

Citation: Yang L, Li X, Li X, Su Z, Zhang C, Zhang H (2015) Microbial Community Dynamics during the Bioremediation Process of Chlorimuron-Ethyl-Contaminated Soil by *Hansschlegelia* sp. Strain CHL1. PLoS ONE 10(2): e0117943. doi:10.1371/ journal.pone.0117943

Academic Editor: Eiko Eurya Kuramae, Netherlands Institute of Ecology (NIOO/KNAW), NETHERLANDS

Received: June 6, 2014

Accepted: January 5, 2015

Published: February 17, 2015

Copyright: © 2015 Yang et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution License</u>, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the paper.

Funding: This work was supported by the National High Technology and Development Program (863 Program) of China (2012AA101403) and the Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDB15010101). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. RESEARCH ARTICLE

Microbial Community Dynamics during the Bioremediation Process of Chlorimuron-Ethyl-Contaminated Soil by *Hansschlegelia* sp. Strain CHL1

Liqiang Yang^{1,2}, Xinyu Li¹, Xu Li¹, Zhencheng Su¹, Chenggang Zhang¹, Huiwen Zhang¹*

1 State Key Laboratory of Forest and Soil Ecology, Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shenyang, China, 2 University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

* hwzhang@iae.ac.cn

Abstract

Long-term and excessive application of chlorimuron-ethyl has led to a series of environmental problems. Strain *Hansschlegelia* sp. CHL1, a highly efficient chlorimuron-ethyl degrading bacterium isolated in our previous study, was employed in the current soil bioremediation study. The residues of chlorimuron-ethyl in soils were detected, and the changes of soil microbial communities were investigated by phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis. The results showed that strain CHL1 exhibited significant chlorimuron-ethyl degradation ability at wide range of concentrations between 10µg kg⁻¹ and 1000µg kg⁻¹. High concentrations of chlorimuron-ethyl significantly decreased the total concentration of PLFAs and the Shannon-Wiener indices and increased the stress level of microbes in soils. The inoculation with strain CHL1, however, reduced the inhibition on soil microbes caused by chlorimuron-ethyl. The results demonstrated that strain CHL1 is effective in the remediation of chlorimuronethyl-contaminated soil, and has the potential to remediate chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soils in situ.

Introduction

As a member of the sulfonylurea family, chlorimuron-ethyl is extensively used in soybean for inhibiting broadleaved weeds [1-3]. However, long-term and excessive application of this herbicide could raise series of environmental problems [4, 5]. On the one hand, it has led to soil degradation and crop rotation barriers. On the other hand, it has potential inhibitory effect on soil microbes, most of which play an important role in energy flow and nutrient cycle. To eliminate the chlorimuron-ethyl residue in the soil and water, the fate and behavior of this herbicide got increasingly attention. Its adsorption, desorption, toxicity and degradation in soil and water has been studied previously [6-8]. A series of microbes that can degrade this herbicide were isolated [9, 10]. However, most of these reports focused on degradation ability in culture



Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

condition. Few studies investigated the changes of soil microorganisms during the bioremediation process.

Hansschlegelia sp. CHL1, an efficient chlorimuron-ethyl degradation bacterium, was isolated in our previous study [11]. The aim of the present work was to assess the bioremediation ability of strain CHL1 by investigating the residues and microbial community dynimics during the remediation process. The total microbial biomass and community structure were studied by total PLFAs and indicator PLFA (GN/GP, bacteria/fungi PLFA, etc.) respectively. The findings of this study will contribute to optimization of bioremediation for chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soils *in situ*.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

No specific permits were required for the described field studies since these locations are not privately-owned or protected in any way. Field studies did not involve endangered or protected species.

Soil sampling

A surface soil (0–15cm) of abandoned land that had not been previously treated with herbicides and fertilizers for 16 years was collected at the National Field Research Station of Shenyang Agroecosystems, Shenyang city, China (41°47′N, 123°23′E). According to the FAO Soil Classification, soil was classified as aquic brown soil and its physical and chemical properties were as following: 13.7g kg⁻¹ organic matter, 26.3 mg kg⁻¹ available nitrogen (N), 10.6 mg kg⁻¹ available phosphorus (P), and 133.7 mg kg⁻¹ available potassium (K), with a pH of 6.52. After mixed and sieved through a 2-mm mesh, the soil was stored at room temperature until experimental treatments in the next day.

Chemicals and media

Chlorimuron-ethyl and reagents used for chromatographic and spectroscopic analysis were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Co. (Shanghai, China). All other chemicals and solvents were of analytical grade. Strain *Hansschlegelia* sp. CHL1 was isolated in our previous research.

Phosphate-basal minimal medium (PBM) contained 0.5 g NaNO₃, 1.0 g (NH₄)₂SO₄, 2.5 g Na₂HPO₄, 1.0 g KH₂PO₄, and 1 mL of mineral solution per liter [<u>12</u>]. PBMM medium consisted of PBM supplemented with methanol (10 mL L^{-1}).

Experimental design and treatments

The soil was split into twelve groups and treated separately as described in Table 1. For each treatment, 300g of soils was put in a pot (diameter, 10cm; depth, 15cm) with 3 replications. Strain CHL1 was cultured in PBMM liquid medium till stationary phase and then harvested by centrifugation at 4°C ($10000 \times g$, 10 min). After removing the supernatant, the cell pellets were washed twice and suspended (OD_{600} 3.0) with PBS (0.2 mol L⁻¹, pH 7.8). The final concentration of strain CHL1 in soil was 1.1×10^8 CFU g⁻¹. Sterile deionized water was added to adjust the soil moisture to 20%.

The pots were incubated at 25°C for 2 months in a dark room. Throughout the incubation period, sterile deionized water was added to maintain the soil moisture at 20% (\pm 5%). Soil samples were periodically removed for chlorimuron-ethyl residue determination and PLFA analysis on days 1, 7, 15, 30, 45 and 60.

Treatment Code	Chlorimuron-ethyl concentration (µg kg ⁻¹)	Strain CHL1
S ₀₋	0	uninoculated
S ₀₊	0	inoculated
S ₁₀₋	10	uninoculated
S ₁₀₊	10	inoculated
S ₃₀₋	30	uninoculated
S ₃₀₊	30	inoculated
S ₅₀₋	50	uninoculated
S ₅₀₊	50	inoculated
S ₁₀₀₋	100	uninoculated
S ₁₀₀₊	100	inoculated
S ₁₀₀₀₋	1000	uninoculated
S ₁₀₀₀₊	1000	inoculated

Table 1. The list of all treatments.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0117943.t001

Determination of residual chlorimuron-ethyl in soils

The residual chlorimuron-ethyl in soils were determinated as previous report [13]. Briefly, a 10g soil sample was weighed into a 50mL polystyrene tube and extracted with 10mL mixture solution of PBS (pH 7.8) and acetonitrile (8:2, v/v). After shaken at 150rpm for 20min on a rotary shaker, the mixture was centrifuged (4000×g, 5min). The extraction was repeated thrice and the supernatants were merged and acidified to pH 2.5. A Cleanert HXN cartridge (500mg 6mL⁻¹, Agela Technologies Inc.) was used to purify the residue. The elution was dried under N₂, resuspended in 1mL methanol and filtered through a 0.22µm nylon filter. The residual of chlorimuron-ethyl in different treatment soils were analyzed by HPLC equipped with a Zorbax C-18 ODS Spherex column (4.6 × 250 mm, 5 µm, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Detection of chlorimuron-ethyl was performed at 254nm with a mobile phase consisting of 0.5% acetic acid: methanol (30:70, v/v) at a flow rate of 1mL min⁻¹ [14, 15]. 10µL of each solution was injected into the HPLC system for detection.

Analysis of soil microbial community structure

Phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis was employed to determine the soil microbial community structure. Soil lipids extraction was carried out as described by Petersen and Klug [16], with minor modifications. Briefly, 8g freeze-dried soil sample was added in a Teflon screw cap culture tube and extracted with 30.4 mL mixture of MeOH/CHCl₃/citric acid buffer (0.15M, pH 4) (2:1:0.8,v/v/v). The extraction was implemented twice and the CHCl₃ layer was then collected and dried under N₂.

A Cleanert Silica cartridge (500mg 6mL⁻¹, Agela Technologies Inc.) was employed to fractionate polar lipids from glycol- and neutral. The polar lipids were transformed into fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) by methylation. The individual FAME in different treatment soils were analyzed by an Agilent 7890GC equipped with a HP-5 MS column ($60m \times 0.25$ mm inner diameter, 0.25μ m, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA). The results were analyzed by using the MIDI Sherlock system (MIDI, Newark, DE, USA). An internal standard 19:0 peak was used to quantify fatty acids by comparison of the peak areas.

Fatty acids with carbon chains ranging from 12 to 20 carbon atoms are generally associated with microorganisms and were grouped into Bacteria, Fungi, Actinobacteria, Gram-positive (GP) and Gram-negative (GN) as following. Fatty acids used as markers for bacteria were

i15:0, 15:0, a15:0, i16:0, 16:1 ω 7, i17:0, a17:0, cy17:0, 17:0 and cy19:0 [17, 18]. Fatty acids 18:2 ω 6 and 18:1 ω 9c were used as fungal markers [19, 20] while 10Me17:0, 10Me18:0 [21] were used as indicator of actinobacteria. The branched phospholipids i14:0, i15:0, a15:0, i16:0, i17:0 and a17:0 were used as GP bacteria marker while the GN bacteria biomass were assessed by cy17:0, cy19:0, 17:1 ω 9c, 16:1 ω 7c, and 18:1 ω 9c [18, 22]. The total amount of PLFA was calculated to indicate the total microbial biomass. The rates of bacteria/fungal (B/F) and GN/GP were calculated to indicate the relative changes of major microbial groups [23]. The stress level of microbial community was assessed by the Stress index, calculated from the ratio of (cyc17:0+cyc19:0)/ (16:1 ω 7c+18:1 ω 7c) [24].

Data analysis and statistics

All values reported in this paper are the mean (\pm SE) of three replicates. Two-way and three-way ANOVA were carried out using SPSS 16.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Illinois, USA) to compare the significant effects (p<0.05*, p<0.01**, or p<0.001***) and mean separations were conducted using Tukey's test. The PLFA data were log transformed to meet the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene tests, respectively). Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed using Canoco4.5 (Microcomputer Power, Ithaca, NY, USA).

Results

Chlorimuron-ethyl degradation in experimental soils

The residues of chlorimuron-ethyl in experimental soils with or without the addition of strain CHL1 were determinated (<u>Table 2</u>). The degradation dynamics were analyzed and the results indicated that the degradation of chlorimuron-ethyl in soil was accordance with the first-order kinetic equation $C = C_0 e^{-kt}$, where C is the concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl, t is the time interval, e is the Euler's constant and C_0 is the constant. However, there was a significant difference in the half-life of chlorimuron-ethyl between soils inoculated with strain CHL1 or not. For the treatments without strain CHL1, the chlorimuron-ethyl residue was under the minimum detectable level in the 10µg kg⁻¹ treated soil after 45 days. Higher initial concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl had much longer half-life. At the end of the incubation period, the

Table 2. The	e degradation of	chlorimuron-ethyl	in treated soils.
--------------	------------------	-------------------	-------------------

Tested soils	1d	7d	15d	30d	45d	60d	Degradationcurve	Half-life
S ₁₀₋ *	9.94±0.81	8.35±0.89	7.12±0.71	4.31±1.08	0	0	$C = 10.369e^{-0.029x}$	25.17d
S ₃₀₋	29.75±1.25	23.71±1.49	18.36±1.23	10.51±1.18	6.02±0.64	4.43±1.16	$C = 29.798e^{-0.033x}$	20.80d
S ₅₀₋	49.91±1.25	41.65±1.72	35.29±1.17	25.47±1.26	18.38±1.05	11.42±1.32	$C = 50.899e^{-0.024x}$	29.62d
S ₁₀₀₋	100.05±3.21	89.26±3.17	76.18±2.44	62.62±2.51	51.68±1.86	44.3±1.57	$C = 97.343e^{-0.014x}$	47.57d
S ₁₀₀₀₋	1002.75±22.08	923.47±19.34	869.25±19.07	750.35±17.76	639.072±11.06	524.36±14.16	$C = 1014.1e^{-0.011x}$	64.27d
S ₁₀₊	9.95±1.12	3.51±0.63	0	0	0	0	$C = 7.5613e^{-0.077x}$	5.37d
S ₃₀₊	29.81±1.02	11.43±3.15	5.07±0.41	0	0	0	$C = 31.33e^{-0.125x}$	5.89d
S ₅₀₊	49.87±1.31	26.98±2.25	15.47±2.18	7.61±1.51	0	0	$C = 45.86e^{-0.063x}$	9.63d
S ₁₀₀₊	98.71±3.67	83.85±5.51	61.96±6.82	31.19±4.06	17.22±4.32	10.26±3.2	$C = 106.8e^{-0.04x}$	18.97d
S ₁₀₀₀₊	999.47±22.58	725.92±31.49	526.75±46.15	418.94±37.02	307.44±44.92	220.7±39.13	$C = 878.9e^{-0.024x}$	23.50d

Values represent the mean (±SD) of three replicates.

*S₁₀, S₃₀, S₅₀, S₁₀₀, S₁₀₀₀ mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0117943.t002

chlorimuron-ethyl residues were $4.43\mu g kg^{-1}$, $11.42\mu g kg^{-1}$, $44.3\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $524.36\mu g kg^{-1}$ in the $30\mu g kg^{-1}$, $50\mu g kg^{-1}$, $100\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $1000\mu g kg^{-1}$ chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils, respectively. The rate of chlorimuron-ethyl degradation increased significantly when strain CHL1 was inoculated in the soils. The chlorimuron-ethyl residues were under the minimum detectable level in the $10\mu g kg^{-1}$, $30\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $50\mu g kg^{-1}$ treatment soils with strain CHL1 inoculation after 15, 30 and 45 days respectively. In addition, the inoculated soils with high chlorimuron-ethyl concentration ($100\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $1000\mu g kg^{-1}$) showed significant lower chlorimuron-ethyl residues than the non-inoculated soils.

Statistical analysis of PLFA concentration

A three-way ANOVA for total PLFAs, bacteria/fungi ratios, GN/GP ratios, stress level and the Shannon index was employed to identify the significant effect of inoculation, time and treatment. The results showed that single factors and their interactions all had significant effect on total PLFAs, bacteria/fungi ratios, GN/GP ratios, stress level and the Shannon index (Table 3).

The changes of total PLFA in experimental soils

The total PLFA concentrations of soils without inoculation ranged from 21.02 to 50.21 nmol g⁻¹ over the incubation period and were significantly ($F_{inoculation} = 364.48, p < 0.001$) lower than that of inoculated soils (33.62–50.19 nmol g⁻¹) (Fig. 1, Table 3). Chlorimuron-ethyl showed persistent inhibitory effect on the total PLFAs and this effect was dose-dependent (Fig. 1a): 10µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl (S10-) had no significant effect on the total PLFAs compared with uncontaminated soil (S₀₋), and the total PLFAs in the 30µg kg⁻¹ and 50µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl soils (S₃₀₋ and S₅₀₋) showed an obvious decline over the first two weeks and were capable of selfrestoration by the end of the incubation (Fig. 1a). However, the total PLFAs were significantly decreased in soils contaminated with 100µg kg⁻¹ and 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl throughout the experiment $(S_{100-} \text{ and } S_{1000-})$ (Fig. 1a). Once inoculated into the soils, strain CHL1 could significantly relieve the negative effect of chlorimuron-ethyl both in degree and duration (Fig. 1b): The total PLFAs in inoculated soil treated with less than or equal to 100µg kg⁻¹ of chlorimuron-ethyl had recovered to the control level since day 45. Even in the 1000µg kg⁻¹ treatment, total PLFAs in inoculated soils increased significantly than non-inoculated soils (S₁₀₀₋) since day 15, though total PLFAs were not able to recover to the control level at the end of the incubation.

Table 3. Multivariate analysis of variance by three-way ANOVA of the sum of all PLFAs, ratios of GN/GP and bacteria/fungi, the stress level and the Shannon index.

Facter*	Total PLFA	GN/GP	Bacteria/fungi	Stress	Shannon index
Inoculation(In)	364.483***	197.060***	111.661***	699.121***	42.567***
Treatment	382.084***	390.110***	33.038***	372.016***	106.028***
Time	231.672***	70.420***	221.238***	36.333***	32.437***
In×treat	57.163***	96.359***	12.873***	67.431***	18.360***
In×time	21.972***	11.654***	24.394***	29.171***	4.647**
Treat×time	18.833***	27.332***	26.963***	19.524***	75.766***
In×treat×time	7.780***	22.048***	17.482***	12.710***	7.202***

*The categorical factors are inoculation with strain CHL1, treatment (S₀, S₁₀, S₃₀, S₅₀, S₁₀₀, S₁₀₀₀), incubation time (1, 7, 15, 30, 45, 60 days). Presented are the F-values with the level of significance.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0117943.t003



Fig 1. Values of total PLFAs biomass in treated soils inoculation with strain CHL1 (b) or not (a). Symbols represent the mean of triplicate samples and error bars indicate the standard deviation. S_{10} , S_{30} , S_{50} , S_{100} , S_{1000} mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

The changes of GN/GP bacterial PLFA ratio in experimental soils

Compared with the uncontaminated soil, both PLFA concentrations of GN and GP bacteria markers in chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils decreased in the early stage of incubation, and GN bacteria were inhibited by chlorimuron-ethyl more severely than GP bacteria (Fig. 2a, c). The decrease effects caused by chlorimuron-ethyl contamination were dose-dependent. At the end of incubation, the PLFA concentrations of GN and GP bacteria markers gradually recover to the control level in the 10–50µg kg⁻¹chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils without inoculation (Fig. 2a, c). Once inoculated into the soils, strain CHL1 could significantly relieve the negative effect of chlorimuron-ethyl for both GN and GP bacteria, and the PLFA concentrations of GN and GP bacteria markers gradually return to the control level in the 10-100µg kg⁻¹chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils at the end of incubation (Fig. 2b, d). So the ratio of GN/GP PLFA markers of chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils tended to decrease significantly at the early of stage, and the inhibited effects were dose-dependent ($F^{treatment} = 390.11$, p<0.01) (Fig. 2e, Table 3). The inoculation of strain CHL1 relieved significantly the inhibited effect of chlorimuron-ethyl on GN/GP ratio ((F_{inoculation} = 197.060, p<0.001) (Fig. 2f, Table 3). In soils without strain CHL1 inoculation, the ratio of GN/GP in chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils could recover to the control level at the end of incubation except for 100 and 1000 μ g kg⁻¹ treatment (Fig. 2e). When there was strain CHL1 inoculation, the ratio of GN/GP could recover to the control level except for $1000 \mu g kg^{-1}$ treatment (Fig. 2f).

The changes of bacteria/fungi PLFA ratio in experimental soils

Chlorimuron-ethyl showed persistent inhibition to bacteria in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 3a). However, on fungi, low dose of chlorimuron-ethyl exhibited positive effect and high concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl showed negative effect (Fig. 3c). The ratio of bacteria and fungi, therefore, decreased at first and then got up with the increasing concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl ($F_{treatment} = 33.038, p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3e, Table 3). This negative effects on bacteria fungi, and ratios of bacteria and fungi could be significantly relieved with the inoculation of strain CHL1 ($F_{inoculation} = 111.661, p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3b, d, f). Although the PLFA concentrations of bacteria and fungi markers in 10–50µg kg⁻¹chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils without inoculation could be self-restoration by the end of the incubation (Fig. 3a, c), inoculation reduced the time to recover, and there was no obvious difference between the treatments and the control



Fig 2. Values of Gram negative bacteria (GN), Gram positive bacteria (GP) and the rate of GN and GP in treated soils inoculation with strain CHL1 (b, d, f) or not (a, c, e). Symbols represent the mean of triplicate samples and error bars indicate the standard deviation. S_{10} , S_{30} , S_{50} , S_{100} , S_{1000} mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

since day 15 (Fig. 3b, d). By inoculation, the PLFA concentrations of bacteria and fungi markers in $100\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ chlorimuron-ethyl-treated soils recovered to the control level at the end of incubation (Fig. 3b, d). So, the ratios of bacteria and fungi in soils treated with strain CHL1 were more stable in all the concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl throughout the experiment (Fig. 3f), which was significantly important to the circulation of materials and energy metabolism in soil.

PLOS ONE



Fig 3. Values of bacteria, fungi and the rate of bacteria and fungi in treated soils inoculation with strain CHL1 (b, d, f) or not (a, c, e). Symbols represent the mean of triplicate samples and error bars indicate the standard deviation. S_{10} , S_{50} , S_{100} , S_{1000} mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

The changes of stress indices in experimental soils

In our study, the addition of chlorimuron-ethyl significantly increased the stress level of microbes in soils and this effect was dose-dependent excepted for 1000µg kg⁻¹ treatment groups ($F_{treatment} = 372.02$, p<0.001) (Fig. 4, Table 3). Incubation time had significant effect on the stress level of microbes in all treatments soils ($F_{time} = 36.33$, p<0.001) (Fig. 4, Table 3). The stress level of microbes in soils treated with 10–50µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl tended to be higher than in the control samples at the first 30days. And this change could be self-restoration



Fig 4. Values of the stress level of microbes in treated soils inoculation with strain CHL1 (b) or not (a). Symbols represent the mean of triplicate samples and error bars indicate the standard deviation. S_{10} , S_{30} , S_{50} , S_{100} , S_{1000} mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

by the end of the incubation period in soils with or without the addition of strain CHL1 (Fig. 4). However, the stress level became much higher than control level in high concentration (100 μ g kg⁻¹ and 1000 μ g kg⁻¹) of chlorimuron-ethyl treatment soils and could not self-recover by the end of experiment period. There was a significant decline (F_{inoculation} = 699.12, p<0.001) (Fig. 4, Table 3) in the stress level of microbes among treatments with regards to the addition of strain CHL1.

The changes of Shannon-Wiener indices in experimental soils

The Shannon-Wiener indices of microbes in soils with or without the addition of strain CHL1 were investigated (Fig. 5). Both the treatments ($F_{treatment} = 106.03$, p < 0.001) (Fig. 5, Table 3) and incubation time ($F_{time} = 326.44$, p < 0.001) had significant effects on the Shannon-Wiener index, regardless of inoculation with strain CHL1 or not. The indices ranged from 1.90 to 2.66 for treatment soils without the strain CHL1 inoculation during the whole incubation (Fig. 5a). Chlorimuron-ethyl decreased the soil microbial diversity in dose-dependent manner. This



Fig 5. Values of the Shannon-Wiener index of microbes in treated soils inoculation with strain CHL1 (b) or not (a). Symbols represent the mean of triplicate samples and error bars indicate the standard deviation. S₁₀, S₃₀, S₅₀, S₁₀₀, S₁₀₀₀ mean 10, 30, 50, 100, 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0117943.g005

decrease could be self-recovery in low and median dose ($15\mu g kg^{-1}$, $30\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $50\mu g kg^{-1}$) of chlorimuron-ethyl treatment by the end of experiment period. However, high dose ($100\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $1000\mu g kg^{-1}$) of chlorimuron-ethyl showed more severe and persistent negative effect on the Shannon-Wiener indices. In soils with strain CHL1 inoculation (<u>Fig. 5b</u>), the Shannon-Wiener indices of microbes were significantly higher than non-inoculation treatment (F_{inocula-tion} = 42.57, p<0.001) (<u>Table 3</u>).

Microbial community structures in experimental soils

The principal component analysis (PCA) of the PLFA patterns employed 18 most common PLFAs and the results were presented in a series of three plots in Fig. 6. S₀, S₁₀, S₃₀, S₅₀, S₁₀₀ and S₁₀₀₀ mean 0, 10, 30, 50, 100 and 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1. The differences of PLFA patterns in all treatment soils on the 7th day were showed in Fig. 6a. Twelve treatments were split into three groups which contained samples with low (S_0) S₁₀ and S₃₀₊) medium (S₃₀₋, S₅₀) and high (S₁₀₀, S₁₀₀₀) chlorimuron-ethyl concentrations treatments, respectively. The result indicated that chlorimuron-ethyl had significant effect on PLFA patterns in a dose-dependent way. However, the treatment groups (S₃₀) in 30µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl concentration were of exception. Treatment S₃₀₋ represented 30µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treated soils without inoculation, and was clustered into a group with the samples of 50 μ g kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment (S₅₀), but the S₃₀₊ treatment represented 30 μ g kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treated soils with strain CHL1 inoculation, which was found in the lowdose group including S_0 and S_{10} chlorimuron-ethyl-treated samples. The same condition happened in 100 and 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl-treated samples with inoculation (S₁₀₀₊, S₁₀₀₀ $_{+}$) or not (S₁₀₀₋ and S₁₀₀₀₋) on the 30th day (<u>Fig. 6b</u>), which illustrated that strain CHL1 has significant effect on relieving the inhabitation on PLFA patterns caused by chlorimuron-ethyl. On the 60th day, the effect of chlorimuron-ethyl reduced with the incubation time and inoculation application, and most of the treatment were gathered together except for treatment S₁₀₀₋ and S_{1000-} , which represented 100µg kg⁻¹ and 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl-treated samples without inoculation, respectively (Fig. 6c).

Discussion

Chlorimuron-ethyl degradation in experimental soils

Chemical hydrolysis and microbial degradation were considered to be the major degradation process for sulfonylureas [25, 26]. However, this process is particularly dependent on soil temperature, moisture, organic matter and pH [6]. Bioaugmentation has been proven to be an efficient technique for soil bioremediation [27, 28]. A series of microbes showed high chlorimuron-ethyl degradation ability in culture condition. However, most of these strains used chlorimuron-ethyl as a nitrogen source but not sole carbon and energy source. Zhang et al. [15] indicated that strain LF1 could grow with chlorimuron-ethyl as nitrogen source and degraded 77% of the 5 mg L^{-1} chlorimuron-ethyl after incubation for 4 days. Ma et al. [14] described that when chlorimuron-ethyl was provided as the sole nitrogen source, the degradation efficiency in liquid medium was about 81.0% after 7 days of inoculation with strain LW3; when used as the sole carbon source, only 25% of the initially added chlorimuron-ethyl was degraded in the same time span. Former research showed that when chlorimuron-ethyl was provided as the sole carbon source, more than 95% of chlorimuron-ethyl at an initial concentration of 50 mg L^{-1} was degraded by strain CHL1 at the end of a 2-day incubation period at 30° C [11]. Compared with medium condition, strongly influenced by competition of indigenous microorganisms and the suitability of the environment, the survival of degradation microorganisms



Fig 6. PCA plot of the microbial community structure of all treatments on days 7, 30 and 60. S₀, S₁₀, S₃₀, S₅₀, S₁₀₀ and S₁₀₀₀ mean 0, 10, 30, 50, 100 and 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment group, respectively. '-' indicates without strain CHL1 inoculation; '+' indicates inoculation with strain CHL1.

PLOS ONE

and their chlorimuron-ethyl degradation efficiencies were severely inhibited in soil. Few strains showed high chlorimuron-ethyl degradation ability in soil condition. By determing the chlorimuron-ethyl residue and investigating the survival time of degrading strain CHL1 in soils, we concluded that strain CHL1 maintained a high copy number and showed high degradation efficiency in 5mg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soil in former research [11]. In this experiment, strain CHL1 displayed high chlorimuron-ethyl degradation ability, both in low and high degree of chlorimuron-ethyl contamination soils. The results demonstrated that strain CHL1 could be promising for chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soil remediation in situ.

PLFA concentration

Due to their rapid turnover in soils, the total PLFAs is a good indicator of the active microbial biomass [29, 30]. Previous researches have proven that the residuals of sulfonylurea herbicides in cropland have negative effects on the microbes in a dose-dependent way [6, 31]. Owing to the chemical hydrolysis and degradation by indigenous microorganism, the chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soils without inoculation of strain CHL1 could self-recovery within a certain range [7]. However, this process was agonizingly slow and limited. Some microbes sensitive to chlorimuron-ethyl might be seriously inhibited at this period. In this study, strain CHL1 exhibited high efficient and persistent remediation ability in different concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soils. Throughout the incubation period, the total PLFA concentrations in soils with inoculation of strain CHL1 were more stable and analogous to the control level, which was of significantly important for maintaining the sustainability and productivity of the soil ecosystem [32].

As the different structure of peptidoglycan, Gram negative bacteria are more sensitive than Gram positive bacteria with environmental variation [33]. Former researches have showed that low dose of herbicides or pesticides significantly increased soil GN bacteria; but at high concentrations, the abundance of GN would decline [34, 35]. Our study exhibited the same trend. In low and median dose (30µg kg⁻¹, 50µg kg⁻¹, 100µg kg⁻¹) of chlorimuron-ethyl treatment soils, GN bacteria were more severely inhibited and the ratio of GN: GP decreased. With the increase of chlorimuron-ethyl concentrations (1000µg kg⁻¹), both GN and GP were seriously inhibited and the ratio of GN: GP got up. Compared with non-inoculation treatments, the ratios of GN: GP in soils inoculated with strain CHL1 were more stable, even the concentration of chlorimuron-ethyl being as high as 100µg kg⁻¹. The ratio of GN: GP in 1000µg kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl treatment did not recover to the control level regardless of CHL1 inoculation, which was corresponding to the result of chlorimuron-ethyl degradation in experimental soils.

Bacteria and fungi usually showed differently sensitive to herbicides. He et al. demonstrated that the aerobic heterotrophic bacteria was distinctly inhibited and the number of tolerant fungi increased greatly in the rhizosphere after the application of metsulfuron-methyl [36]. Said et al. showed that long-term application of urea herbicides clearly affected both the structure and metabolic of the soil microbial communities [37]. Furthermore, some beneficial indigenous microbes might be replaced by pathogenic bacterial which are more resistant to excess herbicide [5, 38].

Former researches have illustrated that the cis-monoenoic fatty acids will be preferentially utilized in severe environment [39, 40]. To detect shifts in microbial community due to the toxicity of chlorimuron-ethyl, the ratio of $(cyc17:0+cyc19:0)/(16:1\omega7c+18:1\omega7c)$ was used as the indicator of microbial community stress level in soils. In our study, chlorimuron-ethyl significantly increased the stress index, especially in high concentration. However, the stress

index decreased obviously by the addition of strain CHL1, in all chlorimuron-ethyl treatments. The stress indices in $30\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and $50\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ treatment soils with strain CHL1 inoculation slightly rose at the first month and recovered to the control level soon. $100\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ of chlorimuron-ethyl treatment showed the highest stress index in most incubation period, regardless of inoculation with strain CHL1or not. However, even in high concentration ($100\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and $1000\mu g \text{ kg}^{-1}$) of chlorimuron-ethyl treatments, strain CHL1 exhibited significant remediation ability.

Shannon-Wiener index is usually used to evaluate the evenness of species representation [41, 42]. Chlorimuron-ethyl decreased the diversity and evenness of soil microbial community by long-term utilization [5, 43]. Our results were in accordance with these reports. Chlorimuron-ethyl decreased the soil microbial diversity in dose-dependent manner. Though the indigenous microbes showed self-recovery ability at low chlorimuron-ethyl concentration, this process was agonizingly slow and limited especially in high chlorimuron-ethyl degree. In soils with strain CHL1 inoculation (Fig. 5b), this inhibition effect caused by chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soil, the Shannon-Wiener diversity index recovered to a level equivalent to the control after 60 days incubation.

The principal component analysis (PCA) of the PLFA revealed significant differences in the PLFA pattern among the different treatments. Former researches have reported that herbicide treatments significantly influenced the PCA results [23, 44, 45]. In our study, the highest differences in microbial community among all treatments were observed on day 7 (Fig. 6a). On the 7th day, nine fatty acids [16:1 ω 7, i17:0, a17:0, cy17:0, 17:0, cy19:0, 17:1 ω 9c (indicators of bacteria) and 16:1 ω 7c, 18:1 ω 9c (indicators of GN bacteria)] were strongly correlated ($|r| \ge 0.6$, |r| is absolute value of correlation coefficient [34].) to PC1, and another three fatty acids [18:2 ω 6, 18:1 ω 9c (indicators of fungi) and 18:1 ω 9t] were strongly correlated to PC2. Inoculation with strain CHL1 showed significant effects on PLFA patterns throughout the experiment period. On the 60th day, the influences caused by chlorimuron-ethyl on the microbial communities were much little compared with day 7th, except for 100 and 1000 μ g kg⁻¹ chlorimuron-ethyl and non-inoculation treatments.

Conclusions

Strain CHL1, which was isolated from chlorimuron-ethyl-contaminated soil in our previous research, exhibited the significant chlorimuron-ethyl degradation ability at wide range of substrate concentration between 10µg kg⁻¹ and 1000µg kg⁻¹. The chlorimuron-ethyl concentrations were under the minimum detectable level in the 10µg kg⁻¹, 30µg kg⁻¹ and 50µg kg⁻¹ treatments with strain CHL1 inoculation, after 15, 30 and 45days incubation, respectively. Even in the high chlorimuron-ethyl concentration treatments ($100\mu g kg^{-1}$ and $1000\mu g kg^{-1}$), the inoculated soils showed a significant lower chlorimuron-ethyl residues than the noninoculated soils. The effects of chlorimuron-ethyl on soil microbial communities were in a dose-dependant manner. High concentrations of chlorimuron-ethyl significantly decreased the total concentration of PLFA and the Shannon-Wiener indices and increased the stress level of microbes in soils. The inoculation with strain CHL1, however, reduced the inhibition on soil microbes caused by chlorimuron-ethyl. The biomarkers in soils treated with low and median dose of chlorimuron-ethyl could recover to the control level more quickly by inoculation than non-inoculation treatments. The levels of biomarkers did not recover to the level of control in high dose chlorimuron-ethyl treatments but were significantly relieved compared with noninoculation treatments. These results showed the potential of strain CHL1 to remediate chlorimuron-ethyl contaminated soils in situ.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: HZ Xinyu Li LY. Performed the experiments: LY. Analyzed the data: Xinyu Li LY Xu Li. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: HZ ZS. Wrote the paper: LY Xinyu Li CZ.

References

- 1. Tan H, Xu M, Li X, Zhang H, Zhang C (2013) Effects of chlorimuron-ethyl application with or without urea fertilization on soil ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and archaea. Journal of hazardous materials 260: 368–374. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2013.05.043 PMID: 23792929
- Zhang H, Zhang X, Mu W, Wang J, Pan H, et al. (2010) Biodegradation of chlorimuron-ethyl by the bacterium Klebsiella jilinsis 2N3. Journal of environmental science and health Part B, Pesticides, food contaminants, and agricultural wastes 45: 501–507. doi: <u>10.1080/03601234.2010.493473</u> PMID: <u>20574870</u>
- Lamoureux GL, Rusness DG, Tanaka FS (1991) Chlorimuron ethyl metabolism in corn. Pesticide biochemistry and physiology 41:66–81.
- Zawoznik MS, Tomaro ML (2005) Effect of chlorimuron-ethyl on Bradyrhizobium japonicum and its symbiosis with soybean. Pest management science 61: 1003–1008. PMID: <u>15920784</u>
- Zhang X, Li X, Zhang C, Li X, Zhang H (2011) Ecological risk of long-term chlorimuron-ethyl application to soil microbial community: an in situ investigation in a continuously cropped soybean field in Northeast China. Environmental science and pollution research international 18: 407–415. doi: <u>10.1007/s11356-010-0381-4</u> PMID: <u>20700659</u>
- 6. Blair AM, Martin TD (1988) A review of the activity, fate and mode of action of sulfonylurea herbicides. Pesticide Science 22: 195–219.
- Reddy KN, Locke MA, Wagner SC, Zablotowicz RM, Gaston LA, et al. (1995) Chlorimuron ethyl sorption and desorption kinetics in soils and herbicide-desiccated cover crop residues. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry 43: 2752–2757.
- Reddy KN, Zablotowicz RM, Locke MA (1995) Chlorimuron adsorption, desorption, and degradation in soils from conventional tillage and no-tillage systems. Journal of environmental quality 24: 760–767.
- Sharma S, Banerjee K, Choudhury PP (2012) Degradation of chlorimuron-ethyl by Aspergillus niger isolated from agricultural soil. FEMS Microbiol Lett 337: 18–24. doi: <u>10.1111/1574-6968.12006</u> PMID: <u>22967225</u>
- Boschin G, D'Agostina A, Arnoldi A, Marotta E, Zanardini E, et al. (2003) Biodegradation of Chlorsulfuron and Metsulfuron-Methyl by Aspergillus niger in Laboratory Conditions. Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part B 38: 737–746. PMID: 14649705
- Yang L, Li X, Li X, Su Z, Zhang C, et al. (2014) Bioremediation of chlorimuron-ethyl-contaminated soil by *Hansschlegelia* sp. strain CHL1 and the changes of indigenous microbial population and N-cycling function genes during the bioremediation process. Journal of hazardous materials 274: 314–321. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2014.04.011 PMID: 24794985
- Kim YH, Engesser KH, Cerniglia CE (2003) Two polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon o-quinone reductases from a pyrene-degrading *Mycobacterium*. Archives of biochemistry and biophysics 416: 209–217. PMID: <u>12893299</u>
- Ye GB, Zhang W, Cui X, Pan CP, Jiang SR (2006) Determination and Quantitation of Ten Sulfonylurea Herbicides in Soil Samples Using Liquid Chromatography with Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometric Detection. Chinese Journal of Analytical Chemistry 34: 1207–1212.
- Ma JP, Wang Z, Lu P, Wang HJ, Waseem Ali S, et al. (2009) Biodegradation of the sulfonylurea herbicide chlorimuron-ethyl by the strain Pseudomonas sp. LW3. FEMS Microbiol Lett 296: 203–209. doi: <u>10.1111/j.1574-6968.2009.01638.x PMID: 19459953</u>
- Zhang X, Zhang H, Li X, Su Z, Wang J, et al. (2009) Isolation and characterization of Sporobolomyces sp. LF1 capable of degrading chlorimuron-ethyl. Journal of Environmental Sciences 21: 1253–1260. PMID: 19999974
- Petersen SO, Klug MJ (1994) Effects of sieving, storage, and incubation temperature on the phospholipid fatty acid profile of a soil microbial community. Applied and environmental microbiology 60: 2421–2430. PMID: <u>16349325</u>
- Zelles L, Bai Q, Ma R, Rackwitz R, Winter K, et al. (1994) Microbial biomass, metabolic activity and nutritional status determined from fatty acid patterns and poly-hydroxybutyrate in agriculturallymanaged soils. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 26: 439–446.

- García-Orenes F, Morugán-Coronado A, Zornoza R, Scow K (2013) Changes in Soil Microbial Community Structure Influenced by Agricultural Management Practices in a Mediterranean Agro-Ecosystem. PloS one 8: e80522. doi: <u>10.1371/journal.pone.0080522</u> PMID: <u>24260409</u>
- Herrmann R, Shann J (1997) Microbial community changes during the composting of municipal solid waste. Microbial ecology 33: 78–85. PMID: <u>9039768</u>
- 20. Vestal JR, White DC (1989) Lipid analysis in microbial ecology. Bioscience: 535–541. PMID: 11542183
- Drigo B, Pijl AS, Duyts H, Kielak AM, Gamper HA, et al. (2010) Shifting carbon flow from roots into associated microbial communities in response to elevated atmospheric CO2. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 107: 10938–10942. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0912421107 PMID: 20534474
- Olsson PA, Bååth E, Jakobsen I, Söderström B (1995) The use of phospholipid and neutral lipid fatty acids to estimate biomass of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in soil. Mycological Research 99: 623–629. PMID: 7632430
- Zhang C, Xu J, Liu X, Dong F, Kong Z, et al. (2010) Impact of imazethapyr on the microbial community structure in agricultural soils. Chemosphere 81: 800–806. doi: <u>10.1016/j.chemosphere.2010.06.079</u> PMID: <u>20659755</u>
- Hammesfahr U, Heuer H, Manzke B, Smalla K, Thiele-Bruhn S (2008) Impact of the antibiotic sulfadiazine and pig manure on the microbial community structure in agricultural soils. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 40: 1583–1591.
- Blacklow W, Pheloung P (1992) Sulfonylurea herbicides applied to acidic sandy soils: movement, persistence and activity within the growing season. Crop and Pasture Science 43: 1157–1167.
- Andersen SM, Hertz PB, Holst T, Bossi R, Jacobsen CS (2001) Mineralisation studies of ¹⁴C-labelled metsulfuron-methyl, tribenuron-methyl, chlorsulfuron and thifensulfuron-methyl in one Danish soil and groundwater sediment profile. Chemosphere 45: 775–782. PMID: <u>11695596</u>
- Major DW, McMaster ML, Cox EE, Edwards EA, Dworatzek SM, et al. (2002) Field demonstration of successful bioaugmentation to achieve dechlorination of tetrachloroethene to ethene. Environmental Science & Technology 36: 5106–5116. doi: <u>10.1371/journal.pone.0115455</u> PMID: <u>25607953</u>
- Ellis DE, Lutz EJ, Odom JM, Buchanan RJ, Bartlett CL, et al. (2000) Bioaugmentation for accelerated in situ anaerobic bioremediation. Environmental science & technology 34: 2254–2260. doi: <u>10.1371/</u> journal.pone.0115455 PMID: <u>25607953</u>
- Bardgett RD, McAlister E (1999) The measurement of soil fungal: bacterial biomass ratios as an indicator of ecosystem self-regulation in temperate meadow grasslands. Biology and Fertility of Soils 29: 282–290.
- Bardgett RD, Lovell RD, Hobbs PJ, Jarvis SC (1999) Seasonal changes in soil microbial communities along a fertility gradient of temperate grasslands. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 31: 1021–1030.
- Sarmah AK, Sabadie J (2002) Hydrolysis of sulfonylurea herbicides in soils and aqueous solutions: a review. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry 50: 6253–6265. PMID: <u>12381100</u>
- Kaur A, Chaudhary A, Kaur A, Choudhary R, Kaushik R (2005) Phospholipid fatty acid-A bioindicator of environment monitoring and assessment in soil ecosystem. CURRENT SCIENCE 89: 1103.
- 33. Byss M, Elhottová D, Tříska J, Baldrian P (2008) Fungal bioremediation of the creosote-contaminated soil: Influence of *Pleurotus ostreatus* and *Irpex lacteus* on polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons removal and soil microbial community composition in the laboratory-scale study. Chemosphere 73: 1518–1523. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2008.07.030 PMID: 18782639
- Wang MC, Liu YH, Wang Q, Gong M, Hua XM, et al. (2008) Impacts of methamidophos on the biochemical, catabolic, and genetic characteristics of soil microbial communities. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 40: 778–788.
- Yang YH, Yao J, Hu S, Qi Y (2000) Effects of agricultural chemicals on DNA sequence diversity of soil microbial community: a study with RAPD marker. Microbial ecology 39: 72–79. PMID: <u>10790520</u>
- He YH, Shen DS, Fang CR, He R, Zhu YM (2006) Effects of metsulfuron-methyl on the microbial population and enzyme activities in wheat rhizosphere soil. Journal of Environmental Science and Health Part B 41: 269–284. PMID: <u>16484087</u>
- El Fantroussi S, Verschuere L, Verstraete W, Top EM (1999) Effect of phenylurea herbicides on soil microbial communities estimated by analysis of 16S rRNA gene fingerprints and community-level physiological profiles. Applied and environmental microbiology 65: 982–988. PMID: <u>10049851</u>
- Girvan MS, Bullimore J, Ball AS, Pretty JN, Osborn AM (2004) Responses of active bacterial and fungal communities in soils under winter wheat to different fertilizer and pesticide regimens. Applied and environmental microbiology 70: 2692–2701. PMID: 15128520
- 39. Guckert J, Hood M, White D (1986) Phospholipid ester-linked fatty acid profile changes during nutrient deprivation of Vibrio cholerae: increases in the trans/cis ratio and proportions of cyclopropyl fatty acids. Applied and environmental microbiology 52: 794–801. PMID: <u>3777927</u>

- 40. Heipieper HJ, Loffeld B, Keweloh H, de Bont JA (1995) The *cis/trans* isomerisation of unsaturated fatty acids in *Pseudomonas putida* S12: An indicator for environmental stress due to organic compounds. Chemosphere 30: 1041–1051.
- Derksen D, Thomas A, Lafond G, Loeppky H, Swanton C (1995) Impact of post-emergence herbicides on weed community diversity within conservation-tillage systems. Weed Research 35: 311–320.
- 42. Fierer N, Jackson RB (2006) The diversity and biogeography of soil bacterial communities. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 103: 626–631. PMID: 16407148
- **43.** Wang J, Zhang H, Zhang X, Qin S, Tan H, et al. (2013) Effects of long-term chlorimuron-ethyl application on the diversity and antifungal activity of soil Pseudomonas spp. in a soybean field in Northeast China. Annals of Microbiology 63: 335–341.
- Cycoń M, Wójcik M, Borymski S, Piotrowska-Seget Z (2013) Short-term effects of the herbicide napropamide on the activity and structure of the soil microbial community assessed by the multi-approach analysis. Applied Soil Ecology 66: 8–18.
- 45. Xu J, Guo L, Dong F, Liu X, Wu X, et al. (2013) Response of the soil microbial community to imazethapyr application in a soybean field. Journal of environmental science and health Part B, Pesticides, food contaminants, and agricultural wastes 48: 505–511. doi: <u>10.1080/03601234.2013.761915</u> PMID: <u>23452216</u>