Microbially Catalyzed Nitrate-Dependent Oxidation of Biogenic Solid-Phase Fe(II) Compounds

KARRIE A. WEBER,†
FLYNN W. PICARDAL,‡ AND
ERIC E. RODEN*.†

Department of Biological Sciences, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0206, and Environmental Science Research Center, School of Public and Environmental Affairs, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405

The potential for microbially catalyzed NO₃⁻-dependent oxidation of solid-phase Fe(II) compounds was examined using a previously described autotrophic, denitrifying, Fe-(II)-oxidizing enrichment culture. The following solidphase Fe(II)-bearing minerals were considered: microbially reduced synthetic goethite, two different end products of microbially hydrous ferric oxide (HFO) reduction (biogenic Fe₃O₄ and biogenic FeCO₃), chemically precipitated FeCO₃, and two microbially reduced iron(III) oxide-rich subsoils. The microbially reduced goethite, subsoils, and chemically precipitated FeCO₃ were subject to rapid NO₃⁻dependent Fe(II) oxidation. Significant oxidation of biogenic Fe₃O₄ was observed. Very little biogenic FeCO₃ was oxidized. No reduction of NO₃⁻ or oxidation of Fe(II) occurred in pasteurized cultures. The molar ratio of NO₃⁻ reduced to Fe(II) oxidized in cultures containing chemically precipitated FeCO₃, and one of the microbially reduced subsoils approximated the theoretical stoichiometry of 0.2: 1. However, molar ratios obtained for oxidation of microbially reduced goethite, the other subsoil, and the HFO reduction end products did not agree with this theoretical value. These discrepancies may be related to heterotrophic NO₃⁻ reduction coupled to oxidation of dead Fe(III)reducing bacterial biomass. Our findings demonstrate that microbally catalyzed NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation has the potential to significantly accelerate the oxidation of solid-phase Fe(II) compounds by oxidized N species. This process could have an important influence on the migration of contaminant metals and radionuclides in subsurface environments.

Introduction

Direct microbial catalysis is responsible for the majority of iron(III) oxide reduction occurring in anoxic nonsulfidogenic natural systems (1-3). Enzymatic reduction of iron(III) oxides yields both soluble Fe(II) and a variety of solid-phase Fe(II) [Fe(II)(s)] compounds including minerals such as Fe₃(PO₄)₂, FeCO₃, and Fe₃O₄ as well as unspecified amorphous Fe(II) phases, including Fe(II) sorbed to iron(III) oxide surfaces and other minerals (2, 4-7).

Oxidation of Fe(II) produced by bacterial iron(III) oxide reduction may occur via several different abiotic and biotic pathways. In aerobic environments at circumneutral pH, the chemical oxidation of Fe(II) by O₂ is a rapid and potentially dominant process (8). However, recent studies indicate that microaerophilic Fe(II)-oxidizing bacteria may contribute significantly to Fe(II) oxidation at circumneutral pH (9-12). Oxidation of Fe(II) is not limited to aerobic environments. Several abiotic and biotic Fe(II) oxidation processes are operative under anaerobic conditions. Anoxic Fe(II) oxidation can occur through the activity of anaerobic phototrophic, purple, nonsulfur bacteria (13). Manganese(IV) abiotically oxidizes Fe(II) at circumneutral pH (14). It has also been suggested that Fe(II) may be oxidized by NO₃⁻ in anaerobic, sedimentary environments (10, 15-20). Abiotic reduction of NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺ by Fe(II) at a circumneutral pH occurs at high temperatures (75 °C) (21) and in the presence of green rust (22). The presence of trace metals such as Cu^{2+} (23–25) or crystalline iron oxide (lepidocrocite and goethite) surfaces (25) accelerates low-temperature reduction of NO₃⁻ coupled to Fe(II) oxidation at pH values greater than 8.0. Postma (17) concluded that, at low pH ranges, Fe(III) precipitates formed during iron silicate dissolution may catalyze oxidation of Fe(II) by NO₃⁻.

The relatively specialized conditions required (i.e., high temperature, pH, catalyst) for abiotic Fe(II) oxidation by NO_3^- suggests that these reactions, with the exception of iron(III) oxide surface catalysts, may not be prevalent in typical natural sedimentary environments (26). Recently, denitrifying microorganisms capable of coupling Fe(II) oxidation to NO_3^- reduction to N_2 at circumneutral pH, in some cases under strict autotrophic conditions, have been identified (11, 27). Such organisms have been detected in a variety of freshwater sediments (28) as well as sewage sludge systems (29, 30).

The occurrence of microbially catalyzed NO₃-dependent Fe(II) oxidation in a variety of natural systems suggests that this reaction may play a significant role in coupling the redox cycles of N and Fe in sedimentary environments. As opposed to abiotic NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation reactions, this biotic process proceeds readily at relatively low temperatures and circumneutral pH and does not require specific catalysts. This process has important implications for both NO₃removal and the formation of reactive iron(III) oxides in subsurface sediments. The latter process could significantly affect the migration of contaminant metals and radionuclides whose behavior is strongly influenced by sorption reactions at iron(III) oxide surfaces (31, 32). The impact of NO₃⁻ on contaminant metal/radionuclide geochemistry may be particularly significant at U.S. Department of Energy sites where NO₃⁻ is often present at high concentrations (33) as a result of its use in nuclear fuels reprocessing. Although competition between NO₃⁻ and Fe(III)-reducing bacteria is likely to play a major role in the overall impact of NO₃⁻ on Fe/metal contaminant biogeochemistry (34), NO₃--dependent Fe(II) oxidation may present an important secondary mechanism for retarding migration of metals [divalent cations with a high affinity for iron(III) oxides such as Zn²⁺, Pb²⁺, and Hg²⁺] and radionuclides in subsurface environments, specifically in sedimentary environments where NO₃⁻ enters zones of contaminant metal mobilization associated with bacterial iron(III) oxide reduction.

Although the capacity for microbially catalyzed NO $_3$ ⁻dependent oxidation of soluble Fe(II) is well-documented, it is currently unknown whether Fe(II)(s) compounds are subject to oxidation via this metabolism. This is an important consideration given that solid Fe(II) phases are the dominant

 $^{^{\}ast}$ Corresponding author phone: (205)348-0556; fax: (205)348-1403; e-mail: eroden@biology.as.ua.edu.

[†] The University of Alabama.

[‡] Indiana University.

TABLE 1. Characterization of Solid-Phase Fe(II) Compounds

Fe(II) phase	Fe(II) _{HCI} /total Fe _{HCI} ^a	mineral phases present ^b	surface area (m²/g)c	SD^d
chemically precipitated FeCO ₃	0.95	siderite	23.2	10.0
HC-70	1.0	quartz kaolinite goethite	28.7	1.2
CP-90	0.88	goethite quartz kaolinite	21.1	0.97
goethite	0.93	goethite siderite	32.3	2.7
biogenic Fe ₃ O ₄	0.44	magnetite goethite (trace)	82.9	3.5
biogenic FeCO ₃	0.94	siderite goethite (trace)	3.01	0.78

^a Determined by 0.5 N HCl extraction. ^b Solid-phase Fe mineral phases identified by XRD analyses (Phillips XRG 3100, Cu line source). ^c Surface area determined by BET N₂ adsorption (Micromeritics Model Gemini); values are averages of triplicate samples. ^d SD, standard deviation.

end products of bacterial iron(III) oxide reduction in soils and sediments. In this study, we examined the potential for microbially catalyzed NO_3^- -dependent oxidation of several Fe(II)(s) compounds, analogous to reduced phases abundant in anaerobic, nonsulfidogenic sedimentary environments. The primary objective was to investigate the rate and extent to which solid-phase end products of microbial iron(III) oxide reduction can be oxidized by this microbial process.

Materials and Methods

Biological NO₃⁻- and NO₂⁻-Dependent Fe(II) Oxidation. The NO₃--reducing, Fe(II)-oxidizing enrichment culture described by Straub et al. (27) was used to examine Fe(II)(s) oxidation coupled to NO₃⁻ reduction. Duplicate bottles of anaerobic, NaHCO₃-buffered (30 mM, pH 6.8) growth medium (27) were amended with various Fe(II)(s) compounds (see below). Initial concentrations of 0.5 M HClextractable Fe(II) in the cultures ranged from ca. 2 to 20 mmol L⁻¹. Very little aqueous Fe(II) was present in cultures amended with Fe(II)(s) compounds (≤ 0.24 mM). Approximately 55% of the Fe(II) remained soluble in cultures amended with 10 mM FeSO4·7H2O; the remainder was associated with Fe(II)(s) carbonate and Fe(II)(s) phosphate precipitates. NO₃⁻-reducing Fe(II)-bearing mineral slurries were amended with NO₃⁻ from sterile stock solutions to achieve concentrations of approximately 2.5-6 mM.

Duplicate cultures were inoculated (10% v/v) with the lithotrophic, denitrifying Fe(II)-oxidizing enrichment culture grown as described by Straub et al. (27). Duplicate Fe(II)(s) mineral slurries amended with a pasteurized (80 °C, 10 min) inoculum served as killed controls. Cultures were incubated statically in the dark at 30 °C.

Samples collected were analyzed for Fe(II), total Fe, NO_3^- , and NO_2^- (see below). N_2O was not measured in this study. However, previous studies with the lithotrophic NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II)-oxidizing enrichment culture have not observed the production of N_2O (27).

Chemical Oxidation of Fe(II) by NO₂⁻. Chemical oxidation of Fe(II)(s) compounds by NO_2^- was examined under conditions similar to those present in the biological Fe(II) oxidation experiments. NO_2^- was added from anaerobic, sterile stock solutions to Fe(II)(s) compounds to achieve a NO_2^- :Fe(II) ratio of approximately 1:4. This ratio provided sufficient Fe(II) to permit complete reduction of NO_2^- to N_2 . Samples were collected and analyzed for NO_2^- , Fe(II), and total Fe as described below.

Preparation and Characterization of Solid-Phase Fe(II) Compounds. Microbially reduced synthetic goethite and two microbially reduced iron(III) oxide-rich subsoils (HC-70 and CP-90; *35*) were generated by *Shewanella algae* strain BrY (ca. 10⁸ tryptic soy broth-grown cells mL⁻¹) in NaHCO₃-buffered medium [pH 6.8, N₂:CO₂ (80:20) atmosphere] containing 4.4 mM NH₄Cl, 0.44 mM KH₂PO₄, 30 mM lactate, and vitamin and trace mineral solutions as previously described (*36*). Biogenic FeCO₃ was produced via the reduction of synthetic amorphous hydrous ferric iron oxide (HFO) by *Shewanella putrefaciens* strain CN-32 in similar

NaHCO $_3$ -buffered medium. To produce biogenic Fe $_3$ O $_4$, HFO was reduced by strain CN-32 in PIPES-buffered medium (10 mM, pH 6.8, 100% N $_2$ atmosphere).

Microbially reduced iron(III) oxides were pasteurized (80 °C for 10 min), collected by centrifugation under anaerobic conditions, and washed twice with anaerobic NaHCO $_3$ buffer (pH 6.8) with the exception of biogenic Fe $_3$ O $_4$, which was washed with anaerobic PIPES buffer (pH 6.8). The reduced minerals were dispensed into sterile anaerobic serum bottles and pasteurized again. Reduced mineral transfers occurred in an anaerobic glovebag (Coy Products; N $_2$:H $_2$; 95:5) in order to prevent Fe(II) oxidation. Lactate concentrations in the concentrated microbially reduced iron(III) oxide stocks were less than 15 μ M, as determined by ion chromatography (IonPac AS14 analytical column, Dionex DX-100 system, Dionex Corp., Sunnyvale, CA).

X-ray diffraction (XRD; described below) was used to identify major Fe phases present in microbially reduced Fe mineral stock slurries (Table 1). Minor Fe phases or unreduced HFO may not have been detected by XRD. The nature of the Fe(II)(s) present in microbially reduced goethite and subsoils is unknown. However, the Fe(II)(s) is most likely present as surface precipitates or sorbed to the iron(III) oxide surface (37). Siderite was identified by XRD as a major Fe(II) phase in biogenic FeCO₃ cultures. Wet chemical analyses indicated that ca. 60% of total Fe(II)(s) was associated with carbonates (38). The remaining Fe(II)(s) was likely present as amorphous iron(II) hydroxide and/or sorbed Fe(II). XRD analysis verified the presence of magnetite in biogenic Fe₃O₄, and most of the Fe(II)(s) was likely present in this phase. The slight disagreement between the observed (0.44) and the theoretical (0.66) ratio of Fe(II):Fe(III) in this material may be a result of surface precipitation or sorption of Fe(II) to residual oxide surfaces.

Chemically precipitated $FeCO_3$ (siderite) was prepared by combining 250 mM Na_2CO_3 and 250 mM $FeCl_2$ under anaerobic conditions. The precipitate was centrifuged under N_2 and washed three times with anaerobic, deionized H_2O . The precipitate was resuspended, dispensed into anaerobic sterile serum bottles, and pasteurized. Production of siderite was confirmed by XRD analysis. Approximately 70% of the Fe(II)(s) was recovered as solid-phase carbonate.

Surface Area Analyses. Triplicate samples of the Fe(II)-bearing minerals were collected and dried under a stream of N_2 for 48 h. Quantification of Fe(II) and total Fe by 0.5 M HCl extraction and ferrozine analysis (see below) before and after drying indicated that the drying process did not cause oxidation of the Fe(II)-bearing minerals. The surface area of the minerals was analyzed by multipoint BET N_2 adsorption (Micromeritics Model Gemini).

X-ray Diffraction. Samples of microbially reduced iron-(III) oxide minerals and chemically precipitated $FeCO_3$ were smeared onto petrographic slides and dried inside an anaerobic chamber for 48 h. To prevent oxidation of reduced Fe minerals, slides were then coated with ethyl cellulose dissolved in amyl acetate (8% w:v). Slides were stored

anaerobically until XRD analyses on a Phillips XRG 3100 X-ray diffractometer with a Cu-line source.

Chemical Analyses. Samples for NO_3^- and NO_2^- were filtered through a 0.2- μm nylon filter and exposed to O_2 , which rapidly oxidized Fe(II) and thereby prevented further reduction of NO_2^- by Fe(II) (*39*). The filtered samples were centrifuged, and the supernatant was withdrawn for NO_3^- and NO_2^- analysis. NO_3^- was determined by ion chromatography (IonPac AS14 analytical column, Dionex DX-100 system, Dionex Corp., Sunnyvale, CA). NO_2^- was determined colorimetrically (*40*) with a detection limit of 0.01 μM .

The amount of Fe(II) and total Fe extractable by 0.5 M HCl was determined as previously described (4). The difference between total Fe and Fe(II) in 0.5 M HCl represents poorly crystalline Fe(III) formed by NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation. Crystalline iron(III) oxides [goethite and Fe(III) phases in subsoils] were not liberated by the 0.5 M HCl extraction. Because NO2- spontaneously oxidizes Fe(II) at an acidic pH, Fe(II) determined by 0.5 M HCl extraction would be inaccurate if high concentrations of NO₂⁻ were present. To avoid such artifactual Fe(II) loss, samples for analyses of Fe concentrations were also collected by centrifugation under anaerobic conditions. The supernatant was withdrawn, and 0.5 M HCl was added to the pellet. The pellet was resuspended in acid and allowed to extract overnight. Fe(II) and total Fe in the extract were then determined using ferrozine. Aqueous Fe(II) was determined by analyzing an aliquot of sample filtered through a 0.2- μm nylon filter with ferrozine. The concentrations of 0.5 M HCl-extractable Fe(II)(s) determined via pellet extractions together with aqueous Fe(II) measurements were summed to yield total Fe(II) concentrations. This method yielded results equal to the 0.5 M HCl-extractable Fe(II) content of whole culture samples (aqueous + solid phase). Fe(II)-bearing mineral slurries amended with NO₂--(chemical oxidation studies) and NO₃⁻-reducing cultures containing biogenic Fe₃O₄ and biogenic FeCO₃ were analyzed in this manner due to the substantial concentrations of NO_2 .

Data Presentation. Data are presented in the form of a ratio of the amount of Fe(II) to the total amount of Fe liberated by $0.5\,\mathrm{M}$ HCl extraction [Fe(II) $_{\mathrm{HCl}}$ /total Fe $_{\mathrm{HCl}}$]. This approach reduced data scatter resulting from difficulty in obtaining subsamples of uniform particle content from suspensions of aggregated solids. Systematic changes in the total Fe content of the HCl extracts were not observed, which verified that all of the Fe(III) formed during $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$ -dependent Fe(II) oxidation was recovered by the $0.5\,\mathrm{M}$ HCl extraction.

Results

Microbially Catalyzed NO₃⁻-Dependent Fe(II) Oxidation.

No significant NO₃⁻ reduction or Fe(II) oxidation was observed in pasteurized control cultures (Figures 1-3). In contrast, rapid NO₃--dependent oxidation of the following Fe(II)(s) minerals was observed in cultures inoculated with the enrichment culture described by Straub et al. (27): chemically precipitated FeCO₃ (Figure 1B), HC-70 (Figure 2A), CP-90 (Figure 2B), and goethite (Figure 2C). The significant random data fluctuations observed in some of the control cultures (especially the microbially reduced goethite and CP-90 subsoil) resulted from difficulty in obtaining samples of uniform particle content from suspensions of highly aggregated solids. Aqueous Fe(II) concentrations did not increase in pasteurized cultures over the course of the experiment (data not shown); thus the microbially catalyzed Fe(II)(s) oxidation observed in these studies cannot simply be attributed to dissolution of Fe(II)-bearing solids. As observed by Straub et al. (27), Fe(II) was rapidly oxidized in cultures amended with FeSO₄ (Figure 1A). NO₂⁻ concentrations did not exceed 15 μM in the above cultures. Significant oxidation of biogenic Fe₃O₄ was observed (Figure 3A); a transient accumulation of NO2- was observed in these

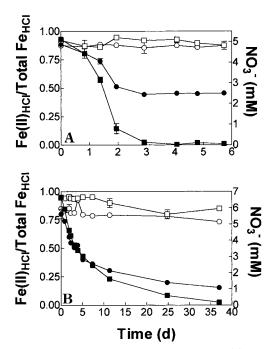


FIGURE 1. Biological NO_3^- -dependent oxidation of (A) FeSO₄ [10 mM Fe(II)] and (B) chemically precipitated FeCO₃ [20 mmol of Fe(II) L⁻¹]. (\blacksquare) Fe(II)_{HCI}/total Fe_{HCI} live culture; (\square) Fe(II)_{HCI}/total Fe_{HCI} pasteurized culture; (\blacksquare) NO_3^- live culture; (\square) NO₃ pasteurized culture. Error bars indicate \pm range of duplicate cultures; bars not visible are smaller than the symbol.

cultures. Although NO_3^- decreased and NO_2^- accumulated in live biogenic $FeCO_3$ cultures, very little of the Fe(II) present was oxidized (Figure 3B).

The rate and extent of Fe(II) oxidation varied substantially among the Fe(II)(s) minerals. Pseudo-first-order rate constants for Fe(II) oxidation were calculated by nonlinear least-squares regression fitting (Prism GraphPad) of Fe(II) vs time data to the following equation:

$$Fe(II)_{t} = [Fe(II)_{initial} - Fe(II)_{final}] \exp(-kt) + Fe(II)_{final}$$
(1)

Note that the quantity $[Fe(II)_{initial} - Fe(II)_{final}]$ represents the total amount of oxidizable Fe(II) at the start of the experiment and that $[Fe(II)_t - Fe(II)_{final}]$ represents the amount of oxidizable Fe(II) present at time t. Percent oxidation was calculated according to

% oxidized =
$$[Fe(II)_{initial} - Fe(II)_{final}]/Fe(II)_{initial} \times 100_{(2)}$$

Goethite cultures exhibited the most rapid rate constant for Fe(II) oxidation ($k = 1.08 \text{ d}^{-1}$) followed by the two subsoils (CP-90 and HC-70), FeSO₄, biogenic Fe₃O₄, chemically precipitated FeCO₃, and biogenic FeCO₃ (Table 2). Although goethite exhibited the fastest oxidation rate, the abiotic Fe-(II) sources (FeSO₄ and chemically precipitated FeCO₃) exhibited the greatest extent of Fe(II) oxidation (97–99%), followed by HC-70 subsoil, goethite, biogenic Fe₃O₄, CP-90 subsoil, and biogenic FeCO₃ (Table 2). The most interesting difference in the rate and extent of oxidation was observed between the two forms of FeCO₃ (chemically precipitated FeCO₃ vs biogenic FeCO₃). Only 6% (ca. 1 mmol L⁻¹) of the biogenic FeCO₃ was oxidized with a first-order decay rate constant of 0.07 d⁻¹, whereas 97% (ca. 19 mmol L⁻¹) of the chemically precipitated FeCO₃ was oxidized with a first-order decay rate constant of $0.17 d^{-1}$.

The molar ratio of NO_3 ⁻ reduced to Fe(II) oxidized in the FeSO₄ (0.26; $r^2 = 0.996$) and chemically precipitated FeCO₃

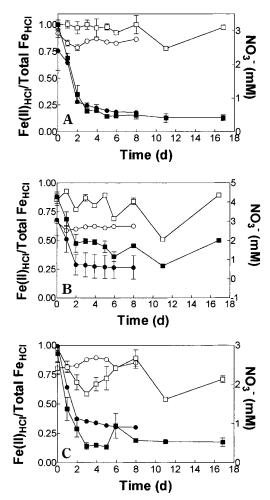


FIGURE 2. Biological NO $_3$ ⁻-dependent oxidation of (A) microbially reduced HC-70 subsoil [8 mmol of Fe(II) L $^{-1}$], (B) microbially reduced CP-90 subsoil [5 mmol of Fe(II) L $^{-1}$], and (C) microbially reduced goethite [2 mmol of Fe(II) L $^{-1}$]. Symbols are the same as in Figure 1. Error bars indicate \pm range of duplicate cultures; bars not visible are smaller than the symbol.

 $(0.24; r^2 = 0.980)$ cultures agreed with the following equation and observations of Straub et al. (27):

$$10\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2\text{NO}_{3}^{-} + 24\text{H}_{2}\text{O} \rightarrow 10\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_{3} + \text{N}_{2} + 18\text{H}^{+}$$
(3)

The molar ratio of NO₃⁻ reduced to Fe(II) oxidized in the HC-70 subsoil cultures (0.26; $r^2 = 0.859$) also approximated the stoichiometry of eq 3. However, the molar ratio of NO₃ consumed to Fe(II) oxidized in the CP-90 subsoil (0.83), goethite (1.21), and biogenic FeCO₃ (0.88) cultures did not agree with the theoretical stoichiometry. Whereas the molar ratios of NO₃⁻ consumed:Fe(II) oxidized in the chemically precipitated FeCO₃, FeSO₄, and HC-70 cultures remained constant throughout the course of Fe(II) oxidation, the ratio of NO₃⁻ to Fe(II) consumed during oxidation of biogenic Fe₃O₄ increased to 2.6 at 1.9 d, when NO₂⁻ concentrations were 0.3 mM, and then decreased to 0.5 by the end of the study. This observation is consistent with organotrophic reduction of NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ followed by organotrophic NO₂⁻ reduction and/or abiotic oxidation of Fe(II) by NO2- (see below).

Chemical Oxidation of Solid-Phase Fe(II)-Bearing Minerals by NO_2^- . To assess the potential significance of the abiotic oxidation of Fe(II)(s) by NO_2^- produced as an intermediate or end product of NO_3^- reduction, a series of chemical Fe(II) oxidation studies were conducted. For these

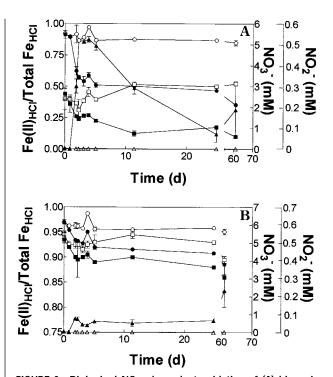


FIGURE 3. Biological NO_3^- -dependent oxidation of (A) biogenic Fe_3O_4 [6 mmol of Fe(II) L $^{-1}$] and (B) biogenic $FeCO_3$ [20 mmol of (Fe(II) L $^{-1}$]. Symbols are the same as in Figure 1. (\blacktriangle) NO_2^- live cultures; (\triangle) NO_2^- pasteurized cultures. The *x*-axis is broken at 25 days and continues at 60 days in order to separate early data points. Error bars indicate \pm range of duplicate cultures; bars not visible are smaller than the symbol.

experiments, pseudo-first-order rate constants were calculated according to eq 1 to allow for comparison with analogous rate constants for biological NO₃-dependent Fe-(II) oxidation. However, we recognize that the oxidation of Fe(II) by NO₂⁻ was not likely a first-order reaction at the concentrations of NO₂⁻ and Fe(II) used. NO₂⁻ oxidized Fe-(II)(s) at an initially rapid rate (pseudo first-order rate constants of 2.9-9.1 d⁻¹) with the exception of biogenic and chemically precipitated FeCO₃, for which no oxidation of Fe(II) or reduction of NO_2^- was apparent after \sim 40 d (Table 3). Although an initially rapid rate of abiotic oxidation of Fe(II)(s) by NO₂⁻ was observed, the fraction of Fe(II) oxidized by NO₂- (Table 3) was less than observed in live NO₃-dependent Fe(II)(s) oxidation cultures (Table 2). The lack of complete Fe(II) oxidation was not due to exhaustion of NO2-, since substantial quantities (> 0.5 mM) remained at the end of each of the experiments. Molar ratios of NO₂⁻ reduced to Fe(II) oxidized for Fe(II)(s) containing HC-70 (0.33), goethite (0.36), and biogenic Fe₃O₄ (0.27) were in the range of the theoretical stoichiometries for reactions such as

$$6\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2\text{NO}_{2}^{-} + 14\text{H}_{2}\text{O} \rightarrow 6\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_{3} + \text{N}_{2} + 10 \text{ H}^{+}$$
 (4)

$$4Fe^{2+} + 2NO_2^- + 9H_2O \rightarrow 4Fe(OH)_3 + N_2O + 6H^+$$
 (5)

The slurry amended with reduced CP-90 subsoil exhibited a molar ratio of NO_2 reduced to Fe(II) oxidized (0.10) less than the predicted molar ratio.

Discussion

The lack of significant NO_2^- accumulation in NO_3^- -reducing cultures containing $FeSO_4$, chemically precipitated $FeCO_3$, HC-70, CP-90, and goethite suggested that Fe(II) oxidation was coupled to direct reduction of NO_3^- to N_2 . A kinetic model simulation of the $FeSO_4$ oxidation experiment was

TABLE 2. Biological NO₃⁻-Dependent Oxidation of Fe(II) Compounds

Fe(II) phase	Fe(II) (mmol L ⁻¹)	NO ₃ ⁻ (mM)	time ^a (d)	% Fe(II) oxidized	molar ratio NO ₃ ⁻ consumed:Fe(II) oxidized ^b	r ²	NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II) oxidation $K^{c}(d^{-1})$	R ²
FeSO ₄	9.1	4.9	6	99	$0.26* \pm 0.01$	0.996	0.46 ^d	0.995
chemically precipitated FeCO ₃	20.3	5.6	37	97	$0.24^* \pm 0.01$	0.980	0.17 ± 0.01	0.986
HC-70	8.1	2.4	8	87	$0.26^* \pm 0.03$	0.859	0.63 ± 0.07	0.973
CP-90	5.2	2.4	11	49	$0.83^* \pm 0.13$	0.773	0.71 ± 0.11	0.855
goethite	2.0	3.0	8	80	$1.21^* \pm 0.10$	0.921	1.08 ± 0.23	0.916
biogenic Fe ₃ O ₄	5.6	5.4	61	77	$0.50^* \pm 0.10$	0.746	0.29 ± 0.06	0.863
biogenic FeCO ₃	18.7	6.1	61	6	$\textbf{0.88} \pm \textbf{0.12}$	0.109	0.07 ± 0.03	0.573

 a Values represent the time when Fe(II) and NO $_3$ ⁻ concentrations are no longer significantly changed. b Determined by linear least-squares regression analyses of NO $_3$ ⁻ vs total Fe(II) data for live cultures. Error terms represent the standard error of the slope. An asterisk (*) indicates statistical significance (p < 0.05). c First-order rate constant (k) determined by nonlinear least-squares regression fitting (Prism GraphPad) of Fe(II) vs time to eq 1 in the text. Error terms represent the standard error of k. d Kinetics of this reaction did not follow a first-order rate equation. Half-life was determined by nonlinear least-squares regression fitting (Prism GraphPad) of Fe(II) vs time data to a sigmoidal variable slope equation and converting $t_{1/2}$ to k according to $k = \ln(2)/t_{1/2}$.

TABLE 3. Abiotic Oxidation of Fe(II) Compounds by NO₂⁻

Fe(II)-bearing minerals	Fe(II) (mmol L ⁻¹)	NO ₂ - (mM)	time ^a (d)	% Fe(II) oxidized	molar ratio NO ₂ ⁻ consumed: Fe(II) oxidized ^b	r²	NO_2^- -dependent oxidation $k^c(d^{-1})$	R ²
FeSO ₄	12.1	3.0	38	76 ^d	$0.38^* \pm 0.03$	0.947	0.153	0.016
chemically precipitated FeCO ₃	22.7	4.2	40^{e}	0	na ^f	na	na	na
HC-70	7.9	2.2	7	32	$0.19^* \pm 0.07$	0.544	0.651 ± 0.23	0.720
CP-90	3.9	1.3	14	30	0.22 ± 0.18	0.178	0.229 ± 0.04	0.639
goethite	1.8	.5	2	25	$0.11^* \pm 0.05$	0.404	0.275 ± 0.26	0.500
biogenic Fe ₃ O ₄	4.8	1.2	21	25	$0.27^* \pm 0.11$	0.519	2.92 ± 1.25	0.566
biogenic FeCO₃	18.63	3.7	40^{e}	0	na	na	na	na

 a Values represent the time when Fe(II) and NO $_2$ ⁻ concentrations are no longer significantly changed. b Determined by linear least-squares regression analyses of NO $_2$ ⁻ vs Fe(II) data. Error terms represent the standard error of the slope. An asterisk (*) indicates statistical significance (p < 0.05). c First-order rate constant (k) determined by nonlinear least-squares regression (Prism GraphPad) fitting of Fe(II) vs time data to eq 1 in the text. Error terms represent the standard error of k. d Complete oxidation of FeSO $_4$ was not observed in this experiment due to exhaustion of NO $_2$. However, other experiments have shown complete abiotic oxidation of FeSO $_4$ by NO $_2$ ⁻. a Terminated at 40 days after no significant change. f na, not applicable.

developed to assess the potential importance of NO_2^- , produced as an intermediate during NO₃⁻ reduction, as an abiotic oxidant during NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation (see Supporting Information). The model incorporated an experimentally determined rate constant for the reaction of FeSO₄ with NO₂⁻ derived from the abiotic oxidation experiment reported in Table 3. Results of the simulation suggested that accumulation of NO₂⁻ far in excess of that observed in the cultures would have occurred if enzymatic NO₃⁻ reduction to NO_2^- , followed by abiotic oxidation of Fe(II) by NO_2^- , was the mechanism responsible for Fe(II) oxidation. It was not possible to conduct analogous simulations of the biogenic Fe(II)(s) oxidation experiments because of complexity introduced by the lack of complete abiotic Fe(II) oxidation by NO₂⁻. However, the generally much lower degree of abiotic Fe(II)(s) oxidation by NO₂⁻ as compared to NO₃⁻-dependent microbial activity (mean = $32 \pm 27\%$, n = 6) emphasizes the role of direct enzymatic reduction of NO₃⁻ to N₂ during Fe-(II) oxidation. Particularly significant in this regard is the behavior of the chemically precipitated FeCO₃, which showed no reaction with NO₂ but was rapidly oxidized enzymatically with little or no accumulation of NO2-

Molar ratios of NO_3^- consumed: Fe(II) oxidized in experimental FeCO $_3$, FeSO $_4$, and HC-70 cultures approximated the theoretical stoichiometry of eq 3, suggesting that Fe(II)(s) was coupled to the reduction of NO_3^- to N_2 . However, molar ratios in goethite, CP-90, biogenic FeCO $_3$, and biogenic Fe $_3O_4$ cultures exceeded the theoretical stoichiometry. The reason for this disagreement is unclear. Other studies of biological NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II) oxidation have also observed molar ratios of NO_3^- consumed to Fe(II) oxidized in excess of theoretical values (27, 30). A purified, lithotrophic, NO_3^- -reducing, Fe(II)-oxidizing culture (BrG2) consumed

more NO_3^- than theoretically predicted (27). The authors speculated that some unidentified N species may have formed a stable complex with iron, a phenomenon that could also have taken place in our cultures. An alternative explanation is that organisms in the enrichment culture reduced NO_3^- organotrophically concurrent with Fe(II) oxidation, using dead cell biomass from the iron(III) oxide-reducing cultures as an energy source. NO_3^- -reducing Fe(II)-oxidizing microorganisms have the ability to utilize a variety of organic substrates (27). The ability of the enrichment culture used in our experiments to oxidize lactate and other substrates coupled to NO_3^- reduction has been verified (K. Weber, unpublished data).

Heterotrophic NO₃⁻ reduction provides an explanation for the transient accumulation of NO2- in biogenic Fe3O4 cultures, given that the molar ratio of NO₃⁻ reduced to Fe(II) oxidized (0.5) exceeded theoretical predictions. This process probably occurred in other cultures (e.g., those containing microbially reduced goethite and CP-90 subsoil) but for unknown reasons did not lead to a significant accumulation of NO₂⁻. The results of an attempt to observe biological NO₂⁻ reduction coupled to oxidation of biogeic Fe₃O₄ supports the conclusion that heterotrophic NO₃⁻ reduction was responsible for NO₂⁻ accumulation. In this experiment, virtually no difference was observed between the amount of Fe(II) oxidized by live and pasteurized cultures, while a significantly greater amount of NO2- was reduced in live cultures relative to pasteurized cultures (data not shown), i.e., additional reducing equivalents were obtained from sources other than Fe(II). However, it is important to note that the amount of biogenic Fe₃O₄ oxidized in NO₃⁻-reducing cultures cannot be accounted for alone by abiotic reaction with NO2 of organotrophic origin. The extent of abiotic Fe3O4

oxidation by NO_2^- (25%; Table 3) was 3-fold less than that observed in live NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II)-oxidizing cultures (77%; Table 2). Hence in the experiment shown in Figure 3A, a fraction of biogenic Fe_3O_4 was oxidized coupled to the biological reduction of NO_3^- as well as the abiotic reaction with NO_2^- produced via organotrophic NO_3^- reduction.

Fredrickson et al. (7) showed that in some cases biogenic Fe_3O_4 was not completely soluble in 0.5 M HCl but that 3 M HCl was able to effectively solublize the entire Fe content of such HFO reduction end products. Analysis of the biogenic Fe_3O_4 used in our experiments showed that 0.5 M HCl solublized 82% and 36% of the 3 M HCl-extractable Fe(II) and total Fe contents, respectively. The possibility exists that 0.5 M non-HCl-extractable Fe(II)(s) was more slowly and/or less extensively oxidized than 0.5 M HCl-extractable Fe(II)(s). If so, then the data reported here could represent an over estimation of rate and extent of overall Fe(II)(s) oxidized. However, the effect was likely minor since 0.5 M HCl recovered greater than 80% of the 3 M HCl-extractable Fe(II) content.

Very little of the Fe(II) in the biogenic FeCO₃ was oxidized. Heterotrophic NO_3^- reduction was thus probably responsible for much of the NO_2^- accumulation observed in these cultures. NO_2^- did not chemically oxidize biogenic FeCO₃ (Table 3). Hence, the 1 mmol Fe(II) L^{-1} that was oxidized in live biogenic FeCO₃ cultures was the result of biological catalysis. In contrast to the biogenic FeCO₃, 95% of the chemically precipitated FeCO₃ was oxidized at a rapid rate (Figure 1B, Table 2). The greater reactivity of chemically precipitated FeCO₃ to biological oxidation may be a result of the much greater (ca. 8-fold) surface area per unit mass (Table 2) available for microbial oxidation.

Environmental Significance. Most of the Fe(II)(s) phases examined were subject to rapid NO₃⁻-dependent oxidation in the presence of active microbial metabolism. In contrast, no significant NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation occurred in cultures containing heat-killed cells. Although a recent study demonstrated that Fe(II) associated with iron(III) oxide (goethite) surfaces was subject to abiotic oxidation by NO₃⁻ (half-life of NO₃⁻ for 10 g wet weight goethite was 1600 min; 25). However, significant abiotic oxidation of Fe(II)(s) by NO_3 did not occur under the culture conditions in this study. Although most of the Fe(II)(s) compounds used in this study were subject to significant chemical oxidation by NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ dependent Fe(II) oxidation was substantially more efficient than abiotic oxidation by NO2-. In addition, only minor concentrations of NO₂⁻ were formed during biological NO₃⁻dependent Fe(II)(s) oxidation, which indicated that Fe(II)(s) oxidation was coupled directly to NO₃⁻ reduction to N₂. These findings indicate that microbial activity has the potential to vastly accelerate the coupling of N and Fe redox cycles in sedimentary environments.

Microbially catalyzed NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation could have a significant influence on the fate of NO₃⁻ in subsurface environments, particularly environments with a limited supply of organic carbon. Inverse correlations between NO₃⁻ and surface-bound Fe(II) in subsoil profiles have been observed (15, 18, 19). Although the authors have attributed this observation to the reduction of NO₃⁻ by Fe(II) (15, 18, 19), whether NO₃⁻ reduction was abiotically or biotically coupled to the oxidation of Fe(II) was not determined. A recent study concluded that microorganisms were not responsible for reduction of NO₃⁻ and oxidation of Fe(II) in these environments (20). However, this study examined heterotrophic NO₃⁻ reduction rates and quantified the abundance of aerobic heterotrophs; the potential for anaerobic NO₃--dependent Fe(II) oxidation was not examined. The identification of NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidizing microorganisms in a variety of environments (11, 28-30) suggests that these organisms could inhabit sediments

investigated by Lind, Ernsten and colleagues. Biological NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II)(s) oxidation could provide an explanation for chemical profiles of NO_3^- and Fe(II)(s) observed in these subsoil environments.

The formation of reactive iron(III) oxides, as a result of biological NO_3^- -dependent Fe(II) oxidation, has the potential to exert a major influence on the aqueous geochemistry of anaerobic soils and sediments. The mobility of contaminant metals and radionuclides is influenced strongly by adsorption to reactive iron(III) oxide surfaces (32). Recent studies in our laboratory indicate that adsorption of Zn to biogenic iron-(III) oxide surfaces produced by microbial NO₃⁻-dependent oxidation of FeSO₄ is comparable to adsorption of Zn to a relatively high surface area goethite produced by air oxidation of FeCl₂ (K. Weber, unpublished data). In addition to the possibility for metal/radionuclide sorption to reactive iron-(III) oxide surfaces, the potential also exists for trapping of contaminant metals via coprecipitation with iron(III) oxides formed during NO₃⁻-dependent Fe(II) oxidation. Further studies examining the kinetics of NO₃⁻-dependent oxidation of microbially reduced iron(III) oxides and the reactivity of the resulting end products are required to understand the impact that this process may exert on the fate of contaminant metals and radionuclides in sedimentary environments.

Acknowledgments

Thanks to Dr. Kristina L. Straub for providing the NO_3 -dependent Fe(II)-oxidizing enrichment culture, Dr. Matilde Urrutia for assistance with surface area analyses, and Dr. D. Craig Cooper for XRD analyses. This research was supported by the Department of Energy, Natural and Accelerated Bioremediation Program, through Grant DE-FG02-97ER62482.

Supporting Information Available

A description of the development and results of the kinetic model simulation of the $FeSO_4$ oxidation experiment (4 pages). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

Literature Cited

- (1) Lovely, D. R. Microbiol. Rev. 1991, 55, 259-287.
- (2) Lovely, D. R. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 1993, 47, 263-290.
- Nealson, K. H.; Saffarini, D. A. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 1994, 48, 311–348.
- (4) Roden, E. E.; Lovely, D. R. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1993, 59, 734–742.
- Roden, E. E.; Wetzel, R. G. Limnol. Oceanogr. 1996, 41, 1733– 1748.
- (6) Urrutia, M. M.; Roden, E. E.; Fredrickson, J. K.; Zachara, J. M. Geomicrobiology 1998, 15, 269–291.
- (7) Fredrickson, J. K.; Zachara, J. M.; Kennedy, D. W.; Dong, H.; Onstott, T. C.; Hinman, N. W.; Li, S. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1999. 62, 3239–3257.
- (8) Stumm, W.; Morgan, J. J. Aquatic Chemistry: Chemical Equilibria and Rates in Natural Waters, 3rd Ed.; John Wiley & Sons: New York, 1996.
- (9) Emerson, D.; Revsbech, N. P. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1994, 60, 4032–4038.
- (10) Emerson, D.; Moyer, C. L. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1997, 63, 4784–4792.
- (11) Benz, M.; Brune, A.; Schink, B. Arch. Microbiol. 1998, 169, 159– 165.
- (12) Emerson, D.; Weiss, J. V.; Megonigal, J. P. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1999, 65, 2758–2761.
- (13) Widdel, F.; Schnell, S.; Heising, S.; Ehrenreich, A.; Assmus, B.; Schink, B. *Nature* **1993**, *362*, 834–835.
- (14) Postma, D. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1985, 54, 1023–1033.
- (15) Lind, A. M. In Denitrification in the Nitrogen Cycle; Golterman, H. M., Ed.; Plenum: New York, 1983; pp 145–156.
- (16) Verdegem, L.; Baert, L. Pedologie 1985, 36, 39-54.
- (17) Postma, D. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1990, 54, 903-908.
- (18) Ernstsen, V.; Mørup, S. *Hyperfine Interact.* **1992**, *70*, 1001–1004.
- (19) Ernstsen, V. Clays Clay. Miner. 1996, 44, 599-608.

- (20) Ernstsen, V.; Binnerup, S. J.; Sørensen, J. Geomicrobiology 1998, 15, 195–207.
- (21) Petersen, H. J. S. Acta Chem. Scand. 1979, 33, 795-796.
- (22) Hansen, H. C. B.; Koch, C. B.; Nancke-Krogh, H.; Borggaard, O. K.; Sørensen. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **1996**, *30*, 2053–2056.
- (23) Buresh, R. J.; Moraghan, J. T. J. Environ. Qual. 1976, 5, 320–325.
- (24) Van Hecke, K.; Van Cleemput, O.; Baert, L. *Environ. Pollut.* **1990**, *63*, 261–274.
- (25) Ottley, C. J.; Davison, W.; Edmunds, W. M. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1997, 61, 1819–1828.
- (26) Langmuir, D. Aqueous Environmental Geochemistry; Prentrice-Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1997.
- (27) Straub, K. L.; Benz, M.; Schink, B.; Widdel, F. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1996, 62, 1458–1460.
- (28) Straub, K. L.; Buchholz-Cleven, B. E. E. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1998, 64, 4846–4856.
- (29) Nielsen, J. L.; Nielsen, P H. Water Sci. Technol. 1998, 37, 403–406
- (30) Nielsen, J. L.; Nielsen, P.H. Environ. Sci. Technol. 1998, 32, 3556–3561.
- (31) Davis, J. A.; Kent, D. B.; Rea, B. A.; Maest, A. S.; Garabedian, S. P. In *Metals in Groundwater*; Allen, H. E., Perdue, E. M., Brown, D. S., Eds.; Lewis Publishers: Boca Raton, FL, 1993; pp 223–273

- (32) Hering, J. G. In *Metal Speciation and Contamination of Soil*, Allen, E. A., Huang, C. P., Bailey, G. W., Bowers, A. R., Eds.; Lewis Publishers: Boca Raton, FL, 1995; pp 59–86.
- (33) Riley, R. G.; Zachara, J. M.; Wobber, F. J. U.S. Department of Energy Report DOE/ER-0547. 1992.
- (34) Sorensen, J. Geomicrobiology 1987, 5, 401-421.
- (35) Roden, E. E.; Zachara, J. M. Environ. Sci. Technol. 1996, 30, 1618–1628.
- (36) Lovely, D. R.; Phillips, E. J. P. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1988, 54, 1472–1480.
- (37) Roden, E. E.; Urrutia, M. M. Environ. Sci. Technol. 1999, 33, 1847–1853.
- (38) Roden, E. E.; Leonardo, M. R.; Ferris, F. G. Manuscript in preparation.
- (39) Sørensen, J.; Thorling, L. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1991, 55, 1289–1294.
- (40) Wetzel, R. G.; Likens, G. E. *Limnological Analyses*; Springer-Verlag: New York, 1991.

Received for review September 11, 2000. Revised manuscript received January 24, 2001. Accepted February 2, 2001.

ES0016598