

1 **Title:** Effect of copper and zinc as sulfate or nitrate salts on soil microbiome dynamics and *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*  
2 positive *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* survival

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## Abstract

The exposure of soil to metals and to antibiotic resistant bacteria may lead to the progressive deterioration of soil quality. The persistence of antibiotic resistant bacteria or antibiotic resistance genes in soil can be influenced by the microbial community or by soil amendments with metal salts. This work assessed the effect of soil amendment with copper and zinc, as sulfate or nitrate salts, on the fate of a carbapenem-resistant (*bla<sub>VIM</sub>*<sup>+</sup>) hospital effluent isolate of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (strain H1FC49) and on the variations of the microbial community composition. Microcosms with soil aged or not with copper and zinc salts (20 mM), and inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 were monitored at 0, 7, 14 and/or 30 days, for community composition (16S rRNA gene amplicon) and strain H1FC49 persistence. Data on culturable *P. aeruginosa*, quantitative PCR of the housekeeping gene *ecf*, and the presumably acquired genes *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*<sup>+</sup> and integrase (*intI1*), and community composition were interpreted based on descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis. *P. aeruginosa* and the presumably acquired genes, were quantifiable in soil for up to one month, in both metal-amended and non-amended soil. Metal amendments were associated with a significant decrease of bacterial community diversity and richness. The persistence of *P. aeruginosa* and acquired genes in soils, combined with the adverse effect of metals on the bacterial community, highlight the vulnerability of soil to both types of exogenous contamination.

**Keywords:** heavy metals; metal salts; bacteria survival; antibiotic resistance gene persistence; soil bacterial communities

## 1. Introduction

Soil is a living environment that hosts 25% of the world biodiversity and holds a complex and rich microbial community (Bach *et al.* 2020; Guerra *et al.* 2020). Given the long time required for soil formation it can be considered a non-renewable resource, subjected to threats of different types such as erosion, loss of organic matter, salinization or contamination, with implications on the ecosystems health and human wellbeing (Brevik *et al.*, 2020; Právělie *et al.*, 2021). Soil contamination may result from unintended human actions and diffuse pollution sources, such as industrial effluent discharges, stormwater, among others (Baralkiewicz *et al.* 2014; Zwolak *et al.* 2019). In addition, it can also result from unsustainable practices that are associated with intensive conventional agriculture where synthetic substances are used as fertilizers or pesticides, among others (Aktar *et al.*, 2009; Sebilo *et al.*, 2013; Silva *et al.*, 2019). This scenario, as well as the drought threat imposed by the continually approaching climate change, has been calling for a shift towards sustainable practices, in particular in agriculture, where organic fertilization and water reuse for irrigation can become the rule (Becerra-Castro *et al.* 2015; Urrea, Alkorta and Garbisu 2019; Chojnacka, Moustakas and Witek-Krowiak 2020). However, these practices may bring new risks. Organic fertilization with animal manure or sludge may reduce the application of synthetic fertilizers in soils, with important benefits for the environment (Chojnacka *et al.* 2020). However, this practice may represent a source of antibiotic resistant bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes, introducing these biological contaminants in soils (Munir, Wong and Xagorarakis 2011; Udikovic-Kolic *et al.* 2014; Chen and Xia 2017; Liu *et al.* 2017; McKinney *et al.* 2018; Murray *et al.* 2019). Antibiotic resistant bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes are also known to be present in treated wastewater and, therefore, while this means irrigation may supply nutrients and contribute to protecting water resources, it may also enrich the soil in those biological contaminants (Malik and Aleem 2011; Amador *et al.* 2015; Manaia *et al.* 2018). Unlike chemical contaminants, once spread in the environment antibiotic resistant bacteria can proliferate, as long as favourable conditions are met, even if for long periods of time they persisted without noticeable growth (Wang *et al.* 2014; Abd-Elwahed 2018; He *et al.* 2020).

72 Like antibiotic resistant bacteria, metals are also highly persistent environmental contaminants.  
73 Although these contaminants may suffer transformation, they are non-degradable, a fact that leads  
74 to an unavoidable accumulation in the environment (Tchounwou *et al.* 2012; Ali, Khan and Ilahi  
75 2019). As above mentioned for antibiotic resistant bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes, also  
76 metals can be supplied and transferred to soil by manure, sludge or treated wastewater (Mantovi *et*  
77 *al.* 2003; Berenguer *et al.* 2008; Xiong *et al.* 2010; Donner *et al.* 2012; Guo *et al.* 2018; Qian *et al.*  
78 2018). Moreover, the use of metal salts in agriculture or livestock is not incompatible with organic  
79 agriculture practices (The Council of the European Union 2010).

80 Copper-based treatments are widely used in agriculture due to phytosanitary versatility and low costs  
81 (Lamichhane *et al.* 2018). For example, copper sulfate is an antimicrobial agent commonly used to  
82 prevent crop phytopathogenic activity in vineyards (Flores-Vélez *et al.*, 1996; MacKie *et al.*, 2012;  
83 La Torre *et al.*, 2018; Lamichhane *et al.*, 2018). However, the intensive application of copper sulfate,  
84 which is allowed in organic farming, promotes the accumulation of copper in the soil, representing a  
85 non-negligible pollution source (Komárek *et al.* 2010; Melendez *et al.* 2020). Copper application in  
86 crops, besides the fungicide activity, may affect other non-target organisms in the environment  
87 (Flemming and Trevors 1989; Michaud and Grant 2003; Yang *et al.* 2011) and even became a threat  
88 to humans health (Mathew *et al.* 2015; Rehman *et al.* 2019). Another important metal commonly  
89 found in agriculture supplements is zinc, with synthetic fertilizers and plant supplements, rich in zinc  
90 sulfate and nitrate salts, acting as potential soil contamination sources (Ju *et al.*, 2004; Nielsen,  
91 2012; Dwivedi and Srivastva, 2014). Widely utilized to support plant growth, zinc overuse may lead  
92 to accumulation in soil and crops (Broadley *et al.* 2007; Nielsen 2012). At high concentrations (in a  
93 range of 55-400 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), zinc can be phytotoxic and affect the soil bacterial communities (Chaney  
94 1993; Long *et al.* 2003; Moffett *et al.* 2003). Due to the wide and often simultaneous use, copper and  
95 zinc may co-occur and co-accumulate in the agricultural soil (Poulsen 1998; Mantovi *et al.* 2003;  
96 Sonoda *et al.* 2019). As expected, the combination of metals, such as copper and zinc, is described  
97 to enhance the toxic effect on plants, soil multicellular organisms and microbial community activity  
98 (Luo and Rimmer 1995; Korthals *et al.* 2000; Song *et al.* 2018). In addition, metals like copper and  
99 zinc are directly correlated with antibiotic resistance in the environment (Baker-Austin *et al.* 2006;

100 Yazdankhah, Rudi and Bernhoft 2014; Becerra-Castro *et al.* 2015; Dickinson *et al.* 2019). For  
101 example, Wang *et al.* (2019) described a positive correlation between the copper and zinc  
102 bioavailable in soils and the abundance of the antibiotic resistance genes *ermC* and *qnrS*. In  
103 summary, antibiotic resistant bacteria and metals such as copper and zinc may be supplied by the  
104 same type of source, become important soil contaminants and produce different types of soil  
105 microbiota disturbance. This scenario meets the One Health concept that considers the holistic  
106 protection and health promotion of the environment, animals and humans. Accordingly, the  
107 environmental contamination endangers not only the ecosystems, but also human health, for  
108 example, through the food-web contamination (Verraes *et al.* 2013; Rather *et al.* 2017).

109 The contamination of soils with antibiotic resistant bacteria or with antibiotic resistance genes due to  
110 wastewater irrigation or manure application is described by some studies, mainly when long-term  
111 application is used. Manure application was associated with an increase of bacteria abundance in  
112 soil, mainly antibiotic resistant bacteria, as well as an increase in the abundance of antibiotic  
113 resistance genes (e.g. *ermB*, *ermC*, *qnrS*, *sul1*, *sul2*, *tet*-type and beta-lactamase genes) and genes  
114 related with mobile genetic elements, as *int1* (Heuer, Schmitt and Smalla 2011; Marti *et al.* 2013;  
115 Udikovic-Kolic *et al.* 2014; Faissal *et al.* 2017; Li *et al.* 2017b; Zhao *et al.* 2017; Wang *et al.* 2019).  
116 Also, accumulation of antibiotic resistant bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes in soil irrigated with  
117 treated wastewater is reported (Chen *et al.* 2014; Wang *et al.* 2014). In contrast, some other studies  
118 have shown that resistant bacteria that enter the soils from the treated wastewater are not able to  
119 compete or survive in the soil environment and, hence, do not significantly contribute to the  
120 accumulation of antibiotic resistance genes in soils (Negreanu *et al.* 2012; Gatica and Cytryn 2013;  
121 Marano *et al.* 2019). However, it is important to critically analyse these results as the high limits of  
122 quantification of antibiotic resistance genes in soil (estimated to be 4 log-units genes copy number  
123 *per g* of soil, by traditional real-time PCR), may be responsible for the apparently contradictory  
124 findings reported in different publications (Fortunato *et al.* 2018).

125 The association between metals and antibiotic resistance has been suggested in different studies,  
126 being the genetic linkage the supposed most effective mechanism of co-selection between both

127 (Seiler and Berendonk 2012; Dickinson *et al.* 2019; Zhao *et al.* 2019). In addition, other mechanisms  
128 may be involved, in particular, due to the effect of metals on microbial community disturbance,  
129 creating the opportunity for fast growing bacteria, as is the case of human and animal commensal  
130 bacteria prone to harbour antibiotic resistance genes, proliferate (Dickinson *et al.* 2019).

131 The combined effects of soil contamination with metals and antibiotic resistant bacteria and antibiotic  
132 resistance genes motivated the current study. The complexity of the topic required a feasible  
133 experimental design based on the use of model metals and antibiotic resistant bacteria. The selected  
134 metals were copper and zinc, which, in spite of being not ranked among the most critical  
135 environmental contaminants, may reach high concentrations in agriculture soil (Poulsen 1998;  
136 Mantovi *et al.* 2003; Tóth *et al.* 2016; Sonoda *et al.* 2019; Zwolak *et al.* 2019) and have recognized  
137 impacts on the microbiota (Dumestre *et al.* 1999; Kunito *et al.* 2001; Jacquiod *et al.* 2018; Song *et al.*  
138 *et al.* 2018; Dickinson *et al.* 2019). These metals can be supplied in different salt forms. This information  
139 motivated the simultaneous testing of both metals and in different salts forms, in order to differentiate  
140 between what might be the effect of the metal and of the associated anion. The selected antibiotic  
141 resistant bacteria was *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* because it is an important opportunistic pathogen  
142 with recognized ubiquity due to its extraordinary adaptive capacity (Moradali *et al.*, 2017). Besides a  
143 rich pool of genetic determinants that confer intrinsic tolerance to a wide array of metals, biocides  
144 and antibiotics, members of this species are also important reservoirs of acquired antibiotic  
145 resistance genes (Fajardo *et al.*, 2008; Breidenstein *et al.*, 2011). For the study, it was selected a  
146 carbapenem-resistant (*bla<sub>VIM</sub>*<sup>+</sup>) strain, *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49, whose history includes isolation from  
147 untreated hospital effluent and a multidrug resistance profile, underling its adaptive capacity (Vaz-  
148 Moreira *et al.*, 2016).

149 The experimental design was settled to test the hypothesis that the persistence of *P. aeruginosa*  
150 strain H1FC49 or of the *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* gene could be affected by: i) the presence of the metals copper and  
151 zinc, and that ii) the salts in which these metals are supplied, nitrate or sulfate, could produce distinct  
152 effects. Concurrently bacterial communities were compared based on the 16S rRNA gene amplicon

153 sequencing to infer if metal soil amendments triggered changes that could explain the persistence  
154 of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (*bla<sub>VIM+</sub>*).

155

## 156 **2. Materials and methods**

### 157 2.1. Soil samples and microcosms assays

158 Assays were conducted in microcosms with soil collected from an agricultural greenhouse, located  
159 in Vila do Conde, Northern Portugal (41°25' N; 8°45' W) and that adopts Good Agricultural and  
160 Environmental Practices. This greenhouse soil has been characterized as being a sandy soil, with  
161 pH (H<sub>2</sub>O) of 7.5, organic matter of 1.8%, electric conductivity of 0.32 dS m<sup>-1</sup>, a concentration of  
162 soluble cations (Ca, Mg, Na, K) of 717 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and of metals (Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Zn) totalizing 98.5 mg  
163 kg<sup>-1</sup> and 25 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of nitrate (Becerra-Castro *et al.*, 2017). Soil composite samples were collected  
164 between windrows from the same greenhouse in three different occasions; the soil collected in  
165 April 2017 (tomato crop) was used for microcosm assay named M1; the soil collected in March  
166 2018 (not cultivated) was used for microcosm assays M2 and M3, which were carried out in two  
167 independent dates; and the soil collected in June 2018 (lettuce crop) was used for microcosm  
168 assay M4 (Table 1). The sampling dates and the period between collection and experiment start  
169 are reported in Table 1. Sampling procedures and other soil characteristics were previously  
170 described (Becerra-Castro *et al.* 2017). Microcosm assays were established by weighing 300 g of  
171 soil (wet weight), spiked with a solution of copper and zinc salts, sulfate or nitrate (Sigma Aldrich  
172 ®), to reach a final concentration of 20 mM (equivalent to 830 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper, 850 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of  
173 zinc, 1250 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of sulfate and 1600 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of nitrate). Molar units were used to allow the  
174 comparison of metal molecules available when using different salts. As a control, a corresponding  
175 soil aliquot was spiked with the same volume of sterile distilled water. After vigorous stirring,  
176 control and metal spiked soils (M2, M3, M4) were aged for one month in the dark at room  
177 temperature.

Amended and non-amended (control) soil microcosms were inoculated with a suspension of the carbapenem-resistant *P. aeruginosa* strain H1FC49 isolated from hospital effluent (Vaz-Moreira *et al.*, 2016). This strain is resistant to carbapenems due to the presence of the metallo  $\beta$ -lactamase gene *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*, known to be inserted in the variable region of a class 1 integron (Vaz-Moreira *et al.*, 2016). *P. aeruginosa* strain H1FC49 is resistant to carbapenems, penicillins, cephalosporins, fluoroquinolones, sulfonamides, and aminoglycosides, as determined based on the disc diffusion method (Vaz-Moreira *et al.*, 2016). In addition, the genome analysis, based on the annotation against the Resistance Gene Identifier (RGI) of the Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD) (Alcock *et al.* 2020), revealed the presence of the antibiotic resistance genes sulfonamide resistant dihydropteroate synthase (*sul1*), aminoglycoside 3'-phosphotransferase (*APH(3')-IIb*), and chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (*catB7*).

Four soil microcosm sets (M1-M4) were prepared in triplicate for each condition and sampling time (metal amendment and *P. aeruginosa* inoculation and respective controls) in 50 mL tubes containing 10 g of soil (Table 1). Metal-amended and control microcosms were inoculated with 3 mL of a suspension of a fresh culture of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49, prepared in synthetic wastewater as previously described by Fortunato *et al.* (2018), to reach a final density of  $10^7$  CFU g<sup>-1</sup> of soil dry weight. Non-inoculated (spiked with synthetic wastewater) metal-amended and control microcosms were processed in parallel and incubated at 25 °C (Table 1). Microcosm replicates were sacrificed at each sampling time (0, 7, 14 days, in M1-M4 and 30 days in M1 and M4), for bacterial enumeration and DNA extraction for further analyses. Microcosm assays were designated as M1 to M4, corresponding to four independent assay sets (Table 1). Metal amendment (copper and zinc) at a final concentration of 20 mM were labelled as "A20" for sulfate salts and as "B20" for nitrate salts. *P. aeruginosa* inoculation was labelled as "Pa". Controls, without amendment were labelled with "C". The incubation time was labelled as "t" (0, 7, 14, 30 days).

202

## 2.2. Bacteria enumeration

204 Culturable bacteria were enumerated in microcosms, by suspending 1 g of soil in 10 mL  
205 hexametaphosphate 1% (w/v), to facilitate the suspension of soil particles, with serial dilutions in  
206 sterile saline solution (0.85% (w/v), NaCl). From each dilution, 20 µL were dropped on the surface  
207 of Plate Count Agar (PCA, Sigma Aldrich) and Cetrimide agar supplemented with nalidixic acid  
208 (1.5%) (Sigma Aldrich) plates (Miles *et al.*, 1938). Cultures were incubated at 30 °C for 48 h, with  
209 total heterotrophs being registered as those enumerated on PCA and *P. aeruginosa* as those  
210 forming green colonies on Cetrimide agar plus nalidixic acid.

211

### 212 2.3. DNA extraction and quantitative PCR

213 DNA was extracted in triplicate from each microcosm from 0.25 g of soil, using the DNeasy  
214 PowerSoil kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA concentration was  
215 determined with the Qubit® HS DNA kit (Life Technologies Corporation). The genes *ecf*, a *P.*  
216 *aeruginosa* marker encoding the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor, *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*, encoding the metallo β-  
217 lactamase VIM-2, and *int1*, encoding the class 1 integron integrase, as well as the 16S rRNA gene  
218 were quantified by quantitative PCR. The 16S rRNA gene was quantified to estimate the total  
219 bacterial load, *ecf* to estimate the abundance of *P. aeruginosa*, *int1* as a proxy for mobile  
220 resistome, and *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* to assess the persistence of this carbapenem resistance gene in soil. The  
221 genes 16S rRNA, *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*, and *int1* were quantified following the conditions previously described  
222 (Fortunato *et al.* 2018). The gene *ecf* was quantified using the primers ECF5 -  
223 AAGCGTTCGTCCTGCACAA and ECF2 - TCATCCTTCGCCTCCCTG (Colinon *et al.* 2013) with  
224 an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 10 minutes followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 seconds, 55 °C  
225 for 30 seconds, 72 °C for 30 seconds. Real-time quantitative PCR used a StepOne Real-Time  
226 PCR System (Life Technologies, Carlsbad), and the Standard Curve method (Brankatschk *et al.*  
227 2012). All quantifications adopted the same quality criteria: the possibility of interpolation to the  
228 calibration curves, the correct melting temperature of the amplicon, and the absence of multiple  
229 peaks or shoulders (Rocha *et al.* 2018). The amplification at Ct values below the lowest  
230 concentration of the calibration curve, at the expected melting temperature, were considered as

231 being above the Limit of Detection (LOD), and below the Limit of Quantification (LOQ) (Fortunato  
232 *et al.* 2018).

233

#### 234 2.4. Soil microbial community analysis

235 For the bacterial community analysis the microcosms M3 (t0 and t14) and M4 (t0, t14, and t30)  
236 were selected because were those representing distinct soil collection events that permitted the  
237 comparison of the metals and salts effects. The amplicon sequencing analysis targeted the V3/V4  
238 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene of triplicate DNA pools, using paired-end Illumina  
239 Miseq (STAB VIDA, Lda). As a quality control, sequences shorter than 300 bp or with a quality  
240 score lower than 25 were eliminated. The good quality reads were analysed and processed using  
241 Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME2) (version 2019.7; <http://qiime2.org/>) (Bolyen *et al.*  
242 2019). Sequences were filtered, merged and, chimeric reads removed by the DADA2 software  
243 package enclosed in QIIME2 (Bolyen *et al.* 2019). Taxonomy was assigned to the amplicon  
244 sequence variants (ASVs), using the ARB SILVA taxonomic database version 132 (Yilmaz. *et al.*,  
245 2014). In addition, the ASVs' relative abundance, the alpha diversity indexes (reported in Table  
246 S1), and the beta diversity metrics were calculated for each sample using QIIME2. The relative  
247 abundance of the most abundant (> 2%) bacterial groups at phylum, class, and order levels was  
248 represented as barplot graphics using the R package Phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes 2013) and  
249 ggplot2 (Wickham 2016). The beta diversity metrics was imported to R using the package  
250 QIIME2R (<https://github.com/jbisanz/qiime2R>) and plotted as biplot PCoA using the package  
251 ggplot2.

252

#### 253 2.5. Statistical analyses

254 The relative abundance of bacterial groups at phylum, class, and order levels were analysed using  
255 the statistical software STAMP v2.1.3 (Parks *et al.* 2014). One-way analysis of variance ANOVA  
256 (post hoc Tuckey HSD and Bonferroni) was applied to define the statistical differences (*p*-value

0.05) among the alpha diversity indexes measured in the different soil conditions. Differences in beta diversity were quantified using the permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA), with 999 permutations. The significance was determined by Benjamini/Hochberg FDR p-value adjustment for pairwise comparisons (*q-value* <0.05). The CFUs and genes quantified were normalized, as the ratio of the *log* value measured at each sampling time *versus* the *log* value measured at the time zero. Parametric analysis as ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni and Tuckey HSD and non-parametric analysis (Wilcoxon test) were used to define statistical differences (*p*-value 0.05) among the CFUs and genes quantified in the different soil conditions, over the incubation period.

266

### 267 3. Results

268 This study comprises four major topics, (a) the survival of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 and the  
269 persistence of the gene *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* in non-amended soil microcosms (section 3.1), or (b) in soil  
270 microcosms amended with copper and zinc as sulfate salts, or (c) as nitrate salts (section 3.2), as  
271 well as the (d) effect of these metals and salts in the soil microbiota (section 3.3).

272

#### 273 3.1. Survival of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*<sup>+</sup> in non-amended soil microcosms

274 The initial load of *P. aeruginosa* of 7.9 log-CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight decreased to 5.9-6.0 log-CFU g<sup>-1</sup>  
275 soil dry weight at t14 and maintained the same value at t30. The C/C<sub>0</sub> ratio, which expresses the  
276 abundance at a given time in comparison to time zero, indicates that the abundance of the typical  
277 *P. aeruginosa* colonies on ceftrimide agar (green colonies) in non-amended and non-aged soil (M1  
278 microcosms) decreased significantly in the first week of incubation (C/C<sub>0</sub> ~0.85) and continued to  
279 decrease up to 14 days of incubation (*p* < 0.05). From day 14 on, no significant variation in the  
280 abundance of *P. aeruginosa* colonies was observed (grey boxplots, Figure 1). Consistently, similar  
281 results were observed when the fate of *P. aeruginosa* was assessed based on the abundance of  
282 gene *ecf* (orange boxplots, Figure 1). The abundance of this gene decreased from 7.6 log-gene

283 copy number  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight at t0 to 5.7 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight at t30. This same  
 284 pattern was observed for *intl1* gene, whose abundance decreased from 8.0 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil  
 285 dry weight at t0 to 5.8 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight at t30 (green boxplots, Figure 1). The  
 286 slightly higher abundance *intl1* gene observed at t0 might be due to its occurrence in indigenous  
 287 soil microbiota. The carbapenem resistance gene *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* (blue boxplots, Figure 1) presented a  
 288 pattern of variation identical to *ecf* and *intl1*, in the first weeks, with C/C0 significantly decreasing to  
 289 ~0.85 in the first week and to 0.78 in the second, but took off in the period t14-t30 when C/C0  
 290 reached 0.68, the lowest value observed. This variation corresponded to a significant abundance  
 291 decrease of the *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* gene ( $p < 0.05$ ) from 7.8 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight at t0 to 5.3 log-  
 292 gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight at t30. These variations were not accompanied by a significant  
 293 decrease in the abundance of soil microbiota, as was indicated by the maintenance of the  
 294 abundance of the 16S rRNA gene, with values ranging 8.5-8.9 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight,  
 295 observed over the 30 days incubation period (data not shown). In addition, the non-inoculated soil  
 296 used for M1 assays presented 4.5 log-CFU  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight on cetrimide agar supplemented with  
 297 nalidixic acid (Table 1), and the *ecf* and *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* genes quantifications were below the limits of  
 298 detection (3.97 and 4.01 log-gene copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight, respectively).

299

### 300 3.2. Survival of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*<sup>+</sup> in copper and zinc amended soil microcosms

301 Soils samples were aged with metals, or synthetic wastewater in the case of the controls, for one  
 302 month before the inoculation. In M2 it was tested the effect of copper and zinc sulfate and in M3  
 303 the equivalent with nitrate salt. The soil used in these microcosms was collected in the same date  
 304 although M2 and M3 were set up in independent dates (Table 1). As an additional control of this  
 305 variable, *i.e.* the same soil tested in different occasions, the soil used in M4 was collected in a  
 306 different occasion. In contrast to M2/M3, in M4 the effects of sulfate and of nitrate were assessed  
 307 in parallel (Table 1). In all microcosms, M2-M4, controls with soil samples that were not aged or  
 308 supplemented with metals at any moment were analysed simultaneously. This design supported

309 further statistical analysis. The different soil samples used in the microcosms presented similar  
310 total bacteria, total cultivable bacteria and pseudomonads loads (Table 1).

311 For microcosms M2-M4, total heterotrophs counts presented minor and non-significant variations  
312 over time (from t0 to t14 or t30), being enumerated during the whole period in the same range of  
313 CFU g<sup>-1</sup> (log values range: 6.0 - 6.8 CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight) independently of the metal addition  
314 and salt type, sulfate or nitrate. Also, the abundance of the 16S rRNA gene presented small  
315 variations, with values in the order of 8-9 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight.

316 The results over time of the targeted biomarkers (colonies on cetrimide agar and the genes *ecf*,  
317 *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*, and *intI1*) were not totally reproducible in the three microcosms sets (Figure 2), suggesting  
318 some stochasticity in the system, which may be due to slight variations on the physico-chemical  
319 and biological parameters of the soil samples, collected over a period of 2 years. However, there  
320 were common patterns of variation for the three distinct conditions tested. The C/C<sub>0</sub> ratio of the  
321 abundance of typical *P. aeruginosa* colonies on cetrimide agar (green colonies) showed a sharp  
322 decrease in the first week of incubation independently of the condition. In the absence of metal  
323 amendment and in the presence of sulfate salts a decrease to a C/C<sub>0</sub> ratio of ~0.8 was observed  
324 (Figure 2A, 2B, 2C). In the presence of nitrate salts, the decrease was higher, reaching C/C<sub>0</sub> ratios  
325 of ~0.7 in the same period (Figure 2B, 2C). The C/C<sub>0</sub> values of colony forming units continued to  
326 decrease until time t30, reaching values between 0.64-0.68 in the three conditions at t30 (Figure  
327 2C). The decrease observed with nitrate salts was always significantly higher in comparison to the  
328 non-amended control (Figure 2B and 2C) or amended with sulfate assays ( $p < 0.05$ ) (grey  
329 boxplots, Figure 2). From the initial 7.9 log-CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight, the load of *P. aeruginosa*  
330 decreased to 5.0 log-CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t30 in the nitrate-amended soil and to 5.2 and 5.5  
331 log-CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight in sulfate-amended and non-amended soil, respectively (M4, Figure  
332 2C). The measurement of the *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 genes showed a distinct pattern of variation.  
333 The abundance of the gene *ecf* (orange boxplots, Figure 2) had a mild decrease after the first  
334 week (C/C<sub>0</sub> ~0.95 in non-metal; 0.85-0.95 in sulfate salts or nitrate salts), was fairly stable after the  
335 second week and had a significant decrease between day 14 and day 30 (M4) reaching C/C<sub>0</sub>

values of 0.85-0.89 in all the conditions (orange boxplots, Figure 2C). The abundance of this gene, independently of the metal and salt amendment, decreased from a range of 6.9 to 7.2 log-gene copy number g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t0 to 6.2 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t30 (M4). For the *int11* gene, it was also observed a significant decrease in the first week of incubation, independently of the condition. This decrease was more notorious in the assay M2 (C/C0 ~0.75) (green boxplots, Figure 2A) than in the assays M3 and M4 (C/C0 ~0.9) (Figure 2B, 2C). However, this effect could not be attributed to the presence of sulfate, since in the assay M4 the decrease of *int11* gene showed a similar pattern in both salts, nitrate and sulfate, with abundance decreasing from 7.4-7.7 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t0 to 6.8-6.9 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t30. The gene *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* presented a significant decrease in the first 7 days, mainly in assays M2 and M3 with ratios C/C0 of 0.83-0.85 in M2 and 0.92-0.98 in M3, being stable until t14, while in M4 assay the decrease was not statistically significant over 30 days (Figure 2C). In these assays (M4), the *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* abundance decreased from a range of 6.8-6.9 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t0 to a range of 6.3 to 6.4 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight at t30.

In summary, the results observed for *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 culture suggested the loss of viability in soil. However, it must be emphasized that in spite of the reduction, after 30 days of incubation at least 60% of the cells were viable in soil, irrespective of the metal amendment. The loss of culture viability was not accompanied by identical losses of the two biomarkers of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49, the housekeeping gene *ecf* and the acquired gene *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*. The analyses of these two genes revealed that, in general, both had higher persistence in soil than viable cultures and that both shared identical patterns of variation. The identical behaviour of *ecf* and *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* genes overtime suggests that *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* curing (e.g. loss due to excision) is not taking place in any condition. In general, it was observed that the most important variations on *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 abundance, either measured based on viable cultures or biomarker genes, occurred during the first week, probably corresponding to an adaptation process. The M4 assay showed that irrespective of the conditions, for each biomarker similar values were reached at t30, suggesting that the exogenous bacteria and its genetic elements reached stability. In general, the metal amendment effects were

363 mild and when noticed, contributed to reducing and not selecting for exogenous bacteria and  
364 genes.

365

### 366 3.3. Effect of copper and zinc amendment on the composition and structure of the soil bacterial 367 communities

368 The microbial community of microcosms M3 and M4 was examined at t0, t14, and t30 aiming to  
369 assess if metal amendments could impact the composition or structure of the communities and to  
370 infer if these could be related to the fate of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49. M3 and M4 soil samples were  
371 obtained in distinct sampling events, a fact that can be reflected in the slight differences in the  
372 community structure (Figure 3). The effect of metals and salts on the community composition was  
373 analysed through the comparison of microcosms M3 and M4 samples at t0, t14, and t30 (M4)  
374 produced with soil that was aged for one month with copper and zinc sulfate, copper and zinc  
375 nitrate, or synthetic wastewater as a control (Figure 4). The inoculum did not produce a significant  
376 effect on the community according to PERMANOVA analyses (Table S2). As hypothesized, metals  
377 were associated with significant changes in the bacterial community structure. The relative  
378 abundance of the phyla *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria* and *Firmicutes* was significantly higher  
379 ( $p < 0.05$ ) in assays with metal amendment than in non-amended ones (Figure 4A), mainly due to  
380 the higher percentage values observed in members of the classes *Alpha*- (from 15.0-19.0% to  
381 20.8-22.5%) and *Gammaproteobacteria* (from 10.0-12.0% to 12.4-14.3%), *Actinobacteria* (from  
382 2.7-7.0% to 6.0-7.6%) and *Thermoleophilia* (from 1.0-1.6% to 2.3-2.6%), and *Bacilli* (from 3.5-8.0%  
383 to 6.7-8.7%) and *Clostridia* (from 0.6-1.0% to 1.0-1.6%), respectively (Figure 4B). Also, the  
384 hypothesis that the metals salts form, sulfate or nitrate, could be associated with distinct patterns of  
385 variation in the bacterial community structure was confirmed. The relative abundance of phyla  
386 *Chloroflexi*, *Planctomycetes*, *Patescibacteria*, and *Latescibacteria* was higher in nitrate salts than in  
387 sulfate salts amended soil. The opposite was observed for phyla *Bacteroidetes* and *Proteobacteria*,  
388 with lower relative abundance in nitrate salts than in sulfate salts amended soil. This could be  
389 explained because the orders of the latter two phyla, respectively *Cytophagales* and

390 *Chitinophagales*, and *Betaproteobacteriales* and *Shingomonadales*, presented increased relative  
391 abundance in soil amended with sulfate salts. In contrast, the unc. *Alphaproteobacteria* (phylum  
392 *Proteobacteria*), *Ardenticatenales* (phylum *Chloroflexi*), *Planctomycetacia* (phylum  
393 *Planctomycetes*), and the *Saccharimonadales* (phylum *Patescibacteria*) had higher relative  
394 abundance in soil amended with nitrate salts (Figure 4C).

395 Consistent with these variations on the bacteria community structure, it was observed that metal-  
396 amended soil samples, compared with the non-amended controls presented lower richness  
397 (number of ASVs and Chao indexes) and diversity (Fisher index) indices (Table S1). Considering  
398 the effects of salts, it was observed that sulfate had a higher impact on the reduction of these  
399 indices than nitrate, significantly higher in this case. The bacterial community patterns of the three  
400 types of microcosm (non-amended, nitrate copper and zinc or sulfate copper and zinc) at three  
401 incubation times were inspected based on beta diversity analyses, reported as a PCoA biplot  
402 (Figure 5). Axes 1 and 2 explained ~60% of the variation, with segregation of samples per metal  
403 amendment condition, and inside these groups per soil sampling campaign (M3 and M4), with the  
404 incubation time (t0, t14, and t30) demonstrating minimal influence. The samples from soil amended  
405 with sulfate or nitrate salts present a different microbial community if compared with the non-  
406 amended soil ( $q < 0.01$ ,  $F = 856$  and  $11.614$  respectively, PERMANOVA results, Table S2). Metal  
407 salts had a minor influence on the separation of the groups ( $q < 0.01$ ,  $F = 5.790$ , PERMANOVA  
408 results, Table S2), probably due to the lower number of sulfate-amended microcosm for which it  
409 was possible to examine the community. The increased relative abundance of members of the  
410 orders *Rhizobiales*, *Xanthomonadales*, *Sphingomonadales* of the phylum *Proteobacteria*, and  
411 *Bacillales* of the phylum *Firmicutes* in metal-amended microcosms, observed in Figure 4C, seemed  
412 to be the major driver for the organization of the biplot (Figure 5).

413

#### 414 **4. Discussion**

415 Copper and zinc, although not considered alarming pollutants, may reach high concentrations in  
416 the environment (Klimek 2012; Tóth *et al.* 2016; Lamichhane *et al.* 2018). Given the high

417 probability of co-occurrence of these metals in agricultural soils (Tóth *et al.* 2016), the effect of their  
418 mixture was herein assessed. Indeed, the effects of mixtures of pollutants are expected to be more  
419 informative when tested in complex systems, as is the case of soil microcosms, whereas the use of  
420 single elements are more adequate to assess specific cellular / culture responses. In this study it  
421 was used a concentration of metals exceeding (roughly 4-8 times higher) the levels reported as  
422 acceptable for a non-polluted soil (100 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for copper and 200 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for zinc) (Mengel *et al.*  
423 2001; Alloway 2008; Tóth *et al.* 2016). The use of extreme conditions was considered strategic to  
424 avoid the observation of effects that, affected by stochasticity, might be unreproducible. The  
425 bacterial surrogate selected for this study was a carbapenem-resistant *P. aeruginosa* strain  
426 H1FC49 isolated from untreated hospital effluent that harboured the carbapenemase *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* gene.  
427 The work hypotheses were 1) that the exogenous bacteria at an initial density in the same order of  
428 magnitude as the heterotrophic bacteria in soil would decay, eventually to levels below the  
429 detection limit, 2) that the acquired resistance gene (*bla<sub>VIM</sub>*) would be lost earlier than its host, due  
430 to gene excision, 3) that metals could act as selective agents, as it has been reported (Gillan *et al.*,  
431 2015; Li *et al.*, 2017; Jacquiod *et al.*, 2018), 4) that metals salts could influence the decay process,  
432 and 5) that metals amendment effects would imply changes in the bacterial community with  
433 implication on the fate of the exogenous *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49.

434 Regarding the decay of exogenous *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 it was observed a reduction, mainly of  
435 cultivability and in a much lower extent of the respective genes, suggesting that even if cells lose  
436 viability, their DNA is still integer. Indeed, the reductions observed were never above 40% for  
437 culturable bacteria or above 35% for genes, and, when observed, was after 30 days of incubation,  
438 it was possible to detect most of the inoculum added. These observations are in line with previous  
439 studies that have shown that after cell death, amplifiable extracellular DNA can persist in soils for  
440 weeks to years (Levy-Booth *et al.* 2007; Nielsen *et al.* 2007; Pietramellara *et al.* 2009). The  
441 possibility of curing, meaning the loss of acquired genes, in this case *bla<sub>VIM</sub>*, was hypothesized as it  
442 has been reported in the literature (Trevors 1986; Lazdins *et al.* 2020). Even if it took place in the  
443 first week of incubation in some of the assays, the effect vanished in the following incubation  
444 period. These results suggest that *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* is stable in the *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 genome or at least

445 maintain integrity in extracellular genetic material. The fact that most important variations were  
446 observed after 7 days of incubation may suggest some adaptative processes. The adaptation of  
447 exogenous bacteria in soil has been reported (Soda *et al.* 1998) and may explain the results  
448 obtained. Soda *et al.* (1998) inoculated soil microcosms with exogenous bacteria, observing in 7  
449 days of incubation at a defined temperature (25 °C) a rapid but not total decrease of the bacteria  
450 spiked.

451 According to literature, metals can exert an important effect as selective agents for exogenous  
452 bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes (Berg *et al.* 2010; Hu *et al.* 2016; Dickinson *et al.* 2019),  
453 and copper and zinc are very well known agents used to prevent microbial growth (Grass *et al.*,  
454 2011; Vincent *et al.*, 2016). However, in spite the high concentrations tested, metals had a weak  
455 antimicrobial effect in the surrogate *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49. These results are elucidative if we  
456 consider that it was used a high dose of metals (20 mM, equivalent to 830 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper, 850  
457 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of zinc, 1250 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of sulfate, and 1600 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of nitrate), comparatively to the levels of  
458 metals commonly found in soil (up to 100 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper and up to 200 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of zinc), in the  
459 range of values that are only observed for contaminated soils (up to 1500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for copper and  
460 up to 5000 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for zinc) (Wuana and Okieimen 2011; Nielsen 2012; Tóth *et al.* 2016;  
461 Lamichhane *et al.* 2018). The fact that sulfate is known as an antimicrobial agent and nitrate is  
462 reported as fertilizer (Sebilo *et al.* 2013) motivated the analysis of the effects of these metal salts.  
463 However, it was observed a higher decrease of *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 in nitrate amended soil  
464 than in sulfate amended or non-amended soil, mainly in what concerns cultivability. This can be  
465 attributed to the effect of nitrate *per se* or to the fact that this anion had a double concentration than  
466 sulfate (respectively Cu/ZnSO<sub>4</sub> and Cu/Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>).

467 The analysis of the bacterial community had two major aims, the assessment of the impact of  
468 metals/salts in soil, and the evaluation if hypothetical changes in the bacterial community  
469 composition and structure, due to metals, could be related with the fate of *P. aeruginosa*. The  
470 observation that *P. aeruginosa* and the respective genes persistence was not significantly affected  
471 by metals, lowered the original expectations of finding a significant correlation between the

community composition and the exogenous inoculum. However, the assessment of the impacts on the bacterial community was still a major objective that could be addressed by the analysis of M3 and M4, with soil collected in different occasions that was aged with metals and could be compared with the respective controls. As expected, the bacterial community of the assays M3 and M4, in the same conditions, showed very similar patterns, and supported reliable inferences about the impact of metals/salts in soils.

Metals amendment produced effects on the richness, diversity and structure of the bacterial communities, a finding that comes in line with previous studies (Gillan *et al.* 2015; Li *et al.* 2017a; Jacquiod *et al.* 2018). In those studies, it is reported that exposure to heavy metals affect the structure of the sediments/soil microbial communities, although do not significantly affect the bacterial diversity. After a long-term metal contamination of river sediments, Gillan *et al.* (2015) reported a significant, although subtle, increase in the relative abundance of *Pseudomonas* (+0.4%), *Thiobacillus* (+0.36%), and *Acidovorax* (+0.48%), and decrease of *Leptothrix* (−0.4%). The authors concluded that metal amendment was associated with the increase in the relative abundance of those groups that might have occurred at the expenses of some minor groups (<1%), whose relevance for soil quality and resilience or effect on the survival of exogenous bacteria is difficult to predict (Gillan *et al.* 2015). In the current study, a parallel between *P. aeruginosa* H1FC49 fate and the bacterial community composition can be inferred from a faster decay of the exogenous strain over the first week, which is coincident with the increase in the relative abundance of members of the orders *Rhizobiales*, *Xanthomonadales*, *Sphingomonadales*, and *Bacillales*. This observation may suggest competition between native bacteria of those orders and the exogenous strain H1FC49. Indeed, competition is regarded as a major mechanism for the elimination of exogenous bacteria (Hibbing *et al.* 2010). These observations highlight the importance of the quality of soil to prevent the invasion by exogenous bacteria, as has been argued (van Elsas *et al.* 2007, 2012).

497

## 498 5. Conclusion

499 This study showed that a carbapenem-resistant *P. aeruginosa* strain isolated from hospital effluent  
500 was able to persist in soil up to 30 days, while the carbapenemase encoding gene bla<sub>VIM</sub> was also  
501 still quantifiable after that period. The presence of 20 mM of zinc and copper sulfate or nitrate (830  
502 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of copper, 850 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of zinc, 1250 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of sulfate or 1600 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of nitrate mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), a  
503 concentration that simulates an extreme contamination situation, did not lead to an apparent  
504 selective advantage of *P. aeruginosa*. However, it is also impressive that this strain was mainly  
505 insensitive to these metals and salts that are sometimes used as biocides. This strain was also not  
506 affected by the disturbance of the microbial community caused by the metal salts. The disturbance  
507 observed included the reduction of the richness and diversity of the bacterial community, with a  
508 shift of groups such as members of the orders *Bacillales*, *Xanthomonadales*, *Rhizobiales* and  
509 *Sphingomonadales* at expenses of groups such as *Caldilineales* and *Saccharimonadales*. These  
510 results highlight the risks posed by the spread of antibiotic resistant bacteria in soils, with serious  
511 implications under a One-Health vision. The study also emphasises the extreme vulnerability of soil  
512 to different modes of contamination, even when sustainable agriculture practices are in place.

513

514

515

## 516 **Acknowledgments**

517 This work is part of a project that has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020,  
518 under the Innovative Training Networks (ITN-ETN) programme Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant  
519 (ANSWER - ANTibioticS and mobile resistance elements in WastEwater Reuse applications: risks  
520 and innovative solutions) agreement No 675530. The ANSWER project was hosted by CBQF, and  
521 LEPABE through FCT projects UID/Multi/50016/2019, and UIDB/00511/2020, respectively.

522 Disclaimer: The content of this publication reflects only the authors' views and the Research  
523 Executive Agency is not responsible for any use that may be made of the information it contains.

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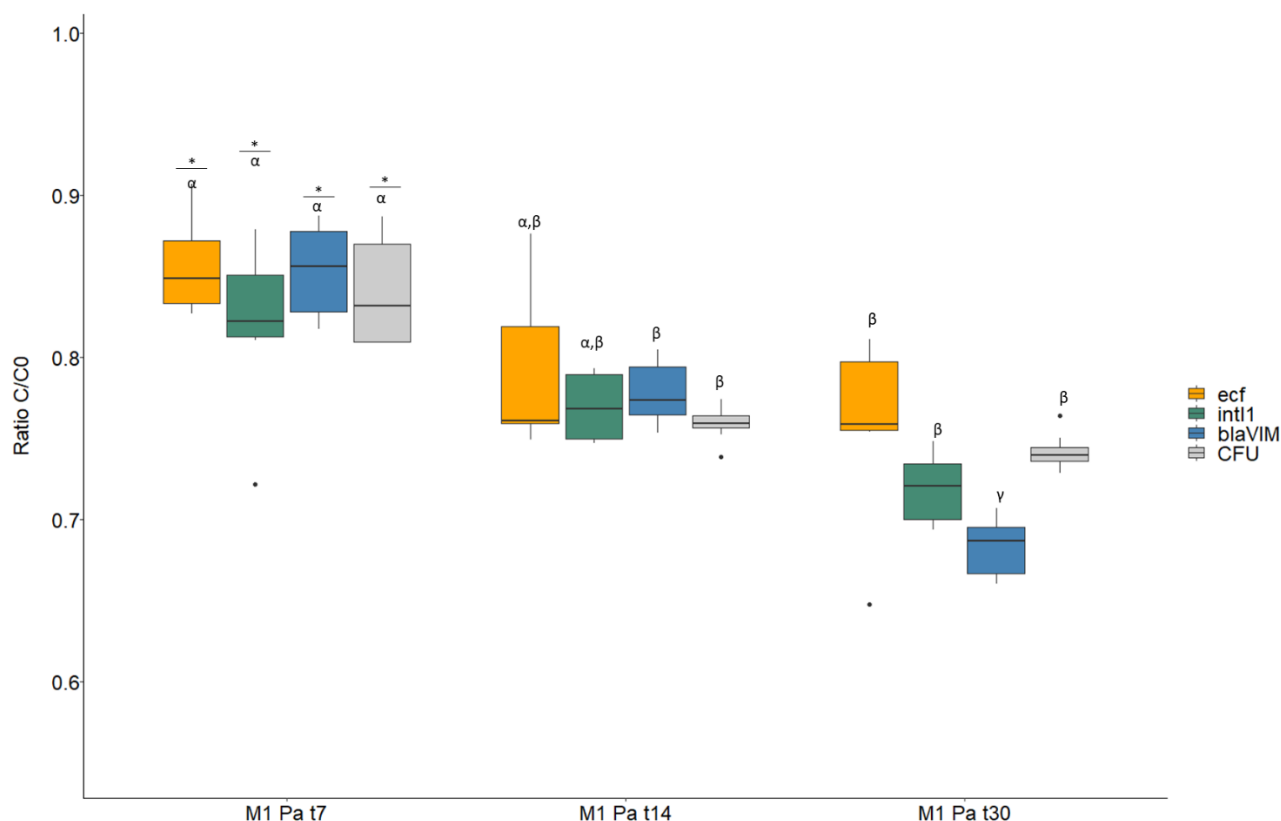
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**Table 1. Microcosms assays composition and sampling.**

MICROCOSM					SOIL SAMPLES INFORMATION			
Assay	Sample labels*	Copper and Zinc salts	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> (Pa)	Sampling (days)	Sampling date →Experiment start	Total Bacterial load (16S rRNA log-gene copies g <sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight)	Cultivable bacteria load (log-CFU g <sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight)	Pseudomonads load (log-CFU g <sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight)
<b>M1</b>	M1 Pa	None	Yes	0, 7, 14, 30	April → June 2017	8.8	n.d.	4.5
	M1 C	None	No	0, 7, 14, 30				
<b>M2</b>	M2 A <sub>20</sub> Pa	Sulfate (20 mM)	Yes	0, 7, 14	March → June 2018	8.1	6.6	<3.8
	M2 A <sub>20</sub>	Sulfate (20 mM)	No	0, 7, 14				
	M2 Pa	None	Yes	0, 7, 14				
	M2 C	None	No	0, 7, 14				
<b>M3</b>	M3 B <sub>20</sub> Pa	Nitrate (20 mM)	Yes	0, 7, 14	March → October 2018	8.1	6.6	<3.8
	M3 B <sub>20</sub>	Nitrate (20 mM)	No	0, 7, 14				
	M3 Pa	None	Yes	0, 7, 14				
	M3 C	None	No	0, 7, 14				
<b>M4</b>	M4 A <sub>20</sub> Pa	Sulfate (20 mM)	Yes	0, 7, 14, 30	April → May 2019	8.6	6.5	3.5
	M4 B <sub>20</sub> Pa	Nitrate (20 mM)	Yes	0, 7, 14, 30				
	M4 A <sub>20</sub>	Sulfate (20 mM)	No	0, 7, 14, 30				
	M4 B <sub>20</sub>	Nitrate (20 mM)	No	0, 7, 14, 30				
	M4 Pa	None	Yes	0, 7, 14, 30				
	M4 C	None	No	0, 7, 14, 30				

\*Pa, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*; A, sulfate; B, nitrate; C, control (non-inoculated with Pa and non-amended with metals); n.d., not determined.

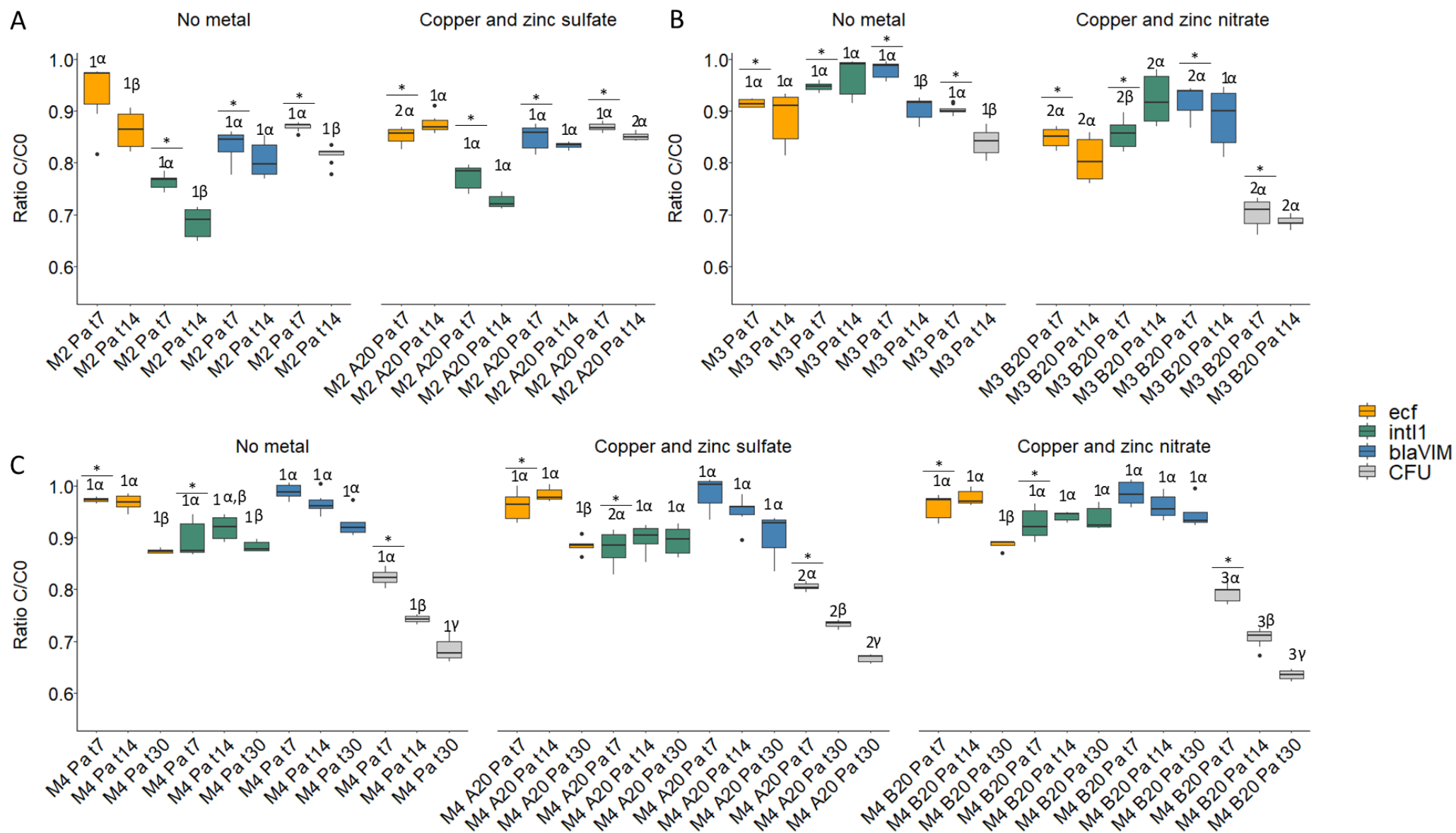


**Figure 1. Variation (C/C0) of the biomarkers of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* H1FC49 - cetrinide agar green colonies, housekeeping *ecf* and acquired genes *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* and *int11*, examined in non-metal amended microcosms (M1).**

C/C0 - quantification at time (C) *per* time 0 (C0). From right to left, C7/C0, C14/C0 and C30/C0 for 7, 14 and 30 days of incubation, respectively, of the genes *ecf* (orange), *int11* (green), *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* (blue), and colony forming units (CFU) (grey).

The statistical analysis was conducted using the non-parametric analysis Wilcoxon test. The significative ( $p < 0.05$ ) variation for the genes quantification and CFU enumeration along the time are reported as  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . The difference between the C/C0 measured at time 0 and time7 for the CFU and genes is reported as \*

The abundance of the 16S rRNA gene was constant over time (8.5-8.9 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight) (data not shown).



**Figure2. Variation (C/C0) of the biomarkers of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* H1FC49 - cetrимide agar green colonies, housekeeping *ecf* and acquired genes *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* and *int11*, examined in non-metal amended microcosms (M2, M3, M4) and amended with copper and zinc sulfate (M2, M4) or nitrate (M3, M4). A) microcosms M2; B) microcosms M3; C) microcosms M4.**

C/C0 - quantification at time (C) *per* time 0 (C0). From right to left, C7/C0, C14/C0 and C30/C0 for 7, 14 and 30 days of incubation, respectively, of the genes *ecf* (orange), *int11* (green), *bla<sub>VIM</sub>* (blue), and colony forming units (CFU) (grey).

The statistical analysis was conducted using the non-parametric analysis Wilcoxon test. The significative ( $p < 0.05$ ) variation for the genes quantification and CFU enumeration along the time are reported as  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . The variation of the genes at the same sampling time but in different soil conditions were reported using the index: 1,2,3. The difference between the C/C0 measured at time 0 and time 7 for the CFU and genes is reported as \*

The total heterotrophs, counted on PCA, ranged log magnitude of 6 CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight (data not shown). The 16S rRNA gene was quantified in all the samples in a constant range of 8-9 log-gene copies g<sup>-1</sup> soil dry weight (data not shown).

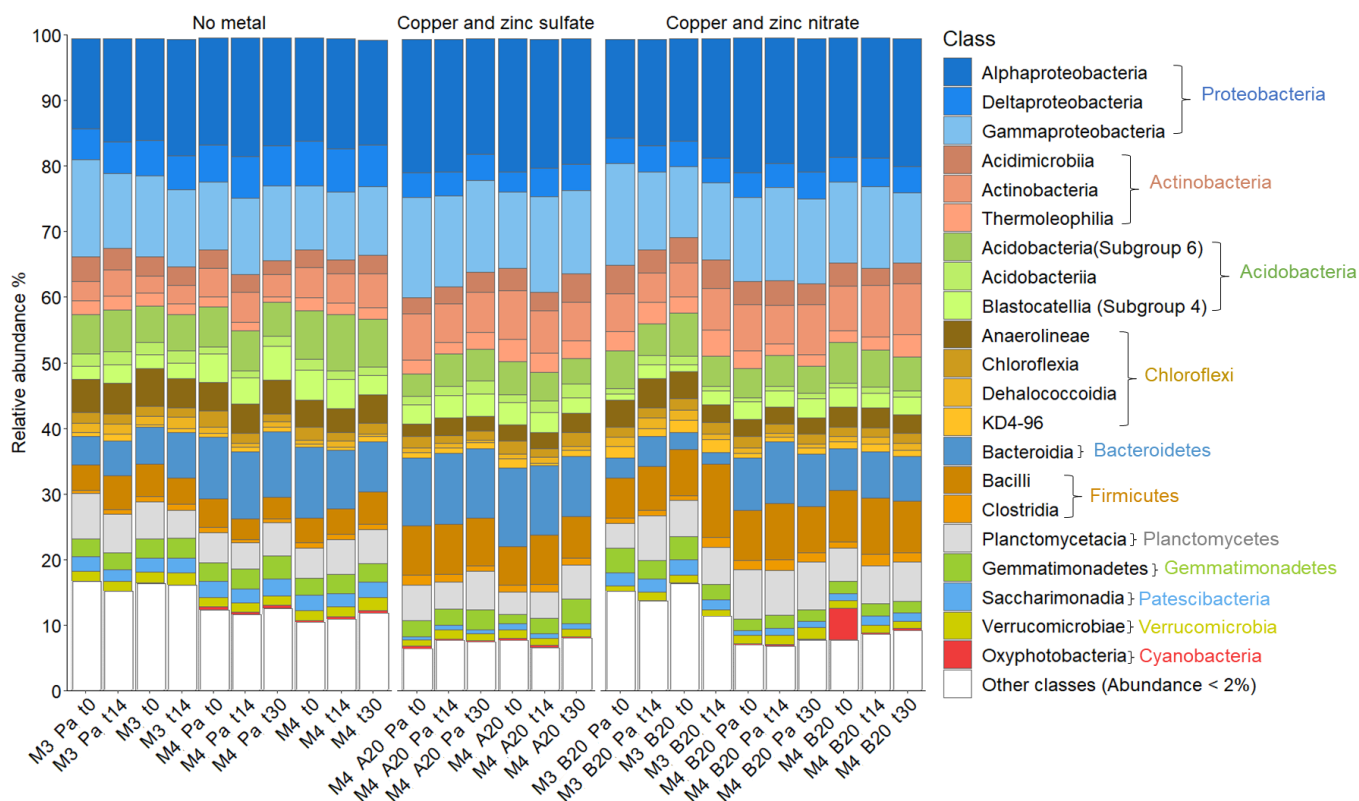
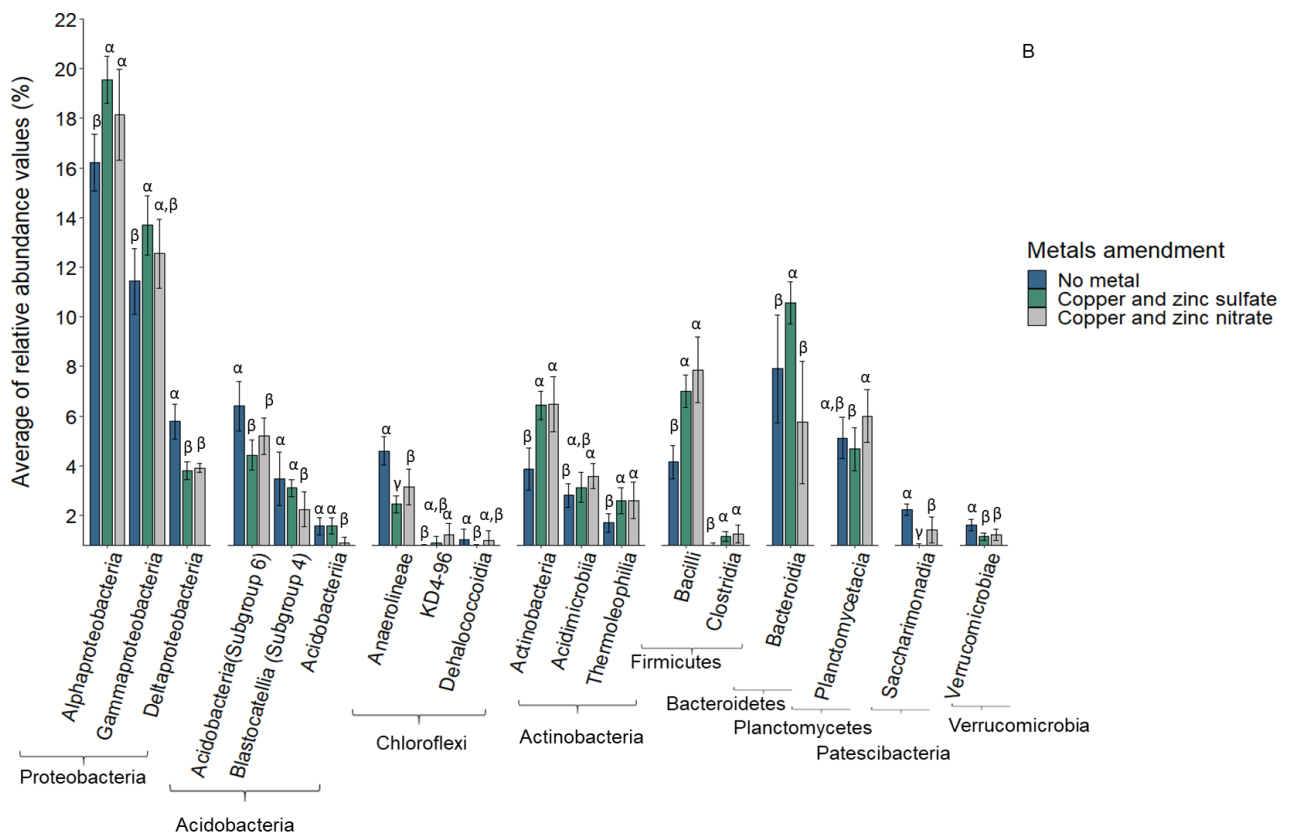
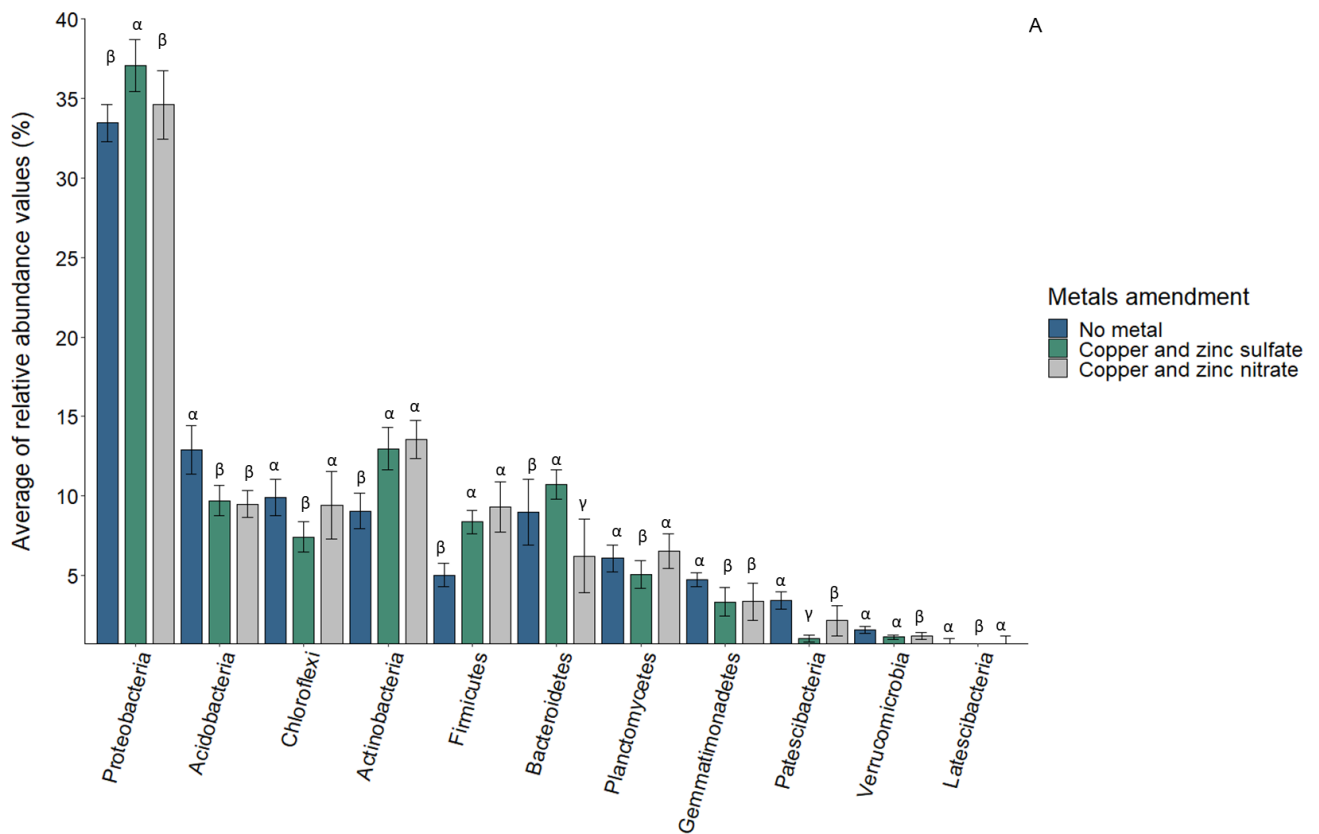
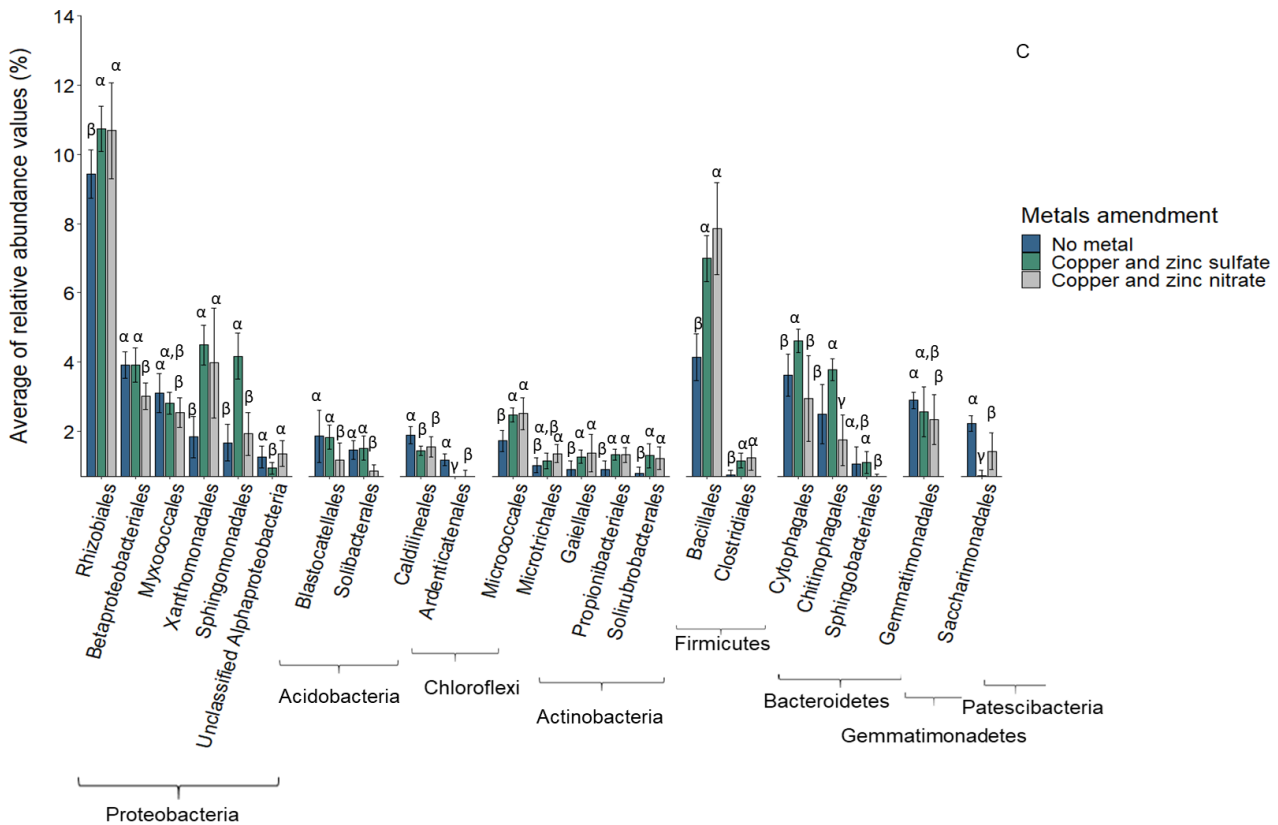


Figure 3. **Relative abundance of classes and phyla in non-amended or amended with copper and zinc, as sulfate or nitrate salts in microcosm assays sampled over time (0 to 30 days).** The barplot reports the relative abundance as percentage of most abundant phyla (>2%) present in the samples. The sum of the relative abundance of the most abundant classes in each column was calculated in a range of 83-92%.

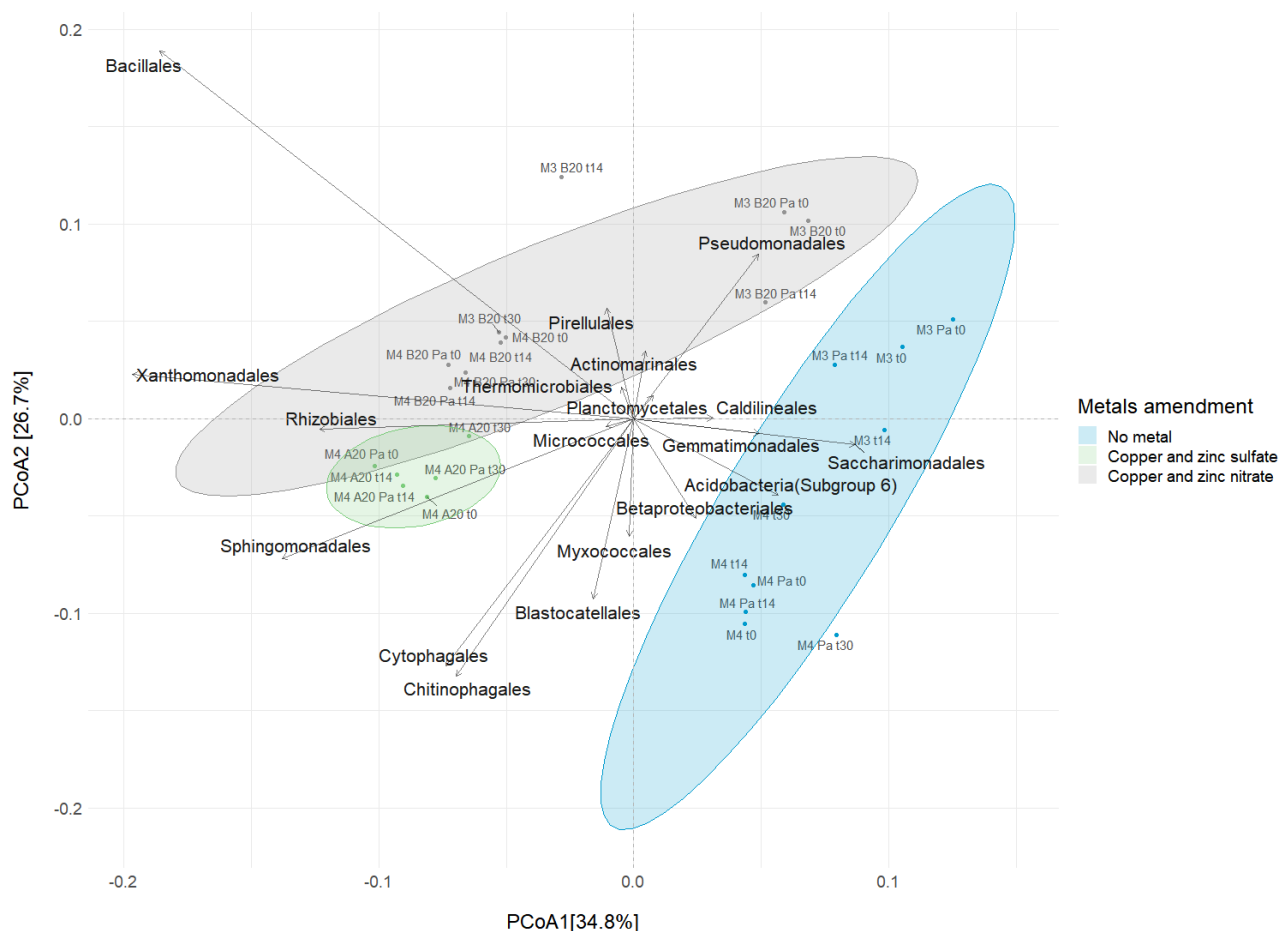




**Figure 4. Average relative abundance of most abundant Phyla, Class and Order (>2% relative abundance) with significant variances in the samples analysed, grouped per soil metals salts amendment.** The barplot reports the mean relative abundance of the most abundant Phyla (A), Classes (B) and Orders (C) present in the samples. The blue bar refers to soil microcosms non-amended, the green bar to soil amended with copper and zinc sulfate at final concentration 20 mM and the grey bar to soil amended with copper and zinc nitrate at final concentration 20 mM.

The significant difference (p-value 0.05) between no metal or amendment with sulfate or nitrate metal salts are reported in figure as  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ .

The reported data was grouped by metal amendment, including the data from the sampling times 0, 7, 14, and 30. The soil, before the inoculation with bacteria, was aged for one month with the metals solutions or synthetic wastewater.



**Figure 5. Biplot of beta-diversity distance metrics (Weighted Unifrac distance) of bacterial communities (at Order level) in soil amended or non-amended with sulfate or nitrate zinc and copper metal salts.** The plot reports the distribution of the samples depending on the soil metal amendment (blue, non-amended; green, amended with copper and zinc sulfate; grey, amended with copper and zinc nitrate). Reported in the plot the orders contributing the most to the samples distances. The contribution is quantified with the length of each arrow.