

1 Response of soil microorganisms to radioactive oil waste: 2 results from a leaching experiment

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Oil wastes produced in large amounts in the processes of oil extraction, refining, and
15 transportation are of great environmental concern because of their mutagenicity, toxicity, high
16 fire hazardousness, and hydrophobicity. About 40% of these wastes contain radionuclides;
17 however, the effects of oil products and radionuclides on soil microorganisms are frequently
18 studied separately.

19 The effects on various microbial parameters of raw waste containing 575 g of total petroleum
20 hydrocarbons (TPH) kg^{-1} waste, 4.4 kBq kg^{-1} of ^{226}Ra , 2.8 kBq kg^{-1} of ^{232}Th , and 1.3 kBq kg^{-1} of
21 ^{40}K and its treated variant (1.6 g kg^{-1} of TPH, 7.9 kBq kg^{-1} of ^{226}Ra , 3.9 kBq kg^{-1} of ^{232}Th , and
22 183 kBq kg^{-1} of ^{40}K) were examined in a leaching column experiment to separate the effects of
23 hydrocarbons from those of radioactive elements. The raw waste sample (H) was collected from
24 tanks during cleaning and maintenance, and a treated waste sample (R) was obtained from
25 equipment for oil waste treatment. Thermal steam treatment is used in the production yard to
26 reduce the oil content.

1 The disposal of H waste samples on the soil surface led to an increase of the TPH content in soil:
2 it became 3.5, 2.8, and 2.2 times higher in the upper (0–20 cm), middle (20–40 cm), and lower
3 (40–60cm) layers respectively.

4 Activity concentrations of ^{226}Ra and ^{232}Th increased in soil sampled from both H- and R-
5 columns in comparison to their concentrations in control soil. The activity concentrations of these
6 two elements in samples taken from the upper and middle layers were much higher for the R-
7 column compared to the H-column, despite the fact that the amount of waste added to the
8 columns was equalized with respect to the activity concentrations of radionuclides.

9 The H waste containing both TPH and radionuclides affected the functioning of the soil microbial
10 community, and the effect was more pronounced in the upper layer of the column. Metabolic
11 quotient and cellulase activity were the most sensitive microbial parameters as their levels were
12 changed 5–1.4 times in comparison to control ones. Changes of soil functional characteristics
13 caused by the treated waste containing mainly radionuclides were not observed. PCR-SSCP
14 (polymerase chain reaction – single strand conformation polymorphism) analysis followed by
15 MDS (metric multidimensional scaling) and clustering analysis revealed that the shifts in
16 microbial community structure were affected by both hydrocarbons and radioactivity. Thus
17 molecular methods permitted to reveal the effects on soil microbial community not only from
18 hydrocarbons, which significantly altered functional characteristics of soil microbiom, but also
19 from radioactive elements.

20

21 **1 Introduction**

22 Oil wastes generated during processing, transportation, and refining of petroleum are serious
23 environmental threats, especially in petroleum-producing regions (Liu et al., 2009; Wang et al.,
24 2012). These wastes contain oily components, water, and mineral fractions, which can include
25 naturally occurring radioactive elements such as thorium, potassium, radium, and others (Abo-
26 Elmagd et al., 2010; Bakr, 2010). Yearly, about 60 million tons of oily wastes are generated (*Hu*
27 *et al.*, 2013). About 30–40% of the oil wastes are radioactive; thus this type of waste is very
28 common (Al-Masri, 2004; Hamlat, 2001; Selivanovskaya et al., 2013). The waste materials are
29 hazardous to plants, animals, and microorganisms due to the presence of toxic and mutagenic

1 compounds and their interactions (Marin et al., 2005; Verma et al., 2006). In Russia these wastes
2 are usually disposed of on the soil surface along the roads, around the new industrial buildings
3 and building under construction, etc. (Galitskaya, 2014; Selivanovskaya, 2012). When disposed
4 of on the surface soil and exposed to precipitation, components of the oil wastes can leach into
5 the soil, altering the chemical, physical, and biological properties (Mikkonen et al., 2012). As oil
6 wastes are mixtures of inorganic and organic compounds which can degrade to metabolites of
7 unknown persistence and toxicity, chemical quantification is insufficient to estimate the
8 environmental risk (Morelli et al., 2005; Mikkonen et al., 2012).

9 Microorganisms are an essential part of terrestrial ecosystems, playing important roles in soil
10 biogeochemical cycles (Marcin et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013). Soil microbial properties appear to
11 be good indicators of soil pollution, as they are very responsive and provide information about
12 the changes occurring in soil (Marin et al., 2005; Tejada et al., 2008). Soil microbial biomass and
13 basic respiration are the two parameters that are traditionally used to estimate soil quality,
14 particularly for soils polluted by hydrocarbons (Labud, 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Lamy et al., 2013).
15 Another microbial parameter which can sensitively reflect the quality of soils is microbial
16 enzymes, as they participate in the biological cycling of elements and the transformation of
17 organic and mineral compounds (Marin et al., 2005).

18 Changes in abiotic and biotic ecological factors significantly affect the structure of bacterial and
19 fungal soil communities, therefore these changes can be used as a tool for soil impact
20 assessment (Huang et al., 2013). To investigate the microbial community, shifts in soils, culture-
21 independent molecular techniques such as clone libraries, gradient gel electrophoresis, single
22 strand polymorphisms, terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism, deep sequencing, and
23 quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction are used (Adetutu et al., 2013; Bacosa et al.,
24 2012; Liu et al., 2013).

25 The effects of crude oil and oil waste on soil and its microbial community have been studied (Lee
26 et al., 2008; Labud, 2007; Marin et al., 2005; Admon et al., 2001), while fewer publications are
27 devoted to the hazards of naturally occurring radioactive elements (Abo-Elmagd et al., 2010;
28 Hrichi et al., 2013) or their effects on bacteria (Zakeri et al., 2012). Hydrocarbons can cause
29 direct toxic effects on microbial cell due to their ability to change fluidity and permeability of cell
30 membranes and to alter cell homeostasis, to inhibit enzymes, to disrupt the electron transport

1 chain and oxidative phosphorylation, and to cause lipid proliferation (Ruffing and Trahan, 2014).
2 Besides, hydrocarbon may cause indirect effects on soil bacteria by changing of aeration and
3 water regimes. Radionuclides may cause chromosomal aberrations, single strand breaks and base
4 pair substitution in DNA of microorganisms (Min et al., 2003). The combined effects of wastes,
5 consisting of both heavy fraction hydrocarbons and radionuclides, on soil still need to be
6 investigated.

7 We hypothesized that the oil wastes disposed of on soil surfaces affect the microbial communities
8 due to both hydrocarbons and radioactive elements contained in them. To assess these effects,
9 column experiments were performed. Raw (containing oily compounds and radionuclides) and
10 treated waste (containing mainly radionuclides) samples from a petroleum production yard were
11 investigated. The effects of TPH and radioactive elements on three soil layers in columns (0–20,
12 20–40, and 40–60 cm) were investigated to characterize: a) the rate of migration of these
13 contaminants, b) the effects on the microbiological characteristics of the soil layers (metabolic
14 coefficient and enzyme activities), and c) shifts in the structure of bacterial communities by
15 means of PCR-SSCP.

16

17 **2 Materials and methods**

18 **2.1 Experimental design**

19 In the experiment we used six soil columns of $60 \times 10 \times 10$ cm (height \times length \times width) with
20 undestroyed native soil (Luvisol, $C_{\text{org}} = 1.2\%$, $N_{\text{tot}} = 0.11\%$, $K_{\text{ext}} = 91 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, $P_{\text{ext}} = 125 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$)
21 collected from the Matyushenski forest nursery, Tatarstan, Russia (latitude: $55^{\circ}48'07''$ N,
22 longitude: $49^{\circ}16'13''$ E). Two columns were not artificially contaminated by waste samples and
23 served as a control (C-columns). On the top of the other four columns we disposed of two waste
24 samples (each waste sample in two replicates), and thus the soil of these columns was considered
25 to be contaminated.

26 Sixteen waste samples were collected from tanks, pipes, and production equipment in different
27 seasons of 2010–2012 at the Tikchonovskii petroleum production yard (Tatarstan, Russia)
28 (latitude: $54^{\circ} 50' 26''$ N, longitude: $52^{\circ} 27' 08''$ E). Two of these waste samples were used for
29 analyzing the toxicity and in the soil column experiment: a raw waste sample (H) collected from

1 tanks during cleaning and maintenance, and a treated waste sample (R) obtained from equipment
2 for oil waste treatment. The TPH of the H sample contained 36% aromatics, 27% asphaltenes,
3 16% aliphatics and 21% resins. Thermal steam treatment is used in the production yard to reduce
4 the oil content. The quantity of waste samples H and R loaded onto soil columns was calculated
5 to equalize the activity concentrations of ^{226}Ra (about 1 kBq kg^{-1}) (H-columns and R-columns,
6 correspondingly). Over 30 days, the waste samples were situated on the top of the soil columnsm
7 and the rainfall was simulated based upon the average atmospheric precipitation for the European
8 part of Russia (650 mm a year).

9 After a month at $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, soil from each column was divided into three parts (upper layer: 0–20 cm
10 (u), middle layer: 20–40 cm (m), and lower layer: 40–60 cm (l) to give soil samples Hu, Hm, Hl,
11 Ru, Rm, Rl, and Cu, Cm, Cl) and analysed.

12 **2.2 Chemical parameters**

13 The total hydrocarbon content (TPH) in waste and soil samples was determined by IR-
14 spectrometry with an AN-2 analyser (LLC NEFTEHIMAVTOMATIKA-SPb, Saint Petersburg,
15 Russia). Fractionation of TPH into aromatics, aliphatics, asphaltenes, and resins was done by
16 silica gel column chromatography followed by gravimetric analysis (Walker, 1975). TPH extracts
17 were dissolved in n-pentane and separated into soluble and insoluble fractions (asphaltene). The
18 soluble fraction was loaded on the top of a silica gel G (60–120 mesh) column ($2 \text{ cm} \times 30 \text{ cm}$)
19 and eluted with solvents of different polarities. The alkane fraction was eluted with 100 ml of
20 hexane and then the aromatic fraction was eluted with 100 ml of toluene. The resin fraction was
21 eluted with 100 ml of methanol and chloroform (Mishra, 2001).

22 Samples were dried for 24 h at $110 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, homogenized, and sieved through a 0.8 mm mesh. The
23 sieved samples were weighed, packed in a Marinelli-type beaker (1000 ml), sealed, and stored for
24 4 weeks to reach equilibrium between ^{226}Ra and its decay-product. Gamma-ray spectrometric
25 measurements for natural radioactivity (^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K) were performed with a Progress
26 gamma spectrometer (SPC Doza, Zelenograd Moscow, Russia) using a scintillation block for
27 detection based on a crystal of sodium iodide (Fotiou et al.,1998) at a resolution of 30 keV at the
28 662 keV Cs-137 gamma line.

1 The total organic carbon content in waste samples was estimated according to (ISO 10694:1995,
2 1995), the total nitrogen content according to (ISO 11261:1995, 1995), pH according to (ISO
3 10390:2005, 2005), and electroconductivity according to (ISO 11265:1994, 1994).

4 **2.3 Microbiological analysis**

5 Soil metabolic quotient ($q\text{CO}_2$) was calculated as the ratio of basal microbial respiration to soil
6 microbial biomass (Anderson and Domsch, 1990). Basal respiration rates were determined
7 according to Schinner et al. (1995), and microbial biomass according to (ISO 14240-2, 1997).

8 The dehydrogenase (DHA) activity of microorganisms was determined according to the method
9 described in (Garcia et al., 1997). Soil (1 g) adjusted to 60% water-holding capacity was treated
10 with 0.2 ml of 4% 2-*p*-iodophenyl-3-*p*-nutrophenyl-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride and incubated
11 at 22 °C in darkness (autoclaved soil samples were used as controls). After 20 h, the
12 iodinitrotetrazolium formazan (INTF) was extracted with 10 ml of ethylene chloride/acetone
13 (2:3), measured spectrophotometrically at 490 nm, and the results were expressed as mg INTF g⁻¹
14 dry soil h⁻¹.

15 Cellulase activity (CA) was estimated by hydrolysis of carboxymethylcellulose according to the
16 method described in (Pancholy and Rice, 1973) with modifications: soil (3 g) adjusted to 60%
17 water holding capacity, 7.5 ml of 1.15 M phosphate buffer, 5 ml of 1% carboxymethylcellulose,
18 and 0.5 ml of toluene were incubated at 28 °C for 24 h. The samples were filtered and 2 ml of
19 dinitrosalicylic acid reagent (10 g of 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid, 16 g of NaOH, and 300 g of K-Na-
20 tartrate tetrahydrate in 1 l of distilled water) was added to 4 ml of filtrate. The samples were then
21 incubated at 95 °C for 10 min in a water bath, cooled, and measured at 540 nm. Results were
22 expressed as milligrams of reducing sugars in 1 g of dry soil.

23 **2.4 SSCP (single strand conformation polymorphism)**

24 Soil samples were sieved (4 mm mesh) and homogenized, DNA was extracted using the
25 FastDNA®SPIN Kit for Soil (Bio101, Qiogene, Heidelberg, Germany) according to the
26 instructions provided, and the DNA concentration was measured at 260 nm (Thermo Scientific
27 GENESYS 20™, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, USA). DNA extracts were stored at -
28 20 °C for further analysis. Extraction was performed twice for contaminated and control samples.

1 SSCP fingerprinting of the bacterial communities was performed as described by Kampmann et
2 al. (2012). Briefly, a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed (MyCycler, Bio-Rad,
3 Munich, Germany) in a total volume of 50 μl using chemicals and enzymes purchased from
4 Fermentas (St. Leon-Rot, Germany). The reaction mixture contained 0.6 μl of 0.02 U μl^{-1}
5 DreamTaq DNA Polymerase, 5 μl of 1 \times Taq Buffer, 4 μl of 2 mM MgCl_2 , 5 μl of 0.2 mM of
6 each dNTP, 1 μl of 0.2 μmol^{-1} of each primer, 1 μl of 0.16 mg ml^{-1} BSA, and 2 μl of DNA.
7 Bacterial communities were analyzed using the universal bacterial 16S rRNA gene primer pair
8 Com1/Com2 (CAG CAG CCG CGG TAA TAC / CCG TCA ATT CCT TTG AGT TT)
9 (Schwieger and Tebbe, 1998) purchased from Eurofins MWG Operon (Ebersberg, Germany).
10 The PCR parameters were 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 3 min, followed by 16 cycles at 94 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 s, 64–57 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for
11 30 s, and 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 s, followed by 9 cycles at 94 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 s, 57 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 s, and 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30
12 s, with a final elongation step of 30 min at 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. PCR products were purified using the QiaQuick
13 PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Before electrophoresis, ssDNA fragments were
14 generated by lambda exonuclease digestion according to Schwieger and Tebbe (1998). The
15 ssDNA was separated using the INGENYphorU electrophoresis system (Ingeny International
16 BV, Goes, Netherlands) at 450 V and 19.5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 17 h in a non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel
17 consisting of 0.6 \times MDE solution (Biozym Scientific GmbH, Hessisch Oldendorf, Germany) and
18 1 \times TBE buffer (0.89 M Tris, 0.89 M boric acid, and 20 mM EDTA pH 8.0). The gel was silver-
19 stained using the Page Silver Staining Kit (Fermentas, St. Leon-Rot, Germany) according to the
20 instructions provided and scanned to obtain digitized gel images.

21 **2.5 Identification of excised bands**

22 Dominant bands were excised from SSCP gels as described by Schwieger and Tebbe (1998). The
23 gel-extracted DNA was re-amplified and cloned as described by Kampmann et al. (2012) using
24 the pGEM-T[®] Vector System (Promega, Mannheim, Germany). The four clones of each band to
25 be sequenced (LGC Genomics GmbH, Berlin, Germany) using the M13 (Promega, Mannheim,
26 Germany) forward primer were sent to LGC Genomics GmbH (Berlin, Germany) in a 96-well
27 microtiter plate filled with LB (Lysogeny Broth)-Agar with 50 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ of ampicillin.

28 Quality checks and cutting of sequences were performed using the software package MEGA
29 version 5.0 (Tamura et al., 2011). Sequences were analyzed for chimeras with the Pintail program
30 (Version 1, Cardiff School of Biosciences, Cardiff, United Kingdom) (Ashelford et al., 2005),

1 and putative chimeras were removed from the data set. Alignments were done with the SILVA
2 web aligner (SINA v1.2.11, Microbial Genomics and Bioinformatics Research Group, Bremen,
3 Germany) (Pruesse et al., 2007), and similarity values were calculated using the PHYLIP
4 neighbor-joining algorithm (Felsenstein, 1989) implemented in the ARB software package
5 (Ludwig et al., 2004). For sequence comparison, the SILVA SSU 106 Ref database was used.
6 Sequences were deposited in the NCBI GenBank database with the accession numbers
7 KF926419-KF926433.

8 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

9 Sampling and chemical analyses were carried out in triplicate and biological analyses in
10 quintuplicate, and all results were expressed on an air-dried soil basis. Random variability of data
11 was analyzed to determine the mean values and standard errors (S.E.). Statistical analyses were
12 performed using Origin 8.0 (OriginLab, Northampton, USA) and R Statistical Software (R 3.0.0,
13 R Foundation for Statistical Computing Version, Vienna, Austria) (R Development Core Team,
14 2012) packages.

15 SSCP gels were scanned at 400 dpi and the number of SSCP bands and their areas and integrated
16 intensities were estimated with Quantity One 1-D Analysis Software (Biorad, Hercules, CA,
17 USA). Each band was used as the measured unit of biodiversity. Microbial community diversity
18 was expressed using several indices: Shannon-Weaver (H-index) and Simpson (D-index) indices
19 were calculated according to (Shannon and Weaver, 1963) and (Simpson, 1949), respectively; the
20 species diversity (S-index) corresponded to the number of species in the line; the simple index (I-
21 index) was calculated as the number of bands in the SSCP line divided by the number of bands in
22 the line with the highest number of bands estimated according to (Silvestri et al., 2007); and the
23 equitability of the bands was calculated by Shannon's evenness (E-index) (Zornoza et al., 2009).

24 Two-way ANOVA with interaction was used to analyze the impact of factors (e.g. depth of soil
25 layers or type of contaminant) on the presence of bands and microbial community diversity
26 indices, and results yielding a p-value less than 0.01 were considered highly significant
27 (Chambers and Hastie, 1992). In all ANOVA, the number of degrees of freedom was two for the
28 type of contaminant, two for the depth of soil layers, four for the interaction of these two factors,
29 and nine for the residuals. The F-statistic was in the range [6, 17.6] (p-value range [0.02, 0.001])

1 for the type of contaminant, [0.7596, 11.5] (p-value range [0.5, 0.003]) for the depth of soil
2 layers, and [1.9, 5.1] (p-value range [0.2, 0.02]) for the interaction of these two factors. To
3 visualize the differences in microbial communities, metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) plots
4 were created, where matrices of band abundance were assembled, and similarity matrices were
5 calculated according to the Bray-Curtis coefficient (Faith et al., 1987).

6 Cluster analysis was performed using hierarchic clusterization based on a matrix of microbial
7 communities dissimilarity. The Ward minimum variance method from the Vegan package of the
8 R software (R Foundation for Statistical Computing Version 3.0.0, Vienna, Austria) (R
9 Development Core Team, 2012), which aims to find compact, spherical clusters, was
10 implemented for clusterization (Ward, 1963).

11

12 **3. Results and discussion**

13 **3.1 Chemical characterization of the wide range of waste samples**

14 Oil wastes can contain radioactive elements and hydrocarbons in various concentrations (Lazar et
15 al., 1999). In our work, we estimated TPH content and activity concentrations of 16 oily wastes
16 sampled at petroleum production yard. As shown in Table 1, the TPH content ranged from 1.6 to
17 880.3 g kg⁻¹, the activity concentration of ²²⁶Ra ranged from 0.03 to 7.92, that of ²³²Th ranged
18 from 0.02 to 5.09, and that of ⁴⁰K ranged from 0.03 to 2.28 kBq kg⁻¹. The values obtained are
19 comparable to or slightly exceed values reported by other authors (Liu et al., 2009; Ros et al.,
20 2010; Gazineu and Hazin, 2008; El Afifi and Awwad, 2005; Ayotamuno et al., 2007).

21 The waste pairs 13/14 and 15/16 marked in Table 1 represent the two pairs of untreated and
22 treated waste samples. The treatment of these wastes, which is a thermal steam treatment with
23 chemical agents, is a part of the industrial process. The goal of the treatment is to reduce the
24 hazardous properties of the wastes.

25 For further investigation, we have chosen the wastes 13 (further H) and 14 (further R) for the
26 following reasons: i) from the waste samples studied, the initial waste sample H possesses a quite
27 high concentration of TPH and, at the same time, high activity concentrations of radionuclides; ii)
28 from the waste samples studied, the treated waste sample R possesses the highest activity
29 concentration of ²²⁶Ra and the second-highest activity concentrations of ²³²Th and ⁴⁰K; iii) the

1 composition of the mineral part of the R-sample is the same as that of the H-sample, so the
2 effects of removing hydrocarbons from the waste can be studied.

3 **3.2 Chemical characterization of the waste samples H and R**

4 As shown in Table 1, the TPH content in the sample H was estimated to be $575.2 \pm 121.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$,
5 which is typical for this waste (Ayotamuno et al., 2007; Al-Futaisi et al., 2007; Tahhan and Abu-
6 Ateih, 2009; Selivanovskaya et al., 2013). The other physico-chemical characteristics of the
7 wastes were determined as follows. The distribution of fractions in the H sample was: $26 \pm 2\%$
8 asphaltenes, $23 \pm 1\%$ resins, $19 \pm 1\%$ aliphatics, and $32 \pm 2\%$ aromatics. EC in this sample was
9 estimated to be 4.78 ± 0.56 , and the pH was 7.2 ± 0.1 . The C:N ratio was equal to 187 (TOC 747
10 $\pm 32 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, $N_{\text{tot}} 4 \pm 0.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$).

11 The treatment of the H sample decreased the TPH content to $1.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ (Table 1) and
12 increased the activity concentrations of ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K 1.8-, 1.4-, and 1.8-fold, respectively;
13 these values are comparable with those reported by (El Afifi and Awwad, 2005; Bakr, 2010; Al-
14 Saleh and Al-Harshan, 2008; Abo-Elmagd et al., 2010). ^{226}Ra was the predominant isotope at
15 $4.40 \pm 0.31 \text{ kBq kg}^{-1}$. ^{226}Ra belongs to the uranium and thorium decay series, and the awareness
16 of radium isotopes is caused by the fact that it decays into radon (^{222}Rn), which is an Class A
17 carcinogen (Zakeri et al., 2012). A comparison of the results with the recommended IAEA levels
18 for natural radionuclides (IBSS, 2001) indicated that the waste samples could cause
19 environmental changes, as the values were 2.1- to 2.8-fold higher than recommended for ^{232}Th
20 and 1.3- to 2.3-fold lower than recommended for ^{226}Ra . Zakeri et al. (Zakeri et al., 2012) reported
21 that stress of 6 kBq or more from ^{226}Ra influences growth characteristics, and stress of 1 kBq or
22 more up-regulates proteins in a *Serratia marcescens* strain isolated from a hot spring. In the R
23 sample we observed the following fractions in TPH: $36 \pm 3\%$ asphaltenes, $33 \pm 2\%$ resin, $12 \pm$
24 1% aliphatics, and $19 \pm 2\%$ aromatics. The electroconductivity of this sample was equal to $5.13 \pm$
25 0.4 , the pH was 7.1 ± 0.1 , and the C:N ratio was 35 (TOC: $2.10 \pm 0.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$; N_{tot} : $0.06 \pm 0.01 \text{ g}$
26 kg^{-1}).

27 **3.3 Chemical characteristics of the soil samples**

28 The oil waste sample H and its treated variant R were added to the soil columns once, and then
29 over 30 days, an amount of water equal to the yearly local precipitation was added. In control

1 columns, the TPH content and activity concentration of radioactive elements were typical for the
2 natural soils (Starkov and Migunov, 2003; Vera Tomé et al., 2002; Shawky et al., 2001;
3 Gumerova et al., 2013), and did not change significantly between the upper (0-20 cm), middle
4 (20–40 cm), and lower (40–60 cm) layers. The TPH content ranged from 0.2 to 0.4 g kg⁻¹, the
5 activity concentration of ²²⁶Ra ranged from 0.01 to 0.02, that of ²³²Th ranged from 0.021 to
6 0.023, and that of ⁴⁰K ranged from 0.29 to 0.34 kBq kg⁻¹; these values are within the worldwide
7 averages (UNSCEAR, 2000).

8 Higher TPH and radionuclide content values were seen for H- and R-columns in comparison to
9 corresponding controls (Fig. 1), which indicated leaching of toxic compounds from the waste
10 samples into soil layers. H waste samples increased the TPH content in H soil columns, which
11 was not observed for R-columns. In the Hu samples, TPH content was estimated to be 3.5-fold
12 higher than in the corresponding control (Cu), while lesser amounts of hydrocarbons had
13 migrated into the middle and lower soil layers (2.8- and 2.2-fold greater than control). The trend
14 for TPH distribution in soil layers indicated that TPH contamination of deeper soil layers was to
15 be expected.

16 Analyses of radionuclide activity concentrations indicated that concentrations of ⁴⁰K in the soil
17 samples of H and R columns did not differ from control values. In soil, this natural radioactive
18 element predominated, and the concentration was not high in the waste samples. The average
19 migration of other elements did not exceed 0.8%. Presumably, the leakage of ⁴⁰K from waste
20 samples was comparable with that of other radionuclides, and therefore its migration did not
21 change the natural level of this radionuclide in soil samples.

22 Activity concentrations of ²²⁶Ra and ²³²Th were increased in H-soil samples and 1.2- to 6.2-fold
23 in R-soil samples over the control. The activity concentrations of these two elements were much
24 higher in Ru- and Rm-samples compared to Hu- and Hm-samples, despite the fact that the
25 amount of waste added to the columns was equalized with respect to the activity concentrations
26 of radionuclides. Likely, radionuclides in raw waste samples were part of organic complexes,
27 which hindered their leakage into soil layers with precipitation, while radionuclides migrated
28 freely with water in the R mineral sample.

29 In overall, it was shown that only low amounts (up to 0.8%) of TPH and radionuclides leaked into soil.
30 But these relatively low concentrations did alter the microbial community of soil as shown below.

1 **3.4 Microbial community in soil samples**

2 **3.4.1 Soil metabolic quotient, cellulase, and dehydrogenase activities**

3 Soil metabolic quotients ($q\text{CO}_2$), which were expected to be higher in the soil samples with
4 higher microbial stress (Marin et al., 2005), are presented in Fig. 2a. The lowest $q\text{CO}_2$ was
5 observed for the upper and middle layers of the control columns, while the highest values were
6 found for the upper and middle layers of the H-columns and in the lower layers of all three
7 columns, where the microbial community was affected by oxygen and organic matter limitations.
8 The first is probably due to the effects of hydrocarbons leached from the oil wastes on
9 microorganisms.

10 Cellulases are important enzymes in the carbon cycle, and CA may be used to indicate soil
11 impacts (Sinigani and Sinigani, 2012). As shown in Fig. 2b, CA in all soil columns decreased
12 from the upper to the lower layers. No significant differences were found between R-samples and
13 corresponding control samples, but in Hu and Hm samples, CA was 1.4-fold lower than that of
14 the controls, which indicated that hydrocarbons can decrease the cellulase activity of the soil.

15 DHA is often used as a parameter for the estimation of soil quality, in particular for the
16 hydrocarbon degradation rate (Margesin et al., 2000; Marin et al., 2005). In this study, no
17 significant correlation between DHA and the toxic element content or soil depth was found for R-
18 and H-samples (from all three layers) (Fig. 2c). This disagreed with the results reported in (Lee et
19 al., 2008) and (Tejada et al., 2008), where a significant negative correlation between TPH content
20 in soil and DHA was seen. However, these authors worked with soils containing 4.5–100 g kg⁻¹
21 of hydrocarbons, whereas in this study, TPH levels did not exceed 1.3 g kg⁻¹.

22 Microbial parameter values for H- and R-columns were 62, 70, 95, and 80, 95, 110% of
23 corresponding control samples for the upper, middle and lower layers, respectively. These data
24 indicated that the highest stress existed in Hu and Hm samples, which were influenced by the raw
25 waste. Radionuclides appeared to play a less important role for microbial functional properties.

26 **3.4.2 Microbial community structure**

27 Shifts in microbial community structure are sensitive indicators for assessing the changes in soils
28 under the influence of pollution as well as other biotic and abiotic factors. Recently, culture-
29 independent methods were used to estimate the number of strains belonging to different

1 ecological or systematic groups (Adetutu et al., 2013). In this study, PCR-SSCP was used to
2 describe the changes in microbial community structure (Schwieger and Tebbe, 1998).

3 **Bacterial species identified after sequencing of bands obtained from SSCP gels**

4 Total bacterial DNA was extracted, amplified by PCR using common bacterial primers for 16S
5 rDNA, and separated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SSCP profiles are shown in Fig. 3).
6 SSCP patterns demonstrated variations between different soil layers and types of contaminants
7 (oily components + radionuclides or only radionuclides), where 21 to 34 discrete bands of
8 various intensities were observed for each SSCP line, and the types of the bands were identified
9 using relative electrophoretic distances. In total, 488 bands were detected and 25 were observed
10 in at least two independent SSCP profiles.

11 Selected bands 1–4 (Fig. 3) were excised from the gel, cleaned, cloned, and sequenced. Bands 1
12 and 2 were considered stable, as they were present in all samples (except Ru) in relatively large
13 amounts. Band 3 dominated in control samples, and its relative abundance expressed in term of
14 area and band intensity was 1.5- to 3.8-fold higher in control samples than in H- and R-samples.
15 Band 4 was present in all samples, but was predominant in H-samples.

16 Four randomly-picked clones of each band (after blue-white selection) were sequenced, and the
17 next relatives were identified by a similarity matrix using the neighbor-joining algorithm
18 implemented in the ARB software and the SILVA database SSU 106 Ref. Clones of band 1
19 (KF926419-KF926422) were phylogenetically similar to *Burkholderia* strains found in
20 unpolluted and polluted sites (AF247491, DQ465451, FJ210816) (Weisskopf et al.,
21 2011; Friedrich et al., 2000), while clones of band 2 (KF926423-926425) were similar to strains
22 of *Burkholderia* and *Bradyrhizobium jicamae* (JX010967, JN662515). Bacteria from the genus
23 *Burkholderia* are typical soil inhabitants, and certain *Burkholderia* strains are resistant to
24 hydrocarbons and are used in the bioremediation of oil polluted sites (Bacosa et al., 2012;
25 Weisskopf et al., 2011; Hamamura et al., 2008; Adetutu et al., 2013). Band 3 (KF926426-
26 KF926429), which is sensitive to oily and radioactive components in the waste samples (not seen
27 in contaminated H- and R-samples), was genetically similar to *Hydrogenobacter*
28 *hydrogenophilus* (Z30242) uncultured *Acidobacteria* isolated from unpolluted grassland and
29 forest soils (HQ598830, HQ599021) (Naether et al., 2012) and an uncultured *Chlorobiales*

1 bacterium found in a uranium mining waste pile (AJ295649, AJ536877) (Selenska-Pobell, 2002).
2 Band 4 (KF926430-KF926433), which dominated in H-columns, was related to an uncultured
3 bacterium from mineral soils of the Atacama desert (JX098489, JX098426) (Lynch et al., 2012)
4 and actinomycetes from the genus *Catenulispora* (CP001700, AJ865857) (Busti et al., 2006) as
5 well as strains isolated from gasoline-polluted sites (or able to degrade hydrocarbons)
6 (JQ919514) (Hilyard et al., 2008), including a *Parvibaculum* strain that catabolizes linear
7 alkylbenzene sulfonate (AY387398) (Schleheck et al., 2004).

8 **SSCP analysis of PCR products and statistical analysis**

9 The microbial diversity of each sample was calculated using five indices, and the results are
10 presented in Table 2.

11 The S-index represented the number of SSCP bands in a line (in the sample). The number of
12 bands ranged between 25 and 34 in C-columns, between 23 and 29 in H-columns, and between
13 21 and 29 in R-columns. No significant differences were seen between samples from H, R, and
14 control columns with respect to depth. Only in the R1-samples did the number of the SSCP
15 patterns decrease significantly in comparison to samples from the upper and middle layers. The
16 average number of bands tended to be higher in the control samples (29.7) compared to the
17 contaminated samples (25.8 each). According to the data presented in the literature, the influence
18 of combined hydrocarbon and mineral contamination of soil can lead to both increases and
19 decreases of its microbial diversity. Thus, the increase of microbial diversity is explained by the
20 fact that TPH can be used by microorganisms as carbon sources. Therefore, a relatively low TPH
21 input could lead to development of new hydrocarbon-degrading species without suppression of
22 indigenous microbes (Gao, 2015; Nie, 2009). Negative effects on soil biodiversity are explained
23 by significant inhibition of indigenous microflora in the oil-contaminated sites because of the
24 toxic influence of hydrocarbons or their metabolites, oxygen deficit, and other factors (Hui et al.,
25 2007; Morelli et al., 2005; Marcin et al., 2013).

26 The I-index reflected the diversity of bands in the sample with respect to the sample with the
27 highest biodiversity; the highest I-indices were observed in Cm samples and the lowest in R1
28 samples. The community diversity Shannon-Weaver index (H-index), which is expected to be
29 higher in samples with the highest number of bands but with similar frequencies, fluctuated from

1 2.72 to 3.38. This reflected the variety of band profiles among samples, which indicated changes
2 in the microbial community due to waste compounds or depth. The evenness (E-index) was
3 higher in the samples with higher H-indices ($R = 0.86$). The Simpson D-index was smaller when
4 one band predominated, and the lowest D-indices were observed for RI and Hu samples. The
5 sample compositions differed significantly between H-samples and other samples, and the bands
6 labelled 4 (Fig. 4) were dominant while band 3 disappeared. These results were in agreement
7 with those of Morelli et al. (2005), who observed that organisms in polluted ecosystems which
8 are capable of degrading contaminants or resisting toxicity are dominant, while other species do
9 not survive.

10 The ANOVA of the linear model of influence of factors (type of waste, depth, their
11 interdependence, and residuals) on biodiversity was performed. The presence of oil waste was
12 significant only for the D-index ($p < 0.01$), while other indices of biodiversity did not depend on
13 the factors investigated.

14 The correlation between factors describing soil samples (type of waste, depth, their
15 interdependence, and residuals) and microbial community structure was examined. ANOVA of
16 the presence or absence of 25 bands (which were observed in at least two samples) was carried
17 out, and it was found that depth was a significant factor for five bands, the presence of
18 contaminant for six, and the combined influence of these two factors for three ($p < 0.01$). An
19 ANOVA for the MDS values was performed as suggested by (Lin et al., 2012) to reduce the
20 dimensions of the values analyzed. The type of waste, as well as the interaction between waste
21 and depth, was significant for the structure of the microbial community. Depth did not play an
22 important role in the bacterial community structure ($p < 0.01$) and the control columns did not
23 differ between soil layers, as opposed to H- and R-columns.

24 Samples were grouped using MDS and clustering analysis methods. Cluster analysis, which
25 orders samples according to their similarity indices, is commonly used to show the differences or
26 classification between groups of clusters (Kadali et al., 2012). To determine the number of
27 clusters on the dendrogram (Fig. 4), the method of natural break was implemented. The samples
28 were divided into two groups: the first group included all control samples, while the second
29 group contained R-samples from the upper and middle layers as well as all H- and R-samples
30 from lower layers (the samples of the second group contained fewer microbial strains). The first

1 group was subdivided into three parts according to the type of waste or depth: Rm-samples, C-
2 samples of the upper and middle layers (further subdivided into Rl-samples, Hl-samples, and H-
3 samples of the upper and middle layers), and Ru/Cl samples.

4 MDS is the most common ordination method used for ecological community data (Wilson et al.,
5 2013; Terahara et al., 2004). Figure 5 shows the MDS plot ($r^2 = 0.56$ for distance
6 correspondence), where the closer to one another the points representing microbial communities
7 were situated on the plot, the more similar these microbial communities were. Samples were
8 positioned according to the type of contaminant (H, R, and uncontaminated control (C)), which
9 could be explained by the selective influence of toxic compounds from H and R on the strains
10 present in soil. This finding is consistent with that of Hamamura et al. (2008), who suggested that
11 the population shifts corresponding to the prominent bands in soils are due to the content of
12 hydrocarbons. It is important to note that communities from the R-columns were separated from
13 the communities from C-columns, despite the fact that the activity concentration of ^{226}Ra was
14 below the recommended level (IBSS, 2001) and not in line with the estimates for functional
15 characteristics of the microbial community. This confirmed that PCR-based estimates of
16 environmental influence can be more sensitive than traditional methods (Lin et al., 2012; Bialek
17 et al., 2011).

18

19 **4 Conclusions**

20 Oil wastes generated during processing, transportation, and refining of petroleum, which are
21 frequently disposed on the soil surface, are serious environmental threats, especially in
22 petroleum-producing regions. In this study, we have investigated the combined effects of
23 hydrocarbons and radionuclides contained in oil waste on the soil microbial community. Such
24 effects have not been studied before, although a large amount of oil waste is radioactive. We
25 analyzed the wastes from tanks, pipes, and production equipment sampled in different seasons of
26 2010–2012 and established a wide range of TPH content from 1.6 ± 0.2 to $880.3 \pm 176.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$,
27 activity concentration of ^{226}Ra from 0.03 ± 0.01 to 7.92 ± 0.93 , activity concentration of ^{232}Th
28 from 0.02 ± 0.01 to 5.09 ± 1.02 , and activity concentration of ^{40}K from 0.03 ± 0.01 to 2.28 ± 0.34
29 kBq kg^{-1} . To distinguish between the effects of hydrocarbons and radionuclides we chose the raw

1 waste H with a typical content of TPH and radionuclides and its treated variant with reduced
2 hydrocarbon content but containing radionuclides (waste R).

3 The sample H contained 4.40 ± 0.31 kBq kg⁻¹ of ²²⁶Ra, 2.85 ± 0.21 kBq kg⁻¹ of ²³²Th, and $575.2 \pm$
4 121.0 g kg⁻¹ of TPH and the sample R contained 7.9 ± 1.8 kBq kg⁻¹ of ²²⁶Ra, 3.9 ± 0.9 kBq kg⁻¹ of
5 ²³²Th, and 1.6 ± 0.4 g kg⁻¹ of TPH. The last two compounds exceeded the levels reported to be
6 non-toxic in the environment, indicating that the traditional practice where oil waste was spread
7 on the soil surface could have negative effects on the soil.

8 Disposal of H waste samples on the soil surface increased the TPH content in H soil columns,
9 which was not observed for R-columns. In the soil sampled from the upper layer of the H-
10 column, the TPH content was estimated to be 3.5-fold higher than in the corresponding control
11 sample, while lesser amounts of hydrocarbons had migrated into the middle and lower soil layers
12 (2.8 and 2.2 times higher than control). Despite the fact that the amount of waste samples
13 disposed of on the tops of soil columns was equalized according to the amount of ²²⁶Ra, a greater
14 amount of this radionuclide was observed in the soil of R-columns: it was 4.3, 1.4, and 1.2 times
15 higher than that in H-columns in the upper, middle, and lower layers, respectively. It is likely that
16 radionuclides in raw waste samples were part of organic complexes which hindered their leakage
17 into soil layers with precipitation, while radionuclides migrated freely with water in the R
18 mineral sample.

19 By analyzing the functional characteristics of soil microorganisms, oil compounds (but not
20 radionuclides) were found to influence soil microflora. The $q\text{CO}_2$ and cellulase activity in soil
21 samples from H-columns were reduced 1.3 to 2.2 times more than in R-columns, where microbial
22 activity values were close to the control values. In contrast, PCR-SSCP demonstrated that both

23 oil compounds and radioactive elements could cause shifts in the microbial community structure.

24 We conclude that oil waste containing radioactive elements caused negative changes of soil
25 microbial community by its disposal, while petroleum hydrocarbons played the more pronounced
26 negative role. The effects of radionuclides contained in oily waste on soil can be evaluated using
27 culture-independent analyses of microbial communities.

28

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1
 2 Table 1. Chemical properties of the oil wastes from the Tikchonovskii petroleum production yard

Waste number	sample	TPH, g kg ⁻¹	Activity concentration, kBq kg ⁻¹		
			²²⁶ Ra	²³² Th	⁴⁰ K
1		35.0±7.0	7.93±1.62	2.40±1.88	not detected
2		59.0±11.8	0.62±0.14	0.35±0.07	not detected
3		90.4±18.1	1.70±0.37	0.30±0.06	0.26±0.04
4		880.3±176.8	0.07±0.02	0.02±0.01	0.03±0.01
5		95.4±19.1	1.81±0.39	0.28±0.06	0.26±0.04
6		720.1±144.3	2.74±0.60	0.92±0.18	0.27±0.04
7		123.3±24.6	0.03±0.01	0.03±0.01	0.06±0.01
8		57.4±11.5	0.28±0.06	0.15±0.03	0.05±0.01
9		59.2±11.8	0.25±0.05	0.11±0.02	0.06±0.01
10		30.5±6.1	0.43±0.10	0.20±0.04	0.14±0.02
11		46.5±9.3	1.48±0.33	0.12±0.03	0.06±0.01
12		153.1±30.6	0.47±0.10	0.25±0.05	0.06±0.01
13* ¹	(further H)	575.2±121.0	4.40±0.97	2.85±0.57	1.28±0.19
14* ¹	(further R)	1.6±0.2	7.92±0.93	3.99±0.44	1.79±0.21
15* ²		640.1±128.3	3.86±0.20	3.39±0.08	1.27±0.04
16* ²		4.6± 0.9	7.86±1.73	5.09±1.02	2.28±0.34

3 *¹ Pair of wastes in which waste sample No 13 is raw waste and waste sample No 14 is the waste obtained
 4 by steam treatment of waste sample No 13

5 *² Pair of wastes in which waste sample No 15 is raw waste and waste sample No 16 is the waste obtained
 6 by steam treatment of waste sample No 15

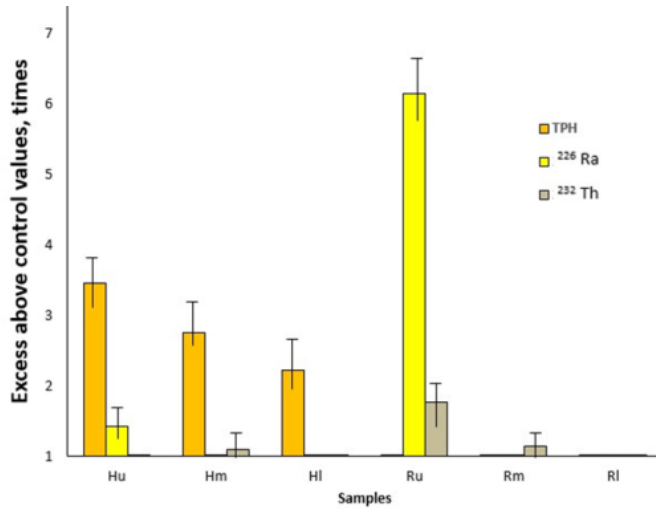
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 2 Table 2. The biodiversity indices of the soil sampled from the upper (u), middle (m), and lower
 3 (l) layers of the control (C), raw waste (H), and treated waste (R) contaminated columns

Samples	S	I	H	D	E
Cu	25	0.74	3.01	0.94	0.93
Cu	29	0.85	3.05	0.94	0.90
Cm	33	0.97	3.31	0.96	0.95
Cm	34	1.00	3.38	0.96	0.96
Cl	31	0.91	3.19	0.95	0.93
Cl	26	0.76	2.91	0.93	0.89
Hu	29	0.85	2.80	0.89	0.83
Hu	24	0.71	2.79	0.91	0.88
Hm	23	0.68	2.84	0.92	0.90
Hm	29	0.85	3.11	0.94	0.92
Hl	25	0.74	2.84	0.92	0.88
Hl	25	0.74	2.83	0.92	0.88
Ru	28	0.82	3.22	0.96	0.97
Ru	27	0.79	3.17	0.95	0.96
Rm	29	0.85	3.09	0.94	0.92
Rm	29	0.85	3.24	0.96	0.96
Rl	21	0.62	2.72	0.91	0.89
Rl	21	0.62	2.73	0.91	0.89

4 H-index – Shannon-Weaver index, D-index – Simpson index, S-index – number of species
 5 (bands) in SSCP profile, I-index – simple index, E-index – Shannon’s evenness (index of
 6 equitability of the bands).

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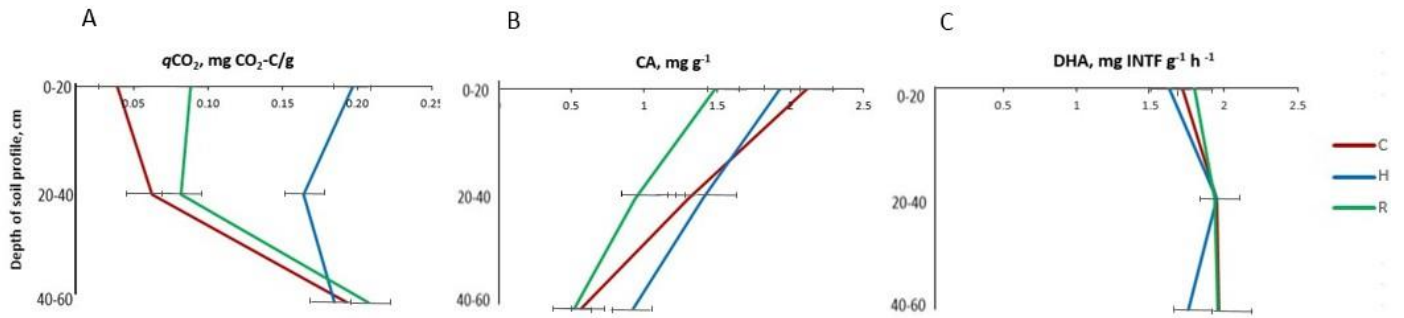


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4 Figure 1. Excess TPH content and activity concentrations of radionuclides in soil sampled from
5 H-columns (contaminated by the raw waste containing oily compounds and radionuclides) and R-
6 columns (contaminated by treated waste containing mainly radionuclides) in different layers
7 [upper (0–20 cm) (u), middle (20–40 cm) (m), and lower (40–60 cm) (l)] above the corresponding
8 values of the control columns.

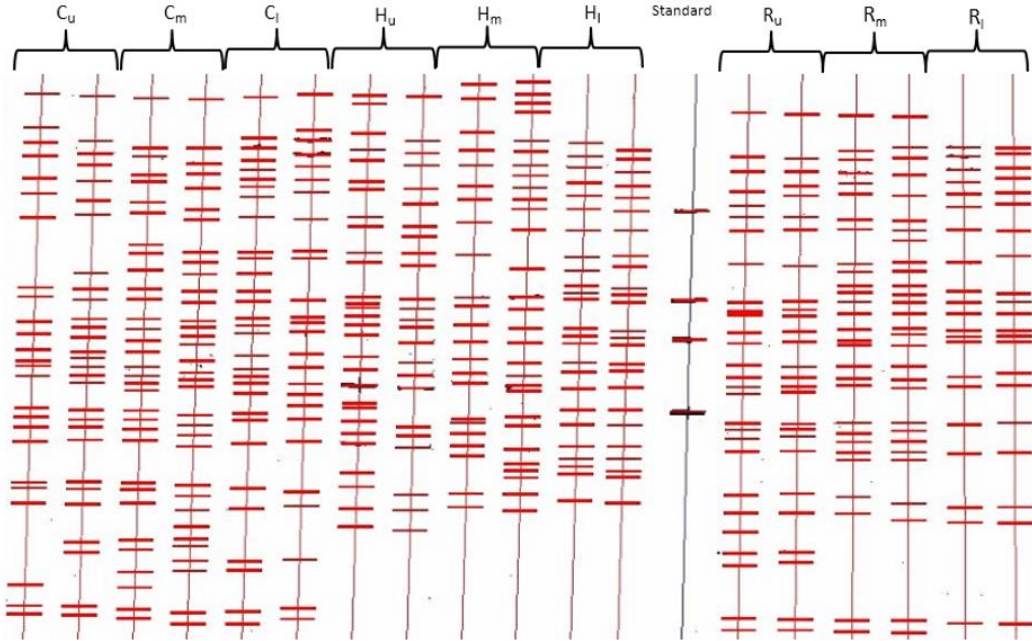
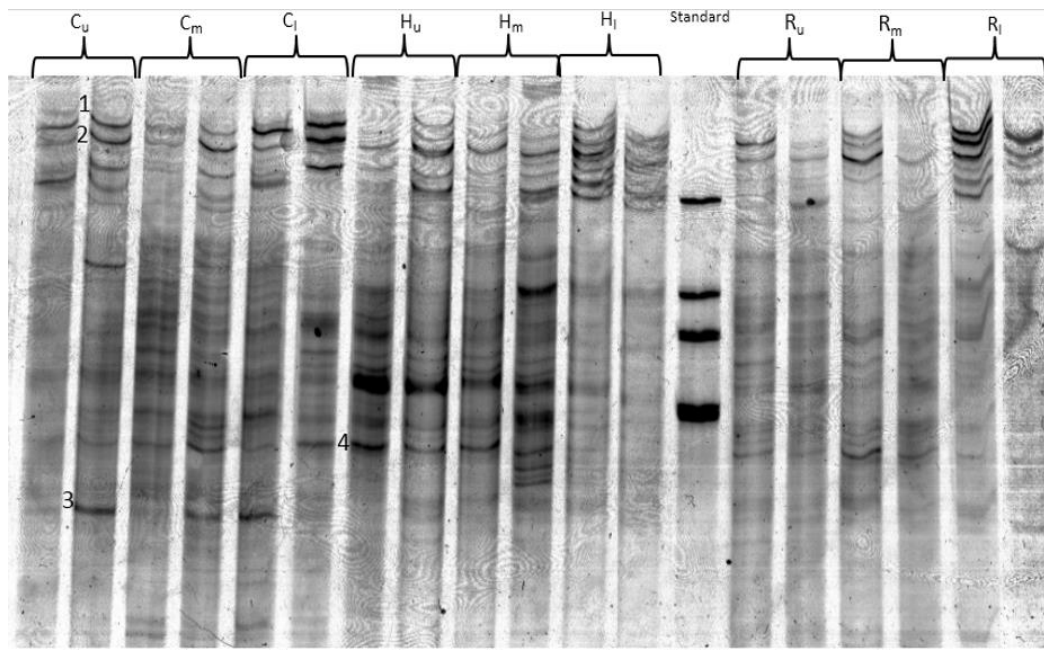
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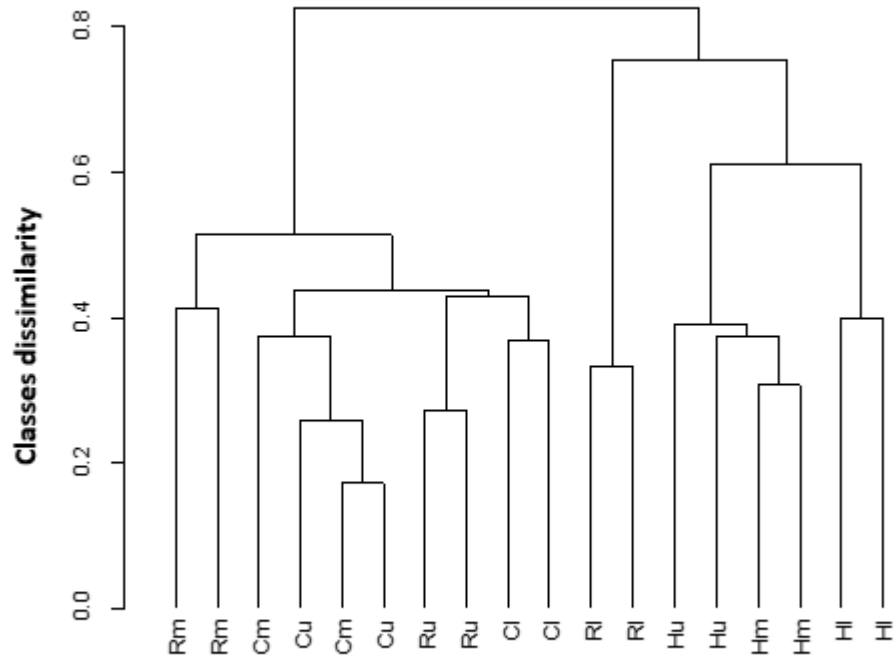
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4 Figure 2. Microbial characteristics of the soil sampled from the columns C (uncontaminated soil),
5 H (contaminated by the raw waste containing oily compounds and radionuclides), and R
6 (contaminated by treated waste containing mainly radionuclides) in different layers [upper (0–20
7 cm) (u), middle (20–40 cm) (m), and lower (40–60 cm) (l)]. A – metabolic quotient (qCO_2), B –
8 cellulase activity (CA), C – dehydrogenase activity (DHA).



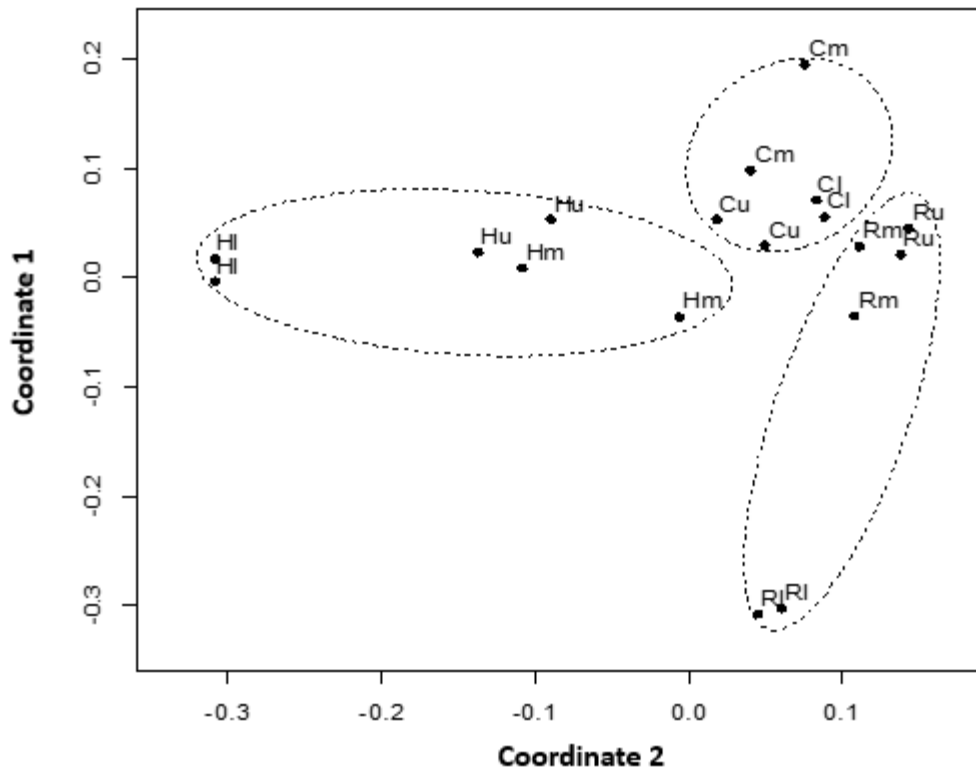
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3 Figure 3. SSCP profiles of the bacterial communities of soil sampled from the columns C
4 (uncontaminated soil), H (contaminated by the raw waste containing oily compounds and
5 radionuclides), and R (contaminated by treated waste containing mainly radionuclides) in
6 different layers [upper (0–20 cm) (u), middle (20–40 cm) (m), and lower (40–60 cm) (l)].



1

2

3 Figure 4. Cluster analysis of the SSCP bands observed on SSCP profiles of soil sampled from the
 4 columns C (uncontaminated soil), H (contaminated by the raw waste containing oily compounds
 5 and radionuclides), and R (contaminated by treated waste containing mainly radionuclides) in
 6 different layers [upper (0–20 cm) (u), middle (20–40 cm) (m), and lower (40–60 cm) (l)].



1

2

3 Figure 5. Metric multidimensional scaling analysis based on distance matrix of SSCP profiles of
 4 soil sampled from the columns C (uncontaminated soil), H (contaminated by the raw waste
 5 containing oily compounds and radionuclides), and R (contaminated by treated waste containing
 6 mainly radionuclides) on different layers [upper (0–20 cm) (u), middle (20–40 cm) (m), and
 7 lower (40–60 cm) (l)].