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1 **Screening potential toxicity of currently used herbicides in the freshwater amphipod**
2 ***Gammarus fossarum* based on multi-level biomarker responses to field-realistic exposures**

3

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27 **Abstract**

28 Herbicides are widely used to control weeds and maximize crop growth. Because of agricultural
29 runoff, these chemicals are potentially hazardous to aquatic wildlife. However, their ecotoxicity
30 and resulting disturbance in individual performance remain scarcely documented in freshwater
31 crustaceans. This study aimed to screen the potential toxicity of currently used herbicides in the
32 ecosystem engineer *Gammarus fossarum* using multi-level biomarkers. In microcosms,
33 gammarids were exposed for 72 h to 12 herbicides individually (quinmerac, mesotrione,
34 bentazone, isoproturon, chlortoluron, metazachlor, chloridazone, diflufenican, flufenacet,
35 aclonifen, prosulfocarb and metolachlor) at a field-realistic concentration (i.e. 10 µg/L). The
36 sublethal effects were assessed by monitoring several biochemical, physiological and
37 behavioural traits. In exposed gammarids, alterations in behavioural activities were observed,
38 i.e. increased locomotion and respiration as a general trend. Moreover, biochemical biomarkers
39 suggested herbicide-dependent disruptions in moulting, antioxidant responses and cell integrity.
40 Integrating multi-metric variations through statistical analyses allowed us to identify herbicide
41 clusters likely to trigger common sets of biological responses. Depressed antioxidant defence at
42 the cell level and impaired respiration at the individual level were the predominant toxic effects
43 of herbicides, related to their hydrophobic feature. Furthermore, establishing relationships
44 between sublethal alterations in gammarids and acute lethality or chronic toxicity values defined
45 for regulatory purposes supports the relevance of these alterations as early warnings of toxicity.
46 Our findings demonstrate that currently used herbicides have unexpected toxicological effects in
47 a non-target wild animal, with possible long-term alterations in population dynamics and
48 associated ecological functions, which constitute promising diagnostic tools for risk assessment
49 in agricultural areas.

50 **Keywords:** Sublethal toxicity; Integrated biomarker response; Crustaceans; Pesticide;
51 Behaviour; Bioassays

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 To meet the demands of human population growth, pesticides are used intensively in
55 agriculture worldwide to protect crops against diseases and pests so as to optimize food
56 production. Although agronomically beneficial, the hydraulic transfer of these pesticides (e.g.
57 agricultural runoff, drainage) from agrosystems to water bodies (e.g. rivers, streams, ponds)
58 results in the degradation of water quality and organism habitats, hence threatening freshwater
59 biodiversity (Tournebize et al. 2012, Lefrancq et al. 2017, Halbach et al. 2021). For instance,
60 pesticides can lead to declines in populations and to disturbances in the structure of microbial
61 and faunal communities as well as in associated ecosystem functions (e.g. litter decomposition)
62 (Kohler and Triebkorn 2013, Rossi et al. 2018, Schäfer 2019). At the continental scale, almost
63 half of European water bodies and their biodiversity are thus at risk from pesticides according to
64 analyses of large datasets (Malaj et al. 2014, Szöcs et al. 2017). Early detection of the poisoning
65 of wild organisms is therefore crucial to prevent severe ecological alterations in agriculturally
66 impacted hydrosystems.

67 In the Northern Hemisphere, the predominant active ingredients applied to agrosystems
68 are herbicides, which are used to control weeds. Consequently, these chemicals are frequently
69 measured (i.e. from a few micrograms per litre to several milligrams per litre) in streams and
70 wetlands (Tournebize et al. 2012, Szöcs et al. 2017, Bighiu et al. 2020) and they accumulate in
71 fauna (Inostroza et al. 2016, Shahid et al. 2018). Despite their larger soil spread and higher
72 occurrence in freshwaters compared with insecticides and fungicides, the toxic potential of
73 herbicides in aquatic wildlife is still scarcely documented, glyphosate excluded (Kohler and
74 Triebkorn 2013, Velisek et al. 2020). This is likely due to the presumed harmlessness of
75 herbicides for animals according to their mode of action. Indeed, most herbicide groups are
76 synthesized to target biological processes specific to plants such as photosynthesis as well as
77 biosynthesis of carotenoids, chlorophylls or plant-growth regulators such as auxins. Besides,
78 most toxicity data available for herbicides are based on lethal criteria obtained from test

79 organisms, i.e. a lentic species of *Daphnia* genus. and/or a freshwater fish species, during
80 controlled acute exposures (Malaj et al. 2014, Spycher et al. 2018). Nevertheless, lethality
81 generally occurs at environmentally unrealistic levels that disregard biologically injurious events
82 preceding mortality. Indeed, sublethal alterations have been reported in fish exposed to
83 herbicide mixtures at environmental exposure levels, such as changes in immunity, antioxidant
84 defences, cell integrity and swimming (Fatima et al. 2007, Shinn et al. 2015, Jacquin et al.
85 2019). Thus, the combined use of multiple-level biomarkers offers promising lines of enquiry
86 for early screening of the unintended effects elicited by herbicides at different levels of
87 biological complexity (from cell to population level) in aquatic non-target species (Jacquin et al.
88 2019, Lebrun et al. 2021).

89 As a ubiquitous biological component of water bodies, macroinvertebrates cover a broad
90 range of trophic levels and ensure important ecological functions such as litter degradation and
91 nutrient cycling. Among litter-decomposers abundant in European freshwaters, gammarids are
92 easily sampled in situ and handled in the laboratory. Therefore, these ecosystem engineers are
93 very popular for developing exposure biomarkers to address ecotoxicological issues regarding
94 chemicals in the aquatic environment (Kunz et al. 2010). At the sub-individual level,
95 biochemical biomarkers involved in vital functions of gammarids (e.g. digestion, moulting) or in
96 cell stress have been proposed as early initiating events of toxicity for various organic
97 contaminants, including pesticides (Lebrun et al. 2012, Gismondi and Thomé 2014, Demirci et
98 al. 2018). At the individual/population level, pesticide exposure can elicit changes in
99 behavioural endpoints, such as locomotion or mating (Cold and Forbes 2004, Beketov and Liess
100 2008). The relevance of combining such biochemical and behavioural biomarkers to detect
101 sublethal impairments has been demonstrated in gammarids exposed to environmental
102 concentrations of insecticides or fungicides (Lebrun et al. 2020, Lebrun et al. 2021).

103 Although the harmlessness of herbicides for aquatic wildlife may be presumed through
104 modes of action targeting plant-specific biological processes, we hypothesize that these

105 chemicals are nevertheless likely to generate sublethal alterations at different levels of biological
106 organization due to their internalization, induction of oxidative stress and unexpected
107 interactions with biological components (Shahid et al. 2018, Velisek et al. 2020, Lee et al.
108 2021). Thus, this study aimed to screen the potential toxicity of currently used herbicides
109 exhibiting different chemical properties, modes of action and target groups (i.e. aclonifen,
110 bentazone, chloridazone, chlortoluron, diflufenican, flufenacet, isoproturon, mesotrione,
111 metazachlor, metolachlor, prosulfocarb and quinmerac) in a non-target freshwater species, i.e.
112 *Gammarus fossarum*. In microcosms, gammarids were exposed to herbicides for 72 h at 10 µg/L
113 representing a field-realistic short exposure following runoffs (Lefrancq et al. 2017, Spycher et
114 al. 2018). To explore impairments in performances and health of the individuals, various
115 behavioural traits based on locomotion, reproduction and respiration were monitored in
116 herbicide-exposed gammarids. In parallel, biochemical parameters involved in major biological
117 functions– i.e. enzymes involved in digestive metabolism (β -glucosidase, β -galactosidase),
118 growth and moulting (chitobiase) – and markers of cell stress (peroxidase, acidic and alkaline
119 phosphatases) were also assessed to identify early disturbances caused by non-specific toxic
120 interactions or induction of oxidative stress. All these behavioural and biochemical traits were
121 selected to assess toxicant-induced sublethal changes in *Gammarus* spp. (Cold and Forbes 2004,
122 Kunz et al. 2010, Gismondi and Thomé 2014, Lebrun et al. 2021).

123

124 **2. Materials and Methods**

125 *2.1. Selected herbicides and environmental levels*

126 The 12 herbicides were selected to cover different chemical classes and modes of action
127 among active ingredients found in the aquatic environment, as presented in Table S1 (see Suppl.
128 Info., SI). This selection was also supported by pre-existing data of routine monitoring
129 programmes applied on large temporal and spatial scales in Europe. Table S1 summarizes the
130 frequency of quantification and maximal concentrations recorded (*i*) locally in the Rampillon

131 wetland constructed to collect water from a 355-ha catchment in an intensive agricultural
132 landscape (northern France, approx. 20 composite samples/year during 2011–2018; (Tournebize
133 et al. 2012), (ii) at the scale of the Seine River Basin (northern France, 77 freshwater sites
134 periodically monitored during 2014–2015, 6–24 annual samples/site; Info'Phytos N°10, DRIEE
135 website) and (iii) at the national scale for Sweden (32 streams from agricultural catchments
136 monitored during 2015–2016, 6–24 annual grab samples/site; (Bighiu et al. 2020)) and for
137 Switzerland (five freshwater sites monitored for 6 months in 2015, 34–60 composite
138 samples/site; (Spycher et al. 2018)). Although this data extraction is not exhaustive, it highlights
139 the occurrence of selected herbicides in freshwaters under agricultural pressure or not, and
140 shows the maximal concentrations exceeding one $\mu\text{g/L}$ for almost all chemicals, diflufenican
141 excluded. Although the detection levels in surface water are not equal, the range of maximal
142 concentration extracted from this dataset (i.e. 1.5–40 $\mu\text{g/L}$) led to our choice of a 10- $\mu\text{g/L}$
143 exposure level for gammarids as an environmentally relevant concentration to be used for
144 toxicity comparisons among active ingredients at equal amounts.

145 All pesticides, i.e. aclonifen (ACN), bentazone (BTZ), chloridazone (CLZ), chlortoluron
146 (CLT), diflufenican (DFF), flufenacet (FFT), isoproturon (ISO), mesotrione (MST), metazachlor
147 (MTZ), S/R-metolachlor (MTC), prosulfocarb (PRO) and quinmerac (QUI), were purchased
148 from Sigma-Aldrich (PESTANAL® as analytical standards, purity $\geq 98\%$, except DFF with \geq
149 95% .), diluted in acetonitrile/pure water 10/90 at 1 g/L and used as spiking solutions for
150 experiments in microcosms. Note that metolachlor is supplied as predominantly S-metolachlor
151 insofar as the product may contain up to 40% (R)-enantiomer.

152

153 2.2. Gammarid collection and experimental design

154 *Gammarus fossarum* individuals were collected in a forest stream (Ru St Blandin,
155 France) defined as a reference site, i.e. freely contaminated by metals and pesticides (Urien et al.
156 2017, Lebrun et al. 2020). Adults were directly size-calibrated (1.0 ± 0.2 cm) in the field using

157 a series of sieves and brought back to the laboratory in a cool box filled with local water.
158 Because of logistic constraints and an important number of microcosms, two collections of
159 gammarids were performed 3 weeks apart to achieve the toxicity screening of herbicides, i.e. the
160 first collection was in February and the second in March 2021. In the laboratory, gammarids
161 were acclimated for 4 days by switching gradually local water with Volvic® mineral water. For
162 the following 3 days, females and males were sorted daily into two different aerated aquaria so
163 as to separate newly copulating pairs by amplexus, as described by Lebrun et al. (2020).
164 Amphipods were maintained at 13°C under a 9-h:15-h light:dark cycle to mimic the natural
165 photoperiod at the moment of their collection, and were fed *ad libitum* with alder leaves (*Alnus*
166 *glutinosa*) collected at the sampling site until their exposure in microcosms.

167 The first series of exposures included BTZ, CLT, ISO, MST, MTZ and QUI, and the
168 second ACN, CLZ, DFF, FFT, MTC and PRO. All the exposures were carried out in
169 microcosms (i.e. 800-mL Pyrex® beakers), in which 10 males and 10 females were introduced
170 in 250 mL of Volvic water spiked with each of the 12 herbicides. For each exposure condition,
171 four replicates were made (i.e. 4 microcosms × 20 gammarids) and a fifth microcosm was
172 created without gammarids to determine oxygen consumption, as described below. All beakers
173 were previously equilibrated for 4 days with contaminated water before introducing gammarids
174 so as to prevent any interactions of the pesticides with the beaker walls during the exposures. All
175 exposures lasted 72 h in order to mimic environmentally realistic short exposures resulting from
176 periods of surface water runoff and/or drain flow (Lefrancq et al. 2017, Spycher et al. 2018,
177 Schäfer 2019). During the 72-h exposures, the exposure media were renewed daily to ensure
178 constant exposure and to reconstitute oxygen levels in each beaker. At each renewal, dead
179 amphipods were removed and counted to monitor the mortality rate. Controls were performed
180 for each of the two exposure series by adding only acetonitrile in the microcosm water in an
181 amount equivalent to spiking by herbicides (i.e. 0.0001% or 1 ppmv). All microcosms were

182 maintained at 13°C under a 9-h:15-h light:dark cycle and covered with cardboard to avoid
183 photolysis from artificial lights.

184 In gammarid-free microcosms, water was sampled before and after each daily renewal to
185 ensure the constancy of the exposure levels and the absence of abiotic effects on herbicides (e.g.
186 photolysis, sorption on beaker walls, degradation). Water samples were analysed via liquid
187 chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC/MS) following an analysis method developed in our
188 laboratory (see Table S2 in SI).

189 At the end of the 72-h exposures, 3 males were randomly sampled in each beaker, gently
190 dried between filter papers, weighed and stored at -80 °C for further biochemical analyses, as
191 described below. Only males were used for biochemical assays because of the relative stability
192 of their digestive metabolism, energy storage and reproduction stages when compared with
193 females (Charron et al. 2014, Lebrun and Gismondi 2020).

194

195 *2.3. Behavioural traits*

196 Behavioural traits measured in this study have been described in detail elsewhere
197 (Lebrun et al. 2020). Briefly, locomotion and amplexus rate were directly determined by
198 counting moves and copulating pairs in each microcosm after 24, 48 and 72 h of exposure. For
199 respiration, the oxygen levels measured in the microcosms without gammarids were substituted
200 to those measured in the presence of gammarids to establish the oxygen consumption inherent to
201 the activity of amphipods.

202

203 *2.4. Biochemical assays*

204 After crushing the pools of frozen males in citrate/phosphate buffer, the cytosolic
205 supernatants were used for enzymatic assays and total protein quantification in 96-well
206 microplates, as detailed by Lebrun et al. (2021). Briefly, the activities of hydrolases were
207 assessed by using their respective *p*-nitrophenyl-conjugated substrates (Sigma-Aldrich) on a

208 microplate reader (Berthold Technologies, Germany). For peroxidase activity, the oxidation 2,2-
209 azinobis-3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid was monitored in the presence of H₂O₂. All
210 activities are given in units per g (wet weight) of gammarid (U/g_{ww}). One unit of activity
211 corresponds to the amount of enzyme that catalyses 1 μmol of substrate in 1 min.

212

213 2.5. Calculations and statistical analyses

214 Significant differences in biochemical or behavioural levels between exposure conditions
215 were determined with the Mann–Whitney test (*U* test; *P* < 0.05). For inter-series comparisons,
216 all behavioural and biochemical deviations in exposed gammarids were related to levels
217 measured in unexposed gammarids in each series separately, and expressed as percentage.

218 Multiple factor analysis (MFA) was used to study statistical links between the sets of
219 behavioural and biochemical variables, and to assess their relative contributions to
220 characterizing global stresses in gammarids exposed to herbicides. A hierarchical cluster
221 analysis (HAC) was performed from the four first coordinates of the MFA-projected individuals
222 (i.e. Dim1 to Dim4 as major contributors based on the squared-cosines of projections; see SI) to
223 establish clusters of herbicides reflecting similarities in multi-metric responses at the threshold
224 of *R* > 0.5. The data analyses were performed using XLStat (Addinsoft).

225 The MFA scores were plotted against the toxic units (TU) to assess the predictive
226 potential of integrated sublethal responses developed in gammarids as early warnings of toxicity
227 in wildlife. As toxic equivalence quotients, TUs were calculated as ratios of actual exposure
228 concentrations to toxicity data established from acute or chronic exposures of standard
229 organisms. For all herbicides, 48-h LC50 and 21-d NOEC were thus extracted from the
230 Pesticide Properties Database or PPDB (Lewis et al. 2016) as reference values of acute and
231 chronic toxicity in the crustacean *Daphnia magna* (except for ISO where LC50_{48h} was derived
232 from an unknown crustacean species).

233

234 **3. Results and discussion**

235 *3.1. Mortality*

236 Whatever the herbicide used, no increased mortality was observed in exposed gammarids
237 when compared with controls, for which the mortality rates were $5.0 \pm 2.4\%$ and $4.2 \pm 2.2\%$ for
238 series I and II, respectively. This was expected because of the modes of action targeting
239 biological processes specific to plants and the low lethal potential of herbicides established in
240 crustaceans (Table S1 in SI). Indeed, the concentrations in waters leading to 50% mortality
241 obtained for the test organism *Daphnia magna* after 48-h exposure in standardized conditions
242 ranged from 240 to 622,000 $\mu\text{g/L}$, with DFF–MST as the min–max values from the PPDB
243 (Lewis et al. 2016). Although used in regulatory frameworks, this toxicity endpoint is not only
244 environmentally unrealistic but also inappropriate for detecting sublethal changes potentially
245 elicited by herbicides in animals. Consequently, changes in metabolic processes, individual
246 performances and behaviour traits were investigated in exposed gammarids for an accurate
247 assessment of the toxic potential of herbicides, according to an approach based on multi-level
248 biomarkers (Kunz et al. 2010, Jacquin et al. 2019, Lebrun et al. 2021).

249

250 *3.2. Physiological and behavioural traits*

251 *3.2.1. Base levels in unexposed gammarids*

252 The base levels of physiological and behavioural traits monitored after 24, 48 and 72 h in
253 gammarid controls from both experiment series are shown in Fig. S1 (see SI). For each series
254 considered separately, statistical analyses revealed significant decreases in locomotion at 72 h
255 when compared to 24 and 48 h. To a lesser extent, the respiratory activity and amplexus rate
256 tended to decrease slightly over time. Such temporal variations most likely resulted from the
257 acclimation of organisms to their new artificial media following their introduction in
258 microcosms. Nevertheless, these variations are in compliance with ranges previously established
259 in similar conditions (i.e. individuals collected in the same annual period and acclimated in

260 microcosms) or during maintenance of gammarids for 10 weeks in Volvic mineral water
261 (Lebrun et al. 2020, Lebrun and Gismondi 2020, Lebrun et al. 2021). Thus, this confirms the
262 robustness of these behavioural tools for assessing the fitness of gammarids.

263 Concerning inter-series comparisons, no significant temporal differences were recorded
264 between the controls of both experimental series for locomotion and respiration at each time
265 point of monitoring and for amplexus formation after 72 h. Moreover, the analysis of variance
266 confirmed the absence of an effect attributable to a series in the dataset of functional traits,
267 hence supporting further inter-series comparisons, as discussed below.

268

269 3.2.2. *Physiological and behavioural responses to herbicides*

270 The effects of herbicides on amplexus rate, locomotion and respiratory activity are
271 presented in Fig. 1 as percentages of functional gain or loss relative to controls inherent to each
272 series. Regarding the amplexus rate, most herbicides had no effect on reformation of copulating
273 pairs when compared with unexposed controls (Fig. 1A). Only MTC and DFF transiently
274 stimulated the amplexus rate at 24 h by 50% and 63%, respectively, without lasting over the
275 whole period of exposure. By contrast, ISO decreased the amplexus rate to 56% and 27% after
276 48 and 72 h of exposure, respectively. In the literature, alterations in mating are generally
277 reported for gammarids exposed to insecticides following pulsed and short exposures (Cold and
278 Forbes 2004, Kunz et al. 2010, Lebrun et al. 2020). Here, we shed light on early disturbances in
279 the reproductive behaviour of gammarids elicited by a substituted urea herbicide with potential
280 repercussions on population recruitment, providing that such effect is demonstrated in the long
281 term. Nevertheless, this reduced amplexus rate cannot be extrapolated to the class of substituted
282 urea synthesized to target plant photosystems. Indeed, the absence of an effect of chlortoluron
283 on mating suggests an adverse effect inherent to the molecule isoproturon (Fig. 1A).

284 With regard to locomotion (Fig. 1B), the activity was anecdotally and transiently
285 decreased by about 50% only in gammarids exposed to QUI for 24 h and to DFF for 48 h. As a

286 general trend, all of the herbicides excluding DFF significantly stimulated locomotion starting
287 from 48 h of exposure until it more than doubled after 72 h (or even quadrupled for MTZ and
288 ISO). This highlights the significant hyperactivity in exposed individuals when compared with
289 controls. In the literature, opposite effects on locomotor activity are recorded for freshwater fish
290 species, in particular according to the life stage. Thus, herbicides are reported to stimulate the
291 locomotor activity of fish larvae, while hypoactivity is usually reported in juveniles/adults
292 because of the altered perception of external stimuli (Shinn et al. 2015, Wang et al. 2018,
293 Jacquin et al. 2019). Here, we suppose that the hyperactivity observed in gammarids is likely
294 related to an avoidance strategy, i.e. an attempt to migrate towards uncontaminated habitats. For
295 instance, avoidance was described in stream macroinvertebrates including gammarids exposed
296 to aqueous drift-initiating toxicants or in freshwater crustaceans (i.e. isopods and amphipods)
297 exposed to sediments contaminated by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons as organic pollutants
298 (Beketov and Liess 2008, Szczybelski et al. 2018). Besides, initial hyperactivity was reported in
299 gammarids exposed via the aqueous route to insecticides at field-relevant and physiologically
300 acceptable concentrations before triggering a neurotoxic action leading to immobility (Lebrun et
301 al. 2020).

302 Nine of the 12 herbicides tested in gammarids affected the respiratory activity, with
303 opposite effects. In the statistical analysis, weak and transient inhibitions of respiration (< 30%)
304 were observed after 24-h exposure to QUI and CLT, and after 72 h to DFF. By contrast,
305 significant increases in respiratory activity with gains ranging from 34% to 85% were chiefly
306 recorded after 72-h exposure to BTZ, ISO, FFT, MTC, ACN and PRO. For these latter
307 herbicides, the increased oxygen consumption in exposed gammarids may, in part, be related to
308 their hyperactivity in swimming (Fig. 1B vs 1C), as also documented in *G. fossarum* exposed to
309 neonicotinoid and organophosphate insecticides at field-realistic exposure levels (Lebrun et al.
310 2020). However, other herbicides, i.e. QUI, MST, CLT, MTZ and CLZ, significantly stimulated
311 the locomotion of gammarids without increasing oxygen consumption (Fig. 1B vs 1C).

312 Therefore, the effect of herbicides on oxygen consumption may instead reflect physiological
313 adjustments to counterbalance respiratory distress in exposed gammarids. Although no data are
314 available for *Gammarus* spp., some herbicides are indeed reported to cause histological and
315 metabolic alterations associated with the respiratory system in various freshwater species. For
316 instance, at the organ/histological level, MTZ exposure induced structural anomalies in the gills
317 of decapod crayfish, likely to affect oxygen uptake (Velisek et al. 2020). Such histopathological
318 alterations of the gills induced by direct contact are also reported in goldfish exposed to
319 herbicide mixtures (Jacquin et al. 2019). As an example at the metabolic level, herbicides such
320 as bi-pyridines or in particular the diphenyl ether ACN can promote mitochondrial dysfunction
321 associated with alterations in basal respiration and spare capacity in zebrafish (Lee et al. 2021).
322 In addition, excessive oxygen consumption could induce an overproduction of reactive oxygen
323 species inherent to aerobic metabolism, which are deleterious for organisms when not
324 counterbalanced by antioxidant defences (Lushchak 2011). However, such contact-histological
325 or metabolic disruptions resulting from their internalization remain to be described in order to
326 clarify the herbicide-elicited mechanisms of action in gammarids.

327 Considering that herbicide toxicity is still poorly documented in aquatic wildlife, the
328 present study provides valuable information on the harmful effects in a non-target species
329 widely distributed in European freshwaters. Indeed, we demonstrate sublethal disturbances in
330 the behaviour of gammarids as a result of exposure to herbicides at environmentally relevant
331 concentrations, which reflect alterations in individual performances. Insofar as behavioural
332 endpoints are at the interface between physiological and ecological processes, the alterations in
333 individual fitness and early stages of reproduction observed in this ecosystem engineer can
334 affect its population dynamics in the long term with associated impairments in freshwater
335 functions (e.g. shifts in food resources and chains, reduced litter decomposition and altered
336 nutrient cycling, etc.) (Kunz et al. 2010, Kohler and Triebkorn 2013). For instance, a decline in
337 the abundance of invertebrate communities was associated with decreased leaf-litter breakdown

338 in pesticide-contaminated streams in various countries (Schäfer et al. 2007, Schäfer et al. 2012).
339 Consequently, our results support the relevance of using gammarid-developed behavioural traits
340 as early tools for assessing the ecotoxicity of pesticides and preserving aquatic wildlife in
341 agricultural areas.

342

343 3.3. Biochemical responses to herbicides

344 The base levels of biochemical parameters in unexposed males are illustrated in Fig. S1
345 (see SI). Except for acidic phosphatase (PAC), no statistically significant difference was found
346 between the controls of both experimental series. Besides, the natural variability of levels
347 measured in the controls of the present study is included in ranges previously established
348 elsewhere, i.e. in similar conditions of microcosm exposures or during 10-week maintenance of
349 gammarids in aquaria (Lebrun et al. 2020, Lebrun and Gismondi 2020). Hence, this inter-study
350 reliability validates the interest in using selected biochemical tools to screen metabolic changes
351 potentially induced by herbicides at the sub-individual level.

352 The biochemical response to herbicides in *Gammarus fossarum* males exposed for 72 h
353 is presented in Fig. 2, as percentages of gain or loss relative to controls inherent to each series.
354 Concerning the energy-based biomarkers, all of the herbicides tested here had no statistically
355 significant effect on digestive enzymes (i.e. β -glucosidase and β -galactosidase). Hence, these
356 results suggest the absence of a direct impact of these plant-targeting chemicals at an
357 environmental concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$ on the carbohydrate metabolism and energy acquisition
358 of gammarids, unlike neurotoxic insecticides or others toxicants such as metals (Lebrun et al.
359 2017, Lebrun et al. 2020).

360 The activity of chitobiase was stimulated by 21%, 23% and 48% in gammarids exposed
361 to BTZ, MST and MTC, respectively. In the literature, alterations in moulting enzymes involved
362 in exoskeleton degradation and recycling have also been recorded during the exposure of
363 crustaceans, including gammarids, to organic chemicals such as polybrominated diphenyl ethers

364 or pharmaceuticals (Richards et al. 2008, Gismondi and Thomé 2014, Gismondi 2018). Thus,
365 this herbicide-elicited acceleration of moulting in gammarids could reflect endocrinal
366 disruptions by inhibiting the release of the moult-inhibiting hormone or by interacting with
367 ecdysteroid hormone receptors, for instance (Gismondi 2018). Although the mechanisms of
368 action remain to be clarified, our results demonstrate that some herbicides, independently of
369 their chemical class, induced sublethal changes in the moult cycle at field-realistic
370 concentrations, which are likely to affect the growth and reproduction of gammarids with
371 serious consequences in population dynamics in the long term (Gismondi and Thomé 2014).

372 As regards alkaline phosphatase, the activity was significantly decreased by 5 of the 12
373 herbicides studied here, i.e. CLZ, CLT, FFT, DFF and PRO, with losses ranging from 18% to
374 30% for PRO–CLZ representing the min–max values in 72-h-exposed males. As a
375 polyfunctional brush border enzyme involved in transphosphorylation reactions, alkaline
376 phosphatase is known to play a vital role in several important intracellular processes associated
377 with cell integrity, signal transduction pathways, enzyme and phospholipid synthesis, secretion
378 activity, metabolite transport across the cell membranes, spermatogenesis and non-specific
379 immunity in crustaceans. Various organic toxicants including pesticides were reported to alter
380 alkaline phosphatase in estuarine crabs and freshwater prawns (Omkar 1986, Vijayavel and
381 Balasubramanian 2006, Dai et al. 2014). Consequently, herbicide-elicited changes in alkaline
382 phosphatase levels can affect gammarids in a variety of ways, thereby generating physiological
383 and metabolic abnormalities.

384 Concerning stress markers, no effect of herbicides on acidic phosphatase, a marker of
385 intracellular cytotoxicity (e.g. destruction of lysosomal membranes, autolytic degradation of
386 dead cells), was recorded. By contrast, most herbicides significantly affected the activity of
387 peroxidase (PerOx), an antioxidant enzyme, with opposite effects on the function of their
388 increasing hydrophobic feature (Fig. 2 and Table S1). Thus, only the herbicides with negative
389 $\log K_{ow}$, i.e. QUI and BTZ, stimulated the PerOx activity by 11% and 5%, whereas the others

390 with positive $\log K_{ow}$ inhibited it significantly, with the maximal effect reaching -39% for ACN.
391 Thus, we found a significant correlation between the $\log K_{ow}$ of herbicides and the decrease in
392 PerOx activity ($\text{PerOx} = -7.4 \log K_{ow} - 0.1$; $R^2 > 0.78$ with $P < 0.01$; see Fig. S2 in SI). In
393 accordance with our results, herbicides are often reported to decrease antioxidant enzyme levels
394 in freshwater crustaceans, such as glyphosate in *G. pulex* or MTZ in crayfish during short
395 exposures to environmental levels (Pala 2019, Velisek et al. 2020). Consequently, the tested
396 herbicides seem to affect the defence system against oxidative stress without any associated
397 alterations in the cell integrity of gammarids after 72-h exposure, since no PAC changes were
398 observed. This suggests that gammarids are able to cope with internalized herbicides during
399 short exposures despite a potential production of reactive oxygen species, as reported in crayfish
400 exposed to MTZ (Velisek et al. 2020). Nevertheless, alterations in cell structure generated by
401 oxidative stress cannot be excluded during exposures longer than 72 h because of accumulating
402 levels of reactive oxygen species and reduced antioxidant defence in the long term. The
403 inhibitive effect of herbicides on PerOx proportionally related to their hydrophobic feature could
404 result in their internalization and accumulation in fatty tissues and organs, in particular in the
405 hepatopancreas as the seat of enzyme production in gammarids. Further investigations are thus
406 required to determine the internalization and intracellular fate of herbicides in gammarids and,
407 thereby, to clarify their toxic mechanisms.

408 Here, our biochemical investigations shed light on sublethal alterations in various
409 biological functions in a non-target freshwater species exposed to currently used herbicides at
410 field-realistic levels. As early initiating events, these biochemical changes occurring at the
411 cellular/individual level could generate deleterious alterations at higher levels of biological
412 organization and in associated ecological functions (e.g. colony decline, shift in community
413 structure and species richness, decreased litter decomposition and nutrient cycling, etc.), as
414 supported by the concept of adverse outcome pathways (Kramer et al. 2011, Kohler and
415 Triebkorn 2013). Although they offer promising lines of enquiry in population-level risk

416 assessment, the establishment of such obvious links from cellular events to ecological
417 repercussions remains, to date, a major challenge in predictive ecotoxicology.

418

419 *3.4. Integrative analyses of multi-level responses*

420 A multiple factor analysis (MFA) was performed to summarize multi-metric variations
421 observed in exposed gammarids and to assess the complementarity of biochemical and
422 behavioural biomarker sets in identifying sublethal alterations and in clustering herbicides
423 exhibiting toxic modes of action that are potentially similar. As illustrated in Fig. 3, the first two
424 dimensions of MFA, i.e. Dim1 and Dim2, explained 57% of the variability in multi-level
425 responses. Dim1 was equivalently represented by F1_bioch and F1_trait as integrated factors
426 derived from each of the two sets of variables, i.e. 51% and 49% respectively, (see Suppl. Info.,
427 Fig. S3). This partial redundancy of behavioural traits and biochemical biomarkers in
428 characterizing the sublethal effects of herbicides suggests prospective links between
429 metabolic/biochemical impairments and alterations in individual performance. By contrast, the
430 behavioural set was the major contributor separating individuals in Dim2, i.e. 75% by F2 traits
431 closely related to the respiration rate (Fig. S3). This supports the notion that altered oxygen
432 exchanges provide additional and accurate information on herbicide toxicity because of
433 physiological adjustments, mitochondrial dysfunctions or histopathological alterations of the
434 gills, for instance, as discussed in Sect. 3.2.

435 As illustrated in Fig. 3, four clusters of herbicides exhibiting common multi-metric
436 variations were established (HCA with $R > 0.5$), suggesting possible similar action sites and
437 toxicity mechanisms. Nevertheless, these similarities were not implicitly associated with the
438 chemical classes or inhibitory action site on plants (Table S1). Along Dim1 as the most
439 informative dimension separating the individuals (35.2%), the individuals of clusters I with
440 scores of $\text{Dim1} > 1$ (namely BTZ, MTZ and ISO) were oppositely projected to those of cluster
441 III (DFF, CLZ and CLT; $\text{Dim1} < -1$), highlighting contrasting response trends at cellular and

442 behavioural levels. Generally, clusters I and II tended to inhibit biochemical levels (mainly
443 PAL, PerOx and proteins) and to stimulate the amplexus rate, unlike clusters III and IV (Figs.
444 1A and 2). Unsurprisingly, the positive and negative projections of clusters along Dim2 closely
445 reflect global inhibitions or stimulations of herbicides on the respiration rate previously recorded
446 in exposed gammarids (Fig. 1C). Only MTC was not clustered because it is essentially
447 represented by Dim3 (see SI) for which chitobiase is the major contributor (33%), as shown in
448 Fig. 2.

449 Unlike the partial points of behavioural traits, significant correlations were obtained
450 between the projection coordinates of partial points derived from the biochemical dataset and
451 $\log K_{ow}$ (F1_Bioch scores = $-0.56 \log K_{ow} + 1.26$ and F2_Bioch scores = $0.23 \log K_{ow} - 0.51$; $R^2 >$
452 0.57 and 0.50 respectively, with $P < 0.01$; see Fig. S4 in SI). This finding confirmed that the
453 biochemical responses are closely related to the hydrophobicity of herbicides, as previously
454 highlighted in the case of PerOx (Fig. S2 in SI). This is likely due to the facilitated uptake of
455 hydrophobic/lipophilic herbicides and their internalization in biological tissues, hence
456 generating toxic actions at the intracellular level. Indeed, relationships between bioaccumulation
457 and $\log K_{ow}$ of a large panel of organic chemicals were reported in multiple algae, invertebrate
458 and fish species (Arnot and Gobas 2006). Additional analyses will be performed to establish
459 whether biochemical disturbances can be related to bioaccumulation levels of herbicides in
460 exposed gammarids.

461 To assess the predictive potential of integrated sublethal responses developed in
462 gammarids as early warnings of toxicity for wildlife, the MFA scores were plotted against the
463 toxic units (TU) derived from acute or chronic exposure of the standard organism, *Daphnia*
464 *magna* (Fig. 4). Unlike Dim1 scores, a significant linear relationship was found between Dim2
465 scores and TUs, whether acute or chronic (DFF excluded for acute TU with an inaccurate value
466 of $LC50_{48h}$, i.e. $>0.24 \mu\text{g/L}$; Table S1). Since Dim2 was essentially represented by behavioural
467 traits, in particular by changes in respiratory activity ($> 60\%$), this suggested that the toxic

468 action of herbicides would be essentially mediated by alterations impacting the respiratory
469 process. According to the MFA results, MTC, ACN and PRO as hydrophobic molecules would
470 thus be the most deleterious for gammarids among the tested herbicides (scores Dim2 > 1.0; Fig.
471 S3). This assumption is consistent with the literature. Indeed, mitochondrial dysfunction
472 associated with reduced respiration capacity was often reported in fish exposed to herbicides
473 (Souders et al. 2018). For instance, MTC and ACN promoted dysfunction in the mitochondrial
474 respiratory chain and oxidative stress related to impaired antioxidant defences, hence generating
475 cell apoptosis and physiological anomalies in the vascular system of zebrafish or in the gills of
476 the marbled crayfish (Velisek et al. 2020, Lee et al. 2021). Thus, respiration-based alterations
477 observed in exposed gammarids appear to be early warnings of herbicide toxicity before the
478 occurrence of mortality in individuals and possible deleterious outcomes at higher biological
479 scales (population/community), providing that toxic mechanisms are clarified in this non-target
480 species.

481

482 **Conclusions**

483 Considering that the toxicity of herbicides is still poorly investigated in aquatic wildlife, the
484 present study provides valuable information on the harmful effects of herbicides in a non-target
485 species widely distributed in European freshwaters. Indeed, we found sublethal alterations in
486 various biochemical pathways, individual performances and behavioural traits of gammarids as
487 a result of their exposure to currently used herbicides at field-realistic levels. The analysis of
488 combined multilevel biomarkers allowed us to identify clusters of herbicides likely to trigger
489 common sets of biological responses. Besides, reduced antioxidant defences at the cell level and
490 impaired respiration at the individual level, both coupled with the hydrophobic feature of
491 herbicides, were found to be the predominant toxic effects. Bioaccumulation investigations
492 should thus provide additional information on the mode of action of herbicides. As early
493 initiating events, these alterations occurring at the cellular/individual level in exposed

494 gammarids could thus represent relevant early warnings of deleterious alterations at higher
495 levels of biological organization and in associated ecological functions (e.g. colony decline, shift
496 in community structure and species richness, decreased litter decomposition and nutrient
497 cycling, etc.). Although such tools offer promising lines of enquiry in population-level risk
498 assessment, further studies are required to establish clear links from cellular events to ecological
499 repercussions.

500

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504

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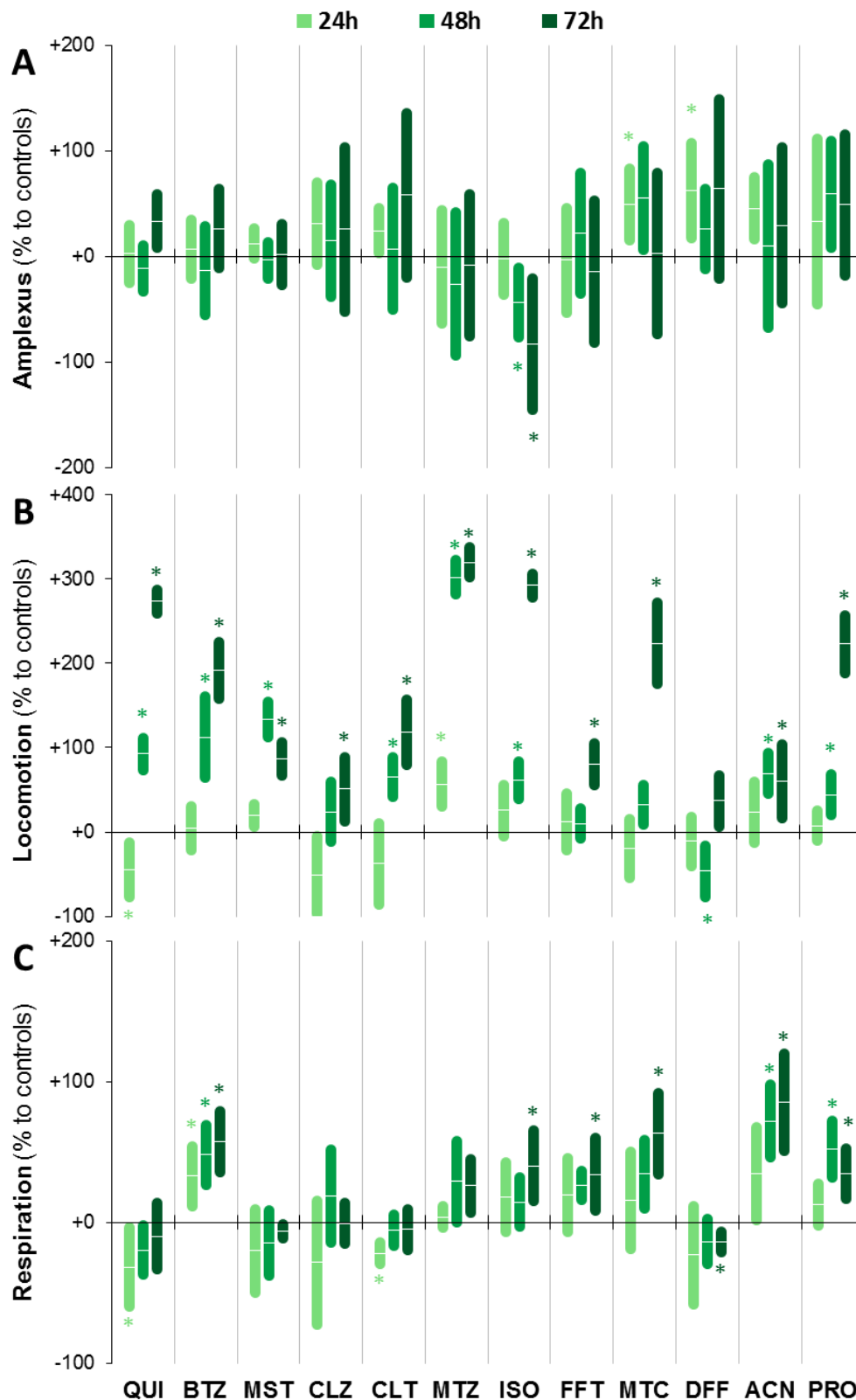


Fig. 1. Changes in **A.** amplexus reformation, **B.** locomotion and **C.** respiratory activity in *Gammarus fossarum* exposed for 24, 48 and 72 h to each of herbicides at 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$. The functional changes are given as percentage, relative to unexposed controls. The bars are SD around means ($n = 4$). *Significant differences when compared with controls (U test; $P < 0.05$). The herbicides are classified according to their increasing hydrophobicity ($\text{Log}K_{ow}$). QUI: quinmerac, BTZ: bentazone, MST: mesotrione, CLZ: chloridazone, CLT: chlortoluron, MTZ: metazachlor, ISO: isoproturon, FFT: flufenacet, MTC: metolachlor, DFF: diflufenican, ACN: aclonifen and PRO: prosulfocarb.

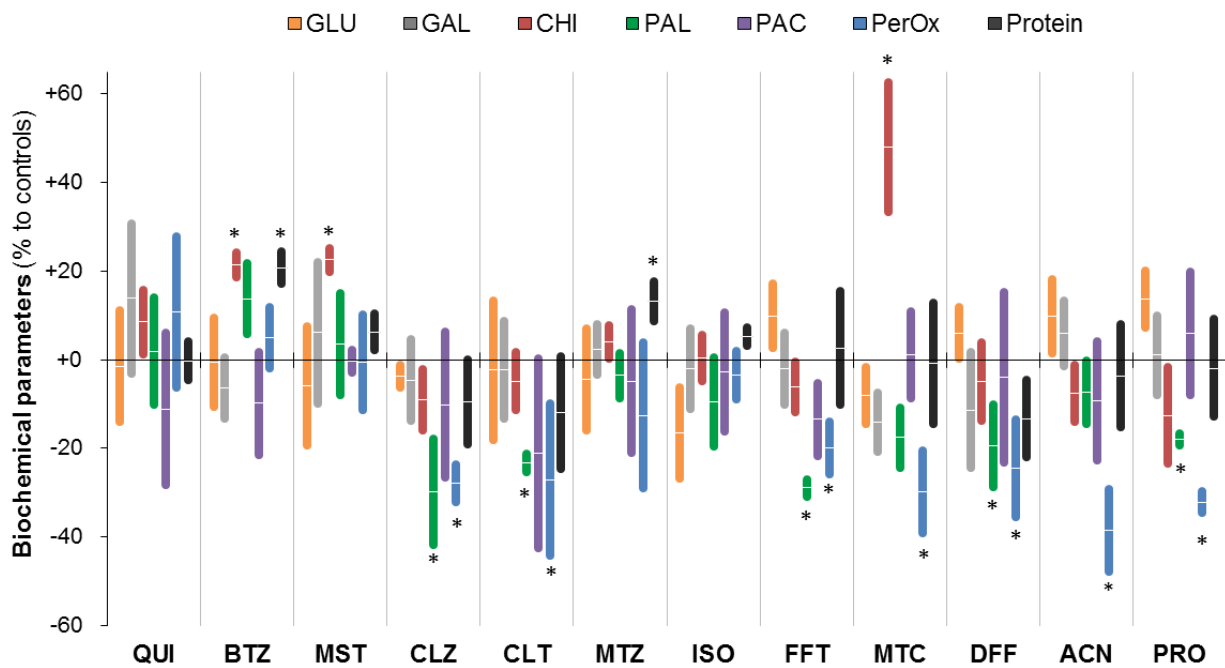


Fig. 2. Impacts of herbicides tested individually at 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$ on biochemical biomarkers in *Gammarus fossarum* after 72 h of exposure. Biochemical changes are given as gain/loss percentage relative to unexposed controls. The herbicides are classified according to their increasing hydrophobicity ($\text{Log}K_{ow}$). The bars are SD around means ($n = 4$). *Significant differences when compared with unexposed controls (U test; $P < 0.05$). GLU, β -glucosidase; GAL, β -galactosidase; CHI, chitobiase; PAC, acidic phosphatase; PAL, alkaline phosphatase and PerOx, peroxidase

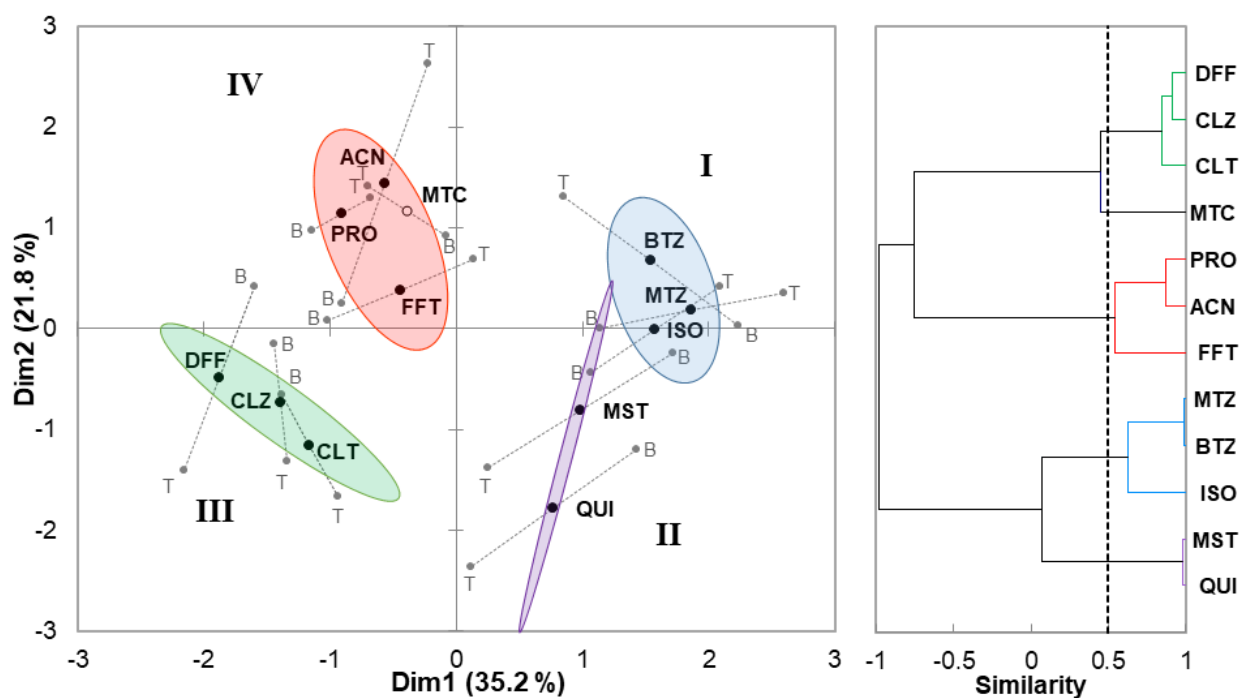


Fig. 3. Multiple factor analysis (MFA) and projection of individuals on the plane defined by Dim1 and Dim2. Each individual is at the barycenter of its partial points defined for a variable set, i.e. B for biochemical biomarkers and T for behavioural traits. Herbicide projections are clustered (from I to IV) according to their similarities established by hierarchical cluster analysis (with $R > 0.5$) in measured multi-metric variations. QUI: quinmerac, BTZ: bentazone, MST: mesotrione, CLZ: chloridazone, CLT: chlortoluron, MTZ: metazachlor, ISO: isoproturon, FFT: flufenacet, MTC: metolachlor, DFF: diflufenican, ACN: aclonifen and PRO: prosulfocarb.

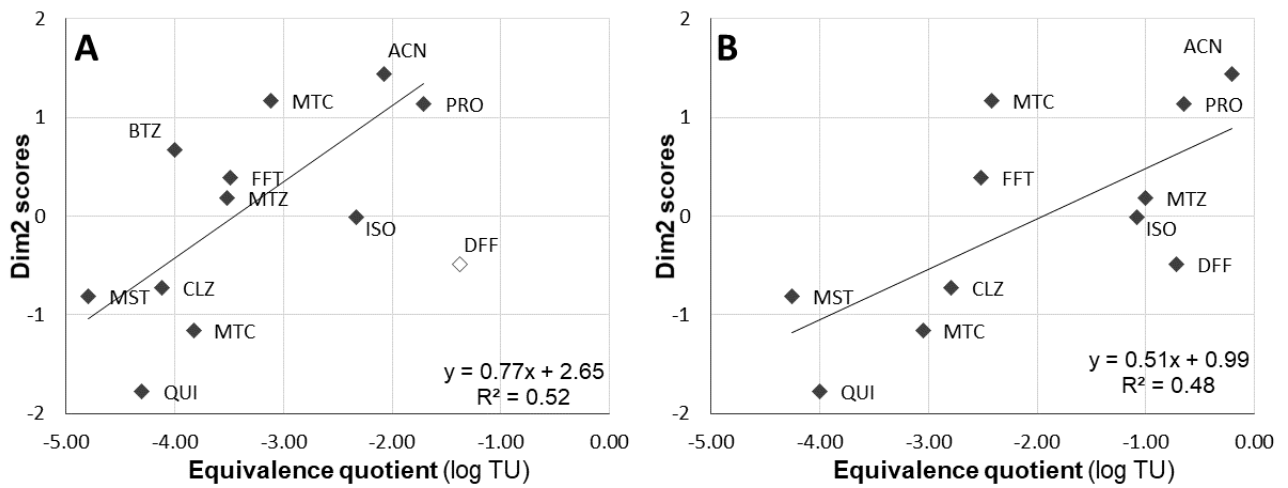
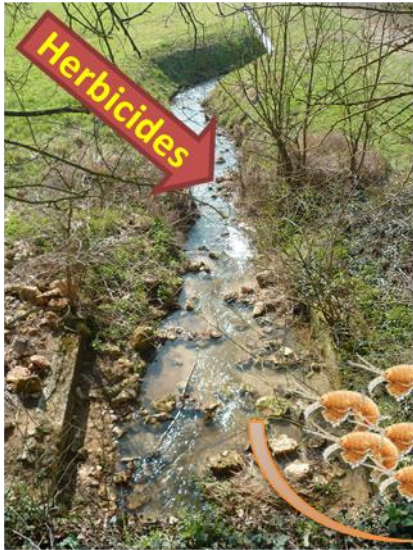


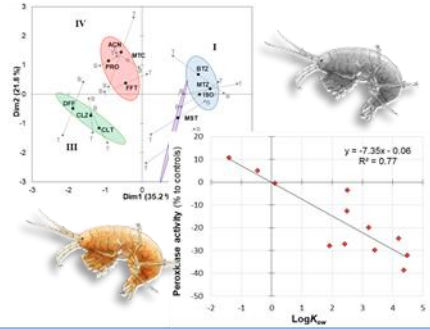
Fig. 4. Dim2 scores of MFA plotted against equivalence quotients of toxicity derived, respectively, from acute 48-h EC50 (A) and chronic 21-d NOEC (B) in the organism test *Daphnia magna* as toxic unit (TU). Note that DFF for acute toxicity is given for illustrative purposes (white symbol) and not considered in the linear fitting.



**Toxic effects
on wildlife ?**



Using multi-level biomarkers



**Altered individual performances
& cellular impairments**