ORIGINAL PAPER

A. K. Sun · T. K. Wood

Trichloroethylene degradation and mineralization by pseudomonads and *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b

Received: 1 May 1995/Received revision: 11 July 1995/Accepted: 26 July 1995

Abstract To examine the trichloroethylene (C₂HCl₃)degrading capability of five microorganisms, the maximum rate, extent, and degree of C2HCl3 mineralization were evaluated for *Pseudomonas cepacia* G4, Pseudomonas cepacia G4 PR1, Pseudomonas mendocina KR1, Pseudomonas putida F1, and Methylosinus trichosporium OB3b using growth conditions commonly reported in the literature for expression of oxygenases responsible for C₂HCl₃ degradation. By varying the C₂HCl₃ concentration from 5 μM to 75 μM, $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ values for C_2HCl_3 degradation were calculated as 9 nmol/(min mg protein) and 4 μM for P. cepacia G4, 18 nmol/(min mg protein) and 29 μ M for P. cepacia G4 PR1, 20 nmol/(min mg protein) and 10 μM for P. mendocina KR1, and 8 nmol/(min mg protein) and 5 µM for P. putida F1. This is the first report of these Michaelis-Menten parameters for P. mendocina KR1, P. putida F1, and P. cepacia G4 PR1. At 75 μM, the extent of C₂HCl₃ that was degraded after 6 h of incubation with resting cells was 61 %-98%; the highest degradation being achieved by toluene-induced P. mendocina KR1. The extent of C₂HCl₃ mineralization in 6 h (as indicated by concentration of chloride ion) was also measured and varied from 36% for toluene-induced P. putida F1 to 102% for M. trichosporium OB3b. Since C₂HCl₃ degradation requires new bio-mass, the specific growth rate (μ_{max}) of each of the C_2HCl_3 -degradation microorganisms was determined and varied from 0.080/h (M. trichosporium OB3b) to 0.864/h (P. cepacia G4 PR1).

Introduction

Chlorinated aliphatic compounds have been used widely as organic solvents and degreasing agents in

A. K. Sun • T. K. Wood (☒)
Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering,
University of California, Irvine,
Irvine, CA 92717-2575, USA

industry (Janssen et al. 1985) with more than 80×10^6 kg (178 × 10⁶ lb) trichloroethylene (C₂HCl₃) used industrially in the U.S. in 1985 alone (Wackett and Gibson 1988). As a consequence of its extensive usage and improper disposal, C2HCl3 is one of the most frequently detected pollutants in hazardous waste sites and in ground water and aquifers (U.S. EPA 1984). To restore these sites, bioremediation is viewed as a cost-effective method (McFarland et al. 1992; Winter et al. 1989). Microorganisms that are capable of oxidizing C₂HCl₃ aerobically include pseudomonads (Ensley and Kurisko 1994; Shields and Reagin 1992; Wackett and Householder 1989; Winter et al. 1989), methanotrophs (Brusseau et al. 1990; Green and Dalton 1989; Oldenhuis et al. 1989; Uchiyama et al. 1992), propane oxidizers (Wackett et al. 1989) and ammonia oxidizers (Rasche et al. 1991; Vannelli et al. 1990).

The methanotroph, *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b, may be used for bioremediation since its soluble methane monooxygenase degrades C_2HCl_3 as much as 50 times faster than pseudomonads (Jahng and Wood 1994). *M. trichosporium* OB3b expresses this enzyme in the presence of methane; however, its expression is repressed by low concentrations of copper ion (0.25 μ M) (Tsien et al. 1989), and concentrations of copper in excess of 0.25 μ M have been found in polluted ground water (Phelps et al. 1992).

With their diverse catabolic activity and ability to adapt to different environments, pseudomonads are well-suited for environmental remediation. With growth on phenol or toluene as a sole carbon source (Ensley and Kurisko 1994; Folsom et al. 1990) or by providing an additional source of carbon and energy (such as lactate) with subsequent induction of enzyme by the addition of toluene or phenol after initial growth (Folsom and Chapman 1991; Nelson et al. 1987; Shields et al. 1989), *P. cepacia* G4 expresses toluene *ortho*-monooxygenase and mineralizes C₂HCl₃ to CO₂ (Nelson et al. 1987). *P. cepacia* G4 PR1, a transposon

mutant of P. cepacia G4, constitutively expresses

toluene *ortho*-monooxygenase and grows in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium or medium containing lactate as a sole carbon source (Krumme et al. 1993; Shields and Reagin 1992). *P. putida* F1 degrades C₂HCl₃ using toluene dioxygenase (Wackett and Gibson 1988), which is expressed with growth on toluene supplied in the vapor phase as the sole carbon source (Wackett and Gibson 1988; Zylstra et al. 1988). *P. mendocina* KR1 expresses toluene *para*-monooxygenase with growth on vapor-phase toluene as the sole carbon source, and can also degrade C₂HCl₃ completely (Winter et al. 1989).

To select the best microorganism for C₂HCl₃ remediation, the maximum C₂HCl₃ degradation rate, the extent of both its degradation and mineralization, and the degree of stable expression of the C₂HCl₃-degrading enzyme (Ensley and Kurisko 1994) should be considered. Growth rate is also important because biomass must be replaced, since C₂HCl₃ breakdown products are somewhat toxic to the cells (Oldenhuis et al. 1991; Wackett and Gibson 1988; Wackett and Householder 1989; Zylstra et al. 1989). P. cepacia G4 (Ensley and Kurisko 1994; Folsom and Chapman 1991), P. cepacia G4 PR1 (Shields et al. 1994). P. mendocina KR1 (Ensley and Kurisko 1994), and methanotrophs (McFarland et al. 1992) have been used in bioreactors to degrade C₂HCl₃; however, comparing degradation rates among these C₂HCl₃-degrading microorganisms is complicated by the lack of uniformity in the experiments reported in the literature as well as a lack of kinetic data. These data are essential for designing efficient bioreactors for in situ C₂HCl₃ remediation. In this work, four pseudomonads were studied to obtain $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ for ${\rm C_2HCl_3}$ degradation. This is the first report of these values for P. cepacia G4 PR1, P. mendocina KR1, and P. putida F1. Additionally, the extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation and mineralization at 75 μM was determined along with the specific growth rates for the four pseudomonads and M. trichosporium OB3b.

Materials and methods

Bacteria and culture conditions

P. cepacia G4 (Folsom et al. 1990) and P. cepacia G4 PR1 (Shields and Reagin 1992) were provided by Professor Reagin, University of West Florida, Fla. P. mendocina KR1 (Yen et al., 1991) was obtained from Dr. Yen at Amgen Inc., Thousand Oaks, Calif., and P. putida F1 (Wackett and Gibson 1988) was provided by Professor Gibson at the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. M. trichosporium OB3b (Little et al. 1988) was provided by Professor Lidstrom at the California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, Calif. P. cepacia G4 PR1 was cultured in LB medium (Maniatis et al. 1982) with 50 µg/ml kanamycin sulfate. Expression of the toluene oxygenases for P. cepacia G4, P. mendocina KR1, and P. putida F1 was done in two stages. P. cepacia G4 was grown overnight in M9 medium (Maniatis et al. 1982) with 5 mM phenol as the sole carbon source by inoculating from a -85° C glycerol stock (15% v/v); then 1%-2% of this seed culture was used to inoculate M9 medium with 5 mM phenol for further growth. P. mendocina KR1 and P. putida F1 were precultured in M9-glucose (0.4% w/v) (Maniatis et al. 1982) by inoculating from a -85° C glycerol stock (15% v/v); then 1%-2% of this seed culture was used to inoculate in M9 medium with toluene (0.4%) v/v) supplied in the vapor phase as the sole carbon source. M. trichosporium OB3b was cultured by streaking a -85°C glycerol stock (15% v/v) onto a Higgins nitrate minimal salt (Park et al. 1991) plate with CuSO₄ deleted and incubating in 1:4 (v/v) methane/air gas mixture. After 4–5 days, a few loops-full of colonies were inoculated into Higgins nitrate minimal salt medium with CuSO₄ deleted. A 1:4 (v/v) methane/air gas mixture was bubbled into the inoculated culture medium for 5 min twice per day at a flow rate of 270 ml/min at 238 kPa. The gas mixture was sterilized through a 0.22-um sterile bacterial air vent (Gelman Sciences, Ann Arbor, Mich.). All pseudomonads were grown in 50 ml cultures at 30°C in 250-ml conical flasks with shaking at 250 rpm (Series 25, New Brunswick Scientific Co. Inc., Edison, N.J.). All pseudomonads were grown for 16-24 h to reach the exponential phase of growth [absorbance at 600 nm (A_{600}) of 0.5–3.0]. M. trichosporium OB3b was grown either in 50-ml cultures in 250-ml side-arm flasks or 100-ml cultures in 500-ml conical flasks. Flasks were shaken at 250 rpm at 30 °C for 3–4 days to reach $A_{600} = 0.7-1.5$.

Specific growth rate and total cell protein

For P. cepacia G4 and P. cepacia G4 PR1, cell growth of 20-ml cultures was monitored by measuring the absorbance at 600 nm with a Milton Roy Spectronic 20 D spectrophotometer (Fischer Scientific, Tustin, Calif.). The initial A_{600} was always less than 0.05, and the specific growth rate was determined from data with the absorbance less than 1.0. Growth of 20-ml cultures of P. mendocina KR1, P. putida F1, and M. trichosporium OB3b was monitored using a 250-ml side-arm flask and a Klett-Summerson photoelectric colorimeter (Klett Mfg. Co. Inc., N.Y., N.Y.). A 100-µl aliquot of a glycerol stock at -85° C was used for the growth rate study of M. trichosporium OB3b instead of inoculating from a Higgins nitrate minimal-salt plate. For the determination of total cell protein, cells were lysed using a sonic dismembrator model 300 (Fischer Scientific, Tustin, Calif.) equipped with a micro-tip for 10 min at 60% of maximum output. The total cell protein was assayed using the BioRad Protein Assay (Hercules, Calif.) based on the Bradford method. Bovine serum albumin (0-0.7 mg/ml) was used to establish the protein standard curve.

Preparation of resting cell suspensions

For the determination of $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ of $C_2 {\rm HCl_3}$ degradation, exponentially growing cells were harvested by centrifugation (5000 g for 10 min at 4°C) and washed twice with cold (4°C) 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer (PPB) at pH 7.0 (Maniatis et al. 1982). Cell suspensions used for determining the extent of $C_2 {\rm HCl_3}$ degradation and mineralization were centrifuged at 25°C (5000 g for 10 min) and washed twice with prewarmed 0.1 M PPB at 30°C. All cell suspensions were diluted to an A_{600} of 1.0 with prewarmed 0.1 M PPB at 30°C. For M. trichosporium OB3b, 20 mM sodium formate was added (when specified) to 0.1 M PPB 10 min before $C_2 {\rm HCl_3}$ addition, and 20 mM lactate or glutamate was added for P. cepacia G4 PR1 when indicated. Cell suspensions prepared were used within 1 h from the time of harvesting.

Rates of C2HCl3 degradation

5 ml of a resting cell suspension were transferred to prewarmed 60-ml glass serum vials. Vials were sealed with a Teflon-coated silicone septum (Wheaton, Millville, N.J.) and an aluminum crimp seal. A 0.1 M C₂HCl₃ stock standard was prepared daily (in

a vial with no headspace gas) by dissolving C_2HCl_3 (Fisher Scientific, Tustin, Calif.) in N,N-dimethylformamide (Fisher Scientific, Tustin, Calif.). A 0.1 M C_2HCl_3 stock was added using a 10-µl gas-tight syringe (Hamilton, Reno, Nev.) to triplicate sets of vials for each C_2HCl_3 concentration (5–75 µM assuming all the C_2HCl_3 remains in the liquid). The vials were shaken vigorously for 30 s then inverted and shaken at room temperature using a IKA-Vibrax-VXR shaker at 200 rpm (IKA-Works Inc., Cincinnati, Ohio).

A 5-µl gas sample was removed from the headspace of each sealed vial using a 50-µl gas-tight syringe (Hamilton, Reno, Nev.) at specific time intervals (5, 15, 30 and 60 min), and injected into a Varian GC-3600 gas chromatograph equipped with an electron-capture detector (Varian Associates, Sunnyvale, Calif.). The concentration of C_2HCl_3 was analyzed using a 1.8 m \times 3.2 mm \times 0.089 mm 0.1% AT-1000 on Graphpac GC, 80/100 mesh stainless-steel packed column (Alltech Associates Inc., Deerfield, Ill.) The injector and detector temperature were 170°C and 190°C respectively. The GC was operated isothermally at 150°C with nitrogen carrier gas (30 ml/min). Under these conditions, the C₂HCl₃ peak retention time was 1.5-1.6 min. The C₂HCl₃ degradation rates were determined by averaging the three peak heights of the three vials for each sample time and comparing results to the average results of negative controls consisting of 0.1 M PPB and C₂HCl₃ (5-75 µM) in crimped vials (zero-time values were determined with the negative control by averaging them over the first 5 min). The initial C₂HCl₃ degradation rate at each concentration was determined on the basis of the disappearance of the C₂HCl₃ peak between zero time and 5 min or between 5 min and 15 min. To determine the $K_{\rm m}$ values, the actual C₂HCl₃ concentration in the liquid phase was calculated using a dimensionless Henry's constant at 25°C (Folsom et al. 1990). Kinetic parameters for C_2HCl_3 degradation, V_{max} and K_m , were determined from the Lineweaver-Burk plot assuming that C_2HCl_3 degradation followed the Michaelis-Menten kinetic model.

Extent of C2HCl3 degradation

The extent of C_2HCl_3 degradation was determined in experiments independent of those used to determine the rate of degradation. C_2HCl_3 (75 μ M) was added to three 60-ml vials containing 5 ml resting cell suspension ($A_{600}=1.0$), and the vials were inverted and shaken at room temperature using an IKA-Vibrax-VXR shaker at 200 rpm. Over 6 h, a 5- μ l gas sample was removed hourly from the headspace of each sealed vial using a 50- μ l gas-tight syringe and C_2HCl_3 concentrations were determined with a GC as described above. The negative control consisted of triplicate vials crimped with 5 ml 0.1 M PPMB and 75 μ M C_2HCl_3 , and the average of 5-min samples was used to establish the C_2HCl_3 zero-time baseline value. Other negative controls consisted of heat-killed *P. cepacia* G4 PR1, non-induced *P. cepacia* G4, non-induced *P. mendocina* KR1, and non-induced *P. putida* F1 cell suspensions with C_2HCl_3 in 0.1 M PPB. The percentage C_2HCl_3 degradation was calculated as:

 $\frac{\text{[(average zero-time peak height)} - \text{(average sample peak height)}] \times 100}{\text{(average zero-time peak height)}}$

Extent of C₂HCl₃ mineralization

10 ml resting of a cell suspension were used for these experiments to ensure an appropriate volume to submerge the electrodes. C_2HCl_3 (75 μ M) was added to the vials which were inverted and shaken at room temperature using an IKA-Vibrax-VXR shaker at 200 rpm. Chloride ion concentrations were determined over a 6-h period by sacrificing duplicate or triplicate vials every hour using a model 13-620-519 chloride-ion-selective electrode and a model 13-620-47 reference silver chloride electrode (Fisher Scientific, Tustin,

Calif.) attached to a Corning pH/ion analyzer 350 (Corning Incorporated, Corning, N.Y.) and calibrated with five NaCl standards (0.01-0.5 mM) made in 0.1 M PPB at room temperature. Liquid samples were analyzed for chloride ion generation by removal of the aluminium crimp tops and addition of 2% (v/v) 5 M sodium nitrate (ionic strength adjuster) to a well-stirred 25-ml beaker. Chloride ion readings were obtained within 5 min of the transfer of liquid samples to the beakers. The negative control consisted of a triplicate set of 10 ml 0.1 M PPB with 75 µM C₂HCl₃. The baseline chloride ion level was established using 10 ml appropriate resting cell suspension without C2HCl3 by measuring the chloride ion concentration within 1 h. Other negative controls consisted of heat-killed P. cepacia G4 PR1, non-induced P. cepacia G4, noninduced P. mendocina KR1 and non-induced P. putida F1 with C₂HCl₃ in 0.1 M PPM, which were monitored hourly for 6h. For these controls, zero-time chloride ion concentrations were subtracted from samples to obtain the actual amount of chloride ion. The percentage of C2HCl3 mineralization was calculated as:

[(average sample Cl⁻, mM) – (average zero-time Cl⁻, mM)] $\times 100$ 3(0.075 mM)

and the mineralization efficiency (%) was calculated as (percentage C_2HCl_3 mineralized) × 100/(percentage C_2HCl_3 degraded) (Jahng and Wood 1994).

Results

Rates of growth and total protein concentration (Table 1)

The specific growth rate (μ_{max}) was obtained from the average of the maximum slope of the growth curve ($\ln A_{600}$ versus time) obtained from duplicate or triplicate flasks. Since P. cepacia G4 PR1 was grown in complex medium, it had the highest $\mu_{\rm max}$ (0.864 \pm 0.025/h in LB medium with 50 μg/ml kanamycin sulfate). The μ_{max} for P. cepacia G4 in M9 medium with 5 mM phenol as the sole carbon is $0.350 \pm 0.024/h$. P. mendocina KR1 and P. putida F1 cultured in M9 with 0.4% (v/v) toluene have $\mu_{\rm max}$ values of $0.366 \pm 0.011/{\rm h}$ and $0.445 \pm 0.020/{\rm h}$ respectively. These $\mu_{\rm max}$ values agrees well with the reported growth rate of toluene-induced P. putida F1 of 0.462/h (Wackett and Householder 1989) at 30°C and 0.45/h (Duetz et al. 1994) at 28°C as well as 0.38/h (Duetz et al. 1994) 28°C for P. mendocina KR1. The μ_{max} for M. trichosporium OB3b in Higgins nitrate minimal-salt medium with CuSO₄ deleted was determined to be $0.080 \pm 0.005/h$ with the methane/air gas mixture replenished twice per day. This μ_{max} value agrees well with that of Park et al. ($\mu_{max} = 0.08/h$) (Park et al. 1991).

To determine the total protein content of the cells using a spectrophotometer (used to calculate $V_{\rm max}$ for $\rm C_2HCl_3$ degradation), the pseudomonads and M. trichosporium OB3b were suspended in 0.1 M PPB with A_{600} adjusted to 1.0. The protein concentration of P. cepacia G4 PR1 was found to be the highest at 0.276 ± 0.001 mg/ml. The protein concentration ranged from 0.188 mg/ml to 0.259 mg/ml for the other strains (Table 1).

Table 1 Average specific growth rates and average total protein concentrations of microorganisms. All microorganisms were grown at 30 °C with shaking at 250 rpm. Luria-Bertani (*LB*) medium contained 50 μ g/ml kanamycin sulfate. Higgins nitrate minimal-salt medium (*HNMS*) was prepared using distilled deionized water with CuSO₄ deleted. Values are mean \pm S.D. for n=3

Strains	Media	(h^{-1})	Protein content at $A_{600} = 1.0$ (mg/ml)
P. cepacia G4 PR1 P. cepacia G4 P. mendocina KR1 P. putida F1 M. trichosporium OB3b	LB M9 + 5 mM phenol M9 + 0.4% (v/v) toluene M9 + 0.4% (v/v) toluene HNMS + 1:4/methane: air	$\begin{array}{c} 0.864 \pm 0.025 \\ 0.350 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.366 \pm 0.011 \\ 0.445 \pm 0.020 \\ 0.080 \pm 0.005 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.276 \pm 0.001 \\ 0.259 \pm 0.008 \\ 0.188 \pm 0.003 \\ 0.218 \pm 0.004 \\ 0.200 \pm 0.001 \end{array}$

Table 2 Initial average rates of trichloroethylene (C_2HCl_3) degradation using resting cells as a function of C_2HCl_3 concentration. C_2HCl_3 concentrations in the liquid phase were determined using a Henry's law constant of 0.4 (Folsom et al. 1990). Values are means \pm SD for n=3

Microorganisms	C ₂ HCl ₃ degradation rate [nmol/(min mg protein)] for an initial concentration in the liquid phase of:							
	0.93 μΜ	1.85 μΜ	3.70 μΜ	5.56 μΜ	7.41 μM	9.26 μΜ	11.11 μΜ	13.89 μΜ
P. cepacia G4 PR1 P. cepacia G4 P. mendocina KR1 P. putida F1	0.56 ± 0.09 1.66 ± 0.16 1.63 ± 0.57 1.17 ± 0.33	$\begin{array}{c} 1.13 \pm 0.17 \\ 3.25 \pm 0.36 \\ 3.29 \pm 0.76 \\ 1.48 \pm 0.27 \end{array}$	2.04 ± 0.28 4.18 ± 1.16 5.98 ± 1.92 3.49 ± 0.57	2.46 ± 0.37 5.39 ± 0.34 6.79 ± 0.53 2.84 ± 0.29	3.15 ± 0.38 7.01 ± 2.02 7.47 ± 1.19 3.92 ± 1.21	$\begin{array}{c} 4.37 \pm 0.44 \\ 6.77 \pm 0.19 \\ 8.24 \pm 0.49 \\ 5.41 \pm 1.36 \end{array}$	$6.18 \pm 0.06 \\ 6.21 \pm 0.39 \\ 10.38 \pm 1.09 \\ 6.37 \pm 0.75$	7.90 ± 0.88 7.00 ± 0.51 11.74 ± 2.69 7.15 ± 1.01

Rates of C₂HCl₃ degradation (Table 2)

The actual C₂HCl₃ concentration in the liquid phase was varied from 0.93 μM to 13.89 μM [well below the concentration that is toxic to these organisms (Folsom et al. 1990; Oldenhuis et al. 1991, 1989; Shields and Reagin 1992)] to measure the initial rate of its degradation by the microorganisms. The value for $V_{\rm max}$ represents the maximum degradation rate of C₂HCl₃, and $K_{\rm m}$ represents the affinity of the intact resting cells for C₂HCl₃ (including its transport through the cellular membrane). The C₂HCl₃ concentration for these experiments in the liquid phase is significantly less than that predicted by assuming that all the added C₂HCl₃ remains in the liquid phase because of its partitioning between the 55 ml gas and 5 ml liquid (Folsom et al. 1990). The actual C₂HCl₃ concentration in the liquid phase was calculated using the dimensionless Henry's constant (ratio of C₂HCl₃ concentration in the gas and liquid = 0.4) (Folsom et al. 1990).

To show that there were not any limitations for the transport of C₂HCl₃ between the gas and the liquid phases during the course of the degradation rate experiments, two sets of 60-ml glass serum vials were inoculated with C₂HCl₃ to yield liquid concentrations of 20 μM and 50 μM (stock C₂HCl₃ solution injected into 0.1 M PPB) and changes in the C₂HCl₃ gas concentrations were determined at 1, 3, 5, 10, 15, 30, and 60 min after C₂HCl₃ addition. Using the average GC peak heights for C₂HCl₃ obtained after 15–60 min equilibration time for the zero-time values, it was determined that C₂HCl₃ equilibrium was established between the gas and liquid phases within the first 5 min-

utes of its addition (after 5 min, $108 \pm 5\%$ and $110 \pm 16\%$ of the average C_2HCl_3 peak heights were obtained). These results agree with those of Folsom et al. (1990) and Wackett and Gibson (1988), who reported that transport limitations for C_2HCl_3 between the gas and liquid phases were negligible for these degradation rate experiments.

The initial C_2HCl_3 degradation rates as a function of its concentration are presented in Table 2. $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ were calculated using a Lineweaver-Burk plot of the initial degradation rates (Table 3). $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ for P. cepacia G4 PR1 are 18 nmol/(min mg protein) and 29 μ M respectively. These are the first reported $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ values for P. cepacia G4 PR1. For comparison, a maximal C_2HCl_3 degradation rate of approx. 1 nmol/(min mg protein) was measured at 20 μ M C_2HCl_3 in batch culture by Shields and Reagin (1992).

Additional $V_{\rm max}$ values were obtained in this work with two independent experiments using P. cepacia G4 PR1 resting cell suspensions supplemented with 20 mM glutamate or 20 mM lactate. These substrates were chosen since they are tricarboxylic acid cycle intermediates and may supply additional NADH to drive the C_2HCl_3 reaction. Based on four different C_2HCl_3 concentrations (5, 20, 30, and 40 μ M), a $V_{\rm max}$ of 15 and 18 nmol/(min mg protein) and $K_{\rm m}$ value of 13 μ M and 17 μ M were obtained for glutamate and lactate respectively. These results agree well with results obtained using cells that degraded C_2HCl_3 in buffer alone ($V_{\rm max}=18$ nmol/min mg protein). To corroborate further that C_2HCl_3 oxidation was not reductant-limited in P. cepacia G4 PR1, independent

Table 3 Comparison of Michaelis-Menten kinetic parameters for C_2HCl_3 degradation. The initial degradation rate (V) was determined at a given C_2HCl_3 concentration

Microorganisms	$V_{\rm max} \\ { m [nmol/(minmgprotein)]}$	$K_{\rm m} \ (\mu { m M})$	Initial V [nmol/(min mg protein)]	${ m C_2HCl_3} \ (\mu{ m M})$	Reference
P. cepacia G4 P. cepacia G4 P. cepacia G4 PR1 P. mendocina KR1	9 8 18 15 18 —	4 3 29 13 17 —			This study Folsom et al. 1990 This study This study This study Shields and Reagin 1992 This study
E. coli FM5/pKY287 (containing tmoABCDE of KR1)	1–2				Winter et al. 1989
P. putida F1 P. putida F1 M. trichosporium OB3ba M. trichosporium OB3bb M. trichosporium OB3b M. trichosporium OB3b	8 	5 — — — — 145 ^b	1.8 37.5 40.4 $\sim 35^{a}$ $\sim 47^{a}$	80 75 75 80 200	This study Wackett and Gibson 1988 This study This study Tsien et al. 1989 Oldenhuis et al. 1991; Oldenhuis et al. 1989

^a For *M. trichosporium* OB3b at $A_{600} = 1.0$, a conversion factor of 0.57 g protein/(g cell) was used based on the basis of a calibration curve of total cellular protein concentration versus dried cell weight (unpublished results)

 $^{\rm c}$ Maximum ${\rm C_2HCl_3}$ degradation rate obtained with 20 mM glutamate

experiments in the presence of 20 mM reducing equivalents of succinate, lactate, glutamate, or acetate were performed to measure an initial degradation rate at 20 μM C₂HCl₃. The initial degradation rates were 1.66 ± 0.11 , 1.58 ± 1.11 , 2.88 ± 0.31 , and 2.50 ± 0.00 0.54 nmol/(min mg protein) for succinate, lactate, glutamate, and acetate respectively. The initial C₂HCl₃ degradation rate without source a reducing equivalents at $20 \mu M$ C_2HCl_3 2.04 ± 0.28 nmol/(min mg protein) (Table 2). Therefore, the degradation rates determined for P. cepacia G4 PR1 were not limited by the concentration of reducing equivalents.

 $V_{\rm max}$ for P. cepacia G4 was determined to be 9 nmol/(min mg protein) with a $K_{\rm m}$ of 4 μ M. These results agree well with that of Folsom et al. (1990) [8 nmol/(min mg protein) and 3 μ M], who also showed that P. cepacia G4 cultured in a chemostat under continuous induction of 10 mM phenol can degrade C_2HCl_3 at 6.1 nmol/(min mg protein) (Folsom and Chapman 1991). The addition of a co-substrate, such as lactate, with phenol was studied to compare the C_2HCl_3 degradation rate for P. cepacia G4 PR1. A 20 mM solution of lactate in M9 with the addition of 5 mM phenol for P. cepacia G4 increased biomass production but lowered the C_2HCl_3 degradation rate, and similar results were observed by Folsom and Chapman (1991).

 $V_{\rm max}$ and K_m values for *P. putida* F1 were determined to be 8 nmol/(min mg protein) and 5 μ M. These are also the first reported $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ values for *P. putida* F1. The most frequently and highest reported initial

rate is 1.8 nmol/(min mg protein) for P. putida F1 at $80 \,\mu\text{M}$ of C_2HCl_3 concentration (Oldenhuis et al. 1989; Wackett and Gibson 1988; Winter et al. 1989). At $75 \,\mu\text{M}$ C₂HCl₃, an initial degradation rate of $7.15 \,\text{nmol/(min mg protein)}$ was measured for P. putida F1 in this work; this value is almost four times higher than the reported value of $1.8 \,\text{nmol/(min mg protein)}$.

For *P. mendocina* KR1, $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ were found to be 20 nmol/(min mg protein) and 10 μ M. There are no reported values for $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ for *P. mendocina* KR1 for comparison. The most often reported value for C_2HCl_3 degradation for *P. mendocina* KR1 is 1–2 nmol/(min mg protein) (Winter et al. 1989), which is for recombinant *E. coli* cell suspensions containing the *P. mendocina* KR1 tmoABCDE genes (*E. coli* FM5/pKY287).

The initial C_2HCl_3 degradation rate for M. tricho-OB3b was measured as 37.5 nmol/ (min mg protein) at 75 µM C₂HCl₃. Upon addition of 20 mM sodium formate to the resting cell suspension, initial degradation rate increased 40.4 nmol/(min mg protein). Tsien et al. (1989) previously reported the maximum initial C₂HCl₃ degradation rate to be 20 nmol/(min mg cell) at 80 µM C₂HCl₃. Using a dry cell weight of 0.35 mg/ml at $A_{600} = 1.0$ (unpublished result for M. trichosporium OB3b) and 0.2 mg total protein/ml at $A_{600} = 1.0$ (Table 1) for M. trichosporium OB3b, 1 mg/ml dried cell weight is equivalent to 0.57 mg/ml total cell protein. Thus, the reported maximum initial C₂HCl₃ degradation rate is equivalent to roughly 35 nmol/(min mg protein), which

^bC₂HCl₃ degradation rate performed with 20 mM sodium formate in 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer

^dMaximum C₂HCl₃ degradation rate obtained with 20 mM lactate

agrees well with the initial rate measured in this study. Oldenhuis et al. (1989) reported the initial C_2HCl_3 degradation rate of 27 nmol/(min mg cell) at 200 μ M C_2HCl_3 with addition of 20 mM sodium formate in batch-cultured M. trichosporium OB3b; this is equivalent to roughly 48 nmol/(min mg protein). A $V_{\rm max}$ of 509 ± 174 nmol (min mg protein) and $K_{\rm m}$ of 145 ± 61 μ M are obtained using M. trichosporium OB3b grown in continuous cultures under copper stress with 20 mM formate (Oldenhuis et al. 1991).

Using the independent first-hour results obtained for the extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation at 75 µM shown in Fig. 1, a different set of maximum initial degradation rate can be calculated as compared with those based on the 0-5 min or 5-15 min data at 75 μ M (Table 2): 1.31 versus 7.90 nmol/(min mg protein) for P. cepacia G4 PR1, 0.90 versus 7.00 nmol/(min mg protein) for P. cepacia G4, 4.10 versus 11.74 nmol/(min mg protein) for P. mendocina KR1, and 1.38 versus 7.15 nmol/ (min mg protein) for P. putida F1. Thus, the proper time scale of measurement is critical for the determination of the degradation rate when using resting cells. Besides the time scale, differences in the total protein concentration in cells can also affect the calculation of initial degradation rates. A total protein concentration of 0.259 mg/ml was measured for P. cepacia G4 at $A_{600} = 1.0$. This value is more than twofold higher than the 0.114 mg/ml total protein concentration used by Folsom et al. at $A_{600} = 1.0$ (1990). A higher protein concentration will lead to a lower C2HCl3 degradation rate; thus, the V_{max} and K_{m} values can be affected.

To stabilize the activity of the oxygenases, cells were centrifuged and washed twice at 4°C before the C₂HCl₃ degradation rate at various concentrations was determined; however, the resting cells may have been sensitive to the cold environment. Hence, the effect of cold washes (4°C PPB) compared to warm washes (30°C PPB) on the C₂HCl₃ degradation rate was assessed using P. cepacia G4 PR1. Although the initial C₂HCl₃ degradation rates with warm washing were slightly higher than those with cold PPB washing at low C₂HCl₃ concentrations, no differences in initial rates were measured for higher concentrations (data not shown, initial rates determined as before at 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 75 μ M). The $K_{\rm m}$ value decreased from 29 µM (cold washing) to 16 µM (warm washing), and the $V_{\rm max}$ value was decreased slightly from 18 (cold washing) to 15 nmol/(min mg protein) (warm washing).

Extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation (Fig. 1)

Along with $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$, the degree to which the C_2HCl_3 degradation reaction was sustained was quantified by measuring the extent of degradation by resting cells over 6 h. At 75 μ M, the initial extent of

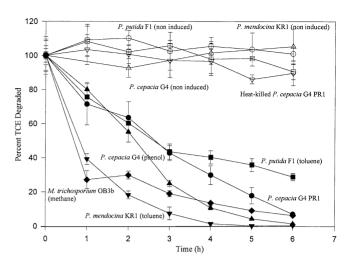


Fig. 1 Extent of trichloroethylene (TCE; initial concentration 75 μ M) degradation by resting cells as determined from GC measurements. Data are averages of triplicate vials (error bars shown). For the non-induced negative controls, cultures were grown in M9/glucose (0.4% w/y)

degradation after the first hour was similar for P. cepacia G4 PR1 (29%), P. cepacia G4 (20%) and P. putida F1 (24%); however, more extensive degradation of C₂HCl₃ was observed with P. mendocina KR1 (61%) and M. trichosporium OB3b (73%). After 6 h had elapsed, similar, high levels of C₂HCl₃ degradation (93%–99%) occurred with all the strains (P. mendocina KR1 had the most extensive degradation) except P. putida F1 (71%). For comparison, Oldenhuis et al. (1989) found that 200 ml M. trichosporium OB3b (0.15–0.2 mg cells/ml) degraded approximately 45% of 125 μM C₂HCl₃ after 30 h of C₂HCl₃ addition. With 2 ml cells at $A_{600} = 1.0$, Wackett and Gibson (1988) found that P. putida F1 degraded 67% of 15 μM C₂HCl₃ in 6 h. Since there was no significant change in the C₂HCl₃ concentration for all five of the negative controls, its degradation occurred in the induced strains as a result of the enzymatic attack of the oxygenase.

C₂HCl₃ degradation was roughly linear for all the strains except for *M. trichosporium* OB3b (reaching a plateau after 1 h) and *P. putida* F1 (reaching a plateau after 3 h). This decrease in the degradation rate could be due to either the formation of toxic intermediates (Wackett and Gibson 1988) or depletion of reductant (e.g. NADH); however, oxygen does not limit the C₂HCl₃ reaction since it is present in excess, and the resting cells are not actively growing (no substrate present). From Fig. 1, the plateau phenomena were most pronounced for *P. putida* F1 and *M. trichosporium* OB3b, and this suggests that *P. putida* F1 and *M. trichosporium* OB3b were the most sensitive microorganisms to either event. For *M. trichosporium* OB3b, C₂HCl₃ oxidation is limited by the amount of reduc-

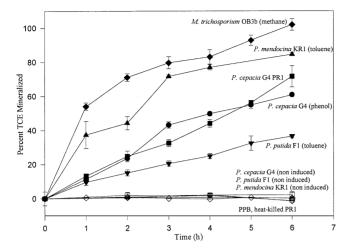


Fig. 2 Extent of trichloroethylene (TCE; initial concentration 75 μ M) mineralization by resting cells as determined from chloride ion measurements. Data are averages of duplicate or triplicate vials (error bars shown). For the non-induced negative controls, cultures were grown in M9/glucose (0.4% w/v)

tant available in the cells, and the presence of reducing equivalents in the form of formate can enhance the rate and the extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation (Brusseau et al. 1990; Oldenhuis et al. 1989).

Extent of C₂HCl₃ mineralization and efficiency (Fig. 2, Table 4)

After the initial attack by the oxygenases, it is important to determine the degree to which the cells are capable of completely mineralizing the C₂HCl₃ epoxide to CO₂ and chloride ions. As an indicator of complete mineralization (Nelson et al. 1987), the concentration of chloride ions was monitored over 6 h. The trends for the extent of C₂HCl₃ mineralization by the resting cells are similar to those for the extent of its degradation. After 1 h of C₂HCl₃ addition, *P. putida* F1 mineralized C₂HCl₃ the least (10%), and *M. trichosporium* OB3b mineralized it at the fastest rate (54%). After 6 h, *M. trichosporium* OB3b mineralized 102% of the 75 μM C₂HCl₃, and *P. mendocina* KR1 mineralized 84%. The other pseudomonads mineralized C₂HCl₃ to a lower extent (61% for *P. cepacia* G4, 72% *P. cepacia*

G4 PR1, and 36% for *P. putida* F1). The C₂HCl₃ mineralization rate was roughly linear for *P. cepacia* G4 PR1, *P. cepacia* G4, and *P. putida* F1. No C₂HCl₃ mineralization was detected for any of the five negative controls; hence, C₂HCl₃ was mineralized in the induced strains as a result of enzymatic attack.

Mineralization efficiency, the percentage C₂HCl₃ mineralized that is degraded (Jahng and Wood 1994), is a good measure of the ability of a microorganism to carry out this process. After 1 h of C₂HCl₃ addition, M. trichosporium OB3b had the highest mineralization efficiency (75%) while P. putida F1 had the lowest mineralization efficiency (40%). After 6 h, the mineralization efficiency of M. trichosporium OB3b was also the highest (109%), and 77%, 62%, and 85% mineralization efficiencies were achieved by P. cepacia G4 PR1, P. cepacia G4, and P. mendocina KR1 respectively. P. putida F1 had the lowest mineralization efficiency of all the microorganisms tested with only 51% of the C₂HCl₃ that was degraded mineralized after 6 h. For all the microorganisms tested, the C₂HCl₃ mineralization efficiency value did not change significantly (variation of 6%-18%) during 6h.

Discussion

To identify a superior microorganism for C₂HCl₃ remediation and to measure important kinetic constants for bioreactor design, the maximum degradation rate as well as the extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation and mineralization were evaluated under consistent experimental conditions. Since the oxidized C2HCl3 intermediate is somewhat toxic to the cells (e.g. 0.48 mg M. trichosporium OB3b is inactivated/µmol C₂HCl₃ degraded) (Oldenhuis et al. 1991), new biomass must be continuously produced; hence, the specific growth rate was also determined. Since P. cepacia G4 PR1 constitutively produces toluene ortho-monooxygenase, it could be cultured in complex medium and therefore had the highest specific growth rate. In contrast, M. trichosporium OB3b cultured on 25% methane/air mixture had the lowest specific growth rate and grew 11-fold slower than P. cepacia G4 PR1.

A comparison of the kinetic parameters shows there is a significant difference in the V_{max} values

Table 4 Average C_2HCl_3 mineralization efficiency by resting cells. The initial C_2HCl_3 concentration was 75 μ M. ND not determined. Values are means \pm SD for n=2 or 3

Microorganisms	C ₂ HCl ₃ mineralization efficiency (%) after:					
	1 h	2 h	3 h	4 h	5 h	6 h
P. cepacia G4 PR1 P. cepacia G4 P. mendocina KR1 P. putida F1 M. trichosporium OB3b	$46 \pm 13 57 \pm 5 61 \pm 11 40 \pm 6 74 \pm 7$	$66 \pm 12 52 \pm 7 54 \pm 6 37 \pm 3 101 \pm 5$	57 ± 7 57 ± 4 78 ± 5 36 ± 6 98 ± 5	63 ± 7 56 ± 2 78 ± 2 41 ± 5 96 ± 5	68 ± 6 57 ± 2 ND 50 ± 8 102 ± 4	77 ± 6 62 ± 1 85 ± 1 51 ± 3 109 ± 4

[8–20 nmol/(min mg protein)]; however, a greater difference occurs in the kinetic parameter $K_{\rm m}$ (4–29 μ M). The difference in $K_{\rm m}$ could be due to differences in uptake, transport, or diffusion of C_2HCl_3 and greatly affects reactor performance. For example, if a batch reactor is used to degrade C_2HCl_3 in ground water and Michaelis-Menten enzyme kinetics holds (neglecting the partitioning of C_2HCl_3 between the liquid and the gas phases), then the time required for the degradation is:

$$t = \frac{K_{\rm m} \ln \left[\frac{c_0}{c}\right] + (c_0 - c)}{XV_{\rm max}}$$

where c_0 and c are initial and final C_2HCl_3 concentrations, respectively, and X is the amount of total cell protein per liter of reactor volume. Therefore, using the $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ constants determined in this work Table 3, data from Oldenhuis et al. (1991) used for M. trichosporium OB3b] and assuming $A_{600} = 1.0$, the time predicted to degrade 99% of 75 µM is 32, 40, 42, 56, and 93 min for P. mendocina KR1, P. cepacia G4, P. cepacia G4 PR1, P. putida F1, and M. trichosporium OB3b respectively. Except for M. trichosporium OB3b, these predicted times match the trend shown after 6 h for the degradation of 75 μM C₂HCl₃ shown in Fig. 1 (it takes longer to degrade C₂HCl₃ with resting cell suspensions since C₂HCl₃ is somewhat toxic, it partitions between the two phases, and the reducing equivalents are being exhaused because of the lack of nutri-

C₂HCl₃ mineralization is initiated when it is oxidized by the oxygenase to form the epoxide, and subsequent spontaneous and enzymatic processes convert the trichloroethylene epoxide to other intermediates (primarily carbon monoxide, formate, chloral, and glyoxylate) (Fox et al. 1990; Wackett and Householder 1989; Wackett et al. 1994). Although the V_{max} and $K_{\rm m}$ values determined by this work are corroborated by the extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation curves shown in Fig. 1, these constants are unable to predict the extent of mineralization shown in Fig. 2. For example, M. trichosporium OB3b ranked third for its extent of C₂HCl₃ degradation; however, it has the best extent of mineralization (Figs. 1, 2). Hence, for remediation of C₂HCl₃, emphasis should also be placed on the ability of an organism to mineralize it completely.

The C_2HCl_3 degradation and mineralization experiments (6 h each) were conducted at room temperature, which is not the optimal temperature for the microorganisms studied. Since the optimum temperature for the activity of these oxygenase enzymes is $30\,^{\circ}C$, it is likely that the maximum degradation rates could be higher than the values reported in this study. In addition, for C_2HCl_3 mineralization analysis, all liquid samples were measured within 5 min for chloride ion generation to detect the actual chloride ion concentra-

tion at the times indicated in Fig. 2. If the samples are stored and chloride ion concentration measurements are delayed, both biotic and abiotic decay of C₂HCl₃ intermediates occurs, which leads to the samples having an incorrect and high chloride ion concentration. Thus, some of the difference between the percentage C₂HCl₃ degradation and percentage mineralization is due to incomplete mineralization of C₂HCl₃ intermediates within cells.

The experimental data indicated some surprising results. Of the four psuedomonads, P. mendocina KR1 has the fastest C₂HCl₃ degradation rate and degrades it to the lowest concentration in the shortest time; however, P. mendocina KR1 does not have the highest affinity toward C_2HCl_3 (K_m of P. cepacia G4 2.5 times lower that of P. mendocina KR1). P. cepacia G4 has the highest affinity for C₂HCl₃ and degrades it to a greater extent than does P. cepacia G4 PR1 and P. putida F1; however, it has a low degradation rate (45% of P. mendocina KR1). For operating a bioreactor for degrading C₂HCl₃, P. cepacia G4 PR1 and P. cepacia G4 should perform similarly on the basis of their comparable C₂HCl₃ degradation and mineralization results; however, the greatest advantage of *P. cepacia* G4 PR1 is its ability to express toluene *ortho*-monooxygenase constitutively. Since P. cepacia G4 PR1 does not require an inducer, and also has a high specific growth rate, P. cepacia G4 PR1 is an excellent microorganism for bioremediation. Furthermore, in a novel bioreactor that has been developed with P. cepacia G4 PR1 immobilized on activated carbon, stable C₂HCl₃ degradation and mineralization have been observed with this strain for a period longer than 2 months (unpublished results).

Even though M. trichosporium OB3b can degrade and mineralize C₂HCl₃ at the fastest rate, it is probably not a good choice for bioremediation because of its extremely slow growth, high $K_{\rm m}$, and extreme sensitivity to copper ion suppression of the expression of soluble methane monooxygenase. On the basis of it having the slowest degradation rate and poorest extent of both C₂HCl₃ degradation and mineralization, P. putida F1 might also be a poor choice for C₂HCl₃ degradation. In contrast, P. mendocina KR1 is a superior strain for C₂HCl₃ degradation. Thus, it appears to be advantageous to develop P. mendocina KR1 strains for constitutive expression of toluene para-monooxygenase for the degradation of C₂HCl₃ (as has been pursued by R. J. Steffan et al. at Envirogen Inc., Princeton Research Center, Lawrenceville, N.J. 08648).

The information obtained using resting cells in batch experiments has been shown to correlate well with the kinetic constants obtained using continuous reactors (Folsom and Chapman 1991). Therefore, the kinetic parameters determined in this study can be used as starting values for designing efficient bioreactors for C_2HCl_3 remediation.

Acknowledgements This study was supported by the U.S. Army Research Office through an Army Young Investigator Award (for T.K.W.), the California EPA and by the Fluor Daniel Incorporation. We owe special thanks to Prof. M. J. Reagin, Prof. M. S. Shields, Prof. D. Gibson, Prof. M. Lidstrom, and Dr. K.-M. Yen for providing the strains used for this study. We also thank Dr. Deokjin Jahng and Dennis Yee for informative discussions.

References

- Brusseau GA, Tsien H-C, Hanson RS, Wackett LP (1990) Optimization of trichloroethylene oxidation by methanotrophs and the use of a colorimetric assay to detect soluble methane monooxygenase activity. Biodegradation 1:19–29
- Duetz WA, Jong CD, Williams PA, Andel JGV (1994) Competition in chemostat culture between *Pseudomonas* strains that use different pathways for the degradation of toluene. Appl Environ Microbiol 60:2858–2863
- Ensley BD, Kurisko PR (1994) A gas lift bioreactor for vapor-phase destruction of chlorinated organics. Appl Envion Microbiol 60:285–290
- Folsom BR, Chapman PJ (1991) Performance characterization of model bioreactor for the biodegradation of trichloroethylene by *Pseudomonas cepacia* G4. Appl Environ Microbiol 57:1602–1608
- Folsom BR, Chapman PJ, Pritchard PH (1990) Phenol and trichloroethylene degradation by *Psuedomonas cepacia* G4: kinetics and interactions between substrates. Appl Environ Microbiol 56:1279–1285
- Fox BG, Borneman JG, Wackett LP, Lipscomb JD (1990) Haloalkene oxidation by the soluble methane monooxygenase from *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b: mechanistic and environmental implications. Biochemistry 29:6419–6427
- Green J, Dalton H (1989) Substrate specificity of soluble methane monoxygenase. J Biol Chem 264:17698–17703
- Jahng D, Wood TK (1994) Trichloroethylene and chloroform degradation by a recombinant pseudomonad expressing soluble methane monooxygenase from *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:2819–2826
- Janssen DB, Scheper A, Dijkhuizen L, Witholt B (1985) Degradation of halogenated aliphatic compounds by Xanthobacter autotrophicus GJ10. Appl Environ Microbiol 49:673–677
- Krumme ML, Timmis KN, Dwyer DF (1993) Degradation of trichloroethylene by *Pseudomonas cepacia* G4 and the constitutive mutant strain G4 5223 PR1 in aquifer microcosms. Appl Environ Microbiol 59:2746–2749
- Little CD, Palumbo AV, Herbes SE, Lidstrom ME, Tyndall RL, Gilmer PJ (1988) Trichloroethylene biodegradation by a methane-oxidizing bacterium. Appl Environ Microbiol 54:951–956
- Maniatis T, Fritsch EF, Sambrook J (1982) In: Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY
- McFarland MJ, Vogel CM, Spain JC (1992) Methanotrophic cometabolism of trichloroethylene (TCE) in a two stage bioreactor system. Water Res 26:259–265
- Nelson M, Montgomery S, Mahaffey W, Pritchard PH (1987) Biodegradation of trichloroethylene and involvement of an aromatic biodegradative pathway. Appl Environ Microbiol 53:949–954
- Oldenhuis R, Vink RLJM, Janssen DB, Witholt B (1989) Degradation of chlorinated aliphatic hydrocarbons by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b expressing soluble methane monooxygenase. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:2819–2826
- Oldenhuis R, Oedzes JY, Waarde JJVD, Janssen DB (1991) Kinetics of chlorinated hydrocarbon degradation by *Methylosinus*

- trichosporium OB3b and toxicity of trichloroethylene. Appl Environ Microbiol 57:7–14
- Park S, Hanna ML, Taylor RT, Droege MW (1991) Batch cultivation of *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. I. Production of soluble methane monooxygenase. Biotechnol Bioeng 38:423–433
- Phelps PA, Agarwal SK, Speitel GE, Georgiou G (1992) *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b mutants having constitutive expression of soluble methane monooxygenase in the presence of high levels of copper. Appl Environ Microbiol 58:3701–3708
- Rasche ME, Hyman MR, Arp DJ (1991) Factors limiting aliphatic chlorocarbon degradation by *Nitrosomonas europaea*: cometabolic inactivation of ammonia monooxygenase and substrate specificity. Appl Environ Microbiol 57:2986–2994
- Shields MS, Reagin MJ (1992) Selection of a *Pseudomonas cepacia* strain constitutive for the degradation of trichloroethylene. Appl Environ Microbiol 58:3977–3983
- Shields MS, Montgomery SO, Chapman PJ, Cuskey SM, Pritchard PH (1989) Novel pathway of toluene catabolism in trichloroethylene-degrading bacterium G4. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:1624–1629
- Shields MS, Reagin MJ, Gerger RR, Somerville C, Schaubhut R, Campbell R, Hu-Primmer J (1994) Constitutive degradation of trichloroethylene by an altered bacterium in a gas-phase bioreactor. In: Hinchee RE, Leeson A, Semprini L, Ong SK (eds) Bioremediation of chlorinated and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon compounds. Lewis, Boca, Raton, Fla, pp 50–65
- Tsien HC, Brusseau GA, Hanson RS, Wackett LP (1989) Biodegradation of trichloroethylene by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:3155-3161
- Uchiyama H, Nakajima T, Yagi O, Nakahara T (1992) Role of heterotrophic bacteria in complete mineralization of trichloroethylene by *Methylocystis* sp. Strain M. Appl Environ Microbiol 58:3067–3071
- US EPA (1984). Hazardous waste sites: descriptions of sites on current national priorities list, October 1984. United States Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC
- Vannelli T, Logan M, Arciero DM, Hooper AB (1990) Degradation of halogenated aliphatic compounds by the ammonia-oxidizing bacterium *Nitrosomonas europaea*. Appl Environ Microbiol 56:1169–1171
- Wackett LP, Gibson DT (1988) Degradation of trichloroethylene by toluene dioxygenase in whole-cell studies with *Pseudomonas putida* F1. Appl Environ Microbiol 54:1703–1708
- Wackett LP, Householder SR (1989) Toxicity of trichloroethylene to Pseudomonas putida F1 is mediated by toluene dioxygenase. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:2723–2725
- Wackett LP, Brusseau GA, Householder SR, Hanson RS (1989) Survey of microbial oxygenases: Trichloroethylene degradation of propane-oxidizing bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:2960-2964
- Wackett LP, Sadowsky MJ, Newman LM, Hur H-G, Li S (1994) Metabolism of polyhalogenated compounds by a genetically engineered bacterium, Nature 368:627–629
- Winter RB, Yen K-M, Ensley BD (1989) Efficient degradation of trichloroethylene by a recombinant *Escherichia coli*. Biotechnology 7:282–285
- Yen K-M, Karl MR, Blatt LM, Simon MJ, Winter RB, Fausset PR, Lu HS, Harcourt AA, Chen KK (1991) Cloning and characterization of a *Pseudomonas mendocina* KR1 gene cluster encoding toluene-4-monooxygenase, J Bacteriol 173:5315–5327
- Zylstra GJ, McCombie WR, Gibson DT, Finette BA (1988) Toluene degradation by *Pseudomanas putida* F1: genetic organization of the *tod* operon. Appl Environ Microbiol 54:1498–1503
- Zylstra GJ, Wackett LP, Gibson DT (1989) Trichloroethylene degradation by *Escherichia coli* containing the cloned *Pseudomonas putida* F1 toluene dioxygenase genes. Appl Environ Microbiol 55:3162–3166