1

Evidence for extensive anaerobic dechlorination and transformation of the pesticide

chlordecone (C$_{10}$Cl$_{10}$O) in soil from Guadeloupe

Line Lomheim[1], Laurent Laquitaine [2], Suly Rambinaising[2], Robert Flick[1], Andrei Starostine[1],

Corine Jean-Marius[2], Elizabeth A. Edwards[1], Sarra Gaspard[2]

[1]Department of Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry, University of Toronto

[2]Laboratory COVACHIMM2E, Département de Chimie, Université des Antilles, Campus de

Fouillole, BP250, 97150 Pointe à Pitre Cedex, Guadeloupe (FWI), France

Co-Corresponding authors

Elizabeth A. Edwards Email: elizabeth.edwards@utoronto.ca

Sarra Gaspard Email: sarra.gaspard@univ-antilles.fr

Abbreviations:
CLD Chlordecone
MHCLD Monohydrochlordecone
DHCLD Dihydrochlordecone
THCLD Trihydrochlordecone
HCLD Hydrochlordecone
PCIN Polychloroindene
CPCIN Carboxylated polychloroindene
TCE Trichloroethene
VC Vinyl Chloride
MC Microcosm
GC Gas Chromatograph
LC Liquid Chromatograph
MS Mass Spectrometry
eeq Electron Equivalents
SI Supporting Info

ABSTRACT

The historic use of chlordecone ($C_{10}Cl_{10}O$) as a pesticide to control banana weevil infestations

has resulted in pollution of large land areas in the French West Indies. Although currently

banned, chlordecone persists because it adsorbs strongly to soil and its complex bis-homocubane

structure is stable, particularly under aerobic conditions. Abiotic chemical transformation

catalyzed by reduced vitamin B12 has been shown to break down chlordecone by opening the

cage structure to produce C9 polychloroindenes. More recently these C9 polychloroindenes were

also observed as products of anaerobic microbiological transformation. To investigate the

anaerobic biotransformation of chlordecone by microbes native to the French West Indies,

microcosms were constructed anaerobically from chlordecone impacted Guadeloupe soil and

sludge. Original microcosms and transfers were incubated over a period of 8 years, during which

they were repeatedly amended with chlordecone and electron donor (ethanol and acetone). Using

LC-MS, chlordecone and degradation products were detected in all the biologically active

microcosms. Observed products in active but not sterile incubations included monohydro-,

dihydro- and trihydrochlordecone derivatives ($C_{10}Cl_{10-n}O_2H_n$; n= 1,2,3), as well as "open cage"

C9 polychloroindene compounds ($C_9Cl_{5-n}H_{3+n}$ n=0,1,2) and C10 carboxylated polychloroindene

derivatives ($C_{10}Cl_{4-n}O_2H_{4+n}$, n=0-3). Products with as many as 9 chlorine atoms removed were

detected. Chlordecone concentrations decreased in active microcosms as concentrations of

products increased, but quantification was hampered by a lack of standards. Mono- and

dihydrochlordecones and pentachloroindenes were also detected in field samples, indicating that

anaerobic dechlorination processes have occurred intrinsically in situ. Therefore it may be

possible to stimulate anaerobic dechlorination through donor addition to contaminated soils.

Microbial community analysis in microcosms showed enrichment of anaerobic fermenting and

acetogenic microbes possibly involved in anaerobic chlordecone biotransformation.

INTRODUCTION

Chlordecone (CLD) was used to control insect pests (mainly the banana Weevil) in banana

plantations in the Caribbean, particularly in Guadeloupe and Martinique from 1971 to 1993,

despite being banned in the United States since 1974 (ATSDR 1995) (Cabidoche *et al.,* 2009).

Chlordecone ($C_{10}Cl_{10}O$) is a bis-homocubane, comprising a cage structure with 10 chlorine

atoms and a ketone functionality. It was commercialized under the brand names Kepone® and

Curlone® and was spread at the foot of each banana plant as a solution delivering 1.5 grams of

chlordecone per plant. With 800 banana plants per hectare and 2.5 applications per year, the

resulting dosage was a significant 3 kg chlordecone per hectare per year. As a consequence of

such intensive application, 8–9% of the cultivated areas of Guadeloupe have CLD concentrations

higher than 1 mg/kg in topsoil, and some banana fields have concentrations higher than 9 mg/kg

(Cabidoche *et al.,* 2009). CLD adsorbs strongly to soils rich in organic matter, and its

partitioning coefficient (log K_{oc}) has been reported in the range of 3.3-3.41 (Bonvallot and Dor

2004) (ATSDR 1995). CLD is only slightly soluble in water (2.7 mg/L at pH 7 and 25°C (Kilzer

et al., 1979) and tends to bioaccumulate in fatty tissues of living organisms (Howard 1991,

Dromard *et al.,* 2019). CLD is also neurotoxic, hepatotoxic and spermatotoxic to most living

organisms (Multigner *et al.,* 2016). In 2009, CLD was added to the list of persistent organic

pollutants in the Stockholm Convention, banning its production and use worldwide. Studies

suggest exposure to CLD may be linked to higher occurrence of prostate cancer and to impaired

cognitive and motor development in young children (Multigner *et al.,* 2010). Watershed

modelling predicts that CLD will remain in soils for decades or even centuries because of its

stability and affinity for soil organic matter, providing a long term source of contamination to the

aquatic environment (Cabidoche *et al.,* 2009). Surface water, ground water, sediments and

receiving coastal wasters have all been impacted. CLD has also been found to accumulate in

certain animals and plants used for food, including tubers and other vegetables grown in soil

(Devault *et al.,* 2016). Effective methods to decontaminate soil and protect downgradient

environments, food and water supply are clearly needed.

Few researchers have investigated CLD transformation. Early detailed studies by (Schrauzer and

Katz 1978) revealed that reduced vitamin B12 could dechlorinate chlordecone into products

including monohydrochlordecone (MHCLD), dihydrochlordecone (DHCLD) and

pentachloroindene. More recently, Ranguin *et al.,* (2017) were also able to show abiotic

dechlorination using reduced vitamin B12. The abiotic reduction of CLD with B12, zerovalent

iron or sodium sulphide led to formation of hydrochlordecones (HCLDs) and polychloroindenes

(PCINs) (Chevallier 2017). Very little data exists on the microbial degradation of CLD. Orndorff

and Colwell (1980) showed that *Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain K03* was able to partially

transform CLD to 15% MHCLD and 5% DHCLD. However, the HCLDs detected could have

been impurities and not biodegradation products (George and Claxton 1988). Under

methanogenic conditions, Jablonski (1996) reported extensive dechlorination and formation of

apolar and polar metabolites in a culture of *Methonosarcina thermophila* at 50°C. According to

this work, 86% of labelled [14C] CLD was dechlorinated. Very slow, natural transformation of

CLD to 5-b-hydrochlordecone was documented in polluted soils indicating the possible natural

biotransformation of chlordecone (Devault *et al.,* 2016). More recently, the formation of

MHCLD, DHCLD, trihydrochlordecone (THCLD) and indene metabolites $C_9Cl_5H_3$ and $C_9Cl_4H_4$

was detected in a mixed bacterial consortium as well as by an isolated *Citrobacter* strain

(Chaussonnerie *et al.,* 2016, Chevallier 2017), and a third group of metabolites, carboxylated

polycholoroindenes (CPCIN) was also reported (Chevallier 2017). The genome of the

Citrobacter strain in these studies contained no reductive dehalogenase genes and thus

transformation was likely cometabolic (Chaussonnerie *et al.,* 2016). A very recent paper by the

same team further identified and characterized many chlordecone transformation products

(Chevallier *et al.,* 2019), using NMR, chemical reduction and organic synthesis to elucidate

isomer structures. This work enabled quantification of these transformation products in soil

samples from Martinique, documenting evidence for some natural transformation in the

environment.

The objective of this work was to evaluate anaerobic microbial transformation of CLD in batch

bottle microcosms prepared from impacted soils from Guadeloupe. A major challenge was to

develop sampling and analytical techniques to detect, identify and track CLD and metabolites

repeatedly over time in small (~1 ml) samples from microcosms. An LC-Orbitrap MS method

was eventually developed for small volume samples, where we found that the choice of

extractive co-solvent was critical to the detection of both polar and non-polar metabolites. The

isotopic fingerprint of compounds with multiple chlorines enabled tentative identification of

metabolites despite lack of authentic standards. In microcosms maintained under strictly

anaerobic conditions, we were able to document slow but extensive dechlorination of CLD to

products with up to 9 chlorine atoms removed. In field samples, MHCLD, DHCLD and

pentachloroindene metabolites were convincingly detected, indicating that these dechlorinating

reactions can also proceed *in situ*, particularly where anaerobic field conditions can be found.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection of Field Samples. Field samples were collected twice, first in the fall of 2010 for microcosm setup, and second in the spring of 2018 to analyze CLD and potential degradation products by LC/MS using a refined protocol. In 2010, samples were collected from seven locations in the south of Basse-Terre island, Guadeloupe (Table S1A): three andosol samples from agricultural areas used for banana production (soil); three fluvisol samples from river banks near a banana production area (soil and water); and one sludge sample from an anaerobic digester at a sugar cane distillery plant. In 2018, nine different locations were sampled (Table S1B): six from CLD-impacted agricultural areas (as soil and water slurries); and three activated carbon sludge samples from a water treatment plant that handles chlordecone-contaminated water. All agricultural soil samples were collected from 0-20 cm depth. In 2010, soil, water and sludge samples were collected separately in polypropylene sampling bottles, while in 2018, a mix of soil and water was placed into 1-liter glass sampling jars that were filled to the top and sealed. All samples were shipped from Guadeloupe to University of Toronto for analysis where they were stored at 4°C until use.

Chemicals. CLD (neat) and CLD standard (analytic standard 1mg/mL in MeOH) were purchased from Accustandard (New Haven, USA). Hexanes and acetone (Fisher), water and methanol (Caledon Laboratory Chemicals), and ethanol (Commercial Alcohols, Brampton, Canada) were all of HPLC grade. TCE was purchased from Sigma and had a purity of 99.5%. Metabolite B1 was a gift from researchers at Genoscope (Évry, France).

Microcosm Setup and Enrichment. In December 2010, a microcosm study consisting of 13 different conditions each in triplicate for a total of 39 microcosms was initiated (Table S2A). Microcosms contained soil and water samples from Guadeloupe and were augmented with artificial groundwater (recipe in Supplemental Method Details 1) as there was not enough field water. The microcosms were prepared in 160 ml serum glass bottles (Fisher Scientific) sealed with blue butyl stoppers (Bellco Glass Inc.) with 22.5 ml soil and 80 ml water. Rezasurin (1 mg/l) was added to one microcosm from each triplicate set as an indicator of anaerobic conditions. At setup, 15 microcosms (5 different soil samples in triplicate) were poisoned by adding mercuric chloride (0.05%) and sodium azide (0.02%). The 15 poisoned control

microcosms and 18 of the 24 active microcosms were amended with CLD at a target

concentration of 10 mg/l (which is above the solubility of ~2 mg/L (Howard 1991, ATSDR

1995), therefore a separate phase of CLD was expected). Three other active microcosms were

amended with both CLD and trichloroethene (TCE) at target concentrations of 10 mg/l each, and

three microcosms were left unamended. TCE was added as a positive control for reductive

dechlorination. All 39 microcosms received an initial dose of an electron donor mix of acetone

and ethanol, each at ~80 mg/L. The ratio of donor (acetone/ethanol) to CLD (acceptor) in terms

of electron equivalents (eeq) was around 100:1, assuming 20 eeq/mol CLD for complete

dechlorination. This ratio is very high, and higher than typically used for other chlorinated

electron acceptors like TCE (5:1) because more acetone and ethanol were needed to dissolve

CLD (solid powder) into the feeding stock solution (Table S3). The microcosms were incubated

in the dark, unshaken in an anaerobic glovebox (Coy Lab Products, Grass Lake, MI, USA) for

about 8 years. During the first 2.5 years, all the active microcosms were re-amended with CLD

twice and electron donor five times. Those microcosms that also received TCE were re-amended

with TCE twice during this period. Six active microcosms were transferred into a defined pre-

reduced anaerobic mineral medium (Edwards and Grbic-Galic 1994) in slightly larger bottles:

one after 1 year, one after 1.5 years, and four after 2 1/2 years (Figure S1 and Table S2B). These

transfers were made in 250 ml Boston Round glass bottles (VWR) to a total liquid volume of 200

ml and sealed with screw-cap Mininert^{TM} valves (Chromatographic specialties). Subsequently,

these transferred bottles (GT5, GT20, GT33, GT4, GT15, GT3) were re-amended with donor and

acceptor regularly. All the other microcosms were not maintained after 2.5 years, but some were

sampled a few times for comparison with the transfers. The amounts and frequency of

amendments to original microcosms and to transfers over the full study are shown in Table S4.

Two bottles with medium only (Medium1, Medium2) were prepared in 2016 for use as controls

for LC/MS analysis. These were set up in 250 ml Boston Round glass bottles with 200 ml

mineral medium (no culture) and amended with CLD feeding stock to CLD concentrations of 10

and 20 mg/l (Table S2C).

Microcosm Sampling and Analysis. For the first 1.5 years, liquid samples (1 ml) from

microcosms were sampled regularly and analyzed by GC/FID for methane, ethene, ethane and

chlorinated ethenes. Beyond this time, only the transferred microcosms were analyzed routinely.

Microcosms were sampled using glass syringes and a 1 ml sample was added to a 10 ml

headspace autosampler vials (Agilent) containing 5 ml of acidified deionized water (pH 2). The

vials were then sealed with Teflon-coated septa and aluminum crimp caps (Chromatographic

Specialties) for automated headspace injection onto the CG (see below). To measure chloride,

nitrite, nitrate, sulfate and phosphate concentrations, samples (1 ml) were filtered through 0.2 μm

nylon filters (Fisher Scientific) and analyzed by IC (Dionex) as described below. These analyses

were only done a few times over the course of the study. One ml liquid samples were also taken

for "in-syringe" pH analysis using an Oakton pH spear (Oakton Instruments, Vernon Hills,

USA). If needed, pH was adjusted with Na-bicarbonate or HCl to pH 7.

When the microcosms were first established, we did not have a good method to measure CLD or

its daughter products. Nevertheless, during the first 1.5 years, 1 ml liquid samples (in duplicate)

were taken every 1-2 months from each microcosm and archived frozen at -20°C for later

analysis. Eventually, an LC/MS method was developed and CLD and daughter product analyses

by LC/MS were performed approximately once per year, and more frequently in the last two

years. The transfers (GT5, GT20, GT33, GT4, GT15, GT3) were analyzed most often, and some

poisoned controls, medium controls and some of the original active microcosms were analyzed

occasionally for comparison. Sampling and sample preparation procedures for the LC/MS

analysis are described below.

Sampling and Sample Preparation for CLD Analysis by LC/MS. Sampling procedures,

sample preparation methods and chromatographic and MS methods for analysis of CLD and

dechlorinated products were improved progressively (explained in Supplemental Method Details

2). Eventually, two satisfactory sample preparation methods were developed for the microcosms,

one for sampling liquid only (method 3) and one for sampling a soil/water slurry (method 4).

Samples were always taken using glass syringes (Hamilton Company, Reno, USA) and stored in

glass vials with caps with PTFE lined septa (Agilent) to minimize sorption. All samples and

standards were filtered through 0.2 μm Millex PTFE syringe filters (Millipore, Burlington,

USA). For the liquid samples (method 3), bottles were shaken and left to settle overnight. The

next day 0.75 ml liquid was carefully sampled (avoiding collecting any solids) and was placed

into a 2 ml glass vial. The sample was then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 3000 rpm, and 0.5 ml of

the supernatant was transferred into a new vial containing 0.5 ml methanol. After mixing, the

sample was filtered into a final 2 ml glass sampling vial. For the slurry samples (method 4),

bottles were shaken and a 1 ml sample was taken with syringe immediately before the solids

settled to get a representative sample of the soil/water slurry. The slurry sample was added to a

vial containing 1 ml methanol, shaken gently for 10 min and left sitting for 30 min. The sample

was then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 3000 rpm, and the supernatant was filtered into the final 2

ml sampling vial. The addition of methanol to the sample had three purposes; to help extract

compounds associated with the solids, to help clean up the sample matrix by inducing

precipitation of salts from the sample matrix, and to reduce sorption of compounds to filter

membranes. For some of the samples the dry weight of solids was measured after drying the

sample in a drying oven at 105°C for several hours to estimate sorbed mass.

The field samples taken in 2018 were expected to have much lower concentrations of CLD and

daughter products than the microcosms, therefore a different extraction and concentration

procedure was used. Two different sample volumes (5 ml and 20 ml) were extracted by liquid-

liquid extraction using a mix of 15% acetone and 85% hexane (methods 5 & 6). The extracts

were evaporated to dryness under a stream of nitrogen and the samples were re-dissolved in 1ml

and 0.5ml methanol and filtered. Sample preparation procedures, LC/MS instrumentation and

methods were in constant development over the course of the study. Only the final optimized

method, used from April 9th 2018, is described in detail here. The history and development of the

protocol is explained in Supplemental Method Details 2, and the optimum LC/MS method is

described below.

Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (LC/MS) Analysis. Chromatography was

carried out on a ZORBAX Rapid Resolution High Definition Phenyl-Hexyl column (50mm x

3.0mm, 1.8um) (Agilent, Santa Clara, USA) equipped with a guard column, using a Thermo

Scientific Ultimate 3000 UHPLC (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). The column

temperature was 40°C and the flow rate was set to 300 μL.min^{-1}. The eluents used were water

(A) and methanol (B), and both eluents contained 5 mM of ammonium acetate. The gradient

started at 50% B , followed by a linear gradient to 100% B over 8 min, then a hold at 100% B for

4 min, then a return to 50% B over 1min, and finally a re-equilibration under the initial

conditions of 50% B for 5 min (total runtime 18 min). Liquid samples (10 µL) were injected

using an Ultimate 3000 UHPLC autosampler, with autosampler temperature of 8°C. Compounds

were detected and quantified using a Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) equipped with a Heated Electrospray Ionization (HESI II) probe, operating in

negative ionization mode. Mass spectra were acquired over an m/z range from 80 to 750 with the

mass resolution set to 140k, and common setting parameters were as follows; AGC Target: 1E6,

max injection time 200 ms, spray voltage 4 kV, capillary temperature 320°C, sheath gas 15, aux

gas 5, spare gas 2, and s-lens RF level 55. Data from the LC-MS were processed through

Xcalibur Qual Browser (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Calibration standard solutions of CLD (0.02,

0.2, 1.7, 2.6, 3.6 mg/l) were prepared from successive dilutions of a purchased analytical

standard (1 mg/mL CLD in MeOH). Standards of pentachlorindene metabolite B1 (0.02, 0.1, 0.2,

0.5 and 1 mg/l) were prepared similarly but from a 0.4 mg/ml acetonitrile stock solution of B1.

All the standards were diluted in a 50/50% mix of methanol and mineral medium to simulate the

matrix of the microcosm samples. Standard dilutions were made fresh the day before or on the

same day as they were run.

Other Analyses: Gas Chromatography (GC) and Ion Chromatography (IC). Methane,

ethene, ethane, and chlorinated ethene measurements were carried out as headspace analysis

using an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a flame ionization detector

(FID), a G1888 headspace autosampler and a J&W GS-Q column (30 m x 0.53 mm) (Agilent,

Santa Clara, CA, USA). Helium was the carrier gas (11 ml/min) and the oven program was as

follows: Hold at 35°C for 1.5 min, increase to 100°C at the rate of 15°C/min, then increase to

185°C at the rate of 5°C/min, hold 10 min, then increase to 200 °C at the rate of 20°C/min, hold

10 min (total runtime 43.6 min). The GC had a packed inlet and a 3 ml sample loop. Headspace

operating temperatures for oven, loop and transfer line were 70, 80 and 90°C respectively, while

vial equilibration time, pressurization time, loop fill time, loop equilibration time and injection

time were 40, 0, 0.2, 0 and 3 min respectively. During equilibration in oven, the samples were

shaken at low speed. Data from the GC was integrated using ChemStation (Agilent). Calibration

standards were prepared in the concentration range 0.2 to 2 mg/l (liq) for methane and ethene,

and 1 to 20 mg/l for chlorinated ethenes.

Chloride, nitrite, nitrate, sulphate, phosphate and acetate measurements were performed using a

Dionex ICS 2100 ion chromatograph with a Dionex IonPac AS18 analytical column (4x250 mm)

and an ASRS 500 suppressor (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The samples were run isocratically at

23 mM KOH, 57 mA current and with a flow rate of 1 ml/min. Data from the IC was integrated

using Chromelion (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Standards were prepared in the range 0.005 to 0.5

mM.

DNA Extraction, Amplicon Sequencing and Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction

(qPCR). Samples for DNA extraction were taken from the 6 transfers (GT5, GT20, GT33, GT4,

GT15, GT3) about 7 years into the study for microbial community analysis. Slurry samples (1

ml) were taken, centrifuged at 10 000 rpm for 20 min, and cell pellets were frozen at -80°C for

future DNA extraction. DNA was extracted using the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen, Hilden,

Germany) according to manufacturer's protocol with some modifications (explained in

Supplemental method details 3). DNA extracts were stored at -80°C. Microbial community

composition was assessed by small subunit (SSU) rRNA gene fragment sequencing and

Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR) analysis (see Supplemental method details 3).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview of Microcosm Data. CLD is a challenging molecule to quantify, particularly in small

volume samples from a microcosm. It took us several years after microcosm set up to develop a

suitable method, and until that time, we periodically amended microcosms with CLD without

knowing if it was being degraded or not. We rationalized that dechlorination would be slow and

limited by the low solubility of CLD. Therefore, provided that we had good controls, we would

eventually be able to identify activity by comparing active microcosms to poisoned and medium

controls.

To provide an overview of how each set of microcosms was treated over the course of about

3000 days (~8 years), cumulative CLD and electron donor (acetone and ethanol) amendments

were plotted over time (Figure S2; with data in Table S4). We monitored methane production,

sulfate consumption and TCE dechlorination (where added), as indications of anaerobic

microbial activity. All active microcosms except for those made from distillery sludge samples

(G63 series) produced methane during the first 1.5 years (Figure S3). Beyond 1.5 years, we

continued to monitor and amend only six of the microcosms. Two (GT4 and GT3) were 20%

transfers from original bottles into anaerobic medium, that received CLD and donor (GT4) or

CLD+TCE and donor (GT3). Transfer GT4 contained none of the original microcosm soil. Four

other transfers were made by pouring the entire contents of the original microcosm into slightly

larger bottles sealed with Teflon Mininert caps, topped up with medium and amended with CLD

and donor (GT5, GT20 and GT33) or CLD+TCE and donor (GT15) (Figure S1). Transfers GT5,

GT20 and GT15 continued to produce methane after being transferred, GT33 stopped producing

methane after the first re-amendment of CLD, while GT3 and GT4 did not produce any methane

after the transfer (Figure S2). In microcosms that received TCE in addition to CLD, TCE was

partially dechlorinated to trans- and cis-DCE, with possibly small amounts of ethane produced

(Figure S4), but the 20% transfer (GT3) no longer dechlorinated TCE. No ethene was ever found

in any of the microcosms (Table S5). In the transfers that did not produce methane (GT33, GT3

and GT4), we observed production of acetate (Table S5) although not enough to explain

complete transformation of donor. As a result, pH dropped to below 6 in these microcosms (and

was occasionally re-adjusted), which probably subsequently eliminated methanogens (Table S5).

Sulfate (~1.2 mM initially) was present in all soil microcosms but was depleted within the first

year and was not added to transfers (Table S5). We suspect that iron(III) carried over from soil

may have also served as an acceptor in some bottles. High chloride background (>12 mM) was

present in the microcosms, precluding using chloride increase as a proxy for dechlorination. In

summary, we established that all of the active (non-poisoned) microcosms were microbially

active initially as well as after 8 years of incubation, despite repeated additions of chlordecone

and donor (acetone or ethanol), but that there were significant differences in their extent of

methanogenesis depending on particular treatment history.

Development of an LC/MS Method for Chlordecone and metabolites. To enable a time-

course analysis and mass balance in microcosms, we needed to develop a CLD analysis method

suitable for repeated sampling in microcosms using small sample volumes. CLD analyses are

challenging for many reasons, including strong sorption of CLD to soil (and to rubber stoppers),

low water solubility of CLD and certain metabolites, lack of authentic standards for degradation

products, poor/variable or inconsistent ionization, as well as matrix and solvent effects. We

hoped that the high sensitivity and mass accuracy of Orbitrap MS technology would facilitate

identification of compounds despite lack of standards. The various early trials and final method

are described in Supplemental Method Details 2. Moriwaki and Hasegawa (2004) were first to

report use of LC-MS for CLD; they used a water/methanol gradient and negative ionization

mode, although only standards in methanol were tested. Durimel *et al.,* (2013) also detected CLD

by LC-MS using a water/acetonitrile gradient, also in negative mode. Cimetiere *et al.,* (2014)

included formic acid (pH 2) to the eluent and observed adduct (M+HCOOH+OH) formation.

These authors recommended addition of a co-solvent (acetonitrile, methanol) to avoid adsorption

of CLD to filters and to desorb CLD from suspended matter (acetonitrile). They concluded that

the presence of salts in sample matrixes weaken the CLD MS signal, which made us realize the

importance of preparing standards in the same matrix as the samples.

Based on these prior studies, standards were prepared in 50% medium and 50% methanol.

Methanol was added to samples before filtration to decrease sorption and to precipitate salts.

Methanol addition proved later to be a good solvent to mix with water to recover compounds

from soil particles. As first described by Harless *et al.,* (1978) and observed by others (Bichon *et*

al., 2015, Chevallier 2017), CLD actually exists as a gem-diol (hydrate) in water or a hemiacetal

in methanol and can also form various adducts in the presence of compounds often used in LC

eluents, such as acetate and formate. In this study chromatographic separation, ionization and

signal intensity were maximized when ammonium acetate was included in the water and

methanol eluents. We observed many CLD adducts (hydrate, formate, acetate) and hemiacetal in

our analyses (Figure S5), that required careful data interpretation. Hydrochlordecones (MHCLD,

DHCLD and THCLD) also showed similar adduct formation. In this study we chose to calibrate

and report the hydrate forms of CLD, MHCLD, DHCLD and THCLD. All of the LC/MS data

collected during this study are compiled in Table S6. We initially only sampled the liquid phase

(centrifuged and filtered) to avoid variability related to sorption to solids in the microcosms.

However, sorption to soil in the microcosm was very strong, precluding a satisfactory mass

balance when considering only liquid phase samples. We eventually had to adapt the method to

include and quantify CLD on solids. Owing to the lack of standards for compounds other than

CLD (and later B1), the runs with different methods could not be compared easily. Despite all

these challenges, dechlorination products were clearly observed, as described in the next section.

Detection of CLD Metabolites using best method. A series of metabolites were observed in all the active original microcosms and transfers over the course of the study (Figure 1 with data in Table S6). Despite not having standards, the accuracy of the Orbitrap MS enabled identification of metabolites by matching first or highest m/z values of the mass spectrum to the presumed structure, and further evaluating the full characteristic isotope patterns for these multi-chlorinated transformation products (details below). Table 1 lists all observed metabolites with their measured and theoretical masses, and Figure 2 illustrates the characteristic mass spectra for these metabolites. Details of observed and theoretical spectra are provided in Figure S6. The identified metabolites were assigned to three different groups of metabolites, group A; hydrochlordecones (HCLD), group B; polychloroindenes (PCIN) and group C; carboxylated polychloroindenes (CPCIN). Group assignments A, B and C were chosen to be consistent with the work of Chaussonnerie, Chevalier *et al.,* (Chaussonnerie *et al.,* 2016, Chevallier 2017, Chevallier *et al.,* 2018) who observed many of the same metabolites in their studies. A total of 19 different dechlorination products were detected in the microcosms in this study. Some metabolites showed multiple isomers, identified by having exactly the same mass but varying retention time. Retention times were consistent with the relative polarity of each compound. Compounds with retention times 9.3, 8.88, and 8.05 min and mass to charge ratios m/z 468.7264, m/z 434.7661 and m/z 400.8042 respectively, could be attributed to the hydrate forms of MHCLD (A1) $[C_{10}Cl_9O_2H_2]^-$, DHCLD (A2) $[C_{10}Cl_8O_2H_3]^-$ and THCLD (A3) $[C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_4]^-$ obtained by the loss of 1, 2 and 3 chlorine atoms from CLD (Table 1). Three metabolites, less polar than CLD and with longer retention times at 12.19, 11.44 and 10.34 min, respectively, exhibiting mass to charge ratios of m/z 284.8616, m/z 250.9006 and m/z 216.9382 were identified as pentachloroindene (B1) $[C_9Cl_5H_2]^-$, tetrachloroindene (B2) $[C_9Cl_4H_3]^-$ and trichloroindene (B3) $[C_9Cl_3H_4]^-$ (Table 1). Thirteen (13) metabolites more polar that CLD were assigned to group C, and observed at retention times ranging from 2.02 to 6.69 min (Table 1). Compounds C1 and C2, detected respectively at retention times of 5.47 and 5.02 min, and with a corresponding m/z of 294.8899 could be attributed to two isomers of a carboxylated tetrachloroindene compound $[C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_3]^-$ obtained by the loss of 6 chlorine atoms. At retention times between 3.03 and 6.69 min, 5 isomers (C3-C7) with a corresponding m/z of 260.9287 were detected and attributed to a carboxylated trichloroindene compound $[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$ obtained by the loss of 7 chlorine atoms.

Four isomers (C8-C11) obtained by the loss of 8 chlorine atoms were detected at retention times

between 2.02 and 5.25 min and had m/z of 226.9677, assigned to be a carboxylated

dichloroindene $[C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5]^-$. Two last isomers (C12 and C13) with retention times at 2.5 and

2.95 min and m/z of 193.0064 were classified as carboxylated monochloroindene $[C_{10}ClO_2H_6]^-$,

obtained by the loss of 9 chlorine atoms from CLD. An example chromatogram from one of the

samples, bottle GT20 sampled June 29th 2018, is shown in Figure 3. Chlordecone and 17 of the

19 observed dechlorination products detected in active microcosms are shown, including the

non-polar B compounds (polychloroindenes, PCINs) showing longer retention times than CLD,

and the more polar C compounds (carboxylated polychloroindenes, CPCINs) with much shorter

retention times (Figure 3).

In summary, CLD metabolites observed in the microcosms could be classified into 3 families of

compounds: group A compounds including mono-, di- and trihydrochlordecone derivatives with

proposed neutral formula $[C_{10}Cl_{10-n}OH_n$ n= 1,2,3]; group B non-polar "open cage" structures

including three polychloroindene compounds with proposed neutral formula $[C_9Cl_{5-n}H_{3+n}$

n=0,1,2]; and group C polar "open cage" structures consisting of carboxylated polychloroindene

derivatives with neutral formula $[C_{10}Cl_{4-n}O_2H_{4+n}$, n=0-3].

Due to a number of challenges with and changes in sample preparation and LC-MS analysis over

time, it was difficult to get an accurate picture of concentration changes of CLD over time.

Therefore, when we finally settled on a good method, we re-analyzed some frozen archived

samples to get a comparable set of data. Results from a selection of samples from GT20 with

comparable sample preparation (liquid phase only, no soil) and analytical methods are shown in

Figure 4 (raw data in Table S7). Results show that none of the monitored metabolites were

detected in the sample taken two weeks into the experiment, but by 8 months into the study, we

observed MHCLD, DHCLD, and two CPCINs with loss of 8 and 9 chlorines. Later sampling

time points showed increasing concentrations of MHCLD, DHCLD, and four CPCINs with loss

of 6 to 9 chlorines. Pentachloroindene (B1) only showed up in the last sampling point, however it

was found to sorb strongly to soil, and we would therefore not expect to see it in these liquid

phase samples analyzed here. Also, because we kept adding more CLD to the bottles over time,

we could not use aqueous CLD concentration changes as a measure of degradation rate. Despite

not seeing a clear decrease in CLD concentrations in the liquid phase, highly dechlorinated

metabolites with up to 9 chlorine removed were observed in the active bottles but not in the

controls indicating that biological processes were involved in the dechlorination of CLD into

HCLD, PCIN and CPCIN metabolites.

Effect of Sorption. Strong sorption of CLD and non-polar PCID metabolites to soil particles

made it difficult to evaluate the fate of CLD in the bottles by sampling the aqueous phase only.

We therefore changed our approach to also extract soil in our samples. By analyzing the same

samples by two different sample preparation methods, one in which only the liquid concentration

was measured (filtered sample) and another in which a mixture of soil and water was analyzed,

and quantifying the amount of soil (dry mass) in the sample, we were able to calculate and

estimate a distribution coefficient, K_d (l/kg) equal to the ratio of sorbed concentration (mg/kg) to

dissolved concentration (mg/l) for most of the analytes (Table 2; raw data in Table S8). This

analysis confirmed that CLD and mono- and dihydro- CLD, with K_d values of 130 ± 57, 52 ± 12

and 28 ± 6 ml/g (or l/kg), respectively, absorb quite strongly to the Guadeloupe soil used, while

the K_d value for B1 was much higher at 5700 ± 220 l/kg, and thus absorb even more strongly.

The carboxylated chloroindenes had much lower K_d values ranging from 2 to 11 l/kg, and were

found in the aqueous phase. The estimated K_d values correspond well to the retention times by

reverse phase LC (Table 2). Our estimated distribution coefficient for chlordecone is in the same

range (60-330 l/kg) as one previous report (Fernández-Bayo *et al.,* 2013). A distribution

coefficient based on organic content, K_{oc}, of 2,500 l/kg has also been reported (Howard 1991),

corresponding to a K_d of 250 l/kg assuming a fraction of organic carbon of 10%. We were not

able to find any reports of sorption coefficients for any CLD metabolites.

Quantification of the Extent of Transformation in Microcosms. To quantify the extent of

transformation of CLD added to the microcosms over the course of the study, we used data from

well-mixed slurry samples from 13 active, 7 poisoned controls, 2 unamended microcosms and

two medium controls (Table 3). The well-mixed slurry samples were analyzed because they

capture mass from both the liquid and solid phases, so that we could better compare final

measured mass recovered to the total amount of CLD that had been added to the bottles. To

attempt a mass balance, MHCLD, DHCLD, and THCLD concentrations were estimated based on

the response factor for CLD as no standards were available for these metabolites. Researchers

from Genoscope (France) kindly provided us with a small sample of pentachloroindene (B1) that

they had managed to chemically purify. As a result, we were able to quantify the amount of B1

produced in active microcosms. B2 concentrations were estimated using the response factor for

B1. For the carboxylated polychlorinated indenes (C group), we have no proxy for calibration;

however, to get a very rough idea of possible concentrations we also used the response factor for

B1 for these compounds.

Using these estimated response factors applied to the areas determined by LC/MS analysis of

well-mixed slurry samples, we could calculate total moles recovered per bottle by multiplying

concentrations by the total slurry volume. We then compared the CLD and metabolite moles

recovered in the bottles after 8 years to the initial amount of CLD added (Table 3; calculations in

Table S9). The three different groups of microcosms, poisoned controls, active original

microcosms, and active microcosm transfers, did indeed show differences in CLD recovery. In

the group of seven poisoned controls, two microcosms (G1 and G3) produced a lot of methane

and thus were biologically active, despite having been poisoned. These bottles also exhibited

extensive metabolite production, unlike remaining controls (Figure 1 and Table 3). Therefore, for

the mole balance analysis, we included those two microcosms into the group of active original

microcosms. We were able to recover 63±6% of added CLD in the poisoned controls after 8

years, 44±11% in the original microcosms that only receive electron donor in the first 2 years,

and only 32±3% of added CLD in the transfers amended regularly with donor and CLD (Table

3). The loss of ~37% in the poisoned control group likely results from sorption to glass and

stoppers, poor extraction from soils during sample preparation, losses from volatilization, and

some minimal losses (<1%) from sample removal. Losses in microbially-active bottles are

greater and can be explained by the contribution of biological transformation processes.

We estimated the total moles recovered as metabolites in the various treatments. Metabolites

were not detected in the un-amended slurry microcosms, nor in the medium controls. The

inactive poisoned controls had only trace amounts of MHCLD (0.001-0.004 µmoles) and no

other metabolites. The active bottles had significantly higher concentrations of metabolites,

especially in the transfers that received more CLD and donor. The sum of moles of metabolites

ranged from 13% to 98% of the CLD remaining after 8 years in active microcosms. When the

sum of all measured metabolites was included in the mole balance, overall recoveries after 8

years were more similar regardless of treatment, 63±6%, 60±14%, and 50±13% for controls,

originals and transfers, respectively. Given the length of the study and approximations in

calibration factors, these results were very reassuring and provided confidence in the

measurements.

Microbial Community Analysis qPCR and Sequencing Analysis. While DNA samples were

collected and analyzed at various times throughout the 8 years, preliminary analyses have not

revealed any clear trends to date. A snap shot of the microbial community and abundance after

77 months is shown in Figure 5 (raw data are provided in Tables S10 and S11). The microbial

community of the 6 transfers reveals an abundance of fermentative and syntrophic anaerobes,

consistent with the electron donor mix (acetone and ethanol) provided. Microcosms GT33 and

GT4 produced little to no methane, and contain few or no methanogens. GT4 is the most

extensively transferred microcosm and no longer contains soil. It also has the lowest bacterial

cell numbers inferred from qPCR of 16S rRNA copies per ml. No particular trends are

discernable at this time. Perhaps, as concluded by Chaussonnerie *et al.,* (2016), the microbial

transformation is cometabolic, and really only dependent on sufficient availability of reduced

vitamin B12. Further studies are clearly warranted.

Analysis of Field Samples from 2018. We wondered if metabolites identified in the microcosms

could also be detected in field samples, therefore we returned to Guadeloupe and analyzed 9

more samples. (Table 4; raw data in Table S12). Anticipating quite low concentrations in the

field samples, we decided to sample larger 5 and 20 ml volumes and perform a liquid-liquid

extraction with a concentration step (method 5 and 6, Supplemental Method Details 2) in

addition to our already established 1 ml slurry sample preparation method (method 4,

Supplemental Method Details 2). Analysis of 6 soil samples from banana plantations in

Guadeloupe revealed CLD concentrations in the range 120 to 1000 ng/g soil, or 0.12 to 1.0

mg/kg. These values are pretty typical of Guadeloupe soils: a recent survey (Crabit *et al.,* 2016)

reported CLD concentrations in mg/kg in soil of 0.03 (minimum), 2.00 (median), 3.39 (mean),

and 24.2 (maximum). MHCLD was detected in all soil samples and ranged from 1 to 8% of

CLD based on area from LC/MS analysis. Most soil samples also showed DHCLD, but area

counts were 10 to 100 times lower than those of MHCLD. Pentachloroindene (B1)

concentrations ranged from 0.5 to 24 ng/g of solid. B2 metabolites were also detected in the soil

samples, with slightly lower area counts than those of B1. Two of the 3 activated carbon sludge

samples showed quite high CLD concentrations, between 6,000 and 8,500 ng/g soil. MHCLD

concentrations were also significant, between 4 and 10% of CLD based on area counts.

Interestingly, no PCIN was detected in the activated carbon sludge samples – presumably too

aerobic. We did not detect CPCIN metabolites in any of the field samples. Due to their

hydrophilicity, the CPCIN metabolites would likely not be captured using the liquid-liquid

extraction/concentration method (methods 5 and 6) used, and we did not have an alternative

method for concentration of these compounds. Perhaps due to their hydrophilic nature and low

sorption, these compounds were already washed out from the soils by rain. These field data

confirm that anaerobic ring opening and dechlorinating processes do occur *in situ* in Guadeloupe

soils. A more extensive analysis is thus warranted to determine locations and conditions for

highest intrinsic activity on the islands and if rates could be accelerated by inducing anaerobic

conditions, such as through organic amendment. The mechanism of CLD biotransformation also

needs further investigation.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. Method details including recipe for artificial groundwater, LC/MS

analysis procedure and sample preparation methods, DNA extraction, amplicon sequencing, and

qPCR analysis procedures. Figures showing microcosm transfers and their origins, history of

microcosms (CLD added, donor added, methane produced), methane production in active CLD

amended MCs during the first 1.5 years of monitoring, TCE and its dechlorination products in a

CLD and TCE amended MC (G15) during the first 1.5 years of monitoring, LC/MS scan analysis

of CLD (CLD hydrate, hemi-acetal and other observed CLD adducts), and chromatograms and

spectra for each of the 19 observed metabolites. Tables showing Guadeloupe field sample

details, treatment table for Guadeloupe microcosm study, details of feeding stock preparation,

details of CLD and donor amendments, details of GC-FID and IC analysis and pH

measurements, results of all LC/MS analysis, normalized LC/MS area counts in GT20, sorption

calculations and plots, mass balance calculations, sequencing analysis and qPCR analysis, and

concentration calculations for CLD and its degradation products in Guadeloupe field samples.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Melanie Duhamel (U of Toronto) and Emmanuel Duquesnoy (SIAEAG) for initiating

the collaboration between Guadeloupe and Toronto in 2010. Support for Post-doc and PhD

students was provided by Guadeloupe Region, Region Guadeloupe-FEDER 2007-2013. Funding

was provided by the Government of Canada through Genome Canada and the Ontario Genomics

Institute (2009-OGI-ABC-1405 and OGI-102) as well as from the Natural Science and

Engineering Research Council (NSERC) of Canada and the Ontario-China Research and

Innovation Fund (OCRIF).

REFERENCES
ATSDR (1995). Toxicological profile for mirex and chlordecone, Public Health Service Agency
for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry U.S. Department of Health And Human Services.

Bichon, E., I. Guiffard, A. Venisseau, P. Marchand, J. P. Antignac and B. Le Bizec (2015).
"Ultra-trace quantification method for chlordecone in human fluids and tissues." Journal of
Chromatography A **1408**: 169-177.

Bonvallot, N. and F. Dor (2004). Insecticides organochlorés aux Antilles: identification des
dangers et valeurs toxicologiques de référence (VTR). I. d. V. Sanitaire. Saint-Maurice, France,
http://invs.santepubliquefrance.fr/publications/2004/insecticides_antilles/index.html.

Cabidoche, Y. M., R. Achard, P. Cattan, C. Clermont-Dauphin, F. Massat and J. Sansoulet
(2009). "Long-term pollution by chlordecone of tropical volcanic soils in the French West
Indies: A simple leaching model accounts for current residue." Environmental Pollution **157**(5):
1697-1705.

Chaussonnerie, S., P. L. Saaidi, E. Ugarte, A. Barbance, A. Fossey, V. Barbe, G. Gyapay, T.
Bruls, M. Chevalier, L. Couturat, S. Fouteau, D. Muselet, E. Pateau, G. N. Cohen, N.
Fonknechten, J. Weissenbach and D. Le Paslier (2016). "Microbial Degradation of a Recalcitrant
Pesticide: Chlordecone." Frontiers in Microbiology **7**.

Chevallier, M. (2017). Etude de la dégradation biologique et chimique d'un pesticide persistant :
la chlordécone PhD, Universite D'Evry-Val-d'Essonne et Genoscope.

Chevallier, M. L., M. Cooper, S. Kummel, A. Barbance, D. Le Paslier, H. H. Richnow, P. L.
Saaidi and L. Adrian (2018). "Distinct Carbon Isotope Fractionation Signatures during Biotic
and Abiotic Reductive Transformation of Chlordecone." Environmental Science & Technology
52(6): 3615-3624.

Chevallier, M. L., O. Della-Negra, S. Chaussonnerie, A. Barbance, D. Muselet, F. Lagarde, E.
Darii, E. Ugarte, E. Lescop, N. Fonknechten, J. Weissenbach, T. Woignier, J.-F. Gallard, S.
Vuilleumier, G. Imfeld, D. Le Paslier and P.-L. Saaidi (2019). "Natural Chlordecone
Degradation Revealed by Numerous Transformation Products Characterized in Key French West
Indies Environmental Compartments." Environmental Science & Technology: acs.est.8b06305.

Cimetiere, N., S. Giraudet, M. Papazoglou, H. Fallou, A. Amrane and P. Le Cloirec (2014).
"Analysis of chlordecone by LC/MS-MS in surface and wastewaters." Journal of Environmental
Chemical Engineering **2**(2): 849-856.

Crabit, A., P. Cattan, F. Colin and M. Voltz (2016). "Soil and river contamination patterns of
chlordecone in a tropical volcanic catchment in the French West Indies (Guadeloupe)." Environ
Pollut **212**: 615-626.

Devault, D. A., C. Laplanche, H. Pascaline, S. Bristeau, C. Mouvet and H. Macarie (2016).
"Natural transformation of chlordecone into 5b-hydrochlordecone in French West Indies soils:
statistical evidence for investigating long-term persistence of organic pollutants." Environmental
Science and Pollution Research **23**(1): 81-97.

Dromard, C. R., D. A. Devault, Y. Bouchon-Navaro, J.-P. Allénou, H. Budzinski, S. Cordonnier,
N. Tapie, L. Reynal, S. Lemoine, J.-P. Thomé, E. Thouard, D. Monti and C. Bouchon (2019).
"Environmental fate of chlordecone in coastal habitats: recent studies conducted in Guadeloupe
and Martinique (Lesser Antilles)." Environmental Science and Pollution Research: 1-10.

Durimel, A., S. Altenor, R. Miranda-Quintana, P. C. Du Mesnil, U. Jauregui-Haza, R. Gadiou
and S. Gaspard (2013). "pH dependence of chlordecone adsorption on activated carbons and role
of adsorbent physico-chemical properties." Chemical Engineering Journal **229**: 239-249.

Edwards, E. A. and D. Grbic-Galic (1994). "Anaerobic Degradation of Toluene and o-Xylene by
a Methanogenic Consortium." Applied and Environmental Microbiology **60**(1): 313-322.

Fernández-Bayo, J. D., C. Saison, C. Geniez, M. Voltz, H. Vereecken and A. Berns (2013).
"Sorption Characteristics of Chlordecone and Cadusafos in Tropical Agricultural Soils." Current
Organic Chemistry **17**(24): 2976-2984.

George, S. E. and L. D. Claxton (1988). "Biotransformation of Chlordecone by Pseudomonas
Species." Xenobiotica **18**(4): 407-416.

Harless, R. L., D. E. Harris, G. W. Sovocool, R. D. Zehr, N. K. Wilson and E. O. Oswald (1978).
"Mass-Spectrometric Analyses and Characterization of Kepone in Environmental and Human
Samples." Biomedical Mass Spectrometry **5**(3): 232-237.

Howard, P. H. (1991). Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data for Organic
Chemicals Volume 3 Pesticides, CRC Press.

Jablonski, P. E., D. J. Pheasant and J. G. Ferry (1996). "Conversion of Kepone by
Methanosarcina thermophila." Fems Microbiology Letters **139**(2-3): 169-173.

Kilzer, L., I. Scheunert, H. Geyer, W. Klein and F. Korte (1979). "Laboratory screening of the
volatilization rates of organic chemicals from water and soil." Chemosphere **8**(10): 751-761.

Moriwaki, H. and A. Hasegawa (2004). "Detection of chlordecone by liquid chromatography
with tandem mass spectrometry." Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry **18**(11): 1243-
1244.

Multigner, L., P. Kadhel, F. Rouget, P. Blanchet and S. Cordier (2016). "Chlordecone exposure
and adverse effects in French West Indies populations." Environmental Science and Pollution
Research **23**(1): 3-8.

Multigner, L., J. R. Ndong, A. Giusti, M. Romana, H. Delacroix-Maillard, S. Cordier, B. Jegou,
J. P. Thome and P. Blanchet (2010). "Chlordecone Exposure and Risk of Prostate Cancer."
Journal of Clinical Oncology **28**(21): 3457-3462.

Orndorff, S. A. and R. R. Colwell (1980). "Microbial Transformation of Kepone." Applied and
Environmental Microbiology **39**(2): 398-406.

Ranguin, R., A. Durimel, R. Karioua and S. Gaspard (2017). "Study of chlordecone desorption
from activated carbons and subsequent dechlorination by reduced cobalamin." Environmental
Science and Pollution Research **24**(33): 25488-25499.

Schrauzer, G. N. and R. N. Katz (1978). "Reductive Dechlorination and Degradation of Mirex
and Kepone with Vitamin-B-12s." Bioinorganic Chemistry **9**(2): 123-143.
653
654

655 **TABLES FOLLOW**

656 **Then FIGURES with LEGENDS for review**

Table 1: Chlordecone and dechlorinated metabolites identified in microcosm samples. Mass to charge (m/z) values and retention times are from GT20 slurry sample taken June 29th 2018, except as noted.

Compound ID*	m/z theoretical (monoisotopic)	m/z observed (monoisotopic)	delta ppm	Proposed formula (neutral)	Proposed ion formula (negative mode)	Used for calibration and reporting m/z (theoretical)	Molecular formula	Compound structure*	# of chlorines removed	Retention time (min)	Isomer
A1	468.7257	468.7264	-1.49	$C_{10}Cl_9O_2H_3$	$[C_{10}Cl_9O_2H_2]^-$	472.7198	$C_{10}{}^{35}Cl_7{}^{37}Cl_2O_2H_2$	Monohydrochlorodecone hydrate	1	9.3	Isomer 1
A2$^\alpha$	434.7647	434.7661	-3.22	$C_{10}Cl_8O_2H_4$	$[C_{10}Cl_8O_2H_3]^-$	438.7588	$C_{10}{}^{35}Cl_6{}^{37}Cl_2O_2H_4$	Dihydrochlorodecone hydrate	2	8.88	Isomer 1
A3	400.8036	400.8042 $^\beta$	-1.50	$C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_4]^-$	402.8007	$C_{10}{}^{35}Cl_6{}^{37}ClO_2H_2$	Trihydrochlorodecone hydrate	3	8.05	Isomer 1
B1	284.8605	284.8616	-3.86	$C_9Cl_5H_3$	$[C_9Cl_5H_2]^-$	286.8575	$C9^{35}Cl_4{}^{37}ClH_3$	pentachloroindene	5	12.19	Isomer 1
B2	250.8994	250.9006	-4.78	$C_9Cl_4H_4$	$[C_9Cl_4H_3]^-$	252.8965	$C9^{35}Cl_3{}^{37}ClH_4$	tetrachloroindene	6	11.44	Isomer 1
B3	216.9384	216.9382 $^\gamma$	0.92	$C_9Cl_3H_5$	$[C_9Cl_3H_4]^-$	216.9384	$C_9Cl_3H_5$	trichloroindene	7	10.34	Isomer 1
C1	294.8893	294.8899	-2.03	$C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_4$	$[C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_3]^-$	294.8893	$C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_4$	carboxylated tetrachloroindene	6	5.47	Isomer 1
C2	294.8893	294.8899	-2.03	$C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_4$	$[C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_3]^-$	294.8893	$C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_4$	carboxylated tetrachloroindene	6	5.02	Isomer 2
C3	260.9282	260.9287	-1.92	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$	260.9282	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	carboxylated trichloroindene	7	6.69	Isomer 1
C4	260.9282	260.9287	-1.92	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$	260.9282	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	carboxylated trichloroindene	7	6.13	Isomer 2
C5	260.9282	260.9288	-2.30	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$	260.9282	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	carboxylated trichloroindene	7	3.88	Isomer 3
C6	260.9282	260.9287	-1.92	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$	260.9282	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	carboxylated trichloroindene	7	3.41	Isomer 4
C7	260.9282	260.9287	-1.92	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	$[C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4]^-$	260.9282	$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_5$	carboxylated trichloroindene	7	3.03	Isomer 5
C8	226.9672	226.9677	-2.20	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	$[C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5]^-$	226.9672	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	carboxylated dichloroindene	8	5.25	Isomer 1
C9	226.9672	226.9677	-2.20	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	$[C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5]^-$	226.9672	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	carboxylated dichloroindene	8	4.57	Isomer 2
C10	226.9672	226.9676	-1.76	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	$[C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5]^-$	226.9672	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	carboxylated dichloroindene	8	2.21	Isomer 3
C11	226.9672	226.9674	-0.88	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	$[C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5]^-$	226.9672	$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_6$	carboxylated dichloroindene	8	2.02	Isomer 4
C12	193.0062	193.0064	-1.04	$C_{10}ClO_2H_7$	$[C_{10}ClO_2H_6]^-$	193.0062	$C_{10}ClO_2H_7$	carboxylated chloroindene	9	2.95	Isomer 1
C13	193.0062	193.0064	-1.04	$C_{10}ClO_2H_7$	$[C_{10}ClO_2H_6]^-$	193.0062	$C_{10}ClO_2H_7$	carboxylated chloroindene	9	2.5	Isomer 2
CLD	502.6867	502.6879	-2.39	$C_{10}Cl_{10}O_2H_2$	$[C_{10}Cl_{10}O_2H]^-$	506.6808	$C_{10}{}^{35}Cl_8{}^{37}Cl_2O_2H_2$	chlordecone hydrate	0	9.86	Isomer 1

* Compound groups A, B, C are consistent with work of Chevalier et al. Assumed compound structures, based on observed m/z values and retention times, and comparison with work previously reported (Chaussonnerie *et al.,* 2016, Chevallier *et al.,* 2018 and Chevallier 2017)

$^\alpha$ Referred to as A3 in Chaussonnerie *et al.,* 2016

$^\beta$ Observed m/z value from sample GT3 March 7th 2019 (metabolite A3 was not found in GT20 June 29th 2018)

$^\gamma$ Observed m/z value from sample G19 March 7th 2019 (metabolite B3 was not found in GT20 June 29th 2018)

Table 2: Estimated Sorption coefficients for CLD and some dechlorinated metabolites in Guadeloupe soils

Compound	Measured Kd* (ml/g)	Kd from literature (ml/g)	MW (g/mol)	LC/MS retention time
B1	5700 ± 220	not available	288.39	12.19 min
B2	NA	not available	253.94	11.44 min
CLD	**130 ± 57**	**~ 60-330****	**490.64**	**9.86 min**
MHCLD	52 ± 12	not available	456.19	9.3 min
DHCLD	28 ± 6	not available	421.75	8.88 min
C1-C2	5.6 ± 1.0	not available	297.95	5.02 - 5.46 min
C3-C7	11 ± 2.0	not available	263.5	3.03 - 6.69 min
C8-C11	9.8 ± 4.4	not available	229.06	2.02 - 5.25 min
C12-C13	2.1 ± 1.0	not available	194.61	2.5 - 2.95 min

*See Table S8 for calculations and plots. Kd values are slope ± standard error of the slope (n=4)
** Fernandez-Bayo, J.D., *et al.,* Science of the Total Environment, 2013. **463**: p. 395-403.
NA: Not applicable (Kd could not be calculated because compound was not detected in liquid phase)

Table 3: Extent of transformation of CLD in microcosms and transfers (µmol per bottle) after 8 years of incubation. Samples were taken March 7th 2019 (1 ml slurry samples; sample preparation method 4). Raw data and calculations are shown in Table S9.

	Sample	Total CLD added to date (µmol)	CLD remaining after 8 years (µmol)	CLD recovery %	MHCLD, DHCLD and THCLD* (µmol)	PCINs (B1 and B2)** (µmol)	CPCINs (C1-C13)** (µmol)	Sum of all products (µmol)	Sum all after 8 yrs (incl. CLD) (µmol)	Products/CLD remaining %	Total recovery after 8 years %
CONTROLS	G17_unamended	0.00	0.00	NA	ND	ND	ND	0.0	0.00	0%	NA
	G18_unamended	0.00	0.00	NA	ND	ND	ND	0.0	0.00	0%	NA
	Medium1	4.08	4.02	99%	ND	ND	ND	0.0	4.01	0%	98%
	Medium2	8.15	1.69	21%	ND	ND	ND	0.0	1.69	0%	21%
	G28_poisoned	1.63	1.13	69%	0.002	ND	ND	0.002	1.13	0%	69%
	G30_poisoned	1.63	0.967	59%	0.001	ND	ND	0.001	0.97	0%	59%
	G41_poisoned	1.63	1.06	65%	0.004	ND	ND	0.004	1.06	0%	65%
	G50_poisoned	1.63	0.899	55%	0.002	ND	ND	0.002	0.90	0%	55%
	G59_poisoned	1.63	1.07	66%	0.001	ND	ND	0.001	1.07	0%	65%
AVERAGE poisoned controls		*1.63*	*1.03*	*63%*	*0.002*	*ND*	*ND*	*0.002*	*1.02*	*0.2%*	*63%*
Standard Dev (n=5)		*0.00*	*0.09*	*6%*	*0.001*	*-*	*-*	*0.001*	*0.09*	*0.1%*	*6%*
ORIGINAL MICROCOSMS	G1_poisoned #	1.63	0.831	51%	0.092	0.030	0.10	0.22	1.05	27%	64%
	G3_poisoned #	1.63	0.835	51%	0.079	0.061	0.08	0.22	1.05	26%	64%
	G4	3.26	1.36	42%	0.139	0.047	0.11	0.30	1.65	22%	51%
	G19	3.26	1.75	54%	0.451	0.125	0.24	0.81	2.55	47%	78%
	G31	3.26	1.73	53%	0.130	0.045	0.05	0.22	1.94	13%	60%
	G45	3.26	0.826	25%	0.237	0.031	0.05	0.32	1.15	39%	35%
	G54	3.26	1.18	36%	0.507	0.038	0.10	0.64	1.82	55%	56%
	G63	3.26	1.81	56%	0.034	0.011	0.77	0.82	2.63	45%	81%
	G14 +TCE	3.26	1.05	32%	0.615	0.095	0.20	0.91	1.95	87%	60%
AVERAGE originals		*2.90*	*1.39*	*44%*	*0.30*	*0.06*	*0.22*	*0.57*	*1.96*	*40%*	*60%*
Standard Dev (n=9)		*0.72*	*0.39*	*11%*	*0.22*	*0.04*	*0.26*	*0.29*	*0.51*	*22%*	*14%*
TRANSFERS AMENDED REGULARLY	GT15	17.9	5.60	31%	2.43	0.689	1.07	4.19	9.77	75%	54%
	GT3	15.8	5.70	36%	4.11	0.115	1.37	5.60	11.3	98%	71%
	GT5	23.6	7.37	31%	1.28	0.507	1.12	2.91	10.3	40%	43%
	GT20	25.7	8.42	33%	2.70	1.02	1.12	4.84	13.2	58%	52%
	GT33	19.6	6.11	31%	1.54	0.231	1.14	2.90	8.99	48%	46%
	GT4	22.4	5.99	27%	0.475	0.159	0.63	1.26	7.24	21%	32%
AVERAGE transfers		*20.8*	*6.53*	*32%*	*2.09*	*0.45*	*1.07*	*3.62*	*10.1*	*57%*	*50%*
Standard Dev (n=6)		*3.7*	*1.12*	*3%*	*1.28*	*0.35*	*0.24*	*1.57*	*2.04*	*27%*	*13%*

Microcosm G1 and G3 were amended with mercuric chloride and sodium azide initially, yet produced similar amounts of methane (and products) as un-poisoned original microcosms

*Concentrations were estimated using response factor for CLD

**Concentrations were estimated using response factor for B1

NA: Not applicable; ND: Not detected

Table 4: Chlordecone and dechlorinated metabolites detected in field samples (agricultural soils and treatment plant activated carbon-AC) taken in 2018 from Guadeloupe. No carboxylated polychloroindenes were detected in these samples. Numbers are maximum area from the LC/MS analysis of two different slurry sample sizes (5 and 20 ml). Raw data in Table S12. CLD, MHCLD and DHCLD are calibrated and reported as CLD hydrate, MHCLD hydrate and DHCLD hydrate.

	Chlordecone		Hydrochlordecones			Polychloroindenes			
	CLD		MHCLD (A1)	DHCLD (A2)	A1+A2	$C_9Cl_5H_3$ (B1)		$C_9Cl_4H_4$ (B2)	
	area/g solids	ng/g solids	area/g solids	area/g solids	% CLD area/g solids	area/g solids	ng/g solids*	area/g solids	% B1 area/ g solids
AgSoil1	1.4E+07	120	8.7E+05	2.1E+04	6%	6.3E+03	0.48	4.1E+03	65%
AgSoil2	2.7E+07	130	1.9E+06	1.6E+04	7%	3.0E+04	2.3	5.9E+03	20%
AgSoil3	1.9E+08	1000	5.3E+06	8.0E+04	3%	3.1E+04	2.3	9.9E+02	3.2%
AgSoil4	6.2E+07	270	5.1E+06	8.8E+04	8%	3.1E+05	24	4.2E+04	14%
AgSoil5	5.7E+07	130	4.2E+06	2.2E+04	7%	1.1E+05	8.8	2.6E+04	23%
AgSoil6	3.5E+07	430	5.0E+05	0.0E+00	1%	1.5E+04	1.1	1.0E+04	70%
AC-1	1.5E+07	24	1.5E+06	7.0E+05	10%	ND	ND	ND	ND
AC-2	3.6E+09	6000	2.8E+08	1.8E+07	8%	ND	ND	ND	ND
AC-3	5.1E+09	8400	1.9E+08	5.8E+06	4%	ND	ND	ND	ND

*estimated values based on analysis of B1 standards run in 2019

ND: Not detected

Figure 1: Dechlorinated metabolites observed in anaerobic microcosms constructed from Guadeloupe soil and water. The size of each circle is proportional to the area count from LC/MS analysis of slurry samples performed March 7th 2019 (see Table S6 for raw data).

Figure 2: Mass spectra of observed "open cage" dechlorinated metabolites. Mass spectra are from sample GT20 June 29th 2018 (CLD, B1, B2, C1-C13) and sample G19 March 7th 2019 (B3) (slurry samples). Full spectra are shown in Figure S6. Isotope m/z values in bold were the masses used for calibration and reporting. Chlordecone is calibrated and reported in the form of chlordecone hydrate.

Figure 3: Chromatograms of chlordecone and its dechlorinated metabolites in sample GT20 June 29th 2018 (slurry sample). Results are from LC/MS, equipped with ESI, in negative mode. Observed m/z values (monoisotopic) for the different compounds were; 502.6879 (CLD), 468.7264 (A1), 434.7661 (A2), 284.8616 (B1), 250.9006 (B2), 294.8899 (C1-C2), 260.9287 (C3-C7), 226.9677 (C8-C11), 193.0064 (C12-C13) (see details in Table 1). Metabolites m/z 400.8042 (A3) and 216.9382 (B3) were not observed in the illustrated sample but in some other samples in the study. Arrows indicate observed retention times for these two metabolites. CLD, MHCLD, DHCLD and THCLD are calibrated and reported in the forms of CLD hydrate, MHCLD hydrate, DHCLD hydrate and THCLD hydrate.

Figure 4: Dechlorinated metabolites from chlordecone over time in one of the anaerobic microcosms, transfer GT20. Only samples that were prepared the same way are included in this graph (sample preparation method 3, liquid phase only, no soil, see supplemental method details). Areas of B compounds were multiplied with 100, and areas of C compounds were multiplied with 10 for better display of all metabolites in the same graph. All areas were normalized (raw data in Table S7).

Figure 5: Microbial community in microcosm transfers. DNA was sampled 77 months after microcosm setup. The bar chart includes bacteria only. Table to the right shows concentration of general bacteria measured by qPCR (copies/ml), % archaea, and measured products (estimated) (total, μmol and product/CLD remaining, %) for each bottle. Raw data of sequencing results and qPCR measurements can be found in Table S10.