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1	Interaction between glyphosate and dissolved phosphorus on bacterial and eukaryotic
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5	Louis Carles ^a * and Joan Artigas ^a
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7	^a Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS, Laboratoire Microorganismes : Génome et
8	Environnement (LMGE), F-63000 Clermont–Ferrand, France
9	
10	* Corresponding author:
11	Dr. Louis Carles
12	Now at: Department of Environmental Toxicology (Utox), Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic
13	Science and Technology (Eawag), Dübendorf, Switzerland.
14	Überlandstrasse 133
15	8600 Dübendorf
16	Switzerland
17	E-mail address: louis.carles@eawag.ch
18	Tel: +41 58 765 54 49
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26 Abstract

27 Since the capacity of river biofilms to degrade glyphosate has been proven to increase when 28 the availability of dissolved phosphorus (P) in water decreases, the present study investigates 29 the diversity responses of bacterial and eukaryotic microbial communities from biofilms in a 30 search for glyphosate-degrader candidates. Glyphosate and P interactions were observed for 31 eukaryotic communities, the highest community richness and diversity being preserved at low concentrations of glyphosate and P. This trend marked by glyphosate was also observed in the 32 33 structure of eukaryotic communities. Therefore, phosphorus and glyphosate had a synergistic 34 effect in decreasing the richness and diversity of eukaryotes species in biofilms. However, 35 species richness and diversity in bacterial communities were not affected by glyphosate, 36 though shifts in the structure of these communities were concomitant with the degradation of 37 the herbicide. Bacterial communities capable of using glyphosate as P source were 38 characterized by increases in the relative abundance of certain Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi, 39 Cyanobacteria, Planctomycetes and alpha-Proteobacteria members. Glyphosate-degrader 40 candidates found in natural river biofilms can be further isolated for better understanding of 41 glyphosate degradation pathways, and used as bioremediation strategies in heavily 42 contaminated sites.

43

44 Keywords

45 AMPA; alpha-Proteobacteria; Cyanobacteria; mineralization; soluble reactive phosphorus;
46 microcosm.

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52 **1 Introduction**

Since the middle of the twentieth century, anthropic activities continuously introduce a huge 53 54 diversity of xenobiotic compounds into the environment. The Intergovernmental Science-55 Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES, 2018) report a continuous 56 strong decline in biodiversity in Europe and Central Asia, partly explained by intensive 57 agriculture and forestry practices used to increase the provision of food and biomass-based 58 fuels. The interaction between anthropic activities and climate change places rivers as among 59 the most threatened ecosystems in the biosphere both in terms of species extinction and losses 60 in ecosystem services. While the vulnerability of animal and plant biodiversity to global 61 change has been demonstrated in freshwater ecosystems (e. g. Strayer and Dudgeon (2010)), 62 the response of microbial biodiversity to these impacts is often neglected.

63 Glyphosate (N-(phosphonomethyl) glycine) is a systemic herbicide inhibiting aromatic 64 amino acid biosynthesis in plants. Since first introduced in the early 70's, and as a result of its 65 high weed prevention efficiency, glyphosate use has increased rapidly (Duke, 2015). This 66 herbicide has become the most frequently used active substance in most countries worldwide (Benbrook, 2016), as well as in France (AGRESTE, 2018). Consequently, glyphosate and its 67 68 main primary metabolite AMPA (aminomethyl phosphonic acid) have become among the 69 compounds most frequently quantified in river waters (43% and 63% quantification frequency 70 in France from 2012 to 2016, respectively) (NAIADES, 2018). Glyphosate use is authorised 71 in Europe (included in Annex I to Directive 91/414/EEC on 2002/07/01 by Commission 72 Directive 2001/99/EC) and 192 glyphosate-based formulations are currently approved in 73 France (E-Phy, 2018). However, the broad contamination of the environment by glyphosate 74 has recently prompted the authorities to question the extension of its authorisation, by taking into account its potential harmful side effect to human and ecosystems health (Davoren and
Schiestl, 2018; Van Bruggen et al., 2018).

77 Once in rivers, glyphosate can interact with microbial biofilms which have a certain 78 sensitivity to this herbicide. Biofilms are natural consortia of microorganisms composed of 79 bacteria, algae, fungi and protozoa embedded in an extracellular matrix protecting them 80 against environmental stressors such as nutrient starvation and pollutants (Besemer, 2015). Bonnineau et al. (2012) showed a stronger decrease in photosynthetic efficiency in shade-81 adapted biofilms (half maximal effective concentration $EC_{50} = 11.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) than in high-82 light adapted biofilms (EC₅₀ = 35.6 mg L^{-1}) exposed to glyphosate. Accordingly, light history 83 84 can influence the structure and composition of phototrophic populations in biofilms, and thus 85 modulate their photosynthetic response to the herbicide. Other studies also revealed a negative impact of glyphosate in terms of phototrophic community growth when exposed to 10 μ g L⁻¹ 86 87 of glyphosate (Bricheux et al., 2013) and significant decreases in biomass, primary production and heterotroph community respiration when exposed to 2.5 g L⁻¹ of glyphosate (Shaw and 88 89 Mibbayad, 2016). Within phototrophic communities, diatoms appear as the most sensitive 90 group to the herbicide, while cyanobacteria and chlorophyte are the least sensitive (Vera et al., 2010). However, exposure of river biofilms to low concentrations of glyphosate (<100 μ g L⁻¹) 91 92 did not significantly affect algal and bacterial growth (Carles et al., 2019) and even slightly 93 increased their biomass production (Klátvik et al., 2017). A recent study has provided 94 evidence of the involvement of glyphosate in phosphorus (P) recycling by riverine biofilms (Carles et al., 2019). Phosphorus-starved biofilms are capable of mineralising glyphosate and 95 96 therefore use the P contained in the herbicide molecule (C₃H₈NO₅P) for metabolism. 97 However, P enriched biofilms tended to transform glyphosate into AMPA (CH₆NO₃P) the 98 latter accumulating in the media, as well as in biofilm (Fernandes et al., 2019), thus 99 contributing to P eutrophication of river waters.

100 Herbicide tolerance can use either low cell permeability or the occurrence of detoxifying 101 enzymes or degradative pathways. Research addressing glyphosate tolerance has been mostly 102 focused on microbial populations rather than on multi-species biofilms. At the population 103 level, contrasted responses to glyphosate were obtained depending on the isolated strain. The 104 herbicide tends to favour the biofilm formation of Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Lima et al., 105 2014) while no significant effect was observed on the biofilm formation of Clavibacter 106 michiganensis ssp. sepedonicus (Perfileva et al., 2018). Glyphosate tolerance has been 107 explained in Escherichia coli by the overexpression of a membrane transporter involved in 108 drug efflux, which reduces intracellular accumulation of the herbicide (Staub et al., 2012). 109 Bacteria could also overcome some of the harmful effects of glyphosate by increasing the 110 production of molecules that scavenge free radicals (Liu et al., 2013). A strong tolerance of 111 several cyanobacterial strains has also been pointed out in cyanobacterial strains possessing 112 an insensitive form of the glyphosate target EPSPS (5-enol-pyruvyl-shikimate-3-phosphate 113 synthase (Forlani et al., 2008)). Finally, the biodegradation of glyphosate by bacterial strains 114 also highlights the capacity of microorganisms to use this herbicide for their growth. The 115 relationships between glyphosate biodegradation is well described for soil and sludge 116 al., microorganisms (Sviridov et 2015). Among various glyphosate-degrading 117 microorganisms, bacteria play the most pivotal role, and the processes of glyphosate 118 biodegradation have therefore been well studied (Zhan et al., 2018). Most of the glyphosate-119 degrading strains described so far use the herbicide as a source of phosphorus, which implies 120 that they possess enzymes cleaving the C-P bond. Two main pathways for enzymatic 121 biodegradation of glyphosate have therefore been found in bacteria: direct cleavage of the C-122 P bond, yielding sarcosine and inorganic phosphorus (sarcosine pathway), and cleavage of the 123 C-N bond, yielding glyoxylate and AMPA (AMPA pathway) (Sviridov et al., 2015). 124 Microorganisms that use glyphosate as a phosphorus source via the sarcosine pathway possess

125 the enzymatic CP-lyase complex (Hove-Jensen et al., 2014). The genes encoding the 126 corresponding enzymes are assembled into the *phn* operon, which is widespread among 127 bacterial species such as Achromobacter sp. MPS 12A (Sviridov et al., 2012) and 128 Arthrobacter sp. GLP-1 (Pipke et al., 1987). In the other main glyphosate biodegradation 129 pathway (AMPA pathway), the herbicide molecule is first attacked by the enzyme glyphosate 130 oxidoreductase (GOR), which cleaves the C-N bond in the glyphosate molecule, leading to 131 stoichiometric quantities of AMPA and glyoxylate (Sviridov et al., 2015). In most glyphosate-132 degrading bacteria, glyoxylate enters the glyoxylate bypass of the Krebs cycle, while AMPA 133 is exported into the extracellular space. This pathway has been extensively studied in 134 Ochrobactrum anthropi GPK 3 (Sviridov et al., 2012), and was also described in several other 135 bacteria such as Pseudomonas sp. SG-1 (Talbot et al., 1984) and Agrobacterium radiobacter 136 SW9 (Mcauliffe et al., 1990).

Specific microbial populations involved in glyphosate degradation in natural river 137 138 biofilms are largely unknown. Therefore, the present study sought to determine the interaction 139 effect of glyphosate and dissolved phosphorus on the structure and composition of bacterial 140 and eukaryotic communities in biofilms and identify taxa potentially involved in glyphosate 141 degradation. Mi-seq Illumina sequencing analyses have been performed on biofilm samples 142 collected from the previous study by Carles et al. (2019). This work studied contrasted 143 biofilms from an upstream site (not exposed to glyphosate) and a downstream site 144 (chronically exposed to glyphosate) exposed to different phosphorus (low_P versus high_P) 145 and glyphosate (low_G versus high_G) concentrations in water. Taxonomic groups in 146 biofilms linked to glyphosate biodegradation have been described and compared to the known 147 glyphosate-degrading microorganisms present in the literature. Our main hypotheses were: i) 148 the structure and composition of microbial communities in biofilms, and especially that of 149 algal populations, will be modified with increased glyphosate concentrations in water; and ii) low dissolved phosphorus availability would favour the development of glyphosate-degrading
taxa in biofilms, while high dissolved phosphorus availability would eventually favour the
proliferation of taxa capable of transforming the glyphosate into AMPA.

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154 **2** Materials and Methods

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156 2.1 Experimental design

157 A microcosm study was conducted in the laboratory with natural biofilms grown in the field 158 at the end of spring 2017, as described by Carles et al. (2019). Briefly, biofilms grown on 159 glass slides at an upstream site (Ups) and a downstream site (Dws) of the Artière River (Puy-160 de-Dôme region, France) were placed in 24 microcosms consisting of 20 L glass aquariums. 161 Half of the aquaria received Ups biofilms, while the other half received Dws biofilms. After 162 two weeks of biofilms' acclimation to microcosms in their corresponding river water, each 163 type of biofilm (Ups and Dws) was subjected to the four experimental conditions in triplicate depending on the water phosphorus concentration (LowP = 100 μ g P L⁻¹ and HighP = 1000 164 μ g P L⁻¹ and glyphosate concentration (LowG = 10 μ g L⁻¹ and HighG = 100 μ g L⁻¹). Briefly, 165 166 water from the upstream site of the Artière (low dissolved phosphorus concentration and 167 absence of glyphosate; (Rossi et al., 2019)) was used to fill all microcosms which were later contaminated by phosphorus (K₂HPO₄, ACS reagent) and glyphosate (PESTANAL[®], 168 169 analytical standard) depending on the experimental conditions described above. These 170 experimental conditions correspond to 1x and 10x the mean of actual concentration of 171 glyphosate in surface waters from France. The experimental conditions in our microcosm 172 experiment were therefore chosen to assess realistic environmental contamination conditions. 173 Neither photolysis nor adsorption of glyphosate in the microcosms were observed during the experiment (Carles et al., 2019). Water and biofilm analyses were carried out at days 0, 2, 4, 174

175 6, 13, and 27 post-contamination. One glass slide (28×83 mm) was removed from each 176 aquarium at each sampling time and scraped in sterile conditions. Scraped biofilms were 177 conserved frozen (- 20 °C) until DNA analysis. Dissolved nitrate and phosphorus 178 concentrations in water from aquariums were maintained throughout the experiment by 179 adding adequate salt solution volumes of 1 M KNO₃ and 1 M K₂HPO₄ respectively. Further 180 details of physico-chemical and microbial parameters measured in this experiment can be 181 found in Carles et al. (2019).

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183 2.2 Nucleic acids extraction and sequencing

Nucleic acid extraction was carried out on selected dates (depending on glyphosate biodegradation results from Carles et al. (2019)): days 0, 6, 13 and 27. Total DNA extraction was performed from 1 mL of scraped biofilm suspension using the FastDNATM Spin Kit for soil (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's recommendation. Quantification and quality checking of extracted DNA was carried out using a Nanodrop (260/230 and 260/280 ratios; NanodropTM 2000, Wilmington, DE, U.S.A.) and electrophoresis on 1% agarose gel.

191 Further sample processing and sequencing was performed by the University of Illinois 192 Keck Center (Urbana, USA). Briefly, sequencing (MiSeq bulk 2 x 250 bp, 10M-20M paired 193 reads on Illumina MiSeq platform) yielded a total of 4,117,394 reads (Eukaryotes) and 194 13,244,386 reads (Prokaryotes). Specific primers used for PCR were Euk_1391f (5'-195 GTACACACCGCCCGTC) / EukBr (5'-TGATCCTTCTGCAGGTTCACCTAC) for 196 Eukaryotes (Gilbert et al., 2014) and V4_515F_New (5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) / 197 V4 806R New (5'-GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT) for Prokaryotes (Caporaso et al., 198 2011). Sample inference from amplicon data was carried out using DADA2 pipeline (Version 199 1.8, https://bioconductor.org/biocLite.R). The DADA2 pipeline (Callahan et al., 2016) 200 consists of amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) inference, replacing the coarser and less 201 accurate OTU clustering approach (Callahan et al., 2017). ASV methods have demonstrated 202 sensitivity and specificity as good as or better than OTU methods and better discriminate 203 ecological patterns (Amir et al., 2017; Callahan et al., 2016; Edgar, 2016; Eren et al., 2015, 204 2013; Tikhonov et al., 2015). Sequence variants and their sample-wise abundances were 205 generated from the demultiplexed fastq files after removing substitution and chimera errors. 206 Taxonomic classification was carried out via a native implementation of the RDP naive 207 Bayesian classifier, and species-level assignment to 16S rRNA gene fragments by exact 208 matching. The corresponding sequence files were deposited in NCBI's Sequence Read 209 Archive (SRA BioProject ID, PRJNA596462).

210

211 2.3 Data analyses

212 Data analyses were performed using RStudio (Version 1.1.456) implemented with the 213 Phyloseq package (version 1.24.0). After rarefaction, bacterial and eukaryotic datasets were 214 composed of samples containing the same number of reads (41085 and 11315 reads, 215 respectively). Rarefaction curves were plotted using the ggplot2 package (version 3.0.0) from 216 community analyses made with the vegan package (version 2.5-2). Shannon index and Chao1 217 species richness were determined with Phyloseq package. PERMANOVA tests were carried 218 out on the weighted unifrac distances matrix of bacterial and eukaryotic communities using 219 the R package "vegan". After testing homogeneity in bacterial and eukaryotic datasets 220 dispersion, the adonis function was used to test the null hypothesis to see if experimental 221 treatments shared similar centroids.

The correlation between each ASV abundance and the glyphosate or AMPA concentration at each sampling time (days 0, 6, 13, and 27) has been established for bacteria and Eukaryotes using the Spearman's rank correlation test. Then, the 10 highest negatively correlated ASVs with glyphosate concentration (r < -0.69) were included in 16S and 18S phylogenetic analyses, in comparison to the sequences of known isolated glyphosate-degrading strains (or closest sequences retrieved from the GenBank database). The phylogenetic analysis was carried out by multiple alignments (Clustal Ω) followed by the construction of phylogenetic trees using MEGA X software (Kumar et al., 2018).

230 Analyses of variance were carried out using RStudio (Version 1.1.456). The fixed factors 231 (modalities) were as follow: Site (Ups, Low P-content and Dws, High P-content); Glyphosate 232 in water (LowG and HighG concentration); dissolved P availability in water (LowP and 233 HighP water); Time (6, 13 and 27 days). The influence of these factors was tested on various 234 dependent variables linked to diversity indexes (Chao1 and H') and shifts in microbial 235 community structure (mean rate of change) were assessed using three/four-way ANOVA 236 followed by separate post hoc comparisons (Tukey's test, P < 0.05). The four-way ANOVA 237 includes the factors described above and Time (6, 13 and 27 days). The normality and 238 homogeneity of variance were checked prior to ANOVA tests (Shapiro's and Levene's tests, 239 respectively, P < 0.05) and data not normally distributed were transformed using logarithmic, 240 square, square root or Box-Cox functions.

241

- 242 **3 Results and Discussion**
- 243

244 3.1 Glyphosate and/or Phosphorus effect on communities structure

245 3.1.1 Initial community structure and composition of biofilms

The total number of ASVs identified by 16S and 18S rRNA genes sequencing was 41085 and 11315, for Bacteria and Eukaryotes respectively. Each microbial community was well covered by the sequencing, as attested by the inflections in the rarefaction plots of the different biofilm samples (Figure S1). At the beginning of the experiment, a total of 29 and 22 bacterial phyla were detected in upstream and downstream biofilms respectively (Figure 1A and S2A). Unclassified sequences represented less than 0.3% of the total number of ASVs in both biofilm types. Globally, the bacterial communities were dominated by 3 phyla, representing 83.8% of the total number of ASVs, including Proteobacteria (59.4%), Cyanobacteria (16.3%) and Bacteroidetes (8.1%) (Figure 1A). These three phyla are generally dominant in stream biofilms (Battin et al., 2016), Proteobacteria often being the most common (Liao et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2018).

257 However, some differences were observed depending on the site on which the biofilm was 258 grown. Indeed, the environmental template between upstream and downstream sites was 259 consistently different; the downstream site presented higher concentrations than the upstream site in terms of dissolved inorganic phosphorus (0.32 and 0.03 mg P L^{-1} , respectively), 260 organic carbon (12.97 and 6.50 mg DOC L^{-1} respectively), glyphosate (0.25 and 0 µg L^{-1} 261 respectively) and AMPA (1.08 and 0.09 μ g L⁻¹ respectively) (see Rossi et al. 2019). A total of 262 263 21 phyla were common to both sites, with 8 phyla specific to upstream and 1 phyla specific to 264 downstream. Moreover, Cyanobacteria were more frequent in downstream (25.9%) than 265 upstream biofilms, likely due to the higher phosphorus concentration in the downstream site 266 compared to the upstream one. Cyanobacteria are also able to tolerate glyphosate, which has 267 higher concentrations downstream than upstream. This tolerance has been explained by the 268 presence of a resistant form of EPSPS in cyanobacteria and the ability of some strains to 269 metabolize glyphosate (Arunakumara et al., 2013; Drzyzga and Lipok, 2018; Forlani et al., 270 2008). Inversely, Bacteroidetes was less common in downstream (4.2%) than upstream (12%) 271 biofilms. It has already been demonstrated that members of the Phyla Bacteroidetes are 272 sensitive to glyphosate, as in the case of human (Dechartres et al., 2019) and honey bees 273 (Motta et al., 2018) gut microbiota.

274 For the eukaryotic communities at day 0, a total of 21 and 18 phyla were detected in 275 upstream and downstream biofilms respectively (Figure 1B and S2B). Unclassified sequences 276 accounted for 40.7% (upstream) and 24.4% (downstream) of the total number of ASVs. 277 Globally, eukaryotic communities were dominated by 4 phyla, accounting for 58.1% of the 278 total number of ASVs (Figure 1B). These phyla were Ochrophyta (23.5%), Chlorophyta 279 (13.7%), Ciliophora (10.5%) and Annelida (10.4%). A total of 14 phyla common to both 280 biofilm types were detected, while 6 phyla were only detected in the upstream biofilm and 4 281 in the downstream one. For example, Ciliophora was one of the dominant phyla in the 282 upstream biofilm (20.3%), whereas it was almost absent from the downstream one (0.6%). 283 Different sensitivity levels of Ciliates with respect to glyphosate have been reported in the 284 literature (Bonnet et al., 2007; Everett and Dickerson, 2003; Tsui and Chu, 2003), indicating 285 that, in the present study, the presence of glyphosate by itself cannot explain the variation of 286 Ciliophora abundance between upstream and downstream biofilms.

287 Conversely, Annelida and Chlorophyta were well represented in the downstream site 288 (20.8% and 26.5%, respectively), while they absent or only accounted for 0.8% in the 289 upstream site respectively. Both phyla are known to tolerate eutrophic conditions quite well, 290 which is consistent with the higher nutrient and organic carbon concentrations found in the 291 downstream site compared to the upstream site (Rossi et al. 2019). Moreover, these phyla 292 seem to be insensitive to glyphosate. The few studies available in the literature exposed 293 organisms to unrealistic (excessively high) glyphosate concentrations. For example, a study 294 showed some adverse effects on two species of Annelids at concentrations that greatly exceed 295 the recommended field application rate of glyphosate (García-Torres et al., 2014). Besides, high concentrations of glyphosate (order of mg L^{-1}) decreased the abundance of Chlorophytes 296 297 in the periphyton (Gonzalez et al., 2019).

Differences between downstream and upstream eukaryotic communities can be explained by xenobiotics pressure, as well as other chemical stressors, such as increased availability of dissolved carbon and nutrients (Van Horn et al., 2011) which support the "paradox of enrichment" phenomenon in aquatic microbial communities (*e. g.* Tubay et al. (2013)).

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303 3.1.2 Responses of richness and diversity in microbial communities

304 At the beginning of the experiment, Ups biofilms showed higher bacterial and eukaryotic 305 species richness (Tukey, P < 0.05) and diversity (Tukey, P < 0.05) compared to the Dws ones, 306 and this site effect was maintained for Eukaryotes after 6 days of incubation (Table 1 and 307 Figure S3, P < 0.05). Moreover, a decrease in eukaryotic species richness (P < 0.05) and diversity (P < 0.05) was observed over time, as well as for bacteria, in Dws communities 308 309 (time \times site interaction, P < 0.01). Low species richness and diversity in downstream 310 communities can be explained by xenobiotics and nutrients pressure (Van Horn et al., 2011). 311 However, downstream communities that are expected to be more acclimated to glyphosate are 312 those that experience the greatest decrease in eukaryotes richness and diversity after exposure 313 to glyphosate (Table 1).

314 Dissolved phosphorus treatments were not essentially affecting microbial diversity indices 315 in biofilms (Table 1 and Figure S3C, P > 0.05), with the exception of eukaryotic communities, that slightly decreased their species richness under HighP water on certain 316 317 sampling dates (days 6 and 13) compared to day 0 (Time x Pwater interaction, P < 0.01). 318 However, the structure of both bacteria and Eukaryotic communities responded to dissolved phosphorus treatments at the beginning of the experiment (day 6) compared to later sampling 319 320 dates (Figure S4; PERMANOVA, Time x Pwater interaction, P < 0.05 and 0.01, 321 respectively).

322 A higher eukaryotic species richness (P < 0.001) and diversity (P < 0.001) has been 323 observed after 6, 13 and 27 days for LowG compared to HighG conditions (Table 1 and 324 Figure S3, P < 0.05). This trend marked by the glyphosate was also observed in the structure of eukaryotic communities (Figure S4, PERMANOVA Gwater effect, P < 0.01, Table S1). 325 326 Interactions between Pwater and Gwater were observed for Eukaryotic species richness (P <327 0.05), diversity (P < 0.01) but not for the structure of this community (PERMANOVA Pwater 328 x Gwater interaction, P = 0.059, Table S1). The highest diversity was observed in lowP lowG 329 treatments for both upstream and downstream communities. According to our results, the 330 interaction (lowP_lowG) was significant for eukaryotic communities. We could conclude that 331 P and glyphosate had a synergistic effect in decreasing eukaryotes species richness and 332 diversity in biofilms. No conclusions can be drawn for prokaryotes.

333 Neither the species richness nor the diversity of bacterial communities were affected by 334 the two glyphosate concentrations tested (P = 0.812 and P = 0.712, respectively). 335 PERMANOVA tests revealed also that glyphosate did not significantly modify bacterial 336 communities structure (Gwater effect, P = 0.054; Figure S4 and Table S1). The decrease of 337 richness and diversity in the presence of high concentration of glyphosate was only observed 338 for Eukaryotic communities, which are potentially targeted by the herbicide. Indeed, The 339 physiological and biochemical similarities between algae and terrestrial plants suggest that 340 algae would be particularly vulnerable to glyphosate (Annett et al., 2014). Moreover, this 341 impact in HighG water could explain the higher impact in HighP water, in which glyphosate 342 effects are more consistent on days 13 and 27 in Eukaryotic communities.

On the basis of these results, it could be supposed that the most promising area to find glyphosate-degrading strains could be within the bacterial community. Bacterial richness and diversity were weakly modified, so more tolerant to glyphosate, than the Eukaryotic ones. The most promising communities are certainly those exposed to LowP and LowG water. There are two main reasons according to Carles et al. (2019): (i) glyphosate degradation is accelerated
when dissolved phosphorus availability in water is low, and (ii) glyphosate is completely
removed, without accumulation of AMPA, in this condition.

350 3.1.3 Shifts in microbial communities structure

351 Unifrac coordinates were used to calculate the mean rate of change in the structure of the 352 microbial community in experimental conditions over the duration of the experiment (Figure 353 S5). Overall, the rate of change in bacterial communities was much slower than that observed 354 for the eukaryotic ones. Eukaryotic community structure of biofilms in LowP water changed 355 faster than the HighP one (P < 0.01). Moreover, the microbial community structure was 356 modified more quickly for biofilms exposed to LowG compared to HighG (Figure S4, P <357 0.05 (Bacteria), P < 0.01 (Eukaryotes)). The interaction between dissolved phosphorus and 358 glyphosate (P < 0.05 (Bacteria), P < 0.001 (Eukaryotes) revealed that both type of biofilms 359 (Ups and Dws) undergo the highest rate of change when exposed to LowP and LowG (Figure 360 S5).

361 The lower concentration of glyphosate in water induces the fastest shifts in the microbial 362 community structure. The plasticity of the microbial community structure seems to be higher 363 in the case of low doses of pollutant. Despite the relatively high EC_{50} of glyphosate (11.7 – 35.6 mg L^{-1} found by Bonnineau et al. (2012) with regard to the photosynthetic efficiency of 364 365 biofilm, a negative impact of glyphosate on phototrophic community growth has been observed for biofilms exposed to 10 μ g L⁻¹ of glyphosate (Bricheux et al., 2013). The results 366 367 of our study probably reflect an exposure to a sub-lethal dose enabling for better tolerance to 368 glyphosate. The response was more marked on eukaryotes, which most likely possess the 369 class I of EPSPS, the sensitive form of EPSPS towards glyphosate (Annett et al., 2014). There 370 is also a strong effect of phosphorus, indicating that a higher trophic state can lower the 371 adaptation of microbial communities or override the effect of glyphosate.

372 In that sense, we confirm our focus on the LowP_LowG condition showing the fastest 373 adaptation capacity in the search for glyphosate degraders. Moreover, it was also shown that 374 the fastest glyphosate dissipation (lowest dissipation times 50%, DT_{50} s) was obtained with 375 biofilms in LowP_LowG microcosms (Carles et al., 2019).

376

377 3.2 Glyphosate-degrading microorganisms in biofilms

As mentioned above, we further analysed microbial diversity in the most efficient condition for glyphosate degradation without AMPA accumulation (LowP_LowG) taking into account ASVs abundance data from days 6, 13, and 27.

381 3.2.1 Relationships between ASVs and glyphosate and AMPA

382 The correlation between each ASV abundance and glyphosate concentration over time has 383 been plotted against the correlation between this ASV abundance and AMPA concentration (Spearman's rank correlation). Then, an additional correlation test revealed a positive linear 384 385 relationship between ASVs abundance correlations with glyphosate and AMPA (Figure 2), as 386 attested by the values of the Spearman's rank correlation test (Eukaryotes, $\rho = 0.809$, P < 0.8090.001; bacteria, $\rho = 0.832$, P < 0.001). These results highlight a linear distribution of 387 388 microorganisms from those characterized by high ASVs abundance in the presence of high 389 concentrations of glyphosate and AMPA (positive Spearman's correlation) to the ones that 390 correspond to high ASVs abundance in the presence of low concentrations of glyphosate and 391 AMPA (negative Spearman's correlation). The last were selected to search for potential 392 glyphosate degradation candidates since they were present at high abundances until the 393 complete depletion of glyphosate and AMPA molecules in the microcosms.

394

395 3.2.2 Taxonomic repartition of the correlation between ASVs abundance and glyphosate

396 3.2.2.1 Eukaryotes

397 The repartition of the correlations between ASVs abundance depends on the Phylum 398 (Figure S6). Some of the most abundant phyla, such as Chlorophyta and Ochrophyta, present 399 a large variation in terms of the correlation between the abundance of their ASVs and the 400 concentration of glyphosate in the water. Only three Phyla (Chlorophyta, Cryptomycota and 401 Ochrophyta) contain ASVs abundance that are highly negatively correlated with glyphosate (-402 0.84 < Spearman's rank coefficient < -0.69). Seven of the 10 highest negatively correlated 403 ASVs belong to the Chlorophyta phylum. The abundance of Chlorophyta has been seen to 404 increase and those of Bacilliarophyaceae (diatoms) to decrease in periphytic biofilms treated with the glyphosate formulation Roundup[®] (Vera et al., 2010). 405

406 Eukaryotic microorganisms described so far for their glyphosate-degrading activity mostly 407 belong to the Ascomycota Phylum (Zhan et al., 2018). However, none of the ASVs belonging 408 to the Ascomycota phylum were found in the top ten ASVs negatively correlated with 409 glyphosate (Figure S7). The present study does not suggest a potential role for Ascomycota 410 members in glyphosate degradation since their ASVs abundances were not strongly 411 negatively correlated with glyphosate. One possible explanation is that Ascomycota are 412 weakly represented in the periphyton since they prefer carbon-rich substrates, such as leaf 413 litter or wood, for growth (Voříšková and Baldrian, 2013). Despite the fact that most 414 Ascomycota members able to degrade glyphosate use this herbicide as a phosphorus source, 415 as in the case of the biofilms in this study, AMPA did not accumulate in the media in the 416 LowP LowG condition. The degradation of glyphosate by Ascomycota described in the 417 literature, which seems to be mainly dominated by the production of AMPA (Zhan et al., 418 2018), should therefore not be predominant within biofilms.

420 *3.2.2.2 Bacteria*

421 Similarly to the Eukaryotic community, the repartition of the correlation between bacterial
422 ASVs abundance depends on the Phylum (Figure S8). Five of the most abundant phyla
423 (Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi, Cyanobacteria, Planctomycetes and Proteobacteria) contain
424 ASVs abundance that are highly negatively correlated with glyphosate (Spearman's rank
425 coefficient < -0.71).

All glyphosate-degrading microorganisms isolated so far come from various environments such as rhizosphere, activated-sludge and glyphosate contaminated soils (Sviridov et al., 2015), while none has been isolated from river biofilms. Interestingly, the present study reveals some ASVs potentially linked to glyphosate biodegradation by river biofilms. Some of them are close to strains able to degrade glyphosate, in terms of 16S phylogeny (Figure 3).

431 For example, one Bacteroidetes member isolated from activated sludge (a Flavobacterium 432 strain) is able to use glyphosate as a sole phosphorus source (Balthazor and Hallas, 1986). 433 Alpha-proteobacteria also contains several glyphosate-degrading strains, including the well-434 studied strain Ochrobactrum anthropi GDOS (Hadi et al., 2013). This strain has been isolated 435 from a glyphosate-contaminated soil and is able to use glyphosate as a phosphorus source. 436 Among alpha-proteobacteria, all glyphosate-degrading strains are able to use the herbicide as 437 a sole phosphorus source. Microorganisms that use glyphosate as a phosphorus source possess 438 the enzymatic CP-lyase complex (Hove-Jensen et al., 2014). This enzymatic complex enables 439 an ortophosphate molecule to be released from the glyphosate (sarcosine degradation 440 pathway) or from AMPA (AMPA degradation pathway) (Sviridov et al., 2015). The genes 441 encoding the corresponding enzymes are assembled into the *phn* operon, which is described in 442 Ochrobactrum anthropi ATCC 49188 (Hove-Jensen et al., 2014). It is then probable that 443 alpha-proteobacteria candidates for glyphosate degradation in our study (4 ASVs over the ten) 444 use similar enzymatic machinery since AMPA was not an end product in their metabolism.

445 A general tolerance and a remarkable ability to degrade the glyphosate have also been 446 described for cyanobacteria (Forlani et al., 2008; Lipok et al., 2007). Incubations of Spirulina 447 platensis strain C1 with 10 mM glyphosate concentrations resulted in the disappearance of the 448 herbicide in 14 days concomitantly with the appearance of transient peaks of orthophosphate 449 monoester (Forlani et al., 2008). Chloroflexi are also phototrophic bacteria like cyanobacteria 450 but no studies have shown the presence of strains capable of degrading the glyphosate. On the 451 contrary, a recent publication highlighted that the relative abundance of this phylum tends to 452 decrease in soils treated with glyphosate (Lu et al., 2017).

453 Overall, the ten bacterial ASVs found in LowP and lowG treatment are potential 454 candidates for further glyphosate-bioremediation experiments. However, it has to be noted 455 that our approach can rule out certain ASVs participating in the degradation of glyphosate but 456 present in low ASV abundance when glyphosate is depleted.

457

458 **4** Conclusion

459 Rivers are continuously affected by various stressors, such as habitat degradation, 460 nutrients and xenobiotics pollution, flow regulation and water abstraction. Studying the 461 stressors, not only separately, but also by taking into account their interactions, gives a more realistic picture of the integrity of ecosystems and their endangered components. In the 462 463 present study, phosphorus and glyphosate induced differential responses in microbial 464 communities of river biofilms. While eukaryotic communities showed strong diversity 465 plasticity when exposed to low glyphosate concentrations, shifts in the structure of bacterial 466 communities were specifically observed during glyphosate dissipation. Understanding the fate 467 of glyphosate in river ecosystems requires further identification of glyphosate-degrading 468 species from natural microbial communities. Enrichment cultures and isolation of glyphosate469 degrading strains will contribute to improving bioremediation actions and the restoration of470 contaminated areas.

471

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476 analyses.

477

478 **6** Competing interests

479 The authors declare no competing interests.

480

481 **7 References**

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Table 1. Prokaryotic and eukaryotic communities richness and diversity. The values of total species richness Chao1 (**A**) and Shannon's diversity index H' (**B**) are reported as the mean \pm SE (n = 3 per condition and sampling date). (**C**) Results of four-way ANOVA carried out with diversity parameters. The four factors were site (Ups vs. Dws), Pwater (LowP vs. HighP), Gwater (LowG vs. HighG) and Time (6, 13 and 27 days), *P* < 0.05. Significant differences (calculated separately for Day 0 and Day 6 to Day 27) are indicated by lowercase letters, a < b < c < d < e < f (Tukey's test, *P* < 0.05).

(A) Total species richness (Chao1)

			Treatment		_			
	Site	Day 0	Phosphorus	Glyphosate	Day 6	Day 13	Day 27	Day 6 to Day 27 (Mean ± SE)
Bacteria								
	Upstream	948.03 ± 52.21 (a)	LowP	LowG	719.52 ± 12.35 (a)	682.67 ± 47.24 (a)	723.88 ± 38.54 (a)	708.69 ± 19.11 (a)
		946.14 ± 56.95 (a)		HighG	804.07 ± 52.15 (a)	701.51 ± 42.17 (a)	792.17 ± 6.89 (a)	765.91 ± 25.32 (a)
		940.43 ± 54.32 (a)	HighP	LowG	737.88 ± 60.11 (a)	695.69 ± 19.9 (a)	758.73 ± 118.37 (a)	730.76 ± 39.85 (a)
		942.59 ± 51.51 (a)		HighG	656.35 ± 50.1 (a)	663.15 ± 5.58 (a)	695.55 ± 60.94 (a)	671.69 ± 23.62 (a)
	Downstream	719.51 ± 27.7 (b)	LowP	LowG	720.31 ± 77.59 (a)	660.24 ± 69.71 (a)	609.66 ± 71.92 (a)	663.4 ± 39.92 (a)
		717.24 ± 26.82 (b)		HighG	811.37 ± 43.72 (a)	549.02 ± 18.78 (a)	565.98 ± 15.62 (a)	642.12 ± 44.78 (a)
		713.6 ± 26.63 (b)	HighP	LowG	766.04 ± 60.3 (a)	655.33 ± 101.37 (a)	600 ± 4.13 (a)	673.79 ± 41.91 (a)
		711.17 ± 26.49 (b)		HighG	717.07 ± 56.71 (a)	702.13 ± 28.36 (a)	608.48 ± 19.34 (a)	675.89 ± 25.59 (a)
Eukarvotes								
e e	Upstream	154 ± 9.54 (a)	LowP	LowG	113.67 ± 9.33 (abc)	92.67 ± 12.91 (abcde)	145 ± 3.51 (a)	117.11 ± 8.94 (a)
		154.5 ± 9 (a)		HighG	116.83 ± 3.66 (abc)	85.33 ± 14.71 (bcdef)	90.67 ± 8.37 (abcde)	97.61 ± 6.98 (ab)
		154.33 ± 9.21 (a)	HighP	LowG	130 ± 9.02 (ab)	88.33 ± 11.89 (bcdef)	71 ± 15.62 (cdef)	96.44 ± 10.75 (ab)
		154.33 ± 9.68 (a)		HighG	81.17 ± 7.25 (bcdef)	102 ± 2.52 (abcd)	86.67 ± 6.77 (bcdef)	89.94 ± 4.29 (ab)
	Downstream	88.67 ± 3.84 (b)	LowP	LowG	79.33 ± 17.91 (bcdef)	$72.33 \pm 8.09 \text{ (cdef)}$	98 ± 3.79 (abcd)	83.22 ± 6.93 (bc)
		89 ± 4.16 (b)		HighG	$76.5\pm10.75~(bcdef)$	39.67 ± 3.67 (ef)	35 ± 4.62 (f)	50.39 ± 7.46 (c)

89.4 ± 4.55 (b)	HighP	LowG	71.67 ± 10.71 (cdef)	84.33 ± 16.75 (bcdef)	65 ± 7 (cdef)	73.67 ± 6.71 (bc)
90.67 ± 5.78 (b)		HighG	80.44 ± 13.06 (bcdef)	73.44 ± 11.69 (cdef)	50 ± 4.93 (def)	67.96 ± 6.99 (bc)

(B) Shannon's diversity index (H')

			Treatment		-			
	Site	Day 0	Phosphorus	Glyphosate	Day 6	Day 13	Day 27	Day 6 to Day 27 (Mean ± SE)
Bacteria								
	Upstream	5.89 ± 0.1 (a)	LowP	LowG	5.09 ± 0.22 (a)	5.52 ± 0.14 (a)	5.5 ± 0.01 (a)	5.37 ± 0.1 (a)
		5.89 ± 0.09 (a)		HighG	5.37 ± 0.22 (a)	5.62 ± 0.1 (a)	5.62 ± 0.09 (a)	5.54 ± 0.08 (a)
		5.89 ± 0.1 (a)	HighP	LowG	5.04 ± 0.35 (a)	5.31 ± 0.08 (a)	5.57 ± 0.16 (a)	5.3 ± 0.14 (a)
		5.89 ± 0.1 (a)		HighG	5.04 ± 0.17 (a)	5.32 ± 0.09 (a)	5.34 ± 0.14 (a)	5.24 ± 0.08 (a)
	Downstream	5.15 ± 0.06 (b)	LowP	LowG	5.28 ± 0.12 (a)	5.28 ± 0.09 (a)	5.39 ± 0.11 (a)	5.32 ± 0.06 (a)
		5.15 ± 0.07 (b)		HighG	5.38 ± 0.07 (a)	5.2 ± 0.05 (a)	4.94 ± 0.24 (a)	5.17 ± 0.1 (a)
		5.14 ± 0.07 (b)	HighP	LowG	5.31 ± 0.15 (a)	5.27 ± 0.19 (a)	5.17 ± 0.18 (a)	5.25 ± 0.09 (a)
		5.14 ± 0.07 (b)		HighG	5.2 ± 0.07 (a)	5.38 ± 0.13 (a)	5.03 ± 0.2 (a)	5.2 ± 0.09 (a)
Eukaryotes								
	Upstream	4.15 ± 0.17 (a)	LowP	LowG	3.63 ± 0.14 (abc)	3.32 ± 0.33 (abcd)	4.11 ± 0.11 (a)	3.68 ± 0.16 (a)
		4.15 ± 0.17 (a)		HighG	3.54 ± 0.13 (abc)	3.21 ± 0.36 (abcd)	3.06 ± 0.3 (abcde)	3.27 ± 0.16 (ab)
		4.16 ± 0.16 (a)	HighP	LowG	3.79 ± 0.19 (ab)	3.11 ± 0.04 (abcde)	2.59 ± 0.24 (bcde)	3.16 ± 0.20 (abc)
		4.14 ± 0.17 (a)		HighG	3.31 ± 0.12 (abcd)	3.18 ± 0.05 (abcd)	3.15 ± 0.07 (abcde)	3.21 ± 0.05 (ab)
	Downstream	3.27 ± 0.11 (b)	LowP	LowG	3.17 ± 0.34 (abcd)	$2.95\pm0.3~(abcde)$	3.39 ± 0.05 (abcd)	3.17 ± 0.14 (abc)
		3.27 ± 0.11 (b)		HighG	$2.65\pm0.36~(bcde)$	1.94 ± 0.14 (de)	1.7 ± 0.32 (e)	2.10 ± 0.20 (d)
		3.25 ± 0.12 (b)	HighP	LowG	2.88 ± 0.31 (abcde)	$2.48 \pm 0.41 \text{ (bcde)}$	$2.67\pm0.14~(abcde)$	2.68 ± 0.17 (bcd)
		3.27 ± 0.11 (b)		HighG	$2.69\pm0.49~(abcde)$	2.33 ± 0.36 (cde)	$2.32\pm0.3~(cde)$	$2.45 \pm 0.20 \text{ (cd)}$

(C) Four-way ANOVA (Day 6 to Day 27)

	Bacteria				Eukaryotes			
	Total species richness (Chao1)		Shannon's H diversity index		Total species richness (Chao1)		Shannon's H diversity index	
Factor/interaction	F value	P value	F value	P value	F value	P value	F value	P value
Site	6.366	< 0.05	4.353	< 0.05	57.865	< 0.001	45.846	< 0.001
Pwater	0.101	0.752	2.655	0.11	1.507	0.226	2.75	0.104
Gwater	0.057	0.812	0.137	0.712	15.212	< 0.001	14.725	< 0.001
Time	5.205	< 0.01	1.877	0.164	4.904	< 0.05	5.011	< 0.05
Site*Pwater	1.75	0.192	1.692	0.2	4.826	< 0.05	1.01	0.32
Site*Gwater	0.039	0.845	1.176	0.284	0.574	0.452	4.661	< 0.05
Pwater*Gwater	1.117	0.296	0.353	0.555	5.882	<0.05	9.022	< 0.01
Site*Time	5.099	< 0.01	5.717	< 0.01	0.722	0.491	0.048	0.953
Pwater*Time	0.975	0.384	0.045	0.956	7.235	< 0.01	0.863	0.429
Gwater*Time	0.166	0.847	1.348	0.27	2.483	0.094	0.965	0.388
Site*Pwater*Gwater	2.524	0.119	1.818	0.184	0.729	0.397	0.748	0.392
Site*Pwater*Time	0.108	0.898	0.56	0.575	0.607	0.549	1.115	0.336
Site*Gwater*Time	0.104	0.901	0.187	0.83	3.791	< 0.05	0.932	0.401
Pwater*Gwater*Time	1.843	0.169	0.511	0.603	7.642	< 0.01	4.055	< 0.05
Site*Pwater*Gwater*Time	0.434	0.656	0.44	0.647	2.394	0.102	0.56	0.575



2 3



0

Figure 1. Microbial community composition of biofilms at the beginning of the experiment at
the phylum level. (A) Bacteria; (B) Eukaryotes. Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs)
abundance for each replicate (n = 3). Ups, Upstream; Dws, Downstream.

Unclassified Vertebrata

Zoopagomycota

Euglenozoa

Florideophycidae Heterolobosea



Figure 2. Correlation of Bacterial (A) and Eukaryotic (B) ASVs abundance correlation with glyphosate versus ASVs abundance correlation with AMPA (Spearman). The correlation between ASV abundance and glyphosate (ASV-glyphosate) or AMPA (ASV-AMPA) concentrations has been established over time for bacteria and Eukaryotes using Spearman's rank correlation test. Then, a second correlation test was applied on the correlations ASV-AMPA vs. ASV-Glyphosate (Spearman, red line, bacteria, $\rho = 0.832$, P < 0.001; Eukaryotes, $\rho = 0.809$, P < 0.001). Each dot represents one ASV.



Figure 3. Phylogenetic analysis of the ten highest negatively correlated ASVs with glyphosate (in red, Spearman's rank coefficient < -0.71), together with the known bacterial glyphosate-degrading strains based on the 16S gene sequence. The alignment was performed with ClustalW. The tree was constructed with the Neighbor-Joining (N = 1000 bootstrap replicates) using MEGA X. Scale bar = 0.05 substitution per site. Bootstrap percentages \geq 50% are indicated near tree nodes. For the glyphosate-degrading strains, the metabolism of glyphosate (source of carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P)) and the main metabolite (AMPA, Sarcosine (S) or unknown (U)) are also indicated on the right.

Supplementary Information
Interaction between glyphosate and dissolved phosphorus on bacterial and eukaryotic
communities from river biofilms
Louis Carles ^a * and Joan Artigas ^a
⁴ Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS, Laboratoire Microorganismes : Génome et
Environnement (LMGE), F-63000 Clermont–Ferrand, France
* Corresponding author:
Dr. Louis Carles
Now at: Department of Environmental Toxicology (Utox), Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic
Science and Technology (Eawag), Dübendorf, Switzerland.
Überlandstrasse 133
2600 Dübandarf
Switzerland
Switzerland E-mail address: <u>louis.carles@eawag.ch</u>
a E S S S

54	Table S1. Permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) of bacterial and eukaryotic
55	communities richness and diversity. PERMANOVA analyses were carried out on the
56	weighted unifrac distances matrix of bacterial and Eukaryotic communities. The four factors
57	were site (Ups vs. Dws), Pwater (LowP vs. HighP), Gwater (LowG vs. HighG) and Time (6,
58	13 and 27 days), $P < 0.05$.

PERMANOVA								
	Bacteria		Eukaryotes					
Factor/interaction	F value	P value	F value	P value				
Site	18.0570	< 0.001	21.8301	< 0.001				
Pwater	2.7745	< 0.05	3.8307	< 0.01				
Gwater	1.9984	0.054	3.6988	< 0.01				
Time	19.8053	< 0.001	5.1685	< 0.001				
Site*Pwater	1.4623	0.157	3.0618	< 0.01				
Site*Gwater	1.6543	0.125	2.7231	< 0.05				
Pwater*Gwater	1.3653	0.191	2.1070	0.059				
Site*Time	8.1146	< 0.001	2.4600	< 0.01				
Pwater*Time	1.8387	< 0.05	2.7387	< 0.01				
Gwater*Time	1.1122	0.306	1.8646	< 0.05				
Site*Pwater*Gwater	1.8166	0.077	1.6132	0.147				
Site*Pwater*Time	1.1812	0.266	0.8645	0.578				
Site*Gwater*Time	0.8411	0.597	1.2296	0.261				
Pwater*Gwater*Time	0.8913	0.534	1.6087	0.080				
Site*Pwater*Gwater*Time	0.8271	0.619	1.3158	0.206				

60 (A)



62



Figure S1. Rarefaction curves of the different set of amplicons. (A) Bacteria; (B) 64 Eukaryota. ASVs: Amplicon Sequence Variants. 65

(A)



Figure S2. Microbial community composition of biofilms during the experiment at the phylum level. (A) Bacteria; (B) Eukaryotes. Abundance of Amplicon Sequence Variants





78 Figure S3. Evolution of incrobial communities richness and diversity. Prokaryotes (A) 79 and (B); eukaryotes (C) and (D). The results are reported as the mean \pm standard error (SE), n 80 = 3.

81 (A)



Figure S4. Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of bacterial (A) and Eukaryotic (B)
communities based on weighted unifrac distances. Results are presented for biofilms grown in
upstream and downstream sites of the river. Time in days. Treatments: Phosphorus (LowP *vs*.
HighP) and Glyphosate (LowG *vs*. HighG).



Figure S5. Mean rate of change in the structure of microbial community during the entire experiment (A, Bacteria; B, Eukaryotes). Speed was calculated as the ratio of Unifrac distance over time. Significant differences are indicated by lowercase letters, a > b > c > d (Tukey's test, P < 0.05).



Figure S6. Repartition of the Spearman correlation between Eukaryotic ASVs abundance and glyphosate at the phylum level. Each dot represents the Spearman correlation rank between the abundance of each ASV and the concentration of glyphosate in water. The blue dots correspond to the ASV having negative Spearman's rank coefficient (r < -0.69, i.e. present in high abundances when the concentration of glyphosate was drastically decreased in water). These selected ASVs were then proposed as candidates for glyphosate degradation.

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Phylum/Class

C N P

Metabolism Metabolite Source

Figure S7. Phylogenetic analysis of the ten highest negatively correlated ASVs with glyphosate (in red, Spearman's rank coefficient < -0.69), together with the known Eukaryotic glyphosate-degrading strains based on 18S gene sequence. The alignment was performed with ClustalW. The tree was constructed with the Neighbor-Joining (N = 1000 bootstrap replicates) using MEGA X. Scale bar = 0.2 substitution per site. Bootstrap percentages \geq 50% are indicated near tree nodes. For the glyphosate-degrading strains, the metabolism of glyphosate (source of carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P)) and the main metabolite (AMPA, Sarcosine (S) or unknown (U)) are also indicated on the right.



Figure S8. Repartition of the Spearman correlation between bacterial ASVs abundance and glyphosate at the phylum level. Each dot represents the Spearman correlation rank between the abundance of each ASV and the concentration of glyphosate in water. The blue dots correspond to the ASV having negative Spearman's rank coefficient (r < -0.69, i.e. present in high abundances when the concentration of glyphosate was drastically decreased in water). These selected ASVs were then proposed as candidates for glyphosate degradation.