

# Microbial metabolic activity in metal(loid)s contaminated sites impacted by different non-ferrous metal activities

Hao Li, Jun Yao, Ning Min, Geoffrey Sunahara, Jianli Liu, Miaomaio Li, Bang Liu, Wancheng Pang, Ying Cao, Ruofei Li, et al.

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## **Journal of Hazardous Materials**

# New insights on the effect of non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities on microbial activity characteristics and bacterial community structure --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	HAZMAT-D-23-01105R2
Article Type:	Research Paper
Keywords:	Mining and smelting activities; Heavy metal(loid)s pollution; Microbial metabolic activities; Bacterial community; Phenotypes
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Suggested Reviewers:	Fei Wang Beijing Normal University wangfei@ustb.edu.cn Research areas: 1. Environmental behavior and biological effects of environmental pollutants (nanoparticles, organic pollutants, heavy metals); 2. Environmental functional nanomaterials; 3. Phosphorus behavior in lake water; 4. Mining pollution mechanism and restoration
	Huilun Chen University of Science and Technology Beijing chenhuilun@ustb.edu.cn Main research directions: Environmental toxicology expert, research direction is the environmental toxicological effects of pollutants such as mining area pollutants, pesticides and heavy metals.
	Yi Wang Anhui Agricultural University wangyi@ahau.edu.cn Main research direction: Environmental risk and management of toxic pollutants. New pesticide creation, pesticide residues, fluorescent sensors, agricultural product quality and safety.
	Bin Chen Beijing Normal University chenb@bnu.ebu.cn Research direction: Environmental risk and management of heavy metal pollution in industrial activity polluted sites.
	Zhi Dang South China University of Technology chzdang@scut.edu.cn Research directions: 1. Research on environmental geochemistry and biogeochemical processes (migration, transformation, enrichment and fate) of heavy metals and harmful elements in ecosystems; 2. Research on chemical forms, bioavailability and toxicology of heavy metals in the environment; 3. Bioremediation technology for soil and water polluted by organic pollutants.

Sun Yat-sen University shuwensheng@m.scnu.edu.cn Research direction: Ecological restoration of mining wasteland, vegetation characteristics of heavy metal anomaly areas in China, succession of heavy metal contaminated soil ecosystem and molecular ecological characteristics, etc.

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1. Research on pollution hydrogeology and environmental process and effect of pollutants in site system; 2. Research and application of site environmental survey methodology; 3. Research and engineering of risk control and collaborative remediation technology for contaminated soil and groundwater; 4. Research on prevention and control system and treatment technology of heavy metal pollution; 5.

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Life-cycle modeling of secondary pollutants during remediation of contaminated sites;

Life-cycle modeling of secondary pollutants during remediation of contaminated sites; 3. Sustainability assessment of environmental remediation; 4. Impact of environmental policy and environmental management on green and sustainable restoration.

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Remediation of nonferrous metal smelting sites, lateritic soiling technology of aluminum industry, emergency management of environmental emergencies, remediation of heavy metal pollution environment, and ecological reconstruction of mine wasteland

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Research directions:

Migration and transformation of organic pollutants at the mineral-water interface, geochemical behavior of typical heavy metals in environmental media, remediation of groundwater pollution, and systematic analysis of environmental problems in China's water resources and energy utilization.

#### Dear Editor,

We wish to submit the attached revised manuscript (HAZMAT-D-23-01105R2)

#### "New insights on the effect of non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities on microbial activity characteristics and bacterial community structure" by Li et al.,

#### to be considered for publication in the Journal of Hazardous Materials.

No conflict of interest exists with the submission of the present work. This manuscript was approved by all authors for publication. I declare on behalf of my co-authors that the work described was original research and has not been published previously or is not under consideration for publication elsewhere.

Mining and smelting activities pose potentially serious heavy metal(loid)s problems to their surrounding ecosystems and residents. Studies on microbial metabolic activities, community structure, and adaptation in the soils proximal to non-ferrous metal mining and smelting areas are still lacking. Here geochemical and microbial characteristics of soil taken from sites surrounding inactive and active nonferrous metal mine smelting facilities were studied by analyzing microbial enzyme activity, microcalorimetry, and high-throughput sequencing of 16S rRNA gene barcoding. We hypothesize that the microbial communities in soils proximal to nonferrous metal mining and smelting sites are influenced by these neighboring activities.

The research aims were to 1) Determine the microbial metabolic activity and bacterial communities structure characteristics in contaminated soil around active and inactive nonferrous metal mining and smelting sites in Southwest China, and 2) Identify and compare the main factors affecting the microbial characteristics of the studied nonferrous metal-contaminated sites. The present study provides new insights into soil microbial characteristics after environmental disturbances from different mining and smelting activities.

This revised paper has 10811 total number of words, 0 Tables, and eight Figures.

We deeply appreciate your consideration of our manuscript, and we look forward to receiving comments from the reviewers. I hope this paper is suitable for publication in your journal. If you have any queries, please contact me at the address below. Thank you and with best regards,

Yours sincerely, Jun Yao, Ph.D. Professor, School of Water Resources and Environment, Research Center of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, China University of Geosciences (Beijing), 100083, PRC. 晉書 +86-10-82321958 yaojun@cugb.edu.cn

#### **Environmental Implication**

Mining and smelting activities can bring hazardous trace metal(loid)s pollution to their surrounding locale. Studies on microbial metabolic activities, community structure, and adaptation in the soils proximal to metal smelting areas are lacking. Geochemical and microbial studies were undertaken on soils from sites surrounding active and abandoned nonferrous metal mine smelters. High throughput studies showed that many soil bacterial groups exhibited different response patterns to each heavy metal(loid), implying that the microbial communities were shaped jointly by aerial fugitive multiple trace metal(loid)s and possibly microbes. The present studies provide a comprehensive and theoretical basis for the future bioremediation of non-ferrous metal-contaminated sites.

#### Active sites Inactive sites Fly ash 0 Surface runoff Surface runoff Bio-Cd Bio-Cu As < Cu Cd Bio-Mn Bio-As Mn Cr Zn Bio-Cr Bio-Zn Sb Relationship Bacterial community structure **Microbial characteristics** TYPES OF BACTERIA Microbial taxa distribution Enzyme activities Soil 15 properties Total microbial metabolic activity Phenotypic-functional prediction -00

#### **Graphical abstract**

#### 1 Highlights

- 2 Soils around nonferrous metal-contaminated sites were barren and heterogeneous.
- 3 Microbial characteristics differed among different research sites.
- 4 Acid phosphatase and microcalorimetric total heat indicated microbial activity.
- 5 As, Cd, and Cu are the main factors affecting bacterial composition.
- 6 Actinobacteriota, Proteobacteria, and Chloroflexi were the dominant phyla.

#### Response to the Reviewers

#### Dear Editor and Reviewers:

Thank you for your comments on our manuscript HAZMAT-D-23-01105R2 "New insights on the effect of non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities on microbial community structure and function" by Li *et al*.

We found your comments valuable and very helpful for improving the quality of our paper, as well as providing significant guidance to our research. We have carefully followed your comments and have made corrections. Revised parts are marked in red in the main text. The main corrections in the paper and our responses to the Reviewers' comments are stated below. We sincerely hope that the present revised manuscript meets your approval.

#### Comments from the Reviewers:

**Reviewer #1:** The authors have revised the manuscript according to my comments. I suggest it can be accepted by the journal.

**Response:** Thank you for this recommendation.

**Reviewer #2:** I think that the revised manuscript could be published in JHM.

**Response:** Thank you for this recommendation.

**Reviewer #3:** I find that the authors have put considerable efforts into addressing the reports of the referees. As a result, the paper is very much improved and I have no problem in recommending it for publication.

**Response:** Thank you for this recommendation.

**Reviewer #4:** The quality of the revised manuscript has been improved a lot, with point by point author responses to the reviewers' comments and suggestions. Thus, I recommend it be accepted for publication.

**Response:** Thank you for this recommendation.

**Reviewer #5:** The revised manuscript is in good shape, and I am ready to recommend acceptance once the authors address the following minor comments:

**Response:** Thank you for your suggestions. We hope that the following corrections to the main text will address the Reviewer's comments.

**Comment 1:** The authors should pay attention to that the size of characters marked on the map in figure S2, figure S3, and figure 1 is not consistent, and the map of China is distorted. Please make corresponding amendments.

**Response:** Thank you for your suggestions. We have made the corrections according to this Reviewer's comments.



**Fig. 1.** Locations and photos of four non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities affected areas in Southwest China. The distributions of sampling points of active sites (SC and GZ) and inactive sites (YN and GX) are shown in the top and bottom panels, respectively (also see Supplementary Information, Figs. S1 and S2).



Fig. S1. The distributions of sampling points of active sites (SC and GZ) are shown in the left (A) and right (B) panels, respectively.



Fig. S2. The distributions of sampling points of inactive sites (GX and YN) are shown in the left (A) and right (B) panels, respectively.

**Comment 2:** It is suggested that the importance and necessity of phenotypic-functional prediction of bacterial communities should be raised in the part of introduction.

**Response:** Thank you for your suggestions. We have made the corrections according to this Reviewer's comments.

**Line 82-87 (Introduction) now reads:** Phenotypic plasticity is widespread in the biological world, but relatively few studies have been conducted in the field of microorganisms (Ward et al., 2017). Phenotypic predictive research based on soil bacterial communities is important for understanding the adaptability of microbial populations, as well as for protecting the ecological environment and maintaining species coexistence (Zhang et al., 2019b).

#### We added a new reference.

#### Line 818-820:

Ward, T., Larson, J., Meulemans, J., Hillmann, B., Lynch, J., Sidiropoulos, D., Spear, J., Caporaso, G., Ran, B., Knight, R., 2017. BugBase predicts organism level microbiome phenotypes. bioRxiv. <u>https://doi.org/10.1101/133462</u>.

Comment 3: Line 544. Please correct the "microbial" to "bacterial".

**Response:** Thank you for your suggestions. We have made the corrections according to this Reviewer's comments.

#### Line 554: 3.7. Phenotypic-functional prediction of bacterial communities

#### Other minor modifications marked in red in the article

1	New insights on the effect of non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities
2	on microbial activity characteristics and bacterial community structure
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4	
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23	

#### 24 Abstract

25 Mining and smelting activities have brought potentially serious heavy metal(loid) pollution to their surrounding locale. However, studies on microbial metabolic activities, community 26 27 structure, and adaptation in soils proximal to non-ferrous metal mining and smelting areas are still lacking. Here the effects of biotic and abiotic characteristics of soil taken from sites 28 surrounding inactive and active nonferrous metal mine smelting facilities on microbial 29 enzyme activity, microcalorimetry, and high-throughput sequencing of 16S rRNA gene 30 31 barcoding were studied. Data indicated that the soils were heavily polluted by toxic metal(loid)s, of which As and Cd are the main contaminants. Microbial acid phosphatase 32 activity and microcalorimetric total heat value were sensitive metabolic indicators in the 33 studied areas. Actinobacteriota had the highest relative abundance, followed by 34 Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteria. Microbial metabolic activity and bacterial 35 community structure and phenotype varied between inactive and active sites (p < 0.05). Such 36 37 analyses indicated that electrical conductivity, total As, Cu, and Mn contents, and bioavailable As, Cu, Cd, and Mn concentrations were key factors determining microbial 38 39 activities, bacterial community structure, and phenotypes. Knowledge of microbial adaptation to heavy metal stressors is important for better understanding the aerial transfer of fugitive 40 heavy metals (and possibly microbes) and for designing future strategies for improved soil 41 bioremediation. 42

43 Keywords: Mining and smelting activities, Heavy metal(loid)s pollution, Microbial
44 metabolic activities, Bacterial community, Phenotypes

#### 45 **1. Introduction**

Industrial activities including mining and smelting, production of used Pb-acid batteries, 46 tanneries, and dye production, and agriculture are key sources of potentially toxic metal 47 pollution causing serious global environmental issues and have drawn considerable scientific 48 attention (Hu et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2021b). In recent decades, the long-term large-scale 49 non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities in China have produced a large amount of 50 51 waste gas and water, as well as waste residues, carrying a variety of toxic heavy metal(loid)s (e.g., As, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn) (Li et al., 2020; Ke et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2022). These 52 environmental contaminants have invaded farmland and forests causing continuous damage 53 to their surrounding environments (Li et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021b). 54 The soil ensures important ecosystem services, including material cycling, information 55 transfer, energy flow, and the microbial-mediated biogeochemical cycling of key 56 57 metal(loids)s (Liu et al., 2021). In environments contaminated by tailings and smelting waste, 58 excess heavy metals can affect microbial metabolic activities in soil (Chun et al., 2021). Soil microbial activities are involved in the storage and cycling of nutrients in the soil (Batista et 59 60 al., 2020). Soil enzyme activities (phosphatase, invertase, and urease) have been used as biochemical markers (biomarkers) of soil microbial nutrient (C, N, and P) effects and 61 metabolic activity (Chae et al., 2017; Aponte et al., 2021). Other soil biomarkers such as 62 63 fluorescein diacetate hydrolase (FDA) reflect the total microbial activity (Schnurer and Rosswall, 1982), whereas isothermal microcalorimetry can be used as a quantitative and real-64 time measure of the total metabolic activity of microbial communities in soil (Herrmann et 65

al., 2014). Microbial enzymatic and total metabolic activities are considered sensitive and
effective indicators of soil health in mining and smelting ecosystems (Vinhal-Freitas et al.,
2017; Yuan et al., 2021).

69 As important components of soil, microbial communities also play a key role in the ecological functions of energy and nutrient cycling (Guo et al., 2021a; Li et al., 2022b). 70 71 Bacteria are important members of the soil ecosystem, interacting with plants or fungi to change and adapt to the soil environment (Chun et al., 2021). Therefore, soil microbial 72 73 characteristics can be used as potential indicators of ecosystem health (Li et al., 2020). Although tailings and smelting sites are often described as metal-rich and nutrient-poor 74 environments, certain microorganisms can tolerate highly toxic environmental conditions by 75 developing specific survival strategies for their growth on contaminated sites (Chun et al., 76 2021). These strategies include detoxification, metal resistance, and cellular oxidative stress 77 responses (Jiang et al., 2021). Many heavy metal-resistant microorganisms (e.g., dominant 78 79 soil phyla including Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteriota) can be found in various polluted environments (Li et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2023). Differences in 80 81 microbial community structure between active and inactive nonferrous metal smelting sites have been reported earlier (Liu et al., 2018). Phenotypic plasticity is widespread in the 82 biological world, but relatively few studies have been conducted in the field of 83 84 microorganisms (Ward et al., 2017). Phenotypic predictive research based on soil bacterial communities is important for understanding the adaptability of microbial populations, as well 85 as for protecting the ecological environment and maintaining species coexistence (Zhang et 86 al., 2019b). 87

88	The soil properties including the bioavailable and total contents of heavy metal(loid)s may
89	vary greatly between different mining and smelting sites (Liu et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2023).
90	Earlier studies show that the total concentrations of As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, and Pb are as
91	important as their bioavailable contents by influencing the soil microbial community
92	structure (Yin et al., 2023). The exchangeable (EXC) content of heavy metal(loid)s is often
93	regarded as the bioavailable fraction in soil, using the European Community Bureau of
94	Reference (BCR) sequential extraction procedure (Zhu et al., 2018). The pollution load index
95	(PLI) and contamination factor (CF) can be used to assess the pollution degree of heavy
96	metal(loid)s in soil (Rinklebe et al., 2019). Although complex interactions between soil
97	properties, heavy metal(loid)s, microbial metabolic activities, and microbial communities
98	have been reported (Yan et al., 2020), few studies have addressed how these important factors
99	(heavy metal(loid)s and soil properties) and processes affect microbial metabolic activities
100	and bacterial communities in contaminated soils surrounding active and inactive nonferrous
101	metal mining and smelting sites.

102 Most nonferrous metal smelting and collection activities in Southwest China are located in karst landforms, so mobile heavy metals are often highly diffusible and can disperse within 103 104 the environment, especially through runoff or atmospheric deposition. Long-term mining and 105 smelting of non-ferrous metals have caused serious damage to the health of the local soil 106 environment (Liu et al., 2022a; Zhang et al., 2020). Compared to active nonferrous metal smelting sites, microbial communities present in mine tailings at inactive or abandoned 107 facilities can adapt (by long-term natural attenuation) to their nonferrous metal(loid)s-108 containing environments (Liu et al., 2018). Therefore, there are few studies on the microbial 109

characteristics and bacterial community structure of the surrounding soil caused by the non-ferrous metal activities in different states (inactive and active).

Here we hypothesize that the microbial communities in soils proximal to nonferrous metalmining and smelting sites are influenced by these neighboring activities. The research aims

114 were to 1) Determine the microbial metabolic activity and bacterial communities structure

115 characteristics in contaminated soil around active and inactive nonferrous metal mining and

smelting sites in Southwest China, and 2) Identify and compare the main factors affecting the

117 microbial characteristics of the studied nonferrous metal-contaminated sites. The results

118 described here will provide new insights into soil microbial characteristics after

119 environmental disturbances from different mining and smelting activities.

120 2. Materials and methods

#### 121 2.1. Study areas

The soil samples were collected in triplicate from the topsoil (depth of 0-20 cm) of forest land
proximal to two active, and two inactive sites non-ferrous metal mining and smelting sites

124 (Fig. 1). It was assumed that the forest land surrounding the smelter sites were not influenced

125 by extraneous anthropogenic factors such as agricultural tilling, use of chemical and

126 biological fertilizers, domestic hazardous waste, and roadside emissions.

127 The active Lumaolin Pb-Zn tailing pond (GZ) was located in Puding County, Guizhou

- 128 Province (105°38′28″E, 26°25′29″N) (Figs. 1 and S1). The metal minerals are mainly
- sphalerite, smithsonite, and galena. The site GZ started production after 2008. Samples were
- 130 collected from five representative points (GZ-1, GZ-2, GZ-3, GZ-4, and GZ-5). Additional

131 information is provided in Supplementary Information (Text S1.1). The active Maliwan Cu-Ni tailing pond (SC) was located in Huili County, Sichuan Province (102°4'47"E, 26°26'8"N) 132 (Figs. 1 and S1). The tailings are mainly copper-nickel beneficiation smelting slag, nickel-133 iron processing plant waste, and calcium sulfate slag. Samples were collected from five 134 135 representative points (SC-1, SC-2, SC-3, SC-4, and SC-5). The inactive Gejiu Pb smelting site (YN) was located in Gejiu City, Yunnan Province 136 (103°13'30"E, 23°30'30"N) (Figs. 1 and S2). A large amount of waste residue was stored at 137 this smelting area typical of the lead smelting industry. Samples were collected from five 138 representative points (YN-1, YN-2, YN-3, YN-4, and YN-5). The inactive Huilong As 139 smelting site (GX) was located in Zhongshan County, Guangxi Province (111°16'48"E, 140 24°27'48"N) (Figs. 1 and S2). This site opened operations (producing metal arsenic, arsenic 141 trioxide, and other products) in 1994 but stopped production in 2003. Samples were collected 142 from five representative points (GX-1, GX-2, GX-3, GX-4, and GX-5). 143 All samples were collected using sterile tools and placed in biological storage bags ( $\Box$  1 kg 144 145 per sample), stored in ice packs, and quickly transported to the laboratory. Each collected soil sample was divided into two sub-samples for subsequent testing, one of which was air-dried 146 (for 10 d) at room temperature, sieved (100-mesh) to remove rocks, animal, and plant debris, 147 148 etc., and stored at 4°C for geochemical and microbial analyses, and the other aliquot was 149 stored at -80°C for high-throughput sequencing. All chemicals and reagents were purchased 150 from commercial sources and were at least analytical grade purity.

#### 151 2.2. Geochemical analyses and heavy metal(loid) pollution assessment

152 The electrical conductivity (EC, expressed as  $\mu$ S/cm) and the pH of the soil were determined in the slurry with the soil-to-water ratio of 1:2.5 and 1:5, respectively. The soil moisture 153 content (MC, as %) was measured by drying the soil sample in an oven  $(105 \pm 2^{\circ}C)$  for 8 h 154 until the weight remains constant (Li et al., 2020). The soil total organic carbon (TOC, mg/g) 155 in soil was determined using a TOC instrument (Shimadzu SSM-5000, Japan) (Zhu et al., 156 157 2018). To determine the total amount of heavy metal(loid)s in soil, the following digestion steps were taken. The air-dried soil sample was ground and sieved, and 0.100 g of pretreated 158 soil sample was weighed, and then added into a digestion tube containing HNO<sub>3</sub>-HCl (1:3, 159 160 volume/ volume). The tube was placed in a 140-180°C heater for 2 h. If a solid residue remained in the tube, a 2 mL volume of HF was added until a white sediment was formed. 161 The digested residue was then dissolved in a 1% HNO<sub>3</sub> solution and made up to 50 mL in a 162 163 volumetric flask. All experimental data were corrected by subtracting the blank group of mixed acids prepared using the same digestion steps described above. The recovery rate of 164 total As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and Zn concentration in soil was between 92.5% 165 and 107.5%, and the relative standard deviation (RSD) was < 5%. The concentrations of As, 166 Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and Zn were measured using an inductively coupled plasma 167 atomic emission spectrometer, with the detection limits of 0.03, 0.002, 0.004, 0.002, 0.002, 168 0.009, 0.03, 0.03, 0.004, and 0.005 mg/kg, respectively. The quality assurance and quality 169 control procedures are described in Text S1.2. 170

as % of total) were determined by using 0.11 M acetic acid solution of the BCR sequential

The bioavailable metal(loid) contents (EXC, Exchangeable fraction) (expressed as mg/g or

- 173 extraction method, as described in Text S1.2. The pollution load index (PLI) and

174	contamination factor (CF) were used to assess the pollution degree of heavy metal(loid)s in
175	the soil (Rinklebe et al., 2019). The calculation of these indices is described in Text S2.

#### 176 2.3. Microbial metabolic activity characteristics

#### 177 2.3.1. Microcalorimetric measurements

178 The total metabolic activity of microorganisms was measured using a Model TAM-IV (Fig.

179 S3) isothermal multichannel microcalorimeter (TA Instruments, Delaware, USA), as

180 described earlier (Herrmann et al., 2014). This technique provides qualitative and quantitative

181 information on microbial metabolic processes by generating power-time curves based on

182 microbial growth processes (see Text S3). Using the power-time curve, a variety of

183 thermodynamic parameters can be obtained, including peak time (*T*, expressed as h), total

heat (Q, J/g), growth rate  $(k, h^{-1})$ , and peak power  $(P, \mu W/g)$  (Zhu et al., 2018). The research

185 data calculated using microcalorimetry are similar to conventional microbiological methods

186 and can provide more detailed information on complex biological processes.

#### 187 2.3.2. Soil enzyme activity measurements

188 Fluorescent diacetate hydrolase (FDA, expressed as mg fluorescein/g) was measured as a

189 reflection of the overall microbial activity. The following soil enzyme activities involved in

190 the metabolic cycling of nutrient elements (C, N, and P) were measured, as described by

191 others (Chae et al., 2017; Li et al., 2022a): invertase (INV; hydrolyzes sucrose to fructose and

192 glucose, expressed as mg glucose/g), urease (UA; hydrolyzes urea to carbon dioxide and

ammonia, mg NH<sub>4</sub>/g), and acid phosphatase (APA; catalyzes the release of phosphate by

hydrolysis, mg  $\rho$ -nitrophenyl phosphate/g). Methodological details of the enzyme assays are

195 described in Text S4.

#### 196 2.4. DNA extraction, 16S rRNA gene sequencing

- 197 Genomic DNA was extracted from the selected samples by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis,
- and the V3-V4 hypervariable region fragment of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified by the
- 199 polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The primer sequence was 338F (5'-ACT CCT ACG GGA
- 200 GGC AGC AG-3') and 806R (5'-GGA CTA CHV GGG TWT CTA AT-3'). The 2% agarose
- 201 gel electrophoresis was used to verify the qualified PCR amplification. The PCR product was
- further purified with E.Z.N.A.<sup>TM</sup> Gel Extraction Kit (OMEGA Bio-Tek Inc., USA). Bacterial
- sequencing was carried out on the Illumina MiSeq platform of Majorbio Bio-Pharm
- 204 Technology Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China).
- 205 *2.5. Data processing and statistical analyses*
- 206 The raw sequencing data were optimized using Fastp software (v0.19.6,
- 207 <u>https://github.com/OpenGene/fastp; accessed 22-March-2023</u>) to filter raw reads. The raw
- 208 pair-end reads were processed with Flash software (v1.2.11)
- 209 (https://ccb.jhu.edu/software/FLASH/index.shtml; accessed 22-March-2023). During the
- 210 merging process, the allowable error rate for the pairing of overlapping regions was  $\leq 0.2$  and
- 211 resulted in high-quality sequences. Bacterial community diversity indexes, including alpha
- 212 (α) richness and diversity indices (Ace, Chao, Coverage, Shannon, Sobs, and Simpson) were
- 213 calculated using the "vegan" package. The calculation of the beta ( $\beta$ ) diversity of the
- 214 microbial community was based on Bray Curtis distance similarity. The Analysis of
- 215 Similarity (ANOSIM) was used to analyze the availability of sample groupings. Hierarchical

216 clustering and principal coordinates analysis (PcoA) was used to analyze the differences in bacterial communities among samples. Spearman's correlation and distance-based 217 redundancy (db-RDA) analyses were processed using the vegan package in R version 3.4.2 to 218 identify important environmental variables affecting bacterial community structure. 219 220 Differences between groups were considered significant at p < 0.05. Data were expressed as 221 the average  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise stated. BugBase is a microbiome 222 analysis tool to identify high-level phenotypes in microbiome samples and enable phenotype prediction. SPSS 22.0 software was used to calculate the statistical tests, as described in Text 223 224 S5.

#### 225 3. Results and discussion

#### 226 3.1. Geochemical characterization of the studied soils

The geochemical properties of the soil from the different site soils are shown in Fig. S4 and 227 228 Tables S1-S4. The soil pH of sites GX, GZ, and YN was either weakly acidic or weakly 229 alkaline, whereas the SC soil was acidic (pH 4.84 – pH 5.89). These acidic and alkaline pH 230 signatures are typical of forest soils surrounding contaminated sites such as non-ferrous metal 231 smelting sites and tailing ponds (Zhao et al., 2020). The MC and EC values of sites GX, GZ, SC, and YN differed greatly because the soil structure around the polluted sites was 232 heterogenous and complex (Zhao et al., 2020). The TOC contents of all samples were lower 233 234 than the average generic local soil background level (CNEMC, 1990), which agrees with the fact that the surrounding soils of non-ferrous metal-contaminated sites are often nutrient-poor 235 (Batista et al., 2020). The large differences in soil properties are consistent with the high 236

237 degree of soil heterogeneity in the affected areas surrounding the studied mining and smelting activities. 238

#### 3.2. Heavy metal(loid) contents 239

240 The total heavy metal contents of soils sampled from the four study sites are summarized in Fig. 2A and Tables S5-S9. The average total contents of As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and 241 Zn in the soil exceeded the local soil background value (CNEMC, 1990), especially the total 242 243 As, Cd, and Pb content that exceeded the standard values of Grade II for agricultural land. This observation is not surprising given that nonferrous metal smelter sites are enriched with 244 nonferrous metal ores.

245

In soils from the inactive sites (respectively YN and GX), the average total contents (mg/kg) 246

of Cd ( $17.61 \pm 19.72$  and  $18.14 \pm 35.52$ ), Cu ( $19913.52 \pm 11650.05$  and  $756.99 \pm 647.79$ ), 247

and Ni (94.14  $\pm$  13.61 and 782.63  $\pm$  997.05) were higher than those from the active areas (SC 248

249 and GZ) (Fig. 2A). The average contents (mg/kg) of Cu (19913.52  $\pm$  11650.05), Fe (91468.16

250  $\pm$  30496.68), Pb (1234.48  $\pm$  1053.83), and Sb (27.46  $\pm$  8.14) in the YN site were higher than

in the other sites, whereas As  $(2985.16 \pm 1214.52 \text{ mg/kg})$  in SC site was higher than that in 251

252 the other sites. Such results are consistent with earlier reports that As, Cd, Cu, Pb, Sb, and Zn

- (especially As, Cu, and Cd) are the major heavy metal pollutants in nonferrous metal mining 253
- and smelting areas (Liu et al., 2022a; Yin et al., 2023). 254
- In the inactive site soils (respectively YN and GX), the average bioavailable metal contents 255

256 (mg/kg) of As  $(3.51 \pm 3.29 \text{ and } 3.70 \pm 6.47)$ , Cd  $(5.37 \pm 8.54 \text{ and } 9.25 \pm 20.53)$ , Cu  $(88.66 \pm$ 

50.34 and 51.03  $\pm$  111.35), Fe (56.01  $\pm$  81.58 and 264.10  $\pm$  574.69), Sb (0.22  $\pm$  0.12 and 0.16 257

258  $\pm 0.23$ ), and Zn (135.78  $\pm 176.17$  and 136.39  $\pm 301.36$ ) were significantly higher (Fig. 2B, 259 Table S10) than the active sites (respectively SC and GZ) as evidenced by As (0.44  $\pm 0.16$ 260 and 0.55  $\pm 0.03$ ), Cd (0.89  $\pm 0.51$  and 0.06  $\pm 0.05$ ), Cu (0.19  $\pm 0.16$  and 1.50  $\pm 0.37$ ), Fe 261 (1.66  $\pm 1.21$  and 3.26  $\pm 1.13$ ), Sb (0.14  $\pm 0.06$  and 0.09  $\pm 0.05$ ), and Zn (115.08  $\pm 125.53$  and 262 1.80  $\pm 0.36$ ). In addition, the average bioavailable contents (mg/kg) of Cr (6.37  $\pm 1.43$ ), Ni 263 (2.67  $\pm 2.61$ ), Pb (54.32  $\pm 97.46$ ), and V (0.08  $\pm 0.08$ ) were highest in the soils from the YN 264 area.

265 The correlation analyses (Tables S11-S14) show that the total contents of Cd, Cu, Mn, and Ni

were significantly and positively correlated (p < 0.05) with their bioavailable metal contents.

267 The TOC had a significant positive correlation (p < 0.05) with the bioavailable contents of

268 Cd, Mn, and Sb (Table S13). A rich organic C in soil could lead to the release of heavy metal

ions from the mineral matrix, and then be re-adsorbed to organic C (as well as the surface ofother minerals) functional groups (Yin et al., 2023).

271 The bioavailability of heavy metals in soil can be increased in the presence of plant root

exudates (such as organic acids) and therefore could be affected by the diversity and

composition of indigenous plant species (Yin et al., 2023). The percentages of bioavailable

274 content (EXC fraction expressed as %) of As, Cd, Fe, Pb, and V in the inactive sites (YN and

GX) were higher than those in the active site (Table S11), whereas those of Cd were SC

276 (0.63), YN (30.50), GX (51.02) and GZ (17.44) sites, and of Mn were SC (7.69), YN (7.31),

277 GX (7.40), and GZ (4.41) sites. Compared to the other heavy metal(loid)s, Cd had the highest

278 bioavailability in the YN, GX, and GZ sites, probably because Cd can be mobilized in soil

following competition and/or ligand-induced desorption (Kubier et al., 2019). Overall, the

280	bioavailability of heavy metal(loid)s in soils collected close to the inactive sites (YN and GX)
281	was generally higher than that of soils collected close to the active sites (SC and GZ).
282	Fugitive dust particles carrying the measured heavy metals (including the total and
283	bioavailable fractions) were likely transferred off-site from the nearby smelter dump sites and
284	accumulated in the surrounding studied forest soils. By design, it is unlikely that the source of
285	the measured heavy metals from forest soil was from vehicular emissions or debris, but
286	dispersion from local agricultural sources should not be under-estimated.
287	The Contamination factor (CF) was calculated as the ratio of the measured total heavy
288	metal(loid)s contents with the corresponding local geochemical background values (CNEMC,
289	1990) and was used to assess the pollution level (Fig. 2C, Table S12). The CF index for As,
290	Cd, Pb, and Sb reached a "high pollution level" in soils proximal to the active (GZ and SC)
291	and inactive (GX and YN) sites. In addition, the Cr (10.12), Cu (27.23), Mn (3.57), Ni
292	(29.24) and Zn (65.46) in the GX site, and Cu (430.10), and Zn (10.86) in YN, and Zn
293	(19.97) in GZ reached "high pollution levels."
294	The overall heavy metal pollution level of the surface soils was further assessed using the
295	pollution load index (PLI), which was calculated from the total contents of heavy metals and
296	local geochemical background values (CNEMC, 1990). The pollution index profile of the
297	four study sites was YN (1.81) > SC (1.74) > GX (1.68) > GZ (1.50). The PLI values were >
298	1 and indicated that all study sites were "heavily polluted" by heavy metal(loid)s, which may
299	be attributed to the weathering of metal minerals and the transport of flying dust that
300	contributes to the transfer of heavy metals from the smelter sites into the nearby collected soil
301	sites (Zhao et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2022b).

#### 302 3.3.1 Soil enzyme activities

The microbial enzyme activities of microorganisms among the four research sites were 303 304 different (Fig. 3, Tables S1-S4). A previous study reported that soil geochemical properties, 305 geographical spatial distance, and metal(loid) concentrations are the main factors affecting microbial differences among three non-ferrous metal-contaminated areas (Liu et al., 2022a). 306 The Spearman correlation analysis showed that the urease activity (UA) was negatively 307 related to MC and pH (p < 0.01) (Tables S13-S18), indicating that low MC or pH inhibited 308 309 UA. The TOC was positively related to FDA, APA, and INV activities (p < 0.05). It has been reported that pH and TOC are important factors affecting soil enzyme activity and that TOC 310 could stimulate enzyme activity (Batista et al., 2020; Aponte et al., 2021). The FDA activity 311 was negatively correlated with Ni (p < 0.05), and UA activity was negatively related to the 312 bioavailable Mn, as well as total Mn, Pb, Sb, and Zn contents (p < 0.05). Enzymes related to 313 soil C-, N-, and P- cycling can be inhibited by heavy metal(loid)s, resulting in differences in 314 315 enzyme activities in the sampled soils (Aponte et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022b). The observed enzymic inhibition likely involves the binding of metal(loid)s to the active site in the enzyme 316 317 leading to a more stable complex. Alternatively, the metal(loid)s could also decrease enzyme synthesis and secretion leading to an inhibition of the soil microbial growth and reproduction 318 (Zhao et al., 2015). The enzyme activities (FDA, INV, APA, and UA) were correlated with 319 the total heavy metal(loid) concentrations (As, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, and Zn) as well as with the 320 321 bioavailable Mn and Cd (Tables S13-S18), confirming that forest soil enzyme activities can be used as sensitive biological indicators of aerial heavy metal transfer (by fugitive dust 322 particles) from the neighboring active and inactive smelter facilities, similar to other reports 323

324 (Wahsha et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020).

#### 325 3.3.2 Total microbial activity using isothermal microcalorimetry

326 The heat production curves reflecting the metabolic growth of the soil microbial community among different research sites were different (Fig. 3E, Tables S1-S4). On the other hand, the 327 k and P were higher in the inactive sites (Fig. S5, Tables S1-S4). Other researchers noted that 328 the microbial characteristics of non-ferrous metal-contaminated areas in different regions are 329 330 affected by spatial geography, heavy metal(loid) contents, and edaphic factors (Liu et al., 2022a). Spearman correlation showed that the *P* and *k* were significantly and negatively 331 related to the MC and pH (p < 0.01), whereas they were positively related to the UA activity 332 (p < 0.05) (Tables S13-S18). The bioavailable contents (EXC fractions) of Cr, Cu, and Fe 333 334 were negatively related to Q and T values (p < 0.05), which agreed with the fact that the high 335 concentrations of heavy metal(loid)s decreased the total activity of soil microbial communities (Harris et al., 2012). Also, Q values were negatively related to the total contents 336 of As and Cu (p < 0.05), while T values were negatively related to total As contents (p < 0.05) 337 338 0.05). Such observations suggest that the total content of As and Cu are likely the main 339 factors affecting the microbial activity in the soils proximal to the active and inactive smelting facilities. High concentrations of metal(loid)s can damage and/or inhibit critical 340 341 microbial cell functions (Harris et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2020). In addition, Q is significantly 342 (p < 0.05) and negatively correlated with the total content of metal(loid)s (Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, 343 Mn, Pb, and Zn) in a non-ferrous metal smelting contaminated site (Li et al., 2022a). Thus, the thermodynamic parameters correlated with the total As and Cu concentrations and the 344 bioavailable Cr, Cu, and Fe contents may be sensitive indicators of microbial metabolic 345

activity in some but not all heavy metal(loid) polluted soils.

#### 347 3.4. Microbial community alpha and beta diversities

348 A dataset of 997,251 high-quality 16S rRNA gene sequences was generated. The average sequence number per sample was 415 bp. The 8,206 OTUs were obtained from high-quality 349 sequences. Compared to a previous study (Liu et al., 2022a), the number of OTUs was low 350 probably because the high concentration of metal(loid)s can reduce microbial richness. The 351 352 platform sparse curve shown in the Pan/Core species curve (Fig. S6) indicated that the sequencing depth collected most of the microbial community diversity and that the sample 353 size was sufficient. The  $\alpha$ -diversity parameters significantly differed according to the site 354 (Fig. 4; Tables S14 and S15), suggesting that the toxic metal(loid)s concentration can shape 355 356 the microbial community as observed in a dynamic study (Xu et al., 2019). The microbial  $\alpha$ -357 diversity Simpson index (Table S15) was negatively correlated with bioavailable Cd and Mn concentrations (p < 0.05). This is consistent with a previous report that toxic metal(loid)s 358 pollution harmed the microbial community (Li et al., 2020). The  $\alpha$ -diversity indices were 359 360 significantly and positively related to the FDA, INV, and APA activities (p < 0.05) (Table S14) in the active and inactive smelter sites, suggesting that differences in microbial enzyme 361 activity could reflect microbial diversity, as reported previously (Xiao et al., 2020). Venn 362 363 diagrams show that there are 1111 shared core OTUs between the four sites (Fig. 5A). Principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA), based on OTU distances, showed a separation 364 according to sites (Figs. 5B and 8; ANOSIM with 999 iterations, R = 0.2343, p = 0.001), 365 indicating that the microbial communities of the sites were distinct. Such observations 366 confirmed the possibility that the composition of bacterial communities was affected by the 367

368 land use, soil geochemical properties, and metal(loid)s content (Zhao et al., 2019). Off-site transfer of heavy metals to the collected forest soil samples probably led to direct (e.g., 369 decreased host site indigenous microbial metabolic activity and community abundance) and 370 indirect (e.g., stimulation of metal resistance traits and adapted abundance) effects on the new 371 372 host soil microbial community. This possibility is supported by the observed effects on soil 373 enzyme activities and microbial abundance. Data suggests that the microorganisms sensitive 374 to metal(loid) stress will decrease in abundance, whereas that of insensitive microorganisms will increase. The following studies were conducted to determine the effects of the off-site 375 376 transfer on the microbial community composition.

#### 377 3.5. Microbial taxa distribution

We identified OTUs belonging to 48 phyla, 152 classes, 348 orders, 539 families, and 1082 378 379 genera in soil samples around the four (two active and two inactive) contaminated sites. It was challenging to identify or monitor control (reference) soils in this study. The microbial 380 community in typical healthy soils was considered as a reference for comparison with the 381 382 present results. The Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Chloroflexi were the most abundant bacterial phyla in healthy soil, with average relative abundances of 39%, 20%, 383 13%, and 3%, respectively (Janssen, 2006). Specifically, the average relative abundances (%) 384 385 of Proteobacteria in the contaminated forest soil around sites were SC (25.10), YN (15.01), 386 GX (21.84), and GZ (20.13), which is lower than that in healthy soil (39) (Fig. 5C). The average relative abundances (%) of Acidobacteria in the contaminated soil around the SC, 387 YN, GX, and GZ sites were 18.33, 14.13, 11.59, and 17.29, respectively, which are lower 388 than those of healthy soil. However, the average relative abundances (%) of Actinobacteria in 389

390	the contaminated soil around sites were SC (21.61) YN (35.07), GX (23.19), and GZ (30.42),
391	higher than those in healthy soil (Fig. 5C). Actinobacteria, the most dominant phyla in the
392	soil surrounding mining and smelting activities in the current study, showed remarkable
393	resilience in heavy metal(loid)s environments with low nutrient contents (Qiao et al., 2021),
394	consistent with other studies (Zhang et al., 2019a). The relative abundance of dominant phyla
395	among the active/inactive sites (Fig. 5) may be due to the different adaptabilities of
396	microorganisms to survive in environments having sub-optimal pH, low nutrient conditions,
397	and metal(loid)s stress. Actinobacteria was unusually abundant in neutral and slightly acidic
398	environments (Chen et al., 2013). The relative abundance of Actinobacteria was significantly
399	and negatively correlated with pH ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating that changes in soil pH might have
400	affected the Actinobacteria enrichment (Fig. 6). Our data indicate that members of the
401	Actinobacteria can adapt to or resist high levels of heavy metal(loid)s pollution as previously
402	shown in marine sediments (Duran et al., 2015). This is evidenced by the inhibition of growth
403	and development at high metal(loid)s concentrations that would decrease their proportion in
404	the bacterial community (Chen et al., 2018). Similar main microbial communities were found
405	in abandoned non-ferrous metal tailings, gold tailings environments, and V-Ti magnetite
406	tailings (Kang et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020). The ubiquity of Actinobacteria is mainly due to
407	the adsorption and complexation capacity of microorganisms, which aids in their adaptability
408	to harsh metal-rich environments (Wu et al., 2021).

409 Interestingly, the average relative abundances (%) of *Chloroflexi* in the contaminated soils

410 around the SC (24.10), YN (14.43), GX (24.79), and GZ (12.91) sites (Fig. 5C) were higher

411 than that in the healthy soil (3). Previous studies showed that *Chloroflexi* as well as a

412	Proteobacteria were enriched from sites disturbed by mining (Xiao et al., 2021). In heavy
413	metal-polluted soils, Chloroflexi was the main phylum with tolerance and resistance to heavy
414	metal stress (Yin et al., 2023). These studies pointed out that members of Chloroflexi are
415	poor-nutrition bacteria that prefer low-nourished soil habitats. The phyla Actinobacteria and
416	Chloroflexi could be involved in metal detoxification by decreasing the high toxicity found in
417	the present metal-rich environment (Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021), which could explain
418	why their relative abundance was higher than in the healthy soils. In heavily polluted soil, the
419	number of bacteria susceptible to heavy metal stress will decrease, so that the tolerant or
420	resistant bacteria can become the dominant species (Zhao et al., 2019).
421	At the genus level, the most dominant genera in the soil (%) around the SC site were
422	norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (8.47), norank_o_subgroup_2 (6.11), Xanthobacteraceae (4.72),
423	norank_o_Elsterales (4.43), Acidothermus (4.03), norank_o_Acidobacteriales (3.99),
424	HSB_OF53-F07 (3.44), Bradyrhizobium (3.21), FCPS473 (2.63), and norank_o_Gaiellales
425	(1.96) (Fig. 5D and S8). The most dominant genera in the soil around the YN site were
426	norank_o_Gaiellales (5.75), norank_o_Vicinamibacterales (4.86), Vicinamibacteraceae
427	(3.42), norank_o_Rokubacteriales (3.37), Gemmatimonadaceae (3.25), norank_f_67-14
428	(3.23), Gaiella (2.93), unclassified_f_Micromonosporaceae (2.6), Xanthobacteraceae (2.25),
429	and <i>norank_o_norank_c_MB-A2-108</i> (2.05). The most dominant genera of soil around the
430	GX site were JG30-KF-AS9 (5.88), norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (4.06), JG30-KF-CM45 (3.74),
431	Sinomonas (3.33), Ktedonobacteraceae (2.25), norank_o_Acidobacteriales (2.16), Delftia
432	(2.1), <i>Bradyrhizobium</i> (1.99), <i>Acidothermus</i> (1.88), and <i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> (1.71).
433	The most dominant genera in the soil around the GZ site were Arthrobacter (6.68),

434	Vicinamibacteraceae (5.28), norank_o_Vicinamibacterales (5.27), norank_o_Chloroplast
435	(2.53), Nocardioides (2.46), Gaiella (2.42), norank_o_Rokubacteriales (2.25),
436	norank_o_Gaiellales (2.17), norank_o_norank_c_KD4-96 (2.11), and Roseiflexaceae (1.88).
437	Micromonospora belonging to Actinobacteria showed strong resistance to abiotic stress
438	(Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014). Arthrobacter can thrive in environments with high metal
439	pollution through physiological and genetic modifications (Zhang et al., 2004).
440	The <i>norank_c_Acidobacteria</i> is one of the top five genera found in gold mining areas (Yan et
441	al., 2020). In the typical antimony ore smelting area in the south of China, at the genus level,
442	the bioindicators were Ktedonobacteraceae and Xanthomonadaceae_unclassifed in the
443	topsoil, and <i>Gemmatimonadacea</i> and <i>norank_o_norank_c_KD4-96</i> were in the middle soil
444	depth, and JG30-KF-AS9 and norank_o_norank_c_AD3 were in deep soil (Wang et al.,
445	2022). In addition, <i>norank_o_Rokubacteriales, norank_o_subgroup_2</i> , and
446	norank_o_Acidobacteriales were the main genera in As/Sb contaminated sites (Kalam et al.,
447	2020; Wang et al., 2022).

- 448 In the contaminated soil around a vanadium smelter, the main genera in the topsoil included
- 449 *JG30-KF-CM45*, while the dominant genera in profile soils included *norank\_o\_Gaiellales*,
- 450 *Gaiella*, and *norank\_o\_norank\_c\_KD4-96* (Wang et al., 2020). In abandoned mine soils in
- 451 Korea, the main bacteria included *norank\_o\_Vicinamibacterales*, *norank\_o\_Gaiellales*,
- 452 *Micrococcales, Gemmatimonadales, norank\_o\_Acidobacteriales, Bryobacteriales,*
- 453 norank\_o\_subgroup\_2, Micropepsales, Ktedonobacterales, and Pseudonocardiales (Chun et
- al., 2021). This exemplifies the main groups of bacteria found in heavy metal-contaminated

455 soil.

Ktedonobacteria can utilize or degrade different carbohydrates (Wang et al., 2022), whereas 456 Bradyrhizobium can minimize oxidative stress and enhance N-fixation in particular plants 457 458 (Rodrigues et al., 2013). Arthrobacter can survive and develop for a long time in harsh ecological environments (Guo et al., 2021a). Nocardioides is also noted for its ability to 459 promote plant growth. The majority of these genera promote the C-cycle and fix N, which is 460 conducive to survival in a nutrient-poor environment (Sun et al., 2019). In summary, the 461 observed heterogeneous bacterial community involved in nutrient cycling has probably 462 adapted to anthropogenic disturbances. These major bacterial genera are bioindicators for 463 metal(loid)s-contaminated soil. Thus, the advantages of these core groups may reflect the 464 harsh soil ecological environment, representing the general adaptive groups around the non-465 ferrous metal mining and smelting facilities in Southwest China. 466

# 467 3.6. Soil properties, heavy metal(loid)s, microbial metabolic activity, and microbial

#### 468 *community relationships*

The Spearman correlation heatmap (Fig. 6) and distance-based redundancy (db-RDA) (Fig. 7) analyses were performed based on the sequence abundance of OTUs to identify potential relationships between microbial communities and environmental factors in the four studied areas. Based on correlation analysis (Table S13-S18), microbial community  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (Sobs, Shannon, Ace, and Chao) were positively correlated with TOC, FDA, APA, and INV (*p* < 0.05), indicating that the enzyme activities were closely related to bacterial community diversity.

476	In soils proximal to the active sites (SC and GZ), the following observations were made. At
477	the phylum level (Fig. 6A), <i>Proteobacteria</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with As but
478	negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with MC, EC, $Q$ , APA, bioavailable Sb, and total Sb.
479	<i>Chloroflexi</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with UA, bioavailable Cr and Cu, and total
480	As and Cd, but negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with EC, pH, APA, $Q$ , bioavailable Cd, Mn,
481	and V, and total Mn. At the genus level (Fig. 6D), Xanthobacteraceae, norank_o_Elsterales,
482	Acidothermus, norank_o_norank_c_AD3, norank_o_Subgroup_2, Acidobacteria and
483	<i>Bradyrhizobium</i> were negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with EC, pH, MC, $Q$ , APA,
484	bioavailable Cd and Mn, and total Mn, but positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with UA,
485	bioavailable Cr and Cu, and total As and Cd. Arthroactor, Vicinamibacteraceae, and
486	<i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> were positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with pH, EC, APA, $Q$ ,
487	bioavailable Cd and Mn, and total Mn, but negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with bioavailable
488	Cr and Cu, and with total As.
489	The above results were in contrast to soils close to the inactive sites (YN and GX). At the
490	phylum level (Fig. 6B), <i>Chloroflexi</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with T, but
491	negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with TOC, UA, and FDA. <i>Actinobacteriota</i> was significantly
492	and positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with Cu, while negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with pH,
493	At the genus level (Fig. 6E), <i>JG30-KF-AS9</i> and <i>norank_o_norank_c_AD3</i> , were negatively
494	correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with TOC, Cu, bioavailable As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Sb, and Zn, and
495	total Cr and Pb, while positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with MC and total Cr. The
496	<i>Vicinamibacteraceae</i> and <i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> were positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ )
497	with bioavailable Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, and Zn, and total Cd, Pb, and Sb, but negatively correlated
with MC (p < 0.05). *JG30-KF-CM45* and *Gemmatimonadaceae* were positively correlated (p<0.05) with bioavailable As, Cu, Mn, and Sb. In addition, the APA and Q showed negative correlations (p < 0.05) with the bacterial community composition in the active and inactive sites (Figs. 6 and 7).

502	Soil heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Pb, Ni, Sb, and Zn), EC, and pH are the most
503	important factors affecting bacterial communities in the mining area, as reported in previous
504	studies (Zhao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Zeng et al., 2020). High concentrations of Cd, Cu,
505	and Zn can disturb the cell membrane integrity and inhibit the enzyme activity of soil bacteria
506	(Renella et al., 2003; Jose et al., 2011). A previous study noted that the high content of Cd,
507	Cr, Cu, Pb, and Zn increased the abundance of Chloroflexi (Zeng et al., 2020). Chloroflexi has
508	strong resistance to heavy metals (Yin et al., 2023), which explains the significant positive
509	correlation between Chloroflexi and copper. Recent studies found that Cu and Zn have
510	important effects on metal resistance genes (MRGs) in soil bacteria (Li et al., 2022c). For the
511	heavy metal(loid)s in soils, the bioavailable fractions are absorbed by the microorganisms,
512	thus affecting microbial communities (Zhen et al., 2019). Depending on the concentration,
513	heavy metal ions can have beneficial as well as harmful effects on complex microbial
514	biochemistry and metabolism. It was found that Cd and Pb ions can bind to sulfhydryl (-SH)
515	groups and inhibit cell enzyme activity (Pan et al., 2020). This can also explain the significant
516	negative correlation between bioavailable Cd and Mn and Chloroflexi. On the other hand,
517	bioavailable Cr and Cu have significant positive correlations with Chloroflexi. In addition,
518	some heavy metal(loid)s ions (Cu <sup>2+</sup> , Mn <sup>2+</sup> , Ni <sup>2+</sup> , and Zn <sup>2+</sup> ) are essential trace elements for
519	microorganisms and play an important role in bacterial protein composition, electrostatic

520 interaction, osmoregulation, and redox processes (Bruins et al., 2000).

521	At the genus level, <i>Bradyrhizobium</i> can minimize oxidative stress (Rodrigues et al., 2013).
522	Arthrobacter can thrive in barren and harsh environments and has a strong tolerance to
523	multiple metals (Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn) through physiological and genetic modification (Zhang
524	et al., 2004). In the typical antimony ore smelting area in the south of China, most of the
525	bioindicators of soil contaminated with heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Sb)
526	include Gemmatimonadacea, norank_o_subgroup_2, JG30_KF_AS9, and
527	norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (Wang et al., 2022). These studies reported that
528	norank_o_Rokubacteriales and norank_o_Acidobacteriales showed a positive relationship
529	with the total As and Sb contents (Kalam et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). At the abandoned
530	heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn) contaminated sites in Korea,
531	norank_o_Vicinamibacterales and Gemmatimonadales were identified as the main bacterial
532	genera in the heavy metal-tolerant modules, compared to <i>norank_o_Acidobacteriales</i> and
533	norank_o_subgroup_2 in the heavy metal-sensitive modules (Chun et al., 2021). In particular,
534	norank_o_Vicinamibacterales and Gemmatimonadales could work together to resist As, Cd,
535	Cu, Pb, and Zn. In the contaminated soil around the smelter, the main genera in the topsoil
536	included JG30-KF-CM45, these bacteria have a strong tolerance to soil heavy metals (Cr, Cu,
537	V, and Zn) (Wang et al., 2020).
538	In summary, total and bioavailability contents of heavy metal(loid)s strongly altered the
539	abundances of soil microbial taxa. Additionally, many bacterial communities can have
540	different reaction modes to heavy metal(loid)s, implying that soils contaminated with

541 multiple metal(loid)s can shape the microbial communities. Based on the information on the

542 assembly process of soil microbial community, a previous study found that the differences in microbial communities in three mining and smelting sites were driven by the joint influence 543 544 of soil factors, spatial heterogeneity, and metal(loid) levels, among which pH and Sb content were the main parameters affecting the microbial assembly processes (Liu et al., 2022a; Li et 545 al., 2023). These results (Figs. 6 and 7) indicate that TOC, MC, total Cd and Cu contents, and 546 547 bioavailable As, Cd, Cu, Sb, Mn, and Zn were the main environmental factors affecting the bacterial community in the inactive sites (YN and GX), whereas EC, pH, total contents of As, 548 Cd, Mn, and Zn, and bioavailable Cd, Cu, Cr, and Mn contents were the main environmental 549 550 factors affecting the bacterial community in the active sites (SC and GZ). In the present study, EC, total As, Cu, and Mn contents, and bioavailable As, Cu, Cd, and Mn contents were 551 the main important environmental factors affecting the bacterial community in the inactive 552 553 sites (YN and GX) and active sites (SC and GZ).

## 554 3.7. Phenotypic-functional prediction of bacterial communities

There were seven major phenotypes, including Potentially Pathogenic, Gram Positive, 555 556 Contains Mobile Elements, Forms Biofilms, Gram Negative, Stress Tolerant, and Oxygen Utilizing (Aerobic, Anaerobic, and Facultatively anaerobic) communities (Fig. 8). The 557 relative abundance contribution of species to phenotypic function showed that the highest 558 559 contribution of phenotypic function included Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteriota. The Aerobic and Forms Biofilms phenotypes were significantly and 560 negatively correlated with the  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (Tables S13-S18) but were positively 561 correlated with the Simpson index (p < 0.05). The Anaerobic phenotype was negatively 562 related to the  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (p < 0.05) and was positively related to the Simpson index (p563

564 < 0.05). Furthermore, microbial community characteristics and phenotypes were closely</li>
565 related in all sites as determined by correlation analyses.

The TOC was negatively correlated with Aerobic and Stress Tolerant phenotypes (p < 0.05) 566 567 (Fig. 8, Tables S13-S18), but it also was positively correlated with the Anaerobic and Contains Mobile Elements phenotypes (p < 0.05). The EC was positively related to 568 phenotypes (Contains Mobile Elements and Gram Positive) (p < 0.05), while it was 569 negatively related to the Facultatively Anaerobic, Forms Biofilms, and Gram Negative 570 571 phenotypes (p < 0.05). Phenotypic changes related to oxygen demand (e.g., Aerobic, Anaerobic, and Facultative Anaerobic) may be related to soil salinity (Bronick and Lal, 572 2005). Soil salinity is closely related to EC. Earlier studies have shown that the relative 573 abundance of anaerobic phenotypes is positively related to salinity, compared to facultative 574 anaerobic and biofilm-forming phenotypes that are negatively correlated with salinity (Zhang 575 et al., 2019b). Although the TOC is closely related to the soil microbial community (Li et al., 576 577 2020), further study is needed to investigate the possibility that the soil microbial community phenotype has affected the soil TOC and EC or that changes in soil TOC and EC have shaped 578 the microbial community. An earlier study confirmed that geographical distance and 579 environmental factors can drive microbial structure differences in the three nonferrous metal 580 pollution sites (Liu et al., 2022a). 581

582 The different phenotypes of soil microbes are closely related to the total and bioavailable

583 contents of heavy metals(loid)s (Tables S13-S18). Soil microbial communities may develop

584 unique survival and community composition strategies during their adaptation to extreme

585 environments. The present study assumes that the changes in soil properties and function

586 (e.g., microbial enzyme activities and bacterial/fungal communities) are related to (or caused by) exposure to toxic heavy metals on fugitive dust particles that were transferred from the 587 active and inactive smelter sites to the surrounding forest soil and elsewhere (Csavina et al., 588 2012; Lenart-Boroń and Boroń, 2014; Ettler 2016). Based on the genetic acquisition of MRG 589 590 in down-wind soils studied here, it is interesting to consider the possibility that the fugitive 591 emissions also carry heavy metal-resistant microbes (Hu et al., 2020), like the aerial transfer 592 of microbes from manure feed farms to urban settings (McEachran et al., 2015; Fry et al., 2020). This process could have hazardous effects on human health (Hu et al., 2020) or 593 594 negatively impact neighboring ecosystems (Behzad et al., 2022). Whether the fugitive MRGcontaining microbes propagate within a new host-microbiome of the surrounding forest soils 595 explains the biogeochemical effects observed in the present study requires future 596 597 confirmation. Another consideration is that toxic heavy metal(loid)s in soil may force microbial 598 599 communities into competition to cause a trade-off of resource allocation for the growth, survival, and reproduction of the successful community. The species abundance composition 600 601 of bacterial communities and antibiotic-resistance genes in activated sludge are consistent

with environmental adaptation (Zhao et al., 2019). The correlation between the dominant

flora and the bacterial community phenotype may be the main reason for their similar spatial

distribution pattern. Here it is inferred that adaptive changes in the structure and phenotype of

605 the diverse microbial flora represent a synergistic or symbiotic strategy to support continual

adaptation to temporal changes in environmental stressors.

607 Although many studies on the microbial diversity and structure of mining and smelting sites

have been investigated, the ecological processes and symbiotic patterns affecting the
biogeographic distribution of microbial communities are still unclear. Therefore, in a followup study, we plan to increase the number of study sites and soil samples to further explore the
ecological characteristics of soil bacterial and fungal communities.

612 4. Conclusions

613 In this study, the soil environment surrounding non-ferrous metal mining and smelting

614 activities in Southwest China was barren and heavily polluted by various heavy metals, with

615 different microbial metabolic activities, and soil bacterial community structure and

616 phenotypic characteristics. Selected microbial metabolic activities (enzyme APA and

617 microcalorimetric parameter Q), bacterial community structure, and phenotype varied across

618 all sites. Furthermore, the main bacterial phyla were Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria,

619 *Chloroflexi*, and *Acidobacteriota*. The TOC, MC, total Cd and Cu contents, and bioavailable

As, Cd, Cu, Mn, Sb, and Zn contents were the main environmental factors affecting the

bacterial community in the inactive sites, whereas the EC, pH, total As, Cd, Mn, and Zn

622 contents, and bioavailable Cd, Cr, Cu, and Mn contents were the main environmental factors

623 affecting that in the active sites. Many bacterial groups exhibited different response patterns

624 to each heavy metal(loid), implying that the soil microbial communities were shaped jointly

by fugitive multiple heavy metal(loid)s and possibly microbes. Species abundances and

626 phenotypes of dominant taxa in soil bacterial communities are involved in potential

627 environmental adaptation consistency. Different advanced gene sequencing techniques will

628 be used in future studies to systematically reveal the microbial biogeography, assembly

629 mechanism, and symbiotic modes of bacterial and fungal communities around mining and

630	smelting areas. This series of studies can provide a more comprehensive and theoretical basis
631	for the microbial treatment of non-ferrous metal-contaminated sites.
632	
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640 641	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation,</li> </ul>
640 641 642	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> </ul>
640 641 642 643	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing – review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding</li> </ul>
640 641 642 643 644	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing – review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.</li> </ul>
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<ul> <li>640</li> <li>641</li> <li>642</li> <li>643</li> <li>644</li> <li>645</li> <li>646</li> <li>647</li> <li>648</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing – review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.</li> <li>Ning Min: Formal analysis, Review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Geoffrey Sunahara: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Robert Duran: Formal analysis, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> </ul>

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**Fig. 1.** Locations and photos of four non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities affected areas in Southwest China. The distributions of sampling points of active sites (SC and GZ) and inactive sites (YN and GX) are shown in the top and bottom panels, respectively (also see Supplementary Information, Figs. S1 and S2).



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1	New insights on the effect of non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities
2	on microbial activity characteristics and bacterial community structure
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23	

#### 24 Abstract

25 Mining and smelting activities have brought potentially serious heavy metal(loid) pollution to their surrounding locale. However, studies on microbial metabolic activities, community 26 27 structure, and adaptation in soils proximal to non-ferrous metal mining and smelting areas are still lacking. Here the effects of biotic and abiotic characteristics of soil taken from sites 28 surrounding inactive and active nonferrous metal mine smelting facilities on microbial 29 enzyme activity, microcalorimetry, and high-throughput sequencing of 16S rRNA gene 30 31 barcoding were studied. Data indicated that the soils were heavily polluted by toxic metal(loid)s, of which As and Cd are the main contaminants. Microbial acid phosphatase 32 activity and microcalorimetric total heat value were sensitive metabolic indicators in the 33 studied areas. Actinobacteriota had the highest relative abundance, followed by 34 Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteria. Microbial metabolic activity and bacterial 35 community structure and phenotype varied between inactive and active sites (p < 0.05). Such 36 37 analyses indicated that electrical conductivity, total As, Cu, and Mn contents, and bioavailable As, Cu, Cd, and Mn concentrations were key factors determining microbial 38 39 activities, bacterial community structure, and phenotypes. Knowledge of microbial adaptation to heavy metal stressors is important for better understanding the aerial transfer of fugitive 40 heavy metals (and possibly microbes) and for designing future strategies for improved soil 41 bioremediation. 42

43 Keywords: Mining and smelting activities, Heavy metal(loid)s pollution, Microbial
44 metabolic activities, Bacterial community, Phenotypes

### 45 **1. Introduction**

Industrial activities including mining and smelting, production of used Pb-acid batteries, 46 tanneries, and dye production, and agriculture are key sources of potentially toxic metal 47 pollution causing serious global environmental issues and have drawn considerable scientific 48 attention (Hu et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2021b). In recent decades, the long-term large-scale 49 non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities in China have produced a large amount of 50 51 waste gas and water, as well as waste residues, carrying a variety of toxic heavy metal(loid)s (e.g., As, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn) (Li et al., 2020; Ke et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2022). These 52 environmental contaminants have invaded farmland and forests causing continuous damage 53 to their surrounding environments (Li et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021b). 54 The soil ensures important ecosystem services, including material cycling, information 55 transfer, energy flow, and the microbial-mediated biogeochemical cycling of key 56 57 metal(loids)s (Liu et al., 2021). In environments contaminated by tailings and smelting waste, 58 excess heavy metals can affect microbial metabolic activities in soil (Chun et al., 2021). Soil microbial activities are involved in the storage and cycling of nutrients in the soil (Batista et 59 60 al., 2020). Soil enzyme activities (phosphatase, invertase, and urease) have been used as biochemical markers (biomarkers) of soil microbial nutrient (C, N, and P) effects and 61 metabolic activity (Chae et al., 2017; Aponte et al., 2021). Other soil biomarkers such as 62 63 fluorescein diacetate hydrolase (FDA) reflect the total microbial activity (Schnurer and Rosswall, 1982), whereas isothermal microcalorimetry can be used as a quantitative and real-64 time measure of the total metabolic activity of microbial communities in soil (Herrmann et 65

al., 2014). Microbial enzymatic and total metabolic activities are considered sensitive and
effective indicators of soil health in mining and smelting ecosystems (Vinhal-Freitas et al.,
2017; Yuan et al., 2021).

69 As important components of soil, microbial communities also play a key role in the ecological functions of energy and nutrient cycling (Guo et al., 2021a; Li et al., 2022b). 70 71 Bacteria are important members of the soil ecosystem, interacting with plants or fungi to change and adapt to the soil environment (Chun et al., 2021). Therefore, soil microbial 72 73 characteristics can be used as potential indicators of ecosystem health (Li et al., 2020). Although tailings and smelting sites are often described as metal-rich and nutrient-poor 74 environments, certain microorganisms can tolerate highly toxic environmental conditions by 75 developing specific survival strategies for their growth on contaminated sites (Chun et al., 76 2021). These strategies include detoxification, metal resistance, and cellular oxidative stress 77 responses (Jiang et al., 2021). Many heavy metal-resistant microorganisms (e.g., dominant 78 79 soil phyla including Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteriota) can be found in various polluted environments (Li et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2023). Differences in 80 81 microbial community structure between active and inactive nonferrous metal smelting sites have been reported earlier (Liu et al., 2018). Phenotypic plasticity is widespread in the 82 biological world, but relatively few studies have been conducted in the field of 83 84 microorganisms (Ward et al., 2017). Phenotypic predictive research based on soil bacterial communities is important for understanding the adaptability of microbial populations, as well 85 as for protecting the ecological environment and maintaining species coexistence (Zhang et 86 al., 2019b). 87

88	The soil properties including the bioavailable and total contents of heavy metal(loid)s may
89	vary greatly between different mining and smelting sites (Liu et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2023).
90	Earlier studies show that the total concentrations of As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, and Pb are as
91	important as their bioavailable contents by influencing the soil microbial community
92	structure (Yin et al., 2023). The exchangeable (EXC) content of heavy metal(loid)s is often
93	regarded as the bioavailable fraction in soil, using the European Community Bureau of
94	Reference (BCR) sequential extraction procedure (Zhu et al., 2018). The pollution load index
95	(PLI) and contamination factor (CF) can be used to assess the pollution degree of heavy
96	metal(loid)s in soil (Rinklebe et al., 2019). Although complex interactions between soil
97	properties, heavy metal(loid)s, microbial metabolic activities, and microbial communities
98	have been reported (Yan et al., 2020), few studies have addressed how these important factors
99	(heavy metal(loid)s and soil properties) and processes affect microbial metabolic activities
100	and bacterial communities in contaminated soils surrounding active and inactive nonferrous
101	metal mining and smelting sites.

102 Most nonferrous metal smelting and collection activities in Southwest China are located in karst landforms, so mobile heavy metals are often highly diffusible and can disperse within 103 104 the environment, especially through runoff or atmospheric deposition. Long-term mining and 105 smelting of non-ferrous metals have caused serious damage to the health of the local soil 106 environment (Liu et al., 2022a; Zhang et al., 2020). Compared to active nonferrous metal smelting sites, microbial communities present in mine tailings at inactive or abandoned 107 facilities can adapt (by long-term natural attenuation) to their nonferrous metal(loid)s-108 containing environments (Liu et al., 2018). Therefore, there are few studies on the microbial 109

characteristics and bacterial community structure of the surrounding soil caused by the non-ferrous metal activities in different states (inactive and active).

Here we hypothesize that the microbial communities in soils proximal to nonferrous metalmining and smelting sites are influenced by these neighboring activities. The research aims

114 were to 1) Determine the microbial metabolic activity and bacterial communities structure

115 characteristics in contaminated soil around active and inactive nonferrous metal mining and

smelting sites in Southwest China, and 2) Identify and compare the main factors affecting the

117 microbial characteristics of the studied nonferrous metal-contaminated sites. The results

118 described here will provide new insights into soil microbial characteristics after

119 environmental disturbances from different mining and smelting activities.

120 2. Materials and methods

## 121 2.1. Study areas

The soil samples were collected in triplicate from the topsoil (depth of 0-20 cm) of forest land
proximal to two active, and two inactive sites non-ferrous metal mining and smelting sites

124 (Fig. 1). It was assumed that the forest land surrounding the smelter sites were not influenced

125 by extraneous anthropogenic factors such as agricultural tilling, use of chemical and

126 biological fertilizers, domestic hazardous waste, and roadside emissions.

127 The active Lumaolin Pb-Zn tailing pond (GZ) was located in Puding County, Guizhou

- 128 Province (105°38′28″E, 26°25′29″N) (Figs. 1 and S1). The metal minerals are mainly
- sphalerite, smithsonite, and galena. The site GZ started production after 2008. Samples were
- 130 collected from five representative points (GZ-1, GZ-2, GZ-3, GZ-4, and GZ-5). Additional

131 information is provided in Supplementary Information (Text S1.1). The active Maliwan Cu-Ni tailing pond (SC) was located in Huili County, Sichuan Province (102°4'47"E, 26°26'8"N) 132 (Figs. 1 and S1). The tailings are mainly copper-nickel beneficiation smelting slag, nickel-133 iron processing plant waste, and calcium sulfate slag. Samples were collected from five 134 135 representative points (SC-1, SC-2, SC-3, SC-4, and SC-5). The inactive Gejiu Pb smelting site (YN) was located in Gejiu City, Yunnan Province 136 (103°13'30"E, 23°30'30"N) (Figs. 1 and S2). A large amount of waste residue was stored at 137 this smelting area typical of the lead smelting industry. Samples were collected from five 138 representative points (YN-1, YN-2, YN-3, YN-4, and YN-5). The inactive Huilong As 139 smelting site (GX) was located in Zhongshan County, Guangxi Province (111°16'48"E, 140 24°27'48"N) (Figs. 1 and S2). This site opened operations (producing metal arsenic, arsenic 141 trioxide, and other products) in 1994 but stopped production in 2003. Samples were collected 142 from five representative points (GX-1, GX-2, GX-3, GX-4, and GX-5). 143 All samples were collected using sterile tools and placed in biological storage bags ( $\Box$  1 kg 144 145 per sample), stored in ice packs, and quickly transported to the laboratory. Each collected soil sample was divided into two sub-samples for subsequent testing, one of which was air-dried 146 (for 10 d) at room temperature, sieved (100-mesh) to remove rocks, animal, and plant debris, 147 148 etc., and stored at 4°C for geochemical and microbial analyses, and the other aliquot was 149 stored at -80°C for high-throughput sequencing. All chemicals and reagents were purchased 150 from commercial sources and were at least analytical grade purity.

# 151 2.2. Geochemical analyses and heavy metal(loid) pollution assessment

152 The electrical conductivity (EC, expressed as  $\mu$ S/cm) and the pH of the soil were determined in the slurry with the soil-to-water ratio of 1:2.5 and 1:5, respectively. The soil moisture 153 content (MC, as %) was measured by drying the soil sample in an oven  $(105 \pm 2^{\circ}C)$  for 8 h 154 until the weight remains constant (Li et al., 2020). The soil total organic carbon (TOC, mg/g) 155 in soil was determined using a TOC instrument (Shimadzu SSM-5000, Japan) (Zhu et al., 156 157 2018). To determine the total amount of heavy metal(loid)s in soil, the following digestion steps were taken. The air-dried soil sample was ground and sieved, and 0.100 g of pretreated 158 soil sample was weighed, and then added into a digestion tube containing HNO<sub>3</sub>-HCl (1:3, 159 160 volume/ volume). The tube was placed in a 140-180°C heater for 2 h. If a solid residue remained in the tube, a 2 mL volume of HF was added until a white sediment was formed. 161 The digested residue was then dissolved in a 1% HNO<sub>3</sub> solution and made up to 50 mL in a 162 163 volumetric flask. All experimental data were corrected by subtracting the blank group of mixed acids prepared using the same digestion steps described above. The recovery rate of 164 total As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and Zn concentration in soil was between 92.5% 165 and 107.5%, and the relative standard deviation (RSD) was < 5%. The concentrations of As, 166 Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and Zn were measured using an inductively coupled plasma 167 atomic emission spectrometer, with the detection limits of 0.03, 0.002, 0.004, 0.002, 0.002, 168 0.009, 0.03, 0.03, 0.004, and 0.005 mg/kg, respectively. The quality assurance and quality 169 control procedures are described in Text S1.2. 170

as % of total) were determined by using 0.11 M acetic acid solution of the BCR sequential

The bioavailable metal(loid) contents (EXC, Exchangeable fraction) (expressed as mg/g or

- 173 extraction method, as described in Text S1.2. The pollution load index (PLI) and
| 174 | contamination factor (CF) were used to assess the pollution degree of heavy metal(loid)s in |
|-----|---|
| 175 | the soil (Rinklebe et al., 2019). The calculation of these indices is described in Text S2. |

#### 176 2.3. Microbial metabolic activity characteristics

#### 177 2.3.1. Microcalorimetric measurements

178 The total metabolic activity of microorganisms was measured using a Model TAM-IV (Fig.

179 S3) isothermal multichannel microcalorimeter (TA Instruments, Delaware, USA), as

180 described earlier (Herrmann et al., 2014). This technique provides qualitative and quantitative

181 information on microbial metabolic processes by generating power-time curves based on

182 microbial growth processes (see Text S3). Using the power-time curve, a variety of

183 thermodynamic parameters can be obtained, including peak time (*T*, expressed as h), total

heat (Q, J/g), growth rate  $(k, h^{-1})$ , and peak power  $(P, \mu W/g)$  (Zhu et al., 2018). The research

185 data calculated using microcalorimetry are similar to conventional microbiological methods

186 and can provide more detailed information on complex biological processes.

#### 187 2.3.2. Soil enzyme activity measurements

188 Fluorescent diacetate hydrolase (FDA, expressed as mg fluorescein/g) was measured as a

189 reflection of the overall microbial activity. The following soil enzyme activities involved in

190 the metabolic cycling of nutrient elements (C, N, and P) were measured, as described by

191 others (Chae et al., 2017; Li et al., 2022a): invertase (INV; hydrolyzes sucrose to fructose and

192 glucose, expressed as mg glucose/g), urease (UA; hydrolyzes urea to carbon dioxide and

ammonia, mg NH<sub>4</sub>/g), and acid phosphatase (APA; catalyzes the release of phosphate by

hydrolysis, mg  $\rho$ -nitrophenyl phosphate/g). Methodological details of the enzyme assays are

195 described in Text S4.

## 196 2.4. DNA extraction, 16S rRNA gene sequencing

- 197 Genomic DNA was extracted from the selected samples by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis,
- and the V3-V4 hypervariable region fragment of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified by the
- 199 polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The primer sequence was 338F (5'-ACT CCT ACG GGA
- 200 GGC AGC AG-3') and 806R (5'-GGA CTA CHV GGG TWT CTA AT-3'). The 2% agarose
- 201 gel electrophoresis was used to verify the qualified PCR amplification. The PCR product was
- 202 further purified with E.Z.N.A.<sup>TM</sup> Gel Extraction Kit (OMEGA Bio-Tek Inc., USA). Bacterial
- sequencing was carried out on the Illumina MiSeq platform of Majorbio Bio-Pharm
- 204 Technology Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China).
- 205 *2.5. Data processing and statistical analyses*
- 206 The raw sequencing data were optimized using Fastp software (v0.19.6,
- 207 <u>https://github.com/OpenGene/fastp; accessed 22-March-2023</u>) to filter raw reads. The raw
- 208 pair-end reads were processed with Flash software (v1.2.11)
- 209 (https://ccb.jhu.edu/software/FLASH/index.shtml; accessed 22-March-2023). During the
- 210 merging process, the allowable error rate for the pairing of overlapping regions was  $\leq 0.2$  and
- 211 resulted in high-quality sequences. Bacterial community diversity indexes, including alpha
- 212 (α) richness and diversity indices (Ace, Chao, Coverage, Shannon, Sobs, and Simpson) were
- 213 calculated using the "vegan" package. The calculation of the beta ( $\beta$ ) diversity of the
- 214 microbial community was based on Bray Curtis distance similarity. The Analysis of
- 215 Similarity (ANOSIM) was used to analyze the availability of sample groupings. Hierarchical

216 clustering and principal coordinates analysis (PcoA) was used to analyze the differences in bacterial communities among samples. Spearman's correlation and distance-based 217 redundancy (db-RDA) analyses were processed using the vegan package in R version 3.4.2 to 218 identify important environmental variables affecting bacterial community structure. 219 220 Differences between groups were considered significant at p < 0.05. Data were expressed as 221 the average  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise stated. BugBase is a microbiome 222 analysis tool to identify high-level phenotypes in microbiome samples and enable phenotype prediction. SPSS 22.0 software was used to calculate the statistical tests, as described in Text 223 224 S5.

#### 225 3. Results and discussion

## 226 3.1. Geochemical characterization of the studied soils

The geochemical properties of the soil from the different site soils are shown in Fig. S4 and 227 228 Tables S1-S4. The soil pH of sites GX, GZ, and YN was either weakly acidic or weakly 229 alkaline, whereas the SC soil was acidic (pH 4.84 – pH 5.89). These acidic and alkaline pH 230 signatures are typical of forest soils surrounding contaminated sites such as non-ferrous metal 231 smelting sites and tailing ponds (Zhao et al., 2020). The MC and EC values of sites GX, GZ, SC, and YN differed greatly because the soil structure around the polluted sites was 232 heterogenous and complex (Zhao et al., 2020). The TOC contents of all samples were lower 233 234 than the average generic local soil background level (CNEMC, 1990), which agrees with the fact that the surrounding soils of non-ferrous metal-contaminated sites are often nutrient-poor 235 (Batista et al., 2020). The large differences in soil properties are consistent with the high 236

237 degree of soil heterogeneity in the affected areas surrounding the studied mining and smelting238 activities.

#### 239 3.2. Heavy metal(loid) contents

The total heavy metal contents of soils sampled from the four study sites are summarized in
Fig. 2A and Tables S5-S9. The average total contents of As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and
Zn in the soil exceeded the local soil background value (CNEMC, 1990), especially the total
As, Cd, and Pb content that exceeded the standard values of Grade II for agricultural land.
This observation is not surprising given that nonferrous metal smelter sites are enriched with

245 nonferrous metal ores.

In soils from the inactive sites (respectively YN and GX), the average total contents (mg/kg)

of Cd  $(17.61 \pm 19.72 \text{ and } 18.14 \pm 35.52)$ , Cu  $(19913.52 \pm 11650.05 \text{ and } 756.99 \pm 647.79)$ ,

and Ni (94.14  $\pm$  13.61 and 782.63  $\pm$  997.05) were higher than those from the active areas (SC

and GZ) (Fig. 2A). The average contents (mg/kg) of Cu (19913.52  $\pm$  11650.05), Fe (91468.16

 $\pm$  30496.68), Pb (1234.48  $\pm$  1053.83), and Sb (27.46  $\pm$  8.14) in the YN site were higher than

in the other sites, whereas As  $(2985.16 \pm 1214.52 \text{ mg/kg})$  in SC site was higher than that in

the other sites. Such results are consistent with earlier reports that As, Cd, Cu, Pb, Sb, and Zn

- 253 (especially As, Cu, and Cd) are the major heavy metal pollutants in nonferrous metal mining
- and smelting areas (Liu et al., 2022a; Yin et al., 2023).
- 255 In the inactive site soils (respectively YN and GX), the average bioavailable metal contents
- 256 (mg/kg) of As  $(3.51 \pm 3.29 \text{ and } 3.70 \pm 6.47)$ , Cd  $(5.37 \pm 8.54 \text{ and } 9.25 \pm 20.53)$ , Cu  $(88.66 \pm 1.54)$
- 257 50.34 and 51.03  $\pm$  111.35), Fe (56.01  $\pm$  81.58 and 264.10  $\pm$  574.69), Sb (0.22  $\pm$  0.12 and 0.16

258  $\pm 0.23$ ), and Zn (135.78  $\pm 176.17$  and 136.39  $\pm 301.36$ ) were significantly higher (Fig. 2B, 259 Table S10) than the active sites (respectively SC and GZ) as evidenced by As (0.44  $\pm 0.16$ 260 and 0.55  $\pm 0.03$ ), Cd (0.89  $\pm 0.51$  and 0.06  $\pm 0.05$ ), Cu (0.19  $\pm 0.16$  and 1.50  $\pm 0.37$ ), Fe 261 (1.66  $\pm 1.21$  and 3.26  $\pm 1.13$ ), Sb (0.14  $\pm 0.06$  and 0.09  $\pm 0.05$ ), and Zn (115.08  $\pm 125.53$  and 262 1.80  $\pm 0.36$ ). In addition, the average bioavailable contents (mg/kg) of Cr (6.37  $\pm 1.43$ ), Ni 263 (2.67  $\pm 2.61$ ), Pb (54.32  $\pm 97.46$ ), and V (0.08  $\pm 0.08$ ) were highest in the soils from the YN 264 area.

265 The correlation analyses (Tables S11-S14) show that the total contents of Cd, Cu, Mn, and Ni

were significantly and positively correlated (p < 0.05) with their bioavailable metal contents.

267 The TOC had a significant positive correlation (p < 0.05) with the bioavailable contents of

268 Cd, Mn, and Sb (Table S13). A rich organic C in soil could lead to the release of heavy metal

ions from the mineral matrix, and then be re-adsorbed to organic C (as well as the surface ofother minerals) functional groups (Yin et al., 2023).

271 The bioavailability of heavy metals in soil can be increased in the presence of plant root

exudates (such as organic acids) and therefore could be affected by the diversity and

composition of indigenous plant species (Yin et al., 2023). The percentages of bioavailable

274 content (EXC fraction expressed as %) of As, Cd, Fe, Pb, and V in the inactive sites (YN and

GX) were higher than those in the active site (Table S11), whereas those of Cd were SC

276 (0.63), YN (30.50), GX (51.02) and GZ (17.44) sites, and of Mn were SC (7.69), YN (7.31),

277 GX (7.40), and GZ (4.41) sites. Compared to the other heavy metal(loid)s, Cd had the highest

278 bioavailability in the YN, GX, and GZ sites, probably because Cd can be mobilized in soil

following competition and/or ligand-induced desorption (Kubier et al., 2019). Overall, the

280	bioavailability of heavy metal(loid)s in soils collected close to the inactive sites (YN and GX)
281	was generally higher than that of soils collected close to the active sites (SC and GZ).
282	Fugitive dust particles carrying the measured heavy metals (including the total and
283	bioavailable fractions) were likely transferred off-site from the nearby smelter dump sites and
284	accumulated in the surrounding studied forest soils. By design, it is unlikely that the source of
285	the measured heavy metals from forest soil was from vehicular emissions or debris, but
286	dispersion from local agricultural sources should not be under-estimated.
287	The Contamination factor (CF) was calculated as the ratio of the measured total heavy
288	metal(loid)s contents with the corresponding local geochemical background values (CNEMC,
289	1990) and was used to assess the pollution level (Fig. 2C, Table S12). The CF index for As,
290	Cd, Pb, and Sb reached a "high pollution level" in soils proximal to the active (GZ and SC)
291	and inactive (GX and YN) sites. In addition, the Cr (10.12), Cu (27.23), Mn (3.57), Ni
292	(29.24) and Zn (65.46) in the GX site, and Cu (430.10), and Zn (10.86) in YN, and Zn
293	(19.97) in GZ reached "high pollution levels."
294	The overall heavy metal pollution level of the surface soils was further assessed using the
295	pollution load index (PLI), which was calculated from the total contents of heavy metals and
296	local geochemical background values (CNEMC, 1990). The pollution index profile of the
297	four study sites was YN (1.81) > SC (1.74) > GX (1.68) > GZ (1.50). The PLI values were >
298	1 and indicated that all study sites were "heavily polluted" by heavy metal(loid)s, which may
299	be attributed to the weathering of metal minerals and the transport of flying dust that
300	contributes to the transfer of heavy metals from the smelter sites into the nearby collected soil
301	sites (Zhao et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2022b).

#### 302 3.3.1 Soil enzyme activities

The microbial enzyme activities of microorganisms among the four research sites were 303 304 different (Fig. 3, Tables S1-S4). A previous study reported that soil geochemical properties, 305 geographical spatial distance, and metal(loid) concentrations are the main factors affecting microbial differences among three non-ferrous metal-contaminated areas (Liu et al., 2022a). 306 The Spearman correlation analysis showed that the urease activity (UA) was negatively 307 related to MC and pH (p < 0.01) (Tables S13-S18), indicating that low MC or pH inhibited 308 309 UA. The TOC was positively related to FDA, APA, and INV activities (p < 0.05). It has been reported that pH and TOC are important factors affecting soil enzyme activity and that TOC 310 could stimulate enzyme activity (Batista et al., 2020; Aponte et al., 2021). The FDA activity 311 was negatively correlated with Ni (p < 0.05), and UA activity was negatively related to the 312 bioavailable Mn, as well as total Mn, Pb, Sb, and Zn contents (p < 0.05). Enzymes related to 313 soil C-, N-, and P- cycling can be inhibited by heavy metal(loid)s, resulting in differences in 314 315 enzyme activities in the sampled soils (Aponte et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022b). The observed enzymic inhibition likely involves the binding of metal(loid)s to the active site in the enzyme 316 317 leading to a more stable complex. Alternatively, the metal(loid)s could also decrease enzyme synthesis and secretion leading to an inhibition of the soil microbial growth and reproduction 318 (Zhao et al., 2015). The enzyme activities (FDA, INV, APA, and UA) were correlated with 319 the total heavy metal(loid) concentrations (As, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, and Zn) as well as with the 320 321 bioavailable Mn and Cd (Tables S13-S18), confirming that forest soil enzyme activities can be used as sensitive biological indicators of aerial heavy metal transfer (by fugitive dust 322 particles) from the neighboring active and inactive smelter facilities, similar to other reports 323

324 (Wahsha et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020).

## 325 3.3.2 Total microbial activity using isothermal microcalorimetry

326 The heat production curves reflecting the metabolic growth of the soil microbial community among different research sites were different (Fig. 3E, Tables S1-S4). On the other hand, the 327 k and P were higher in the inactive sites (Fig. S5, Tables S1-S4). Other researchers noted that 328 the microbial characteristics of non-ferrous metal-contaminated areas in different regions are 329 330 affected by spatial geography, heavy metal(loid) contents, and edaphic factors (Liu et al., 2022a). Spearman correlation showed that the *P* and *k* were significantly and negatively 331 related to the MC and pH (p < 0.01), whereas they were positively related to the UA activity 332 (p < 0.05) (Tables S13-S18). The bioavailable contents (EXC fractions) of Cr, Cu, and Fe 333 334 were negatively related to Q and T values (p < 0.05), which agreed with the fact that the high 335 concentrations of heavy metal(loid)s decreased the total activity of soil microbial communities (Harris et al., 2012). Also, Q values were negatively related to the total contents 336 of As and Cu (p < 0.05), while T values were negatively related to total As contents (p < 0.05) 337 338 0.05). Such observations suggest that the total content of As and Cu are likely the main 339 factors affecting the microbial activity in the soils proximal to the active and inactive smelting facilities. High concentrations of metal(loid)s can damage and/or inhibit critical 340 341 microbial cell functions (Harris et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2020). In addition, Q is significantly 342 (p < 0.05) and negatively correlated with the total content of metal(loid)s (Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, 343 Mn, Pb, and Zn) in a non-ferrous metal smelting contaminated site (Li et al., 2022a). Thus, the thermodynamic parameters correlated with the total As and Cu concentrations and the 344 bioavailable Cr, Cu, and Fe contents may be sensitive indicators of microbial metabolic 345

activity in some but not all heavy metal(loid) polluted soils.

## 347 3.4. Microbial community alpha and beta diversities

348 A dataset of 997,251 high-quality 16S rRNA gene sequences was generated. The average sequence number per sample was 415 bp. The 8,206 OTUs were obtained from high-quality 349 sequences. Compared to a previous study (Liu et al., 2022a), the number of OTUs was low 350 probably because the high concentration of metal(loid)s can reduce microbial richness. The 351 352 platform sparse curve shown in the Pan/Core species curve (Fig. S6) indicated that the sequencing depth collected most of the microbial community diversity and that the sample 353 size was sufficient. The  $\alpha$ -diversity parameters significantly differed according to the site 354 (Fig. 4; Tables S14 and S15), suggesting that the toxic metal(loid)s concentration can shape 355 356 the microbial community as observed in a dynamic study (Xu et al., 2019). The microbial  $\alpha$ -357 diversity Simpson index (Table S15) was negatively correlated with bioavailable Cd and Mn concentrations (p < 0.05). This is consistent with a previous report that toxic metal(loid)s 358 pollution harmed the microbial community (Li et al., 2020). The  $\alpha$ -diversity indices were 359 360 significantly and positively related to the FDA, INV, and APA activities (p < 0.05) (Table S14) in the active and inactive smelter sites, suggesting that differences in microbial enzyme 361 activity could reflect microbial diversity, as reported previously (Xiao et al., 2020). Venn 362 363 diagrams show that there are 1111 shared core OTUs between the four sites (Fig. 5A). Principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA), based on OTU distances, showed a separation 364 according to sites (Figs. 5B and 8; ANOSIM with 999 iterations, R = 0.2343, p = 0.001), 365 indicating that the microbial communities of the sites were distinct. Such observations 366 confirmed the possibility that the composition of bacterial communities was affected by the 367

368 land use, soil geochemical properties, and metal(loid)s content (Zhao et al., 2019). Off-site transfer of heavy metals to the collected forest soil samples probably led to direct (e.g., 369 decreased host site indigenous microbial metabolic activity and community abundance) and 370 indirect (e.g., stimulation of metal resistance traits and adapted abundance) effects on the new 371 372 host soil microbial community. This possibility is supported by the observed effects on soil 373 enzyme activities and microbial abundance. Data suggests that the microorganisms sensitive 374 to metal(loid) stress will decrease in abundance, whereas that of insensitive microorganisms will increase. The following studies were conducted to determine the effects of the off-site 375 376 transfer on the microbial community composition.

## 377 3.5. Microbial taxa distribution

We identified OTUs belonging to 48 phyla, 152 classes, 348 orders, 539 families, and 1082 378 379 genera in soil samples around the four (two active and two inactive) contaminated sites. It was challenging to identify or monitor control (reference) soils in this study. The microbial 380 community in typical healthy soils was considered as a reference for comparison with the 381 382 present results. The Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Chloroflexi were the most abundant bacterial phyla in healthy soil, with average relative abundances of 39%, 20%, 383 13%, and 3%, respectively (Janssen, 2006). Specifically, the average relative abundances (%) 384 385 of Proteobacteria in the contaminated forest soil around sites were SC (25.10), YN (15.01), 386 GX (21.84), and GZ (20.13), which is lower than that in healthy soil (39) (Fig. 5C). The average relative abundances (%) of Acidobacteria in the contaminated soil around the SC, 387 YN, GX, and GZ sites were 18.33, 14.13, 11.59, and 17.29, respectively, which are lower 388 than those of healthy soil. However, the average relative abundances (%) of Actinobacteria in 389

390	the contaminated soil around sites were SC (21.61) YN (35.07), GX (23.19), and GZ (30.42),
391	higher than those in healthy soil (Fig. 5C). Actinobacteria, the most dominant phyla in the
392	soil surrounding mining and smelting activities in the current study, showed remarkable
393	resilience in heavy metal(loid)s environments with low nutrient contents (Qiao et al., 2021),
394	consistent with other studies (Zhang et al., 2019a). The relative abundance of dominant phyla
395	among the active/inactive sites (Fig. 5) may be due to the different adaptabilities of
396	microorganisms to survive in environments having sub-optimal pH, low nutrient conditions,
397	and metal(loid)s stress. Actinobacteria was unusually abundant in neutral and slightly acidic
398	environments (Chen et al., 2013). The relative abundance of Actinobacteria was significantly
399	and negatively correlated with pH ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating that changes in soil pH might have
400	affected the Actinobacteria enrichment (Fig. 6). Our data indicate that members of the
401	Actinobacteria can adapt to or resist high levels of heavy metal(loid)s pollution as previously
402	shown in marine sediments (Duran et al., 2015). This is evidenced by the inhibition of growth
403	and development at high metal(loid)s concentrations that would decrease their proportion in
404	the bacterial community (Chen et al., 2018). Similar main microbial communities were found
405	in abandoned non-ferrous metal tailings, gold tailings environments, and V-Ti magnetite
406	tailings (Kang et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020). The ubiquity of Actinobacteria is mainly due to
407	the adsorption and complexation capacity of microorganisms, which aids in their adaptability
408	to harsh metal-rich environments (Wu et al., 2021).

409 Interestingly, the average relative abundances (%) of *Chloroflexi* in the contaminated soils

410 around the SC (24.10), YN (14.43), GX (24.79), and GZ (12.91) sites (Fig. 5C) were higher

411 than that in the healthy soil (3). Previous studies showed that *Chloroflexi* as well as a

412	Proteobacteria were enriched from sites disturbed by mining (Xiao et al., 2021). In heavy
413	metal-polluted soils, Chloroflexi was the main phylum with tolerance and resistance to heavy
414	metal stress (Yin et al., 2023). These studies pointed out that members of Chloroflexi are
415	poor-nutrition bacteria that prefer low-nourished soil habitats. The phyla Actinobacteria and
416	Chloroflexi could be involved in metal detoxification by decreasing the high toxicity found in
417	the present metal-rich environment (Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021), which could explain
418	why their relative abundance was higher than in the healthy soils. In heavily polluted soil, the
419	number of bacteria susceptible to heavy metal stress will decrease, so that the tolerant or
420	resistant bacteria can become the dominant species (Zhao et al., 2019).
421	At the genus level, the most dominant genera in the soil (%) around the SC site were
422	norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (8.47), norank_o_subgroup_2 (6.11), Xanthobacteraceae (4.72),
423	norank_o_Elsterales (4.43), Acidothermus (4.03), norank_o_Acidobacteriales (3.99),
424	HSB_OF53-F07 (3.44), Bradyrhizobium (3.21), FCPS473 (2.63), and norank_o_Gaiellales
425	(1.96) (Fig. 5D and S8). The most dominant genera in the soil around the YN site were
426	norank_o_Gaiellales (5.75), norank_o_Vicinamibacterales (4.86), Vicinamibacteraceae
427	(3.42), norank_o_Rokubacteriales (3.37), Gemmatimonadaceae (3.25), norank_f_67-14
428	(3.23), Gaiella (2.93), unclassified_f_Micromonosporaceae (2.6), Xanthobacteraceae (2.25),
429	and <i>norank_o_norank_c_MB-A2-108</i> (2.05). The most dominant genera of soil around the
430	GX site were JG30-KF-AS9 (5.88), norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (4.06), JG30-KF-CM45 (3.74),
431	Sinomonas (3.33), Ktedonobacteraceae (2.25), norank_o_Acidobacteriales (2.16), Delftia
432	(2.1), <i>Bradyrhizobium</i> (1.99), <i>Acidothermus</i> (1.88), and <i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> (1.71).

433 The most dominant genera in the soil around the GZ site were *Arthrobacter* (6.68),

434	Vicinamibacteraceae (5.28), norank_o_Vicinamibacterales (5.27), norank_o_Chloroplast
435	(2.53), Nocardioides (2.46), Gaiella (2.42), norank_o_Rokubacteriales (2.25),
436	norank_o_Gaiellales (2.17), norank_o_norank_c_KD4-96 (2.11), and Roseiflexaceae (1.88).
437	Micromonospora belonging to Actinobacteria showed strong resistance to abiotic stress
438	(Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014). Arthrobacter can thrive in environments with high metal
439	pollution through physiological and genetic modifications (Zhang et al., 2004).
440	The <i>norank_c_Acidobacteria</i> is one of the top five genera found in gold mining areas (Yan et
441	al., 2020). In the typical antimony ore smelting area in the south of China, at the genus level,
442	the bioindicators were Ktedonobacteraceae and Xanthomonadaceae_unclassifed in the
443	topsoil, and <i>Gemmatimonadacea</i> and <i>norank_o_norank_c_KD4-96</i> were in the middle soil
444	depth, and JG30-KF-AS9 and norank_o_norank_c_AD3 were in deep soil (Wang et al.,
445	2022). In addition, <i>norank_o_Rokubacteriales, norank_o_subgroup_2</i> , and
446	norank_o_Acidobacteriales were the main genera in As/Sb contaminated sites (Kalam et al.,
447	2020; Wang et al., 2022).

- 448 In the contaminated soil around a vanadium smelter, the main genera in the topsoil included
- 449 *JG30-KF-CM45*, while the dominant genera in profile soils included *norank\_o\_Gaiellales*,
- 450 *Gaiella*, and *norank\_o\_norank\_c\_KD4-96* (Wang et al., 2020). In abandoned mine soils in
- 451 Korea, the main bacteria included *norank\_o\_Vicinamibacterales*, *norank\_o\_Gaiellales*,
- 452 *Micrococcales, Gemmatimonadales, norank\_o\_Acidobacteriales, Bryobacteriales,*
- 453 norank\_o\_subgroup\_2, Micropepsales, Ktedonobacterales, and Pseudonocardiales (Chun et
- al., 2021). This exemplifies the main groups of bacteria found in heavy metal-contaminated

455 soil.

Ktedonobacteria can utilize or degrade different carbohydrates (Wang et al., 2022), whereas 456 Bradyrhizobium can minimize oxidative stress and enhance N-fixation in particular plants 457 458 (Rodrigues et al., 2013). Arthrobacter can survive and develop for a long time in harsh ecological environments (Guo et al., 2021a). Nocardioides is also noted for its ability to 459 promote plant growth. The majority of these genera promote the C-cycle and fix N, which is 460 conducive to survival in a nutrient-poor environment (Sun et al., 2019). In summary, the 461 observed heterogeneous bacterial community involved in nutrient cycling has probably 462 adapted to anthropogenic disturbances. These major bacterial genera are bioindicators for 463 metal(loid)s-contaminated soil. Thus, the advantages of these core groups may reflect the 464 harsh soil ecological environment, representing the general adaptive groups around the non-465 ferrous metal mining and smelting facilities in Southwest China. 466

# 467 3.6. Soil properties, heavy metal(loid)s, microbial metabolic activity, and microbial

## 468 *community relationships*

The Spearman correlation heatmap (Fig. 6) and distance-based redundancy (db-RDA) (Fig. 7) analyses were performed based on the sequence abundance of OTUs to identify potential relationships between microbial communities and environmental factors in the four studied areas. Based on correlation analysis (Table S13-S18), microbial community  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (Sobs, Shannon, Ace, and Chao) were positively correlated with TOC, FDA, APA, and INV (*p* < 0.05), indicating that the enzyme activities were closely related to bacterial community diversity.

476	In soils proximal to the active sites (SC and GZ), the following observations were made. At
477	the phylum level (Fig. 6A), <i>Proteobacteria</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with As but
478	negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with MC, EC, $Q$ , APA, bioavailable Sb, and total Sb.
479	<i>Chloroflexi</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with UA, bioavailable Cr and Cu, and total
480	As and Cd, but negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with EC, pH, APA, $Q$ , bioavailable Cd, Mn,
481	and V, and total Mn. At the genus level (Fig. 6D), Xanthobacteraceae, norank_o_EIsterales,
482	Acidothermus, norank_o_norank_c_AD3, norank_o_Subgroup_2, Acidobacteria and
483	<i>Bradyrhizobium</i> were negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with EC, pH, MC, Q, APA,
484	bioavailable Cd and Mn, and total Mn, but positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with UA,
485	bioavailable Cr and Cu, and total As and Cd. Arthroactor, Vicinamibacteraceae, and
486	<i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> were positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with pH, EC, APA, $Q$ ,
487	bioavailable Cd and Mn, and total Mn, but negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with bioavailable
488	Cr and Cu, and with total As.
489	The above results were in contrast to soils close to the inactive sites (YN and GX). At the
490	phylum level (Fig. 6B), <i>Chloroflexi</i> was positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with T, but
491	negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with TOC, UA, and FDA. Actinobacteriota was significantly
492	and positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with Cu, while negatively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with pH,
493	At the genus level (Fig. 6E), JG30-KF-AS9 and norank_o_norank_c_AD3, were negatively
494	correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with TOC, Cu, bioavailable As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Sb, and Zn, and
495	total Cr and Pb, while positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) with MC and total Cr. The
496	<i>Vicinamibacteraceae</i> and <i>norank_o_Vicinamibacterales</i> were positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ )
497	with bioavailable Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, and Zn, and total Cd, Pb, and Sb, but negatively correlated

with MC (p < 0.05). *JG30-KF-CM45* and *Gemmatimonadaceae* were positively correlated (p < 0.05) with bioavailable As, Cu, Mn, and Sb. In addition, the APA and *Q* showed negative correlations (p < 0.05) with the bacterial community composition in the active and inactive sites (Figs. 6 and 7).

Soil heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Pb, Ni, Sb, and Zn), EC, and pH are the most 502 important factors affecting bacterial communities in the mining area, as reported in previous 503 studies (Zhao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Zeng et al., 2020). High concentrations of Cd, Cu, 504 505 and Zn can disturb the cell membrane integrity and inhibit the enzyme activity of soil bacteria (Renella et al., 2003; Jose et al., 2011). A previous study noted that the high content of Cd, 506 Cr, Cu, Pb, and Zn increased the abundance of Chloroflexi (Zeng et al., 2020). Chloroflexi has 507 strong resistance to heavy metals (Yin et al., 2023), which explains the significant positive 508 correlation between Chloroflexi and copper. Recent studies found that Cu and Zn have 509 important effects on metal resistance genes (MRGs) in soil bacteria (Li et al., 2022c). For the 510 511 heavy metal(loid)s in soils, the bioavailable fractions are absorbed by the microorganisms, thus affecting microbial communities (Zhen et al., 2019). Depending on the concentration, 512 513 heavy metal ions can have beneficial as well as harmful effects on complex microbial biochemistry and metabolism. It was found that Cd and Pb ions can bind to sulfhydryl (-SH) 514 groups and inhibit cell enzyme activity (Pan et al., 2020). This can also explain the significant 515 516 negative correlation between bioavailable Cd and Mn and Chloroflexi. On the other hand, 517 bioavailable Cr and Cu have significant positive correlations with Chloroflexi. In addition, some heavy metal(loid)s ions ( $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $Mn^{2+}$ ,  $Ni^{2+}$ , and  $Zn^{2+}$ ) are essential trace elements for 518 microorganisms and play an important role in bacterial protein composition, electrostatic 519

520 interaction, osmoregulation, and redox processes (Bruins et al., 2000).

521	At the genus level, <i>Bradyrhizobium</i> can minimize oxidative stress (Rodrigues et al., 2013).
522	Arthrobacter can thrive in barren and harsh environments and has a strong tolerance to
523	multiple metals (Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn) through physiological and genetic modification (Zhang
524	et al., 2004). In the typical antimony ore smelting area in the south of China, most of the
525	bioindicators of soil contaminated with heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Sb)
526	include Gemmatimonadacea, norank_o_subgroup_2, JG30_KF_AS9, and
527	norank_o_norank_c_AD3 (Wang et al., 2022). These studies reported that
528	norank_o_Rokubacteriales and norank_o_Acidobacteriales showed a positive relationship
529	with the total As and Sb contents (Kalam et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). At the abandoned
530	heavy metal(loid)s (As, Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn) contaminated sites in Korea,
531	norank_o_Vicinamibacterales and Gemmatimonadales were identified as the main bacterial
532	genera in the heavy metal-tolerant modules, compared to <i>norank_o_Acidobacteriales</i> and
533	<i>norank_o_subgroup_2</i> in the heavy metal-sensitive modules (Chun et al., 2021). In particular,
534	norank_o_Vicinamibacterales and Gemmatimonadales could work together to resist As, Cd,
535	Cu, Pb, and Zn. In the contaminated soil around the smelter, the main genera in the topsoil
536	included JG30-KF-CM45, these bacteria have a strong tolerance to soil heavy metals (Cr, Cu,
537	V, and Zn) (Wang et al., 2020).
538	In summary, total and bioavailability contents of heavy metal(loid)s strongly altered the
539	abundances of soil microbial taxa. Additionally, many bacterial communities can have
540	different reaction modes to heavy metal(loid)s, implying that soils contaminated with

541 multiple metal(loid)s can shape the microbial communities. Based on the information on the

542 assembly process of soil microbial community, a previous study found that the differences in microbial communities in three mining and smelting sites were driven by the joint influence 543 544 of soil factors, spatial heterogeneity, and metal(loid) levels, among which pH and Sb content were the main parameters affecting the microbial assembly processes (Liu et al., 2022a; Li et 545 al., 2023). These results (Figs. 6 and 7) indicate that TOC, MC, total Cd and Cu contents, and 546 547 bioavailable As, Cd, Cu, Sb, Mn, and Zn were the main environmental factors affecting the bacterial community in the inactive sites (YN and GX), whereas EC, pH, total contents of As, 548 Cd, Mn, and Zn, and bioavailable Cd, Cu, Cr, and Mn contents were the main environmental 549 550 factors affecting the bacterial community in the active sites (SC and GZ). In the present study, EC, total As, Cu, and Mn contents, and bioavailable As, Cu, Cd, and Mn contents were 551 the main important environmental factors affecting the bacterial community in the inactive 552 553 sites (YN and GX) and active sites (SC and GZ).

## 554 3.7. Phenotypic-functional prediction of bacterial communities

There were seven major phenotypes, including Potentially Pathogenic, Gram Positive, 555 556 Contains Mobile Elements, Forms Biofilms, Gram Negative, Stress Tolerant, and Oxygen Utilizing (Aerobic, Anaerobic, and Facultatively anaerobic) communities (Fig. 8). The 557 relative abundance contribution of species to phenotypic function showed that the highest 558 559 contribution of phenotypic function included Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteriota. The Aerobic and Forms Biofilms phenotypes were significantly and 560 negatively correlated with the  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (Tables S13-S18) but were positively 561 correlated with the Simpson index (p < 0.05). The Anaerobic phenotype was negatively 562 related to the  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (p < 0.05) and was positively related to the Simpson index (p563

564 < 0.05). Furthermore, microbial community characteristics and phenotypes were closely</li>
565 related in all sites as determined by correlation analyses.

The TOC was negatively correlated with Aerobic and Stress Tolerant phenotypes (p < 0.05) 566 567 (Fig. 8, Tables S13-S18), but it also was positively correlated with the Anaerobic and Contains Mobile Elements phenotypes (p < 0.05). The EC was positively related to 568 phenotypes (Contains Mobile Elements and Gram Positive) (p < 0.05), while it was 569 negatively related to the Facultatively Anaerobic, Forms Biofilms, and Gram Negative 570 571 phenotypes (p < 0.05). Phenotypic changes related to oxygen demand (e.g., Aerobic, Anaerobic, and Facultative Anaerobic) may be related to soil salinity (Bronick and Lal, 572 2005). Soil salinity is closely related to EC. Earlier studies have shown that the relative 573 abundance of anaerobic phenotypes is positively related to salinity, compared to facultative 574 anaerobic and biofilm-forming phenotypes that are negatively correlated with salinity (Zhang 575 et al., 2019b). Although the TOC is closely related to the soil microbial community (Li et al., 576 577 2020), further study is needed to investigate the possibility that the soil microbial community phenotype has affected the soil TOC and EC or that changes in soil TOC and EC have shaped 578 the microbial community. An earlier study confirmed that geographical distance and 579 environmental factors can drive microbial structure differences in the three nonferrous metal 580 pollution sites (Liu et al., 2022a). 581

582 The different phenotypes of soil microbes are closely related to the total and bioavailable

583 contents of heavy metals(loid)s (Tables S13-S18). Soil microbial communities may develop

584 unique survival and community composition strategies during their adaptation to extreme

585 environments. The present study assumes that the changes in soil properties and function

586 (e.g., microbial enzyme activities and bacterial/fungal communities) are related to (or caused by) exposure to toxic heavy metals on fugitive dust particles that were transferred from the 587 active and inactive smelter sites to the surrounding forest soil and elsewhere (Csavina et al., 588 2012; Lenart-Boroń and Boroń, 2014; Ettler 2016). Based on the genetic acquisition of MRG 589 590 in down-wind soils studied here, it is interesting to consider the possibility that the fugitive 591 emissions also carry heavy metal-resistant microbes (Hu et al., 2020), like the aerial transfer 592 of microbes from manure feed farms to urban settings (McEachran et al., 2015; Fry et al., 2020). This process could have hazardous effects on human health (Hu et al., 2020) or 593 594 negatively impact neighboring ecosystems (Behzad et al., 2022). Whether the fugitive MRGcontaining microbes propagate within a new host-microbiome of the surrounding forest soils 595 explains the biogeochemical effects observed in the present study requires future 596 597 confirmation. Another consideration is that toxic heavy metal(loid)s in soil may force microbial 598 599 communities into competition to cause a trade-off of resource allocation for the growth, survival, and reproduction of the successful community. The species abundance composition 600 601 of bacterial communities and antibiotic-resistance genes in activated sludge are consistent

602 with environmental adaptation (Zhao et al., 2019). The correlation between the dominant

flora and the bacterial community phenotype may be the main reason for their similar spatial

604 distribution pattern. Here it is inferred that adaptive changes in the structure and phenotype of

605 the diverse microbial flora represent a synergistic or symbiotic strategy to support continual

adaptation to temporal changes in environmental stressors.

607 Although many studies on the microbial diversity and structure of mining and smelting sites

have been investigated, the ecological processes and symbiotic patterns affecting the
biogeographic distribution of microbial communities are still unclear. Therefore, in a followup study, we plan to increase the number of study sites and soil samples to further explore the

611 ecological characteristics of soil bacterial and fungal communities.

## 612 4. Conclusions

613 In this study, the soil environment surrounding non-ferrous metal mining and smelting

614 activities in Southwest China was barren and heavily polluted by various heavy metals, with

615 different microbial metabolic activities, and soil bacterial community structure and

616 phenotypic characteristics. Selected microbial metabolic activities (enzyme APA and

617 microcalorimetric parameter Q), bacterial community structure, and phenotype varied across

618 all sites. Furthermore, the main bacterial phyla were Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria,

619 *Chloroflexi*, and *Acidobacteriota*. The TOC, MC, total Cd and Cu contents, and bioavailable

As, Cd, Cu, Mn, Sb, and Zn contents were the main environmental factors affecting the

bacterial community in the inactive sites, whereas the EC, pH, total As, Cd, Mn, and Zn

622 contents, and bioavailable Cd, Cr, Cu, and Mn contents were the main environmental factors

623 affecting that in the active sites. Many bacterial groups exhibited different response patterns

624 to each heavy metal(loid), implying that the soil microbial communities were shaped jointly

by fugitive multiple heavy metal(loid)s and possibly microbes. Species abundances and

626 phenotypes of dominant taxa in soil bacterial communities are involved in potential

627 environmental adaptation consistency. Different advanced gene sequencing techniques will

- 628 be used in future studies to systematically reveal the microbial biogeography, assembly
- 629 mechanism, and symbiotic modes of bacterial and fungal communities around mining and

630	smelting areas. This series of studies can provide a more comprehensive and theoretical basis
631	for the microbial treatment of non-ferrous metal-contaminated sites.
632	
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640 641 642 643 644	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing – review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.</li> </ul>
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640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing - review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.</li> <li>Ning Min: Formal analysis, Review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Geoffrey Sunahara: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Robert Duran: Formal analysis, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>640</li> <li>641</li> <li>642</li> <li>643</li> <li>644</li> <li>645</li> <li>646</li> <li>647</li> <li>648</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>CRediT authorship contribution statement</li> <li>Hao Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review &amp; editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft.</li> <li>Jun Yao: Conceptualization, Writing – review &amp; editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.</li> <li>Ning Min: Formal analysis, Review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Geoffrey Sunahara: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> <li>Robert Duran: Formal analysis, Writing - review &amp; editing.</li> </ul>

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#### 898 List of Figures

899 Fig. 1. Locations and photos of four non-ferrous metal mining and smelting activities

900 affected areas in Southwest China. The distributions of sampling points of active sites

901 (SC and GZ) and inactive sites (YN and GX) are shown in the top and bottom panels,

902 respectively (also see Supplementary Information, Figs. S1 and S2).

Fig. 2. Total (A) and bioavailable (Exchangeable fraction) (B) contents of metal(loid)s in the
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906 (SC and GZ) and inactive (YN and GX) sites. CF < 1, low pollution;  $1 \le CF < 3$ ,

907moderate pollution;  $3 \le CF < 6$ , serious pollution, and  $CF \ge 6$ , extreme pollution. PLI >1908indicates significant pollution.

909 Fig. 3. Microbial activities in the SC, YN, GX, and GZ sites. FDA (A), UA (B), APA (C), and

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913 thermodynamic parameter values for different samples are detailed in Supplementary

914 Information Fig. S5 and Tables S1-S4.

915 Fig. 4. Microbial community α-diversity in different soil samples from SC, YN, GX, and GZ

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924 top 20 most abundant phyla (C) and genera (D).

926Fig. 6. Spearman correlation heatmap of the top five most abundant phyla (A: active sites; B:927inactive sites; C: active and inactive sites) and the top ten most abundant genera (D:928active sites; E: inactive sites; F: active and inactive sites) of the microbial communities,929the environmental factors, microbial activity characteristics, and total and bioavailable930metal(loid)s contents (E). *r*-values are plotted in different colors; the right side of the931legend shows the color range and the corresponding *r*-values. Significant values are932shown as \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001.

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- **Fig. 8.** The corresponding OTU contribution plots of the relative abundance of phyla
- 940 possessing each phenotype (A: Aerobic; B: Potentially Pathogenic; C: Gram Positive; D:
- 941 Anaerobic; E: Facultatively Anaerobic; F: Contains Mobile Elements; G: Forms
- 942 Biofilms; and H: Gram Negative; I: Stress Tolerant) in the YN, SC, GZ, and GX sites
- are also shown. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences between

944 groups (p < 0.05).



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Supplementary Material

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## **CRediT** authorship contribution statement

- **Hao Li:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing review & editing, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing original draft.
- **Jun Yao:** Conceptualization, Writing review & editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.
- **Ning Min:** Formal analysis, Review & editing.
- **Geoffrey Sunahara:** Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing review & editing.
- **Robert Duran:** Formal analysis, Writing review & editing.

## **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  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: