

Science of the Total Environment

Post-reclamation microbial diversity and functions in hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) contaminated soil in relation to spontaneous HCH tolerant vegetation --Manuscript Draft--

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Keywords:	Hexachlorocyclohexane; Soil clean-up; Soil functions; Bacterial community; Bioremediation, Bioaugmentation
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Abstract:	<p>Given the toxicity, volatility and persistence of hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH), reclamation of contaminated areas is priority for the health and welfare of neighboring human communities. Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to spontaneous vegetation in post-excavation situations, are essential indicators for development of bioaugmentation or microbe-assisted phytoremediation strategies. This study aimed to evaluate effects of long-term HCH contamination on soil and plant-associated microbial communities, and whether HCH contaminated soil has potential to act as bacterial inoculum in post-excavation bioaugmentation and microbe-assisted phytoremediation strategies. In addition, the potential nitrogen fixation of free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs of <i>Lotus tenuis</i> was assessed as a measure of nutrient cycling functions under contamination. Potential nitrogen fixation was not affected by HCH, except a temporary lower <i>nifH</i> gene count in contaminated rhizospheres which is most probably a short-term HCH effect on early bacterial succession in this compartment. HCH was the main shaping factor of microbial communities in long-term contaminated bulk soil, where we identified possible HCH tolerating genera like <i>Sphingomonas</i> and <i>Altererythrobacter</i>. In <i>Lotus tenuis</i> rhizosphere, microbial community composition was influenced by HCH contamination and plant growth stage. <i>Sphingobium</i> and <i>Massilia</i> were genera characteristic for HCH contaminated rhizospheres. <i>Lotus tenuis</i> growth and development was negatively affected by long-term HCH contamination. The root-associated bacterial community composition however, was driven solely by plant age, whereas HCH effects were negligible. Our results showed that in contamination conditions, <i>L. tenuis</i> acquired possible HCH tolerant bacteria which could at the same time offer plant growth promoting (PGP) benefits for the host, such as the <i>Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium</i> clade, <i>Sphingomonas</i>, <i>Massilia</i> or <i>Pantoea</i>. Finally, we identified an inoculum with possibly HCH tolerant, PGP bacteria transferred from contaminated bulk soil to <i>L. tenuis</i> roots through the rhizosphere compartment, consisting of <i>Mesorhizobium loti</i>, <i>Neorhizobium galegae</i>, <i>Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum</i>, <i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> and <i>Lysobacter bugurensis</i>.</p>
Response to Reviewers:	Response to reviewers Helga paper Reviewer 1 R: This paper concerns about the post-reclamation microbial diversity and functions in

hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) contaminated soil in relation to spontaneous vegetation. The topic is highly interesting and relevant for many areas contaminated with organic persistent pollutants. The manuscript structure and experimental approach is appropriate. The comprehensive approach including the analysis of bulk soil, rhizosphere and roots is very good. The manuscript is suitable for STOT.. Overall, it is a very interesting and good manuscript but a potential to improve, suggest major/minor revision (not sure if major is needed).

A: the authors are grateful to the reviewer for his constructive comments.

R: Graphical abstracts: I don't find the PCAs so useful but not any harm. Normally, I would say a map of the country is not interesting, but in this case, it is a point to show Romania. (somewhere between score 1 and 2.

A: we have included a map of Romania with the site indicated in the supplementary section where it can be presented in higher resolution.

R: Title: Suggest to include a hint about vegetation which can improve HCH-degradation. It would make it more interesting for a wider publicum.

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R: The highlights: should include one point related to the potential of bioaugmentation.

A: DONE

R: Keywords: again, suggest to focus on degradation and in-situ natural attenuation, and maybe bioaugmentation or something related to plants (maybe phytoremediation?)

A: DONE - "bioremediation" has been added as keyword

R: Abstract: Introduction: suggest shortening the focus at HCH and introduce some of the interesting parts from the result section about potential with use of plants, e.g. Lotus tenuis, nitrogenase and nifH gene, and bioaugmentation.

A: DONE - Lotus tenuis is quoted in line 42, and the nif-gene is quoted in lines 44-46, bioaugmentation or microbe-assisted phytoremediation strategies are mentioned in L. 37/38

R: Materials and methods: Good and thoroughly description. The term old and new is not the best, maybe in-situ-Poll (polluted), in-situ-Ref (low pollution), ex-situ (polluted) and ex-situ-Ref (low pollution) is better?

A: DONE - changed with "excavPoll" and "excavRef" (instead of "new HCH" and "new clean", respectively) and with "undistPoll" and "undistRef" instead of "old HCH" and "old clean", respectively

R: Results: There are some choices and statements which should be given some explanation; e.g. line 352; HCH significantly affected the pH and line 354, significant positive relationship between HCH conc and OM, DOC and DON. Since HCH is hydrophobic the correlation with organic matter is expected, but such information could be included.

A: DONE the pH values are now given in lines 356-357, and the OM/DOC and DON values are available in Supplement 1

R: Since I don't have much experience with PCA data, I asked a colleague to look into this part. His comments is: "Data analysis and conclusions indicate a very weak impact of HCH presence and e.g., bacterial richness. Figure 1 indicates almost no impact of HCH presence on bacterial richness in root while the response in bulk and rhizosphere on HCH presence is very weak and might be statistically unimportant including the precision level of applied measurement methods. Following the Figure 2 being a different way of describing a data from Figure 1 the same problem is visible. The obtained relationships in Figure 2 are very weak (see sum of CAP1+CAP2 < c. 19%). Due to a way how, the obtained data was treated any analyzed the obtained conclusions are very weak. Although, I truly believe that the obtained raw data carries an interesting and good value but the significant improvement in data analysis and data interpretation is required".

A: These valuable comments can be answered together in one: It is true that the level of HCH contamination did not have a significant effect on bacterial α -diversity in roots. However, this was to be expected, since HCH is a hydrophobic substance that is not taken up by plants. In excavated bulk soil and undisturbed rhizosphere, we found a significant impact of HCH on the α -diversity with a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.6 each. While these numbers cannot be judged by themselves without comparisons, we consider these relationships relevant, since results from field studies are always also influence by a variety of uncontrollable environmental conditions. We consider precision levels of our measurement methods sufficient for the presented results, since

the HCH levels varied over three orders of magnitude (cf. the new table in supplementary materials), which should be detectable by any decent measurement method. The precision level for the number of ASVs is well established for Illumina amplicon sequencing and was also ensured by rarefaction curves. For the ordination analysis presented in Fig. 2 we would like to stress the point that “weak” or “strong” relationships cannot be assigned by the numbers of statistical measures alone. It would rather be necessary to cross-compare with results from other studies in the area to judge about the effect size in our conditions. Unfortunately, there is very little results available from field studies investigating the effects of HCH pollution on the bacterial soil community. As such, the size of the HCH pollution effect has so far been unknown under field conditions, which is why we consider our results all the more relevant to the scientific audience. Lastly, we would like to clarify that figure 2 represents the changes in community composition of samples of the same soil compartments, i.e. of bulk, rhizosphere and root compartments alone. In other studies, these compartments are often analyzed together, leading to much greater numbers of “explained variance” because of the natural difference in community composition between these compartments (e.g. Feng et al. 2019), while hiding to some extent the changes in the community caused by the pollution. To make the results of the statistical analyses more clear to the reader, we revised the figure captions of figures 1 and 2 and the relevant sections of the results in the main text.

R: I find the manuscript very interesting and fit well in STOTEN. My recommendations/suggestions might improve the relevance in addition, get more readers interested.

A: authors did everything to improve the relevance of the manuscript according to the reviewer’s recommendations and hope it is now acceptable for publication.

Reviewer 2

R: This article represented the results of a field study on a long-term HCH contamination site and reported the effects on microbial diversity and functions by several factors.

Although the topic referring to the soil bacterial community and the result of HCH levels is interesting, the authors could not adequately document the relationship among the HCH contamination in soil, the microbial diversity and the spontaneous vegetation.

A: Done. By now, these relationships have been clearly shown in the correlation analyses...

In addition we have added the HCH concentrations as a table in the supplements

R: In terms of the writing of this manuscript, the author should reduce the length to meet the requirement on the word limit of the journal.

A: Done: the manuscript has been edited and shortened significantly, now meeting the word limit of the journal.

R: This study was relatively comprehensive like a simplified degree dissertation, and its main topic was not clear and should be rephrased to be more specific.

A: the main topic of the paper is to show the importance of the microbial community and its shaping by plants for the remediation of HCH. This is now strongly pointed out in the abstract and conclusion.

R: The HCH contamination, the rhizosphere microbial communities, the plant growth and the nitrogen fixation potential were analyzed, but the levels of HCH in soil and plants were not reported in the manuscript or the supplementary material.

A: Done. Please see the first answer. We have added the HCH concentrations as a table in the supplements

R: In general, I would not suggest the editor accepting this manuscript for publication in

Science of the Total Environment.

A: the authors are confident that the manuscript will be acceptable for publication in the STOTEN after the significant improvements made with view to the reviewer's comments and to the constructive remarks of the second reviewer.

Helmholtz Zentrum München · P.O. Box 11 29 · 85758 Neuherberg

Prof. Dr. Damià Barceló
Co-Editor
Science of the Total Environment

Prof. Dr. Dr. Peter Schröder

Research Unit Comparative Microbiome
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Re: Evaluation of ms STOTEN-D-20-18896

04/10/20

Dear Prof. Barceló, Dear Damià,

please find enclosed our revision to the manuscript: "Post-reclamation microbial diversity and functions in hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) contaminated soil in relation to spontaneous vegetation".

We thoroughly went through all reviewer comments and accepted all proposed changes.

While reviewer 1 was very detailed and on the point in his very constructive instructions, we had to interpret the comments of reviewer 2 a bit more, but we are confident that we met all critical points mentioned in the review and hence were able to improve the manuscript considerably.

All changes have now been listed in the response to reviewers section, and marked in color in the main manuscript. The text has also been streamlined, and checked for language and style by experienced researchers.

We hope that our manuscript can by now be considered for publication.

Kind regards, also on behalf of the co-authors.

Yours sincerely,



Peter
(Prof. Dr. Peter Schröder)

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6 neighboring human communities. Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to
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Response to reviewers Helga paper

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32 **Abstract**

33

34 Given the toxicity, volatility and persistence of the organochlorine pesticide hexachlorocyclohexane
35 (HCH), reclamation of contaminated areas is a priority for the health and welfare of neighboring human
36 communities. Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to spontaneous vegetation in
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59 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*.

60 **Keywords:**

61 Hexachlorocyclohexane; Soil clean-up; Soil functions; Bacterial community; Bioremediation

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65 **1. Introduction**

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67 Hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) was one of the most widely used organochlorine pesticides in
68 agriculture between the 1950s and 1980s where a total of nearly 8 million tons of toxic and persistent
69 waste was deposited worldwide at former production sites (Willett et al., 1998). Due to inadequate
70 disposal techniques, HCH has been flagged for regulatory intervention and elimination to limit its
71 dispersion via air or water and avoid accumulation into plant and animal food resources (Vijgen et al.,
72 2011; Ogbeide et al., 2016). Since many countries lack funding for proper clean-up and restoration,
73 excavation remains the cheapest conventional clean-up approach for HCH contaminated sites (Caliman
74 et al., 2011; Morillo and Villaverde, 2017). However, there are often no follow-up interventions (*e.g.*
75 landfilling or phytoremediation approaches) to prevent further dispersion of contaminant left-overs via
76 air transport to neighboring residential areas.

77 Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to spontaneous vegetation in post-
78 remediation situations, are essential criteria for the development of customized strategies to enhance
79 and speed up the reclamation of brownfields representing a potential danger to local human
80 communities. There are, however, very few studies of microbial diversity and functions as ecological
81 indicators in HCH polluted soil (Dadhwal et al., 2009; Bala et al., 2010), and only one which tackles
82 these aspects in post-reclamation situations (Balázs et al., 2020). Nonetheless, the latter study handles
83 only lindane as a contaminant, and it was limited to controlled greenhouse conditions.

84 The partial excavation of the HCH waste deposits from Turda (Romania, [Suppl. Mat. Fig. 1](#)) offered an
85 opportunity to study how soil and plant associated bacterial communities adapt to long-term pollution
86 and remediation attempts. As HCH tolerant bacterial consortia proved to decrease HCH levels in soil
87 at both pot and field scale (Garg et al., 2016), we hypothesized that post- excavation traces of
88 contaminated soil might serve as an inoculum with native, HCH- tolerant bacteria for subsequent
89 bioaugmentation strategies. Such inocula could prove more efficient than artificial consortia, given that
90 native bacterial communities are already adapted to contamination and to the local physico-chemical
91 conditions.

92 In addition, microbe-assisted phytoremediation studies showed that soil inoculation with HCH
93 tolerant/degrading strains and plant growth promoting rhizobacteria could enhance HCH dissipation in
94 rhizospheres and increase plant performance and tolerance to toxicity (Becerra-Castro et al., 2013a,b;
95 Alvarez et al., 2015). Plants grown in contaminated soils become an important sink for organochlorine
96 compounds via soil-plant and or air-plant route, as they are capable of accumulating high amounts of
97 HCH (Pereira et al., 2006). [Given that *L. tenuis* is growing spontaneously at the Turda site, we](#)
98 [hypothesized that contaminated soil may potentially serve as an inoculum with HCH tolerant bacterial](#)

99 strains for the plant, and that these strains might support *L. tenuis* growth and performance as first
100 colonizer, as well as its function in nitrogen fixation.

101 Finally, recovery of microbial functions after excavation is a critical step in achieving soil restoration
102 and a functional ecosystem. Since the excavated soil had already been colonized by the legume *Lotus*
103 *tenuis*, potential nitrogen fixation was one of the most important bacterial functions at this stage of
104 ecological succession. Hence, our third objective was to assess effects of HCH on potential nitrogen
105 fixation in bulk and rhizosphere soil, as well as at root level of the early colonizer *Lotus tenuis*, as a
106 measure of post-reclamation ecosystem functionality.

107 To summarize, the present field study aimed to address the following hypotheses: (H1) HCH
108 contaminated soil acts a bacterial inoculum in post-reclamation bioaugmentation strategies; (H2) such
109 an inoculum can improve plant performance and tolerance to HCH in early vegetation succession
110 stages; and (H3) HCH affects potential nitrogen fixation of free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs. For
111 this purpose, we measured soil physico-chemical parameters, plant fitness, and characterized soil and
112 root-associated bacterial communities by means of 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing in long-term
113 HCH- contaminated soil and their subsequent response to excavation procedures.

114

115 2. Materials and methods

116

117 2.1 Site description

118 The former chemical plant (46°55'N, 23°78'E) is located within the precincts of Turda city, Romania,
119 near the river Arieș (Suppl. mat. 1). Between 1954 and 1983, approximately 15,000 tons of waste HCH
120 were inadequately deposited within that enclosure (Prodan et al., 2011). The chemical plant shut down
121 in 1998, but the close proximity to residential areas and easy access of unauthorized persons on the
122 grounds represent a continuous pollution source and health concern for the local community. The
123 factory area includes two HCH hotspots: one is a waste heap on the right bank of the river Arieș, and
124 the other corresponds to the former lindane production department (Balázs et al., 2018). In spring 2018,
125 an area including the former production department HCH hotspot and several neighboring low-
126 contamination plots were excavated and leveled out, as a measure of soil reclamation (Suppl. mat. 1).
127 The sampling campaign took place two months after the excavation operation, at the end of May 2018.

128

129 2.2 Sampling design and procedures

130 To assess the presence of a possible bacterial inoculum and the effect of post-reclamation HCH levels
131 on nitrogen fixation and plant performance, we compared the previously identified HCH hotspots with
132 two neighbouring low contaminated plots (Balázs et al., 2018). One of the HCH hotspots and one low
133 contaminated plots were freshly excavated, while the other two were undisturbed and covered with
134 spontaneous vegetation (Suppl. mat. 1). The undisturbed plots are further named “undistPoll” (high
135 contamination), “undistRef” (low contamination) while the freshly excavated and leveled plots were
136 named “excavPoll” (high contamination) and “excavRef” (low contamination). All plots were
137 colonized by *Lotus tenuis* WALDST. & KIT. ex WILLD., but with different coverage. *Lotus tenuis* was
138 chosen for this field study as it already grew spontaneously on the premises in HCH hotspots (Balázs et
139 al., 2018). As an early perennial colonizer and member of the Fabaceae family, *L. tenuis* has an
140 important role in creating optimal conditions for the further development of a spontaneous vegetation
141 cover. Furthermore, it provides important ecosystem services such as nitrogen fixation, erosion control,
142 build-up of soil organic matter or development of a diverse microbial community in the soil.
143 For optimal coverage, a five sampling point pattern corresponding to five biological replicates was
144 randomly set within the limits of each of the four plots. Each of the equally spaced five sampling points
145 consisted of a circular area with one meter radius. Five bulk soil sub-samples were collected at random
146 from within the limits of each sampling point and mixed into one composite sample, resulting in five
147 composite biological replicates for each of the four plots: “undistPoll”, “undistRef”, “excavPoll” and
148 “excavRef”. Rhizosphere and plant samples were subsequently collected from within the circular
149 sampling points established for bulk soil.
150 Bulk soil was collected from the upper 10 cm, mixed into composite samples for each sampling point,
151 sieved through 2 mm mesh, filled into sterile tubes and temporarily stored on ice. Samples meant for
152 DNA extraction were stored at -80°C and samples for physico-chemical measurements were stored at
153 4°C. Samples meant for HCH quantification were freeze-dried and subsequently stored at 4°C.
154 To collect rhizospheres, soil was loosened around the plant roots which were then carefully pulled out
155 with adherent rhizosphere soil. Plants collected from one sampling point were pulled together into a
156 composite sample, were shaken on top of a sieve equipped with a tray and brushed to retrieve as much
157 rhizosphere material as possible. The soil was then sieved and stored in the same manner as the bulk
158 soil. The plant material was washed with tap water, followed by autoclaved distilled water, separated
159 into roots and shoots and stored at -80°C until further use. Before the plant material was separated,
160 several plants from each sample were weighed to estimate mean fresh biomass.

161
162 2.3 Soil physico-chemical parameters, microbial biomass carbon and plant C/N ratio

163 Microbial biomass carbon (C_{mic}) was determined according to DIN ISO 14240-2:2011-09 after
164 chloroform fumigation and subsequent extraction with 0.01M $CaCl_2$ solution (1:4 (w/v)). Dissolved
165 organic carbon and nitrogen (DOC, DON) as well as ammonium, nitrate and nitrite concentrations were
166 extracted in the same manner, excluding the fumigation step. All extractions were done in triplicates
167 and stored at $-20^{\circ}C$ for later measurements. Organic C and N were quantified on a Total Carbon
168 Analyzer (Shimadzu TOC 5050, Tokyo, Japan). C_{mic} was calculated as the difference of total C
169 between fumigated and non-fumigated samples, using a fraction of 0.45 as extractable part of microbial
170 biomass carbon (Joergensen, 1996). Total nitrogen and ammonium were determined using a
171 continuous-flow photometric analyser (CFA-SAN Plus; Skalar Analytik, Germany). Soil pH was
172 measured according to the ISO 10390:2005-02 method, in 0.01M $CaCl_2$ (soil: solution ratio of 1:5
173 (w/v)) after a 2 h incubation time. Soil organic matter content (OM) was determined after drying the
174 soil for 24 hours at $65^{\circ}C$ followed by heating at $450^{\circ}C$ for 5 hours in a muffle oven. OM content was
175 determined by weighing before and after heating samples to $450^{\circ}C$, the difference in weight
176 corresponding to the incinerated soil OM.

177 Plant material (roots and leaves) was dried at $65^{\circ}C$ for 48 h and ground to a fine powder with a Tissue
178 LyserII (Qiagen GmbH, Germany). Approximately 1.5 mg of the powder was weighted into 3.5 mm \times
179 5 mm tin capsules (HEKAtech GmbH, Wegberg, Germany). Total carbon and nitrogen contents in *L.*
180 *tenuis* roots and leaves were determined using an Elemental-Analysator 'Euro-EA' (Eurovector,
181 Milano, Italy).

182

183 2.4 HCH extraction and analysis from bulk soil

184 The extraction of HCH isomers from soil followed the QuEChERS method described by Fernandes et
185 al. (2013). HCH was extracted from 5 g of dried sieved bulk soil hydrated with 3 mL MilliQ water after
186 one hour incubation. 10 mL of acetonitrile were added to the solution, followed by vigorous vortexing
187 and shaking. A powder mixture of 4 g anhydrous $MgSO_4$, 1 g NaCl, 1 g Na_3 citrate dihydrate and 0.5 g
188 Na_2 citrate sesquihydrate was added to the acetonitrile solution, subsequently vigorously shaken and
189 vortexed, sonicated for 5 minutes, ending with a 5 minute centrifugation at 3000 rpm (Avanti J-25,
190 Beckman Coulter, USA). 1.5 mL of supernatant was cleaned-up with 150 mg $MgSO_4$, 50 mg C18 and
191 50 mg PSA. The mixture was vortexed, shaken vigorously, and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 4000 \times g.
192 1mL of supernatant was spiked with hexachlorobenzene (HCB) as internal standard (10 ppm end
193 concentration in the solution), and subsequently evaporated to dryness at $40^{\circ}C$ under nitrogen gas flow
194 and reconstituted with 1 mL n-hexane. The identification and quantification of α -, β - and γ -HCH
195 isomers was done using an Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph equipped with a 7686B series injector,

196 both from Agilent Technologies (CA, USA) and coupled with a IRMS detector (Delta plus Advantage,
197 Thermo Finnigan, Waltham, Massachusetts). Isomers were separated on a DB-5 column (30m x
198 0.25mm x 0.25 μ m, P/N 122-5032, J&W Scientific from Agilent Technologies) with helium (99.999 %
199 purity) used as carrier gas, at a flow of 1mL/min. The column oven temperature was programmed to
200 80°C for 10 min, increased to 175° C at 20° C/min, followed by a 1° C/min increase until 185°, until it
201 reached 300° at a rate of 35° C/min and then held for 2 min. A volume of 5 μ L was injected in splitless
202 mode with a 40-mm length needle (P/N 5181-1267, Agilent Technologies) into the injection port at
203 250°C. The HCH isomer concentrations were calculated based on a linear five-point calibration curve,
204 ranging from 5 ppm to 20 ppm. Integrations were done using the Isodat-Gas Isotope ration MS
205 software (version 3.0) from Thermo Scientific. HCH values are synthesized in **Suppl. mat 2**.

206

207 2.5 16SrRNA gene library preparation

208 Total DNA was extracted from 0.5g of soil and 0.3g of ground root material (both fresh weight), using
209 the NucleoSpin Soil Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany), according to the manufacturer's protocol.
210 Empty sterile extraction tubes were prepared for each soil compartment and root DNA extraction, to
211 serve as negative extraction controls. The concentration of DNA extracts was quantified with a 5200
212 Fragment Analyzer System (Agilent, US-CA), using the Genomic DNA 50Kb Analysis Kit. Ten ng of
213 the DNA extracts were used to amplify the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene, using the primer pair
214 338F (5'- GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT- 3') /789R (5' -GGAATCCTCTCTCACCACATTGCCAGG
215 CAGACC- 3') with Illumina adapter sequences, which was reported to exclude chloroplast
216 amplification (Dorn-In et al., 2015). PCR reactions were carried out in three technical replicates using
217 the NEBNext High-Fidelity 2 \times PCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, US-MA) with the
218 addition of tetramethyl ammonium chloride at 36mM final concentration in the PCR reaction. Non
219 target control (NTC) and positive controls containing the target gene were also performed in triplicates.
220 PCR conditions were: initial denaturation step, 30 s at 98 °C; 25 cycles (10 s denaturation at 98 °C; 30
221 s annealing at 60 °C; and 30 s elongation at 72 °C); and the final elongation step at 72 °C, 5 min. The
222 technical replicates of the PCR products were checked on 1% agarose gel, and afterwards pooled for
223 purification using the NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel), according to the
224 manufacturer's protocol. The purified product underwent quality check and quantification with the
225 5200 Fragment Analyzer System (Agilent, US-CA), using the NGS Fragment Kit (1-6000bp). 10 ng of
226 the purified 16S rRNA gene amplicon were indexed using the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina Inc.,
227 San Diego, US-CA) for multiplexed short-read sequencing. PCR conditions were: initial denaturation
228 step, 30 s at 98 °C; 8 cycles (10 s denaturation at 98 °C; 30 s annealing at 55 °C; and 30 s elongation at

229 72 °C); and the final elongation step at 72 °C, 5 min. The indexed product was checked on 1% agarose
230 gel and purified with NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel). Quality and
231 concentration of the indexing product were assessed using the above mentioned kit from Agilent. The
232 samples were diluted to 4nM and pooled equimolarly. 10 pmol DNA were sequenced with a MiSeq
233 System (Illumina, San Diego, US-CA) using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (600 cycle) for paired end
234 sequencing with PhiX (Illumina, San Diego, US-CA) as a spike-in positive control.

235

236 2.6 Quantification of nitrogen fixation potential

237 DNA extracts used for 16S rRNA gene library preparation were also used to quantify the *nifH* gene
238 (coding for a nitrogenase) copy numbers by means of real time quantitative PCR (qPCR). The *nifH*
239 gene abundance was quantified using the primer pair *nifH*-f (5'-AAA GGY GGW ATC GGY AAR TCC
240 ACC AC-3') and *nifH*-r (5'-TTG TTS GCS GCR TAC ATS GCC ATC AT-3') (Rösch et al., 2002). The
241 source organism for the nitrogenase reductase standard was *Sinorhizobium meliloti* 30136, and the
242 mean PCR reaction efficiency \pm SD was 2.04 ± 0.1 for bulk soil, 2.04 ± 0.09 for rhizosphere and 1.88
243 ± 0.1 for plant samples. Serial dilutions of 1:8, 1:16, 1:32 and 1:64 of the DNA extracts were tested for
244 DNA polymerase inhibitors. The dilution showing the best PCR efficiency (1:64 v/v) was used for
245 quantification, using the PowerSYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Life Technologies, Warrington, UK)
246 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was added to all reactions
247 at 0.06% final concentration to reduce inhibitory effects of polyphenolic compounds co-extracted from
248 soil. To maintain similar PCR conditions throughout sample types, BSA was added in the same
249 concentration to root samples as well.

250 Samples were measured in three technical replicates on a 7300 Real-Time PCR System (Applied
251 Biosystems, Foster City, US-CA). The PCR program consisted of the following steps: initial
252 denaturation 95°C, 10 min; amplification 40 cycles (denaturation 45s at 95°C, annealing 45s at 55°C,
253 elongation 45s at 72°C); melting curve (15s at 95°C, 30s at 60°C and 15s at 95°C). The specificity of
254 the PCR reactions was checked by melting curve analysis. Initial fluorescence values obtained for each
255 sample were converted to gene copy numbers per gram of dry soil / dry root biomass, using standard
256 curves created with 10-fold dilutions of the above mentioned standard with known copy number. The
257 baseline was subtracted and normalized, followed by data analysis using the package qpcR (Spiess,
258 2018) applying the mechanistic cm3 model. This model is insensitive to low PCR efficiencies and
259 minimizes effects of PCR inhibitors (Carr and Moore, 2012). Kinetic outliers were discarded
260 automatically.

261

262 2.7 Data analysis

263 2.7.1 Bioinformatics analysis

264 The raw sequencing data were demultiplexed on the MiSeq system. Subsequently, primer and adapter
265 sequences were removed using AdapterRemoval v. 2.1.7 (Lindgreen, 2012). 6.52 million raw reads
266 were generated in total, with $97,242 \pm 36,417$ (mean \pm SD) reads per sample. Rarefaction plots were
267 constructed to assess sequencing coverage. There was saturation of the sequence coverage in all
268 samples (data not shown). Sequencing run quality and the amount of trimming necessary for further
269 processing of the sequences was assessed using quality plots using the R package DADA2 v. 1.10.1
270 (Callahan et al., 2016). All reads were trimmed by 10 bp at the beginning, while forward reads were
271 trimmed after 290 bp and reverse reads after 210 bp. After removing remaining PhiX sequences,
272 quality filtering and trimming, 99.3% of the initial reads remained for analysis after this step. The
273 forward and reverse reads were denoised separately (91.3% from the forward reads and 93.2% of the
274 reverse reads remaining) and merged (66.6% of the total reads remaining) using the R package
275 DADA2. Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) were generated, followed by removal of chimeric
276 sequences (54.5% of reads remaining, i.e. 3,548,214 reads or 24,482 ASVs). DADA2 infers sample
277 sequences which are resolved at differences of one nucleotide and generates ASVs as opposed to
278 operational taxonomic units. The ASVs were taxonomically annotated using the SILVA database v. 128
279 (Quast et al., 2012). This data set was then imported in R and further filtered using the R package
280 phyloseq v.1.26.1 (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). ASVs assigned to kingdoms other than Bacteria, to
281 chloroplasts or mitochondria were removed. Contaminant ASVs were identified and removed using the
282 R package decontam (Davis et al., 2017), accounting for a total of 0.29% of the initial number of reads.
283 Bacterial richness was estimated at this step from the remaining 24,407 ASVs as the number of
284 observed ASVs per sample using the R function *estimate_richness()* from the phyloseq package.
285 For further analysis of the data set, a prevalence filter was applied to sort out the ASVs that were only
286 present in a single sample. This abundance cut-off attempts to reduce the high number of ASVs that
287 account for only a few reads, thus minimizing the influence of rare ASVs on the statistical models. The
288 final data set contained 39.33% of the initial raw reads (3,010,093 reads, accounting for 8,334 ASVs).
289 The nucleotide sequence data reported are available in the SRA database under the BioProject ID
290 PRJNA648690.

291

292 2.7.2 Statistical analysis and identification of potential bacterial inocula

293 Constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) on generalized UniFrac distances was conducted
294 to assess effects of HCH contamination and excavation on the microbial community composition in

295 bulk soil, rhizosphere and root samples. Explanatory variables of the model were soil physico-chemical
296 parameters or plant C/N ratio. Environmental parameters significantly influencing β -diversity were
297 highlighted by means of an automatic model selection procedure, using the ordistep function of the R
298 package vegan v. 2.5.5 (Oksanen et al., 2019), based on permutation p-values. The initial model for
299 bulk and rhizosphere samples was based on the following variables: total HCH, disturbance status
300 (excavated or undisturbed), pH, OM, gravimetric water content, ammonium, total inorganic N, DOC
301 and DON. For root samples, in addition to the above mentioned rhizosphere soil parameters, we
302 considered root C/N ratios as explanatory variables. The significance of the final CAP model, of the
303 axes and of the selected variables was tested using the R function anova.cca() with 5,000 permutations.
304 ASVs were subsetted according to Schmid et al. (2020) to reveal those ASVs present exclusively in a
305 single of the four conditions (undistPoll, undistRef, excavPoll, excavRef). The “undist” plots were
306 undisturbed, while the freshly excavated plots were called “excav”. Subsetting aimed to identify
307 bacterial taxa, specific for HCH contamination that could serve as an inoculum with HCH tolerant
308 strains in soil clean-up procedures. Comparing the undistRef and the undistPoll plots allowed us to
309 identify those bacterial taxa which are characteristic to long-term HCH contaminated bulk and
310 rhizosphere soil, and to the root-associated bacterial communities of *L. tenuis*. Plants growing on these
311 plots were of similar age. By comparing the undistPoll plot against the excavPoll plot, we assessed
312 which HCH tolerant taxa initially adapt to soil disturbance and which ones settle only later on. We
313 additionally identified HCH tolerant bacterial taxa that are first acquired by young *L. tenuis* plants after
314 excavation, and those acquired in later growth stages. Finally, we compared excavPoll and excavRef
315 rhizosphere and root-associated bacterial communities to evaluate which factor has greater influence on
316 the development of these communities: the age of plants or HCH contamination. The five most
317 frequently occurring ASVs (addressed as families and genera) in each of these comparisons were
318 further analyzed as those taxa which reacted strongest to HCH contamination. Unclassified taxa and
319 those which appeared in only one condition were not considered for further analysis. To assess whether
320 the main responding families were also the most abundant ones throughout the samples, we used the
321 simple ranking of mean relative abundance per family, per sample in bulk, rhizosphere and roots. The
322 subsetting method was also used to identify possible bacterial inoculants to serve as HCH tolerant
323 bacteria with beneficial properties for the plant, acquired by the roots of *Lotus tenuis* from the
324 surrounding soil. The inoculation path considered was undistPoll bulk soil via excavPoll bulk,
325 excavPoll rhizosphere, with the final destination, the roots of the young plants growing on the freshly
326 excavated HCH contaminated plot (excavPoll). The bacterial taxa were identified at species level using
327 BLASTN (Zhang et al., 2000).

328 Robust two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effect of HCH and excavation on
329 the bacterial taxa identified by means of subsetting as main responders to HCH contamination. The
330 *t2way()* function was used to assess overall statistical significance (Wilcox, 2017). Differences in mean
331 relative abundance of the specific comparisons mentioned above (**undistPoll** vs. **undistRef**, **undistPoll**
332 vs. **excavPoll** and **excavPoll** vs. **excavRef**) were tested through pairwise comparisons using the function
333 *yuenv2*. The p-values of multiple comparisons were corrected using the Benjamini-Hochberg method.
334 Ordinary linear regressions in semi-log space were conducted to test effects of HCH on soil pH, OM,
335 DOC, DON, soil ammonium concentration, bacterial richness, C_{mic} , plant C/N ratio and nitrogen
336 fixation potential (*nifH* gene copy numbers) in soil and plant samples. Statistical data analysis was
337 performed in R v.3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018). All plots were generated using the package ggplot2
338 v.3.2.0 (Wickham, 2016).

339

340 **3. Results**

341

342 3.1 Plant performance and soil physico-chemical parameters and potential nitrogen fixation

343 The fresh biomass of plants collected from **excavRef**, **excavPoll** and **undistPoll** plots had similar
344 average values (1.2g, 0.9g and 0.8g respectively), while that of plants collected from the **undistRef** plot
345 was 27g. Regardless of the fresh biomass estimates, the C/N ratio of *L. tenuis* roots and leaves
346 remained unaffected by HCH (data not shown). **HCH concentrations detected in bulk soil ranged**
347 **between 392 and 22068 ppm in the highly contaminated plots and between 3.1 and 403 ppm in the low**
348 **contaminated plots (Suppl. Mat. 2).** HCH significantly affected the pH of undisturbed bulk soil ($p <$
349 0.05 ; $R^2 = 0.6$) and excavated rhizosphere ($p < 0.001$; $R^2 = 0.9$) **which in both cases declined from 7.7 to**
350 **7.4 with increasing HCH concentration (data not shown).** There was a general significant positive
351 relationship between HCH concentration and OM, DOC and DON content in bulk and rhizosphere
352 soils (Suppl. mat. 3). Ammonium values increased significantly with HCH concentration in undisturbed
353 ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.5$) and excavated ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.4$) rhizosphere soils (not shown).
354 We observed a general positive relationship between *nifH* gene abundance and HCH concentration in
355 the undisturbed bulk and rhizosphere soil, as well as in the roots of mature *L. tenuis* plants (from
356 undisturbed plots). Nevertheless, this effect was only marginal, as potential nitrogen fixation was not
357 significantly affected by HCH contamination. HCH had a significant negative effect on *nifH* gene
358 abundance only in rhizospheres of young *L. tenuis* plants ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.4$) (data not shown).

359

360 3.2 Microbial biomass carbon and bacterial diversity

361 Microbial biomass carbon (C_{mic}) increased significantly in **undistPoll** bulk soil (Suppl. mat. 5), while in
362 excavated bulk soil and undisturbed rhizosphere, HCH had a similar but marginal effect. **α -diversity**
363 (*i.e.* species richness) decreased significantly with increasing HCH concentration in excavated bulk soil
364 and in undisturbed rhizosphere of *L. tenuis* (Fig. 1). The trend was similar but not significant at 5%
365 level, in the case of root-associated bacterial communities of young plants growing on excavated plots.

367 3.3 Main responders to HCH contamination

368 HCH was the main shaping factor for bacterial community composition in bulk soil. HCH
369 concentration was strongly correlated with OM content as co-explanatory variable ($p < 0.001$; Pseudo-
370 $F_{1,18} = 1.39$) (Fig. 2a). **ASV distribution in the rhizosphere was shaped mostly by the growth stage of**
371 **plants ($p < 0.05$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.35$), while HCH had a smaller effect, just above the 5% significance**
372 **level ($p = 0.064$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.24$). HCH was positively correlated with ammonium ($p < 0.05$,**
373 **Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.31$) and total N content ($p < 0.01$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.64$) (Fig. 2b).** The composition of
374 the root-associated bacterial communities was determined solely by the age of plants ($p < 0.01$, Pseudo-
375 $F_{1,16} = 1.30$), with no effect of HCH contamination detected at this level (Fig. 2c).

376 In bulk soil, main responders to HCH contamination were ASVs belonging to the Burkholderiaceae,
377 Nitrosomonadaceae and Xanthomonadaceae bacterial families, and to the genera *Sphingomonas* and
378 *Altererythrobacter* (both part of the Sphingomonadaceae family), and *Lysobacter* (fam.
379 Xanthomonadaceae) (Suppl. mat. 4). HCH had a significant effect on the mean relative abundance of
380 Burkholderiaceae ($p < 0.01$; Suppl. mat. 6). Further pairwise comparisons showed significantly higher
381 abundance of this family in **excavPoll** soil as compared to **undistPoll** ($p < 0.05$) and in **undistRef** soil as
382 compared to **undistPoll** ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). Nitrosomonadaceae were negative responders
383 to HCH, pairwise comparisons between **undistPoll** and **undistRef** plots showing a significantly lower
384 abundance in the first condition ($p < 0.05$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). Xanthomonadaceae were more
385 abundant in **excavPoll** bulk soil, as compared to **undistPoll** soil ($p < 0.05$; Suppl. mat. 7).

386 Genus *Lysobacter* was significantly affected by HCH contamination in bulk soil, as it was more
387 abundant in **excavPoll** bulk soil as compared to **undistPoll** soil ($p < 0.01$), but higher in **undistPoll** bulk
388 soil when compared to **undistRef** soil ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7). Genus *Altererythrobacter* was a
389 positive responder to HCH contamination ($p < 0.05$), with slightly higher abundance in the **undistPoll**
390 plot than in all other conditions. However, this effect was not further detected in pairwise comparisons
391 (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

392 In the rhizosphere, the most abundant responders at family level were Burkholderiaceae,
393 Nitrosomonadaceae and Sphingomonadaceae. At genus level, the most common differential ASVs
394 corresponded to the genera *Massilia* (Burkholderiaceae), *Sphingobium* and *Sphingomonas* (both
395 Sphingomonadaceae) (Suppl. mat. 4). Similar to bulk soil, Nitrosomonadaceae were negative
396 responders to HCH contamination, pairwise comparisons between **undistPoll** and **undistRef** plots
397 showing a significantly lower abundance of this family in the first condition ($p < 0.001$) (Suppl. mat. 6
398 and 7). As second main responder to contamination, there was a significantly higher abundance of
399 Burkholderiaceae in **excavPoll** rhizosphere as compared to **undistPoll** ($p < 0.05$) and in **undistRef**
400 rhizosphere as compared to **undistPoll** soil ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). HCH ($p < 0.01$) and the
401 excavation process ($p < 0.05$) had a significant effect on the mean relative abundance of
402 Sphingomonadaceae in rhizosphere soil (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). However, the HCH effect was only
403 marginal, as it was not further detected in pairwise comparisons.

404 Genus *Sphingobium* was a significant responder to HCH contamination in the rhizosphere. Pairwise
405 comparisons showed a significantly higher abundance of the genus *Sphingobium* in the **undistPoll**
406 rhizosphere than in **undistRef** one ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, *Sphingobium* was more abundant in **excavPoll**
407 rhizosphere than in **undistPoll** rhizosphere ($p < 0.05$) or in **excavRef** rhizosphere ($p < 0.01$) (Fig. 3;
408 Suppl. mat. 7). Plant age had a notable effect on the abundance of *Sphingobium*, which was
409 significantly higher in excavated rhizosphere plots, regardless of contamination ($p = 0.001$). Genus
410 *Massilia*, was significantly affected by both HCH and excavation in rhizospheres (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat.
411 7). Pairwise comparisons revealed a significantly higher abundance of this genus in **excavPoll** soil
412 when compared to **undistPoll** rhizosphere ($p < 0.05$) as well as in comparison to the **excavRef** soil ($p <$
413 0.05) (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

414 In roots of *L. tenuis*, the most frequently occurring differential ASVs belonged to Burkholderiaceae,
415 Rhizobiaceae, and Sphingomonadaceae (Suppl. mat. 4). At genus level, the most frequent responders
416 were *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* (Rhizobiaceae) and *Sphingomonas*
417 (Sphingomonadaceae). Burkholderiaceae from the root-associated microbiome were significantly
418 affected by HCH. Pairwise comparisons showed higher abundance of this taxon in the **undistPoll** as
419 compared to **excavPoll** roots ($p < 0.05$) and in **undistRef** roots as compared to **undistPoll** roots ($p <$
420 0.05) (Suppl. mat. 7). Additionally, Burkholderiaceae were marginally more abundant in the **excavPoll**
421 roots than in the **excavRef** roots ($p = 0.06$). Rhizobiaceae were identified as negative responders to
422 HCH in the root-associated bacterial communities ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). This effect was
423 however not strong enough to be further detected in the pairwise comparisons. Plant age had a clear
424 effect on the abundance of Sphingomonadaceae in root-associated bacterial communities ($p < 0.05$).

425 They were more abundant in the old roots, regardless of the contamination level (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7).
426 Furthermore, this family was positively affected by HCH, as they were significantly more abundant in
427 **undistPoll** roots ($p < 0.01$), and nearly significant when compared to **undistRef** roots ($p > 0.05$).

428 The *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* clade was a strong positive responder to
429 HCH in the root compartment of *L. tenuis*, pairwise comparisons showing higher abundance of this
430 clade in **undistPoll** roots, as compared to **excavPoll** roots ($p < 0.01$). Genus *Sphingomonas* had
431 significantly higher abundance in **undistPoll** roots when compared to **excavPoll** roots ($p = 0.001$) (Fig.
432 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

433 All identified main responders were also among the most abundant taxa at family level in our bulk,
434 rhizosphere and root samples (Suppl. mat. 8). Further, we identified those HCH tolerant bacteria which
435 were common to **undistPoll** bulk soil, **excavPoll** bulk soil, **excavPoll** rhizosphere and to roots of young
436 plants germinating on **excavPoll** plot (Suppl. mat. 9). Bacteria transferred from bulk soil to the root-
437 associated microbiome were identified as *Mesorhizobium loti* (100% similarity), *Neorhizobium galegae*
438 (100% similarity), *Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum* (similarity 99%), *Pantoea agglomerans* (prev.
439 *Enterobacter agglomerans*) (similarity 100%), *Lysobacter sp.* clone T28265 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*
440 (99% similarity) (Suppl. mat. 9).

441

442 **4. Discussion**

443

444 *4.1. Bulk soil bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and excavation procedures*

445 Our results showed that HCH and OM alone were the most significant environmental descriptors for
446 the differentiation of the bulk soil microbial community. Because bacterial α -diversity (richness) was
447 lower in the **excavPoll** plot than in all other three conditions, soil disturbance combined with HCH
448 contamination may have led to a slower recovery of species richness in freshly excavated bulk soil. On
449 the other hand, microbial growth (expressed here as C_{mic}) appeared to be sustained in both excavated
450 and undisturbed highly contaminated bulk samples by higher DOC and OM contents. Similar to
451 previous findings of Kalbitz and Popp (1999) and Balázs et al. (2020), high soil organic matter content
452 was positively correlated with HCH concentrations present in both excavated and undisturbed plots.
453 Kalbitz and Popp (1999) attributed higher OM and DOC concentration to either drought in summer or
454 litter accumulation in autumn. Since our sampling campaign took place at the beginning of June when
455 local temperatures were relatively high, this might be a plausible explanation for the OM peak in bulk
456 soil, triggering the adsorption of HCH to soil particles rich in OM, resulting in mobilization of the

457 contaminant, followed by HCH uptake in plants (Wahid and Sethunathan, 1979; Kalbitz and Popp,
458 1999).

459 Finding ASVs from the Sphingomonadaceae and Burkholderiaceae families as main responders to long
460 term HCH contamination is not surprising at all, as they all include versatile taxa found in a wide range
461 of habitats. As sphingomonads are well known to degrade recalcitrant xenobiotics and polyaromatic
462 compounds of both anthropogenic and natural origin (Glaeser and Kämpfer, 2014), we expected to find
463 taxa from this bacterial group that are specific for HCH contamination at the Turda site. However,
464 possibly because of their ubiquitousness, which allows these chemoorganotrophs to inhabit various
465 ecosystems (Amils, 2014; Glaeser and Kämpfer, 2014), HCH did not affect mean relative abundances
466 of Sphingomonadaceae in bulk soil. Burkholderiaceae are a very versatile group as well, and well
467 known hydrocarbon degraders (Castorena et al., 2006). Nevertheless, they appear to thrive on easy
468 degradable hydrocarbons rather than more recalcitrant compounds such as diesel oil (Bell et al., 2013)
469 or HCH in our case, which could explain the higher occurrence of this group in clean bulk soil.

470 Although ammonia-oxidizing bacteria have been proposed for the remediation of chlorobenzene
471 contaminated soil (Sayavedra-Soto et al., 2010), the Nitrosomonadaceae in our study were in general
472 negative responders to HCH. This supports results of Ibiene and Okpokwasili (2011), which showed
473 that the type genus of the family, *Nitrosomonas* sp., is sensitive to lindane contamination. Excavated
474 HCH bulk soil samples were much richer in Burkholderiaceae, Xanthomonadaceae and
475 Sphingomonadaceae ASVs than undistPoll bulk soil. Xanthomonadaceae are known hydrocarbon
476 degraders with many applications in bioremediation of oil / petroleum or trifluralin (herbicide)
477 contaminated soil (Popp et al., 2006; Chang and Zylstra, 2010; Du et al., 2018). The fact that they were
478 generally more abundant in the excavated conditions regardless if clean or contaminated, suggests that
479 these taxa are fast-growing generalists and early colonizers. Thus, despite their metabolic capabilities
480 which allowed them to tolerate and degrade HCH, they merely take advantage of free niches left
481 available by previously established bacterial communities.

482 At genus level we found two taxa to be considered as HCH tolerant in long term contamination:
483 *Sphingomonas* and *Altererythrobacter*, which is consistent with our previous findings in lindane
484 contaminated soil (Balázs et al., 2020). There are several examples of *Sphingomonas* strains isolated
485 from HCH contaminated soils found capable to tolerate and mineralize HCH isomers (Pal et al., 2005;
486 Singh and Lal, 2009; Teramoto et al., 2010; Tonon et al., 2014). Our results show that HCH did not
487 have any notable effect on the general abundance of this genus, highlighting the ability of
488 *Sphingomonas* to tolerate HCH and the possibility of employing them in *in situ* bioremediation
489 projects. *Sphingomonas* and *Lysobacter* were antagonistic responders to the excavation of HCH

490 contaminated soil. *Sphingomonas* was negatively affected by the excavation process, consistent with
491 observations of Dong et al. (2017) and Shi et al. (2017), who reported lower abundance of this genus in
492 tilled agricultural soil or land subsidence. Nevertheless, *Sphingomonas* was replaced by another known
493 HCH degrader in **excavPoll** bulk soil, the xanthomonad *Lysobacter* (Rani et al., 2016; Margesin et al.,
494 2018), suggesting quick adaptation of bacterial communities to HCH contamination after excavation
495 procedures.

496

497 4.2. Rhizosphere soil bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and the interaction 498 with plant developmental stage

499 Rhizosphere is a transition compartment between bulk soil and the root environment. Accordingly, we
500 expected the bacterial communities in this zone to reflect both soil HCH contamination and age of *L.*
501 *tenuis*, as plants can select different subsets of microbes at different stages to fulfill age-specific
502 functions (Chaparro et al., 2013). In line with this, the age of the rhizosphere had a significant influence
503 on bacterial community composition, followed by HCH contamination. As such, HCH shaped the
504 microbial community in the undisturbed rhizosphere, while excavated rhizosphere samples showed a
505 high degree of similarity regardless of contamination, thus highlighting the importance of plant growth
506 stage in acquiring a specific rhizosphere microbiome. Ammonium and total N content were the most
507 important environmental descriptors in rhizosphere soil, and positively correlated with HCH
508 concentration. This is consistent with results of Blondel et al. (2017) in lindane and chlordecone
509 contaminated maize rhizospheres where the plants enabled efficient C- and N- turnover and maintained
510 a normal ammonification process as opposed to lindane contaminated soil without plants. OM, DOC
511 and DON concentrations in rhizosphere followed the same pattern as in bulk soil, where they were
512 positively correlated with HCH concentration in undisturbed plots and possibly triggered an increased
513 microbial carbon biomass. Higher C_{mic} content and at the same time a lower bacterial richness in the
514 **undistPoll** rhizosphere suggests that contamination might offer suitable growth conditions for only few
515 HCH tolerant taxa, which are able to thrive under these conditions.

516 The Sphingomonadaceae were positive responders to HCH in the rhizosphere compartment. This might
517 have occurred either due to root exudates which could promote their growth (el Zahar Haichar et al.,
518 2008), or by following a selection process of the rhizosphere microbiome by plants as stress response
519 to contamination. Chapelle et al. (2016) showed that sphingomonads were enriched in the rhizosphere
520 of sugar beet as a stress response upon fungal infection, while Tsavkelova et al. (2007) suggested that
521 these bacteria are selected by orchid plant roots as they produce the growth hormone indole-3-acetic
522 acid. The strongest positive responder to HCH contamination in rhizosphere from this bacterial family

523 was *Sphingobium*, well known for its HCH degrading capabilities (Lal et al., 2008; Sangwan et al.,
524 2014). Burkholderiaceae are degraders of a vast range of aromatic compounds (Goldfarb et al., 2011),
525 and the presence of the copiotrophic genus *Massilia* in the early stages of succession of the rhizosphere
526 and root microbiome when supply of labile organic carbon in soil is high, is not surprising (Shrestha et
527 al., 2007; Li et al., 2014). Being copiotrophic organisms, *Massilia* are good abiotic stress tolerants (e.g.
528 to high HCH concentration in the excavated rhizosphere) but not particularly tolerant to biotic stress
529 (Shrestha et al., 2007; Abou-Shanab et al., 2010). Considering that lower species richness (α - diversity)
530 in the **excavPoll** rhizosphere also means lower competition between species, this low biotic stress is
531 probably the reason for the dominance of *Massilia* in this condition, as opposed to the **excavRef**
532 compartment.

533 In **undistPoll** rhizosphere, sphingomonads *Altererythrobacter* and *Sphingobium*, were the most
534 abundant differential genera, all of which have known HCH tolerant representatives (Pal et al., 2005;
535 Singh and Lal, 2009; Teramoto et al., 2010). The **excavPoll** rhizosphere however, showed higher
536 diversity of bacterial families, dominated by *Massilia* (Burkholderiaceae), *Sphingomonas*
537 (Sphingomonadaceae) and *Lysobacter* (Xanthomonadaceae). This configuration of generalist bacterial
538 genera is less typical for HCH contamination than for colonization of newly occurred free niches
539 following the excavation process (Shrestha et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014).

540

541 4.3. Root and root-associated bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and plant age 542 effect

543 Following the trend we observed at the transition from bulk to rhizosphere soil, the only factor
544 influencing the composition of *Lotus tenuis* root-associated bacterial communities was the plant
545 development stage, regardless of HCH contamination. Overall bacterial richness (α - diversity) was not
546 affected by HCH contamination in the roots of the plants growing on undisturbed plots. Nevertheless,
547 bacterial richness in young roots of *L. tenuis* (from excavated plots) was altogether lower than in roots
548 of mature plants from undisturbed plots. This is probably a reflection of the early succession stages of
549 plant microbiome development, when the increase in copiotroph (r- strategists) abundance is supported
550 by the non-limiting nutrient-rich new environment but species richness is low due to weak competition
551 (Shrestha et al., 2007).

552 *Lotus tenuis* is a model plant for legumes known to have a great potential for adaptation to abiotic
553 stress, making it the perfect candidate for dune re-vegetation or heavy-metal contaminated soils
554 (Escaray et al., 2012). As we previously identified *L. tenuis* as both an early colonizer and HCH
555 tolerant at the Turda production facility (Balázs et al., 2018), we considered it for restoration of HCH

556 contaminated sites. Plants collected from the **excavRef**, **excavPoll** and **undistPoll** plots had similar fresh
557 biomass (~1g), while the mean fresh biomass of the plants collected from the **undistRef** plot was almost
558 30 times higher. This reveals a clear negative effect of long-term HCH contamination on *L. tenuis*
559 growth and development. The effect of HCH or lindane on early growth and development of legumes
560 had previously been studied on soybean (Tu, 1977) and *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Pereira et al., 2010). Both
561 studies reported a certain degree of resistance of plants in this family to HCH, as their early growth was
562 not significantly affected by the contaminant. These results are supported by the fresh biomass
563 estimates of young *L. tenuis* roots, which had similar values regardless whether they grew on clean or
564 contaminated excavated plots. In addition, the inhibited late growth of *L. tenuis* in high HCH
565 contamination conditions is consistent with data of Tripathi et al. (2014), showing that lindane in high
566 concentrations in soil reduces growth and yield of *Vigna radiata*. We further observed a strong
567 nodulation on *L. tenuis* roots collected from the **undistRef** plot, hardly any or no nodules on the plants
568 from the **undistPoll** plot and no nodules on young plants from excavated plots (personal observation).
569 The C : N ratio of *L. tenuis* was nevertheless constant, regardless of HCH contamination and despite
570 the lack of nodulation in roots of plants growing at the **undistPoll** plot. Khan et al. (2006) showed that
571 certain herbicides decrease nodulation and biomass of nodules in chickpea, leading to a decrease in N
572 content of the grains as well. Yet, in our case *L. tenuis* seems to have adapted to that impediment by
573 taking up nitrogen from soil to maintain its C and N balance, possibly even in the form of ammonium
574 which was more abundant in the rhizosphere of plants from both **undistPoll** and **excavPoll** plots.
575 Supporting this idea, Rogato et al. (2010) reported a high affinity ammonium transporter in a short-root
576 wild phenotype of *L. japonicus*, which presumably modulated root growth in conditions of potentially
577 toxic external ammonium concentration. However, as this happened at an ammonium concentration
578 higher than 10mM, which is not our case, we regard this rather as an adaptation of *Lotus tenuis* to
579 contamination conditions, which prevent efficient nodulation and thus symbiotic nitrogen fixation, than
580 to toxic ammonium concentrations.

581 HCH did not have significant effects on general root microbial composition. However, we found
582 several particularities in roots of *L. tenuis* from **undistPoll** contaminated plot which could indicate HCH
583 tolerant bacteria, with or without benefits for the host plants. Similar to rhizosphere soil, there was a
584 higher abundance of ASVs from the Sphingomonadaceae family inhabiting **undistPoll** roots but not
585 **undistRef** ones. The latter were characterized by a greater abundance of differential Burkholderiaceae
586 genera like *Massilia*, *Douganella*, *Variovorax* and *Rhizobacter*. This highlights the high potential of
587 taxa within the Burkholderiaceae to establish close interactions with plants, of both beneficial (Han et

588 al., 2010; Haack et al., 2016), neutral (Ofek et al., 2012) or pathogenic (Goto, 2015) nature in non-
589 contaminated conditions.

590 Genera characteristic to the root-associated microbiome of plants growing at the **undistPoll**
591 contaminated plot, were *Sphingomonas*, *Devosia*, *Brevundimonas* and *Rhodanobacter*. *Sphingomonas*
592 and *Devosia* have been mentioned as non-nodulating bacteria in legume roots (Tariq et al., 2013).
593 While *Sphingomonas* is a common legume endophyte frequently selected by the host as an antagonist
594 to pathogens (Pini et al., 2012; Hartman et al., 2017), *Devosia* species were often isolated from soils
595 contaminated with high amounts of HCH where they were able to tolerate the contaminant but not to
596 degrade it (Talwar et al., 2020). As several *Devosia* species are capable of nitrogen fixation in legumes
597 (Rivas et al., 2002; Hoque et al., 2011), they might have been selected by *L. tenuis* roots to fulfill the
598 nitrogen fixation function in nodule-impaired old roots along *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-*
599 *Pararhizobium-Rhizobium*. Although microbial composition in roots was generally driven by plant age,
600 our results indicate that *L. tenuis* actively acquires beneficial bacteria for N fixation or rhizobacteria
601 with plant growth promoting abilities that are at the same time capable of tolerating HCH. As such,
602 *Massilia*, *Pantoea* and *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* were the most
603 abundant genera characteristic for *L. tenuis* roots in the **excavPoll** plot. *Massilia* is a copiotroph
604 characteristic for early microbial succession in roots (Ofek et al., 2012), while *Pantoea* and
605 *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* can both fix nitrogen, and even degrade
606 xenobiotics as in the case of *Pantoea* (Stacey, 2001; Walterson and Stavrinides, 2015).

607

608 4.4. HCH contaminated soil as inoculum for bioaugmentation procedures in microbe-assisted 609 phytoremediation

610 We identified several HCH tolerant bacteria which might be transferred from the **undistPoll** bulk soil to
611 the **excavPoll** bulk soil through excavation and through the rhizosphere to the roots of young plants
612 germinating on the excavated soil. Two of the identified bacteria, which could serve as an inoculum,
613 are *Mesorhizobium loti* and *Neorhizobium galegae*. Both rhizobia are capable of forming nitrogen-
614 fixing symbiosis with legume roots and therefore successfully used to sustain the growth of the early
615 colonizer *Lotus tenuis* in the recovery process of HCH contaminated soil environments. Furthermore,
616 bacteria like *Mesorhizobium loti* growing on HCH contaminated soils encode haloalkane
617 dehalogenases, enzymes involved in the assimilation of organochlorine pesticides (Fetzner and
618 Lingens, 1994; Sato et al., 2005). Although *M. loti* cannot degrade nor survive on HCH as sole carbon
619 source, the dehalogenases it encodes are still an interesting aspect to take into consideration for
620 bioaugmentation projects of HCH contaminated soil.

621 *Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum* is another bacterium we identified as common to both
622 contaminated bulk soils, to the **excavPoll** rhizosphere and at the same time to the root-associated
623 bacterial communities of young roots growing in the **excavPoll** plot. *Novosphingobium*
624 *lindaniclasticum* is an HCH degrading bacterium, first isolated from an HCH dumpsite in Lucknow,
625 India (Saxena et al., 2013). The metabolic versatility of *Novosphingobium* strains allows them to
626 colonize a wide range of habitats from soil and water to plant surfaces, rendering them perfect
627 candidates for microbe-assisted phytoremediation and bioaugmentation procedures.

628 *Pantoea agglomerans* is a bacterium featuring plant growth promoting traits such as nitrogen fixation
629 and phosphate solubilization and at the same time, it is a plant pathogen antagonist (Lim et al., 2014).
630 Its additional ability to degrade DDT and γ -HCH (lindane) (Karagoz et al., 2016) makes it therefore
631 another inoculum that might be well suited for bioremediation of HCH contaminated sites.

632 Two other species of the genus *Lysobacter* (*Lysobacter* sp. clone T28265 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*)
633 were transferred from contaminated old bulk soil to young *L. tenuis* roots in excavated plots. Although
634 there is not sufficient data regarding the behavior of these taxa in HCH contaminated environments,
635 they are still of interest since bacteria from this genus have plant pathogen antagonistic capabilities.
636 Furthermore, another species of this genus, *Lysobacter tolerans*, was isolated from HCH contaminated
637 sites where it is known to degrade the compound (Expósito et al., 2015; Rani et al., 2016).

638

639 4.5. HCH effect on the potential nitrogen fixation in soil and roots of *Lotus tenuis*

640 Potential nitrogen fixation in bulk and rhizosphere soil and in the *L. tenuis* root-associated microbiome
641 was generally not affected by HCH contamination. The single exception consisted in the rhizosphere of
642 young plants growing at the **excavPoll** plot, where we observed lower *nifH* gene copy numbers as
643 compared to **excavRef** rhizospheres. The lower diazotroph abundance in the **excavPoll** rhizosphere did
644 not reflect either in the plant C: N ratio, nor in the average plant fresh biomass, which was similar to
645 the young plants growing in non-contaminated soil. Fox et al. (2001) showed that DDT, a pesticide
646 with similar chemical structure to HCH, caused negative effects on potential nitrogen fixation and nod-
647 exposition by disrupting the plant-*Rhizobium* signaling. Nevertheless, we observed no difference in
648 nodulation between young plants, regardless whether they were growing in contaminated or non-
649 contaminated plots. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the abundance of Rhizobiaceae
650 in rhizospheres of young plants. It is well known that members of the Rhizobiaceae family are not the
651 only organisms capable of fixing nitrogen (Vitousek et al., 2002) and that in later growth stages,
652 specific nitrogen fixing populations which can tolerate HCH application may be selected and
653 stimulated by the rhizosphere (Patnaik et al., 1996). Therefore, the temporarily lower potential nitrogen

654 fixation in **excavPoll** rhizosphere might be just a short-term HCH effect on the initial microbial
655 succession, inhibiting the growth of early colonizing diazotrophs.

656

657 **5. Conclusions**

658 Our results show that soil and root-associated bacterial communities may be affected in different
659 degrees by HCH contamination and by excavation as a soil clean-up measure. **In bulk soil HCH was**
660 **the main factor influencing bacterial community composition, while rhizosphere microbiome was**
661 **shaped by both HCH and plant developmental stage.** The bacterial community composition from both
662 long-term contaminated and excavated plots provided information about microbial succession in HCH
663 contamination conditions, which are key aspects to be considered in field bioaugmentation procedures
664 where HCH is not the only factor influencing the success of microbe-assisted phytoremediation.
665 Furthermore, we identified several bacteria which were common to the undisturbed HCH contaminated
666 bulk soil, to the excavated HCH bulk soil, and to the rhizosphere and roots of young plants growing in
667 the excavated HCH hotspot. Altogether, these taxa point towards a possible inoculum with HCH
668 tolerant bacteria (**H1**), which are transferred from contaminated bulk soil to rhizospheres and roots of
669 *L. tenuis* with beneficial effects for microbe-assisted phytoremediation and bioaugmentation
670 procedures (**H2**). Finally, potential nitrogen fixation was not affected by HCH, except for the
671 contaminated rhizosphere of young plants growing on the freshly excavated plots (**H3**). This highlights
672 the high adaptability of native bacterial communities to perform important ecosystem functions in
673 various field conditions regardless of HCH contamination.

674

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679

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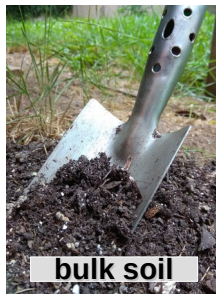
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681 **Figure 1.** Relationship between bacterial richness and HCH concentration in the bulk soil, rhizosphere
682 and root compartments. Dots and solid lines represent samples from undisturbed plots. Triangles and
683 dashed lines represent samples from excavated plots. Regression significance: excavated bulk soil ($p <$
684 0.01 ; $R^2 = 0.6$); undisturbed rhizosphere ($p < 0.01$; $R^2 = 0.6$). All other regressions were not significant
685 ($p > 0.05$).

686
687 **Figure 2.** CAP ordinations of bacterial communities showing differences induced by HCH
688 contamination and excavation in (a) bulk soil, (b) rhizosphere soil and (c) roots of *Lotus tenuis*. (a)
689 Model significance: (a) $p < 0.001$; Pseudo- $F_{1,18} = 1.39$; (b) $p < 0.001$, Pseudo- $F_{4,15} = 1.45$; (c) $p < 0.05$,
690 Pseudo- $F_{3,16} = 1.14$. Axis significance: (a) CAP1: $p < 0.001$, and Pseudo- $F_{1,18} = 1.39$; (b) CAP1: $p <$
691 0.001 , Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 2.42$; (c) CAP1: $p > 0.05$, Pseudo- $F_{1,16} = 1.33$. Dots represent undisturbed plots;
692 triangles represent excavated plots. Light blue color represents low HCH concentration and black
693 represents high HCH concentration. Ellipses delineate 95% confidence ellipses. Red arrows mark the
694 co-explanatory variables: OM (organic matter), ammonium and total N content.

695
696 **Figure 3.** Mean relative abundance of the most important responders at genus level to HCH
697 contamination in (a) bulk soil, (b) rhizosphere soil and (c) roots of *Lotus tenuis*. The colors of the bars
698 represent the disturbance status of the plots: light gray – undisturbed plots; dark gray– excavated plots.

Graphical Abstract

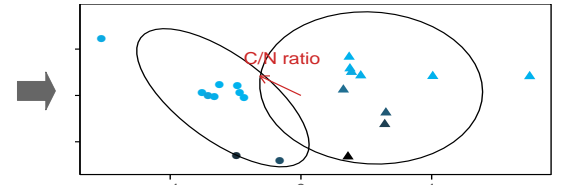
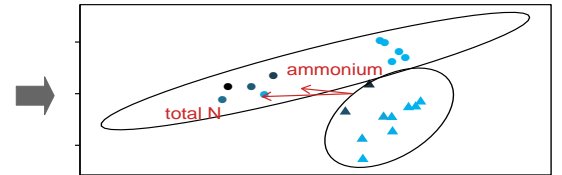
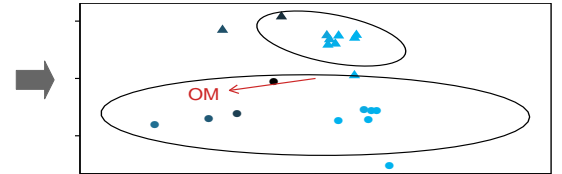


only HCH effect

excavation and HCH effect

only excavation effect

Effects of HCH and excavation on bacterial community composition



Highlights (for review : 3 to 5 bullet points (maximum 85 characters including spaces per bullet point)

- HCH contamination shaped bulk soil bacterial communities
- Rhizosphere microbial communities are affected by HCH contamination and plant age
- *Lotus tenuis* growth and development is negatively affected by HCH contamination
- Lower nitrogen fixation potential in freshly excavated contaminated rhizosphere
- Bioaugmentation might improve and accelerate HCH removal in soils

1 **Post-reclamation microbial diversity and functions in**
2 **hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) contaminated soil in relation to**
3 **spontaneous HCH tolerant vegetation**

4
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32 **Abstract**

33

34 Given the toxicity, volatility and persistence of the organochlorine pesticide hexachlorocyclohexane
35 (HCH), reclamation of contaminated areas is a priority for the health and welfare of neighboring human
36 communities. Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to spontaneous vegetation in
37 post-excavation situations, are essential indicators to consider when bioaugmentation or microbe-
38 assisted phytoremediation strategies are developed. Thus, the present study aimed to evaluate the
39 effects of long-term HCH contamination on soil and plant-associated microbial communities, and
40 whether HCH contaminated soil has the potential to act as a bacterial inoculum in post-excavation
41 bioaugmentation and microbe-assisted phytoremediation strategies. To scrutinize the role of vegetation,
42 the potential nitrogen fixation of free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs of the legume *Lotus tenuis* was
43 assessed as a measure of nutrient cycling functions in soil under HCH contamination. Potential
44 nitrogen fixation was generally not affected by HCH contamination. The single exception was a
45 temporary lower nifH gene count in the excavated contaminated rhizosphere which is most probably a
46 short-term HCH effect on early bacterial succession in this compartment. HCH was the main shaping
47 factor of the microbial communities in long-term contaminated bulk soil, where we identified possible
48 HCH tolerating genera such as *Sphingomonas* and *Altererythrobacter*. In *L. tenuis* rhizosphere,
49 microbial community composition was influenced by both HCH contamination and plant growth stage.
50 *Sphingobium* and *Massilia* were the bacterial genera characteristic for HCH contaminated rhizospheres.
51 *L. tenuis* growth and development was negatively affected by long-term HCH contamination. The root-
52 associated bacterial community composition however was driven solely by plant age, whereas the HCH
53 effect was negligible. In contamination conditions, *L. tenuis* seems to acquire potentially HCH tolerant
54 bacteria which could at the same time offer plant growth promoting (PGP) benefits for the host, such as
55 the *Allorhizobium- Neorhizobium- Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* clade, *Sphingomonas*, *Massilia* or
56 *Pantoea*. Finally, we identified an inoculum with possibly HCH tolerant PGP bacteria transferred from
57 the contaminated bulk soil to *L. tenuis* roots through the rhizosphere compartment, consisting of
58 *Mesorhizobium loti*, *Neorhizobium galegae*, *Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum*, *Pantoea agglomerans*
59 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*.

60 **Keywords:**

61 Hexachlorocyclohexane; Soil clean-up; Soil functions; Bacterial community; Bioremediation

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65 **1. Introduction**

66
67 Hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) was one of the most widely used organochlorine pesticides in
68 agriculture between the 1950s and 1980s where a total of nearly 8 million tons of toxic and persistent
69 waste was deposited worldwide at former production sites (Willett et al., 1998). Due to inadequate
70 disposal techniques, HCH has been flagged for regulatory intervention and elimination to limit its
71 dispersion via air or water and avoid accumulation into plant and animal food resources (Vijgen et al.,
72 2011; Ogbeide et al., 2016). Since many countries lack funding for proper clean-up and restoration,
73 excavation remains the cheapest conventional clean-up approach for HCH contaminated sites (Caliman
74 et al., 2011; Morillo and Villaverde, 2017). However, there are often no follow-up interventions (*e.g.*
75 landfilling or phytoremediation approaches) to prevent further dispersion of contaminant left-overs via
76 air transport to neighboring residential areas.

77 Microbial diversity and functions at field scale, in relation to spontaneous vegetation in post-
78 remediation situations, are essential criteria for the development of customized strategies to enhance
79 and speed up the reclamation of brownfields representing a potential danger to local human
80 communities. There are, however, very few studies of microbial diversity and functions as ecological
81 indicators in HCH polluted soil (Dadhwal et al., 2009; Bala et al., 2010), and only one which tackles
82 these aspects in post-reclamation situations (Balázs et al., 2020). Nonetheless, the latter study handles
83 only lindane as a contaminant, and it was limited to controlled greenhouse conditions.

84 The partial excavation of the HCH waste deposits from Turda (Romania, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 1) offered an
85 opportunity to study how soil and plant associated bacterial communities adapt to long-term pollution
86 and remediation attempts. As HCH tolerant bacterial consortia proved to decrease HCH levels in soil
87 at both pot and field scale (Garg et al., 2016), we hypothesized that post- excavation traces of
88 contaminated soil might serve as an inoculum with native, HCH- tolerant bacteria for subsequent
89 bioaugmentation strategies. Such inocula could prove more efficient than artificial consortia, given that
90 native bacterial communities are already adapted to contamination and to the local physico-chemical
91 conditions.

92 In addition, microbe-assisted phytoremediation studies showed that soil inoculation with HCH
93 tolerant/degrading strains and plant growth promoting rhizobacteria could enhance HCH dissipation in
94 rhizospheres and increase plant performance and tolerance to toxicity (Becerra-Castro et al., 2013a,b;
95 Alvarez et al., 2015). Plants grown in contaminated soils become an important sink for organochlorine
96 compounds via soil-plant and or air-plant route, as they are capable of accumulating high amounts of
97 HCH (Pereira et al., 2006). Given that *L. tenuis* is growing spontaneously at the Turda site, we
98 hypothesized that contaminated soil may potentially serve as an inoculum with HCH tolerant bacterial

99 strains for the plant, and that these strains might support *L. tenuis* growth and performance as first
100 colonizer, as well as its function in nitrogen fixation.

101 Finally, recovery of microbial functions after excavation is a critical step in achieving soil restoration
102 and a functional ecosystem. Since the excavated soil had already been colonized by the legume *Lotus*
103 *tenuis*, potential nitrogen fixation was one of the most important bacterial functions at this stage of
104 ecological succession. Hence, our third objective was to assess effects of HCH on potential nitrogen
105 fixation in bulk and rhizosphere soil, as well as at root level of the early colonizer *Lotus tenuis*, as a
106 measure of post-reclamation ecosystem functionality.

107 To summarize, the present field study aimed to address the following hypotheses: (H1) HCH
108 contaminated soil acts a bacterial inoculum in post-reclamation bioaugmentation strategies; (H2) such
109 an inoculum can improve plant performance and tolerance to HCH in early vegetation succession
110 stages; and (H3) HCH affects potential nitrogen fixation of free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs. For
111 this purpose, we measured soil physico-chemical parameters, plant fitness, and characterized soil and
112 root-associated bacterial communities by means of 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing in long-term
113 HCH- contaminated soil and their subsequent response to excavation procedures.

114

115 **2. Materials and methods**

116

117 2.1 Site description

118 The former chemical plant (46°55'N, 23°78'E) is located within the precincts of Turda city, Romania,
119 near the river Arieș (Suppl. mat. 1). Between 1954 and 1983, approximately 15,000 tons of waste HCH
120 were inadequately deposited within that enclosure (Prodan et al., 2011). The chemical plant shut down
121 in 1998, but the close proximity to residential areas and easy access of unauthorized persons on the
122 grounds represent a continuous pollution source and health concern for the local community. The
123 factory area includes two HCH hotspots: one is a waste heap on the right bank of the river Arieș, and
124 the other corresponds to the former lindane production department (Balázs et al., 2018). In spring 2018,
125 an area including the former production department HCH hotspot and several neighboring low-
126 contamination plots were excavated and leveled out, as a measure of soil reclamation (Suppl. mat. 1).
127 The sampling campaign took place two months after the excavation operation, at the end of May 2018.

128

129 2.2 Sampling design and procedures

130 To assess the presence of a possible bacterial inoculum and the effect of post-reclamation HCH levels
131 on nitrogen fixation and plant performance, we compared the previously identified HCH hotspots with
132 two neighbouring low contaminated plots (Balázs et al., 2018). One of the HCH hotspots and one low
133 contaminated plots were freshly excavated, while the other two were undisturbed and covered with
134 spontaneous vegetation (Suppl. mat. 1). The undisturbed plots are further named “undistPoll” (high
135 contamination), “undistRef” (low contamination) while the freshly excavated and leveled plots were
136 named “excavPoll” (high contamination) and “excavRef” (low contamination). All plots were
137 colonized by *Lotus tenuis* WALDST. & KIT. ex WILLD., but with different coverage. *Lotus tenuis* was
138 chosen for this field study as it already grew spontaneously on the premises in HCH hotspots (Balázs et
139 al., 2018). As an early perennial colonizer and member of the Fabaceae family, *L. tenuis* has an
140 important role in creating optimal conditions for the further development of a spontaneous vegetation
141 cover. Furthermore, it provides important ecosystem services such as nitrogen fixation, erosion control,
142 build-up of soil organic matter or development of a diverse microbial community in the soil.
143 For optimal coverage, a five sampling point pattern corresponding to five biological replicates was
144 randomly set within the limits of each of the four plots. Each of the equally spaced five sampling points
145 consisted of a circular area with one meter radius. Five bulk soil sub-samples were collected at random
146 from within the limits of each sampling point and mixed into one composite sample, resulting in five
147 composite biological replicates for each of the four plots: “undistPoll”, “undistRef”, “excavPoll” and
148 “excavRef”. Rhizosphere and plant samples were subsequently collected from within the circular
149 sampling points established for bulk soil.
150 Bulk soil was collected from the upper 10 cm, mixed into composite samples for each sampling point,
151 sieved through 2 mm mesh, filled into sterile tubes and temporarily stored on ice. Samples meant for
152 DNA extraction were stored at -80°C and samples for physico-chemical measurements were stored at
153 4°C. Samples meant for HCH quantification were freeze-dried and subsequently stored at 4°C.
154 To collect rhizospheres, soil was loosened around the plant roots which were then carefully pulled out
155 with adherent rhizosphere soil. Plants collected from one sampling point were pulled together into a
156 composite sample, were shaken on top of a sieve equipped with a tray and brushed to retrieve as much
157 rhizosphere material as possible. The soil was then sieved and stored in the same manner as the bulk
158 soil. The plant material was washed with tap water, followed by autoclaved distilled water, separated
159 into roots and shoots and stored at -80°C until further use. Before the plant material was separated,
160 several plants from each sample were weighed to estimate mean fresh biomass.

161
162 2.3 Soil physico-chemical parameters, microbial biomass carbon and plant C/N ratio

163 Microbial biomass carbon (C_{mic}) was determined according to DIN ISO 14240-2:2011-09 after
164 chloroform fumigation and subsequent extraction with 0.01M $CaCl_2$ solution (1:4 (w/v)). Dissolved
165 organic carbon and nitrogen (DOC, DON) as well as ammonium, nitrate and nitrite concentrations were
166 extracted in the same manner, excluding the fumigation step. All extractions were done in triplicates
167 and stored at $-20^{\circ}C$ for later measurements. Organic C and N were quantified on a Total Carbon
168 Analyzer (Shimadzu TOC 5050, Tokyo, Japan). C_{mic} was calculated as the difference of total C
169 between fumigated and non-fumigated samples, using a fraction of 0.45 as extractable part of microbial
170 biomass carbon (Joergensen, 1996). Total nitrogen and ammonium were determined using a
171 continuous-flow photometric analyser (CFA-SAN Plus; Skalar Analytik, Germany). Soil pH was
172 measured according to the ISO 10390:2005-02 method, in 0.01M $CaCl_2$ (soil: solution ratio of 1:5
173 (w/v)) after a 2 h incubation time. Soil organic matter content (OM) was determined after drying the
174 soil for 24 hours at $65^{\circ}C$ followed by heating at $450^{\circ}C$ for 5 hours in a muffle oven. OM content was
175 determined by weighing before and after heating samples to $450^{\circ}C$, the difference in weight
176 corresponding to the incinerated soil OM.

177 Plant material (roots and leaves) was dried at $65^{\circ}C$ for 48 h and ground to a fine powder with a Tissue
178 LyserII (Qiagen GmbH, Germany). Approximately 1.5 mg of the powder was weighted into 3.5 mm \times
179 5 mm tin capsules (HEKAtech GmbH, Wegberg, Germany). Total carbon and nitrogen contents in *L.*
180 *tenuis* roots and leaves were determined using an Elemental-Analysator 'Euro-EA' (Eurovector,
181 Milano, Italy).

182

183 2.4 HCH extraction and analysis from bulk soil

184 The extraction of HCH isomers from soil followed the QuEChERS method described by Fernandes et
185 al. (2013). HCH was extracted from 5 g of dried sieved bulk soil hydrated with 3 mL MilliQ water after
186 one hour incubation. 10 mL of acetonitrile were added to the solution, followed by vigorous vortexing
187 and shaking. A powder mixture of 4 g anhydrous $MgSO_4$, 1 g NaCl, 1 g Na_3 citrate dihydrate and 0.5 g
188 Na_2 citrate sesquihydrate was added to the acetonitrile solution, subsequently vigorously shaken and
189 vortexed, sonicated for 5 minutes, ending with a 5 minute centrifugation at 3000 rpm (Avanti J-25,
190 Beckman Coulter, USA). 1.5 mL of supernatant was cleaned-up with 150 mg $MgSO_4$, 50 mg C18 and
191 50 mg PSA. The mixture was vortexed, shaken vigorously, and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 4000 \times g.
192 1mL of supernatant was spiked with hexachlorobenzene (HCB) as internal standard (10 ppm end
193 concentration in the solution), and subsequently evaporated to dryness at $40^{\circ}C$ under nitrogen gas flow
194 and reconstituted with 1 mL n-hexane. The identification and quantification of α -, β - and γ -HCH
195 isomers was done using an Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph equipped with a 7686B series injector,

196 both from Agilent Technologies (CA, USA) and coupled with a IRMS detector (Delta plus Advantage,
197 Thermo Finnigan, Waltham, Massachusetts). Isomers were separated on a DB-5 column (30m x
198 0.25mm x 0.25µm, P/N 122-5032, J&W Scientific from Agilent Technologies) with helium (99.999 %
199 purity) used as carrier gas, at a flow of 1mL/min. The column oven temperature was programmed to
200 80°C for 10 min, increased to 175° C at 20° C/min, followed by a 1° C/min increase until 185°, until it
201 reached 300° at a rate of 35° C/min and then held for 2 min. A volume of 5 µL was injected in splitless
202 mode with a 40-mm length needle (P/N 5181-1267, Agilent Technologies) into the injection port at
203 250°C. The HCH isomer concentrations were calculated based on a linear five-point calibration curve,
204 ranging from 5 ppm to 20 ppm. Integrations were done using the Isodat-Gas Isotope ration MS
205 software (version 3.0) from Thermo Scientific. HCH values are synthesized in Suppl. mat 2.

206

207 2.5 16SrRNA gene library preparation

208 Total DNA was extracted from 0.5g of soil and 0.3g of ground root material (both fresh weight), using
209 the NucleoSpin Soil Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany), according to the manufacturer's protocol.
210 Empty sterile extraction tubes were prepared for each soil compartment and root DNA extraction, to
211 serve as negative extraction controls. The concentration of DNA extracts was quantified with a 5200
212 Fragment Analyzer System (Agilent, US-CA), using the Genomic DNA 50Kb Analysis Kit. Ten ng of
213 the DNA extracts were used to amplify the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene, using the primer pair
214 338F (5'- GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT- 3') /789R (5' -GGAATCCTCTCTCACCACATTGCCAGG
215 CAGACC- 3') with Illumina adapter sequences, which was reported to exclude chloroplast
216 amplification (Dorn-In et al., 2015). PCR reactions were carried out in three technical replicates using
217 the NEBNext High-Fidelity 2× PCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, US-MA) with the
218 addition of tetramethyl ammonium chloride at 36mM final concentration in the PCR reaction. Non
219 target control (NTC) and positive controls containing the target gene were also performed in triplicates.
220 PCR conditions were: initial denaturation step, 30 s at 98 °C; 25 cycles (10 s denaturation at 98 °C; 30
221 s annealing at 60 °C; and 30 s elongation at 72 °C); and the final elongation step at 72 °C, 5 min. The
222 technical replicates of the PCR products were checked on 1% agarose gel, and afterwards pooled for
223 purification using the NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel), according to the
224 manufacturer's protocol. The purified product underwent quality check and quantification with the
225 5200 Fragment Analyzer System (Agilent, US-CA), using the NGS Fragment Kit (1-6000bp). 10 ng of
226 the purified 16S rRNA gene amplicon were indexed using the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina Inc.,
227 San Diego, US-CA) for multiplexed short-read sequencing. PCR conditions were: initial denaturation
228 step, 30 s at 98 °C; 8 cycles (10 s denaturation at 98 °C; 30 s annealing at 55 °C; and 30 s elongation at

229 72 °C); and the final elongation step at 72 °C, 5 min. The indexed product was checked on 1% agarose
230 gel and purified with NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel). Quality and
231 concentration of the indexing product were assessed using the above mentioned kit from Agilent. The
232 samples were diluted to 4nM and pooled equimolarly. 10 pmol DNA were sequenced with a MiSeq
233 System (Illumina, San Diego, US-CA) using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (600 cycle) for paired end
234 sequencing with PhiX (Illumina, San Diego, US-CA) as a spike-in positive control.

235

236 2.6 Quantification of nitrogen fixation potential

237 DNA extracts used for 16S rRNA gene library preparation were also used to quantify the *nifH* gene
238 (coding for a nitrogenase) copy numbers by means of real time quantitative PCR (qPCR). The *nifH*
239 gene abundance was quantified using the primer pair *nifH*-f (5'-AAA GGY GGW ATC GGY AAR TCC
240 ACC AC-3') and *nifH*-r (5'-TTG TTS GCS GCR TAC ATS GCC ATC AT-3') (Rösch et al., 2002). The
241 source organism for the nitrogenase reductase standard was *Sinorhizobium meliloti* 30136, and the
242 mean PCR reaction efficiency \pm SD was 2.04 ± 0.1 for bulk soil, 2.04 ± 0.09 for rhizosphere and 1.88
243 ± 0.1 for plant samples. Serial dilutions of 1:8, 1:16, 1:32 and 1:64 of the DNA extracts were tested for
244 DNA polymerase inhibitors. The dilution showing the best PCR efficiency (1:64 v/v) was used for
245 quantification, using the PowerSYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Life Technologies, Warrington, UK)
246 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was added to all reactions
247 at 0.06% final concentration to reduce inhibitory effects of polyphenolic compounds co-extracted from
248 soil. To maintain similar PCR conditions throughout sample types, BSA was added in the same
249 concentration to root samples as well.

250 Samples were measured in three technical replicates on a 7300 Real-Time PCR System (Applied
251 Biosystems, Foster City, US-CA). The PCR program consisted of the following steps: initial
252 denaturation 95°C, 10 min; amplification 40 cycles (denaturation 45s at 95°C, annealing 45s at 55°C,
253 elongation 45s at 72°C); melting curve (15s at 95°C, 30s at 60°C and 15s at 95°C). The specificity of
254 the PCR reactions was checked by melting curve analysis. Initial fluorescence values obtained for each
255 sample were converted to gene copy numbers per gram of dry soil / dry root biomass, using standard
256 curves created with 10-fold dilutions of the above mentioned standard with known copy number. The
257 baseline was subtracted and normalized, followed by data analysis using the package qpcR (Spiess,
258 2018) applying the mechanistic cm3 model. This model is insensitive to low PCR efficiencies and
259 minimizes effects of PCR inhibitors (Carr and Moore, 2012). Kinetic outliers were discarded
260 automatically.

261

262 2.7 Data analysis

263 2.7.1 Bioinformatics analysis

264 The raw sequencing data were demultiplexed on the MiSeq system. Subsequently, primer and adapter
265 sequences were removed using AdapterRemoval v. 2.1.7 (Lindgreen, 2012). 6.52 million raw reads
266 were generated in total, with $97,242 \pm 36,417$ (mean \pm SD) reads per sample. Rarefaction plots were
267 constructed to assess sequencing coverage. There was saturation of the sequence coverage in all
268 samples (data not shown). Sequencing run quality and the amount of trimming necessary for further
269 processing of the sequences was assessed using quality plots using the R package DADA2 v. 1.10.1
270 (Callahan et al., 2016). All reads were trimmed by 10 bp at the beginning, while forward reads were
271 trimmed after 290 bp and reverse reads after 210 bp. After removing remaining PhiX sequences,
272 quality filtering and trimming, 99.3% of the initial reads remained for analysis after this step. The
273 forward and reverse reads were denoised separately (91.3% from the forward reads and 93.2% of the
274 reverse reads remaining) and merged (66.6% of the total reads remaining) using the R package
275 DADA2. Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) were generated, followed by removal of chimeric
276 sequences (54.5% of reads remaining, i.e. 3,548,214 reads or 24,482 ASVs). DADA2 infers sample
277 sequences which are resolved at differences of one nucleotide and generates ASVs as opposed to
278 operational taxonomic units. The ASVs were taxonomically annotated using the SILVA database v. 128
279 (Quast et al., 2012). This data set was then imported in R and further filtered using the R package
280 phyloseq v.1.26.1 (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). ASVs assigned to kingdoms other than Bacteria, to
281 chloroplasts or mitochondria were removed. Contaminant ASVs were identified and removed using the
282 R package decontam (Davis et al., 2017), accounting for a total of 0.29% of the initial number of reads.
283 Bacterial richness was estimated at this step from the remaining 24,407 ASVs as the number of
284 observed ASVs per sample using the R function *estimate_richness()* from the phyloseq package.
285 For further analysis of the data set, a prevalence filter was applied to sort out the ASVs that were only
286 present in a single sample. This abundance cut-off attempts to reduce the high number of ASVs that
287 account for only a few reads, thus minimizing the influence of rare ASVs on the statistical models. The
288 final data set contained 39.33% of the initial raw reads (3,010,093 reads, accounting for 8,334 ASVs).
289 The nucleotide sequence data reported are available in the SRA database under the BioProject ID
290 PRJNA648690.

291

292 2.7.2 Statistical analysis and identification of potential bacterial inocula

293 Constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) on generalized UniFrac distances was conducted
294 to assess effects of HCH contamination and excavation on the microbial community composition in

295 bulk soil, rhizosphere and root samples. Explanatory variables of the model were soil physico-chemical
296 parameters or plant C/N ratio. Environmental parameters significantly influencing β -diversity were
297 highlighted by means of an automatic model selection procedure, using the ordistep function of the R
298 package vegan v. 2.5.5 (Oksanen et al., 2019), based on permutation p-values. The initial model for
299 bulk and rhizosphere samples was based on the following variables: total HCH, disturbance status
300 (excavated or undisturbed), pH, OM, gravimetric water content, ammonium, total inorganic N, DOC
301 and DON. For root samples, in addition to the above mentioned rhizosphere soil parameters, we
302 considered root C/N ratios as explanatory variables. The significance of the final CAP model, of the
303 axes and of the selected variables was tested using the R function anova.cca() with 5,000 permutations.
304 ASVs were subsetted according to Schmid et al. (2020) to reveal those ASVs present exclusively in a
305 single of the four conditions (undistPoll, undistRef, excavPoll, excavRef). The “undist” plots were
306 undisturbed, while the freshly excavated plots were called “excav”. Subsetting aimed to identify
307 bacterial taxa, specific for HCH contamination that could serve as an inoculum with HCH tolerant
308 strains in soil clean-up procedures. Comparing the undistRef and the undistPoll plots allowed us to
309 identify those bacterial taxa which are characteristic to long-term HCH contaminated bulk and
310 rhizosphere soil, and to the root-associated bacterial communities of *L. tenuis*. Plants growing on these
311 plots were of similar age. By comparing the undistPoll plot against the excavPoll plot, we assessed
312 which HCH tolerant taxa initially adapt to soil disturbance and which ones settle only later on. We
313 additionally identified HCH tolerant bacterial taxa that are first acquired by young *L. tenuis* plants after
314 excavation, and those acquired in later growth stages. Finally, we compared excavPoll and excavRef
315 rhizosphere and root-associated bacterial communities to evaluate which factor has greater influence on
316 the development of these communities: the age of plants or HCH contamination. The five most
317 frequently occurring ASVs (addressed as families and genera) in each of these comparisons were
318 further analyzed as those taxa which reacted strongest to HCH contamination. Unclassified taxa and
319 those which appeared in only one condition were not considered for further analysis. To assess whether
320 the main responding families were also the most abundant ones throughout the samples, we used the
321 simple ranking of mean relative abundance per family, per sample in bulk, rhizosphere and roots. The
322 subsetting method was also used to identify possible bacterial inoculants to serve as HCH tolerant
323 bacteria with beneficial properties for the plant, acquired by the roots of *Lotus tenuis* from the
324 surrounding soil. The inoculation path considered was undistPoll bulk soil via excavPoll bulk,
325 excavPoll rhizosphere, with the final destination, the roots of the young plants growing on the freshly
326 excavated HCH contaminated plot (excavPoll). The bacterial taxa were identified at species level using
327 BLASTN (Zhang et al., 2000).

328 Robust two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effect of HCH and excavation on
329 the bacterial taxa identified by means of subsetting as main responders to HCH contamination. The
330 *t2way()* function was used to assess overall statistical significance (Wilcox, 2017). Differences in mean
331 relative abundance of the specific comparisons mentioned above (undistPoll vs. undistRef, undistPoll
332 vs. excavPoll and excavPoll vs. excavRef) were tested through pairwise comparisons using the function
333 *yuenv2*. The p-values of multiple comparisons were corrected using the Benjamini-Hochberg method.
334 Ordinary linear regressions in semi-log space were conducted to test effects of HCH on soil pH, OM,
335 DOC, DON, soil ammonium concentration, bacterial richness, C_{mic} , plant C/N ratio and nitrogen
336 fixation potential (*nifH* gene copy numbers) in soil and plant samples. Statistical data analysis was
337 performed in R v.3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018). All plots were generated using the package ggplot2
338 v.3.2.0 (Wickham, 2016).

339

340 **3. Results**

341

342 3.1 Plant performance and soil physico-chemical parameters and potential nitrogen fixation

343 The fresh biomass of plants collected from excavRef, excavPoll and undistPoll plots had similar
344 average values (1.2g, 0.9g and 0.8g respectively), while that of plants collected from the undistRef plot
345 was 27g. Regardless of the fresh biomass estimates, the C/N ratio of *L. tenuis* roots and leaves
346 remained unaffected by HCH (data not shown). HCH concentrations detected in bulk soil ranged
347 between 392 and 22068 ppm in the highly contaminated plots and between 3.1 and 403 ppm in the low
348 contaminated plots (Suppl. Mat. 2). HCH significantly affected the pH of undisturbed bulk soil ($p <$
349 0.05 ; $R^2 = 0.6$) and excavated rhizosphere ($p < 0.001$; $R^2=0.9$) which in both cases declined from 7.7 to
350 7.4 with increasing HCH concentration (data not shown). There was a general significant positive
351 relationship between HCH concentration and OM, DOC and DON content in bulk and rhizosphere
352 soils (Suppl. mat. 3). Ammonium values increased significantly with HCH concentration in undisturbed
353 ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.5$) and excavated ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.4$) rhizosphere soils (not shown).

354 We observed a general positive relationship between *nifH* gene abundance and HCH concentration in
355 the undisturbed bulk and rhizosphere soil, as well as in the roots of mature *L. tenuis* plants (from
356 undisturbed plots). Nevertheless, this effect was only marginal, as potential nitrogen fixation was not
357 significantly affected by HCH contamination. HCH had a significant negative effect on *nifH* gene
358 abundance only in rhizospheres of young *L. tenuis* plants ($p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.4$) (data not shown).

359

360 3.2 Microbial biomass carbon and bacterial diversity

361 Microbial biomass carbon (C_{mic}) increased significantly in undistPoll bulk soil (Suppl. mat. 5), while in
362 excavated bulk soil and undisturbed rhizosphere, HCH had a similar but marginal effect. α - diversity
363 (*i.e.* species richness) decreased significantly with increasing HCH concentration in excavated bulk soil
364 and in undisturbed rhizosphere of *L. tenuis* (Fig. 1). The trend was similar but not significant at 5%
365 level, in the case of root-associated bacterial communities of young plants growing on excavated plots.
366

367 3.3 Main responders to HCH contamination

368 HCH was the main shaping factor for bacterial community composition in bulk soil. HCH
369 concentration was strongly correlated with OM content as co-explanatory variable ($p < 0.001$; Pseudo-
370 $F_{1,18} = 1.39$) (Fig. 2a). ASV distribution in the rhizosphere was shaped mostly by the growth stage of
371 plants ($p < 0.05$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.35$), while HCH had a smaller effect, just above the 5% significance
372 level ($p = 0.064$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.24$). HCH was positively correlated with ammonium ($p < 0.05$,
373 Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.31$) and total N content ($p < 0.01$, Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 1.64$) (Fig. 2b). The composition of
374 the root-associated bacterial communities was determined solely by the age of plants ($p < 0.01$, Pseudo-
375 $F_{1,16} = 1.30$), with no effect of HCH contamination detected at this level (Fig. 2c).

376 In bulk soil, main responders to HCH contamination were ASVs belonging to the Burkholderiaceae,
377 Nitrosomonadaceae and Xanthomonadaceae bacterial families, and to the genera *Sphingomonas* and
378 *Altererythrobacter* (both part of the Sphingomonadaceae family), and *Lysobacter* (fam.
379 Xanthomonadaceae) (Suppl. mat. 4). HCH had a significant effect on the mean relative abundance of
380 Burkholderiaceae ($p < 0.01$; Suppl. mat. 6). Further pairwise comparisons showed significantly higher
381 abundance of this family in excavPoll soil as compared to undistPoll ($p < 0.05$) and in undistRef soil as
382 compared to undistPoll ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). Nitrosomonadaceae were negative responders
383 to HCH, pairwise comparisons between undistPoll and undistRef plots showing a significantly lower
384 abundance in the first condition ($p < 0.05$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). Xanthomonadaceae were more
385 abundant in excavPoll bulk soil, as compared to undistPoll soil ($p < 0.05$; Suppl. mat. 7).

386 Genus *Lysobacter* was significantly affected by HCH contamination in bulk soil, as it was more
387 abundant in excavPoll bulk soil as compared to undistPoll soil ($p < 0.01$), but higher in undistPoll bulk
388 soil when compared to undistRef soil ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7). Genus *Altererythrobacter* was a
389 positive responder to HCH contamination ($p < 0.05$), with slightly higher abundance in the undistPoll
390 plot than in all other conditions. However, this effect was not further detected in pairwise comparisons
391 (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

392 In the rhizosphere, the most abundant responders at family level were Burkholderiaceae,
393 Nitrosomonadaceae and Sphingomonadaceae. At genus level, the most common differential ASVs
394 corresponded to the genera *Massilia* (Burkholderiaceae), *Sphingobium* and *Sphingomonas* (both
395 Sphingomonadaceae) (Suppl. mat. 4). Similar to bulk soil, Nitrosomonadaceae were negative
396 responders to HCH contamination, pairwise comparisons between undistPoll and undistRef plots
397 showing a significantly lower abundance of this family in the first condition ($p < 0.001$) (Suppl. mat. 6
398 and 7). As second main responder to contamination, there was a significantly higher abundance of
399 Burkholderiaceae in excavPoll rhizosphere as compared to undistPoll ($p < 0.05$) and in undistRef
400 rhizosphere as compared to undistPoll soil ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). HCH ($p < 0.01$) and the
401 excavation process ($p < 0.05$) had a significant effect on the mean relative abundance of
402 Sphingomonadaceae in rhizosphere soil (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). However, the HCH effect was only
403 marginal, as it was not further detected in pairwise comparisons.

404 Genus *Sphingobium* was a significant responder to HCH contamination in the rhizosphere. Pairwise
405 comparisons showed a significantly higher abundance of the genus *Sphingobium* in the undistPoll
406 rhizosphere than in undistRef one ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, *Sphingobium* was more abundant in excavPoll
407 rhizosphere than in undistPoll rhizosphere ($p < 0.05$) or in excavRef rhizosphere ($p < 0.01$) (Fig. 3;
408 Suppl. mat. 7). Plant age had a notable effect on the abundance of *Sphingobium*, which was
409 significantly higher in excavated rhizosphere plots, regardless of contamination ($p = 0.001$). Genus
410 *Massilia*, was significantly affected by both HCH and excavation in rhizospheres (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat.
411 7). Pairwise comparisons revealed a significantly higher abundance of this genus in excavPoll soil
412 when compared to undistPoll rhizosphere ($p < 0.05$) as well as in comparison to the excavRef soil ($p <$
413 0.05) (Fig. 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

414 In roots of *L. tenuis*, the most frequently occurring differential ASVs belonged to Burkholderiaceae,
415 Rhizobiaceae, and Sphingomonadaceae (Suppl. mat. 4). At genus level, the most frequent responders
416 were *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* (Rhizobiaceae) and *Sphingomonas*
417 (Sphingomonadaceae). Burkholderiaceae from the root-associated microbiome were significantly
418 affected by HCH. Pairwise comparisons showed higher abundance of this taxon in the undistPoll as
419 compared to excavPoll roots ($p < 0.05$) and in undistRef roots as compared to undistPoll roots ($p <$
420 0.05)(Suppl. mat. 7). Additionally, Burkholderiaceae were marginally more abundant in the excavPoll
421 roots than in the excavRef roots ($p = 0.06$). Rhizobiaceae were identified as negative responders to
422 HCH in the root-associated bacterial communities ($p < 0.01$) (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7). This effect was
423 however not strong enough to be further detected in the pairwise comparisons. Plant age had a clear
424 effect on the abundance of Sphingomonadaceae in root-associated bacterial communities ($p < 0.05$).

425 They were more abundant in the old roots, regardless of the contamination level (Suppl. mat. 6 and 7).
426 Furthermore, this family was positively affected by HCH, as they were significantly more abundant in
427 undistPoll roots ($p < 0.01$), and nearly significant when compared to undistRef roots ($p > 0.05$).

428 The *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* clade was a strong positive responder to
429 HCH in the root compartment of *L. tenuis*, pairwise comparisons showing higher abundance of this
430 clade in undistPoll roots, as compared to excavPoll roots ($p < 0.01$). Genus *Sphingomonas* had
431 significantly higher abundance in undistPoll roots when compared to excavPoll roots ($p = 0.001$) (Fig.
432 3; Suppl. mat. 7).

433 All identified main responders were also among the most abundant taxa at family level in our bulk,
434 rhizosphere and root samples (Suppl. mat. 8). Further, we identified those HCH tolerant bacteria which
435 were common to undistPoll bulk soil, excavPoll bulk soil, excavPoll rhizosphere and to roots of young
436 plants germinating on excavPoll plot (Suppl. mat. 9). Bacteria transferred from bulk soil to the root-
437 associated microbiome were identified as *Mesorhizobium loti* (100% similarity), *Neorhizobium galegae*
438 (100% similarity), *Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum* (similarity 99%), *Pantoea agglomerans* (prev.
439 *Enterobacter agglomerans*) (similarity 100%), *Lysobacter* sp. clone T28265 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*
440 (99% similarity) (Suppl. mat. 9).

441

442 **4. Discussion**

443

444 *4.1. Bulk soil bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and excavation procedures*

445 Our results showed that HCH and OM alone were the most significant environmental descriptors for
446 the differentiation of the bulk soil microbial community. Because bacterial α -diversity (richness) was
447 lower in the excavPoll plot than in all other three conditions, soil disturbance combined with HCH
448 contamination may have led to a slower recovery of species richness in freshly excavated bulk soil. On
449 the other hand, microbial growth (expressed here as C_{mic}) appeared to be sustained in both excavated
450 and undisturbed highly contaminated bulk samples by higher DOC and OM contents. Similar to
451 previous findings of Kalbitz and Popp (1999) and Balázs et al. (2020), high soil organic matter content
452 was positively correlated with HCH concentrations present in both excavated and undisturbed plots.
453 Kalbitz and Popp (1999) attributed higher OM and DOC concentration to either drought in summer or
454 litter accumulation in autumn. Since our sampling campaign took place at the beginning of June when
455 local temperatures were relatively high, this might be a plausible explanation for the OM peak in bulk
456 soil, triggering the adsorption of HCH to soil particles rich in OM, resulting in mobilization of the

457 contaminant, followed by HCH uptake in plants (Wahid and Sethunathan, 1979; Kalbitz and Popp,
458 1999).

459 Finding ASVs from the Sphingomonadaceae and Burkholderiaceae families as main responders to long
460 term HCH contamination is not surprising at all, as they all include versatile taxa found in a wide range
461 of habitats. As sphingomonads are well known to degrade recalcitrant xenobiotics and polyaromatic
462 compounds of both anthropogenic and natural origin (Glaeser and Kämpfer, 2014), we expected to find
463 taxa from this bacterial group that are specific for HCH contamination at the Turda site. However,
464 possibly because of their ubiquitousness, which allows these chemoorganotrophs to inhabit various
465 ecosystems (Amils, 2014; Glaeser and Kämpfer, 2014), HCH did not affect mean relative abundances
466 of Sphingomonadaceae in bulk soil. Burkholderiaceae are a very versatile group as well, and well
467 known hydrocarbon degraders (Castorena et al., 2006). Nevertheless, they appear to thrive on easy
468 degradable hydrocarbons rather than more recalcitrant compounds such as diesel oil (Bell et al., 2013)
469 or HCH in our case, which could explain the higher occurrence of this group in clean bulk soil.

470 Although ammonia-oxidizing bacteria have been proposed for the remediation of chlorobenzene
471 contaminated soil (Sayavedra-Soto et al., 2010), the Nitrosomonadaceae in our study were in general
472 negative responders to HCH. This supports results of Ibiene and Okpokwasili (2011), which showed
473 that the type genus of the family, *Nitrosomonas* sp., is sensitive to lindane contamination. Excavated
474 HCH bulk soil samples were much richer in Bulkholderiaceae, Xanthomonadaceae and
475 Sphingomonadaceae ASVs than undistPoll bulk soil. Xanthomonadaceae are known hydrocarbon
476 degraders with many applications in bioremediation of oil / petroleum or trifluralin (herbicide)
477 contaminated soil (Popp et al., 2006; Chang and Zylstra, 2010; Du et al., 2018). The fact that they were
478 generally more abundant in the excavated conditions regardless if clean or contaminated, suggests that
479 these taxa are fast-growing generalists and early colonizers. Thus, despite their metabolic capabilities
480 which allowed them to tolerate and degrade HCH, they merely take advantage of free niches left
481 available by previously established bacterial communities.

482 At genus level we found two taxa to be considered as HCH tolerant in long term contamination:
483 *Sphingomonas* and *Altererythrobacter*, which is consistent with our previous findings in lindane
484 contaminated soil (Balázs et al., 2020). There are several examples of *Sphingomonas* strains isolated
485 from HCH contaminated soils found capable to tolerate and mineralize HCH isomers (Pal et al., 2005;
486 Singh and Lal, 2009; Teramoto et al., 2010; Tonon et al., 2014). Our results show that HCH did not
487 have any notable effect on the general abundance of this genus, highlighting the ability of
488 *Sphingomonas* to tolerate HCH and the possibility of employing them in *in situ* bioremediation
489 projects. *Sphingomonas* and *Lysobacter* were antagonistic responders to the excavation of HCH

490 contaminated soil. *Sphingomonas* was negatively affected by the excavation process, consistent with
491 observations of Dong et al. (2017) and Shi et al. (2017), who reported lower abundance of this genus in
492 tilled agricultural soil or land subsidence. Nevertheless, *Sphingomonas* was replaced by another known
493 HCH degrader in excavPoll bulk soil, the xanthomonad *Lysobacter* (Rani et al., 2016; Margesin et al.,
494 2018), suggesting quick adaptation of bacterial communities to HCH contamination after excavation
495 procedures.

496

497 4.2. Rhizosphere soil bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and the interaction 498 with plant developmental stage

499 Rhizosphere is a transition compartment between bulk soil and the root environment. Accordingly, we
500 expected the bacterial communities in this zone to reflect both soil HCH contamination and age of *L.*
501 *tenuis*, as plants can select different subsets of microbes at different stages to fulfill age-specific
502 functions (Chaparro et al., 2013). In line with this, the age of the rhizosphere had a significant influence
503 on bacterial community composition, followed by HCH contamination. As such, HCH shaped the
504 microbial community in the undisturbed rhizosphere, while excavated rhizosphere samples showed a
505 high degree of similarity regardless of contamination, thus highlighting the importance of plant growth
506 stage in acquiring a specific rhizosphere microbiome. Ammonium and total N content were the most
507 important environmental descriptors in rhizosphere soil, and positively correlated with HCH
508 concentration. This is consistent with results of Blondel et al. (2017) in lindane and chlordecone
509 contaminated maize rhizospheres where the plants enabled efficient C- and N- turnover and maintained
510 a normal ammonification process as opposed to lindane contaminated soil without plants. OM, DOC
511 and DON concentrations in rhizosphere followed the same pattern as in bulk soil, where they were
512 positively correlated with HCH concentration in undisturbed plots and possibly triggered an increased
513 microbial carbon biomass. Higher C_{mic} content and at the same time a lower bacterial richness in the
514 undistPoll rhizosphere suggests that contamination might offer suitable growth conditions for only few
515 HCH tolerant taxa, which are able to thrive under these conditions.

516 The Sphingomonadaceae were positive responders to HCH in the rhizosphere compartment. This might
517 have occurred either due to root exudates which could promote their growth (el Zahar Haichar et al.,
518 2008), or by following a selection process of the rhizosphere microbiome by plants as stress response
519 to contamination. Chapelle et al. (2016) showed that sphingomonads were enriched in the rhizosphere
520 of sugar beet as a stress response upon fungal infection, while Tsavkelova et al. (2007) suggested that
521 these bacteria are selected by orchid plant roots as they produce the growth hormone indole-3-acetic
522 acid. The strongest positive responder to HCH contamination in rhizosphere from this bacterial family

523 was *Sphingobium*, well known for its HCH degrading capabilities (Lal et al., 2008; Sangwan et al.,
524 2014). Burkholderiaceae are degraders of a vast range of aromatic compounds (Goldfarb et al., 2011),
525 and the presence of the copiotrophic genus *Massilia* in the early stages of succession of the rhizosphere
526 and root microbiome when supply of labile organic carbon in soil is high, is not surprising (Shrestha et
527 al., 2007; Li et al., 2014). Being copiotrophic organisms, *Massilia* are good abiotic stress tolerants (e.g.
528 to high HCH concentration in the excavated rhizosphere) but not particularly tolerant to biotic stress
529 (Shrestha et al., 2007; Abou-Shanab et al., 2010). Considering that lower species richness (α - diversity)
530 in the excavPoll rhizosphere also means lower competition between species, this low biotic stress is
531 probably the reason for the dominance of *Massilia* in this condition, as opposed to the excavRef
532 compartment.

533 In undistPoll rhizosphere, sphingomonads *Altererythrobacter* and *Sphingobium*, were the most
534 abundant differential genera, all of which have known HCH tolerant representatives (Pal et al., 2005;
535 Singh and Lal, 2009; Teramoto et al., 2010). The excavPoll rhizosphere however, showed higher
536 diversity of bacterial families, dominated by *Massilia* (Burkholderiaceae), *Sphingomonas*
537 (Sphingomonadaceae) and *Lysobacter* (Xanthomonadaceae). This configuration of generalist bacterial
538 genera is less typical for HCH contamination than for colonization of newly occurred free niches
539 following the excavation process (Shrestha et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014).

540

541 4.3. Root and root-associated bacterial communities adaptation to HCH contamination and plant age 542 effect

543 Following the trend we observed at the transition from bulk to rhizosphere soil, the only factor
544 influencing the composition of *Lotus tenuis* root-associated bacterial communities was the plant
545 development stage, regardless of HCH contamination. Overall bacterial richness (α - diversity) was not
546 affected by HCH contamination in the roots of the plants growing on undisturbed plots. Nevertheless,
547 bacterial richness in young roots of *L. tenuis* (from excavated plots) was altogether lower than in roots
548 of mature plants from undisturbed plots. This is probably a reflection of the early succession stages of
549 plant microbiome development, when the increase in copiotroph (r- strategists) abundance is supported
550 by the non-limiting nutrient-rich new environment but species richness is low due to weak competition
551 (Shrestha et al., 2007).

552 *Lotus tenuis* is a model plant for legumes known to have a great potential for adaptation to abiotic
553 stress, making it the perfect candidate for dune re-vegetation or heavy-metal contaminated soils
554 (Escaray et al., 2012). As we previously identified *L. tenuis* as both an early colonizer and HCH
555 tolerant at the Turda production facility (Balázs et al., 2018), we considered it for restoration of HCH

556 contaminated sites. Plants collected from the excavRef, excavPoll and undistPoll plots had similar fresh
557 biomass (~1g), while the mean fresh biomass of the plants collected from the undistRef plot was almost
558 30 times higher. This reveals a clear negative effect of long-term HCH contamination on *L. tenuis*
559 growth and development. The effect of HCH or lindane on early growth and development of legumes
560 had previously been studied on soybean (Tu, 1977) and *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Pereira et al., 2010). Both
561 studies reported a certain degree of resistance of plants in this family to HCH, as their early growth was
562 not significantly affected by the contaminant. These results are supported by the fresh biomass
563 estimates of young *L. tenuis* roots, which had similar values regardless whether they grew on clean or
564 contaminated excavated plots. In addition, the inhibited late growth of *L. tenuis* in high HCH
565 contamination conditions is consistent with data of Tripathi et al. (2014), showing that lindane in high
566 concentrations in soil reduces growth and yield of *Vigna radiata*. We further observed a strong
567 nodulation on *L. tenuis* roots collected from the undistRef plot, hardly any or no nodules on the plants
568 from the undistPoll plot and no nodules on young plants from excavated plots (personal observation).
569 The C : N ratio of *L. tenuis* was nevertheless constant, regardless of HCH contamination and despite
570 the lack of nodulation in roots of plants growing at the undistPoll plot. Khan et al. (2006) showed that
571 certain herbicides decrease nodulation and biomass of nodules in chickpea, leading to a decrease in N
572 content of the grains as well. Yet, in our case *L. tenuis* seems to have adapted to that impediment by
573 taking up nitrogen from soil to maintain its C and N balance, possibly even in the form of ammonium
574 which was more abundant in the rhizosphere of plants from both undistPoll and excavPoll plots.
575 Supporting this idea, Rogato et al. (2010) reported a high affinity ammonium transporter in a short-root
576 wild phenotype of *L. japonicus*, which presumably modulated root growth in conditions of potentially
577 toxic external ammonium concentration. However, as this happened at an ammonium concentration
578 higher than 10mM, which is not our case, we regard this rather as an adaptation of *Lotus tenuis* to
579 contamination conditions, which prevent efficient nodulation and thus symbiotic nitrogen fixation, than
580 to toxic ammonium concentrations.

581 HCH did not have significant effects on general root microbial composition. However, we found
582 several particularities in roots of *L. tenuis* from undistPoll contaminated plot which could indicate HCH
583 tolerant bacteria, with or without benefits for the host plants. Similar to rhizosphere soil, there was a
584 higher abundance of ASVs from the Sphingomonadaceae family inhabiting undistPoll roots but not
585 undistRef ones. The latter were characterized by a greater abundance of differential Burkholderiaceae
586 genera like *Massilia*, *Douganella*, *Variovorax* and *Rhizobacter*. This highlights the high potential of
587 taxa within the Burkholderiaceae to establish close interactions with plants, of both beneficial (Han et

588 al., 2010; Haack et al., 2016), neutral (Ofek et al., 2012) or pathogenic (Goto, 2015) nature in non-
589 contaminated conditions.

590 Genera characteristic to the root-associated microbiome of plants growing at the undistPoll
591 contaminated plot, were *Sphingomonas*, *Devosia*, *Brevundimonas* and *Rhodanobacter*. *Sphingomonas*
592 and *Devosia* have been mentioned as non-nodulating bacteria in legume roots (Tariq et al., 2013).
593 While *Sphingomonas* is a common legume endophyte frequently selected by the host as an antagonist
594 to pathogens (Pini et al., 2012; Hartman et al., 2017), *Devosia* species were often isolated from soils
595 contaminated with high amounts of HCH where they were able to tolerate the contaminant but not to
596 degrade it (Talwar et al., 2020). As several *Devosia* species are capable of nitrogen fixation in legumes
597 (Rivas et al., 2002; Hoque et al., 2011), they might have been selected by *L. tenuis* roots to fulfill the
598 nitrogen fixation function in nodule-impaired old roots along *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-*
599 *Pararhizobium-Rhizobium*. Although microbial composition in roots was generally driven by plant age,
600 our results indicate that *L. tenuis* actively acquires beneficial bacteria for N fixation or rhizobacteria
601 with plant growth promoting abilities that are at the same time capable of tolerating HCH. As such,
602 *Massilia*, *Pantoea* and *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* were the most
603 abundant genera characteristic for *L. tenuis* roots in the excavPoll plot. *Massilia* is a copiotroph
604 characteristic for early microbial succession in roots (Ofek et al., 2012), while *Pantoea* and
605 *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium* can both fix nitrogen, and even degrade
606 xenobiotics as in the case of *Pantoea* (Stacey, 2001; Walterson and Stavrinides, 2015).

607

608 4.4. HCH contaminated soil as inoculum for bioaugmentation procedures in microbe-assisted 609 phytoremediation

610 We identified several HCH tolerant bacteria which might be transferred from the undistPoll bulk soil to
611 the excavPoll bulk soil through excavation and through the rhizosphere to the roots of young plants
612 germinating on the excavated soil. Two of the identified bacteria, which could serve as an inoculum,
613 are *Mesorhizobium loti* and *Neorhizobium galegae*. Both rhizobia are capable of forming nitrogen-
614 fixing symbiosis with legume roots and therefore successfully used to sustain the growth of the early
615 colonizer *Lotus tenuis* in the recovery process of HCH contaminated soil environments. Furthermore,
616 bacteria like *Mesorhizobium loti* growing on HCH contaminated soils encode haloalkane
617 dehalogenases, enzymes involved in the assimilation of organochlorine pesticides (Fetzner and
618 Lingens, 1994; Sato et al., 2005). Although *M. loti* cannot degrade nor survive on HCH as sole carbon
619 source, the dehalogenases it encodes are still an interesting aspect to take into consideration for
620 bioaugmentation projects of HCH contaminated soil.

621 *Novosphingobium lindaniclasticum* is another bacterium we identified as common to both
622 contaminated bulk soils, to the excavPoll rhizosphere and at the same time to the root-associated
623 bacterial communities of young roots growing in the excavPoll plot. *Novosphingobium*
624 *lindaniclasticum* is an HCH degrading bacterium, first isolated from an HCH dumpsite in Lucknow,
625 India (Saxena et al., 2013). The metabolic versatility of *Novosphingobium* strains allows them to
626 colonize a wide range of habitats from soil and water to plant surfaces, rendering them perfect
627 candidates for microbe-assisted phytoremediation and bioaugmentation procedures.

628 *Pantoea agglomerans* is a bacterium featuring plant growth promoting traits such as nitrogen fixation
629 and phosphate solubilization and at the same time, it is a plant pathogen antagonist (Lim et al., 2014).
630 Its additional ability to degrade DDT and γ -HCH (lindane) (Karagoz et al., 2016) makes it therefore
631 another inoculum that might be well suited for bioremediation of HCH contaminated sites.

632 Two other species of the genus *Lysobacter* (*Lysobacter* sp. clone T28265 and *Lysobacter bugurensis*)
633 were transferred from contaminated old bulk soil to young *L. tenuis* roots in excavated plots. Although
634 there is not sufficient data regarding the behavior of these taxa in HCH contaminated environments,
635 they are still of interest since bacteria from this genus have plant pathogen antagonistic capabilities.
636 Furthermore, another species of this genus, *Lysobacter tolerans*, was isolated from HCH contaminated
637 sites where it is known to degrade the compound (Expósito et al., 2015; Rani et al., 2016).

638

639 4.5. HCH effect on the potential nitrogen fixation in soil and roots of *Lotus tenuis*

640 Potential nitrogen fixation in bulk and rhizosphere soil and in the *L. tenuis* root-associated microbiome
641 was generally not affected by HCH contamination. The single exception consisted in the rhizosphere of
642 young plants growing at the excavPoll plot, where we observed lower *nifH* gene copy numbers as
643 compared to excavRef rhizospheres. The lower diazotroph abundance in the excavPoll rhizosphere did
644 not reflect either in the plant C: N ratio, nor in the average plant fresh biomass, which was similar to
645 the young plants growing in non-contaminated soil. Fox et al. (2001) showed that DDT, a pesticide
646 with similar chemical structure to HCH, caused negative effects on potential nitrogen fixation and nod-
647 exposition by disrupting the plant-*Rhizobium* signaling. Nevertheless, we observed no difference in
648 nodulation between young plants, regardless whether they were growing in contaminated or non-
649 contaminated plots. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the abundance of Rhizobiaceae
650 in rhizospheres of young plants. It is well known that members of the Rhizobiaceae family are not the
651 only organisms capable of fixing nitrogen (Vitousek et al., 2002) and that in later growth stages,
652 specific nitrogen fixing populations which can tolerate HCH application may be selected and
653 stimulated by the rhizosphere (Patnaik et al., 1996). Therefore, the temporarily lower potential nitrogen

654 fixation in excavPoll rhizosphere might be just a short-term HCH effect on the initial microbial
655 succession, inhibiting the growth of early colonizing diazotrophs.

656

657 **5. Conclusions**

658 Our results show that soil and root-associated bacterial communities may be affected in different
659 degrees by HCH contamination and by excavation as a soil clean-up measure. In bulk soil HCH was
660 the main factor influencing bacterial community composition, while rhizosphere microbiome was
661 shaped by both HCH and plant developmental stage. The bacterial community composition from both
662 long-term contaminated and excavated plots provided information about microbial succession in HCH
663 contamination conditions, which are key aspects to be considered in field bioaugmentation procedures
664 where HCH is not the only factor influencing the success of microbe-assisted phytoremediation.
665 Furthermore, we identified several bacteria which were common to the undisturbed HCH contaminated
666 bulk soil, to the excavated HCH bulk soil, and to the rhizosphere and roots of young plants growing in
667 the excavated HCH hotspot. Altogether, these taxa point towards a possible inoculum with HCH
668 tolerant bacteria (H1), which are transferred from contaminated bulk soil to rhizospheres and roots of
669 *L. tenuis* with beneficial effects for microbe-assisted phytoremediation and bioaugmentation
670 procedures (H2). Finally, potential nitrogen fixation was not affected by HCH, except for the
671 contaminated rhizosphere of young plants growing on the freshly excavated plots (H3). This highlights
672 the high adaptability of native bacterial communities to perform important ecosystem functions in
673 various field conditions regardless of HCH contamination.

674

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679

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681 **Figure 1.** Relationship between bacterial richness and HCH concentration in the bulk soil, rhizosphere
682 and root compartments. Dots and solid lines represent samples from undisturbed plots. Triangles and
683 dashed lines represent samples from excavated plots. Regression significance: excavated bulk soil ($p <$
684 0.01 ; $R^2 = 0.6$); undisturbed rhizosphere ($p < 0.01$; $R^2 = 0.6$). All other regressions were not significant
685 ($p > 0.05$).

686

687 **Figure 2.** CAP ordinations of bacterial communities showing differences induced by HCH
688 contamination and excavation in **(a)** bulk soil, **(b)** rhizosphere soil and **(c)** roots of *Lotus tenuis*. **(a)**
689 Model significance: **(a)** $p < 0.001$; Pseudo- $F_{1,18} = 1.39$; **(b)** $p < 0.001$, Pseudo- $F_{4,15} = 1.45$; **(c)** $p < 0.05$,
690 Pseudo- $F_{3,16} = 1.14$. Axis significance: **(a)** CAP1: $p < 0.001$, and Pseudo- $F_{1,18} = 1.39$; **(b)** CAP1: $p <$
691 0.001 , Pseudo- $F_{1,15} = 2.42$; **(c)** CAP1: $p > 0.05$, Pseudo- $F_{1,16} = 1.33$. Dots represent undisturbed plots;
692 triangles represent excavated plots. Light blue color represents low HCH concentration and black
693 represents high HCH concentration. Ellipses delineate 95% confidence ellipses. Red arrows mark the
694 co-explanatory variables: OM (organic matter), ammonium and total N content.

695

696 **Figure 3.** Mean relative abundance of the most important responders at genus level to HCH
697 contamination in **(a)** bulk soil, **(b)** rhizosphere soil and **(c)** roots of *Lotus tenuis*. The colors of the bars
698 represent the disturbance status of the plots: light gray – undisturbed plots; dark gray– excavated plots.

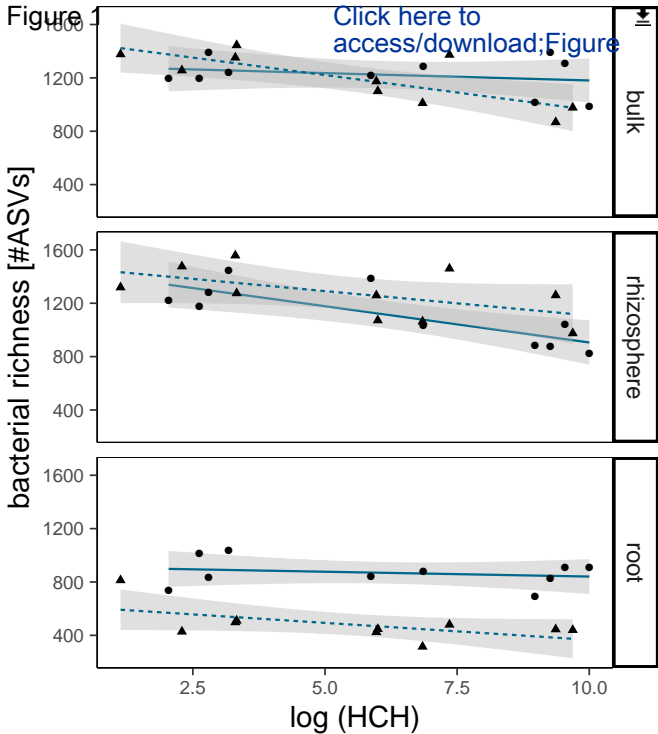


Figure 2

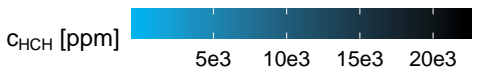
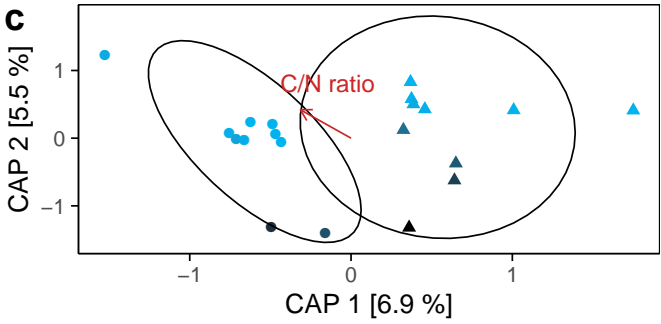
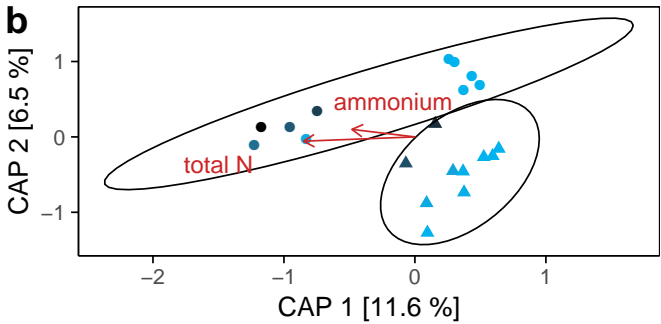
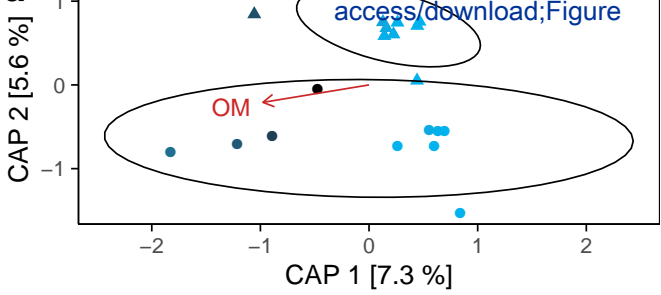
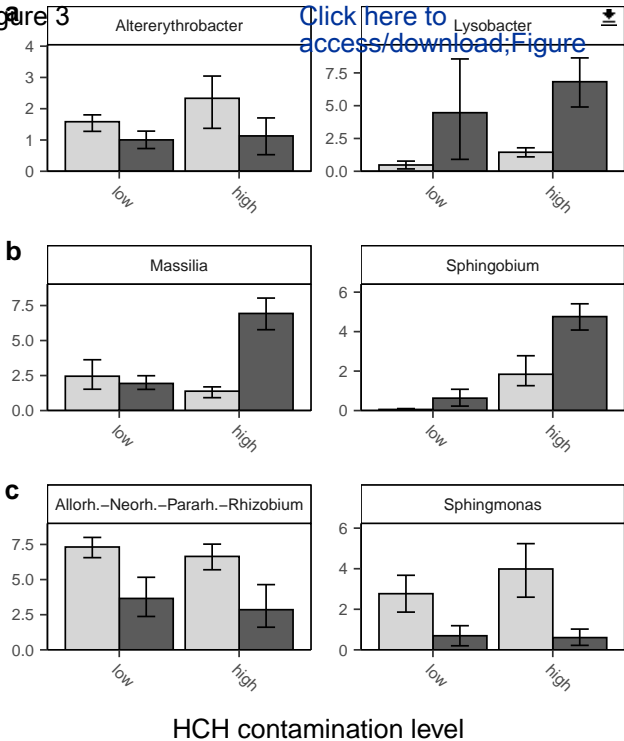


Figure 3

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mean relative abundance [%]





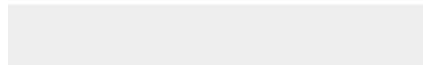
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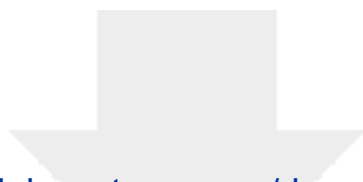




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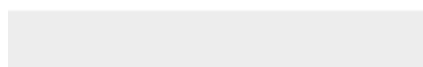
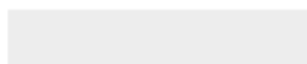




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HB performed the experiments, evaluated the data and wrote the manuscript

CS evaluated the microbial data and designed the figures

CC analyzed the HCH and provided data with statistics

DP collected the plants and rhizospheres

PS performed the site description and collected plants and soil samples

FB analyzed the soil samples

GH analyzed the soil samples

VR gave microbiological advice and evaluated the data

PS designed and edited the manuscript, and provided funding for the experiments

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: