1 2 3	Mass-dependent Selenium Isotopic Fractionation during Microbial Reduction of Seleno-oxyanions by Phylogenetically Diverse Bacteria
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19 Abstract

20 Selenium (Se) isotope fractionation has been widely used for constraining redox conditions 21 and microbial processes in both modern and ancient environments, but our knowledge of the 22 controls on fractionation during microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions is based on a limited 23 number of studies. Here we complement and expand the currently available pure culture data 24 for Se isotope fractionation by investigating for the first time six phylogenetically and physiologically non-respiring bacterial strains that reduce Se-oxyanions to elemental Se 25 26 [Se(0)]. Experiments were performed with either selenate [Se(VI)] or selenite [Se(IV)] at 27 lower, more environmentally-relevant concentrations (9 to 47 μ M) than previously 28 investigated. Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1, Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23 and 29 Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1 were incubated with Se(VI) and Se(IV). Geobacter 30 sulfurreducens PCA, Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans FRC-W and Shewanella sp. (NR) 31 were examined for their ability reducing Se(IV) to Se(0). Our data confirm that microbial 32 reduction of both Se-oxyanions is accompanied by large kinetic isotopic fractionation (reported as ${}^{82/76}\varepsilon = 1000*({}^{82/76}\alpha - 1)$ %). Under our experimental conditions, microbial 33 reduction of Se(VI) shows consistently greater isotope fractionation (ϵ = -9.2% to -11.8%) 34 than reduction of Se(IV) (ϵ = -6.2 to -7.8‰) confirming the difference in metabolic pathways 35 for the reduction of the two Se-oxyanions. For Se(VI), the inverse relationship between 36 37 normalized cell specific reduction rate (cSRR) and Se isotope fractionation suggests that the 38 kinetic isotope effect for Se(VI) reduction is governed by an enzymatically-specific pathway 39 related to the bacterial strain-specific physiology. In contrast, the lack of correlation between 40 normalized cSRR and isotope fractionation for Se(IV) reduction indicates a non-enzyme 41 specific pathway which is dominantly extracellular. Our study highlights the importance to 42 understand microbially-mediated Se isotope fractionation depending on Se species, and cell-43 specific reduction rates before Se isotope ratios can become a fully applicable tool to 44 interpret Se isotopic changes in modern and ancient environments.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Selenium (Se) isotope fractionation has been widely described in modern environments as 48 well as in ancient settings preserved in sedimentary rocks (Herbel et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 2012; Wen and Carignan, 2011; Wen et al., 2014; Schilling et al., 2015; Stüeken et al., 49 50 2015a, b; Basu et al., 2016; Kipp et al., 2017). Selenium stable isotopes are particularly 51 sensitive to redox reactions, which determine chemical Se speciation in the environment. The 52 most mobile and bioavailable forms of Se are the water-soluble oxyanions selenate [Se(VI)] 53 and (hydro)selenite [Se(IV)]. Selenate is the dominant redox state in modern surface waters 54 (Martin et al., 2011) while Se(IV) is present in ocean surface water, but adsorbs strongly onto iron, manganese and aluminum oxides (Parida et al., 1997; Peak and Sparks, 2002; Peak, 55 56 2006) as well as clays. Sparingly soluble elemental Se [Se(0)] and selenide [Se(-II)] are the 57 dominant redox states in anoxic environments. Typically, environmental Se concentrations are at sub-micromolar levels (Conde and San Alaejos, 1997; Fordyce, 2013) but can locally 58 be elevated in sulfide ores and roll-front type uranium ores (Howard, 1977; Basu et al., 59 60 2016), shales (Pogge von Strandmann et al., 2015; Stüeken et al., 2015a) or by anthropogenic 61 pollution. (e.g., Presser and Ohlendorf, 1987; Dreher and Finkelman, 1992; Lemly, 2004; 62 Muscatello et al., 2008). Because the mobility and environmental impact of Se are determined by its chemical speciation, it is important to understand the environmental 63 processes that control Se speciation and transitions between oxidation states. 64

Microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions is the primary set of reactions generating solid Se(0) in natural settings. Both Se-oxyanions are energetically favourable electron acceptors because the reduction of Se(IV) or Se(VI) can provide 90 to 150 times more free energy 'G (- 8.9 to -15.5 kcal mol⁻¹e⁻¹) for bacteria than the reduction of sulfate to sulfide (Stolz and Oremland, 1999). Bacteria able to reduce Se-oxyanions are phylogenetically diverse, have different metabolic strategies, and have been isolated from both oxic and anoxic environments (*e.g.*, 71 Macy et al., 1993; Herbel et al., 2000; Stolz et al., 2006; Yee and Kobayashi, 2008; Pearce et 72 al., 2009). All microorganisms are facultative and it has been shown that non-specific 73 metabolic Se reduction can involve different enzyme systems, e.g. for reduction of nitrite, 74 nitrate, arsenate, sulfate and glutathione (e.g., Switzer Blum et al., 1998; Sabaty et al., 2001; Kessi and Hanselmann, 2004; Basaglia et al., 2007). Few Se(VI)-reducing bacteria have been 75 76 identified to catalyze Se(VI) reduction by the Se-specific enzyme selenate reductase (Schröder et al. 1997; Bébien et al., 2002; Ridley et al., 2006, Theissen and Yee, 2014) and 77 only two bacterial strains (Tetrathiobacter kashmirensis and Pseudomonas sp.) have a 78 79 Se(IV)-specific enzyme (Hunter and Manter, 2008, 2009).

80 Limited published data on Se isotope fractionation during microbial Se reduction have 81 revealed large variations (Herbel et al., 2000; Ellis et al., 2003, Clark and Johnson, 2008). A 82 previous study with pure cultures (Bacillus selenitireducens, Bacillus arsenicoselenatis and 83 Sulfurospirillum barnesii) was restricted to dissimilatory Se-reducing bacteria grown with very high millimolar levels of Se (10 - 20 mM) and with only lactate as electron donor at 84 85 high concentrations (10 - 40 mM). For these conditions, the reported Se isotope fractionation varied greatly between -1.7 and -13.7‰ for the reduction of Se(IV) to Se(0) and -1.7 and -7.5 86 ‰ for reduction of Se(VI) to Se (IV) (Herbel et al., 2000). At contaminated sites, however, 87 88 Se concentrations are two to three orders of magnitude lower with Se concentration up to 150 89 μ M (= 12,000 μ g/L) in agricultural drainage and irrigation water (Deverel and Fujii, 1988; 90 Meseck and Cutter, 2011; Schilling et al., 2015) and up to 12 μ M (= 955 μ g/L) in waste 91 water from Se-bearing phosphorite mining (Mars and Crowley 2003; Stiling and Amacher, 92 2010). Even lower Se concentrations occur in modern ocean and aquifers with average values 93 of 0.002 µM and 0.5 µM Se, respectively (e.g., Conde and San Alaejos, 1997; Pearce et al., 94 2009; Basu et al., 2016).

Another study using sediments slurries reported Se isotopic fractionation by resident Sereducing microbial community between -8.3 and -8.6‰ for the reduction of Se(IV) to Se(0) and -3.9 and -4.7‰ for the reduction of Se(VI) to Se(IV) (Ellis et al., 2003). Resident Sereducing microbial communities comprise diverse groups of bacteria with different metabolic strategies. Although the magnitude of Se isotope fractionation by microbial reduction of Seoxyanions has been previously studied, the cause of such large variation in ε values and their relevance for environmental settings remains unclear.

102 In this study, we extend the currently available experimental data by determining the isotopic 103 fractionation during microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions [Se(VI), Se(IV)] that includes 104 previously unexplored groups of mesophilic bacteria (Fig. 1), with the first results for 105 bacteria that perform non-catabolic reduction of Se-oxyanions. To investigate whether 106 different Se metabolic strategies affect the magnitude of isotopic fractionation, we selected 107 bacterial strains based on their ubiquitous distribution and their well-studied metabolisms. 108 For Se(VI) reduction, we conducted experiments with the Gram-negative bacterium 109 Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1, and the Gram-positive bacteria Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-110 1, and Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23. For the reduction of Se(IV), we used 111 isolates of three Gram-negative bacteria namely Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA, Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans FRC-W and Shewanella sp. (NR) in addition to the three 112 113 Se(VI)-reducing bacterial strains. Studying pure bacterial cultures has the advantage to 114 eliminate any complexity from natural microbial communities such as competing strains with 115 possibly different reduction rates and to determine isotopic fractionation linked to a single 116 reduction mechanism. Further, we used lower electron acceptor and electron donor 117 concentrations compared to previous studies to achieve slow Se reduction rates as it is well 118 established that rapid reductions are transport limited and suppress the overall isotopic 119 fractionation (Clark and Johnson, 2010). These experimental conditions are very close to Se

concentrations reported for Se contaminated groundwater, soils, porewater (*i.e.*, Meseck and
Cutter, 2011; Stiling and Amacher, 2010; Schilling et al., 2015; Basu et al., 2016).

122 **2. Materials and Methods**

123 2.1 Microbial culture

The strains, Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1, Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23, 124 125 Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA, Aneromyxobacter dehalogenans FRC-W and Shewanella sp. 126 (NR) (Table 1) were supplied by Sanford, and Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1 (Table 1) was 127 supplied by Pallud. For initial growth of bacterial cultures and for Se reduction experiments, 128 we used the mineral-salt medium described by He and Sanford (2002). One liter of test 129 medium was prepared with 10 mL buffer (12.5 g KH₂PO₄, 20.0 g K₂HPO₄ per liter), 10 mL 130 trace salt (1.17 g CaCl₂, 2.00 g MgCl₂ × $6H_2O$, 0.70 g FeSO₄ × $7H_2O$, 0.50 g Na₂SO₄ per liter), 1 mL trace metals (0.05 g ZnCl₂, 0.5 g MnCl₂ × 4H₂O, 0.03 g CuCl₂ × 2H₂O, 0.05 g 131 132 CoCl₂ × 6H₂O, 0.05 g H₃BO₃, 0.05 g NiSO₄×6H₂O, 0.01 g Na₂MoO₄ × 2H₂O, 0.004 g Na₂WO₄), 1 mL ammonium chloride, 1 mL selenium-tungsten and 0.84 g NaHCO₃. The 133 134 growth medium was supplemented with 0.03 g L-cysteine while the reductant L-cysteine was 135 omitted for the test medium used for Se batch experiments. Anaerobic condition in both growth and test media was generated by boiling and degassing with N₂/CO₂ mix, the 136 137 subsequent transfer into 120 mL glass serum bottles sealed with butyl rubber stoppers, and autoclaving at 121°C for 30 min. 138

In the growth medium, the bacterial strains *Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans* Co23 and *Desulfitobacterium sp.* Viet-1 were initially grown under fermentative conditions using 10 mM pyruvate and *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1a-1 using 2 mM glucose. *Shewanella sp.* (NR) was incubated with 1 mM nitrate and 2.5 mM lactate. *Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans* FRC-W was incubated with 2.5 mM acetate and 1.25 mM nitrate. *Geobacter sulfurreducens* PCA was grown with 3 mM acetate as electron donor and 10 mM fumarate as electron acceptor. 145 All anaerobic cultures were incubated at 30° C for 3 to 5 days to achieve high cell densities 146 (~ 10^{10} cells mL⁻¹) and complete consumption of the growth substrates.

147 2.2 Seleno-oxyanions reduction experiments

To test the reduction of Se-oxyanions, 10 mL of inoculum from the growth cultures, 148 corresponding to bacterial densities of $10^5 - 10^7$ cells mL⁻¹ (Table 2) were transferred to the 149 test medium. The microbial cultures were amended with 10 to 47 µM Se(VI) or Se(IV) as the 150 151 sole terminal electron acceptor. Depending on the bacterial strain, 500 µM (2,000 and 10,000 152 µM for Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA) acetate or lactate as electron donor was added to 153 each reactor (Table 1, 2). The experiments containing Se-oxyanions were conducted without 154 any chemical reducing agent to minimize any cell reproducibility and to avoid any abiotically mediated Se reduction. The "no-cell" control experiments were carried out using identical 155 156 concentrations of electron donor and Se(VI) or Se(IV), but without any cell suspension. To 157 identify if viable cells were responsible for Se reduction, a "heat-killed cell" control of Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23 (autoclaved for 30 minutes) was inoculated with 158 159 18 µM Se(VI) and 500 µM lactate as electron donor. All cultures were incubated 160 anaerobically at 30°C under continuous shaking, and sampled at regular time intervals for 161 periods ranging from 60 to 800 hours, depending on the bacterial strains. Subsamples were 162 filtered through 0.2 µm nylon filters.

163 2.3 Determination of cell-specific reduction rate (cSRR)

164 A 1 mL aliquot of each culture was sampled for cell counting at the beginning of the 165 experiment (t = 0). Cells were prefixed in 8% formaldehyde and stored at 4°C until analyzed. 166 Bacterial cells were stained with 1 μ L of the STYO bacterial stain and 10 μ L of microsphere 167 standard (bacteria counting kit, Invitrogen). The cell counting was performed by flow 168 cytometry analysis using a LSR II analyzer (BD Biosciences). The cell density was determined from the cell-counts for a known number of microspheres in each sample. Culture
cell density values were used to calculate the initial cell density in the batch experiments and
to calculate the cell specific Se reduction rate (cSRR) using the following expression:

172
$$cSRR = \Delta c / t_{1/2} \times d_0$$
 (Eq. 1)

173 where Δc is the decrease in Se(VI) or Se(IV) concentration at the half-life $t_{1/2}$, and the initial

174 cell density d_0 . All cSRR values were normalized relative to the initial Se concentrations.

175 2.4 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Microbial cultures of *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1a-1 were incubated with Se(VI) or Se(IV) for 24 hours. Afterwards the bacterial cells were pre-concentrated by centrifugation and fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde in a 0.04 M phosphate buffer. After the second cell fixation using 1% osmium tetraoxide, the samples were dehydrated with different concentrated ethanol solutions and embedded in resin. After sectioning of the bacterial cells, micrographs were taken with a Technai 12 transmission electron microscope (University of California, Berkeley).

183 2.5 Se isotope and concentration analysis

Initially, the concentrations of dissolved Se species [Se(VI) and/or Se(IV)] were measured using mass ⁷⁸Se by hydride generation-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Prior to measurement, Se(VI) was converted to Se(IV) by heating at 105°C degrees for 60 minutes in a 5 M HCl matrix. The reported Se concentrations were calculated using an isotope dilution double-spike method by adding ⁷⁴Se + ⁷⁷Se double spike of known isotope ratio and concentration to the sample with unknown Se concentration (*e.g.*, Heumann, 1992).

190 We also used double spike isotope technique with an approximate sample spike proportion of

191 2 to correct for isotopic fractionation during sample purification and instrumental mass bias

192 during the isotope measurement.

Selenium species separation from matrix solutes was performed using 1 mL AG1-X8 anionexchange resin (Eichrom). Prior to anion-exchange, all subsamples of Se(IV) were oxidized to Se(VI) with a 20 mM solution of the strong oxidizer potassium persulfate (Schilling et al., 2014, 2015) prior to heating at 90°C for 1h. The sample purification procedure (including an oxidation step for Se(IV) and chromatographic separation for all samples) resulted in recoveries of >90%.

Selenium isotope ratios were measured using a Nu Plasma high resolution multiple collector-ICP-MS, connected to a custom-built hydride generation system described in previous studies (*e.g.*, Clark and Johnson, 2008; Mitchell et al. 2012; Zhu et al., 2014; Schilling et al., 2015; Mitchell et al., 2016). All ⁸²Se/⁷⁶Se ratios are reported as δ notation relative to the NIST SRM 3149 inter-laboratory standard:

$$\delta$$
 (Eq. 2)

205 Blank solutions processed through the same sample purification procedure contained an average of 4.4 ± 2.9 ng Se (n=12), less than 0.7% of the total sample. The uncertainty on 206 $\delta^{82/76}$ Se was estimated by calculating the root mean square difference (RMS) for samples 207 208 prepared and analyzed in duplicate (n = 25). The in-house standard MH-495 was measured 209 with an average value of $-3.35 \pm 0.1\%$ (2 σ , n = 12) relative to SRM-3149 within excellent agreement of previously reported values (Carignan and Wen, 2007; Zhu et al., 2008). 210 Average external ^{82/76}Se precision was $\pm 0.16\%$ based on repeated analysis of SRM-3149 211 standards (n = 145) over two years. The external reproducibility for $^{82/76}$ Se of the samples, 212 determined as twice root mean square, was $\pm 0.17\%$ (n = 25) across a range of $\delta^{82/76}$ Se values 213 214 between -0.3‰ and +29.3‰.

215 2.6 Determination of the magnitude of isotopic fractionation (ε)

As all experiments were conducted in sealed batch reactors, the experiments were assumed to follow closed system behavior. Positive $\delta^{82/76}$ Se values of the remaining, unreacted Se thus indicate enrichment in heavy isotopes relative to the standard, whilst negative values represent depletion of heavy isotopes. Changes in $\delta^{82/76}$ Se can be directly related to the extent of Se(VI) or Se(IV) reduction. The magnitude of Se isotope fractionation was determined for each experiment by fitting the measured $\delta^{82/76}$ Se values to Rayleigh distillation models following the method described by Scott et al. (2004):

where c(t) and $\delta(t)$ are the concentration and the isotopic composition of the remaining reactant (Se(VI) or Se(IV)) in solution as a function of reaction time. The fractionation factor (α) is defined as defined as $\alpha = R_{\text{product}}/R_{\text{reactant}}$, where R is the measured ⁸²Se^{/76}Se, and often expressed in terms of ε (a per mil quantity) as

229 The magnitude of isotopic fractionation, ε , was calculated from the corresponding slope from 230 the linear regression of $\ln(\delta^{82}\text{Se} + 1000)$ *versus* $\ln(c(t)/c_0)$.

231 2.7 Statistical analysis

232 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey-HSD test ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used to 233 evaluate the potential difference in the magnitude of Se isotope fractionation (ϵ) between 234 Se(IV) or Se(VI) reduction by the different bacterial strains and among the different bacterial 235 strains. The statistical analyses were performed using JMP software 13.1.0. with a statistical 236 probability of *P* < 0.05.

237 **3. Results**

238 3.1 Microbial reduction of Se(VI)

239 Figure 2 shows Se(VI) removal over time during anaerobic microbial Se(VI)-reduction 240 experiments by three bacterial strains (Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1, Desulfitobacterium 241 chlororespirans Co23, Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1). In the presence of Se(VI)-reducing bacteria, the decrease in Se(VI) concentration ranged between 51% to 99% relative to the 242 243 initial Se(VI) concentrations in the batch reactors. In all experiments, the decrease in Se(VI) 244 concentration with time follows a first-order kinetics except for the latest sampling points. A 245 single first-order rate constant reasonably fit all data from each experiment. The heat-killed 246 control with bacterial cells from *Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans* Co23 did not show any 247 measurable Se(VI) removal after ca. 4 days of incubation (Figure 2A). We observed in the 248 batch reactors an initial increase in Se(IV) resulting from the reduction of Se(VI), followed 249 by Se(IV) reduction to Se(0) (Table A1).

In all Se(VI) experiments, an enrichment of ⁸²Se occurred in the remaining unreacted Se(VI) 250 with progressive Se(VI) reduction (Figure 3). The largest $\delta^{82/76}$ Se value of +38.6‰ was 251 observed at 99% reduction of Se(VI) for the experiment with Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1 252 (Figure 3C). The $\delta^{82/76}$ Se values for the intermediate Se(IV) varied between -9.6% for 1.5% 253 254 Se(IV) and 16.6‰ for 15% Se(IV) relative to the initial Se(VI) concentration (9 µM) (Table 255 A1). The magnitudes of Se isotopic fractionation (ϵ) for microbial Se(VI) reduction, obtained by fitting $\delta^{82/76}$ Se data to Eq. 3, are illustrated in Figure 3 and reported in Table 3. Among the 256 three Se(VI)-reducing pure bacterial cultures, the ε values varied between -9.2‰ and -11.8‰ 257 258 with a mean value of $-10.6 \pm 1.3\%$. The ε values did not deviate in duplicate reactors within a 2σ uncertainty limit. The initial cell densities varied by two orders of magnitude in the 259 Se(VI) incubation with the highest cell density of 1.9×10^8 cell ml⁻¹ for the batch of 260 *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1-1a. The normalized cSRR ranged from 0.11×10^{-17} to 1.30×10^{-17} 261 mol Se(VI) cell⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Table 2). We observed a strong inverse relationship ($r^2 = 0.91$) between 262

263 normalized cSRR and ε for Se(VI) reduction with decreasing ε values for increasing values of 264 cSRR (Figure 4A).

Transmission electron microscope images of a washed cell suspension of *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1a-1 after the reduction of Se(VI) showed intracellular Se(0) precipitates (Figure 5A). The particle sizes were spherical, $<0.2 \ \mu m$ in diameter and located in the periplasmic space.

269 3.2. Microbial reduction of Se(IV)

270 Anoxic batch incubations of six Se-reducing bacterial strains with Se(IV) showed a decrease in Se(IV) concentration as a function of time (Figure 6 and Table A2). The Se(IV) removal 271 272 ranged between 56% to 92% over a period of 0.4 to 6.1 days. The no-cell control experiments 273 did not show any change in Se(IV) concentrations with time. In each experiment, a first order 274 kinetic model with a single rate constant fits all Se(IV) concentration data. The time interval 275 for 50% removal of the initial Se(IV) concentration varied from 0.42 to 3.1 days. Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA assayed with varying electron donor concentrations (2,000 to 10,000 276 μ M) exhibited an approximately 50% Se(IV) removal after similar time periods (t_{1/2} 0.49 to 277 278 0.66 days).

The initial cell densities varied by approximately two-orders of magnitudes depending on the volume of inoculum. The highest cell density was found for the Se(IV) batch of *Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans* FRC-W (1.3×10^8 cell ml⁻¹) and the lowest for *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1a-1 (8.8×10^6 cell ml⁻¹). The calculated cell-specific reduction rate ranged from 0.28 to 5.7 ×10⁻¹⁷ mol cell⁻¹ d⁻¹ with no correlation between normalized cSRR and ε values ($r^2 = 0.13$; Figure 3B). We observed no correlation between normalized cSRR and ε for Se(IV) reduction (Figure 4B).

286 While the Se(IV) concentration in the batch reactors decreased, $\delta^{82/76}$ Se progressively 287 increased with time (Figure 7) relative to the starting Se(IV). The duplicate batch reactors showed similar ε values within the 2σ uncertainty level of $\pm 0.12\%$ to $\pm 0.43\%$. (Table 3). The largest $\delta^{82/76}$ Se value of $\pm 15.7\%$ was observed for *Shewanella sp*. (NR) after 91% Se(IV) removal. The ε values for Se(IV) reduction span a narrow range of -6.2% to -7.8% with a mean value of $-7.0 \pm 0.6\%$. We observed no significant difference in ε values among the six different bacterial strains (p = 0.376; Figure 7). Transmission electron microscope images of *Enterobacter cloacae* SLD1a-1 incubated with

294 Se(IV) showed exogenous precipitates, presumably Se(0) (Figure 5A) which are smaller than

the intracellular Se(0) particles observed as a product of Se(VI) reduction (Figure 5B).

296 **4. Discussion**

Our results demonstrate that the magnitude of Se isotope fractionation by microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions depends mainly on two factors (1) growth conditions and (2) the Sereduction by cometabolic or Se-respiring pathway. Below we discuss variation in Se isotope fractionation based on these two factors, specifically in the context of previous studies. Differences in the magnitude of Se isotope fractionation in our study compared to the previous studies (Herbel et al., 2000; Ellis et al., 2003; Clark and Johnson, 2008) is attributed to differences in the experimental approach and selection of bacterial strains.

304 4.1. Effect of experimental conditions on ε

In the following section we discuss the reasons behind differences in the magnitude of Se
isotope fractionation between our study and previous studies (Herbel et al., 2000; Ellis et al.,
2003; Clark and Johnson, 2008).

308 *4.1.1 Comparison to pure culture studies*

309 Environmentally-relevant conditions, more specifically much lower Se substrate 310 concentrations, result in a narrower-range Se isotope fractionation factors for the reduction of 311 both Se(VI) and Se(IV) compared to previously published values obtained for *Bacillus* 312 selenitireducens, Bacillus arsenicoselenatis and Sulfurospirillum barnesii (Herbel et al. 313 2000). Indeed, Herbel et al. (2000) experiments were conducted under highly optimum 314 growth conditions for anaerobic Se respiration *i.e.*, using high initial Se-oxyanion 315 concentrations (10 - 20 mM) and high carbon concentrations (10 - 40 mM). This led to fast reduction rates and 100-fold increase in cell density during the experiment, which might 316 317 explain the large span in isotopic fractionation they observed for Se(VI) reduction ($\varepsilon = -1.7$ to 318 -7.5%; Herbel et al., 2000). In addition, Se reduction rates in the previous study were oneorder of magnitude $(10^{-16} \text{ mol cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$ higher than the cSRRs observed in our experiments 319 $(10^{-17} \text{ mol cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$. In contrast to the large increase in cell density in the experiment by 320 321 Herbel et al (2000), natural microbial consortia generally maintain a rather steady state 322 population where cell decay balances cell growth (Brock, 1971). The more uniform ε values 323 in our study correspond to minor cell growth or decay evident from single first-order rate 324 constants fitting the time series from each experiment and thus more consistent cSRRs 325 throughout the experiment. Moreover, three-orders of magnitude lower initial Se-oxyanions 326 concentrations, together with 20 times lower carbon concentrations as electron donor (10 mM 327 vs. 0.5 mM), led to significantly larger ε values ($\varepsilon = -9.2\%$ to -11.8%). Likewise, our data on microbial Se(IV) reduction result in an overall narrow distribution of ε values ($\varepsilon_{mean} = -7 \pm$ 328 329 0.6‰) compared to the previous study ($\varepsilon = -1.7$ to -13.7%; Herbel et al., 2000). This narrow 330 range of ε values is likely when the tested strains are not actively respiring Se. Instead, the reduction of Se-oxyanions is a response to cope with the element's toxicity. Lower initial 331 332 Se(IV) concentration also affect the results in two different ways by producing lower 333 reduction rates and lower Se concentrations are less toxic for the cells and thus maintains the 334 cell viability.

Whether bacteria reduce Se as respiration pathway (Herbel et al., 2000) or as a cometabolic
pathway determines the magnitude of isotope fractionation. All bacterial strains (*Bacillus*)

337 selenitireducens, Bacillus arsenicoselenatis and Sulfurospirillum barnesii) used in Herbel et 338 al. (2000) are capable of actively metabolizing Se oxyanions. This means that the bacteria are 339 able to harness the energy derived from coupling reduction of Se(VI)/Se(IV) and oxidation of 340 lactate to synthesize biomass. This leads to bacterial growth (increase of cell density by about two orders of magnitude) during the experiments which changes the cSRR and thus affects 341 342 the ε values. For example, isotope fractionation by *Bacillus selenitireducens* varied between -2.6 and -13.7‰ (Herbel et al., 2000). This also explains why the relationship between cSRR 343 344 vs. ε breaks down for Se-respiring bacteria. Further, both Se(VI)-respiring bacterial strains, Bacillus arsenicoselenatis and Sulfurospirillum barnesii, only reduce a very small amount of 345 Se(IV) to Se(0) (Herbel et al., 2000), while our tested bacterial strains reduce Se(VI) all to 346 347 Se(0) (Table A1).

348 Although the tested Se-reducers are not confined to any particular group of bacteria (Figure 349 1), we demonstrate that not the phylogenetic differences but the metabolic mechanisms 350 control Se isotope fractionation. There is no systematic difference in ε between the tested 351 non-respiring Gram-positive (Desulfitobacteria) and Gram-negative bacteria (Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1). Gram-negative bacteria possess two membranes separated by the 352 353 periplasmic space. The selenate reductase of Gram-negative bacterium Enterobacter cloacae 354 SLD1a-1 is a membrane-bound enzyme situated in the cytoplasmic (inner) membrane 355 (Schröder et al., 1997; Bébien et al., 2002; Ma et al., 2009). The location for the Se(VI)-356 reducing enzymes of Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23 and Desulfitobacterium sp. 357 Viet-1 are not known but are probably also membrane-bound as described for other Se(VI)reducing Gram positive bacteria (Kuroda et al., 2011). Hence, the diffusive transport across 358 359 the outer membrane for Gram-negative bacteria seems not to affect the reaction rate and Se isotope fractionation for Se(VI) reduction. 360

361 In bacterial strains with no Se-specific enzymatic pathway, the reduction is carried out by various enzyme systems, e.g. nitrite reductase, nitrate reductase, arsenate and sulfate 362 reductases, or the reduction of Se(IV) by glutathione (e.g., Tomei et al., 1995; Switzer Blum 363 364 et al., 1998; Sabaty et al., 2001; Kessi and Hanselmann, 2004; Basaglia et al., 2007; Nancharaiah and Lens, 2015). These enzyme systems have mainly a detoxifying function and 365 366 the energy released by the redox reaction is not generally utilized to synthesize biomass. Therefore, we assume that the obtained isotope fractionation factors can be extrapolated to a 367 368 much wider group of microorganisms because the studied pure cultures include bacteria with 369 different cell membranes (Gram positive and Gram negative), different enzymes in the 370 electron transfer chain (e.g., selenate reductase for Enterobacter cloacae) and carbon 371 substrates (acetate and lactate) but show nearly identical isotope fractionations for the 372 reduction of the respective Se-oxyanion.

373 4.1.2 Comparison to natural microbial consortia in sediment slurries and cores

Our pure culture microbial Se(VI) reduction experiments induced significantly larger Se 374 375 isotope fractionation than experiments with sediment slurries and sediment cores involving complex microbial communities (Ellis et al., 2003; Clark and Johnson, 2008). Here reported ε 376 377 values relate to suspensions of free-living cells with maximized mass transfer and accessibility of Se-oxyanions for each bacterial cell. Mass transfer limitation in sediment 378 379 slurries and cores is expected to decrease the exchange between Se(VI) in solution and the 380 particle-bound bacteria. This in turn should reduce selectivity for an isotopologue (heavy vs. light). Generally, mass transfer is faster for the isotopically light ⁷⁶Se-oxyanions than for the 381 382 isotopically heavy ⁸²Se-oxyanions. If the probability for Se(VI) selectivity of an isotopologue 383 is limited for the particle-bound bacteria the mass transfer affects the Se isotope fractionation. 384 This presumably explains the relatively small Se isotope fractionation observed in sediment slurries (Ellis et al., 2003) where the contact between bacteria and Se-oxyanions in solution is 385

386 limited but still higher than for sediment cores (Clark and Johnson, 2008). Selenium isotope 387 signals in sediments controlled by the diffusion of Se from the overlying water have the 388 highest mass transfer limitation determined by incomplete solution exchange at the water-389 sediment interface and the lowest Se isotope fractionation of 0.4‰ for microbial Se 390 reduction. In contrast, pure cultures in our study are more selective to a particular Se 391 isotopologue (heavy vs. light) as they are not particle-bound. However even if in porewaters, 392 diffusion limitation yields a smaller Se isotope fractionation the reduction of Se(VI) and 393 Se(IV) are still detectable because the shift in δ values from the initial value is significant.

394 4.2. Effect of metabolic pathway on Se isotope fractionation

Reduction of Se-oxyanions occurs intracellularly in the periplasmic space for Se(VI) (*i.e.*, Ridley et al., 2006; Nancharaiah and Lens, 2015) or extracellularly for Se(IV) (*e.g.*, Pearce et al., 2009; Nancharaiah and Lens, 2015). Our data and the pure culture study by Herbel et al., (2000) confirm that the pathways for reduction of Se(VI) or Se(IV) determine the Se isotope fractionation. Microbial Se(VI) reduction induces significantly larger fractionation than Se(IV) reduction for the six tested bacterial strains (p > 0.01).

401 *4.2.1 Intracellular Se(VI) reduction*

402 The reduction Se(VI) to Se(0) is a sequential two-step reaction which leads to significantly 403 larger fractionation than Se(IV) reduction for the tested bacterial strains (p > 0.01). The 404 reduction of Se(VI) to Se(IV) via two electron transfer is followed by a four electron transfer 405 to form Se(0). Heat-killed control experiments with Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans 406 Co23, which did not show Se(VI) reduction and any concomitant Se isotopic fractionation, confirms that Se(VI) reduction is enzymatically-mediated by viable cells. Correlation 407 408 between normalized cSRR and ε for Se(VI) reduction indicates that the rate of electron 409 transfer depends on the abundance of bacteria and their enzymes (*e.g.*, selenate reductase) 410 (Yee and Kobayashi, 2008). Mechanistically, diffusion transport brings Se(VI) to the 411 reduction site of the bacterial cell where Se(VI) is then reduced intracellularly. As diffusive 412 transport of Se(VI) does not involve changes in coordination of oxygen around Se, any 413 discrimination between the isotopologes in the Se-oxyanions will be minor compared to 414 enzymatic reduction. If the reduction rate of Se(VI) at these reduction sites is very slow either 415 due low abundances of bacteria and their enzymes it is expected that ε reaches a maximum 416 value. Future studies can help determining the maximum value as well as the more in-depth 417 understanding of the relevant enzymes involved in the cometabolic Se(VI) reduction and the related Se isotope fractionation. 418

419 *4.2.2 Extracellular Se(IV) reduction.*

420 The four electron transfer by only one reduction step for Se(IV) explains the smaller Se 421 isotope fractionation compared to the reduction of Se(VI). Electron transfer for the reduction 422 of Se(IV) is driven by either an exogenous electron shuttle, extracellular proteins or possibly 423 pili structures (Pearce et al., 2009). This also explains why the magnitude of Se isotope 424 fractionation does not correlate with normalized cSRRs (Figure 4C) because an exogenous 425 electron transfer does not require a direct contact between the bacterial cell and the substrate 426 *via* a specific enzyme. Such extracellular reaction is also most likely decoupled from electron 427 donor oxidation, so that different donor types or concentrations do not affect the isotope 428 fractionation factor. This is clearly shown for the experiments with *Geobacter sulfurreducens* 429 PCA, known for reducing Se(IV) extracellularly by outer membrane cytochromes (Pearce et 430 al., 2009). Varying concentrations of electron donor (500 to 10,000 μ M) have no effect on ϵ 431 values (Table 3) for Se(IV) reduction by Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA. This is consistent 432 with the observation for microbial Cr(VI) reduction where an extracellular Cr reduction 433 pathway results in uniform Cr isotope fractionation at different electron donor concentrations 434 (i.e., Sikora et al., 2008; Basu et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2019). Further, the extracellular reduction pathway for Se(IV) is not impacted by mass transfer limitation of Se(IV) to the bacterial cell and this explains the relatively good agreement for isotope fractionation between sediment slurry experiments for particle-bound natural microbial consortia ($\epsilon = -$ 8.4‰; Ellis et al., 2003) and our pure culture study with free-living cells ($\epsilon = -6.2$ to -7.8‰).

439 **5. Implications**

Given the distinctive amounts of Se isotope fractionation for microbial reduction of the two
Se-oxyanions, Se isotope ratios can, in principle, shed light on the processing of Seoxyanions in both modern and ancient environments.

443 5.1. Modern environments.

Selenium stable isotope ratios have been previously used as indicators for Se sources and
cycling in aquifers, lakes, soils and sediments (Clark and Johnson 2010; Schilling et al.,
2015; Basu et al., 2016). Microbial reduction of Se reduces the mobility of Se from soluble
poorly adsorbed Se(VI), to soluble strongly adsorbed Se(IV), to solid Se(0).

448 Our ε values can be understood as reference values to estimate the extent of Se 449 reduction for bacterial groups most commonly found in the environment. A clear indicator of 450 the reduction of Se(VI) to Se(IV) is the enrichment of ⁸²Se in Se(VI) or Se(IV) in 451 groundwater or porewater while the reduced Se species in sediments and soils is enriched in 452 ⁷⁶Se. If microbial Se reduction is the dominant reaction mechanism in nature, this should be 453 reflected by shifts in $\delta^{82/76}$ Se ratios according to the aqueous speciation of Se and the ε for 454 that particular reaction.

In groundwater systems, we can infer the ε for Se removal mechanism from $\delta^{82/76}$ Se of Se(VI) and Se(IV) measured in the same sample (Schilling et al., 2015; Basu et al., 2016). The Microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions in a groundwater plume moving through a redox gradient will fractionate $\delta^{82/76}$ Se of both the reactant and the product. This fractionation

combined with the reactive transport of Se should lead to a systematic pattern of $\delta^{82/76}$ Se 459 induced by a distillation effect in the groundwater. With progressive reduction along the flow 460 path, Se-oxyanions will become isotopically heavy. For instance, Basu et al. (2016) observed 461 increasing $\delta^{82/76}$ Se with decreasing Se(VI) concentrations in an aquifer along the redox 462 gradient at an *in-situ* recovery mining site. However, along the flow path of groundwater the 463 464 rate of microbial Se reduction may vary depending on the organic carbon content of the 465 aquifer, and the bacterial population density. This variation in the Se reduction rates can systematically affect the ε , which is determined by the difference in $\delta^{82/76}$ Se between Se(VI) 466 and Se(IV) of the same sample. 467

468 The dependence of ε on the Se(VI) reduction rate has important implications for predicting 469 Se removal/accumulation patterns in modern settings based on Se isotope ratios. Our experimental results suggest a higher ε at low Se(VI) reduction rates generally found in 470 471 terrestrial sediments with low organic carbon. In contrast, lower ε is expected in geochemical 472 settings with high Se(VI) reduction rate commonly found after organic carbon amendment (*i.e.*, acetate) at active bioremediation sites. Our results suggest that the ε inferred from water 473 474 samples may be used to estimate the Se(VI) reduction rate, which is difficult to determine 475 accurately in open systems. Similarly, if the Se(VI) reduction rate is known, an appropriate 476 ε can be determined for calculating the extent of remediation for active remediation sites using rate- ε relationship. Therefore, any quantitative interpretation of the groundwater Se 477 478 isotope ratios is predicated on the knowledge of the size of the intrinsic ε and the factors that 479 control ε at a geochemical setting.

480 Sedimentary Se isotope ratios may provide a complimentary view of the relationship 481 between reduction rate of Se oxyanions and ε . The $\delta^{82/76}$ Se values of different Se soil pools in 482 agricultural seleniferous soils vary up to 13‰ (Schilling et al., 2015). The isotopically heavy 483 adsorbed Se(IV) in the agricultural seleniferous soils suggest Se isotope fractionation by 484 microbial reduction of Se(VI) in irrigation water prior to scavenging of the reaction product 485 Se(IV) by reactive minerals in the soil. Therefore, our laboratory-derived ε values for 486 microbial reduction are essential to quantitative determination of the extent of microbial 487 reduction in the field. Nevertheless, site-specific ε values should still be obtained from 488 experiments using the resident Se-reducing microbial community

489

490 5.2. Ancient environments

491 The Se isotope signature preserved in rocks and sediments can be used to constrain the 492 evolution of the biosphere and redox conditions in near surface environments through time 493 (Wen and Carignan, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2012, 2016; Wen et al., 2014; Stüeken et al., 494 2015a, b; Kipp et al., 2017). However, interpreting Se isotope signature preserved in rocks 495 and sediments is still difficult as (1) bulk rock Se isotope data mask the variability in Se 496 isotope ratio of various Se phases (*i.e.*, organically-bound, pyritic, adsorbed) in the rocks and 497 (2) the effects of local versus global controls on Se cycling due to the short oceanic residence time (10^3 years) of Se species and their low concentrations (<1nM). Therefore, the 498 499 application of Se isotopes as a paleoredox proxy relies on experimentally determined ε values 500 for microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions. High-resolution isotope analyses with an analytical 501 precision of 0.2‰ allows to resolve different reaction pathways and fingerprint Se sources 502 preserved within the rock record.

Selenium isotope signature in bulk shales range between -1.5 and +2.2‰ over geological
time (Wen and Carignan, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2012; Pogge von Strandmann et al., 2014;
Stüeken et al., 2015a, b; Mitchell et al., 2016). The sequestration of isotopically light Se has
been reported for shale deposits (Wen and Carignan, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2012; Pogge von
Strandmann et al., 2014; Stüeken et al., 2015a, b) suggesting the partial reduction of Se-

508 oxyanions in suboxic basins. Our results suggest a lower ε during very rapid removal of Se(VI), the dominant Se species in the ocean (Conde and Alaejos, 1997), during anoxia 509 which is consistent with small changes in $\delta^{82/76}$ Se in the black shales. However, it is 510 necessary to extract phase-specific Se (i.e., adsorbed, organic, pyritic) from rocks and 511 512 sediments and determine their Se isotope compositions to disentangle microbial reduction of 513 Se-oxyanions from other reaction pathways (i.e., adsorption and assimilation). It should be 514 noted that muting of ε values are expected in semi-closed or open flow through systems 515 (Shrimpton et al., 2018) like microbial Se reduction in porewater in ancient oceans compared 516 to ε values typically observed during Rayleigh distillation in a closed system.

In our study, we demonstrate that decreasing microbial activity results in smaller 517 518 cSRR, which causes larger Se isotope fractionation and this could ultimately be reflected in 519 lighter Se isotopic signature in sedimentary Se reservoirs. Despite uncertainties about the Se 520 concentrations and its speciation in ancient oceans, our results imply a systematic relationship 521 between the rate of Se reduction and the observed Se isotope fractionation which must be considered when interpreting $\delta^{82/76}$ Se signatures. This relationship can be of great importance 522 523 because Se reduction rates may be derived from Se isotope signature preserved in the rock 524 record. Thus, the Se isotope signatures recorded in ancient sediments should be re-examined 525 given the influence of Se(VI) reduction rate on the magnitude of Se isotope fractionation.

Future studies should be designed to constrain Se isotope fractionation at microbial Se reduction rates relevant to ancient marine conditions and reconstruct $\delta^{82/76}$ Se ratios imprinted in the rock record. Additionally, phase-specific Se isotope analysis for rocks and sediments, and quantitative modeling approaches can help to provide further insight into the microbial Se cycling in the ancient ocean.

531 **6. Summary and Conclusions**

532 This study provides the first insights on the variation of Se isotope fractionation for nonrespiring Se reduction by six different bacterial strains (Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA, 533 Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans FRC-W, Shewanella sp. (NR), Enterobacter cloacae 534 535 SLDa1-1, Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23 and Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1). We demonstrate that under environmentally-relevant experimental conditions (e.g., <42 µM Se; 536 500 µM electron donor), Se isotope fractionation factors reveal a relatively narrow range for 537 both Se(VI) and Se(IV) reduction with consistently larger Se isotope fractionation for Se(VI) 538 $(\varepsilon_{\text{mean}} = -10.6 \pm 1.3\%)$ than for Se(IV) reduction ($\varepsilon_{\text{mean}} = -7 \pm 0.6\%$). Based on the present 539 540 and previous studies on microbial reduction of Se-oxyanions, we conclude that Se isotopic fractionation during microbial reduction is controlled by the co-metabolic reaction 541 542 pathway(s).

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- 720

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Figure Caption

Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree showing currently described Se(VI) and Se(IV)-reducing bacteria
Species names are shown in italics. Red marked species represent the bacterial strains studied
in this work. Also indicated the taxonomic classes of bacteria.

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Figure 2. Time series (batch experiments) of Se(VI) reduction at 30°C with 500 μ M of acetate (*Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1*) or lactate (*Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23, Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1*) as electron donor. Heat kill control with cells from *Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans* Co23 incubated at 30°C with 500 μ M of acetate. The analytical uncertainty Se concentration is less than 1% and close to the size of the symbols.

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Figure 3. Values of $\delta^{82/76}$ Se of Se(VI) versus remaining Se(VI) during microbial reduction in closed system (batch experiments) Modelled lines (dashed) follow a predicted Rayleigh fractionation process. Uncertainties (±2 SD) are close to the size of the symbols. For the heatkill control the error bars show the root mean square error (RMS) of replicate measurements as described in section 2.5.

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Figure 4. Normalized cell-specific reduction rate (cSRR) and Se isotopic fractionation (ε) by phylogenetically diverse bacteria (**A**) reduction of Se(VI) and (**B**) reduction of Se(IV). The error bars correspond to standard deviation (± 2 SD) of ε 's from duplicate batch experiments (x-axis), and error (%) of cSRR calculated from repeated cell-counting measurements (yaxis). For some data points, the error bars are within the size of the symbol.

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Figure 5. TEM images of *Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1* grown at 30°C under anoxic
conditions in presence of acetate as electron donor and (A) Se(VI))or (B) Se(IV). Red arrows
indicate the presence of intracellular (A) or extracellular (B) Se(0) as reduction product.
Scale bars represent 0.2 µM.

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Figure 6. Time series (batch experiment) of Se(VI) reduction at 30°C with 500 μM of lactate
(*Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23, Desulfitobacterium sp. Viet-1*, Shewanella sp.
(NR)) or acetate (*Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1, Anaeromyxobacter* FRC-W, *Geobacter sulfurreducens* PCA,) as electron donor. The analytical uncertainty Se concentration is less

than 1% and close to the size of the symbols.

- Figure 7. Values of $\delta^{82/76}$ Se of Se(IV) versus remaining Se(IV) during microbial reduction in closed system (batch experiments). Modelled lines (dashed) show predicted Rayleigh
- 756 fractionation. Uncertainties (± 2 SD) are close to the size of the symbols.

Bacterial strain	Gram strain	Electron acceptor	Electron donor
Enterobacter cloacae SLD1a-1	-	Se(VI)/Se(IV)	Acetate
Desulfitobacterium chlororespirans Co23	+	Se(VI)/Se(IV)	Lactate
<i>Desulfitobacterium sp.</i> Viet-1	+	Se(VI)/Se(IV)	Lactate
Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA	-	Se(IV)	Acetate
Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans FRC-W	-	Se(IV)	Acetate
Shewanella sp. (NR)	-	Se(IV)	Lactate

Table 1. List of bacterial strains investigated in this study

Table 2. Reduction rate $[t_{50\%}$ in days] and cell-specific reduction rate (cSRR) of investigated bacterial strains

	Time for 50%				
	Electron	Initial Se	reduction	Normalized cSRR	
Bacterial strain	acceptor	(µM)	$(t_{50\%})$ (d)	$(10^{-17} \text{ mol cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$	
Enterobacter cloacae					
SLD1a-1	Se(VI)	30	1.13	0.24	
	Se(IV)	9	1.03	5.68	
Desulfitobacterium					
chlororespirans Co23	Se(VI)	42	41.25	0.11	
		9	2.31	0.29	
			1.27	0.45	
	Se(IV)	9	0.42	0.51	
			0.71	0.31	
Desulfitobacterium sp.					
Viet-1	Se(VI)	47	1.10	0.34	
			0.79	1.22	
		13	3.80	0.98	
			3.85	1.30	
	Se(IV)	9	3.10	0.65	
			2.49	0.85	
Geobacter					
sulfurreducens PCA	Se(IV)	13	3.10	0.28	
		8	0.49	0.92	
			0.66	1.14	
		15	0.63	0.81	
			0.55	1.32	
Anaeromyxobacter					
dehalogenans FRC-W	Se(IV)	13	0.51	0.78	
Shewanella sp. (NR)	Se(IV)	19	2.37	0.53	
		13	1.60	2.17	

Bacterial strain	Electron acceptor	Initial Se concentration (µM)	Electron donor concentration (µM)	ε (‰) ^{82/76} Se ± 2s.e.	Number of experiments
Enterobacter cloacae					
SLD1a-1	Se(VI)	30	500	-11.5±0.5	2
	Se(IV)	9	500	-7.6±0.3	1
Desulfitobacterium					
chlororespirans Co23	Se(VI)	42	500	-11.8±0.6	1
		9	500	-11.3±0.2	2
	Se(IV)	9	500	-7.8±0.8	2
Desulfitobacterium sp.					
Viet-1	Se(VI)	47	500	-9.3±0.5	2
		13	500	-9.2±0.2	2
	Se(IV)	9	500	-7.3±0.2	2
Geobacter					
sulfurreducens PCA	Se(IV)	13	500	-6.3±0.6	2
		8	2000	-7.0±0.4	3
		15	10000	-7.3±0.5	3
Anaeromyxobacter					
dehalogenans FRC-W	Se(IV)	13	500	-6.3±0.5	1
Shewanella sp. (NR)	Se(IV)	19	500	-6.9±0.2	1
		13	500	-6.2±0.4	1

Table 3. Magnitude of isotopic fractionation ϵ of Se(VI) and Se(IV) reduction by various bacterial strains





Remaining Se(VI) in solution



Time (hours)







Time (hours)



Remaining Se(IV) in solution

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