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1 Effect of different Cu based fungicides on microbial biomass, microbial community
2 structure and bacterial community tolerance to Cu

3

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10

11 ABSTRACT:

12 The effect of Cu on three different microbial endpoints was studied comparing pure Cu
13 salts and commercial Cu fungicides. Cu additions caused similar dose-response curves of
14 substrate induced respiration (SIR) decreases regardless of Cu source, i.e. the use of pure
15 Cu salts to estimate the effect of Cu fungicides on bacterial biomass using SIR may be
16 useful. Phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis showed that Cu source was more relevant
17 for the bacterial community structure than Cu concentration; thus, the use of Cu salts to
18 infer the effects of Cu fungicides on microbial community structure via PLFA analysis
19 isn't recommended. Pollution induced community tolerance (PICT) to Cu analysis
20 showed that the use of pure Cu salts may overestimate Cu effects if Cu salt additions
21 modified the soil pH. Therefore, the use of pure Cu salts to estimate the Cu fungicides
22 effects on soil microbes isn't correct for PLFAs analyses, not suitable for PICT at high
23 Cu concentrations, while allowed for SIR although not recommendable.

24

25 Keywords: commercial Cu fungicides, pure salt copper, PLFA, SIR, PICT

26 **1. Introduction**

27 One of main sources of Cu in agricultural soils is the use of Cu-based fungicides (Epstein
28 et al, 2001; Merrigton et al, 2002). In vineyard soils, these fungicides are used against
29 diseases such as mildew. Consequently, high Cu accumulations are commonly found in
30 vineyard-devoted soils (Komarek et al, 2008). Copper accumulated in soils may be toxic
31 for soil microbial communities (Lebrun et al, 2012; Mackie et al, 2013), which may be
32 affected by Cu pollution by many ways, including reductions in biomass and changes in
33 microbial community structure (Tang et al., 2019). Also, soil pollution by Cu can induce
34 increases in the bacterial community tolerance to Cu (Berg et al., 2012; Fernández
35 Calviño et al., 2012). Laboratory and field experiments clearly show effects of Cu
36 additions to soils on microbial biomass (Bogomolov et al., 1996; Knight et al., 1997),
37 microbial community structure (Frostegård et al., 1993) or bacterial community tolerance
38 to Cu (Díaz-Raviña and Bååth, 1996; Brandt et al., 2010). However, these experiments,
39 as most of the experiments on the effects of heavy metals on microbial communities, were
40 performed using pure Cu salts such as $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ or CuSO_4 . Adding pure Cu salts to soil
41 may highly reduce soil pH and thus affect microbial communities not only by the toxicity
42 of Cu, but also by changing the soil pH and thereby increasing Cu availability in the soil
43 (Degryse et al., 2009). Therefore, the use of pure Cu salts in the experiments may lead to
44 wrong conclusions since pure Cu salts are not generally used as fungicide in wine growing
45 practice.

46

47 In a previous study comparing the effects of Cu on soil microbial activity (respiration,
48 and bacterial and fungal growth; Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020) important differences on
49 the effects of pure Cu salts and commercial Cu fungicides were found. Generally, the
50 negative effects of Cu were higher using pure Cu salts than using commercial Cu

51 fungicides. However, effects of pure Cu salts and commercial Cu fungicides differed
52 depending on the endpoint used. Thus, the general bacterial growth response pattern as
53 function of Cu concentrations was similar for all Cu sources, with only differences in the
54 magnitude of Cu toxicity. On the other hand, the general basal soil respiration and fungal
55 growth response pattern were significantly different between pure Cu salts and
56 commercial Cu fungicides. Therefore, similar studies should be extended to other
57 endpoints in order to have a more general view about possible differences in their
58 response.

59 The aim of this work thus was to study the toxicity of pure copper salts [$\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ and
60 CuSO_4] and commercial Cu fungicides (used by farmers in vineyards), on different
61 aspects of the microbial community in soil: on microbial biomass (using substrate induced
62 respiration, SIR), microbial community structure (using the phospholipid fatty acid
63 (PLFA) pattern) and finally on the bacterial community tolerance to Cu (using the ^3H
64 leucine incorporation method).

65

66 **2. Materials and methods**

67 *2.1 Copper sources*

68 Six different Cu sources were used, four commercial Cu-based fungicides [Ridomil Gold
69 plus (RGP), Covicampo bordeless (BM), ZZ-Cuprocol (ZZ) and Oxicol-50 (OX)] and
70 two pure copper salts [Copper Nitrate ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) and Copper Sulfate (CuSO_4)]. The
71 characteristics of the six Cu sources were previously described in Vázquez-Blanco et al.
72 (2020), and shown in Table S1 (Supplementary material).

73

74 *2.2 Experimental design*

75 The same vineyard soil and spiking procedure used previously by Vázquez-Blanco et al.
76 (2020) was used in the present work. The soil was developed over schist and presents a
77 loam texture (50% of sand, 37% of silt and 13% of clay), is slightly acid (pH 6.6), presents
78 a total carbon content of 18 g kg⁻¹ and a total Cu concentration of 29 mg kg⁻¹. The soil
79 spiking with Cu procedure was as follows: dry soil was weighted in 64 polypropylene
80 jars (50 g on each one), rewetted until 30% of water holding capacity to recover the
81 microbial activity, and incubated at 22 °C for 7 days. Then soil samples were spiked with
82 Cu (in solutions) using the four types of commercial fungicides and the 2 pure Cu salts.
83 Each Cu source was added to the soil (in duplicate) in 5 concentrations: 2, 4, 8, 16 and 32
84 mmol kg⁻¹. Also, 4 soil subsamples were used as controls without Cu additions, resulting
85 in 64 soil microcosms with a final soil moisture of 60% of the water holding capacity.
86 Subsamples were incubated with lids at room temperature, aerated frequently, and the
87 moisture content was maintained at a constant level throughout the incubation period by
88 adding water if necessary. Substrate induced respiration (SIR) was measured after 91
89 incubation days, PLFA analysis was performed after 30 and 110 days, while bacterial
90 community tolerance to Cu and pH were estimated after 40 and 45 days respectively.
91 The addition of increasing Cu concentrations to the soil caused clear pH dose-response
92 curves (decreasing soil pH as Cu concentration increased) for pure Cu salts, while
93 changes in pH induced by increasing Cu concentrations of commercial Cu fungicides
94 became negligible (Table S2, supplementary material; Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020).

95

96 *2.3. Substrate induced respiration (SIR)*

97 We estimated the soil microbial biomass using the substrate-induced-respiration (SIR)
98 method of Anderson and Domsch (1978). Briefly, 50 mg of glucose and talcum (4:1)
99 were added to 2 grams of soil weighed in 20 mL glass vials, and then mixed by shaking

100 the vials with hand during 10 seconds. After 30 minutes, the headspace atmosphere was
101 purged with air and the vials sealed with crimp caps. Then, soil samples were incubated
102 for 2-4 hours at 22°C and finally the CO₂ in the head space was determined using a gas
103 chromatograph equipped with a methanizer and a flame ionization detector (FID).

104

105 *2.4. Phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis*

106 The microbial community structure was determined by phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA)
107 methodology (Frostegård et al., 1993a). Briefly, lipids were extracted from soil with a
108 chloroform:methanol:citrate buffer mixture (1:2:0.8 (v/v/v)) and separated into neutral
109 lipids, glycolipids and phospholipids using a pre-packed silica column. Then
110 phospholipids were subjected to a mild alkaline methanolysis and the fatty acid methyl
111 esters were identified by gas chromatography (flame ionization detector) by the relative
112 retention times of the fatty acids, using methyl nondecanoate (19:0) as internal standard.

113

114 *2.5. Bacterial community tolerance to Cu (PICT)*

115 Cu tolerance of the soil bacterial community was measured essentially according to Bååth
116 (1992) and Díaz-Raviña et al. (1994) with the modifications of Fernandez-Calviño and
117 Bååth (2016). Bacterial suspensions were extracted from soil samples using the
118 homogenization/centrifugation method. Then, in a 2 mL micro-centrifugation tube, 1.35
119 mL of bacterial suspension were mixed with 0.15 mL of 7 different concentrations of Cu
120 as CuSO₄ (between 3 x 10⁻³ and 3 x 10⁻⁷ M Cu final concentration) plus a control with
121 distilled water. Bacterial growth was then measured on each micro-centrifugation tube
122 using ³H leucine (Leu) incorporation into bacteria (Bååth et al., 2001).

123 The bacterial community tolerance to copper was estimated as logIC₅₀, the logarithm of
124 the added concentration that resulted in 50% inhibition of growth. LogIC₅₀ was calculated

125 using a logistic model, $Y = c/[1-e^{b(X-a)}]$, where Y is the measured level of Leu
126 incorporation, X is the logarithm of the concentration of Cu added to the bacterial
127 suspension, a is the $\log IC_{50}$, c the bacterial growth rate without added Cu, and b a slope
128 parameter indicating the inhibition rate. A higher value of $\log IC_{50}$ indicates a higher
129 community tolerance, while a lower value indicates that Cu is more toxic to the
130 community. The Pollution Induced Community Tolerance (PICT) was estimated as
131 $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ normalizing the effect of Cu pollution to the control subtracting $\log IC_{50}$ in the
132 unpolluted controls for each polluted soil sample.

133

134 *2.6. Bacterial community tolerance to pH*

135 The bacterial community tolerance to Cu was measured according Fernández-Calviño
136 and Bååth (2010). Essentially it is the same procedure as for Cu tolerance, but instead
137 0.15 mL of Cu solutions, buffers with different pH values were used (4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0
138 and 8.0). The results were fitted to the cardinal pH model (Rosso et al., 1995), to estimate
139 bacterial community optimum pH after incubation with different Cu sources and
140 concentrations. $A = A_{\max}(\text{pH} - \text{pH}_{\min})(\text{pH} - \text{pH}_{\max})/[(\text{pH} - \text{pH}_{\min})(\text{pH} - \text{pH}_{\max}) - (\text{pH} -$
141 $\text{pH}_{\text{opt}})^2]$ where A is the bacterial growth rate and pH is the pH of the bacterial suspension
142 using the different buffers. pH_{\min} , pH_{opt} and pH_{\max} are the minimum, optimum and
143 maximum pH for bacterial growth, and A_{\max} is the bacterial growth at pH_{opt} .

144

145 *2.7 Statistics*

146 Mean \pm SD values of the different analyzed variables are shown (n=3). Concentrations of
147 all the individual PLFAs data, expressed as mole percentage and logarithmically
148 transformed, were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) to elucidate the main
149 differences in the PLFA patterns. Correlation coefficients to different PC axes and soil

150 variables were calculated as simple correlations. SPSS 23.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA)
151 was used for all statistical calculations.

152

153 **3. Results**

154 *3.1. Microbial biomass (SIR) response to Cu pollution*

155 Substrate induced respiration (SIR) decreased as a function of Cu concentrations after 91
156 days incubation. For the lowest Cu dose (2 mmol kg⁻¹), SIR decreased more than 5 % for
157 all copper sources, while for the highest dose, SIR decreased more than 40% for all copper
158 sources. Differences between Cu sources were thus minor, with no clear differences
159 between commercial Cu fungicides and pure Cu salts.

160

161 *3.2. Changes in the microbial community structure*

162 After 30 incubation days, PC1 explain 42% of the variance in the PLFA pattern, while
163 PC2 explain 21% (Fig 2a, b). The samples formed three different groups. Pure copper
164 salts, Cu(NO₃)₂ and CuSO₄, were grouped close to the control; another group was
165 Bordeaux mixture and Oxicol-50 samples, mainly differentiating along PC2. The last
166 group was composed by ZZ-cuprocol and RGP, with highest scores along PC1. Thus, the
167 type of Cu source seemed to be more important than the Cu concentrations of each sample
168 early after adding Cu.

169 After 110 incubation days, 24% and 19% of the variance in the PLFA pattern was
170 explained by PC1 and PC2, respectively but there were no clear grouping of samples in
171 relation to Cu sources or concentrations (Figure S3, supplementary material). However,
172 after 110 days scores along PC3 (explaining 14% of the variation) correlated to the
173 logarithm of added Cu ($r=-0.73$; $P<0.05$), irrespective of Cu source (Fig. 2c, d). For PC1
174 the most relevant PLFAs were (loadings within parenthesis): a15:0 (0.93), i15:0 (0.78),

175 i14:0 (0.78), i16:0 (0.74), i17:0 (0.67), 14:0 (0.65), 18:1 ω 9 (-0.75) and 18:1 ω 7 (-0.73),
176 while for PC3 relevant PLFAs were br18 (0.81), 10Me17 (0.77), 10Me16b (0.75), br17
177 (0.69), cy17:0 (-0.65) and 16:1 ω 7 (-0.61).

178

179

180 3.3. Bacterial community tolerance to Cu as function of Cu source

181 For all Cu sources, there was a clear dose response curve between Cu concentration and
182 bacterial community tolerance to Cu ($\Delta \log IC_{50}$), i.e, higher Cu concentrations caused
183 increased bacterial community tolerance to Cu (Figure 3). However, the magnitude of
184 these increases was different for the different Cu sources, especially for higher Cu
185 concentrations. For lower Cu doses (2 and 4 mmol kg⁻¹), the increases in log IC₅₀ were
186 similar for all Cu sources. For higher doses (8, 16 and 32 mmol kg⁻¹) bacterial community
187 tolerance to Cu increases were higher for pure Cu salts than for commercial Cu
188 fungicides. Bacterial communities polluted with Cu (NO₃)₂ salt, greatly increase their
189 tolerance to Cu. $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ for Cu (NO₃)₂ was 2.8 for 32 mmol kg⁻¹ Cu dose, meaning
190 that bacterial community tolerance to Cu increased more than 600 times at the highest
191 concentration. In the case of CuSO₄, maximum $\Delta \log IC_{50}$ was 2.5, equivalent to 300 times
192 higher bacterial community tolerance to Cu for the highest Cu dose (32 mmol kg⁻¹) than
193 for the control. For the highest Cu dose (32 mmol kg⁻¹), bacterial community tolerance to
194 Cu increased 1.3 log units for CB, 1.9 for RGP, 2.0 for ZZ and 2.2 for OX. Thus, bacterial
195 community tolerance to Cu for commercial copper sources increased around of 20 to 160
196 times for the highest Cu dose.

197

198

199

200 3.4. Optimum pH for bacterial community growth

201 In the control soil, the optimum pH was 6.6 (Figure 4). For all Cu sources, bacterial
202 communities had optimum pH for growth around this values for 2, 4 and 8 mmol Cu kg⁻¹
203 ¹ concentrations. For higher doses (16 and 32 mmol kg⁻¹), different Cu sources showed
204 different results. Bacterial communities from soils polluted with pure Cu salts decreased
205 optimum pH for growth to 4.5 for Cu(NO₃)₂ and 5.4 for CuSO₄ using 32 mmol Cu kg⁻¹
206 Cu. The RGP copper source has a similar behaviour to pure copper salts, but a lower
207 decrease, with an optimum pH for growth of 5.0 for the highest Cu dose. Bordeaux
208 mixture (BM), ZZ and OX did not decrease optimum pH at highest two Cu doses.

209

210 4. Discussion

211 Results confirm that the effect of Cu on soil microbes may change as function of
212 Cu source, but the magnitude of these changes vary among the different endpoint used,
213 as was previously shown for bacterial and fungal growth (Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020).
214 These differences were previously attributed to modification in soil pH when Cu is
215 polluted with pure Cu salts, which may increase Cu toxicity (Degryse et al., 2009) or
216 directly affect microbial communities (Rousk et al., 2009).

217

218 Substrate-induced respiration (SIR) was affected by Cu concentrations, with low
219 variations depending on Cu source, i.e. microbial biomass decreased due Cu pollution
220 regardless of the type of copper source. In a previous work (Vázquez-Blanco et al, 2020),
221 we observed that there is a difference between commercial copper sources and pure
222 copper salts for bacterial and fungal growth. Bacterial growth decreased for both types of
223 copper sources, although there was a greater decrease in pure copper salts. Fungal growth
224 also decreased for commercial Cu sources, while for pure Cu salts and highest

225 concentrations fungal growth increased (Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020). Due these
226 opposing effects, it is possible that the general effect on microbial biomass became similar
227 for all Cu sources. Also, Ramos-Vásquez and Zúñiga-Dávila (2008) determined that CO₂
228 production by microorganisms does not vary depending on pH. Since SIR basically is a
229 respiration measure, the effect on SIR may be a pure effect of Cu. Therefore, the use of
230 pure Cu salts to estimate the effect of Cu fungicides on microbial biomass via SIR
231 determinations may be correct, with only minor overestimations of Cu toxicity.

232

233 The addition of RGP and ZZ altered the PLFA pattern in the short time (30 days)
234 compared to the other sources, most likely because they present organic compounds in
235 their chemical composition: metalaxyl-M and propylene glycol, respectively. Metalaxyl-
236 M is biodegradable by soil microorganisms (Baker et al, 2010) and presents low toxicity
237 to bacterial communities (Bermúdez-Couso et al, 2013). In the case of propylene glycol,
238 it is also easily biodegradable by bacterial communities (French et al, 2001). Organic
239 compounds may be an alternative source of carbon for bacterial growth, favouring growth
240 of microorganisms with high C degradation capacity, which will change the PLFA
241 pattern.

242

243 An effect of Cu concentrations on the PLFA pattern was only found in PC3 after
244 110 incubation days, accounting for only a minor part of the total variance. This is a
245 surprising result since in previous works using only a pure Cu salt (CuSO₄), changes in
246 the PFLA pattern was dependent of the Cu dose (Frostegård et al, 1993b). The highest
247 loadings for individual PLFAs for PC3 after 110 incubation days were, however,
248 attributed, among others, to PLFAs such as br17:0, cy17:0, 15:0, 17:0 or 10Me18:0,
249 which are indicative of soil pollution by heavy metals (Frostegård et al., 1993b; Bååth et

250 al., 1998), suggesting that there were real effects on the PLFA pattern. Similar low effect
251 of different Cu concentrations on the PLFA pattern was previously shown in field soils,
252 where other factors such as pH or organic matter content were more important
253 (Fernández-Calviño et al., 2010). Previous works also suggest that the PLFA pattern
254 depended on pH variations (Deng et al., 2009; Rousk et al., 2010). After 110 incubation
255 days, PC3 was also correlated with pH ($r=0.62$; $P<0.05$). This was attributed to PLFAs
256 such as i16:0, 16:1 ω 5, 18:1 ω 7 and cy19:0, which all are indicative of changes in soil pH
257 (Rousk et al., 2010). These results suggest that the PLFA methodology is not always
258 adequate to study the effects of Cu on soil microorganisms when other potential
259 confounding factors are variable (pH, or Cu source). Therefore, to infer toxicity using
260 PLFA as an endpoint variable from studies with pure Cu salts may lead to wrong
261 conclusions.

262 Bacterial community tolerance to Cu (PICT) data follow the general trend found
263 in previous works, i.e. increases with increases in Cu pollution (Fernández-Calviño et al,
264 2011; Pennanen et al, 1996; Berg et al, 2012; Díaz-Raviña et al, 94; Díaz-Raviña and
265 Bååth, 1996). However, important differences were found between pure copper salts and
266 copper-based fungicides for high Cu doses. Pure copper salts increased bacterial
267 community tolerance to Cu more than 600 times for $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ and more than 310 times
268 for CuSO_4 , while commercial copper sources increased PICT between 20 to 160 times
269 for 32 mmol kg^{-1} of Cu. This may be due to the fact that pure Cu salts have greater impact
270 on soil pH (Table S2, supplementary material; Vázquez-Blanco et al, 2020), because
271 decreases in soil pH cause increases in Cu availability and, therefore, in toxicity (Brand
272 et al, 2010; Berg et al, 2012). These results indicated that the use of Cu salts to estimate
273 the effect of Cu fungicides on bacterial community tolerance to Cu may overestimate the
274 toxic effects when high concentrations of Cu induce high decreases in soil pH.

275 Pure copper salts caused a decrease in optimum pH for growth of the bacterial
276 community, while copper based fungicides in most cases did not change optimum pH
277 much. If we compare optimum pH with data of soil pH obtained in a previously work for
278 the same soil, Cu sources and Cu concentrations (Vázquez-Blanco et al, 2020) a high
279 correlation was found ($r=0.745$; $P<0.05$; Figure 5), agreeing with previous findings by
280 Fernández-Calviño et al. (2011). This is because bacterial communities are under
281 selective pH pressure, adapting to an optimal pH for growth close to the soil pH
282 (Fernández-Calviño and Bååth, 2010). There is, therefore, a double adaptation, one
283 because of the copper pollution and the other due to changes in soil pH caused by pure
284 copper salts. Both these selection pressure will change the community composition. This
285 fact may mask direct Cu effects when studying impacts of Cu on bacterial community
286 related variables, like PLFA, using pure Cu salts instead Cu fungicides.

287

288

289 **5. Conclusions**

290 The use of pure Cu salts to study potential effects of Cu fungicides on soil microbes may
291 lead to wrong conclusions because results may differ between experiments performed
292 with pure Cu salts and commercial Cu fungicides. However, the quantitative and
293 qualitative magnitude of these differences largely varied as function of the endpoint used.
294 Thus, SIR experiments used as a bacterial biomass endpoint, showed similar results for
295 pure Cu salts and commercial Cu fungicides. The results of the present work showed that
296 the use of pure Cu salts isn't recommended when PLFA methodology when is used to
297 estimate the effect of Cu fungicides on soil microbes, showing also that this methodology
298 isn't sensitive for Cu pollution evaluation. In the case of PICT (bacterial community
299 tolerance to Cu), the use of Cu salts to estimate the effect of Cu fungicides on bacterial

300 community tolerance to Cu presented a similar pattern than when commercial Cu
301 fungicides were used. However, their use may overestimate the effects of Cu when high
302 concentrations of Cu induce high decreases in soil pH.

303

304

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310

311

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416 microorganisms in soil. *Environ. Pollution* 257, 113585.

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420 **Table S1.** Characteristics of commercial cu-based fungicides and pure salt copper (Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020)

Name	Provider	Description	CAS no	Chemical formula
Ridomil Gold plus (RGP)	Syngenta Agro SA O Porriño (SP)	Wettable powder 60% w/w copper hydroxide, 5% w/w metalaxyl-M, 10-30% w/w silica <10% w/w diatomaceous earth	70630-17-0 20427-59-2 7631-86-9 61790-53-2	$\text{Cu}_2(\text{OH})_3\text{Cl}$ $\text{C}_6\text{H}_3(\text{CH}_3)_2[\text{N}(\text{C}_3\text{H}_5\text{O}_2)(\text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2)]$ SiO_2
Covicampo bordeless (BM)	Agrides SA Paterna (SP)	Wettable powder 20% WP bordeaux mixture	8011-67-0	$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 3\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$
ZZ-Cuprocol (ZZ)	Syngenta Ago SA O Porriño (SP)	Concentrated suspension 50-70% w/w Copper oxychloride [ISO] 1-10% w/w Propylene glycol [USP:JAN]	1332-40-7 57-55-6	$\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 3\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$ $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$
Oxicol- 50 (OX)	Insecticidas MAFA SL Castellón (SP)	Wettable powder 50% w/w Copper oxychloride [ISO]	1332-40-7	$\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 3\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$
Copper Nitrate	Panreac Barcelona (SP)	Solid Copper(II) Nitrate 3-hydrate	10031-43-3	$\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Copper Sulfate	Panreac Barcelona (SP)	Solid Copper(II) Sulfate 5-hydrate	7758-99-8	$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$

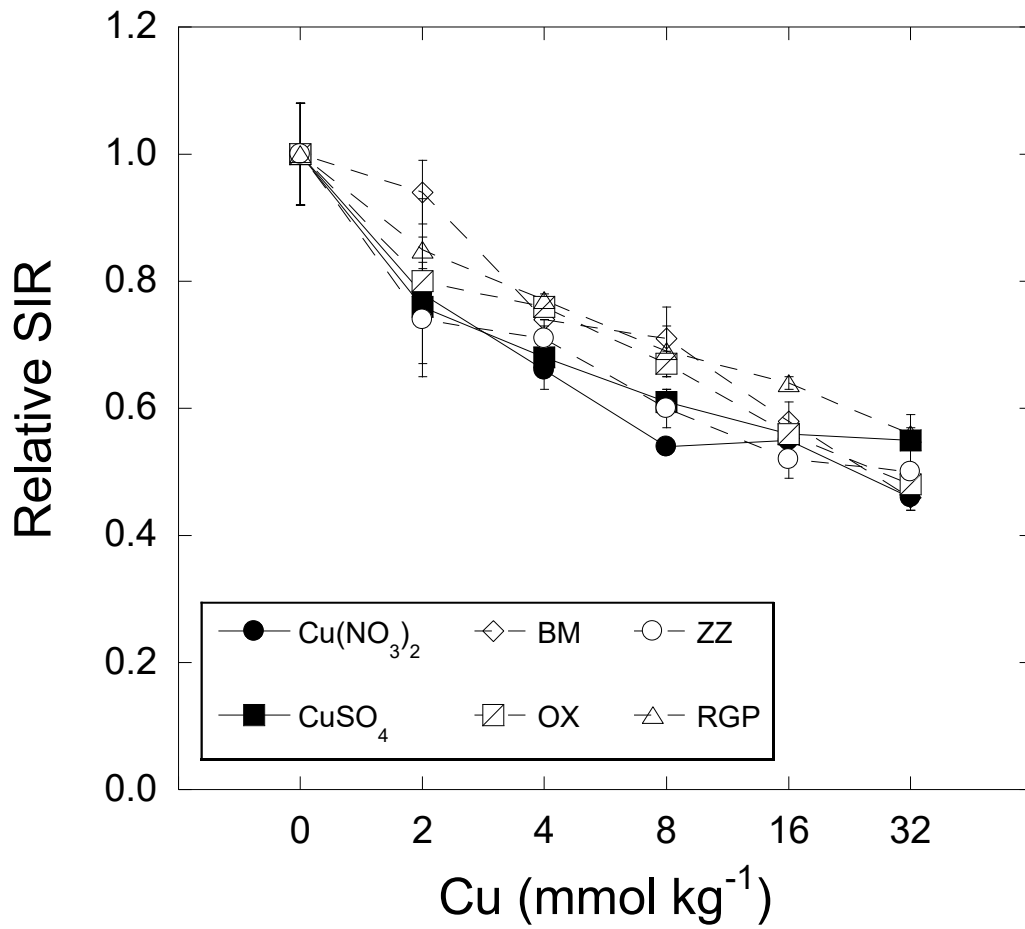
423 **Table S2.** Soil pH in water in response to Cu additions using 6 different Cu sources.

424 (adapted from Vázquez-Blanco et al., 2020)

Cu Source	Cu concentration (mmol kg⁻¹)	pH
Control soil	0	6.6
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	2	6.3
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	4	6.2
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	8	6.0
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	16	5.6
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	32	4.8
CuSO ₄	2	6.5
CuSO ₄	4	6.4
CuSO ₄	8	6.0
CuSO ₄	16	5.8
CuSO ₄	32	5.0
BM: Covicampo bordelés	2	6.6
BM: Covicampo bordelés	4	6.5
BM: Covicampo bordelés	8	6.6
BM: Covicampo bordelés	16	6.5
BM: Covicampo bordelés	32	6.6
OX: (Oxicol-50)	2	6.7
OX: (Oxicol-50)	4	6.6
OX: (Oxicol-50)	8	6.5
OX: (Oxicol-50)	16	6.5
OX: (Oxicol-50)	32	6.4
ZZ: (ZZ-Cuprocol)	2	6.6
ZZ: (ZZ-Cuprocol)	4	6.6
ZZ: (ZZ-Cuprocol)	8	6.6
ZZ: (ZZ-Cuprocol)	16	6.5
ZZ: (ZZ-Cuprocol)	32	6.6
RGP: (Ridomil Gold plus)	2	6.8
RGP: (Ridomil Gold plus)	4	6.7
RGP: (Ridomil Gold plus)	8	6.6
RGP: (Ridomil Gold plus)	16	6.5
RGP: (Ridomil Gold plus)	32	6.5

426

427 Figures



428

429 **Fig 1.** Relative Substrate Induced Respiration (SIR) after 91 incubation days in response
430 to Cu additions using 6 different Cu sources. BM (Covicampo bordeless), OX (Oxicol-
431 50) ZZ (ZZ-Cuprocol), RGP (Ridomil Gold plus). Bars denote SD (n=2).

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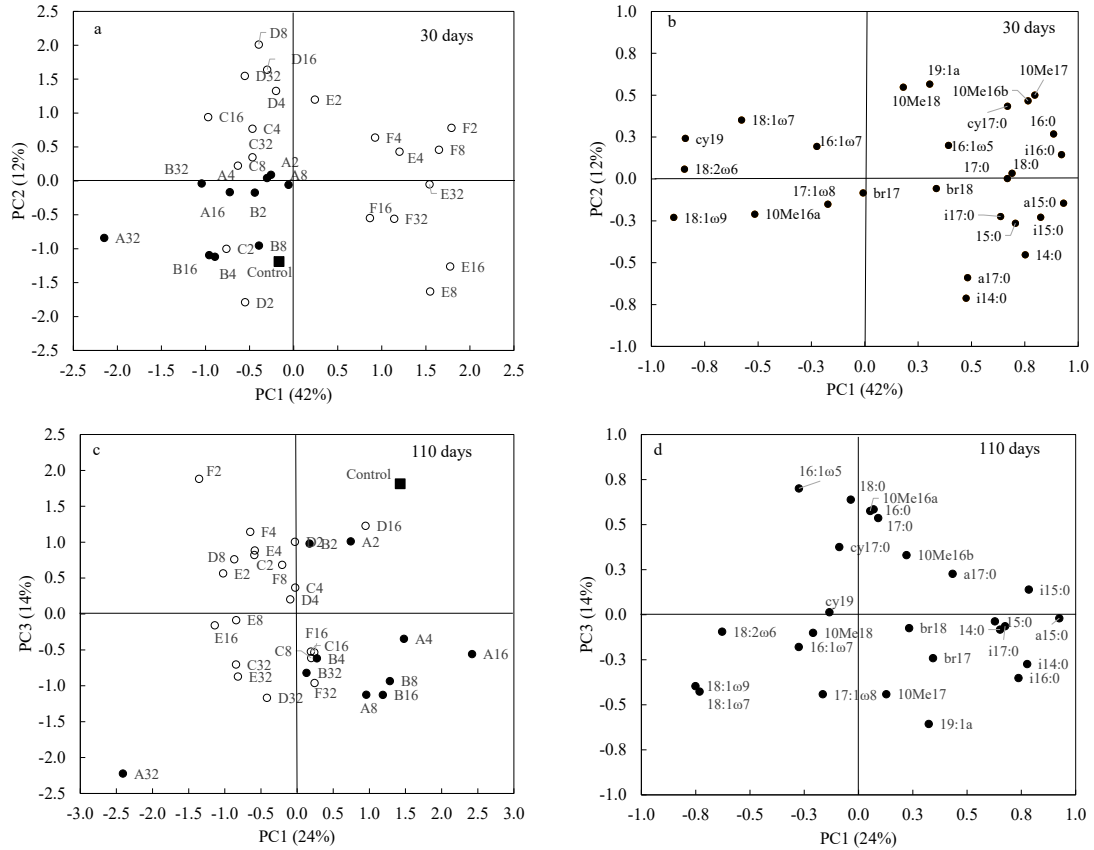
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444 **Fig 2.** Principal component analysis of the PLFA pattern (after different incubation days)

445 in a vineyard soil polluted with 6 copper sources: $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ (A), CuSO_4 (B), BM

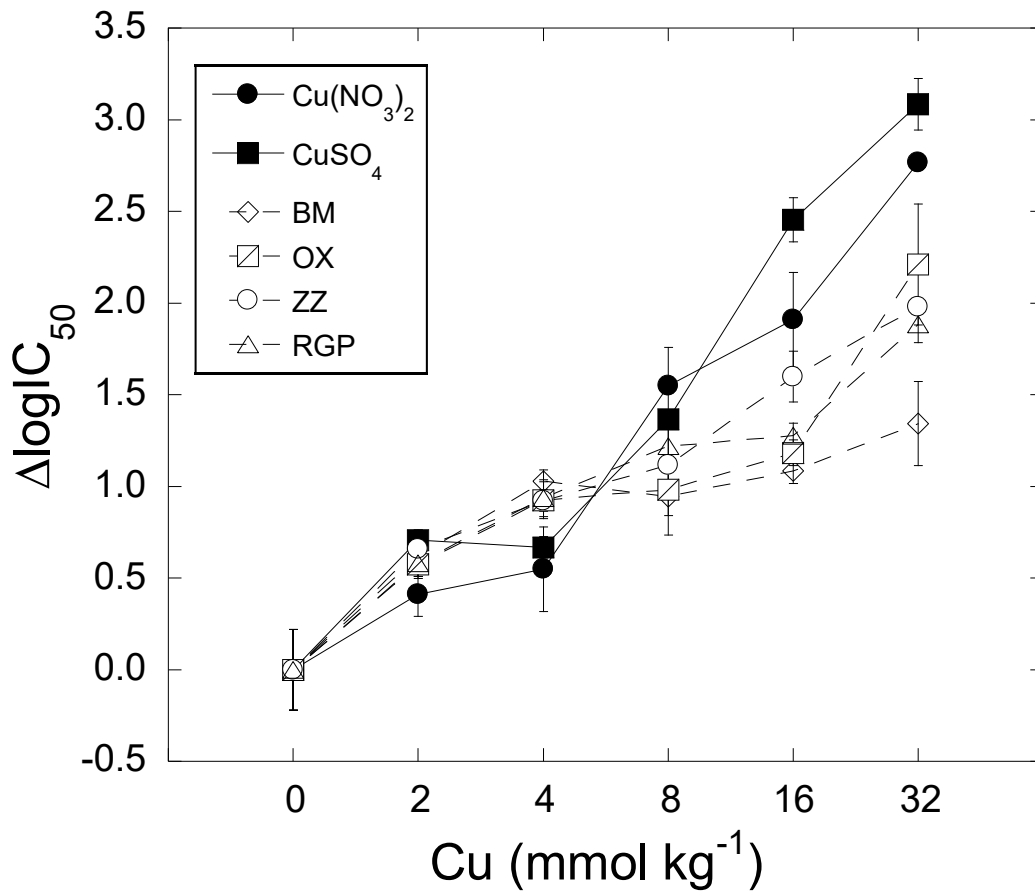
446 (Covicampo bordeless) (C), OX (Oxicol-50) (D); ZZ (ZZ-Cuprocol) (E), and RGP

447 (Ridomil Gold plus) (F). Numbers (0, 2, 4, 8, 16 and 32) indicate the Cu concentration in

448 the soil (mmol kg^{-1}). (a, b) Scores of the different soil samples; (c, d) loadings of the

449 different PLFAs.

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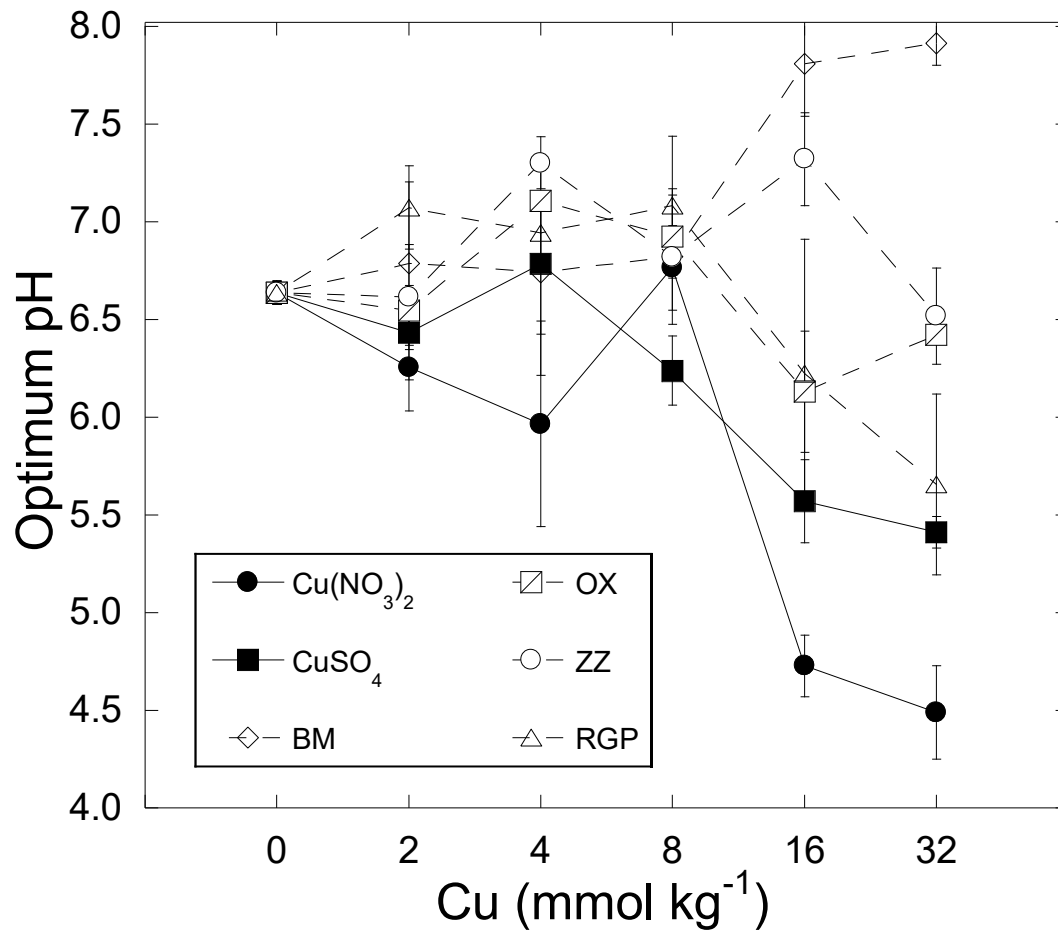
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453 **Fig 3.** Increase in bacterial community tolerance to Cu ($\Delta\log IC_{50}$) in response to soil Cu
 454 pollution with 6 copper sources after 40 incubation days: ($Cu(NO_3)_2$, $CuSO_4$, BM
 455 (Covicampo bordeless), OX (Oxicol-50), ZZ (ZZ-Cuprocol) and RGP (Ridomil Gold
 456 Plus).

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462 **Fig 4.** Relationship between optimum pH of bacterial communities and soil Cu
 463 concentration after 45 incubation days. The soil of a two years old vineyard was polluted
 464 with 6 copper sources (Cu(NO₃)₂, CuSO₄, BM (Covicampo bordeless), OX (Oxicol-50),
 465 ZZ (ZZ-Cuprocol) and RGP (Ridomil Gold Plus).

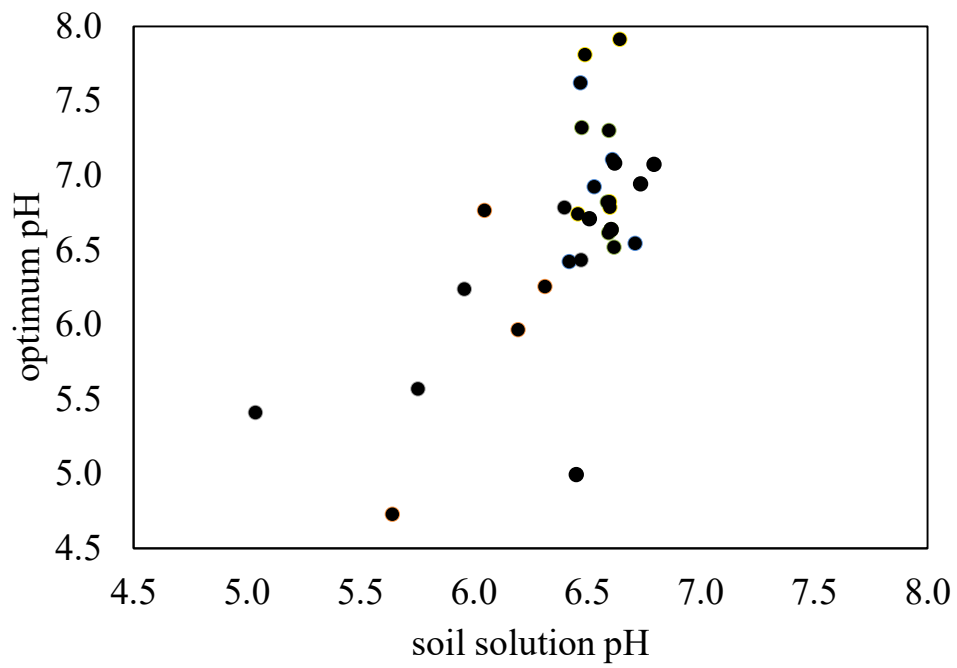
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472 **Figure 5.** Optimum pH of soil bacterial communities as function of the soil solution pH

473 caused by soil spiking with different Cu sources and concentrations

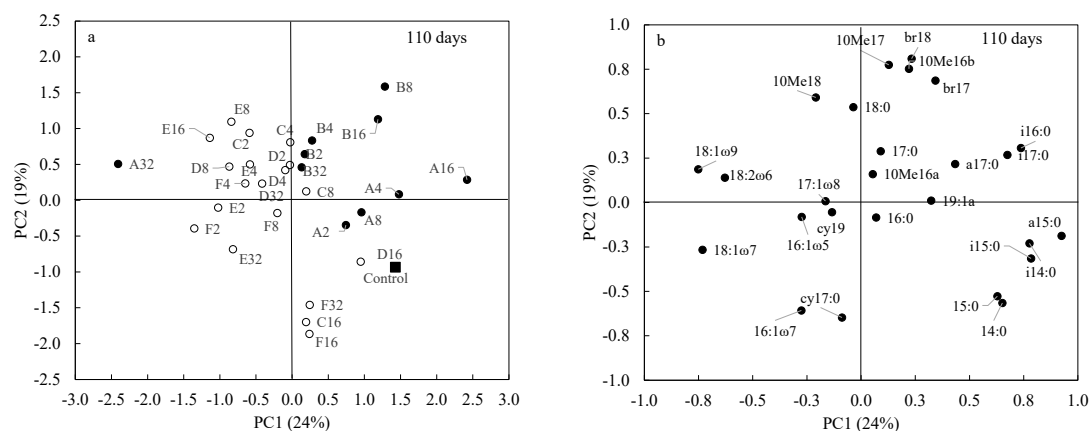
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480 **Fig S3.** Principal component analysis of the PLFA pattern (after 110 incubation days) in
481 a vineyard soil polluted with 6 copper sources: $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ (A), CuSO_4 (B), BM
482 (Covicampo bordeless) (C), OX (Oxicol-50) (D); ZZ (ZZ-Cuprocol) (E), and RGP
483 (Ridomil Gold plus) (F). Numbers (0, 2, 4, 8, 16 and 32) indicate the Cu concentration in
484 the soil (mmol kg^{-1}). (a) Scores of the different soil samples; (b) loadings of the different
485 PLFAs.

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