1	SOIL BIOLOGY AND BIOCHEMISTRY
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3	Impact of single and binary mixtures of phenanthrene and N-PAHs on microbial utilisation of ¹⁴ C-glucose
4	in soil
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15 Abstract

16 Microbes are susceptible to contaminant effects, and high concentration of chemicals in soil can impact on 17 microbial growth, density, viability and development. The impact of single and binary mixtures of phenanthrene 18 and its nitrogen-containing polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon analogues (N-PAHs) on microbial metabolism of 19 ¹⁴C-glucose in soil was measured over a 90 d soil-contact time. Impacts were assessed by measuring the rates and 20 mean overall extents of mineralisation (%), as well as the incorporation of ¹⁴C-glucose into the microbial biomass. 21 The result revealed that the extents of ¹⁴C-glucose mineralisation were consistently greater in N-PAH amended 22 soils than the control and phenanthrene soils with increased incubations. This indicates a trend of increasing 23 diversion of C from biosynthesis to maintenance requirement by soil microorganisms. Furthermore, biomass 24 uptake in the amended soils showed reduced substrate utilization (fixed- k_{EC}), suggesting that N-PAHs decreased 25 the amount of substrate-C that was incorporated into the microbial biomass. This however, signifies that N-PAHs 26 imposes oxidative stress on soil microbial community. 27

Key words: N-PAHs, phenanthrene, ¹⁴C-biomass uptake, mineralisation, k_{EC} coefficient. 28

29

31 1. Introduction

32 The importance of microbial activity in the cycling of organic matter and regulating active nutrient pools suggests 33 that the effects of stress on microbial community will fundamentally impact on crops, natural vegetation and 34 ecosystem productivity (Killham, 1985; Anyanwu and Semple, 2016a; Siles and Margesin, 2017). Soil 35 microorganisms are very sensitive to environmental stress or change, and this often results in the diversion of 36 carbon from biosynthesis to maintenance of cells (Bargett and Saggar, 1994; Anyanwu and Semple, 2016a). Thus, 37 soil microbial biomass measurements are important in ascertaining the extent of chemical stress and/or 38 disturbance on soil ecosystem and the time dependence of microbial recovery. Most studies have used respiration 39 rate (Fournier et al., 1992; Nakamoto and Wakahara, 2004; Anyanwu and Semple, 2016a; Sun et al., 2017; Xu et 40 al., 2017) and changes in biomass (Anyanwu and Semple, 2016a; Mehnaz et al., 2017; Siles and Margesin, 2017). 41 Using a ¹⁴C-substrate, the influence of synthetic and organophosphate sheep dip formulations (Boucard et al., 42 2008), pesticides (Fournier et al., 1992), heavy metals (Bargett and Saggar, 1994; Bogomolov et al., 1996), sewage 43 sludge (Fließbach et al., 1994; Witter and Dahlin, 1995) and the ratio of ¹⁴C-biomass-incorporated with ¹⁴C-44 respired (Sparling and West, 1989; Sparling et al, 1990; Gunina et al., 2017), have been determined on soil 45 microbial activity. The approach of using ¹⁴C-glucose as a substrate to determine the ratio of respired-C, to 46 biomass-incorporated C, has shown that microorganisms in contaminated soils are less efficient in the utilization 47 of substrates for biomass synthesis and spend more energy in the maintenance requirements (Bargett and Saggar, 48 1994; Witter and Dahlin, 1995; Anyanwu and Semple, 2016a; Gunina et al., 2017). Thus, leading to a decrease in 49 the ratio, increases in stress, faster respiration, reduced efficiency of fresh substrate incorporation into new soil 50 microbial biomass and increased microbial turnover in contaminated soils (Fliebßach et al., 1994; Bargett and 51 Saggar, 1994; Witter and Dahlin, 1995; Boucard et al., 2008; Gunina et al., 2017; Bore et al., 2017). These studies 52 have revealed that the growth, activity and physiological conditions of soil microbial community may be altered 53 and/or destroyed by the presence of contaminants.

54 Persistent contaminants are of particular concern due to their toxicity and widespread pollution that has occurred 55 during production, spills, combustion and disposition (Beelen and Doelman, 1997; Anyanwu and Semple, 2015a); 56 examples include metals, pesticides and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). However, for sustainable 57 environmental policies and regulations, risk assessment of other persistent contaminants such as, the nitrogen-58 containing polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (N-PAHs) in the environment is of great importance. N-PAHs are 59 chemicals present in most contaminated sites worldwide and represent two-thirds of known organic xenobiotic chemically synthesized (Rajasekhar et al., 2000; Anyanwu and Semple, 2015a). For example, they are used as
industrial solvents, dyes, explosives, pharmaceuticals and pesticides (Kaiser et al., 1996). The US Environmental
Protection Agency (USEPA) and International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) classified N-PAHs as
probable human carcinogens (IARC, 2012). Furthermore, many of these N-PAHs are antimicrobial (Vance et al.,
1986; Ferraz et al., 2017); therefore, their accumulation is a major threat to microbes because they have the
potency of inducing oxidative stress to soil microorganisms and other biotas.

Despite the widespread uses of N-PAHs, and previous N-PAHs studies in literature (Anyanwu and Semple, 2015a; 2015b; 2016a; Anyanwu et al., 2017), there has not been information of their impacts on microbial utilization of ¹⁴C-glucose and/or synthesis of cell biomass in soil. Functionally, microbes can act as relevant indicators of environmental pollution; as a result, there is great need to assess the impact of N-PAHs on soil microbial metabolism and biosynthesis of cell biomass. In this study therefore, the impact of single and binary mixtures of phenanthrene and its nitrogen-containing analogues on microbial utilization of ¹⁴C-glucose was investigated over a 90 d incubation period in soil using respirometric assays.

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74 2. Materials and Methods

75 2.1 Chemicals

Phenanthrene (Phen), 1,10-phenanthroline (1,10-Phen), 1,7-phenanthroline (1,7-Phen), 4,7-phenanthroline (4,7Phen) and benzo[h]quinoline (B[h]Q) and radiolabelled ¹⁴C-glucose were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, UK.
Goldstar liquid scintillation cocktails were supplied by Meridian Biotechnologies Ltd, UK.

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80 2.2 Soil preparation

A pristine agricultural soil from Myerscough, UK, collected from the top layer of field under pasture, from a depth of approximately 5-20 cm was prepared for the study (n = 3). The soil texture was sandy-loam (19.5% clay, 60.4% sand, 20.0% silt), with organic matter content of 2.7%; total nitrogen of 0.14%; total organic carbon of 1.6% and pH 6.5. The soil was thoroughly homogenized, air dried at room temperature and sieved with 2 mm mesh size. The soil was rehydrated with deionised water back to 45% water holding capacity (WHC) and amended with phenanthrene and the N-PAH analogues as described in Doick et al. (2003). Soil samples were placed in bowls: 87 $\frac{1}{3}$ (100 g; n = 3) were amended with phenanthrene and four N-PAH standards (benzo[h]quinoline, 1,10-88 phenanthroline, 1,7-phenanthroline or 4,7-phenanthroline) dissolved in acetone to give concentration of 100 mg 89 kg⁻¹. The amended soils were kept in the fume hood for 3 h to allow the carrier solvent volatilize, after which the 90 soils were mixed with the remaining ²/₃ (200 g). Blanks were prepared using un-amended soils. Soils amended 91 with acetone only were also prepared to serve as a control. The amended soils were kept in amber glass jars and 92 aged in the dark at $21 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C for 1, 30, 60 and 90 d. Soil moisture content was checked regularly and lost water 93 was replenished with deionized water. After each ageing time (30 d interval), soils were analysed for microbial-94 substrate-mineralisation and biomass uptake. Extractability of phenanthrene and the N-PAH analogues from soil 95 over time, and their percentage recoveries has been reported by Anyanwu and Semple (2015b, 2016a) (Table 1).

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97 2.3 Mineralisation of ^{14}C -glucose in soil.

The ability of indigenous soil microorganisms to mineralise ¹⁴C-glucose to ¹⁴CO₂ was assessed at 1, 30, 60 and 90 98 99 d contact time. Respirometric assays were carried out in modified 250 ml Schott bottles incorporating a Teflon-100 lined screw cap containing 1 M NaOH to trap any ¹⁴CO₂ (Reid et al., 2001). A slurry system with a solid: liquid ratio of 2:1 (20 g soil: 10 ml sterile water) was used to ensure complete ^{12/14}C-glucose distribution. Standards were 101 prepared in sterilized deionised water and delivered to give a ¹²C-glucose concentration of 3 mM glucose solution 102 103 with an associated ¹⁴C-activity of 800 Bq per respirometer. Controls were also prepared. Respirometers were 104 shaken at 100 rpm on an orbital shaker (Janke and Kunkel, IKA[®]-Labortechnik KS 510D), in the dark at 21±1°C. 105 Sampling was carried out every 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 24 h and 2, 3, 4, 5 d with the vials containing trapped ¹⁴CO₂. 106 Goldstar liquid scintillation cocktail was added to the vials. The vials were stored in the dark for 24 h before 107 sample quantification was carried out by liquid scintillation counting (LSC) using standard calibration and quench 108 correction techniques (Reid et al., 2001).

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110 2.4 Uptake of ¹⁴C glucose into microbial biomass

After each 5 d incubation, soil samples from respirometers were divided into three portions and analysed asfollows:

a) *Sample oxidation:* The first sample was oven dried at 30°C and combusted in a sample oxidizer (Packard
307) to determine the level of ¹⁴C-activity remaining (i.e. residual ¹⁴C-activity in soil). Soil (1 g), plus

115 200 µl of combustAid was combusted for 3 min. Carbon-sorb-E (10 ml) and Permaflour-E (10 ml) was 116 used as CO_2 trap and scintillation fluid, respectively. Sample quantification was carried out using LSC. 117 b) Un-funigated extraction: The second sample (~4 g) was immediately extracted with 0.5 M K₂SO₄ (50 118 ml, pH 7) by shaking on an orbital shaker at 100 rpm for 30 min. The soil solutions were filtered using Whatman No 1 filter papers and an aliquot of 5 ml supernatant was added to 15 ml scintillation cocktail. 119 The quantification of ¹⁴C-activity was carried out using the LSC. 120 121 c) Funigated extraction: The third sample (~4 g) was placed in a desiccator and funigated with ethanolfree chloroform for 24 h to measure the ¹⁴C-activity within microbial biomass. After fumigation, the 122 123 samples were vented to remove chloroform residuals in the soil. After venting, samples were extracted 124 with 0.5 M K₂SO₄, filtered (using Whatman No 1 filter papers) and analysed as per the un-fumigated 125 extract. 126 127 2.5 Statistical analysis 128 The proportion of ¹⁴C-glucose incorporated into the microbial biomass was calculated as in Sparling et al. (1990) 129 and Boucard et al. (2008). 14 C-flush = 14 C-activity in fumigated soil – 14 C-activity in un-fumigated soil. 130

131 14 C-microbial biomass = 14 C-flush $\div k_{EC}$.

- A fixed *k_{EC}* coefficient (0.35) was used to convert C-flush into microbial biomass Sparling et al., 1990;
 Boucard et al., 2008).
- 1342. Variable k_{EC} coefficients were also calculated from each amendment, at all the ageing times, and the ¹⁴C-135microbial biomass was re-calculated with the new coefficient. This process is based on the assumption136that; the calculated ¹⁴C-labelled microbial-C is a representative of the total microbial biomass and that137all the ¹⁴C-activity not taken into account by mineralisation and un-fumigated soil extraction has been138incorporated into the microbial biomass with negligible amount of extracellular metabolite (Sparling et139al., 1990; Boucard et al., 2008).
- 140 $k_{EC} = ({}^{14}\text{C-flush}) \div ({}^{14}\text{C}_{\text{init}} {}^{14}\text{C}\text{-respired} {}^{14}\text{C}\text{-activity in un-fumigated soil}).$
- ¹⁴C-flush and ¹⁴C-microbial biomass were later on expressed as percentages of the initial ¹⁴C-activity
 (¹⁴C_{init}).

143 3. Biophysical quotients (BQ) were calculated as:

144 BQ = 14 CO₂ respired \div 14 C-microbial biomass (calculated from either fixed or variable k_{EC}).

Following blank corrections, data was statistically analysed using SigmaStat 3.5. Statistical significant differences between the impacts of phenanthrene, N-PAHs, and soil contact time on soil microbial activity following addition of ¹⁴C-glucose was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA). The statistical difference between the biomass calculated with fixed and variable k_{EC} was also determined. Results are statistically significant when p<0.05. Data was presented as mean ± SE and graphs were plotted using Sigma-Plot 10.0 version.

150

151 **3. Results**

152 3.1 Mineralisation of ${}^{14}C$ -glucose to ${}^{14}CO_2$ by soil microorganisms

The mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose in the presence of 100 mg kg⁻¹ phenanthrene and its N-PAH analogues was measured (Fig. 1 and 2). Upon the addition of glucose, there was a considerable increase in % mineralisation in the presence of the amended chemicals. However, the mineralisation of the ¹⁴C-substrate (glucose) in the presence of benzo[h]quinoline (B[h]Q) soil was reduced at 1 d compared to the control soils (Fig. 1 and 2).

The fastest rates of mineralisation were determined (Table 2), and the fastest rates ($^{14}CO_2 h^{-1}$) recorded maximum values after 24 h following addition of ^{14}C -glucose in all the amendments at all of the time points with the exception of 4,7-Phen, B[h]Q and Phen, which recorded their fastest rates 48 h after addition of ^{14}C -glucose (30 d) (Table 2). Furthermore, 1,10-Phen (single amendment) and 1,10-Phen + Phen (binary mixtures) recorded maximum fastest rates at 6 h (90 d). From the data, the fastest rates followed a trend of decreased values with increases in the soil-contact time. However, 1,7-Phen and B[h]Q amendments showed a dramatic rise of 50% and 70%, respectively, after 90 d (Table 2).

The extents of mineralisation (total ¹⁴CO₂-respired (%)) were determined (Table 2). The results revealed that the extents of mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose appeared to be consistently greater in amended soils than the control soils with increase in ageing time; with the exception of 1,10-Phen, 4,7-Phen and Phen amended soils (90 d). The overall extent of mineralisation followed a trend of increased ¹⁴C-glucose mineralisation at 1 d in all the amendments. Among the N-PAHs, however, B[h]Q soils recorded increased mineralisation with increase in soilcontact time, but, this declined a little at 90 d (Table 2). 170 While the extents of mineralisation in the single amendments displayed decreased and increased values, a 171 consistent decrease in ¹⁴C-glucose mineralisation was observed in the binary mixtures over time (Table 2). 172 Analysis of data among the treatment groups showed no statistically significant differences between the mean 173 values at 1 d (p>0.05); however, statistically significant differences was observed after 30 d (p<0.05) (Table 2). 174 Furthermore, statistical analysis of data showed statistically significance differences between phenanthrene and 175 N-PAH amended soils over time (p<0.05). In addition, incubation times were observed to affect the % 176 mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose in all the amendments at all the time points (p<0.001).

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178 3.2 Impact of phenanthrene and N-PAHs on the k_{EC} coefficients

179 The impact of 100 mg/kg phenanthrene and its nitrogen-containing analogues on the k_{EC} coefficients was 180 calculated (Table 2). It was noted that the fumigation-extraction released 0.3–15% of the incorporated microbial-181 C giving the calculated k_{EC} ranges of 0.003–0.149. However, variation among the chemical amendments was 182 observed in the calculated k_{EC} values obtained after the fumigation-extraction (Table 2). Furthermore, the 183 calculated k_{EC} values (0.003–0.149) were lower than the fixed k_{EC} value (0.35) in all the amendments (Table 2). 184 Although the data showed a disparaging statistical difference, all the amendments showed a similar trend of low 185 k_{EC} values at 1 d and 60 d and high k_{EC} values at 30 d and 90 d (with the exception of Phen and 1,7-Phen + Phen 186 chemicals). Also, the presence of 1,10-Phen and 1,7-Phen in soil recorded lower k_{EC} coefficients (30 d and 60 d) 187 compared to the control soil values (Table 2).

188 Soils amended with binary mixtures of phenanthrene and N-PAHs recorded low, but varying k_{EC} values compared 189 to the control soils at all the time points. For example, while control fixed k_{EC} values ranged from $3.06 \pm 0.87 -$ 190 19.92 ± 3.65 , values of $0.66 \pm 0.13 - 15.08 \pm 3.47$ and $1.12 \pm 0.11 - 9.93 \pm 1.22$ (fixed k_{EC}) were recorded in the 191 single amendments and binary mixtures, respectively. Also, while control values for variable $k_{EC} = 46.67 \pm 8.55$ 192 -63.45 ± 18.1 , values range of $34.03 \pm 3.11 - 62.45 \pm 11.22$ and $41.45 \pm 1.93 - 59.37 \pm 9.45$ (variable k_{EC}) were 193 measured (single amendments and binary mixtures, respectively) (Table 2). In addition, the calculated k_{EC} values 194 of $0.003 \pm 0.00 - 0.140 \pm 0.03$ (single amendments), and $0.007 \pm 0.00 - 0.013 \pm 0.00$ (binary mixtures) was 195 obtained, while, control values = $0.016 \pm 0.00 - 0.149 \pm 0.02$ (Table 2). Furthermore, incubation time was noted 196 to have statistically significant effect on the k_{EC} values in binary mixtures (p<0.001). Although not consistent, 197 there was a trend of increases in the extraction efficiency of K₂SO₄ at 30 d and 90 d.

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199 3.3 Uptake of ¹⁴C-glucose into microbial biomass

200 The incorporation of the ¹⁴C-susbstrate into the microbial biomass in soils amended with 100 mg/kg single and 201 binary mixtures of phenanthrene and the N-PAH analogues were calculated using fixed and variable k_{ECS} , 202 respectively (Table 2). Although not showing a consistent trend, the results showed that increase in fixed k_{EC} 203 values, lead to decrease in variable k_{EC} values and vice versa in all the amendments, with the exception of B[h]Q 204 amendment (Table 2). Statistical analysis of data showed statistically significant differences in the calculated data 205 for both the fixed and variable k_{EC} values obtained after 1 d – 90 d soil-contact time (p<0.001). Also, there was a 206 consistent trend of higher values in the C-flush resulting in higher biomass values (fixed k_{EC}) and lower biomass 207 values (variable k_{EC}) (Table 2).

208 The BQs (using biomass values calculated with fixed and variable k_{ECs}) was determined, and the results differed 209 significantly in all the amendments at all the time points (Table 2). For example, BQs calculated with the fixed 210 k_{EC} varied widely compared to that of the variable k_{EC} . Furthermore, the amended soils recorded significant BQ 211 values at 1 d compared with the control soils (p<0.05); and Phen amendment recorded the highest BQ value of 212 54.76% (Table 2). A trend of high BQ values at 1 d and 60 d (fixed k_{EC}), and low values at 30 d and 90 d (variable 213 k_{EC}) was observed in all of the amendments (Table 2). Among the chemical amendments, B[h]Q showed a 214 consistent increase in BQ value with increased ageing, recording values >1 (p<0.05). Although showing high 215 variability, the calculated BQs recorded high values with increased ageing in the binary mixtures.

216

217 4. Discussion

218 4.1 Mineralisation of ${}^{14}C$ -glucose to ${}^{14}CO_2$ by soil microorganisms

The impact of single and binary mixtures of phenanthrene and its nitrogen-containing analogues on microbial utilisation of ¹⁴C-glucose in soil was studied over a 90-d incubation. Loss of phenanthrene, benzo[h]quinoline, 1,10-phenanthroline, 1,7-phenanthroline or 4,7-phenanthroline through volatilisation was considered minimal due to the sealed nature of the incubations (Hofman et al., 2008; Towell et al., 2011). From the results, mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose was greater in the N-PAHs amended soils than the control soil after 1 d; indicating that microorganisms utilized energy for cell maintenance rather than biosynthesis of new cells. This phenomenon 225 agrees with the observations of Bargett and Saggar (1994), Witter and Dahlin (1995), Chnader and Joergensen 226 (2001), Boucard et al. (2008), and Bore et al. (2017). In support, Flieβbach et al. (1994) reported that in heavily 227 contaminated sites, soil respiration increased substantially compared to the corresponding low contaminated soils. 228 Respiration has been linked as a process and microbial biomass as a pool to metabolic quotient for CO_2 (qCO_2) 229 by Anderson and Domsch (1986). Thus, it is widely accepted that a high qCO_2 is a surprisingly common 230 characteristic of soil microbial biomass in chronically contaminated soils (Fließbach et al., 1994). This has been 231 suggested to be a useful indicator of oxidative stress in soils (Brookes, 1993; Mooshammer et al., 2017). In 232 addition, Gunina et al. (2017) reported that an increased qCO_2 indicates stress to the soil microbial community.

In this study, N-PAHs (B[h]Q amendment) recorded low mineralisation at 1 d; this is an evidence of reduced microbial substrate utilization efficiency under chemical stress. Hattori (1992) and Molaei et al. (2017) documented that initial microbial respiratory responses are the most sensitive in quantifying the impact of contaminants following their introduction into soil. However, the consistent increase in B[h]Q mineralisation after 30 d could be attributed to oxidative stress and/or chemical bioavailability, due to its lower K_{ow} (Anyanwu and Semple, 2015b, 2016a); since the total concentration did not exceed that of other amended soils.

239 A decline in mineralisation (%) was observed over time. The notable decline may be as a result of chemical 240 sequestration (into soil organic matter) there by rendering the contaminants less available to microorganisms 241 (Semple et al., 2007), microbial degradation (Anyanwu and Semple, 2015b; 2016a) and/or adaptation to toxicity 242 (Granato et al., 2017; Anyanwu and Semple, 2017b). Organic contaminants are known to be retained within the 243 soil through chemical or physical sequestration processes, such as binding, sorption to clay and/or soil organic 244 matter as well as occlusion within the 3-dimensional structure of the soil (Semple et al., 2007). Furthermore, 245 factors which include, soil organic matter content and physico-chemical properties of the chemical (aqueous 246 solubility, polarity, hydrophobicity, molecular structure, K_{ow}, and lipophilicity) are known to control the fate and 247 behaviour of organic contaminants (N-PAHs) in soil (Anyanwu and Semple, 2015b; 2017b; Zhu et al., 2017; 248 Doley et al., 2017).

249

250 4.2 Uptake of ¹⁴C-glucose into soil microbial biomass

251 The study revealed that microbial uptake in the chemically amended soils did, however, show reduced substrate
252 utilization. Thus, the amount of glucose incorporated was lower in amended soils. Studies have shown that

253 microorganisms subjected to stress exhibit a higher ratio of respired-C to biomass-incorporated-C; indicating a 254 reduced microbial substrate utilization efficiency under chemical stress and a change in community structure 255 following substrate addition (Bargett and Saggar, 1994; Witter and Dahlin, 1995; Frostegård et al., 1996; Knight 256 et al., 1997; Boucard et al., 2008; Gunina et al., 2017). Killham (1985) recorded that increasing stress often causes 257 a reduction in soil respiration, soil dehydrogenase activity and an increase in the ratio of respired-C to biomass 258 incorporated-C. Furthermore, the decreased biomass uptake observed with N-PAHs (B[h]Q) over time may be 259 attributed to microbial toxicity and/or oxidative stress as shown by the consistent increase in BQ to >1. (It should 260 be noted that BO values >1 signifies oxidative stress to microbial community). McGrath et al. (1995) observed 261 that long-term exposure results in decreased soil microbial biomass. In this study, it may be because 262 microorganisms differ in their sensitivity to chemicals and prolonged N-PAHs exposure may have increased the 263 mortality of cells due to disturbance in the normal functioning, and/or gradually changed the community sizes due 264 to alterations in viability or competence (Van Beelen and Doelman, 1997; Giller et al., 1998; Anyanwu and 265 Semple 2016a; Molaei et al., 2017; Siles and Margesin, 2017).

Biomass uptake varied significantly over time; and the variations among chemicals were observed to be consistent. This confirms the findings of Chander and Brookes (1991); Bardgett and Sagger (1994); Boucard et al. (2008). Despite the variations, however, it could be concluded that soil microorganisms subjected to long term N-PAH exposure, may not be able to maintain the same overall biomass as in un-contaminated soil.

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271 4.3 Impact of phenanthrene and its nitrogen-containing analogues on the k_{EC} coefficient

The K_{EC} coefficient is related to the extractability from the soil of the microbial-C after it has been released from dead fumigated cells. The k_{EC} coefficient, which is used to convert the C-flush of oxidizable organic-C to microbial-C, allows for the incomplete release and extraction of microbial-C, and was obtained by calibrating against alternative methods to estimate the microbial-C (Sparling et al., 1990).

276 Variation in k_{EC} coefficients (fixed and variable) was observed. The observed variations in k_{EC} coefficients after 277 fumigation are consistent with the findings in water content (Sparling and West, 1989; Ross, 1990 b) and sheep 278 dip formulation (Boucard et al., 2008). The cause is not known, however, difference in chemical amendments 279 may be attributable. This portrays the impact of contaminants on soil microbial uptake and further showed that 280 the fixed k_{EC} coefficient (0.35), fails to consider the impact of contaminated sites on soil microorganism; thus overestimating (and/or underestimating) the biomass uptakes in contaminated soils (if the biomass uptakes calculated with the variable k_{EC} values are considered to be more accurate). In addition, the calculated k_{EC} coefficient showed that PAH and N-PAH contaminants can greatly affect the amount of substrate-C extracted by 0.5 M K₂SO₄ after fumigation.

285 In this present study, it could be that: (1) N-PAHs may have impacted the k_{EC} coefficients by influencing the 286 factors that modify the toxicity of contaminants in soil; such as, physico-chemical properties and/or the 287 physiological state of the microbes (Boucard et al., 2008; Siles and Margesin, 2017); or (2) The impact of N-288 PAHs may have resulted in a possible reduction in the efficiency of chloroform disintegration of the microbial 289 cell membrane (lysis) or interference with the K₂SO₄ extraction (Sparling et al., 1990; Joergensen et al., 1995; 290 Badalocco et al., 1997; Boucard et al., 2008). However, N-PAHs bioavailability and/or differences in microbial 291 community structure between soils that vary in their sensitivity to chemical toxicity (Butler et al., 2011), could be 292 an important factor in explaining the variability in k_{EC} coefficients.

293

294 5. Conclusions

295 In this current study, the presence of N-PAHs resulted in alterations to soil microbial activity and functions. It 296 could be that the increased energy requirement for repair and maintenance probably was the main reason for the 297 increased respiration, but synergistic process cannot be neglected. However, the study was unable to ascertain if 298 the biomass uptakes in the chemically amended soils were characterized by either a low substrate utilization 299 efficiency or death rate; if stress increased the burden of the microbial community. Nevertheless, B[h]Q, may 300 have persistent deleterious impacts on soil microorganisms. From an ecotoxicity perspective, future investigations 301 should consider the impact of these contaminants on changes in the soil microbial community structure. Further 302 studies could also investigate the development of bacterial and fungal degrading populations within the microbial 303 community which may be able to exploit the C and N for their metabolic needs.

304

305 Acknowledgment

306 This work was funded by Petroleum Technology Development Fund (PTDF), Nigeria.

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1 able 1. Extractability (%) of phenanthrene and its N-PAHs from son over this	444	Table 1. Extractability	(%) of phenanthrene and i	ts N-PAHs from soil over time
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	Initial	Mean chemicals extracted (mg/kg)						
Chemical	chemical conc (mg/kg)	Time (d)						
		0	30	60	90			
Phen	100	78.00 ± 8.00	42.10±5.70	11.30 ± 3.10	3.10 ± 0.30			
1,7-Phen	100	$59.30{\pm}9.00$	54.40±12.50	49.60 ± 4.00	38.00 ±8.00			
B[h]Q	100	59.20 ± 9.00	89.40 ± 7.00	64.10 ± 6.00	58.70 ± 4.20			
4,7-Phen	100	91.90 ± 4.20	41.70 ± 6.40	29.30 ± 4.00	29.60 ± 3.90			

445 Source: Anyanwu and Semple (2015b).

Chemical	Time (d)	Fastest rates (% h ⁻¹)	Respired ¹⁴ CO ₂ (%)	C–flush ^a	Biomass uptake ^b (<i>fixed</i> $k_{EC} = 0.35$)	Biophysical quotient ^c	Biomass uptake ^d (variable k _{EC})	Biophysical quotient ^e	Calculated k_{EC}^{f}
	1	0.46 ± 0.08	42.62 ± 2.20	2.59 ± 0.33	7.41 ± 0.94 **	5.75 ± 2.32*	$53.42 \pm 6.81 **$	0.79 ± 0.32	0.048 ± 0.00
	30	0.25 ± 0.01	35.07 ± 0.45*	3.63 ± 0.57	10.36 ± 1.63**	3.38 ± 0.27	$54.02 \pm 8.52 **$	0.64 ± 0.05	0.067 ± 0.01
Control	60	0.18 ± 0.03	31.07 ± 2.00*	1.07 ± 0.31	$3.06 \pm 0.87 **$	10.15 ± 2.28	63.45 ± 18.1**	0.48 ± 0.11	0.016 ± 0.00
	90	0.18 ± 0.00	$28.42 \pm 1.26^*$	6.97 ± 1.28	19.92 ± 3.65**	1.42 ± 0.34	46.67 ± 8.55**	0.60 ± 0.14	0.149 ± 0.02
	1	0.43 ± 0.02	38.81 ± 2.84	1.49 ± 0.27	$4.24 \pm 0.77 **$	$9.14 \pm 0.00*$	58.91 ± 10.78**	0.65 ± 0.26	0.025 ± 0.00
	30	0.29 ± 0.02	$36.98 \pm 0.81*$	2.96 ± 0.02	$8.46 \pm 0.06^{**}$	4.72 ± 0.03	51.90 ± 0.39**	0.71 ± 2.02	0.057 ± 0.00
1,10-Phen	60	0.23 ± 0.03	31.83 ± 1.55*	0.77 ± 0.36	2.21 ± 1.04**	14.42 ± 0.00	61.00 ± 23.82**	0.52 ± 0.05	0.012 ± 0.00
	90	0.15 ± 0.03	$23.13 \pm 1.70*$	2.35 ± 0.04	$6.72 \pm 0.10 **$	3.44 ± 0.08	56.01 ± 0.85**	0.41 ± 1.98	$0.04\ 2\pm 0.00$
	1	0.43 ± 0.02	41.77 ± 1.99	2.27 ± 0.08	$6.49 \pm 0.22 **$	$6.43 \pm 0.01*$	54.21± 1.87**	0.76 ± 1.06	0.041 ± 0.00
1.7 Dhan	30	0.30 ± 0.03	36.90 ± 1.27*	2.82 ± 0.32	$8.05 \pm 0.90 **$	4.58 ± 0.00	51.35 ± 5.79**	0.71 ± 0.21	0.054 ± 0.00
1,/-Phen	60	0.21 ± 0.02	36.83 ± 2.06*	1.67 ± 0.74	4.77 ± 2.11**	7.72 ± 0.00	53.72 ± 23.83**	0.68 ± 0.08	0.031 ± 0.01
	90	0.50 ± 0.07	34.74 ± 2.43*	5.28 ± 1.22	$15.08 \pm 3.47 **$	2.30 ± 0.00	37.49 ± 8.63**	0.92 ± 0.28	0.140 ± 0.03
	1	0.26 ± 0.03	33.51 ± 2.93	0.31 ± 0.06	$0.90 \pm 0.16^{**}$	$37.24 \pm 0.03*$	62.45 ± 11.22**	0.53 ± 0.26	0.005 ± 0.00
4.7.01	30	0.22 ± 0.03	35.31 ± 1.78*	3.03 ± 0.44	8.65 ± 1.25**	4.08 ± 0.00	56.11 ± 8.16**	0.62 ± 0.21	0.053 ± 0.01
4,/-Pnen	60	0.20 ± 0.00	$33.57 \pm 0.27*$	1.27 ± 0.16	$3.64 \pm 0.44 **$	9.22 ± 0.00	57.71 ± 7.10**	0.58 ± 0.03	0.022 ± 0.00
	90	0.17 ± 0.04	27.31 ± 2.35*	2.21 ± 0.62	6.31 ± 1.77**	4.32 ± 0.00	39.41 ± 11.08**	0.69 ± 0.21	0.056 ± 0.01
	1	0.37 ± 0.05	39.61 ± 1.83	0.53 ± 0.09	$1.52 \pm 0.25 **$	$26.01 \pm 0.01*$	56.72 ± 9.43**	0.69 ± 0.19	0.009 ± 0.00
DULIC	30	0.28 ± 0.03	42.52 ± 2.73*	3.06 ± 0.61	8.75 ± 1.72**	4.85 ± 0.00	46.12 ± 9.11**	0.92 ± 0.29	0.066 ± 0.01
B[u]Q	60	0.34 ± 0.05	$44.62 \pm 2.30*$	1.13 ± 0.47	3.22 ± 1.33**	13.86 ± 0.00	41.51 ± 17.26**	1.07 ± 0.13	0.027 ± 0.01
	90	0.70 ± 0.05	37.01 ± 2.25*	2.50 ± 0.23	$7.16 \pm 0.65 **$	5.17 ± 0.01	34.03 ± 3.11**	1.08 ± 0.72	0.073 ± 0.00
	1	0.35 ± 0.02	36.42 ±1.21	0.23 ± 0.00	0.66 ± 0.13**	$54.76 \pm 0.17*$	60.99 ± 1.27**	0.59 ± 0.95	0.003 ± 0.00
D I	30	0.27 ± 0.01	37.17 ± 0.92*	3.32 ± 0.18	$9.48 \pm 0.51 **$	3.91 ± 0.00	42.74 ± 2.31**	0.86 ± 0.39	0.077 ± 0.00
Phen	60	0.23 ± 0.01	32.01 ± 2.47*	1.39 ± 1.03	3.96 ± 2.94**	8.07 ± 0.00	58.41 ± 43.33**	0.54 ± 0.05	0.023 ± 0.01
	90	0.19 ± 0.01	$26.78 \pm 0.21*$	2.19 ± 0.35	6.27 ± 1.00**	4.27 ± 0.00	$51.48 \pm 8.24 **$	0.52 ± 0.02	0.042 ± 0.00
1,10-	1	0.41 ± 0.07	41.82 ± 3.49	0.64 ± 0.08	$1.82 \pm 0.21 **$	$22.02 \pm 0.03*$	$50.59 \pm 6.09 **$	0.82 ± 0.57	0.012 ± 0.00
Phen+Phen	30	0.26 ± 0.04	$36.20 \pm 2.80*$	1.53 ± 0.56	$4.39 \pm 1.58 **$	8.25 ± 0.00	55.02 ± 19.92**	0.65 ± 0.14	0.027 ± 0.01

Table 2. Distribution of ¹⁴C-glucose in soils amended with 100 mg/kg single and binary mixtures of phenanthrene and its N-PAH analogues after 5 d

	60	0.25 ± 0.02	$36.33 \pm 1.44*$	1.13 ± 1.16	$3.73 \pm 3.31 **$	9.74 ± 0.00	$53.70 \pm 47.77 **$	0.67 ± 0.03	0.024 ± 0.02
	90	0.15 ± 0.03	$23.87\pm0.87*$	2.47 ± 0.42	$7.05 \pm 1.20 **$	3.38 ± 0.00	$50.07 \pm 8.55 **$	0.47 ± 0.10	0.049 ± 0.00
	1	0.44 ± 0.10	42.72 ± 2.11	0.77 ± 0.11	$2.19\pm0.31^{**}$	$19.51 \pm 0.01*$	$55.99 \pm 8.12 **$	0.79 ± 0.25	0.013 ± 0.00
1,7-	30	0.26 ± 0.04	$38.02 \pm 1.10*$	2.56 ± 0.18	$7.32 \pm 0.51 **$	5.19 ± 0.00	$52.74 \pm 3.70 **$	0.72 ± 0.29	0.048 ± 0.00
Phen+Phen	60	0.25 ± 0.03	36.41 ± 2.38*	1.44 ± 0.61	$4.10 \pm 1.74 **$	8.87 ± 0.00	53.44 ± 22.77**	0.68 ± 0.10	0.026 ± 0.01
	90	0.40 ± 0.04	31.99 ± 2.22*	2.50 ± 0.12	$7.16 \pm 0.33 **$	4.47 ± 0.03	$41.45 \pm 1.93^{**}$	0.77 ± 1.14	0.060 ± 0.00
4,7-	1	0.53 ± 0.02	44.20 ± 0.72	0.52 ± 0.08	$1.47 \pm 0.23^{**}$	$29.98 \pm 0.00*$	59.37 ± 9.45**	0.74 ± 0.07	0.008 ± 0.00
	30	0.27 ± 0.01	$39.88 \pm 1.00*$	3.30 ± 0.28	$9.44 \pm 0.79^{**}$	4.22 ± 0.00	$53.39 \pm 4.49 **$	0.74 ± 0.22	0.061 ± 0.00
Phen+Phen	60	0.21 ± 0.03	$35.89 \pm 1.93*$	1.89 ± 1.19	$5.41 \pm 3.39 **$	6.63 ± 0.00	$57.95 \pm 36.37 **$	0.61 ± 0.05	0.032 ± 0.02
	90	0.28 ± 0.05	31.21 ± 1.62*	3.02 ± 0.61	8.63 ± 1.73**	3.61 ± 0.00	52.73 ± 10.57**	0.59 ± 0.15	0.057 ± 0.01
BhQ+Phen	1	0.43 ± 0.04	43.89 ± 1.91	0.39 ± 0.04	$1.12 \pm 0.11 **$	39.21 ± 0.03*	$54.64 \pm 5.66^{**}$	0.80 ± 0.33	0.007 ± 0.00
	30	0.31 ± 0.04	$42.91 \pm 1.73*$	2.38 ± 0.22	$6.79 \pm 0.61 **$	6.31 ± 0.00	$49.32 \pm 4.48 **$	0.86 ± 0.38	0.048 ± 0.00
	60	0.37 ± 0.03	43.00 ± 2.00*	2.42 ± 0.14	$6.92 \pm 0.39 **$	6.21 ± 0.01	50.66 ± 2.92**	0.84 ± 0.68	0.047 ± 0.00
	90	0.34 ± 0.05	32.63 ± 2.34*	3.48 ± 0.43	$9.93 \pm 1.22^{**}$	3.28 ± 0.00	44.93 ± 5.55**	0.72 ± 0.24	0.077 ± 0.00

^a C-flush = 14 C-activity in fumigated soil- 14 C- activity in un-fumigated soil

^{b 14}C-microbial biomass = ¹⁴C-flush/fixed k_{EC} 0.35

^c BQ = ¹⁴C respired/¹⁴C in biomass (using fixed k_{EC} 0.35)

^{d 14}C-microbial biomass = ¹⁴C-flush/variable k_{EC}

^e BQ = ¹⁴C respired/¹⁴C in biomass (using variable k_{EC})

 ${}^{f}k_{EC} = ({}^{14}C-flush)/(initial {}^{14}C-activity added-{}^{14}C respired-{}^{14}Cactivity in un-fumigated soil)$

Conc = 100 mg/kg

n = 3

* = p<0.05

** = p<0.001





Fig. 1. Microbial mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose in soils amended with phenanthrene and its N-PAH analogues (single amendments). The 1–90 d incubation graphs shows: control (•), 1,10-Phen (\circ), 1,7-Phen ($\mathbf{\nabla}$), 4,7-Phen (Δ), B[h]Q (•) and Phen (\Box). Conc = 100 mg/kg.



TIME (h)

% MINERALISATION



TIME (h)

Fig. 2. Microbial mineralisation of ¹⁴C-glucose in soils amended with phenanthrene and its N-PAH analogues (binary mixtures). The 1–90 d incubation graphs shows: control (\bullet), 1,10-Phen + Phen (\circ), 1,7-Phen + Phen (\blacktriangledown), 4,7-Phen + Phen (Δ) and B[h]Q + Phen (\blacksquare). Conc = 100 mg/kg.