



1 **Increase of bacterial community induced-tolerance to Cr in response to soil**
2 **properties and Cr level in the soil**

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10 **ABSTRACT**

11 Chromium (Cr) pollution in soils is a global concern that should be assessed. Pollution
12 Induced Community Tolerance (PICT) methodology is a highly sensitive tool that can
13 directly indicate metal toxicity in the microbial community. Ten soils with a wide range
14 of properties were spiked with 31.25, 62.5, 125, 250, 500, 1000 and 2000 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, in
15 addition to the control. Bacterial growth (using [³H]-leucine incorporation technique) was
16 used to determine PICT, that is, whether bacterial communities developed tolerance in
17 response to Cr additions to different soil types. Some bacterial communities did not grow
18 normally at 1000 or 2000 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, probably due to high Cr toxicity, while others did.
19 Regarding below 500 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, bacterial communities showed two responses
20 depending on soil type: 7 of the 10 studied soils showed increased tolerance to Cr, while
21 for the remaining 3 soils did not develop tolerance to Cr. Furthermore, the Cr level from
22 which bacterial communities developed tolerance was dependent on the soil, i.e. Cr was
23 more toxic in some of studied soils. The Cr effect on microbial communities was mainly
24 determined by Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) and the fraction of Cr extracted with
25 distilled water (H₂O-Cr) (R² = 95.6 %). Their effect on Cr in the soil might lead to an
26 increase in toxicity (selection phase of PICT).

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30 **Keywords:**

31 PICT (Pollution-Induced Community Tolerance), bacterial growth, Cr (chromium),
32 dissolved organic carbon, metal bioavailability, risk assessment

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35 **1. Introduction**

36 Chromium (Cr) is a highly toxic non-essential metal for microorganisms and
37 plants, that may naturally occur at high concentrations from parent materials, e.g.
38 serpentine rocks (Adriano, 2001; Cervantes et al., 2001). The world average content of
39 Cr in soils is $60 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, but in soils developed from mafic and volcanic rocks can reach
40 up to $10000 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ (Gonnelli and Renella, 2013). Cr contents up to 2879 and 3865
41 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ were reported for serpentine soils in Galicia (NW Spain) and Albania,
42 respectively, (Covelo et al., 2007; Shallari et al., 1998). Anthropogenic activities, e.g.
43 metallurgical industry, also lead to Cr accumulation in soils (Kabata-Pendias, 2011). Up
44 to 195, 88 and $6228 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ Cr were found in urban, agricultural and industrial soils,
45 respectively (Srinivasa Gowd et al., 2010; Wei and Yang, 2010). Speciation and
46 adsorption on soil solid surfaces are the main processes controlling Cr toxicity in soils
47 (Adriano, 2001; Shahid et al., 2017). Despite the various Cr oxidation states, Cr(III) and
48 Cr(VI) are the most stable and common forms in soils. Cr(VI) is considered the most toxic
49 form of Cr, while Cr (III) is less mobile, less toxic and presents mostly precipitated
50 (Kabata-Pendias, 2011). The adsorption of Cr on soil solid surfaces depends on several
51 factors, e.g. soil pH, clay content, organic matter or Fe hydroxides (Bolan and
52 Thiagarajan, 2001; Bradl, 2004; Dias-Ferreira et al., 2015; Gonnelli and Renella, 2013;
53 Kabata-Pendias, 2011).

54 In the assessment of metal pollution, the toxic metal effect on soil microorganisms
55 should be considered, because of their key role in maintaining soil ecosystem functions
56 (Nannipieri et al., 2003). Lower microbial diversity, enzymatic activity, C mineralization
57 and microbial biomass were found in Cr-polluted soil in comparison to unpolluted soil
58 (Dotaniya et al., 2017; He et al., 2016; Pradhan et al., 2019). The potential nitrification
59 and microbial abundance were inhibited with the increase of Cr level in the soil (Zhang



60 et al., 2022). Bacterial diversity was negatively correlated with total and available Cr,
61 while microbial community structure was altered (Zhang et al., 2021). However,
62 sometimes differentiating if the microbial response is due to Cr toxicity or to soil
63 properties variation is a difficult task (Liu et al., 2019), in addition to the complex
64 biogeochemical behaviour of Cr in soils (Ao et al., 2022). Therefore, a microbial indicator
65 specifically related to Cr toxicity that reduces interference of other soil properties is
66 needed to assess the Cr toxicity, such as the Pollution Induced Community Tolerance
67 (PICT) methodology. PICT is a sensitive tool that can be used as a direct indicator of
68 metal toxicity in the microbial community (Blanck, 2002). PICT methodology is based
69 on the selective pressure that the metal exerts on a microbial community, which favoured
70 the proliferation of more tolerant species over the more sensitive ones. Thus, the microbial
71 community that was exposed to the pollutant should show higher tolerance than that of
72 the unexposed reference microbial community (Blanck, 2002; Tlili et al., 2016). PICT
73 methodology has been successfully applied to assess Cr pollution in soils or sediments
74 (Gong et al., 2002; Ipsilantis and Coyne, 2007; Ogilvie and Grant, 2008; Santás-Miguel
75 et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2002a, 2002b; Van Beelen et al., 2004). The microbial community
76 tolerance should be quantified in a short-term assay by a sensitive endpoint, such as
77 bacterial growth measured using [³H]-leucine incorporation (Berg et al., 2012; Boivin et
78 al., 2006; Lekfeldt et al., 2014). Despite the high sensitivity and specificity, the PICT
79 methodology might present some difficulties, mainly due to the influence of soil
80 properties (Blanck, 2002; Lekfeldt et al., 2014). Shi et al. (2002b) found similar values of
81 PICT to Cr and Pb both at low and high Cr (263 g·kg⁻¹) and Pb (10000 mg·kg⁻¹) levels,
82 respectively, suggesting that different soils affected Cr and Pb bioavailability. Similarly,
83 Shi et al. (2002a) did not find bacterial community tolerance to Cr (or Pb), regardless
84 of exposure history to Cr (or Pb), suggesting that several factors (organic matter, pH,



85 redox potential) might influence metal availability. Boivin et al. (2006), Fernández-
86 Calviño et al. (2012) and Fernández-Calviño and Bååth (2016) also reported different
87 tolerance values to heavy metals in soils with similar values of metals but different soil
88 properties. Soil properties may affect PICT development due to effects on metals
89 speciation, adsorption and bioavailability (Bradl, 2004; Shahid et al., 2017).

90 We hypothesize that soil pollution with Cr induces the development of bacterial
91 community tolerance to Cr, but the magnitude of the increases depends on soil
92 physicochemical characteristics. Therefore, we aim to determine the induced bacterial
93 community tolerance to Cr in response to the addition of different Cr levels to 10 soils
94 with variable properties. We also aim to assess the importance of soil properties on the
95 increase of bacterial community tolerance to Cr.

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98 **2. Materials and Methods**

99 *2.1 Soil samples*

100 Soil samples were the same used previously in Campillo-Cora et al. (2021a, 2020) to
101 study Cr adsorption and fractionation in soils with different properties, mainly in terms
102 of organic matter and pH. In brief, ten remote forest locations in Galicia (NW Spain) were
103 selected to avoid heavy metal pollution. Locations were also selected to obtain soil
104 samples with a range of different physicochemical properties (Macías-Vázquez and Calvo
105 de Anta, 2009). Superficial soil samples (0-20 cm) were taken using an Edelman probe
106 and, once in the laboratory, were air-dried, homogenized, sieved (2 mm mesh) and stored
107 until analysis.

108

109 *2.2 Soil properties*

110 A detailed description of the chemical analysis is given in Campillo-Cora et al. (2020)
111 and in Supplementary Information. The properties of the 10 soils can be found in Tables
112 S1 and S2. In brief, soil samples presented a wide range of textures (19-71 % Sand, 13-
113 67 % Silt, 14-32 % Clay). A wide range of soil pH_w and pH_K was found: 4.0-7.5 and 3.0-
114 6.9, respectively. Similarly, OM oscillated between 10-29 %. A range from 2 to 29
115 cmol_c·kg⁻¹ was obtained for eCEC. A large range was obtained for DOC: 0.14 to 0.70
116 g·kg⁻¹. Chromium total content varied from 7 up to 394 mg·kg⁻¹.

117 Adsorption constants determined from Freundlich and Langmuir models (batch
118 experiments) are presented in Table S3, obtained from Campillo-Cora et al. (2020). The
119 different Cr fractions from extractions using distilled water, CaCl₂ and DTPA are shown
120 in Table S4, obtained from Campillo-Cora et al. (2021a)

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122



123 *2.3 Experimental design and bacterial community tolerance to Cr determination*

124 Sieved soil samples were rewetted until reaching 60 – 80% of water holding capacity
125 (Meisner et al., 2013). To rewet, soil samples were spiked with seven Cr solutions (made
126 from $K_2Cr_2O_7$) and one of distilled water, to obtain the following final Cr levels in soils:
127 2000, 1000, 500, 250, 125, 62.5, 31.25 and 0 mg Cr·kg⁻¹ soil. Each Cr solution was added
128 separately and in triplicate, finally obtaining 240 microcosms (10 soils x 8 [Cr] x 3
129 replicates). Once soil samples were spiked with Cr, microcosms were incubated in the
130 dark at 22 °C for two months, to ensure the reactivation of bacterial communities (Meisner
131 et al., 2013).

132 After the incubation period, bacterial community tolerance to Cr was estimated
133 through the PICT methodology (Blanck, 2002). The homogenization-centrifugation
134 technique was performed to extract soil bacterial communities (Bååth, 1992). The
135 bacterial community tolerance to Cr was determined as previously for Cu (Fernández-
136 Calviño et al., 2011), with modifications based on suggestions by Lekfeldt et al. (2014).
137 For this purpose, each microcosm was distributed in three 50 mL centrifuge tubes and
138 MES buffer was added in a ratio 1:10 soil/buffer (20 Mm pH 6; 4-
139 Morpholineethanesulfonic acid, CAS no: 4432-31-9) (Lekfeldt et al., 2014). The
140 suspensions soil/MES were mixed using a multi-vortex at maximum intensity for 3 min.
141 This step was followed by low-speed centrifugation to remove most of the fungal biomass
142 (1000 x g, 10 min) (Bååth, 1994; Bååth et al., 2001; Rousk and Bååth, 2011). Soil
143 supernatants, i.e. bacterial suspensions, were filtered through glass wool and 1.5 mL
144 aliquots were transferred into 2 mL micro-centrifugation tubes. A volume of 0.15 mL of
145 different Cr concentrations (made from $K_2Cr_2O_7$) was added to micro-centrifugation
146 tubes, obtaining nine Cr concentrations (3.3×10^{-4} to 10^{-8} M) plus a blank (0.15 mL of
147 distilled water). Then, the ³H-leucine incorporation method was used to estimate bacterial



148 growth (Bååth et al., 2001). A volume of 0.2 μL [^3H]Leu (37 MBq mL^{-1} and 5.74 TBq
149 mmol^{-1} . Amersham) with non-labelled Leu (19.8 μL) was added to each tube, resulting
150 in 300 nM Leu in the bacterial suspensions. Bacterial suspensions were incubated for 8 h
151 at 22°C. Bacterial growth was stopped with 75 μL of 100% trichloroacetic acid. The
152 washing procedure and subsequent radioactivity measurement were carried out according
153 to Bååth et al. (2001). Radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation counting using
154 a Tri-Carb 2810 TR (PerkinElmer, USA)

155

156 2.4 Data analysis

157 2.4.1 Estimation of bacterial community tolerance to Cr ($\log IC_{50}$)

158 A dose-response curve was obtained for each soil microcosm. To compare the dose-
159 response curves, i.e. inhibition curves, with each other, bacterial growth was expressed
160 as relative bacterial growth. For each inhibition curve, generally, the four lowest added
161 metal concentrations to bacterial suspensions not showed bacterial growth inhibition
162 (Figure 1). Thus, relative bacterial growth was calculated by dividing all bacterial growth
163 data by the average of results from the four lowest added metal concentrations (including
164 blank), obtaining comparable dose-response curves. From each dose-response curve, \log
165 IC_{50} was determined as a tolerance index, i.e. Cr concentration resulting in 50% inhibition
166 of bacterial community growth. Higher $\log IC_{50}$ values mean higher bacterial community
167 tolerance to Cr, and lower $\log IC_{50}$ values mean lower bacterial community tolerance to
168 Cr. $\log IC_{50}$ was calculated using the following logistic model (Fernández-Calviño et al.,
169 2011):

$$170 Y=c/(1+e^{b(X-a)}) \quad (\text{equation 1})$$



171 where Y is the measured level of Leu incorporation, c is the bacterial growth rate without
172 added Cr, b is a slope parameter indicating the inhibition rate, X is the logarithm of Cr
173 added, and a is $\log IC_{50}$.

174 To detect whether bacterial community tolerance increase from different studied
175 soils occurs, $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ was determined as the difference between $\log IC_{50}$ value from each
176 Cr level in soil (2000, 1000, 500, 250, 125, 62.5 or 31.25 mg Cr·kg⁻¹) and the control soil
177 (0 mg Cr·kg⁻¹). A difference of 0.3 was taken as a reference value to determine if bacterial
178 community tolerance increased since it represents twice the Cr concentration in terms of
179 added Cr to bacterial suspensions. If $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ is higher than 0.3, we will consider an
180 increase in bacterial community tolerance to Cr (Fernández-Calviño and Bååth, 2016,
181 2013).

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183 *2.4.2 Estimation of bacterial community tolerance increase to Cr (multiple linear* 184 *regression analyses)*

185 A multiple regression analysis, using the backward elimination method, was performed
186 to obtain an equation that allows estimating the increase in bacterial community tolerance
187 to Cr ($\Delta \log IC_{50}$) from soil properties. As the inhibition curves for some soils did not fit
188 the logistic model (equation 1) for the highest Cr concentrations (1000 and 2000 mg·kg⁻¹
189 ¹), $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ from 500 mg·kg⁻¹ was used for estimations. Once the equation was
190 estimated, determining factors were verified: linearity, error independency, residues
191 homoscedasticity, residuals normality, autocorrelation, collinearity and presence of
192 outliers. All statistics were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software (IBM,
193 USA).

194



195 **3. Results and discussion**

196 *3.1 Bacterial community tolerance to Cr in Cr-polluted soils with different properties*

197 Figure 1 shows bacterial growth inhibition curves obtained for each microcosm.
198 Generally, a sigmoid dose-response behaviour is observed in the inhibition curves,
199 indicating that when the added Cr concentration to bacterial suspension was low, relative
200 bacterial growth was close to 1, while decreased when the Cr concentration increased.
201 Most of the bacterial growth data fitted the logistic model, obtaining $R^2 \geq 0.87$, (Table
202 S5). However, some data from 1000 and 2000 mg Cr·kg⁻¹ did not fit the logistic model,
203 i.e. bacterial populations were not able to normally grow probably due to high Cr toxicity.
204 In the case of 2000 mg·kg⁻¹, bacterial populations only grew normally in 4 of the 10
205 studied soils, while at 1000 mg·kg⁻¹ they grew normally in 7 soils. These differences in
206 bacterial growth for the same Cr levels may indicate the influence of soil properties on
207 Cr availability, as was previously suggested by Van Beelen et al. (2004). They found
208 tolerant communities to Cr(III) in polluted soils with high Cr levels (2894 mg·kg⁻¹) but
209 also reported that microbial communities from soils polluted with 3935 mg Cr·kg⁻¹ did
210 not show tolerance to Cr(III), suggesting the influence of soil properties on metal toxicity.
211 Therefore, in order to determine which properties influence Cr toxicity, the data of 1000
212 and 2000 mg Cr·kg⁻¹ were not considered in the following analysis.

213 The log IC₅₀ values determined from inhibition curves using the logistic model
214 (equation 1) are presented in Table 1. Bacterial community tolerance to Cr (log IC₅₀)
215 greatly varied between soils, even in the reference soils with no added Cr, log IC₅₀
216 oscillated from -6.40 (S8) up to -3.88 (S6) (log units). The variation of bacterial
217 community tolerance to Cr in the reference soils may be an indicator that the development
218 of PICT is dependent on soil type. In addition, this bacterial community tolerance to Cr
219 fluctuation in reference soils, together with the natural Cr content in soils (7 – 394 mg·kg⁻¹



220 ¹, Table S2), highlights the importance of selecting reference soils for PICT studies
221 (Campillo-Cora et al., 2022a; Campillo-Cora et al., 2021b). Likewise, when Cr was added
222 to soils, bacterial community tolerance to Cr varied greatly between soils with the same
223 Cr level. A range from -6.37 (S8) to -3.56 (S6) was determined for soils polluted with the
224 lowest Cr level in soil (31.25 mg Cr·kg⁻¹); from -6.27 (S8) to -3.79 (S7) for 62.5 mg
225 Cr·kg⁻¹; from -6.26 (S8) to -3.65 (S7) for 125 mg Cr·kg⁻¹; from -6.27 (S5) to -3.41 (S7)
226 for 250 mg Cr·kg⁻¹; and from -6.09 (S8) to -2.87 (S3) for 500 mg·kg⁻¹.

227 Overall, bacterial communities showed two different responses to Cr addition to
228 the soil (Figure 2): (1) bacterial communities of S1, S2, S3, S6, S7, S8 and S10 developed
229 tolerance in response to Cr additions; while (2) bacterial communities of S4, S5 and S9
230 did not develop tolerance following Cr addition to the soil. Based on the PICT hypothesis,
231 the bacterial community is first exposed to the metal (i.e. selection phase of PICT), and
232 if metal exerts toxicity, then the most sensitive organisms of the community will
233 disappear, while the tolerant ones will be favoured. Therefore, whether the microbial
234 community developed tolerance to Cr is a toxicity indicator. Later, the microbial
235 community tolerance is quantified through a second exposition to Cr (i.e. detection phase
236 of PICT) (Blanck, 2002; Tlili et al., 2016). Accordingly, Gong et al. (2002) and Ipsilantis
237 and Coyne (2007) reported an increase in bacterial community tolerance to Cr with
238 increasing Cr levels in soil and rhizosphere. Van Beelen et al. (2004) found that bacterial
239 community tolerance to Cr(VI) increased with increasing Cr in pore water. Ogilvie and
240 Grant (2008) determined a tendency to increase the bacterial community tolerance to Cr
241 when the Cr level increases in estuarine sediments. Our results showed that bacterial
242 community tolerance to Cr increased with increasing Cr levels in soils only in 7 of the 10
243 soils studied (Figure 2). However, our results showed that the Cr level in soil from which
244 bacterial communities developed tolerance to Cr varied depending on the soil ($\Delta \log IC_{50}$



245 > 0.3). Bacterial communities from S7 and S10 showed an increased tolerance at 31.25
246 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, bacterial communities from S1 and S3 at 62.5 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, bacterial
247 communities from S2 and S8 at 250 mg Cr·kg⁻¹, and bacterial communities from S6 at
248 500 mg Cr·kg⁻¹. In other words, Cr was more toxic for bacterial communities depending
249 on soil type, following the sequence: S7, S10 > S1, S3 > S2, S8 > S6. In other soils, our
250 results show that microbial communities did not develop tolerance to Cr, even at high Cr
251 levels. For example, bacterial communities of S6 did not show tolerance to Cr even at
252 2000 mg·kg⁻¹ (Figure 2). Similarly, Shi et al. (2002b, 2002a) and Ipsilantis and Coyne
253 (2007) did not find tolerant microbial communities to Cr even at high Cr levels, from 447
254 up to 263000 mg Cr·kg⁻¹. Therefore, considering that Cr-pollution sometimes has no toxic
255 effect on microbial communities and that, in other cases, microbial communities are
256 affected by Cr from very low levels of Cr-pollution, including soil properties in the
257 assessment of Cr-pollution is highly recommended, as for other heavy metals (Campillo-
258 Cora et al., 2022b).

259

260 *3.2 Estimation of the increase in bacterial community tolerance to Cr as a function of soil* 261 *properties*

262 The bacterial community tolerance to metals may be influenced by several soil properties,
263 such as soil pH, clay content or organic matter content (Ogilvie and Grant, 2008; Shi et
264 al., 2002b). The effect of soil properties on bacterial community tolerance can occur in
265 soil (selection phase of PICT), or in the determination phase of PICT. The effect of the
266 soil properties in the selection phase occurs in the soil, i.e. the first time bacterial
267 communities are exposed to the metal. For example, Fernández-Calviño and Bååth (2016)
268 found that bacterial community tolerance to Cu was lower in vineyard soils with high pH
269 in comparison to more acid soils, as Cu toxicity was reduced. On the other hand, the effect



270 of soil properties may occur in the detection phase, i.e. confounding factors leading to
271 altered tolerance measures (Lekfeldt et al., 2014). For example, Fernández-Calviño et al.
272 (2011) reported that the measurement of PICT to Cu was altered because of the presence
273 of the finer soil fraction in the bacterial suspensions when Cu concentrations were added.
274 That is, the finer particles will bind part of the Cu added to bacterial suspensions, resulting
275 in lower available Cu, so higher Cu concentrations will be necessary to inhibit the
276 bacterial growth leading to apparent higher tolerance, i.e. overestimated bacterial
277 community tolerance to Cu.

278 The equation presented in Table 2 related the increase of bacterial community
279 tolerance to Cr ($\Delta\log IC_{50}$) with soil properties, explaining 95.6 % of the data variance (p
280 < 0.001). Only $\Delta\log IC_{50}$ for 500 mg Cr·kg⁻¹ were used. The increase of bacterial
281 community tolerance to Cr was estimated by using soil properties ($p < 0.05$): DOC and
282 extracted Cr using distilled water (H₂O-Cr). Figure 3 shows estimated $\Delta\log IC_{50}$ versus
283 measured $\Delta\log IC_{50}$, with a homogeneous distribution around the line 1:1 ($R^2 = 0.95$).

284 DOC showed a significant positive relationship with $\Delta\log IC_{50}$ ($p < 0.05$; Table
285 2), i.e. when DOC increases, the bacterial community tolerance to Cr also increases. This
286 DOC effect might be a confounding factor in the detection phase of PICT, as was
287 previously reported for Cu (Campillo-Cora et al., 2021b; Lekfeldt et al., 2014). When
288 bacterial communities are extracted from soil, DOC is extracted too. Later, when Cu is
289 added to bacterial suspensions, Cu and DOC may bind together (Beesley et al., 2010),
290 reducing Cu bioavailability and altering bacterial community tolerance to Cr
291 (overestimation). Bérard et al. (2016) reported a similar effect for microbial community
292 tolerance to Pb measurements. However, in a previous study (Campillo-Cora et al.,
293 2022c), we found that when dissolved organic matter (DOM) increases on bacterial
294 suspensions, then bacterial community tolerance to Cr decreases, i.e. when DOM



295 increases in bacterial suspensions, Cr becomes more toxic to bacteria. Hence, the DOC
296 effect in Cr bioavailability in the detection phase should be discarded because of the
297 positive relationship with $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ (Table 2) and attributed to an effect in the selection
298 phase in soil. In the soil, however, when DOC is present, Cr(VI) may be reduced to
299 Cr(III), i.e. Cr toxicity decreases when DOC is present (Ao et al., 2022). If fact, the use
300 of organic amendments to reduce Cr toxicity in soils is very common (Abou Jaoude et
301 al., 2020; Mitchell et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2021). A hypothesis is that the presence of
302 DOC in soil enhanced the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) (Wittbrodt and Palmer, 1997),
303 but during this process free radicals may also be formed (Kotaš and Stasicka, 2000),
304 increasing general toxicity for bacterial communities (Campillo-Cora et al., 2022c). In
305 response to increased toxicity in soil, then bacterial communities showed tolerance to Cr.
306 Another hypothesis might be the ability of Cr(III) to coordinate various organic
307 compounds, leading to the inhibition of some metalloenzyme systems (Kotaš and
308 Stasicka, 2000), which might result in a more tolerant bacterial community.

309 The Cr fraction extracted with distilled water (H_2O -Cr) showed a positive
310 relationship with $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ ($p < 0.001$, Table 2). Usually, the soluble form of heavy metals
311 represents the soil solution metal content, which is the most mobile and bioavailable form
312 (Kabata-Pendias, 2011). In the vase of Cr, probably Cr(VI) (Ao et al., 2022). Thus, H_2O -
313 Cr exerts its effect in soil, during the selection phase. H_2O -Cr content in soil increases as
314 added Cr level in soils increases (Campillo-Cora et al., 2021a). Whether Cr exerts
315 toxicity, the most sensitive bacterial species were removed, while the tolerant ones
316 survived, resulting in a more tolerant community to Cr. Later, in the detection phase,
317 when bacterial growth is measured and Cr is added to bacterial suspensions, tolerant
318 bacteria allow greater Cr concentrations, leading to a higher tolerant community. Van
319 Beelen et al. (2004) found a significant increase in microbial community tolerance to



320 Cr(VI) with Cr(VI) pore-water concentration. Similarly, Fernández-Calviño and Bååth
321 (2016) reported a positive relationship between bacterial community tolerance increase
322 ($\Delta \log IC_{50}$) to Cu versus water-soluble Cu concentrations logarithm ($R^2 = 0.79$). Kunito
323 et al. (1999) also determined a positive correlation between IC_{50} values and soluble-
324 exchangeable Cu ($r = 0.76$), while total Cu did not show any significant relationship ($r =$
325 0.013 , $p > 0.05$).

326

327 *3.3 Concluding remarks*

328 In the present study, we aimed to improve the PICT methodology for the assessment of
329 soil pollution, using bacterial growth as the endpoint. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC)
330 and the fraction of Cr extracted with distilled water (H_2O -Cr) were the main factors
331 controlling the Cr effect on microbial communities, determined by the increase of
332 bacterial community tolerance to Cr. The main selection pressure of Cr on the microbial
333 community presumably occurs in soil, i.e. the selection phase of PICT. In the case of
334 DOC, Cr became more toxic to bacterial communities as DOC increased in soil, leading
335 to an increase in bacterial community tolerance to Cr in response to toxicity. Secondly,
336 H_2O -Cr is related to the toxic and active form of Cr, probably Cr(VI), and the higher the
337 H_2O -Cr content in the soil, the higher the tolerance to Cr developed by bacterial
338 communities. The outcomes of this study may be helpful for normalising Cr toxicity
339 thresholds for soil with different properties. In addition, overestimations or
340 underestimations of Cr toxicity based on total or bioavailable Cr content may be avoided,
341 since soil properties should be considered during risk assessment.

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557 **Tables**

558 **Table 1**

559 Bacterial community tolerance (expressed as log IC₅₀) to different levels of Cr pollution
 560 in the 10 studied soils (average ± SE)

Cr (mg·kg ⁻¹)	2000	1000	500	250	125	62.5	31.25	0
Soil	Log IC ₅₀ ±error							
S1	-5.34±0.03	-5.35±0.05	-5.28±0.03	-5.30±0.03	-5.33±0.03	-5.30±0.04	-5.83±0.06	-5.82±0.05
S2	-4.04±0.24	-4.55±0.42	-4.61±0.21	-4.68±0.41	-4.78±0.43	-4.70±0.21	-4.81±0.19	-5.02±0.13
S3	*	*	-2.87±0.51	-4.38±0.15	-4.62±0.16	-4.70±0.18	-5.46±0.03	-5.38±0.05
S4	-5.85±0.08	-5.76±0.05	-5.80±0.07	-5.69±0.05	-5.66±0.04	-5.68±0.04	-5.90±0.08	-5.66±0.07
S5	*	-4.47±0.11	-5.80±0.19	-6.27±0.07	-5.86±0.10	-5.98±0.06	-6.02±0.10	-6.09±0.07
S6	*	-3.47±0.06	-3.38±0.08	-4.48±0.13	-4.18±0.16	-3.97±0.12	-3.56±0.23	-3.88±0.11
S7	*	-3.44±0.09	-3.35±0.07	-3.41±0.09	-3.65±0.11	-3.79±0.07	-3.85±0.05	-4.32±0.12
S8	-3.63±0.13	-6.03±0.06	-6.09±0.09	-5.90±0.09	-6.26±0.04	-6.27±0.03	-6.37±0.07	-6.40±0.15
S9	*	*	-4.32±0.27	-4.37±0.39	-4.70±0.23	-4.43±0.13	-3.82±0.05	-4.11±0.04
S10	*	*	-4.75±0.13	-4.64±0.09	-4.48±0.09	-4.69±0.09	-4.76±0.04	-5.16±0.07

561 *Unadjusted data

562



563 **Table 2**

564 The equation for estimating bacterial community tolerance increase to Cr ($\Delta \log IC_{50(500-}$
565 $0)$) was obtained by multiple regression analysis using all soil samples ($n=10$).

Equation	F	<i>p</i> -value	Adjusted R ²
$\Delta \log IC_{50} = - (0.435 \pm 0.148) + (1.445 \pm 0.320) \text{ DOC}$ $(p=0.026) \quad (p=0.004)$ $+ (0.018 \pm 0.001) \text{ H}_2\text{O-Cr}$ $(p<0.001)$	87.309	<0.001	0.956

566 DOC is dissolved organic carbon ($\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$); H₂O-Cr is Cr extracted using H₂O. Values associated with the
567 independent variables are shown together with the standard errors (\pm). P-values associated with each
568 independent variable are shown below variables (in brackets)

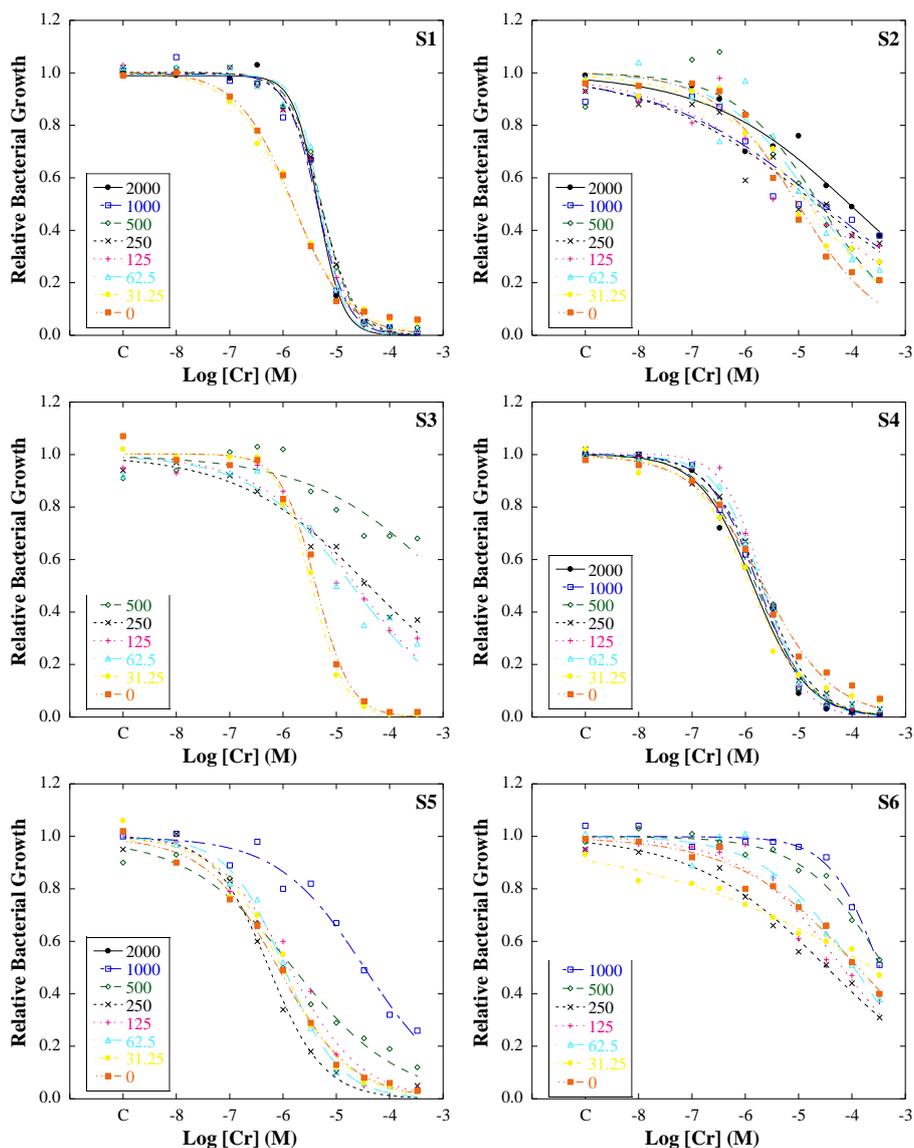
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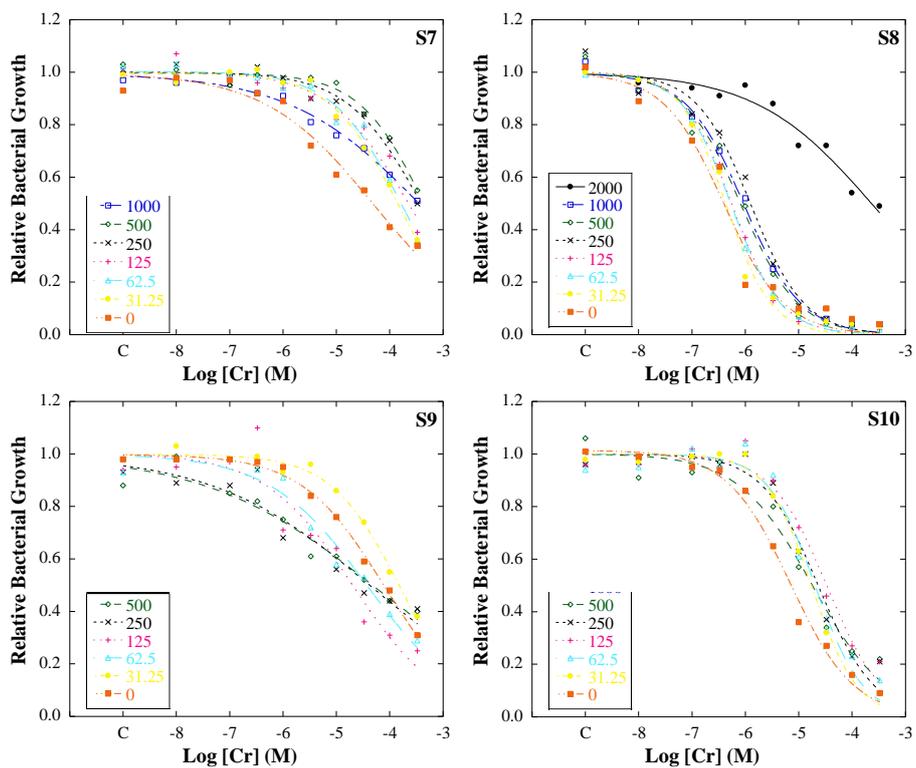
572 **Figures**



573

574 **Figure 1.** Bacterial growth inhibition curves for bacterial suspensions extracted from 10 soils
575 artificially polluted with a range of Cr concentrations: 2000, 1000, 500, 125, 62.5, 31.25 and 0
576 mg·kg⁻¹. Dots indicate real data measured, while the lines represent the fit of the data to the logistic
577 model used.

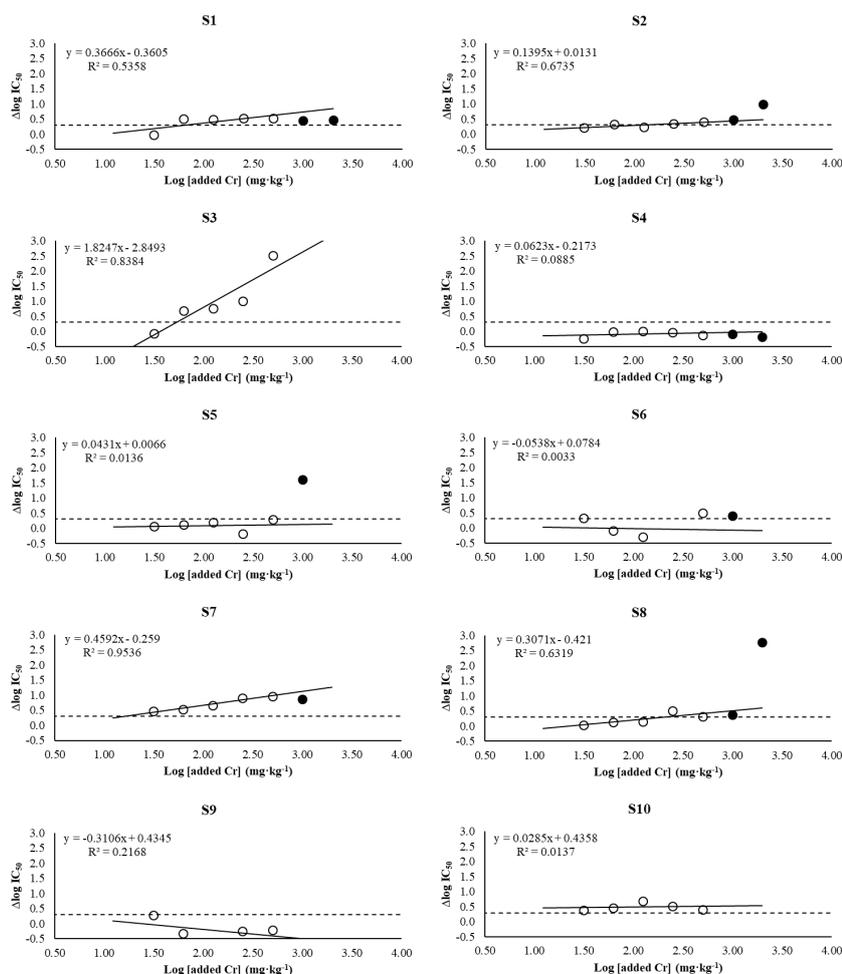
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580 **Figure 1** (continued)

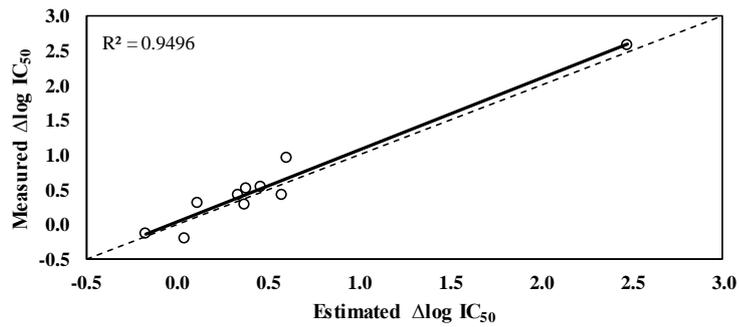
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583 **Figure 2** Bacterial community tolerance variation (expressed as $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ concerning
584 unpolluted soil) to a range of added Cr to soil (in logarithm scale). White dots represent
585 data from $\Delta \log IC_{50(31.25-0)}$, $\Delta \log IC_{50(62.5-0)}$, $\Delta \log IC_{50(125-0)}$, $\Delta \log IC_{50(250-0)}$ and $\Delta \log$
586 $IC_{50(500-0)}$. Black dots represent data from $\Delta \log IC_{50(1000-0)}$ and $\Delta \log IC_{50(2000-0)}$. Continuous
587 lines represent linear regression fit. The discontinuous line represents the value (0.3) from
588 which it is considered that the bacterial community has developed tolerance.

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590

591 **Figure 3.** Relationship between measured and estimated $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ using the equation

592 from Table 2. The stippled line indicated a 1:1 relationship.

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