Identification of a Cluster of Benzene Activation Enzymes in a Strictly Anoxic Methanogenic Consortium

Courtney R. A. Toth[1], Olivia Molenda[1], Camilla Nesbø[1,2], Fei Luo[1‡], Cheryl E. Devine[1], Xu Chen[1], Kan Wu[1], Johnny Xiao[1], Shen Guo[1], Nancy Bawa[1], Robert Flick[1], and Elizabeth A. Edwards[1*]

[1]Department of Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, M5S 3E5, Canada.

[2]Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2E9, Canada

‡Current Address: Liven Proteins Corporation, 200 College Street, Toronto, Ontario, M5S 3E5, Canada

*For correspondence, e-mail: elizabeth.edwards@utoronto.ca; Tel. (+1) 416 946 3506; Fax (+1) 416 978 8605.

Running Title: Anaerobic benzene activation enzymes

Keywords: Benzene, *Desulfobacterota* ORM2, "*Candidatus* Benzenivorax", Proteomics, Bioremediation, Biodegradation, Anaerobic Hydrocarbon Degradation, Methanogenesis

Funding and Competing Interests Statement: This study was funded by Genomic Application Partnership Program (GAPP) grants awarded to E.A.E. (Project IDs OGI-102 and OGI-173), which were supported by Genome Canada, Ontario Genomics, the Government of Ontario, Mitacs Canada, SiREM, Alberta Innovates, Federated Co-operatives Limited, and Imperial Oil. The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ABSTRACT

The Oil Refinery (OR) consortium is a model methanogenic enrichment culture for studying anaerobic benzene degradation. Over 80% of the culture's bacterial community is comprised of two closely related strains of benzene-fermenting *Desulfobacterota* (designated ORM2a and ORM2b) whose mechanism of benzene degradation is unknown. Two new metagenomes, including a fully closed metagenome-assembled genome (MAG) for ORM2a, enabled a thorough investigation of this culture's proteome. Among the proteins identified were Bam-like subunits of an ATP-independent benzoyl-CoA degradation pathway and associated downstream beta-oxidation proteins producing acetyl-CoA. The most abundant proteins identified mapped to two ORM2 gene clusters of unknown function. Syntenic gene clusters were identified in one other known benzene degrader, *Pelotomaculum* candidate BPL, as well as a handful of contigs assembled from hydrothermal vent metagenomes. Extensive searches against reference sequence and structural databases indicate that the first ("Magic") gene cluster likely catalyzes the chemically difficult benzene activation step. The second ("Nanopod") gene cluster is predicted to code for an efflux system that pumps excess benzene out of cells, mitigating some of its toxigenic effects. Phylogenomic analyses place ORM2a and ORM2b within a novel genus of benzene-degrading specialists which we propose naming "*Candidatus* Benzenivorax". We hope to engage the research community to help in confirming the roles of the proteins in the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters, and to search through their own cultures for these features.

INTRODUCTION

It has been over forty years since anaerobic benzene degradation was first discovered by Ward et al. [1], reversing a long-held tenet that aromatic hydrocarbons were recalcitrant under anaerobic conditions. Notorious for its carcinogenicity, stringent environmental regulations, and persistence in anoxic environments, benzene has been the subject of numerous studies seeking to characterize its metabolism in the absence of oxygen [2, 3]. Laboratory enrichment culture studies have confirmed unequivocally that anaerobic benzene degradation can be coupled to iron (III) reduction, nitrate reduction, sulfate reduction, and methanogenesis, catalyzed by a handful of specialized microbial clades [2, 4]. The complete biodegradation of benzene was recently shown to be independent of oxygen in a subculture of the OR consortium [5], which is also likely the case under other anaerobic electron-accepting conditions. But despite great efforts, the biochemical mechanism(s) by which unsubstituted aromatic rings are activated in the absence of oxygen have yet to be proven experimentally.

Initial studies using ^{13}C- and ^{14}C-benzene and occasionally $H_2^{18}O$ identified three possible activation reactions based on the detection of labelled metabolites: (i) anaerobic hydroxylation of benzene yielding phenol [6-13], (ii) carboxylation of benzene yielding benzoate [7, 9-11, 14, 15], and (iii) Friedel-Crafts-type methylation of benzene yielding toluene [11]. Neither phenol or benzoate are diagnostic of a single activation mechanism [16], and evidence of benzene methylation has since been sparse in literature [17, 18]. In 2008, hydrogen and carbon isotope fractionation ratios ($\Delta\delta\,^2H/\Delta\delta\,^{13}C$, a value defined as Λ) from active benzene-degrading enrichment cultures were used to look for evidence of distinct anaerobic benzene degradation pathways [19-21]. The extent of isotope fractionation in nitrate-reducing cultures (Λ = 8 to 19, n = 5) was much

lower than for sulfate-reducing and methanogenic cultures surveyed including OR (Λ = 28 to 31,

n = 7), suggesting that at least two biochemical benzene activation mechanisms exist [19].

By 2010, breakthrough developments in DNA sequencing and analysis techniques enabled

(meta)genomic characterization of anaerobic benzene degraders for the first time [22-24]. These

data were combined with proteomics or differential expression assays to search for elusive benzene

activation genes. Abu Laban et al. [25] sequenced the metagenome of the iron-reducing enrichment

culture BF and identified a putative anaerobic benzene carboxylation gene (*abcA*) on a *Clostridia*

affiliated-contig. Expression of *abcA* and neighboring genes (*abcD*, benzoyl-CoA ligase [*bzlA*]

and a *ubiX*-like gene) was induced with benzene but not with phenol or benzoate, hinting at a

possible role in benzene activation. Homologous gene clusters have since been identified in the

transcriptomes of several nitrate-reducing cultures [26-28] – including several previously analyzed

by isotopic fractionation [19, 20] – and an benzene-degrading archaeon [15]. Most nitrate and iron-

reducing benzene degraders identified thus far have been affiliated with the order *Thermincolales*

[26-30]; a putative benzene-carboxylating, sulfate-reducing *Thermincolales* was also recently

identified in a jet fuel-contaminated aquifer via metagenomics [31]. Researchers are now

attempting to verify benzene carboxylation using structural and biochemical assays, among other

tools [30, 32, 33].

Evidence for benzene hydroxylation has only been shown for one microorganism,

Geobacter metallireducens GS-15, via gene deletion. In 2013-2014, Zhang et al. [6, 24] identified

a handful of genes that were upregulated during active phenol or benzene metabolism, and the

deletion of key genes (Gmet0231, Gmet0232, or *ppsA*) inhibited the degradation of one or both

substrates. The gene *ppsA* encodes for the alpha subunit of phenylphosphate synthase and is

required for catalyzing the first step in anaerobic phenol metabolism [34, 35]. Functional

annotations suggest that the genes Gmet0231 and Gmet0232 encode for putative oxidoreductases,

but their exact functions are unknown. Homologs of Gmet0231 and Gmet0232 have been found

in other microorganisms not known/incapable of degrading benzene, but the adjacent localization

of these genes does appear to be unique to *G. metallireducens* GS-15 [24]. Further work on this

strain degrading benzene has not been reported. In 2024, Bullows et al. [18] identified a fumarate

addition gene cluster (Geob_2437-Geob_2440, encoding for 3-hydrobenzylsuccinate synthase)

and a putative methyltransferase (Geob_0241) in the genome of *Geotalea daltonii* strain FRC-32,

a close relative of *Geobacter*. All five genes were upregulated during active benzene metabolism

but not with toluene. Given that fumarate addition enzymes are only known to catalyze the

activation of alkanes and alkyl-substituted aromatic rings [17], the authors posited that benzene

might first be methylated by the gene product of Geob_0241 [18]. Toluene formation has not yet

been detected during active benzene degradation by this bacterium [18].

Curiously, homologs of known and predicted anaerobic aromatic-activating genes (e.g.,

abcA, *ppsA*, Gmet0231, Gmet0232, and fumarate addition genes) have never been detected in

methanogenic benzene-degrading enrichment cultures [4, 22] or in the well-characterized sulfate-

reducing enrichment culture BPL [36]. Genes associated with aerobic metabolism

(monooxygenases) and anaerobic growth on benzoate (benzoyl-CoA ligase) have also never been

found in these cultures [36]. Thus far, metagenomic and proteomic surveys of representative

cultures (OR and BPL) have only identified the presence and expression of putative ATP-

independent benzoyl-CoA biodegradation pathways during active benzene degradation [22, 36].

Benzoyl-CoA is a central metabolic intermediate of all proposed anaerobic benzene degradation

pathways [37, 38]. Given this information and previous isotope fractionation data [19, 20]

indicating that the mechanism of benzene activation catalyzed by the OR culture is distinct from

carboxylation, we surmise that a novel hydrocarbon activation mechanism or complex exists that

can catalyze anaerobic transformation of benzene to benzoyl-CoA.

In this study, we integrate the information from three rounds of proteomics experiments on

the methanogenic benzene-degrading OR consortium. The culture, which has been studied for over

25 years [4, 5, 11, 19, 20, 22, 39-44], harbors two closely related strains of benzene-degrading

Desulfobacterota (ORM2a and ORM2b), methanogenic archaea (*Methanothrix* and

Methanoregula), and >100 other typically low abundance microorganisms with various predicted

functions [41-43]. Proteomics was first conducted on the OR consortium in the early 2010's [22]

but results were difficult to interpret due to the lack of a sound metagenome and low protein counts

[22]. These experiments also depleted most of our culture, delaying further experimentation until

sufficient volumes were replenished (doubling time of ~30 days). In the years since, improvements

in culture maintenance [5, 41, 44] and new sequencing efforts have enabled the reconstruction of

two higher quality metagenomes and 74 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) [42]. The

genome of ORM2a was successfully closed (GenBank assembly no. GCA_026625185.1, genome

accession no. CP113000.1), making it a potentially valuable blueprint for finally deciphering

anaerobic benzene degradation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Culture maintenance

The OR consortium was enriched from samples from an oil refinery in Oklahoma in 1995 [45] and

has been maintained in a near-identical manner ever since. Briefly, cultures are grown in a defined

pre-reduced anaerobic mineral medium [5, 40] and are fed benzene (~5-40 mg/L) once every 4-6

weeks. The OR consortium has been subcultured many times, resulting in the emergence of five

distinct culture lineages [41, 43]. The "OR-b" lineage, illustrated in Figure S1, is the most well

characterized [4, 5, 19, 22, 41-44] and was surveyed in this study. A large scale (>100 liters)

bioaugmentation culture known as DGG-B [4, 5] was derived from the OR-b lineage. Though the

OR consortium has been amended with other substrates (including benzoate and toluene), only

benzene has been shown to support the growth of ORM2a and ORM2b [22, 39].

Sequencing, assembly, and annotation of OR metagenomes and MAGs

Between 2010 – 2017, the metagenomes of three OR-b subcultures designated OR-b1A, DGG1A,

and DGG-0 were sequenced (Figure S1). Details into the DNA extraction methods, sequencing

platforms, and bioinformatics tools used for metagenomic assembly and binning are published

elsewhere [22, 42], thus only relevant information is included here. The OR-b1A (2010)

metagenome was sequenced using Illumina paired-end technology (2×100 base pairs, bp) and was

assembled in ABySS v.1.3.2 [46] using varying kmer lengths (Chapter 5 of Devine [22]). The

assembly process was challenging and only 23 resulting contigs were >10 kbp. Toth et al. [42]

assembled the metagenomes of DGG1A (2016) and DGG-0 (2017) using short-read (Illumina

paired-end) and long-read (PacBio) shotgun sequences, resulting in longer, high quality contigs.

Following binning, three draft MAGs including ORM2a were refined into closed (completed)

genomes [42]. The correct assembly of each closed genome was verified by read mapping. The

average sequence depth for the ORM2a genome was 1,371× [42, 47].

Toth et al. [42] assigned taxonomy to all draft and complete MAGs using release 214 of

the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB) and GTDB tool kit (v.2.3.2) using the classify_wf

command [42, 48, 49]. In this study, the ORM2a genome and a medium-quality MAG putatively

belonging to ORM2b (MAG4_ORM2b, 3,214,903 bp across 378 contigs) were reclassified using

release 220 of GTDB and GTDB-tk v.2.4.0 (discussed later). All metagenomic assemblies

(including OR-b1A) and complete MAGs were submitted to NCBI and/or the Joint Genome

Institute (JGI) for automated gene calling and functional annotation. Seventy-one draft MAGs

including MAG4_ORM2b were deposited in figshare [47] and for this study were gene called

using RASTtk [50] in March, 2022. Data availability information including accession numbers

and functional annotation pipelines used is provided in Table S1.

Analysis of the ORM2a genome

Several automatic pipelines were used to visualize the organization of the ORM2a genome. Ori-

Finder 2022 [51] was used to identify the genomes' origin of replication (*oriC*). IslandViewer 4

[52] and PHASTER [53] were used to identify genomic islands and prophage sequences,

respectively. Functional annotations and hidden Markov model assignments (from NCBI and JGI)

were used to identify transposase genes. Putative insertion sequences were identified using

ISfinder [54]. The mummer2circos package in GitHub

(https://github.com/metagenlab/mummer2circos) [55] was used to generate a circular plot of the

ORM2a genome and to compare its homology with MAG4_ORM2b (Figure 1). Two-way average

nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis of both genomes was performed using an online calculator

(http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/ani/). To assess the metabolic potential of the ORM2a genome,

coding sequences predicted by the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline were uploaded

to BlastKOALA for automatic KEGG Orthology (KO) assignment [56], then organized into

metabolic pathways using the Reconstruct tool within KEGG Mapper [57, 58].

Protein extraction and LC-MS/MS analysis

Between 2010-2018, proteomics experiments were performed on three OR-b lineage subcultures

(OR-b1C, OR-b, and OR-b1A; see Figure S1). Culture information, including culture volumes

extracted and benzene degradation rates at the time of sampling, are provided in Table 1. To avoid

oxygen contamination, most protein extraction steps were performed in an anaerobic chamber

(Coy Laboratory Products Inc) supplied with a gas mix of 10% H_2, 10% CO_2 and 80% N_2. All

reagents and containers used were incubated in the anaerobic chamber for >24 hours prior to use,

and all steps were performed at 4 °C unless otherwise specified.

Experiment #1 (OR-b1C, 2010) and Experiment #2 (OR-b, 2011) were conducted by

Devine [22] using LC-MS/MS sequencing of porcine trypsin-digested crude extracts. Detailed

sample preparation methods can be found in Text S1 and in Section 6.1.3 of Devine's PhD thesis

[22]. In Experiment #3 (OR-b1A, 2018), cell pellets from two 50 mL volumes of culture (10,000

x g, 15 min, 23 °C) were suspended in a sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-containing lysis buffer (50

mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.6], 2% w/v SDS, and 50 mM DDT) and sonicated at 23-30W for 10 min in

pulse mode (1 s ON/1 s OFF for 1 min, 1 min OFF, repeat). Proteins from one crude lysate

(Experiment #3a) were purified using a Microcon-30kDa centrifugal filter unit (Millipore) as

outlined by Wiśniewski et al. [59], then subjected to an 18-24 hr in-solution digestion with porcine

trypsin [22]. The second crude lysate (Experiment #3b) was mixed with 2× SDS gel-loading buffer

(50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 6.8], 10% SDS [sodium dodecyl-sulfate], 40% glycerol, 3 mM bromophenol

blue, and 500 mM DDT]) and separated on a 15% SDS-PAGE gel run for 45 min at 200 V.

Visualization of the resulting gel revealed a long protein smear with no distinct bands (Figure S2),

which we sliced into five equal sections then destained and digested with porcine trypsin as

described in Shevchenko et al. [60].

LC-MS/MS analysis of Experiments #1 and #2 peptides was conducted by Devine [22] at

the SickKids SPARC BioCentre using an LTQ Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Run parameters are summarized in Tang et al. [61]. LC-MS/MS analysis of Experiment

#3 peptides was conducted at the University of Toronto BioZone Mass Spectrometry Facility.

Briefly, peptides were separated over a 10.5 cm × 7.5 μm diameter C_{18} column over 60 min using

a gradient of 0% - 40% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid. Peptide data were acquired in the data-

dependent mode using a Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with

a 2-Da isolation width, a 35% normalized collision energy, a 2+ charge state, a 0.250 activation

Q, and a 30-ms activation time.

Protein identification

Raw mass spectrometry data were converted into mzXML using MSconvert [62] then uploaded

into Version 2020.11.12.1 of X! Tandem (The GPM, thegpm.org) for peptide and protein

discovery. Spectra were screened against a large, redundant library of protein sequences

(1,595,050 entries) with a mass tolerance of <0.4 Da for the fragment ions and <20 ppm for the

precursor ion. The library provided in File S1 and overviewed in Table S1, contained 1,106,523

translated gene sequences called by IMG (three metagenomic assemblies and 3 closed MAGs),

NCBI (3 closed MAGs), and RAST-tk (67 draft MAGs). The database also included 488,411

reverse-translated (decoy) protein sequences from the DGG0 metagenome to calculate a false

discovery rate, and 116 entries from common human/laboratory contaminants. We are in the

process of depositing the library to figshare for publication. Peptide and protein identifications

were accepted if they could be established at greater than 95.0% and 99.0% probability,

respectively [63, 64]. Proteins sharing peptide evidence were grouped into clusters.

Functional and structural prediction of ORM2a proteins detected in high abundances

The most abundant and recurring protein clusters identified mapped to two ORM2a gene clusters

of mostly unknown functions (see Table 2 and Figure 1). To assess whether products of these

clusters were involved in anaerobic benzene degradation, we first performed protein BLAST

searches against all other OR metagenomic assemblies and MAGs, as well as reference

(meta)genomic sequences in NCBI (nr), JGI (IMG/M), and UniProt (UniProt KB reference

proteomes + Swiss-Prot). Next, the sequence-based tool MotifFinder

(https://www.genome.jp/tools/motif/) was used to identify conserved domains in each gene.

Protein structures were predicted using the AlphaFold2.ipynb tool within Colab [65, 66], then

compared to homologous structures and protein domains within the Dali server's Protein Data

Bank (PDB) [67] and DeepFRI [68]. All AlphaFold 2 protein structural models will be deposited

to figshare shortly (File S2). Maximum likelihood trees were constructed in RAxML v.8.2.1.1

within Geneious v.8.1.9 [69, 70] to corroborate predicted protein functions where possible.

Translated gene sequences were also sent to the laboratory of Prof. Christine Orengo (University

College London) for independent analysis using CATH v.4.4 [71] and PROST [72].

Phylogenomic analyses

The taxonomic classification of ORM2a and ORMb has never been fully resolved. In fact, they

have been reassigned at least 3 times to different classes of Desulfobacterota since 2021

(Deltaproteobacteria, UBA8473, and most recently to WTBG01) [4, 42]. To resolve these

incongruencies, phylogenomic analysis of the closed ORM2a genome and MAG4_ORM2b was

performed in v.1.8.8 of GToTree [73]. Briefly, we retrieved all representative genomes from

UBA8473 and WTBG01 from GTDB v.220, as well as closely related genomes from selected

Deltaproteobacteria, then extracted target genes using the Proteobacteria.hmm single copy gene

set within GToTree. *In silico* translated protein sequences were aligned using MUSCLE [74] and

concatenated. A maximum likelihood tree was constructed from the concatenated alignment using

IQ-TREE v.2.3.6 [75] with the LG+F+I+R5 substitution model, inferred as best model by IQ-

TREE, and 100 bootstraps. For comparative purposes, a second maximum likelihood tree was

constructed using 16S rRNA gene sequences extracted from each representative GTDB genome

(if available) and from clone sequences of known/predicted anaerobic benzene degraders.

Desulfocapsa sulflexigens DSM 10523 (GCA_000341395.1) was included as an outgroup.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

General features of the ORM2a genome

The ORM2a genome consists of a single chromosome 3,300,546 bp in length with low GC skew

and no definitive terminus region (Figure 1, Figure S3). General genome statistics are summarized

in Table S2. Automated pipelines identified twelve possible genomic islands, of which two are

likely prophage sequences and 9 contain putative transposase genes (Figure 1 and Table S3). An

additional 47 transposase genes and 63 insertion sequences-like structures were scattered across

the genome (Figure 1 and Tables S4-S5), hinting that the ORM2a genome has been shaped by

numerous rearrangement events. A similarly high transposase content was found in the closed

genome of another OR culture bacterium, "*Candidatus* Nealsonbacteria" DGGOD1a, putatively

involved in necromass recycling [43]. No probable CRISPR elements, virulence factors, or

antimicrobial resistance genes were identified.

Approximately half (46%) of the 3,135 genes identified in the ORM2a genome were

connected to KEGG Orthology modules and could be organized into metabolic pathways. Key

pathways are overviewed here and in Figure 2; all other (in)complete pathways identified are

summarized in Table S6. The ORM2a genome exhibits limited metabolic potential to degrade

carbohydrates, lipids, amino acids, and nucleic acids. Pathways for ATP generation are also

limited, consisting of an F-type ATPase, a Nuo-type NADH dehydrogenase [complex I] with one

missing subunit (*nuoG*), and a dissimilatory sulfate reduction pathway. Recent experimental

evidence suggested that ORM2a could couple benzene oxidation to sulfate reduction [4], but this

is the first genomic evidence supporting this observation. Curiously, products of the ORM2a

sulfate reduction pathway were detected in the OR proteomes despite not adding any sulfate to the

culture medium (Figure 2). BLAST searches and manual inspections confirmed that the ORM2a

genome does not contain any homologs to known/predicted hydrocarbon activation genes or to a

benzoyl-CoA ligase (*bzlA*). The latter is a significant distinction between microorganisms

containing putative anaerobic benzene carboxylase genes (*abcAD*) and those that do not [36].

Nevertheless, the presence of a complete ATP-independent benzoyl-CoA degradation pathway is

consistent with ORM2a's involvement in benzene oxidation (Figures 1 and 2).

Only a few complete anabolic pathways were identified in the ORM2a genome, including

pathways for amino acids and vitamin biosynthesis (Figure 2 and Table S6). Functional

annotations of >40 putative transporter genes suggest that vitamin B_{12}, tyrosine, and other

undefined amino acids can be imported, perhaps from direct exchanges with other OR consortia

members like "*Ca.* Nealsonbacteria" [43]. Functional genes putatively associated with metabolic

syntrophic lifestyles, including formate dehydrogenases, heterodisulfide reductases, and Fe-S

oxidoreductases, were scattered throughout the ORM2a genome (Figure 2). The ORM2a genome

also encodes for a Che-type chemotaxis system and type IV pili that may be involved in bacterial

motility. Overall, these findings suggest that ORM2a is an obligate syntrophic anaerobe uniquely

adapted for anaerobic benzene degradation, consistent with all previous culture studies [4, 5, 22,

41].

Proteomic analyses

Three rounds of proteomics experiments were conducted on OR subcultures (Table 1).

Experiments #1 (2010) and #2 (2011) were conducted by Devine [22] and detailed results are

available in Chapter 6 and Appendix L of her PhD thesis. Briefly, Devine [22] matched the mass

spectral data against a library of 15,173 protein sequences translated from a preliminary

metagenome (OR-b1A, 2010), but few unique proteins were identified (69-179 per proteome). To

check for any missed proteins, we re-analyzed her mass spectra against translated sequences from

more recent OR metagenomic assemblies and MAGs (Table S1), but only a handful of new

proteins were discovered (Table 1).

To improve detection, protein separation by gel electrophoresis prior to LC/MS analysis

[76] was tested in Experiment #3 (2018). Duplicate crude extracts were prepared. One was

immediately digested with trypsin (Experiment #3a), akin to Experiments #1 and #2, and recovered

similarly few proteins (Table 1). The second crude extract (Experiment #3b) was separated on a

15% SDS-PAGE (Figure S2), then sliced into five sections for in-gel trypsin digestion and LC-

MS/MS sequencing. This time, over 800 unique proteins were identified (Table 1). A molecular

weight assessment of the proteins identified in each gel slice supports that some separation

occurred during SDS-PAGE (Figure S2).

In total, 858 unique predicted proteins were identified in Experiments #1-3 (Table 1).

Corresponding gene accession numbers, predicted functional annotations, amino acid sequences,

and peptide/spectra counts are provided in Table S7. Peptide and protein statistics are provided in

Tables S8a and S8b, respectively. Proteins that were detected in high abundance in Experiment

#3b (≥100 matching spectra) and/or are putatively involved in anaerobic benzene degradation are

highlighted in Figures 1 and 2 and Table 2. Most of the abundant proteins identified in Experiment

#3b were detected in 1 to 4 other OR proteomes (Table 2), indicating reproducibility to our

experimental results.

Key microorganisms identified in the OR proteomes

Over one-third of all unique proteins identified (39%) mapped unambiguously to the closed MAG

of ORM2a, covering ~11% of this bacterium's total putative proteome. We also identified 33

unique proteins (4%) that mapped to a draft genome putatively belonging to ORM2b

(MAG4_ORM2b, 378 contigs), and 44 proteins (5%) that mapped to both ORM2a and

MAG4_ORM2b (Table 2). The draft MAG4_ORM2b genome does not contain a 16S ribosomal

RNA gene sequence for us to compare to a reference clone sequence of ORM2b (NCBI accession

no. KT025834). However, the high average nucleotide identity (89.94%) between ORM2a and

MAG4_ORM2b supports its correct classification (see ring 5 of Figure 1 and Figure S4). No other

MAGs assembled from the OR culture aligned significantly to the ORM2 MAGs. Higher protein

counts suggest that ORM2a was the dominant strain in all proteomes surveyed (Table S7), though

it is not necessarily the more competitive organism. The relative abundances of ORM2a and

ORM2b fluctuate are known considerably over time and by subculture [41].

One-third of proteins identified in the OR proteomes mapped to MAGs of methanogenic

archaea (Table S7), specifically acetoclastic *Methanothrix* spp. (170 proteins across 8 MAGs) and

hydrogenotrophic *Methanoregula* spp. (19 proteins across 3 MAGs). Most high abundance

archaeal proteins were affiliated with methanogenesis and mapped to >1 MAG (Table 2). Fifty

low-abundance proteins mapped to other bacterial MAGs including "*Ca.* Nealsonbacteria"

DGGOD1a. All other proteins could not be assigned to a specific MAG (171 proteins, 20%) or

mapped to contaminant/decoy sequences (20 proteins, 2%).

Benzoyl-CoA degradation to acetyl-CoA

The OR proteomes were aligned against representative sequences of known/predicted hydrocarbon

activation enzymes as well as benzoyl-CoA ligase, but once again we were unable to identify any

homologs (Table S7). Next, we searched for products of downstream aromatic degradation

pathways and detected a full complement of putative benzoyl-CoA degradation enzymes mapping

to the ORM2a genome (Figures 1 and 2, Tables 2). Most *bam* genes products (WAC08761.1-

WAC08768.1) mapped to a single gene cluster and were annotated as subunits of a Bam-type

tungsten-containing benzoyl-CoA reductase (BamBCDEFDHI; whose components are described

in Wischgoll et al. [77] and Boll et al. [78]), an FdhD-like insertase, and cyclohexa-1,5-diene-1-

carbonyl-CoA hydratase (BamR). A putative 6-hydroxycyclohex-1-ene-1-carbonyl-CoA

dehydrogenase (BamQ, WAC08375.1) and 6-oxo-cyclohex-1-ene-carbonyl-CoA hydrolase

(BamA, WAC07399.1) mapped to other regions of the ORM2a genome (Figure 1). A handful of

other predicted Bam proteins mapped to MAG4_ORM2b and to a short (7.4 kbp) ORM2 contig

from the OR-b1A metagenome (Table 2) [22]. We screened the MAG4_ORM2b genome for more

functional potential to degrade benzoyl-CoA and found a near-identical complement of *bam* genes

across several short contigs (data not shown). Multiple sequence alignments to reference Bam

sequences (Table S9) and maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree analyses (Figure S5) support the

correct annotation of all predicted *bam* gene products.

Proteins predicted to catalyze the beta-oxidation of benzoyl-CoA degradation products (3-

hydroxypimelyl-CoA) were also identified in the OR proteomes (Figures 1 and 2, Table 2). All

products detected mapped to the ORM2a genome; one protein also matched to an OR-b1A contig

previously assigned to ORM2 [22]. In Experiment #3b, the number of matching spectra to

predicted upstream beta-oxidation genes was comparable to Bam spectral counts (Table 2). Oddly,

downstream proteins involved in the degradation of glutaconyl-CoA to acetyl-CoA were detected

in far lower abundances. The cause of this phenomenon is unknown but could indicate a fork in

the pathway at this juncture.

Highly expressed ORM2a gene clusters of unknown function

The three most abundant and recurring proteins identified in the OR proteomes (WAC08368.1,

WAC08369.1, and WAC08370.1) mapped consecutively to an ORM2a gene cluster of unknown

function (Figure 1 and Table S6). Products of several neighboring genes were also detected in

multiple OR proteomes (Table 2 and Figures 2-3). This gene cluster, designated herein as the

"Magic" gene cluster, is situated on a small genomic island and is flanked by multiple predicted

transposases and pseudogenes (Figure 1). Products of a near-identical gene neighborhood in

MAG4_ORM2b were also detected in the OR proteomes (Tables 2 and 3, Figure 3), as well as

homologous products (>90% amino acid sequence identity) from two OR-b1A contigs previously

assigned to ORM2 [22]. Annotations provided by NCBI and IMG offered little insight into the

possible functions of these proteins (Table 2 and Figure 3) with two notable exceptions. Both

"Magic" gene clusters in ORM2a and ORM2b were predicted to code for BamQ (WAC08375.1

and MAG4_3444, respectively) and the presence of Rho transcription termination factors

(WAC08378.1 and MAG4_3450) suggest that expression of the "Magic" gene clusters is tightly

regulated.

Several high abundance proteins mapped to a second genomic island within the ORM2a

genome with similarly poor functional annotations (Figure 1 and Table 2), designated the

"Nanopod" gene cluster. A syntenic gene cluster was found in MAG4_ORM2b but was not

detected in the OR proteomes (Figure 3 and Table 2). A protein containing a domain of unknown

function (DUF1329, WAC07727.1) piqued our interest. DUF1329-containing proteins been

identified in the nanopod structures of some hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria including *Delftia*

acidovorans Cs1-4, an aerobic phenanthrene degrader [79, 80]. Nanopods are tiny tubular

structures (<100 nm in diameter) that may facilitate nutrient transport or export toxic compounds

from cells [80, 81]. Shetty et al. [80] found that phenanthrene induced nanopod formation in *D.*

acidovorans Cs1-4 but not structurally similar hydrocarbons (naphthalene and toluene), and that

deletion of its DUF1329 gene (Genbank nucleotide accession no. DelCs14_1722) impaired growth

on phenanthrene. BLASTP alignments suggest that WAC07727.1 is distantly related to the

translated DelCs14_1722 gene sequence (21% amino acid identity). Nevertheless, the high

expression of this gene cluster and its possible relation to nanopod formation is intriguing.

Comparative analyses of the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters to other genomes and

proteomes

To determine whether other published genomes contained syntenic regions to the "Magic" and

"Nanopod" gene clusters, translated sequences were searched against all publicly available

databases in NCBI and IMG (as of August 2024) using BLASTP. After an exhaustive search, we

identified only a handful of MAGs and draft bins with homologous (≥ 50% identity) genomic

regions (Figure 3 and Table 3). Interestingly, most hits were to *Deltaproteobacteria*-associated

contigs from hydrothermal vent systems [82, 83]. Hydrocarbons are important energy sources for

microbial communities in these ecosystems and are produced primarily by geological processes

[84]. Hydrothermal vent MAG Deltaproteobacteria AUK045 is notable for having syntenic contigs

to both the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters (Figure 3 and Table 3). Genes encoding for

predicted downstream benzoyl-CoA degradation and beta-oxidation pathways were also identified

in the Deltaproteobacteria AUK045 MAG and draft bins (Table S9), demonstrating some

functional potential to degrade aromatic compounds.

Pelotomaculum candidate BPL (IMG GOLD accession number Ga0073689) is the chief

benzene degrader in a sulfate-reducing enrichment culture from Poland [10, 36]. Dong et al. [36]

published proteomic data from this culture in 2017, making both comparative genomic and

proteomic analyses to ORM2a possible (Figure 3 and Table 3). The *Pelotomaculum* candidate BPL

MAG (2,986,7007 bp across 97 contigs) does not contain any likely homologs to "Nanopod" genes

(Table 3). However, a highly expressed *Pelotomaculum* contig (Ga0073689_145) produced eight

significant alignments to the "Magic" gene cluster (64-76% amino acid identity, e-values ≤ 1.0E-

178). Other *Pelotomaculum* proteins that mapped to contig Ga0073689_145 included a predicted

benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit (BamB) and an enoyl-CoA hydratase, drawing parallels to the

adjacent localization of related genes in the MAGs of ORM2a, ORM2b, and *Deltaproteobacteria*

AUK045 (Figure 3). These striking similarities cannot be a coincidence.

Predicted functions of the "Magic" benzene genes

Multiple sequence and structure-based protein prediction tools were used to glean more insights

into the molecular and biological functions of the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters [67, 71].

Results are summarized in Figure 4 and Tables S10-S11, and key findings are described here. Each

prediction tool agreed that WAC08366.1, the product of the first of 12 consecutive genes in the

"Magic" gene cluster, is an AMP-forming acyl-CoA synthetase (Figure 4a). This class of enzymes

catalyzes the ATP-dependent formation of acyl-CoA molecules from carboxylates and coenzyme

A [85]. Sequence-based phylogenetic analyses placed this enzyme (and homologs from other

benzene-degrading MAGs surveyed) in a subfamily of acyl-CoA synthetases distantly related to

benzoyl-CoA ligase and other functionally characterized enzymes (Figure S6). Gene Orthology

(GO) term search results using DeepFRI [68] suggest that WAC08366.1 can bind to organic cyclic

compounds and such as benzene or perhaps its activation product. In all MAGs surveyed (Figure

3), genes coding for (homologs) of WAC08366.1 and WAC08367.1 were always co-localized,

suggesting that they may represent subunits of the same enzyme. We could not assign a definitive

function to WAC08367.1, but some evidence of organic cyclic compound binding as well as metal

ion binding was found. WAC08374.1 contains a HotDog fold domain and shares some structural

similarity with 4-hydroxybenzoyl-CoA thioesterase (Figure 4c) and (3*R*)-hydroxyacetyl-ACP

dehydratase subunit HadA. WAC08373.1 appears to be another Had-like subunit.

Products of two downstream "Magic" genes, WAC08371.1 and WAC08372.1, are likely

subunits of a class III CoA-transferase enzyme complex. This class of enzymes facilitates the

transfer of acyl-CoA compounds between substrates such as benzylsuccinate and succinyl-CoA

[87], which are intermediates of the anaerobic toluene degradation pathway (Figure 4c). It is

curious that "Magic" gene clusters appear to code for two predicted mechanisms of CoA addition,

one via a ligation reaction (WAC08367.1) and one using a CoA-transferase mechanisms

(WAC08371.1 and WAC08372.1). How this relates to anaerobic benzene transformation to

benzoyl-CoA is unknown.

Proteins WAC08368.1, WAC08369.1, and WAC08370.1 are especially intriguing and may

represent subunits of a fourth enzyme complex. WAC08368.1 shares several predicted molecular

binding functions with WAC08367.1, suggesting that the product of one enzyme could serve as a

substrate for the other. WAC08370.1 is structurally similar to 4-cresol dehydrogenase (Figure 4d),

hinting at another possible role in aromatic metabolism [89]. Both proteins can likely bind to FAD.

Multiple protein prediction tools agreed that WAC08369.1 is [4Fe-4S]-containing protein. It is the

only "Magic" protein predicted to be membrane-associated and may be capable of heterodisulfide

reduction and (de)hydrogenase activity . The N-terminus of WAC08369.1 also contains two

cysteine-rich regions (CxxxCxxC, see Figure S7), which are characteristic features of radical S-

adenosylmethionine (SAM) enzymes [90, 91]. This enzyme superfamily uses $[4Fe-4S]^+$ clusters

to reductively cleave the C5′–sulfonium bond of SAM, triggering radical-based chemistry in

hundreds of distinct chemical reactions including methylation and fumarate addition (Figure 4e)

[92, 93]. WAC08368.1, WAC08369.1, and WAC08370.1 may work together to couple benzene

activation, a highly endergonic reaction, using an uncharacterized flavin-based electron

bifurcation mechanism [88]. Ferredoxin and a disulfide-containing cofactor could potentially serve

as electron acceptors; hydrogen or perhaps benzene itself could serve as an electron donor source.

We've attempted many times to devise a working model for this reaction but must concede that

the underlying biochemistry is (for now) beyond our understanding.

Protein prediction tools support that the "Nanopod" gene cluster codes for a

transmembrane complex (Figure 2, Tables S10-S11). WAC07726.1 closely resembles a porin,

involved in passive transport, whereas WAC07731.1 (a predicted RND superfamily efflux protein)

appears to be involved in active transport. GO term searches in PROST [72] and DeepFRI [68]

indicate WAC07731.1 and possibly WAC07728.1 (an uncharacterized cytoplasmic protein) can

bind to organic cyclic structures. WAC07728.1 has an unusually wide array of possible metabolic

and biological functions (Table S11b). Several tools agreed that WAC07729.1 is a universal stress

factor. Membrane stress can result from partitioning of hydrophobic compounds such as benzene

into lipid bilayers [94]. Collectively, it is plausible that "Nanopod" gene cluster codes for a

benzene tolerance mechanism that exports excess benzene from ORM2 cells (Figure 2).

Phylogenomic placement of the ORM2a and MAG4_ORM2b genomes

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analyses of concatenated conserved single copy protein

sequences were performed to resolve inconsistencies in the classification of ORM2a and ORM2b

[4, 41, 42]. The resulting consensus tree (Figure 5a) placed the genomes within an uncharacterized

clade of *Desulfobacterota* distinct from other classes previously assigned to these organisms

(including *Syntrophales*, and candidate GTDB classes WTBG01 and UBA8473) as well as

Deltaproteobacteria AUK045. The clade – likely representing a new class of *Desulfobacterota* –

contains three other representative MAGs from environmental samples, including one from yet

another hydrothermal vent system (GCA_021160085.1) [82]. These MAGs contain some

functional potential to degrade benzoyl-CoA and downstream intermediates (Table S9) but they

do not appear to degrade benzene (Table 3).

When compared to a complementary 16S rRNA-based phylogenetic tree (Figure 5b),

similar cladding patterns can be clearly seen. It also becomes obvious that ORM2a and ORM2b

belong to a monophyletic group of benzene-degrading specialists [4]. These organisms, which

were enriched from geographically diverse origins, share ≥99% 16S rRNA gene sequence identity

and have only ever been shown to degrade benzene under sulfate-reducing and/or methanogenic

conditions [40, 95, 96]. Accounting for new phylogenomic insights presented in this study, there

is more than sufficient evidence to recognize these organisms as a novel genus within the

Desulfobacterota. We propose naming this genus "*Candidatus* Benzenivorax" (ben.zeni.i.vor'ax;

N.L. neut. n. benzenum benzene, L. adj. vorax voracious or devouring, N.L. neut. n. Benzenivorax,

benzene-devouring).

Summary and next steps

Many attempts have been made to elucidate mechanisms of anaerobic benzene activation.

Improvements in sequencing accuracy, protein detection, and *in silico* protein structure

identification are now enabling a deeper dive into these mysterious processes. Because benzene

is the only substrate supporting growth of organisms like "*Ca.* Benzenivorax" strains ORM2a and

ORM2b, it is not possible to carry out differential growth experiments. Rather, we are constrained

to simply analyze proteins during active benzene metabolism. Nevertheless, as this study has

shown, analyses of expressed proteins over multiple years and from distinct labs have converged

on two remarkable and unique gene clusters, also found in recent MAGs from deep hydrothermal

vents. There is little doubt that the "Magic" gene cluster in ORM2, *Pelotomaculum* candidate BPL,

and specific hydrothermal vent organisms participate in anaerobic benzene degradation, and likely

in its elusive, chemically difficult activation step. The "Nanopod" gene clusters found in some

(ORM2a, MAG4_ORM2b, *Deltaproteobacteria* AUK045) but not all benzene degraders surveyed

is more likely involved in benzene tolerance. As most MAGs surveyed were incomplete,

homologous "Nanopod" genes could have been missed. It is telling that the only other genomes

we could find with matching regions to the "Magic" and "Nanopods" gene cluster were to other

strict anaerobes with niche specializations in benzene degradation. Regardless of their origins,

their phylogenies cluster very closely (Figure 5). Both the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters

appear to be located on genomic islands (Figure 1) suggesting they were acquired through gene

transfer. Now that these unique gene clusters have been identified, we hope that the research

community can help confirm their roles and to search through other cultures and datasets for

homologous features.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was made possible by the contributions of many dedicated students and research staff

over the past 15 years. Special recognition is given to Dr. Harry Beller (US Environmental

Protection Agency), Dr. Johann Heider (Philipps University of Marburg), Dr. Christine Orengo

(University College London), and Joel Roca (University College London) for their invaluable

guidance on characterizing proteins of unknown function.

REFERENCES

1.   Ward DM, Atlas RM, Boehm PD *et al.* Microbial biodegradation and chemical evolution of oil from the Amoco Spill. *Ambio*. 1980;**9**:277-83 https://doi.org/http://www.jstor.org/stable/4312605

2.   Vogt C, Kleinsteuber S, Richnow HH. Anaerobic benzene degradation by bacteria. *Microb Biotechnol*. 2011;**4**:710-24 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-7915.2011.00260.x

3.   Meckenstock RU, Boll M, Mouttaki H *et al.* Anaerobic degradation of benzene and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. *J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2016;**26**:92-118 https://doi.org/10.1159/000441358

4.   Toth CRA, Luo F, Bawa N *et al.* Anaerobic benzene biodegradation linked to the growth of highly specific bacterial clades. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2021;**55**:7970-80 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.1c00508

5.   Guo S, Toth CRA, Luo F *et al.* Transient oxygen exposure causes profound and lasting changes to a benzene-degrading methanogenic community. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2022;**20**:13036-45 https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.04.11.487956

6.   Zhang T, Tremblay PL, Chaurasia AK *et al.* Anaerobic benzene oxidation via phenol in *Geobacter metallireducens*. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2013;**79**:7800-06 https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.03134-13

7.   Caldwell ME, Suflita JM. Detection of phenol and benzoate as intermediates of anaerobic benzene biodegradation under different terminal electron-accepting conditions. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2000;**34**:1216-20 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1021/es990849j

8.   Vogel TM, Grbić-Galić D. Incorporation of oxygen from water into toluene and benzene during anaerobic fermentative transformation. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 1986;**52**:200-02

9.   Kunapuli U, Griebler C, Beller HR *et al.* Identification of intermediates formed during anaerobic benzene degradation by an iron-reducing enrichment culture. *Environ Microbiol*. 2008;**10**:1703-12 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2008.01588.x

10. Abu Laban N, Selesi D, Jobelius C *et al.* Anaerobic benzene degradation by Gram-positive sulfate-reducing bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2009;**68**:300-11 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2009.00672.x

11. Ulrich AC, Beller HR, Edwards EA. Metabolites detected during biodegradation of $^{13}C_6$-benzene in nitrate-reducing and methanogenic enrichment cultures. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2005;**39**:6681-91 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1021/es050294u

12. Weiner JM, Lovley DR. Rapid benzene degradation in methanogenic sediments from a petroleum-contaminated aquifer. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 1998;**64**:1937-39 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.64.5.1937-1939.1998

13. Botton S, Parsons JR. Degradation of btx by dissimilatory iron-reducing cultures. *Biodegradation*. 2007;**18**:371-81 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10532-006-9071-9

14. Phelps CD, Zhang X, Young LY. Use of stable isotopes to identify benzoate as a metabolite of benzene degradation in a sulphidogenic consortium. *Environ Microbiol*. 2001;**3**:600-03 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-2920.2001.00228.x

15. Holmes DE, Risso C, Smith JA *et al.* Anaerobic oxidation of benzene by the hyperthermophilic archaeon *Ferroglobus placidus*. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2011;**77**:5926-33 https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.05452-11

16. Gieg LM, Toth CRA Signature metabolite analysis to determine in situ anaerobic hydrocarbon biodegradation. *Anaerobic Utilization of Hydrocarbons, Oils, and Lipids*, 361-90

17. Boll M, Estelmann S, Heider J Anaerobic degradation of hydrocarbons: Mechanisms of
hydrocarbon activation in the absence of oxygen. In: Boll M (ed.). *Anaerobic Utilization*
of Hydrocarbons, Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology, Cham: Springer.
18. Bullows JE, Kanak A, Shedrick L *et al.* Anaerobic benzene oxidation in *Geotalea daltonii*
involves activation by methylation and is regulated by the transition state regulator AbrB.
Environ Microbiol. 2024;**90**:e00856-24
19. Mancini SA, Devine CE, Elsner M *et al.* Isotopic evidence suggests different initial
reaction mechanisms for anaerobic benzene biodegradation. *Environ Sci Technol*.
2008;**42**:8290-96
20. Mancini SA, Ulrich AC, Lacrampe-Couloume G *et al.* Carbon and hydrogen isotopic
fractionation during anaerobic biodegradation of benzene. *Appl Environ Microbiol*
2003;**69**:191-98 https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.69.1.191-198.2003
21. Fischer A, Herklotz I, Herrmann S *et al.* Combined carbon and hydrogen isotope
fractionation investigations for elucidating benzene biodegradation pathways. *Environ Sci*
Technol. 2008;**42**:4356-63
22. Devine CE. Identification of key organisms, genes and pathways in benzene-degrading
methanogenic cultures. Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry, University of
Toronto, 2013
23. Taubert M, Vogt C, Wubet T *et al.* Protein-SIP enables time-resolved analysis of the carbon
flux in a sulfate-reducing, benzene-degrading microbial consortium. *ISME J*. 2012;**6**:2291-
301 https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2012.68
24. Zhang T, Tremblay PL, Chaurasia AK *et al.* Identification of genes specifically required
for the anaerobic metabolism of benzene in *Geobacter metallireducens*. *Front Microbiol*.
2014;**5**:245 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00245
25. Abu Laban N, Selesi D, Rattei T *et al.* Identification of enzymes involved in anaerobic
benzene degradation by a strictly anaerobic iron-reducing enrichment culture. *Environ*
Microbiol. 2010;**12**:2783-96 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2010.02248.x
26. Luo F, Gitiafroz R, Devine CE *et al.* Metatranscriptome of an anaerobic benzene-
degrading, nitrate-reducing enrichment culture reveals involvement of carboxylation in
benzene ring activation. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2014;**80**:4095-107
https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00717-14
27. Atashgahi S, Hornung B, van der Waals MJ *et al.* A benzene-degrading nitrate-reducing
microbial consortium displays aerobic and anaerobic benzene degradation pathways. *Sci*
Rep. 2018;**8**:4490 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-22617-x
28. Melkonian C, Fillinger L, Atashgahi S *et al.* High biodiversity in a benzene-degrading
nitrate-reducing culture is sustained by a few primary consumers. *Commun Biol*.
2021;**4**:530 https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-021-01948-y
29. Xiao JZ, Nesbø CL, Molenda O *et al.* Draft genome of an anaerobic nitrate-reducing,
benzene-degrading member of the order *Thermincolales*. *Microbiol Resour Announc*.
2024;**13**:e00295-24
30. Xiao JZ, Nesbø CL, Molenda O *et al.* Metagenomic and genomic sequences from a nitrate-
reducing benzene-degrading enrichment culture. *Microbiol Resour Announc*.
2024;**13**:e00294-24
31. Hidalgo KJ, Centurion VB, Lemos LN *et al.* Disentangling the microbial genomic traits
associated with aromatic hydrocarbon degradation in a jet fuel-contaminated aquifer.
Biodegradation. 2025;**36**:7

32. Roberts GW, Leys D. Structural insights into UbiD reversible decarboxylation. *Curr Opin Struct Biol*. 2022;**75**:102432

33. Heker I, Haberhauer G, Meckenstock RU. Naphthalene carboxylation in the sulfate-reducing enrichment culture N47 is proposed to proceed via 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition to the cofactor prenylated flavin mononucleotide. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2023;**89**:e01927-22

34. Schleinitz KM, Schmeling S, Jehmlich N *et al.* Phenol degradation in the strictly anaerobic iron-reducing bacterium *Geobacter metallireducens* gs-15. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2009;**75**:3912-9 https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01525-08

35. Keller AH, Schleinitz KM, Starke R *et al.* Metagenome-based metabolic reconstruction reveals the ecophysiological function of *Epsilonproteobacteria* in a hydrocarbon-contaminated sulfidic aquifer. *Front Microbiol*. 2015;**6**:1396 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.01396

36. Dong X, Dröge J, von Toerne C *et al.* Reconstructing metabolic pathways of a member of the genus *Pelotomaculum* suggesting its potential to oxidize benzene to carbon dioxide with direct reduction of sulfate. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2017;**93**:fiw254 https://doi.org/10.1093/femsec/fiw254

37. Boll M, Estelmann S, Heider J Catabolic pathways and enzymes involved in the anaerobic degradation of monocyclic aromatic compounds In: Boll M (ed.). *Anaerobic Utilization of Hydrocarbons, Oils, and Lipids. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid microbiology*, Cham: Springer. 85-133

38. Harwood CS, Burchhardt G, Herrmann H *et al.* Anaerobic metabolism of aromatic compounds via the benzoyl-CoA pathway. *FEMS Microbiol Rev*. 1999;**22**:439-58

39. Luo F. Characterization of the microbial community composition and benzene activation mechanisms in anaerobic benzene-degrading enrichment cultures. Chemical Engineering and Applied Sciences, University of Toronto, 2016

40. Ulrich AC, Edwards EA. Physiological and molecular characterization of anaerobic benzene-degrading mixed cultures. *Environ Microbiol*. 2003;**5**:92-102

41. Luo F, Devine CE, Edwards EA. Cultivating microbial dark matter in benzene-degrading methanogenic consortia. *Environ Microbiol*. 2016;**18**:2923-36 https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.13121

42. Toth CRA, Molenda O, Nesbø C *et al.* Metagenomic and genomic sequences from a methanogenic benzene-degrading consortium. *Microbiol Resour Announcs*. 2023;**22**:e01342-22

43. Chen X, Molenda O, Brown CT *et al.* "*Candidatus* Nealsonbacteria" are likely biomass recycling ectosymbionts of methanogenic archaea in a stable benzene-degrading enrichment culture. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2023;**89**:e00025-23

44. Chen X, Toth CRA, Guo S *et al.* Visualization of syntrophic benzene-fermenting *Desulfobacterota* ORM2 in a methanogenic enrichment culture using fluorescence *in situ* hybridization. *BioRxiv*. 2023:2023.07.16.549207

45. Nales M, Butler BJ, Edwards EA. Anaerobic benzene biodegradation: A microcosm survey. *Bioremediat J*. 1998;**2**:125-44 https://doi.org/10.1080/10889869891214268

46. Simpson JT, Wong K, Jackman SD *et al.* Abyss: A parallel assembler for short read sequence data. *Genome Res*. 2009;**19**:1117-23 https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.089532.108

47. Toth CRA, Molenda O, Nesbo C *et al.* FASTA files and relevant statistics for draft MAGs generated from a methanogenic benzene-degrading enrichment culture. *figshare*. 2022;**Dataset**

48. Chaumeil PA, Mussig AJ, Hugenholtz P *et al.* GTDB-tk: A toolkit to classify genomes with the genome taxonomy database. *Bioinformatics*. 2019 https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btz848

49. Parks DH, Chuvochina M, Rinke C *et al.* Gtdb: An ongoing census of bacterial and archaeal diversity through a phylogenetically consistent, rank normalized and complete genome-based taxonomy. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;**50**:D785-D94

50. Brettin T, Davis JJ, Disz T *et al. Rasttk*: A modular and extensible implementation of the RAST algorithm for building custom annotation pipelines and annotating batches of genomes. *Sci Rep*. 2015;**5**:8365

51. Dong M-J, Luo H, Gao F. Ori-finder 2022: A comprehensive web server for prediction and analysis of bacterial replication origins. *Genom Proteom Bioinform*. 2022 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gpb.2022.10.002

52. Bertelli C, Laird MR, Williams KP *et al.* IslandViewer 4: Expanded predicted of genomic islands for larger-scale datasets. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2017;**45**:W30-W35

53. Arndt D, Grant J, Marcu A *et al.* PHASTER: A bettter, faster version of the PHAST phage search tool. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2016;**44**:W16-W21

54. Siguier P, Perochon J, Lestrade L *et al.* ISfinder: The reference centre for bacterial insertion sequences. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2006;**34**:D32-6 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkj014

55. Krzywinski M, Schein J, Birol I *et al.* Circos: An information aesthetic for comparative genomics. *Genome Res*. 2009;**19**

56. Kanehisa M, Sato Y, Morishima K. Blastkoala and ghostkoala: KEGG tools for functional characterization of genome and metagenome sequences. *J Mol Biol*. 2016;**428**:726-31

57. Kanehisa M, Sato Y. KEGG Mapper for inferring cellular functions from protein sequences. *Protein Sci*. 2020;**29**:28-35

58. Kanehisa M, Sato Y, Kawashima M. KEGG mapping tools for uncovering hidden features in biological data. *Protein Sci*. 2022;**31**:47-53

59. Wiśniewski JR, Zougman A, Nagaraj N *et al.* Universal sample preparation method for proteome analysis. *Nature Methods*. 2009;**6**:359-62

60. Shevchenko A, Tomas H, Havlis J *et al.* In-gel digestion for mass spectrometric characterization of proteins and proteomes. *Nat Protoc*. 2006;**1**:2856-60

61. Tang S, Chan WWM, Fletcher KE *et al.* Functional characterization of reductive dehalogenases by using blue native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2013;**79**:01873-12 https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01873-12

62. Kessner D, Chambers M, Burke R *et al.* Proteowizard: Open source software for rapid proteomics tools development. *Bioinformatics*. 2008;**24**:2534-36 https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btn323

63. Keller A, Nesvizhskii AI, Kolker E *et al.* Empirical statistical model to estimate the accuracy of peptide identifiations made by MS/MS and database search. *Anal Chem*. 2002;**74**:5383-92

64. Nesvizhskii AI, Keller A, Kolker E *et al.* A statistical model for identifying proteins by tandem mass spectrometry. *Analytical Chemistry*. 2003;**75**:4646-58

65. Jumper J, Evans R, Pritzel A *et al.* Highly accurate protein structure prediction with Alphafold. *Nature*. 2021;**596**:583-89

66. Mirdita M, Schütze K, Moriwaki Y *et al.* CoLabfold: Making protein folding accessible to
all. *Nat Methods*. 2022;**19**:679-82

67. Holm L. Dali server: Structural unification of protein families. *Nucleic Acids Res*.
2022;**50**:W210-W15

68. Gligorijević V, Renfrew PD, Kosciolek T *et al.* Structure-based protein function prediction
using graph convolutional networks. *Nat Commun*. 2021;**12**:3168

69. Stamatakis A. RAxML version 8: A tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of
large phylogenies. *Bioinformatics*. 2014;**30**:1312-13
https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033

70. Kearse M, Moir R, Wilson A *et al.* Geneious Basic: An integrated and extendable desktop
software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. *Bioinformatics*.
2012;**28**:1647-49 https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts199

71. Waman VP, Bordin N, Lau A *et al.* CATH v4.4: Major expansion of cath by experimental
and predicted structural data. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2024:gkae1087

72. Kilinc M, Jia K, Jernigan RL. Improved global protein homolog detection with major gains
in function identification. *PNAS*. 2023;**120**:e2211823120

73. Lee MD. Gtotree: A user-friendly workflow for phylogenomics. *Bioinformatics*.
2019;**35**:4162-64 https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btz188

74. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: Multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
throughput. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2004;**32**:1792-7 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkh340

75. Nguyen L-T, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A *et al.* IQ-tree: A fast and effective stochastic
algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2014;**3**:268-74

76. Dzieciatkowska M, Hill R, Hansen KC. GeLC-MS/MS analysis of complex protein
mixtures. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2014;**1156**:53-66

77. Wischgoll S, Heintz D, Peters F *et al.* Gene clusters involved in anaerobic benzoate
degradation of *Geobacter metallireducens*. *Mol Microbiol*. 2005;**58**:1238-52
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2005.04909.x

78. Boll M, Einsle O, Ermler U *et al.* Structure and function of the unusual tungsten enzymes
acetylene hydratase and class II benzoyl-coenzyme A reductase. *J Mol Microbiol*
Biotechnol. 2016;**26**:119-37

79. Shetty A, Chen S, Tocheva EI *et al.* Nanopods: A new bacterial structure ans mechanism
for deployment of outer membrane vesicles. *PLoS ONE*. 2011;**6**:e20725

80. Shetty A, Hickey WJ. Effects of outer membrane vesicle formation, surface-layer
production and nanopod development on the metabolism of phenanthrene by *Delftia*
acidovorans Cs1-4. *PLoS One*. 2014;**9**:e92143

81. Baumgarten T, Sperling S, Seifert J *et al.* Membrane vesicle formation as a multiple-stress
response mechanism enhances *Pseudomonas putida* DOT-T1E cell surface hydrophobicity
and biofilm formation. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 201;**78**:6217-24

82. Speth DR, Yu FB, Connon SA *et al.* Microbial communities of Auka hydothermal
sediments shed light on vent biogeography and the evolutionary history of thermophily.
ISME J. 2022;**16**:1750-64

83. Dombrowski N, Teske AP, Baker BJ. Expansive microbial metabolic versatility and
biodiversity in dynamic Guaymas Basin hydrothermal sediments. *Nat Commun*.
2018;**9**:4999

84. Campbell KA. Hydrocarbon seep and hydrothermal vent paleoenvironments and paleontology: Past developments and future research directions. *Palaeogeogr Palaeoclimatol Palaeoecol*. 2006;**232**:362-407

85. Starai VJ, Escalante-Semerena JC. Acetyl-coenzyme A synthetase (AMP forming). *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2004;**61**:2020-30

86. Heider J. A new family of CoA-transferases. *FEBS Lett*. 2001;**509**:345-49

87. Carmona M, Zamarro MT, Blazquez B *et al.* Anaerobic catabolism of aromatic compounds: A genetic and genomic view. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev*. 2009;**73**:71-133 https://doi.org/10.1128/MMBR.00021-08

88. Booker SJ, Lloyd CT. Twenty years of radical SAM! The genesis of the superfamily. *ACS Bio & Med Chem Au*. 2022;**2**:538-655

89. Frey PA, Hegeman AD, Ruzicka FJ. The radical SAM superfamily. *Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol*. 2008;**43**:63-88

90. Nicolet Y. Structure-function relationships of radical SAM enzymes. *Nat Catal*. 2020;**3**:337-50

91. Broderick JB, Duffus BR, Duschene KS *et al.* Radical *S*-adenosylmethionine enzymes. *Chem Rev*. 2014;**114**:4229-317

92. Buckel W, Thauer RK. Flavin-based electron bifurcation, ferredoxin, flavodoxin, and anaerobic respiration with protons (Ech) or nad$^+$ (Rnf) as electron acceptors: A historical review. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;**9**:401

93. Ramos JL, Duque E, Gallegos MT *et al.* Mechanisms of solvent tolerance in Gram-negative bacteria. *Ann Rev Microbiol*. 2002;**56**:473-768

94. Noguchi M, Kurisu F, Kasuga I *et al.* Time-resolved DNA stable isotope probing links *Desulfobacterales*- and *Coriobacteriaceae*-related bacteria to anaerobic degradation of benzene under methanogenic conditions. *Microbes Environ*. 2014;**29**:191-99 https://doi.org/10.1264/jsme2.ME13104

95. Sakai N, Kurisu F, Yagi O *et al.* Identification of putative benzene-degrading bacteria in methanogenic enrichment cultures. *J Biosci Bioeng*. 2009;**108**:501-07 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiosc.2009.06.005

96. Thoden JB, Zhuang Z, Dunaway-Mariano D *et al.* The structure of 4-hydroxybenzoyl-CoA thioesterase from *Arthrobacter* sp. Strain SU. *J Biol Chem*. 2003;**278**:709-16

97. Heider J, Szaleniec M, Martins BM *et al.* Structure and function of benzylsuccinate synthase and related fumarate-adding glycyl radical enzymes. *J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2016;**26**:29-44 https://doi.org/10.1159/000441656

Table 1. OR proteomic experiments completed in this study, key methodology differences, and overview of results. One protein sample was analyzed in Experiment #1, whereas technical duplicate protein samples (a and b) were analyzed in Experiments #2 and #3. All samples were extracted for proteins using sonication methods.

Experiment # (Year)	OR subculture used	Benzene degradation rate (mg/L/day)	Culture volume extracted (mL)	Protein purification methodology	Protein separation methodology	Total # of spectra detected	No. of unique predicted proteins identified	No. of unique predicted proteins assigned to designated MAG (s) (% of unique proteins identified)				
								ORM2a	MAG4_ ORM2b	Both ORM2a and MAG4_ ORM2b	Archaeal MAGs	Other Bacterial MAGs
1 (2010)	OR-b1C	0.3	175	Phenol-methanol/ammonium acetate extraction	None	701	120	29 (24%)	14 (12%)	0 (0%)	37 (31%)	2 (2%)
2a (2011)	OR-1b	0.4	175	Phenol-methanol/ammonium acetate extraction	None	228	49	20 (41%)	3 (6%)	1 (2%)	13 (27%)	1 (2%)
2b (2011)	OR-1b	0.4	175	Phenol-methanol/ammonium acetate extraction	None	457	74	27 (36%)	5 (7%)	0 (0%)	21 (28%)	1 (1%)
3a (2018)	OR-b1A	0.7	50	Filter-aided sample preparation	None	47	24	12 (50%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	6 (23%)	2 (8%)
3b (2018)	OR-b1A	0.7	50	Filter-aided sample preparation	15% SDS-PAGE	10,938	822	350 (43%)	25 (3%)	43 (5%)	184 (22%)	48 (6%)
							Average	39%	6%	2%	27%	4%
							Total # Unique Proteins identified	362	33	44	190	50

Table 2. Summary of high abundance protein clusters (100+ spectra in Experiment #3b) and proteins of interest recovered with high certainty (>99% confidence) from OR proteomes. Protein clusters detected in ≥3 proteomes are highlighted in blue. The inset heat map denotes the sum of matching MS/MS spectra recovered from Experiment #3b, where higher abundance proteins are indicated with darker shades of red. Other protein clusters identified are provided in Table S7.

Protein Cluster #	Predicted function (NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline version 6.3 and best BLASTP hits)	# of proteomes with ≥1 matching spectra	Sum of matching spectra in Exp. #3b	Matching protein accession no.(s)		
				ORM2a (NCBI)	Other MAG(s) (File S1)	Unbinned contigs (IMG)
Benzoyl-CoA degradation to 3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA						
1	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamB	2	80	WAC08761.1	ORM2b_MAG4_01005	
2	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamC	3	15	WAC08762.1	ORM2b_MAG4_01004	
3	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamD	1	61	WAC08763.1		
4	Formate dehydrogenase accessory sulfurtransferase FdhD	1	6	WAC09094.1		
5	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamE	1	68	WAC09095.1		
6	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamF	1	18	WAC08764.1		
7	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamG	1	6	WAC08765.1		
8	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamH	1	91	WAC08766.1	ORM2b_MAG4_04225	
9	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamI	1	9	WAC08767.1		
10	Cyclohexa-1,5-diene-1-carbonyl-CoA hydratase BamR	1	49	WAC08768.1		BDMCk91_1074863
11	6-hydroxycyclohex-1-ene-1-carbonyl-CoA dehydrogenase BamQ	3	103	WAC08375.1		
12	6-oxo-cyclohex-1-ene-carbonyl-CoA hydrolase BamA	4	143	WAC07399.1		
3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA degradation to acetyl-CoA						
13	3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase/enoyl-CoA hydratase family protein	4	148	WAC08792.1		
14	Thiolase family protein	4	69	WAC08791.1		
15	Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (non-decarboxylating)	4	58	WAC06987.1		
16	Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit beta/FixA family protein	2	39	WAC06988.1		
17	Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit alpha/FixB family protein	4	63	WAC06989.1		
18	Glutaconyl-CoA decarboxylase subunit alpha	1	5	WAC08228.1		BDMCk91_1065314
19	Enoyl-CoA hydratase-related protein	1	3	WAC07318.1		
20	3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydrogenase	1	9	WAC09154.1		
21	Acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase	1	3	WAC07319.1		
Highly expressed "Magic" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene activation						
22	AMP-binding protein	1	74	WAC08366.1	ORM2b_MAG4_03434	
23	MaoC family dehydratase	1	57	WAC08367.1		
24	FAD-binding oxidoreductase	4	172	WAC08368.1		
25	(Fe-S)-binding protein	5	219	WAC08369.1		BDMCk91_1046562
26	FAD-binding oxidoreductase	5	265	WAC08370.1		BDMCk91_1006392
27	Type III CoA transferase	2	45	WAC08371.1		
28	Type III CoA transferase	3	58	WAC08372.1	ORM2b_MAG4_03441	BDMCk91_1053181
29	Hypothetical protein	1	19	WAC08373.1	ORM2b_MAG4_03442	
30	MaoC family dehydratase	4	50	WAC08374.1		
31	Transcription termination factor Rho	1	25	WAC08378.1		
Highly expressed "Nanopod" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene tolerance						
32	Hypothetical protein	4	106	WAC07726.1		
33	DUF1329 domain-containing protein	3	158	WAC07727.1	ORM2b_MAG4_01802	BDMCk91_1026391
34	Universal stress protein	1	6	WAC07728.1		
35	Hypothetical protein	1	7	WAC07729.1		
36	YCF48-related protein	3	65	WAC07730.1		
37	MMPL family transporter	2	60	WAC07731.1		
Archaeal proteins associated with methanogenesis						
38	Acetate--CoA ligase	5	142		MAG20_01236	
39	Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrB	2	149		MAG21_01157	
40	Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrA	2	147			Ga0206388_11752373
41	Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrB	1	154		MAG11_02361, MAG20_02648, MAG28_00841	
42	Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrA	1	146			Ga0310375_10020214
43	Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrB	1	144			Ga0206388_10804781
44	Acetate--CoA ligase	1	125		MAG11_00500	
Other proteins						
45	Acetate--CoA ligase Acs	4	156	WAC06830.1		
46	Chaperonin GroL	4	156	WAC08671.1		
47	(Fe-S)-binding protein	5	127			BDMCk91_1046562
48	(Fe-S)-binding protein	2	121			Ga0206388_11077202
49	Chaperonin GroEL	2	106			BDMCk91_1074241

Table 3. BLASTP search results for ORM2a "Magic" and "Nanopod" proteins against MAG4_ORM2b and publicly available sequence databases in GenBank and JGI (as of August, 2024). NCBI accession numbers and percent amino acid identities are shown for best BLASTP hits to select MAGs and bins producing significant alignments (e-value < 1.0E-05, coverage ≥ 50%) to ORM2a proteins. The inset heat map also denotes the percent identity of aligned sequences, where more homologous sequences are indicated with darker shades of red. Best BLASTP hit search results for other ORM2a proteins of interest and other reference genomes are provided in Table S9.

Protein cluster #	ORM2a protein accession no. (NCBI)	MAG4_ORM2b	Protein accession no. of best BLASTP hit						
			Pelotomaculum candidate BPL MAG	Hydrothermal vent MAG AUK045	Hydrothermal vent bin B94_G9	Hydrothermal vent bin B7_G9	Hydrothermal vent MAG, Pescadero Basin	Wastewater MAG, Germany	Freshwater sediment MAG, Oklahoma
		Toth et al. 2022 [47]	Ga0073689 (IMG)	GCA_021163815.1	GCA_003646755.1	GCA_003646785.1	GCA_021160085.1	GCA_017996625.1	GCA_016935335.1
Highly expressed "Magic" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene activation									
23	WAC08366.1	MAG4_03434 (96%)	Ga0073689_14510 (76%)	MCD6262100.1 (72%)	RLB10792.1 (71%)	RLB12343.1 (71%)	MCD6353789.1 (25%)	MBP7321654.1 (24%)	MBN2467806.1 (27%)
24	WAC08367.1	MAG4_03435 (95%)	Ga0073689_14513 (76%)	MCD6262101.1 (73%)		RLB12342.1 (73%)			
25	WAC08368.1	MAG4_03436 (97%)	Ga0073689_1454 (74%)	MCD6261936.1 (76%)				MBP7322676.1 (22%)	
26	WAC08369.1	MAG4_03437 (97%)	Ga0073689_1455 (70%)	MCD6261937.1 (69%)	RLB11855.1 (66%)	RLB11378.1 (28%)	MCD6352761.1 (26%)	MBP7323401.1 (29%)	MBN2467515.1 (29%)
27	WAC08370.1	MAG4_03438 (94%)	Ga0073689_1456 (66%)	MCD6261938.1 (62%)	RLB11856.1 (61%)			MBP7321894.1 (24%)	
28	WAC08371.1	MAG4_03440 (98%)	Ga0073689_14514 (74%)	MCD6262102.1 (65%)	RLB11323.1 (72%)	RLB12341.1 (69%)			MBN2468817.1 (28%)
29	WAC08372.1	MAG4_03441 (98%)	Ga0073689_14515 (69%)	MCD6262103.1 (60%)	RLB11322.1 (62%)	RLB12340.1 (62%)			MBN2468817.1 (29%)
30	WAC08373.1	MAG4_03442 (90%)		MCD6262763.1 (61%)	RLB08760.1 (51%)				
31	WAC08374.1	MAG4_03443 (90%)		MCD6262762.1 (60%)	RLB08759.1 (52%)				
11	WAC08375.1	MAG4_03444 (94%)	Ga0073689_10360 (64%)	MCD6262187.1 (27%)		RLB11401.1 (57%)	MCD6352639.1 (21%)	MBP7322437.1 (62%)	
Highly expressed "Nanopod" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene tolerance									
32	WAC07726.1	MAG4_01804 (84%)		MCD6261932.1 (44%)		RLB12413.1 (26%)	MCD6353230.1 (30%)	MBP7322355.1 (23%)	MBN2468008.1 (29%)
33	WAC07727.1	MAG4_01802 (94%)		MCD6261931.1 (60%)	RLB08538.1 (32%)	RLB12412.1 (36%)	MCD6353229.1 (31%)	MBP7323620.1 (23%)	MBN2468009.1 (33%)
34	WAC07728.1	MAG4_01798 (82%)	Ga0073689_14410 (32%)	MCD6261930.1 (43%)	RLB11670.1 (31%)	RLB11952.1 (29%)		MBP7321527.1 (28%)	MBN2466607.1 (31%)
35	WAC07729.1	MAG4_01797 (92%)							
36	WAC07730.1	MAG4_01796 (88%)		MCD6261929.1 (46%)			MCD6352593.1 (31%)	MBP7323820.1 (30%)	MBN2468006.1 (30%)
37	WAC07731.1	MAG4_01795 (92%)		MCD6261928.1 (51%)	RLB10794.1 (33%)		MCD6352592.1 (35%)	MBP7323819.1 (36%)	MBN2468007.1 (34%)

Figure 1. The complete ORM2a genome. Genomic neighbourhoods and genes of interest whose products were recovered with high certainty (≥99% confidence) from the OR proteomes are highlighted in red and are overviewed in Table 2. Genes whose products are involved in the degradation of 3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA to acetyl-CoA are marked with red circles. Protein accession numbers are shown; corresponding ORM2a gene locus tags are provided in Table S7. The positions of the origin of replication *(oriC)* and ribosomal RNA genes are also shown in this figure.

Figure 2. Summary of key metabolic pathways identified in the ORM2a genome. The total number of spectra mapping to specific genes in Experiment #3b was used to estimate protein abundances. Other complete and incomplete metabolic pathways identified in the ORM2a genome, including matching spectrum counts for associated genes, are summarized in Table S6. Annotations for numbered proteins are provided in Table 2. Abbreviations; SAM, *S*-adenosyl methionone; 5'-dApo, 5'-deoxyadenosine; Fd, ferredoxin; Sat, sulfate adenylyltransferase; Apr, adenylyl-sulfate reductase; Dsr, dissimilatory sulfite reductase; Frh, [NiFe] hydrogenase; Hmd, 5,10-Methenyltetrahydromethanopterin hydrogenase; Fdh, formate dehydrogenase; F_{420}, coenzyme F420; H_4MPT, tetrahydromethanopterin; Por, pyruvate synthase.

Figure 3. Genomic neighborhoods of all publicly available MAGs in NCBI and IMG producing significant alignments to the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters in ORM2a and MAG4_ORM2b. Homologous genes are color-coded by function; sequence alignment statistics for relevant proteins are shown in Table 3; additional alignment statistics are provided in Table S9. Corresponding products detected in the proteomes of the OR consortium and the enrichment culture BPL are marked with yellow or blue stars, respectively. The ends of a contig are capped with brackets.

Figure 4. Known catabolic pathways that may be analogous to reactions catalyzed by products of the "Magic" gene cluster. Examples shown are for a) acetyl-coenzyme A synthetase (AMP forming) [85], b) 4-hydroxybenzoyl-CoA thioesterase [97], c) succinyl-CoA:(*R*)-benzylsuccinate CoA transferase (BbsEF) [98], d) 4-cresol dehydrogenase [89], and e) benzylsuccinate synthase [98].

Figure 5. Taxonomic classification of ORM2a and reference *Desulfobacterota* species based on a) genome and b) 16S rRNA gene maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees. Sequences from this study are highlighted in bold. Sequences belonging to known and predicted benzene-degrading anaerobes are marked with yellow stars; putative anaerobic benzene degraders (based on functional gene evidence presented in this study) are denoted with blue stars. *Desulfocapsa sulflexigens* was used to root both trees. Bootstrap values <60% are not shown.