ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Diferential response of denitrifying and diazotrophic soil populations to short and long‑term exposure of glyphosate and atrazine

L. Ferrando¹ · M. I. Bellini1 · A. Fernández‑Scavino[1](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8484-2392)

Received: 24 October 2022 / Revised: 2 April 2023 / Accepted: 5 April 2023 / Published online: 26 April 2023 © The Author(s) under exclusive licence to Society for Environmental Sustainability 2023

Abstract

Sustainable agriculture relies on the use of herbicides to preserve soil carbon and minimize disturbance to the soil structure. Glyphosate and atrazine, widespread and frequently used herbicides in South America, can afect soil microbial populations involved in nutrient recycling. In this work, the efect of commercial glyphosate and atrazine on denitrifying and diazotrophic populations has been compared. A soil without a history of previous herbicide application was incubated with one or several doses of herbicide, which was monitored along the experiment, and the microbial rate of denitrification and N_2 fixation, the abundance of specifc genes *nir*S, *nir*K, *nos*Z, *nif*H and the community structure of diazotrophs were analyzed. One dose of glyphosate or atrazine increased by 55% and 54%, respectively, the rate of N_2 fixation and significantly reduced the rate of N2O production by incomplete denitrifers. Long time exposure to glyphosate increased the abundance of *nir*K, *nos*Z, and *nif*H genes, but atrazine signifcantly reduced the *nos*Z gene density. Remarkably, diazotrophs belonging to the *Bradyrhizobium* genus, predominant in this soil, constituted a resilient population that became enriched after incubation with glyphosate or atrazine. Therefore, short and long-exposure to glyphosate and atrazine modifes the performance and survival of diazotrophs and denitrifiers in soil impacting the N biogeochemical cycle and the soil quality.

Keywords Glyphosate · Atrazine · N_2 -fixation · Denitrification · *Bradyrhizobium*

Introduction

The implementation of intensive agricultural practices to improve the crop yield has led to an increased reliance on herbicides for weed control. With the rise of direct sowing to preserve soil quality, herbicides like glyphosate and atrazine are among the main agrochemicals used in the last decades worldwide. Glyphosate is a non-selective herbicide that severely injures any living plant tissue. It is widely used against annual and perennial weeds due to its efficiency on weeds elimination and to the availability of glyphosate-resistant varieties of soybean, cotton, canola, and maize (Annett et al. [2014](#page-11-0); Duke and Powles [2008;](#page-11-1) Van

 \boxtimes A. Fernández-Scavino afernand@fq.edu.uy

> L. Ferrando lucia.ferrando1@gmail.com

Stempvoort et al. [2014\)](#page-13-0). Around 20% of the agricultural top soils of the European Union countries contain glyphosate, and 42% contain aminomethylphosphonic acid (AMPA), its main metabolite (Silva et al. [2018\)](#page-12-0). Atrazine is widely used in American and Asian countries to control broad-leaved weeds and grasses. Atrazine is used in the US, but with a restricted approval that will be reviewed by 2035 (Erickson [2020\)](#page-12-1). Although formerly used across Europe, due to its long-term persistence in the environment and toxicity for wildlife, an EU-wide ban was set in 2004, but atrazine is still used in some countries (Nödler et al. [2013](#page-12-2)). In South America, glyphosate is the most used herbicide for no-till crop systems, and atrazine, though with a more restricted use, remains allowed for most of the countries (Camargo et al. [2020](#page-11-2)).

The extensive use of herbicides has raised concern about its toxic effects over soil microbial populations and functionality, particularly after long exposure since repeated applications are very common due to the increased emergence of herbicide-resistant weeds. The main target organism of herbicides are weeds, but soil microbial communities are exposed to considerable amounts of

¹ Laboratorio de Ecología Microbiana Medioambiental, Área Microbiología, Departamento de Biociencias, Facultad de Química, Universidad de la República, Montevideo, Uruguay

herbicides that may affect its structure and activity (Van Bruggen et al. [2018\)](#page-13-1). Glyphosate inhibits the aromatic amino acid biosynthesis in shikimate pathway (Boocock and Coggins [1983](#page-11-3)), a biochemical route of active growing plants and some microorganisms (Sviridov et al. [2015](#page-12-3)). Also, indirect efects on other soil organisms by altering the gut microbiota have been reported (Motta et al. [2018](#page-12-4)). Atrazine, a systemic herbicide applied mostly to the soil for season-long weed control, inhibits photosynthesis at the level of photosystem II. Despite the selectivity of atrazine to photosynthetic organisms, various direct toxic efects on nontarget organisms have been reviewed recently (Singh et al. [2018](#page-12-5)) and indirect efects due to disturbance on the composition of intestinal microbiota in amphibians have been reported (Zhao et al. [2022\)](#page-13-2).

The whole soil microbiota seems not to experience severe adverse efects after application of glyphosate or atrazine irrespective of the history of exposure of soil to these herbicides. Minimal changes in active soil microbial communities have been observed after a single application of glyphosate, atrazine or the surfactants that usually are included in commercial products containing herbicides (Banks et al. [2014\)](#page-11-4). A single application of glyphosate to soils with or without history of exposure to the herbicide had minor effects on the structure and substrate utilization capability of soil bacterial communities (Zabaloy et al. [2012\)](#page-13-3), the diversity, abundance, and physiological profle of soil bacteria (Allegrini et al. [2015\)](#page-11-5), or respiration rates and microbial community composition (Lane et al. [2012](#page-12-6)). Atrazine exposure showed ambiguous efects on microbial community structure and activity. The C mineralization rate increased but the diversity of carbon source utilization by microbial soil biomass was reduced after atrazine application (Mahia et al. [2008](#page-12-7); Yang et al. [2021\)](#page-13-4). Transient adverse efects on the richness of the soil bacterial community were observed after atrazine application (Moretto et al. [2017\)](#page-12-8) and increasing amounts of *Actinobacteria* were reported after long-term application (Liu et al. [2020](#page-12-9)). Atrazine and glyphosate have been applied together resulting in a stimulation on soil C and N mineralization rate (Haney et al. [2002\)](#page-12-10), whereby it has been suggested that glyphosate may mitigate the transient adverse efect of atrazine when used together for weed control in genetically modifed corn cropping (Bonfeur et al. [2015\)](#page-11-6).

The uncertain effects of these herbicides on the whole soil microbial community is, probably due to several factors. It may be considered that soil herbicides concentration in field experiments decay due to the runoff, absorption by plants and degradation by soil microorganisms, which even can be adapted after successive applications. On the other hand, the great diversity and functional redundancy of the whole soil microbiota facilitates the substitution of inhibited by unaffected microorganisms, but when more specific functions of soil microbiota are afected, the recovering of the soil activity may be not so evident or fast. In addition, a stimulating efect has been endorsed to the release of limiting nutrients (mainly N or P) derived from herbicide degradation (Mijangos et al. [2009;](#page-12-11) Zabaloy et al. [2012](#page-13-3)). The system is even more complex in feld applications, because after the breakdown of dead plants, the input of nutrients into the soil favors microbial growth. Therefore, the agricultural management and environmental factors determine the response of soil microbial community and activity to the herbicides in the feld (Nguyen et al. [2016](#page-12-12)).

Despite the relevance of N cycle for soil function, the response to herbicides of microbial populations involved in N transformations has been scarcely explored. Only the response of ammonia oxidizing bacteria and archaea to glyphosate (Allegrini et al. [2017](#page-11-7); Zabaloy et al. [2017\)](#page-13-5) or atrazine (Hernandez et al. [2011\)](#page-12-13) have been studied. Therefore, in this work we compared the efect of glyphosate and atrazine over the two main bacterial populations involved in the transformation of gaseous N in bare soil. Denitrifying and diazotrophic populations of a non-previously exposed soil were evaluated in microcosm incubations after short and long-term exposure to glyphosate or atrazine. The determination of denitrifying and N-fxation rates, the abundance of *nif*H*, nir*S*, nir*K*, nos*Z genes, and the composition of the bacterial diazotrophic community were determined during the soil incubation. Repeated doses of herbicide were applied to study the efect of long-term exposure on soil microbiota and the herbicide concentration was monitored during the incubation.

Materials and methods

Site description, sampling, and physicochemical parameters of soils

Three agricultural soils from Uruguay with no history of exposure to glyphosate or atrazine were chosen for this study. Soil A was sampled from Centro Regional Sur (Facultad de Agronomía) located at Progreso, Canelones (34°36′S and 56°13′W), soil B was sampled from Paso de la Laguna (Experimental Field of Instituto Nacional de Investigación Agropecuaria) located at Treinta y Tres (32°55′S and 54°50′W), and soil C was sampled from Servicio Seroterápico (Facultad de Medicina) located at Canelones (34°38′S and 55°55′W). The soils A and B were used for forestation and natural pasture management, respectively. The soil C was close to a feld that only in the two previous years was used for agriculture in a rotation management with sunfower-ryegrass- sunfower-canola. Soils A and B were used in this study for preliminary determinations of half-life time of glyphosate and atrazine, and soil C was employed for the whole incubation experiment to determine the effect of herbicides on microbial communities.

Sampling was conducted during spring 2014. Five soil cores (0–15 cm depth) separated at least by 5 m were collected and pooled to make a composite sample from each site. Soil samples were analyzed for physicochemical properties: pH was measured in water (1:2.5 w/v), organic C and N content were measured by the wet oxidation method and Kjeldahl analysis, respectively, P was quantifed after citric acid extraction, and K was extracted with ammonium acetate 1N at pH 7.0. Table [1](#page-2-0) shows the classifcation and physicochemical properties of these soils.

The water content of soil C was 28%. After humidity determination, a fraction of the soil samples was air-dried at room temperature, sieved $(< 2$ mm) and stored at room temperature until to set up the incubation assays.

Preliminary experiment to estimate the glyphosate and atrazine degradation rate in soil

The persistence of herbicides in soil was estimated in a preliminary assay to determine the time between successive applications of herbicides. The concentration of glyphosate and atrazine after a frst application was analyzed in fresh soils A and B, respectively. Microcosms assays were made in 125 mL fasks with fresh soil (10 g dry weight) and herbicides were added in solution from stock commercial formulations: glyphosate (540 g active ingredient L^{-1} Roundup Full II®) and atrazine (3.3 mg L^{-1} aqueous solution 90%, Novazina 90 GD®). The concentration of herbicides (1.5 kg atrazine ha⁻¹ and 1.67 kg glyphosate ha^{-1}) was adjusted assuming that the herbicides penetrate to a depth of 10 cm down the soil and that the apparent density of soil was 1.30 g cm^{-3} . For both applications the volume of the added solution of herbicide was adjusted to reach the humidity of the soil when it was sampled. The incubation was done at 20 °C in the dark.

The half-life time estimated for glyphosate was 9 days and for atrazine was 46 days, assuming linear degradation rate from the initial herbicide application. Considering these results, the experiment to study the effect of several applications of herbicide on soil microbiota was designed. Glyphosate was applied every 9 days and atrazine was applied every 49 days to soil C; thus, the microorganisms would be exposed to an herbicide concentration in the range of the initial dose.

Efect of application of glyphosate and atrazine on soil microbial populations: Experimental design

A microcosms assay was carried out as described above with fresh soil C to study the efect of herbicides amendment on soil diazotrophic and denitrifying populations. The soil was distributed in fasks and sterile deionized water (control), or sterile solutions of glyphosate or atrazine were added to each fask. Three sets of fasks (control, glyphosate, and atrazine) were incubated aerobically in the dark at 20 °C.

The effect of the first application of herbicides was analyzed by comparing the abundance and activity of bacterial populations at t_0 (immediately after the application of each herbicide) and at t_1 (after the previously estimated half-time life for each herbicide: 9 days for glyphosate and 46 days for atrazine). The efect of long-term exposure to the herbicides was analyzed at $t₂$, after periodical applications of glyphosate (6 applications and 49 days of incubation) or atrazine (4 applications and 268 days of incubation). Three replicates were destructively sampled at each sampling time (t_0 , t_1 and t_2) for each herbicide incubation set with the respective replicates of control soil incubation without herbicide.

Determination of the residual concentration of glyphosate and atrazine in soil

The concentration of herbicide was determined as described below in triplicated flasks at days 0, 9, 32 and 49 for glyphosate-amended soil, and at days 0, 46, 90, 135 and 268 for atrazine-amended soil. Three replicates were sacrifced at each sampling time to quantify the residual concentration of herbicide.

The residual glyphosate was quantifed in soil by ELISA (Abraxis®) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The extraction was made with the complete content of soil in each fask, which was shaken with 25 mL of 1 M NaOH for 30 min. The suspension was transferred into a 50 mL plastic centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 15 min.

Table 1 Soil properties used in this study^a

a All measures are expressed in dry weight

b Soils were classifed as type silt loam (A) or clay loam (B and C)

The supernatant was diluted with ultrapure water (1:100 v/v), neutralized with HCl and filtered through a 0.2 μ m membrane cellulose acetate flter.

Atrazine was extracted from soil as described by Amadori et al. [\(2013\)](#page-11-8). The complete content of the fask was shaken with 15 mL acetonitrile for 30 min, then the suspension was transferred into a 50 mL plastic centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 15 min. This step was carried out three times. The extract solution (45 mL) was concentrated by rota-evaporation (200 rpm, 40 °C) to 1 mL in acetonitrile, diluted with ultrapure water $(1:1 \text{ v/v})$, filtered through a 0.2 µm membrane filter and stored at $-$ 20 °C. Atrazine was quantifed by HPLC as described by Bellini et al. [\(2014\)](#page-11-9).

Characterization of microbial populations

Denitrifcation and diazotrophic potential activity

The denitrification potential activity was measured in triplicate according to D'Heane et al. ([2003](#page-11-10)), replacing glucose by 1.5 mM potassium acetate, 0.9 mM sodium succinate and 2.0 mM methanol, and adding 4.5 mM KNO₃ (fnal concentrations). The assays were performed under anaerobic conditions (N_2) atmosphere) in 60 mL vials by mixing 5 g dry soil with 10 mL of sterile water. The vials were sealed with butyl rubber stoppers and aluminum caps and incubated in the dark with continuous shaking, at 20 °C. Vials without and with acetylene (10% v/v into the headspace) were incubated to determine incomplete and total denitrifcation rate, respectively (Yoshinari et al. [1977](#page-13-6)). Gas samples were taken with a gas tight syringe from the headspace every hour, between 3.5 h and 7.5 h of incubation. The $N₂O$ concentration was immediately measured in a gas chromatograph (GC-2014 Shimadzu) equipped with an electron capture detector and two packed columns Porapack Q, 80/100 mesh 6 ft \times 1/8 inch. The operating conditions were as follows: carrier gas N_2 (30 mL min⁻¹), injector temperature 90 °C, column and oven temperature 40 °C and detector temperature 250 °C. The denitrifcation potential activity was calculated from the slope of the $N₂O$ production curve and expressed as the rate of $N₂O$ production (nmol N_2O .g dry soil⁻¹.h⁻¹). The measures of the headspace of abiotic control vials incubated with sterilized soil (with and without acetylene) confirmed that the N_2O production was a biological process.

The diazotrophic potential activity was measured in triplicate using the acetylene reduction assay (ARA) (Hardy et al. [1968\)](#page-12-14). The assays were performed in 25 mL vials by mixing 3 g dry soil with 10 mL of sterile water. The fasks were amended with a mixture of three different carbon sources (glucose, sodium citrate and sodium malate) at 2 mM fnal concentration. Vials were supplemented with acetylene (15% v/v into the headspace) and incubated in the dark with continuous shaking at 20 °C. The gas from the headspace was sampled after 48 h of incubation and ethylene was measured with a gas chromatograph (SRI 8610) equipped with a ionization fame detector and a packed column Porapack R, 80/100 mesh 6 ft \times 1/8 inch. The operating conditions were as follows: carrier gas N_2 (54 mL min⁻¹), column oven temperature 45 \degree C and hydrogen flow 15 mL.min⁻¹. The diazotrophic potential activity was calculated as the ethylene produced after 48 h of incubation.

DNA extraction and abundance of *nif***H,** *nir***S,** *nir***K, and** *nos***Z genes in soil microcosms**

DNA was extracted from 0.45 g of soil microcosms in duplicated samples. Mo Bio PowerSoil™ DNA Isolation kits were used according to the manufacturer's protocol. The quality of the extracted DNA was verified on an agarose 1.5% gel and stored at $-$ 20 °C until use.

The abundance of *nif*H*, nir*S*, nir*K*,* and *nos*Z genes was estimated by Real Time PCR (qPCR). Quantifcation of genes was performed with the following primers: *nif*H PolF/PolR (Poly et al. [2001\)](#page-12-15), *nir*S cd3aF/R3Cd (Throback et al. [2004](#page-12-16)), *nir*K 876/R3Cu (Henry et al. [2004](#page-12-17)) and *nos*Z 2F/2R (Henry et al. [2006\)](#page-12-18). Genes were amplifed using the Rotor-Gene SYBR Green PCR Master mix (QIAGEN®, Hilden, Germany) in a Rotor-Gene® 6000, model 5-Plex (CORBETT Research, Sidney). All samples were amplifed by duplicate and a standard curve (with triplicate determinations) was included in each run. Triplicates of negative controls without DNA template were included in each run. The standard preparation, thermal cycles and reaction conditions for the quantifcation were as described previously for *nif*H gene (Ferrando and Fernandez-Scavino [2015](#page-12-19)) and for *nir*S, *nir*K and *nos*Z genes (Bellini et al. [2018](#page-11-11)). DNA samples were amplified in 10 μ L reaction volumes containing 1 μL of diluted (one or two tenfold) template DNA, 0.5 μM of each primer, and 5 μL of Rotor-Gene SYBR Green PCR Master mix. The thermal cycle consisted of an initial step at 95 °C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 95 °C for 5 s and 60 °C for 10 s. The fuorescence signal was measured once per cycle after the annealing-elongation step via the addition of one step at 80 °C for 1 s. A melting curve was obtained after each amplifcation by increasing temperature from 60 °C to 94 °C at a rate of 1 °C s⁻¹ in order to verify the specificity of amplifcation. All DNA extractions were performed in the same soil and results were expressed as the amount of gene copies per g of dry soil.

Diazotrophic community structure by nifH pyrosequencing

DNA extracted from soils was analyzed at Mr DNA Molecular Research (TX, USA) for *nif*H barcoded pyrosequencing. The amplicon sequencing procedure was described by Dowd et al. ([2008\)](#page-11-12) with *nif*H specifc primers PolR and PolF (Poly et al. [2001](#page-12-15)). A HotStarTaq Plus Master Mix Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) was used and PCR conditions were: frst step of 3 min at 94◦C, 28 cycles of amplifcation (94◦C for 30 s; 53◦C for 40 s and 72◦C for 1 min); fnal elongation at 72◦C for 5 min. Several amplicon products from each sample were mixed in equal concentrations and purified using Agencourt Ampure beads (Agencourt Bioscience Corporation, MA, USA). Samples were sequenced utilizing Roche 454 FLX titanium instruments following the manufacturer's guidelines.

The *nif*H gene sequencing data were processed according to Ferrando and Fernández-Scavino ([2015\)](#page-12-19). The data were initially split in libraries followed by a de novo search for chimeras with userarch61 and QIIME (Caporaso et al. [2010\)](#page-11-13). The split and fltered libraries were then screened for frame shifts using the FrameBot tool (Fish et al. [2013\)](#page-12-20) with an identity cutoff of 0.4 and a length cutoff of 80 amino acids. The frame-corrected nucleotide sequences were then clustered (0.03 distance) using uclust (QIIME). An OTU table was constructed with OTUs with more than 10 counts. After standardization to the sample with the lower number of sequences, the data were subjected to further analyses. The software Analytic Rarefaction 1.3 ([http://strata.uga.](http://strata.uga.edu/software/index.html) [edu/software/index.html](http://strata.uga.edu/software/index.html)) developed by Steven Holland (Supplementary Information Fig. S1) was used with the original data set to construct the rarefaction curves.

The *nif*H sequences were deposited in the NCBI database with the Project number PRJNA884411 and BioSample accession numbers SAMN31023775 to SAMN31023784.

Statistical analysis

The diferences between treatments were analyzed by oneway ANOVA followed by Tuckey's test to establish the significance of the differences among means $(p < 0.05)$ for each variable in study. The data were log_{10} transformed in order to generate a normal distribution of residues and homogeneity of variance. All analyses were performed with the software InfoStat/Professional Version 2016.

Results

Residual concentrations of glyphosate and atrazine in soil microcosms

The glyphosate and atrazine concentrations were monitored during the soil incubation to assess the range of herbicide concentration across the experiment. The concentrations of glyphosate and atrazine in soil microcosms were measured immediately after the frst application (t_0) , after the estimated half-life time following the first application (t_1) , at least once before the following applications, and finally, at the end of the incubation $(t₂)$, that corresponded to 9 days after the $6th$ application of glyphosate or 133 days after the $4th$ application of atrazine.

Both herbicides were degraded in soil C with a half-life time of 6.7 days for glyphosate and 79 days for atrazine (Fig. [1](#page-5-0)). Glyphosate concentration was reduced to 33% of the initial value after 9 days from the frst application (Fig. [1a](#page-5-0)), indicating that at t_1 soil microbiota was exposed to a range of glyphosate concentration between 3.7 and 11.1 mg kg⁻¹ dry soil. The long-term exposure (t₂), after 49 days and six applications, corresponded to a range of glyphosate concentration between the minimal residual value measured (3.7 mg kg^{-1}) and the highest residual value measured plus the new dose of glyphosate added (16.8 mg kg⁻¹ by day 32). Atrazine concentration was reduced to 71% of the initial value by day 49, after the frst application (Fig. [1b](#page-5-0)), indicating that at t_1 soil microbiota was exposed to a concentration range between 0.68 and 0.97 mg atrazine kg⁻¹ dry soil. During the long-term exposure, atrazine concentration was in the range of 0.45 to 2.50 mg kg⁻¹ and soil was sampled at day 268 (t₂), corresponding to the lowest concentration in soil.

The frequency of herbicides application, though not representative of their use in the field, simulates the extreme situation of permanent exposure of soil microbiota to the herbicide.

Efect of glyphosate and atrazine on the activity and abundance of soil denitrifying populations

In order to determine the effect of the herbicides on the activity of denitrifying populations, the N_2O production rate was measured in microcosms assays with or without acetylene to determine the Potential Total Denitrifcation Rate (PTDR) or the Potential Incomplete Denitrifcation Rate (PIDR), respectively. The PTDR, measured by the acetylene blockage method, includes the activity of microorganisms able to produce N_2 as well as microorganisms able to produce N_2O , due to

Fig. 1 Glyphosate (**a**) and atrazine (**b**) concentration in incubated soil microcosms after successive applications of the herbicides. Each point represents the mean concentration measured in triplicated microcosms \pm standard deviation. Repeated applications of herbicides are indicated by arrows. Sampling times for microbiological analysis

were: t_0 (immediately after the first application), t_1 (before the second application) and, t_2 that corresponds to 9 days after the last application of glyphosate or 133 days after the last application of atrazine

the absence of the *nos*Z gene, responsible for the last step of denitrification. Denitrification rates were also measured in parallel in control microcosms incubated without herbicide amendment. The effect of short (t_1) and long-term exposure $(t₂)$ to glyphosate or atrazine on the denitrifcation rate is shown in Fig. [2.](#page-5-1)

PTDR and PIDR were in the same order of magnitude for soils exposed and unexposed to both herbicides, though significant differences could be observed for certain conditions. PTDR was not signifcantly afected by short or long-term exposure to glyphosate (Fig. [2a](#page-5-1)). However, PIDR of soil after the frst glyphosate application was significantly lower (17%) than PIDR of unexposed soil (Fig. [2c](#page-5-1)). This effect was transient, since after six applications of glyphosate (t_2) , PIDR was similar in

Fig. 2 Potential total denitrifcation rate (**a**, **b**) and potential incomplete denitrifcation rate (**c**, **d**) in soil incubated with glyphosate (**a**, **c**) or atrazine (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}) after one (t_1) or several $(t₂)$ applications of the herbicide. Incubated soils with herbicide and without herbicide (non-exposed) were measured at each sampling time. Error bars represent standard deviation of three replicated microcosms. Diferent letters indicate signifcant diferences between treatments ($p < 0.05$)

control and exposed soils, suggesting that incomplete denitrifers may have been adapted to glyphosate.

Conversely, atrazine was consistently inhibitory for the denitrifiers activity. The PTDR in control and exposed soils were similar after the frst application but decreased significantly in soil exposed for long time to atrazine (Fig. [2b](#page-5-1)). At t_2 , the PTDR decreased by 12% in soil incubated with atrazine compared to control soil. The PIDR decreased signifcantly since the frst exposure to atrazine, decaying by 17% at t_1 and by 14% at t_2 (after 268 days of incubation with atrazine), indicating that the inhibitory efect persisted but did not increase with time.

Therefore, atrazine showed a stronger inhibitory efect than glyphosate on denitrifers activity. Also, incomplete denitrifiers seemed to be more affected than the whole denitrifying community after exposure to the herbicides.

The effect of herbicides on soil microbiota was also analyzed through the quantification of specific genes involved in the bacterial denitrification pathway. The abundance of *nir*S and *nir*K genes was not negatively afected by soil incubations with glyphosate or atrazine (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)a–d). Moreover, soil incubated for long-term with glyphosate showed a signifcant increase of *nir*K gene from 2.2×10^7 to 4.7×10^7 copies g^{-1} dry soil (Fig. [3c](#page-6-0)).

On the contrary, the *nos*Z gene abundance was afected after long-time incubation with both herbicides when compared with incubated soils without herbicide but showing opposite effects (Fig. [3e](#page-6-0), f). The *nos*Z gene abundance increased significantly $(4.0 \times 10^6$ to 8.1×10^6 copies. g^{-1} dry soil) after incubation with glyphosate, whereas decreased significantly $(6.2 \times 10^6$ to 4.8×10^6 copies. g^{-1} dry soil) after atrazine incubation.

Thereby, except by a decline in the *nos*Z gene density after long-exposure to atrazine, the abundance of key genes of soil bacterial denitrifying populations remained unchanged or even increased after long-time incubation with glyphosate and atrazine.

Fig. 3 Abundance of genes involved in the denitrifcation pathway in soils unexposed and exposed to glyphosate (left) or atrazine (right) after one (t_1) or several $(t₂)$ applications. Abundance of *nirS* (**a**, **b**), *nirK* (**c**, **d**) and *nosZ* (**e**, **f**) genes were represented. Error bars represent standard deviation of two determinations. Diferent letters indicate signifcant diferences among treatments for each gene $(p < 0.05)$

Efect of glyphosate and atrazine on the activity and abundance of soil diazotrophic population

Glyphosate stimulated significantly $N₂$ fixation activity with rates that increased by 55% and 166% compared to the controls, at t_1 and t_2 , respectively (Fig. [4a](#page-7-0)). Also, the *nifH* gene density $(5.6 \times 10^6 \text{ copies. g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil})$ was significantly higher than in control soil $(2.6 \times 10^6 \text{ copies} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil})$ at $t₂$ (Fig. [5a](#page-7-1)). However, the increase of diazotrophic activity at t_1 could not be explained by the abundance of $ni fH$ genes, which was lower in soil with glyphosate compared to control soil.

The exposure to atrazine signifcantly changed the rate of $N₂$ fixation when compared to the respective control soil, showing a sharp increase (54%) after the frst exposure and a great decline (47%) of the rate at t_2 (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)b). The abundance of *nif*H genes was not signifcantly afected by the exposure to atrazine (Fig. [5b](#page-7-1)).

Therefore, though the density of the diazotrophic population seemed to be rarely afected by glyphosate and atrazine, the rate for N_2 fixation was strongly impacted after exposure to herbicides, but mostly showing a stimulating effect.

Efect of glyphosate and atrazine on the diversity and composition of soil diazotrophic community

The affiliation and relative abundance of *nif*H gene sequences were analyzed to compare the composition of the diazotrophic bacterial community in exposed and unexposed soils. The unincubated soil showed sequences belonging to *Alpha*, *Beta*, *Gamma* and *Deltaproteobacteria*, with predominance of the *Alphaproteobacteria*, mainly associated to diferent species of the genus *Bradyrhizobium*. Bacteria from the groups *Firmicutes*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Planctomycetes* and *Verrucomicrobia* were found as minor members of the diazotrophic community in this soil (Fig. [6\)](#page-8-0).

After incubation with glyphosate, a noticeable increase of the relative abundance of OTU 364 was observed (Fig. [6](#page-8-0)), which has a high level of similarity to the *nif*H sequence of *Bradyrhizobium elkanii*. The increase was more evident when compared with the incubated control after the frst exposure (t₁,). Other *Alphaproteobacteria* were unaffected by glyphosate at t_1 . Soil incubated with higher amounts of glyphosate for a long time $(t₂)$ seemed to increase the relative proportion of other members of the genus *Bradyrhizobium* (OTUs 8 and 360) compared to control soil. Conversely, the relative proportion of a few diazotrophs decreased after incubation with glyphosate. Short and longterm exposure affected *Geobacter*-like (OTU 390) and *Verrucomicrobia*-like (OTU 297) diazotrophs, whereas certain *Betaproteobacteria* (OTU 237), *Firmicutes* (OTU

Fig. 4 Potential diazotrophic rate of soil incubated with glyphosate (**a**) or atrazine (**b**) after one (t_1) or several applications (t_2) of herbicide. Error bars represent standard deviation of three replicated microcosms. Diferent letters indicate signifcant diferences among treatments $(p < 0.05)$

Fig. 5 Abundance of *nif*H gene in soils unexposed and exposed to glyphosate (**A**) or atrazine **(B)** after one (t_1) or several $(t₂)$ applications of herbicide. Error bars represent standard deviation of two determinations. Diferent letters indicate signifcant diferences between treatments $(p < 0.05)$

Fig. 6 Heat map showing the relative proportion of *nif*H gene sequences retrieved from soils before incubation $(t_{0a}$ and $t_{0b})$ and incubated with glyphosate or atrazine after the frst herbicide application (t₁+G or t₁+A) or several herbicide applications (t₂+G

260), *Nostocales* (OTU 176) and *Planctomycetes* (OTU 410) decreased only after long incubation with glyphosate.

The incubation with atrazine also increased the relative proportion of *Bradyrhizobium elkanii*-like diazotrophs (OTU 364). *Alpha* and *Betaproteobacteria* were mainly not afected by atrazine, but adverse efects were observed for *Bacillus* and certain members of *Nostocales* (OTUs 260 and 419, respectively). The long time of incubation required to test the efect of repeated additions of atrazine seemed to have a great infuence on the diazotrophs distribution, since incubated soils at t_2 with and without atrazine showed similar proportions for several OTUs. At $t₂$, two members of the *Firmicutes* (OTU 260 and 200) and one of the Order *Nostocales* (OTU 405) seemed to be favored by the longterm exposure to atrazine.

Discussion

The current use of herbicides has increased substantially due to the expansion of intensive agriculture and pressure to obtain higher crop yields. Soil microbial diversity and functionality may be threatened by this continuous use of herbicides. Although designed to have selective toxicity over vegetal cells, herbicides (or other compounds like surfactants that are commonly included in its formulations) may have

or t_2+A), respectively. The control soils incubated without herbicides at t_1 (t_1 -G or t_1 -A) and t_2 (t_2 -G or t_2 -A) are also shown. The OTU number and the affiliation to the respective closest NifH protein sequence are shown

adverse efects on the soil microbiota. An additional concern has been raised recently since it was hypothesized that the selection pressure for glyphosate resistance could increase antibiotic resistant populations in soil microbiota (Hertel et al. [2022;](#page-12-21) Van Bruggen et al. [2018\)](#page-13-1). Furthermore, the impact of herbicides on microbial populations involved in the transformations of limiting nutrients, such as N, could have serious consequences for sustainable agriculture.

In this work, we examine the response towards glyphosate and atrazine of the microbial populations of denitrifers and diazotrophs, responsible for the exchange of N between soil and the atmosphere. A soil without history of herbicide application was incubated with and without glyphosate or atrazine under controlled conditions. After one (shorttime exposure, t_1) or several (long-time exposure, t_2) doses of commercial herbicides, the activity, abundance, and diversity of diazotrophic and denitrifying soil populations were examined. The herbicides were applied repeatedly to the soil microcosms to maintain their concentration in the range of use in the feld and their concentrations were monitored along the long-term incubation experiment.

Both herbicides were degraded during soil incubation. The rate of herbicide degradation depends on the soil type, temperature, and moisture, as well as the soil microbiota, the presence of plants and stubble, and the history of previous herbicide application. Therefore, it is not surprising to fnd diferent biodegradation rates reported for glyphosate and atrazine (Mueller et al. [2017](#page-12-22); Muskus et al. [2019](#page-12-23); Ngigi et al. [2011\)](#page-12-24). The decay of glyphosate to 50% of the initial concentration was generally shorter than 10 days for diferent soils around the world (Al-Rajab and Schiavon [2010;](#page-11-14) Yang et al. [2015\)](#page-13-7)*.* Consistently, the half-life time of glyphosate after the frst exposure was 6.7 days in our experiment. The half-life of atrazine was 79 days, which agrees with the estimate of 60 days reported for diferent soils (Ghadiri et al. [1984](#page-12-25); Krutz et al. [2007](#page-12-26)). Considering this degradation, the periodical applications of herbicides to the microcosm assay allowed to keep the glyphosate and atrazine concentration within their range of use in the feld simulating a long-time exposure to herbicides.

The effect of glyphosate and atrazine on a specific group of bacteria has been reported by a limited number of studies. Glyphosate increased the viable bacterial counts of *Pseudomonas* (Gimsing et al. [2004](#page-12-27)) and Gram-negative phospholipids fatty acids (PLFA) markers in soil (Weaver et al. [2007](#page-13-8)), though other authors observed negative efects on rhizospheric bacteria able to promote plant growth, such as *Burkholderi*a spp., *Pseudomonas* spp., or *Rhizobium* spp. (Arango et al. [2014;](#page-11-15) Druille et al. [2016](#page-11-16); Lorch et al. [2021;](#page-12-28) Zobiole et al. [2010\)](#page-13-9). Atrazine and glyphosate showed adverse efects on the growth of axenic cultures of nitrogen fxing bacteria such as *Azospirillum brasilense* and *Rhizobium* sp., or bacteria employed in biological control, such as *Bacillus subtilis* and *Bacillus thuringiensis* (De Farias et al. [2021](#page-11-17)).

Among the microbial populations involved in the biogeochemical cycle of N, nitrifying bacteria and archaea have been the most studied in terms of their sensitivity to glyphosate or atrazine. Diferent responses have been observed for the abundance of both groups since high doses of glyphosate increased the nitrifying bacteria, whereas the density of nitrifying archaea remained unchanged (Zabaloy et al. [2017](#page-13-5)). Also, repeated applications of high doses of glyphosate (49 mg kg⁻¹ soil) cause a shift in the community structure of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria of soils with and without history of exposure to the herbicide (Allegrini et al. [2017\)](#page-11-7). On the other hand, simazine, a herbicide with a similar chemical structure than atrazine, also diferentiated among ammonia oxidizing archaea and bacteria since only bacterial DGGE patterns were afected by the herbicide in high doses (Hernandez et al. [2011](#page-12-13)). In the present work, diferential responses to the herbicides were also found for denitrifying populations (Table [2\)](#page-9-0). The total denitrifcation rate decayed only after long exposure to atrazine (12%), but incomplete denitrifcation rate decreased after short and long exposure to atrazine (17% and 14%, respectively) or after the frst exposure to glyphosate (17%). Since the measurement of total denitrification rate comprises the activity of both, complete and incomplete denitrifers, the **Table 2** Efect of short and long-time exposure to glyphosate and atrazine on the soil denitrifcation and nitrogen fxation rates

^aOnly significant ($p < 0.05$) increase (\uparrow) or decrease (\downarrow) of the % of rate compared with the control soil incubated without herbicide are shown

higher effect observed for the N_2O rate production may be attributed to this process is carried out for a subgroup within microbial denitrifers. Incomplete denitrifcation, performed by bacteria lacking the *nos*Z gene and by fungi, is a relevant environmental process since it contributes to N losses from soil and to the emission of N_2O , a greenhouse gas. Fungal $N₂O$ production is comparable to the bacterial production in soils of diverse agroecosystems, including conventional farming, integrated crop and livestock systems, organic farming systems (Chen et al. [2014;](#page-11-18) Mothapo et al. [2013](#page-12-29)) or grasslands (Zhong et al. [2022\)](#page-13-10), but fungal denitrifcation is higher than bacterial denitrifcation manly at acidic soils with complex C substrates like lignocellulose (Chen et al. [2015\)](#page-11-19). In addition, agricultural practices such as organic fertilization or reduced tillage, which are frequently accompanied by the use of herbicides, increase denitrification rates and the contribution to N_2O emission by fungi (Bosch et al. [2022;](#page-11-20) Wei et al. [2014](#page-13-11)). The application of glyphosate and propanil reduced N_2O emissions in soils amended with rice straw or chitin, so the combination of these herbicides could be a useful $N₂O$ emission mitigation strategy in soils amended with organic fertilizers (Kyaw and Toyota [2007\)](#page-12-30). It is also appropriate to mention that the *nos*Z gene analyzed in this work belongs to the Clade I present in many denitrifying bacteria, mainly *Proteobacteria*, while the microorganisms that possess the *nos*Z gene of clade II comprise multiple bacterial phyla for which their contribution to the N_2O reduction remains still unclear (Shapleigh [2013\)](#page-12-31).

Therefore, the observed decay of the N_2O production rate after glyphosate and, mainly atrazine exposure, might have an environmental positive effect to prevent N losses from soil and reduce the emission of a greenhouse gas. Our results also suggest that incomplete denitrifers could be suitable indicators to determine the inhibitory efects of these herbicides.

The abundance of denitrification specific genes was significantly affected by long-time exposure to both herbicides $(Table 3)$ $(Table 3)$ $(Table 3)$. The incubations with glyphosate

Table 3 Efect of long-time exposure to glyphosate and atrazine on the soil denitrifcation and nitrogen fxation genes abundance

Specific genes abundance	Long time exposure ^a	
	Glyphosate	Atrazine
Denitrification (nirS, nirK, nosZ)	\uparrow * 2,1 nirK \uparrow * 2.0 nosZ	\downarrow * 1,3 nosZ
Diazotrophy (nifH)	\uparrow * 2,1 nifH	

^aOnly significant ($p < 0.05$) increase (\uparrow) or decrease (\downarrow) of the times of gene copy numbers compared with the control soil incubated without herbicide are shown

increased the densities of *nir*K and *nos*Z genes (from 2.2×10^7 to 4.7×10^7 and from 4.0×10^6 to 8.1×10^6 copies. g^{-1} dry soil, respectively) after incubation with glyphosate, but atrazine caused a signifcant decrease of *nos*Z gene density (from 6.2×10^6 to 4.8×10^6 copies. g^{-1} dry soil). Other authors reported that one dose of glyphosate or atrazine did not afect the density of *nos*Z gene (Zhang et al. [2018](#page-13-12)), or even one elevated dose of glyphosate (21.6 mg kg−1) did not produce noticeable changes in the abundance of denitrifcation genes in a sugarcane cropped soil (Das et al. [2022](#page-11-21)). Thus, our results showed that longtime exposure to herbicides affected differentially the abundance of denitrifying bacteria since two of the main populations that contributed to N_2 losses increased after glyphosate exposure but a decrease of the population able to reduce N_2O to N_2 was observed after incubation with atrazine.

Although herbicides are frequently employed in agricultural managements that include inoculation of seeds with plant growth promoting bacteria, commonly diazotrophs, the response of diazotrophs to herbicides has been scarcely explored. The N_2 fixation rate was markedly enhanced after one or several applications of glyphosate (55% and 166%, respectively) and the *nif*H gene abundance raised from 2.6×10^6 to 5.6×10^6 copies g^{-1} dry soil after long-time exposure (Table [2](#page-9-0) and Table [3\)](#page-10-0). This consistent stimulation of diazotrophic bacteria by the application of commercial glyphosate may be due to its degradation and consequent release of metabolites that are nutrients for nitrogenase activity and growth of diazotrophic bacteria. Conversely to our results, four annual applications of glyphosate (either 384 or 1440 g active ingredient ha^{-1}) signifcantly decreased the abundance of culturable freeliving diazotrophs in a temperate grassland soil (Druille et al. [2016](#page-11-16)).

The effect of atrazine on the $N₂$ fixation rate depended on the time of exposure to the herbicide, showing a signifcant improvement (54%) after the frst dose but a strong reduction of the diazotrophic activity (47% lower than the control soil) after long-time exposure (Table [2\)](#page-9-0). These changes in diazotrophic activity occurred without signifcant changes in *nif*H gene density, suggesting that atrazine has reversible efects on the activity of diazotrophs or that the community composition of diazotrophs shifted during the long-time towards diazotrophs with lower tolerance to herbicides.

The taxonomic afliation of *nif*H gene sequences revealed that this soil harbored representative members of *Alpha*, *Beta, Gamma,* and *Delta Proteobacteria*, as well as members of the orders *Firmicutes*, *Nostocales*, *Planctomycetales* and *Verrucomicrobiales*. The incubation with glyphosate seems to reduce the relative proportion of only certain members within the main taxonomic groups, such as *Dechloromonas* within *Betaproteobacteria* or *Bacillus* within *Firmicutes*, but *Alphaproteobacteria*, remained predominant with *nif*H sequences associated to diferent species of the genus *Bradyrhizobium*. Although the same trend was observed for soil incubated with atrazine, the effect would be less evident because the long-time of incubation also seems to afect control soil without atrazine. The most interesting outcome observed in bacterial community composition was that the proportion of diazotrophs associated to *Bradyrhizobium* (within *Alphaproteobacteria*) and to *Paraburkholderia*-*Burkholderia* (within *Betaproteobacteria*) would be enriched after soil incubation with glyphosate or atrazine. The persistence of *Bradyrhizobium* may be explained by the ability of bacteria belonging to this genus to degrade glyphosate and atrazine (Hernández-Guijarro et al. [2021](#page-12-32); Vercellino and Gómez [2013\)](#page-13-13). Although it has been reported that formulated products based on glyphosate were toxic to the strain *Bradyrhizobium* sp BR 3901 (Madureira-Barroso et al. [2020](#page-12-33)), it has been proposed that the effects of glyphosate on microbes of agricultural soils are minor and transient (Duke [2021\)](#page-11-22). It is also interesting to note that most of the *Bradyrhizobium* strains recently isolated from peanutnodules were denitrifers, according to the genomic analysis, but only one third of this population could reduce N_2O and had strong preference for N_2O over NO^-_3 as electron acceptor (Gao et al. [2021\)](#page-12-34).

Overall, the results of the present work evidenced that the application of one dose of glyphosate or atrazine does not stimulate the activity of microbial populations that can deprive the soil of N, moreover, decreases the N_2O emission and stimulates N_2 fixation. Long- time exposure to glyphosate increases the populations of denitrifers and diazotrophs, and consequently accelerates the turnover of N in soil, and enhances noticeably the $N₂$ fixation. Atrazine reduces one of the main populations able to transform N_2O in N_2 , causing environmental detrimental effects, and decreases the rate of denitrification and $N₂$ fixation, showing an opposite efect than glyphosate on the N turnover in soil. Remarkably, bacteria belonging to the *Bradyrhizobium* genus, the predominant diazotroph genus in this soil, seems to be a resilient population that became enriched after incubation with glyphosate or atrazine. These results contribute to implementing more sustainable agricultural practices combining herbicides application with plant growth promoting bacteria inoculation. (Sequencing data are available at the link: [http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/biopr](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/884411) [oject/884411\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/884411).

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42398-023-00270-z) [s42398-023-00270-z.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42398-023-00270-z)

Acknowledgements The authors are very grateful to the MSc. Nadia Martin who did excellent technical work by performing many analyses and by contributing with enthusiasm to the accomplishment of this project. The authors are grateful to MSc. Lucas Martinez Arocena, who contributed to the analysis of the residual atrazine concentration.

Funding This study was funded by the I+ D Grant number 815 of the Comisión Sectorial de Investigación Científca (CISC) of the Universidad de la República (Udelar), Uruguay. All authors certify that they have no afliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any fnancial interest or non-fnancial interest in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

Declarations

Conflict of interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no confict of interest.

References

- Allegrini M, Zabaloy MC, del Gómez EV (2015) Ecotoxicological assessment of soil microbial community tolerance to glyphosate. Sci Total Environ 533:60–68. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.06.096) [2015.06.096](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.06.096)
- Allegrini M, del Gomez EV, Zabaloy MC (2017) Repeated glyphosate exposure induces shifts in nitrifying communities and metabolism of phenylpropanoids. Soil Biol Biochem 105:206–215. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2016.11.024) [org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2016.11.024](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2016.11.024)
- Al-Rajab AJ, Schiavon M (2010) Degradation of 14C-glyphosate and aminomethylphosphonic acid (AMPA) in three agricultural soils. J Environ Sci 22:1374–1380. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1001-](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1001-0742(09)60264-3) [0742\(09\)60264-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1001-0742(09)60264-3)
- Amadori MF (2013) Extraction method for the determination of atrazine, deethylatrazine, and deisopropylatrazine in agricultural soil using factorial design. J Braz Chem Soc 24:483–491
- Annett R, Habibi HR, Hontela A (2014) Impact of glyphosate and glyphosate- based herbicides on the freshwater environment. J Appl Toxicol 34(5):458–479
- Arango L, Buddrus-Schiemann K, Opelt K et al (2014) Efects of glyphosate on the bacterial community associated with roots of transgenic roundup ready® soybean. Eur J Soil Biol 63:41–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejsobi.2014.05.005>
- Banks ML, Kennedy AC, Kremer RJ, Eivazi F (2014) Soil microbial community response to surfactants and herbicides in two soils. Appl Soil Ecol 74:12–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2013.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2013.08.018) [08.018](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2013.08.018)
- Bellini MI, Pinelli L, Dos Santos ME, Fernández Scavino A (2014) Bacterial consortia from raw water and sludges from water potabilization plants are able to degrade atrazine. Int Biodeterior Biodegrad 90:131–139
- Bellini MI, Kumaresan D, Tarlera S, Murrell C, Fernández Scavino A (2018) Identifcation of active denitrifers by DNA-stable isotope probing and amplicon sequencing reveals betaproteobacteria as responsible for attenuation of nitrate contamination in a low impacted aquifer. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 94:181–193
- Bonfeur EJ, Tornisielo VL, Regitano JB, Lavorenti A (2015) The effects of glyphosate and atrazine mixture on soil microbial population and subsequent impacts on their fate in a tropical soil. Water Air Soil Pollut Focus 226:21. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-014-2190-8) [s11270-014-2190-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-014-2190-8)
- Boocock MR, Coggins JR (1983) Kinetics of 5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase inhibition by glyphosate. FEBS Lett 154:127–133. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-5793\(83\)80888-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-5793(83)80888-6)
- Bösch Y, Jones CM, Finlay R et al (2022) Minimizing tillage modifes fungal denitrifer communities, increases denitrifcation rates and enhances the genetic potential for fungal, relative to bacterial, denitrifcation. Soil Biol Biochem 170:108718. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2022.108718) [1016/j.soilbio.2022.108718](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2022.108718)
- Camargo E, Zapiola M, Avila L, Garcia M, Plaza G, Gazziero D, Hoyos V (2020) Current situation regarding herbicide regulation and public perception in South America. Weed Sci. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1017/wsc.2020.14) [10.1017/wsc.2020.14](https://doi.org/10.1017/wsc.2020.14)
- Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J et al (2010) QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. Nat Methods 7:335–336.<https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.f.303>
- Chen Y, Zhou W, Li Y et al (2014) Nitrite reductase genes as functional markers to investigate diversity of denitrifying bacteria during agricultural waste composting. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 98:4233–4243.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-014-5514-0>
- Chen H, Mothapo NV, Shi W et al (2015) Soil moisture and pH control relative contributions of fungi and bacteria to N_2O production. Microb Ecol 69:180–191. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-014-0488-0) [s00248-014-0488-0](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-014-0488-0)
- da Barbosa CN, Hébert M-P, Fugère V et al (2022) A glyphosatebased herbicide cross-selects for antibiotic resistance genes in bacterioplankton communities. mSystems 7:e0148221. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1128/msystems.01482-21) doi.org/10.1128/msystems.01482-21
- D'Heane K, Moreels E, De Neve S, Chaves Daguilar B, Boeckx P (2003) Soil properties infuencing the denitrifcation potential of Flemish agricultural soils. Bio Fertil Soils 38:358–366
- Das S, Wang W, Reeves S et al (2022) Non-target impacts of pesticides on soil N transformations, abundances of nitrifying and denitrifying genes, and nitrous oxide emissions. Sci Total Environ 844:157043.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.157043>
- De Farias DIOA, Leite RC, Ribeiro EA et al (2021) Glyphosate and atrazine inhibit growth of *Azospirillum brasilense*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Bacillus thuringiensis*, *Chromobacterium subtsugae* and *Saccharopolyspora spinosa*. Agron Colomb 39:64–71. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.15446/agron.colomb.v39n1.89870) [org/10.15446/agron.colomb.v39n1.89870](https://doi.org/10.15446/agron.colomb.v39n1.89870)
- Dowd SE, Sun Y, Wolcott RD et al (2008) Bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing (bTEFAP) for microbiome studies: bacterial diversity in the ileum of newly weaned *Salmonella* infected pigs. Foodborne Pathog Dis 5:459–472
- Druille M, García-Parisi PA, Golluscio RA et al (2016) Repeated annual glyphosate applications may impair beneficial soil microorganisms in temperate grassland. Agric Ecosyst Environ 230:184–190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2016.06.011>
- Duke SO (2021) Glyphosate: uses other than in glyphosate-resistant crops, mode of action, degradation in plants, and efects on nontarget plants and agricultural microbes. Rev Environ Contam Toxicol 255:1–65. https://doi.org/10.1007/398_2020_53
- Duke SO, Powles SB (2008) Glyphosate: a once-in-a-century herbicide. Pest Manag Sci 64(4):319–325
- Edgar RC (2010) Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST. Bioinformatics 26:2460–2461. [https://doi.org/10.1093/](https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq461) [bioinformatics/btq461](https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq461)
- Ferrando L, Fernández Scavino A (2015) Strong shift in the diazotrophic endophytic bacterial community inhabiting rice (*Oryza sativa*) plants after flooding. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 91:fv104. [https://doi.org/10.1093/femsec/fv104](https://doi.org/10.1093/femsec/fiv104)
- Fish JA, Chai B, Wang Q et al (2013) FunGene: the functional gene pipeline and repository. Front Microbiol 4:291. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2013.00291) [3389/fmicb.2013.00291](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2013.00291)
- Gao Y, Mania D, Mousavi SA et al (2021) Competition for electrons favors N₂O reduction in denitrifying *Bradyrhizobium* isolates. Environ Microbiol 23:2244–2259. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.15404) [2920.15404](https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.15404)
- Ghadiri H, Shea PJ, Wicks GA, Haderlie LC (1984) Atrazine dissipation in conventional-till and no-till sorghum. J Environ Qual 13:549–552. [https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq1984.0047242500](https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq1984.00472425001300040008x) [1300040008x](https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq1984.00472425001300040008x)
- Gimsing AL, Borggaard OK, Jacobsen OS, Aamand J, Sørensen J (2004) Chemical and microbiological soil characteristics controlling glyphosate mineralisation in Danish surface soils. Appl Soil Ecol 27:233–242
- Haney R, Senseman S, Krutz L, Hons F (2002) Soil carbon and nitrogen mineralization as afected by atrazine and glyphosate. Biol Fertil Soils 35:35–40.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-001-0437-1>
- Hardy RWF, Holsten RD, Jackson EK, Burns RC (1968) The acetyleneethylene assay for N_2 fixation: laboratory and field evaluation. Plant Physiol 43:1185–1207
- Henry SE, Baudoi JC, López-Gutierrez F, Martin-Laurent A, Brauman PL (2004) Quantifcation of denitrifying bacteria in soils by *nir*K gene targeted real-time PCR. J Microbiol Meth 59:327–335
- Henry S, Bru D, Stres B, Hallet S, Philippot L (2006) Quantitative detection of the *nos*Z gene, encoding nitrous oxide reductase, and comparison of the abundances of 16SrRNA, *nar*G*, nir*K, and *nos*Z genes in soils. Appl Environ Microb 72:5181–5189
- Hernández M, Jia Z, Conrad R, Seeger M (2011) Simazine application inhibits nitrifcation and changes the ammonia-oxidizing bacterial communities in a fertilized agricultural soil. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 78:511–519. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2011.](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2011.01180.x) [01180.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2011.01180.x)
- Hernández Guijarro K, De Gerónimo E, Erijman L (2021) Glyphosate biodegradation potential in soil based on glycine oxidase gene (thiO) from *Bradyrhizobium*. Curr Microbiol 78:1991–2000. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00284-021-02467-z>
- Hertel R, Schome K, Mittelstat MJ et al (2022) Characterization of glyphosate-resistant *Burkholderia anthina* and *Burkholderia cenocepacia* isolates from a commercial Roundup® solution. Environ Micob Rep 14:70–84. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-2229.](https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-2229.13022) [13022](https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-2229.13022)
- Krutz LJ, Zablotowicz RM, Reddy KN, Koger CH III, Weaver MA (2007) Enhanced degradation of atrazine under feld conditions correlates with a loss of weed control in the glasshouse. Pest Manag Sci 63:23–31
- Kyaw KM, Toyota K (2007) Suppression of nitrous oxide production by the herbicides glyphosate and propanil in soils supplied with organic matter. Soil Sci Plant Nutr 53:441–447
- Lane M, Lorenz N, Saxena J et al (2012) The effect of glyphosate on soil microbial activity, microbial community structure, and soil potassium. Pedobiologia 55:335–342. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedobi.2012.08.001) [pedobi.2012.08.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedobi.2012.08.001)
- Liu Y, Fan X, Zhang T et al (2020) Efects of the long-term application of atrazine on soil enzyme activity and bacterial community structure in farmlands in China. Environ Pollut 262:114264. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114264>
- Lorch M, Agaras B, García-Parisi P et al (2021) Repeated annual application of glyphosate reduces the abundance and alters

the community structure of soil culturable pseudomonads in a temperate grassland. Agric Ecosyst Environ 319:107503. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2021.107503) doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2021.107503

- Madureira Barroso G, dos Santos JB, de Oliveira IT et al (2020) Tolerance of *Bradyrhizobium* sp. BR 3901 to herbicides and their ability to use these pesticides as a nutritional source. Ecol Indic. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2020.106783>
- Mahía J, Cabaneiro A, Carballas T et al (2008) Microbial biomass and C mineralization in agricultural soils as affected by atrazine addition. Biol Fertil Soils. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-008-0318) [s00374-008-0318](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-008-0318)
- Mijangos I, Becerril JM, Albizu I et al (2009) Efects of glyphosate on rhizosphere soil microbial communities under two diferent plant compositions by cultivation-dependent and -independent methodologies. Soil Biol Biochem 41:505–513. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.12.009) [10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.12.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.12.009)
- Moretto JAS, Altarugio LM, Andrade PA et al (2017) Changes in bacterial community after application of three diferent herbicides. FEMS Microbiol Lett.<https://doi.org/10.1093/femsle/fnx113>
- Mothapo N, Chen H, Cubeta MA et al (2013) Phylogenetic, taxonomic and functional diversity of fungal denitrifers and associated N2O production efficacy. Soil Biol Biochem 83:160-175. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.02.001) [org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.02.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.02.001)
- Motta EVS, Raymann K, Moran NA (2018) Glyphosate perturbs the gut microbiota of honey bees. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 115:10305–10310. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1803880115>
- Mueller TC, Parker ET, Steckel L et al (2017) Enhanced atrazine degradation is widespread across the United States. Pest Manag Sci 73:1953–1961.<https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.4566>
- Muskus AM, Krauss M, Miltner A et al (2019) Efect of temperature, pH and total organic carbon variations on microbial turnover of 13C315N-glyphosate in agricultural soil. Sci Total Environ 658:697–707. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.12.195>
- Ngigi A, Dörfer U, Scherb H et al (2011) Efect of fuctuating soil humidity on in situ bioavailability and degradation of atrazine. Chemosphere 84:369–375. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.03.068) [2011.03.068](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.03.068)
- Nguyen DB, Rose MT, Rose TJ et al (2016) Impact of glyphosate on soil microbial biomass and respiration: a meta-analysis. Soil Biol Biochem 92:50–57
- Nödler K, Licha T, Voutsa D (2013) Twenty years later – atrazine concentrations in selected coastal waters of the Mediterranean and the Baltic Sea. Mar Pollut Bull. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpo](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2013.02.018) [lbul.2013.02.018](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2013.02.018)
- Poly F, Monrozier LJ, Bally R (2001) Improvement in the RFLP procedure for studying the diversity of *nif*H genes in communities of nitrogen fxers in soil. Res Microbiol 152:95–103
- Shapleigh JP (2013) The prokaryotes: prokaryotic physiology and biochemistry. In: Rosenberg E, Delong EF, Lory S, Stackebrandt E, Thompson F (eds) The prokaryotes. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, pp 405–425
- Silva V, Montanarella L, Jones A et al (2018) Distribution of glyphosate and aminomethylphosphonic acid (AMPA) in agricultural topsoils of the European Union. Sci Total Environ 621:1352–1359. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.093) doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.093
- Singh S, Kumar V, Chauhan A et al (2018) Toxicity, degradation and analysis of the herbicide atrazine. Environ Chem Lett 16:211–237. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-017-0665-8>
- Sviridov AV, Shushkova TV, Ermakova IT et al (2015) Microbial degradation of glyphosate herbicides (review). Appl Biochem Microbiol 51:188–195. [https://doi.org/10.1134/S000368381](https://doi.org/10.1134/S0003683815020209) [5020209](https://doi.org/10.1134/S0003683815020209)
- Throbäck IN, Enwall K, Javis A, Hallin S (2004) Reassessing PCR primers targeting *nir*S, *nir*K, and *nos*Z genes for community surveys of denitrifying bacteria with DGGE. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 49:401–417
- Van Bruggen AHC, He MM, Shin K et al (2018) Environmental and health effects of the herbicide glyphosate. Sci Total Environ 616–617:255–268.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.309>
- Van Stempvoort DR, Roy JW, Brown SJ, Bickerton G (2014) Residues of the herbicide glyphosate in riparian groundwater in urban catchments. Chemosphere 95:455–463
- Vercellino M, Gómez MA (2013) Denitrifying capacity of rhizobial strains of Argentine soils and herbicide sensitivity. Ann Microbiol 63:1563–1570. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13213-013-0619-8>
- Weaver MA, Krutz LJ, Zablotowicz RM, Reddy KN (2007) Efects of glyphosate on soil microbial communities and its mineralization in a Mississippi soil. Pest Manag Sci 63:388–393. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.1351) [10.1002/ps.1351](https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.1351)
- Wei W, Isobe K, Shiratori Y et al (2014) N2O emission from cropland feld soil through fungal denitrifcation after surface applications of organic fertilizer. Soil Biol Biochem 69:157–167. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.10.044) [org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.10.044](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.10.044)
- Yang X, Wang F, Bento CPM, Meng L et al (2015) Decay characteristics and erosion-related transport of glyphosate in Chinese loess soil under feld conditions. Sci Total Environ. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.05.082>
- Yang F, Gao M, Lu H et al (2021) Efects of atrazine on chernozem microbial communities evaluated by traditional detection and modern sequencing technology. Microorganisms. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms9091832) [10.3390/microorganisms9091832](https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms9091832)
- Yoshinari T, Hynes R, Knowles R (1977) Acetylene inhibition of nitrous oxide reduction and measurement of denitrifcation and nitrogen fxation in soil. Soil Biol Biochem 9:177–183
- Zabaloy MC, Gómez E, Garland JL, Gómez MA (2012) Assessment of microbial community function and structure in soil microcosms exposed to glyphosate. Appl Soil Ecol 61:333–339. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2011.12.004) [org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2011.12.004](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2011.12.004)
- Zabaloy MC, Allegrini M, Tebbe DA et al (2017) Nitrifying bacteria and archaea withstanding glyphosate in fertilized soil microcosms. Appl Soil Ecol 117–118:88–95. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2017.04.012) [2017.04.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2017.04.012)
- Zhang M, Wang W, Tang L et al (2018) Effects of nitrification inhibitor and herbicides on nitrification, nitrite and nitrate consumptions and nitrous oxide emission in an Australian sugarcane soil. Biol Fertil Soils 54:697–706. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-018-1293-6) [1007/s00374-018-1293-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-018-1293-6)
- Zhao Q, Huang M, Yin J et al (2022) Atrazine exposure and recovery alter the intestinal structure, bacterial composition and intestinal metabolites of male *Pelophylax nigromaculatus*. Sci Total Environ 818:151701.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.151701>
- Zhong L, Qing J, Liu M, Cai X et al (2022) Fungi and archaea control soil N₂O production potential in Chinese grasslands rather than Bacteria. Front Microb. [https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.844663) [844663](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.844663)
- Zobiole LHS, Oliveira RS, Kremer RJ et al (2010) Efect of glyphosate on symbiotic N2 fxation and nickel concentration in glyphosateresistant soybeans. Appl Soil Ecol 44:176–180. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2009.12.003) [1016/j.apsoil.2009.12.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2009.12.003)

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.