

Diversity and mechanisms of arsenic resistance among soil bacteria impacted by the ongoing Centralia coal mine fire

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Originality-Significance Statement. In this work, we examine As resistant bacterial isolates from the surface soils of an underground coal mine fire in Centralia, PA. Characterization of these isolates reveals prevalence of As resistance mechanisms that increase the solubility of arsenic in the environment (arsenate reduction and arsenite extrusion) and evidence for horizontal gene transfer of the gene conferring arsenate reductase, *arsC*. Observations of growth

phenotype in increasing concentrations suggest modest relationship between fitness in As and taxonomy rather than minimum inhibitory concentration or resistance genotype.

SUMMARY

We examined diversity and mechanisms of microbial arsenic resistance in Centralia, PA, the site of an underground coal seam fire burning since 1962. From hot soil collected from an active vent, we isolated 25 unique arsenic resistant bacteria spanning six genera. Although arsenic concentrations were measured to be relatively low at the time of soil collection, isolates grew with high concentrations of arsenate and arsenite (>300 mM and 20 mM respectively). Among these isolates, we found genes for arsenate reduction and arsenite efflux but not methylation or oxidation. Additionally, we observed evidence for horizontal gene transfer of the arsenate reductase gene *arsC*. Several isolates did not test positive for any of the resistance mechanisms tested, suggesting novelty, untargeted diversity, or nonspecific mechanisms of resistance. Finally, we found that comparisons of isolate growth phenotypes across arsenic concentrations provided insights into cellular responses to arsenic. We suggest that chronic exposures to low arsenic may promote mechanisms that increase environmental solubility and enhance local toxicity (e.g., reduction, arsenite efflux), while intense exposure to arsenic may promote mechanisms that reduce environmental solubility (e.g., oxidation). Thus, disturbance intensity and duration, as well as transferability of the stress response gene(s), together inform microbial community robustness to arsenic and the fate of arsenic in the environment.

INTRODUCTION

Arsenic (As), a toxic metalloid, is naturally present in the soil, but levels are generally low (<10 ppm) (Han *et al.*, 2003); however, anthropogenic activities, including applying As-containing pesticides, burning fossil fuels, and mining, can greatly increase environmental As concentrations (Wang *et al.*, 2014). Because of the ubiquity of As and its toxicity, biogeochemical cycling of As has important implications for environmental health. The elemental nature of As precludes it from degradation, but its toxicity and mobility can change depending on its oxidation state with arsenate (As^{5+}) being less soluble and less toxic than arsenite (As^{3+}) (Bahar *et al.*, 2013). Bacteria have been shown to oxidize, reduce, methylate, and demethylate As (Mukhopadhyay *et al.*, 2002); thus, environmental bacteria are considered important constituents of As's biogeochemical cycling as the presence and transfer of the genes encoding these activities affect the solubility of As.

As resistance genes are located on chromosomes, plasmids, or both (Andres and Bertin, 2016). Several studies indicate that horizontal gene transfer (HGT) has occurred with As resistance genes (Achour *et al.*, 2007; Cavalca *et al.*, 2010; Villegas-Torres *et al.*, 2011; Jia *et al.*, 2013; Heinrich-Salmeron *et al.*, 2011; Jackson and Dugas, 2003). HGT of the gene encoding arsenate efflux pump (*arsB*) has been seen in environments with low As concentrations (Cai *et al.*, 2009). Stressors aside from As may influence transfer of these resistance genes because HGT rates are expected to increase with disturbance, such as increased temperature and pollution (Aminov, 2011; Williams *et al.*, 1996). Studies that consider compounded stressors may help to determine which genes and corresponding mechanisms are transferred in different environments and thus improve risk assessment and bioremediation.

Underground coal mine fires act as a long-term disturbance and expose soil microbial communities to increased temperatures as well as coal combustion products. As is naturally present in coal. Coal seam fires are ecologically interesting due to their longevity and effect on environmental chemistry (Janzen and Tobin-Janzen, 2008). Soil surface temperatures above coal mine fire-affected areas range from 21-800°C (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). Steam from these fires emits gases including CO, CO₂, and NH₄ (Melody and Johnston, 2015; Janzen and Tobin-Janzen, 2008; Elick, 2011). In addition to lead, zinc, mercury, and copper, As is found surrounding active vents (steam escaping) of underground coal fires (Pone *et al.*, 2007). The underground coal mine fire in Centralia, PA ignited in 1962 and has been burning ever since. The soil microbial communities overlying the underground fire experience a multitude of fire-related stressors, which may influence resistance phenotypes and their gene transfer. Our overarching objective in this study was to characterize As resistance among bacterial isolates from an active vent in Centralia, PA to assess the diversity of As resistance mechanisms and the diversity of microorganisms harboring these mechanisms. We aimed to gain ecological insights into the mechanisms and inter-species transfer of As resistance, using the Centralia ecosystem as a model stressor. We isolated 25 unique As resistant bacteria, even though chemical analysis revealed comparably low soil As concentrations. Isolate characterization results show novelty and HGT of As resistance genes in Centralia and support the widespread reduction of arsenate in low contamination environments.

RESULTS

Diversity of isolate collection

As resistant isolates from soil near an active vent of the Centralia coal seam fire spanned six genera, including *Acinetobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Enterobacter*, *Microbacterium*, *Olivibacter*, and *Paenibacillus* (**Fig. 1; Table S1**). The colony morphologies of the isolates aligned with expectations from 16S rRNA gene classification, and all isolates showed growth in 24 h at or above 39°C (**Table S1**). This cultivation resulted in an abundance of Firmicutes (48% of isolates).

Molecular characterization of As resistance

As resistance genotypes of the isolates were characterized using endpoint polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with a collection of published primers (**Table S2**) specific for genes conferring resistance via diverse mechanisms, including arsenate reduction, arsenite oxidation, methylation, and arsenite efflux (**Fig. 2A**). Eleven isolates (44%) tested positive for the gene encoding the arsenite efflux pump, *arsB*. Over half of these isolates belong to the genus *Enterobacter*. Three isolates (12%) tested positive for the gene encoding arsenite efflux pump, *ACR3(2)*. Twelve isolates (48%) tested positive for the arsenate reductase gene, *arsC*, and isolate A2727, a *Pseudomonas spp.*, tested positive for the gene encoding arsenate respiratory reductase, *arrA*. No isolates tested positive for genes encoding other resistance mechanisms including arsenite oxidase (*aoxB*), arsenite efflux pump (*ACR3(1)*), or arsenite methyltransferase (*arsM*). Thus, only mechanisms related to arsenate reduction and arsenite extrusion were found among these Centralia isolates. Notably, four isolates (16%) did not test positive for any As resistance genes tested using published primers, suggesting either undescribed resistance genes or sequence diversity not captured with these primer sets.

Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) and growth phenotypes in As

In parallel to characterization of molecular mechanisms of As resistance, we determined the MICs of arsenate and arsenite for each isolate (**Fig. 2BC**). MIC phenotypes ranged from 50 mM to >300 mM for sodium arsenate and from 3 to 20 mM for sodium arsenite. Both *Pseudomonas* isolates could withstand >300 mM sodium arsenate, which is typical for previously reported pseudomonads resistant to As (Drewniak *et al.*, 2008; Das *et. al.*, 2014). High sodium arsenate resistance (>200 mM) (Jackson *et al.*, 2005) was observed in 20% of the isolates. High sodium arsenite resistance (>15 mM) (Drewniak *et al.*, 2008) was observed in 16% of the isolates, all of which belong to phylum Firmicutes. Isolates that tested positive for *ACR3(2)* had the highest MICs for sodium arsenate. There were no other observed relationships between genotype and MIC.

We also analyzed growth phenotypes (lag time, maximum growth rate, and maximum OD₅₉₀) in As, and our results highlight a relationship between growth in As and taxonomy rather than observed MICs (**Fig. 3; Fig. S1; Fig. S2**). Maximum growth rate (μ) and maximum OD₅₉₀ (A) showed similar patterns in each isolate, so we only report μ here and provide A in supporting materials (**Fig. S2**). In general, relative growth phenotypes were similar between arsenate and arsenite. Firmicutes maintain basal growth rates in the presence of As. Although *Paenibacillus* had the lowest MICs, isolates from this genus showed the least overall growth phenotype change in As. *Bacillus*, however, exhibit larger increases in lag time (λ) compared with *Paenibacillus*. Conversely, the *Olivibacter* isolate showed slight increase in lag time along with more severe reductions in growth rate. Members of *Enterobacter* show large reductions in growth rate as well as increased lag time with increasing As concentrations despite their high MICs. *Pseudomonas*,

Microbacterium, and *Acinetobacter* have comparatively moderate phenotypes in both arsenate and arsenite.

As transformation

We determined the abilities of isolates to transform arsenate and arsenite using a semiquantitative measure of percent As transformation (Simeonova *et al.*, 2004). No isolates oxidized arsenite in this assay (data not shown). By contrast, we observed a wide range of capabilities for arsenate reduction that generally corresponded to isolate taxonomy. Isolates belonging to genera *Olivibacter*, *Paenibacillus*, and *Pseudomonas* did not reduce arsenate (**Fig. 2D**). All isolates belonging to the genus *Enterobacter* had transformation capabilities at or above 50%. Isolates belonging to *Bacillus* had varied arsenate reduction capabilities ranging from 0-90%. The *Microbacterium* isolate (I2748) reduced 10-25% of arsenate in solution, and *Acinetobacter* isolates reduced 0-10% of arsenate. While eight isolates (32%) shown to reduce arsenate *in vitro* tested positive for *arsC*, there were discrepancies between the *in vitro* and molecular data. Sequences of *arsC* from three isolates (A2723, A2733, A2735) encode early stop codons. Five isolates (20%) tested positive for *arsC* but were not shown to reduce arsenate in this assay,; however, the *arsC* sequence in isolate I2747 encodes an early stop codon. Nine isolates (36%) were shown to reduce arsenate but did not test positive for the genes encoding arsenate reductases (*arsC* or *arrA*).

Incongruent phylogenies of arsC and 16S rRNA

Comparing the *arsC* and 16S rRNA phylogenetic trees reveals inconsistencies between gene sequence and phylogeny (**Fig. 4**). All *arsC* sequences from the isolates are most closely related to *arsC* sequences from *Bacillus* strains. Eight isolates spanning three genera (*Bacillus*,

Paenibacillus, and *Enterobacter*) had high sequence homology to *Bacillus*-derived *arsC*, suggesting HGT.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we describe a collection of As resistant bacteria isolated from the hot soils overlying an underground coal mine fire in Centralia, PA. We later determined that, despite the fire activity at this particular site, the soil had relatively low As concentrations at the time of soil collection (2.58 ppm). Our characterization of these isolates revealed that they had high resistance to both arsenate and arsenite and suggests that arsenate reduction and arsenite extrusion are prevalent among these soil bacteria. We also find that quantifying isolate growth parameters across increasing As concentrations better informs nuanced resistance responses compared with MICs, allowing us to discriminate resistances manifested as differences in lag time to exponential growth, maximum density (OD), or exponential growth rate. Finally, phylogenetic inconsistency of the genes encoding arsenate reductase (*arsC*) in these isolates suggests horizontal gene transfer at the site and the spread of arsenate reduction as a resistance mechanism.

We observe multiple discrepancies between molecular and functional assays when characterizing the isolates' As resistance. Despite using twelve primer sets to screen for As resistance genes, three isolates with relatively high MICs did not test positive for any As resistance genes screened in this study, highlighting a caveat of using primers for detection that has been reported previously (Achour *et al.*, 2007; Cavalca *et al.*, 2010). Similarly, we find no correlation between As resistance genotype and MIC in this isolate collection, which was also reported in Achour and colleagues (2007). Furthermore, we observe inconsistencies between molecular results and

arsenate transformation capabilities, suggesting either divergent gene sequences or novel reduction mechanisms (Sarkar *et al.*, 2013). We expect that a wider breadth of As resistance gene diversity and novel gene discovery could be captured using cultivation-independent methods, which are our next steps in this line of research.

We found that growth phenotypes in As provided richer context for resistance than MICs. Our results are consistent with previous reports that Proteobacteria often have high MICs (**Fig. 2B**) (Cavalca *et al.*, 2010; Cai *et al.*, 2009); however, when simultaneously analyzing reductions in growth with As, our results show distinct growth strategies among lineages, in both arsenate and arsenite (**Fig. 3**). Though other reports have examined growth reduction in the presence of As to find suitable strains for bioremediation (Banerjee *et al.*, 2011; Pepi *et al.*, 2007), a suite of growth parameters are not typically investigated. Our full characterization of growth in increasing concentrations of As showed a modest relationship between resistance phenotype and taxonomy and highlights discrepancies between fitness in As and MIC. This phylogenetic relationship of growth phenotypes may be attributed to more transient and nonspecific mechanisms of resistance, such as cell envelope permeability to As, oxidative stress response, and regulation of heat shock proteins (Andres and Bertin, 2016; Parvatiyar *et al.*, 2005). Accounting for these transient tolerance mechanisms may explain some of the discrepancies between MIC and As resistance genotype (Achour *et al.* 2007) and between MIC and isolate abundance in contaminated sites (Valverde *et al.*, 2011). Valverde and colleagues (2011) observed an increase in Firmicutes with increasing As concentrations despite their lower MICs *in vitro*. Our findings suggest that Firmicutes, in general, have less extreme growth phenotypes in

As. Generally, this result questions the accuracy of MICs in predicting the success of an organism in the presence of As.

Microbial arsenate reduction and the transfer of associated functional genes is an important environmental health concern because these processes increase the solubility of environmental As (Bahar *et al.*, 2013). Incongruence between the phylogenetic alignment of *arsC* and the 16S rRNA gene within this isolate collection supports horizontal transfer of genes involved in the reduction of arsenate (**Fig. 4**). Determining the location (chromosomes or plasmids) of and the sequences surrounding these resistance genes would provide insights into mechanisms of transfer. Notably, all *arsC* sequences from this study are most closely related to those of the *Bacillus* lineage, suggesting that the gene originally derived from a *Bacillus*. This suggests that *Bacillus* are contributing to the spread of arsenate reduction in Centralia and may therefore contribute to community robustness against As stressors.

While our isolate collection was not intended to be an exhaustive view of As resistant microorganisms in Centralia, we isolated a relatively large number of As resistant bacteria (25) (**Fig. 1**) as compared to other studies isolating from conditions with low As contamination (<13 ppm) (Jackson *et al.*, 2005; Macur *et al.*, 2004; Achour *et al.*, 2007). This result suggests either an ongoing selection pressure for As resistance in Centralia, potentially due to historical fluctuations in soil As concentrations from the fire, or a general ubiquity of environmental As resistance, which have both been suggested previously (Jackson *et al.*, 2005; Achour *et al.*, 2007, Cavalca *et al.*, 2010). Compounded stressors from the fire may also indirectly increase As resistance. As resistance due to site-specific stressors in Centralia is supported by the sizable number of As resistant isolates of the *Bacillus* lineage rather than *Pseudomonas*, which is

unusual for As resistant isolate collections (Das et al., 2014; Chang *et al.*, 2010; Banerjee *et al.*, 2011; Chang *et al.*, 2008; Drewniak *et al.*, 2008; Jackson *et al.*, 2005; Macur *et al.*, 2004; Achour *et al.*, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Cai *et al.*, 2009). While cultivation bias is present in every study and freezing soil at -80°C prior to cultivation may have influenced our ability to resuscitate some strains (Nelson and Parkinson, 1978), both *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* grow using our cultivation conditions (TSA50 at 27°C). The observed low representation of pseudomonads in Centralia is likely due to the high soil temperature, which is outside of their typical growth range (Warth, 1978; Tsuji *et al.*, 1982). Additionally, a study on bacterial diversity at the site of an underground coal mine fire in China found an abundance of Firmicutes (69.41% of total diversity), especially *Bacillus* and *Paenibacillus* (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). This suggests that Firmicutes may generally be more prominent in coal mine fire-affected soils and contribute to community robustness with their resistance to compounded stressors such as heat and As.

Our results have important implications for both environmental As mobility and the study of As resistance. We suspect that environmental microbial As resistance is underestimated due to an emphasis on high MICs that are generally above environmental concentrations (Sarkar *et al.* 2010), as well as an emphasis on specialized resistance mechanisms rather than generalized stress responses to As. Only genes conferring mechanisms of arsenate reduction and arsenite extrusion were found in Centralia isolates, adding to the growing body of literature reporting an abundance of arsenate reduction genes in sites with low-As concentrations (Cai *et al.*, 2013; Xiao *et al.*, 2016). While arsenite oxidases are generally found in sites with high contamination (Cai *et al.* 2009; Sarkar *et al.* 2013; Drewniak *et al.* 2012), arsenate reductases and arsenite efflux pumps are generally found in sites with low contamination (Cai *et al.*, 2013; Xiao *et al.*, 2016). For

example, Inskeep and colleagues (2007) repeatedly isolated arsenite oxidase *aroA* in contaminated but not in pristine soils. Also, the presence of *aroA* was greatest in sites with long-term As contamination such as a geothermal spring rather than an orchard with As-containing pesticides (Inskeep *et al.* 2007), suggesting that both intensity and duration of As contamination impact the ratios and abundance of microbial As resistance mechanisms. Thus, microorganisms in As-free soils may respond to new As deposition by transferring available As resistance genes, especially widespread *ars* genes (Cai *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, we posit that the environmental fate of As due to microbial metabolism depends on both the intensity and duration of the stressor. If this hypothesis is supported, investigation of chronic and low-exposure environmental As contamination could improve understanding of the microbial ecology of low-exposure sites and inform and bioremediation efforts.

This case study of As resistance isolates in *Centralia* suggests a capacity of soil microbial communities for robustness in the face of varied and unanticipated environmental disturbances. When specialized stress responses have potential for transfer to other members, they have the capacity to foster widespread community resistance to particular stressors and to promote overall community robustness. This observation has implications not only for environmental As mobilization and bioremediation but also for mechanisms supporting general microbial community robustness. Thus, the characteristics of the disturbance (intensity and duration of stressor) and the nature of microbial stress response (specialized versus general, and transferable versus fixed) both should be considered to understand the ultimate robustness of a microbial community.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Soil Collection and Site Description

A soil surface core (20 cm depth and 5.1 cm diameter) was collected in October 2014 from an active vent (steam escaping) in Centralia, Pennsylvania. This vent was selected because it has had historical fire activity since at least 2007 (Elick, 2011) and was the hottest detected at the time of sampling with a measured surface temperature (10 cm depth) of 57.4°C (ambient air temperature was measured to be 13.3°C). Detailed soil geochemical data was assayed by the Michigan State University Soil and Plant Nutrient Laboratory (East Lansing, MI, USA, <http://www.spnl.msu.edu/>) according to their standard protocols, and total As was measured by Element Materials Technology using the Environmental Protection Agency's method 3050B for sample preparation and ICP-MS (**Table S3**). Upon sampling, the soil was kept on ice until transport to the lab where it was manually homogenized, sieved through 4 mm mesh, and stored at -80°C until further processing.

Cultivation-dependent soil bacterial community growth

Five grams of soil was removed from -80°C and kept at 4°C for 48 h. The soil was warmed to room temperature for 1 h and then suspended in 25 mL of sterile Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (ThermoFisher; dPBS), vortexed for 2 min, and allowed to settle for 2 min. The supernatant was plated onto 50% tryptic soy agar (Becton Dickinson and Company; TSA50) with 200 µg/mL of cycloheximide added to inhibit fungal growth. Plates were incubated at 27°C for 24 h. To obtain a culture-dependent bacterial community representative of these growth conditions, overgrown plates were scraped to make a 25% glycerol stock and stored at -80°C for future assays.

Isolation of As Resistant Bacteria

Twenty mL of trypticase soy broth (TSB50) was inoculated with the bacterial community glycerol stock and grown for 6 h with shaking at 200 rpm and 12 mm amplitude. As was not included in the medium to avoid transfer of As resistance genes. The culture was plated onto TSA50 with either 10 mM Na_2HAsO_4 or 1 mM NaAsO_2 to screen for arsenate or arsenite resistant colonies, respectively. Ninety-four total colonies (35 from sodium arsenate; 59 from sodium arsenite) were streaked to purity (3x) on their respective media type; 69 pure isolates were recovered and made into 25% glycerol stocks for long term storage at -80°C . From these pure cultures, 25 distinct isolates were identified by genotype with 16S rRNA gene sequencing and by phenotype using MIC assays.

Morphological characterization and temperature maxima

Overnight cultures of isolates grown in 3 mL TSB50 were examined using a Nikon E800 Eclipse microscope. Cell morphology was visualized using a photometrics CoolSnap MYO microscope camera (Tuscan, AZ, USA) and Micromanager 4.22 (Edelstein *et al.*, 2014) was used for image acquisition. Cell size was measured using Fiji image analysis software (Schindelin *et al.*, 2012). Colony morphology on TSA50 plates was imaged after incubation at 27°C for 24 h. To measure growth temperature maxima, isolates (2% culture in fresh TSB50) were incubated in a T100 Thermo Cycler (BioRad) for 24 h with a thermal gradient ($32\text{--}52^\circ\text{C}$). Optical density at 590 nm (OD_{590}) was measured using an Infinite F500 plate reader (Tecan). The maximum temperature for growth was determined as the highest temperature with an increase in OD_{590} from background. This process was repeated for a minimum of two biological replicates per isolate.

Endpoint PCR and Amplicon Sequencing

Freezer stocks of isolates were inoculated into 3 mL TSB50 and shaken at 27°C at 200 rpm with a 12 mm amplitude until turbid. Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted using the E.Z.N.A. Bacterial DNA Kit (Omega Bio-Tek) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Isolated gDNA was quantified with fluorometry using the Qubit dsDNA broad range (BR) assay kit (Invitrogen) and a Qubit 2.0 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was stored in sterile Tris-EDTA buffer (Sigma; pH 8) at -20°C.

The near full length 16S rRNA gene was amplified for each isolate using the universal primer pairs Uni-27F and Uni-1492R (**Table S2**). All primers used in this study were desalted and HPLC purified (IDP). PCR amplification of 16S rRNA was carried out in a T100 Thermo Cycler (BioRad) using 25 µL total volume including 30 ng genomic DNA, 0.4 µM of each primer, 0.8 mM dNTPs (Sigma), 2.5 µL 10X Pfu Buffer (Promega), 2X high fidelity Pfu DNA Polymerase (Promega), and nuclease free water to a final volume of 25 µL. The 16S rRNA PCR reaction cycle included a 2 min initial denaturation at 95°C, 30 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 1 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were run on a 1% agarose gel for 45 min at 700 mV. The PCR product of 1.4 kb from the 16S rRNA gene was gel extracted using the Wizard SV Gel and PCR Clean Up System (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Gel extraction products were quantified as before. Purified 16S rRNA amplicons were sequenced using the ABI Prism BigDye Terminator Version 3.1 Cycle sequencing kit by the Michigan State University Genomics Core Research Technology Support Facility (<https://rtsf.natsci.msu.edu/genomics/>). Forward and reverse 16S rRNA sequences were aligned using CAP3 (v. 3.0, Huang *et al.*, 1999) to obtain near full length 16S rRNA sequences, except for isolates A2707, A2723, and A2735 which could

not be sequenced using the 1492R primers. For these three isolates, primer U515F (Baker *et al.*, 2003) was used to obtain a near-full length 16S rRNA sequence. Sequences were assigned taxonomy using both the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) 16S rRNA database (v. 2.10, Wang *et al.*, 2007) and the EzTaxon server (Kim *et al.*, 2012).

Isolates were screened for the following As resistance genes: *arsB*, *ACR3(1)*, *ACR3(2)*, *arsC*, *arrA*, *aoxB*, and *arsM* using published primers that were chosen because of their continued use in the literature (**Table S2**). All PCRs were carried out with published reaction conditions in a T100 Thermo Cycler (BioRad). All *arsC* amplicons were gel extracted and sequenced as described above. At least one forward and one reverse *arsC* sequence was merged in CodonCodeAligner (v. 6.0.2, Codon Code Corporation) to create *arsC* contigs.

Phylogenetic Analysis

To compare the 16S rRNA phylogenetic diversity of *Centralia* As resistant isolates to previous reports, existing literature was used to curate 55 16S rRNA sequences (> 700 bps) from other studies that also confirmed their As resistance in the isolates by selection on As-containing media. Closest 16S rRNA gene relatives deposited at the NCBI (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) were also included in the analysis. Sequences were aligned using the RDP aligner (Cole *et al.*, 2014). RDP characters were removed from aligned sequences using BioEdit (v. 7.2.5, Hall, 1999). All trees were made with MEGA7.0 (Kumar *et al.*, 2016) and constructed with the Neighbor-joining algorithm using the Kimura 2 parameter model with 1000 bootstrap replications.

To examine the phylogeny of *arsC* sequences, sequences of *arsC* from the isolates were compared with related chromosomal *arsC* sequences deposited at the NCBI along with their corresponding 16S rRNA gene sequences. The *arsC* sequences from 16S rRNA relatives were found by searching chromosomes deposited at the NCBI, and closest NCBI matches for *arsC* were determined using BLAST. A corresponding 16S rRNA tree was made using *arsC* sequences from the isolates and their phylogenetic relatives.

MICs of Arsenate and Arsenite

To determine the MICs of arsenate and arsenite as well as their growth phenotypes, isolates were inoculated from 25% glycerol stocks into 3 mL TSB50 and incubated with shaking at 200 rpm with a 12 mm amplitude at 27°C for 6 h. Inocula were added to a 96-well plate with As-containing TSB50 to make a 1% solution. Concentrations tested include 0, 10, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, and 300 mM sodium arsenate and 0, 1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, and 20 mM sodium arsenite. Plates were shaken continuously at 288 rpm with a 3 mm amplitude in an Infinite500 plate reader (Tecan) for 72 h at $27 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$. OD₅₉₀ was measured every 15 min. Growth experiments were repeated with at least two biological replicates for each isolate, and growth curves for further analysis were made using technical triplicates.

The R environment for statistical computing (R Core Development Team, 2015) was used to plot growth curves and analyze key features of growth inhibition across the range of arsenate and arsenite concentrations tested using a modified script (<http://bconnelly.net/2014/04/analyzing-microbial-growth-with-r/>). Using the GroFit package (Kahm *et al.*, 2010), splining was used to extract growth parameters including time to exponential growth, maximum growth rate, and

maximum OD₅₉₀. When splining was not appropriate (e.g. curves do not have a smooth fit), parameters were estimated parametrically using either Logistic, Gompertz, or Richards models informed by their Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1973). Parameters for each isolate in TSB50 containing As were normalized to As-free controls. All R scripts are freely available on GitHub (https://github.com/ShadeLab/Arsenic_Growth_Analysis/tree/master/R_scripts).

As Transformation Capabilities

The ability of the isolates to reduce arsenate or oxidize arsenite was measured using a modified silver nitrate colorimetric assay as described previously (Simeonova *et al.*, 2004). 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.3) was used as a reaction buffer instead of 0.2 M, and 1.33 mM sodium arsenate or sodium arsenite was used instead of 0.67 mM. Cells were inoculated in 3 mL TSB50 and incubated at 27°C for 15 h before plating. Cells were washed as indicated in Simeonova *et al.* (2004), and 20 µL of the washed cell suspension was incubated with 80 µL of 0.1 M Tris-HCl and 1.33 mM for 72 h at 27°C. Two standard curves with different ratios of sodium arsenate and sodium arsenite (0:1, 1:10, 1:4, 1:1) were also included alongside the cells. Cell viability was tested by patching onto fresh TSA50 plates after 72 h. After the silver nitrate reaction was initiated, plate photographs were taken, and colorimetric changes were assessed. This protocol was performed with at least two biological replicates plated in duplicate.

Table and Figure legends

Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA sequences from *Centralia* As resistant isolates. Isolates from this study were compared with isolates from other studies that cultivated As resistant isolates from soil. **A)** Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, and Sphingobacteria. Scale bar of 0.05

indicates a 5% difference in nucleotide sequence. **B)** Firmicutes. Scale bar of 0.01 indicates a 1% difference in nucleotide sequence.

Figure 2. As resistance genotypes and phenotypes of isolated bacterial strains. **A)** Presence of As resistance genes from end-point PCR are indicated (+). **B)** MICs of sodium arsenate and arsenite. **C)** Percent range arsenate reduced.

Figure 3. Growth phenotypes of isolates in increasing concentrations of As. Lag time (λ) and maximum growth rate (μ) of isolates in TSB50 with increasing concentrations of **A)** arsenate and **B)** arsenite normalized to growth without As.

Figure 4. Comparison of *arsC* and 16S rRNA gene sequences from As resistant isolates. **A)** A neighbor joining tree of 16S rRNA gene sequences. Scale bar of 0.02 indicates a 2% difference in nucleotide sequence. **B)** A neighbor joining tree of corresponding *arsC* sequences from isolates from this study. Scale bar of 0.01 indicates a 1% difference in nucleotide sequence. Color indicates isolate genus. Bootstrap values greater than 50% are indicated at the corresponding node, and color refers to genus.

Accession numbers

16S rRNA and *arsC* sequences can be found in NCBI with the following accession numbers: KX825887-KX825911 for 16S rRNA and ###-### for *arsC*.

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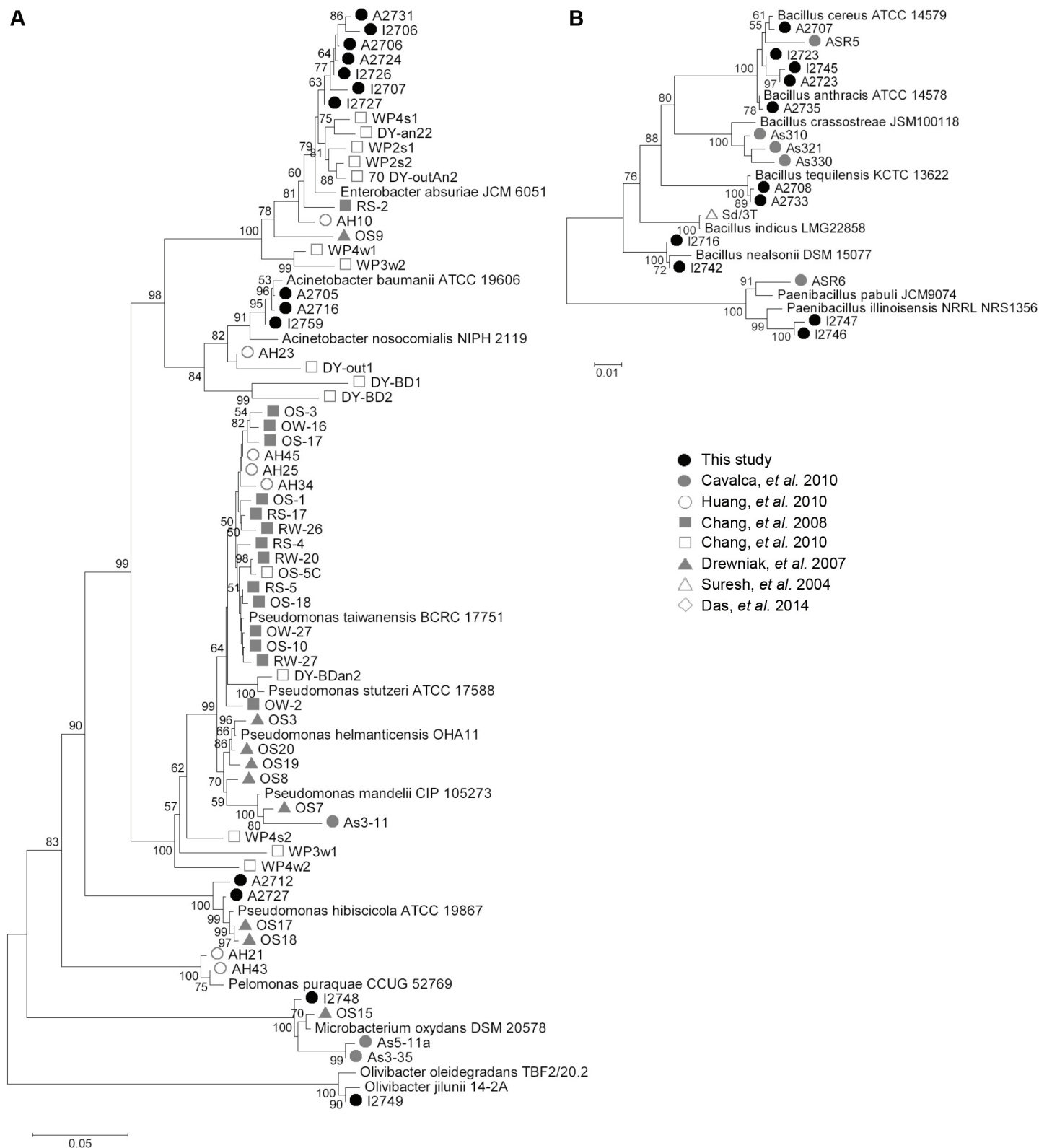


Figure 2

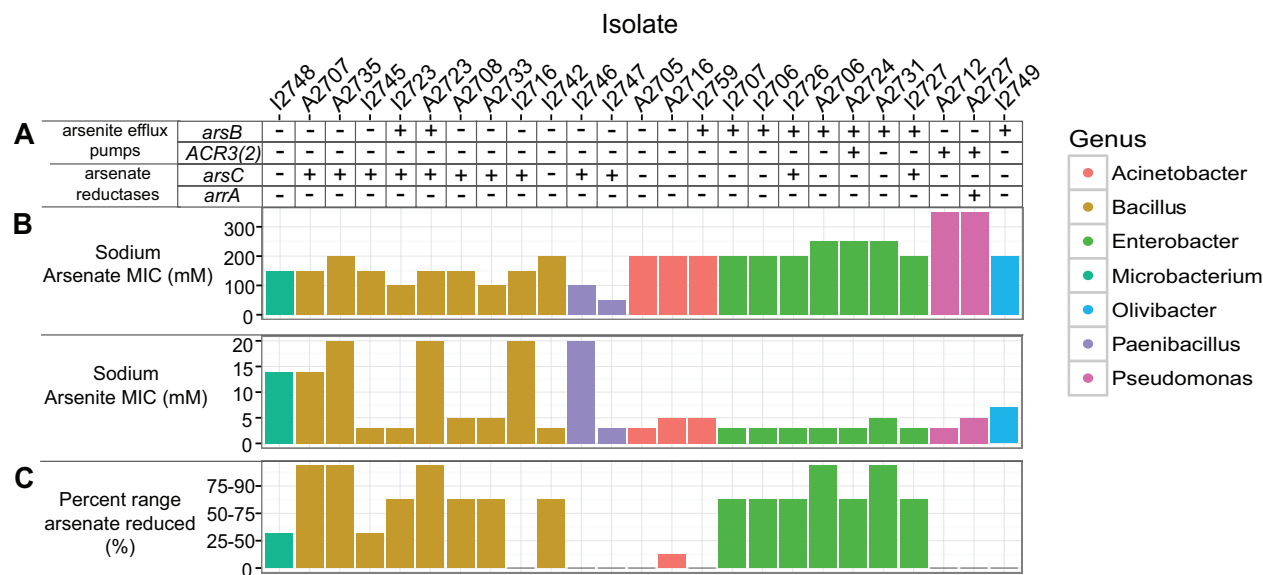
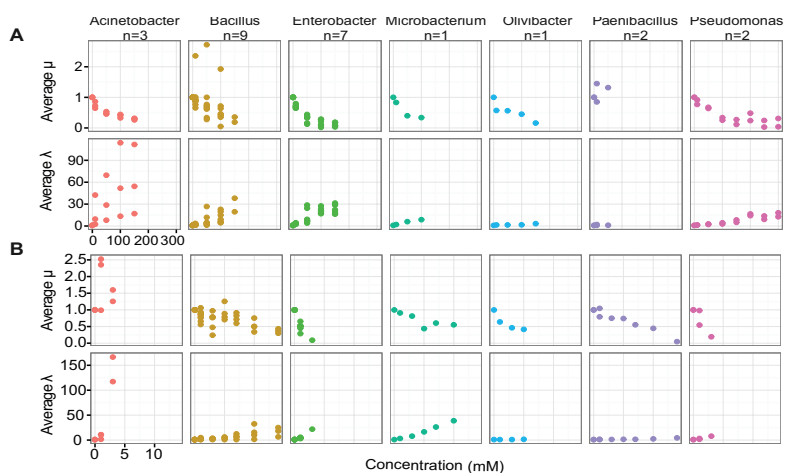


Figure 3





Supplementary Table 1. Phenotypes of arsenic resistant isolates.

Isolate	Closest 16S rRNA gene sequence described (% similarity)	Colony Morphology	Temperature Maximum (°C)	Length (µm)	Width (µm)
I2706	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.43%)		44.3	1.43	1.21
I2707	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.35%)		44.3	1.34	1.16
I2716	<i>Bacillus nealsonii</i> DSM 150-7577 (99.49%)		44.3	4.63	1.16
I2723	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> ATT 14578 (100%)		44.3	4.46	1.36
I2726	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.5%)		44.3	2.37	1.45
I2727	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.56%)		44.3	2.89	1.05
I2742	<i>Bacillus nealsonii</i> DSM 150-7577 (99.49%)		44.3	2.60	0.85
I2745	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> ATT 14578 (99.86%)		44.3	4.11	0.90
I2746	<i>Paenibacillus xylanilytius</i> XIL14 (98.63%)		44.3	1.68	1.46
I2747	<i>Paenibacillus xylanilytius</i> XIL14 (98.58%)		39.7	3.96	1.12
I2748	<i>Mirobacterium paraoxydans</i> F36 (99.85%)		47.7	1.19	1.14
I2749	<i>Olivibacter oleidegrans</i> TBF2/20.2 (99.42%)		44.3	1.58	1.23
I2759	<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> AT 19606 (99.78%)		44.3	1.20	1.16
A2705	<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> AT 19606 (99.64%)		44.3	1.25	1.19
A2706	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.50%)		44.3	2.07	1.10
A2707	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> ATT 14578 (100%)		44.3	3.83	0.91
A2708	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> subsp. <i>inoquosorum</i> KT 13429 (99.93%)		52.0	3.26	0.90
A2712	<i>Pseudomonas hibisicola</i> AT 19867 (99.36%)		39.7	2.01	1.01
A2716	<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> AT 19606 (99.78%)		44.3	1.12	0.96
A2723	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> ATT 14578 (99.73%)		44.3	3.20	1.64
A2724	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.57%)		44.3	1.19	1.09
A2727	<i>Pseudomonas geniculata</i> AT 19374 (99.78%)		39.7	1.23	0.79
A2731	<i>Enterobacter absuriae</i> JM 6051 (99.49%)		44.3	1.18	1.15
A2733	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> subsp. <i>inoquosorum</i> KT 13429 (99.93%)		52.0	3.61	0.91
A2735	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> ATT 14578 (99.85%)		44.3	4.30	2.04

Supplementary Table 2. Degenerate primers used for end point PCR.

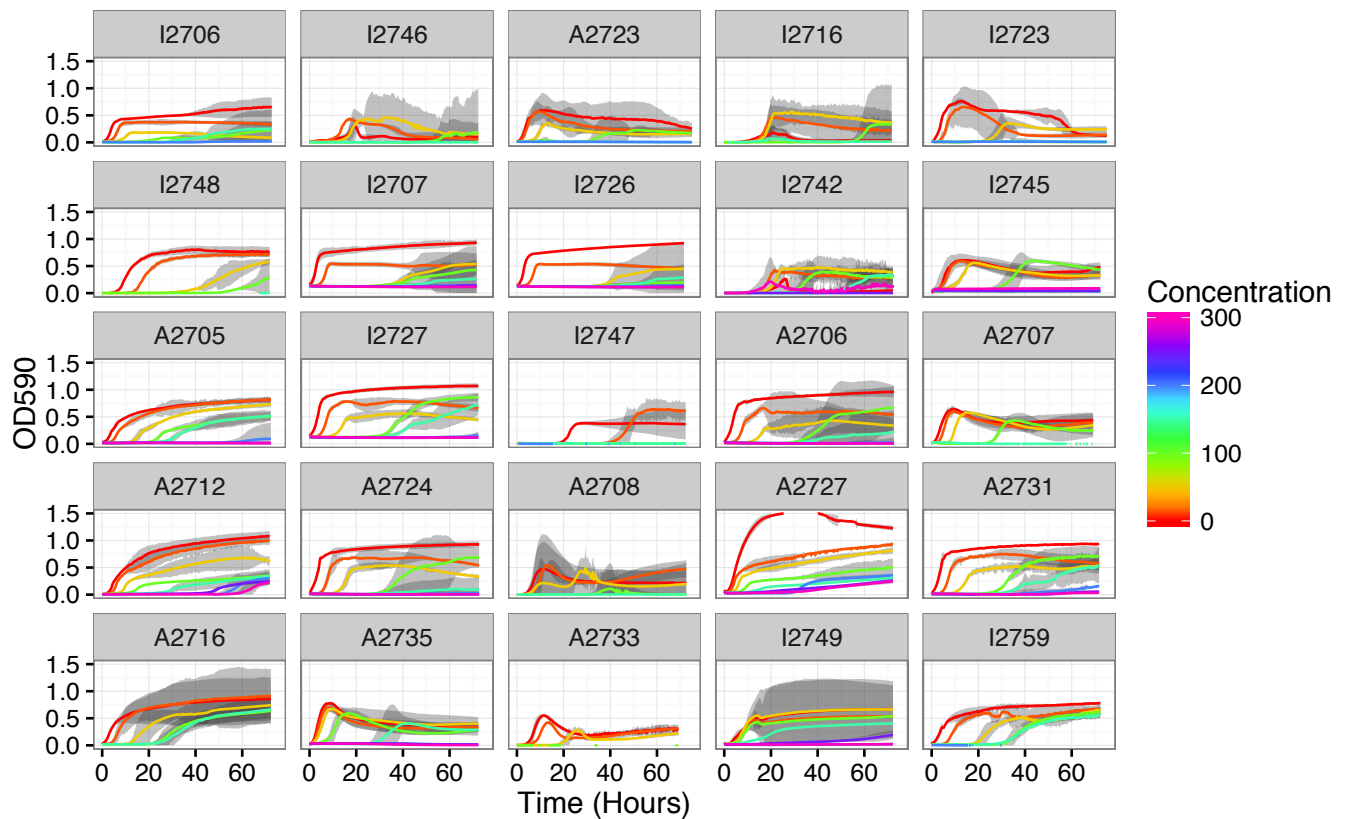
Gene	Primer Sequence (5'-3')	Name	Source
16S	AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG	Uni-27F	Weisburg et al.,1991
16S	GGTACCTTGTTACGACTT	Uni-1492R	Weisburg et al.,1991
16S	GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA	U515F	Baker, et al.,2003
<i>arsB</i>	GGTGTGGAACATCGTCTGGAAYGCNAC	darsB1F	Achour et al.,2007
<i>arsB</i>	CAGGCCGTACACCACCAGRTACATNCC	darsB1R	Achour et al.,2007
<i>ACR3(1)</i>	GCCATCGGCCTGATCGTNATGATGTAYCC	dacr1F	Achour et al.,2007
<i>ACR3(1)</i>	CGGCG ATGGCCAGCTCYAAYTTYTT	dacr1R	Achour et al.,2007
<i>ACR3(2)</i>	TGA TCTGGGTCATGATCTTCCC VATGMTGVT	dacr5F	Achour et al.,2007
<i>ACR3(2)</i>	CGGCCACG GCCAGYTCRAARAARTT	dacr4R	Achour et al.,2007
<i>arsC</i>	TCGCGTAATACGCTGGAGAT	amlt-42-f	Sun et al.,2004
<i>arsC</i>	ACTTTCTCGCCGTCTTCCTT	amlt-376-r	Sun et al.,2004
<i>arsC</i>	TCACGCAATACCCTTGAAATGATC	smrc-42-f	Sun et al.,2004
<i>arsC</i>	ACCTTTTCACCGTCCTCTTTCGT	smrc-376-r	Sun et al.,2004
<i>arsC</i>	AGCCAAATGGCAGAAGC	P52F	Cavalca, et al.,2010
<i>arsC</i>	GCTGGRTCRTCAAATCCCCA	P323R	Cavalca, et al.,2010
<i>arrA</i>	CGAAGTTCGTCCC GATHACNTGG	AS1F	Song et al.,2009
<i>arrA</i>	GGGGTGCGGTCYTTNARYTC	AS1R	Song et al.,2009
<i>arrA</i>	GTCCCNATBASNTGGGANRARGCNMT	AS2F	Song et al.,2009
<i>arrA</i>	ATANGCC CARTGNCCYTGN	AS2R	Song et al.,2009
<i>aoxB</i>	CCACTTCTGCATCGTGGGNTGYGGNTA	aoxBM1-2F	Quemeneur et al.,2008
<i>aoxB</i>	TGTCGTTGCCCCAGATGADNCCYTTYTC	aoxBM3-2R	Quemeneur et al.,2008
<i>arsM</i>	TCYCTCGGCTGCGGCAAYCCVAC	arsMF1	Jia et al.,2013
<i>arsM</i>	GTGCTCGAYCTSGGCWCCGGC	arsMF2	Jia et al.,2013
<i>arsM</i>	GGCATCGACGTGCTKCTBTCSGC	arsMF3	Jia et al.,2013
<i>arsM</i>	AGGTTGATGACRCAGTTWAGAT	arsMR1	Jia et al.,2013
<i>arsM</i>	CGWCCGCCWGGCTTWAGYACCCG	arsMR2	Jia et al.,2013
<i>arsM</i>	GCGCCGGCRAWGCAGCCWACCCA	arsMR3	Jia et al.,2013

Supplementary Table 3. Sample site description.

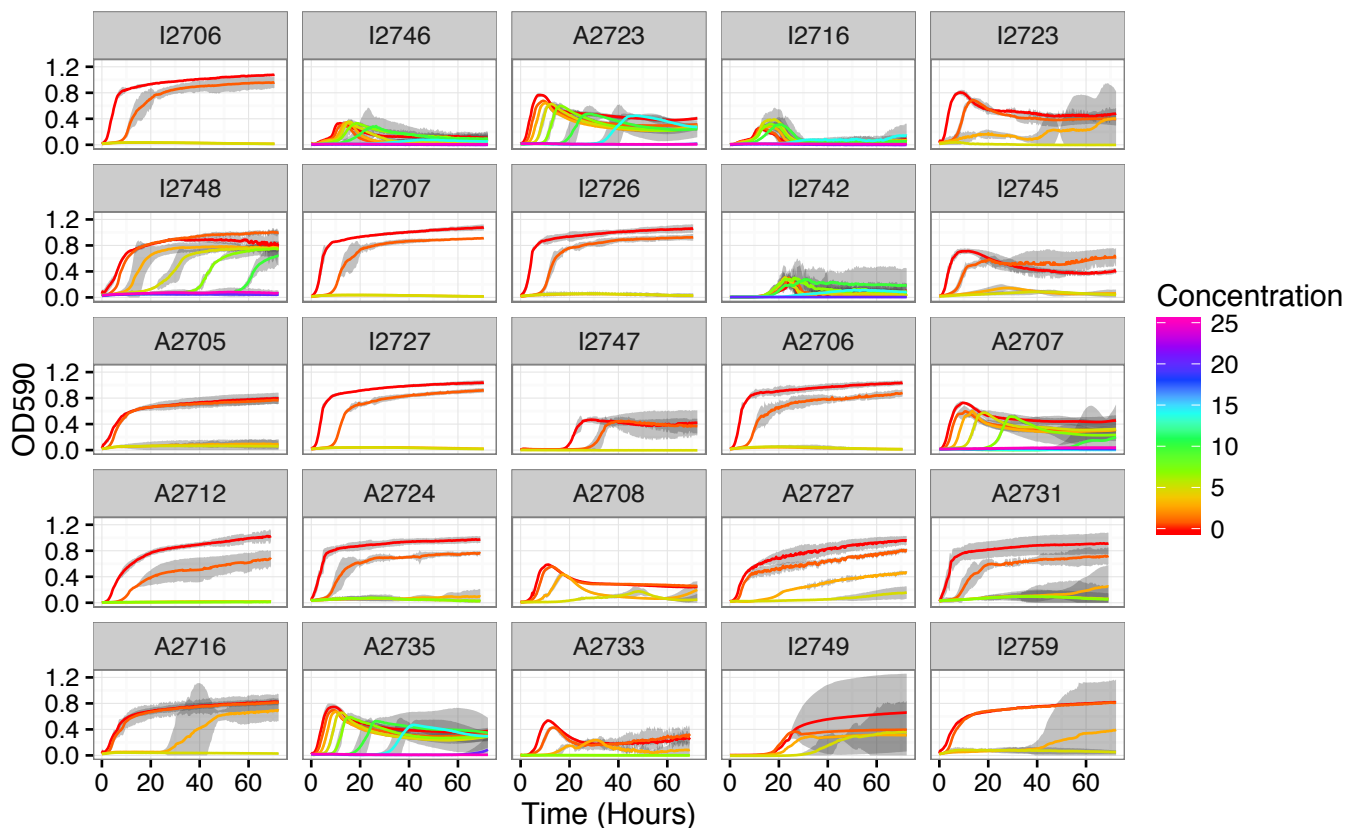
Air Temperature (°C)	Soil Temperature (°C)	Organic Matter 500°C (% active)	NO ₃ ⁻ (ppm)	NH ₄ ⁻ (ppm)	pH	S (ppm)	K (ppm)	Ca (ppm)	Mg (ppm)	Fe (ppm)	As (ppm)
13.3	57.4	7.1	4.6	1.7	8.0	28	37	2545	114	67.1	2.58

Supplementary Figure 1. Average OD590 over 72h in TSB50 with in increasing concentrations of arsenate (A) or arsenite (B). Grey ribbon represents 95% confidence intervals from three replicates. Note the difference in color scales.

A



B



Supplementary Figure 2. Growth phenotypes in TSB50 with increasing concentrations of arsenate and arsenite normalized to growth in TSB50 without arsenic. Points are averages from three technical replicates, and error bars show standard deviation. Note the different scale for λ in arsenite for isolates A2705, A2716, and I2759.

