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Mixture effects of a fungicide and an antibiotic: Assessment and prediction using a decomposer-detritivore system

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1 **Mixture effects of a fungicide and an antibiotic: assessment and prediction using a**  
2 **decomposer-detritivore system**

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25 Abstract

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3 26 Antimicrobials, such as fungicides and antibiotics, pose a risk for microbial decomposers (i.e.,  
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5 27 bacteria and aquatic fungi) and invertebrate detritivores (i.e., shredders) that play a pivotal  
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8 28 role in the ecosystem function of leaf litter breakdown. Although waterborne toxicity and  
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10 29 diet-related effects (i.e., dietary exposure and microorganism-mediated alterations in food  
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12 30 quality for shredders) of fungicides and antibiotics on decomposer-detritivore systems have  
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15 31 been increasingly documented, their joint effect is unknown. We therefore assessed  
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17 32 waterborne and dietary effects of an antimicrobial mixture consisting of the fungicide  
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19 33 azoxystrobin (AZO) and the antibiotic ciprofloxacin (CIP) on microbial decomposers and the  
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21 34 shredder *Gammarus fossarum* using a tiered approach. We compared effect sizes measured in  
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23 35 the present study with model predictions (i.e., independent action) based on published data.  
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25 36 During a 7-day feeding activity assay quantifying waterborne toxicity in *G. fossarum*,  
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27 37 gammarids' leaf consumption was reduced by ~60% compared to the control when subjected  
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29 38 to the mixture at concentrations of each component causing a 20% reduction in the same  
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31 39 response variable when applied individually. Moreover, the gammarids' selective feeding  
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33 40 during the food choice assay indicated alterations in food quality induced by the antimicrobial  
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35 41 mixture. The food selection and, in addition, the decrease in microbial leaf decomposition is  
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37 42 likely linked to changes in leaf-associated bacteria and fungi. During a long-term assay,  
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39 43 energy processing, growth and energy reserves of gammarids were increased in presence of  
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41 44 15 and 500 µg/L of AZO and CIP, respectively, through the dietary pathway. These  
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43 45 physiological responses were probably driven by CIP-induced alterations in gammarids' gut  
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45 46 microbiome or immune system. In general, model predictions matched observed effects  
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47 47 caused by waterborne exposure on gammarids' leaf consumption, energy processing and  
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49 48 growth during short- and long-term assays, respectively. However, when complex horizontal  
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51 49 (bacteria – aquatic fungi) and vertical (leaf-associated microorganisms – shredder)  
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50 interactions were involved, model predictions partly over- or underestimated mixture effects.

51 Therefore, the present study identifies uncertainties of mixture effect predictions for complex

52 biological systems calling for studies targeting the underlying processes and mechanisms.

53 KEYWORDS:

54 Aquatic fungi; Azoxystrobin; Ciprofloxacin; *Gammarus*; Leaf litter breakdown

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57           1    Introduction

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3 58    The breakdown of leaf litter is an important process for the nutrient and energy cycling in  
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5 59    stream ecosystems (Minshall, 1967; Fisher and Likens, 1973). Microbial decomposers (i.e.,  
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7 60    fungi and bacteria) and invertebrate detritivores (i.e., shredders) are fundamental for this  
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9 61    ecosystem process (Gessner et al., 1999; Graça, 2001): Microbial decomposers contribute  
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11 62    substantially to the mineralization of leaf litter (Hieber and Gessner, 2002). In particular  
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13 63    aquatic fungi increase the nutritional quality and palatability of leaf litter for shredders (i.e.,  
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15 64    conditioning; Bärlocher and Kendrick, 1975; Graça et al., 1993). Shredders, in turn, transform  
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17 65    leaf litter into fine particulate organic matter (e.g., feces) that are consumed by collectors  
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19 66    (Bundschuh and McKie, 2016). Furthermore, shredders' secondary production provides food  
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21 67    for higher trophic levels (MacNeil et al., 1999).

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28 68            These decomposers and detritivores as well as their interactions can be affected by  
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30 69    chemical stressors (e.g., Fernández et al., 2015; Zubrod et al., 2017), among which  
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32 70    antimicrobial substances (= antimicrobials), such as fungicides and antibiotics, are of  
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34 71    particular interest for the following reasons: shredders can suffer from direct effects during  
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36 72    waterborne exposure (e.g., Beketov and Liess, 2008; Bartlett et al., 2013) and dietary uptake  
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38 73    of antimicrobials when adsorbed onto leaf litter (Zubrod et al., 2015c). Furthermore, due to  
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40 74    their modes of action, which target vital processes in fungi (Ittner et al., 2018) and bacteria  
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42 75    (Brandt et al., 2015), antimicrobials change the microbial decomposer community  
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44 76    composition and consequently the palatability and nutritional quality of leaf litter for  
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46 77    shredders (i.e., microorganism-mediated dietary effects; e.g., Hahn and Schulz, 2007; Zubrod  
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48 78    et al., 2015c).

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55 79            Even though fungicides and antibiotics can affect decomposer-detritivore systems,  
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57 80    both chemical stressor groups have dissimilar effects on microbial decomposers. Fungicides,  
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59 81    for instance, directly affect aquatic fungi (mainly aquatic hyphomycetes) and thereby reduce  
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82 leaf litter quality for shredders (Zubrod et al., 2015c). Antibiotics, on the other hand, can  
83 release fungi from the competitive pressure by leaf-associated bacteria, increasing the  
84 shredders' growth indirectly (Bundschuh et al., 2017; Kanschak et al., 2020a). It is yet  
85 unknown how combined effects of these groups of antimicrobials affect decomposer-  
86 detritivore systems.

87         We here address this issue by assessing effects of an antimicrobial mixture composed  
88 of a fungicide and an antibiotic using a well-established model decomposer-detritivore  
89 system. This system comprised a near-natural leaf-associated microbial decomposer  
90 community and the amphipod shredder *Gammarus fossarum*. Using a tiered experimental  
91 approach, we first assessed the effects of short-term waterborne exposure on gammarids via a  
92 feeding activity assay. In a second step, we assessed for potential indirect effects and repellent  
93 effects (caused by adsorbed fungicides onto leaf litter; cf. Zubrod et al., 2015a) on shredders  
94 using a food choice assay and employing food selection as indicator of leaf palatability  
95 (Arsuffi and Suberkropp, 1989). Simultaneously, we determined effects on microbial  
96 decomposers by assessing their leaf decomposition activity. We further investigated long-term  
97 waterborne and diet-related effects of the antimicrobial mixture on gammarids' energy  
98 processing (leaf consumption and feces production), growth and energy reserves using a full  
99 factorial design. Finally, we compared our observations to effect predictions of the  
100 independent action (IA) model (dealing with substances of dissimilar modes of action; Bliss,  
101 1939) using data from previous publications (Zubrod et al., 2014; Zubrod et al., 2015a;  
102 Kanschak et al., 2020a; Kanschak et al., 2020b). Thereby, we aim at stimulating future  
103 research ultimately supporting the regulation of antimicrobial mixtures.

104         As IA models are designed to handle effects of substances with dissimilar modes of  
105 action in a given mixture, we expected its predictions to comply with the effects observed for  
106 *G. fossarum* when experiencing waterborne exposure. However, we hypothesized that effect

107 predictions for leaf-associated microorganisms (i.e., decomposer community level) do not  
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2 108 match the observed effects, as the IA model does not cover complex horizontal and vertical  
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4 109 species interactions (e.g., Romaní et al., 2006).  
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112 2. Materials and methods

113 2.1 General overview

114 In a first step, waterborne effects on gammarids were determined following Zubrod et al.  
115 (2014): the assay was performed in May 2016 focusing on the feeding activity of *G. fossarum*  
116 exposed to the binary antimicrobial mixture comprised the fungicide azoxystrobin (AZO;  
117 mitochondrial respiratory chain inhibitor; Bartlett et al., 2002) and the antibiotic ciprofloxacin  
118 (CIP; DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV inhibitor; Hooper and Wolfson, 1988; Fig 1a). The  
119 concentrations selected for each mixture component (five AZO concentrations combined with  
120 a fixed CIP concentration) were below or similar to the concentration inducing a 20%  
121 reduction (EC<sub>20</sub>) in gammarids' leaf consumption when exposed individually (Table 1). The  
122 EC<sub>20</sub> was selected as benchmark as it is considered as an ecotoxicologically relevant  
123 concentration that provides an adequate protection for aquatic life (Barnthouse et al., 2008).

124 For the assessment of mixture effects on a leaf-associated microbial community, its  
125 microbial leaf decomposition and its indirect consequences on leaf palatability for shredders  
126 (Zubrod et al., 2015a), a food choice assay was performed in August 2017 (Fig. 1b). The  
127 antimicrobial mixture covered two concentrations of AZO and CIP in all possible  
128 combinations. These concentrations were set at 0.1 and 2.5 mg/L representing the lowest  
129 observed effect concentration for microbial decomposition and an overdosed concentration,  
130 respectively. The latter concentration should thus induce clear effects on the response  
131 variables (Zubrod et al., 2015a; Korschak et al., 2020a).

132 In January 2018, a 24-day long-term assay was conducted to assess effects on the  
133 gammarids' energy processing, growth and energy reserves (i.e., neutral lipid fatty acids;  
134 NLFAs). The mixture effects via the waterborne and dietary pathway were assessed using a  
135 2 × 2 factorial design (cf. Zubrod et al., 2015b): gammarids were not exposed via the water  
136 phase and fed with unexposed leaves (i.e., Control), exposed via the water phase and fed with



137 unexposed leaves (i.e., Water), not exposed via the water phase and fed with exposed leaves  
138 (i.e., Diet), or subjected to both exposure pathways jointly (i.e., Combined; Fig. 1c). The  
139 concentrations of the individual mixture components (i.e., 15 µg/L AZO and 500 µg/L CIP)  
140 selected for the present study resulted in sublethal effects in gammarids when tested in a  
141 similar set up individually (Table 1). Moreover, this choice allowed to test for compliance  
142 between predicted and observed effects.

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## 144 2.2 Binary antimicrobial mixture

145 Individual stock solutions were prepared separately in the respective test media for AZO  
146 (Ortiva, Syngenta Agro GmbH, Basel, Switzerland; cf. Kanschak et al., 2020b) and CIP  
147 (98%, Acros Organics, Geel, Belgium; cf. Kanschak et al., 2020a) to avoid possible  
148 physicochemical interactions. Nominal concentrations for each assay (Table 1) were obtained  
149 via serial dilution and analytically verified by randomly taking three replicate samples from  
150 the control, the lowest as well as the highest test concentration of the feeding activity and  
151 from all test concentrations of the food choice assay. Furthermore, fresh and 3-day old test  
152 medium samples from the long-term assay were randomly taken from one replicate of each  
153 test concentration at day 0, 6, 12, 18 and day 3, 9, 15, 21, respectively. Samples were  
154 conserved at -20°C and analyzed by using ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography-  
155 mass spectrometry (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Bremen, Germany) and quantified via external  
156 standard calibration (cf. Zubrod et al., 2015c). As only one measured AZO and CIP  
157 concentration deviated slightly more than 20% (-20.6% and -24.0%) from the nominal  
158 concentrations (Table S1), we consider it defensible to base the present study on the latter.

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## 160 2.3 Experimental setups

161 The experimental procedures, including the collection of microbial and invertebrate test  
162 organisms are detailed elsewhere (see Table 1). Briefly, for the first experiment (Fig. 1a), leaf  
163 discs were cut from unconditioned black alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) leaves (hand-picked in  
164 October 2015 near Landau, Germany). Subsequently, leaves were conditioned in 12 L  
165 conditioning medium (Dang et al., 2005) together with 50 g (wet mass) of microbial inoculum  
166 at  $16 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  in darkness (hereafter called “laboratory conditions”). After 10 days, leaf discs  
167 were autoclaved, dried, weighed to the nearest 0.01 mg and re-soaked in amphipod culture  
168 medium (SAM-5S; Borgmann, 1996) for 48 h. Subsequently, male gammarids (body length  
169 of 6 – 8 mm) were fed with two pre-weighed leaf discs for 7 days that had been exposed to  
170 one of six increasing test concentrations via the water phase (Table 1; Fig. 1a). The assay was  
171 conducted under laboratory conditions and continuous aeration. Additionally, five replicates  
172 without test organisms accounted for unintended leaf mass loss by microorganisms and  
173 handling. At test termination, dead gammarids were recorded and surviving animals as well as  
174 leaf disc remains were dried and weighed as described above.

175 For the food choice assays (Fig. 1b), sets of four leaf discs were cut from the same  
176 unconditioned black alder leaf (collected in October 2016) and dried and weighed as  
177 described above. Two leaf discs were microbially conditioned in the presence of one of four  
178 test concentrations (Treatment;  $n = 7$ ; Table 1), while the two corresponding discs from the  
179 same leaf were conditioned in the absence of the antimicrobial mixture (Control; Fig. 1b).  
180 Microbial conditioning was performed under laboratory conditions in 4 L of conditioning  
181 medium using 10 g (wet mass) of microbial inoculum for 12 days. Every third day, the  
182 conditioning medium with the respective test concentration was renewed to guarantee a  
183 continuous antimicrobial exposure. After 12 days, leaf discs were rinsed for ~30 min in  
184 control medium and subsequently transferred into the food choice arenas. Each arena  
185 consisted of a crystallization dish filled with SAM-5S, one male gammarid (6 – 8 mm) and

186 the four conditioned leaf discs originating from the same leaf (Fig. 1b). The gammarid was  
187 offered one control and one treatment leaf disc, while the corresponding leaf discs of the same  
188 set were inaccessible for the animal. The inaccessible discs were used for the quantification of  
189 microbial leaf litter decomposition over the entire assay duration of 13 days. After 24 h,  
190 surviving gammarids (excluding those that had escaped from the arena) and leaf disc remains  
191 were dried and weighed as described above.

192 For the long-term assay (Fig. 1c), leaf strips were cut from unconditioned black alder  
193 leaves (collected in October 2017), dried, weighed and conditioned (as described for the  
194 feeding activity assay) in absence or presence of the antimicrobial mixture ( $n = 3$ ; Table 1).  
195 At the end of the microbial conditioning, three pairs of leaf discs were cut from three leaf  
196 strips and directly transferred to the respective experimental units. Each replicate consisted of  
197 a 250-mL glass beaker containing 200 mL of SAM-5S, a cylindrical and a rectangular  
198 stainless steel mesh cage (mesh size = 0.5 mm), a watch glass, one male gammarid (6 – 8  
199 mm) and six leaf discs originating from three leaf strips (see Zubrod et al., 2015b for a  
200 graphic illustration). The gammarid was kept within the cylindrical cage together with three  
201 leaf discs from different strips, while the corresponding leaf discs from the same strips were  
202 kept in the rectangular cage located at the test vessel's bottom. The latter were protected from  
203 gammarids and were used for the determination of the microorganism- and handling-mediated  
204 leaf mass loss. During the assay, SAM-5S and leaf discs were renewed every 3 and 6 days,  
205 respectively. The 3-day old SAM-5S was filtered through a pre-weighed glass fiber filter  
206 (GF/6, Whatman, Dassel, Germany) to quantify gammarids' feces production (Zubrod et al.,  
207 2015b) and leaf disc remains were dried and weighed to determine gammarids' leaf  
208 consumption. At the end of the assay, surviving animals were shock-frozen in liquid nitrogen  
209 and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  before being lyophilized, weighed and analyzed for NLFAs.

211 2.4 Microbial and fatty acid analyses

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3 212 The microbial parameters fungal biomass, bacterial density, and hyphomycete composition  
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5 213 were analyzed to allow for the interpretation of diet-related effects. As part of the food choice  
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8 214 and long-term assays, 15 leaf discs of each conditioning aquarium (in total 35 and 24 samples  
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10 215 respectively) were analyzed for ergosterol (a proxy for fungal biomass) according to Gessner  
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13 216 and Schmitt (1996). Furthermore, three leaf discs were used to determine bacterial density  
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15 217 through fluorescence microscopy according to Buesing (2007). The community composition  
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18 218 of aquatic hyphomycetes, a pivotal fungal group for microbial conditioning (Bärlocher, 1985),  
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20 219 was analyzed through their spore morphology. To do so, five additional leaf discs per  
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22 220 aquarium were shaken (120 rpm) for 96 h in deionized water at  $16 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . The community  
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25 221 composition was analyzed according to Pascoal and Cássio (2004) and spores were identified  
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27 222 by using various identification keys (e.g., Ingold, 1975).

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31 223 FAs and NLFAs of microbially conditioned leaves and gammarids, respectively,  
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33 224 originating from the long-term assay were analyzed to investigate microorganism-mediated  
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35 225 food quality effects on *G. fossarum*. Five leaf strips and ten gammarids per aquarium and  
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38 226 treatment (in total 24 and 40 samples) were lyophilized and weighed as described above.  
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40 227 Total FAs of leaves and NLFAs of gammarids were quantified via gas chromatography with  
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43 228 flame ionization detector according to Fink (2013) and Korschak et al. (2020a), respectively.

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49 230 2.5 Calculations and statistics

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53 231 Leaf consumption (as mg leaf material/mg gammarid/day) during the feeding activity and  
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55 232 food choice assays was calculated as described by Naylor et al. (1989) and Bundschuh et al.  
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58 233 (2009), respectively. Microbial leaf decomposition (in mg leaf mass loss/day), determined  
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60 234 during the food choice assay, was quantified according to Zubrod et al. (2015a). During the

235 long-term assay, leaf consumption and feces production of *G. fossarum* (both in mg/day) were  
236 calculated as per Zubrod et al. (2011). Growth (in  $\mu\text{g}$  gammarid dry mass gain/day) was  
237 calculated by subtracting the median dry mass of 70 animals (shock-frozen at the beginning of  
238 the assay) from the final dry mass of each surviving gammarid at the termination of the assay  
239 divided by the study duration in days (i.e. 24). Animals that died during the assays were  
240 excluded from any data evaluation.

241 The  $EC_{20}$  and  $EC_{50}$  values based on leaf consumption of *G. fossarum* measured during  
242 the feeding activity assay were calculated by fitting a series of concentration-response models  
243 to the data. The best fitting model (based on Akaike's information criterion) was used (Table  
244 S2).

245 Expected joint effects of the binary antimicrobial mixture on all gammarid-related  
246 endpoints measured during the bioassays (leaf consumption, food selection, feces production  
247 and growth) as well as on microbial leaf decomposition, were calculated according to the IA  
248 model (Bliss, 1939):

$$E_{Mix} = E_{AZO} + E_{CIP} - E_{AZO} \times E_{CIP}$$

249 where  $E_{Mix}$  is the predicted mixture effect (ranging from 0 – 1) based on the individual effects  
250 of each component ( $E_{AZO}$  and  $E_{CIP}$ , respectively) when acting alone on the test organism(s) at  
251 the concentration present in the mixture. Individual mixture component effects ( $E_{AZO}$  and  
252  $E_{CIP}$ , respectively, ranging from 0 – 1) were calculated as follows:

$$E_{AZO/CIP} = 1 - \frac{T_i}{C}$$

253 where  $T_i$  is the value of the response variable at concentration  $i$  and  $C$  is the value of the  
254 respective control. Due to the high natural variability of the measured response variables in  
255 the present study, a minimal effect threshold of 20% for effects unrelated to statistical

258 significance was chosen to avoid an overestimation of IA predictions (i.e.,  $E_{AZO}$  and  $E_{CIP}$   
1 below 0.2 were set to zero). This threshold was selected, since a 20% effect is considered  
2 259 environmentally relevant (Bruce and Versteeg, 1992; Peters et al., 2013), which is still an  
3 260 acceptable effect size for populations of aquatic species (Barnthouse et al., 2008). The  
4 261 compliance of predicted with observed effects was concluded, if point estimates fell within  
5 262 the 95% confidence intervals of the observed mean or median effects. Otherwise interaction  
6 263 effects (i.e., synergism and antagonism) were assumed. Since leaf-associated microbial  
7 264 communities and (NL)FA levels are highly variable between different seasons (Nicolcheva  
8 265 and Bärlocher, 2005; Guo et al., 2018), effect predictions were not determined for microbial  
9 266 parameters and (NL)FAs.  
10 267

25 268         Prior to applying statistical tests, extreme values were identified via visual inspection  
26 269 of boxplots (with a  $1.5 \times$  interquartile range) and excluded from further analyses. Data were  
27 270 tested for normal distribution via quantile-quantile plots as well as Shapiro-Wilk test and were  
28 271 checked for variance homogeneity by using residual plots and Levene's test. Parametric and  
29 272 non-parametric unpaired data consisting of two factorial predictors and two factor levels were  
30 273 evaluated using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and rank-transformed two-way  
31 274 ANOVA, respectively. Parametric unpaired data containing one factorial predictor with two  
32 275 factor levels and at least three factor levels were evaluated via Student's *t*-test and one-way  
33 276 ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test, respectively. Non-parametric unpaired data were  
34 277 analyzed using Wilcoxon rank-sum test followed by a Bonferroni correction for multiple  
35 278 comparisons if necessary (i.e.,  $\geq$  three factor levels). Parametric and non-parametric paired  
36 279 data with one factorial predictor and two factor levels were analyzed via paired *t*-tests and  
37 280 Wilcoxon signed-rank tests, respectively. Multivariate data were square-root transformed to  
38 281 reduce the discriminatory power of prevalent hyphomycete species and (NL)FAs,  
39 282 respectively. Subsequently, data were checked for dispersion effects before testing for  
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283 location effects via permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA). More  
284 details of null hypothesis significance tests (NHSTs; i.e., sum and mean of squares, *F*-  
285 statistics and *p*-values) and group medians with 95% confidence intervals for each response  
286 variable are listed in Tables S3 – S7. NHST, dose-response modeling and figures were  
287 performed using R Version 3.5.1 for Windows (R Core Team, 2014) in combination with the  
288 add-on packages (*asbio*, *drc*, *multcomp*, *plotrix* and *vegan*). Note that “statistically  
289 significant” is abbreviated with “significant” throughout the entire study.

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### 3 Results

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The model of Cedergreen et al. (2005) was the best fit to the feeding activity data as it is

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capable of reflecting hormetic (i.e., stimulation at low concentrations) responses (Fig. 2).

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Predictions of the IA model were within the 95% confidence intervals of mean observed

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effects and the fitted concentration-response curve with exception of the lowest test

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concentrations (difference of ~40%; Fig. 2).

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During the food choice assay, the gammarids did not significantly prefer control leaf

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discs over those discs conditioned in the presence of 0.1 + 0.1 and 0.1 + 2.5 mg/L AZO +

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CIP, while a significant preference was observed for control leaf discs over those which were

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exposed to the antimicrobial mixtures containing 2.5 mg/L AZO (Fig. 3a; Table S4). Each

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effect prediction fell within the 95% confidence interval of the respective observed median

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effect, except for one treatment (i.e., 2.5 + 0.1 mg/L AZO + CIP; difference of ~40%; Fig.

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3a). Microbial leaf decomposition and hyphomycete community composition were

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significantly negatively affected by all antimicrobial mixtures compared to the control (Fig.

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3b, Table S4). The relative mean contribution of *Tetracladium marchalianum* to fungal

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sporulation increased in the presence of the antimicrobial mixture, while the share of all other

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species decreased (Fig. S1). Furthermore, AZO and CIP significantly reduced fungal biomass

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and bacterial densities, respectively, while both antimicrobials significantly affected fungal

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sporulation (Table S5). The IA model's predictions for microbial leaf decomposition matched

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the observed effects in presence of 2.5 mg/L CIP, while predictions did not match the

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observed effects when leaf discs were microbially conditioned in presence of 0.1 mg/L CIP

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(difference of ~30% and ~50%; Fig. 3b).

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314 During the long-term assay, no waterborne effects were observed, while 15 + 500  
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2 315  $\mu\text{g/L}$  AZO + CIP applied via the dietary pathway significantly increased the energy  
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4 316 processing and growth as well as non-significantly elevated the NLFA content (by ~50%) of  
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7 317 *G. fossarum* compared to the control (Fig. 4, S2; Table S6). When both pathways acted  
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9 318 jointly, effect sizes of all response variables were lower compared to the sum of the effects  
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11 319 induced by each pathway individually (Fig. 4; Table S6). Moreover, no effects on leaf quality  
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13 320 related parameters (i.e., fungal biomass, aquatic hyphomycete community composition and  
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15 321 FAs associated with conditioned leaves) were observed when conditioned in presence of the  
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17 322 antimicrobial mixture (Table S7). The IA model's predictions were within the 95%  
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19 323 confidence intervals of median observed effects for the individual pathways, except for feces  
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21 324 production in the Diet treatment (difference of ~10%; Fig. 4). However, the IA model's  
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23 325 predictions for leaf consumption and growth did not match the median observed effects  
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25 326 (difference of ~20% and ~60%; Fig. 4) in the Combined treatment.  
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## 32 327 33 34 35 328 4 Discussion

### 36 329 4.1 Short-term waterborne effects

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38 329 As expected, effect predictions of the IA model mirrored observed effects of the binary  
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41 330 antimicrobial mixture on gammarids' leaf consumption, except for the lowest tested  
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43 331 concentration (Fig. 2). The increased leaf consumption (~30%) at 10 + 500  $\mu\text{g/L}$  AZO + CIP  
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45 332 indicates a hormetic effect at lower mixture concentrations, which had not been observed in  
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47 333 previous studies where the components had been applied individually (Zubrod et al., 2014;  
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49 334 Korschak et al., 2020a). The stimulated leaf consumption might be explained by a higher  
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51 335 energy demand induced by chemical stress, which consequently resulted in an increased  
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53 336 energy intake (e.g., Eriksson-Wiklund et al., 2011). Even though meaningful reductions in  
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55 337 leaf consumption occurred at concentrations of the antimicrobials below or equal to the  $\text{EC}_{20}$   
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339 of the individual components in the antimicrobial mixture, no synergistic effects could be  
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2 340 confirmed suggesting that the IA model reflects the risk imposed by waterborne exposure for  
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4 341 *G. fossarum*.

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#### 11 343 4.2 Effects on food selection and microbial decomposition

14 344 Contrary to our hypothesis, predictions largely matched the observed food choice of  
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17 345 gammarids (Fig. 3a). Such an accuracy of the IA model's predictions could, however, not be  
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19 346 reached when mixture components induced effects in opposite directions, when applied  
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22 347 individually. This is the case for the mixture of 2.5 + 0.1 mg/L AZO + CIP: 2.5 mg/L AZO  
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24 348 resulted in a preference of *G. fossarum* for control leaves (Zubrod et al., 2015a), while  
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27 349 gammarids tended to prefer leaves conditioned in presence of 0.1 mg/L CIP (Konschak et al.,  
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29 350 2020a). The IA model predicted that the effects of both antimicrobials should cancel each  
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32 351 other out when applied as a mixture. Our observations, however, suggest a further reduction  
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34 352 in leaf palatability for gammarids relative to the presence of AZO alone. Leaf palatability  
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36 353 mainly depends on leaf conditioning by leaf-associated aquatic fungi (Bärlocher, 1985).  
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39 354 Consequently, the significantly affected fungal biomass associated with leaf litter exposed to  
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41 355 this antimicrobial mixture could explain the observed food selection pattern.

44 356 Similar to food selection, model predictions did not comply with the observed mixture  
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47 357 effects on microbial leaf decomposition when the individual mixture components induced  
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49 358 effects in opposite directions. This applies for both mixtures of 0.1 + 0.1 and 2.5 + 0.1 mg/L  
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52 359 AZO + CIP. When only CIP was present at 0.1 mg/L, it stimulated microbial leaf  
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54 360 decomposition (Konschak et al., 2020a), whereas AZO (at either 0.1 and 2.5 mg/L) reduces  
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57 361 this response variable (Zubrod et al., 2015a). While these changes have been linked to shifts  
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59 362 in the aquatic hyphomycete communities, the effects of the antimicrobial mixture on

363 microbial leaf decomposition could not solely be explained by alterations in the aquatic  
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2 364 hyphomycete composition, but also by impairments in microbial sum parameters (i.e., fungal  
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4 365 biomass and bacterial density; Table S4). Moreover, it is alarming that the lowest mixture  
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7 366 concentration (0.1 + 0.1 mg/L AZO + CIP) unexpectedly caused effects on the microbial leaf  
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10 367 decomposition comparable in magnitude to the highest tested concentration (2.5 + 2.5 mg/L  
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12 368 AZO + CIP; Fig. 3b). This indicates a steeper concentration-response course of the  
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14 369 antimicrobial mixture compared to the individual mixture components. Therefore, further  
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17 370 investigations targeting the impact of complex antimicrobial mixtures at lower and thus field  
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19 371 relevant concentrations on natural microbial communities and their functions are urgently  
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22 372 needed.

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#### 28 374 4.3 Long-term waterborne and dietary effects

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32 375 In accordance with the results of the IA model's predictions, no effects to the binary  
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34 376 antimicrobial mixture via waterborne exposure were observed in *G. fossarum* during the long-  
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36 377 term assay (Fig. 4). While the IA model's predictions for leaf consumption and growth fell  
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39 378 within the 95% confidence intervals of the median observed effects of gammarids in the Diet  
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41 379 treatment, the deviation (by 10%) between expected and observed effects on feces production  
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44 380 indicates a slight synergistic action (Fig. 4). This might be related to the observed increase in  
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46 381 leaf consumption, which deviated by 10% from the IA prediction. This increased energy  
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49 382 intake was most likely induced by CIP (c.f. Kanschak et al., 2020a), resulting in turn in an  
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51 383 increased growth and NLFA content. Kanschak et al. (2020a) suggested a stimulation of the  
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53 384 gammarids' leaf consumption by CIP-induced alterations of the microorganism-mediated  
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56 385 food quality. However, contrary to their study, no alterations in microbial parameters were  
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59 386 observed in the present study (Table S7). An alternative explanation for the observed effects  
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61 387 in *Gammarus* might be a CIP-induced alteration in gammarids' gut microbiome or the

388 immune system as both can have an impact on the animals' energy processing and behavior  
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2 389 (Brown et al., 2017). Since neither the gut microbiome nor the immune system of  
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4 390 invertebrates are well understood (Loker et al., 2004; Lee and Hase, 2014), further studies are  
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7 391 needed to draw final conclusions about mechanisms underlying the observed effects.  
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10 392         When the waterborne and dietary effect pathway of the binary antimicrobial mixture  
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13 393 acted jointly during the 24-day bioassay, the observed effects on gammarids' leaf  
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15 394 consumption were overestimated by the IA model's prediction, indicating antagonism (i.e.,  
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17 395 the observed effect is lower than expected). In contrast, the IA model underestimated the  
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20 396 growth of gammarids, indicating positive synergistic interactions (Fig. 4). Thus, except for  
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22 397 feces production, predictions of the IA model did not comply with the observed mixture  
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25 398 effects when both pathways acted jointly. As the microbial parameters did not indicate  
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27 399 bottom-up effects on *G. fossarum*, the different responses may be explained by an altered  
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30 400 uptake of AZO and CIP when gammarids were exposed to the mixture instead of the  
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32 401 individual substances. However, to our best knowledge, no studies exist that investigated  
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35 402 differential uptake rates of strobilurins and quinolones in animals when applied  
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37 403 simultaneously. Therefore, analyses of internal concentrations of both substances in  
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40 404 gammarids (when applied individually and in mixture) may help to shed light on the  
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42 405 mechanisms explaining the amphipods' differential responses. Furthermore, future studies  
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45 406 should incorporate additional leaf-associated microorganisms (e.g., algae; Crenier et al., 2017)  
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47 407 that are known to influence energy processing and physiology of shredders to reveal further,  
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49 408 potentially overlooked bottom-up effects.  
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53 409         The results of the present study show that the IA model accurately predicts the effects  
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55 410 of AZP and CIP on amphipod shredders when focusing on single effect pathways. In contrast,  
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58 411 at the leaf-associated microbial community level and when the waterborne and the dietary  
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60 412 pathway acted jointly on gammarids, the effect predictions were inaccurate, resulting partly in  
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2 413 over- or underestimations of adverse effects. These insights highlight the need for further  
3 414 studies targeting the underlying processes and mechanisms to help develop a more holistic  
4 415 picture of the risks associated with the unintended release of antimicrobials into surface  
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419           5    Conclusion

420    We here demonstrate that microbial decomposers and shredders can show unexpected effect  
421    patterns in the presence of antimicrobial mixtures when data of the mixture’s individual  
422    components were used to derive mixture effect predictions. Even though some of the  
423    concentrations assessed in the present study were beyond field relevance, direct and indirect  
424    effects of fungicides and antibiotics at environmental concentrations are reported elsewhere  
425    (e.g., Bundschuh et al., 2017; Zubrod et al., 2017). When antimicrobials occur simultaneously  
426    in surface waters at sublethal effect levels (e.g., by entering aquatic systems via wastewater  
427    treatment plants; Batt et al., 2006; LUWG, 2011), unpredicted mixture effects seem possible.  
428    Moreover, antimicrobial mixture effects in aquatic ecosystems may intensify in the future,  
429    since an increasing fungicide as well as antibiotic use is forecasted (Elad and Pertot, 2014;  
430    Klein et al., 2018). In the light of the expected intensification of antimicrobial mixtures in the  
431    environment, studies investigating the processes and mechanisms on ecosystem level are  
432    urgently needed to inform environmental authorities about the potential risks of antimicrobial  
433    substances in the environment.

434  
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587 **Table 1** Assays, source of experimental setups as well as nominal concentrations of the  
 588 mixture components and the binary antimicrobial mixture for each assay.

| Assay       | Source of experimental setups | Mixture component | Nominal test concentration(s) | Mixture (AZO + CIP)                            |
|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Feeding     | Zubrod et al. (2014)          | AZO               | 10.0; 27.5; 45.0; 62.5; 80.0  | 10.0 + 500; 27.5 + 500; 45.0 + 500; 62.5 + 500 |
| activity    | Konschak et al. (2020a)       | CIP               | 500                           | 80.0 + 500                                     |
| Food choice | Zubrod et al. (2015a)         | AZO               | 0.1; 2.5                      | 0.1 + 0.1; 0.1 + 2.5; 2.5 + 0.1; 2.5 + 2.5     |
|             | Konschak et al. (2020a)       | CIP               | 0.1; 2.5                      |  |
| Long-term   | Konschak et al. (2020b)       | AZO               | 15.0                          | 15.0 + 500.0                                   |
|             | Konschak et al. (2020a)       | CIP               | 500.0                         |  |

589  
 590 **Figure 1** Schematic overview of the three assay designs (1a, 1b and 1c; following Konschak  
 591 et al., 2020a). Before the start of each assay, leaf discs and strips, respectively, cut from fresh  
 592 black alder leaves were microbially conditioned (by using colonized leaves with a near-  
 593 natural community, i.e., microbial inoculum) in the absence and presence (denoted by the  
 594 pipette) of the binary antimicrobial mixture. **1a** shows the test design of the 7-day feeding  
 595 activity assay where gammarids were exposed to the antimicrobial mixture via the water  
 596 phase (denoted by the pipette). **1b** displays the 24-hour food choice assay where the amphipod  
 597 shredders were offered leaf discs microbially conditioned in the absence or presence of the  
 598 antimicrobial mixture (denoted by white and grey discs, respectively). **1c** displays the 2 × 2-  
 599 factorial study design of the 24-day long-term assay where the first factor was the absence or  
 600 presence of the antimicrobial mixture in the water phase (denoted by the absence or presence  
 601 of the pipette). The second factor constituted leaf discs as food source for the gammarids,  
 602 which were microbially conditioned in the absence or presence of the antimicrobial mixture  
 603 (denoted by white and grey discs, respectively).

606 **Figure 2** Mean (with  $\pm$  95% CI) percentage effect on gammarids' leaf consumption (black  
607 triangles) when the animals were subjected to the binary antimicrobial mixture with  
608 increasing AZO concentrations and a fixed CIP concentration of 500  $\mu$ g/L. Moreover, the  
609 model with the best fit (black line with  $\pm$  95% CI) and IA predictions (grey circles) derived  
610 from the feeding activity assays, where the mixture components were tested individually, are  
611 displayed. The asterisk indicates a statistically significant difference to the control.

612  
613 **Figure 3** Median (with  $\pm$  95% CI) percentage effect (relative to the respective control) of (a)  
614 food selection of gammarids and (b) microbial leaf decomposition (black triangles) when  
615 subjected to different concentrations of the binary antimicrobial mixture. Furthermore, IA  
616 predictions derived from the food choice assays with the individual tested mixture  
617 components are displayed as grey circles. Asterisks indicate a statistically significant  
618 difference to the control.

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620 **Figure 4** Median (with  $\pm$  95% CI) percentage effect (relative to the control) of gammarids'  
621 leaf consumption (black triangles), feces production (black squares) and growth (black  
622 diamonds) when the animals were subjected to different effect pathways during the long-term  
623 assay with binary antimicrobial mixtures. IA predictions derived from the long-term assays  
624 with the individual tested mixture components are displayed as grey circles.

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Fig. 1

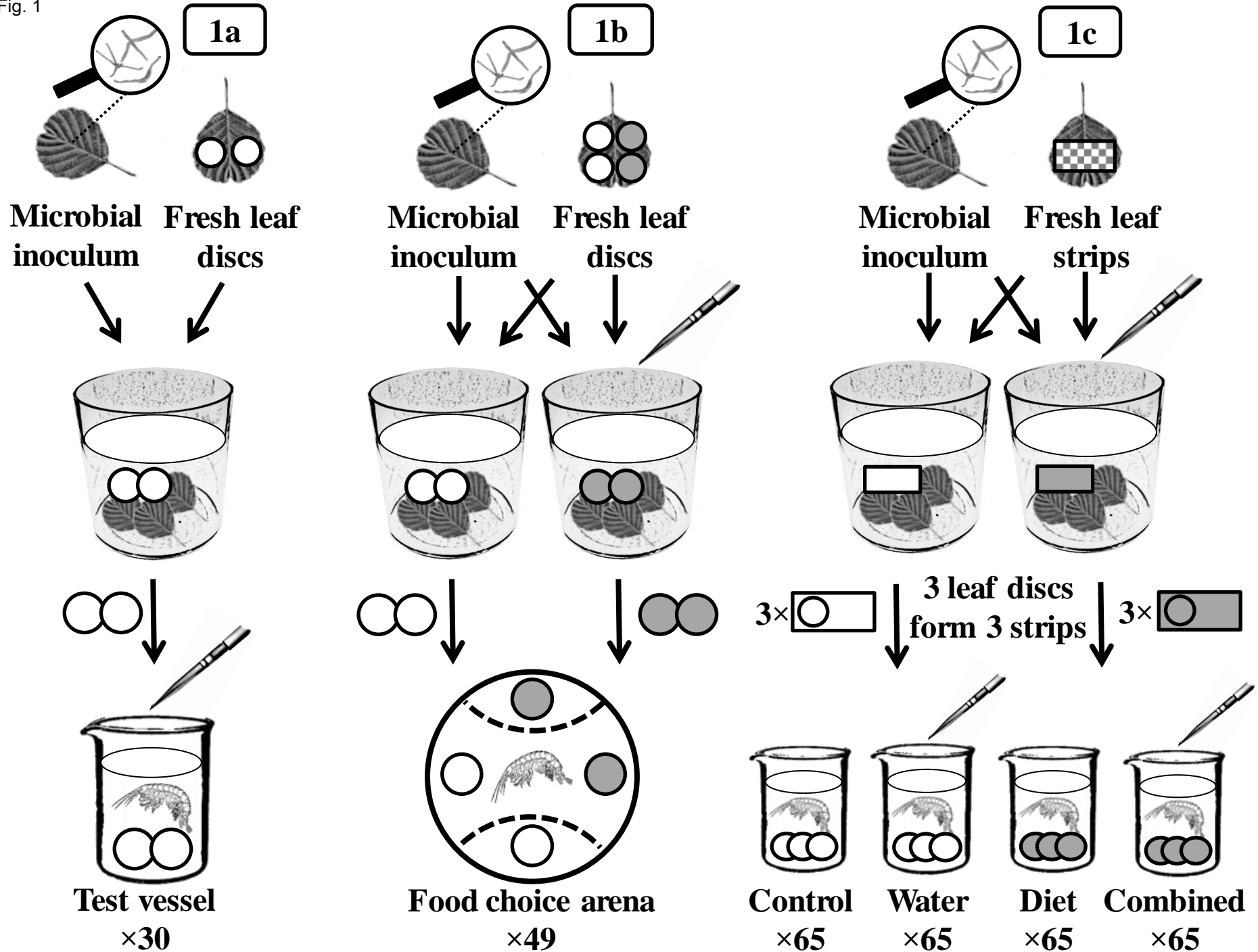




Fig. 2

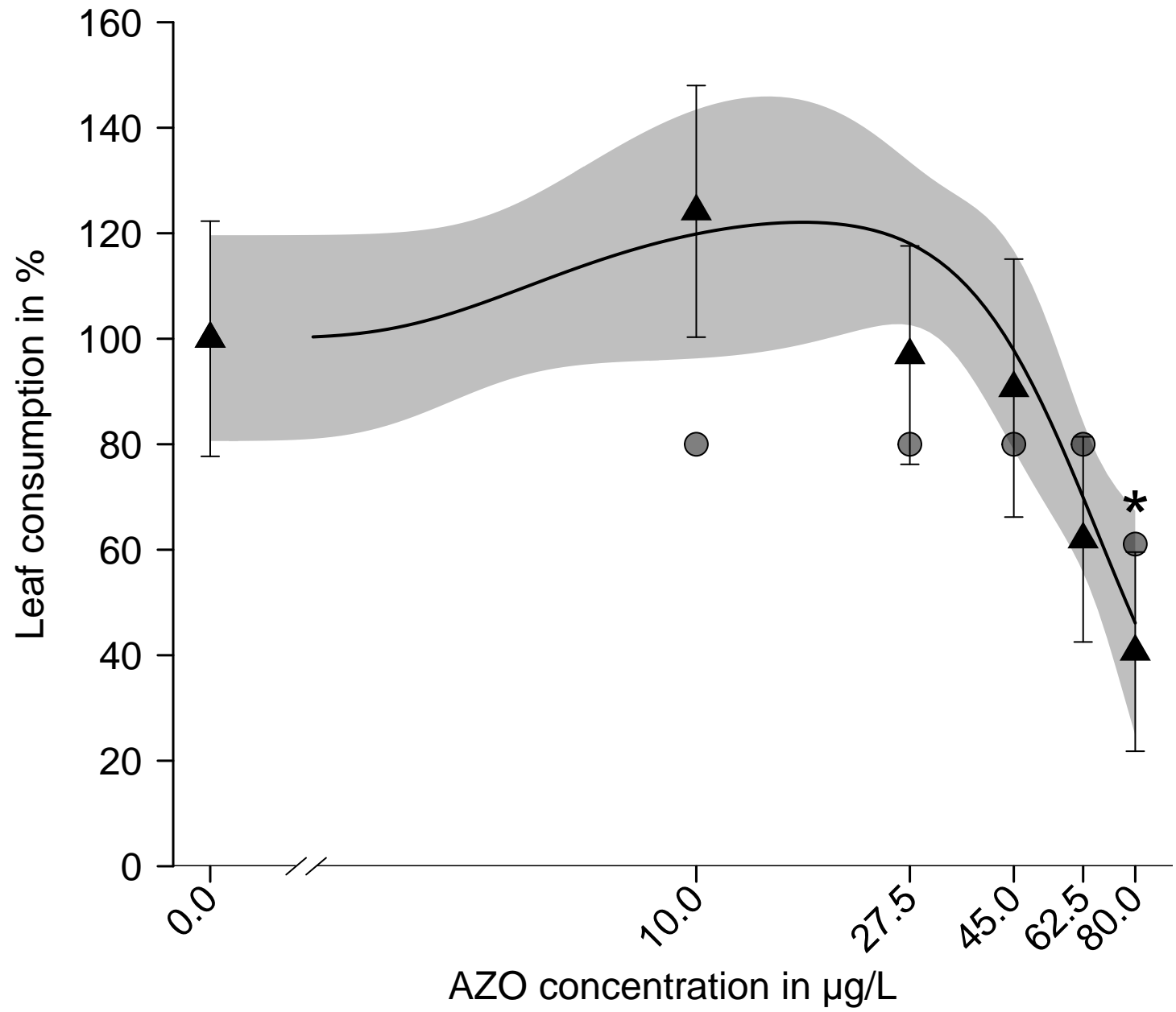


Fig. 3

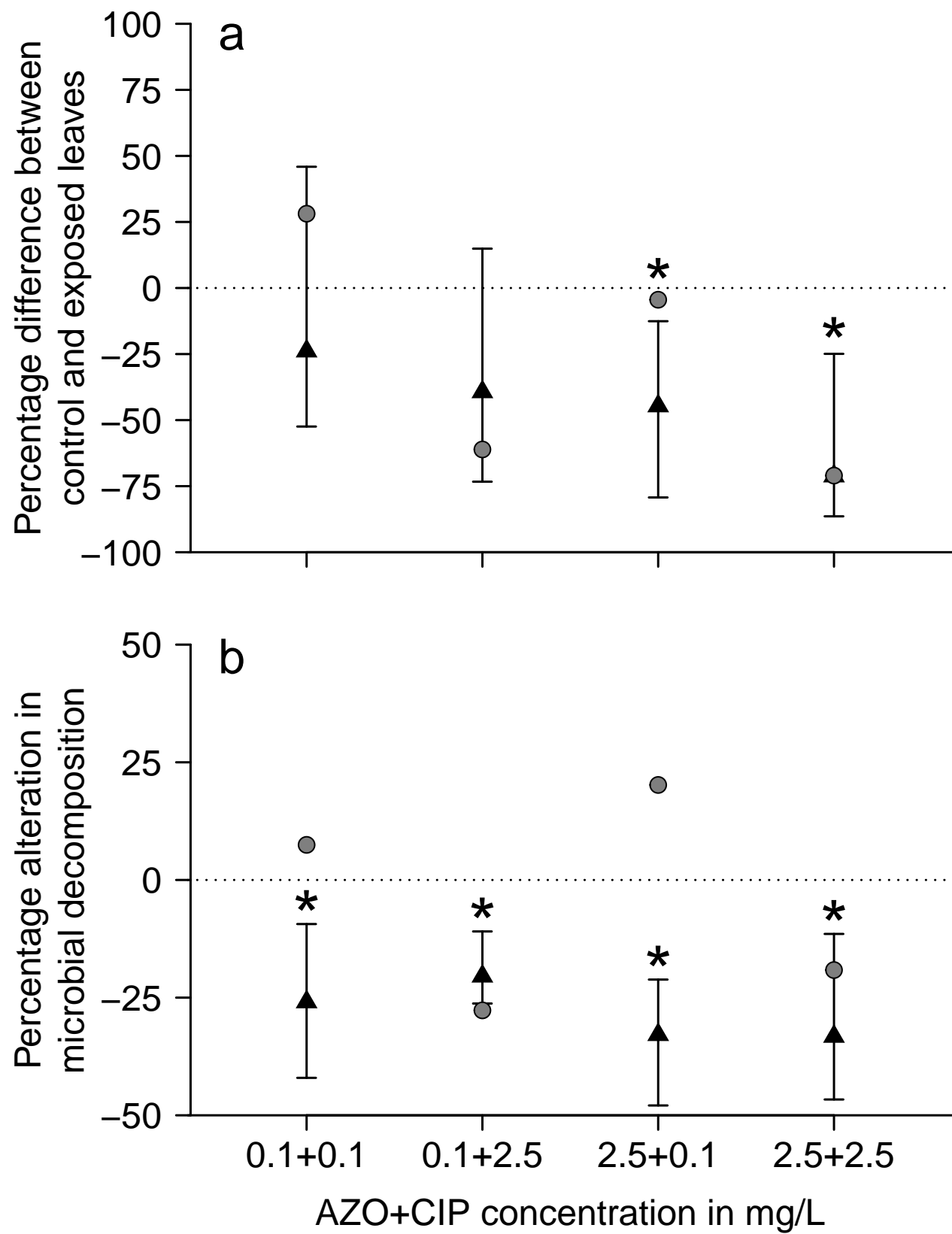


Fig. 4

