Structure of sediment-associated bacterial communities along a hydrocarbon contamination gradient in coastal sediment FEMS Microbiology Ecology, Volume 66, Issue 2, Date: November 2008, Pages: 295-305

1 Structure of bacterial communities along a hydrocarbon contamination

2 gradient in coastal sediment

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4 Sandrine PAISSE¹, Frédéric COULON^{2,4}, Marisol GOÑI-URRIZA¹, Louis PEPERZAK³,

- 5 Terry J. McGENITY² & Robert DURAN^{1**}
- 6
- 7 ¹ Equipe Environnement et Microbiologie UMR IPREM5254, Université de Pau BP1155 -
- 8 64013 Pau cedex, France.
- 9 ² Department of Biological Sciences, University of Essex, Wivenhoe Park, Colchester CO4
- 10 3SQ, UK.
- ³ Department of Biological Oceanography, Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research
 (NIOZ), PO Box 59, NL-1790 AB Den Burg, Netherlands.

⁴ present address[:] Centre for Resource Management and Efficiency, Department of Sustainable

- 14 Systems, School of Applied Sciences, Cranfield University, Cranfield, Bedfordshire, MK43
- 15 0AL, UK
- 16
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20 ****Corresponding author**

- 21 Prof. Robert Duran
- 22 Equipe Environnement et Microbiologie UMR IPREM5254, IBEAS Université de Pau et
- 23 des Pays de l'Adour, avenue de l'Université, UFR Sciences et Techniques BP 1155 F-64013
- Pau cedex France.
- 25 Tel : (33) 5 59407468 ; Fax : (33) 5 59407494 ; e-mail : robert.duran@univ-pau.fr

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ABSTRACT

27 The bacterial diversity of chronically oil polluted retention basin sediment located in 28 the Berre lagoon (Etang-de-Berre, France) was investigated. This study combines chemical and molecular approaches in order to define how in situ petroleum hydrocarbon 29 30 contamination level affects bacterial community structure of subsurface sediment. 31 Hydrocarbon content analysis revealed clearly a gradient of hydrocarbon contamination in 32 both water and sediment following the basin periphery from the pollution input to the lagoon 33 water. The nC17 and pristane concentrations suggested alkane biodegradation in the 34 sediments. These results combined with those of Terminal-Restriction Fragment Length 35 Polymorphism (T-RFLP) analysis of the 16S rRNA genes indicated that bacterial communities structure was obviously associated with the gradient of oil contamination. The 36 analysis of bacterial community composition revealed dominance of bacteria related to the 37 38 Proteobacteria phylum (Gamma-, Delta-, Alpha-, Epsilon- and Betaproteobacteria), Bacteroidetes and Verrucomicrobium groups, and Spirochaetes, Actinobacteria 39 and 40 *Cyanobacteria* phyla. The adaptation of the bacterial community to oil contamination has not 41 as consequence dominance of known oil-degrader bacteria. Predominance of populations 42 associated to sulphur cycle is observed. The input station presented particular bacterial 43 community composition revealing the adaptation of this community to the oil contamination.

44 INTRODUCTION

45 Oil pollution represents a major threat to marine life and ecosystems, and with the world demand for oil increasing, it is likely to remain one of the biggest threats to the marine 46 47 environment for years to come. Consequently there is growing interest in reclaiming polluted 48 marine and coastal sites by using oil-degrading bacteria (Head & Swannell, 1999). 49 Mediterranean coastal regions are particularly exposed to oil pollution due to extensive 50 industrialization and urbanisation and transport of crude and refined oil to and from refineries. 51 The Etang de Berre, a brackish lagoon bordering the Mediterranean Sea in the South of 52 France, constitutes an important industrial area receiving seawater from the Gulf of Fos and 53 freshwater from a few natural tributaries. For decades, the lagoon has received huge amounts 54 of hydrocarbons from refineries, petrochemical plants and transportation systems, in addition 55 to biogenic inputs (Jacquot et al., 1999). Despite efforts since the 1970s to reduce oil spills and waste entering the lagoon by using water-treatment plants and retention basins, Etang de 56 57 Berre remains a heavily contaminated ecosystem.

58 The fate of spilled oil in coastal ecosystems depends largely on a wide variety of 59 physical, chemical and biological processes, among which biological degradation or 60 bioattenuation is the principal removal route (Leahy & Colwell, 1990). Recently, several studies have demonstrated the efficiency of estuarine and sediment oil-degrading microbial 61 communities in microcosms (Coulon et al., 2007; McKew et al., 2007; Röling et al., 2002). 62 However, little information on the response *in situ* of the indigenous microbial communities is 63 64 available (Macnaughton et al., 1999). This information is crucial to better understand the fate 65 of oil in marine systems and for the development of knowledge-based strategies to accelerate the ecological repair process. 66

In oil-polluted marine intertidal flats and coastal lagoons, the development of microbial
mats dominated by cyanobacteria, colourless and purple sulphur bacteria and sulphate-

69 reducing bacteria is frequently observed (Van Gemerden, 1993). We have described the structure of pristine hypersaline microbial mat communities of Salins-de-Giraud (Fourçans et 70 71 al., 2004), their dynamics (Fourçans et al., 2006) and their capacity to degrade crude oil when 72 maintained in microcosms (Bordenave et al., 2004). Recently, we started to characterize 73 microbial mats developed in restricted oil input area suggesting the possible effects of 74 petroleum on microbial community composition (Hernández-Raquet et al., 2006). To further 75 investigate the potential impact of petroleum hydrocarbons on microbial community structure 76 and diversity and hence provide a better understanding of natural attenuation process in coastal environment, chemical, molecular and multivariate analyses were combined together. 77

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79 MATERIALS AND METHODS

80 Site and Sampling procedure. The Berre lagoon (France) has a long history of oil 81 pollution, the north eastern area being described as the most contaminated of the lagoon, 82 particularly in the ten upper centimetres of the sediments (Jacquot et al., 1999). Located in 83 this area (43°29'05"'N; 5°11'17"'E), the retention basin studied collected hydrocarbon 84 charged water from a petrochemical industry since several decades (Fig 1). Highly used up to 85 the 70's, it remains chronically supplied with contaminated rainfall water that flow from the 86 industry to the primary sedimentation tank and from the sedimentation tank to the retention 87 basin by overflowing system.

88 Samples were collected in May 2006 from nine stations screening the waste input 89 (EDB1), the basin periphery (EDB2 to EDB8), and water out of the basin (EDB9) (Fig. 1). 90 The station EDB1 is located in a restricted area limited by a floating barrier that retains the 91 floating hydrocarbons. Water samples were first collected at the nine stations for hydrocarbon 92 analysis. A thin beige mat of few millimetres cover the subsurface of black anoxic sediments. 93 This mat and sub-surface sediments were sampled together, quickly homogenized and frozen

94 in liquid nitrogen for both hydrocarbon and molecular analysis. Samples were stored at -80
95 °C until analysis.

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97 **Chemical analysis.** Sediment samples (2 g) were chemically dried with 2 g of 98 anhydrous sodium sulphate (Na₂SO₄). Dried samples were extracted with 6 mL of 99 hexane:dichloromethane (1:1) by horizontal shaking at 150 oscillations per min over 16 h and 100 finally sonicated for 30 min at 20 °C. After centrifugation (5897 *g* for 20 minutes), extracts 101 were cleaned on SupelcleanTM solid phase extraction (SPE) tubes as recommended by the 102 manufacturer (SPE Supelclean EnviTM-18, Supelco Bellefonte, USA). Extracts were diluted 103 10 times for gas chromatography analysis.

Seawater samples (40 mL), collected in glass vials washed in acid solution and rinsed with hexane, were extracted using SPE tubes as recommended by the manufacturer (SPE Supelclean EnviTM-18, Supelco Bellefonte, USA). After transfer of the water samples into the SPE tubes, extracts were eluted with 5 mL of hexane: dichloromethane (1:1) and then evaporated to 0.7 mL over an ice bath to minimize loss of semi-volatile low molecular weight polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH).

110 Deuterated alkanes (C_{10}^{d22} , C_{19}^{d40} and C_{30}^{d62}) and PAH (naphthalene^{d8}, anthracene^{d10}, 111 chrysene^{d12} and perylene^{d12}) internal standards were added to the extracts at 0.5 µg mL⁻¹ and 112 0.4 µg mL⁻¹, respectively. Aliphatic hydrocarbons and PAH were identified and quantified by 113 GC-MS using a Thermo Trace GC gas chromatograph coupled to a Thermo Trace DSQ[®] 114 mass spectrometer as described previously (Coulon *et al.*, 2007).

For quality control, a 2 ng μ L⁻¹ diesel standard solution (ASTM C₁₂-C₆₀ quantitative, Supelco) and a 1 ng μ L⁻¹ PAH Mix Standard solution (Supelco) were analyzed every 15 samples. The recovery percentages of the extraction method used for sediment and seawater samples were 85% and 89%, respectively. The variation of the reproducibility of extraction and 119 quantification of samples were determined by successive extractions and injections (n = 6) of 120 the same sample and estimated to +/- 8% in both cases.

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DNA extraction. Total genomic DNA extractions from environmental samples were performed in triplicate using the alternative lysis method of the UltraCleanTM Soil DNA isolation kit (MOBIO Laboratories Inc., USA). The manufacturer's instructions were followed except for the initial step of lysis where 500 μ L of each sediment sample were vortexed horizontally during 20 minutes. Then, purified DNA was suspended in 50 μ L of sterile water and examined by agarose gel electrophoresis. All extracted genomic DNA samples were stored at –20 °C until further processing.

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130 PCR and T-RFLP analysis. The fluorescently labelled primers used for PCR amplification 131 of bacterial 16S rRNA gene were TET 8F (5'-tetrachlorofluorescein phosphoramidite-132 AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') (Lane, 1991) and HEX 1489R (5'-hexachlorofluorescein 133 phosphoramidite-TACCTTGTTACGACTTCA-3') (Weisburg, 1991). PCR and T-RFLP 134 analysis were carried out as described previously (Bruneel et al., 2006) using the Taq DNA 135 polymerase (Eurobio). The fluorescent PCR products were viewed on 1% w/v agarose gels, 136 cleaned with PCR purification kit (GE Healthcare) and 10 µl of purified product digested 137 separately with 3 U of enzyme HaeIII, HinfI or HpaII for 3 h at 37°C (New England Biolabs). 138 1 µl of restriction digests were then mixed with 20 µl of deionized formamide and 0,5 µl of a 139 TAMRA labelled Genescan 500 bp internal size standard (Applied Biosystems), denatured for 140 5 min at 95°C, and immediately transferred to ice. Triplicate samples were loaded onto an 141 ABI PRISM 310 automated genetic analyser (Applied Biosystems). T-RFLP profiles were 142 aligned by identifying and grouping homologous fragments, and normalized by calculating 143 relative abundances of each T-RFs from height fluorescence intensity. Combining data from 144 each restriction enzyme, we compared normalized T-RFLP profiles. For statistical analysis,

145 the averages of height of terminal restriction fragments (T-RFs) detected in triplicates with 146 each endonuclease and each primer were used. In order to identify similarities between the 147 bacterial communities at the different sites, two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional 148 scaling ordination (2D-nMDS) based on presence/absence transformation and Bray Curtis 149 similarity of all treated T-RFLP data were carried out with Primer6 (Plymouth Routines In 150 Multivariate Ecological Research, version 6.1.6). Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) 151 was performed to examine the influence of environmental variables (salinity, pH and 152 conductivity of water, hydrocarbon concentrations and distributions in water and sediment) on 153 the structure of bacterial communities using MVSP software (Multi-Variate Statistical 154 Package 3.12d, Kovach Computing Services, 1985-2001, UK).

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156 **Clone library.** To characterize the bacterial populations inhabiting three stations of 157 the retention basin (EDB1, EDB2, EDB3), 16S rRNA genes were amplified and cloned using unlabeled 8F and 1489R primers. The PCR products were cloned in Escherichia coli 158 159 TOP10F' (Invitrogen) using the pCR2.1 Topo TA cloning kit (Invitrogen, Inc.). Cloned 16S 160 rRNA gene fragments were amplified using M13 primers surrounding the cloning site. Inserts were sequenced using the Big Dye[®] Terminator v3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied 161 162 Biosystems). Sequences (about 1400 bp) were first analysed using the CHECK CHIMERA 163 program on the RDP Database Project website (http://rdp8.cme.msu.edu/html/) (Cole et al., 164 2003). Then the sequences were compared with the GenBank nucleotide database library by 165 BLAST on-line searches (Altschul et al., 1997). Multiple sequence alignment of clones was 166 performed by using CLUSTALX (Thompson et al., 1997) and PROcessor of SEQuences 167 v2.91 (Filatov, 2002). Phylogenies were constructed with the Molecular Evolutionary 168 Genetics Analysis v3.0 program (Kumar et al., 2004) using Kimura two parameters model and Neighbour-joining algorithm. Significance of branching order was determined by 169

bootstrap analysis with 1000 resampled data sets. PAST (PAleontological Statistics v1.60)
software from http://folk.uio.no/ohammer/past/ website was used to perform rarefaction
analysis and calculate diversity indices for each clone library with clone phenotype similarity
defined at 97% 16S rRNA sequence similarity. In order to determine the significance of
differences between the clone libraries, LIBSHUFF method was applied (Singleton *et al.*,
2001).

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177 Nucleotide sequence accession numbers. The sequences determined in this study have
178 been submitted to the EMBL database and assigned Accession Nos. <u>AM882511</u> to
179 <u>AM882649</u>.

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181 **RESULTS**

182 Hydrocarbons distribution in the retention basin. Total extractable hydrocarbon content (THC) in water and sediment samples ranged between 25 and 109 μ g L⁻¹ and between 183 42 and 286 mg kg⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 2). About 70 compounds were found within the sub-184 surface sediment of the different stations sampled including 29 alkanes ranging from C_{10} to 185 186 C₃₆, 38 PAHs and 3 conservative biomarkers, e.g. C₃₀-hopane. Except EDB1 station where 187 THC concentrations in sediment were lower than expected, the chemical analyses showed a 188 clear gradient of petroleum hydrocarbons contamination in water and sediment following the 189 basin periphery from EDB2 to EDB8 (Fig. 2). THC in water from EDB8 were similar to those 190 found in EDB9 showing the efficiency of this basin in hydrocarbon trapping, as well as the 191 possible influence of the lagoon water in the basin. For all stations, oil concentrations in 192 sediment were at least 1000 times higher than in water and hydrocarbon concentration 193 sediment/water ratios were five-fold higher at EDB2 than at EDB7 or EDB8.

194 The hydrocarbon composition in the different stations showed that alkanes represented 195 78 to 92% of the total hydrocarbon in water against 10 to 38% in sediment (data not shown). 196 Conversely, PAHs represented 8 to 22% of total hydrocarbon concentration in water against 197 61 to 89% in sediment (data not shown). Alkyl-homologues of phenanthrene and pyrene were 198 representing together more 80% of the PAHs within the sediment samples. Overall, the 199 hydrocarbon fingerprint analysis showed that THC concentration within the lagoon correlated 200 with the distance from the inlet where sedimentation and accumulation of the hydrocarbons 201 were clearly observed between the stations EDB2 and 8. Except to the station 8, the 202 diagnostic weathering ratio \sum chrysenes/ \sum phenanthrenes was unchanged at all stations 203 indicating that no weathering process was occurring within the sediment samples. However, 204 significant losses occurred in low molecular weight n-alkanes, as shown by the distribution 205 change of nC17 and pristane concentration in station EDB1 and EDB2 (Fig. 3).

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Bacterial community analysis by 16S rRNA gene T-RFLP fingerprinting. T-RFLP 207 208 patterns analysis (Fig. 4) showed eight different bacterial community structure forming three 209 clusters with similarity up than 66%: A grouping EDB1 to EDB4, B grouping EDB5 to 210 EDB7, and C including only EDB8 community. Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) 211 combining T-RFLP data and different environmental factors such as salinity, pH, conductivity 212 of water revealed no clear influence of these parameters in the bacterial community structure 213 of the samples (data not shown). Nevertheless, CCA analysis realised with T-RFLP data and 214 hydrocarbon concentrations in water and sediment indicated that water and sediment 215 hydrocarbon contents are the main measured variables that explain 32% of the bacterial 216 community distribution (Fig. 5A). The pattern of bacterial communities structure from EDB2 217 to EDB8 followed the oil sediment concentration axis while the bacterial community structure 218 of EDB1 seemed to be influenced by others environmental factors as oil content in water. The

impact of oil content on the bacterial community structure assessment have already been
suggested in coastal Mediterranean sediments of Lavera highly polluted by refinery effluents
(Mille et al., 1985).

222 When variables (T-RFs = OTUs operational Taxonomic Unit) were plotted on the CCA 223 (Fig. 5B), they fell into four clusters. Cluster 3 was related to the hydrocarbon distribution in 224 sediment (e.g. based on the alignment of variables along the THC sediment axis), and cluster 225 4 was probably influenced by others environmental factors. The OTUs of cluster 1 are all 226 specific to the EDB1 station and represent 15% of the total diversity and 5% of relative 227 abundance of this sample. In the same way, the OTUs of cluster 2 are all specific to the EDB2 228 site and represent about 4.5% of the total diversity of this sample and 1.2% of the relative 229 abundance.

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231 Composition of bacterial communities. Hydrocarbon distribution and concentration as 232 well as bacterial community structure analysis showed that station EDB1 is particular and 233 different from the rest of the stations. Thus phylogenetic analysis of 202 clones of 16S rRNA 234 genes of the stations EDB1, EDB2 and EDB3 was performed in order to obtain a more 235 precise picture of the bacterial community structure. The rarefaction analysis was performed 236 in order to determine if the number of clones analysed was representative of the diversity. 237 Although the curves did not reach a plateau (data not shown), the homologous curves 238 obtained by comparison of EDB1, EDB2 and EDB3 clone libraries with LIBSHUFF method 239 (data not shown) indicated that libraries are representatives of the most abundant populations 240 in the original communities (high homologous coverage at evolutionary distance up to 0.05). 241 The comparison of the clone libraries with the LIBSHUFF method reveals also that 16S 242 rRNA gene sequences of EDB1 compared with those of EDB2 were composed of significantly different phylotypes (XY₁₂ p-value=0.010; YX₁₂ p-value=0.323), while those of 243

EDB2 and EDB3 libraries were not significantly different (XY_{23} p-value=0.928; YX_{23} pvalue=0.075). The Smith and Wilson eveness diversity index was 3.724, 3.628 and 3.707 for EDB1, EDB2 and EDB3 respectively, indicating the same level of complexity of the three community stations despite the different and high concentrations of oil in these sediments. These bacterial communities appeared adapted to the environmental stress.

249 The phylogenetic analysis of clone sequences obtained from the three libraries revealed 250 dominance of bacteria belonging to the Proteobacteria (Gamma-, Delta-, Alpha-, Epsilon-251 and Betaproteobacteria), presence of bacteria belonging to Bacteroidetes, Spirochaetes, 252 Verrucomicrobium, Actinobacteria, Cyanobacteria, and the presence of diatoms (Fig. 6 and 253 Table 1). All these sequences were closed related to those found either in coastal water, 254 seawater or in microbial mats, polluted or not with petroleum hydrocarbons (Abed et al., 2006 ; Brakstad & Lødeng, 2005 ; Coulon et al., 2007 ; Gentile et al., 2006 ; Van Gemerden, 255 256 1993). Approximately 1.5% of the sequences were affiliated with uncultured clones of 257 unclassified bacteria (candidate division JS1), 2.5% were defined as chimera and therefore excluded of all analysis. 258

259 Clone sequences were mainly distributed the Gamma-(37%) in and 260 Deltaproteobacteria (33%), but in different proportions between the different sites (Fig. 6). 261 Gammaproteobacteria represented 29% of EDB1 total sequences whereas they represented 262 42 and 41% in EDB2 and EDB3 respectively. Conversely, Deltaproteobacteria represented 263 40% of EDB1 sequences while they were estimated to 30 and 31% in EDB2 and EDB3 264 respectively. Whatever the station, most of the acquired sequences from Gamma- and 265 Deltaproteobacteria were related to sulphur-oxidizing (Olavius algarvensis sulphur-oxidizing 266 endosymbiont, Thyasira flexuosa gill symbiont, Alkalispirillum mobile, Thiobaca spp., 267 Thiocapsa spp., Halochromatium spp. and Amoebobacter spp.) and sulphate-reducing bacteria (Desulfobacterium, Desulfosarcina, Desulfococcus, Desulfotignum, Bacteriovorax 268

and *Anaeromyxobacter*) (Fig. 7A-7B). Sequences related to oil-degrading sulphate-reducing
bacteria (Fig. 7B) and *Spirochaeta smaragdinae* isolates from oil-polluted systems (Table 1)
were also found in the mat studied here. Few clone sequences related to well-known oildegrading bacteria under aerobic condition such as *Marinobacter spp.* were found.

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DISCUSSION

275 Chemical analysis of water and sediment of the basin indicated hydrocarbon concentrations 276 similar to those previously found in this site (Hernández-Raquet et al., 2006) and comparable 277 to those found in well-established polluted environment like in the Arabian gulf coasts one year after the gulf war (20 to 369 mg kg⁻¹ of dry sediment) (Al-Thukair, 2002), or those found 278 279 in the Prince William Sound (at historical industrial sites, i.e. not after the Exxon Valdez oil spill; 1 to 151 mg kg⁻¹ of PAHs) (Page *et al.*, 2006). The alkane/PAHs ratios in the basin 280 281 sediments are the converse of those previously found in the lagoon (Jacquot et al., 1999), 282 suggesting a particular pollution of this basin different from the Berre lagoon pollution. 283 Hydrocarbon compounds were widely accumulated in all sediment stations, particularly 284 PAHs. It is well known that hydrocarbons, particularly PAHs, have low aqueous solubility 285 and high solid-water distribution ratios, which prevent their utilization by planktonic bacteria 286 and promote their accumulation in the solid phase of the terrestrial environment (Johnsen et 287 al., 2005). However, the lower ratio of nC17/pristane observed in sediment at EDB1 and 288 EDB2 stations suggested that alkanes biodegradation process occurred. Although the purpose 289 of this retention basin is to increase sedimentation of oil effluent in order to limit oil diffusion 290 and facilitate abiotic and biotic degradation, PAH weathering diagnostic ratio indicated that 291 no degradation was occurring. PAHs might be sorbed and sequestered within the sediment 292 and not exposed either to abiotic loss or microbial attack. It is well known that cyanobacterial 293 mat grow extensively building thick laminated mats on the oiled sediment surface and sealing the surface (Barth 2003, Bordenave *et al.*, 2007). This phenomenon is also observed in the retention basin (Fig. 1C). Consequently, oil is trapped in an anaerobic milieu in which oil transformation can occur but at very slow rate (Garcia de Oteyza et Grimalt 2006). The chemical analysis pointed also out that oil concentration in the sediment at EDB1 station was lower than expected, while this station constituted the place of hydrocarbon input and was limited by a floating barrier supposed to prevent hydrocarbon scattering.

300 Oil content of sediments of the retention basin provides an opportunity to 301 investigate how microbial communities differ along a hydrocarbon gradient in a coastal 302 ecosystem by T-RFLP analysis of 16S rRNA genes. Based on CCA, the amount of 303 hydrocarbon in the sediment has an effect on the microbial community structure. The 304 phylogenetic analysis of three analysed stations showed clones related to previously identified 305 oil-related SRBs, Marinobacter spp. and others. However, the CCA explains only 32% of the 306 data, others factors like fine sediment or organic matter carried out by the effluent are likely to 307 be involved in the assessment of the bacterial community structure either if sedimentation of 308 these kind of particles are supposed in the sedimentation tank (Fig. 1A). Previous study 309 concerning bacterial composition of the station EDB1 using DGGE and ARISA showed 310 specific microbial community associated to oil contamination level (Hernandez et al., 2006). 311 Enrichment culture of EDB1 sediment has permitted the identification of species involved in 312 oil degradation (Hernandez et al., 2006; Ranchou-Peyruse et al., 2004) although this 313 populations represent a minor fraction of the mat communities in the sediment of the Etang de 314 Berre retention basin (Hernandez et al., 2006). McKew et al. (2007) demonstrated in 315 microcosms experiment the quick activity of oil-degraders from environmental sample while 316 these organisms could not be detected in their environment. Mazella et al. (2005) have 317 already suggested that hydrocarbon-degraders able to degrade petroleum are present in low 318 proportion within the sediment. The impact of oil in the bacterial community structure is not only associated to biodegradation (use oil as carbon source) but it can be associated to others
phenomena as toxicity, physical chemical changes, or others (Berge *et al.*, 1987; Cochran *et al.*, 1998). Indeed, the sediments of the retention basin contain many other organic matter that
can be used easier than oil as carbon source by bacteria.

323 Bacteria populations associated to sulphur cycle has been found abundant as usually 324 in this kind of environments. Van Gemerden (1993) have already demonstrated the 325 importance of colourless sulphur bacteria, purple sulphur bacteria and sulphate-reducing 326 bacteria in promoting oxygen and sulphide microgradients in mats. Oil pollution is well 327 known to stimulate the sulphur cycle significantly (Kleikemper et al., 2002; Lovley, 1997). 328 During the last decade, studies have shown the potential of coastal marine sediment for 329 anaerobic hydrocarbon degradation under sulphate-reducing conditions (Coates et al., 1997; Townsend et al., 2003 ; Widdel & Rabus, 2001). Moreover, with the exception of the 330 331 uppermost layer, the bulk of organic matter-rich marine sediments contaminated by petroleum 332 hydrocarbons are anoxic (Canfield, 1993). Sequences related to oil-degrading sulphate 333 reducing bacteria found in the mat studied here reinforced the possible role of these 334 microorganisms in anaerobic oil degradation. Indeed, in marine reduced sediments, 335 hydrocarbon degradation coupled to sulphate-reduction is considered as the most relevant 336 metabolism among the different anaerobic processes (Rothermich et al., 2002).

In conclusion the present study demonstrated a gradient of hydrocarbon contamination in the retention basin and indicated that structure of the bacterial communities were correlated with the hydrocarbon contamination level. The oil pollution constitute therefore a selection pressure for these bacterial communities which seems furthermore well-adapted because of their level of complexity. Nevertheless, this selection pressure doesn't induce increase of oil degrading bacteria as no obvious degradation process or many clones related to knowndegrading bacteria were identified. The statement of a specific bacterial community structure

344	associated to low hydrocarbon concentration in EDB1 sediment station was clearly displayed.
345	The role of this bacterial community in the unexpected low total hydrocarbon concentration
346	station should be clarified.
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TABLE LEGEND

- **Table 1:** Phylogenetic sequences other than *Gamma-* and *Deltaproteobacteria* identified in
- 467 16S rRNA gene libraries.

Phylogenetic group	Closest match	Accession No of closest organism	5 Sequence identity (%)
Alphaproteobacteria	Shingomonas sp. 86 [°]	AY177366	85
* *	Hyphomicrobium vulgare ATCC27500	Y14302	90
	Pseudoruegeria aquimaris SW-255	DQ675021	93
Betaproteobacteria	Uncultured Acidovorax sp. clone DS137	DQ234219	92
Epsilonproteobacteria	Sulfurimonas paralvinella ^{An}	AB252048	90-92
• •	Sulfurospirillum sp. SM-5	U85965	99
	Uncultured epsilon XME15	EF061977	93-98
Bacteroïdetes	<i>Cytophaga</i> sp. BHI80-3	AJ431238	94-95
Spirochaeta	Spirochaeta smaragdinae ^{O/An}	U80597	90-96
Actinobacteria	Uncultured Rubrobacteraceae clone Elev_16S_1016	EF019514	91
Verrucomicrobia	Uncultured Verrucomicrobia bacterium clone LD1-PA15 An	AY114312	80-97
Cyanobacteria	Synechococcus sp. HO	AF448075	93
Diatoms chloroplast	Nitzschia frustulum	AY221721	99
ŕ	Odontella sinensis	Z67753	98
	Phaeodactylum tricornutum	EF067920	99
Unclassified bacteria	Uncultured hydrocarbon seep bacterium GCA025 ⁰	AF154106	82-99

^O: isolated from hydrocarbon polluted system ^{An}: anaerobic bacteria

469 Table 2: composition of the bacterial communities of the stations EDB1, EDB2 and EDB3

	Abundance of clones (%)			
Affiliation group	EDB1	EDB2	EDB3	
Alphaproteobacteria	1.28	1.52	1.72	
Deltaproteobacteria	38.46	28.79	31.03	
Gammaproteobacteria	28.21	40.91	41.38	
Betaproteobacteria	0	0	1.72	
Epsilonproteobacteria	11.54	0	3.45	
Bacteroidetes	2.56	4.55	0	
Actinobacterium	0	1.52	1.72	
Verrucomicrobia group	1.28	1.52	8.62	
Spirochaeta	1.28	1.52	0	
Cyanobacteria	1.28	0	0	
Eukaryota	14.10	21.21	10.34	

472 FIGURES LEGENDS

Fig. 1. (A) Water treatment unit of the effluent coming from the petrochemical factory (a) comprising primary sedimentation tank (b), retention basin (c) where the eight sampling stations are indicated. The ninth sampling station was localised out of the retention basin in the lagoon (d). (**B**) Over-oxygenated cyanobacterial mat developing at the sediment surface of the retention basin. O_2 bubbles can be observed at the surface of the mat. (**C**) Black anoxic sediments and oil floating at the water surface revealed after perturbation of the sediments.

479

480 Fig. 2. Total petroleum hydrocarbons concentrations in water and sediment of the Berre481 retention basin at the different stations.

482

483 Fig. 3. nC17 and Pristane concentrations in the water and sediment from the eight sediment484 stations of the retention basin.

485

Fig. 4. Bacterial community structure assemblage of the different stations. nMDS map based
on the analysis of T-RFLP patterns of PCR-amplified 16S rRNA gene. Percent similarity
represents the similarity between T-RFLP profiles, based on the presence of common T-RFs
within the profiles (Bray Curtis similarity). Plain and dashed lines represent respectively 66 %
and 71 % of similarity. The stations with similarities up to 66% are grouped in three clusters,
A, B, and C.

492

493 Fig. 5. CCA between the bacterial communities of each station (A) or the variables (B) and
494 THC in sediment and water. The bacterial community structure is represented using T-RFLP
495 profiles.

497 Fig. 6. Phylogenetic tree showing the affiliation of clones to (A) *Gammaproteobacteria* and
498 (B) *Deltaproteobacteria* sequences. The distances were calculated by the Kimura 2-parameter
499 algorithm. Percentages of 1000 bootstrap resampling that supported the branching orders in
500 each analysis are shown above or near the relevant nodes (only values >50% are shown).
501 Phylogenetic trees were constructed using free Mega3 software after alignment with ClutalX
502 and ProSeq2 correction. o : oil degrading bacteria















EDB5

EDB6

EDB7

EDB8

0

EDB2

EDB1

EDB3

EDB4

557 Fig 4.







560 Vector scaling: 5, 15

B

562



Vector scaling: 4,86



612

B



0.02