

Performance Evaluation Of Bacterial Consortium For Biodegradation Of Total Petroleum Hydrocarbon: A Comparative Strategic Biostimulation Study

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1 **Performance evaluation of bacterial consortium for biodegradation of total petroleum hydrocarbon: A**
2 **comparative strategic biostimulation study**

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22 **Abstract**

23 This research work demonstrated the comparative study of the efficacy of poultry litter extract (PLE) and
24 inorganic fertilizer (NPK) as biostimulating agents for enhancing total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH)
25 degradation of petroleum refinery sludge (PRS) with bioaugmentation of an indigenously developed bacterial
26 consortium. In this study, six sets of treatments such as natural attenuation, bioaugmentation with the
27 indigenously developed bacterial consortium, and various biostimulation strategies with (MSM100, PLE100,
28 NPK100, MSM50+PLE50, and MSM50+NPK50) were performed to meet 100% nutrient source for bacterial
29 growth to enhance TPH degradation. Among all, the combined sources of MSM50+PLE50 showed the best
30 performance by degrading the TPH up to $91.3 \pm 4.1\%$ within 28 d of the incubation period. The GC-FID
31 analysis confirmed the efficacy of TPH degradation of PRS when PLE amendment with MSM. Further, the
32 removal of maltene and asphaltene was also achieved $92 \pm 3.7\%$ and $52 \pm 2.2\%$ during this treatment. TPH
33 degradation fitted to first-order kinetics with a rate constant 0.09 d^{-1} and half-life period of 7.7 d for
34 MSM50+PLE50 amendment treatment along with bacterial consortium as bioaugmentation. This study revealed
35 the implementation of the PLE amendment not only preferred as a nutrient source for bacterial growth but also
36 enhanced TPH biodegradation in an eco-friendly strategic way by dropping the practice of inorganic salts.

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39 Keywords Petroleum sludge. Total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH). Bacterial consortium. Biodegradation.
40 Amendment.

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47 **Introduction**

48 The rapid evolution in industrial sector has instigated in generation of a huge quantity of pollutants to the
49 environment (Gaur et al. 2021). Amongst these, petroleum hydrocarbon pollutants from the petroleum industries
50 need a special attention due to its carcinogenic and toxic effects towards health and environment. The release of
51 hydrocarbon contaminants during the crude oil processing, extraction and transportation causes a serious
52 environmental concern due to its hazardous nature. A significance amount of oily sludge generates from the
53 petroleum industries in which total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) is a major concern. TPH refers to petroleum-
54 based hydrocarbons and composed of complex compounds originate from crude oil and considered to be
55 hazardous towards the human as well as habitats (Almeida et al. 2013; Zeneli et al. 2019; Gaur et al. 2021). An
56 eco-friendly, sustainable, and affordable technique is required for safe disposal of these petroleum hydrocarbon
57 pollutants (Varjani 2017; Suganthi et al. 2018; Koolivand et al. 2019). Till date, a series of physical and
58 chemical treatments have been implemented to achieve this goal, but generation of secondary pollutants and
59 high cost are the major concerns of these methods (Taiwo and Otolorin 2009; Qin et al. 2015; Hu et al. 2017;
60 Sivagami et al. 2019). In this regard, the role of microorganisms plays a major character in the process of
61 biodegradation to achieve the safe disposal of petroleum hydrocarbons (PHCs) (Jasmine et al. 2015; Hamidi et
62 al. 2021).

63 Biodegradation is defined as the complete removal of pollutants from the environment in presence of
64 living microorganisms (Das et al. 2008; Gaur et al. 2021). But under natural circumstances, the availability of
65 hydrocarbon degraders is not sufficient to achieve the complete degradation of hydrocarbons (Szulc et al. 2014).
66 This results low degradation rate of PHCs. To overcome this issue, bioaugmentation strategy can introduce by
67 addition of selected microbes to the polluted sites. Several studies have been documented the successful
68 degradation of PHCs by involving bioaugmentation strategy (Mishra et al. 2001; Sarkar et al. 2017). In a similar
69 manner, adequate amount of nutrients is required for biomolecule synthesis which boost potential hydrocarbon
70 degradation (Fallgren and Jin 2008). The hydrocarbon degradation has been successful with biostimulation
71 strategy by inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus (Almeida et al. 2013; Sarkar et al. 2016; Zeneli et al. 2019). The
72 combinational approach of bioaugmentation and biostimulation result better biodegradation performance than
73 the individual approaches (Wu et al. 2016; Sarkar et al. 2017).

74 As PHCs are rich in carbon content, so nitrogen plays a major role among the nutrients. Low-cost
75 chemical fertilizer, organic waste, compost and agro-waste can be use as alternative source of nutrients for

76 microbial growth. Till date, use of chemical fertilizer as a nutrient source for microbial growth has been
77 documented for biodegradation of PHCs (Machín-Ramírez et al. 2008). Even so, fertilizers are not sufficient for
78 agronomy for the emergent nations that's why it is necessary to pursuit an inexpensive and environmentally
79 approachable selection to replace the fertilizer as nutrient source for biodegradation of PHCs. In considering to
80 this issue, use of organic wastes (animal manure, compost, biochar, plat residue) for degradation of PHCs has
81 been reported (Medina et al. 2015; Ren et al. 2018a; 2018b; Guo et al. 2020; Olawale et al. 2020). The presence
82 of humic and pulvic substances in animal manures enhance the bioavailability of hydrocarbon for the microbial
83 growth (Ezenne et al. 2014). Till date, use of Poultry waste (PW) as biostimulating agent has been limited for
84 degradation of PHCs. The PW can replace the inorganic nutrients, as it contains high source of N, P and K along
85 with important micronutrients. With the due course of the time, during the biodegradation process, the uric acid
86 and different proteins present in the PW gradually breakdown into nitrogen and phosphorous and easily
87 available by the microorganisms (Fallgren and Jin 2008).

88 This article focuses on the performance of TPH degradation by the indigenous bacterial consortium with
89 individual/amendment of inorganic chemical fertilizer and poultry litter extract (PLE) in mineral salt media
90 (MSM). The impact of bacterial population was also studied at different nutrient amendments. The GC-FID
91 analysis was conducted to ensure the degradation of TPH in different amendment strategies. Further, the
92 residual TPH were represented in different hydrocarbon fractions (asphaltene and maltene).

93 **Materials and methods**

94 **Materials, chemicals, sample characterization, and media preparation**

95 In this study, the petroleum refinery sludge (PRS) was collected from Indian oil corporation limited Haldia,
96 West Bengal, India. The PRS sample was stored in a closed container at 4 °C to avoid volatilization and to avoid
97 any light exposure (Behera et al. 2020). The process of PRS collection and the physicochemical properties of the
98 sample has been reported in the earlier study (Behera et al. 2020). The PW were collected in a ziplock plastic
99 bags from a poultry farm nearby Kharagpur city. The chemical fertilizers such as urea, single super phosphate
100 (SSP), and muriate of potash (MOP) were purchased from agrochemical store from Kharagpur. All the
101 chemicals and solvents (dichloromethane, n-hexane, n-heptane, chloroform, and methanol) used for research
102 work were analytical grade and purchased from Merk India Ltd, Mumbai, India. The PW was oven dried and
103 crushed and passed through 2 mm sieve to remove the solid particles and stored at 4 °C for further use. The

104 presence of nutrient content, moisture, pH, electrical conductivity was determined as per the standard protocol
105 (manuscript submitted). The C, H, N and S analysis was performed by CHNS analyzer (ELVario MICRO Cube,
106 Elemental TM) (Table S1).

107 The MSM used for degradation study composed (g L^{-1}) KH_2PO_4 (0.17), K_2HPO_4 (0.435), $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$
108 (0.668), NH_4Cl (0.850), $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.0225), $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.0275) and FeCl_3 (0.00025) (Jasmine and
109 Mukherji 2015). The inorganic fertilizer (NPK) media was prepared by (g L^{-1}) 0.482, 0.960, and 0.241 for N, P,
110 and K in the form of urea, SSP, and MOP in distilled water. The poultry litter extract (PLE) was used as a
111 substitute of MSM when used as single source of nutrient. A mixture of dried poultry litter and distilled water
112 (25 g L^{-1}) was prepared and sterilized for required media for bacterial growth. Different strategic media were
113 prepared by adding PLE and NPK with MSM for biodegradation study of TPH.

114 **Bacterial inoculum and maintenance**

115 The hydrocarbon degrading bacterial cultures used in this study were previously isolated from the same PRS
116 sample (Behera et al. 2021). The four indigenous bacterial strains used for consortium are *Dietzia lutea* IRB191,
117 *Dietzia lutea* IRB192, *Staphylococcus warneri* BSM19 and *Stenotrophomonas pavanii* IRB19 (Behera et al.
118 2021). Equal volume of individual strains was mixed together at the end of the log phase to get the effective
119 consortium (Behera et al. 2021). The indigenous isolated strains were preserved at $-80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in sterile glycerol
120 solution (20%, v/v). The optimum degradation strategy for efficient hydrocarbon degradation were pH,
121 temperature, and percentage of oily sludge concentration were 7, $34 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 2% (w/v) respectively (Behera et al.
122 2021).

123 **Design of experiment**

124 Laboratory scale TPH degradation experiments were conducted in shake flask study for 28 days. For this, six
125 different strategies (T1-T6) were performed in 250 ml flask. The details of the media composition using (MSM,
126 PLE, and NPK) in six different treatments were described in Table 1. The treatment T1 was considered as
127 control without bioaugmentation of bacterial consortium.

128 The biostimulation strategy was maintained via adding different media of MSM, PLE, and NPK. Briefly,
129 in case of T2, T3, and T4 biostimulation was reached via adding MSM, PLE and NPK media respectively. In
130 these cases (T2, T3, and T4), 100% nutrient source was maintained as single media composition. Whereas in T5

131 and T6, biostimulation was performed by combination of two medium (MSM+PLE) and (MSM+NPK) at a ratio
132 1:1 respectively. In each set of strategy, the bioaugmentation was performed by inoculating 5% (v/v) of
133 indigenously developed bacterial consortium. For this study, T1 is consider as control, in which biostimulation
134 via MSM nutrients and no bioaugmentation was performed with indigenous developed consortium. However,
135 2% (w/v) of sludge was supplemented as the primary source of carbon and energy in each treatment flask. The
136 initial pH of each medium was maintained at 7 and incubated at 34 °C and 120 rpm (Behera et al. 2021).

137 Table 1

138 **Total hydrocarbon degrading bacteria**

139 To enumerate the total bacterial population (CFU mL⁻¹), in each three days intervals 1 mL of media
140 subsequently diluted with sterile NaCl solution (0.9 w/v). From this proper dilution, 100 µL of solution were
141 plated on nutrient agar. The total bacterial population were counted after 12 to 24 h of incubation at 34 °C and
142 express in (Ln N).

143 **Residual TPH extraction and analysis**

144 **Hydrocarbon extraction and gravimetric analysis**

145 The residual TPH present in degradation study, was extracted and quantified gravimetrically at various time
146 intervals (7 d, 14 d, 21 d, and 28 d) from each treatment strategy. Further, the TPH was fractionated to maltene
147 (soluble in n-heptane) and asphaltene (insoluble in n-heptane) and weighted gravimetrically. The following
148 equation (1) was used to calculate the percentage of TPH degradation gravimetrically.

$$149 \text{ Degradation of TPH (\%)} = \frac{(\text{Initial TPH} - \text{Final TPH})}{\text{Initial TPH}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

150 **Gas Chromatographic analysis**

151 The extracted TPH samples were dissolved in dichloromethane and concentrated to a particular volume by
152 evaporation for GC-FID analysis (PerkinElmer GC system/Clarus 480 with flame ionization detector and DB 5,
153 30 m × 0.32 mm × 0.25 µm, capillary column). The gas chromatography methodology was followed as per our
154 previous study of total run time for 45 min (Behera et al. 2020).

155 **Kinetic of TPH degradation**

156 Kinetic study is essential to (a) measure the biodegradation speed, (b) to understand biodegradation process.
157 Further, kinetic study exemplifies the existence of residual TPH at any time and future prediction of its
158 occurrence during degradation (Kuppusamy et al. 2016). Mostly the biodegradability of hydrocarbons explains
159 the first-order and second order kinetics.

160 First-order kinetics:

$$161 \quad C_t = C_i e^{-k_1 t} \quad (2)$$

$$162 \quad t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_1} = \frac{0.693}{k_1} \quad (3)$$

163 Second-order kinetics:

$$164 \quad \frac{1}{C_t} = k_2 t + \frac{1}{C_i} \quad (4)$$

$$165 \quad t_{1/2} = \frac{1}{k_2 C_i} \quad (5)$$

166 where C_i (g kg^{-1}) and C_t (g kg^{-1}) represents the initial ($t = 0$) and final ($t = t$) TPH concentration respectively,
167 ($t_{1/2}$) is the time (d) required to reduce the initial TPH concentration by one-half. Whereas k_1 (d^{-1}) is the first-
168 order rate constant and k_2 ($\text{kg}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) is the second-order rate constant. The rate constant (k_1 and k_2) were
169 calculated from the slope by plotting $\left(-\ln \frac{C_t}{C_i}\right)$ and $\frac{1}{C_t}$ versus time (t), respectively. The time required to reduce
170 the half of the concentration of TPH during degradation process is known as half-life time ($t_{1/2}$). It is necessary
171 for environmental fate modelling, chemical screening and alteration of pollutants. The corresponding half-life
172 ($t_{1/2}$) value were calculated using equation (3) and (5).

173

174 **Results and discussions**

175 **Total bacterial population**

176 The sample from each treatment were individually analyzed for total bacterial population by plate count method
177 at different time (0th, 3rd, 6th, ... and 28th day) and the result were depicted in Fig. 1. The increased biomass with
178 the period of time was represented by CFU mL^{-1} (Fig. 1). The result of this current study displayed maximum
179 populations in the treatments T5. In treatment T5, the bacterial population was increased from $0.97 \pm 0.03 \times 10^8$
180 CFU mL^{-1} (3rd day) to $2.9 \pm 0.08 \times 10^8$ CFU mL^{-1} (6th day) and reached the maximum $1.1 \pm 0.28 \times 10^{10}$ CFU mL^{-1}

181 at 15th day of incubation. It was observed that the bacterial population rapidly increased during the first 15 days
182 of incubation then reduced to $2.2 \pm 0.24 \times 10^9$ CFU mL⁻¹ on 28th day. The rapid increase in biomass is due to
183 the combined effort of presence of hydrocarbon of the PRS, MSM, and additional source of nutrients in PLE.
184 Similar type of trends was also observed in different treatments, but the increased biomass varies in different
185 strategies. Next to the PLE and MSM amendment, the PLE100 (T3) showed the total bacterial population
186 reached to maximum $9.5 \pm 0.23 \times 10^8$ CFU mL⁻¹ followed by MSM100 (T2) strategy (Fig. 1). In case of
187 Treatment T1(control) the maximum growth was reached up to $1.3 \pm 0.04 \times 10^8$. The availability of indigenous
188 culture in treatment T1 utilized the petroleum hydrocarbons for their microbial activities. The increase number
189 of populations with time confirmed the survival of bacterial consortium and utilization of hydrocarbons as sole
190 source of carbon and energy (Tao et al. 2017). In this study, the used bacterial consortium is indigenous in
191 nature so they can easily adapt to PRS. Increase in microbial population corresponded to increase in TPH
192 degradation observed in this study.

193 Figure 1

194 **Total Petroleum hydrocarbon degradation**

195 The TPH degradation percentage was estimated for each treatment in seven days intervals by solvent extraction
196 followed by gravimetric method and represented in Fig. 2. The TPH degradation percentage was increased in
197 each treatment with respect to incubation time which signified that the survival of bacterial consortium in
198 different amendments and utilization of hydrocarbons as their metabolic activities. The highest TPH degradation
199 was noticed for the treatment T5 and the TPH degradation was achieved $91.3 \pm 4.1\%$ after 28 days of incubation
200 (Fig. 2). However, a substantial amount ($82.55 \pm 3.4\%$) of TPH degradation was observed in treatment T2.
201 Further the percentage of TPH degradation was 78.5 ± 2.5 and $62.7 \pm 3.1\%$ for the treatment T3 and T4
202 respectively. In this study the NPK amendments showed comparatively lower degradation than PLE
203 amendments but higher than the control. This may be due to the bioavailability of the nutrients in PLE amendment
204 is more than the NPK amendment for bacterial activities. However, treatment T5 showed the maximum TPH
205 degradation, where both MSM and PLE were supplied (1:1) (Fig. 2). The presence of humic and fulvic
206 substances in the PLE which enhanced the bioavailability of TPH in the medium for bacterial growth and
207 activities (Ezenne et al. 2014). Further, the addition of organic amendments may increase the microbial
208 activities by enhancing the dissolved organic matter in the medium (Rahman et al. 2002; Wei et al. 2014).

209 Several researchers have reported the use of organic waste for biodegradation of hydrocarbons (Rahman et al.
210 2002; Olawale et al. 2020).

211 Figure 2

212 The TPH degradation of the PLE amendment of this study represented the better result than the results
213 obtained previously (Gholami-Shiri et al. 2017; Roy et al. 2018; Jasmine and Mukherji 2019; Zeneli et al. 2019;
214 Hamidi et al. 2021) and a comparative result has represented in Table 2.

215 Table 2

216 The extracted maltene fractions comprised of aliphatic, aromatics and NSO in the range $52 \pm 4\%$, $39 \pm$
217 2% , and $9 \pm 1\%$, respectively (Behera et al. 2020). The heavier asphaltene was found to be $90 \pm 3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, which
218 is 50% of TPH in this PRS sample. The degradation of maltene and asphaltene fractions for different
219 amendment strategies has been described in Fig 3. It was noticed that both the maltene and asphaltene fractions
220 reduced in each strategy as compared to control (T1) (Fig. 3). At the end of 28th day, the degradation of maltene
221 was highest ($92 \pm 3.7\%$) and asphaltene was found to be ($52 \pm 2.2\%$) for T5. Presence of particulate matter
222 along with organic matter in the PRS enhanced the degradation of maltene (Jasmine and Mukherji 2015). The
223 degradation of asphaltene is low due to its complex and recalcitrant in nature (Jasmine and Mukherji 2019). But
224 Reddy et al. (2011) reported the degradation of asphaltenes (26%) in slurry phase reactor in 10 days.

225 Figure 3

226 **GC analysis**

227 The samples were withdrawn on completion of 28 days for their degradation study. The residual TPH of all
228 treatments after degradation of 28 days were represented by gas chromatograms obtain from GC-FID analysis
229 (Fig. 4). The presence of TPH in the original PRS sample and its GC-FID chromatogram has been reported in
230 our previous report (Behera et al. 2021). From the Fig. 4, it was confirmed that the TPH degradation
231 comparatively higher in case of T5. This depicted the maximum hydrocarbons were utilized by the
232 microorganisms in T5. The obtained chromatograms providing the evidence of gravimetric result of TPH
233 degradation (Fig. 4).

234 Figure 4

235 **Degradation rate of TPH**

236 Kinetic modelling was practiced to evaluate the rate of TPH degradation in the studied systems. The regression
237 analysis data of TPH degradation fitted to both first and second order kinetics. The corresponding R^2 value, k_1 ,
238 k_2 , and half-life period ($t_{1/2}$) for individual treatment were summarized in Table 3. For the treatment T5 the TPH
239 degradation fitted to first order kinetics with rate constant 0.09 d^{-1} . The biodegradation rate constant for different
240 strategies were in the range 0.09 to 0.03 d^{-1} . The corresponding half-life period for the treatments (T2, T3, T4,
241 T5, and T6) were was found to be in the range 11.4, 17.2, 21, 7.7, and 17.3 d respectively. Agarry et al. (2010)
242 described the suitability of first-order kinetic model for hydrocarbon degradation. The resulted R^2 values of
243 second order kinetics model were higher than those of first order model (Table 3). Therefore, the second order-
244 kinetic described the TPH degradation rate better than the first-order for T1, T2, T3, T4 and T6. Sarkar et al.
245 (2005) in their study effectively described the better fit of second order kinetic model for hydrocarbon
246 degradation. Similarly, Poorsoleman et al. (2020) reported in his study that the TPH degradation fitted to both
247 first and second-order kinetics. The higher degradation constant and lower half-life observed in T5 than other
248 strategy indicating the higher efficiency of TPH degradation.

249 Table 3

250 **Conclusion**

251 In this current study, the supply of PLE as nutrient amendments minimized the dose of MSM for TPH
252 biodegradation. The nutrient amendment of MSM (50%) with PLE (50%) resulted maximum TPH degradation
253 which is approximately 4 times higher than control when augmented with indigenously developed bacterial
254 consortium. However, the TPH degradation was lowest when NPK used as a single source of nutrient
255 supplement but 2.7 times higher than the control. Based on our kinetic study, we recommended the rate of TPH
256 degradation fitted to the first-order kinetic model for PLE amendment with MSM. The combined utilization of
257 PLE as a nutrient source in MSM, enhanced the TPH degradation and reduced the cast-off inorganic salt, as well
258 as valorising the PL waste management for environmental safety.

259 **Declarations**

260 **Ethics approval and consent to participate** Not applicable

261 **Consent for publication** Not applicable

262 **Availability of data and materials** Not applicable

263 **Competing interests**

264 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could
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268 **Author's contributions**

269 Ipsita Dipamitra Behera: Conceptualization, Experimentation, Data curation, writing - original draft,
270 Methodology, validation. Bhim Charan Meikap: Conceptualization, Project administration, Resources,
271 Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Ramkrishna Sen: Project administration, Funding acquisition,
272 Resources, Supervision, Writing- review & editing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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393 **Table Captions**

394 Table 1 Details of various amendments for different treatments.

395 Table 2 Comparison of TPH degradation under different biostimulation strategies between present study and
396 previously reported studies.

397 Table 3 Kinetic study of TPH degradation with different treatments.

398 **Table 1**

Treatment No	Amendments	Bioaugmentation	Composition (%)		
			MSM	PLE	NPK
T1	MSM (control)	No	100	0	0
T2	MSM	Yes	100	0	0
T3	PLE	Yes	0	100	0
T4	NPK	Yes	0	0	100
T5	MSM + PLE	Yes	50	0	50
T6	MSM + NPK	Yes	50	0	50

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Consortium	Amendments	Time of degradation (day)	Percentage of TPH degradation	References
Indigenous culture	Nutrients (Ammonium nitrate and monopotassium phosphate)	80	52.4	Zeneli et al. (2019)
<i>Bacillus cereus</i> BQAR-01d, <i>Bacillus sp.</i> NBRC 101285, and <i>Lysinibacillus fusiformis</i> X-9	Mineral salt medium	30	52.3	Gholami shiri et al. (2017)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> R7-803, <i>pseudomonas fluorescens</i> PSY-11 <i>Citrobacter</i> , and <i>amalonaticus</i> SA01	Mineral salt medium	30	35.4	Gholami shiri et al. (2017)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> (RS1), <i>Microbacterium sp.</i> (RS2), <i>Bacillus sp.</i> (RS3), <i>Acinetobacter bau-mannii</i> (RS4,) and <i>Stenotrophomonas sp.</i> (RS5)	Nitrate and Phosphopous	90	68.4	Jasmine and Mukherji (2019)
<i>Staphylococcus sp.</i> A1(2011), <i>Rhodococcus jostii</i> and <i>Arthrobacter citreus</i>	Mineral salt media	35	67.3	Hamidi et al. (2021)
Indigenous bacterial consortium <i>Dietzia lutea</i> (IRB191), <i>Dietzia lutea</i> (IRB192), <i>Staphylococcus warneri</i> (BSM19) and <i>Stenotrophomonas pavanii</i> (IRB19)	Nitrate and Phosphate in microcosm study MSM with PLE (50:50)	120 28	57-75 91.3	Roy et al. (2018) This study

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415 **Table 3**

Treatment No	First order kinetics			Second order kinetics		
	k_1 (d ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$ (d)	R ²	k_2 (g kg ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$ (d)	R ²
T1	0.009	77	0.92	0.00006	92.3	0.93
T2	0.061	11.4	0.83	0.0009	6.15	0.95
T3	0.04	17.2	0.87	0.0007	7.9	0.98
T4	0.033	21	0.86	0.0003	18.4	0.95
T5	0.091	7.7	0.95	0.0023	2.4	0.93
T6	0.04	17.3	0.87	0.0004	13.8	0.95

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432 **Figure captions**

433 Figure 1 Total bacterial population (Ln N) in various treatments such as only MSM without bioaugmentation
434 (T1 as control NA), MSM100 (T2), PLE100 (T3), NPK100 (T4), MSM50+PLE50 (T5), and MSM50+NPK50
435 (T6) during incubation period.

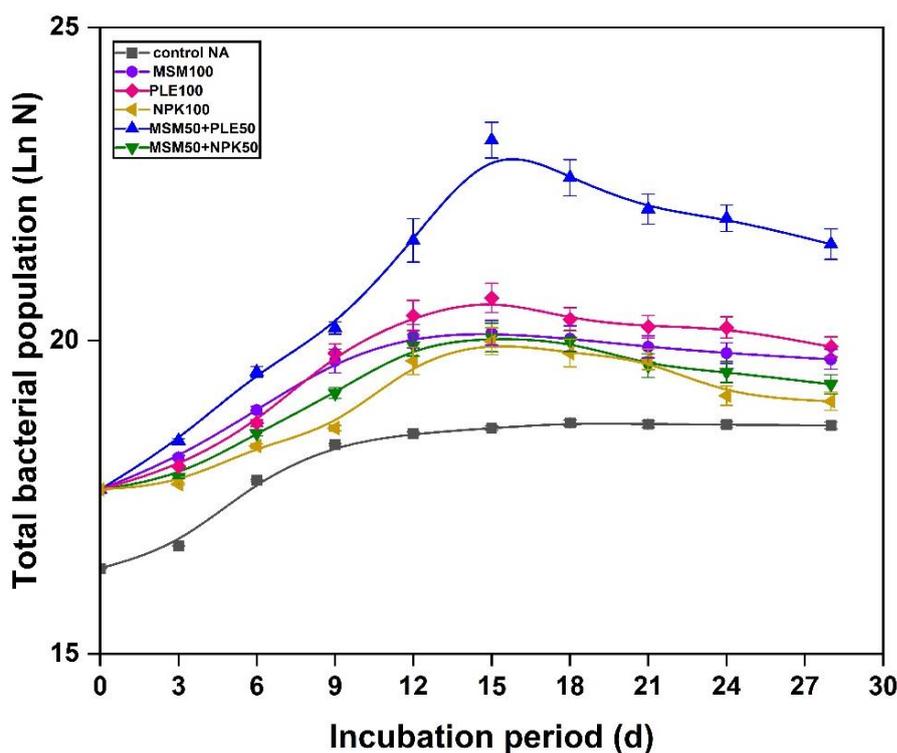
436 Figure 2 Gravimetric analysis of TPH degradation (%) in different treatments such as only MSM without
437 bioaugmentation (T1 as control NA), MSM100 (T2), PLE100 (T3), NPK100 (T4), MSM50+PLE50 (T5), and
438 MSM50+NPK50 (T6) over the incubation period.

439 Figure 3 Biodegradation of maltene and asphaltene fraction (%) for different biostimulation strategies after 28
440 days of incubation

441 Figure 4 GC-FID chromatograms were representing the residual hydrocarbon peaks with different treatments
442 after 28 days of incubation. (a) MSM100 without bioaugmentation as control (T1), (b) MSM100, (c) PLE100
443 (T3), (d) NPK100 (T4), (e) PLE50+MSM50 (T5), and (f) PLE50+NPK50 (T6) with bioaugmentation of 5%
444 (v/v) of bacterial consortium.

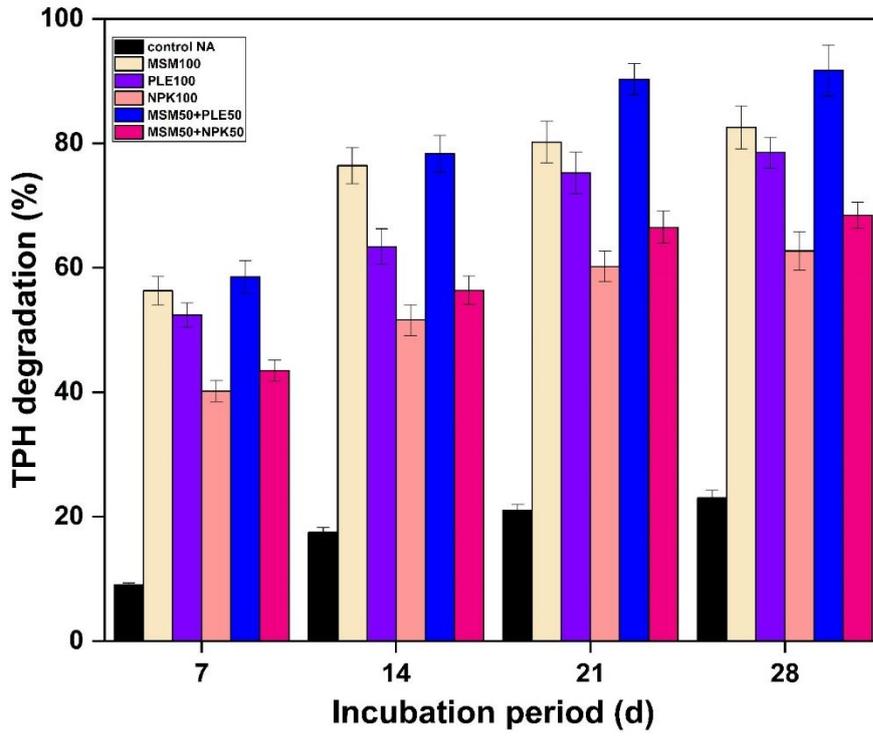
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446 **Figure 1**



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448 **Figure 2**



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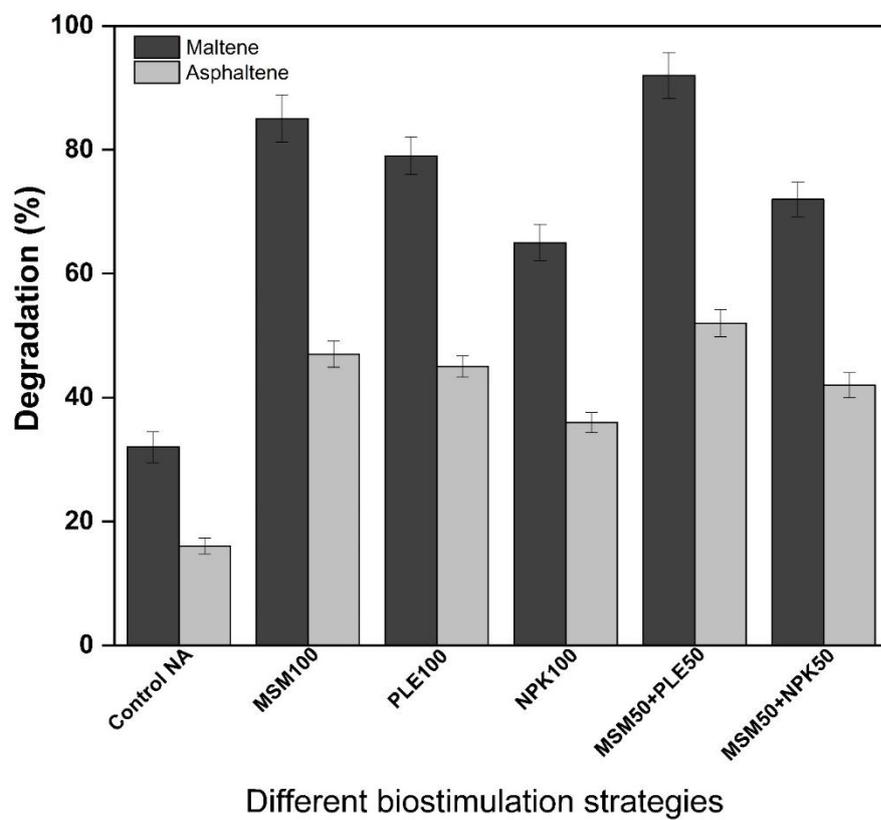
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460 **Figure 3**

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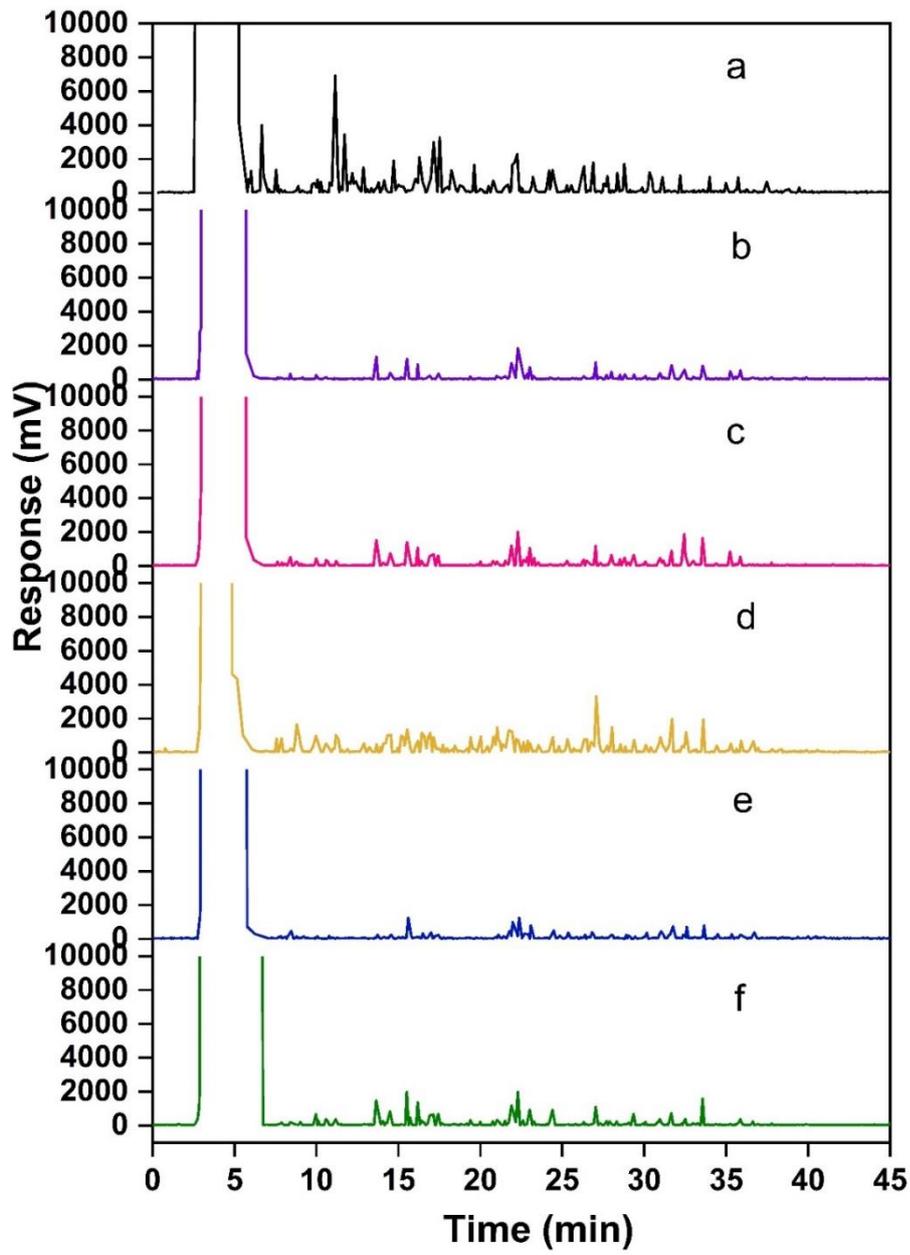
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