

Assessing the effects of β -triketone herbicides on HPPD from environmental bacteria using a combination of in silico and microbiological approaches

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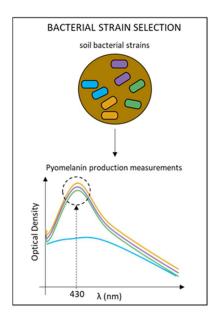
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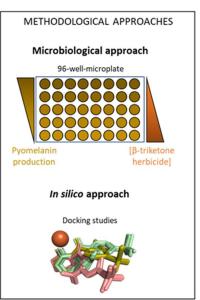
| 1 | Assessing the effects of p-triketone nerbicides on HPPD from environmental bacteria using a | | | | |
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| 2 | combination of in silico and microbiological approaches | | | | |
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| 16 | Turick for the S. oneidensis MR-1 strain, Maria Esperanza Martinez Romero for R. etli CFN42, Fergual | | | | |
| 17 | O'Gara for <i>P. fluorescens</i> F113 and Sylvie Mazurier for both <i>P. fluorescens</i> CTR1015 and NEM419. | | | | |
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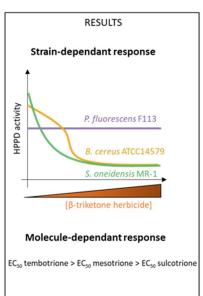
Abstract:

 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase (HPPD) is the molecular target of β-triketone herbicides in plants. This enzyme, involved in the tyrosine pathway, is also present in a wide range of living organisms, including microorganisms. Previous studies, focusing on a few strains and using high herbicide concentrations, showed that β-triketones are able to inhibit microbial HPPD. Here, we measured the effect of agronomical doses of β-triketone herbicides on soil bacterial strains. The HPPD activity of six bacterial strains was tested with $1 \times$ or $10 \times$ the recommended field dose of the herbicide sulcotrione. The selected strains were tested with $0.01 \times$ to $15 \times$ the recommended field dose of sulcotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione. Molecular docking was also used to measure and model the binding mode of the three herbicides with the different bacterial HPPD. Our results show that responses to herbicides are strain-dependent with Pseudomonas fluorescens F113 HPPD activity not inhibited by any of the herbicide tested; when all three β-triketone herbicides inhibited HPPD in Bacillus cereus ATCC14579 and Shewanella oneidensis MR-1. These responses are also molecule-dependent with tembotrione harboring the strongest inhibitory effect. Molecular docking also reveals different binding potentials. This is the first time that the inhibitory effect of β-triketone herbicides is tested on environmental strains at agronomical doses, showing a potential effect of these molecules on the HPPD enzymatic activity of non-target microorganisms.

66 Graphical abstract:







Keywords: pyomelanin; 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase; soil bacteria; β -triketone herbicides; tembotrione; molecular docking.

Introduction

Herbicides account for 60% of the volume of all plant protection products applied worldwide [1], and for 30% in the European Union Member States (EU Eurostats). Following atrazine ban in Europe in 2003, β -triketones herbicides have been commonly used as pre- and post-emergent selective compounds and are among the top five most used herbicides on maize crops. β -triketones herbicides are synthetized based on the structure of leptospermone, a natural phytotoxin produced by the Californian bottlebrush plant, *Callistemon citrinus* [2]. Sulcotrione (2-(2-chloro-4-methylsulfonylbenzoyl)cyclohexane-1,3-dione) was the first β -triketone herbicide commercialized [3], followed by mesotrione (2-[4-(methylsulfonyl)-2-nitrobenzoyl]cyclohexane-1,3-dione) and, more recently, by tembotrione (2-[2-chloro-4-methylsulfonyl-3-(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxymethyl)benzoyl]cyclohexane-1,3-dione) [4] (**Table 1**).

Plant 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase (HPPD, EC 1.13.11.27) is the biochemical target of β -triketones herbicides. This enzyme is a non-heme iron enzyme involved in the second reaction of the tyrosine catabolism pathway by converting 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate (HPP) in homogentisate (HGA) *via* oxidative decarboxylation, aromatic ring hydroxylation and carboxymethyl group rearrangement [5]. HGA is a key precursor of α -tocopherol and plastoquinone, that acts as an essential cofactor for phytoene desaturase, allowing plants to produce carotenoids required to protect them from light and free radicals [6].

88 HPPD is ubiquitous in almost all living organisms [7]. In non-photosynthetic organisms, including

89 humans, HPPD is also involved in tyrosine degradation, leading to HGA synthesis, the latter is involved

in the synthesis pathway of fumarate, one of the intermediates of the Krebs cycle, and acetoacetate,

91 involved in lipid biosynthesis [8].

In some microorganisms, HPPD activity is linked to pyomelanin production, a pigment accumulating following oxidation and polymerization of HGA. This brown pigment is easily observable on culture media supplemented with L-tyrosine, and its production has been described in various microbial species such as fungi and yeasts [9–12] and in numerous bacterial species such as *Legionella pneumophila*, *Shewanella oneidensis*, *Streptomyces avermitilis*, *Burkholderia cenocepacia*, *Bacillus thuringiensis*, *Alteromonas stellipolaris*, *Rubrivivax benzoatilyticus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Alacaligenes faecalis*, *Enterobacter* sp. and *Vibrio angillarum* [13–21]. Some of these studies report either a protective role of pyomelanin against environmental stresses, such as reactive oxygen species for the soil-borne plant pathogen *Ralstonia solanacearum* [22], light for *L. pneumophila* [23], ultraviolet irradiation for the marine bacteria *Vibrio splendidus* [24], or a modification in virulence for pathogenic bacteria [19],

highlighting the importance of deciphering HPPD function in microbes.

Nonetheless, microbial HPPD structure and β -triketone herbicide binding mode are only described in two microorganisms: *Pseudomonas fluorescens* F113 (also called *Pseudomonas kilonensis* F113 [25]) and *Streptomyces avermitilis* [14,26]. Studies on binding modes of β -triketones were mainly performed on HPPD plant models such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* [5,27,28]. Most inhibition studies are performed on recombinant plants or bacterial HPPD cloned and expressed in *Escherichia coli* strains [29–31]. Only a few studies take an interest in deciphering the potential inhibition of soil microbial HPPD by β -triketone herbicides under agronomical conditions [32]. Also, the effect of β -triketone herbicides on microbial pigmentation production has been tested only with few pure strains and always using high herbicide concentration (from 12 to 200× the recommended field dose (RfD)) [16,21,33].

As the use of β -triketone herbicides on crops continues to expand, it is important to assess their effect on "non-target organisms" [34], and especially on the HPPD activity of soil microbiota. We could wonder if the protective role of pyomelanin production against environmental stresses observed in some bacterial species, could be modified by the application of β -triketone herbicides on crops. Such an effect could affect the balance of soil microbiota and alter, for example, microbial populations playing a key role in plant growth, such as Plant Growth Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR), and consequently could have an impact on soil ecosystem services.

The aim of this study is to decipher the possible impacts of three triketone molecules on the HPPD enzymatic activities of different bacterial strains belonging to various genera. Six environmental bacterial strains were selected and tested for their pyomelanin production. Strains were exposed to 1×

or $10 \times \text{RfD}$ of sulcotrione. Three strains, selected according to their different sensitivities to sulcotrione, were then exposed, in a whole-cell assay, to increasing doses of three β -triketone herbicides, namely sulcotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione. As the calculated EC₅₀ (half-maximum Effective Concentration) varied depending the strain and the molecule considered, *in silico* molecular docking was performed to document the binding mode of β -triketones with bacterial HPPD and to explain, at a molecular level, the differences observed in the whole-cell assay when working at a population level.

Material and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

- 130 B. cereus ATCC14579, P. fluorescens F113, P. fluorescens CTR1015 and P. fluorescens NEM419 were
- cultured in a Lysogenic Broth (LB: 10 g/l tryptone; 5 g/l yeast extract; 10 g/l NaCl). S. oneidensis MR-
- 132 1 was grown in a Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB: 17 g/l tryptone; 3 g/l soy; 5 g/l NaCl; 2.5 g/l K₂HPO₄; 2.5 g/l
- glucose) and R. etli CFN42 in Tryptone Yeast extract media supplemented with CaCl₂ (TY+CaCl₂: 5
- g/l tryptone; 3 g/l yeast extract; 0.9 g/l $CaCl_2 \times 2H_2O$; pH=6.8).

Pyomelanin production

In order to test their ability to produce pyomelanin, each of the six bacterial strains were grown in their appropriate culture medium supplemented with 0.9 g/l of tyrosine at 24 °C with constant shaking at 120 rpm. Samples of each culture were collected at T0, 48 h, 72 h, and a last point between 6 to 10 days depending of the strain, and centrifugated at 5,000 rpm for 10 min. The absorbance spectra of cell-free supernatant were recorded in a UV-Vis spectrophotometer in the range of 250 to 600 nm, as soluble pyomelanin can be quantified at different wavelengths, ranging from 400 to 430 nm [18,21,22,29,35]. The *E. coli* BL21 strain, known as a non-producing pyomelanin strain, was added to this experiment as negative control, and the *E. coli* BL21 HPPD, modified to produce pyomelanin, as the positive control [29].

Bacterial resting cells preparation

Resting cells were prepared for each of the six strains in Phosphate Buffer (PB) in order to work at constant biomass, in a unique solution, whatever the strain. Each bacterial strain was grown overnight at 28°C and 110 rpm in its appropriate culture medium. Overnight cultures were diluted and incubated in a new fresh appropriate medium during three to eight-hour according to its growth capacity, to reach the exponential phase of growth. Then, cells were harvested by centrifugation for 5 min at 5,000 rpm,

- washed twice in 20 mM PB, and then resuspended in a volume of PB calculated to have an OD₆₀₀ of 3.
- 152 In this way, biomass was similar in all the resting cells.

Colorimetric method for HPPD activity monitoring using whole-cell assay in a 96-well multiplate

154 format

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- To assess the HPPD activity of the six selected strains, a colorimetric test in a 96-well multiplate format
- was developed. 96-well-microplates were all filled with 50 µL of resting cells, and completed with 125
- μL of L-Tyrosine 1.8 g/l (pH 9), and with 75 μL of herbicide solutions diluted in PB for the assays (A)
- or with 75 µL of PB for the positive control (PC). For the negative control (NC), only 200 µL of PB
- were added to the resting cells. Herbicide concentrations ranged from 0.05 to 15 times of the RfD for
- each molecule tested; corresponding to: 0.23 to 67.5 μM for sulcotrione; 0.22 to 66 μM for mesotrione
- and 0.17 to 52.5 µM for tembotrione. All herbicides solutions were prepared in PB. All controls and
- assays were performed in triplicate. Microplates were covered with a Breathseal sealer (Greiner Bio-
- OneTM, Germany) and incubated at 28°C and 110 rpm. After 48 hours of incubation, OD₄₃₀, and OD₆₀₀
- were measured using an Epoch 2 Microplate Spectrophotometer (Greiner Bio-OneTM, Germany).
- Pyomelanin detection was measured at OD_{430} rather than OD_{400} because of a better signal observed at
- this wavelenght due to the resting cell mode done in PB. PB solely had the same absorbance as empty
- wells and was not included to our controls. In the second experiment, microplates were first centrifuged
- at 6000 rpm for 6 minutes and OD_{430} of the supernatant was measured.
- For each triplicate, normalized OD₄₃₀ (OD_{430N}) was calculated according to:
- 170 $OD_{430N} = OD_{430A} (or OD_{430PC}) OD_{430NC}$
- where OD_{430A} is the mean OD_{430} measured at various concentrations of herbicide, OD_{430PC} is the mean
- OD₄₃₀ measured at 0 μ M of herbicide (i.e. PC) and OD_{430NC} is the mean OD₄₃₀ measured for the NC.
- 173 The enzymatic activity percentage, Act. %, was calculated according to the equation:
- 174 Act. %= $(\frac{OD_{430A}}{OD_{430PC}}) \times 100$

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Dose-response curves

- For each herbicide tested, EC₅₀ was calculated using the "drc" package in R [36]. A three-parameter
- log-logistic function with lower limit 0 was applied to our datasets, corresponding to this equation:

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$$f(x) = 0 + \frac{d-0}{1 + \exp(b(\log(x) - \log(e)))}$$

where b, d and e are estimated by the model with a p<0.05.

In silico analysis

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- Protein sequences were retrieved from GenBank (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/) with
- WP 000810922.1 corresponding to the accession number of *B. cereus* ATCC14579 HPPD sequence
- and WP 011072057.1, WP 011425038.1 and WP 014347821.1 corresponding to the HPPD sequences
- of S. oneidensis MR-1, R. etli CFN42 and P. fluorescens F113 respectfully. The protein sequences of
- both P. fluorescens CTR1015 and P. fluorescens NEM419 are not available yet. Protein sequences of
- 186 L. pneumophila (WP_011216180.1), P. aeruginosa (PWU35210.1), A. salmonicida
- 187 (WP 059112190.1), V. parahaemolyticus (WP 057619320.1) and V. anguillarum (QEH62709.1) were
- also added to the analysis. Sequences were aligned using ClustalW [37].

Homology modelling

- 190 Homology models of each of the HPPDs were obtained using the multiple alignment function of
- Modeller version 9.22 [38,39], including the crystal structures of HPPD from *Streptomyces avermitilis*
- and from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (1t47 and 5yy6, respectively) [14,40]. The crystal structure of *A. thaliana*
- was included because it incorporates the conformational change known to occur upon binding of the
- inhibitors. Preliminary models with the lowest DOPE scores were selected for further refinement using
- 195 GROMACS (version 2018.3) [41,42]. The structures were relaxed to correct for steric clashes or
- inappropriate geometries prior to molecular dynamics simulation. The final topology of the homology
- models were evaluated using MolProbity [43,44].

198 Docking of herbicides

- 199 The structures of mesotrione and tembotrione were downloaded as sdf files from PubChem
- 200 (pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov), edited with Spartan18 (Wavefunction Inc., Irvine CA 92612) to include
- delocalized -1 charges over two of the three keto groups, and saved as saved as pdb files. The structures
- were converted to Autodock compatible pdbqt format using AutoDockTools (version 1.5.6). These
- 203 herbicides were docked to the catalytic domain of HPPD using Autodock4 [45,46], using the iron metal
- dication (with a +0.6 partial charge) as an anchor [44] and the following conserved residues (T164,
- 205 S202, P215, N217, Q240, L295, F312, F321, L341, F333, N337, F338). The binding energy of the
- herbicides on the bacterial HPPD models were obtained from the dock.dlg file. Proteins and ligand

207 interactions were visualized using PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.0

208 Schrödinger, LLC) [47].

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Results and discussion

Pyomelanin production in the six bacterial strains

- 211 In order to study the potential effect of β-triketones on microbial HPPD activity, six environmental
- bacterial strains were selected: *Pseudomonas fluorescens* F113, as the HPPD study model [26], two *P*.
- 213 fluorescens strains CTR1015 and NEM419 as PGPR bacteria models isolated from soil [48,49],
- 214 Rhizobium etli strain CFN42 as a symbiotic bacteria model [50], the well-studied pyomelanin producer
- 215 Shewanella oneidensis MR-1 [22] and Bacillus cereus ATCC14579 the only Gram-positive bacterium
- 216 of this study [51].
- A first experiment was performed to validate that these six bacterial strains produce pyomelanin. As
- 218 previously described, soluble pyomelanin can be quantified measuring absorbance at different
- wavelengths, ranging from 400 to 430 nm [16,18,21,22,29]. Spectrophotometric analysis of cell-free
- supernatants of the six strains showed a significant increase of OD₄₀₀ between the different sampling
- 221 time, similar to what observed for *P. fluorescens* F113 (Supplementary Information 1a). Final OD₄₀₀
- were reported for the six tested strains, and for the two controls, validating the pyomelanin production
- for the studied bacterial strains (Supplementary Information 1b).

Development of a multiplate colorimetric whole-cell assay for HPPD activity analysis

- To assess the HPPD activity of the six selected strains, a colorimetric test in a 96-well multiplate format
- 226 was developed. Resting cells were prepared for each of the six strains in PB and added to the assay in
- order to work at constant biomass, in a unique solution whatever the strain. Then, OD₄₃₀, characterizing
- 228 the melanin-like pigment, and thus, reflecting the HPPD activity [18,29] was, for each strain, directly
- measured in each well containing bacterial resting cells, PB and tyrosine. P. fluorescens F113 HPPD
- expressed the highest production of pyomelanin pigment with an OD_{430N} of 1.43 ± 0.11 , followed by P.
- fluorescens CTR1015 and NEM419 with OD_{430N} of 0.86 ± 0.01 and 0.74 ± 0.02 respectively, and then
- 232 S. oneidensis MR-1, B. cereus ATCC14579 and R. etli CFN42 with OD_{430N} of 0.70 ± 0.12 ; 0.66 ± 0.07
- and 0.55 ± 0.03 respectively (Supplementary Information 2). These results were similar to those
- obtained in the first experiment, validating the miniaturization of the assay, and the pigmentation
- 235 measurement in PB.

Studing the effect of β-triketones on HPPD activity using the colorimetric whole-cell assay

The resting cells of the six bacterial strains of our study were exposed or not to 1×RfD or 10×RfD of 237 sulcotrione. The HPPD enzymatic activity percentage (Act. %) was calculated for each strain and is 238 239 depicted in Figure 1. In B. cereus ATCC14579, S. oneidensis MR-1 and P. fluorescens CTR1015, 240 HPPD activity clearly decreased with increasing doses of sulcotrione, with a decrease of, at least, 31 % at 1×RfD, and of, at least, 74 % at 10×RfD. In R. etli CFN42, HPPD activity decreased of 15% at 241 1×RfD and 12% at 10×RfD. In Pseudomonas NEM 419 enzymatic activity remained unchanged at 242 243 1×RfD but decreased of 50% at 10×RfD. On the contrary, HPPD activity of P. fluorescens F113 slightly decreased in response to sulcotrione exposure but not significantly compared to the control. 244 245 There is indeed a strain-dependant response to sulcotrione, even within strains belonging to the same 246 genus. To characterize more accurately the inhibition of bacterial HPPD activity in response to 247 sulcotrione, two bacterial strains were exposed to increasing doses of this herbicide, more finely between 0 and 10×RfD. P. fluorescens F113, in which the HPPD is well described and which is known to have 248 an ecological role in rhizosphere, was considered in these experiments [25,26]. As P. fluorescens F113 249 250 HPPD activity does not seem to be affected by sulcotrione, we also exposed S. oneidensis MR-1 to this 251 herbicide, a strain in which the HPPD activity was well-documented [16]. The obtained results confirmed our previous observations: P. fluorescens F113 OD_{430N} appeared constant even with 10×RfD 252 of sulcotrione (Figure 2.A) whereas the one of S. oneidensis MR-1 was drastically decreasing 253 254 proportionally to the RfD of sulcotrione, losing around 50% of HPPD activity from 2×RfD of sulcotrione (Figure 2.B). This first assay informed us about the existence of tolerant HPPD activities, 255 such as the one of *P. fluorescens* F113, and sensitive one, such as the one of *S. oneidensis* MR-1. This 256 257 phenomenon has already been reported for bacterial strains carrying acetohydroxyacid synthase (AHAS), the target enzyme of the sulfonylurea herbicides (SN). Enterobacteriaceae, carrying AHAS 258 259 isoform 1 are tolerant to SN, whereas other bacteria carrying isoform 2 or 3 are sensitive to those 260 herbicides [32,52]. Concerning P. fluorescens F113, one may hypothesize either such a difference 261 between several bacterial HPPD isoforms, or a possible detoxification phenomenon supporting 262 resistance to β-triketones specific to this bacterial strain. In this latter case, detoxification could be achieved by the transformation of the active compound. Although P. putida 1OP is known to degrade 263 264 sulcotrione and used it as a source of carbon [53], the transformation of β-triketones by P. fluorescens F113 has not yet been described. Detoxification can also be achieved by efflux pumps that are pumping 265 266 herbicides out of the cell. As an example, a putative major facilitator superfamily (MFS) transporter 267 encoded by the yhhS gene conferred resistance in an E. coli strain to glyphosate [54]. Efflux pumps are commonly described in Gram-negative and especially in P. aeruginosa where they impart resistance to 268 antibiotics [55,56]. Other studies have tested the HPPD activity of P. aeruginosa strains in presence of 269 NTBC, a β-triketone used in human medicine, and inhibitory effects are observed at high doses of the 270 271 inhibitor. For the DKN343 and 1111 isolates, NTBC (up to 900 µM) showed no inhibitory effects on 272 HPPD activity and in the PAO1 mutant, P. aeruginosa hmga::tn, 300 μM of NTBC are required to 273 inhibit the enzyme activity [57]. The same authors showed that the expression of the MexAB-OprM

efflux pump is required for resistance to NTBC in DKN343 [58]. This efflux pump is known to pump out a broad range of antibiotics, detergents or organic solvents [59]. We can then hypothesize that a similar efflux pump can allow β-triketone such as sulcotrione, to be pumped out by *P. fluorescens* F113. Anyhow, further studies reporting a possible expression of genes encoding efflux pumps in parallel with an exposition to sulcotrione could be needed to reinforce this hypothesis.

Designing dose-response curves on three bacterial models

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In order to refine our results, we decided to expose to other β-triketone herbicides three of the six bacterial strains: a Gram-negative harbouring a sensitive HPPD activity (S. oneidensis MR-1), a tolerant one (P. fluorescens F113), and the only Gram-positive (B. cereus ATCC14579). Using the colorimetric whole-cell assay, resting cells of S. oneidensis MR-1, B. cereus ATCC14579 and P. fluorescens F113 were exposed to increasing doses of sulcotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione. The pre-screening at high doses of herbicides allowed us to select specific inhibitory concentrations ranging from 0×to 10×RfD for sulcotrione (Figure 3.A), 0×to 0.5×RfD for mesotrione (Figure 3.B) and 0×to 0.07×RfD for tembotrione (Figure 3.C). As previously showed with sulcotrione, the HPPD activity of P. fluorescens F113 is not inhibited by any of the three β-triketones tested (Figure 3.A, 3.B and 3.C) even at high doses, up to 15×RfD (data not shown). At these concentrations, a clear dose-dependent response was observed in B. cereus ATCC14579 and S. oneidensis MR-1 which allowed us to calculate EC50 for the different herbicides. Tembotrione appears to have the strongest inhibiting effect on the HPPD activity of both bacteria. Indeed, EC₅₀ are not even calculable due to a too rapid decrease of HPPD activity. However, we can assume that, for both B. cereus ATCC14579 and S. oneidensis MR-1, EC₅₀ is below 0.02 × RfD of tembotrione, corresponding to 0.07 μM, and that tembotrione has a slightly higher effect on the HPPD activity of S. oneidensis MR-1. Similarly, mesotrione has a lower effect on the HPPD activity of B. cereus ATCC14579 with an EC₅₀ of 2.2 ± 0.3 µM than on the one of S. oneidensis MR-1 for which the EC₅₀ cannot be calculated because a too rapid decrease of its HPPD activity but can be easily graphically estimated below 0.2×RfD of mesotrione, being 0.88 μM. Sulcotrione appears to be the active compound with the lowest effect whatever the strain considered with an EC₅₀ of $8.5 \pm 3.3 \,\mu M$ in B. cereus ATCC14579 and $8.8 \pm 2.8 \mu M$ in S. oneidensis MR-1. This experiment confirmed our previous results with a strain-dependant response but also highlights a molecule-dependant response. Indeed, β-triketones were ranked as follows from the highest to the lowest inhibitory effect: tembotrione, mesotrione and sulcotrione. Tembotrione appears then to have the lowest EC50 in both B. cereus ATCC14579 and S. oneidensis MR-1. This molecule was shown to be more toxic on the earthworm Dendrobaena veneta than glyphosate and nicosulfuron [60]. Even though the cited study did not compare tembotrione to other β-triketones, it provides insights in its potential toxicity. When cloned in E. coli, the topramezone-resistant HPPD of the bacterium Sphingobium sp. TPM-19 exhibits a higher resistance to mesotrione (EC₅₀ of 4.2 μM) compared to tembotrione (EC₅₀ of 2.5 μM) [31] suggesting that, as observed in our study, tembotrione is more active than mesotrione on HPPD activity even for resistant HPPDs. This higher activity might be due to the fluorinated tail (-O-CH₂-CF₃) which increases its lipophilicity and favors the passage of hydrophilic and lipophilic barriers [61]. However, tembotrione physico-chemical properties such as solubility or pKa do not explain its little or no effect on the HPPD enzymatic activity of *P. fluorescens* F113. One can notice that the *MexAB-OprM* efflux pump previously cited is not yet described neither in *B. cereus* ATCC14579 nor in *S. oneidensis* MR-1, suggesting that these bacteria cannot extrude tembotrione once it has entered the cell. Regarding a possible biodegradation mechanism of tembotrione, the trifluoromethyl group added to this compound could make difficult its biodegradation. Moreover, it is known that, in soils, half-life time (DT₅₀) of sulcotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione are comprised between 3.2 and 144 days depending on the soil tested [61]. A possible abiotic or biotic degradation in our culture conditions is, then, quite unlikely. Taken together, these hypotheses can explain the fact that tembotrione harbors a higher inhibitory effect on the HPPD activities of certain bacteria than sulcotrione does.

Beyond the cellular level, one can imagine that such strain- and molecule-dependent responses may also be due to molecular changes in the studied HPPD. As it is the case in plants where maize harbors a resistant HPPD [62], bacteria could also harbor HPPD with different sensitivities to β -triketones.

In silico HPPD sequences analysis

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We then conducted *in silico* analysis in order to identify possible differences in the HPPD sequences of the tested strains and, following that, molecular docking was led to identify different binding responses. HPPD protein sequences of the three bacteria previously studied were aligned (Supplementary **Information 3)**, together with the HPPD of *R. etli* CFN42, which was available online and was part of our first experiment, and five others HPPD sequences from different bacteria strains, whose pyomelanin production has been described [13,19,63,64]. Even though these nine sequences have relatively low similarity, ranging from 35.26 to 87.39%, they retain some highly conserved regions. Firstly, the catalytic domain, located in the C-terminus involves a triad consisting of one glutamate (E) and two histidine (H) residues. This triad is highly conserved in bacteria, plant and mammalian forms of HPPD, because these three residues coordinate the binding of a metal dication (either Fe or Co) involved in the catalytic function of HPPD [26,62] (Figure 4A), thus playing an essential role in enzyme function. Always in the C-terminal region, the motifs H-I/V/L/L-A and F-F/I/V/L-E, common across HPPD from different bacterium phyla are identified. They are typical from the active site of the enzyme and are conserved among 2506 bacterial protein sequences [65]. Additionally, the binding domain of the substrate HPP is a highly conserved area formed by mostly hydrophobic residues (T164, S202, P215, N217, Q240, L295, F312, F321, F333, N337, F338, L341 based on sequence of *P. fluorescens* HPPD) (Figure 4C and Supplementary Information 3 and 4). These 12 amino acids present almost 100% of identity with just one exception for the HPPD sequence of *B. cereus* in the position 164, where a Valine replace Tyrosine. This binding domain plays an important role in positioning HPP in the proper position for the region specific hydroxylation reaction catalyzed by HPPD [66]. β -triketone herbicides are known to interact at this interphase by forming a stable complex between two of their keto groups towards a bidentate association with the active-site metal ion by coordinate as well as this hydrophobic domain [14]. Amino acid sequence comparison of the bacterial HPPD revealed a highly conserved active site and could not explain the differences of inhibition previously observed between the different strains of our study when working on the whole-cell assay. Similar observations were done when HPPD sequence of maize, whose HPPD is naturally tolerant to β -triketone, was compared with other HPPD sequences from β -triketone sensible plants as *A. thaliana* [62].

To go further, molecular docking was then carried out with the HPPD from bacterial strains either sensitive or tolerant to β -triketone to explore the complex formed between bacterial enzyme and inhibitors.

Docking of sucotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione to microbial HPPD

The capacity of the three β-triketone compounds to fit within the substrate binding pocket of the microbial HPPD of *S. oneidensis* MR-1, *B. cereus* ATCC14579 and *P. fluorescens* F113 was estimated by the binding energy. This parameter was determined for each docking experiments as the average of the energy of the correct orientations between the herbicide and the ligand based on homology model of *P. fluorescens* F113. For example, the docking results obtained with mesotrione coordinated on the metal dication on homology model of *P. fluorescens* F113 generated 25 different poses. On these 25 poses generated by the docking algorithm, 18 were in an orientation most similar to that observed with inhibitors co-crystalized with HPPD, 3 were in the less favourable pose and 4 in the least desirable orientation (Supplementary Information 5). Regardless of the poses, all docking resulted in proper interaction with the iron metal dication (Supplementary Information 6).

As we can observed, molecular docking revealed that sulcotrione, mesotrione and tembotrione are able to bind with HPPD of *B. cereus* ATCC14579, *S. oneidensis* MR-1 and *P. fluorescens* F113. Whatever the strain, docking results suggest that tembotrione and sulcotrione binds more tightly to the bacterial HPPDs tested than mesotrione. Regarding the number of docking achieving the preferred binding pose (similar to green pose in **Supplementary Information 6**), both sulcotrione and mesotrione docked correctly and more frequently than tembotrione. These latter observations do not correspond to the one obtained with whole-cell assay experiments where tembotrione had a higher inhibitory potential than sulcotrione and mesotrione whatever the strains. Interestingly, Moran *et al.*, suggest that HPPD inhibitor selectivity is based more on bioavailability of the molecule than on direct affinity for HPPD from a

specific organism [5]. This observation could explain the apparent discrepancy observed in the results between docking and whole-cell experiments.

Our results also showed that the binding force of the three tested β -triketones with the HPPD of P. fluorescens F113 is lower than the one of the two others strains, suggesting that these three compounds are less able to fit the substrate binding pocket of the HPPD of P. fluorescens F113 than that of the two others microbial HPPD. It is noteworthy that these docking predictions agree with the measurement done with our colorimetric whole-cell assay.

In fact, *P. fluorescens* F113, was tolerant to the tested β-triketones despite the fact that docking predicted that these active compounds can interact with the active site of its HPPD, even if this HPPD presents the lowest binding force of interaction. Therefore, this poor interaction with the HPPD enzyme of P. fluorescens F113 cannot only explained the β-triketone tolerance of this strain. Thus, in silico analysis is useful to understand and describe molecular interaction between the active compound and the target. However, it is not enough to fully predict the tolerance or the sensitivity of the bacterial HPPD to βtriketones because there are a range of other abiotic and biotic processes involved in the response bacterial cells to β-triketones. A new screening of bacterial strains having either tolerant or sensitive HPPD activity have to be done to gain more information and validate the docking results obtained with the three HPPD sequences of this study. Furthermore, additional experiments analysing the inhibitor binding kinetics on purified HPPDs from these microorganisms would yield important information regarding their affinity. Our docking provides insight on the Kon values of the herbicides, but it is well known that HPPD inhibitors bind very tightly to the target site [67]. Consequently, measuring the Koff values might be even more insightful. Indeed, compounds with high Koff values (binding for a very short time) may not be very active. On the other hand, compounds with low Koff values (tight binding or irreversible inhibition) would potentially be more active [68]. However, this is beyond the scope of this paper.

Conclusion

At a molecular level, molecular docking reveals that tembotrione and sulcotrione appear to have a stronger binding force to the bacterial HPPD enzymes than mesotrione. However, *in silico* study shows that tembotrione binds less frequently than the two other molecules. At a cellular level, whole-cell assays show that inhibitory potential is also molecule dependent but with tembotrione on the top step of the podium. Such differences allow us to think that *in silico* and *in vivo* approaches complement each other. HPPD enzymatic activity inhibition also appears strain-dependent. At a molecular level, *P. fluorescens* F113 shows a lower binding force to herbicides than *B. cereus* ATCC14579 and *S. oneidensis* MR-1, confirming the observations made at the cellular level. By combining approaches at both cellular and

- molecular levels, this is the first study that assesses the effect of agronomical doses of three β-triketone
 active compounds on the HPPD enzymatic activities of six environmental bacterial strains.
- 411 At the community level, a recent lab-to-field study demonstrates that, neither sulcotrione nor its
- formulated product, Decano[®], has an effect on the abundance and the diversity of both total and *hppd*
- bacterial communities [32]. As we measure that tembotrione has a lower EC_{50} than sulcotrione in some
- bacteria, conducting a lab-to-field experiment with tembotrione and one of its formulated products could
- be interesting. Actually, working at a lower biological level (i.e. whole-cell assay coupled with
- 416 molecular docking) should be of interest, prior to conducting microcosm or field experiments, which
- are more difficult to set up.
- Whole-cell assay developed in this study could be applied to other herbicides and pesticides that also
- 419 target an enzyme harbored by non-target organisms and, more precisely, by microorganisms, like
- 420 EPSPSynthase, targeted by Glyphosate or ALSynthase targeted by sulfonylurea herbicides [69], as there
- is a need to develop new tools for pesticide risk assessment on soil microorganisms [70,71].

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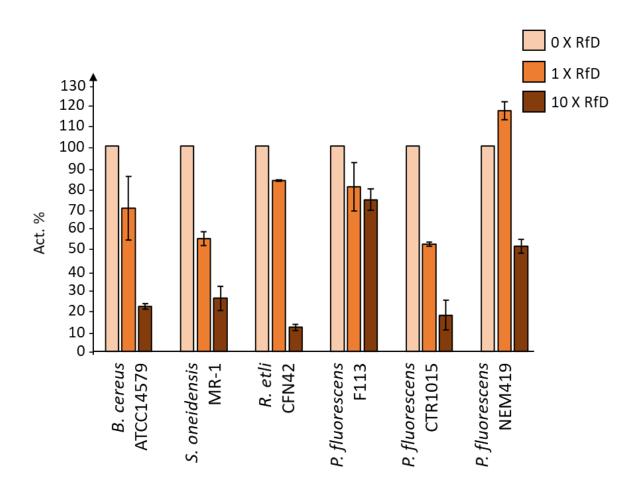
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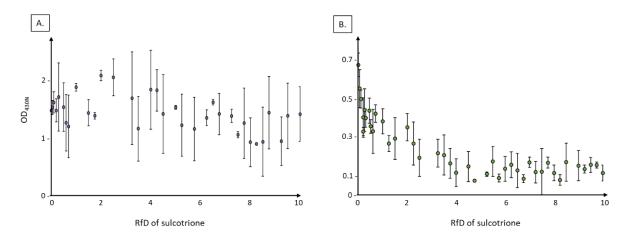


Figure 2. OD_{430N} in *P. fluorescens* F113 (A) and *S. oneidensis* MR-1 (B) in regard to increasing RfD of sulcotrione. Each value is obtained by subtracting the mean OD_{430} obtained at various concentrations of sulcotrione (i.e. OD_{430A}) from the mean OD_{430} obtained in negative controls (i.e. OD_{430NC}) and is depicted on this figure as " OD_{430N} ". Error bars are calculated from the standard deviation for each series.

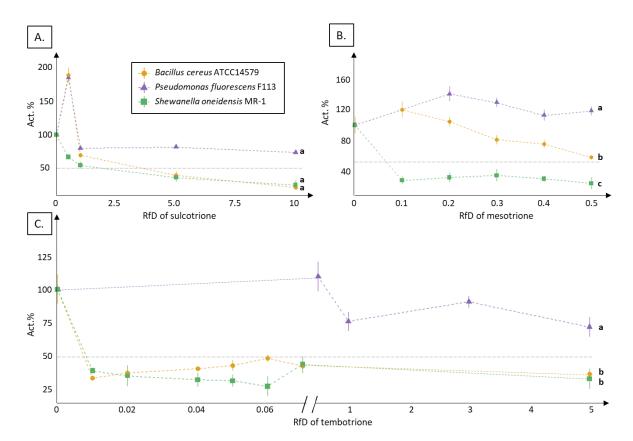


Figure 3. HPPD relative activity (Act. %) in *B. cereus* ATCC14579, *S. oneidensis* MR-1 and *P. fluorescens* F113 exposed to sulcotrione (A), mesotrione (B) and tembotrione (C). Act. % represents the percentage obtained by dividing the mean OD_{430} obtained at various concentrations of sulcotrione, mesotrione or tembotrione (i.e. OD_{430A}) from the mean OD_{430} obtained in the positive control (i.e. OD_{430PC}). The grey dotted line corresponds to 50% of activity. Error bars are calculated from the standard deviation for each series. Significant differences between means are indicated by different letters (Kruskal–Wallis tests, p<0.05).

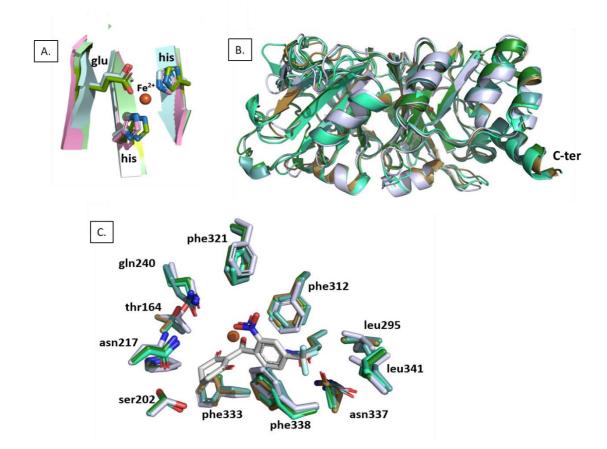


Figure 4. A) Residues involved in stabilizing the metal dication (Fe²⁺) within the HPPD catalytic domain of *P. fluorescens* in pink (1cxj), *A. thaliana* in green (6isd) and *H. sapiens* in blue (3isq). B) Alignment of the 4 bacterial models derived from the HPPD sequences of *P. fluorescens* F113, *B. cereus* ATCC14579, *S. oneidensis* MR-1 and *R. etli* CFN42. C) Amino acid residues lining the substrate binding pocket of HPPD are highly conserved of the 4 bacterial homology models. Numbering is based on sequence of *P. fluorescens* HPPD.

Table 1. β-triketone molecules used as herbicides. CMBA: 2-chloro-4-methyl sulfonyl benzoic acid; CHD: 1,3-cyclohexanedione MNBA: 4-methylsulfonyl-2-nitro benzoic acid; AMBA: 2-amino-4-methylsulfonylbenzoic acid TCMBA: 2-(2-chloro-4-mesyl-3-(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxy) methyl) benzoic acid.

| Molecule | Sulcotrione | Mesotrione | Tembotrione |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|
| Chemical structure | | O NO ₂ | CI CI F F |
| IUPAC name | 2-(2-Chloro-4- (methylsulfonyl)benzoy l)cyclohexane-1,3- dione | 2-(4-mesyl-2- nitrobenzoyl)cyclohexa ne-1,3-dione | 2-(2-Chloro-4- (methylsulfonyl)-3- ((2,2,2- trifluoroethoxy)methyl) benzoyl)cyclohexane- 1,3-dione |
| MW (g/mol) | 324.8 | 339.3 | 440.8 |
| pKa | 3.13 | 3.12 | 3.18 |
| Solubility in water | 0.17 | 15 | 28.3 |
| at pH 7 (g/L) | | | |
| Log Kow | 0.55 | -0.17 | 1.8 |
| Main degradation product | CMBA; CHD | MNBA; AMBA | TCMBA |