

MNA of Chlorinated Solvents:

**Aerobic Cometabolism
& Abiotic Degradation**

MNA of Chlorinated Solvents: Aerobic Cometabolism & Abiotic Degradation

Table of Contents

1.0 Overview and Purpose.....	2
2.0 Degradation Mechanisms during MNA.....	2
2.1 Aerobic Cometabolism	2
2.2 Abiotic Degradation.....	3
3.0 Analyses for Evaluating Degradation during MNA	4
3.1 QuantArray®-Chlor or CENSUS® qPCR	4
3.2 Magnetic Susceptibility	5
3.3 X-ray Diffraction (XRD).....	6
3.4 Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA).....	6
4.0 ¹⁴ C TCE Degradation Rate Studies.....	7
5.0 Sample Collection Procedures	7
5.1 CENSUS®qPCR or QuantArray®-Chlor	7
5.2 Soil Samples for Magnetic Susceptibility and XRD	8
5.3 Groundwater Samples for Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA)	8
6.0 References.....	9

Evaluating MNA – Cometabolism and Abiotic Degradation

1.0 Overview and Purpose

Engineered remediation strategies like enhanced reductive dechlorination (ERD) are highly effective at chlorinated solvent sites, but are not always feasible for impacted areas extending further downgradient or other large dilute plumes. For large dilute plumes, monitored natural attenuation (MNA) may be the most promising risk management strategy.

Aerobic cometabolism (co-oxidation) of TCE and other chlorinated solvents can be an important component of MNA. Likewise, chlorinated compounds are also susceptible to abiotic degradation catalyzed by common iron-bearing minerals. However, quantification and conclusive assessment of cometabolism and abiotic degradation is difficult, thereby limiting the application of MNA as a site management strategy.

The purpose of this tech bulletin is to describe analyses that can be used to assess MNA at chlorinated ethene sites by answering the following questions:

Is aerobic cometabolism a meaningful component of MNA?

Is abiotic degradation contributing to MNA?

Can these processes reasonably explain the observed trends in contaminant concentrations?

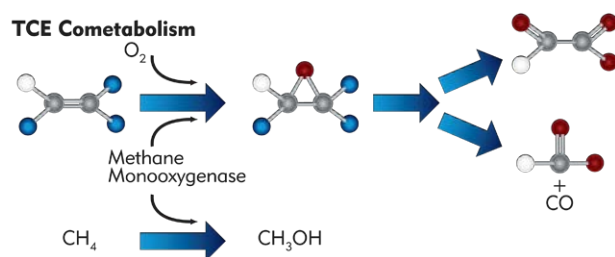
What is the potential rate of TCE degradation?

2.0 Degradation Mechanisms during MNA

While attenuation includes physical processes such as adsorption, dilution, and volatilization, the discussion will focus on mechanisms that lead to contaminant destruction: aerobic cometabolism (co-oxidation) and abiotic degradation.

2.1 Aerobic Cometabolism

Microbial metabolism is the biochemical process that a microbe uses to obtain energy and carbon to live and reproduce. “Cometabolism” describes the process whereby a microorganism transforms a non-growth supporting compound such as TCE in the presence of a growth supporting substrate. The microorganism does not gain energy from cometabolism.



As shown in Figure 1, cometabolism is often mediated by oxygenase enzymes with “relaxed” specificity such as methane monooxygenases that oxidize a primary, growth-supporting substrate (e.g. methane) and co-oxidize the chlorinated compound (e.g. TCE).

Figure 1: TCE cometabolism and methane metabolism initiated by soluble methane monooxygenase

Chlorinated ethenes and other chlorinated solvents can be co-oxidized by a wide range of oxygenase-expressing microbes including those that utilize methane¹⁻³, ethene and ethane^{4,5}, propane⁶⁻⁹, phenol¹⁰⁻¹², or toluene^{13,14} as energy and carbon sources.

In general terms, the potential for aerobic cometabolism to contribute to contaminant degradation depends on a number of factors including: a growth supporting (primary) substrate, a compound that induces expression of the pathway (an inducer), bacteria with these oxygenase genes and corresponding pathways, and available oxygen. In an engineered system, a growth substrate/inducer like methane for example is added along with oxygen to stimulate growth of methanotrophs and induce expression of soluble methane monooxygenase (sMMO) which is capable of co-oxidation of chlorinated compounds. For MNA though, a growth supporting substrate and an inducer must be naturally present or produced upgradient as a result of site activities such as enhanced reductive dechlorination.

For most pathways, the primary substrate is also an inducer. However, it is important to note that other naturally occurring and anthropogenic compounds can induce expression of some pathways.

- A substantial fraction of the native bacteria in aerobic groundwater have active oxygenase enzymes.¹⁵
- In addition, laboratory studies have demonstrated that TCE itself can induce expression of some toluene monooxygenases.^{16,17}

Figure 2: Humic acid component of natural organic matter

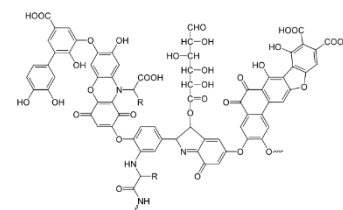


Table 2 highlights groups of microorganisms capable of co-oxidation of TCE and other chlorinated compounds as well as substrates and inducers which may be present during MNA or following enhanced anaerobic bioremediation.

Microorganisms	Primary Substrate & Other Potential Inducers	Substrate & Inducer Sources
Methane oxidizing bacteria (methanotrophs)	Methane	Methane produced during enhanced anaerobic biodegradation performed upgradient. Naturally occurring methane.
Ethene-utilizing bacteria	Ethene	Ethene produced during enhanced anaerobic biodegradation performed upgradient.
BTEX-utilizing bacteria	BTEX, phenol Natural organic matter (NOM) TCE	BTEX compounds present as co-contaminants NOM contains aromatic groups that may induce expression of toluene monooxygenase genes TCE can induce some toluene monooxygenases

2.2 Abiotic Degradation

Although not always fully considered, abiotic degradation can be a substantial or the even the primary process for chlorinated hydrocarbon destruction at sites undergoing or transitioning to MNA. A variety of iron-bearing minerals including iron sulfides (mackinawite and pyrite), iron oxides (magnetite), green rust, and iron-bearing clays are capable of complete or nearly complete degradation of PCE, TCE, and carbon tetrachloride¹⁸. Some iron-bearing minerals also catalyze the degradation of chlorinated ethanes and the lesser chlorinated ethenes cis-dichloroethene (DCE) and vinyl chloride. While the quantities and

types will vary, these reactive iron minerals are frequently identified in subsurface environments and the reactions can occur under oxic and anoxic conditions.

➔ **Magnetite** (Fe_3O_4) is a mixed valence iron mineral shown to react with PCE, TCE, and carbon tetrachloride^{19, 20}. Furthermore, Ferrey, et al.²¹ conclusively linked the observed degradation of cis-DCE at a former ammunition plant to magnetite in the subsurface.

➔ **Mackinawite** (FeS) will transform PCE and TCE primarily by elimination to acetylene²². Carbon tetrachloride is transformed mainly to chloroform but carbon dioxide, formate, and carbon disulfide have also been detected^{20, 23}. Finally, the more heavily chlorinated ethanes including hexachloroethane, pentachloroethane, and tetrachloroethanes react to form chlorinated ethenes which can be further degraded²⁴.

➔ **Pyrite** (FeS_2) catalyzes transformation of PCE, TCE, and cis-DCE to acetylene and ethene¹⁹. Vinyl chloride is transformed to ethene and ethane. Pyrite is also capable of degradation of carbon tetrachloride potentially forming a number of products including chloroform, carbon dioxide, carbon disulfide, and formate depending on reaction conditions²⁵.

3.0 Analyses for Evaluating Degradation during MNA

Abiotic degradation and aerobic cometabolism have not always been considered as significant contributors to contaminant attenuation in part because these degradation mechanisms have been difficult to quantify and correlate to degradation rates. Unlike biological reductive dechlorination, aerobic cometabolism and abiotic degradation do not produce readily measured daughter products (e.g., DCE, vinyl chloride, ethene). Without the formation of unique products, evaluating contributions of aerobic cometabolism and abiotic degradation to MNA relies on other lines of evidence to complement traditional chemical and geochemical monitoring.

3.1 QuantArray®-Chlor or CENSUS® qPCR

Quantification of the functional genes encoding the enzymes capable of co-oxidation of TCE and other chlorinated hydrocarbons is a direct approach to evaluate the potential for aerobic cometabolism to contribute to MNA. Moreover, recent research under **ESTCP Project 201584** has demonstrated positive correlations between oxygenase gene concentrations (sMMO, RMO, and PHE) and the rate of TCE degradation²⁶. For more information, the Final Report for ESTCP Project 201584 is available at <https://www.serdp-estcp.org/Program-Areas/Environmental-Restoration/Contaminated-Groundwater/Persistent-Contamination/ER-201584/ER-201584>



Submit groundwater samples from select monitoring wells for **CENSUS® qPCR** or **QuantArray®-Chlor** analysis. Quantification of the oxygenase genes included in the following table will allow site managers to evaluate the potential for aerobic cometabolism under existing site conditions.

CENSUS® qPCR and QuantArray®-Chlor are DNA-based molecular biological tools used to accurately quantify specific functional genes (e.g. methane monooxygenase) encoding enzymes capable of aerobic cometabolism of TCE and other contaminants of concern as shown in the table below.

Target Gene	Relevance
Soluble Methane Monooxygenase (sMMO)	Targets the gene encoding soluble methane monooxygenases which can co-oxidize a broad range of chlorinated compounds ^{2, 27-29} including TCE, <i>cis</i> -DCE, and vinyl chloride. Furthermore, soluble methane monooxygenases are generally believed to support greater rates of aerobic cometabolism ³⁰ .
Toluene Monooxygenase (RMO)	Targets a group of genes encoding ring-hydroxylating toluene monooxygenase (toluene-3- and toluene-4-monooxygenases) capable of co-oxidation of TCE. In some laboratory studies, TCE or a degradation product has been shown to induce expression of toluene monooxygenases ^{16, 17, 31} , raising the possibility of TCE cometabolism with alternative (non-aromatic) growth substrates ³² .
Phenol Hydroxylase (PHE)	While degradation rates differ, phenol hydroxylases also co-oxidize TCE ³³ . As mentioned previously, TCE or a degradation product can induce expression of toluene monooxygenases ^{16, 17, 31} and recent research has shown positive correlations between concentrations of monooxygenase genes (sMMO, RMO, PHE) and the rate of TCE degradation ²⁶ .
Toluene Monooxygenase (RDEG)	Also targets the ring-hydroxylating toluene monooxygenase genes (toluene-2-monooxygenase). As with RMO, toluene-2-monooxygenases are capable of cometabolism of TCE ³⁴ .
Toluene Dioxygenase (TOD)	Although reports of induction by TCE differ, toluene dioxygenases are also capable of cometabolism of TCE ¹⁴ when expressed.
Ethene Monooxygenase (ETN)	Enumerates functional genes (<i>etnC</i> and <i>etnE</i>) involved in ethene utilization and vinyl chloride (co)metabolism. The ethene monooxygenase (EtnABCD) converts ethene and vinyl chloride to their respective epoxyalkanes, while epoxyalkane:CoM transferase (EtnE) mediates conjugation and breaking of the epoxide ³⁵ .

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) is a process whereby many copies of a specific target gene are generated. As each gene copy is made, a fluorescent marker is released, measured and used to quantify the number of target genes present in the sample. QuantArray® is a nano-fluidic platform for solution-phase qPCR which provides simultaneous quantification of a broad spectrum of genes of interest in a single analysis.

For more information on CENSUS® qPCR and QuantArray®-Chlor, please see the Microbial Insights website (www.microbe.com).

3.2 Magnetic Susceptibility

As mentioned previously, magnetite (Fe₃O₄) is a mixed valence iron mineral shown to react with a variety of chlorinated solvents including PCE, TCE, *cis*-DCE, and vinyl chloride. No direct chemical test is available for quantification of magnetite at the concentrations typically found in aquifer sediments. However, magnetite is the most abundant mineral in natural sediments that exhibits magnetic behavior. Therefore, magnetic susceptibility provides an inexpensive and valuable estimate of the quantity of magnetite in environmental samples.



Submit sediment core samples for Magnetic Susceptibility analysis to evaluate magnetite content and the potential for abiotic degradation. In field and laboratory studies, correlations were observed between magnetic susceptibility measurements and chlorinated ethene degradation rates.^{18, 36}

Wiedemeier et al (2017) recommend using magnetic susceptibility as a second line of evidence to assess whether abiotic degradation by magnetite is a plausible explanation for observed degradation determined by groundwater monitoring data.

3.3 X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

As mentioned previously, MNA is a common follow-up to enhanced anaerobic bioremediation which not only stimulates growth of halo-respiring bacteria, but also promotes growth of iron- and sulfate-reducing bacteria which produce reactive iron sulfide minerals. Reactive iron minerals may also be present in naturally reducing anoxic aquifers. Mackinawite is the most reactive of the iron-bearing minerals and a crystalline form (tetragonal FeS) can be detected by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD). Pyrite (FeS₂) capable of abiotic degradation of chlorinated ethenes and carbon tetrachloride, can also be detected by XRD.

3.4 Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA)

Compound specific isotope analysis (CSIA) is an analysis that measures the stable isotope ratio (¹³C/¹²C) of the contaminant. For many of chlorinated solvents, the ratio of stable isotopes (¹³C/¹²C) changes in a predictable manner (isotopic fractionation) as the compound is degraded. Conversely, physical processes like dilution do not appreciably alter isotopic ratios of contaminants. Thus, CSIA is increasingly being used at chlorinated solvent sites to conclusively determine whether contaminant degradation has occurred.

Contaminant	Degradation Mechanism Resulting in ¹³ C/ ¹² C Fractionation
PCE	Abiotic degradation by mackinawite ³⁷
TCE	Abiotic degradation by mackinawite, ³⁷ magnetite, ¹⁸ and pyrite ³⁷
TCE	Aerobic cometabolism by toluene-2-monooxygenase (RDEG) ³⁸
Vinyl chloride	Aerobic metabolism and cometabolism (sMMO) ³⁹
Carbon tetrachloride	Abiotic degradation by mackinawite and magnetite ²⁰

While contaminant and pathway dependent, aerobic cometabolism and abiotic degradation can result in significant isotopic fractionation and CSIA can be a strong supporting line of evidence in evaluating degradation mechanisms that contribute to MNA as shown in the table above.



Consider submitting groundwater samples from select monitoring wells along the flow path for CSIA as a supporting line of evidence when evaluating MNA. CSIA is powerful environmental diagnostic tools that is applicable to a broad spectrum of contaminants and remediation strategies. For more information on CSIA please visit the MI website and the MI CSIA Database.

4.0 ¹⁴C TCE Degradation Rate Studies

During ESTCP Project 201584, Wiedemeier and collaborators demonstrated that concentrations of several oxygenase genes as measured by CENSUS® qPCR or QuantArray®-Chlor and magnetic susceptibility measures for magnetite abundance correlated to TCE degradation rates. However, determining rates of TCE degradation using groundwater monitoring data from the field is problematic, particularly for dilute plumes undergoing MNA. Performing **¹⁴C TCE Degradation Rate Studies** in the laboratory can address this issue.

As part of Project 201584, Prof. David Freedman from Clemson University has developed and validated an innovative ¹⁴C assay to determine TCE degradation rate constants from environmental samples.⁴⁰ To estimate a pseudo-first order rate constant for aerobic cometabolism of ¹⁴C TCE, the study is performed on groundwater samples. To determine the rate of abiotic ¹⁴C TCE degradation, the study is performed on soil/sediment samples.

In the laboratory, submitted samples are injected with a highly purified ¹⁴C labeled TCE. At regular time intervals, the disappearance of ¹⁴C TCE and the accumulation of ¹⁴C products (e.g. ¹⁴CO₂ and ¹⁴C labeled formate, glycolate, and oxalate) are quantified. The strong signal and precision allow estimation of pseudo-first order rate constants for TCE degradation of relatively short time frame (days to weeks).



Consider submitting samples to the **Freedman Laboratory at Clemson University** for a **¹⁴C TCE Degradation Rate Study**.

To determine the rate of ¹⁴C TCE aerobic cometabolism, submit three serum bottles and one glass bottle containing at least 500 mL of groundwater from each location to the *Freedman Laboratory*. For abiotic degradation, submit 250 g of soil and 500 mL of site groundwater for each location to *Microbial Insights*.

**Please note, only three samples per day can be submitted per day to Dr. Freedman's laboratory for ¹⁴C TCE degradation rate studies. Please notify customerservice@microbe.com at least a week in advance of your sampling dates to coordinate the shipment(s), and email a copy of the chain of custody the day samples are shipped.*

5.0 Sample Collection Procedures

5.1 CENSUS® qPCR or QuantArray®-Chlor

Collecting samples for CENSUS® qPCR and QuantArray®-Chlor analysis is no more difficult than collecting groundwater or soil samples for common chemical analyses and can be readily incorporated into a routine sampling event. Below are guidelines to follow when collecting samples for any DNA-based analysis:

1. Use clean latex (or similar) gloves when collecting and handling samples
2. Keep samples cold (~4°C) to minimize changes in the microbial community
 - a. Place samples on ice or freezer packs in a cooler after collection
 - b. As soon as possible (preferably overnight), ship samples to the laboratory
 - c. Include enough ice/freezer packs to ensure that samples remain cold during shipment

Microbial Insights (MI) has been receiving field samples for DNA-based analyses for over 25 years and has performed extensive in-house testing of sample preservation and shipping requirements. Overnight shipment at 4°C combined with immediate DNA extraction upon sample receipt at the laboratory minimizes changes to the microbial community.

QuantArray®-Chlor analysis can be performed on nearly any sample type including groundwater, soil, sediments and Bio-Traps®. Groundwater samples can be submitted using 1 L poly bottles or using Bio-Flo filters (Figure 3). Bio-Flo filters can be readily attached to ¼-inch tubing and are compatible with low-flow purging/sampling pumps. For more detailed information on sample collection, complete protocols are available on the sampling page of the MI website.



Figure 3: Groundwater samples can be collected in 1 L poly bottles or using Bio-Flo filters

5.2 Soil Samples for Magnetic Susceptibility and XRD

Collecting samples for Magnetic Susceptibility and XRD is no more difficult than submitting soil samples for traditional chemical analyses. Below are guidelines and sample volume requirements to follow when collecting samples:

1. Use clean latex (or similar) gloves when collecting and handling samples
2. Fill *four* 4-oz. soil containers per sample. A minimum of 800 grams of soil per sample is required for the abiotic panel.
3. Keep samples cold (~4°C) to minimize changes
 - a. Place samples on ice or freezer packs in a cooler after collection
 - b. As soon as possible (preferably overnight), ship samples to the laboratory
 - c. Include enough ice/freezer packs to ensure that samples remain cold during shipment

For more detailed information on sample collection, complete protocols are available on the sampling page of the MI website.

5.3 Groundwater Samples for Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA)

Collecting groundwater samples for CSIA is very similar to protocols for sample collection for VOCs analysis:

1. Use clean latex (or similar) gloves when collecting and handling samples
2. Submit *four* HCl preserved 40 mL VOA vials per isotope.
3. When filling VOA vials, please leave NO HEADSPACE.
4. Keep samples cold (~4°C) to minimize changes
 - a. Place samples on ice or freezer packs in a cooler after collection
 - b. As soon as possible (preferably overnight), ship samples to the laboratory
 - c. Include enough ice/freezer packs to ensure that samples remain cold during shipment

For more detailed information on sample collection, complete protocols are available on the sampling page of the MI website.

6.0 References

1. Fogel, M. M.; Taddeo, A. R.; Fogel, S., Biodegradation of chlorinated ethenes by a methane-utilizing mixed culture. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1986**, *51*, (4), 720–724.
2. Oldenhuis, R.; Vink, R. L.; Janssen, D. B.; Witholt, B., Degradation of chlorinated aliphatic hydrocarbons by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b expressing soluble methane monooxygenase. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1989**, *55*, (11), 2819–2826.
3. Wilson, J. T.; Wilson, B. H., Biotransformation of trichloroethylene in soil. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1985**, *49*, (1), 242–243.
4. Freedman, D. L.; Herz, S. D., Use of Ethylene and Ethane as Primary Substrates for Aerobic Cometabolism of Vinyl Chloride. *Water Environment Research* **1996**, *68*, (3), 320–328.
5. Koziollek, P.; Bryniok, D.; Knackmuss, H.-J., Ethene as an auxiliary substrate for the cooxidation of cis-1,2-dichloroethene and vinyl chloride. *Archives of Microbiology* **1999**, *172*, (4), 240–246.
6. Fliermans, C. B.; Phelps, T. J.; Ringelberg, D.; Mikell, A. T.; White, D. C., Mineralization of Trichloroethylene by Heterotrophic Enrichment Cultures. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1988**, *54*, (7), 1709–1714.
7. Malachowsky, K. J.; Phelps, T. J.; Teboli, A. B.; Minnikin, D. E.; White, D. C., Aerobic Mineralization of Trichloroethylene, Vinyl Chloride, and Aromatic Compounds by *Rhodococcus* Species. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1994**, *60*, (2), 542–548.
8. Phelps, T. J.; Niedzielski, J. J.; Schram, R. M.; Herbes, S. E.; White, D. C., Biodegradation of Trichloroethylene in Continuous-Recycle Expanded-Bed Bioreactors. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1990**, *56*, (6), 1702–1709.
9. Wackett, L. P.; Brusseau, G. A.; Householder, S. R.; Hanson, R. S., Survey of microbial oxygenases: trichloroethylene degradation by propane-oxidizing bacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1989**, *55*, (11), 2960–2964.
10. Folsom, B. R.; Chapman, P. J.; Pritchard, P. H., Phenol and trichloroethylene degradation by *Pseudomonas cepacia* G4: kinetics and interactions between substrates. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1990**, *56*, (5), 1279–1285.
11. Harker, A. R.; Kim, Y., Trichloroethylene degradation by two independent aromatic-degrading pathways in *Alcaligenes eutrophus* JMP134. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1990**, *56*, (4), 1179–1181.
12. Segar, R. L.; De Wys, S. L.; Speitel, G. E., Sustained Trichloroethylene Cometabolism by Phenol-Degrading Bacteria in Sequencing Biofilm Reactors. *Water Environment Research* **1995**, *67*, (5), 764–774.
13. Nelson, M. J.; Montgomery, S. O.; Pritchard, P. H., Trichloroethylene metabolism by microorganisms that degrade aromatic compounds. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1988**, *54*, (2), 604–606.
14. Wackett, L. P.; Gibson, D. T., Degradation of trichloroethylene by toluene dioxygenase in whole-cell studies with *Pseudomonas putida* F1. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1988**, *54*, (7), 1703–1708.
15. Lee, M. H.; Clingenpeel, S. C.; Leiser, O. P.; Wymore, R. A.; Sorenson, K. S.; Watwood, M. E., Activity-dependent labeling of oxygenase enzymes in a trichloroethene-contaminated groundwater site. *Environmental Pollution* **2008**, *153*, (1), 238–246.
16. Leahy, J. G.; Byrne, A. M.; Olsen, R. H., Comparison of factors influencing trichloroethylene degradation by toluene-oxidizing bacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1996**, *62*, (3), 825–833.

17. McClay, K.; Streger, S. H.; Steffan, R. J., Induction of toluene oxidation activity in *Pseudomonas mendocina* KR1 and *Pseudomonas* sp. strain ENVPC5 by chlorinated solvents and alkanes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1995**, *61*, (9), 3479–81.
18. He, Y.; Su, C.; Wilson, J. T.; Wilkin, R. T.; Adair, C.; Lee, T.; Bradley, P.; Ferrey, M. *Identification and characterization of methods for reactive minerals responsible for natural attenuation of chlorinated organic compounds in ground water*; US EPA: 2009.
19. Lee, W.; Batchelor, B., Abiotic Reductive Dechlorination of Chlorinated Ethylenes by Iron-Bearing Soil Minerals. 1. Pyrite and Magnetite. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2002**, *36*, (23), 5147–5154.
20. Zwank, L.; Elsner, M.; Aeberhard, A.; Schwarzenbach, R. P.; Haderlein, S. B., Carbon Isotope Fractionation in the Reductive Dehalogenation of Carbon Tetrachloride at Iron (Hydr)Oxide and Iron Sulfide Minerals. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2005**, *39*, (15), 5634–5641.
21. Ferrey, M. L.; Wilkin, R. T.; Ford, R. G.; Wilson, J. T., Nonbiological Removal of cis-Dichloroethylene and 1,1-Dichloroethylene in Aquifer Sediment Containing Magnetite. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2004**, *38*, (6), 1746–1752.
22. Jeong, H. Y.; Hayes, K. F., Reductive Dechlorination of Tetrachloroethylene and Trichloroethylene by Mackinawite (FeS) in the Presence of Metals: Reaction Rates. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2007**, *41*, (18), 6390–6396.
23. Devlin, J. F.; Müller, D., Field and Laboratory Studies of Carbon Tetrachloride Transformation in a Sandy Aquifer under Sulfate Reducing Conditions. *Environmental Science & Technology* **1999**, *33*, (7), 1021–1027.
24. Butler, E. C.; Hayes, K. F., Kinetics of the Transformation of Halogenated Aliphatic Compounds by Iron Sulfide. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2000**, *34*, (3), 422–429.
25. Kriegman-King, M. R.; Reinhard, M., Transformation of Carbon Tetrachloride by Pyrite in Aqueous Solution. *Environmental Science & Technology* **1994**, *28*, (4), 692–700.
26. Wilson, J. T.; Wiedemeier, T. H.; Freedman, D. L. Providing Additional Support for MNA by Including Quantitative Lines of Evidence for Abiotic Degradation and Cometabolic Oxidation for Chlorinated Ethylenes. <https://www.serdp-estcp.org/Program-Areas/Environmental-Restoration/Contaminated-Groundwater/Persistent-Contamination/ER-201584/ER-201584>
27. Chang, H. L.; Alvarez-Cohen, L., Biodegradation of individual and multiple chlorinated aliphatic hydrocarbons by methane-oxidizing cultures. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1996**, *62*, (9), 3371–7.
28. Colby, J.; Stirling, D. I.; Dalton, H., The soluble methane mono-oxygenase of *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath). Its ability to oxygenate n-alkanes, n-alkenes, ethers, and alicyclic, aromatic and heterocyclic compounds. *Biochemical Journal* **1977**, *165*, (2), 395–402.
29. van Hylckama Vlieg, J. E. T.; de Koning, W.; Janssen, D. B., Transformation Kinetics of Chlorinated Ethenes by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b and Detection of Unstable Epoxides by On-Line Gas Chromatography. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1996**, *62*, (9), 3304–12.
30. Oldenhuis, R.; Oedzes, J. Y.; van der Waarde, J. J.; Janssen, D. B., Kinetics of chlorinated hydrocarbon degradation by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b and toxicity of trichloroethylene. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **1991**, *57*, (1), 7–14.
31. Byrne, A. M.; Olsen, R. H., Cascade regulation of the toluene-3-monoxygenase operon (*tbuA1UBVA2C*) of *Burkholderia pickettii* PKO1: role of the *tbuA1* promoter (PtbuA1) in the expression of its cognate activator, TbuT. *Journal of Bacteriology* **1996**, *178*, (21), 6327–37.
32. Yeager, C. M.; Arthur, K. M.; Bottomley, P. J.; Arp, D. J., Trichloroethylene Degradation by Toluene-Oxidizing Bacteria Grown on Non-aromatic Substrates. *Biodegradation* **2004**, *15*, (1), 19–28.

33. Futamata, H.; Harayama, S.; Watanabe, K., Group-Specific Monitoring of Phenol Hydroxylase Genes for a Functional Assessment of Phenol-Stimulated Trichloroethylene Bioremediation. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **2001**, *67*, (10), 4671–4677.
34. Newman, L. M.; Wackett, L. P., Trichloroethylene oxidation by purified toluene 2-monooxygenase: products, kinetics, and turnover-dependent inactivation. *Journal of Bacteriology* **1997**, *179*, (1), 90–6.
35. Coleman, N. V.; Spain, J. C., Epoxyalkane:Coenzyme M Transferase in the Ethene and Vinyl Chloride Biodegradation Pathways of *Mycobacterium* Strain JS60. *Journal of Bacteriology* **2003**, *185*, (18), 5536–5545.
36. Wiedemeier, T. H.; Wilson, B. H.; Ferrey, M. L.; Wilson, J. T., Efficacy of an In-Well Sonde to Determine Magnetic Susceptibility of Aquifer Sediment. *Groundwater Monitoring & Remediation* **2017**, *37*, (2), 25–34.
37. Liang, X.; Paul Philp, R.; Butler, E. C., Kinetic and isotope analyses of tetrachloroethylene and trichloroethylene degradation by model Fe(II)-bearing minerals. *Chemosphere* **2009**, *75*, (1), 63–69.
38. Barth, J. A. C.; Slater, G.; Schüth, C.; Bill, M.; Downey, A.; Larkin, M.; Kalin, R. M., Carbon Isotope Fractionation during Aerobic Biodegradation of Trichloroethene by *Burkholderia cepacia* G4: a Tool To Map Degradation Mechanisms. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **2002**, *68*, (4), 1728–1734.
39. Chu, K.-H.; Mahendra, S.; Song, D. L.; Conrad, M. E.; Alvarez-Cohen, L., Stable Carbon Isotope Fractionation during Aerobic Biodegradation of Chlorinated Ethenes. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2004**, *38*, (11), 3126–3130.
40. Mills, J. C.; Wilson, J. T.; Wilson, B. H.; Wiedemeier, T. H.; Freedman, D. L., Quantification of TCE Co-Oxidation in Groundwater Using a ¹⁴C-Assay. *Groundwater Monitoring & Remediation* **2018**, *38*, (2), 57–67.