Identification of a Highly Expressed Gene Cluster Likely Coding for Benzene Activation Enzymes in a Methanogenic Enrichment Culture

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ABSTRACT

The Oil Refinery (OR) consortium is a model methanogenic enrichment culture for studying anaerobic benzene degradation. Over 50% 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 complete circularized 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 ORM2a gene clusters of unknown function. Syntenic gene clusters were identified in two other known benzene degrader, ORM2b and *Pelotomaculum* candidate BPL, and in nine 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 may pump excess benzene out of cells to mitigate toxicity. Phylogenomic analyses place ORM2a and ORM2b within a novel genus of benzene-degrading specialists which we propose naming "*Candidatus* Benzenivorax".

INTRODUCTION

It has been 45 years since anaerobic benzene degradation was first documented 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 reduction, nitrate reduction, sulfate reduction, and methanogenesis, catalyzed by a handful of specialized microbial clades [2, 4]. But despite great efforts, the biochemical mechanism(s) by which benzene is activated in the absence of oxygen remain elusive.

Initial studies using ^{13}C- or ^{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 [5-12], (ii) carboxylation of benzene yielding benzoate [6, 8-10, 13, 14], and (iii) methylation of benzene yielding toluene [10]. Neither phenol nor benzoate are diagnostic of a single activation mechanism [15], and compelling evidence of benzene methylation has been sparse in literature [16, 17]. From 2003-2008, hydrogen and carbon isotope fractionation ratios were evaluated in active benzene-degrading enrichment cultures [18-20]. The slope of dual isotope plots ($\Delta\delta\,^2H/\Delta\delta\,^{13}C$, a value defined as Λ) from nitrate-reducing cultures (Λ = 8 to 19, n = 5) was much lower than for sulfate-reducing and methanogenic cultures surveyed (Λ = 28 to 31, n = 7), supporting that at least two biochemical benzene activation mechanisms exist in nature [18].

By 2010, developments in DNA sequencing and analysis techniques enabled meta'omic characterization of anaerobic benzene degraders for the first time [21-23]. Abu Laban *et al.* [24] sequenced the metagenome of the iron-reducing enrichment culture BF and identified a protein

with homology to a known phenylphosphate carboxylase (PpcA). The authors located its

corresponding putative anaerobic benzene carboxylation gene (*abcA*) on a contig affiliated with

Clostridia. Expression of the putative *abcA* and neighboring genes (*abcD*, benzoyl-CoA ligase

[*bzlA*] and a *ubiX*-like gene) was induced with benzene or benzoate but not with phenol, inferring

a possible role in benzene activation [24]. Syntenic gene clusters have since been identified in the

transcriptomes of several nitrate-reducing cultures [25-27], including one previously analyzed by

isotopic fractionation [18, 19]. Most nitrate- and iron-reducing benzene degraders identified thus

far have been affiliated with the order *Thermincolales* [25-29]; a putative benzene-carboxylating,

sulfate-reducing *Thermincolales* was also recently identified in a jet fuel-contaminated aquifer via

metagenomics [30]. Researchers are now attempting to verify benzene carboxylation using

structural and biochemical assays, among other tools [31].

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

Geobacter metallireducens GS-15, via gene deletion. In 2013-2014, Zhang *et al.* [5, 23] 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 benzene. The

gene *ppsA* encodes for the alpha subunit of phenylphosphate synthase and is required for

catalyzing the first step in anaerobic phenol metabolism [32, 33]. Functional annotations suggest

that the genes Gmet0231 and Gmet0232 encode for putative oxidoreductases, but their exact

functions are unknown. In 2024, Bullows *et al.* [17] identified a fumarate addition gene cluster

encoding for 3-hydroxybenzylsuccinate synthase and a putative methyltransferase in the genome

of *Geotalea daltonii* strain FRC-32, a close relative of *Geobacter*. Expression of these genes –

which are only known to catalyze the activation of alkanes and alkyl-substituted aromatic rings

[34] – was upregulated during active benzene metabolism but not with toluene. Addition of

benzene to *G. daltonii* whole-cell lysates resulted in near-stoichiometric formation of toluene,

corroborating that methylation could indeed be a biochemical benzene activation mechanism [17].

Homologs of the known and predicted anaerobic aromatic-activating genes listed above

have never been detected in methanogenic benzene-degrading enrichment cultures [4, 21] nor in

the well-characterized sulfate-reducing enrichment culture BPL [9, 35]. Genes associated with

aerobic metabolism (monooxygenases) and the first step of anaerobic growth on benzoate

(benzoyl-CoA ligase) have also never been found in these cultures [35]. Thus far, metagenomic

and proteomic surveys of representative cultures have only identified the presence and expression

of downstream ATP-independent benzoyl-CoA biodegradation pathways during active benzene

degradation [21, 35]. Benzoyl-CoA is a central metabolic intermediate of all proposed anaerobic

benzene degradation pathways [16, 36]. Given this information and previous isotope fractionation

data [18, 19] indicating that the mechanism of benzene activation catalyzed by sulfate-reducing

and methanogenic cultures is distinct from that in nitrate-reducing cultures (where carboxylation

is likely), we surmise that a novel hydrocarbon activation mechanism exists that catalyzes

anaerobic transformation of benzene to benzoyl-CoA.

In this study, we integrated the information from three proteomic experiments on the

methanogenic benzene-degrading OR consortium. The culture, which has been maintained on

benzene for over 25 years [4, 10, 18, 19, 21, 37-43], harbors two closely related strains of benzene-

degrading *Desulfobacterota* (ORM2a and ORM2b) that make up on average 56% of total bacteria.

The culture also contains methanogenic archaea (*Methanothrix* and *Methanoregula*), and >100

other typically low abundance microorganisms with various predicted functions [39, 41, 42]. Initial

proteomics experiments were conducted on the OR consortium in the early 2010's [21] but results

were difficult to interpret due to the lack of a sound metagenome and low protein yields [21]. In

the years since, improvements in culture maintenance [39, 40] allowed for greater protein yields

and new sequencing efforts have enabled the reconstruction of two higher quality metagenomes

and 74 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) [41]. The genome of ORM2a was also

successfully closed (NCBI accession no. CP113000.1), making it a valuable blueprint for

deciphering anaerobic benzene degradation. Here, we discovered that the most abundant proteins

expressed by the culture mapped to a unique cluster of syntenic genes found only in other benzene-

degrading obligate anaerobes and a handful of metagenomic contigs from deep hydrocarbon-

producing hydrothermal vents.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Culture maintenance

The OR consortium was enriched from samples from an oil refinery in Oklahoma in 1995 [44] and

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

pre-reduced anaerobic mineral medium [38, 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 [39, 42]. The "OR-b" lineage, illustrated in Figure S1, is the most well

characterized with a doubling time about 30 days [4, 18, 21, 39-43] and was surveyed in this study.

A large scale (>100 liters) bioaugmentation culture known as DGG-B [4, 40] 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

[21, 37].

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). The OR-b1A (2010) metagenome was sequenced using Illumina paired-end technology (2×100 bp) and was partially assembled in ABySS v.1.3.2 [45] with contigs binned using varying kmer lengths (Chapter 5 of Devine [21]). Toth et al. [41] 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. The correct assembly of each closed genome was verified by read mapping, and the average sequence depth for the ORM2a genome was 1,384× [41, 46].

Taxonomy was assigned 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 workflow [41, 47, 48]. In this study, the ORM2a genome (CP113000.1) and a medium-quality MAG putatively belonging to ORM2b, (ORM2b_MAG4, 3,214,903 bp across 378 contigs) were reclassified using release 220 of GTDB and GTDB-Tk v.2.4.0 (discussed later). Seventy-one medium-to-high quality MAGs including ORM2b_MAG4 were retained. All metagenomic assemblies and complete MAGs were submitted to NCBI and/or IMG for automated gene calling and functional annotation. Incomplete (noncircular) MAGs were deposited to figshare [46] and in this study were annotated using RASTtk [49] in March, 2022. Data availability including accession numbers and all functional annotation pipelines used is provided in Table S1.

Analysis of the ORM2a genome

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 [50], then organized into metabolic pathways using the Reconstruct tool within KEGG Mapper [51, 52]. Next, the mummer2circos package in GitHub (https://github.com/metagenlab/mummer2circos) [53] was used to generate a circular plot of the ORM2a genome and to compare its homology with ORM2b_MAG4 (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/). Ori-Finder 2022 [54] was used to identify the genomes' origin of replication (*oriC*). IslandViewer 4 [55] and PHASTER [56] were used to identify genomic islands and prophage sequences, respectively. Functional annotations and hidden Markov model assignments (from NCBI and IMG) were used to identify transposase genes. Putative insertion sequences were identified using ISfinder [57]. Operon-mapper [58] was used to identify operons in the ORM2a genome.

Protein extraction and LC-MS/MS analysis

Between 2010-2018, three 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, all containers used were incubated in an anaerobic chamber (supplied with a gas mix of 10% H_2, 10% CO_2 and 80% N_2) for >24 hours prior to use, and all steps were performed at 4 °C unless otherwise specified.

Protein extractions for Experiment #1 (OR-b1C, 2010) and Experiment #2 (OR-b, 2011) were conducted by Devine [21] followed by LC-MS/MS sequencing of trypsin-digested crude extracts. Detailed sample preparation methods can be found in Text S1. In Experiment #3 (OR-b1A, 2018), cell pellets from two 50 mL volumes of culture (10,000 x g, 15 min) were suspended in an anoxic 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 at 37 °C [21]. 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 was sliced

into five equal sections then destained and digested with trypsin as described in Shevchenko et al.

[60].

LC-MS/MS analysis of Experiments #1 and #2 peptides [21] was performed 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, 5 µL liquid samples of peptides were separated on a 15cm PicoTip Emitter (New

Objective) packed with ReproSil-Pur C18-AQ 3 µm resin (Dr. Maisch GmbH). The flow rate was

set to 250 nL/min and the eluents used were (A) water containing 0.1% formic acid, and (B)

acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid. The gradient started at 0% B, followed by a linear

gradient to 10% B over 5 min, a linear gradient to 40% B over 88 min, a linear gradient to 95% B

over 2 min, a hold at 95% B for 10 min, a linear gradient to 0% B over 1 min, and a final hold of

0% B for 14 min (total runtime of 120 min). MS detection was conducted using a Q-Exactive

Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with a nanoelectrospray

ionization probe operating in positive ionization mode, with a spray voltage of 2.8 kV, capillary

temperature of 275°C, and S-lens radio frequency level of 55. Full MS data was acquired with an

m/z range of 400-2,000, mass resolution of 70,000, automatic gain control (AGC) target of

1.0E+06, and a maximum injection time of 30 milliseconds. MS2 was gathered using a data

dependant TOP10 approach with a mass resolution of 17,500, AGC target of 5.0E+04, maximum

injection time of 50 ms.

Protein identification

Raw mass spectrometry data from all three experiments 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 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. Peptide and

protein identifications were accepted if they could be established at greater than 95% and 99%

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

Functional and structural prediction of ORM2a proteins detected in high abundances

Protein identity was verified using 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 [65] was used to identify conserved domains in each protein. Protein structures were

predicted using the AlphaFold2.ipynb tool within Colab [66, 67], then compared to homologous

structures and protein domains within the Dali server's Protein Data Bank [68] and DeepFRI [69].

All AlphaFold 2 protein structural models generated are provided in File S2. Maximum likelihood

trees were constructed in RAxML v.8.2.1.1 within Geneious v.8.1.9 [70, 71] to corroborate

predicted protein functions where possible. Protein sequences were also sent to the laboratory of

Prof. Christine Orengo (University College London) for independent analysis using CATH v.4.4

[72] and PROST [73].

Phylogenomic analyses

Phylogenomic analysis of the closed ORM2a genome and ORM2b_MAG4 was performed in

v.1.8.8 of GToTree [74]. Briefly, we retrieved all representative genomes from c__UBA8473 and

c__WTBG01 from GTDB v.220, as well as closely related genomes from selected

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

(119 genes) within GToTree. *In silico* translated protein sequences were aligned using MUSCLE

[75] and concatenated. A maximum likelihood tree was constructed from the concatenated

alignment using IQ-TREE v.2.3.6 [76] 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 of 3,300,546 bp with low GC skew and no definitive terminus region (Figure 1, Figure S3). General genome statistics are summarized in Table S2 and supplementary details are provided in Text S2. In total, 1,431 out of 3,135 genes identified in the ORM2a genome (46%) were connected to KEGG Orthology modules and could be organized into metabolic pathways. Key pathways are overviewed below and in Figure 2; all other complete and incomplete pathways identified are summarized in Table S3. The ORM2a genome suggests limited metabolic potential to degrade carbohydrates, lipids, amino acids, and nucleic acids. Pathways for electron transport and 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 with one missing subunit (*dsrC*). Previous experimental evidence suggested that the OR consortium could couple benzene oxidation to sulfate reduction [4], but this is the first genomic evidence supporting this observation. BLAST searches and manual inspections confirmed that the ORM2a genome does not contain homologs to any known hydrocarbon activation genes or to benzoyl-CoA ligase (*bzlA*). The latter is a significant distinction between microorganisms containing putative anaerobic benzene carboxylase genes (*abcAD*) and those that do not [35]. However, 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 29 complete anabolic pathways were identified in the ORM2a genome, including biosynthesis pathways for 7 amino acids and 4 vitamins (Table S3a). In contrast, 197 genes with putative transport functions were identified (Table S4) – including transporters for vitamin B_{12} and undefined amino acids – hinting that ORM2a imports most of its nutrients from extracellular

sources, perhaps from polymeric substances or from direct exchanges with other microorganisms

as theorized in recent microscopy and genomic investigations of the OR culture [42, 43]. The

ORM2a genome contains 8 operons with genes coding for predicted hydrogenases and/or formate

dehydrogenase (Figure 2 and Table S5), whose products most likely feed into methanogenic

pathways [77]. The genome also encodes for type IV pili and a Che-type chemotaxis system that

may be involved in bacterial motility. Overall, these findings suggest that ORM2a is likely an

obligate syntrophic anaerobe uniquely adapted for anaerobic benzene degradation, consistent with

all previous culture studies [4, 21, 39, 40].

Proteomic analyses

A total of 858 unique predicted proteins were identified from the three proteomics experiments on

OR subcultures (Table 1 and Supplemental Text S3). Accession numbers, predicted functional

annotations, amino acid sequences, and peptide/spectra counts are provided in Table S9. Peptide

and protein statistics are provided in Tables S10a and S10b, respectively. Proteins that mapped to

one or more MAGs, are putatively involved in anaerobic benzene degradation, and/or were

detected in high abundance in Experiment #3b (≥100 matching spectra) are highlighted in Table 2

and Figures 1-2. Most of the high abundance proteins identified in Experiment #3b were also

detected in 1 to 4 other OR proteomes (Table S9), illustrating the robustness of our experimental

results despite years between experiments and differences in protein extraction efficiencies.

Key microorganisms identified in the OR proteomes

Three-hundred and sixty-two proteins (42% of proteins identified) mapped unambiguously to the

closed MAG of ORM2a (Table 1), covering 11% of this bacterium's total putative proteome. We

also identified 33 unique proteins (4%) that mapped to a draft MAG putatively belonging to

ORM2b (ORM2b_MAG4, 378 contigs), and 44 proteins (5%) that mapped to both ORM2a and

ORM2b_MAG4 (Table 1). The draft ORM2b_MAG4 genome does not contain a 16S ribosomal

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

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

ORM2b_MAG4 supports its correct classification (see ring 5 of Figure 1 and Figure S4). Most

ORM2b_MAG4 proteins identified were highly similar (95-100% identity) to ORM2a proteins

described below and summarized in Tables 2 and 3. No other MAGs assembled from the OR

culture aligned significantly to the ORM2 MAGs.

One-quarter of proteins identified mapped to MAGs of methanogenic archaea (Tables 1

and S9), 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 more than one MAG (Table

2). Fifty low-abundance proteins mapped to other bacterial MAGs including "*Ca.*

Nealsonbacteria" DGGOD1a. The remaining 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 compared to representative sequences of known/predicted hydrocarbon

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

any homologs. Next, we searched for products of downstream aromatic degradation pathways and

detected a complete suite of putative benzoyl-CoA degradation enzymes mapping to the ORM2a

genome (Figures 1 and 2, Tables 2). Ten gene products (designated Proteins #1-10) mapped to a

single gene cluster and were annotated as subunits of a Bam-type benzoyl-CoA reductase

(BamBCDEFDHI; whose components are described in Wischgoll et al. [78] and Boll et al. [79]),

an FdhD-like insertase, and a cyclohexa-1,5-diene-1-carbonyl-CoA hydratase (BamR). Two high

abundance proteins annotated as 6-hydroxycyclohex-1-ene-1-carbonyl-CoA dehydrogenase

(BamQ, Protein #11) and 6-oxo-cyclohex-1-ene-carbonyl-CoA hydrolase (BamA, Protein #12)

mapped to other regions of the ORM2a genome (Figure 1). Multiple sequence alignments to

reference sequences (Table S11) and maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree analyses (Figure S5)

support the correct annotation of all predicted Bam proteins.

Nine proteins predicted to catalyze the transformation of 3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA into

acetyl-CoA were also identified in the OR proteomes and mapped exclusively to the genome of

ORM2a (Figures 1 and 2, Table 2). In Experiment #3b, higher protein abundances were recovered

for Proteins #13-17, involved in 3-hydroxyglutaryl-CoA transformation to glutaconyl-CoA, than

for downstream beta-oxidation enzymes (Proteins #18-21). This could indicate a fork in the

pathway (Figure 2) and warrants future investigation. Genome inspections revealed that the gene

coding for a non-decarboxylating glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (Protein #15) was located in the

same operon as two genes coding for bifurcating electron transfer flavoproteins (EtfAB; Proteins

#16-17) (Tables 2 and S12). Electron bifurcation is a mechanism of biological energy (ATP)

conservation that couples endergonic and exergonic redox reactions [80]. As shown in Figure 2,

EtfAB may couple the oxidation of $NADH + H^+$ with the reductions of glutaryl-CoA (exergonic)

and ferredoxin (endergonic), akin to the proposed reaction mechanism of EtfAB-butyryl-CoA

dehydrogenase complexes [80, 81].

Sulfur metabolism and acetate production

Several unexpected ORM2a proteins were detected in the OR proteomes, including five proteins

associated with the dissimilatory reduction of sulfate to hydrogen sulfide (Sat, AprAB, DsrAB)

despite not adding any sulfate to the culture medium (Figure 2). Ferrous sulfide (FeS) is however

used as a reductant [38] and could result in the formation of sulfate if oxidized. We also detected

four subunits (HydABDG) of a sulfhydrogenase that catalyzes the reversible reduction of

elemental sulfur or polysulfide to H_2S using hydrogen as an electron donor [82]. This was the only

hydrogenase detected in the OR proteomes that mapped to ORM2a (Figure 2 and Table S5),

hinting that that this organism may couple syntrophic benzene oxidation with sulfur metabolism.

Perhaps ORM2a cells use HydABDG to prevent H_2S buildup or to store sulfur and electrons in the

form of polysulfides [83]. This finding warrants a separate investigation.

GroEL (Protein #43) and a putative AMP-forming acetyl-CoA synthetase (Acs, #42) were

tied as the 5th most abundant proteins in Experiment #3b (Table 2). Acs catalyzes the ATP-

dependent formation of acetyl-CoA molecules from acetate and coenzyme A but given that acetyl-

CoA is already produced in abundance during anaerobic benzene degradation, it is plausible that

Protein #42 catalyzes the reverse reaction yielding acetate (a substrate for acetoclastic

Methanothrix spp.), CoA, and ATP (Figure 2). Similar reverse reactions have been proposed in

the metabolic pathway of syntrophic bacteria in anaerobic digesters and has been supported by

metatranscriptomic evidence [84]. No other acetogenic proteins were identified in the OR

proteomes, and the ORM2a genome does not appear to encode for other pathways that synthesize

acetate. Phylogenetic trees support the correct annotation of Protein #42 (Figure S6).

Highly expressed ORM2a proteins from gene clusters of unknown function

The three top most abundant and recurring proteins identified in the OR proteomes (Proteins #24-

26) mapped consecutively to an ORM2a gene cluster of unknown function (see Table 2 and

Figures 1 and 3). Products of several neighboring genes (Proteins #22-23, #27-30) were also

detected in multiple OR proteomes. 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). Annotations provided by NCBI, IMG, and the Protein Data Bank (PDB)

offered few insights into the functions of these proteins (Tables 2 and 4b) with one notable exception – the tenth consecutive gene in the "Magic" gene cluster most likely codes for BamQ (Protein #11) in the benzoyl-CoA degradation pathway (Figure 2). Products of a neighboring, transcription-terminating Rho factor also were detected in the Experiment #3b proteome (Protein #31), suggesting that expression of the "Magic" gene cluster is tightly regulated.

Two other highly abundant proteins (#32 and #33, ranked 18th and 4th in Experiment #3b, respectively) mapped consecutively to a second ORM2a genomic island of unknown function (designated the "Nanopod" gene cluster, see Table 2 and Figures 1 and 3) that includes four other expressed genes. Protein #33 contains a domain of unknown function (DUF1329, WAC07727.1) that has previously been identified in the nanopod structures of some hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria including *Delftia acidovorans* Cs1-4 (genome accession no. CP002735.1), an aerobic phenanthrene degrader [85, 86]. Nanopods are tubular structures (<100 nm in diameter) that may facilitate nutrient transport or export toxic compounds from cells [86, 87]. Shetty et al. [86] 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 (DelCs14_1722) impaired growth on phenanthrene. BLASTP alignments suggest that Protein #33 is distantly related to the translated DelCs14_1722 gene sequence (21% amino acid identity), but the high expression of this ORM2a 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 genomes contain syntenic regions to the "Magic" and "Nanopod" gene clusters, translated sequences were searched against all reference genomes in NCBI and IMG (as of August 2024) using BLASTP. Four syntenic contigs were identified (Figure 3 and Table 3). We

also identified six short (2-3 gene) contigs containing highly similar genes (51-76% amino acid

identity) to the "Magic" gene cluster (Table S11). Interestingly, 9 of the 10 contigs identified were

affiliated to *Deltaproteobacteria* spp. from hydrothermal vent systems [88, 89]. Hydrocarbons are

important energy sources for microbial communities in these ecosystems and are produced

primarily by geological processes [90]. 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 AUK045 and the two draft *Deltaproteobacteria* bins

(Table S11), 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 [9, 35]. Dong et al. [35]

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 homologs of "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 $\leq$ 1.0E-

178). Other *Pelotomaculum* proteins encoded on contig Ga0073689_145 included a predicted

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

gene neighborhood in the genomes of ORM2a, ORM2b, and *Deltaproteobacteria* AUK045

(Figure 3). These striking similarities are unlikely to be a coincidence.

Predicted functions of the "Magic" benzene genes

Multiple sequence and structure-based protein prediction tools were used to identify operons in

the "Magic" gene cluster and to glean more insights into the molecular and biological functions of

each encoded gene. Search results are summarized in Figure 4 and Tables S11-S12, and key

findings are described here. We also attempted to construct phylogenetic trees for each protein

coded by these gene clusters, but most were too distantly related to reference enzymes (with

experimentally confirmed functions) to produce meaningful data.

Five operons were predicted in the "Magic" gene cluster, each coding for 2-3 proteins

(Figure 4a). Interestingly, genes in "Magic" Operons #1, #2 and #3 were co-localized in every

MAG and bin surveyed (Figure 3) and may represent subunits of distinct enzyme complexes. Each

protein prediction tool agreed that Protein #22 is most likely a novel AMP-forming acyl-CoA

synthetase (Figure 4b). Phylogenetic analyses place Protein #22 (and its homologs from other

benzene degraders surveyed) in a subfamily of acyl-CoA synthetases distinct from functionally

characterized enzymes including benzoyl-CoA ligase and acetyl-CoA synthetase (Figures 4c and

S6). Gene Orthology (GO) term search results using DeepFRI [69] suggest that Protein #22 can

bind to organic cyclic compounds (Table S11b), possibly benzene or its activation product. Given

that the same cofactors are predicted to participate in Proteins #22 and #42 reactions (e.g.,

ATP/AMP, coenzyme A), perhaps these reactions are coupled together and allow one reaction's

energy to drive the other (Figure 2).

Genes coding for homologs of Proteins #22 and #23 were always co-localized, as were

genes coding for homologs of Proteins #27 and #28 (Figure 4a) Although we could not confidently

assign a function to Protein #23, DeepFRI search results suggest that the protein may bind to

organic cyclic compounds as well as metal ions. Proteins #27 and #28 likely represent subunits of

a class III CoA-transferase enzyme complex (Figures 4b and 4f). This class of enzymes catalyzes

the transfer of coenzyme A groups from acyl-CoA donors to carboxylic acid acceptors, and are

known to be involved in the metabolism diverse substrates (e.g., oxalate, carnitine, toluene, and

bile acid) [91]. Despite some shared functional properties to other CoA-transferase classes, they

are not closely related (<25% amino acid identity) [92]. Search results from AphaFold2 [66, 67]

and DALI [68] determined that Protein #30 is structurally most similar to (*3R*)-hydroxyacyl-ACP

(acyl carrier protein) dehydratase subunit HadA (Table 3b), involved in fatty acid beta-oxidation

[93]. Sequence analyses in MotifFinder [65] and PROST [73] indicate that Protein #29 could

represent a second acyl-ACP or acyl-CoA dehydratase subunit (Tables 3b and S12).

Proteins #24, #25 and #26 – which were the three most abundant proteins identified in the

OR proteomes (Table 2) – are especially intriguing. Most prediction tools annotated Proteins #24

and #26 as flavoproteins with possible L-lactate or 4-cresol oxidoreductase activities (Figure 4b

and 4e). DeepFRI predictions suggest that both proteins can bind cyclic organic compounds, and

that Protein #24 may also be nucleotide and co-enzyme binding (Table S11b). The sequence and

structure of Protein #25 are most similar to heterodisulfide reductase subunits HdrD and HdrA,

respectively, implicated in methanogenesis (Figures 4b and 4d). Heterodisulfide reductases (HDR)

are a functionally diverse but largely uncharacterized class of enzymes found in both archaea and

bacteria [94]. Phylogenetic analyses place this protein in an uncharacterized subfamily of HDRs

(Figure S7-S8). We note here that several other HDR coding genes were identified in the ORM2a

genome (Figure 2 and Table S5) but their products were not detected in the proteome data. Protein

#25 may also belong to the radical S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) superfamily [95] as it contains

two characteristic cysteine-rich regions (CxxxCxxC) near its N-terminus (Figure S8). Members of

the SAM superfamily use [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 [96, 97]. Perhaps Proteins #24-26 work together to couple

benzene activation, a likely highly endergonic reaction, to a unique flavin-based electron

bifurcation mechanism [80]. Ferredoxin and a disulfide-containing cofactor could potentially serve

as electron acceptors; hydrogen or perhaps benzene could serve as electron donors. ATP may fuel

the reaction complex that must also involve a transfer of CoA. We have attempted many times to

devise a working model for this reaction but concede that the underlying biochemistry is (for now)

far from understood.

Predicted functions of the "Nanopod" gene cluster

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

transmembrane complex (Figure 2, Tables S12-S13). Protein #32 most closely resembles a porin,

involved in passive substrate transport, whereas Protein #37 (a predicted RND superfamily efflux

protein) appears to be involved in active transport. GO term searches in PROST [73] and DeepFRI

[69] suggest that Protein #37 and possibly Protein #34 (an uncharacterized cytoplasmic protein)

can bind to organic cyclic structures (Tables S11a and S11b). Most tools agreed that Protein #35

is a universal stress factor. Membrane stress can result from partitioning of hydrophobic

compounds such as benzene into lipid bilayers [98]. 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 ORM2b_MAG4 genomes

A phylogenomic tree (Figure 5a) placed the ORM2a and ORM2b 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) [88]. These MAGs contain some

functional potential to degrade benzoyl-CoA and downstream intermediates (Table S11) but they

do not appear capable of degrading benzene (Table 3).

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

similar clustering 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 [38, 99, 100]. 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.ze.ni.i.vor'ax;

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

benzene-devouring). We are in the process of registering the proposed taxonomy in SeqCode.

Concluding remarks

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 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

also exposed to hydrocarbons. 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, energetically difficult activation step. The

"Nanopod" gene clusters found in some (ORM2a, ORM2b_MAG4, *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. 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

functions and to search through other cultures and datasets for homologous features.

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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 proteins (≥100 matching spectra in Experiment #3b, highlighted in bold) and proteins of interest recovered with high certainty (≥99% confidence). Proteins shown mapped to one or more MAG reconstructed from OR metagenomes. Proteins are grouped by predicted biochemical functions and ranked in abundance based on total spectra counts; proteins tied in rank abundance are denoted with (=) symbols. Other proteins identified are listed in Table S9.

Protein #	Predicted function (NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline version 6.3 and best BLASTP hits)	Protein spectra count (Exp. #3b)	Protein abundance rank	Matching MAG(s)	Protein accession #
Benzoyl-CoA degradation to 3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA					
1	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamB	80	=26	ORM2a and ORM2b	WAC08761.1, ORM2b_MAG4_01005
2	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamC	15	=154	ORM2a	WAC08762.1, ORM2b_MAG4_01004
3	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamD	61	=43	ORM2a	WAC08763.1
4	Formate dehydrogenase accessory sulfurtransferase FdhD	6	=287	ORM2a	WAC09094.1
5	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamE	68	32	ORM2a	WAC09095.1
6	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamF	18	=135	ORM2a	WAC08764.1
7	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamG	6	=287	ORM2a	WAC08765.1
8	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamH	91	23	ORM2a and ORM2b	WAC08766.1, ORM2b_MAG4_04225
9	Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BamI	9	=227	ORM2a	WAC08767.1
10	Cyclohexa-1,5-diene-1-carbonyl-CoA hydratase BamR	49	59	ORM2a	WAC08768.1
11	**6-hydroxycyclohex-1-ene-1-carbonyl-CoA dehydrogenase BamQ**	**103**	**20**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08375.1**
12	**6-oxo-cyclohex-1-ene-carbonyl-CoA hydrolase BamA**	**143**	**13**	**ORM2a**	**WAC07399.1**
3-hydroxypimelyl-CoA degradation to acetyl-CoA					
13	**3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase**	**148**	**9**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08792.1**
14	Thiolase family protein	69	31	ORM2a	WAC08791.1
15	Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (non-decarboxylating)	58	=49	ORM2a	WAC06987.1
16	Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit beta/FixA family protein	39	=69	ORM2a	WAC06988.1
17	Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit alpha/FixB family protein	63	=39	ORM2a	WAC06989.1
18	Glutaconyl-CoA decarboxylase subunit alpha	5	=332	ORM2a	WAC08228.1
19	Enoyl-CoA hydratase-related protein	3	=458	ORM2a	WAC07318.1
20	3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydrogenase	9	=227	ORM2a	WAC09154.1
21	Acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase	3	=458	ORM2a	WAC07319.1
Highly expressed "Magic" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene activation					
22	AMP-binding protein	74	29	ORM2a and ORM2b	WAC08366.1, ORM2b_MAG4_03434
23	MaoC family dehydratase	57	52	ORM2a	WAC08367.1
24	**FAD-binding oxidoreductase**	**172**	**3**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08368.1**
25	**(Fe-S)-binding protein**	**219**	**2**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08369.1**
26	**FAD-binding oxidoreductase**	**265**	**1**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08370.1**
27	Type III CoA transferase	45	61	ORM2a	WAC08371.1
28	Type III CoA transferase	58	=49	ORM2a and ORM2b	WAC08372.1, ORM2b_MAG4_03441
29	Hypothetical protein	19	=128	ORM2a and ORM2b	WAC08373.1, ORM2b_MAG4_03442
30	MaoC family dehydratase	50	=57	ORM2a	WAC08374.1
31	Transcription termination factor Rho	25	=100	ORM2a	WAC08378.1
Highly expressed "Nanopod" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene tolerance					
32	**Hypothetical protein**	**106**	**=18**	**ORM2a**	**WAC07726.1**
33	**DUF1329 domain-containing protein**	**158**	**4**	**ORM2a**	**WAC07727.1, ORM2b_MAG4_01802**
34	Universal stress protein	6	=287	ORM2a	WAC07728.1
35	Hypothetical protein	7	=269	ORM2a	WAC07729.1
36	YCF48-related protein	65	=36	ORM2a	WAC07730.1
37	MMPL family transporter	60	=45	ORM2a	WAC07731.1
Archaeal proteins associated with methanogenesis					
38	**Acetate-CoA synthetase Acs**	**142**	**14**	***Methanothrix* MAG20**	**MAG20_01236**
39	**Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrB**	**149**	**8**	***Methanothrix* MAG21**	**MAG21_01157**
40	**Coenzyme-B sulfoethylthiotransferase McrB**	**154**	**7**	***Methanothrix* MAG11, MAG20 and MAG28**	**MAG11_02361, MAG20_02648, MAG28_00841**
41	**Acetate-CoA synthetase Acs**	**125**	**16**	***Methanothrix***	**MAG11_00500**
Other proteins					
42	**Acetate-CoA synthetase Acs**	**156**	**=5**	**ORM2a**	**WAC06830.1**
43	**Chaperonin GroL**	**156**	**=5**	**ORM2a**	**WAC08671.1**

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. Protein accession numbers and best BLASTP hit search results for other ORM2a proteins of interest and other reference genomes are provided in Table S11.

				Protein accession no. of best BLASTP hit					
Protein cluster #	ORM2a	ORM2b_MAG4	*Pelotomaculum* candiate 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
	This study	This study	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	**100%**	**96%**	**76%**	**72%**	**71%**	**71%**	25%	24%	27%
24	**100%**	**95%**	**76%**	**73%**		**73%**			
25	**100%**	**97%**	**74%**	**76%**				22%	
26	**100%**	**97%**	**70%**	**69%**	**66%**	28%	26%	29%	29%
27	**100%**	**94%**	**66%**	**62%**	**61%**			24%	
28	**100%**	**98%**	**74%**	**65%**	**72%**	**69%**			28%
29	**100%**	**98%**	**69%**	**60%**	**62%**	**62%**			29%
30	**100%**	**90%**		**61%**	51%				
31	**100%**	**90%**		**60%**	52%				
11	**100%**	**94%**	**64%**	27%		57%	21%	**62%**	
Highly expressed "Nanopod" gene cluster putatively involved in benzene tolerance									
32	**100%**	**84%**		44%		26%	30%	23%	29%
33	**100%**	**94%**		**60%**	32%	36%	31%	23%	33%
34	**100%**	**82%**	32%	43%	31%	29%		28%	31%
35	**100%**	**92%**							
36	**100%**	**88%**		46%			31%	30%	30%
37	**100%**	**92%**		51%	33%		35%	36%	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 S9. 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 proteome. Protein spectral counts from Experiment #3b were used to estimate protein abundances. Other complete and incomplete metabolic pathways identified in the ORM2a genome are summarized in Table S3. Annotations for numbered proteins are provided in Table 2. Abbreviations (clockwise from top-left); R-S-S-R, heterodisulfide; ACS, acetyl-CoA synthetase; Fd, ferredoxin; PorB, pyruvate synthase; SulP, sulfate permease; Sat, sulfate adenylyltransferase; AprAB, adenylyl-sulfate reductase; dissimilatory sulfite reductase; TauE/SafE, sulfite exporter; HydABGD, sulfhydrogenase; FdhAB, formate dehydrogenase; FocA, formate-nitrite transporter; HdrA2B2C2, F_{420}-reducing heterodisulfide reductase; HdrABC, heterodisulfide reductase; Mvh, F_{420}-non-reducing hydrogenase; EchABEF, energy converting hydrogenase; EtfAB, electron-transferring flavoprotein oxidoreductase.

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 ORM2b_MAG4. 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 S11. 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. Structure and functional prediction of proteins coded by the "Magic" gene cluster. Panel A shows the operon organization of this gene cluster. Panel B summarizes the best Protein Data Bank (PDB) search results for each "Magic" gene product. Z-scores are a measure of protein composite confidence, where more closely matching structures produce higher scores; Z-scores ≥30 are considered significant. More alignment statistics are provided in Table S12. Panels C through F show sample reaction pathways catalyzed by reference proteins.

A Genome　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　**B 16S rRNA**

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.