

**Microbial population dynamics and the role of sulfur reducing bacteria genes in stabilizing Pb, Zn and Cd in the terrestrial subsurface**

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## Abstract

Milling and mining metal ores are major sources of heavy metal contamination. The Spring River and its tributaries in southeast Kansas are contaminated with Pb, Zn, and Cd as a result of 120 years of mining activities. Trace metal transformations and cycling in mine waste materials greatly influence their mobility and toxicity and affect plant productivity and human health. It has been hypothesized that under reduced conditions in sulfate-rich environments, these metals can be transformed into their sulfide forms, thus limiting mobility and toxicity. We studied biogeochemical transformations of Pb, Zn and Cd in flooded subsurface mine waste materials, natural or treated with organic carbon (OC) and/or sulfur (S), by combining advanced microbiological and X-ray spectroscopic techniques to determine the effects of treatments on the microbial community structure and identify the dominant functional genes involved in the biogeochemical transformations, especially metal sulfide formation over time. Samples collected from medium-, and long-term submerged columns were used for microarray analysis via functional gene array (GeoChip 4.2). The total number of detected gene abundance decreased under long-term submergence, but major functional genes abundance was enhanced with OC plus S treatment. The microbial community exhibited a substantial change in structure in response to OC and S addition. Sulfur-reducing bacteria genes *dsrA/B* were identified as key players in metal sulfide formation via dissimilatory sulfate reduction. Uniqueness of this study is that microbial analyses presented here in details are in agreements with molecular-scale synchrotron-based X-ray data supporting that OC-plus-S treatment would be a promising strategy for reducing metal toxicity in mine waste materials.

## Keywords

Mine waste, lead, Zinc, Cadmium, Microbial role, Sulfur-Reducing Bacteria

## 1 Introduction

Generation of large amounts of mine waste containing several heavy metals is the main environmental concern associated with milling and mining activities (Baker et al., 2003, Bhattacharya et al., 2008). Heavy metals are dispersed via different pathways such as wind, surface water runoff, and metal-laden sediments are transported to neighboring water bodies (Almendras et al., 2009 and Johnson et al., 2005). The Tri-State mining district in parts of southeast Kansas, southwest Missouri, and northeast Oklahoma was one of the largest Pb and Zn ore-mining districts in the world for 120 years (until 1970). The movement of soluble metals and metal-laden sediments from the landscape into surface waters via surface runoff are the primary ecological concerns for both aquatic and terrestrial organisms (Pierzynski et al., 2006). The US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) has suggested wetland construction as a remediation strategy for soils highly contaminated by abandoned mine waste materials with the hypothesis that these metals could be transformed into their sulfide forms under reduced conditions in sulfate-rich environments, thus limiting their mobility and toxicity.

Several challenges are associated with this strategy. Mine waste material with low dissolved OC content could have significant effects on redox processes (Hayes et al., 2006, Stein et al., 2007 and Zhang et al., 2005) because OC is the main driver of biogeochemical cycling of major and trace elements (Borch et al., 2009 and Evans et al., 2006). Limited S in mine waste could limit sulfide formation and promote carbonate precipitation, depending on pH and carbonate concentration (Toevs et al., 2006). Therefore, the addition of OC and S could facilitate these metals to be transformed back into their sulfide forms under reduced conditions, thereby limiting their mobility and toxicity. A generalized sulfate reduction reaction using organic matter (OM) as an electron donor is:

73  $\text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{CH}_2\text{O} + 2\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{S} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{CO}_2$  (pH<7.0): Stein (10)

74 At high metal concentrations, metals tend to precipitate as metal sulfides around circumneutral  
75 pH because the rate of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  formation increases at a pH of 7.0 to a maximum of 8.0 (Burton et  
76 al., 2008 and Chen et al., 1997):

77  $\text{H}_2\text{S} + \text{M}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{MS} + 2\text{H}^+$

78 The above-mentioned reaction is the result of dissimilatory sulfate metabolism that has  
79 been tested and successfully removed contaminants via biostimulation. Of all the metal sulfide  
80 minerals, iron sulfide mineralization is most often attributed to microbial activity (McLean et al.,  
81 2007), especially to the activity of dissimilatory sulfur-reducing bacteria (SRB). Environmentally  
82 important activities displayed by SRBs are the result of metabolic production of high levels of  
83 sulfides that are reactive and participate in subsequent mineral formation (Bazylinski et al., 2003  
84 and Lovely et al., 1995).

85 Using a culture-dependent technique would not be feasible to study the complex  
86 microbial community because 99% of microorganisms have not been cultured (Whiteman et al.,  
87 2004), therefore, culture-independent techniques such as functional gene arrays (FGA) are  
88 required (He et al., 2007 and Van Nostrand et al., 2011). GeoChip 4.2 is a functional gene array  
89 that contains 83,992 oligonucleotides (50-mer) probes targeting 152, 414 genes in 410 gene  
90 categories from more than 5200 microbial strains including bacteria, archaea, fungi, and viruses.  
91 These genes are involved in the biogeochemical processes and functional activities of microbial  
92 communities important to human health, ecosystem management, agriculture, energy, global  
93 climate change, and environmental cleanup and restoration, including N, C, S and P cycling;  
94 metal reduction and resistance; and organic contaminant degradation (Tu et al., 2014). This  
95 technique enables detection, characterization, and quantification of microorganisms in mine

waste and links microbial diversity to ecosystem processes and functions (He et al., 2007 and Loick et al., 2014). The approach has been used successfully to track the dynamics of metal-reducing bacteria and associated communities for an *in situ* bioremediation study (Lu et al., 2012, Wu et al., 2001, Van Nostrand et al., 2009 and Zhou et al., 2008).

Phospholipid fatty acid analysis (PLFA) is another rapid, inexpensive, and an efficient way to determine the structure, and the effect of treatments on microbial community (Frostegård et al., 2011). Certain PLFAs markers can serve as unique signatures for a particular group. However, such biomarkers cannot detect individual microbial species due to overlapping PLFA patterns; nevertheless, whole PLFA pattern is used to elucidate the shift in community composition, and their relation to specific metabolic and environmental conditions (Olsson et al., 1999).

Few studies have combined microbial analysis with solution chemistry and microscopic and X-ray spectroscopic techniques to develop a complete molecular-scale understanding of complex biogeochemical processes affecting soil and water (Brantley et al., 2007 and Brown et al., 1999). This study attempted to explore the interplay between geochemical and biological processes in the transformation of Pb, Zn and Cd in natural subsurface environments biostimulated by the addition of OC and S. Stimulating the systems with OC and S would favor SRB growth and activities. We expect that OC-plus-S treatment would result in a higher abundance of SRB genes compared with natural, OC alone, or S alone treatments. Study objectives were to: a) characterize the microbial community playing a role in the biogeochemical transformation of Pb, Zn and Cd under reduced conditions; b) measure the change in microbial community structure with OC and/or S treatment over medium- and long-term incubation; and c)

identify the most dominant genes and associated mechanisms involved in effective immobilization of Pb, Zn and Cd.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Sample collection and characterization

Contaminated mine waste materials were collected from a secured repository area in Baxter Springs, KS, a part of the Tri-State mining district that has a 120-year history of Pb- and Zn-ore mining related activities. The material was sieved to 2-mm size, and 0.5-g sample was digested in triplicate following the aqua-regia reflux tube soil-digestion method to determine the concentrations of selected elements (Zarcinas et al., 1996). Total N, and C content was measured using LECO TruSpec CN Carbon/Nitrogen combustion analyzer (LECO Corporation, St. Joseph, MI). The pH of a water extract (water: mine waste ratio of 2:1) was determined using Orion Ag/AgCl pH electrode. Particle-size distribution was determined using a modification of the pipet method of Kilmer et al. (Kilmer et al., 1949), and method 3A1 from the Soil Survey Laboratory Method Manual (1996).

### 2.2 Treatment application and experimental setup

For S-treatment application, sodium sulfate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) solution was added to the mine waste material to provide S at a ratio of 1:2 mM of sum of metals present in material: mM of S. The metal concentrations used for the summation were Pb, Zn, Cd, Fe, and Mn. The treated materials were equilibrated for 10 days at room temperature on a reciprocating shaker (6010, Eberbach Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI) at 192 reciprocates/min for 3 days, and at 92 reciprocates/min for the remaining 7 days. After equilibration, S-treated mine waste was leached with deionized (DI) water to reduce salinity until a target electrical conductivity of  $<2 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$  was achieved, then the material was air-dried. Both S-treated and untreated mine waste materials were inoculated

with 0.5 g 100g<sup>-1</sup> of soil slurry (Ivan, Kennebec, and Kahola silt loams) collected from the North Agronomy Farm at Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS. The serial dilution of soil slurry was cultured on a Petri dish using Postgate's medium and incubated overnight at 34 °C in an anaerobic jar (AG0025A used with oxygen absorber; OXAN0025A, Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). The black patches observed on the plate indirectly confirmed the presence of SRB in the soil slurry. The method used for SRB culturing was adapted from Luptakova et al. (Luptakova et al., 2005). The mine waste materials (non-treated or treated with S) were well mixed with soil slurry and used to pack Plexiglas columns (20 cm length, 3.2 cm ID with 3 windows milled at 2.8 cm, 9.84 cm, and 16.94 cm) to achieve a bulk density of about 1.7 g cm<sup>-3</sup>. The packed columns were saturated slowly with DI water using a Mariotte's bottle that delivered a constant flow rate before the eluent solution was supplied. The eluent consisted of a base of simulated groundwater (1 mM NaCl, 1mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> adjusted to pH 7.2) with or without 10.7 mM Na-lactate (32 mM OC). This eluent provided four treatments for the columns designated as C0S0, C1S0, C0S1, and C1S1, where C0 and C1 designated simulated groundwater without OC and with OC, respectively; S0 designated simulated groundwater applied to columns without added S; and S1 designated simulated groundwater applied to columns with added S. Each treatment combination had two replicates due to limited space available in the glovebox. The eluent solution was supplied using a syringe pump (KD Scientific Inc., Holliston, MA) at the rate of 13 mm day<sup>-1</sup> to simulate a slow groundwater discharge rate (Wan et al., 2005). Three series of column experiments, short (32-day), medium (119-day), and long-term (252-day), were conducted at room temperature ~25 °C at different times due to the lack of space in the anaerobic chamber to conduct them all simultaneously. All three series of experiments were conducted based on a completely randomized design with a two-way factorial

experiment (factor 1: OC with two levels, 0 and 10.7 mM L<sup>-1</sup>; factor 2: S with two levels; 0 and 252.7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). Effluent samples were collected weekly for medium-term and biweekly for long-term submergence, and analyzed for pH, redox potential, total dissolved elements measurements for Pb, Cd, Zn, Fe, S, Mn, K, Ca, Mg, Na, anions including sulfate, nitrate, nitrite, chloride, phosphate, and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) measurements. At the end of each column experiment, samples (about 20 g) were collected from three windows located on the columns and frozen at -80 °C for DNA extraction, and x-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). More details on solution chemistry data collection, and approaches used in synchrotron-based X-ray analysis, and their outcomes can be found in Karna et al. (2016).

### 2.3 Phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis

The PLFA analysis was performed as an initial measurement to determine the microbial community changes with OC and S treatment prior to microarray analysis was performed. For this, PLFA extraction was done on the original mine waste materials, and submerged C0S0, and C1S1 treatments from medium term study only based on single phase extraction of lipids, which was then methylated to give fatty acids methyl esters (FAME) and analyzed by gas chromatograph. The PLFA extraction was performed by following the method of Bligh and Dyer (1959) as modified by White and Ringlberg (1998). The resulting FAMES were analyzed using a Thermo Scientific Trace GC-ISQ mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Germany) with helium as a carrier gas. Analysis was conducted in the electron impact (70 eV) mode. Peaks were identified based on retention times of commercially available bacterial acid methyl esters (BAME; Matreya 1114) standard mix. The methyl ester peaks that were not present in the BAME mix were tentatively assigned through mass spectral interpretation by comparison with spectra from a library (Wiley 138K mass spectral database). Sample peaks were quantified based



on comparison of the abundance with an internal standard - nonadecanoic acid methyl ester (19:0). The abundance was expressed as nmoles/gram. Fatty acids (FA) are designated a:b, where 'a' represents total number of carbons and b the number of double bonds. An 'ω' indicates the position of a double bond from the aliphatic end of the FA. The prefixes 'a' and 'i' refer to anteiso and iso branching, while the suffixes 'c' and 't' refers to cis and trans 33 isomers (conformations). Presence of methyl groups are indicated by aMe, where 'a' indicates the position of the methyl group. Fatty acids were grouped based on criteria by McKinley et al. (2005) whereby Gram positive bacteria were branched monounsaturated cyclopropane (i-15:0, a-15:0, i-16:0, i-17:0 and a-17:0). Gram negative biomarkers are cyclopropane PLFAs (2-OH 12:0, 3-OH 12:0, 2-OH 14:0, 3-OH 14:0, 2-OH 16:0, C16\_1\_9\_cis, C16\_0\_2-OH, 16:1ω7c, 18:1ω7c, cy17:0, cy19:0), while actinomycetes is 10Me18:0. Fungi biomarkers are polyunsaturated PLFAs (18:1ω5c, 18:2ω9, 12C, 18:2ω6,9,12), while arbuscular mycorrhizae fungi (AMF) is 16:1ω5c, and *Desulfoviobrio* biomarker is i\_17\_1 (McKinley et al., 2005).

## 2.4 GeoChip analysis

Microarray analysis was performed on all the treatment combinations; C0S0, C0S1, C1S0, C1S1 from medium term study, whereas only C0S0 and C1S1 treatment combinations were used from long-term study. The samples selection for long-term study was done based on the geochemical and spectroscopic results obtained from medium-term study. Due to lack of space issue in the glovebox chamber, we used two replicates for each treatment combination. Rather than running microbial analysis for those two replicates, we did generate an additional replicate by mixing equal portions materials of 1 and 2 column replicates and ran that as an independent confirmation sample/third replicate.

## 2.5 DNA extraction, labeling, hybridization, scanning, and data processing

About 5 g of soil was used for genomic DNA extraction using the PowerMax soil DNA isolation kit (Mo Bio, Carlsbad, CA). Raw DNA extracts were purified using Wizard Plus *SV* Minipreps purification system (Promega Biosciences, San Luis Obispo, CA). Purified DNA was quantified using the Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA assay kit (Promega Biosciences, San Luis Obispo, CA). DNA was labeled then hybridized at 42 °C on GeoChip 4.2 as described in Lu et al. (2012). The hybridized arrays were scanned with a NimbleGen MS 200 Microarray Scanner, and scanned images were extracted and quantified using Nimble Scan software (Roche NimbleGen, Madison, WI), followed by data preprocessing (Lu et al., 2012). Positive and negative controls, including (i) 8 degenerate probes targeting 16S rRNA sequences for positive controls, (ii) 563 strain-specific probes targeting 7 hyper-thermophile genomes for negative controls, and (iii) a common oligonucleotide reference standard for data normalization and comparison was included for grid alignment and data normalization and comparison (Liang et al., 2011). Statistical analyses were performed using SAS for Windows version 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., 2009). The data were analyzed using PROC ANOVA. Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test was used for means separation ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Dissimilarity test was also conducted by using the software available at Institute of Environmental genomics (IEG) website, OU, OK (Table S3). All hybridization data are available at <http://www.agronomy.k-state.edu/research/soil-and-environment/soil-environment-chem/Research%20Data.html>.

## 3 Results

### 3.1 General characterization of mine waste materials

The mine waste material consisted of 85% sand (2000 to 50  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 11.3% silt (50 to 2  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and 3.4% clay (<2  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Total N and C were 0.03 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 1.56 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The pH of the

water extract (DI water: geomaterial mass ratio, 2:1) was 7.2, and the electrical conductivity was 2.31 mS cm<sup>-1</sup>. Selected total elemental concentrations of Pb, Zn, and Cd in the material were 5048, 23,468, and 67 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table S2). The standard reference material 2711a (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD) was digested along with the geomaterial to ensure a recovery percentage of each element that ranged from 79 to 109%.

### 3.2. Preliminary microbial community characterization

The PLFA analysis results on starting original mine tailings, inoculum, non-amended control, and amended soils submerged for 119-day indicated the presence of biomarkers for various microbial groups (Gram-, Gram+, AMF, fungi, and Actinomycetes). Total PLFA in starting mine waste materials was 2.42 nmole/g, whereas it was 6.18 nmole/g in the submerged sediment that was used as inoculum (Table S1). Once the materials were inoculated and submerged, no significant increase in summed abundance of PLFA biomarkers was observed in non-amended control (C0S0), whereas it was significantly increased in the samples treated with both OC plus S (C1S1). Specifically, Gram-, and Gram+ biomarkers abundance was significantly increased in amended soil, with respect to starting mine waste materials, whereas there was no noticeable difference in non-amended soil. Fungi biomarker abundance was decreased with varied amount in both untreated and treated soils under submergence. AMF and Actinomycetes PLFA biomarkers were also decreased, however remains same in both non-amended and amended samples. More interestingly, total PLFA for *Desulfovibrio* biomarkers was significantly increased in OC plus S treated soil only (Table S1).

### 3.3. X-ray absorption spectroscopy

Multiple synchrotron-based techniques have been used to enhance quantitative mineral species identification (Heald et al., 2007 and Manceau et al., 2002). Micro-, and bulk-XAS as well as  $\mu$ -

XRD techniques were used to identify the minerals in the original mine waste materials in this study. The results in agreement between  $\mu$ -XRD and bulk XAFS techniques indicated presence of carbonates, sulfates, silicates, and oxides minerals, which are supported by other studies conducted on smelter-impacted soils (Manceau et al., 2000a, Nachtegaal et al., 2005 and Scheinost et al., 2002). Bulk-XAFS speciation conducted for Pb, Zn and Cd in starting mine waste materials that was used in this study indicated none sulfide minerals, whereas it was dominant with silicates, carbonates, sulfates, phosphates, nitrates and hydroxides minerals (Fig. 1a, 1b and 1c). Speciation changed after the mine waste material was treated with OC and/or S, and submerged for different time period. Bulk XAS data indicated about 62% galena (PbS), 31% sphalerite (ZnS) and 39% Cd-sulfide formation in C1S1 compared to none in C0S0 (Fig. 1a, 1b and 1c), respectively under long-term incubation. Instead, more carbonates were formed in non-amended (C0S0) flooded materials (Karna et al., 2016). Functional gene diversity

Functional gene richness, indicated by the total number of genes detected, was significantly increased in C1S1 compared to C0S0 under medium-term submergence (Fig. 2). In contrast, under long-term submergence, the total number of detected genes significantly decreased in both C0S0, and C1S1 treatment (Fig. 2).

#### 3.4. Relationships among microbial communities

Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) was used to examine the overall functional structure changes in microbial communities with the OC-plus-S treatment under medium- and long-term submergence. In the DCA ordination plot, similar samples cluster closely (Ramette et al., 2007). The overall DCA ordination plot obtained from all detected genes resulted in clear clustering of samples from medium- and long-term submergence (Fig. 3).

277

278       When samples from medium- and long-term submergence were plotted individually,  
279       separate clusters for each treatment were formed (Fig. S1), indicating an overall effect of OC  
280       and/or S treatments and time on the community structure in relation to geochemistry dynamics  
281       and enhanced reduction (Fig. 3). DCA analysis with metal resistance genes showed a separate  
282       cluster for C1S1 but there was some overlap among the rest of the treatments under medium-  
283       term submergence (Fig. S2), however clearer clusters were formed for both C0S0 and C1S1  
284       under long-term submergence. Interestingly, the DCA ordination plot of C-cycling genes  
285       indicated clear cluster for C1S0 when only OC was added (Fig. S3). Similarly, the DCA plots of  
286       S-cycling category, and S-genes such as *dsrA* and *dsrB* segregated much clearly for C0S1 and  
287       C1S1 when S was added, whereas no overlapping was observed with rest of the other treatments  
288       (Fig. S4, S5, S6). Under longer submergence, both treatments, C0S0 and C1S1 samples made  
289       separate clusters under each category. Overall, DCA results for metal resistance and S-cycling  
290       genes showed clear clusters for the treatments submerged for both medium and long term, but  
291       the DCA ordination plot for C-cycling genes showed slight overlapping. The DCA of individual  
292       S-cycling genes: *dsrA*, *dsrB* (Fig. S5, S6) revealed clearer clusters with *dsrB* compared with  
293       *dsrA* genes.

### 294   3.5.   Total abundance of functional gene categories

295       The shifts that were observed in the DCA ordination plots were likely the result of changes in  
296       total abundance of functional genes. Results from individual gene categories revealed that S- and  
297       C-cycling functional gene abundance was enhanced by 35% and 27% respectively, in C1S1  
298       compared with C0S0 over time (Fig. 4a). On the other hand, metal resistance and organic

remediation functional genes decreased by 26% (Fig. 4a) and 21% (Fig. 4b), respectively, in C1S1 compared with C0S0.

Thus, significant enrichment of S- ( $p = 0.01$ ) and C-cycling genes ( $p = 0.01$ ) and a large decrease in metal resistance ( $p = 0.001$ ) and organic remediation genes by 50 to 60% ( $p = 0.001$ ) within both treated and untreated samples over time could have resulted in community structure changes. Functional genes involved in S- and C-cycling were significantly enhanced in C1S1 despite the fact that the total number of detected genes decreased under long-term submergence, indicating direct involvement of S- and C-cycling genes in biogeochemical transformation processes.

### 3.6 Changes in S-, C-cycling, and metal resistance genes

To better understand the differences observed in the categories above, changes in individual genes were examined. Sulfate-reducing bacteria mediate the direct and indirect reduction of heavy metals and metalloids (Chen et al., 1997 and White et al., 2000), and have been considered key players in anaerobic bioremediation for contaminated soils, waters, and subsurface (Janssen et al., 2004 and Kirk et al., 2002). In SRB, the *dsr* gene encodes the dissimilatory sulfite reductase enzyme with subunits, and A/B is a key enzyme in reducing sulfite to sulfide and is required by all sulfate reducers (Klein et al., 2004). Thus, *dsr* genes provide insight into SRB activities and their functional role in sulfate reduction. Under S-cycling, *dsrA*, *dsrB*, and *csyJ* were more abundant by 31% ( $p = 0.01$ ), 35% ( $p = 0.01$ ), and 40% ( $p = 0.002$ ), respectively, in C1S1 compared with C0S0 under long-term submergence (Fig. 5a), indicating their major role in dissimilatory sulfate reduction. Similarly, among C-cycling functional genes, phenol oxidase and endochitinase were the most dominant genes and were 35% ( $p = 0.002$ ) and 30% ( $p = 0.017$ ) more abundant, respectively, in C1S1 than in C0S0 (Fig. 5b). Metal resistance genes for Cd, Zn,

and Pb were examined, and *cadA* (Cd resistance gene), *czcA* (Cd, Zn, and Co resistance gene), and *pbrA* (Pb resistant gene) decreased by 29% ( $p < 0.001$ ), 24% ( $p = 0.002$ ), and 15% ( $p = 0.002$ ), respectively, in C1S1 compared with C0S0 over time (Fig. 5c).

Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was performed to examine the relationship between microbial community structure and geochemistry (Fig. 6) to correlate environmental variables with the functional community structure and determine the most significant variable causing the change in community structure. Environmental variables such as dissolved organic carbon (DOC),  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , total S, and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were used to perform CCA.

In CCA, environmental variables are represented as arrows starting at the origin and pointing outward. Our CCA results show that DOC and S are closer, with a small angle indicating these variables have a stronger correlation and have similar influence on microbial communities. Dissolved organic carbon and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  had longer arrows with larger angles, indicating these variables have a stronger influence on the microbial community but in a different manner. The  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and total S vectors are in opposite directions, indicating that these factors are negatively correlated. This could be explained as the total difference between total sulfur and sulfate is sulfide indicating that under high S concentrations, sulfide formation has been favored.

## 4.0. Discussions

### 4.1. Preliminary microbial community characterization

The contaminants effects on *in situ* microbiota are generally continuous, and may trigger the loss or emergence of a particular genera or species of microorganism (Smith et al., 1986). The higher abundance of gram+, and fungi biomarkers were present in the starting materials as these communities are more successful in resource limited situations like mine impacted soils with

very less nutrients. On addition of inoculum followed by OC and S treatment, changes in PLFA composition and biomass was detected compared to non-amended soil in medium-term submergence. This suggests that the OC and S additions in this study favored microbial growth pattern and composition resulting in change of microbial community structure. Specifically, branched monounsaturated cyclopropane PLFAs, characteristic of Gram+ bacteria, and cyclopropane PLFAs, characteristic of Gram- bacteria abundance, and branched fatty acid, i17:1, characteristics of *Desulfovibrio* were increased on OC and S amendment indicating that these PLFA biomarkers could be the main contributors in microbial community structure change in amended soil. The increased abundance of those microbial communities could be due to added OC and S, their prior presence, and their capability to survive in adverse situation, and difference in substrate utilization (Bossio et al., 1998 and Ibekwe et al., 1998). Another reason could be due to increased metal resistance genes. Several gram+, and gram- soil bacteria isolated from a Pb-contaminated sites have exhibited resistance to a range of metal ions such as Pb, Zn, Cu, Cd, Co, and Hg (Trajanovska et al., 1997). The significant increase in *Desulfovibrio* biomarker could be result of dissimilatory sulfate reduction happening in the system due to OC and S addition.

#### 4.2. Relationships among microbial communities

Detrended correspondence analysis conducted based on time effect indicated that there was not very clear clustering of microbial community based on OC and/or S treatments under medium-term submergence. Relatively more overlapping among the samples from C1S0, C0S1, and C0S0 systems were observed compared to C1S1 (Fig. S2), and that suggests some closer associated microorganisms from these treatments. The closely associated microbes could be due to common, and flexible substrate utilization preference. Comparatively, lesser or no overlap was observed among the samples from C1S1 and C0S0 under longer submergence. The segregation



among the clusters from these two treatments under different category increased with time depending on their involvement in microbial community structure changes. This supports the fact that time was another dominant factor in determining the microbial community structure. The positive effect of OC, S, and N via increase in corresponding functional genes abundance and the impact on change in microbial community structure has been observed by several studies (Fuhrman et al., 2009, Kleikemper et al., 2002 and Tokunaga et al., 2003). Overall, DCA results indicated that the decreases in metal resistance and organic remediation functional genes and enrichment in S- and C-cycling functional genes were mainly involved in the observed community shift.

#### **4.3. Functional gene diversity**

The significant increase in microbial community abundance in C1S1 followed by a significant decline may indicate rapid oxidation of added OC coupled with a reduction in available terminal electron acceptors (TEAs) and a subsequent decline as suitable TEAs were exhausted. This result could be explained by the trend that was observed with DOC concentration in the current study. Initial concentration of DOC in the eluent was 32 mM but was reduced to 30 mM in effluent at 7-day submergence and further decreased to < detection limit (DL) under long-term submergence in OC-added treatments. On the other hand, non-OC-treated columns showed <3 mM DOC, with no significant change during long-term submergence (Table 1). A similar result was reported by Brodie et al. (2006), in which initial enrichment in total functional genes was observed with OC addition and subsequently declined, but no such enhancement in functional gene richness was observed without OC addition. Therefore, we speculate that this results could be owing to decreased availability of OC (<3 mM) (Table 1).

Table 1. Chemical data for the effluent samples collected after medium- (119-day) and long- (252-day) term submergence. The soil samples collected at these time points were used for microarray analysis.

Previous studies revealed that the addition of OC stimulated biomass and microbial activity in these typically nutrient-poor environments and had a significant effect on microbial biomass, microbial community structure, and functional genes (Holmes et al., 2002, Martin et al., 2002 and Yergeau et al., 2007). Sufficient labile OC must be available for sulfate reduction and is a key rate-limiting factor in metal sulfide formation (Ku et al., 2008 and Morse et al., 1999). This process can be accelerated by the action of indigenous microorganisms fueled through the addition of exogenous carbon (Khan et al., 2010). The change in microbial community structure was observed because of direct and indirect involvement of certain functional genes that was also reported in the study, bioremediation of U using the microarray conducted by Van Nostrand et al. (2011). Several other studies conducted using other techniques, such as phospholipid fatty acid analysis (PLFA) and polymerase chain reactions-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (PCR-DGGE), reported changes in microbial community structure with the addition of OC as a substrate (Calbrix et al., 2007, Griffiths et al., 1998 and Eiler et al., 2003).

As previously mentioned, some of these genes represent background populations, whereas others may be directly involved in bio-reduction (Van Nostrand et al., 2011). For example, if organic remediation genes are considered to represent background functional genes, their significant decrease (Fig. 4b) is probably owing to an increase in genes directly involved in bio-reduction (i.e., *dsrA/B*) rather than a true reduction in organic remediation genes, because they are likely not involved in bio-reduction; the similar result was also reported by Van Nostrand et al. (2011).

#### 4.4. Total abundance of functional gene categories

The abundance of stress-related functional genes and metal resistance genes decreased during long-term submergence, with both C1S1 and C0S0 indicating that in addition to OC and S, submergence time played a role in decreasing toxicity in these systems. Heavy metals are predicted to represent a major stress on the microbial community, and adaptation to metal stress may be of particular importance in shaping microbial community structure (Hemme et al., 2010). Several studies have indicated the impact of heavy metals on microbial activities and their community structure (Khan et al., 2010 and Hemme et al., 2010). A study conducted on the effects of Pb and Cd on soil microbial activities and their community structure via denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) indicated that Pb and Cd together decreased the number of bacteria when no nutrients were supplied and revealed a significant impact on community structure dynamics, particularly at high Pb and Cd concentrations (Khan et al., 2010). Increased activity of S-cycling functional genes could be owing to readily available sulfate as TEA under more reduced conditions, thereby favoring dissimilatory sulfate reduction as reported before by Brodie et al. (2006) and Muyzer et al. (2008). In the current study, the relationship observed between enhanced dissimilatory sulfate reduction and increased S-cycling functional genes can be further supported by the decreased sulfate-S concentration in effluent samples (Table 1) and the increased metal sulfide formation (Fig. 1a, 1b and 1c). Direct involvement of C-cycling and S-cycling genes in dissimilatory S reduction via rapid consumption of OC followed by sulfate reduction were also reported before by Huerta-Diaz et al. (1998). The changes in microbial communities' result in changes in functional gene abundances.

Metal precipitation is one of the most significant processes involved in the long-term retention of metals in artificial and natural wetlands. Such processes may be accompanied by other indirect

reductive metal precipitation (such as redox transformation), including dissimilatory sulfate reduction and the subsequent precipitation of metal sulfides (Huerta-Diaz et al., 1998). As reported in Karna et al. (2016), our results also suggest that appropriate microbial communities were stimulated by OC- and/or S- treatments and resulted in rapid immobilization of Pb, Zn, and Cd in both C1S0 and C1S1 under medium- and long-term submergence. The reduction of metals concentration in solution were most likely due to biogeochemical transformations of Pb, Zn and Cd under reduced conditions. This was supported by bulk XAS, indicating increasing galena (PbS), sphalerite (ZnS), and cadmium sulfide formations in C1S1 over time (Karna et al., 2016). Similar amount of galena formation was also observed in C1S0. Limited S concentration and enhanced pH in C1S0 treatment, however, could lead metal carbonates to be more stable in long run, which are not as stable as sulfide minerals, and controlling metal solubility. Therefore, treatment with both OC and S will be more promising as metal sulfides are more resistant to oxidation, and less sulfide formation is needed to maintain permissibly low metal concentrations in water for a longer period of time.

A handful of studies have examined non-redox-sensitive element removal via constructed wetland treatment systems (Almendras et al., 2009 and White et al., 2000). Earlier studies by Almendras et al. (6) tested Pb, Cu, and Zn stability via sulfide formations and showed that biostimulation plays a vital role in stabilizing Pb, Zn and Cd in the subsurface environment. The results from our study also suggest that wetland construction can be a better alternative for stabilizing non-redox-sensitive elements such as Pb, Zn and Cd in mine waste materials or similar geomaterial. Uniqueness of this study is that microbial analyses presented here in details are in agreements with molecular-scale synchrotron-based X-ray data (Karna et al., 2016). Combining advanced microbiological techniques with synchrotron based speciation enhances

our understanding of the biogeochemical processes involved in Pb and Zn removal via dissimilatory sulfate reductions under reduced conditions. The results obtained from the current study indicate that OC and S addition stimulated microbial growth and activities, causing changes in the functional microbial community structure via enhancement or reduction of functional genes in saturated mine waste materials enriched with Pb and Zn. The decrease in metal resistance genes indicated reduced toxicity over time. Correspondingly, enrichment in S- and C-cycling genes in OC- and/or -S-treated samples corroborated that these members made significant contributions to the metal stability in the highly contaminated mine waste in a subsurface environment. Sulfur-reducing bacteria gene *dsrA/B* appeared to be a key player in forming metal sulfides and was significantly enhanced in C1S1 during long-term submergence. On the other hand, no significant difference was detected in functional gene richness in any C0S0 treatment category over time. The information obtained from this study help us conclude that biostimulation would be beneficial for inducing metal sulfide formations in mine waste materials and that SRBs can be used as key players in *in situ* bioremediation of Pb and Zn in subsurface treatment wetlands.

## Supplementary Materials

There are six supplementary figures and three supplementary **tables** provided in this document.

## Acknowledgements

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#### **Author's contributions**

R.R.K. conceived, designed, and performed the experiments with the support of G.M.H., and wrote the paper with input from G.M.H. T.Y. assisted in collecting the microarray data at the institute of Environmental Genomics. J.D.V., C.W.R., and J.Z. assisted in data analysis and data interpretation. Y.M.A. assisted in statistical analysis.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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678 United States of America, **105**, 7768-7773.

## 679 **List of Tables**

680 Table 1. Chemical data for the effluent samples collected after medium- (119-day) and long-  
681 (252-day) term submergence. The soil samples collected at these time points were used for  
682 microarray analysis.

683

684

Sample	(µg/L)			pH	(mg/L)		
	Zn	Cd	Pb		DOC	Sulfate-S	Nitrate-N
C0S0 119-day	723±40.9	432±10.9	<DL	7.57±0.02	5±0.03	474±10.25	2.0±0.1
C0S0 252-day	517±30.9	28±0.9	<DL	8.41±0.03	62±2.6	571±5.64	2.0±0.2
C0S1 119-day	30±1.7	2±0.01	<DL	8.00±0.02	4±0.1	468±6.78	1.8±0.5
C0S1 252-day	<DL	1±0.006	36±1.6	6.39±0.005	65±0.8	¶	2.2±0.02
C1S0 119-day	<DL	1±0.001	<DL	8.18±0.012	5±0.02	503±7.34	1.9±0.01
C1S0 252-day	<DL	<DL	<DL	7.58±0.015	<DL	474±3.95	2.0±0.05
C1S1 119-day	<DL	1±0.004	<DL	7.40±0.01	4±0.1	437±10.02	1.8±0.04
C1S1 252-day	<DL	<DL	<DL	7.02±0.01	<DL	288±8.64	1.9±0.14

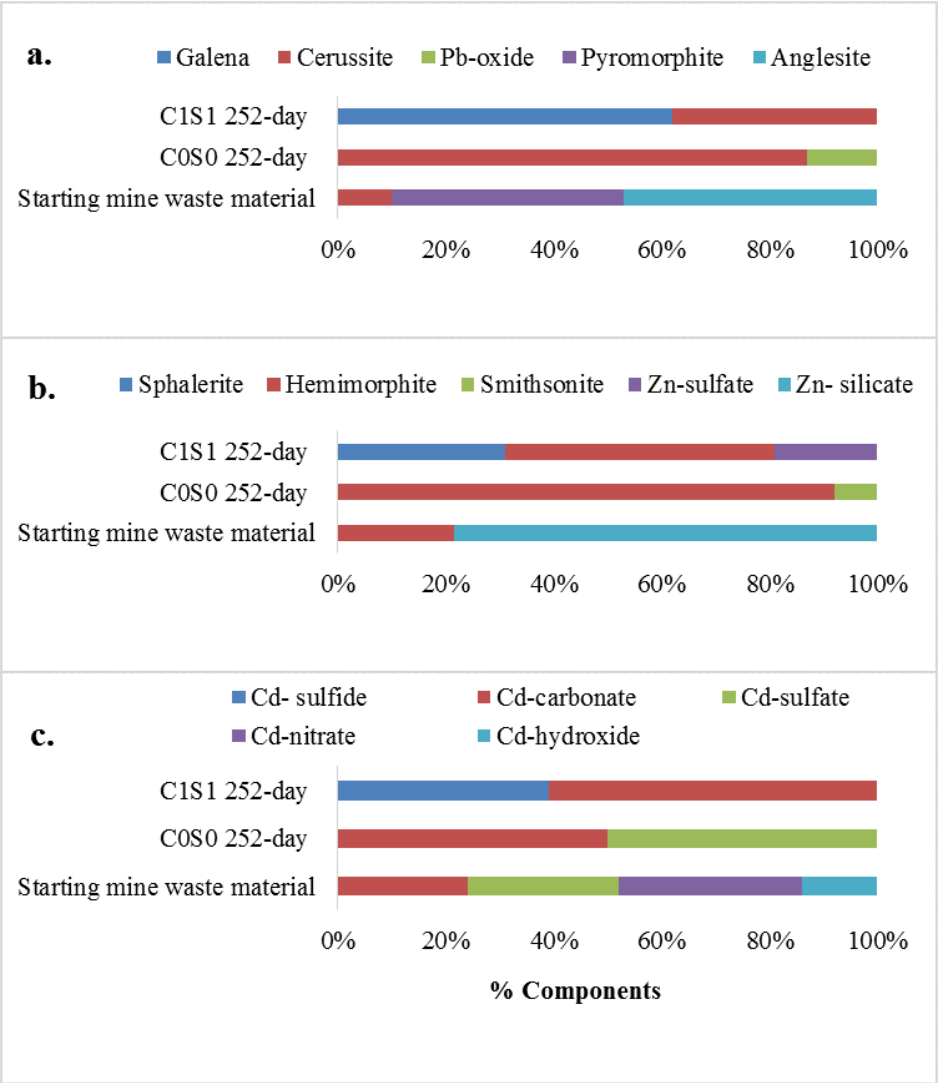
¶DL corresponds to detection limit. Detection limit of 0.6 for Cd, and 0.7 µgL<sup>-1</sup> for Pb was determined.

¶ indicates data not collected

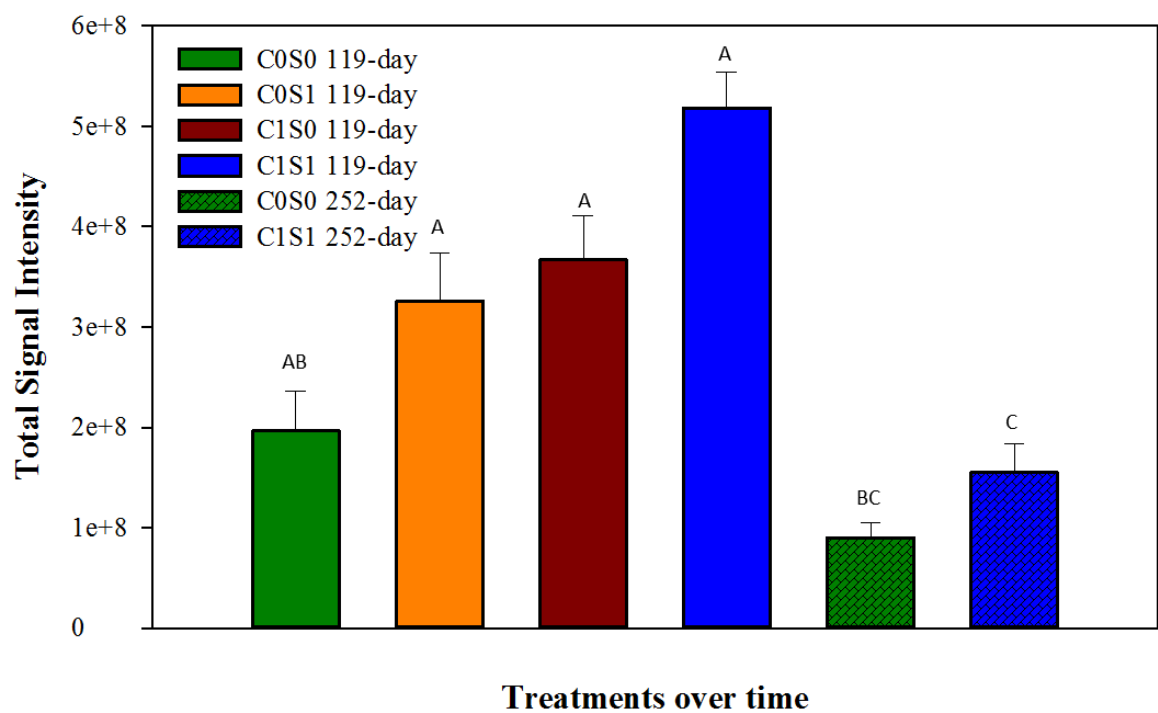
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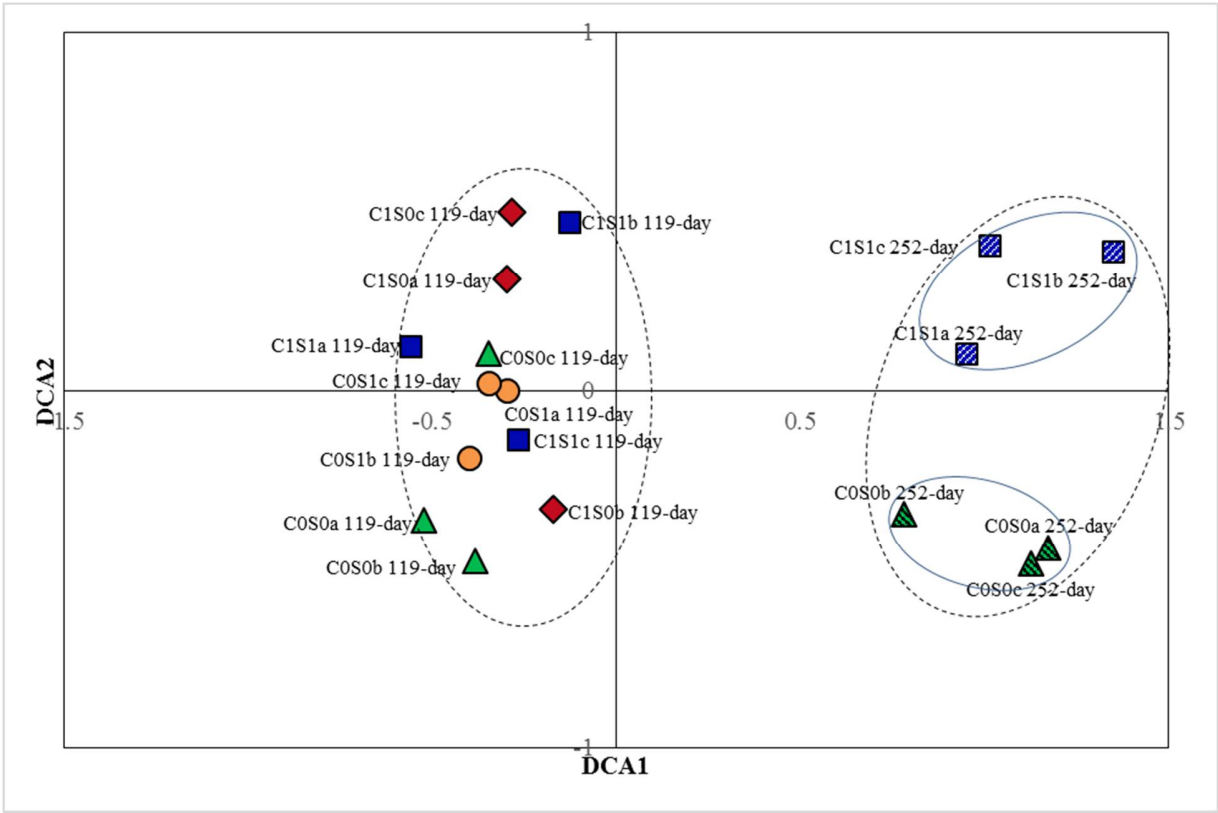
**List of Figures:**



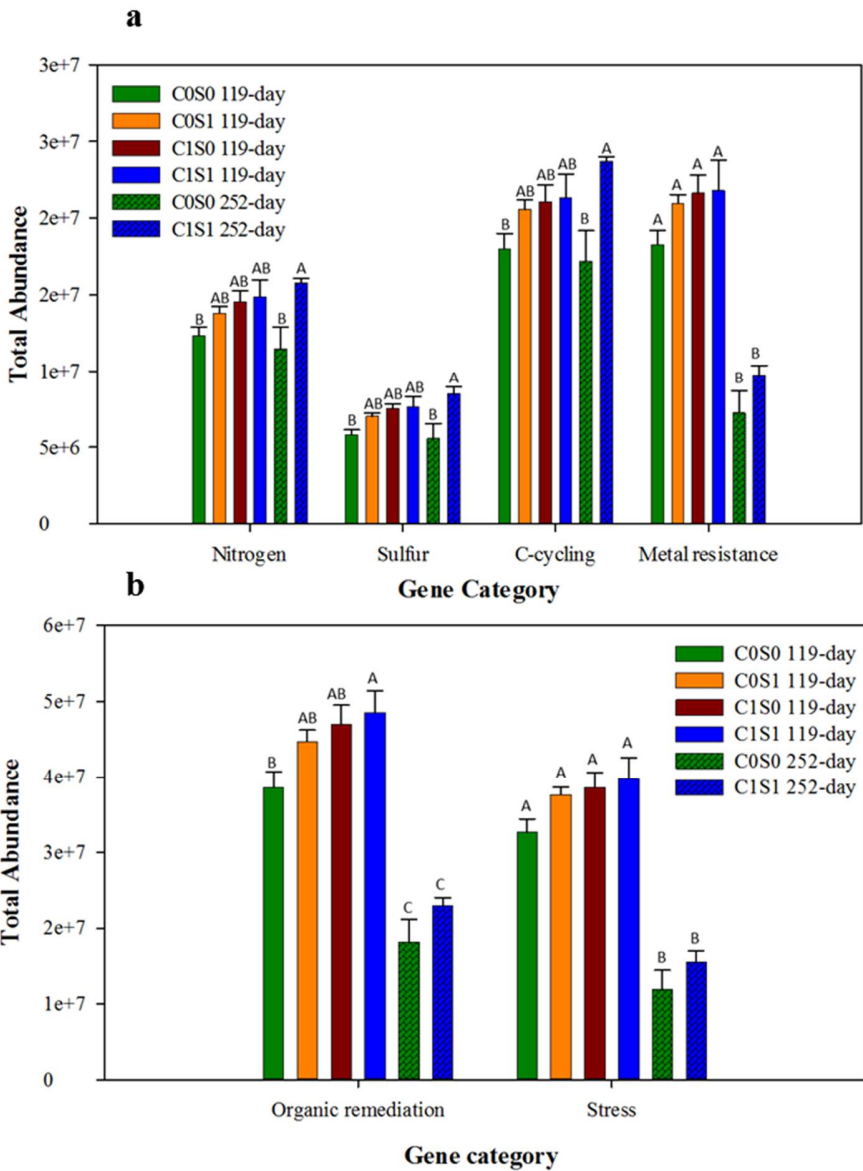
**Figure 1:** X-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy results showing % components for a) Lead, b) zinc and c) cadmium in starting mine waste material, control (C0S0) and OC-plus-S-treated sample (C1S1) under long-term (252-day) submergence. The phase identified as less than 10% may not be significant due to error associated with smaller estimations.



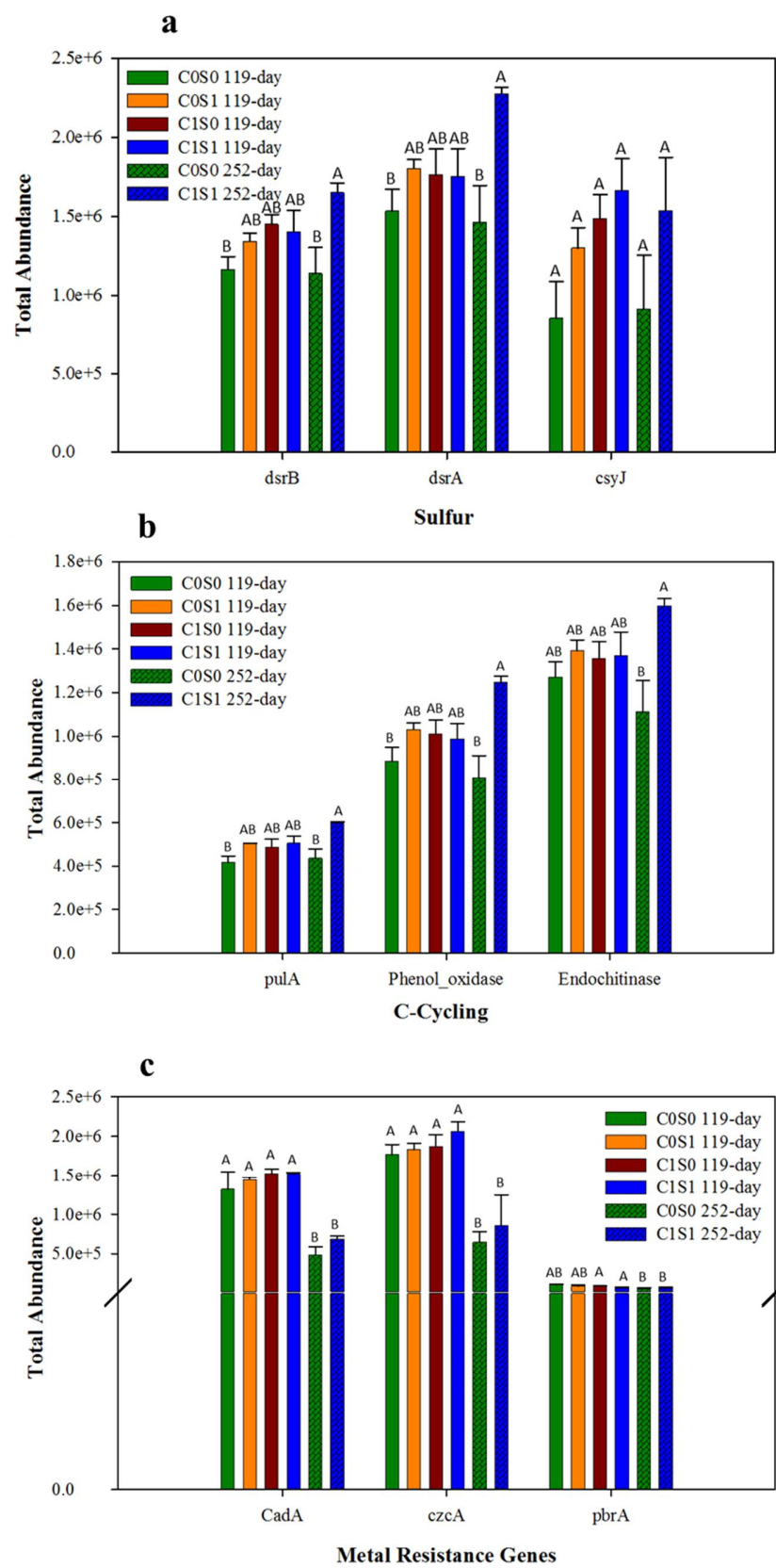
**Figure 2:** Functional Gene richness under medium- (119-day), and long-term (252-day) submergence. All the treatments; C0S0, C0S1, C1S0, and C1S1 (solid filled bars) from medium-term submergence, and only C0S0, and C1S1 (pattern filled bars) from long-term submergence are plotted. Vertical bars represent the mean of three replicates; 2 replicates from individual column, and 1 replicate from the mixture of two columns. Bars with the same letters are not significantly different. Different letters within a category indicate significance difference ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).



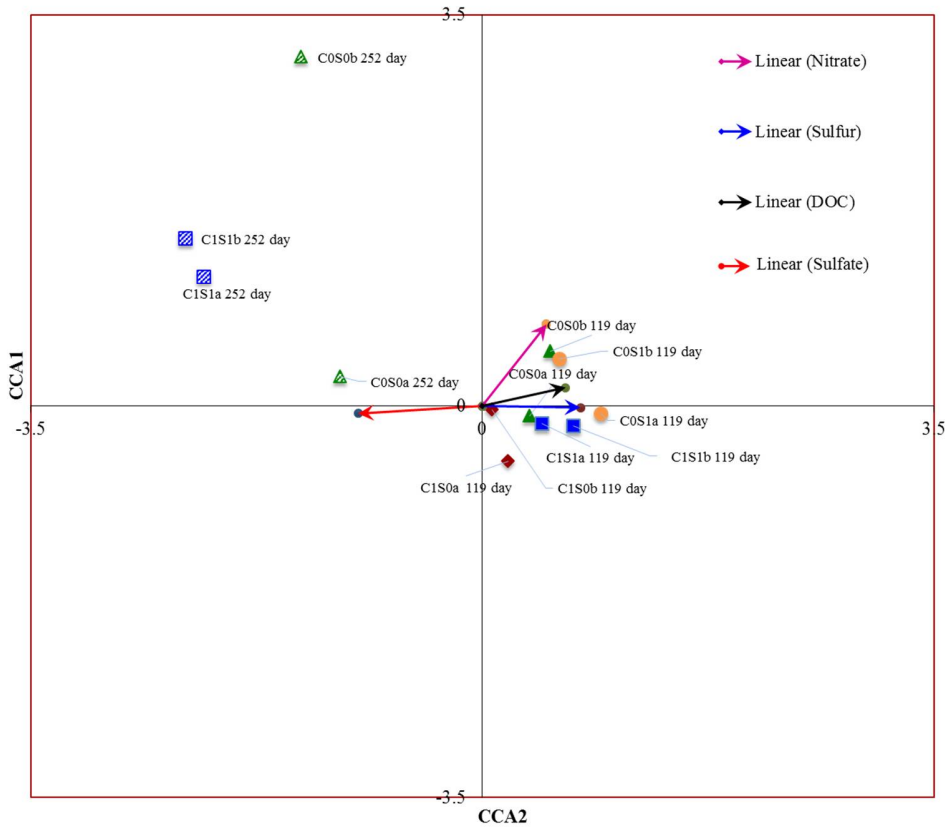
**Figure 3:** Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) for the total number of detected genes under medium- (119-day) and long-term (252-day) submergence, indicating community structure changes. All the treatments; C0S0, C0S1, C1S0, and C1S1 (solid filled markers) from medium-term submergence, and only C0S0, and C1S1 (pattern filled markers) from long-term submergence are plotted.



**Figure 4:** Total abundance of function genes in selected categories for the samples submerged for both medium- (119-day) and long-term (252-day) submergence. All the treatments; C0S0, C0S1, C1S0, and C1S1 (solid filled bars) from medium-term submergence, and only C0S0, and C1S1 (pattern filled bars) from long-term submergence are plotted. Vertical bars represent the mean of three replicates; 2 replicates from individual column, and 1 replicate from the mixture of two columns. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different. Different letters within a category indicate significance difference ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).



**Figure 5:** Total abundance of a) *dsrA*/*dsrB*, and *csyJ* in the sulfur category, b) *pulA*, Phenol\_oxidase, Endochitinase under the C-cycling category, and c) Cd resistance gene (*CadA*), Zn resistance gene (*czcA*), and Pb resistance gene (*pbrA*). Vertical bars represent the mean of three replicates. All the treatments; C0S0, C0S1, C1S0, and C1S1 (solid filled bars) from medium-term submergence, and only C0S0, and C1S1 (pattern filled bars) from long-term submergence are plotted. Vertical bars represent the mean of three replicates; 2 replicates from individual column, and 1 replicate from the mixture of two columns. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different. Different letters within a category indicate significance difference ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).



**Figure 6:** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) indicating the relationship between microbial communities with environmental factors.