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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

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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
IC Ion Chromatograph
LC Liquid Chromatograph
MS Mass Spectrometry
eeq Electron Equivalents
SI Supporting Info
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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, zero-valent

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 (sampling details in Supplemental Method Details (SMD) 1A)

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%. A pentachloroindene standard (2,4,5,6,7-pentachloro-1H-indene) referred to as B1, was kindly provided by 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 SMD 1B) 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 for methane, ethene, ethane, and chlorinated

ethenes by Gas Chromatography with Flame Ionization Detector (GC-FID), but beyond this

time, only the transferred microcosms were analyzed routinely.

Anion analysis (IC) and pH measurements were made a few times over the course of the study.

Samples for DNA extraction were taken from the 6 transfers (GT5, GT20, GT33, GT4, GT15,

GT3) about 7 years into the study and the microbial community composition was assessed by

small subunit (SSU) rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and Quantitative Polymerase Chain

Reaction (qPCR) analysis. Method details of GC, IC, pH and microbial community analysis are

described in SMD 2.

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. Once an

appropriate LC/MS method was developed, 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 with further details

in SMD 2.

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 SMD 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) (details in SMD 2).

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 SMD 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). Similarly, a sample of pentachloroindene B1 (2,4,5,6,7-

pentachloro-1H-indene) (from Genoscope, France), stored as a 0.4 mg/ml acetonitrile stock

solution, was diluted to make five concentration level (0.02, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 mg/l) and used as

standards for estimates of CLD metabolite concentrations. The dilutions of CLD and B1 were

prepared in a 50/50% mix of methanol and mineral medium. Standard dilutions were made fresh

the day before or on the same day as they were run.

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 SMD 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 S7. 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 S7). 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 S6 lists all observed metabolites with their

measured and theoretical masses (and IDs), and Figure S6 illustrates the characteristic mass

spectra for these metabolites (observed and theoretical). The identified metabolites were assigned

to three different groups: group A - hydrochlordecones (HCLD); group B - polychloroindenes

(PCIN); and group C - carboxylated polychloroindenes (CPCIN) to be consistent with previous

studies detailing the masses and NMR structures of CLD metabolites (Chaussonnerie *et al.,*

2016, Chevallier 2017, Chevallier *et al.,* 2018, Chevallier et al., 2019). In this study, a total of 19

different dechlorination products were detected by LC-MS in the microcosms. Multiple isomers

of certain metabolites were found having exactly the same mass but varying retention time;

complete structural elucidation of observed metabolites was not attempted in this study.

Retention times were consistent with the relative polarity of each compound. An example

chromatogram from one of the samples, bottle GT20 sampled June 29th 2018, is shown in Figure

2. Chlordecone and 17 of the 19 observed dechlorination products detected in this active

microcosm 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 2). 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 (A9a)

$[C_{10}Cl_9O_2H_2]^-$, DHCLD (A8a) $[C_{10}Cl_8O_2H_3]^-$ and THCLD (A7a) $[C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_4]^-$ obtained by the

loss of 1, 2 and 3 chlorine atoms from CLD (Figure 2 and Table S6). 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 (B5a) $[C_9Cl_5H_2]^-$, tetrachloroindene (B4a) $[C_9Cl_4H_3]^-$ and

trichloroindene (B3a) $[C_9Cl_3H_4]^-$ (Figure 2 and Table S6). 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 (Figure 2 and Table S6). Compounds C4a and C4b, 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 (C3a-C3e) 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 (C2a-C2d)

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 (C1a and C1b) 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.

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 3 (raw data in Table S8). 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 (B5a) 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 1; raw data in Table S9). 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 pentachloroindene (B5a) was much higher at 5700 ± 220 l/kg, and thus absorb

even more strongly. The carboxylated chloroindenes (C compounds) 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 1). 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 2). 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

(2,4,5,6,7-pentachloro-1H-indene) that they had managed to chemically purify. As a result, we

were able to do a rough estimate of the amount of B5a produced in active microcosms. B4a

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 2; calculations in

Table S10). 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 2). 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

2). 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 estimated 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 4 (raw data are provided in Tables S11 and S12). 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 3; raw data in Table S13). 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, SMD 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 (B5a) concentrations were estimated based on

response factor for B1, and ranged from 0.5 to 24 ng/g of solid. B5b metabolites were also

detected in the soil samples, but area counts were generally lower (up to 30 times) than those of

B5a. 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. No PCIN was detected in the activated carbon sludge

samples. 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. We could also hypothesise that due to their

hydrophilic nature and low sorption, these compounds may have been 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 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 for field sampling and for microcosm setup including

recipe for artificial groundwater, analysis procedure and sample preparation methods for GC-

FID, IC, pH and LC-MS analysis, and 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.

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626   **TABLES FOLLOW**

627   **Then FIGURES with LEGENDS for review**

Table 1: Estimated sorption coefficients for CLD and some dechlorinated metabolites in Guadeloupe soils

Compound Name	ID	Measured Kd* (ml/g)	Kd from literature (ml/g) **	MW (g/mol)	LC/MS retention time
Pentachloroindene	B5a	5700 ± 220	-	288.39	12.19 min
Tetrachloroindene	B4a	NA	-	253.94	11.44 min
Chlordecone	**CLD**	**130 ± 57**	**~ 60-330**	**490.64**	**9.86 min**
Monohydrochlorodecone	MHCLD A9a	52 ± 12	-	456.19	9.3 min
Dihydrochlorodecone	DHCLD A8a	28 ± 6	-	421.75	8.88 min
Carboxylated tetrachloroindene	C4a-b	5.6 ± 1.0	-	297.95	5.02 - 5.46 min
Carboxylated trichloroindene	C3a-e	11 ± 2.0	-	263.5	3.03 - 6.69 min
Carboxylated dichloroindene	C2a-d	9.8 ± 4.4	-	229.06	2.02 - 5.25 min
Carboxylated chloroindene	C1a-b	2.1 ± 1.0	-	194.61	2.5 - 2.95 min

*See Table S9 for calculations and plots. Kd values are slope ± standard error of the slope (n=4)

** Only one reference found: 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 2: Extent of transformation of CLD in microcosms and transfers (µmol per bottle) after 8 years of incubation. Concentrations of metabolites are estimates. Samples were taken March 7th 2019 (1 ml slurry samples; sample preparation method 4). Raw data and calculations are shown in Table S10.

	Sample	Total CLD added to date	CLD remaining after 8 yrs	CLD recovery	MHCLD, DHCLD and THCLD* (Estimated)	PCINs (B-comp)** (Estimated)	CPCINs (C-comp)** (Estimated)	Sum of all products (Estimated)	Sum all after 8 years (incl. CLD) (Estimated)	Products/CLD remaining (Estimated)	Total recovery after 8 years (Estimated)
		(µmol)	(µmol)	%	(µmol)	(µmol)	(µmol)	(µmol)	(µmol)	%	%
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	4.0	98%	ND	ND	ND	0.0	4.0	0%	98%
	Medium2	8.15	1.7	21%	ND	ND	ND	0.0	1.7	0%	21%
	G28_poisoned	1.63	1.1	69%	0.002	ND	ND	0.002	1.1	0%	69%
	G30_poisoned	1.63	0.96	59%	0.001	ND	ND	0.001	0.97	0%	59%
	G41_poisoned	1.63	1.1	65%	0.004	ND	ND	0.004	1.1	0%	65%
	G50_poisoned	1.63	0.90	55%	0.002	ND	ND	0.002	0.90	0%	55%
	G59_poisoned	1.63	1.1	65%	0.001	ND	ND	0.001	1.1	0%	65%
AVERAGE poisoned contr.		*1.63*	*1.0*	*63%*	*0.002*	*ND*	*ND*	*0.002*	*1.0*	*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	0.83	51%	0.092	0.030	0.10	0.22	1.0	27%	64%
	G3_poisoned#	1.63	0.83	51%	0.079	0.061	0.08	0.22	1.1	26%	64%
	G4	3.26	1.4	42%	0.14	0.047	0.11	0.30	1.7	22%	51%
	G19	3.26	1.7	53%	0.45	0.13	0.24	0.81	2.6	47%	78%
	G31	3.26	1.7	53%	0.13	0.045	0.05	0.22	1.9	13%	60%
	G45	3.26	0.82	25%	0.24	0.031	0.05	0.32	1.1	39%	35%
	G54	3.26	1.2	36%	0.51	0.038	0.10	0.64	1.8	55%	56%
	G63	3.26	1.8	55%	0.034	0.011	0.77	0.82	2.6	45%	81%
	G14 +TCE	3.26	1.0	32%	0.62	0.095	0.20	0.91	2.0	87%	60%
AVERAGE originals		*2.90*	*1.4*	*44%*	*0.30*	*0.06*	*0.22*	*0.57*	*2.0*	*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	5.6	31%	2.4	0.69	1.1	4.2	9.8	75%	54%
	GT3	15.8	5.7	36%	4.1	0.11	1.4	5.6	11	98%	71%
	GT5	23.6	7.3	31%	1.3	0.51	1.1	2.9	10	40%	43%
	GT20	25.7	8.4	33%	2.7	1.0	1.1	4.8	13	58%	52%
	GT33	19.6	6.1	31%	1.5	0.23	1.1	2.9	9.0	48%	46%
	GT4	22.4	6.0	27%	0.48	0.16	0.63	1.3	7.2	21%	32%
AVERAGE transfers		*20.8*	*6.5*	*31%*	*2.1*	*0.45*	*1.1*	*3.6*	*10*	*57%*	*50%*
Standard Dev (n-6)		*3.72*	*1.1*	*3%*	*1.3*	*0.35*	*0.24*	*1.6*	*2.0*	*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 3: Chlordecone and dechlorinated metabolites detected in field samples 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 S13. CLD, MHCLD and DHCLD are quantified/reported as CLD hydrate, MHCLD hydrate and DHCLD hydrate.

	Chlordecone		Hydrochlordecones		Polychloroindenes		
	CLD		MHCLD (A9a)	DHCLD (A8a)	Pentachloroindene (B5a)		Tetrachloroindene (B4a)
	area/g solids	ng/g solids	area/g solids	area/g solids	area/g solids	ng/g solids*	area/g solids
AgSoil1	1.4E+07	120	8.7E+05	2.1E+04	6.3E+03	0.48	4.1E+03
AgSoil2	2.7E+07	130	1.9E+06	1.6E+04	3.0E+04	2.3	5.9E+03
AgSoil3	1.9E+08	1000	5.3E+06	8.0E+04	3.1E+04	2.3	9.9E+02
AgSoil4	6.2E+07	270	5.1E+06	8.8E+04	3.1E+05	24	4.2E+04
AgSoil5	5.7E+07	130	4.2E+06	2.2E+04	1.1E+05	8.8	2.6E+04
AgSoil6	3.5E+07	430	5.0E+05	0.0E+00	1.5E+04	1.1	1.0E+04
AC-1	1.5E+07	24	1.5E+06	7.0E+05	ND	ND	ND
AC-2	3.6E+09	6000	2.8E+08	1.8E+07	ND	ND	ND
AC-3	5.1E+09	8400	1.9E+08	5.8E+06	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 S7 for raw data).

Figure 2: 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, [$C_{10}Cl_{10}O_2H$]⁻), 468.7264 (A9a, [$C_{10}Cl_9O_2H_2$]⁻), 434.7661 (A8a, [$C_{10}Cl_8O_2H_3$]⁻), 284.8616 (B5a, [$C_9Cl_5H_2$]⁻), 250.9006 (B4a, [$C_9Cl_4H_3$]⁻), 294.8899 (C4a-b, [$C_{10}Cl_4O_2H_3$]⁻), 260.9287 (C3a-e, [$C_{10}Cl_3O_2H_4$]⁻), 226.9677 (C2a-d, [$C_{10}Cl_2O_2H_5$]⁻), 193.0064 (C1a-b, [$C_{10}ClO_2H_6$]⁻) (see details in Table S6). Metabolites m/z 400.8042 (A7a, [$C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_4$]⁻) and 216.9382 (B3a, [$C_{10}Cl_7O_2H_4$]⁻) 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 quantified/reported in the forms of CLD hydrate, MHCLD hydrate, DHCLD hydrate and THCLD hydrate.

Figure 3: 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 S8).

Figure 4: Microbial community in microcosm transfers. DNA was sampled 77 months after microcosm setup. The bar chart to the left shows relative abundance of bacteria obtained through small subunit (SSU) rRNA gene fragment sequencing. Table to the right shows concentration of general bacteria measured by qPCR (copies/ml), relative abundance of archaea (%) from sequencing, 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 S11 and S12.