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Response of sediment bacterial community to triclosan in subtropical freshwater benthic microcosms

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- 4 Feng-Jiao Peng^{a,*}, Noël J. Diepens^a, Chang-Gui Pan^b, Guang-Guo Ying^c, Daniel Salvito^d,

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5	Henriette Selck e	, Paul J. V	/an den	Brink ^{a, f}

- 6
- ⁷ ^a Aquatic Ecology and Water Quality Management group, Wageningen University, P.O. Box
- 8 47, 6700 AA Wageningen, The Netherlands
- ⁹ ^b School of Marine Sciences, Guangxi University, Nanning 530004, China
- ^c The Environmental Research Institute, MOE Key Laboratory of Environmental Theoretical
- 11 Chemistry, South China Normal University, Guangzhou 510006, China
- ¹² ^d Research Institute for Fragrance Materials, 50 Tice Boulevard, Woodcliff Lake,
- 13 NJ 07677, USA
- ^e Department of Science and Environment, Roskilde University, Universitetsvej 1, Denmark
- ¹⁵ ^f Wageningen Environmental Research, P.O. Box 47, 6700 AA Wageningen, The Netherlands
- 16
- 17 * Corresponding author.
- 18 Email address: fengjiaopeng@gmail.com

Abstract The response of sediment bacterial communities in subtropical freshwater benthic 19 microcosms to sediment-associated triclosan (TCS; 28 d exposure) was analyzed using 20 Illumina high-throughput sequencing. This study highlights the interactive effects of TCS and 21 the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates (Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri and Viviparidae 22 bellamya) on sediment bacterial communities. Our results show that TCS alone significantly 23 altered the taxonomic composition and decreased alpha diversity of sediment bacterial 24 communities at concentrations $\geq 80 \ \mu g/g \ dry \ weight (dw)$ sediment (sed). For the dominant 25 phyla, TCS significantly reduced the relative abundances of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes at 26 these concentrations, whereas the relative abundances of Chloroflexi and Cyanobacteria 27 increased. In the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates, the sediment bacterial community 28 was affected by 8 µg TCS/g dw sed as well. However, the presence of benthic 29 macroinvertebrates did not cause measurable changes to bacterial community in unspiked 30 sediment. These results indicate that TCS alone would not alter the sediment bacterial 31 community at environmentally relevant concentrations (up till 8 µg/g dw sed), but may have 32 an effect in combination with the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates. Therefore, we 33 recommend to include the benthic macroinvertebrates when assessing the response of 34 sediment bacterial communities during exposure to environmental stress such as organic 35 contaminants. 36

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38 Keywords Sediment bacterial community; Triclosan; Toxicity; Benthic macroinvertebrates;
39 Microcosm

40 **1. Introduction**

Triclosan (2,4,4'-tricloro-2'-hydroxydiphenyl ether, TCS) is an antimicrobial active 41 ingredient used in more than 2000 products, such as soaps, toothpastes, detergents, clothing, 42 toys, carpets, plastics, and paints (FDA, 2016; Halden et al., 2017). Europe banned the use of 43 TCS in human hygiene products in 2015 (ECHA, 2015). Additionally, the U.S. Food and 44 Drug Administration (FDA) has banned the use of TCS in over-the-counter consumer 45 antiseptic wash products (FDA, 2016). However, TCS is still in use in other personal care 46 products and in other parts of the world. Due to the incomplete removal in wastewater 47 treatment plants (WWTPs), TCS has been widely detected in aquatic environments (e.g., Katz 48 et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2017). For example, TCS has been listed among the seven most 49 frequently detected contaminants in streams across the United States (Yueh and Tukey 2016). 50 Moreover, toxicological studies suggest that TCS is toxic to bacteria, algae, crustaceans, fish 51 (especially in early developmental stages), oligochaetes, insects, molluscs and amphibians at 52 environmentally elevated concentrations, with algae as the most sensitive group (Table S1). 53 For example, the lowest toxicity value found for TCS (72 h-EC50 = $0.2 \mu g/L$) is based on the 54 growth inhibition for green alga *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* (Yang et al., 2008). 55

56

In aquatic environments, TCS is expected to adsorb onto the surface of suspended solids and sediments due to its lipophilic property (log Kow = 4.8) and low aqueous solubility (USEPA, 2010). However, sediment resuspension could occur due to disturbance at water-sediment interface, e.g. due to the presence of benthic invertebrates (Zhang et al., 2014), which may cause the sediment to become a source of contamination to the overlying water. Indeed, results from the microcosm experiment described in this paper, evaluating the fate and effects of TCS on benthic macroinvertebrates, demonstrated that the presence of benthic

- macroinvertebrates in the microcosms caused significantly higher TCS concentration in the
 overlying water compared to microcosms without macroinvertebrates (Peng et al., 2018).
- 66

Bacterial communities play important roles in aquatic ecosystems for nutrient re-mineralizing 67 and organic matter decomposition (Burkhardt et al., 2014; Zeng et al., 2014). TCS is toxic to 68 bacteria through inhibiting the enzyme enoyl ACP reductase, an essential component of the 69 bacterial fatty acid biosynthetic pathway (Heath et al., 1998). Since TCS is a broad-spectrum 70 antimicrobial agent and is expected to be retained in the sediment, TCS may negatively affect 71 the sediment bacterial community. Indeed, Drury et al. (2013) added 8 mg/L TCS to the 72 73 overlying water of an artificial stream and reported reductions in diversity and shifts in taxonomic composition of sediment bacterial communities. However, little is known about the 74 effects of sediment-associated TCS on the sediment bacterial community using more realistic 75 concentrations and including communities, such as benthic macroinvertebrates. Benthic 76 macroinvertebrates, such as Naidid worms (e.g., Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri), are broadly 77 distributed in freshwater ecosystems and represent essential links in the aquatic food web (Liu 78 et al., 2014). The bioturbating behaviour (burrowing, particle mixing, irrigation) of benthic 79 macroinvertebrates can influence microbial organic matter mineralization and alter the 80 81 bacterial community composition (Kristensen, 2000; Zeng et al., 2014). For example, the brittle star Amphiura filiformis stimulated the microbial degradation of sediment-associated 82 fluoranthene (Flu) and -pyrene in marine sediments (Granberg et al., 2005; Selck et al., 2005; 83 Granberg and Selck, 2007). In a water-sediment microcosm, the presence of Naidid worms 84 increased the relative abundance of *Betaproteobacteria* and decreased the relative abundance 85 of Chlorobi in the surface sediment (Zeng et al., 2014). However, little is known about the 86 interactive effects of hydrophobic organic contaminants and the presence of benthic 87 macroinvertebrates on the bacterial community structure and abundance in the sediment. 88

Using microcosms with or without benthic macroinvertebrates, we assessed the effects of 90 TCS and the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates on sediment bacterial community 91 structure. This study is part of a larger project also assessing the fate and effects of sediment-92 associated TCS on benthic macroinvertebrates (Peng et al., 2018). The objectives of the 93 present study were i) to examine the response of sediment bacterial community after exposure 94 to TCS for 28 days, and ii) to determine whether there was an interactive effect of TCS and 95 the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates on the sediment bacterial community. To do this, 96 we spiked wet sediment with TCS at concentrations of 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 µg/g dry weight 97 (dw) sediment (sed), and added a sediment-dwelling worm, Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri, a snail, 98 Viviparidae bellamya, an insect midge larvae, Orthocladiinae, and pelagic species (algae and 99 Daphnia magna) to a half of the microcosms to create a representative subtropical 100 community. By the end of experiment, there were no deaths of introduced organisms in the 101 unspiked treatments and the 0.8 and 8 μ g/g dw sed treatments. However, no 102 macroinvertebrates survived in the highest TCS treatment (240 µg/g dw sed) and more than 103 85% worms died in the second highest TCS treatment (80 μ g/g dw sed), which would 104 confound the interpretation of the microbial observations. In the present study, therefore, we 105 106 did not include these two treatments of the system with macroinvertebrates.

107

108 2. Material and methods

109 2.1. Microcosm experiment

110 The microcosm experiment was the same as reported by Peng et al. (2018). Briefly,

111 experimental exposures (28 days) were conducted in indoor rectangular glass microcosms

(length and width 30 cm; depth 20 cm; sediment depth 4 cm; water depth 14 cm) placed in a

temperature $(27 \pm 1 \degree C)$ and light controlled room (light intensity: approximately 2200 lux;

photoperiod: 12 h/12 h). In addition to four TCS treatments (T1-T4: 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 µg/g 114 dw), a water control and an acetone control were also included. To examine the interactive 115 effects of sediment-associated TCS and benthic macroinvertebrates on sediment bacterial 116 community, 4 replicates of two types of systems were constructed, namely, (i) with 117 introduced organisms (i.e., 40 Orthocladiinae, 240 Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri, 6 Viviparidae 118 *bellamva*, 30 *Daphnia magna*, and algae), and (ii) without introduced organisms (i.e., only 119 water and sediment). Accordingly, the effects of TCS on the sediment bacterial community 120 can be examined through exposure in microcosms without introduced organisms, and the 121 effects of benthic macroinvertebrates and its interaction with TCS exposure on the sediment 122 bacterial community can be further assessed by comparing the system containing benthic 123 macroinvertebrates with the system not containing. Details on organisms culturing and traits 124 of benthic macroinvertebrates have been reported in Peng et al. (2018). The introduced 125 organisms sampling, TCS extraction and analysis, sediment parameters (i.e., ammonia 126 nitrogen (NH₄-N), total nitrogen (TN), organic matter (OM) and total phosphorus (TP)) 127 analyses followed methods detailed in Peng et al. (2018). 128

129

130 2.2. DNA extraction and bacteria community analysis

131 The effects of TCS on the sediment bacterial community structure and composition were evaluated using deep 16S rRNA sequencing. DNA was isolated from sediment samples using 132 PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) following the 133 manufacturer's protocol. The concentration and purity of DNA extractions were monitored by 134 gel electrophoresis in 2% agarose gels. The isolated DNA was stored at -80 °C until use. DNA 135 was diluted to 10 ng/ μ L with sterile water before sequencing. To compensate for 136 heterogeneity, DNA extraction was performed from three replicates of each system-treatment 137 combination. 138

139

140	The bacterial 16S rRNA genes were amplified at V4 and V5 regions with the primers 515F
141	(5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 907R (5'-CCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTT-3')
142	(Biddle et al., 2008). The PCR mixture was comprised of 15 μ L Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR
143	Master Mix (New England Biolabs), 0.2 μM of each primer, 10 ng template DNA and 2 μL
144	H ₂ O. PCR conditions were 98 $^{\circ}$ C for 1 min for initial denaturation, followed by 30 cycles of
145	10 seconds at 98 °C, 30 seconds at 50 °C, 30 seconds at 72 °C and a final extension for 5 min
146	at 72 °C. The 400-450 bp PCR products were selected by gel electrophoresis and were further
147	purified with GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific). With the TruSeq® DNA PCR-
148	Free Sample Preparation Kit sequencing libraries were constructed, added with index codes,
149	and examined using Qubit@ 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Scientific) and Agilent Bioanalyzer
150	2100 system. On the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform, libraries were sequenced using v2
151	chemistry to generate 250 bp paired-end reads.

152

The produced paired-end reads were assigned to samples according to their unique barcodes, 153 truncated through cutting off the barcode and primer sequence, and merged using Flash 154 (Magoč and Salzberg 2011). Merged sequences with low quality score (< 27) and/or with 155 short length (< 250 bp) were removed via filtering using the QIIME software package 156 (V1.7.0, Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology) (Caporaso et al., 2010). Then, chimera 157 sequences were removed from resultant reads using UCHIME algorithm through comparison 158 with the Gold database (http://drive5.com/uchime/uchime download.html). The resultant 159 high-quality sequences with $\ge 97\%$ similarity were clustered into operational taxonomic units 160 (OTUs) using Uparse software (Edgar, 2013). Each representative sequence of OTU was 161 annotated taxonomic information using RDP classifier algorithm (Version 2.2) (Wang et al., 162

2007) through comparison with the GreenGene Database using a confidence threshold of 70%
(DeSantis et al., 2006).

165

166 2.3. Statistical analysis

167 2.3.1 Bacterial community composition

Bacterial community composition: alpha diversity parameters (i.e., observed OTU number, 168 Chao1, Pielou's J index and Good's coverage estimator) were analysed using in-house Perl 169 scripts in the QIIME software package. Differences in alpha diversity indices and relative 170 abundances of the six most abundant phyla/families between treatments or systems were 171 tested using Social Sciences v23.0 software. The significance level was set to 0.05. The 172 normality of these data or residuals was tested with Shapiro-Wilk test while the variance 173 homogeneity was tested using Levene's test. To examine the effects of TCS, a one-way 174 ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on these data of the system without 175 macroinvertebrates. To examine the effects of macroinvertebrates and its interaction with 176 TCS, a two-way ANOVA (factors: treatment and the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates) 177 was performed on the data set comprising controls, T1 and T2 of both systems. If there was a 178 significant main effect in the ANOVA test, post hoc paired comparisons were performed 179 180 using Tukey's test.

181

182 2.3.2 Individual effects of TCS and macroinvertebrate presence on sediment bacterial183 community structure

Multivariate Monte Carlo permutation tests were conducted on the OTU table under
Redundancy analysis (RDA) option, to examine the individual effects of TCS and
macroinvertebrate presence on the sediment bacterial community structure. The relative
abundance of OTUs were Arcsin (percentage) transformed in the analyses. Difference in the

188	bacterial community structure between the water control and acetone control was tested using
189	controls as explanatory variables and macroinvertebrate presence as covariate and
190	constraining the permutation to the covariate. If the bacterial community structure was
191	significantly different between the water control and acetone control, then the water control
192	was excluded in further analyses. The significance of the effects of TCS on the bacterial
193	community structure was tested using treatments of the system without macroinvertebrates as
194	explanatory variables. The significance of the effects of macroinvertebrate presence on the
195	bacterial community structure was tested using macroinvertebrate presence as explanatory
196	variable and treatments (i.e., controls, T1, and T2) as covariates and constraining the
197	permutation to the covariates.
198	
199	2.3.3 Interactive effects of TCS and the presence of macroinvertebrates on bacterial
200	community
201	To examine the interactive effects of TCS and the presence of macroinvertebrates on the
202	sediment bacterial community, a Monte Carlo permutation test was performed on the OTU
203	table under the RDA option using the interaction between treatments (i.e., acetone control,

T1, and T2) and systems (i.e., with and without macroinvertebrates) as explanatory variables.

All RDA analyses were performed with CANOCO Software package, version 5 (Ter Braak
and Šmilauer, 2012).

207

Because there was a significant interactive effect of 8 μ g TCS/g dw sed and the presence of macroinvertebrates on the sediment bacterial community structure, an independent-samples t test or Mann-Whitney U test was further performed to test the difference in the relative abundance of the dominant families (> 0.5%) of T2 between the system with and without macroinvertebrates. For families showing a significant difference, the same tests were alsoperformed for the acetone control and T1.

214

215 **3. Results**

216 3.1. Sediment bacterial community composition

A total of 61 phyla were found in all samples, and phyla with relative abundance > 0.5% are 217 shown in Table S2 and Fig. 1A. Proteobacteria (30-34%) was the most abundant phylum in 218 all samples, followed by Firmicutes (9.7-23%), Chloroflexi (9.6-20%), Actinobacteria (6.0-219 10%), Acidobacteria (6.5-7.9%) and Bacteroidetes (2.3-5.1%) (Table S2). In the system 220 without macroinvertebrates, there was no significant difference in the relative abundance of 221 Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria or Acidobacteria between treatments. T3 (80 µg/g dw) and T4 222 $(240 \mu g/g dw)$ had significantly lower relative abundance of *Firmicutes* but significantly 223 higher relative abundance of Chloroflexi and Cyanobacteria compared to controls, T1 and T2 224 (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). T4 also had significantly lower relative abundance of 225 *Bacteroidetes* than the acetone control (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). When analysing the data 226 set comprising controls, T1 and T2 of both systems, there was no significant difference in the 227 relative abundance of Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, Actinobacteria or Acidobacteria between 228 the system with and without macroinvertebrates (two-way ANOVA, p > 0.05). The relative 229 abundances of *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes* were significantly lower and higher in the system 230 with compared to without macroinvertebrates, respectively (two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). The 231 relative abundance of *Bacteroidetes* was significantly lower in T2 compared to the controls 232 and T1 (two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). Additionally, there was a significant interactive effect 233 of TCS and macroinvertebrate presence on *Bacteroidetes* (two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). 234

235

A total of 334 families were found in all samples, and families with relative abundance > 236 0.5% are provided in Table S3. The six most abundant families were Anaerolineaceae (4.6-237 12%; Chloroflexi), Rhodocyclaceae (3.7-6.3%; Proteobacteria), Bacillaceae (2.1-4.8%; 238 Firmicutes), Clostridiaceae 1 (2.3-4.2%; Proteobacteria), Comamonadaceae (3.3-3.9%; 239 Proteobacteria) and Nitrosomonadaceae (2.1-2.6%; Proteobacteria) (Table S3 and Fig. 1B). 240 In the system without macroinvertebrates, there was no significant difference in the relative 241 abundance of Comamonadaceae and Nitrosomonadaceae between treatments. T3 and T4 had 242 significantly higher relative abundance of Anaerolineaceae and Rhodocyclaceae, and a 243 significantly lower relative abundance of *Clostridiaceae 1* compared to controls, T1 and T2 244 (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). T4 also had significantly lower relative abundance of 245 *Bacillaceae* than all other treatments (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). When analysing the data 246 set comprising controls, T1 and T2 of both systems, there was no significant difference in the 247 relative abundance of these six families between the system with and without 248 macroinvertebrates or treatments (two-way ANOVA, p > 0.05). Additionally, there was no 249 significant interactive effect of TCS and macroinvertebrate presence on these six families 250 (two-way ANOVA, p > 0.05). 251

252

253 3.2. Comparison of alpha diversity

The results of alpha biodiversity of sediment bacterial community are presented in Table 1. The estimated Good's coverage of the datasets was higher than 92% in all treatments and controls, and the Pielou's J index was in the range of 0.84-0.87 across samples. In the system without macroinvertebrates, the Pielou's J index was similar between treatments, whereas the observed OTU numbers (3838-4345) and Chao1 index (5098-6127) were significantly lower at T3 and T4 than controls, T1 and T2 (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). When analysing the data set comprising controls, T1 and T2 of both systems, there was no significant difference in the

261	observed OTU numbers, Chao1 index or Pielou's J index between the system with and
262	without macroinvertebrates or treatments (two-way ANOVA, $p > 0.05$). However, there was a
263	significant interactive effect of TCS and macroinvertebrate presence on the Pielou's J index
264	(two-way ANOVA, $p < 0.05$).
265	

266 3.3 Individual effects of TCS and benthic macroinvertebrate presence

There was a significant difference in the sediment bacterial community composition at the OTU level between the water control and acetone control (Monte Carlo permutation test; p =0.022). In the system without macroinvertebrates, there was no significant difference in the bacterial community structure between the acetone control and the two lowest TCS treatments (i.e., T1 and T2). However, the bacterial community structure of the 80 and 240 µg TCS/g dw sed treatments were significantly different from that of the acetone control (p = 0.008 and 0.002, respectively).

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The results of the Monte Carlo permutation test show that there was no significant difference in the sediment bacterial community composition at the OTU level between the two systems for the data set including only controls (p = 0.44) or the data set comprising the control, T1 and T2 treatments (p = 0.38).

279

280 3.4 Interactive effects of TCS and benthic macroinvertebrate presence

There was a significant interactive effect of 8 μ g TCS/g dw sed and macroinvertebrate presence on the bacterial community structure (Monte Carlo permutation test; *p* = 0.002). Accordingly, T2 of the system with macroinvertebrates was placed separately from the remaining groups on the first axis which captured 17% of the total variation in the bacterial community structure (Fig. 2). T1 of the system without macroinvertebrates was separated from other groups on the second axis, which captured 6.7% of the total variation (Fig. 2). There were 52 OTUs showing an $r^2 \ge 0.65$ on both axes, and most of these OTUs had either higher or lower relative abundance in the T2 of the system with macroinvertebrates compared to the other system and treatments.

290

Comparing the 39 most dominant families (> 0.5%) between the two systems of T2, the relative abundances of *Burkholderiaceae*, *Caulobacteraceae* and *Holophagaceae* were significantly higher in the system with than without macroinvertebrates (independent t tests, p< 0.05; Fig. 3). For the acetone control and T1, there was no significant difference in the relative abundance of *Burkholderiaceae* or *Caulobacteraceae* between the two systems, however the relative abundance of *Holophagaceae* was significantly higher in the system without than with macroinvertebrates (p < 0.05; Fig. 3).

298

299 **4. Discussion**

We quantified sediment bacterial community structures in microcosms mimicking subtropical 300 shallow freshwater benthic ecosystems exposed to TCS using Illumina high-throughput 301 sequencing. We found that sediment-associated TCS at concentrations $\ge 80 \ \mu g/g \ dw$ sed alone 302 303 significantly altered the sediment bacterial community structure and reduced the richness of sediment bacterial communities. In the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates, 8 µg TCS/g 304 dw sed also induced significant alteration to the sediment bacterial community. However, 305 benthic macroinvertebrates at the density used in the current experiment had no effect on the 306 bacterial community in the unspiked sediment. These results demonstrate a significant 307 interactive effect of 8 µg TCS/g dw sed and the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates on the 308 sediment bacterial community. 309

310

4.1 Individual effects of TCS on the sediment bacterial community

In the system without macroinvertebrates, TCS at concentrations $\ge 80 \ \mu g/g$ dw sed 312 significantly altered the sediment bacterial community structure and reduced the richness of 313 sediment bacterial communities (Table 1). This is comparable to the findings of McNamara et 314 al. (2014), who demonstrated that anaerobic bacterial community structure altered following 315 exposure to TCS at concentrations higher than 50 μ g/g in bio-solids. However, 8 μ g TCS/g 316 dw sed alone did not significantly influence the richness, evenness or structure of the bacterial 317 community in the sediment after a 28 days exposure under the conditions of the current study 318 (Table 1). Unlike our findings, TCS significantly decreased the bacterial community diversity 319 320 in the artificial stream sediment after 14 and 34 days exposure at concentration of 5.7 and 8.1 $\mu g/g$ dw sed (Drury et al., 2013). The discrepancy between the two studies could be attributed 321 to the different spiking approaches: the sediment was directly spiked with TCS in the current 322 study, whereas Drury et al. (2013) added the TCS to the water phase to reach a concentration 323 of 8 mg/L, producing a TCS sediment concentration of 0.0018 µg/g dw sed at the beginning 324 of the experiment. Therefore, there may have been a difference in how strongly TCS was 325 bound to the sediment particles and herewith in the bioavailability of TCS to benthic bacteria 326 between the present study and Drury et al. (2013). However, little information is known 327 328 regarding the relation between spiking method and bioavailability (both for bacteria and invertebrates) of hydrophobic organic contaminants. Additionally, because the exposure ran 329 for 28 days, bacteria might have shown a short-term response to TCS at 0.8 and 8 μ g/g dw 330 followed by a rapid recovery. Indeed, TCS at 1.8 µg/L altered bacterial community and 331 affected algal-cyanobacterial abundance and diversity, but recovery and adaptation of the 332 biofilm community were also observed during a 8 weeks exposure period (Lawrence et al., 333 2015). In parallel with alterations in the sediment bacterial community, TCS at concentrations 334 \geq 80 µg/g dw sed significantly enhanced sediment NH₄-N levels (Peng et al., 2018). This is 335

likely to be associated with the effects of TCS on nitrifying and denitrifying taxa of the bacterial community in the sediment. For example, Waller and Kookana (2009) found that TCS at concentration $\geq 50 \ \mu g/g$ dw affected the nitrogen cycle in clay soil. Unfortunately, we did not analyse microbial functions which would assist in explaining such difference. Therefore, we recommend to analyse microbial functions in combination with microbial community composition in future studies.

342

Additionally, TCS at concentrations $\ge 80 \ \mu g/g$ dw alone also significantly affected the relative 343 abundance of several dominant bacterial taxa. For example, 80 and 240 µg TCS/g dw sed 344 significantly increased the relative abundance of Chloroflexi (Table S2 and Fig. 1A). This 345 could be attributed to the capacity of some bacteria belonging to Chloroflexi to dechlorinate 346 organochlorines (Krzmarzick et al. 2012). Likewise, during a 618 days incubation, TCS 347 exposure resulted in a 20-fold increase in the abundance of Dehalococcoides-like Chloroflexi 348 16S rRNA genes (determined by qPCR) in anaerobic soil at environmentally relevant 349 concentrations compared with a 5-fold increase in abundance under the absence of TCS 350 (McNamara and Krzmarzick, 2013). Since Chloroflexi are important for sediment carbon 351 cycling and organohalide respiration (Hug et al., 2013), they may contribute to the slow 352 353 dissipation of TCS, an organochlorine, as observed in the microcosms (Peng et al., 2018). Similar to *Chloroflexi*, TCS at these concentrations also increased the relative abundance of 354 Cvanobacteria (Table S2 and Fig. 1A), which is in agreement with the findings from previous 355 laboratory studies (Drury et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2015). However, during the same 356 period, these treatments inhibited the growth of pelagic algae (Peng et al., 2018). These 357 findings confirmed the conclusion that some cyanobacteria are more tolerant to TCS 358 exposure than other algae or are able to adapt (Lawrence et al., 2009; 2015; Drury et al., 359 2013). Unlike *Chloroflexi* and *Cvanobacteria*, TCS significantly reduced the relative 360

abundance of *Firmicutes* at 80 and 240 µg/g dw sed (Table S2 and Fig. 1A). Likewise, a
previous study found that the relative abundance of *Firmicutes* was negatively correlated with
TCS concentration in the effluent of an urban wastewater (Novo et al., 2013). Based on these
findings, *Firmicutes* were more sensitive to sediment-associated TCS than *Chloroflexi* and *Cyanobacteria*.

366

4.2 Individual effects of benthic macroinvertebrates on the sediment bacterial community 367 The presence of benthic macroinvertebrates alone did not induce measurable changes to the 368 structure of bacterial community in the unspiked sediment, but significantly altered the 369 relative abundance of a few bacteria, such as Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes (Table S2). This is 370 371 likely related to biological activities, such as worm bioturbation, that may alter the oxygen concentration in the sediment and across the sediment-water interface (Mermillod-Blondin et 372 al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2010). For example, the bulk-deposit feeder L. hoffmeisteri used in our 373 study ingest sediment at depth and defecate at the sediment surface using a conveyor-belt 374 feeding strategy (Reible et al., 1996). Therefore, L. hoffmeisteri can transport anoxic sediment 375 to the sediment surface and increase the penetration of oxygen into the sediment column via 376 irrigation of their burrows with oxygen-rich overlying water. Similar stimulating effects of 377 378 macrofaunal bioturbation on the oxygenation of deeper anoxic sediments has been reported for sediments inhabited by the polychaete Nereis diversicolor and the brittle star A. filiformis 379 (Granberg et al., 2005; Selck et al., 2005). Additionally, deposit-feeding organisms may use 380 microbes as a food source and thereby depress the abundance of microbes (Tachet et al., 381 2000). Our results are partly in line with a previous study, which found that the presence of 382 benthic macroinvertebrates (i.e., Corbicula fluminea, tubificid worms, and Chironomidae 383 larvae) altered the dominant bacterial groups in sediments due to bioturbation by benthic 384 macroinvertebrates (Zeng et al., 2014). 385

4.3 Interactive effects of TCS and presence of benthic macroinvertebrates on the sediment
bacterial community

There was a significant interactive effect of 8 µg TCS/g dw sed and macroinvertebrate 389 presence on the sediment bacterial community structure (Fig. 2). This may be associated with 390 the difference in TCS bioavailability due to the disturbance of the water-sediment interface 391 caused by the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates (Cuny et al., 2007; Selck et al., 2005). 392 Due to their feeding strategy which includes ingestion of sediment particles, L. hoffmeisteri 393 can be exposed to sediment-associated TCS from the gut, which may result in TCS 394 dissolution and solubilisation in the worm gut (Gilbert et al., 2001; Cuny et al., 2007). 395 Therefore, in addition to potentially increasing bioaccumulation of TCS from the gut into 396 worm tissue, the TCS passage through the worm gut may stimulate the TCS bioavailability to 397 sediment bacterial communities (both in the gut and in the defecated fecal matter). Similar to 398 our findings, a previous study reported that after a 45-d incubation the bioturbation by N. 399 diversicolor significantly altered the bacterial community structure in oil contaminated coastal 400 sediments, whereas there was no visible changes in the uncontaminated sediment (Cuny et al., 401 2007). 402

403

There was also a significant interactive effect of 8 μ g TCS/g dw sed and macroinvertebrate presence on a few dominant families, including *Burkholderiaceae*, *Caulobacteraceae* and *Holophagaceae*, as their relative abundances were significantly higher due to the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates in the 8 μ g/g dw treatment but not in the acetone control or 0.8 μ g/g dw treatment (Fig. 3). It is possible that these positive interactive effects were related to the involvement of these bacteria in the TCS degradation process. Indeed, *Cupriavidus* (a genus of *Burkholderiaceae*), *Brevundimonas* (a genus of *Caulobacteraceae*), and *Geothrix* (a

411	genus of <i>Holophagaceae</i>) are associated with the biodegradation of aromatic compounds (e.g.
412	p-xylene), diclofop-methyl (a chlorinated pesticide) and TCS, respectively (Bacosa et al.,
413	2012; Zhang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, Cupriavidus and Brevundimonas may
414	be capable of degrading TCS as well and thereby stimulate their growth by using TCS as a
415	carbon source. Additionally, since Cupriavidus exist in the gut of Eisenia fetida (an
416	earthworm) (Ma et al., 2017), bacteria of the above three families may exist in the guts of
417	macroinvertebrates as well and further promote TCS degradation in macroinvertebrates,
418	which could also produce elevated levels of bacteria in the sediment following excretion.
419	Indeed, the presence of benthic macroinvertebrates slightly accelerated TCS dissipation in the
420	system (Peng et al. 2018). However, further studies are required to elucidate such
421	relationships.
422	
423	In summary, our results indicate that sediment-associated TCS (both in absence and presence
424	of benthic macroinvertebrates) would not impact the sediment bacterial communities at
425	environmentally relevant concentrations (Table S4). However, when TCS concentration
426	reached 80 μ g/g dw, TCS alone significantly altered the taxonomic composition and reduced
427	the alpha diversity of sediment bacterial communities. Additionally, benthic
428	macroinvertebrate presence interacted with TCS to increase the TCS toxicity to the sediment
429	bacterial community, resulting in a significant alteration to the sediment bacterial community
430	structure when TCS concentration reached 8 μ g/g dw sed (~ 5 fold-reported maximum, 1.33
431	μ g/g dw: Zhao et al., 2010). These results suggest the importance of considering the
432	interaction between hydrophobic organic compounds and the presence of benthic
433	macroinvertebrates when assessing effects of sediment-associated chemicals on sediment
434	bacterial communities.

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- 440

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580 Figure captions:

Fig. 1 The relative abundance (%) of the dominant bacterial phyla (> 0.5%; A) and families (>
1%; B).

583

- 584 Fig. 2 RDA biplot showing the interactive effects of TCS and the presence of benthic
- 585 macroinvertebrates on the sediment bacterial community structure.

586

- 587 Fig. 3 The relative abundance (%) of dominant bacterial families showing a significant
- difference between the system with (Inv+, left) and without (inv-, right) introduced organisms
- 589 in the 8 μ g/g dw sed treatment.

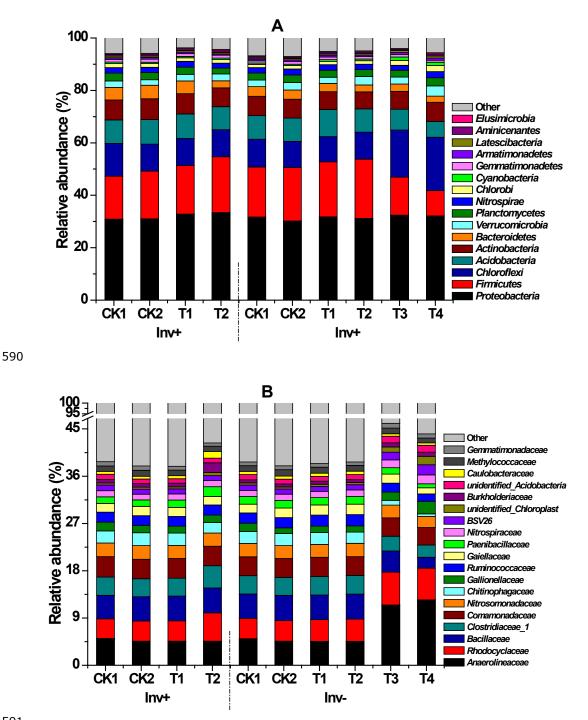
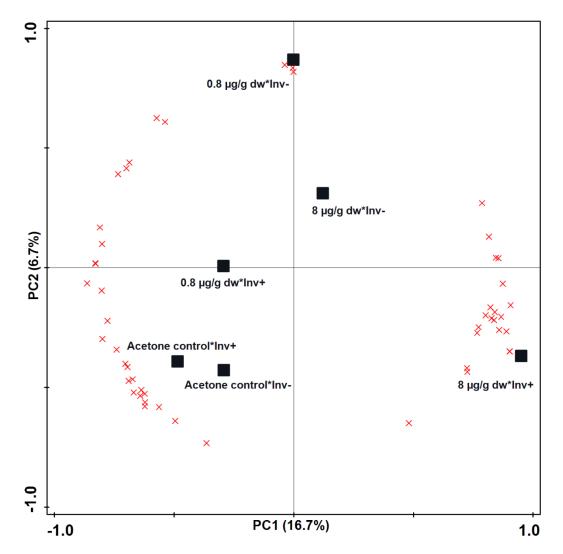




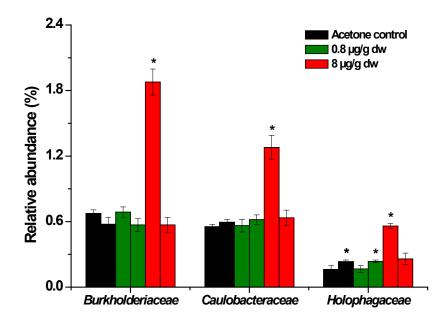
Fig. 1 The relative abundance (%) of the dominant bacterial phyla (> 0.5%; A) and families (> 1%; B). Inv+ and Inv- represent microcosms with and without benthic macroinvertebrates, respectively. CK1 and CK2 indicate water control and acetone control, respectively. T1-T4 indicate TCS treatments with concentrations of 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 μ g/g dw sed, respectively.

596 Three replicates were evaluated for each system-treatment combination.



597

Fig. 2 RDA biplot showing the interactive effects of TCS and the presence of benthic 598 macroinvertebrates on the sediment bacterial community structure. Explanatory variables 599 explain 37.8% of the total variation in OTU composition. Only OTUs with $R^2 \ge 0.65$ on both 600 axes are shown in the diagrams, which produces 52 OTUs in the graph. Square and x symbols 601 represent environmental variables and OTUs, respectively. See Table S8 for OTU 602 interpretation. Inv+ and Inv- represent microcosms with and without introduced organisms, 603 respectively. Three replicates were measured for each system-treatment combination. The p 604 values were 0.01 and 0.004 for the permutation tests on the first and all axes, respectively. 605



606

- Fig. 3 The relative abundance (%) of dominant bacterial families showing a significant
- difference between the system with (Inv+, left) and without (inv-, right) introduced organisms
- in the 8 μ g/g dw sed treatment. Error bar represents standard error of the mean (n = 3). For the
- same family, columns with the same colour on the left and right represent microcosms with
- and without introduced organisms, respectively. * symbols represent systems that had
- 612 significantly higher relative abundance of *Burkholderiaceae*, *Caulobacteraceae* or
- 613 *Holophagaceae* than their corresponding systems (p < 0.05).

614	Table 1	The richness an	d diversity	of sediment	bacterial	community.

System	Treatment	OTUs	Chao1	Pielou's J	Good's coverage
	CK1	4274±205	5981±163	0.87 ± 0.00	0.94±0.02
Turnel	CK2	4225±176	5967±202	0.86±0.01	0.93±0.01
Inv+	T1	4345±146	5960±138	0.87±0.01	0.93±0.01
	T2	3968±278	5774±103	$0.84{\pm}0.00$	0.93±0.01
	CK1	4185±146	5996±202	0.86±0.01	0.94±0.01
Loss	CK2	4272±178	6085±268	0.87±0.01	0.93±0.01
	T1	4137±111	6127±281	0.86±0.01	0.94±0.02
Inv-	T2	4315±87	6006±249	0.86±0.02	0.93±0.01
	Т3	3893±97*	5355±83*	0.84±0.01	0.94±0.01
	T4	3838±131*	5098±128*	0.84±0.01	0.94±0.02

Three replicates were measured for each system-treatment combination;

616 OTUs, Operational taxonomic units; Chao 1, Chao 1 index; Pielou's J, Pielou's J index;

617 Good's coverage, Good's coverage index;

Inv+ and Inv- represent microcosm systems with and without benthic macroinvertebrates,
 respectively.

620 CK1 and CK2 indicate water control and acetone control, respectively.

T1-T4 indicate treatments with TCS spiked concentrations of 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 μ g/g dry

622 weight (dw) sed, respectively.

⁶²³ * treatment is significantly different from the acetone control at the 0.05 level.

Supplementary Material

Response of sediment bacterial community to triclosan in subtropical freshwater benthic microcosms

Feng-Jiao Peng ^{a,} *, Noël J. Diepens ^a, Chang-Gui Pan ^b, Guang-Guo Ying ^c, Daniel Salvito ^d, Henriette Selck ^e, Paul J. Van den Brink ^{a, f}

^a Aquatic Ecology and Water Quality Management group, Wageningen University, P.O. Box 47, 6700 AA Wageningen, The Netherlands

^b School of Marine Sciences, Guangxi University, Nanning 530004, China

^c The Environmental Research Institute, MOE Key Laboratory of Environmental Theoretical Chemistry, South China Normal University, Guangzhou 510006, China

^d Research Institute for Fragrance Materials, 50 Tice Boulevard, Woodcliff Lake,

NJ 07677, USA

^e Department of Science and Environment, Roskilde University, Universitetsvej 1, Denmark

^f Wageningen Environmental Research, P.O. Box 47, 6700 AA Wageningen, The Netherlands

* Corresponding author.

Email address: fengjiaopeng@gmail.com

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Contents:

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Table S2 The average relative abundance of phyla in the sediment (> 0.5%).

Table S3 The average relative abundance of families in the sediment (> 0.5%).

 Table S4 TCS concentrations in surface water and sediment.

References

Table S1 Summary of the aquatic eco-toxicity data for TCS.

Species	Trophic group	Duration, Effect, Endpoint	Value (µg/L)	Reference
Anabaena flos-aqua	Algae	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	0.97	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Dunaliella tertiolecta	Algae	96 h, Cell density, NOEC	3.55	(DeLorenzo and Fleming, 2008
Navicula pelliculosa	Algae	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	19.1	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	72 h, Growth inhibition, IC_{50}	0.53	(Yang et al., 2008)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	72 h, Growth inhibition, NOEC	0.2	(Yang et al., 2008)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	72 h, Growth inhibition, LOEC	0.4	(Yang et al., 2008)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	96 h, Growth, NOEC	8.3	(Harada et al., 2008)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	72 h, Growth inhibition, EC_{50}	5.1	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	Algae	72 h, Growth inhibition, NOEC	0.53	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Scenedesmus subspicatus	Algae	72 h, Growth rate, EC_{50}	2.8	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Scenedesmus subspicatus	Algae	72 h, Growth rate, NOEC	0.5	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Scenedesmus subspicatus	Algae	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	1.4	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Scenedesmus subspicatus	Algae	96 h, Biomass, NOEC	0.69	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Selenastrum capricornutum	Algae	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	4.46	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Skeletonema costatum	Algae	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	>66.0	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Anabaena flos-aquae	Bacterial	96 h, Growth, EC_{50}	1.0	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Anabaena flos-aquae	Bacterial	96 h, Biomass, EC ₅₀	1.6	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Vibrio. fischeri	Bacterial	15 min, Microtox, EC ₅₀	280	(Farré et al., 2008)
Ceriodaphnia dubia	Crustacean	7 d, Survival, NOEC	50	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Ceriodaphnia dubia	Crustacean	7 d, Survival, LOEC	339	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Ceriodaphnia dubia	Crustacean	7 d, Reproduction, NOEC	6	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Ceriodaphnia dubia	Crustacean	7 d, Reproduction, NOEC	182	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Ceriodaphnia dubia	Crustacean	8 d, Reproduction, NOEC	30	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	21 d, Reproduction, NOEC	40	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	21 d, Reproduction, LOEC	200	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	21 d, Survival, NOEC	200	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	48 h, Mobility, EC ₅₀	390	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	48 h, Immobilization, EC_{50}	180	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	48 h, Mobility, EC ₅₀	338	(Wang et al., 2013)
Daphnia magna	Crustacean	21 d, Reproduction, EC_{10}	45	(Wang et al., 2013)
Hyalella azteca	Crustacean	10 d, Survival, LC ₅₀	200	(Dussault et al., 2008)
Hyalella azteca	Crustacean	10 d, Growth, EC_{50}	250	(Dussault et al., 2008)
Neocaridina denticulata sinensis	Crustacean	96 h, Mortality, LC ₅₀	772	(Wang et al., 2013)
Thamnocephalus platyurus	Crustacean	24 h, Mortality, LC50	470	(Kim et al., 2009a)
Lemna gibba	Duckweed	7 d, Biomass, EC_{50}	>62.5	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Danio rerio	Fish	9 d, hatching, Survival, NOEC	26	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Lepomis macrochirus	Fish	48 h, Mortality, LC ₅₀	410	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Lepomis macrochirus	Fish	96 h, Mortality, LC ₅₀	370	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Oncorhynchus mykiss	Fish	35 d, Survival, NOEC	34.1	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Oncorhynchus mykiss	Fish	35 d, Survival, LOEC	71.3	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Oryzias latipes	Fish	96 h, Mortality, LC50	600	(Kim et al., 2009a)
Oryzias latipes	Fish	96 h, Larvae mortality, LC_{50}	602	(Ishibashi et al., 2004)
Oryzias latipes	Fish	96 h, Embryos mortality, LC_{50}	399	(Ishibashi et al., 2004)
Oryzias latipes	Fish	96 h, Mortality, LC50	210	(Tamura et al., 2013)
Pimephales promelas	Fish	24 h, Mortality, LC50	360	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Pimephales promelas	Fish	48 h, Mortality, LC50	270	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Pimephales promelas	Fish	72 h, Mortality, LC_{50}	270	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Pimephales promelas	Fish	96 h, Mortality, LC50	260	(Orvos et al., 2002)
Chironomus riparius	Insect	10 d, Survival, LC50	400	(Dussault et al., 2008)
Chironomus riparius	Insect	10 d, Growth, EC_{50}	280	(Dussault et al., 2008)
Chironomus plumosus	Insect	96 h, Mortality, LC50	2890	(Wang et al., 2013)
Potamopyrgus antipodarum	Mollusca	28 d, Reproduction, NOEC	0.17	(Geiß et al., 2016)
Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri	Oligochaeta	96 h, Mortality, LC50	2046	(Wang et al., 2013)
Tubifex tubifex	Oligochaeta	96 h, Mortality, LC50	259	(Khatikarn et al., 2016)

Phyla	Int CK1	Int CK2	Int T1	Int T2	CK1	CK2	T1	T2	T3	T4
Proteobacteria	31.1±2.19	31.0±0.73	32.8±3.18	33.4±1.13	31.7±2.90	30.2±2.51	31.8±3.64	31.2±3.11	32.4±1.21	32.1±1.38
Firmicutes	15.8±1.35	18.2±2.55	19.2±1.76	21.3±2.01	21.1±2.01	20.4±1.91	21.0±4.30	22.6±1.94	14.5 ± 1.68	9.67 ± 0.77
Chloroflexi	$13.0{\pm}1.38$	10.3 ± 1.35	10.3 ± 0.60	$10.3{\pm}1.02$	10.9 ± 2.19	9.97±1.24	9.56±1.93	10.3 ± 1.74	$18.0{\pm}1.57$	20.4 ± 0.40
Acidobacteria	$7.60{\pm}0.98$	7.94±1.65	7.71 ± 0.80	7.21±0.89	7.01±0.62	7.18 ± 0.46	6.75 ± 0.86	6.48 ± 0.69	6.77 ± 0.87	7.33 ± 0.28
Actinobacteria	10.78±1.53	9.39±1.50	9.36±1.34	8.78 ± 0.49	9.37±1.93	8.91±0.76	10.38 ± 2.22	8.88±0.52	$7.96{\pm}1.69$	6.00 ± 0.90
Bacteroidetes	4.72 ± 0.30	5.12±0.29	4.82 ± 0.59	2.71±0.24	2.76 ± 0.68	3.48 ± 0.37	3.18±0.27	2.65 ± 0.20	2.83 ± 0.29	$2.30{\pm}0.19$
Verrucomicrobia	2.08 ± 0.26	2.12±0.30	2.53±0.71	2.61 ± 0.28	$1.82{\pm}0.79$	2.92 ± 0.52	2.32 ± 0.26	$3.20{\pm}1.14$	2.63 ± 0.73	$3.95{\pm}0.10$
Planctomycetes	3.22±0.42	2.78 ± 0.23	2.77 ± 0.43	2.23±0.34	$2.49{\pm}0.54$	2.82 ± 0.39	2.68 ± 0.47	2.63 ± 0.93	$2.60{\pm}0.33$	$3.10{\pm}0.07$
Nitrospirae	2.43 ± 0.36	1.97 ± 0.20	2.22 ± 0.40	1.86 ± 0.16	2.21±0.15	2.29±0.31	2.12 ± 0.30	2.07 ± 0.54	1.92 ± 0.54	2.34 ± 0.04
Chlorobi	$1.90{\pm}0.36$	1.43 ± 0.13	1.37 ± 0.08	1.37 ± 0.17	1.53 ± 0.26	$1.34{\pm}0.13$	1.31 ± 0.19	1.32 ± 0.27	$1.86{\pm}0.28$	$2.34{\pm}0.04$
Cyanobacteria	$0.24{\pm}0.01$	$0.49{\pm}0.03$	$0.52{\pm}0.07$	0.59±0.15	0.33 ± 0.03	$0.49{\pm}0.04$	$0.62{\pm}0.08$	0.63 ± 0.01	1.30 ± 0.35	1.75±0.23
Gemmatimonadetes	1.08 ± 0.08	$1.21{\pm}0.19$	1.06 ± 0.17	1.11 ± 0.20	$0.80{\pm}0.15$	$0.89{\pm}0.03$	0.99±0.12	0.95 ± 0.06	$0.95{\pm}0.08$	0.77 ± 0.04
Armatimonadetes	1.08 ± 0.13	0.64 ± 0.06	0.56 ± 0.06	0.46 ± 0.07	1.04 ± 0.16	0.65 ± 0.05	$0.70{\pm}0.11$	0.61 ± 0.08	$0.72{\pm}0.07$	$0.78{\pm}0.07$
Latescibacteria	0.85 ± 0.05	0.58 ± 0.09	0.64±0.13	0.58±0.13	$0.56{\pm}0.04$	$0.53{\pm}0.08$	$0.52{\pm}0.07$	0.62 ± 0.10	0.78 ± 0.11	$0.83{\pm}0.09$
Aminicenantes	$0.70{\pm}0.05$	0.66 ± 0.08	0.65 ± 0.02	0.61±0.17	$0.52{\pm}0.07$	0.53 ± 0.08	0.66±0.09	0.55 ± 0.06	0.48 ± 0.09	$0.74{\pm}0.05$
Elusimicrobia	$0.60{\pm}0.08$	0.30 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.08	0.53±0.12	0.62 ± 0.01	$0.30{\pm}0.01$	$0.32{\pm}0.09$	0.41 ± 0.05	0.35 ± 0.05	0.47 ± 0.09

Table S2 The average relative abundance of phyla in the sediment (> 0.5%).

Int means microcosms with benthic macroinvertebrates.

CK1 and CK2 represent water control and acetone control, respectively. T1-T4 represent treatments with TCS spiked concentrations of 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 μ g/g dw, respectively. Three replicates were measured for each system-treatment combination.

Family	IntCK1	IntCK2	IntT1	IntT2	CK1	CK2	T1	T2	Т3	T4
Anaerolineaceae	5.11±0.16	4.59±0.17	4.58±0.16	4.60±0.18	5.05 ± 0.36	4.59±0.30	4.55±0.24	4.55±0.14	11.5±1.13	12.4±1.07
Rhodocyclaceae	3.73 ± 0.38	3.84 ± 0.29	3.88 ± 0.28	5.40 ± 0.29	3.88 ± 0.68	$3.90{\pm}0.77$	4.16±0.54	4.24 ± 0.68	6.25 ± 0.85	6.04±0.11
Bacillaceae	$4.49{\pm}0.17$	4.63±0.46	4.68±0.63	4.73±0.25	4.66±0.73	4.83±0.39	4.68±0.51	4.76±0.34	4.04 ± 0.22	2.07±0.17
Clostridiaceae_1	3.46 ± 0.28	$3.40{\pm}0.71$	3.42 ± 0.40	4.22 ± 0.40	3.46 ± 0.25	3.42 ± 0.48	3.53 ± 0.48	3.58 ± 0.30	2.81±0.41	2.34±0.31
Comamonadaceae	$3.89{\pm}0.44$	3.72 ± 0.60	3.76 ± 0.39	3.71±0.53	$3.59{\pm}0.52$	3.57±0.35	3.65 ± 0.10	3.56±0.15	3.5 ± 0.93	3.33±0.38
Nitrosomonadaceae	$2.59{\pm}0.29$	2.58±0.31	2.47±0.41	2.52±0.21	2.55±0.11	$2.46{\pm}0.41$	$2.46{\pm}0.14$	2.54 ± 0.33	$2.44{\pm}0.41$	2.10±0.11
Chitinophagaceae	2.31±0.26	2.47 ± 0.22	2.38 ± 0.39	1.98 ± 0.11	2.28 ± 0.14	2.30±0.39	2.24±0.23	2.12±0.14	0.88 ± 0.17	0.52 ± 0.02
Gallionellaceae	1.68 ± 0.05	1.39±0.19	1.31 ± 0.11	$1.44{\pm}0.15$	1.57 ± 0.20	1.08 ± 0.05	1.22±0.13	$1.20{\pm}0.05$	1.58 ± 0.11	2.39±0.12
Gaiellaceae	1.66 ± 0.30	1.80 ± 0.23	1.72±0.59	1.62 ± 0.20	1.68 ± 0.37	1.81 ± 0.09	1.92±0.29	1.97±0.19	1.71±0.14	1.16±0.09
Ruminococcaceae	1.89±0.13	$1.84{\pm}0.42$	1.83 ± 0.31	$1.92{\pm}0.15$	1.96 ± 0.30	1.98 ± 0.20	2.11±0.19	2.14 ± 0.08	1.71±0.25	1.41 ± 0.05
unidentified_Chloroplast	$0.38{\pm}0.10$	0.38 ± 0.04	0.38 ± 0.05	0.59 ± 0.23	0.41 ± 0.07	0.39±0.13	0.42 ± 0.11	$0.39{\pm}0.03$	0.98 ± 0.16	1.61 ± 0.05
Paenibacillaceae	1.35 ± 0.24	1.21±0.24	1.41±0.22	1.87 ± 0.20	1.45 ± 0.07	1.41 ± 0.12	1.42 ± 0.11	1.48 ± 0.21	1.23 ± 0.20	0.75 ± 0.08
Burkholderiaceae	0.67 ± 0.02	$0.68{\pm}0.03$	$0.69{\pm}0.05$	1.88 ± 0.12	$0.60{\pm}0.05$	0.58 ± 0.06	0.57 ± 0.06	0.57 ± 0.07	0.80 ± 0.06	0.79±0.13
Nitrospiraceae	1.17±0.12	1.08 ± 0.12	1.18±0.13	1.17±0.25	1.18±0.25	1.21±0.19	1.15 ± 0.07	1.24 ± 0.27	$1.49{\pm}0.52$	1.70 ± 0.02
BSV26	1.07 ± 0.05	$0.96{\pm}0.10$	$0.95{\pm}0.07$	0.92 ± 0.06	$1.00{\pm}0.18$	0.99 ± 0.20	$0.97{\pm}0.08$	1.01 ± 0.08	1.47 ± 0.26	1.92±0.15
unidentified_Acidobacteria	$1.02{\pm}0.05$	$0.87{\pm}0.09$	0.87 ± 0.06	0.86 ± 0.08	0.99±0.19	$0.89{\pm}0.06$	$0.90{\pm}0.08$	0.96 ± 0.10	1.25 ± 0.28	1.33 ± 0.03
Methylococcaceae	1.04 ± 0.12	1.13±0.10	1.08 ± 0.09	1.00 ± 0.10	1.09 ± 0.09	1.22±0.21	1.14±0.11	1.11 ± 0.08	1.07 ± 0.04	0.90±0.17
Caulobacteraceae	$0.53{\pm}0.04$	0.55 ± 0.02	$0.56{\pm}0.06$	1.28 ± 0.11	$0.60{\pm}0.09$	$0.59{\pm}0.03$	0.62 ± 0.04	0.63 ± 0.07	0.48 ± 0.06	0.46 ± 0.04
Opitutaceae	0.63 ± 0.08	0.63 ± 0.08	$0.62{\pm}0.05$	0.64 ± 0.06	0.63±0.09	0.65 ± 0.04	0.63 ± 0.04	0.62 ± 0.06	0.58 ± 0.04	0.64±0.10
Coriobacteriaceae	$0.89{\pm}0.07$	$0.90{\pm}0.14$	0.98 ± 0.08	0.84 ± 0.11	0.87 ± 0.14	0.85 ± 0.03	0.89 ± 0.08	$0.94{\pm}0.11$	0.70 ± 0.17	0.64 ± 0.05
Gemmatimonadaceae	$0.80{\pm}0.04$	0.81 ± 0.07	0.73 ± 0.06	0.63±0.11	0.71 ± 0.07	0.73 ± 0.03	0.70 ± 0.08	0.66 ± 0.02	0.90 ± 0.07	$0.80{\pm}0.03$
Peptostreptococcaceae	0.67 ± 0.03	0.67 ± 0.07	0.68 ± 0.03	0.69 ± 0.02	0.81 ± 0.18	0.83 ± 0.05	0.84 ± 0.08	0.85±0.13	0.61 ± 0.04	0.47±0.10
Planctomycetaceae	$0.72{\pm}0.06$	0.76 ± 0.12	0.76 ± 0.21	0.67 ± 0.05	0.73±0.14	0.75±0.12	0.77 ± 0.14	0.78 ± 0.18	0.73 ± 0.04	0.75±0.03
Methylophilaceae	0.67 ± 0.08	0.68 ± 0.10	0.63±0.10	0.53 ± 0.06	0.67 ± 0.05	0.66 ± 0.01	0.66 ± 0.06	0.66 ± 0.07	0.49±0.15	0.55±0.10

Table S3 The average relative abundance of families in the sediment (> 0.5%).

env.OPS_17 0.0	0.65±0.08 0.60±0.03 0.62±0.10	0.66±0.07 0.61±0.05	0.68±0.04 0.62±0.06	$0.67{\pm}0.04$ $0.60{\pm}0.06$	0.66 ± 0.08	0.66±0.10	0.67 ± 0.07	0.68 ± 0.06	0.55±0.04	0.43±0.02
_			0.62 ± 0.06	0.60±0.06					0.000-0.01	0.45±0.02
Peptococcaceae 0.0	0.62±0.10	0.00.011		0.00 ± 0.00	0.59 ± 0.03	0.61 ± 0.08	0.60 ± 0.04	0.60 ± 0.03	$0.59{\pm}0.03$	$0.59{\pm}0.03$
		0.63 ± 0.11	0.61 ± 0.12	$0.70{\pm}0.11$	0.63 ± 0.06	0.65 ± 0.05	0.64 ± 0.08	0.66 ± 0.09	$0.60{\pm}0.02$	$0.41{\pm}0.03$
Syntrophaceae 0.5	0.50±0.04	0.47 ± 0.01	0.48 ± 0.02	$0.37{\pm}0.05$	$0.49{\pm}0.08$	0.48 ± 0.04	0.48 ± 0.01	$0.50{\pm}0.08$	0.45 ± 0.01	$0.53{\pm}0.08$
Rhodospirillaceae 0.5	0.54±0.07	$0.53{\pm}0.01$	$0.50{\pm}0.03$	0.48 ± 0.10	0.55 ± 0.06	0.53 ± 0.08	0.53 ± 0.06	$0.49{\pm}0.03$	0.46 ± 0.08	$0.42{\pm}0.04$
Cytophagaceae 0.5	0.54±0.07	$0.52{\pm}0.09$	0.51 ± 0.05	$0.52{\pm}0.05$	0.53 ± 0.11	$0.52{\pm}0.07$	0.53±0.11	0.54 ± 0.09	$0.31{\pm}0.03$	$0.18{\pm}0.01$
Xanthomonadaceae 0.5	0.53±0.07	0.55±0.11	0.52 ± 0.10	$0.55{\pm}0.03$	0.51 ± 0.07	0.56±0.11	0.57 ± 0.02	0.55 ± 0.07	0.23 ± 0.02	$0.12{\pm}0.01$
AcidobacteriaceaeSubgroup_1 0.4	0.49±0.14	$0.40{\pm}0.03$	0.38 ± 0.02	$0.38{\pm}0.05$	$0.47{\pm}0.13$	0.38 ± 0.05	$0.39{\pm}0.09$	0.42 ± 0.03	0.61 ± 0.02	$0.67{\pm}0.03$
Micromonosporaceae 0.4	0.43±0.11	0.43 ± 0.07	0.43 ± 0.08	0.63 ± 0.15	$0.44{\pm}0.05$	0.47 ± 0.04	0.45 ± 0.05	0.45 ± 0.05	0.38 ± 0.06	$0.21{\pm}0.01$
Planococcaceae 0.4	.47±0.14	$0.50{\pm}0.10$	0.47 ± 0.13	$0.50{\pm}0.06$	0.46 ± 0.07	$0.50{\pm}0.08$	0.51 ± 0.11	0.52 ± 0.10	$0.39{\pm}0.05$	0.21 ± 0.02
<i>SJA-149</i> 0.4	0.48±0.07	0.46 ± 0.10	0.43 ± 0.04	$0.30{\pm}0.07$	$0.47{\pm}0.03$	0.42 ± 0.07	0.43 ± 0.03	0.46 ± 0.10	0.67 ± 0.14	$0.71{\pm}0.04$
Alicyclobacillaceae 0.4).49±0.14	0.48 ± 0.11	$0.52{\pm}0.10$	$0.66{\pm}0.07$	$0.50{\pm}0.13$	$0.49{\pm}0.09$	$0.49{\pm}0.09$	$0.49{\pm}0.13$	0.41 ± 0.10	$0.26{\pm}0.08$
Erysipelotrichaceae 0.4	0.42±0.05	0.43±0.14	0.41 ± 0.07	$0.54{\pm}0.18$	0.43 ± 0.10	$0.44{\pm}0.07$	$0.44{\pm}0.03$	0.45 ± 0.03	0.38 ± 0.06	$0.24{\pm}0.02$
Haliangiaceae 0.4).48±0.11	0.54±0.12	$0.54{\pm}0.01$	$0.46{\pm}0.03$	$0.47{\pm}0.09$	$0.54{\pm}0.08$	0.51 ± 0.04	0.44 ± 0.04	0.41 ± 0.01	0.35 ± 0.02
Holophagaceae 0.1	0.17±0.03	0.16 ± 0.04	0.17 ± 0.03	$0.56{\pm}0.02$	$0.22{\pm}0.01$	0.23 ± 0.02	$0.24{\pm}0.01$	0.26±0.05	0.21 ± 0.02	0.09±0.01

Int means microcosms with benthic macroinvertebrates. CK1 and CK2 represent water control and acetone control, respectively. T1-T4 represent treatments with TCS spiked concentrations of 0.8, 8, 80 and 240 μ g/g dw, respectively. Three replicates were measured for each system-treatment combination.

Region	Surface waters (µg/L)	Sediment (µg/g dw)	Reference
China	n.d-0.478	n.d-1.329	1,2,3
Korea	n.d-0.082		4,5,6
Australia	0.014-0.075		7
Greece	0.003-0.098		8
Germany	<0.003-0.01		9
Romania	n.d-0.0643		10
U.K.	n.d-0.095		11
Span	n.d-0.285	n.d-0.388	12,13,14
USA	0.0005-0.0283	<0.0005-0.4	15,16,17,18

Table S4 TCS concentrations in surface water and sediment.

n.d, not detected.

¹ Zhao et al., 2009; ² Zhao et al., 2010; ³ Chen et al., 2014; ⁴ Kim et al., 2007; ⁵ Kim et al., 2009b; ⁶ Yoon et al., 2010; ⁷ Kookana et al., 2011; ⁸ Stasinakis et al., 2012; ⁹ Bester et al., 2005; ¹⁰ Moldovan, 2006; ¹¹ Kasprzyk-Hordern et al., 2008; ¹² Kantiani et al., 2008; ¹³ Villaverde-de-Sáa et al., 2010; ¹⁴ Gorga et al., 2015; ¹⁵ Wilson et al., 2009; ¹⁶ Kumar et al., 2010; ¹⁷ Katz et al., 2013; ¹⁸ Gautam et al., 2014;

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