor sediment, MA, USA	Fatty acid mixture	Alder et al., 1993
Aroclor 1260	---	Dechlorination of tri- and tetra- chlorobiphenyls	Silver Lake sediment, MA, USA		
22'33'44'-hxCBp			Chemie Harbour of		Hartkamp-
22'33'66'-hxCBp	1.4	Mainly <i>ortho</i> dechlorination to penta- and tetra-CBps	Rhine river sediment, Estuarine, the Netherlands	---	Commandeur et al., 1996

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
22'44'55'-hxCBp	1.9	<i>Para</i> dechlorination products of penta-, tetra-, and tri-CBps	Biesbosch of Rhine River, Estuarine, The Netherlands	---	Hartkamp-
22'44'66'-hxCBp	1.73				Commandeur et al., 1996
Aroclor 1242	---	---	Hudson River sediment, USA	---	Williams, 1997
23'4'6-PCB					
33'44'-PCB			Tansui and Erjen River sediment, estuarine, Taiwan		Kuo et al., 1999
344'5-PCB	---	---		---	
33'44'5-PCB					
234-trCBp			Ho-Tsin river sediment, Taiwan		
345-trCBp	---	---		---	Chen et al., 2001
2345-PCB					

Substrate	Conc. (μ M)	Products	Inoculum	Electron Donors	Reference
2345-PCB	100	235-, 245-	Baltimore Harbour estuarine sediment, USA,	Fe(0)/acetate, propionate, butyrate	Yan et al., 2006
PCB mixture	---	---	Burnt Soil culture, Japan	---	Baba, 2007
23456-PCB	---	Decreasing mol% of 23456-PCB	Anacostia River sediment, USA	---	Krumins et al., 2009
33'44'-PCB					
33'44'5-PCB					
23'44'5-PCB	---	---	Brentell Canal, marine sediment, Italy		Zanaroli et al., 2010
33'44'55'-PCB					
23'44'5-PCB					

Table 1-7. Dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs in sediments.

Location	Result	Characteristics	Reference
Lake Ketelmeer,	Significant disappearance of 4 higher chlorinated dioxin	Compared to archived	Beurskens et al.,
Rhine River	congeners	sediment samples	1993
sediment, the			
Netherlands			
Passaic River	After spiking high concentrations (ppm) of similar highly	Microcosm containing	Barkovskii et al.,
sediment, NJ, USA	oxidized compounds to the sediment, previous	contaminated sediments,	1994
	contamination of PCDD decreased in anaerobic	compared to the changes of	
	microcosms over two months, in particular hepta- and	spiked octa-CDD at time 0	
	penta-CDDs, no measurement of lesser (tri- and di-)	and after 2 months	
	congeners yet. Pn-CDD was observed in the presence of		
	solvent and electron shuttles catechol and resorcinol		

Location	Result	Characteristics	Reference
Passaic River sediment, NJ, USA	Aged 2378-tetra-CDD was stoichiometrically converted to tri- and mono-CDDs	Results of anaerobic microcosm derived from site	Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996
Passaic River sediment, NJ, USA	Production and dechlorination of 2378-tetra-CDD	Anaerobic microcosm with site sediment as inoculates	Albrecht et al., 1999
Queensland sediment, Australia	Sediment age was correlated with increasing proportions of lower chlorinated PCDDs that was corresponding to decreasing proportions of octa-CDD	Compared to archived sediment samples	Gaus et al., 2002
Passaic River Sediment, NJ, USA	About 2~4% of data variance was contributed by dechlorination with fingerprint of a highly positive 2378-TCDD and a highly negative hepta-CDD.	Employing polytypic vector analysis and validated by laboratory incubations	Barabas et al., 2004
PCDD/F contaminated river sediments, Japan	All PCDD/F congeners detected were equally reduced without accumulation of less-chlorinated congeners as intermediate or end products. Large amount of catechol and salicylic acid were produced in the upper aqueous phase.	Anaerobic microcosm amended with organic media inoculated with contaminated site sediments	Yoshida et al., 2005

Table 1-8. Dechlorination of weathered PCBs in sediments.

Location	Result	Characteristics	Reference
Hudson River sediment, NY, USA	Different PCB distribution pattern in the lower layers of sediment	Compared to commercial Aroclor 1242	Brown et al., 1984
Hudson River sediment, NY, USA	Mo-, di-, and tri-CBps increased with decrease of higher CBps	Compared to commercial Aroclor 1242, as well as time 0	Adriaens et al., 1995
Woods Pond sediment, Lenox, MA, USA	Characteristic congener distribution of Aroclor 1260. But key hexa-, hepta- decreased (max. 45%) relative to Aroclor 1260, with increase of tri-, tetra- and penta-CBps	Different locations of pond sediment	Bedard and May, 1996
Lake Hartwell sediment, Pickens County, SC, USA	Preferential loss of <i>meta</i> and <i>para</i> chlorines of PCBs with sediment depth, accompanied with the accumulation of lower chlorinated congeners dominated by <i>ortho</i> chlorine substituents.	Over sediment depth	Magar et al., 2005

Table 1-9. PCDD/Fs dechlorination by pure culture or highly enriched mixed cultures.

Isolate/Culture	Electron		Electron Acceptor (PCDD/Fs)	Growth Support	source	reference
	donor/priming reagent					
	Butyric acid and PCE	1234-tetra-CDD	→ 124-→ 13-	---	---	Fennell et al. 2004
		1234-tetra-CDF	→ tri-CDFs			
		23456-PCB	→ 2346-/2356- → 246-	---	---	
<i>Dehalococcoides</i>			Hexa- ~ non-BDE	→ penta,		
<i>ethenogenes</i> strain 195	---		hexa, and hepta-BDEs	---	---	He, J. 2006
	butyric acid	123478-hxCDF		→ 13478-,		Liu and Fennell 2008
		12478-→ 1378-, 1248-CDFs		---	---	

Isolate/Culture	Electron donor/priming reagent	Electron Acceptor (PCDD/Fs)	Growth Support	source	reference
	H ₂ , ED	12378-penta-CDD→2378-			
	acetate for carbon	1378-tetra-CDD,	---	---	
	source	2378-tetra-CDD→237-→27-, 28			Bunge et al. 2003
	H ₂ , ED	1234-tetra-CDD→123, 124			
<i>Dehalococcoides</i> sp.	acetate for carbon	(m)→23-(m), 24-, 13-→2-	Yes	---	
CBDB1	source	mono-CDD			
	---	23-chlorophenol	---	---	Adrian et al. 2007
	H ₂ , ED				
	acetate for carbon source	Aroclor 1260 and 1248, <i>para</i> and <i>meta</i> dechlorination	---	---	Adrian et al. 2009

Isolate/Culture	Electron donor/priming reagent	Electron Acceptor (PCDD/Fs)	Growth Support	source	reference
<i>Dehalococcoides</i> sp.	Acetate (C), formate,	124→13→2-CDD	Yes	Spittlewasser,	Bunge et al.
DCMB5	fumarate, and Pyruvate			Creek/river	2008
TriCDD- dechlorinating sediment-free mixed culture	Pyruvate, lactate, and fumarate	124→13→2; 123→13, 23→2	---	River Saale sediment, Germany	Ballerstedt et al. 2004

Table 1-10. PCB dechlorination by pure culture or highly enriched mixed cultures and highly enriched PBDE debrominators.

Isolate /Culture	Electron		Electron Acceptor (PCB)	Growth Support	source	reference
	donor/priming reagent					
<i>Chloroflexi</i> o-17	acetate		2356-PCB doubly flanked <i>meta</i> - and flanked <i>ortho</i> dechlorination	Yes	Estuarine	Cutter et al. 2001
<i>Chloroflexi</i> DF-1 and <i>Desulfovibrio</i> sp. co- culture	H ₂ :CO ₂ =80:20 (v/v) and formate		2345-PCB <i>Para</i> -dechlorination doubly flanked chlorine	Yes	Estuarine	Wu, Q. et al. 2002
<i>Chloroflexi</i> DEH10, phylotype	Fatty acid mixture (acetate, propionate, and butyrate)		Remove doubly flanked chlorine in 234-substituted PCBs with a preference for <i>para</i> -flanked <i>meta</i> - chlorines when no double-flanked chlorines were available	Yes	Baltimore Harbor sediment	Fagervold et al., 2005, 2007

Isolate /Culture	Electron		Electron Acceptor (PCB)	Growth Support	source	reference
	donor/priming	reagent				
<i>Chloroflexi</i> SF1 phylotype More close to o-17 and DF-1	Fatty acid mixture		Dechlorinate all 2345-substituted PCBs of double-flanked <i>meta</i> positions and 2356-, 236- and 235- congeners in <i>ortho</i> -flanked <i>meta</i> positions		Baltimore Harbor sediment	Fagervold et al. 2005, 2007
	(acetate, propionate, and butyrate)			Yes		
<i>Chloroflexi</i> SF2 phylotype, More close to o-17	Fatty acid mixture		2346-substituted chlorophenyl ring (PCB 183) in double-flanked <i>meta</i> position and 2356-substituted chlorophenyl ring of PCB 151 in <i>ortho</i> position		Baltimore Harbor sediment	Fagervold et al. 2007
	(acetate, propionate, and butyrate)			Yes		
Sediment free <i>Dehalococcoides</i> JN culture	Acetate and hydrogen		Commercial Aroclor 1260, Process N dechlorination	Yes	Housatonic River sediment	Bedard et al. 2007

Isolate /Culture	Electron donor/priming reagent	Electron Acceptor (PCB)	Growth Support	source	reference
<i>Chloroflexi</i> o-17& DF-1	---	Aroclor 1260	---	---	Bedard et al. 2008
Yes, need					
<i>Chloroflexi</i> DF-1 pure culture	H ₂ :CO ₂ =80:20 (v/v) and formate	Doubly flanked PCBs, Aroclor 1260 and weathered Aroclors	<i>Desulfovibrio</i> spp. co-culture or cell extract	Estuarine	May et al., 2008
<i>Dehalococcoides</i> species	---	<i>ortho</i> debromination of PBDE	---	---	Robrock et al., 2008 Lee et al., 2010

Table 1-11. Approaches to enhance dechlorination of PCDD/Fs and PCBs.

Source	Country	Substrate	Enhancement	Reference
Passaic River sediment	USA	Aged PCDD/Fs in the sediment	Acetate, butyrate, benzoate, 2-MonobromoDD and H ₂	Albrecht et al., 1999
Arthur Kill estuarine sediment	USA	1234-tetra-CDD	2-, 3-, 4-bromophenol	Vargas et al., 2001
Passaic River sediment	USA	1234678-hepta-CDD	2-BrDD	Fu et al., 2005
San Diego Bay sediment,	USA	1234-tetra-CDD/F	1234-TeCB, 2345-tetrachloroanisole, 2345-tetrachlorophenol, 2'3'4'-trichloroacetophenone	Ahn et al., 2005, 2007
Tuckerton sediment				
Kymijoki sediment,	Finland	1234-tetra-CDD	1234-tetrachlorobenzene	Ahn et al., 2008
Gulf Island Pond sediment,	USA	1234-tetra-CDD	1234-tetrachlorobenzene	Ahn et al., 2008

Source	Country	Substrate	Enhancement	Reference
<i>D. ethenogenes</i> 195		123478-hexa-	1234-tetrachlorobenzene	Liu and Fennell,
mixed culture		CDF		2008
River Rhine sediment	the	22°44'55"-	236-trichlorobenzoate→25-	Hartkamp-
	Netherlands	22°44'66'-PCB		Commandeur et al., 1996
Hudson river	USA	Aroclor 1242	246-PCB, <i>para</i> dechechlorination	Williams et al., 1997
			236-PCB, <i>meta</i> dechechlorination	
Hudson River sediment	USA	Aroclor 1242	FeSO ₄	Zwiernik et al., 1998
Housatonic River	USA	Aroclor 1260	Brominated biphenyls	Bedard et al., 1998
Woods Pond sediment	USA	Aroclor 1260	26-Dibromobiphenyl	Wu et al., 1999
Housatonic River	USA	Aroclor 1260	4-bromobenzoate,	Deweerd and
			4-iodobenzoate,	Bedard, 1999
			25-, 26-dibromobenzoate	

Source	Country	Substrate	Enhancement	Reference
Erjen river sediment,	Taiwan	33°44' -, 344°5'- PCBs,	Toluene or 3-chlorobenzoate-adapted sediments	Kuo et al. 1999
Baltimore Harbor estuarine sediment,	USA	345-PCB, 22°344°55'-PCB	0.1g Fe ⁰ /g sediment	Rysavy et al., 2005
Burnt Soil,	Japan	PCBs Kanechlor- 300 & -400	Sodium molybdate	Baba et al., 2007
Uncontaminated paddy soil	Japan	Kanechlor 300, 400	Burnt soil	Baba et al., 2007b
Anacostia River sediment	USA	Historical PCBs	<i>Dehalococcoides</i> Strain 195 mixed culture, pentachloronitrobenzene	Krumins et al., 2009

Chapter 2

Microbial Reductive Dechlorination of Weathered Polychlorinated Dibenzofurans in Kymijoki Sediment Mesocosms

ABSTRACT

Little is known about the potential for indigenous microorganisms to reductively dechlorinate weathered polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) in contaminated aquatic sediments. The sediments of River Kymijoki in Finland were heavily contaminated by PCDFs resulting from pulp and paper production and the manufacture of the chlorophenol-based wood preservative Ky-5 from the 1940's to the 1980's. In order to investigate naturally occurring microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDFs and to determine the feasibility of stimulating such activities, we incubated River Kymijoki sediments in 30-L mesocosms at 18-21 °C. Treatments in attempt to stimulate dechlorination consisted of the addition of electron donors and a halogenated co-substrate (tetrachlorobenzene, TeCB), and bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195. Following 7 years of incubation in electron donor plus TeCB treatments, we observed that the average mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF increased initially and then decreased, which was unlike the constantly increasing mol% ratio of these two hepta-CDFs in no addition controls and bioaugmented only treatments. Compared to no addition controls, these electron donor plus TeCB amended sediments showed a decrease in the mol% of octa-CDF and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF after 7 years that was accompanied by an increase in the mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF and certain penta-CDFs and tetra-CDFs. These observations suggested that there was a mixed removal of *peri*-lateral-chlorines for hepta-CDFs in the presence of electron donor and TeCB, as compared to a general initial removal of *peri*-chlorines under other situations. For penta-CDFs an increasing mol% ratio of *peri* vs. total chlorines and decreasing mol% ratio of

lateral vs. total chlorines was observed in electron donor plus TeCB amended mesocosms over 7 years, suggesting the selective enhancement of *peri*-dechlorination for penta-CDFs under these conditions. PCR-DGGE analysis of 16S rRNA genes revealed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediments. The overall observations allows us to conclude that dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments by indigenous microorganism was occurring to different extents for different congeners, and amendment with TeCB plus electron donors may selectively stimulate dechlorination. Further characterization of the microbial communities mediating these transformations and future research on the dechlorination pathways of PCDFs may aid in the assessment of PCDD/Fs contamination and their natural attenuation processes. These accomplishments will eventually help developing effective bioremediation technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) are generated mainly as unwanted byproducts from chlorine involved industries as well as thermal and combustion processes (Esposito et al., 1980; Fiedler et al., 1990; Rappe 1993; Kulkarni et al., 2008). Because of their extremely low water solubilities, low vapor pressures, and strong absorption to particles and surfaces (high K_{ow}) (Shiu et al., 1988), aquatic sediments and soils constitute typical sinks for PCDD/Fs in the environment. The burden of PCDD/Fs in various environmental compartments has been well documented (Wenning et al., 1992a; Clarke et al., 1996; Alcock et al., 1996; Thomas et al., 1996) with several hot spots that are heavily contaminated with PCDD/Fs (Wenning et al., 1993; Bertazzi et al., 1998; Bunge et al., 2001; Schecter et al., 2001; Kiguchi et al., 2007), including sediments of the Kymijoki River in Finland, which contains PCDD/Fs up to 120-193,000 $\mu\text{g/kg d.w.}$ (Salo et al., 2008).

Dechlorination of spiked as well as weathered PCDDs under different redox conditions has been observed in microcosms and enrichment cultures derived from various sources (Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994, 1995; Beurskens et al., 1995; Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996; Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Bunge et al., 2001, 2003; Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005, 2008). Reductive dechlorination under anaerobic conditions is the only biological process observed so far capable of transforming highly chlorinated CDDs. This process can be stimulated by addition of PCDD structural analogs, also known as “haloprimers”, such as tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB) (Ahn et al., 2005, 2007, 2008).

Bacteria of the phylum *Chloroflexi*, with genus *Dehalococcoides* in particular, contain the first known and only isolated bacteria that are able to transform highly chlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins. The chlorobenzene-dehalorespiring bacterium *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain CBDB1 (Adrian et al., 2000) and chloroethene-dehalorespiring *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 are the only isolated strains, so far, shown to be capable of reductively dechlorinating select PCDD congeners (Bunge et al., 2003; Fennell et al. 2004). Another highly enriched culture, “*Dehalococcoides* strain DCMB5”, was enriched initially with 1,2,4-tri-CDD (Ewald et al., 2007) and finally isolated in two-phase liquid culture by 1,2,3-trichlorobenzene (Bunge et al., 2008). Strain CBDB1 and DCMB5 derive energy for growth during dechlorination of PCDDs. Members of *Dehalococcoides*-related *Chloroflexi* were reported to be putative dechlorinators in anaerobic enrichment cultures that dechlorinate various chlorinated compounds including PCBs (Cutter et al., 2001, Wu et al., 2002; Yan et al., 2006), chlorobenzenes (Wu et al., 2002) and tri-CDDs (Ballerstedt et al., 2004). The detection of 16S rRNA gene sequences affiliated with *Dehalococcoides* spp. and its relatives in contaminated environments and dechlorinating enrichment cultures suggests a wide distribution of these bacteria in nature and their major roles in transforming chlorinated pollutants in the environment (Holoman et al., 1999; Löffler et al., 2000; Fennell et al., 2001; Hendrickson et al., 2002; He et al., 2003; Gu et al., 2004; Smits et al., 2004).

Unlike microcosms and enrichment cultures under laboratory conditions, the potential of indigenous microorganisms to dechlorinate weathered PCDD/Fs in contaminated sediments under field conditions has been less investigated and limited information is

available on the effectiveness of stimulating strategies for such processes. Knowledge of the dechlorination of weathered PCDDs in sediments was obtained by comparing present and archived sediments from Lake Ketelmeer, the Netherlands (Beurskens et al., 1993). Loss of higher chlorinated PCDD congeners was observed in the recently collected sediments when compared with archived sediment cores. Increasing proportions of lower chlorinated PCDDs corresponded to decreasing proportions of octa-CDD were also correlated with sediment ages in Queensland sediment, Australia (Gaus et al., 2002). Later Barabás et al. (2004) applied polytopic vector analysis (PVC) to estimate dechlorination of PCDDs in the field using Passaic River sediment, New Jersey. Their work identified a dechlorination fingerprint with a highly positive 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD component and a highly negative hepta-CDD component. About 2~4% of data variance was contributed by dechlorination, which corresponds to 1.2 µg/kg 2,3,7,8-TCDD per sample in expense of hepta-CDD according to PVA. This postulation was validated by the laboratory value for the ratio of 2,3,7,8-TCDD/2,3,7,8-PCDD (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996). Barabás and co-workers (2004) provide important links between laboratory dechlorination results with field scale analysis, which supported the occurrence of natural PCDD dechlorination *in situ*. However, these observations lack any detailed knowledge of the trend of difference over time and the corresponding responses of the microbial community. Unlike PCDDs, knowledge of the potential biotransformation of weathered PCDFs in contaminated sediments is limited. Currently, the biotransformation knowledge of PCDFs is mainly based on a few spiked single congeners studies using either soil or sediment derived microcosms containing pure or mixed cultures (Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994; Fennell et al., 2004; Ahn et al., 2005;

Liu et al., 2008). Consequently, there is an inadequate understanding of natural attenuation of weathered PCDFs as a result of reductive dechlorination mediated by the indigenous microorganisms.

In this study we incubated historically PCDF-contaminated sediment from Kymijoki, Finland in 30-L mesocosms at 18~21°C for seven years with different amendments provided at the start of the experiment, including 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB) as a “haloprimer”, bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195, and lactate and propionate as electron donors. The purpose of this study was to find evidence of microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments and to investigate the feasibility of stimulating such activities *in situ*. Sediment samples were taken after over the 7 years of incubation for the analysis of PCDFs and the microbial community.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Treatment/Incubations of Contaminated Sediments. The Kymijoki River was heavily contaminated with PCDD/Fs from the 1940's to the 1980's due to chlorine bleaching in paper industry and the production and use of a chlorophenol fungicide in the saw mill industry along the river (Salo et al., 2008; Verkasalo 2004; Paasivirta 1996; Verta et al. 1999). Contaminated sediments were collected in 2002 by Dr. Martti Verta (Finnish Environment Institute, Helsinki, Finland) by dredging from downstream of Myllykoski in River Kymijoki, Finland, where the production of the chlorophenol fungicide Ky-5 constituted the main source of extensive PCDD/Fs contamination. The major chlorinated

compounds are polychlorinated phenols (PCPs), PCDDs, and PCDFs; among them 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9-heptaCDFs and octa-CDF are the dominant congeners (Verta et al., 1999; Koistinen et al., 1995). It is estimated that the total amount of PCDD/Fs in the sediments range from 4,000 to 5,000 kg in the contaminated area of River Kymijoki (Verta et al., 1999), and the surface sediment remains a significant source of PCDD/Fs downstream (Isosaari et al., 2002; Malve et al., 2003). The dredged sediments were mixed and aliquoted in 30 L plastic fermentation buckets sealed and fitted with an air lock, then spiked at the very beginning with 25 μ M 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB) as haloprimer or amended with 200 ml of a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 with 1 mM lactate and propionate as electron donors. Mesocosm controls amended with electron donors only or no additions were set up at the same time. All mesocosm treatments were conducted in triplicate 30 L plastic fermentation buckets sealed and incubated at room temperature (18~21 °C) to sustain the dechlorination capacity since 2002. At select time points (after 0, 2, 3, 5 and 7 years of the incubation) the fermentation buckets was opened, the sediments mixed with a rod and a 30 to 50 mL samples collected in glass jars. The sediment samples were stored at -20 °C for chemical analysis of PCDFs and at -70 °C for microbial community analysis.

Analysis of PCDFs. Liquid/solid extraction was performed to quantify PCDFs and transformation products as follows: 3 g (wet weight) of sediments was extracted with 4 ml toluene and acetone (2:1) with 625 μ g (each) PCB 14 (3,5-DiCB), PCB 23 (2,3,5-TrCB), PCB 65 (2,3,5,6-TeCB) and PCB 166 (2,3,4,4',5,6-HxCB) added as extraction

efficiency surrogates. Extraction tubes were capped with Teflon-lined screw caps, mixed vigorously for 1 min, and sonicated in an ultrasound bath for 30 minutes before shaking overnight on a wrist-action shaker. The extraction mixtures were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 3 min before transferring the solvent phase to a clean 7 ml extraction vial. The extraction procedure was repeated 3 times, the upper solvent phase was pooled and finally evaporated down to a volume of 1 ml, which was then loaded on to toluene pre-rinsed Florisil (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) pipette columns and eluted with 6 ml toluene. The florisil-cleaned sample was concentrated to 1 ml with a stream of N₂. PCDFs parent and daughter compounds were analyzed on an Agilent 6890 series gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with an Agilent 5973 series Mass Selective Detector (MSD) (GC-MS, Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA) equipped with a HP-5MS capillary column (60 m × 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm film thickness, J&W Scientific, Folsom, CA). The temperature cycle program was: 60 °C, increased by 10 °C/min to 170 °C, 2 °C/min to 200 °C, 5 °C/min to 220 °C, and hold at 220 °C for 16 minutes, and increased by 5 °C/min to 235 °C, hold at 235 °C for 7 minutes, and increased by 5 °C/min to 250 °C, and finally 1 °C/min to 280 °C, and a 5 min 300 °C hold. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1.5 ml/min. Mono-, di-, tri-, tetra-, penta-, hexa-, hepta- and octa-chlorinated dibenzofuran congeners are abbreviated as mono-CDF, di-CDF, tri-CDF, tetra-CDF, penta-CDF, hexa-CDF, hepta-CDF and octa-CDF, respectively. PCDFs denote penta- to octa-chlorinated dibenzofuran congeners, whereas 1-4CDFs stands for all congeners of mono-CDFs, di-CDFs, tri-CDFs and tetra-CDFs.

Detection, Identification and Quantification of PCDFs by PCB Surrogates and Internal Standards. PCDFs were detected and identified based on the retention times of standards and their most abundant molecular ions, and a qualifying ion was monitored to assure the correct identification (Table 2-1). PCB 14, PCB 23, PCB 65 and PCB 166 were used as surrogates to estimate the extraction efficiencies of PCDFs from the historically polluted sediments. PCB 30 and 204 were used as internal standards to calculate response factors (RF) for the quantification of the parent and daughter PCDFs in the sediments based on the recovery of PCB surrogates throughout the extraction, cleanup and concentration procedures. RFs were calculated by equation (2-1):

$$RF = \frac{C_s}{C_{is}} \times \frac{A_{is}}{A_s} \quad (2-1)$$

where, RF: response factors of PCB surrogates (PCB 14, 23, 65, 166) versus PCB internal standards (PCB 30, 204) respectively; C_s : PCB surrogate concentration; C_{is} : PCB internal standards concentration; A_s : integrated chromatographic area of PCB surrogate; A_{is} : integrated chromatographic area of PCB internal standards.

Weathered PCDFs were quantified by equation (2-2):

$$C_p = \frac{A_p}{A_{is}} \times C_{is} \times RF \quad (2-2)$$

where, C_p : concentration of weathered PCDFs or PCB surrogate; A_p : integrated chromatographic area of PCDF congener or PCB surrogate; A_{is} : integrated chromatographic area of PCB internal standards; C_{is} : PCB internal standards concentration; RF: response factors of PCB surrogates (PCB 14, 23, 65, 166) versus PCB internal standards (PCB 30, 204) respectively.

According to their retention time (rt) ranges, PCB 30 (rt, 22.02 min) was used in quantification of PCB 14 (rt, 21.11 min), PCB 23 (rt, 24.76 min), PCB 65 (rt, 28.76 min), PCB 166 (rt, 47.49) and weathered PCDFs with less than three chlorines. However, due to their extremely low concentrations in Kymijoki sediment, no weathered PCDFs with less than three chlorines were detected in our experiment. PCB 204 (rt, 52.52 min) was used in quantification of weathered PCDFs (tetra: 40-50 min, penta: 50-60 min, hexa: 60-70 min, octa-CDF: 85 min). The average extraction efficiency of PCB surrogates ranged from 80~105% for PCB 14, 23, 65 and 166 (n=60, triplicates samples from 4 treatments at 5 time points). The detection limits for PCDFs were approximately 0.5 ng/g (d.w). Since dechlorination reactions result in the loss of mass but not in total molar concentration, the congener concentrations are calculated and reported in molar percentages (and molar fractions). Each congener was calculated in mol/g d.w., and its concentration was calculated in following equation (2-3):

$$Mol\% = 100\% \times \frac{C_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n C_i} \quad (2-3)$$

where, C_i : concentration of certain congener in mol/g d.w, $\sum C_i$: sum concentrations of all congeners detected in same sample in mol/g d.w, n: the number of congeners detected in each sample for each time point.

PCR-DGGE. Bulk DNA was extracted from mesocosm sediments by using the PowerSoil DNA purification kit (MoBio, CA) and following the manufacturer's instructions. The resulted DNA solution was used for polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

and denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE). Nested PCR were performed to specifically amplify the *Chloroflexi* community following the method of Park et al. (2010). The 1st PCR was amplified by forward primer 338F and reverse primer Dchl1101R; and the 2nd PCR were amplified with 341F plus a GC clamp on the 5' terminus and reverse primer 534R (Table 2-2). PCR reagents were purchased from GenScript (Piscataway, NJ). The reaction contained 2 µl of DNA as template and 5 µl of 10 X reaction buffer, 100 µM of Dntp, 0.01 U of Taq DNA polymerase, 0.2 µM of forward primer and 0.2 µM of reverse primer in each 50 µl PCR reaction mixture. PCR was performed by preheating the mixture at 94 °C for 5 minutes, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 20 seconds, annealing at 55 °C for 45 seconds, and extension at 72 °C for 45 seconds, and a final post extension step at 72 °C for 7 min. DGGE was performed according to the standard protocol (Muyzer et al., 1993) using the Bio-Rad Dcode system (Bio-Rad laboratories, Hercules, CA). The denaturing gradient gel was prepared to contain 0.5 X TAE buffer (20 Mm Tris, 10 Mm acetate, 0.5 Mm Na₂-EDTA, Ph 8.0), 6% acrylamide-bis-acrylamide, and 50 to 70% denaturant (100% denaturant contains 7 M urea and 40% formamide). Electrophoresis was performed at 40 V for 17 hours in 0.5 X TAE buffer at 60 °C. PCR products separated on the gel were stained with EtBr for 20 min and then photographed under illumination by UV light. Major DGGE bands were cut from the gel, eluted in PCR water overnight and PCR amplified with 2nd set of primers (341F-gc/534R) under the same conditions as described above.

Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis. Purified single bands from DGGE gels were re-amplified with primers of 341F and 534R under the same PCR conditions as above. The

resulting PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis, purified and pre-added 341F primer before sending to GeneWiz for sequencing (GeneWiz, South Plainfield, NJ). Homologous sequence searches were performed using BLAST (Altschul et al., 1997) and selected sequences aligned using CLUSTAL X (Thompson et al., 1997). Phylogenetic analyses by the Neighbor-joining method were conducted using MEGA version 4 (Tamura et al., 2007). The partial 16S rRNA gene sequences are available in appendix 3.

RESULTS

Detected and identified congeners of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms. Kymijoki sediments contain a mixture of PCDF congeners. Altogether 20 peaks corresponding to PCDF congeners with four or more chlorines were detected, and among them, 14 peaks were identified. Two peaks identified as hexa-CDFs and 4 peaks identified as tetra-CDFs were unknown congeners (Table 2-3). Data for one triplicate mesocosm amended with ED and TeCB is shown as an example (Fig. 2-1). In addition to the most abundant peaks of octa-CDF (peak 20), 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19) and 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18) (Fig. 2-1a & b), altogether eight hexa-CDF peaks were detected (Fig. 2-1c & d), including 6 known congeners identified by comparing their elution time and sequence based on Humppi and Heinola (1985) and two unknown isomers, peaks 14 and 16. Five peaks were detected and identified as penta-CDFs (Fig. 2-1e & f) (Humppi and Heinola, 1985). Four peaks were detected as tetra-CDFs congeners (peaks 01 to 04) (Fig. 2-1g & h) but without identification due to the unavailability of these tetra-CDF standards. Neither 1,2,3,4- nor 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDF were detected in

Kymijoki sediment mesocosms. The identified congeners have different combinations of *peri* and lateral chlorine substitutions (Table 2-3).

Evidence for dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment. Evidence for dechlorination was found by comparing the Selected Ion Chromatograms for all the congeners at time 0 vs. 7 years, which showed changes in the intensity of the different peaks (congeners) over time, suggestive of reductive dechlorination. In the case of one Kymijoki mesocosm amended with electron donors plus TeCB at time 0 vs. after 7 years (Fig. 2-1), the relative abundance of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19) was initially greater than that of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18). After 7 years of incubation, the abundance of the 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19) was decreased relative to that of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18). The relative abundance of 1,2,4,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 12) decreased and 1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 13) increased over time. The abundance of 2,3,4,7,8- (peak 09), 1,2,3,7,8,- (peak 07) and 1,2,4,6,8- (peak 05) penta-CDFs increased after 7 years. The abundance of tetra-CDF-3 (peak 03) and -1 (peak 01) increased after 7 years.

Evidence for dechlorination of weathered PCDFs was further supported by comparing the molar fraction of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF over 7 years incubation in each treatment (Fig. 2-2). The average molar fraction of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF increased from 0.7 ± 0.1 at time 0 to 1.0 ± 0.2 after 7 years in the no addition control. A similar trend was also observed in the treatment amended with electron donor plus *D. ethenogenes* strain 195. The average molar fraction

of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF increased from 0.9 ± 0.1 at time 0 to 1.2 ± 0.3 after 7 years. For the mesocosms amended with electron donors plus TeCB, in comparison, the average molar fraction of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF increased 83% from 0.7 ± 0.2 at time 0 to 1.3 ± 0.2 after 2 years and then this molar fraction remained stable above 1, with a slight decreasing trend till after 7 years. In the electron donor only mesocosm control, similar changes were observed over the 7-year incubation period.

Effect of electron donors and TeCB on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs. All the PCDF chlorines can be classified into two groups: lateral chlorines for 2,3,7,8-substitutions or *peri* chlorines for 1,4,6,9-substitutions. Therefore, dechlorination will cause changes in their respective mol% among the total chlorines for the congeners of each individual homolog (Fig. 2-3). A trend of decreasing average mol% of *peri* chlorines and increasing average mol% of lateral chlorines for hepta-CDFs was observed in the no addition control over 7 years (Fig. 2-3a). A trend of decreasing average mol% of *peri* chlorines and increasing average mol% of lateral chlorines for penta-CDFs was observed in the electron donor and TeCB treatment over 7 years (Fig. 2-3c). These observations suggest a *peri* preferred dechlorination for weathered hepta-CDFs in the no addition control and for weathered penta-CDFs in the electron donor plus TeCB treatment over 7 years. No such trends could be determined for hexa-CDFs and tetra-CDFs (due to unavailable congener information) in the other treatments over 7 years. No such trend of penta-CDFs was observed in no addition control and mesocosms amended with electron donor with or without *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 over 7 years (Fig. 2-3).

Comparison of the average mol% changes of weathered PCDFs in mesocosms amended with electron donors plus TeCB vs. no addition control after 7 years (Fig. 2-4a & b) showed that congeners decreasing over time included octa-CDF (peak 20), 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19), 1,2,4,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 12), 1,2,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF (peak 11), 1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF (peak 10), 1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 07), 1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF (peak 05), tetra-CDF-4 (peak 04) and congeners increasing over time included 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18), 1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 13), 2,3,4,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 09), 1,2,4,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 06), tetra-CDF-3 (peak 03), tetra-CDF-1 (peak 01) (Fig. 2-4c).

Analysis of Putative Dechlorinating *Chloroflexi* Community. In order to identify the responsible microbial populations for dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms, the community structure of *Chloroflexi* in each treatment was characterized. The microbial succession in the mesocosms monitored by PCR-DGGE profiling of the 16S rRNA gene using *Chloroflexi*-specific primers (Fig. 2-5) showed a diverse *Chloroflexi* or *Dehalococcoides*-like community in Kymijoki sediment over 7 years of treatment. Six DGGE single bands highlighted in Figure 5 were purified and sequenced for phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 2-6). The sequences of six different DGGE bands clustered with *Dehalococcoides* spp. and various uncultured *Chloroflexi*, found previously in analysis of dechlorinating microbial consortia or methanogenic environments containing benzenes (Winderi et al., 2008; Hori et al., 2007; Kunapuli et

al., 2007). Among them, Band 6 is most closely related to *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms during 7 years of incubation. Compared to the no addition control, the addition of electron donors plus TeCB enhanced dechlorination and stimulating dechlorination of weathered octa-CDF to produce 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, stimulating dechlorination of weathered 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF by stimulating *peri*-preferred dechlorination of weathered penta-CDFs during this period. The increase in the average mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDFs vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF from less than 1 to more than 1 in all mesocosms over 7 years of incubations (Fig. 2-2) provides evidence for dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments. In addition, the average mol% ratio of *peri* chlorines vs. total chlorines for hepta-CDFs decreased and the average mol% ratio of lateral chlorines vs. total chlorines for hepta-CDFs increased in all mesocosms over 7 years of incubation (Fig. 2-3a). Evidence that addition of electron donor and TeCB enhanced dechlorination of weathered PCDFs is presented in three ways. First, comparing the selected ion chromatograms of hepta-CDFs, penta-CDFs and tetra-CDFs at time 0 and after 7 year, we found that the relative abundance ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF changed from less than 1 to more than 1 (Fig. 2-1a & b) and the relative abundance of four penta-CDFs (Fig. 2-1e & f) together with two tetra-CDFs (Fig. 2-1g & h) increased after 7 years incubation. Second, the average mol% ratio of *peri* chlorines vs. total chlorines for penta-CDFs decreased and

the average mol% ratio of lateral chlorines vs. total chlorines for penta-CDFs increased in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB (Fig. 2-3c). This observation indicated a *peri*-preferred dechlorination for penta-CDFs. Third, comparing the average mol% of each congener of weathered PCDFs in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB to the no addition control during 7 years incubation, we found that congeners with a decreasing average mol% after 7 years included octa-CDF (peak 20), 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19), 1,2,4,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 12), 1,2,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF (peak 11), 1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF (peak 10), 1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 07), 1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF (peak 05), tetra-CDF-4 (peak 04). In contrast, congeners with an increasing mol% after 7 years included 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18), 1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF (peak 13), 2,3,4,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 09), 1,2,4,7,8-penta-CDF (peak 06), tetra-CDF-3 (peak 03), tetra-CDF-1 (peak 01) (Fig. 2-4b). In addition to the results of chemical analysis, 16S rRNA gene microbial community analysis by DGGE showed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community (Fig. 2-5) and sequences of selected DGGE bands clustered with bacteria found in areas with similar contamination or in dechlorinating enrichment cultures (Fig. 2-6). It should be noted that since here we specifically targeted only *Chloroflexi* community, there exist possibility that non-*Chloroflexi* bacteria contributed to dechlorination but were missed by this method. These non-*Chloroflexi* bacteria may be involved in dechlorination of weathered PCDFs directly or indirectly by providing vital growth factors for dechlorinating bacteria in the sediments.

Based on the identification of certain increasing and decreasing PCDF congeners in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB, we proposed a possible

dechlorination pathway for weathered PCDF in Kymijoki sediment (Fig. 2-7). In most cases, *peri*-dechlorination could explain the decrease of highly chlorinated congeners and the corresponding increase of less chlorinated congeners, namely *peri*-dechlorination of octa-CDF to 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF to 1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF, and 1,2,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF to 1,2,4,7,8-penta-CDF. The increase in 2,3,4,7,8-penta-CDF may be the result of a two-step *peri*-dechlorination product produced from 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF via 2,3,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF. Considering the *peri*-preferred dechlorination reaction for hepta-CDFs in no addition controls and mesocosms amended with electron donors and strain 195 over 7 years as well as for penta-CDFs in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB, it is reasonable to postulate that *peri*-dechlorination might be a preferred dechlorination route for weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment, and amendment with electron donors and TeCB selectively enhanced this reaction. In this scenario Kymijoki sediment contained a *peri*-preferential dechlorinating microbial community, and amendment with electron donors and TeCB either stimulated the growth of *peri*-dechlorinating microbial community or induced the expression of *peri*-dechlorinating enzymes. This possible *peri*-preferred dechlorination may have the risk of generating toxic intermediates, such as 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDF. However, whether this should be a concern for Kymijoki sediment needs further studies.

In contrast to the theoretical dechlorination pattern proposed for PCDDs (Fueno et al., 2002; Lynam et al., 1998), which implied that lateral chlorines were more amenable for dechlorination due to the positive charges of lateral carbons and marginal preference of chlorines on them, dechlorination mediated by microorganisms in the sediment has been

shown to occur preferentially at the *peri* chlorines. Barkovskii and Adriaens (1996) indicated that *peri*-dechlorination of 2,3,7,8-substituted hepta to penta-CDDs produced 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD; and *peri*-lateral dechlorination was occurring to non-2,3,7,8-substituted congeners in the microbial consortium eluted from dioxin-contaminated Passaic River sediments. These observations are in agreement with what we have reported here for the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mediated by the indigenous microorganisms. Similarly, dechlorination study of spiked 1,2,3,4-/2,3,7,8-tetra-CDDs and 1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDD by *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain CBDB1 showed *peri*-lateral dechlorination sequence (Bunge et al., 2003). However, a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 mediated a lateral-*peri* – dechlorination sequence for spiked 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF and 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD instead (Liu and Fennell, 2008; Fennell et al., 2004). These results from already known dechlorinators further supported the strong dechlorinating potentials of microorganisms.

A diverse *Chloroflexi* community in the Kymijoki sediment microcosms was detected by PCR-DGGE analysis, further confirming the importance of this group of bacteria in dechlorinating PCDD/Fs and other polychlorinated pollutants. Members of *Chloroflexi* bacteria were reported to be putative dechlorinators in anaerobic enrichment cultures capable of dechlorinating various chlorinated compounds, including 2,3,5,6- and 2,3,4,5-tetrachlorinated biphenyls (Cutter et al., 2001, Wu et al., 2002; Yan et. al, 2006), tri- to hexa-chlorobenzenes (Wu et al., 2002) and 1,2,4- and 1,2,3- tri-CDDs (Ballerstedt et al., 2004). In addition to one highly enriched culture of *Dehalococcoides* sp. DCMB5, *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 and *Dehalococcoides* sp. CBDB1 are two

known isolates that are capable of dechlorinating selected PCDD/F congeners (Fennell et al., 2004; Bunge et al., 2003, 2008). The presence of *Dehalococcoides* spp. has also been confirmed in Anacostia River (Washington DC) sediment microcosms showing enhanced dechlorination of low concentration historical PCBs (Krumins et al., 2009; Park et al., 2010). The detection of 16S rRNA gene sequences affiliated with “*Dehalococcoides*” and its relatives in contaminated environments and dechlorinating enrichment cultures suggests the wide distribution of these bacteria in nature and their major roles in transforming chlorinated pollutants in the environment (Dennis et al., 2003; Duhamel et al. 2004; Fennell et al., 2001; Löffler et al., 2000; Major et al., 2002; Gu et al., 2004; He et al., 2003; Hendrickson et al., 2002; Richardson et al., 2002; Holoman et al., 1999; Kassenga et al., 2004; Smits et al., 2004; Ahn et al., 2007, 2008).

The available information on the dechlorination potential of weathered PCDD/Fs congeners was mainly postulated from two major sources. One source is the dechlorination of certain spiked PCDD/F congeners in microcosms or enrichment cultures derived from contaminated sediments and soils (Beurskens et al., 1995; Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994, 1995; Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Vargas et al., 2001; Bunge et al., 2001). The other one source is by comparing sediment cores at different age and depth (Beurskens et al., 1993; Gaus et al., 2002) or by assessing the dechlorination potential of microbial consortia derived from historically contaminated sediments (Barkovskii et al., 1994; Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996; Albrecht et al., 1999). In this study, we have provided direct evidence of dechlorination and the corresponding time course of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms over 7 years incubation. The

stimulating effect of TeCB on dechlorination was previously shown for spiked PCDD/F congeners in similar microcosms and enrichment cultures, including in Kymijoki sediments (Ahn et al., 2007, 2008).

The mol% of *peri* and lateral chlorines among total chlorines for hexa-CDFs remained constant over 7 years in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms under all conditions including the no-amendment controls. The average mol% of *peri* and lateral chlorines among total chlorines for hexa-CDF was approximately 58% and 38% (since we are still missing the identification of several detected HxCDFs in the sediment, Table 2-3) under all conditions during 7 years of incubation. It is unlikely that the lack of bioavailability specifically of hexa-CDFs was the explanation for this. Consequently, a possible explanation is that weathered hexa-CDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment were actually in a state of flux, which means that dechlorination occurred to certain selected hexa-CDFs congeners that would balance hexa-CDFs produced by dechlorination of hepta-CDFs over time. It may not necessarily be the same hexa-CDF isomer that was produced from hepta-CDFs dechlorination to be further dechlorinated to less chlorinated congeners, since we here only consider chlorines removals at *peri* or lateral positions regardless of individual isomers. Similarly to what we have proposed for weathered hexa-CDFs in Kymijoki sediment, weathered 2,3,7,8-substituted PCDDs in general and 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD in particular, were shown to be in a state of flux in Passaic River sediment (Albrecht et al., 1999). In addition, dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF inoculated with Hudson River sediment (Adriaens and Grbic-Galic, 1994) and dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF by a mixed culture containing

Dehalococcoides ethenogenes strain 195 (Liu and Fennell, 2008) all supported this postulation. To confirm this explanation, however, further work is needed to clarify the exact dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDFs and all the hexa-CDFs detected in Kymijoki sediment.

This study also showed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms (Fig. 2-5). The sequences of selected DGGE bands clustered with *Chloroflexi* sequences found at other sites with similar contaminations (Winderi et al., 2008; Hori et al., 2007; Kunapuli et al., 2007). The various treatments were introduced once to the mesocosm only at the very beginning, it is likely that any major changes would subside over time, or that the treatments did not induce changes in the *Chloroflexi* community that we could detect using current method. This can be supported by the fact that the dechlorination observed in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms was very limited compared to enrichment cultures for the dechlorination of spiked PCDD/F congeners. Just like their widespread existence in the environment (Dennis et al., 2003; Duhamel et al., 2004; Fennell et al., 2001; Gu et al., 2004; He et al., 2003; Hendrickson et al., 2002; Kassenga et al., 2004; Löffler et al., 2000; Major et al., 2002; Richardson et al., 2002; Smits et al., 2004) and their importance in dechlorination of PCDD/Fs (Holoman et al., 1999; Yoshida et al., 2005; Hiraishi et al., 2005; Ahn et al., 2007, 2008, Krumins et al., 2009), this diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki mesocosm (Fig. 2-5) suggest their important roles in mediating dechlorination of weathered PCDFs *in situ*.

In view of these collective data above, Kymijoki sediments appear to contain active indigenous dechlorinating bacteria that may be stimulated with proper amendments to reductively dechlorinate weathered PCDFs. Knowledge of the microbial community members in the contaminated sediments, especially those whose presence correlates with activity and dechlorination, can potentially be valuable in detecting, stimulating and cultivating the relevant dechlorinating populations. The question of whether abiotic reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs (Adriaens et al., 1996; Lee and Batchelor, 2004) is involved here should also be clarified by further study. Understanding of the microbial attenuation of weathered PCDFs in sediments like Kymijoki will be of crucial importance for risk assessment and development of strategies for bioremediation of contaminated sites.

Conclusions

In conclusion, following 7 years of incubation, dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment was observed. An increase in the mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF was observed in all mesocosms. Compared to no addition control after 7 years, decreasing mol% of octa-CDF and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF as well as increasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF were observed in addition to mol% loss of penta-CDFs as well as tetra-CDFs in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB. This suggests that *peri*-chlorines of hepta-CDFs were removed in general, while for penta-CDFs, *peri*-chlorines were removed preferentially only with amendment of electron donors and TeCB. No dechlorination preference was observed for weathered hexa-CDFs in Kymijoki sediments. However, the data is insufficient to conclude whether

this *peri* dechlorination may result in toxic 2,3,7,8-substituted intermediates. PCR-DGGE analysis revealed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediment. Phylogenetic analysis of DGGE bands indicated that community members were closely related to *Chloroflexi* found in other environments polluted by chlorinated compounds. The mesocosm studies implied that natural attenuation of weathered PCDFs was occurring in Kymijoki sediment. However, the possible dechlorination pathways and reactions were complicated considering the integrated role of abiotic and biotic dechlorination potentials that may co-exist in the sediment. The very limited extent of dechlorination observed also complicates the analysis. The poor survival of *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 may restrict its application to enhance dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment. Characterization of the microbial communities mediating these transformations as well as further research in the fate and pathways of PCDD/Fs dechlorination will aid in the assessment of weathered PCDD/Fs contamination and natural attenuation processes, which will help the development of bioremediation technologies for PCDD/Fs pollution.

Table 2-1. The most abundant molecular ions and qualifying molecular ions of different PCDF and PCB congeners.

Congener	Most abundant Molecular Ion (m/z)	Qualifying Molecular Ion (m/z)
octa-CDF	442	444
hepta-CDF	408	410
hexa-CDF	374	376
penta-CDF	340	342
tetra-CDF	306	304
TriCDF	272	270
di-CDF	238	236
mono-CDF	204	202
PCB 14	222	224
PCB 30 & 23	256	258
PCB 65	292	290
PCB 166	360	362
PCB 204	430	428

Table 2-2. Primers of nested-PCR DGGE reaction.

Primers	Sequence
338F	5'-CGC CCG CCG CGC CCC GCG CCC GTC CCG CCG CCC CCG CC CTC CTA CGG GAG GCA GCA G-3'
Dch1101R	5'-CTC GCK AGA AMA TKT AAC TAG CAA C-3'
341F-GC	5'-GCC CGC CGC GCG CGG CGG GCG GGG CGG GGG CAC GGG GGG, CCT ACG GGA GGC AGC AG-3'
534R	5'-CCA GCA GCC GCG GTA AT-3'

Table 2-3. Detected and identified congeners of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments at time 0.

Homolog	Peak #	Congener Name	Retention Time (min)	Conc. (ng/g d.w.)	Mol% (avg±SD)	# of <i>peri</i> Cl	# of lateral Cl
tetra-CDFs	01	tetra-CDF-1	43.84	49.0±13.3	0.53±0.12	---	---
	02	tetra-CDF-2	46.98	13.9±3.50	0.15±0.03	---	---
	03	tetra-CDF-3	47.66	35.9±7.10	0.40±0.05	---	---
	04	tetra-CDF-4	48.23	25.4±5.59	0.29±0.07	---	---
penta-CDFs	05	1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF	52.69	32.6±15.1	0.30±0.09	3	2
	06	1,2,4,7,8-penta-CDF	54.80	104±30.9	0.99±0.28	2	3
	07	1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDF	55.49	15.3±2.09	0.16±0.04	1	4
	08	2,3,4,6,8-penta-CDF	57.20	16.2±3.17	0.18±0.06	2	3
hexa-CDFs	09	2,3,4,7,8-penta-CDF	60.57	47.7±30.5	0.48±0.22	1	4
	10	1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF	60.97	127±38.5	1.07±0.10	3	3
	11	1,2,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF	61.37	350±109	2.82±0.27	3	3
	12	1,2,4,6,8,9-hexa-CDF	62.62	1561±345	12.4±1.82	4	2
	13	1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF	63.14	68.0±25.9	0.58±0.20	3	3
	14	hexa-CDF-5	63.65	21.1±4.51	0.21±0.03	---	---
	15	1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF*	64.05	13.1±4.61	0.12±0.05	2	4
	16	2,3,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF	65.31	24.6±5.25	0.22±0.05	2	4
	17	hexa-CDF-8	67.71	30.3±11.9	0.27±0.11	---	---

Homolog	Peak #	Congener Name	Retention Time (min)	Conc. (ng/g d.w.)	Mol% (avg±SD)	# of <i>peri</i> Cl	# of lateral Cl
hepta-CDFs	18	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF	72.73	3281±1009	26.2±2.55	3	4
	19	1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF	73.93	4443±696	34.9±1.81	4	3
octa-CDF	20	octa-CDF	86.27	2491±758	17.8±2.08	4	4

For tetra-CDFs being detected, no 1,2,3,4- or 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDFs were identified. All congeners being identified bases on Humppi and Heinola (1985) except 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF (*), which was identified, based on the information of chemical standard. Mol% and concentration in ng/g d.w. of each congener was in average (avg) ±SD of 12 mesocosm samples.

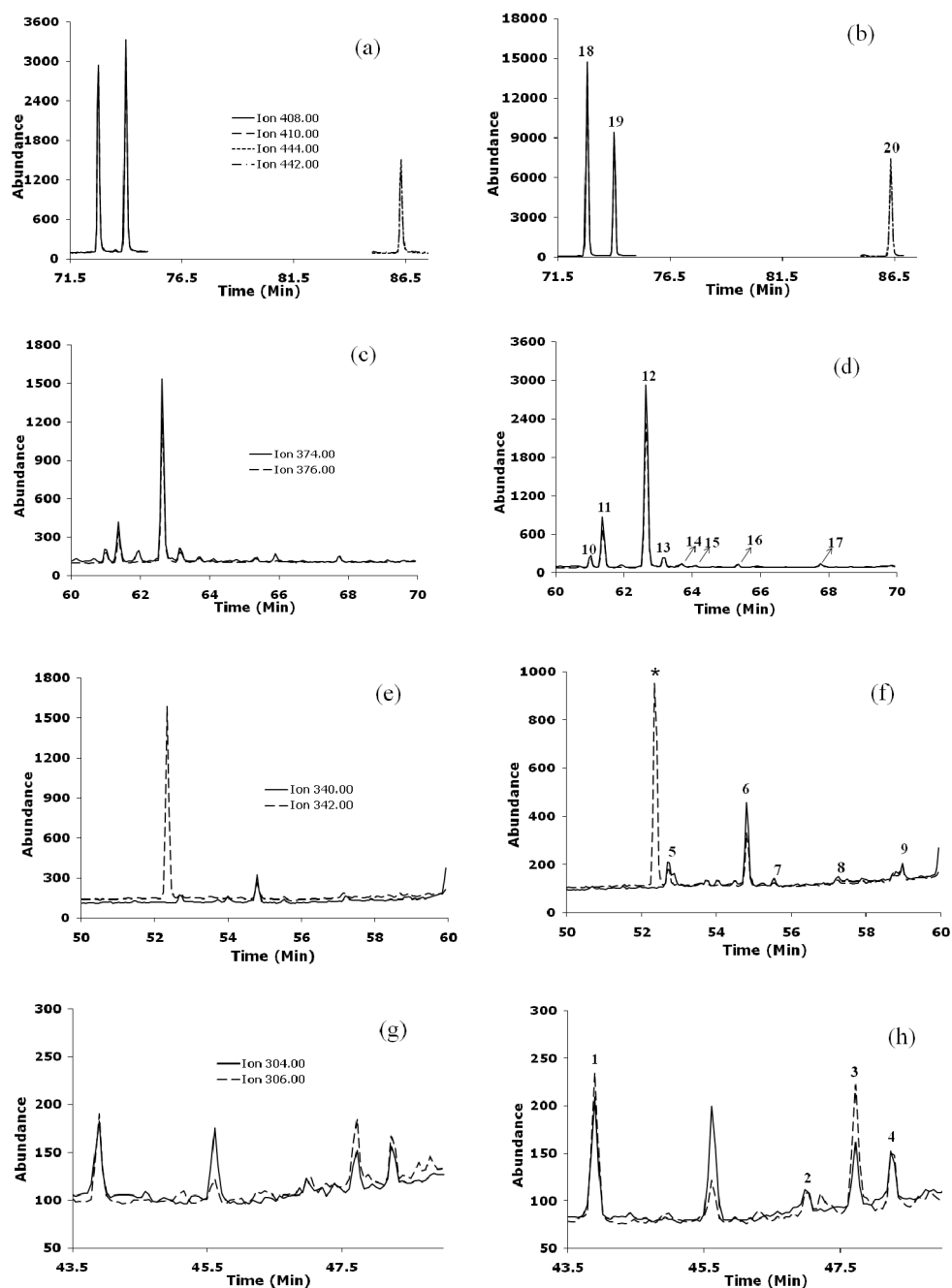


Figure 2-1. Selected ion chromatograms for hepta-CDFs and octa-CDF at year-0 (a) and year-7 (b), hexa-CDFs at year-0 (c) and year-7 (d), penta-CDFs at year-0 (e) and year-7 (f), tetra-CDFs at year-0 (g) and year-7 (h) in the same Kymijoki mesocosm amended with electron donor plus TeCB. The peak labeled with a * is not a PnCDF congener since it does not contain the ions of 340 and 342 in the correct ratio (f).

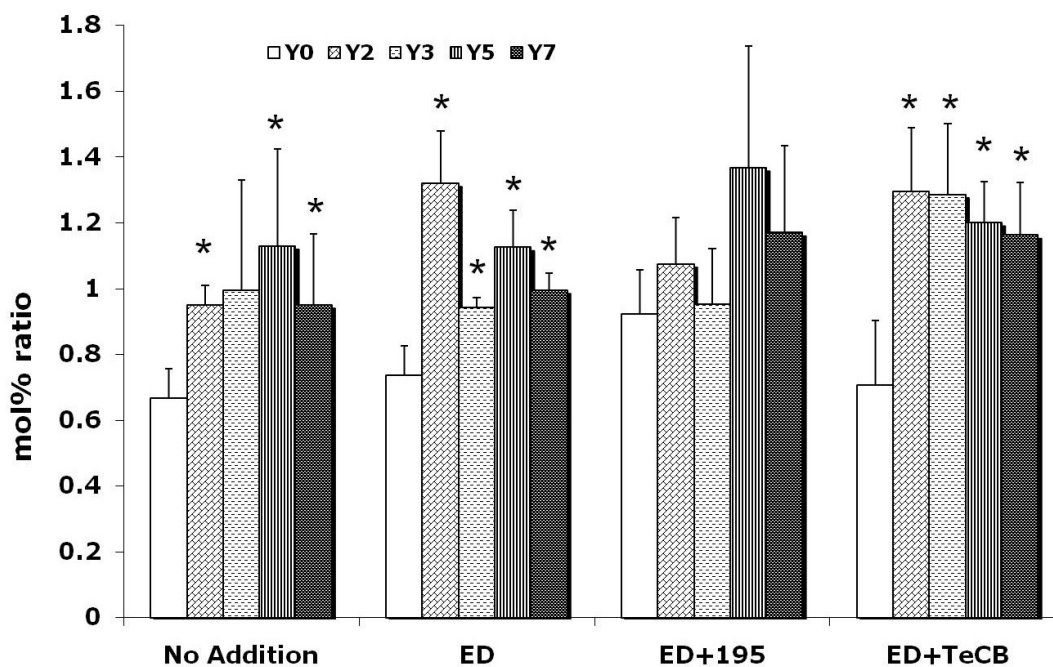


Figure 2-2. Average mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 18) vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 19) over 7 years incubation in different Kymijoki mesocosm treatments. * Indicates that the mol% ratio that is significantly different from that of year 0 by student T-test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

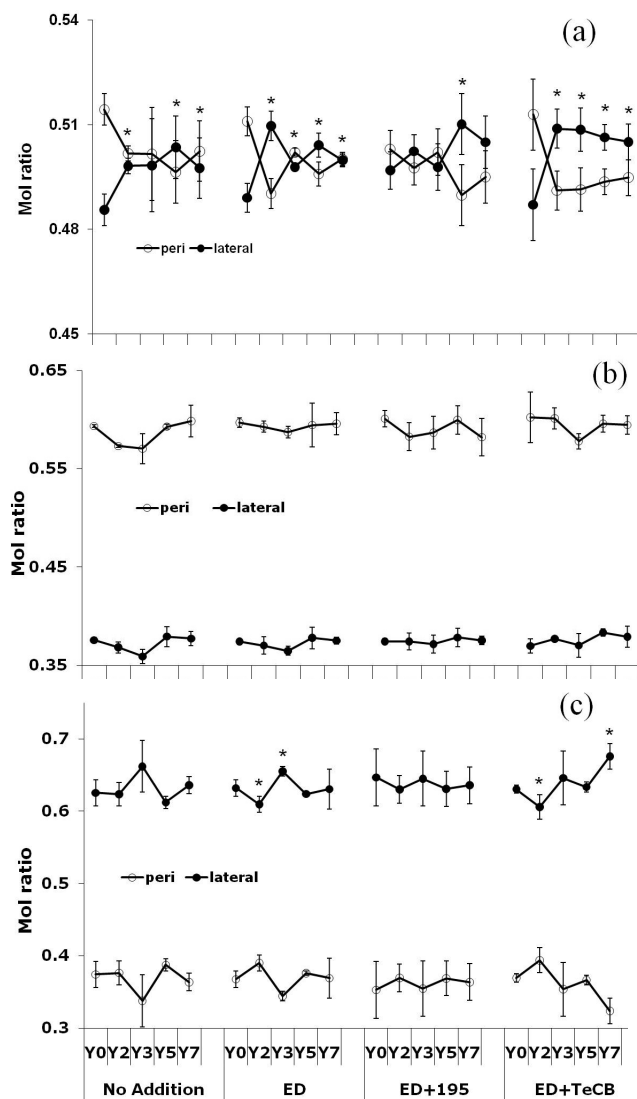


Figure 2-3. Average mol ratios of *peri* and lateral chlorines vs. total chlorines per dibenzofuran molecule over time for hepta-CDFs (a), hexa-CDFs (b) and penta-CDFs (c) identified in Kymijoki mesocosms amended with no addition, electron donor only (ED), and electron donor plus *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 (ED + 195) or plus 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (ED + TeCB). Y0, Y2, Y3, Y5, Y7 stands for year 0, 2, 3, 5, and 7. Value labeled with a * Indicated that was significantly different from the value at time 0 by student t-test ($\alpha < 0.05$). Both *peri* and lateral Cl ratio shared the same t-test value, only the t-test result of *peri* Cl was showed.

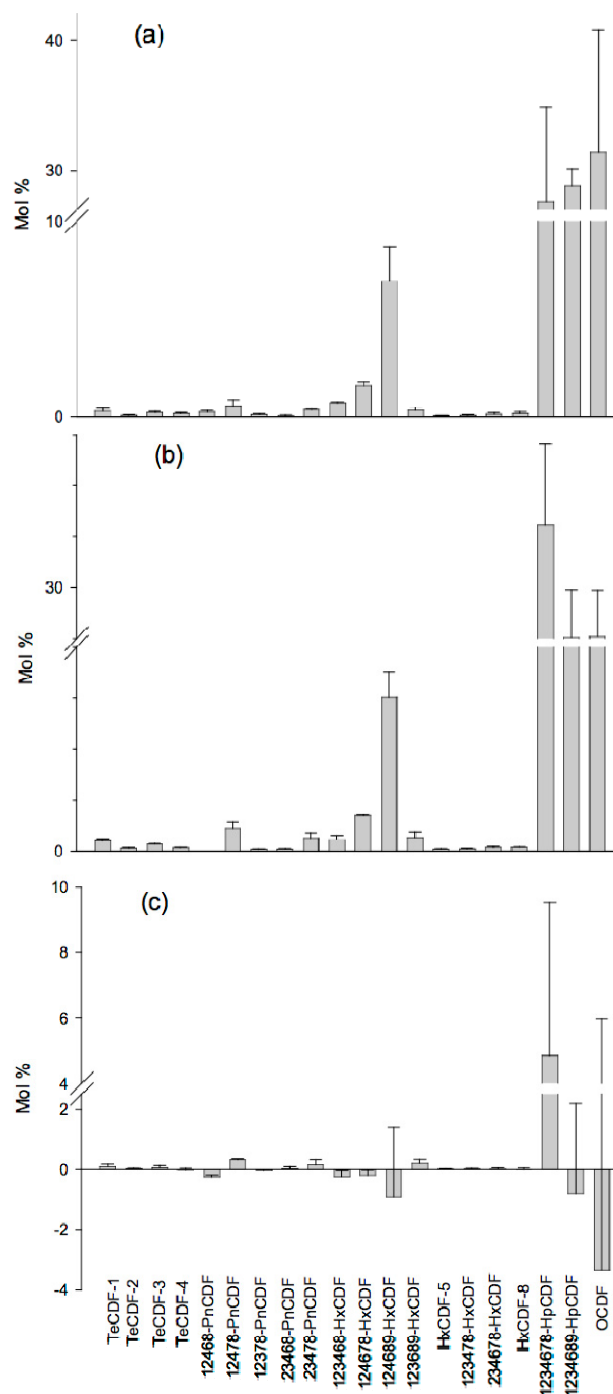


Figure 2-4. Average mol% of weathered PCDF congeners in no addition control (a), electron donor plus TeCB amendment (b), and difference of electron donor plus TeCB vs. no addition after 7 years (c). Bars are the average of triplicates \pm SD. * Indicated statistically significant difference by student t-test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

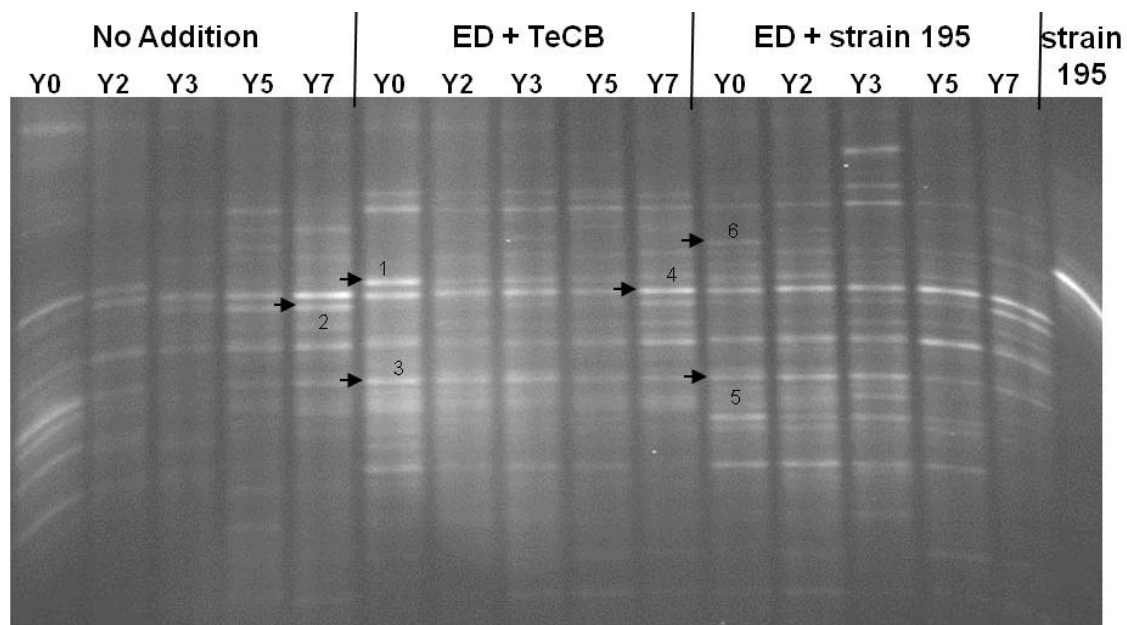


Figure 2-5. Nested PCR-DGGE analysis of putative *Chloroflexi* 16S rRNA genes in Kymijoki mesocosms over 7 years of treatment. A diverse *Chloroflexi* community was observed with different amendments over time. 6 DGGE single bands as highlighted above were purified and sequenced for phylogenetic analysis.

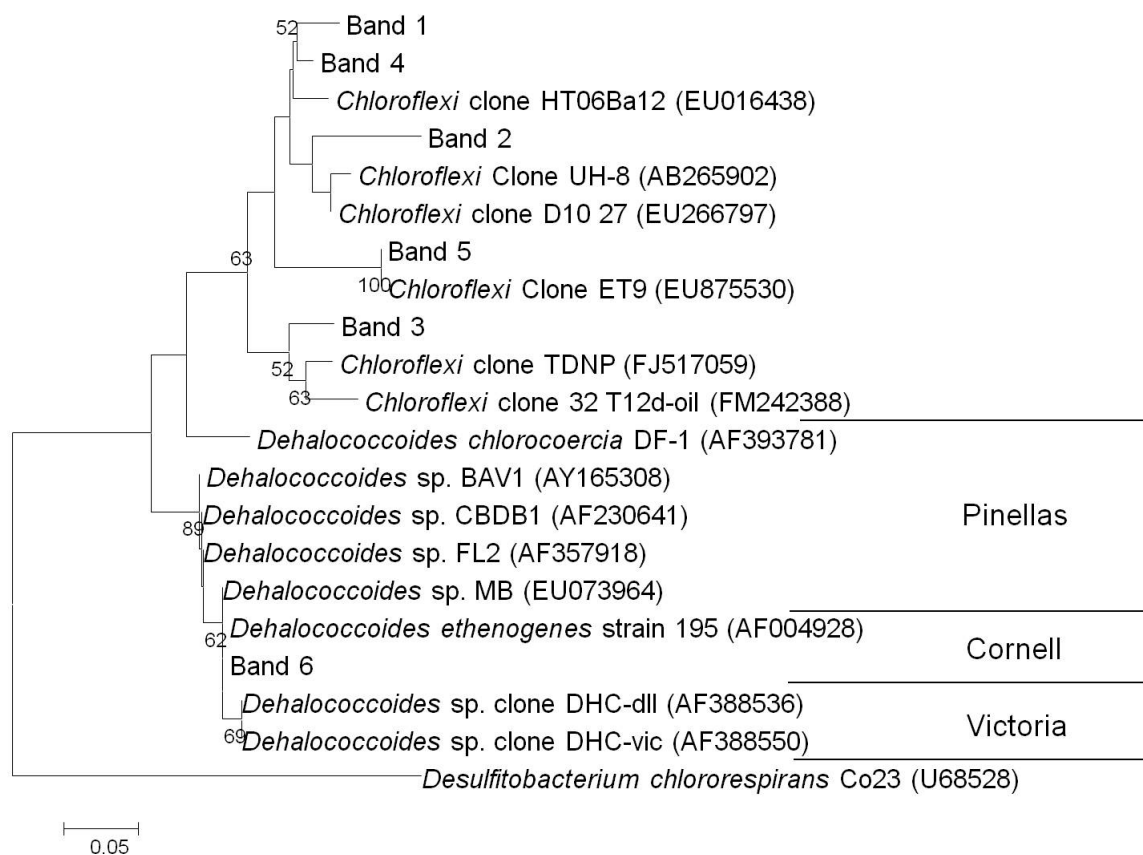


Figure 2-6. Neighbor-joining tree of DGGE bands in Kymijoki mesocosm and related *Chloroflexi* 16S rRNA genes from published sequences. Bootstrap values are indicated at the branch points. The tree was derived from variable region 3 of 16S rRNA genes, which was able to distinguish three subgroups of *Dehalococcoides* species.

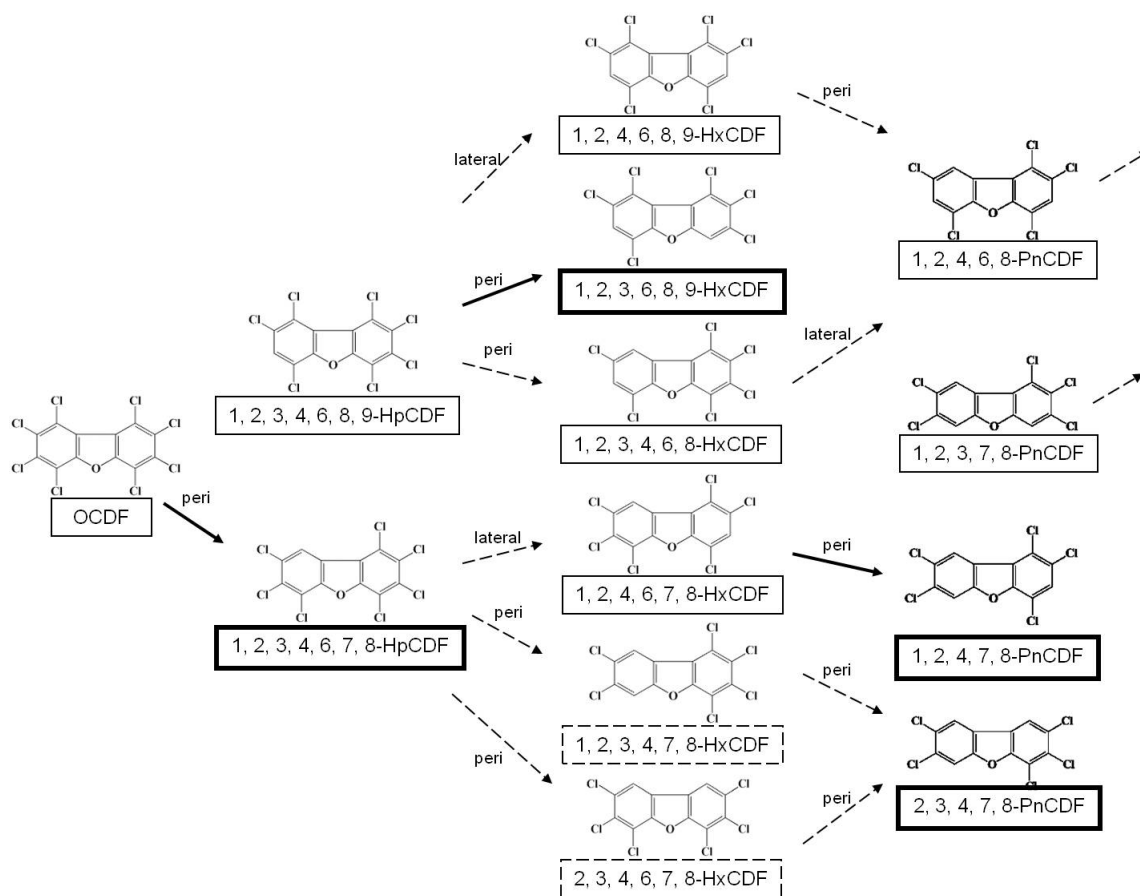


Figure 2-7. Proposed dechlorination pathway for weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms amended with electron donor plus TeCB. Bold box highlights increasing congeners in electron donor plus TeCB vs. no addition control after 7 years, light box highlights decreasing congeners in electron donor plus TeCB vs. no addition control after 7 years, dashed box highlights possible intermediates. Dashed arrows represent possible dechlorination pathways. Solid arrows represent dechlorination pathways that were observed in this study.

Chapter 3

Stimulating Microbial Reductive Dechlorination of Weathered Polychlorinated Dibenzofurans in Contaminated Kymijoki Sediment, Finland

Abstract

Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) are unwanted byproducts from various industrial processes. These compounds are of major concern due to their extreme toxicity and high resistance to microbial degradation. Anaerobic bacteria are known to dechlorinate PCDD/Fs, but their activity is low. To test whether amendments can stimulate the reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDFs we established 200 mL microcosms with contaminated sediment from Kymijoki River, Finland. The effects of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorodibenzofuran (1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF), 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (1,2,3,4-TeCB) and 2,3,4,5,6-pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) as “haloprimers” in the presence of combined electron donors were examined. Vegetable oil was tested for the effect on enhancing dechlorination of weathered PCDF congeners in the sediments with and without bioaugmentation of *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195. Dechlorination of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, and hexa-CDFs was accompanied by production of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF and non-2,3,7,8-tetra-CDFs in bioaugmented and electron donor amended microcosms after 18 months, suggesting a *peri*-preferred dechlorination pathway. Dechlorination via a different pathway was observed for bioaugmentation with vegetable oil amended microcosms. In this case, dechlorination of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF was accompanied by production of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDFs after 18 months. In one of these triplicate microcosms, dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF was accompanied with production of 1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF. The overall observations for bioaugmentation and vegetable oil amended microcosms suggest that lateral dechlorination might be the preferred dechlorination pattern under this condition. Dechlorination of hexa-CDFs was

accompanied by production of non-2,3,7,8 substituted tetra-CDFs in electron donor and TeCB or PCNB amended microcosms. Very limited dechlorination was observed for microcosms amended with tetra-CDF and electron donors, controls of electron donors only, or controls of vegetable oil only. These results suggest that bioaugmentation of strain 195 with electron donor or vegetable oil amendment can stimulate microbial reductive dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment. Further studies to identify the responsible microorganisms or reductive dehalogenase genes of potential dechlorinating microbes in Kymijoki sediment could provide more information on developing successful strategies for *in situ* bioremediation of PCDD/F contaminated sediments.

Introduction

Polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and dibenzofurans (PCDFs) are mainly generated as un-wanted byproducts or impurities from various industrial and thermal combustion processes (for review Kulkarni et al., 2008; Hites, 2010). They have extremely low water solubility, low vapor pressure and high octanol-water partition coefficients (Shiu et al., 1988); sediments are consequently one of their most important sinks in the environment. Because of their toxicity and recalcitrance, remediation of sediments contaminated by PCDD/Fs has become one of the most difficult and challenging issues in the field of environmental science and technology. Microbial reductive dechlorination is one of the very few known reactions that initiate the transformation of highly chlorinated congeners in sediments, with production of less chlorinated congeners that are more susceptible to subsequent aerobic degradation (see review of Bunge and Lechner, 2009). However, due to their environmental recalcitrance and chemical inertness, the natural attenuation rate of PCDD/Fs in the sediment is extremely slow and occurs only to very limited extent (Beurskens et al., 1993; Barkovskii et al., 1994; Adriaens and Grbic-Galic 1994, 1995; Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996; Albrecht et al., 1999; Gaus et al., 2002).

There has been much interest in stimulating the rate and extent of microbial reductive dechlorination of either freshly spiked or historic weathered PCDDs by adding structurally analogous co-substrates (Albrecht et al., 1999; Vargas et al., 2001; Fu et al., 2005; Ahn et al., 2005, 2007, 2008). The amended co-substrate is also known as a “haloprimer”, which is thought to initiate the dechlorination reaction of indigenous

microorganisms either by promoting their growth or inducing the functional enzymes (Bedard et al., 1998). Previously, the dechlorination of weathered PCDDs in Passaic River sediment (NJ, USA) was enhanced by adding 2-monobromodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (2-BrDD) and H₂ in the presence of acetate, butyrate and benzoate (Albrecht et al., 1999). 2-BrDD was also used to stimulate the dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDD using sediment from the same site as inoculum (Fu et al., 2005). 1,2,3,4-TeCB, 2,3,4,5-tetrachlorinated anisole, 2,3,4,5-tetrachlorinated phenol, and 2',3',4'-trichloroacetophenone as well as monobromophenol were all shown to enhance the dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F using estuarine and river sediment from different sites (Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005, 2007, 2008). Liu and Fennell (2008) later used 1,2,3,4-TeCB to stimulate the dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF by a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195. Ahn and co-workers (2008) showed the enhancement effect of bioaugmentation by adding a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 to microcosms spiked with 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD. Compared to PCDDs, the current knowledge on the stimulation potentials of sediment-associated PCDFs is inadequate. In addition, the above-mentioned PCDD/F structurally analogous “haloprimers” are also environmental pollutants; they have the potential of being re-introduced as pollutants in the environment while being used to stimulate PCDD/F dechlorination. Thus it is necessary to find a safe and efficient strategy to enhance the dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs in contaminated sediments.

The objectives of this study were to 1) assess the stimulating effects of different co-substrates (TeCB, PCNB and tetra-CDF) on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in

contaminated sediments; 2) examine the effectiveness of bioaugmentation by a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 for enhancing dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in the sediment; and 3) investigate the effectiveness of vegetable oil or solvents on stimulating dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in the sediment.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals. PCDD/Fs standards were purchased from Ultra Scientific (North Kingstown, RI). Polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) 14 (3,5-dichlorobiphenyl (DiCB)), PCB 23 (2,3,5-trichlorobiphenyl (TrCB)), PCB 65 (2,3,5,6-tetrachlorobiphenyl (TeCB)), PCB 166 (2,3,4,4',5,6-hexachlorobiphenyl (HxCB)), PCB 30 (2,4,6-trichlorobiphenyl (TrCB)) and 204 (octachlorobiphenyl (OcCB)) were purchased from AccuStandard, Inc. (New Haven, CT). The 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB); 2,3,4,5,6-pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Inc. (St. Louis, MO).

Contaminated Sediment Treatment/Incubations. Contaminated sediments were collected by dredging from downstream of Myllykoski along River Kymijoki, Finland, where the production of chlorophenol fungicide Ky-5 constitutes the main source of heavy PCDFs contamination between the 1940s and the 1980s (see Chapter 2). The major chlorinated compounds in Kymijoki sediment are polychlorinated phenols (PCPs), PCDDs, and PCDFs of 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9-heptaCDFs and octa-CDF are the dominant congeners (Verta et al., 1999; Koistinen et al., 1995). It is estimated that the total amount of combined PCDD/Fs in the sediments range from 4000 to 5000 kg in the contaminated area of River Kymijoki (Verta et al., 1999). The experimental setup matrix

is listed in Table 3-1. Sediment microcosms (200 mL) were fed at the very beginning with co-substrates of 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB, 25 μM) (EDTeCB), or 2,3,4,5,6-pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB, 25 μM) (EDPCNB), or 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorodibenzofuran (tetra-CDF, 5 μM) (EDTCDF), respectively and a mixed electron donor solution (lactate, propionate and butyrate, 50 μM each) to study the effect of priming compounds on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment. Twenty mL of a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 (Fennell et al., 1998) was introduced to yield a cell density of approximately $2\sim3 \times 10^6$ cells mL^{-1} of the microcosm (Fennell et al., 2004; Krumins et al., 2009) in the presence of mixed electron donor solution (EDB) or 4 ml vegetable oil (VOB). Sediment controls of only mixed electron donors (ED), solvent (sol) or vegetable oil (VO) were set up simultaneously in addition to no-amendment background controls (NA) and killed controls (K). All sediment microcosms (200 mL sediment with a thin layer of site water on top) were incubated at room temperature (18~21 °C) to sustain the dechlorination capacity. All batch biotransformation assays were conducted in triplicate 250-mL glass jars that were flushed with N_2 above the sediment surface and sealed tightly with a rubber stopper. 2 mL (approximately, 3g of wet weight) of sediment samples were collected in glass vials in the presence of N_2 stream at time 0 and after 18 months during the incubation period for purpose of PCDFs analysis.

Analysis of PCDFs. The liquid/solid extraction to quantify PCDFs and transformation products was performed as described in Chapter 2. PCDFs, PCB surrogates and internal standards were detected, identified and quantified as shown in Chapter 2.

According to their relative retention time (rt), PCB 30 (rt, 22.02 min) was used to determine extraction efficiencies of PCB 14 (rt, 21.106 min), 23 (rt, 24.761 min), 65 (rt, 28.76 min) and PCB 204 (rt, 52.52 min) was used to determine extraction efficiencies of weathered PCDFs (tetra: 39-50min, penta: 50-60min, hexa: 60-70min, octa-CDF: 85min). The average extraction efficiency of PCB surrogates ranged from 80~105% for PCB 14, 23 and 65. The detection limit for PCDFs was approximately 0.5 ng/g (d.w).

Results

Detection and identification of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms.

Kymijoki sediments contain a mixture of PCDF congeners. Altogether 18 peaks corresponding to PCDF congeners with four or more chlorines were detected, and among them, 11 peaks were identified, 1 peak of hexa-CDF and 6 peaks of tetra-CDFs were unknown congeners (Table 3-2). Selected Ion Chromatograms of hexa-CDFs, hepta-CDFs and octa-CDF after 0 and 18 months for one triplicate microcosm with no addition controls, amended with electron donors (ED), amended with vegetable oil (VO), amended with vegetable oil and bioaugmentation (VOB) with strain 195 are shown as examples (Fig. 3-1 & 3-2). In addition to the most abundant congeners of octa-CDF (peak 18), 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 17) and 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 16) (Fig. 3-1), altogether six hexa-CDF congeners were detected (Fig. 3-2), including 5 known isomers (Humppi and Heinola, 1985) and one unknown isomer (peak 14). Three peaks were detected and identified as penta-CDFs (data not shown) (Humppi and Heinola, 1985). Six peaks were detected as tetra-CDFs isomers (data not shown) but without identification

due to the unavailability of tetra-CDF standards. Neither 1,2,3,4- nor 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDFs were detected in Kymijoki sediment microcosms.

For background control microcosms of (no addition controls), the relative abundance of the 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (peak 16) and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 17) did not change substantially after 18 months incubation (Fig. 3-1a vs. b). However, in microcosms amended with electron donors (ED), vegetable oil (VO), vegetable oil and bioaugmentation with strain 195 (VOB), the relative abundance of the two hepta-CDFs changed substantially after 18 months of incubation, with an increase of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF relative to that of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDFs (Fig. 3-1c~h). Selected ion chromatograms of major hexa-CDFs isomers in these microcosms indicated that 1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF (peak 10) increased remarkably in one microcosm of vegetable oil and bioaugmentation of strain 195 amendment (VOB) after 18 months (Fig. 3-2g vs. h). No such observations were made for the microcosms amended with electron donors and tetra-CDF, PCNB, or TeCB, killed controls and solvent (Sol) controls (data not shown).

Impact of bioaugmentation on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms. In microcosms amended with electron donors and bioaugmented with strain 195 (EDB), decreasing mol% of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDFs was accompanied by increasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF and tetra-CDFs after 18 months (Fig. 3-3a). Similar trends were also observed when comparing average mol% of different PCDF congeners in these microcosms to background, killed control, and electron donors only control microcosms (ED) after 18 months (Fig. 3-3a).

Compared to microcosm controls of electron donors only (ED), the decreasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDF was accompanied by increasing mol% of tetra-CDFs after 18 months, indicating the additional dechlorination activities stimulated by bioaugmentation of *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 in addition to the effect of electron donors (Fig. 3-3a).

For microcosms amended with vegetable oil and bioaugmented with strain 195 (VOB), a different dechlorination pattern was enhanced in comparison to microcosms amended with electron donors and bioaugmentation (EDB), unlike the decreasing mol% of hexa-CDFs, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, and increasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF in microcosms amended with electron donor and bioaugmentation (EDB) (Fig. 3-3a); increasing mol% of hexa-CDFs, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and decreasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF were observed in addition to the decreasing mol% of octa-CDF in microcosms amended with vegetable oil and bioaugmentation (VOB) (Fig. 3-3b). Similar changes were also observed in microcosms of VOB when compared to background level, killed controls (Fig. 3-3b). Compared to microcosms of vegetable oil only (VO) after 18 months, mol% of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, and 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF decreased and more hexa-CDFs were produced, suggesting enhanced dechlorination of hepta-CDFs and octa-CDF with bioaugmentation of strain 195 and vegetable oil amendment.

Impact of “haloprimers” on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms. Increasing mol% of tetra-CDFs and decreasing mol% of hexa-CDFs were observed after 18 months in microcosms amended with TeCB and electron donors (EDTeCB) (Fig. 3-4a). The average mol% of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF and penta-CDFs remained constant over time. Compared to background and electron donors only (ED) microcosm controls, the decreasing mol% of hexa-CDFs was accompanied by increasing mol% of tetra-CDFs and penta-CDFs. This suggests that TeCB might enhance the dechlorination of hexa-CDFs to penta-CDFs and tetra-CDFs over time. The relative higher mol% of hexa-CDFs in microcosms amended with TeCB and electron donors (EDTeCB) than that in killed control or solvent control suggested a possible but very limited dechlorination of hepta-CDFs and octa-CDFs. However, since the mol% of hepta-CDFs and octa-CDF remained constant, no conclusive observations can be made. For sediment microcosms amended with PCNB and electron donors, the average mol% of tetra-CDFs and penta-CDFs remained constant, while the average mol% of hexa-CDFs decreased after 18 months (Fig. 3-4b). Compared to background level, decreasing mol% of hexa-CDFs was accompanied by increasing mol% of tetra-CDFs. No such observations were made for microcosms amended with tetra-CDF and electron donors (EDtetra-CDF) over time (data not shown), and no accumulation of lesser chlorinated, tri-, di- and mono-CDF, congeners were observed with any of the amendments (data not shown).

Discussion

Dechlorination of weathered PCDFs, particularly the higher chlorinated congeners, namely octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDFs, in Kymijoki sediment

microcosms was enhanced to different extent by different amendments. Amendment with electron donor mixtures, vegetable oil, or combined with bioaugmentation of *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 all stimulated a change in the relative abundance of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDFs after 18 months. A decrease of octa-CDF mol% was observed for microcosms bioaugmented with strain 195 combined with electron donor (EDB) or vegetable oil (VOB) amendments. However, the impact of EDB and VOB amendments on the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms is different as being shown by the mol% difference of individual congeners or homologs after 18 months (Fig. 3-3). The extent of octa-CDF dechlorination was similar in both situations as shown by the limited difference of average mol% of octa-CDF in both situations after 18 months (Fig. 3-3a vs. b). However, the dechlorination pattern of octa-CDF was affected differently when adding electron donors (ED) or vegetable oil (VO). For microcosms bioaugmented with strain 195 and amended with electron donors, decreasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDFs was accompanied by increasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF after 18 months. This observation suggested that the dechlorination product of octa-CDF was 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, which could be produced by removing *peri* chlorine at position 9 of octa-CDF. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and accumulation of certain hexa-CDFs were also detected, however due to the incomplete information of hexa-CDFs congeners, no dechlorination pathway can be proposed at this point. For microcosms bioaugmented with strain 195 and amended with vegetable oil (VOB), decreasing mol% of octa-CDF and 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF was accompanied by increasing mol% of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDFs after 18 months. This suggests that dechlorination product of

octa-CDF in VOB was 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, which could be produced by removing the lateral chlorine at position 7 of octa-CDF. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF produced certain hexa-CDFs. However, no dechlorination pathway can be derived due to the incomplete information of hexa-CDFs congeners being detected in Kymijoki sediment. These combined results suggest that: 1) there were multiple dechlorinating populations or multiple dechlorination functional enzymes in Kymijoki sediments which could dechlorinate both lateral and *peri* chlorines; 2) by adding different amendments, e.g. EDB or VOB, these different dechlorination activities can be enhanced differently.

Previously, dechlorination of aged PCDDs in Passaic River sediment (NJ, USA) was enhanced by addition of acetate, butyrate, benzoate, 2-monobromodibenzodioxin and H₂ (Albrecht et al., 1999). Also, bioaugmentation with a mixed culture of *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 stimulated dechlorination of aged PCBs in Anacostia River sediment (Baltimore, USA) (Krumins et al., 2009). Dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD in enrichment cultures inoculated with Kymijoki River sediment (Finland) was also enhanced by bioaugmentation of strain 195 (Ahn et al., 2008). The different primary dechlorination products indicated that the dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was also affected by amendment of TeCB and bioaugmentation (Ahn et al., 2008).

Mixed cultures containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 did not dechlorinate spiked deca-brominated dibenzoether (BDE) and octa-CDD (Liu and Fennell, 2008). The enhanced dechlorination of weathered OCDF observed in this study may be mediated by

the indigenous dechlorinating microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment. The addition of strain 195 may provide important growth support for the indigenous dechlorinating microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment. This is another important role of bioaugmentation to remediate PCDD/F contaminated sediments.

Adriaens and Grbic-Galic (1994, 1995) reported that *peri* dechlorination was the preferred reaction for certain PCDD/F congeners including 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF when using Hudson River sediment (USA) as inoculum. *Peri* dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment was also observed in our mesocosm studies (Chapter 2). However, whether this preferred reaction was a result of the specific dechlorination microbial populations or individual congeners needs further investigation.

Structural analogs of tetra-CDD such as TeCB and PCNB have been reported for their stimulating effects on dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD in sediments from Kymijoki (Finland) and Gulf Island Pond (USA) (Ahn et al., 2008), spiked 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF in mixed culture of *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 (Liu and Fennell, 2008), as well as aged PCBs in Anacostia River sediment (USA) (Krumins et al., 2009). Unlike these previous reports, the priming effects of TeCB and PCNB was not observed for the dechlorination of weathered octa-CDF and hepta-CDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms (Fig. 3-3 a & b). A decrease in the mol% of hexa-CDFs and increase in the mol% of tetra-CDFs was observed in microcosms amended with TeCB or PCNB after 18 months which suggested that dechlorination under these conditions might occur to hexa-CDFs and lower chlorinated congeners. The limited dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-

tetra-CDF might also be a result of limited accessibility to the dechlorinating microbes in Kymijoki sediment microcosms.

Future studies should monitor the side reactions of amended electron donors, haloprimers (TeCB, PCNB, tetra-CDF) and vegetable oil for the purpose of a better understanding on the environmental behavior of co-substrates beside their stimulating effects on dechlorination of PCDD/Fs *in situ*. It is also necessary to know the response and interactions of both dechlorinating microorganisms and non-dechlorinating species in the sediment under different stimulating selections. In order to utilizing mixed culture of *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 for bioaugmentation to enhance the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs, it is important to have knowledge of its survival, growth, movement and competition with the indigenous microbial community and possible PCDD/F-dechlorinating populations inhabiting the contaminated sediments. It is equally important to know the biological toxicity and environmental impact of all kinds of intermediates generated from dechlorination of PCDD/Fs as well as co-substrates. The accomplishment of all the above research aspects will allow a better-controlled application of stimulating strategies on dechlorination of the weathered PCDD/Fs in the sediment.

Table 3-1. Sediment microcosm experiment set up

Microcosms	Amendment
Killed control	120 °C autoclaved 20 min for 3 consecutive days
No addition control	none
ED	Mixed lactate, propionate and butyrate solution, 50 µM for each
ED+tetra-CDF	Mixed lactate, propionate and butyrate solution, 50 µM for each; 5 µM tetra-CDF
ED+TeCB	Mixed lactate, propionate and butyrate solution, 50 µM for each; 25 µM TeCB
ED+PCNB	Mixed lactate, propionate and butyrate solution, 50 µM for each; 25 µM PCNB
Sol	Methanol + acetone + butanol (1:1:1), 4 ml in total
VO	4 ml vegetable oil
ED+B	Mixed lactate, propionate and butyrate solution, 50 µM for each; 20 ml of strain 195 culture
VO+B	4 ml vegetable oil; 20 ml of strain 195 culture

ED: electron donors;
Sol: solvent,
VO: vegetable oil,
B: bioaugmentation.

Table 3-2. Detected and identified congeners of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments microcosms.

Homologs	Peak #	Congener Name	Retention Time (Min)	Conc. (ng/g d.w.)	Mol% (avg±SD)
tetra-CDFs	01~06	---	39~49	374 ± 105	2.79 ± 2.4
penta-CDFs	07	1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF	52.17	108 ± 47	0.36 ± 0.1
	08	1,2,4,7,8-penta-CDF	54.29	263 ± 114	0.90 ± 0.3
	09	1,2,3,7,8-penta-CDF	55.03	53 ± 23	0.21 ± 0.1
hexa-CDFs	10	1,2,3,4,6,8-hexa-CDF	60.28	318 ± 375	1.08 ± 0.5
	11	1,2,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF	60.68	1178 ± 884	3.09 ± 0.9
	12	1,2,4,6,8,9-hexa-CDF	61.94	4455 ± 3439	11.2 ± 2.8
	13	1,2,3,6,8,9-hexa-CDF	62.57	317 ± 150	0.84 ± 0.2
	14	Hexa-CDF-5	63.01	0	0
	15	2,3,4,6,7,8-hexa-CDF	64.74	95.3 ± 90	0.24 ± 0.3
hepta-CDFs	16	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF	72.73	16092 ± 9099	34.8 ± 3.6
octa-CDF	17	1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF	73.93	11605 ± 6386	26.0 ± 1.9
	18	octa-CDF	86.27	8979 ± 4176	17.9 ± 4.3

No 1,2,3,4- or 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDF was detected. All congeners being identified bases on elution order and retention time ranges of hexa-CDFs isomers in Humpi and Heinola (1985). Mol% of each congener was in average (avg) ± SD of 29 sediment microcosm samples at time 0.

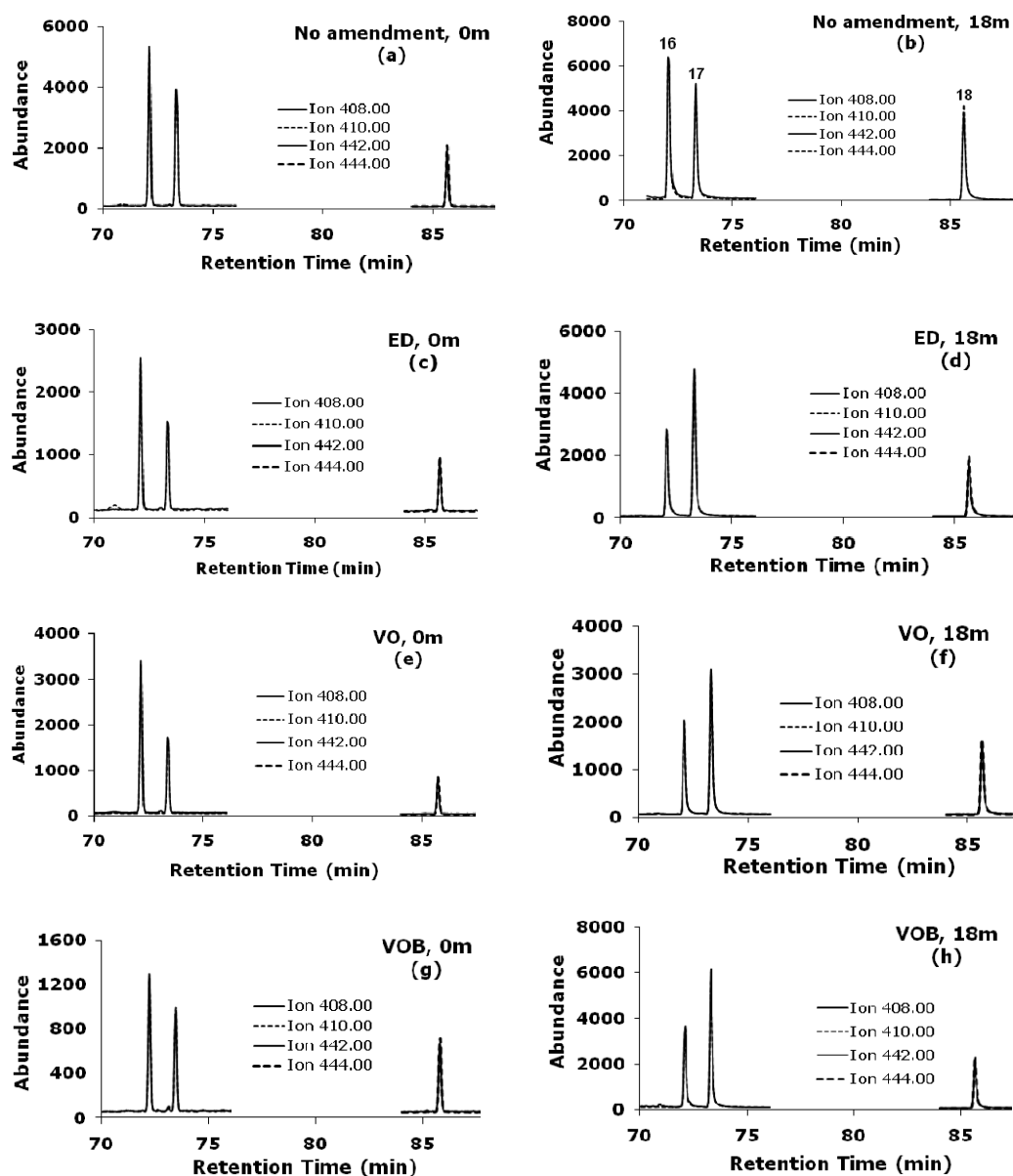


Figure 3-1. Selected ion chromatograms of hepta-CDFs (408, 410) and octa-CDF (442, 444) in Kymijoki sediment microcosms of background control after 0 month (a) and 18 months (b), amended with electron donors (ED) after 0 month (c) and 18 months (d), amended with vegetable oil (VO) after 0 month (e) and 18 months (f), amended with vegetable oil and bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 (VOB) after 0 month (g) and 18 months (h). Data from one representative triplicate microcosm is shown for each condition.

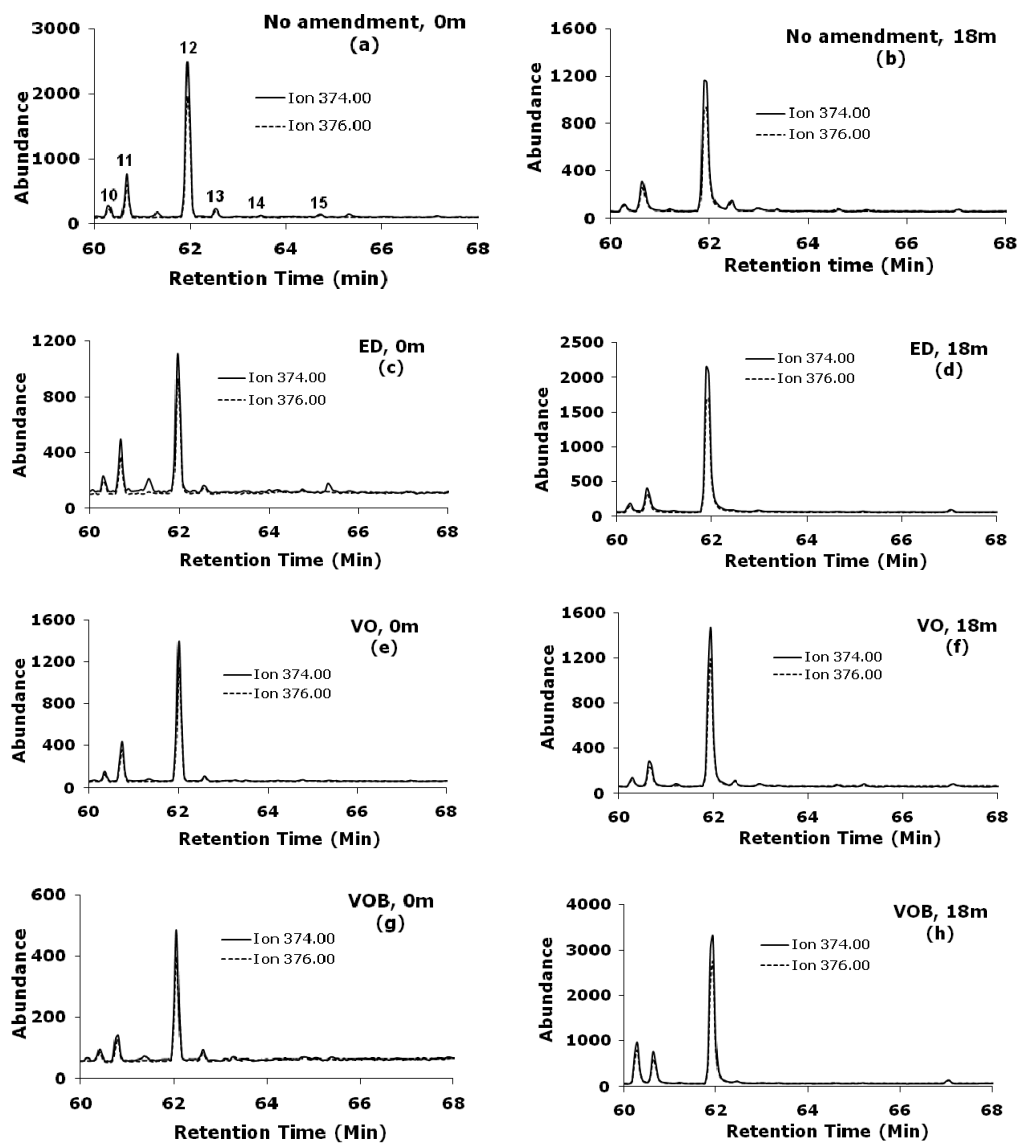


Figure 3-2. Selected ion chromatograms of hexa-CDFs (374, 376) in Kymijoki sediment microcosm with no addition control after 0 month (a) and 18 months (b), amended with electron donors (ED) after 0 month (c) and 18 months (d), amended with vegetable oil (VO) after 0 month (e) and 18 months (f), amended with vegetable oil and bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 (VOB) after 0 month (g) and 18 months (h). Data from one representative triplicate microcosm is shown for each condition.

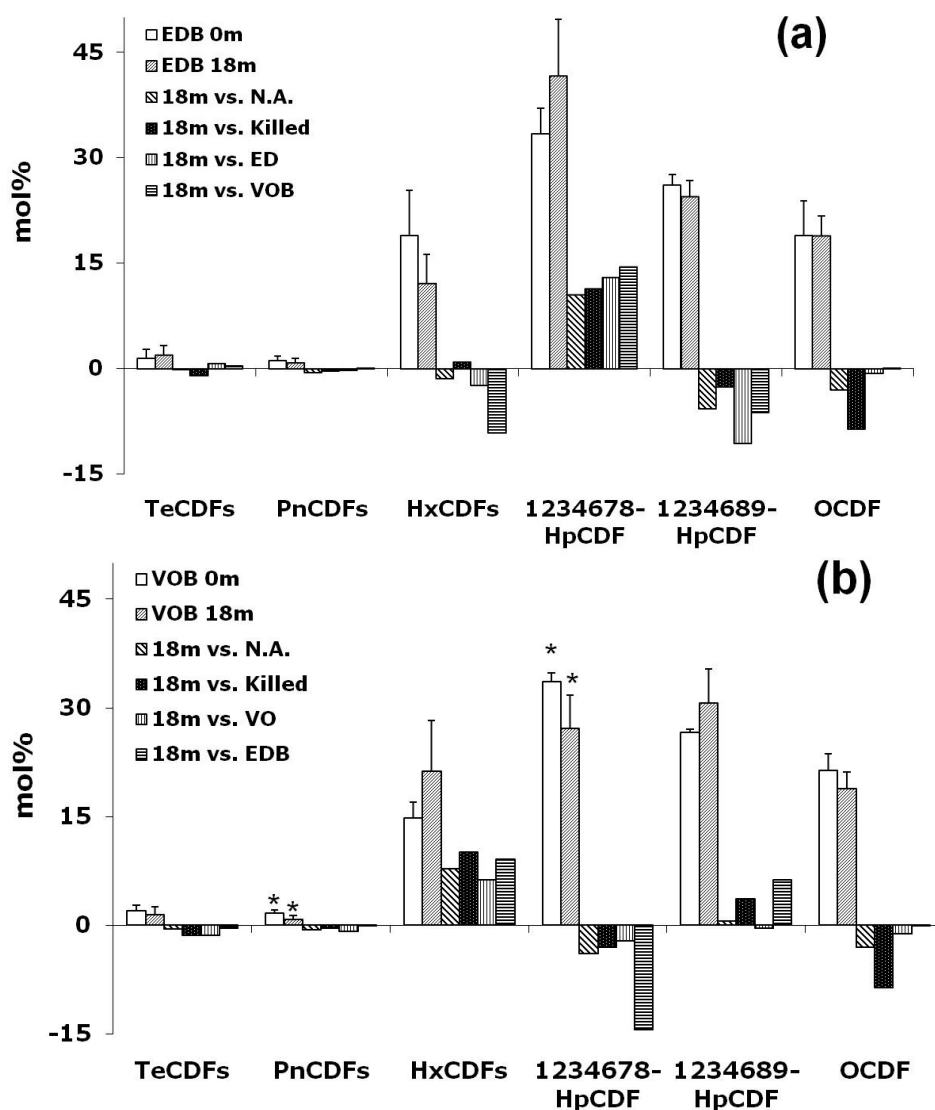


Figure 3-3. Molar percentages of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, hexa-CDFs, penta-CDFs, and tetra-CDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosm amended with electron donors and bioaugmentation (EDB) (a), vegetable oil and bioaugmentation (VOB) (b) at time 0, after 18 months, and their corresponding mol% difference vs. no addition control (N.A.), killed control, sediment microcosms amended with electron donors (ED), vegetable oil only (VO) after 18 months. * Indicated congeners with mol% after 18 months statistically significant different from that of time 0 by student t-test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

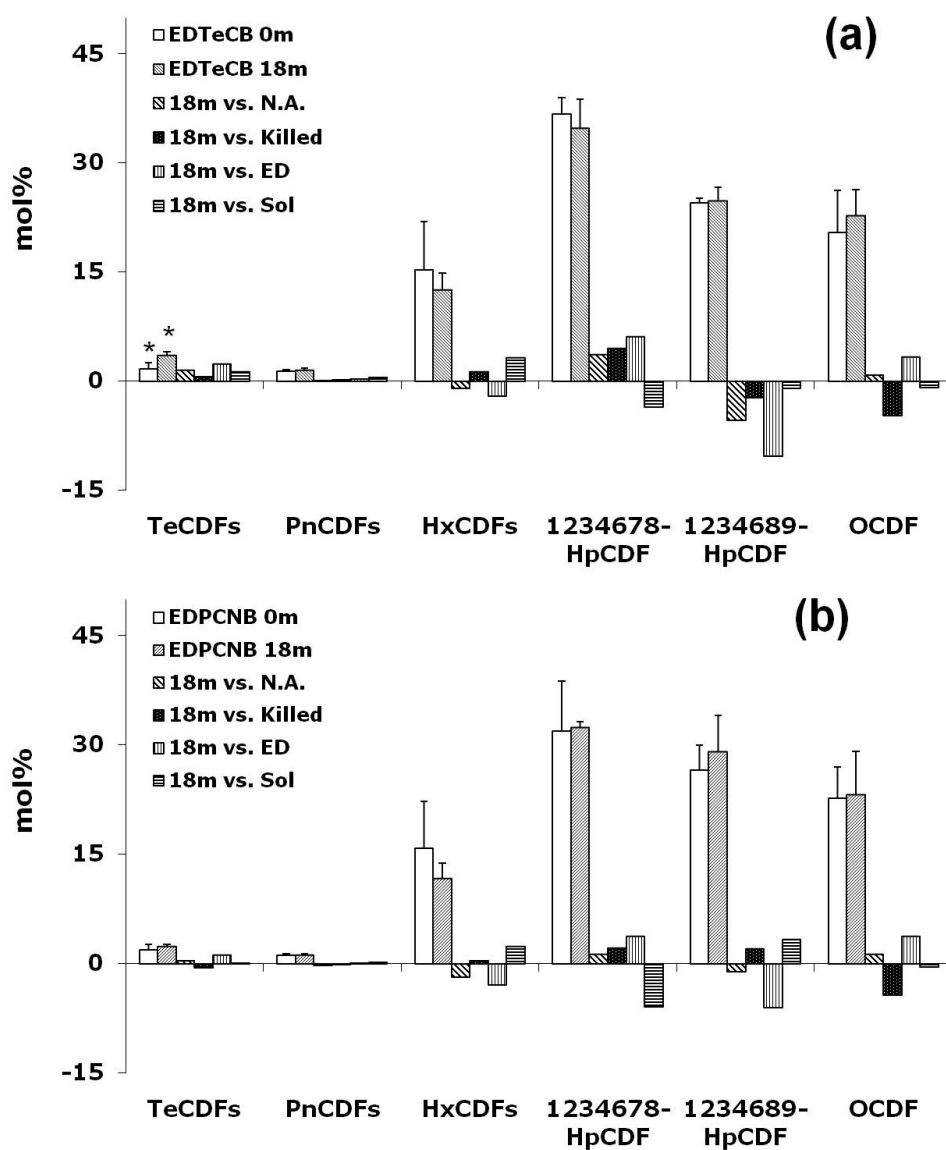


Figure 3-4. Molar percentages of octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF, hexa-CDFs, penta-CDFs, and tetra-CDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosm amended with electron donors plus TeCB (EDTeCB) (a), electron donors plus PCNB (EDPCNB) (b), at time 0, after 18 months, and their corresponding mol% difference vs. no addition control (N.A.), killed control, sediment microcosms amended with electron donors (ED) and solvent (Sol) after 18 months. * Indicated congeners with mol% after 18 months statistically significant different from that of time 0 by student t-test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

Chapter 4

Microbial Reductive Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-Tetrachlorinated Dibenzo-*p*-dioxin and Dibenzofuran and Octachlorinated Dibenzofuran

Abstract

Anaerobic enrichment cultures derived from historically contaminated Kymijoki River sediment (Finland) were able to dechlorinate 1,2,3,4-tetrachloro-dibenzo-*p*-dioxin (1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD), 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorodibenzofuran (1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF) and octachlorodibenzofuran (octa-CDF). The rate and extent of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD dechlorination was enhanced by the addition of pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) as a cosubstrate. 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was dechlorinated via 1,2,3-tri-CDD and 1,2,4-tri-CDD as short-life intermediates mainly to 2,3-di-CDD and 2-mono-CDD over a 13-month incubation period. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF was slower than that of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, with 2,4-di-CDF as the most abundant dechlorination product after 13 months. PCNB enhanced *peri* dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, while it had no effect on lateral dechlorination during 13 months incubation. Dechlorination of spiked octa-CDF was observed with the production of hepta-, hexa-, penta- and tetra-chlorinated dibenzofurans (CDFs) over 5.5 months incubation. Analysis of *Chloroflexi* specific 16S rRNA genes from the tetra-CDD- and tetra-CDF-dechlorinating enrichment cultures by denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) showed two major bands that were enhanced over the incubation period. Phylogenetic analysis indicated that one population (band) identical to the Pinellas subgroup of *Dehalococcoides* was enhanced. Analysis of 12 *rdh* genes in the community showed an increase in *rdh* gene abundance with 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F+PCNB amendment compared to controls amended with electron donors only. These findings provided additional knowledge on the fate and interaction of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F, octa-CDF, PCNB and PCA in the sediment system and their impact on the indigenous microbial community.

Introduction

Sediments are important environmental sinks for polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) once they are emitted from combustion sources or discharged from various industrial processes. Microbial reductive dechlorination under anaerobic conditions, typical of aquatic sediments, is the most important biological process that may transform PCDD/F and potentially decrease their toxicity through the removal of lateral chlorines (Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Vargas et al., 2001; Gruden et al., 2003; Häggblom et al., 2003; Fennell et al., 2004; Ahn 2005, 2007; Yoshida et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2008). Consequently, less-chlorinated congeners are usually more susceptible to subsequent aerobic degradation (Wittich, 1998). However, the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs is notoriously slow, which may be attributed to their very limited bioavailability in the environment and to their overall chemical stability. Different dechlorination rates in presence of different amendments have been observed in various enrichment and microcosms inoculated with sediments from a number of sites. Previous studies have demonstrated that the addition of alternate halogenated co-substrates enhanced the reductive dechlorination of PCDD/Fs. (Beurskens et al., 1995; Albrecht et al., 1999; Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005; 2007; 2008). This suggested that the diversity of PCDD/F dechlorinating microorganisms could be stimulated or selected by certain compounds (Ahn et al., 2005, 2007).

Different dechlorination routes of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD via both *peri*- and lateral- removal of chlorine have been observed for various sediment enrichments from different sites (Beurskens et al., 1995; Ballerstedt et al., 1997; Vargas et al., 2001; Bunge et al., 2001).

These different dechlorination pathways might be the result of the diverse microbial community and / or diverse metabolic activities in response to the stresses of specific environmental contaminants or adaptation of individual enrichment conditions by priming co-substrates (Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2008). Only two known isolates: *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain CBDB1 and *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195, have been reported for their capability to dechlorinate CDD/Fs (Bunge et al., 2003; Fennell et al., 2004; Liu & Fennell, 2008; Liu et al., 2010). Both of these strains as well as other *Dehalococcoides* spp., contain multiple genes predicted to encode enzymes mediating putative reductive dehalogenation (*rdh* genes) (Hölscher et al., 2004; Seshadri et al., 2005). Therefore *rdh* genes can be good tools to assess microbial molecular changes in response to dechlorination activities. The detection of *Dehalococcoides*-like species in CDD/F-dechlorinating enrichment cultures (Ballerstedt et al., 2004; Yoshida et al., 2005; Ahn et al., 2007) or PCB-dechlorinating enrichment cultures (Yan et al., 2006; Bedard et al., 2007; Fagervold et al., 2007; Krumins et al. 2009) suggests their importance in the environmental biotransformation of these compounds. However, the fate of priming compounds involved in the dechlorination reactions is not well monitored. The cause-effect relationship between the influence of priming compounds on the microbial community structure and dechlorination activity endpoints is not fully understood yet. The impact of priming compounds on the kinetics of dechlorination reactions is not known.

In addition to a number of selected CDD congeners, dechlorination reactions of PCDFs have only been shown for 1,2,3,4-TCDF (Ahn et al., 2005), 1,2,4,6,8-penta-CDF, and

1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (Adriaens and Grbic-Galic 1994, 1995) with unknown dechlorination routes or unspecified products. octa-CDF, 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDFs are the most abundant congeners in contaminated Kymijoki sediment. Therefore, knowledge about possible dechlorination reactions for these congeners is important to assess the potential for sediment remediation.

The objectives of the research reported here were to assess (a) the dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F and octa-CDF by dechlorinating enrichment cultures derived from historically contaminated Kymijoki sediment; (b) the priming effect of PCNB on the dechlorination; (c) the fate of PCNB as a priming compound for dechlorination; and (d) the microbial community response to different treatments.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals. Mono-, di-, tri-, tetra- chlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxin congeners are abbreviated as mono-CDD, di-CDD, tri-CDD, and tetra-CDD, respectively. Mono-, di-, tri-, tetra-, penta-, hexa-, hepta- and octa-chlorinated dibenzofuran congeners are abbreviated as mono-CDF, di-CDF, tri-CDF, tetra-CDF, penta-CDF, hexa-CDF, hepta-CDF and octa-CDF, respectively. PCDFs denote penta- to octa-chlorinated congeners, whereas 1-4CDD/Fs stands for all congeners of mono-CDD/Fs, di-CDD/Fs, tri-CDD/Fs and tetra-CDD/Fs. Specially, TCDD stands for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, TCDF stands for 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF in this paper. Mono-, di-, tri-, tetra- and penta-chlorinated anilines (CA) are abbreviated as MoCA, DiCA, TrCA, TeCA and PCA, which were all denoted by 1-5CAs. TCDD, 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDDs, 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs, 2- and 4-mono-

CDDs, TCDF, 1,2,3-tri-CDF, 2,4-di-CDF, octa-CDF, 2,2',5-PCB and PCNB were purchased from AccuStandard Inc. (New Haven, CT). Standards of expected PCNB dechlorination products, including penta-chloroaniline (PCA), 2,3,4,5- and 2,3,5,6-TeCA, 2,3,4-, 2,4,5- and 2,4,6-TrCA, 2,4/2,5-DiCA, 4- and 2-MoCA, were purchased from UltraScientific (North Kingstown, RI).

Enrichment Culture Setup. The enrichment cultures were developed from contaminated sediment obtained from downstream of Myllykoski in Kymijoki River, Finland, which was heavily contaminated with chlorinated phenols from 1940's to 1980's from the manufacture of chlorophenolic fungicide Ky-5 in the city of Kuusankoski (Malve et al., 2003). Large amounts of PCDD/Fs were discharged into the river sediment as impurities of Ky-5 during this period. The most abundant polychlorinated dibenzofuran (PCDF) congeners are 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDFs and octa-CDF. Sediments were initially incubated in 30-L drums at room temperature for 7 years (see Chapter 2) and subsamples used for enrichment cultures were packed into glass jars, sealed, and stored at 4 °C until used. Methanogenic enrichment cultures were established as described previously (Vargas et al., 2001; Ahn et al., 2005). Briefly, 1 g of dry sterile sediment was added to each culture flask and spiked with a stock solution of TCDD/F and/or PCNB in toluene. Toluene was allowed to evaporate under a sterile N₂ purge, leaving a coating of TCDD, TCDF and/or PCNB on the dry sediment. Enrichment cultures were prepared by dispensing 40 ml volume of well-mixed 20% (v/v) sediment slurry to each TCDD/F and PCNB-spiked 50 ml serum bottle under 70%/30% N₂/CO₂. The anaerobic medium used for enrichment cultures was prepared as described previously (Fennell et al., 2004).

Cultures were capped with poly (tetrafluoroethene) (PTFE)-coated butyl rubber septa and crimped with aluminum caps. The resulting nominal concentrations of TCDD/F and PCNB (assuming no partitioning and uniform distribution throughout the enrichment culture volume) was 50 μM . Sodium lactate, sodium acetate and sodium propionate were added as electron donors to the designated treatments with a final concentration of 500 μM each. Killed controls were prepared by autoclaving at 121 °C for 30 min on 3 consecutive days. Enrichment cultures were incubated quiescently at room temperature. Enrichment cultures were sampled over a 13 month period for both chemical analysis and microbial community analysis.

Parallel methanogenic enrichment cultures were prepared in the same way as described above to study octa-CDF dechlorination in the presence of PCA and TCDD or TCDF. Sodium lactate, sodium acetate and sodium propionate were added as electron donors to the designated treatments to a final concentration of 500 μM each, and re-spiked every 3 months. The resulting nominal concentrations of octa-CDF, PCA and TCDD/F (assuming no partitioning and uniform distribution throughout the microcosm volume) were 20 μM , 20 μM , 10 μM , and 10 μM , respectively. Killed controls were prepared by autoclaving at 121 °C for 30 min on 3 consecutive days. Enrichment cultures were incubated quiescently at room temperature. Enrichment cultures were sampled after 0, 3 and 5.5 months for chemical analysis.

Analytical Methods. For sampling, the cultures were shaken thoroughly and 2 ml of slurry were withdrawn with a sterile syringe flushed with oxygen-free N_2 . Sediment samples were extracted with toluene and acetone (1:1, v/v) for TCDD/F, PCNB, PCA and

PCDFs analysis. The CDD/Fs analysis was performed as described by Vargas et al. (2001). Briefly, samples were separated into aqueous and solid phases by centrifugation. Water was removed from the solid phase by an acetone rinse. 2,2',5-trichlorobiphenyl (2,2',5-PCB) was spiked to the solid phase as an internal standard (1 mg in total) and then the solid phase was extracted with toluene and acetone (1:1, v/v) overnight for 3 times. The toluene-acetone extracts were pooled. Acetone was removed by reverse partition into water, and the toluene extract was gently concentrated under a stream of N₂. Samples were analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry using an Agilent 6890 series gas chromatograph equipped with a 5973 series Mass Selective Detector (MSD) and a DB-5MS fused silica column (30 m, 0.25 mm i.d., film thickness 0.2 µm, J&W Scientific, Folsom, CA). The temperature program for 1-4CDD/Fs was as follows: 70°C initial temperature, increased by 20°C/min to 230°C, 10°C/min to 250 °C, and finally 15°C/min to 300°C. The temperature program for PCNB and the daughter products was as follows: 60°C initial temperature, increased by 12 °C/min to 180 °C, and then by 15°C/min to 250 °C. The temperature program for PCDFs was: 60°C, increased by 10°C/min to 170°C, 2°C/min to 200°C, 5°C/min to 220°C, and hold 220 °C for 16 minutes, and increased by 5°C/min to 235°C, hold 235 °C for 7 minutes, and increased by 5°C/min to 250°C, and finally 1°C/min to 280°C, and a 5 min 300 °C hold.

Spiked TCDD/F, octa-CDF, PCNB, PCA and their dechlorination products, as well as the historic PCDFs were detected and identified based on the retention times of standards and their most abundant molecular ions, qualifying ions were monitored to assure the correct identification (m/z: 256, 258, 22'5-PCB; 442, 444, octa-CDF; 408, 410, hepta-

CDF; 374, 376, hexa-CDF; 340, 342, penta-CDF; 322, 320, tetra-CDD; 306, 304, tetra-CDF; 286, 288, tri-CDD; 270, 272, tri-CDF; 252, 254, di-CDD; 236, 238, di-CDF; 218, 220, mono-CDD; 202, 204, mono-CDF; 297, 295, PCNB; 267, 265, PCA; 231, 229, TeCA; 195, 197, TrCA; 161, 163, DiCA; 127, 129, MoCA). Tetra-CDF and octa-CDF dechlorination products were identified by the number and position of chlorine substituents for commercially available and by the number of chlorines substituents only for unavailable congeners. Of the PCNB/PCA dechlorination products, 24- and 25-DiCA co-eluted and could not be separated by GC-MS analysis.

Quantification of 1-4CDD/F, PCDFs, PCNB and 1-5CAs was performed against comparison to a 5-point curve (concentration range). For unknown historical PCDFs as well as unknown TCDF dechlorination daughter products, quantification was based on the response factors of available octa-, hepta-, hexa-, penta-, tetra-, tri-, di-, and mono-CDFs. The results for 1-4CDD/Fs, PCDF, PCNB and 1-5CAs are presented by expressing each compound as a mole percent (mol%) of the total concentration of the congeners detected at each sampling point. Data are presented as the average of triplicate data points \pm standard deviation (SD). The total amount of TCDD/F and PCDFs recovered from each sample varied because of slight differences of aqueous-phase/sediment-phase volumes sampled at each time point and because of differences in the solubility of dechlorination products. The extraction efficiency for TCDD, TCDF and octa-CDF spiked to sediment slurries by the method used here was approximately 80 ~ 90 % and the detection limit was approximately 10 ppt (~ 0.03 nM) for TCDD/F and 2 ppt (~ 4.5 nM) for octa-CDF. The method of data presentation assumes that no anaerobic

degradation of dibenzo-*p*-dioxin, dibenzofuran and benzene structure occurred and that the CDD/Fs and PCA underwent no significant reactions other than dechlorination.

PCR-DGGE Analysis. Bulk DNA was extracted by using the PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (MO BIO, Solana Beach, CA) following the standard protocol. Nested PCR amplification was performed to analyze the *Chloroflexi* community. The first PCR product was amplified by forward primer 338F and reverse primer Dchl1101R; and the 2nd PCR were amplified with 341F plus a GC clamp on the 5' terminus and reverse primer 534R as Chapter 2 (Krumins et al., 2009; Park et al., 2010). PCR reagents were purchased from GenScript (Piscataway, NJ). The PCR reaction contained 2 µl of DNA extraction as template and 5 µl of 10X reaction buffer, 100 µM of dNTP, 0.01U of Taq DNA polymerase, 0.2 µM of forward primer and 0.2 µM of reverse primer in each 50 µl PCR reaction mixture. PCR was performed by preheating the mixture at 94 °C for 5 minutes, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 20 seconds, annealing at 55 °C for 45 seconds, and extension at 72 °C for 45 seconds, and the final extension step at 72 °C for 7 min. DGGE was performed according to the standard protocol (Muyzer et al., 1993) using the Bio-Rad Dcode system (Bio-Rad laboratories, Hercules, CA). The denaturing gradient gel was prepared to contain 0.5 X TAE buffer (20 mM Tris, 10 mM acetate, 0.5 mM Na₂-EDTA, pH 8.0), 6% acrylamide-bis-acrylamide, and 50 to 70% denaturant (100% denaturant contains 7 M urea and 40% formamide). Electrophoresis was performed at 40 V for 17 hours in 1 X TAE buffer at 60°C. PCR products separated on the gel were stained with EtBr for 20 min and then photographed under illumination by UV light. Major DGGE bands were cut from the gel, eluted in PCR water overnight

and PCR re-amplified with the 2nd set of primers (341F-gc/534R) under the same conditions as described above until confirmed for band purity.

Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis. Confirmed single bands from DGGE gels were amplified again with 341F and 534R under the same PCR conditions as above. The PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis, purified and pre-added 341F primer before sending to GeneWiz for sequencing analysis (GeneWiz, South Plainfield, NJ). Sequence similarity searches and alignments were performed using BLAST (Altschul et al., 2007). Phylogenetic and molecular evolutionary analyses were conducted using MEGA version 4 (Tamura et al., 2007).

PCR and intensity analysis of reductive dehalogenase genes

Twelve sets of reductive dehalogenase gene were amplified and quantified based on Park et al. (2010). Briefly, the temperature profile for all 12 sets was 94 °C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 20 s, 52 °C for 60 s, and 72 °C for 60 s. A final extension step was carried out for 7 min at 72 °C, after which the DNA was stored at 4 °C. PCR products were loaded in one 1.5% agarose gel with same well size for electrophoresis and a resulting gel image was used to measure relative band intensities by using the ImageJ quantification software (ver. 1.33u, National Institutes of Health, USA), according to the manufacturer's protocol (<http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>).

Results

Dechlorination of TCDF and TCDD. Dechlorination of TCDF started after 9 months, with the detection of three tri-CDFs, including 1,2,3-tri-CDF, and three Di-CDFs, including 2,4-di-CDF as dechlorination products (Fig. 4-1a). 4-mono-CDF was detected by the end of 11 months. After 13 months, approximately 50 mol% of TCDF remained, with 4-mono-CDF accounting for approximately 12 mol% among all the CDFs. In the TCDD enrichment cultures without PCNB, dechlorination of TCDD started after 8 months (Fig. 4-1b) with the detection of 1,2,3-tri-CDD and 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs. Approximately 98 mol% TCDD remained in the culture at this time point. 2,3-di-CDD reached its peak amount of 14 ± 5.5 mol% after 11 months, followed by depletion to 4.5 ± 0.6 mol% by the end of 13 months. 2-mono-CDD was observed after 9 months, and became the dominant daughter congener later on in the culture, at approximately 58 mol% among all the CDD congeners in the culture after 13 months. By the end of 13 months, the remaining TCDD in the culture was approximately 34 mol%. In the TCDD enrichment cultures amended with PCNB, dechlorination of TCDD started after 5 months (Fig. 4-1c). 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs (14 mol% in total) and 2-mono-CDD (15 mol%) were detected after 7 months, with approximately 68 mol% of TCDD remaining in the culture at this time. 2,3-di-CDD reached its peak amount of 56 ± 8.6 mol% after 8 months, followed by depletion to 11 ± 2.8 mol% by the end of 13 months. By the end of 13 months, the remaining TCDD was only 9 mol%, and 2-mono-CDD was more than 77 mol% in the culture. No dechlorination of TCDD was observed in killed controls over 13-month incubation in the presence of PCNB (data not shown).

Dechlorination of PCNB. PCNB was transformed to pentachloroaniline (PCA) in the first month (Fig. 4-2a). PCA was dechlorinated to 2,3,5,6- and 2,3,4,5-TeCAs after 2 months, which were further dechlorinated to 2,4,5- and 2,4,6-TrCAs by around 5 months incubation. Accumulation of 2,4,6-TrCA was observed over time, and exceeded more than 60 mol% in the system after 11 months. Co-eluting 2,4- and 2,5-DiCAs were detected in the culture after 7 months and increased to around 18 mol% by the end of 11 months. 4-MoCA was constantly detected since 7th month. Over 90 mol% of PCA was dechlorinated by the end of 11 months, with 2,4,6-TrCA accumulating to more than 60 mol%. PCNB was also transformed to pentachloroaniline (PCA) in killed controls after 1 month with slight amount of (around 2 mol%) 2,3,4,5-TeCA, 2,4,6-TrCA and 4-MoCA being detected occasionally in killed control over 11 months (data not shown).

Dechlorination of octa-CDF. In the octa-CDF amended enrichment cultures, two additional hepta-CDFs (peaks 1 & 2) were detected at time 0 as impurities of octa-CDF, in addition to the historical 1,2,3,4,6,8,9- and 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDFs, which were the only peaks that were detected in background controls over time (Fig. 4-3). Two new hexa-CDFs (peaks 3 & 4) were detected after 3 months and increased after 5.5 months in treatments amended with PCNB and TCDD or tetra-CDF (Fig. 4-4). Three new penta-CDFs (peaks 5, 6, & 7) were detected after 5.5 months in both treatments (Fig. 4-5). One new tetra-CDF (peak 8) was first detected after 3 months and increased by 5.5 months, and another new tetra-CDF (peak 9) was first detected after 5.5 months (Fig. 4-6) in treatments amended with PCNB and TCDD. Dechlorination of spiked octa-CDF thus resulted in accumulation of one unknown hepta-CDF, two new unknown hexa-CDFs,

three new unknown penta-CDFs, and two new unknown tetra-CDFs. No such new peaks were detected in killed or background controls over time. Comparing average mol% of each PCDF congeners in both treatments vs. killed control after 0, 3 and 5.5 months showed that the average mol% of the new CDF peaks kept increasing, including 1 hepta-CDF (peak 2), 2 new hexa-CDFs (peaks 3 & 4), 3 penta-CDFs (peaks 5, 6, & 7), and 2 new tetra-CDFs (peaks 8 & 9) (Fig. 4-7). Spiked TCDD/F and PCA all quickly underwent dechlorinations to produce different daughter products as shown above.

Response of *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediment enrichment cultures to dechlorination of TCDD/F and PCNB. DGGE analysis of *Chloroflexi* specific 16S rRNA genes in the enrichment cultures revealed different band patterns that were closely related to the dechlorination activities observed in each treatment over time (Fig. 4-8). The band patterns of the microbial community in all enrichment cultures after 5 months were similar to controls amended with only electron donors after 11 months. This observation was in correspondence to the lack of dechlorination of TCDD/F by 5 months, but just the beginning of PCNB dechlorination. The microbial community greatly shifted after the onset of dechlorination, with 2 major groups of bands enhanced to different extent corresponding to different dechlorination activities in enrichment cultures amended with electron donors and TCDD/F. In enrichment cultures amended with electron donors and TCDD as well as PCNB, only bands in upper position were enhanced after 7 and 11 months. Phylogenetic analysis of the 11 purified DGGE bands showed that DGGE bands in upper position including (ED+TCDD)-1, -3, (ED+TCDD+PCNB)-1, -2 and (ED+TCDF)-2 were 100% identical to the sequence of *Dehalococcoides* sp. strain

CBDB1; and DGGE bands in group II including (ED+TCDD)-2, (ED+TCDF)-1 and -3 are closely related to a group of *Chloroflexi* clones that have been only enhanced with 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F amendment (Fig. 4-9). *Chloroflexi* clone D15 27 (EU266866) was toluene degrader found in the redox zone of a tar oil contaminant plume (Winderl et al., 2008). *Chloroflexi* HalAS B2 (AM998347) was found in anoxic sediment of Marmara Sea (unpublished data); *Chloroflexi* GA46 (EF613767) was found in paddy soil (Kim et al., 2008).

***rdh* gene analysis in the microcosm community.** 12 *rdh* genes were analyzed for samples after 7 months in all treatments and controls (Fig. 4-10). The abundance of all 12 *rdh* genes were increased in the presence of TCDD, TCDF and PCNB compared to electron donor only control. For *rdh09*, adding PCNB exclusively stimulated its abundance as compared to treatment adding TCDD or TCDF only or electron donors only. It should be noted that the relative abundance of different *rdh* genes are not directly comparable since the primers for each gene has different reaction efficiency.

Discussion

This study investigated the process of microbial reductive dechlorination of TCDD, TCDF and octa-CDF and the stimulating effect of PCNB in enrichment cultures derived from historically contaminated Kymijoki sediment. Three main aspects can be concluded from the results. First, TCDF is more resistant to microbial reductive dechlorination than TCDD (Fig. 4-1a & b). Second, dechlorination of octa-CDF produced new peaks corresponding to one hepta-CDF, two hexa-CDFs, three penta-CDFs and two tetra-CDFs

(Figs. 4-3 to 4-7). Third, PCNB enhanced the dechlorination rate and extent of TCDD. More resistant dechlorination of TCDF than that of TCDD was indicated by the later onset of dechlorination and lesser extent of dechlorination by the end of 13 months (remaining TCDF of 51 vs. remaining TCDD of 34 mol%) (Fig. 4-1a & b). The maximum rate of TCDD decrease ($0.27 \pm 0.08 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$) was 1.7 times higher than that of TCDF ($0.16 \pm 0.08 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$) in Kymijoki enrichment cultures (Table 4-1). Consequently, the estimated half-life of TCDF and TCDD were approximately 15 vs. 11 months, respectively, under same conditions (Table 4-1). A slower dechlorination rate of TCDF compared to TCDD was also observed for a mixed culture containing *D. ethenogenes* 195 (Fennell et al., 2004). Similar observations were also made for the more limited extent of dechlorination of spiked PCDFs than that of PCDDs using freshwater sediments (Adriaens et al., 1995). The stimulating effect of PCNB on the dechlorination of TCDD was exhibited in a shorter lag phase of TCDD dechlorination (5 months vs. 8 months) and greater extent of dechlorination (remaining TCDD of 10 mol% with PCNB vs. 34 mol% without PCNB) (Fig. 4-1b & c and Table 4-1). The maximum rate of TCDD decrease with PCNB ($0.85 \pm 0.18 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$) was 3.2 times higher than that of TCDD without PCNB ($0.27 \pm 0.08 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$) (Table 4-1). Consequently, the estimated half-life of TCDD was 11 months vs. 7 months with the addition of PCNB (Table 4-1). In addition to PCNB, also TeCB has been shown to function as priming co-substrate stimulating the dechlorination of TCDD (Ahn et al., 2005, 2008). The maximum rate constant of TCDD decrease in the presence of TeCB was $0.18 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$ ($R^2=0.9425$) before the second re-amendment and $0.24 \text{ mol\%} \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$ ($R^2=0.9987$) after the second re-amendment for methanogenic consortium using Paleta

Creek sediment (San Diego Bay, CA, USA) (Ahn et al., 2005). However, the exact stimulating effects on the dechlorination kinetics were not determined. Compared to the rate constants in our experiment, they were approximately 4 folds less than that of adding PCNB ($0.85 \text{ mol}\% \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$). However, since there was no lag phase for the dechlorination of TCDD, the half-life time of TCDD was $5.8 \sim 4.3$ months in their study (Ahn et al., 2005).

The priming compound PCNB was reductively dechlorinated by indigenous microorganisms in the enrichment cultures. PCNB was transformed to PCA, which was sequentially dechlorinated to 2,3,4,6- and 2,3,4,5-TeCA to 2,4,5-, 2,4,6-TrCAs to 2,4/2,5-DiCAs to 2- and 4-MoCA after 5 months and 2,4,6-TrCA was the dominant dechlorination product after 11 months ($64 \pm 2.6 \text{ mol}\%$) (Fig. 4-2a). Dechlorination of PCA occurred prior to that of TCDD (Fig. 4-1c vs. Fig. 4-2a). A slightly different reductive dechlorination route of PCA has been observed in a first generation mixed methanogenic culture developed from contaminated estuarine sediment (Tas and Pavlostathis 2005). Instead of 2,3,4,6-TeCA and 2,4,5-TrCA as shown here, they observed 2,3,5,6-TeCA and 2,3,5-TrCA in addition to 2,3,4,5-TeCA and 2,4,6-TrCA. 3- and 4-MoCA were the end dechlorination products (Tas and Pavlostathis 2005) compared to 2- and 4-MoCAs in the current study. These differences suggest that the responsible dechlorinating microorganisms for PCNB reductive transformation are different.

According to the identified dechlorination products of TCDD over time, we propose a dominant *peri*-lateral dechlorination route of TCDD via 1,2,3-tri-CDD to 2,3-di-CDD

and 2-mono-CDD in the Kymijoki enrichment cultures stimulated by PCNB (Fig. 4-11). *Peri*-chlorines at position 1 and 4 were more readily removed than lateral chlorines at position 2 and 3. 1,2,3-TriCDD was produced as a short-life intermediate (Fig. 4-1c). 2,3-Di-CDD reached its peak value of 56 ± 9 mol% among all congeners when *peri* dechlorination of TCDD reached its reaction plateau. This was implied by the stable mol% of TCDD after 8 months in the system (Fig. 4-1c). Depletion of 2,3-di-CDD started simultaneously as a result of subsided *peri* dechlorination but still active lateral dechlorination. 2-Mono-CDD accumulated in the enrichments, indicating that lateral dechlorination of 2,3-di-CDD was occurring as soon as 2,3-di-CDD was produced in the enrichment culture. The accumulation 2,3-di-CDD before 8 months was due to the slower reaction rate of lateral dechlorination (2 or 3) than that of *peri* dechlorination (1 and 4). Consequently, the reaction occurred to the lateral chlorine is the rate-limiting step for complete dechlorination of TCDD. However, unlike the equal dechlorination chance of *peri* chlorines at position 1 and 4, lateral chlorines at position 2 and 3 may not have equal opportunity for dechlorination since only 2-mono-CDD was detected as the final dechlorination product but no non-chlorinated DD. (4) 1,2,4-tri-CDD and 1,3-di-CDD were detected in minor amounts in the enrichment culture (Fig. 4-1c). In summary, *peri* dechlorination was reacting more easily than lateral dechlorination for TCDD in Kymijoki enrichment culture. It should be noted that both *peri* and lateral dechlorination reached their reaction plateaus when TCDD and 2,3-di-CDD were about 10 mol% among all congeners in the system (Fig. 4-1c), which might be the reaction thresholds for dechlorination at *peri* and lateral positions. The different removal rate of *peri* and lateral

chlorines of TCDD may be due to different microorganisms or different reductive dehalogenase genes (*rdh*) catalyzing these reactions.

The dechlorination pathway of TCDD in Kymijoki enrichment cultures was similar with or without PCNB, including initial accumulation and later depletion of 2,3-di-CDD as well as 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDDs being short-life intermediates in the system (Fig. 4-1b). The near identical accumulation rates of 2-mono-CDD with and without PCNB were 11.9 ± 0.5 vs. 13.0 ± 0.4 mol%•month⁻¹. From this it can be postulated that PCNB enhanced *peri* dechlorination of TCDD to 1,2,3-tri-CDD then to 2,3-di-CDD, but did not affect the rate of lateral dechlorination of 2,3-di-CDD to produce 2-mono-CDD. Since most congeners of tri-, di-CDFs are not commercially available; no dechlorination pathway for TCDF could be defined. However, similar dechlorination products of TCDF were also reported for microcosms using Paleta Creek sediment (San Diego, CA, USA) (Ahn et al., 2005).

Dechlorination of spiked TCDD via both 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-tri-CDD to a mixture of 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDD was also observed in a sediment-free culture enriched with hexachlorobenzene (HCB) from Lake Ketelmeer sediment (Beurskens et al., 1995) as well as different primary enrichment cultures from the highly PCDD/F-contaminated sediment of River Spittelwasser (Bunge et al., 2001). Similar dechlorination pathways of 1,2,4-tri-CDD to 1,3-di-CDD to 2-mono-CDD and 1,2,3-tri-CDD to 1,3- and 2,3-di-CDDs to 2-mono-CDD were reported for enrichments of different sites (River Rhine, Spittelwasser and Saale) (Ballerstedt et al., 2004; Toussaint et al., 1998). These two

dechlorination pathways suggest the existence of different dechlorinating microbial populations that catalyze chlorine removal from distinct positions. This diversity may also be due to the diversity of reductive dehalogenase genes (*rdh*) that can be induced to different extent in the environment.

After understanding the stimulation effect of PCNB on *peri*-dechlorinations, according to the increasing and decreasing peaks of PCDFs, there are several postulations can be made in terms of octa-CDF dechlorination pathway despite the commercial unavailability of some PCDF standards. Firstly, the dominant dechlorination product of octa-CDF should be 1,2,3,4,7,8,9-hepta-CDF (peak 2) considering PCNB's stimulation on *peri* dechlorination, and the known 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- and 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF. Peak 1 is postulated to be 1,2,3,4,6,7,9-hepta-CDF. Secondly, if we assume the occurring two hexa-CDFs resulted from 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF dechlorination (as shown by its decreasing average mol% during 5.5 months incubation) in treatments amended with TCDD, PCNB and octa-CDF (Fig. 4-7), considering the already known peaks of hexa-CDFs in the sediment, the occurring two hexa-CDFs (peaks 3 and 4) would be 1,2,3,6,7,8-hexa-CDF and 1,2,3,4,7,8-hexa-CDF. This still needs to be confirmed with authentic standards. There was not enough information available currently to predict the congener structures of the new penta-CDFs and tetra-CDFs.

Different dechlorination rates on chlorines at different positions have been observed in other studies, as well. Accumulation and depletion of 2,3,6-trichlorobiphenyl as dechlorination intermediate of 2,3,5,6-tetrachlorobiphenyl (2,3,5,6-PCB) was observed

by Van Dort and Bedard (1991). Depletion of 2,3,6-trichlorobiphenyl (2,3,6-TrCBp) was accompanied by an increase of 2,6-dichlorobiphenyl (2,6-DiCBp). They proposed that two different dechlorinating populations were responsible for the observed dechlorination of 2,3,5,6-PCB. One population was capable of dechlorinating 2,3,5,6-PCB to 2,3,5-PCB, the other population was capable of dechlorinating 2,3,6-TrCBp to 2,6-DiCBp, but no activity on 2,3,5,6- or 2,3,5-CBp. The reductive dechlorination of TCDD by a methanogenic consortium enriched on bromophenols also displayed a similar pattern (Vargas et al., 2001). Depletion of 1,2,4-tri-CDD followed the initial accumulation due to the reductive dechlorination of TCDD, and then accompanied by a level-off phase of TCDD. 1,3-Di-CDD kept increasing after 1,2,4-tri-CDD reached the peak amount between 250-300 days.

Ahn et al. (2005) reported the greater stimulating effects of 1,2,3,4-TeCB, 2,3,4,5-tetrachloroanisole (TeCA) and 2',3',4'-trichloroacetophenone (TrCAP) on the dechlorination of TCDD using Paleta Creek sediment (San Diego Bay, CA, USA) in methanogenic media. In all cases, TCDD was dechlorinated to 1,2,4-tri-CDD, which was subsequently dechlorinated to 1,3-di-CDD and then 2-mono-CDD after 15 months. Ballerstedt et al. (1997) did not observe the dechlorination of carry-over TCDD in the second transfer when amended with 1,2,4- or 1,2,3-tri-CDDs. They explained this non-dechlorinated TCDD as the non-available fraction of TCDD in the sediment. Kim and Rhee (1997) reported that once dechlorination reached a plateau, the number of dechlorinators began to decrease, which implied that PCB concentrations may have to exceed a certain threshold to maintain the growth of PCB dechlorinators. Jayachandran et

al. (2003) reported different 1,2,3-trichlorobenzene (1,2,3-TrCB), pentachlorobenzene (PnCB), and hexachlorobenzene (HxCB) dechlorination rates for strain CBDB1 with cells pregrown on different chlorobenzene congeners as electron acceptors, suggesting that dehalogenases are induced by their respective substrates (electron acceptors).

Removal of a chlorine atom at lateral position of CDDs was reported as a preferential reaction based on the Gibbs free energy of formation (Huang et al., 1996) and by the semiempirical molecular orbital calculations (Wehrmeier et al., 1998). However in this study, *peri* chlorines at 1 or 4 positions were more amenable for hydrogen substitution. Similar regioselectivity of microbial reductive dechlorination was also reported by Barkovskii and Adriaens (Barkovskii and Adriaens, 1996). Later, a theoretical study by Fueno (2002) for octa-CDD showed very small activation energy difference between 1- and 2 chlorine (only 0.1 kcal/mol), and the authors concluded that the hydrogen dechlorination of octa-CDD will not lead to a dominant formation of the toxic congener with lateral chlorine atoms.

DGGE analysis of putative 16S rRNA genes of *Chloroflexi* in the enrichment cultures revealed a shift in microbial community pattern corresponding to active dechlorination of TCDD/F and PCNB over time compared to controls (Fig. 4-8). The enriched microbial population closely clustered with the Pinellas subgroup of *Chloroflexi*, which includes *Dehalococcoides* strain CBDB1, which actually has the same dechlorination route of TCDD as shown in this study. A second enriched microbial population closely clustered with another division of the *Chloroflexi*, which has also been found in anaerobic sludge

or sediment with aromatic contamination (Fig. 4-9). It remains to be determined whether these bacteria participate directly in the dechlorination process, or just played a role in co-substrate utilization. DGGE enables the monitoring of temporal changes in the microbial community structure of enrichment, and provides the information of the dominant microbial species. However, since only 93 bp fragment of the 16S rRNA gene was used here, it may lack the specificity required for phylogenetic identification of some organisms (Gilbride et al., 2006). Although the known *Dehalococcoides* isolates only contain one copy of the 16S rRNA gene (Seshadri et al., 2005; Kube et al., 2005), heterogeneous 16S rRNA gene may exist in potential uncultured dechlorinating microorganisms, which may produce multiple bands on gels (Nubel et al., 1997). Band intensity may not truly reflect the abundance of the microbial population, but merely more gene copy number. The activities of non-dechlorinating bacteria on degrading organic acids in the mixed consortia is most likely important for the overall dechlorinating process by providing potential electron donors, carbon sources and other nutrients.

Conclusions

In summary, microbial reductive dechlorination of TCDD/F was investigated using historically PCDF contaminated Kymijoki sediments in methanogenic enrichment cultures. PCNB amendment stimulated the rate and extent of TCDD dechlorination over time. TCDF was more resistant to microbial reductive dechlorination than TCDD. The dominant dechlorination pathway of TCDD in Kymijoki enrichment cultures was TCDD to 1,2,3-tri-CDD to 2,3-di-CDD to 2-mono-CDD. PCNB specifically stimulated *peri-*

dechlorination, while it had minimum effect on lateral dechlorination of TCDD in Kymijoki enrichment cultures. Analysis of *Chloroflexi* specific 16S rRNA genes from the enrichment culture by DGGE revealed a shift in the microbial community composition in response to dechlorination of TCDD/F and PCNB. Phylogenetic analysis of the purified DGGE bands showed that at least one population belonging to the Pinellas subgroup of *Dehalococcoides*, which contains strain CBDB1, is responsible for the observed dechlorination activities. Another population (band) observed only in the presence of TCDD/F is related to *Chloroflexi* clones that were found in anaerobic sludge or sediment with aromatic contamination (Winderl et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2008). These results indicated that PCNB is able to stimulate the growth of dechlorinators in the sediment or induce certain reductive dehalogenase genes (*rdhs*) that were active in the dechlorination of PCDD/Fs.

Parallel enrichment cultures amended with PCNB and octa-CDF with TCDD or TCDF demonstrated dechlorination of octa-CDF to hepta-CDFs and further to hexa-CDFs, penta-CDFs and tetra-CDFs. Although the exact dechlorination pathways are not clear, it still provides strong evidence of dechlorination of PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment. This work may assist future attempts to enrich and isolate PCDD/F-dechlorinating bacteria in mixed culture or at contaminated sites. Further characterization of the selective and synergistic activities of PCDD/F dechlorinating microorganisms with different dioxin mixtures is essential for generating models to predict the dechlorination potentials at specific dioxin- impacted sites and design effective *in situ* treatment strategies.

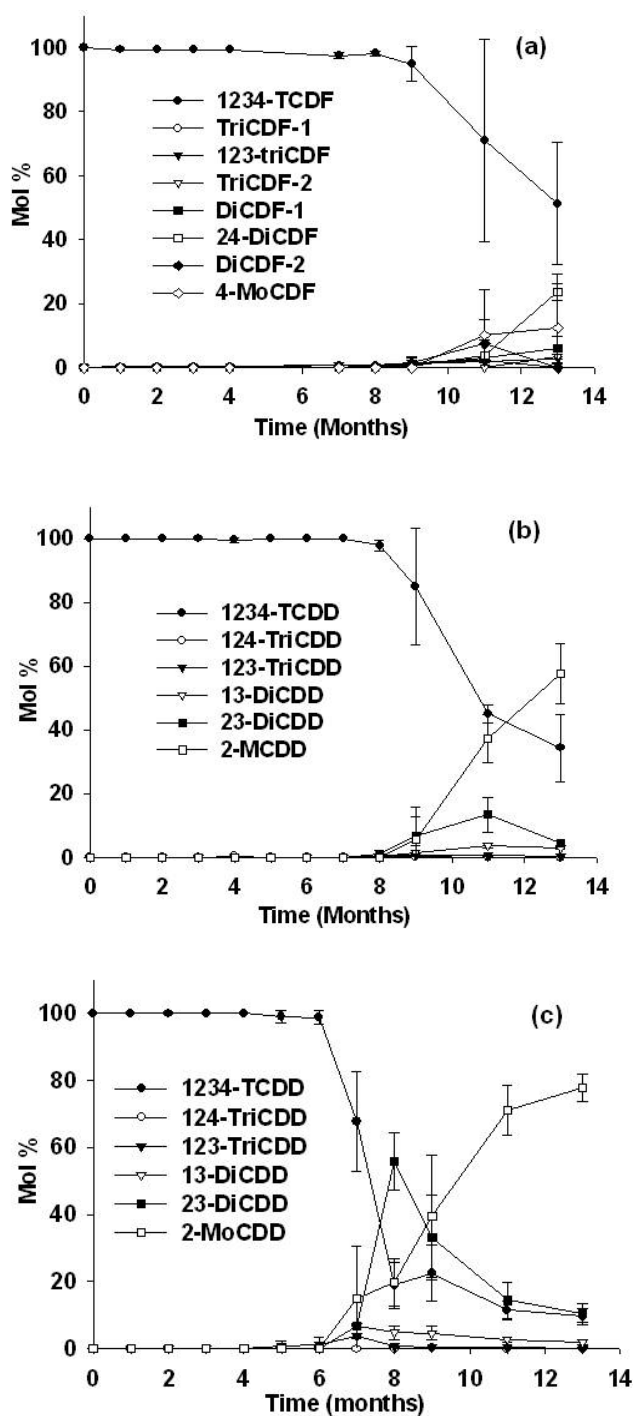


Figure 4-1. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-TCDF (a), dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-TCDD without PCNB (b) and with PCNB as co-substrate (c). All cultures were supplemented with an electron donor mixture. Fresh anaerobic medium was added up to 40 ml after 6 months to replenish the whole volume.

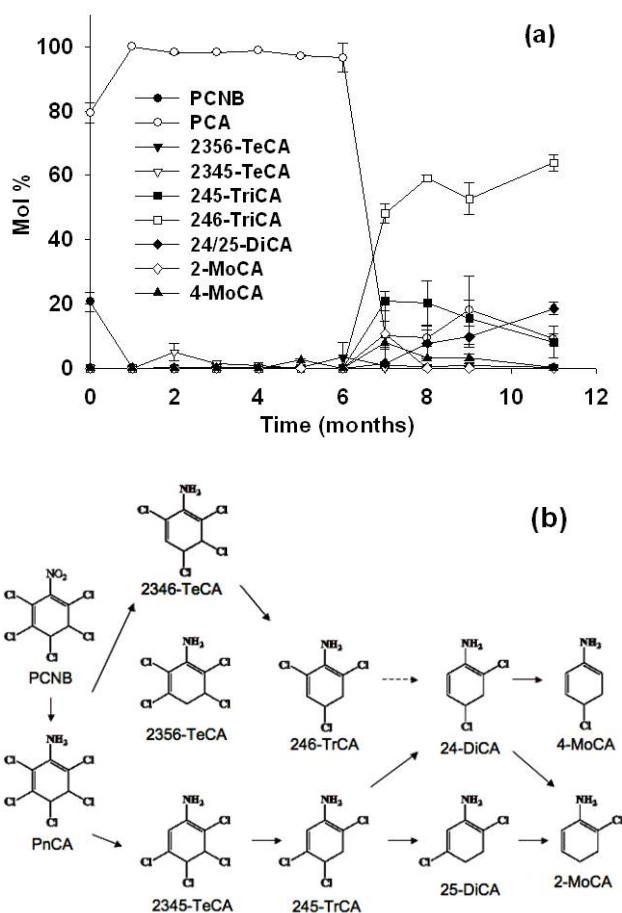


Figure 4-2. Dechlorination of PCNB in cultures spiked with TCDD and PCNB (a) and the proposed dechlorination pathway based on the dechlorination products identified (b). 2356-TeCA is the commercially available standard. 2346-TeCA is the intermediate that have been postulated based on the identified subsequent TrCAs intermediates and the co-elution fact of 2356-tetrachlorophenol and 2346-tetrachlorophenol (Häggblom et al., 1988).

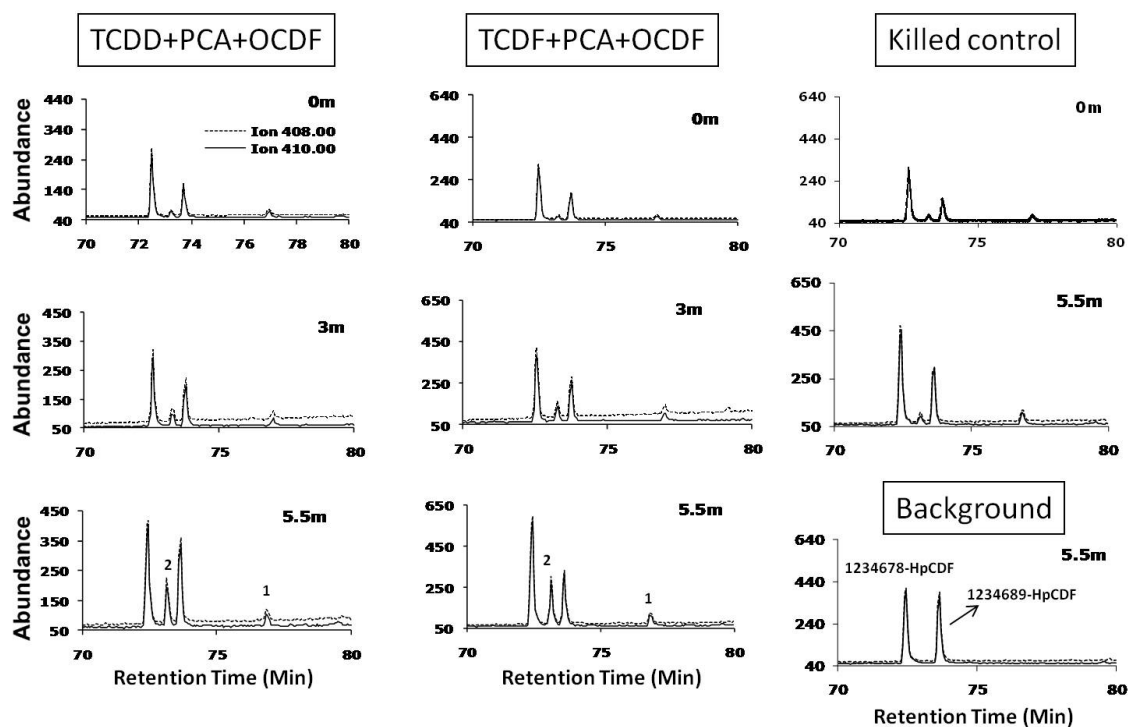


Figure 4-3. Selected ion chromatograms of hepta-CDFs in enrichment cultures amended with octa-CDF and TCDD + PCNB (a), octa-CDF and TCDF + PCNB (b) after 0, 3, and 5.5 months, and background and octa-CDF-amended killed controls after 5.5 months (c).

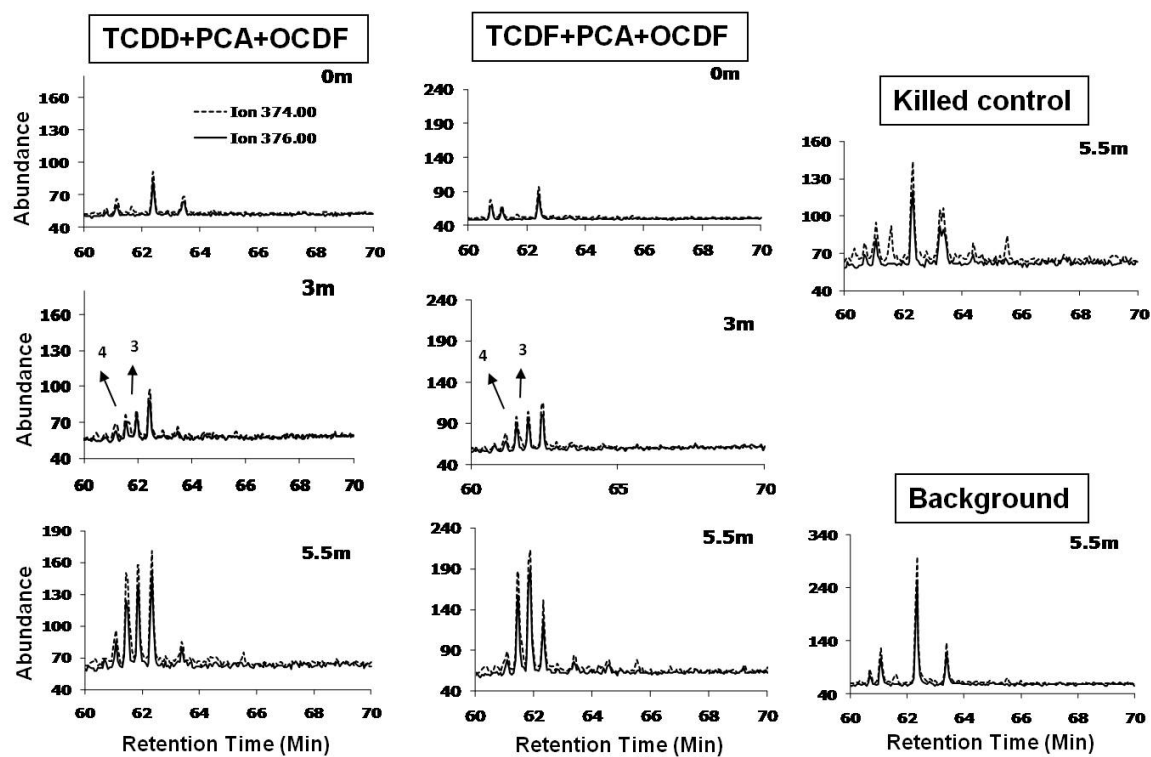


Figure 4-4. Selected ion chromatogram of hexa-CDFs in enrichment cultures amended with TCDD+PCNB+octa-CDF after 0, 3, and 5.5 months (m); TCDF+PCNB+octa-CDF after 0, 3, and 5.5 months (m); Killed control after 3 and 5.5 month (m); No addition control after 5.5 months (m).

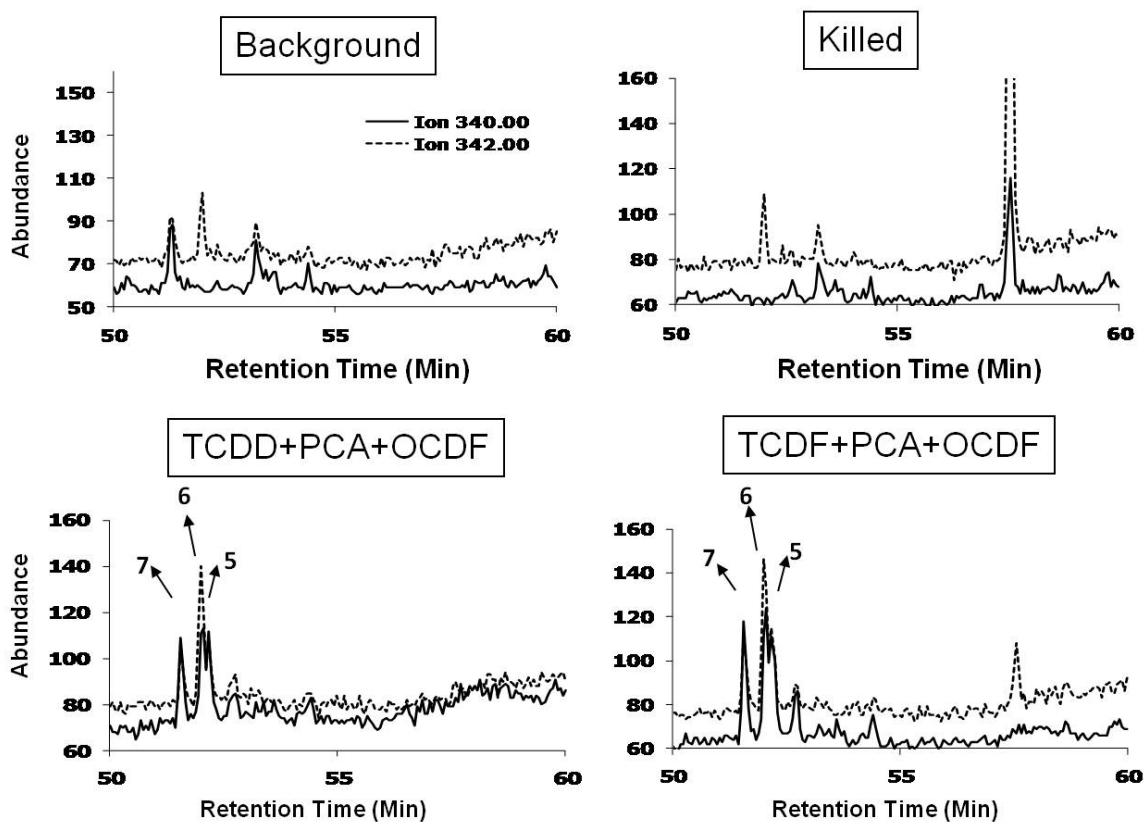


Figure 4-5. Selected ion chromatograms of penta-CDFs in enrichment culture of no addition control, killed control, treatment amended with TCDD+PCNB+octa-CDF and TCDF+PCNB+octa-CDF after 5.5 months. Two new penta-CDFs were detected after 5.5 months in enrichment cultures amended with TCDD/F+PCNB+octa-CDF, but not after 0 or 3 months.

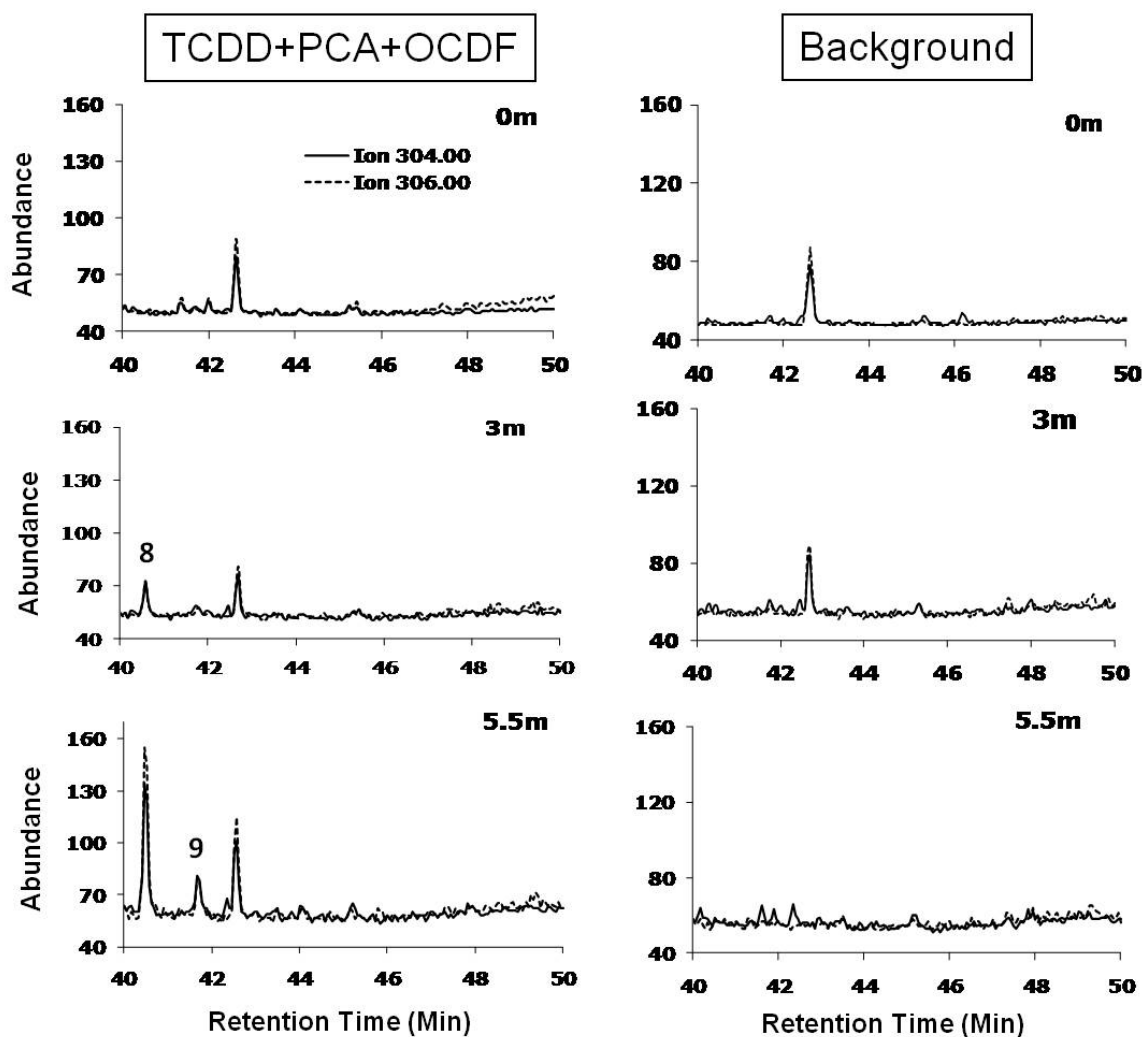


Figure 4-6. Selected ion chromatograms of tetra-CDFs (m/z 304 and 306) in enrichment cultures amending TCDD+octa-CDF+PCNB after 0, 3, and 5.5 months; no addition control after 0, 3, and 5.5 months. No data shown here for enrichment cultures amended with TCDF+PCNB+octa-CDF and Killed control. TCDD: 1234-TCDD, TCDF: 1234-TCDF.

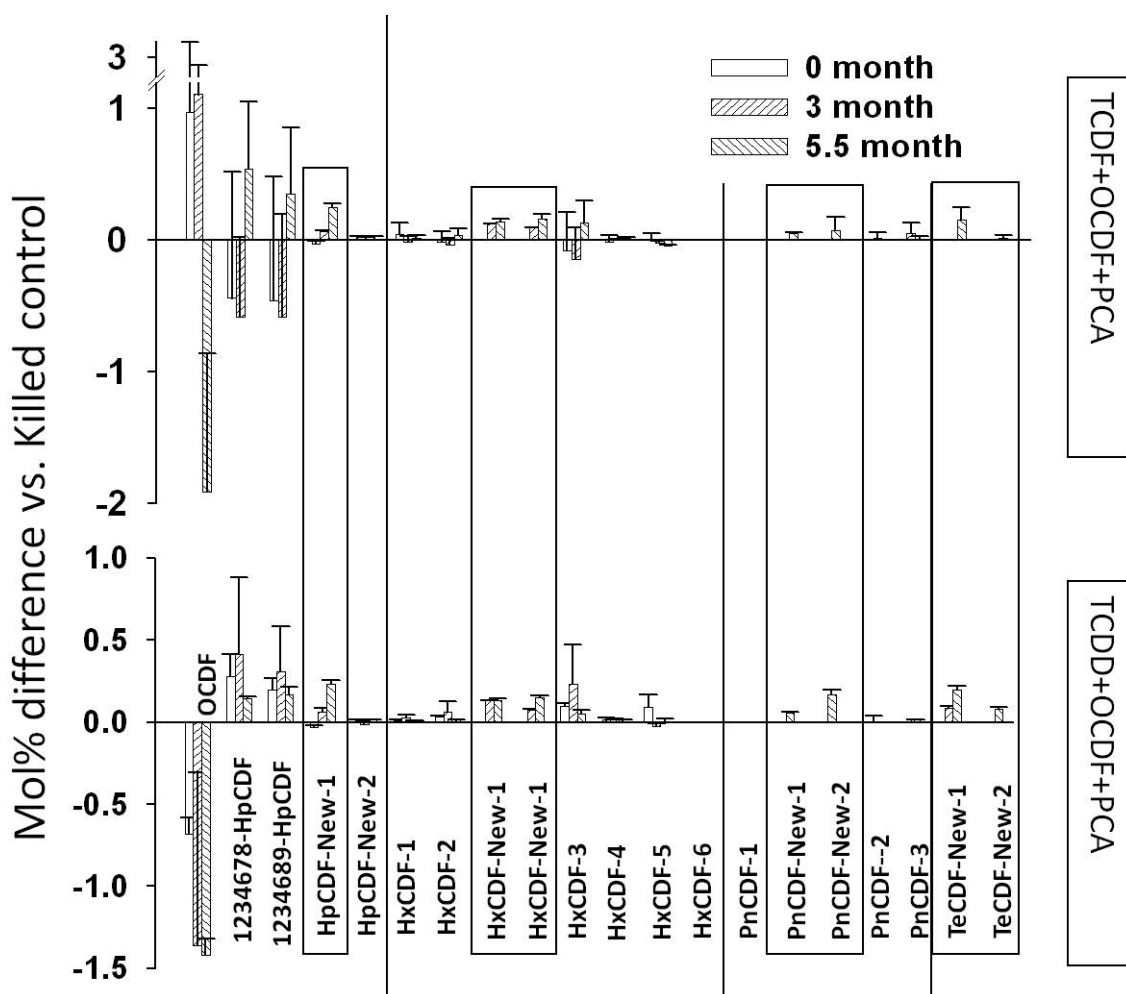


Figure 4-7. Average mol% difference of CDD congeners of triplicate enrichment cultures amended with octa-CDF + TCDD + PNCB vs. killed control (a) octa-CDF + TCDF + PCNB vs. killed control (b) after 0, 3, and 5.5 months.

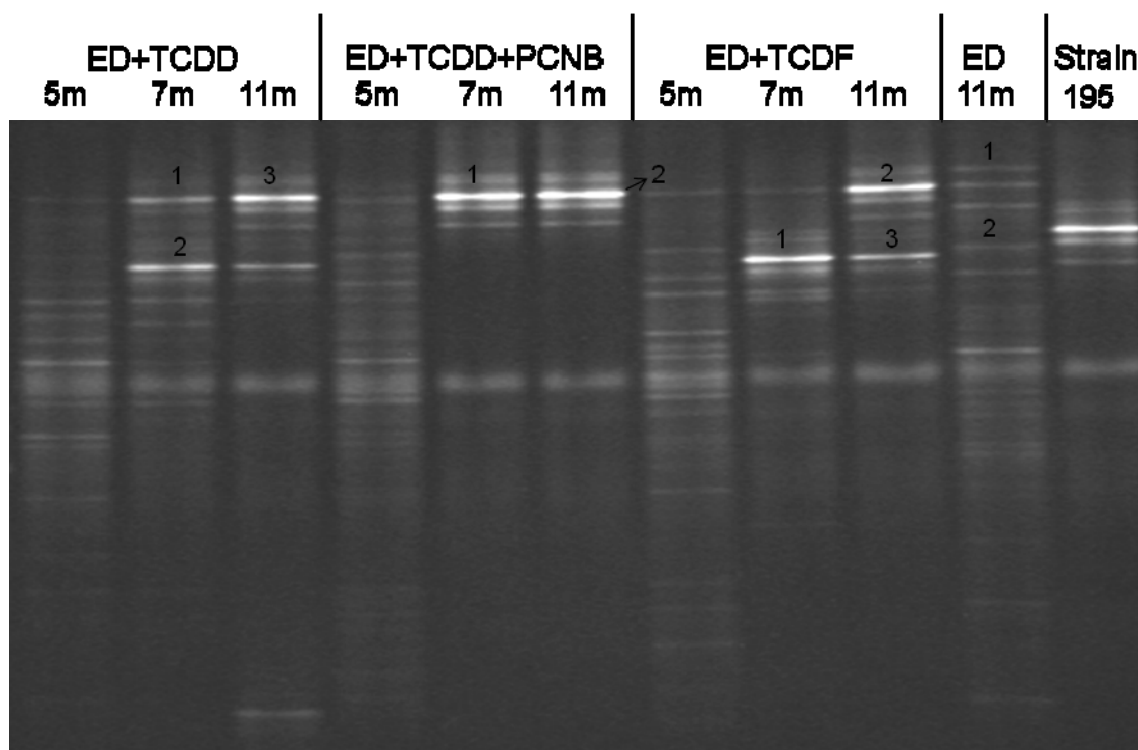


Figure 4-8. DGGE profiles of microbial community in cultures spiked 1234-TCDD, 1234-TCDD and PCNB, and 1234-TCDF after 5 months, 7 months and 11 months incubation (all cultures received electron donor) compared to electron donor only control after 11 months.

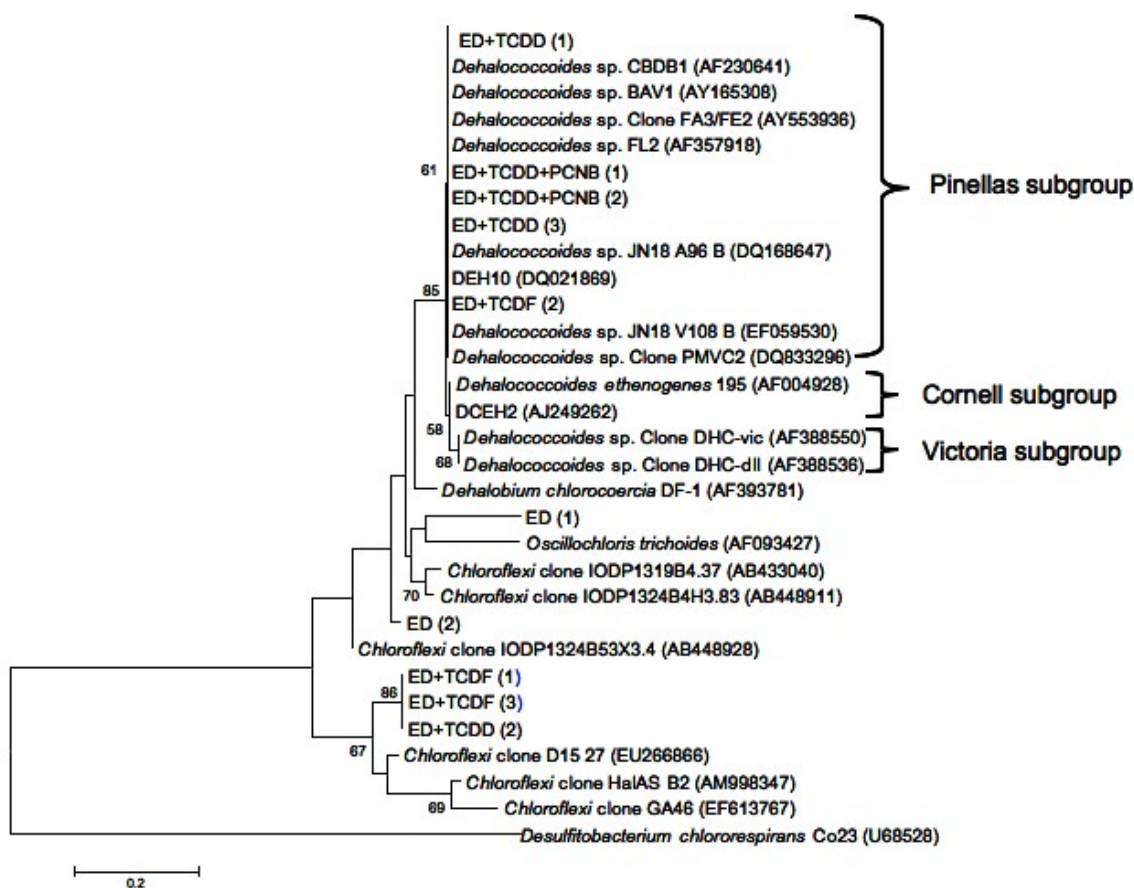


Figure 4-9. Phylogenetic analysis of 16S rRNA gene DGGE band sequences compared closely related reference sequences. Single alignment and construction of the phylogenetic tree with the minimum evolution method with 1000 bootstrap re-samplings were performed using the MEGA version 4 program. Bootstrap values at nodes are the percentages of 1000 iterations. The reference bar indicates 20 nucleotide exchanges per 100 nucleotides.

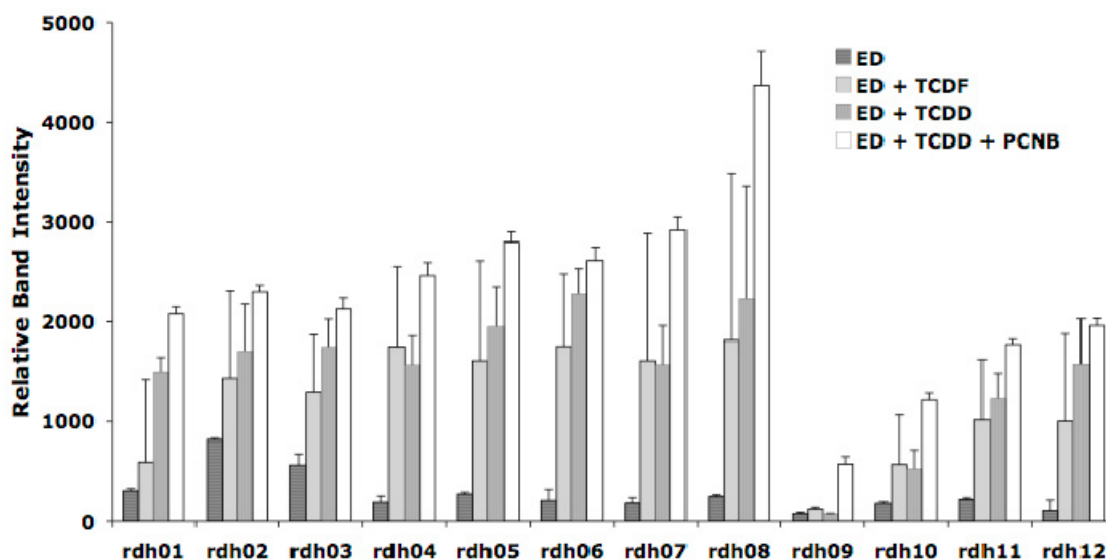


Figure 4-10. Quantification of 12 putative *rdh* genes in enrichment cultures derived from Kymijoki River sediment after 7 months of incubation. Putative *rdh* gene amplicons correspond to the following *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 and *Dehalococcoides* sp. CBDB1 genes: *rdh* 01 (DET0180 and cbdb_A187), *rdh* 02 (DET0235 and cbdb_A243), *rdh* 03 (DET0302 and cbdb_A237), *rdh* 04 (DET0306 and cbdb_A1495), *rdh* 05 (DET0311 and cbdb_A88), *rdh* 06 (DET0318 and cbdb_A1588), *rdh* 07 (DET1171 and cbdb_A1092), *rdh* 08 (DET1519 and cbdb_A1575), *rdh* 09 (DET1522 and cbdb_A1570), *rdh* 10 (DET1535 and cbdb_A1595), *rdh* 11 (DET1538 and cbdb_A1627), and *rdh* 12 (DET1545 and cbdb_A1638). ED: electron donor, TCDD: 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin, PCNB: pentachloronitrobenzene, TCDF: 1,2,3,4-tetrachlorodibenzofuran.

Table 4-1. Comparison of dechlorinating kinetics of TCDD/F in Kymijoki sediment enrichment cultures amended with TCDD+PCNB, TCDD only and TCDF. All cultures received the electron donor mixture.

Treatment	ED+TCDD+PCNB	ED+TCDD	ED+TCDF
Target Compound	TCDD	TCDD	TCDF
Lag Phase (months)	5	8	9
Dominant product	2-mono-CDD	2-mono-CDD	24-di-CDF
Dominant product mol%	77.7±4.2	57.6±9.5	23.7±2.6
Dechlorination rate [*] (mol%•month ⁻¹)	0.85±0.18	0.27±0.08	0.16±0.08
Estimated half life (month)	6.9±0.2	10.7±0.8	13.9±2.4

*: First order rate regression was calculated for decreasing molar percentages of TCDD/F in the enrichments vs. time in the period with fastest depletion rate: for 1,2,3,4-TCDD in ED+TCDD+PCNB, month-6, -7, and -8; for 1234-TCDD in ED + TCDD, month-8, -9, and -11; for 1,2,3,4-TCDF in ED + TCDF, month-9, -11, and -13. Values are provided with average +/- SD of triplicate cultures.

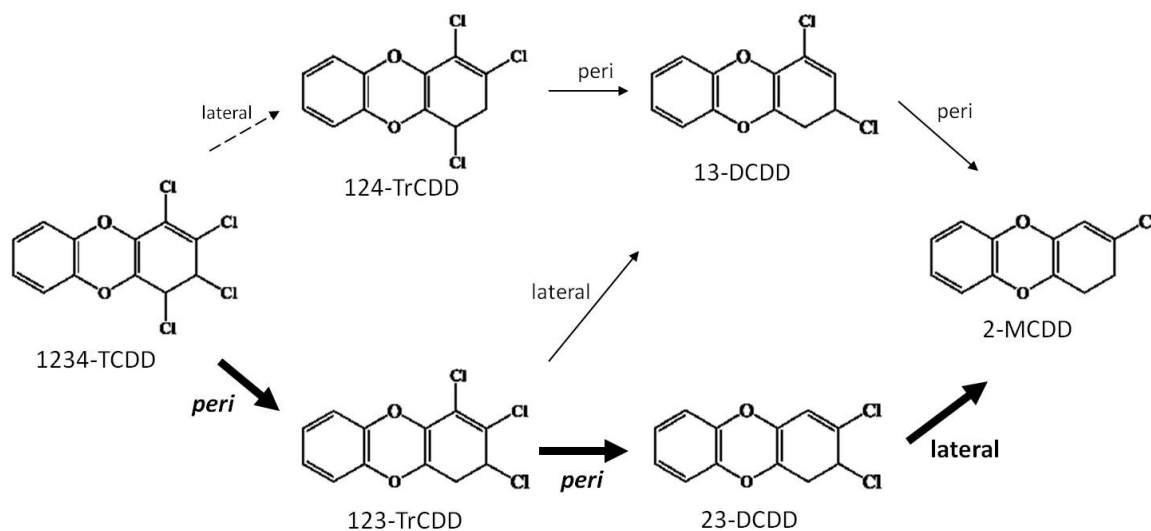


Figure 4-11. Proposed dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4-TCDD (TCDD) in Kymijoki enrichment cultures amended with PCNB as co-substrate. TrCDD: tri-CDD, DCDD: di-CDD, MCDD: mono-CDD. The principle dechlorination pathway of 1234-TCDD dechlorination observed in Kymijoki enrichment cultures amended with PCNB as co-substrate was highlighted in heavy arrow.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

The combined work in this thesis shows that Kymijoki sediment has a dechlorinating community that actively dechlorinates spiked PCDD/Fs. Even more importantly also weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment can be dechlorinated, although the activity is very slow.

Dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki mesocosms was demonstrated in two ways: 1) the increasing average mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF from less than 1 to more than 1 in all mesocosms over 7 years of incubation (Chapter 2; Fig. 2-2); 2) the decreasing average mol ratio of *peri* chlorines vs. total chlorines of hepta-CDFs and increasing average mol ratio of lateral chlorines vs. total chlorines of hepta-CDFs in all mesocosms over 7 years of incubation (Fig. 2-3a). In addition to the above general trend of dechlorination of weathered PCDFs, for mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB, *peri*-dechlorination of penta-CDFs was selectively enhanced over 7 years which was demonstrated by the decreasing mol ratio of *peri* chlorines vs. total chlorines and increasing mol ratio of lateral chlorines vs. total chlorines (Fig. 2-3c).

The stimulating effects of amendments on dechlorination of weathered PCDFs were further studied in sediment microcosms (Chapter 3). Bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 and amendment with electron donors stimulated *peri* dechlorination of octa-CDF to produce 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF in addition to the enhanced dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF and hexa-CDFs and production of non-2,3,7,8-tetra-CDFs (Fig. 3-3c). Bioaugmentation with *D. ethenogenes*

strain 195 and amendment with vegetable oil stimulated lateral dechlorination of octa-CDF to produce 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF in addition to the enhanced dechlorination of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF (Fig. 3-3d). Amendment of electron donors and “haloprimers”, such as TeCB or PCNB, may stimulate the dechlorination of hexa-CDFs and production of non-2,3,7,8-tetra-CDFs after 18 months incubation in these microcosms as indicated by the mol% change of the detected congeners over time as well as compared to controls (Fig. 3-4a & b).

Further dechlorinating potential of indigenous microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment was confirmed in the enrichment cultures (Chapter 4) derived from the sediment microcosms (Chapter 3). 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF was more resistant to dechlorination than 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Fig. 4-1a vs. 4-1b); and dechlorination of octa-CDF produced new peaks corresponding to one hepta-CDF, two hexa-CDFs, three penta-CDFs and two tetra-CDFs (Fig. 4-3 to 4-7). Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF was slower than that of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, with 2,4-di-CDF as the most abundant dechlorination product after 13 months (Table 4-1). 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was dechlorinated via 1,2,3-tri-CDD and 1,2,4-tri-CDD as short-life intermediates mainly to 2,3-di-CDD and 2-mono-CDD over 13 months incubation (Fig. 4-11). In addition, the stimulating effect of PCNB on dechlorination was also confirmed by the enhanced dechlorination rate and extent of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Fig. 4-1b vs. c). PCNB did not affect the dominant dechlorination pathway of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD (Fig. 4-11). PCNB stimulated dechlorination by enhancing removal of *peri* chlorines on 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, while it had minimum effect on the removal of lateral chlorines (Fig. 4-1b vs. c and table 4-1). During the process of stimulating 1,2,3,4-tetra-

CDD dechlorination, PCNB was reductively transformed to PCA (pentachloroaniline), which then underwent sequential dechlorination to 2,3,4,5- and 2,3,4,6-tetra-CAs to 2,4,5- and 2,4,6-tri-CAs to 2,4-/2,5-di-CAs to 2- and 4-mono-CAs (Fig. 4-2). A second transfer of these enrichment showed shortened lag phase and similar dechlorination reactions of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F (data not shown).

This study has provided direct evidence of dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms over 7 years incubation (Chapter 2). Previously, dechlorination of aged PCDDs in Passaic River sediment (NJ, USA) was enhanced by addition of acetate, butyrate, benzoate, 2-monobromodibenzodioxin and H₂ (Albrecht et al., 1999). Also, bioaugmentation with a mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 stimulated dechlorination of aged PCBs in Anacostia River sediment (Baltimore, USA) (Krumins et al., 2009). Dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-TCDD in enrichment cultures inoculated with Kymijoki River sediment (Finland) was also enhanced by bioaugmentation of strain 195 (Ahn et al., 2008), which resulted in different primary dechlorination products (Ahn et al., 2008). In our study, we showed that different amendments including “haloprimers” like TeCB and PCNB as well as bioaugmentation of strain 195 with electron donors or vegetable oil selectively stimulated dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in microcosms (Chapter 3). The priming effect of PCNB on dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was further demonstrated to enhance the removal of *peri* chlorines, but had minimal effect on the removal of lateral chlorines (Chapter 4).

Based on the identification of certain increasing and decreasing congeners in mesocosms amended with electron donors and TeCB, possible *peri*-preferred dechlorination pathways for weathered PCDFs were proposed (Chapter 2) (Fig. 2-7). *Peri* dechlorination of octa-CDF to 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF was also further stimulated in microcosms amended with bioaugmentation of *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 and electron donors. In contrast, lateral dechlorination of octa-CDF to 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF was stimulated in microcosms bioaugmented with *D. ethenogenes* strain 195 and amended with vegetable oil (Chapter 3). It should be noted that the mixed culture containing *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* strain 195 did not dechlorinate spiked octa-CDD and deca-chlorobiphenyl (Liu and Fennell, 2008). This information indicated that the indigenous microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment might mediate the dechlorination of weathered octa-CDF observed in this study. Dechlorination of spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD in the enrichment culture showed a *peri*-lateral sequence (Chapter 4) (Fig. 4-11). The combined evidence showed that the dechlorinating potential of indigenous microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment on *peri* or lateral chlorines can be selectively stimulated with different amendments, but also can happen sequentially. The possible *peri*-preferred dechlorination may have the risk of generating toxic intermediates, such as 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDF. However, whether this should be a concern for Kymijoki sediment needs further studies.

In contrast to the theoretical dechlorination pattern proposed for PCDDs (Fueno et al., 2002; Lynam et al., 1998), which indicated that lateral chlorines were more amenable to dechlorination due to the positive charges of lateral carbons and marginal preference of

chlorines on them, dechlorination mediated by microorganisms in the sediment has been shown to occur preferentially at the *peri* chlorines. Barkovskii and Adriaens (1996) indicated that *peri*-dechlorination of 2,3,7,8-substituted hepta to penta-CDDs produced 2,3,7,8-tetra-CDD; and *peri*-lateral dechlorination was occurring to non-2,3,7,8-substituted congeners in the microbial consortium eluted from dioxin-contaminated Passaic River sediments. Adriaens and Grbic-Galic (1994, 1995) reported that *peri* dechlorination was preferred reaction for certain PCDD/F congeners, including 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, when using Hudson River sediment (USA) as inoculum. These observations are in agreement with what we have reported here for the dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment microcosms and mesocosms, as well as spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD.

Molecular community analysis (PCR-DGGE) revealed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediments (Fig. 2-5). DGGE analysis revealed a highly selected *Chloroflexi* community in the enrichment culture (Fig. 4-8). One of the stimulated *Chloroflexi* populations clustered within the Pinellas subgroup of *Dehalococcoides*, which includes strain CBDB1, which dechlorinates 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD to similar products as the Kymijoki sediment enrichments (Fig. 4-9). The second enriched microbial population was closely related to another division of *Chloroflexi*, which have been found in anaerobic sludge or sediment with aromatic contamination (Fig. 4-9). It remains to be determined whether these bacteria participate directly in the dechlorination process, or just played a role in co-substrate utilization. The activities of non-dechlorinating bacteria on degrading organic acids in the mixed consortia is most likely important for the overall

dechlorinating process by providing potential electron donors, carbon sources and other nutrients (Wu et al., 2002). A second transfer of the enrichment culture has a shortened the lag phase and maintained the same dechlorination activity. DGGE analysis showed that same *Chloroflexi* population had been enriched (data not shown). DGGE may lack the specificity required for phylogenetic identification of some organisms (Gilbride et al., 2006) due to the limited length of 16S rRNA genes were used. It may underestimate the microbial community due to the unidentified heterogenous 16rRNA genes for some potential uncultured dechlorinating microorganisms (Nubel et al., 1997). Despite of all these incompleteness, DGGE still provided important information on the dominant *Chloroflexi* species in Kymijoki enrichment cultures.

In conclusion, following 7 years of incubation, dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms was observed. An increase in the mol% ratio of 1,2,3,4,6,7,8- vs. 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF was observed in all mesocosms. The available information suggested that *peri*-chlorines of hepta-CDFs were removed in general, while for penta-CDFs, *peri*-chlorines were removed preferentially only with the amendment of electron donors and TeCB. Microcosm studies further indicated that dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediment was selectively stimulated with different amendments. Bioaugmentation with strain 195 and amendment with electron donors stimulated *peri* dechlorination of weathered octa-CDF to produce 1,2,3,4,6,7,8-hepta-CDF, while bioaugmentation with strain 195 and amendment with vegetable oil stimulated lateral dechlorination of weathered octa-CDF to produce 1,2,3,4,6,8,9-hepta-CDF in Kymijoki sediment microcosms after 18 months. The dechlorinating potential of

indigenous microorganisms in Kymijoki sediment was further confirmed in the enrichment cultures spiked 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD/F and octa-CDF. 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD was dechlorinated via 1,2,3-tri-CDD and 1,2,4-tri-CDD as short-life intermediates mainly to 2,3-di-CDD and 2-mono-CDD over a 13 month incubation period. Dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDF was slower than that of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, with 2,4-di-CDF as the most abundant dechlorination product after 13 months. PCNB enhanced *peri* dechlorination of 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD, while it had minimum effect on lateral dechlorination during 13 months incubation. Dechlorination of spiked octa-CDF was observed with the production of hepta-, hexa-, penta- and tetra-chlorinated dibenzofurans (CDFs) over 5.5 months incubation. Molecular community analysis (PCR-DGGE) revealed a diverse *Chloroflexi* community in Kymijoki sediments, while a highly selected *Chloroflexi* community in the enrichment culture. One of the stimulated *Chloroflexi* populations in enrichment culture clustered closely with the Pinellas subgroup of *Dehalococcoides* including strain CBDB1, which dechlorinates 1,2,3,4-tetra-CDD to similar products as the Kymijoki sediment enrichment.

These results suggest that dechlorination of weathered PCDD/Fs contaminants may be mediated by indigenous microbial populations as a means for *in situ* bioremediation of PCDD/F contaminated sediments. The meso- and microcosm experiments allow us to conclude that dechlorination of weathered PCDFs in Kymijoki sediments by indigenous microorganism was occurring and can be stimulated by bioaugmentation with strain 195 and amendment with electron donor or vegetable oil. Further characterization of the microbial communities mediating these transformations and future research in the

dechlorination pathways of PCDFs will aid in the assessment of PCDD/Fs contamination and their natural attenuation processes, and eventually may help in developing effective bioremediation technologies.

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Appendix 1. Raw data of Kymijoki sediment mesocosm. M.W.: molecular weight, R.T.: retention time (min), std: standard, Live: no addition control, ED: electron donors only, ED195: electron donors plus bioaugmentation with strain 195, EDTeCB: amendment with electron donors and TeCB, sed D.W.: sediment dry weight (g).

Table A-1. Raw data of primary ions of major PCDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms at year 0.

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M.W.	R.T.	Name	PCB std 1	PCB std 2	PCB std 3	PCB std2 R	Live-1	Live-2	Live-3	ED-1	ED-2	ED-3	ED195-1	ED195-2	ED195-3	EDTeCB-1	EDTeCB-2	EDTeCB-3
340	54.8	12478-PnCDF					1446	4232	2224	1340	5270	1816	3265	1357	1374	1586	1528	1830
	55.49	12378-PnCDF					367	336	439	291	583	243	524	250	202	212	493	281
	57.2	23468-PnCDF					284	206	353	295	517	473	473	373	250	312	353	535
	60.57	23478-PnCDF					702	1096	812	521	2083	750	1110	3286	1802	569	435	500

Table A-2. Raw data of primary ions of major PCDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms at year 2.

M.W.	R.T.	Name	PCB std 1	PCB std 2	PCB std 3	PCB std2 R	Sed D.W. (g)										EDTeCB-3	EDTeCB-2	EDTeCB-1	ED195-3	ED195-2	ED195-1	ED-3	ED-2	ED-1	ED-3	ED195-1	ED195-2	ED195-3	1.01	0.89	0.96																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								
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M.W.	R.T.	Name	PCB std 1	PCB std 2	PCB std 3	PCB std2 R	Live-1	Live-2	Live-3	ED-1	ED-2	ED-3	ED195-1	ED195-2	ED195-3	EDTeCB-1	EDTeCB-2	EDTeCB-3
340	57.2	23468-PnCDF					178	206	230	332	254	202	305	326	305	346	319	305
	58.8	23478-PnCDF					425	391	356	490	997	572	833	740	1014	733	846	360

Table A-3. Raw data of primary ions of major PCDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment mesocosms at year 3.

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R.T.	21.106	22.02	24.818	28.816	47.49	52.52	60.283	60.682	61.939	62.567	64.737	72.104	73.303	85.639
Compound	PCB14	PCB30	PCB23	PCB65	PCB166	PCB204	123468-Hx	124678-Hx	124689-Hx	123689-Hx	234678-Hx	1234678-Hp	1234689-Hp	OcCDF
VO-2	613	524	391	586	977	1025	1446	3841	16002	1049		44801	30153	11575
VO-3	620	535	329	583	836	1007	555	2467	8549	339		23006	13908	6151
EDB-1	394	473	353	531	607	672	1874	4509	17133	500		26939	22728	9423
EDB-2	350	363	288	524	562	661	274	874	3375	223		12370	8059	6438
EDB-3	305	288	319	528	517	538	240	445	1645	144	89	4197	3677	2375
VOB-1	257	353	257	363	514	637	264	651	2666	332	151	8881	6939	5225
VOB-2	247	370	250	391	500	644	257	778	2707	240	86	7035	5794	3457
VOB-3	336	298	254	360	497	583	408	1045	3783	360	171	13956	10780	7463
Hexane	1172	240	696	432	531	195								

Table A-6 continued. Raw data of primary ions of major PCDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment microcosms at time 0.

R.T.	39.81	41.38	42.293	43.321	45.092	46.405	47.09	52.173	54.286	55.028
Compound	TeCDF-1	TeCDF-2	1234-TeCDF	TeCDF-3	TeCDF-4	TeCDF-5	TeCDF-6	12468-Pn	12478-Pn	12378-Pn
Live-1	278	397		408	250		315	93	134	339
Live-2	384	764		548	1014	308	312	435	1220	206
Live-3	600	692		1007	1525	435	613	788	2522	384
Kill-1	555	737		435	987	326	230	257	1066	284
Kill-2	3615	805		1388	2217	3000		1001	1960	541
ED-1	682	524		956	1120	565	764	1000	2484	401
ED-2	555	768		425	1672	380	583	493	1028	332
ED-3	500	449		747	1449	445	466	836	1816	459
EDTeCDF-1			245520					1765	5352	572
EDTeCDF-2			226950					1062	2940	284
EDTeCDF-3			302231					408	1059	284
EDPeCN-1	514	350	7052	1251	675	353	637	1326	4119	394
EDPeCN-2	350	298	1254	1014	651	250	531	1168	3115	456
EDPeCN-3	284	236	315	589	517	164	312	678	2131	257
EDTeCB-1	192	178	305	281	236	99	164	326	689	185
EDTeCB-2	75	209		363	175	195	134	356	1038	182
EDTeCB-3	137	93		346	79	72	154	569	1220	185
Solvents-1	130	55		308	120	82	185	425	1038	209
Solvents-2	103	62		120	93	21	55	106	284	41
Solvents-3	154	79		264	127	89	93	332	867	247
VO-1	137	45		137	79	72	55	281	367	168
VO-2	154	120		247	113	117	127	480	1264	140
VO-3	120	110		192	134	58	93	336	665	96
EDB-1	117	69		140	89	86	116	192	415	144
EDB-2	48	65		134		58	72	161	291	45
EDB-3	89	62		107	99	48	72	89	284	69
VOB-1	41	10		127	113	161	82	99	356	96
VOB-2	123	185		130	117	62	103	171	487	106
VOB-3	24	55		240	106	151	127	274	696	151

R.T.	21.049	21.96	24.76	28.759	45.663	52.402	60.283	60.625	61.939	62.453	62.967	64.623	72.104	73.303	85.582
Compounds	PCB 14	PCB 30	PCB 23	PCB 65	PCB 166	PCB 204	123468-Hx	124678-Hx	124689-Hx	123689-Hx	HxCDF-5	234678-Hx	1234678-Hp	1234689-Hp	OCDF
VOB-2	4040	3821	4218	1679	469	1580	576	1302	4883	356	178		15183	14518	8837
VOB-3	3488	3968	3543	1532	274	1758	4341	7980	26299				35883	33689	18894
hexane	14138	5068	15872	6685	8508	1967									

Table A-7 continued. Raw data of primary ions of major PCDF congeners in Kymijoki sediment microcosms after 18 months.

M.W.	304		340									
	R.T.	39.781	41.265	42.236	43.207	44.92	46.291	46.976	52.002	54.172	54.857	
Compounds	TeCDF-1	TeCDF-2	1234-TeCDF	TeCDF-3	TeCDF-4	TeCDF-5	TeCDF-6	12468-Pn	12478-Pn	12378-Pn	sed D.W. (g)	
Live-1	100	178		120	127	75	75	113	322	45	0.56	
Live-2	151	116		373	161	86	254	278	1014	127	0.62	
Live-3	164	123		466	168	161	219	428	1347	116	0.71	
Kill-1	223	147		154	278	103	72	75	326	86	0.47	
Kill-2	178	137		151	158	34	86	106	284	45	0.52	
ED-1	200	168		284	206	82	117	343	977	144	0.79	
ED-2	195	188		134	295	48	62	99	243	65	0.48	
ED-3	200	212		678	339	147	326	815	2518	236	0.6	
EDTeCDF-1			101417					322	816	147	0.69	
EDTeCDF-2			75643					206	596	79	0.55	
EDTeCDF-3			87764					199	531	96	0.6	
EDPCNB-1	171	284	435	271	271	48	151	302	672	144	0.62	
EDPCNB-2	300	312		281	535	192	195	202	771	182	0.76	
EDPCNB-3	300	305	110	415	757	202	164	288	1045	171	0.68	
EDTeCB-1	195	178		147	363	151	72	82	278	62	0.59	
EDTeCB-2	250	343	178	469	689	161	158	281	781	116	0.86	
EDTeCB-3	134	182	34	123	140		103	82	360	34	0.72	
Solvents-1	168	178	72	171	332	75	93	55	449	158	0.64	
Solvents-2	289	408	137	295	524	113	171	192	541	206	0.71	
Solvents-3	158	120		168	312	38	96	89	257	65	0.79	
VO-1	189	209	113	305	576	151	147	271	733	151	0.46	
VO-2	147	202	127	367	421	89	147	305	757	154	0.45	
VO-3	182	212	51	298	397	161	151	288	874	134	0.35	
EDB-1	189	192		236	439	113	144	168	521	96	0.61	
EDB-2	190	154	21	432	264	164	202	439	1049	127	0.5	
EDB-3	200	147		271	384	120	178	147	606	55	0.48	
VOB-1	171	380		243	439	137	120	305	617	65	0.51	
VOB-2	200	188		291	586	116	188	182	747	103	0.46	
VOB-3	185	140		195	504	34	140	202	507	168	0.41	

Appendix 3. Selected DGGE bands sequences from Kymijoki mesocosm (Fig. 2-5 &6) (Chapter 2).

>Band 6

GCTTTCGGGTTGTAAACTcTTTCANCGGGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATA
AGCTCGGCTAACTACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAAT

>Band 1

CGGCGAGCCAGCCCAGCCGNTGCCAGCGGGAAGTAAATGAGCGCTTCGCGT
CTGTAAACCTCTTTATCTGAGGGNAGAGATAGGACGGTACCTCAGGAATAAG
TCTCGGCTAACTACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAAT

>Band 2

AGCCTGGAGCAGCAACGCCGCGTGGGAGTGATGAAGGCCTTCGGGTCTGTAA
ACACTCCTTTTCTGGAGGGACGATAATGGACCGGGTACCCTCTAGGGAANAA
GGTCCCGGGCCTAACCTNCCGGTGTGCCNCCAGCCCGCGGTAAT--

>Band 4

GCACGCCGCGTGAGGGACGAAAGCCTTCGGGTCGTAAACCTCTTTTCTGGGG
NAAGAGCAAGGACGGTACCTCAGGAATAAGTCTCGGCTAACTACGTGCCAGC
AGCCGCGGTAAT

>Band 5

AGCACGCCGCGTGGNAGGACGAAGGCCTTCGGGTCGTAAACCTCCTTTTNCG
GGGGAAGAGGAAGGACGGTACCCCGAGAATAAGTCACGGCTAACTACGTGC
CAGCAGCCGCGGTAAT

>Band 3

CGGGNGCCAGCGATGCCGACTGATGAATAGCCTTCGGGTCTGTAAAATCCTT
TATCTGAGGGACGATAATGACGGTACCTCAGGAATAAGTCCCGGCTAACTAC
GTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAAT

Appendix 4. Selected DGGE bands sequences from Kymijoki enrichment cultures (Fig. 4-9 & 8) (Chapter 4).

>ED+TCDD (1)

GGCGAGCCTGACCCAGCAACGCCGCGTGAGGGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTTGTA
AACCTCTT
TTCATAGGGAAGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATAAGCTTCGGCTAACTAC
GTG

>ED+TCDD (3)

GCCTGACCCAGCAACGCCGCGTGAGGGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTTGTAAACCT
CTTTTCAT
AGGGAAGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATAAGCTTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED+TCDD+PCNB (1)

AGCCTGACCCAGCAACGCCGCGTGAGGGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTTGTAAACC
TCTTTTCA
TAGGGAAGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATAAGCTTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED+TCDD+PCNB (2)

AGCCTGACCCAGCAACGCCGCGTGAGGGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTTGTAAACC
TCTTTTCA
TAGGGAAGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATAAGCTTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED+TCDF (2)

GGCGAGCCTGACCCAGCAACGCCGCGTGAGGGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTTGTA
AACCTCTT
TTCATAGGGAAGAATAATGACGGTACCTGTGGAATAAGCTTCGGCTAACTAC
GTG

>ED+TCDD (2)

GACAGCAACGCCGCGTGGGTGAAGAAGGCTTTCGAGTCGTAAAACCCTTTTC
TAGGGGAT
GAGTAAGGACGGTACCCTAGGAATAAGTCTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED+TCDF (1)

TGGGTGAAGAAAGGCTTTCGAGTCGTAAAACCCTTTTCTAGGGGATGAGTAA
GGACGGTA
CCCTAGGAATAAGTCTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED+TCDF (3)

TGACGCGGCAGCCAGCRTGGGTGAAGAAAGGCTTTCGAGTCGTAAAACCCTT
TTCTAGGG
GATGAGTAAGGACGGTACCCTAGGAATAAGTCTCGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED (1)

GCAGCCAGCATSAASGATAGATAGCCTTCGGGTCATAAACTTCTTTTTTCAGG
GATGAAT
AATGACAGTACCTGGAGAATAAGTCACGGCTAACTACGTG

>ED (2)

ACGGGCAGCCAGCATGMGGGATRATAGGCSTTCGGTTGTAAACCTCTTTTCT
CANGGAA
GATTAATGACGGTACCTGGGGAATAAGTCTCGGCTAACTACGTG

Curriculum Vitae

HUI LIU

EDUCATION

Oct. 2010 Ph.D. Environmental Science,
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, U.S.A.
Jul. 2004 M.S., Environmental Microbiology,
Nanjing University, Nanjing, P.R.China
Jul. 2001 B.S., Biology,
Inner Mongolia University, Huhhot, P.R.China

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

09/2005-present Graduate assistant, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ

09/2001-07/2004 Graduate assistant, Nanjing University, Nanjing, P.R.China
09/2004-12/2005 Research fellow, Tongji University, Shanghai, P.R.China

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

09/2007-12/2007 Teaching assistant for Analytical Microbiology, Rutgers University,
New Brunswick, NJ

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