

# Role of soil texture and earthworm casts on the restoration of soil enzyme activities after exposure to an organophosphorus insecticide

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#### 17 Abstract

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Pesticides exert important effects on the soil fauna and health. However, little is known about the interactions of soil, microorganisms and earthworms in the presence of pesticides and about their respective roles in the soil biological activity. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of the soil type on enzyme activities, measured in bulk soil and in casts of two earthworm species, after exposure to the organophosphorus pesticide parathion. To this aim, two endogeic earthworm species (Apporectodea caliginosa and Allolobophora chlorotica) were cross-acclimated in two different soil textures (each representing the most favorable soil environment for that species). Enzyme activities were measured as a soil quality indicator in samples of bulk soil (collected at day 4 and day 7 of exposure to parathion) and in earthworm casts (collected at day 7). A short exposure (4 days) to parathion significantly (ANOVA, p<0.001) inhibited carboxylesterases (25-43% of inhibition) and alkaline phosphatase (~23% of inhibition). At day 7 of exposure, parathion impact on the overall soil enzyme activities mainly depended on the soil texture. Indeed, activity inhibition was higher (ANOVA, p<0.001) in silt-clay soil (decrease by 37%) than in silt-loamy soil (decrease by ~18%). Conversely, parathion effect was not influenced by earthworm presence/absence and earthworm species. However, after soil exposure to parathion, earthworms (both species) improved enzyme activity restoration in their casts.

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- **Keywords**: Soil extracellular enzymes; parathion; enzyme-based indexes; integrated
- 38 biomarker index; *Apporectodea caliginosa*; *Allolobophora chlorotica*.

#### 1. Introduction

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Pesticides are used in agriculture to control pests, weeds, and plant diseases. They include a large panel of active ingredients that belong to different classes (e.g. insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, nematicides), but that all raise environmental concerns (Köhler and Trieskborn, 2013). Pesticides are absorbed through surface runoff from the treated plants and accumulate in the soil. As a result, the soil organisms are directly exposed to such molecules. Moreover, pesticides affect soil health by modifying soil biota responsible for maintaining the soil functions, thus contributing to the degradation of soil quality and fertility (Silva et al., 2019). Soil biological functions require the activity of enzymes that contribute to soil health maintenance (Abbas et al., 2021). These enzymes are mainly of microbial origin and are implicated in many intracellular, cell-associated, and extracellular functions (Kiss et al., 1975; Nannipieri et al., 1990; Utobo and Tewari, 2015). They play a pivotal role in the ecosystem biogeochemical cycling (Luo et al., 2017) and in the soil biochemical functions. As microbial enzyme activities are easy to monitor and change rapidly in response to ecological disturbances, they are widely used as an early indicator of soil quality (Gil-Sotres et al., 2005; Panettieri et al., 2013) and also as biomarkers of soil contamination by pesticides (Rao et al., 2014; Baćmaga et al., 2015; Wolejko et al., 2020). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that soil enzyme activities are influenced by the soil characteristics (including pH (Dick et al., 2000)), agricultural activities, and land management (Medeiros et al., 2015), and that different enzymes display different responses upon exposure to pesticides (Riah et al., 2014). Besides the soil microflora, pesticides affect non-target soil invertebrates (Pelosi et al., 2015; Gunstone et al., 2021), such as earthworms (Pelosi et al., 2014), and their related ecological functions. Earthworms are commonly described as ecosystem engineers. They significantly modify the soil physical (aggregate structure, porosity), chemical (nutrient supply and cycling) and biological (soil fauna, microbial and enzyme activities) characteristics (Jones et al., 1994; Edwards, 2004; Aira and Piearce, 2009; Blouin et al., 2013). They interact with soil components and spread microorganisms in soil while creating their biogenic structures (burrows, casts, and middens) (Brown et al., 2004; Blouin et al., 2013; Lemtiri et al., 2014). Earthworms also influence the soil microbial composition by depositing casts that constitute a microbial hotspot, due to their high carbon (C) concentration, and that harbor higher enzymatic activities compared with the surrounding soil (Tao et al., 2009; Lipiec et al., 2016). Many studies suggest that enzyme activities in casts are influenced by the earthworm diet (Flegel and Schrader, 2000) and soil composition (Kizilkaya and Hepsen, 2004; Dempsey et al., 2013). Soil also plays a pivotal role by affecting earthworm abundance and diversity in cultivated and non-cultivated ecosystem (Singh et al., 2020). Clause et al. (2014) demonstrated that the soil type where earthworms live is the main explanatory factor for the modification of cast properties. Cast properties are also influenced by the earthworm species, and this species-specific effect varies in function of the soil type (Clause et al., 2014). Therefore, both soil texture and earthworm species are important factors that could mediate the pesticide effects on the soil enzyme activities. In addition, it is known that extracellular soil oxidase activities are important for the bioremediation of contaminated soils (Gianfreda and Rao, 2004, 2008; Burns et al., 2013). However, the role of other enzymes in the restoration of polluted soils has been scarcely investigated. Many laboratory studies found that microbial growth and enzymatic activities are decreased upon soil exposure to pesticides (Pal et al., 2006; Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2017), including organophosphorus insecticides (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2017; Jaiswal et al., 2021). As the biological interactions of earthworms, soil microorganisms, and contaminants are complex, it is difficult to link soil enzyme activity variations to pesticide exposure. Results could be influenced by the soil type and its characteristics (Wolejko et al., 2020), or earthworm presence (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2018). To our knowledge, little is known about the

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capacity of enzymes found in earthworm casts to restore polluted soils and about the soil type role in such biological interactions when assessing undesirable environmental effects.

The hypothesis of this study was that the presence of endogeic earthworms in parathion-contaminated soils reduces the impact of this organophosphorus pesticide on soil microbial activity and nutrient cycling, evaluated by measuring the activity of different enzyme involved in the C, nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) biogeochemical cycles, and microbial activity (dehydrogenase). Two endogeic earthworm species, (Aporrectodea caliginosa and Allolobophora chlorotica) and two soils with constrasting physicochemical properties were used to determine whether the ecological services of endogeic earthworms (i.e., pollution remediation) should be considered a generalized benefit. The agricultural soils corresponded to the field soil where each earthworm species was collected in its natural environment. Therefore, the study objective was to compare the impact of soil type and earthworm species

on soil enzyme activities measured in parathion-spiked soils and earthworm casts.

#### 2. Material and methods

104 2.1. Soils and earthworms

The two different experimental soils used were Luvisols (USDA). They were sampled in two different orchards, situated at 10 km distance, in Montfavet, near Avignon (southeastern France). Both orchards had not been treated with pesticides for the last 15 years. The first soil (Soil K, Fig.1A) was a silt loamy soil (23.4% clay, 57% silt, 19.6% sand, 28.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> organic matter, pH 8.3), dominated by *A. chlorotica*. The second soil (Soil G, Fig.1A) was a silt-clay soil (38.3 % clay, 42.2% fine silt, 19.5% sand, 34 g kg<sup>-1</sup> organic matter, pH 8.5), dominated by *A. caliginosa*. Healthy and adult *A. chlorotica* and *A. caliginosa* earthworms were collected manually in their original orchard, washed with tap water, and divided in two groups for cross-acclimation in a dark cold chamber (12 ± 1°C) for 5 days. These two endogeic

species are present worldwide, and exhibit different recovery capacities (Rault et al., 2008) and cast production reduction (Jouni et al., 2018) upon exposure to parathion. Jouni et al. (2018) suggested that A. caliginosa is the most sensitive between these species. Soil samples from the two orchards were sieved at <2 mm, and the water content was adjusted to 20-21% (approximately 81% of the maximum water holding capacity) with distilled water. Wet soil samples were spiked with ethyl-parathion solutions to obtain a final concentration of 1 mg active ingredient (a.i.) kg<sup>-1</sup> wet soil, which refers to the usual application rate and calculation of the predicted environmental concentration (Jouni et al., 2018). Ethyl-parathion (parathion hereafter), an organophosphorus pesticide, is now banned in most developed countries, but is still used in developing countries, and is a well-known pesticide model (Sabzevari and Hofman, 2022). Control soils were prepared in the same conditions but without pesticide. The wet polluted and unpolluted soils were then equally distributed in plastic pots (100 g of soil/each).

## 2.2. Experimental design

After the acclimation period, earthworms were washed in tap water, blotted dried on filter paper and weighed. For each experiment, two soils (G and K), two soil conditions (control and with parathion), three earthworm conditions (earthworm-free, *A. caliginosa*, *A. chlorotica*), and four replicates were used. Therefore, 48 pots were prepared (16 pots for each earthworm condition). For the pots with earthworms, two individuals were placed in each pot to obtain enough casts (total n=32 earthworms for each species). Pots were kept in a dark cold chamber (12±1°C) for the entire experiment duration. Soils without earthworms were used as controls. After 4 and 7 days, bulk soil samples were taken from each replicate and for each condition. Casts were removed after 7 days. Bulk soil and cast samples were stored in plastic

tubes at -80°C, until analysis. The results on parathion toxicity in *A. caliginosa* and *A. chlorotica* have been described in Jouni et al. (2018).

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2.3. Soil enzyme activities

Extracellular enzymes activities involved in the C (carboxylesterase and β-glucosidase), N (urease), and P (phosphatase) biogeochemical cycles (Balota and Chaves, 2010; Gougoulias et al., 2014; Lessard et al., 2014) were used as biological indicators of the soil quality. Dehydrogenase activity was used as a direct indicator of soil microbial activity because it reflects the living microorganism biomass (von Mersi and Schinner, 1991; Shaw and Burns, 2006). Soil and cast water suspensions (1:25 w/v) were prepared according to Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2018) and homogenized using an orbital shaker at room temperature for 30 min. All enzyme activities were measured as previously described in Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2017). Briefly, carboxylesterase (EC 3.1.1.1) activity was measured using two different substrates, 1-naphthyl butyrate and 4-nitrophenyl butyrate, because of the many enzyme isoforms. The reaction mixture consisted of 140 µl of 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH=6.5), 100 µl of soil-water suspension, and 10 µl of substrate (2.5 mM, final concentration). After incubation in a thermostatically controlled orbital shaker (Elmi® Skyline DTS-2, 800 rpm) at 20°C for 1 h, microplates were centrifuged (2,500 g, 10°C, 10 min), and 150 µl of each supernatant was transferred to a new microplate. The product of naphthyl ester hydrolysis (1-naphthol) was revealed by adding 75 µl of a solution containing 2.5% (w/v) SDS in 0.1% Fast Red ITR/2.5% Triton X-100, and incubating in the dark for 30 min until complete color development. The naphthol-Fast Red ITR complex absorbance was read at 530 nm. For 4nitrophenyl butyrate hydrolysis, 4-nitrophenol formation was determined after addition of 75 µl of a solution containing 2% (w/v) SDS and 2% (w/v) Tris-base to the microplate containing 150 µl of each supernatant, and absorbance was immediately read at 405 nm.

Enzyme activities were expressed as umol of product per hour and gram of dry soil. Calibration curves were made with 1-naphthol (1.5–100 nmol.ml<sup>-1</sup>) and 4-nitrophenol (5–100 nmol.ml<sup>-1</sup>) in the presence of soil-water suspensions to correct the adsorption of the chromogenic substances onto soil colloids. Controls (substrate-free) and blanks (soil-free) were used to correct the background absorbance and non-enzymatic hydrolysis of the substrates, respectively. Phosphatase (EC 3.1.3.2) and β-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) activities were measured according to Popova and Deng (2010) in a reaction medium that contained 100 µl of soil:water suspension, 100 µl of distilled water, and 50 µl of the respective substrate (4-nitrophenyl phosphate or 4-nitrophenyl-β-D-glucanopyranoside; 5 mM final concentration) dissolved in 20 mM modified universal buffer (pH=6.5). After 4 h incubation (continuous shaking at 20°C), microplates were centrifuged (2,500 g, 10°C, 10 min), and 150 µl of each supernatant was transferred to a new microplate. The formed 4-nitrophenol was immediately (<1 min) read at 405 nm after addition of 75 µl of 0.5 M NaOH to the wells. Standard calibration curves were made with 4-nitrophenol (5–100 nmol.ml<sup>-1</sup>). Urease (EC 3.5.1.5) activity was measured according to Schinner et al. (1996). The hydrolytic reactions were performed in 10 ml tubes by mixing 1 ml of 80 mM urea and 1 ml of soil: water suspension, and incubated (orbital shaking) at room temperature (~20 °C) for 4 h. Reactions were stopped by addition of 5 ml of cold 2 M KCl containing 10 mM HCl. Then, tubes were agitated for 30 min to extract ammonium, and centrifuged (4,500 × g, 10°C, 5 min). Supernatants (150 µl) were transferred to microplate wells, and ammonium was measured after addition of 75 µl of 1:1 (v:v) 0.3 M NaOH : 1.06 M sodium salicylate containing 4.6 mM sodium nitroprusside, followed by addition of 30 µl of 39.1 mM sodium dichloroisocyanurate. Microplates were left in the dark for 30 min for color development, and

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absorbance was read at 690 nm. Urease activity was expressed as µg NH4<sup>+</sup>-N h<sup>-1</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> dry soil using a calibration curve made with NH4Cl (3.0–50 µg NH4<sup>+</sup> ml<sup>-1</sup>).

Dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1) activity was measured according to von Mersi and Schinner (1991), using iodonitrotetrazolium chloride as the electron acceptor. The formation of reduced iodonitrotetrazolium formazan was determined spectrophotometrically after 60 min incubation at 40°C, and the results were expressed as  $\mu$ mol iodonitrotetrazolium formazan h<sup>-1</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> dry soil.

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#### 2.4. Data analysis

Data (enzyme activities) were first scaled and centered and then analyzed using principal component analysis (PCA) and the 'ade4' package in R. Differences between ellipses were tested with a between-class analysis. Enzyme activities were compared between soils, earthworms and pesticide conditions with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey HSD post-hoc comparison test using the XLSTAT software (version 2013.3.01). The integration of soil enzyme activities into numerical indexes of microbial diversity allows assessing the deterioration of soil quality by pesticides. Three numerical indexes to assess the impact of parathion, soil, and earthworm species on soil enzyme activities were used: Geometric Mean (GMean) index (Hinojosa et al., 2004), Integrated Biological Responses version 2 (IBRv2) index (Sanchez et al., 2013), and Treated-Soil Quality Index (T-SQI) (Mijangos et al., 2010). High GMean index values indicate high microbial functional diversity (Lessard et al., 2014). The IBRv2 index is a modified version of the original IBR index (Beliaeff and Burgeot, 2002) and is based on the deviation between a disturbed (polluted soil) and a non-disturbed (unpolluted soil) state (Sanchez et al., 2013). It integrates the global response of several biomarkers and allows a quick visualization of parathion effect on soil enzyme activities to evaluate the soil quality. Higher IBRv2 index absolute values indicate higher deviation from the control soil. The T-SQI index was proposed by Mijangos et al. (2010) as an integrative enzymatic index of soil pollution. This index measures the magnitude and direction (increase or inhibition) of changes induced by an environmental stressor on soil enzyme activities compared with a reference (here the corresponding unpolluted bulk soil). For further details concerning the numerical index calculation, see Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2017).

3.1. Effect of soil type, earthworm species, and parathion exposure time on bulk soil enzyme

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#### 3. Results

activities PCA showed significant differences in enzyme activities in function of the soil type in all conditions tested (Fig. 1B). In control bulk soil samples (no parathion), microbial functional diversity (GMean index) was similar in samples with/without earthworms and with A. caliginosa and with A. chlorotica (Fig. 2A-B). The GMean index was significantly decreased in both polluted soils (4 and 7 days of exposure to parathion) compared with control soils (Fig. 2A-B). However, at day 7, the GMean indexes were much lower in polluted bulk soil samples from Soil G than Soil K (decrease by  $36.7 \pm 4.0\%$  and  $17.8 \pm 1.0\%$ , respectively, compared with control soils) (Fig. 2B). Changes in soil enzyme activities were observed very rapidly, already at day 4 of exposure. Specifically, carboxylesterase and phosphatase activities were significantly reduced in both soil types after 4 days of exposure to parathion (Table 1). On the other hand, \beta-glucosidase enzyme activity was significantly decreased only in the siltloamy soil (Soil K) but not in the silt-clay soil (Soil G). After 7 days, sunray plots showing the T-SQI score distribution for the different enzymes clearly indicated that in Soil G most enzyme activities were decreased in polluted bulk soil samples (compared with control), except for dehydrogenase activity that did not seem to be much affected by parathion exposure (at day 4 the activity reduction was not significant) (Fig. 3A). Conversely in Soil K, carboxylesterase and phosphatase activities were fully recovered at day 7, and β-glucosidase activity was partially recovered (Fig. 3B).

3.2. Effect of soil type, earthworm species, and parathion exposure on cast enzyme activities. In earthworm casts (both species), the GMean values were not different in control and polluted samples (Fig. 2C). The GMean values were significantly higher in casts collected from control and polluted Soil K samples compared with the corresponding unpolluted (p<0.0001) and polluted bulk soil samples (p<0.0001) (Fig. 2C). Conversely, the GMean values were comparable in cast samples collected from Soil G (control or polluted soil) and in control soil (Fig. 2C). The T-SQI score distribution for the different enzymes at day 7 indicated that all the tested enzymes had recovered their initial activity, except for  $\beta$ -glucosidase that was still reduced in casts from both soil types (Fig. 3A-B).

#### 3.3. Soil quality

In bulk soil, the IBRv2 score increased with the duration of exposure to parathion in Soil G (from 4.06 at day 4 to 6.00 at day 7), but not in Soil K (~3.8 at day 4 and day 7) (Fig. 3C). In cast samples, the IBRv2 scores at day 7 (1.03 from Soil G and 2.02 from Soil K) were lower than in bulk soil samples.

## 4. Discussion

4.1. Effect of soil type, earthworm species, and exposure time on bulk soil enzyme activities

Our results suggest that soil enzyme activities are affected by parathion exposure with a timedependent response modulated by the soil texture. First, the observed activity change (at day 4
and 7 of exposure) was very rapid compared with previous works. For example, chlorpyrifos

(another organophosphorus pesticide) induced changes in soil enzyme activities after 2 weeks (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2017) and 45 days (Tejada et al., 2011) of exposure. Specifically, Tejada et al. (2011) did not observe any effect after 3 days of exposure, but only after 45 days. These differences could be explained by the higher toxicity of parathion compared with chlorpyrifos (Kumar et al., 2018). Parathion effect is consistent with previous studies showing that soil carboxylesterase, phosphatase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase are inhibited by organophosphorus pesticides and might be used as indicators of contaminated soils (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2017). Carboxylesterase inhibition is due to the direct interaction of the organophosphorus pesticide with soil carboxylesterases. This mechanism involves phosphorylation of the active site of serine hydrolases, leading to a covalent and stable 'enzyme-inhibitor' complex (Wheelock et al., 2008). The observed decrease in phosphatase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase activities is consistent with the findings by Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2017), although we cannot conclude on a direct inhibition by parathion. These results suggest that  $\beta$ -glucosidase activity variation could be used as an early indicator of changes in the soil physical-chemical and biological properties (Monreal and Bergstrom, 2000). Clay content, organic matter (Bandick and Dick, 1999) and total organic carbon (Eivazi and Tabatabai, 1988) are key factors that display a strong positive correlation with β-glucosidase activity (Turner et al., 2002). Therefore, the significant inhibitory effect of parathion on βglucosidase activity in Soil K (silt-loamy soil), compared with Soil G (silt-clay soil), could be related to the soil texture. Specifically, Soil G higher clay and organic matter contents could contribute to β-glucosidase activity stability even in the presence of parathion. The activity of urease, an N-cycling enzyme, was not affected by parathion, in line with previous studies showing that exposure to chlorpyrifos does not modify urease activity (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2017), except after longer exposure time (Tejada et al., 2011).

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Dehydrogenase activity, which reflects the presence of viable cells, is mostly used as an indicator of soil microbial activity (von Mersi and Schinner, 1991). Here, dehydrogenase activity was higher in the unpolluted bulk soil samples from Soil K than Soil G, and increased only in Soil K samples after 4 days of exposure to parathion. As previous studies showed a negative correlation between dehydrogenase activity and soil water content (Wolińska and Stepniewska, 2012), its higher activity in Soil K could be attributed to its lower capacity to retain water (silt-loamy soil) compared with Soil G (silt-clay soil). Lastly, neither earthworm presence nor the species influenced the enzyme activities in bulk soil samples. This was unexpected because earthworms modify the soil biological properties (Jones et al., 1994; Blouin et al., 2013). The most surprising observation concerns the full recovery of carboxylesterase activity in Soil K bulk soil samples after 7 days of exposure, as indicated by the T-SQI values, independently of earthworm presence/absence. Previous studies have shown that soil carboxylesterase activities can be increased in the presence of Lumbricus terrestris, but not in earthworm-free soil (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2015). Thus, three hypotheses could explain our results. First, the biomass and density of the endogeic species investigated in the present work were lower compared with previous works (Dempsey et al. (2013) used 90 L. terrestris individuals/m<sup>-2</sup>, Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2015) used 4 L. terrestris individuals/250g soil). Second, the experiment short duration (7 days compared with 12 weeks in Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2015)) might have been insufficient to allow microorganism spreading by earthworms and soil microcosm colonization. Third, carboxylesterase activity recovery could be due to its direct excretion from soil microorganisms. This suggests that endogeic species, such as A. caliginosa and A. chlorotica, may not be involved in carboxylesterase secretion from their gut, unlike what shown for the anecic earthworm L. terrestris (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2009). Consequently, in Soil K, carboxylesterase activity recovery in polluted bulk soil samples after 7 days of exposure could

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stabilize its global quality by scavenging parathion molecules, compared with Soil G (Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2015). In agreement, the IBRv2 indexes showed that overall, health status was better in Soil K (silt-loamy) than in Soil G (silt-clay) after exposure to parathion.

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4.2. Effect of soil type and earthworm species on cast enzyme activities

Our results showed that in earthworm casts, enzyme activities were similar (Soil G) or higher (Soil K) than in their corresponding bulk soil samples, except for β-glucosidase. Moreover, enzyme activities were not different in casts collected from polluted and control soils, independently of the earthworm species. Soil texture was the most important factor to explain the differences in cast enzyme activities in control soils and after parathion exposure. This is consistent with previous works showing that the effect of soil type is higher than that of earthworm species on cast properties (Clause et al., 2014). Casts are enriched in nutrients and harbor larger microbial populations and biomass than the surrounding soil (Sheehan et al., 2008; Lipiec et al., 2016). During the intestinal passage, earthworm mucus facilitates organic matter mineralization and humification and promotes microbial activity (Huang and Xia, 2018) and consequently enzyme activities in casts. The observed increase in cast dehydrogenase activity compared with undigested soil (bulk soil) confirmed previous results and indicates that earthworms and their active microbiomes enhance the cast metabolic capacity through organic matter oxidation (Liepic et al., 2016). Moreover, depending on the cast properties (pH, moisture) or total N and organic C content, different enzyme activity profiles can be obtained (Bowles et al., 2014). For instance, it has been shown that N-cycling enzyme activities increase with C availability, while C-cycling enzyme activities increase with N availability (Bowles et al., 2014). Therefore, the significant decrease in β-glucosidase activity observed in casts from polluted soils could reflect a reduction in N availability and/or

a decrease in cellulose content following organic matter breakdown during soil ingestion (Nozaki et al., 2009).

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Nevertheless, the most interesting result of our study was the restoration of enzyme activities in casts collected from polluted soils at day 7. This suggests that the soil transit through the earthworm gut might allow reducing parathion negative impact on the soil enzyme activities. Besides the higher microbial activities in casts, the earthworm microbiome capacity to feed on pesticides and use them as a C source cannot be neglected. In addition, the earthworm gut could act as a biological filter where some ingested microorganisms may be digested, favored, or selected (Drake and Horn, 2007; Wüst et al., 2011; Aira et al., 2015). Therefore, modifications of microbial communities during their transit in the gut might contribute to the microbial composition differences between dejected casts and ingested soil. Moreover, the ingested microorganisms could provide exoenzymes that enhance organic matter degradation in the gut and favor nutrient assimilation (Medina-Sauza et al., 2019). Altogether, these mechanisms could promote parathion degradation and/or metabolization, resulting in enzyme activity restoration in casts. Overall, earthworm presence promoted the maintenance of different enzyme activities and the catabolic potential in cast compared with bulk soil samples. This effect was comparable with both earthworm species; however, parathion direct impact on earthworms may limit their contribution to the microbial activity spatial diversity in the surrounding soil. Indeed, in our previous work (Jouni et al., 2018), we highlighted a species-specific response to parathion, suggesting that A. caliginosa is more sensitive. Specifically, inhibition of A. caliginosa enzyme activities was correlated with a significant decrease in body weight and a strong decrease in cast production. Therefore, the higher sensitivity of A. caliginosa behavioral responses (e.g. cast production) may have ecologically consequences on soil fertility and degradation in terms of quantity of cast produced (Capowiez et al., 2010).

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#### **5. Conclusions**

Exposure to parathion caused fast changes in total soil enzyme activities in bulk soils and casts. Enzyme activities were more affected by parathion in silt-clay soil (Soil G) than in siltloamy soil (Soil K). Soil G higher clay content, by physical capturing and protecting organic matter, microorganisms, nutrients, exogenous compounds and enzymes, could enhance the contact between soil components at different scales, thus increasing the pesticide effect on soil enzyme activities. Casts collected from polluted soils exhibited a significant restoration of soil quality. It should be noted that casts were collected at day 7 of exposure and could have undergone some ageing, resulting in bacterial community changes. However, Aira et al. (2019) showed that cast collected between day 0 and day 7 are younger samples compared with casts collected from day 15 onwards. It should be interesting to measure the enzyme activity recovery dynamics in fresh casts collected at different time points (from 0 to 7 days). Nutrients also should be thoroughly investigated in casts to better correlate specific enzyme activities with C, N and P content in function of the soil texture. Lastly, as modifications of the microbial communities during transit in the earthworm gut contribute to the microbial composition of dejected casts, it will be important to investigate the pesticide effects on earthworm digestive functions. Analysis of the soil microbial diversity fractions that were maintained or suppressed during digestive transit in the earthworm gut could allow better understanding the biological interactions of earthworms, soil microorganisms, and contaminants.

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#### Figure captions

Fig. 1. Differences in the two soils used for this study. (A) Soil texture triangle for Soil G and Soil K. (B) Principal component analysis results of bulk soil enzyme activities in the two soils.

Fig. 2. Geometric Mean (GMean) indexes of enzyme activities in control and polluted (parathion) bulk soil samples after 4 days (A) and 7 days (B) of exposure (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 8) in the different conditions (earthworm presence/absence and species). (C) GMean index of enzyme activities in bulk soil (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 16) and cast (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 8) samples from control and polluted soils after 7 days. Different letters denote significant differences between treatments (p<0.001). EW, earthworms.

Fig. 3. (A-B) Sunray plots showing the distribution of the Treated-Soil Quality Index (T-SQI) scores calculated for each enzyme activity measured in polluted bulk soil (dotted lines) and cast (continuous lines) samples from Soil G (A) and Soil K (B) after 7 days of exposure to parathion compared with control values (gray thin dotted lines at zero). CbE, total carboxylesterases; Phtase, phosphatase; Glu,  $\beta$ -glucosidase; Ure: urease; Dehy: dehydrogenase. (C) Integrated Biological Responses version 2 (IBRv2) scores calculated for bulk soils after 4 and 7 days of exposure and in casts collected after 7 days of exposure to parathion. IBRv2 values are the sum of the deviations between reference (control bulk soil) and parathion-exposed soils (n = 19).

# 631 Highlight

- Parathion exposure induced a decrease in bulk soil enzyme activities
- Bulk soil enzyme activity changes were influenced by the soil type
- After parathion exposure, soil enzyme activities were restored in earthworm casts
- 635 Earthworm species did not influence enzyme activities in control and polluted soils

Figure 1

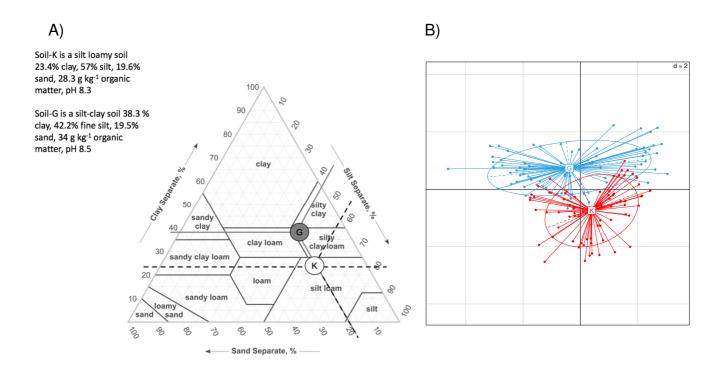
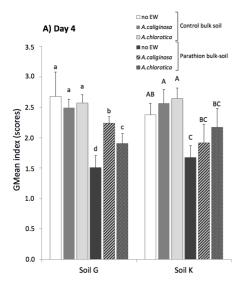
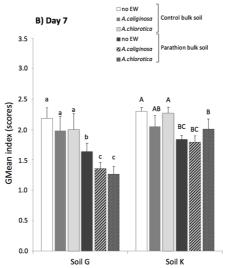


Figure 2





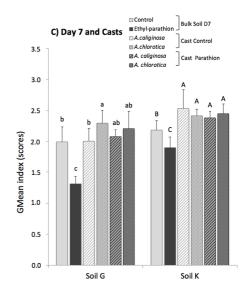
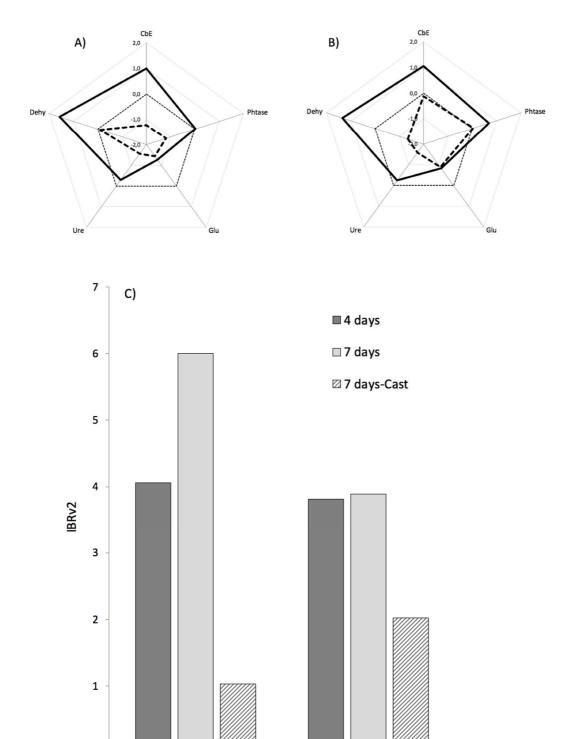


Figure 3

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Soil-G



Soil-K

Table 1: Soil enzyme activities (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 19) measured after 4 days of exposure to parathion (1 mg a.i. kg<sup>-1</sup> dry soil). Different letters denote significant differences between treatments. 4-NPB, 4-nitrophenyl butyrate; 1-NB, 1-naphthyl butyrate; INTF, iodonitrotetrazolium formazan.

Enzyme activities	Soil		Parathion	Activity	
		Control		inhibition (%)	P-value
		Day 4	Day 4	at day 4	
Carboxylesterase 4-NPB	G	$15.11 \pm 2.52$ (a)	$11.24 \pm 3.80$ (b)	-25.6	<0.0001
( $\mu$ mol h <sup>-1</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil)	K	$14.40 \pm 4.06$ (A)	$8.17 \pm 2.80$ (B)	-43.3	<0.0001
Carboxylesterases 1-NB	G	$1.92 \pm 0.76$ (a)	$1.20 \pm 0.28$ (b)	-37.4	<0.0001
$(\mu mol \ h^{\text{-}1} \ g^{\text{-}1} \ dry \ soil)$	K	$2.55 \pm 0.62$ (A)	$1.56 \pm 0.64$ (B)	-37.2	<0.0001
Phosphatase	G	$1.61 \pm 0.38$ (a)	$1.25 \pm 0.49$ (b)	-22.4	0.009
(µmol h-1 g-1 dry soil)	K	$0.90 \pm 0.12$ (A)	$0.68 \pm 0.12$ (B)	-24.6	<0.0001
β-Glucosidase	G	$1.34 \pm 0.19$	$1.34 \pm 0.35$	0	1
$(\mu mol \ h^{-1} \ g^{-1} \ dry \ soil)$	K	$1.40 \pm 0.12$ (A)	$1.00 \pm 0.29$ (B)	-28.4	<0.0001
Dehydrogenase	G	$76.5 \pm 14.4$	$61.7 \pm 18.7$	-19.3	0.136
(nmol INTF h <sup>-1</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil)	K	$110.7 \pm 27.6 (A)$	$141.2 \pm 24.0  (B)$	+21.6%	0.0005
Urease	G	$66.42 \pm 5.45$	$61.63 \pm 8.51$	-7.2	0.398
( $\mu g \ NH4^+$ -N $h^{1} \ g^{1} \ dry \ soil$ )	K	$62.12 \pm 6.06$	$55.14 \pm 7.72$	-11.2	0.046