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Halsey, K. and Stroud, J. L. 2023. The post-registration monitoring of glyphosate-treated plants using anecic earthworms. *Annals of Applied Biology - AAB*. pp. 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aab.12838>

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1 **The post-registration monitoring of glyphosate-treated plants using anecic earthworms**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Glyphosate *N*-(phosphonomethyl) glycine is a widely-used herbicide in agriculture. The anecic
28 earthworm, *Lumbricus terrestris* feeds and forages for surface plant materials meaning that this
29 species has a unique and direct exposure to agrichemicals. At the recommended product rates,
30 significantly ($F_{1, 44} = 8.67, p = 0.005$) higher numbers of *L.terrestris* middens were found in
31 the glyphosate treated areas of an arable crop field. Laboratory feeding assays using field aged
32 plant materials indicated that previous glyphosate treatment was a statistically significant factor
33 affecting earthworm *L.terrestris* biomass ($F_{1,12} = 5.75, p = 0.03$). Negligible glyphosate
34 residues were detectable, and the field aged plant materials were encrusted with fungal hyphae.
35 This suggests that glyphosate influences the colonisation of plant material by a litter-fungus
36 complex which improves the food quality to earthworms. Concentrations of epoxiconazole, a
37 fungicide, were detected in some plant materials and may influence overall food quality to
38 earthworms. Glyphosate treatment on fresh volunteer plant leaves (unwanted crop seedlings)
39 was not a statistically significant factor affecting earthworm *L.terrestris* biomass ($F_{1,6} = 0.16,$
40 $p = 0.92$). These results indicate fungal communities influence feeding behaviours, and plant
41 materials are a direct source of agrichemicals to anecic earthworms.

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50 **Keywords: Glyphosate, earthworm, midden, soil health, pesticide**

51 **1. Introduction**

52 The first author had observed a curious phenomenon in arable field experiments. There was
53 an increase in midden-building activities by *Lumbricus terrestris* approximately 6-weeks after
54 applications of the glyphosate; *N*-(phosphonomethyl) glycine based herbicides; compared to
55 untreated areas in some field trials. This phenomenon was observed for a number of years,
56 prompting an investigation via midden counting to quantify the observation, laboratory feeding
57 assays and characterisation of the physical and chemical properties of these ‘treated’ (with
58 glyphosate) and untreated plant materials.

59 To date, there is little post-registration monitoring of pesticides, in terms of studies conducted
60 within the context of conventional field management (fertilisers, seed treatments, pesticides
61 etc.). A meta-analysis indicated that glyphosate-based herbicides have no impact on general
62 earthworm populations, and a trend of increased abundance and biomass were suggested when
63 glyphosate was included in the rotation (Briones and Schmidt, 2017). *Lumbricus terrestris* is
64 an anecic earthworm that feeds and forages for surface plant residues to form a distinctive
65 midden (collected surface debris) which overlies a deep vertical burrow. Their innate feeding
66 and foraging behaviour means that this species has a unique and direct exposure to crops treated
67 with agrichemicals, and they are also common in reduced tillage agriculture where plant
68 residues are retained. Farmers who depend on herbicides for weed control have requested
69 research into: ‘the impact, if any, of glyphosate (*N*-(phosphonomethyl) glycine) on soil life’
70 (Stroud, 2020).

71 Glyphosate-based herbicides are typically mixed with an adjuvant and sprayed on the emerged
72 plants (weeds, cover crops or crops to desiccate prior to harvest) where it is intercepted and
73 adsorbed by the leaves, acting by inhibiting the shikimic acid metabolic pathway. This
74 pathway is found in plants and some microorganisms, thus no direct impact on animals is
75 expected. However, glyphosate influences saprotrophic fungal community structure (Wardle

76 and Parkinson, 1992), can have fungicidal effects, or can be used as a nutritional source of
77 Phosphorus by some fungal species (Spinelli *et al.*, 2021). *Lumbricus terrestris* is a selective
78 feeder, with a preference towards plant pathogens and early successional fungal species (Doubé
79 *et al.*, 1997; Bonkowski *et al.*, 2000; Oldenburg *et al.*, 2008).

80 To date, laboratory studies have reported *L. terrestris* surface casting activities were reduced
81 by the use of glyphosate-based herbicides (Zaller *et al.*, 2021). This includes a suggestion of
82 an avoidance of glyphosate treated residues given their food supply would have increased
83 (Gaupp-Berghausen *et al.*, 2015). In comparison, a laboratory study stimulating glyphosate
84 spraying for cereals did not negatively affect *L. terrestris* earthworms (Nuutinen *et al.*, 2020).
85 However, glyphosate seems to bioaccumulate in earthworms with implications for the animals
86 which consume them for food (Pelosi *et al.*, 2022).

87 Here, firstly the observation of midden activity differences between treated/untreated areas was
88 quantified. Subsequently, fields were informally observed for the onset of this specific activity
89 to better understand why this was happening. Plant materials were collected and bulked from
90 ‘treated/field-aged’ and ‘untreated’ areas from two cereal field experiments. These were trials
91 both being studied in terms of organic matter applications (Whitmore *et al.*, 2017), one field
92 had a small abundance of *L. terrestris* and middens (Stroud *et al.*, 2016a) and the other did not,
93 which was assumed (by the author) to be caused by tillage-related abundance differences
94 (Stroud *et al.*, 2016c), but was perhaps associated with unmeasured plant/soil properties. These
95 results led to further questions about the timeline of anecic earthworm interactions with plant
96 materials treated with glyphosate in the field (e.g. initial avoidance behaviour?). A field
97 experiment with an abundance of plant volunteers (unwanted seedlings of the previous crop
98 which was due to be sprayed off) was used. The experiment was extended to *A. longa* because
99 this species was abundant in this field, and before/after/rate of consumption of glyphosate-
100 treated plant residues in terms of earthworm biomass was studied.

101 **2. Materials and methods**

102 Plants and soils were collected from field trials at the Rothamsted Experimental Farm,
103 Harpenden (51.80°N, -0.36°W, 128 m altitude), which has a temperate climate in the South of
104 England. The soil is characterised as a flinty clay loam of the Batcombe soil series (on the NZ
105 field trial, Fosters Field trial and Great Field trial).

106

107 **2.1 Midden counting**

108 The NZ field trial is a non-inversion tillage experiment and has an active *L. terrestris* earthworm
109 population as previously described (Stroud *et al.*, 2016b). The experiment was under Winter
110 Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* cv. Crusoe) and had received 15 active ingredients during cropping
111 (Table A1). Two 0.5 m x 4 m strips on each experimental plot (8m x 4 m) were sprayed at 4
112 L ha⁻¹ with a glyphosate-based herbicide (Samurai ® containing 360 g L⁻¹ glyphosate, as 441
113 g L⁻¹ as the potassium salt of glyphosate) with 1 L ha⁻¹ adjuvant (Firebrand™ 500 g L⁻¹
114 ammonium sulphate). The Fosters field trial is 300 m from the NZ field trial, and is fully
115 described elsewhere (Whitmore *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, it is a plough-based experiment to
116 develop models to estimate the effect of organic amendments on crop yields. In the summer of
117 2015, 12-weeks after treatment with glyphosate midden counting was performed on three
118 replicate blocks (45 plots in total) using a 0.5 m² quadrat per plot, to count the number of
119 middens in the herbicide-treated compared to the adjacent non-herbicide treated plot areas.
120 Middens were identified as surface piles of plant debris, at least 5 cm in diameter, which when
121 gently lifted by hand were underlain by a ca. 5 – 10 mm diameter burrow, often lined with plant
122 debris. On Fosters, as had been detected for several years (Stroud *et al.*, 2016c) there was just
123 surface straw.

124

125

126 **2.2 Plant collection for the earthworm feeding experiment**

127 Plant sampling was performed in 2017 to investigate the effect of feeding these plant residues
128 on *L. terrestris* biomass. All samples were bulked into ‘treated/untreated’ per field trial. Spring
129 barley (*Hordeum vulgare* cv. Irina) from the NZ field trial, winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum*
130 cv. Crusoe) from the Fosters field trial and Oil Seed Rape (OSR, *Brassica napus* cv. Imperial)
131 volunteers (small plants after harvest) plants from the Great Field trial. The spring barley had
132 received four active ingredients during cropping (Table A1) and two 0.5 m x 4 m strips on each
133 plot were sprayed at 3 L ha⁻¹ with a glyphosate-based herbicide (Samurai ® containing 360 g
134 L⁻¹ glyphosate, as 441 g L⁻¹ as the potassium salt of glyphosate) along with 1 L ha⁻¹ adjuvant
135 (Buffalo Elite, ammonium sulphate). The Fosters winter wheat had received 9 active
136 ingredients during cropping and two 0.5 m x 6 m strips on each plot were sprayed at 3 x L ha⁻¹
137 with a glyphosate-based herbicide (Samurai ® containing 360 g L⁻¹ glyphosate, as 441 g L⁻¹
138 as the potassium salt of glyphosate) along with 1 L ha⁻¹ adjuvant (Buffalo Elite, ammonium
139 sulphate). Cereal plants were cut at 3 cm above the soil surface on the glyphosate-based
140 herbicide treated and non-treated areas on each plot when it was observed this plant material
141 was being actively incorporated into middens on the NZ field trial, approximately 6-weeks
142 after herbicide treatment. Plant material was collected at the same time on the Fosters field
143 trial from the control, compost and FYM plots (matching its sister NZ experiment), although
144 no midden formation was observed. OSR seedlings (volunteers after harvest) were treated
145 with 4 L ha⁻¹ with a glyphosate-based herbicide (Samurai ® containing 360 g L⁻¹ glyphosate,
146 as 441 g L⁻¹ as the potassium salt of glyphosate) along with 1 L ha⁻¹ adjuvant (Buffalo Elite,
147 ammonium sulphate). OSR seedlings were collected immediately prior and within 12 h of
148 spraying with glyphosate. This was to compare a ‘glyphosate’ only treatment (the cereals were
149 treated with a range of active ingredients, Table A1) and check the N-content because the

150 adjuvant is ammonium sulphate. The reason why ‘field aged’ samples could not be collected
151 6-weeks later is because they were ploughed-in (conventional tillage arable rotation).

152

153 **2.3 Cereal straw preparation and analysis**

154 The straw from each experiment was bulked into ‘treated’ or ‘untreated’ with glyphosate.
155 Cereal straw was oven-dried at 80 °C to enable fine milling using a hammer mill given the
156 sensitivity of *L.terrestris* to cereal particle size (Sizmur *et al.*, 2017). Subsamples were
157 analysed for particle size using a 1 mm sieve and a balance. Total N and C using a LECO
158 TruMac Combustion Analyser and total elements using an acid digest followed by Inductively
159 Coupled Plasma optical (ICP-OES) Emission Spectrometry by the Rothamsted Analytical
160 Chemistry Unit. Gross energy content using a PAR 6100 Bomb Calorimeter by Scientec
161 Analytical Services Limited. Pesticide analysis was performed on the Fosters wheat straw
162 and NZ barley straw (however there was insufficient glyphosate-treated barley straw for
163 glyphosate analysis) using a standard acidified methanol/water extraction followed by
164 analysis by liquid chromatography with mass spectrometric detection (HPLC-MS/MS) by
165 FERA. Light and fluorescent microscopy was used to examine the cell wall size and
166 structure. This was used to determine cell damage/decomposition processes had been
167 initiated. Samples were mounted on glass slides in a drop of distilled water with a cover slip
168 and imaged with a Zeiss Axiophot epifluorescence microscope using a Retiga EXT CCD
169 digital camera (QImaging, Canada) and Metamorph software (Molecular Devices, USA).
170 Images were taken using brightfield illumination and UV reflected light with fluorescent
171 filter ex. 450 - 490nm em 520nm LP. Fosters wheat straw phosphorus distributions were
172 mapped in relation to the observed fungal hyphae by the Rothamsted Bioimaging department
173 using Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy. There was insufficient barley straw for this
174 analysis. The properties of the straw are shown on Table A2 and microscope images in

175 Figures A1 and A2. Please note, these tests were performed on a single bulked sample
176 (rather than the analysis of pseudo-replicates) to inform interesting trends, so the data cannot
177 be statistically confirmed.

178

179 **2.4 OSR preparation and analysis**

180 Oil seed rape seedlings were used both as collected (fresh) and air-dried and finely ground (rate
181 feeding assay and chemical analysis). Glyphosate analysis was performed using a standard
182 acidified methanol/water extraction followed by analysis by liquid chromatography with mass
183 spectrometric detection (HPLC-MS/MS) by FERA. Subsamples were finely milled using a
184 hammer mill and analyzed for total N and C and total elements by the Rothamsted Analytical
185 Chemistry Unit as above. Light and fluorescent microscopy was used to examine the cell wall
186 structure (as above). The properties of the OSR are shown on Table A2 and microscope images
187 in Figure A3.

188

189 **2.5 Earthworm feeding bioassay**

190 Soil was collected from the NZ and the Fosters field trials (cropping from 2012 - 2017 reported
191 elsewhere (Whitmore *et al.*, 2017)) for the earthworm bioassay and was sent to Eurofins
192 Limited to be screened for over 400 compounds (organo-chlorine pesticides, pyrethroids,
193 organophosphorus pesticides, organonitrogen pesticides) using the PSPOC standard method.
194 The pint glass method (Sizmur *et al.*, 2017), was adapted for this quick screening bioassay. A
195 0.6 litre Tupperware box was filled with soil for the 2-week screening assays and 5 air holes
196 were placed in the lid. The box microcosm test was performed using 4 replicates per treatment,
197 arranged in a randomised block design in the incubator (15 °C in the dark) for two weeks. The
198 difference between the initial mass and final mass of each earthworm was recorded and
199 calculated as a percentage change.

200

201 **2.5.1 Glyphosate treated cereal straw using *L.terrestris* earthworms**

202 Adult *L.terrestris* (5.19 ± 0.18 g) were used within 24 h on receipt from wormsdirect.co.uk,
203 and the experiment was conducted using Fosters soil (560 ± 12 g per assay). A control (no
204 straw), or 2 g of ground straw (barley, glyphosate treated barley, wheat, glyphosate treated
205 wheat) were sprinkled over the soil surface. 50 ml of water was dispensed onto the soil surface
206 (soil was at a gravimetric moisture content of 29.5 ± 0.6 %) and one weighed earthworm was
207 added to each bioassay box. The experiment was repeated using the wheat and glyphosate
208 treated wheat, with *L.terrestris* (5.38 ± 0.27 g) that had been incubated in Fosters soil for one
209 week prior to use. The Fosters soil (500 ± 11 g per assay) had a gravimetric moisture content
210 of 26.4 ± 0.5 % after water application. The wheat experiment was repeated again using
211 *L.terrestris* (5.71 ± 0.14 g) that had been incubated in NZ soil for one week prior to use, using
212 NZ soil (473 ± 11 g per assay) with a gravimetric moisture content of 31.0 ± 0.8 %. The reason
213 for using the different field soils was that at that time, the pesticide analysis results were
214 unknown, but NZ field had an abundance of middens compared to none on Fosters field. The
215 differences between these fields had been assumed to be caused by tillage intensity (Stroud *et*
216 *al.*, 2016c).

217

218 **2.5.2 Glyphosate treated fresh OSR seedling leaves**

219 Adult *L.terrestris* (5.54 ± 0.16 g) were used within 24 h on receipt from wormsdirect.co.uk,
220 and the experiment was conducted using NZ soil (460 ± 12 g per assay). A control (no
221 amendment), or 20 g fresh (equivalent of 2 g dried) seedlings (OSR prior to glyphosate
222 spraying or 24 h after spraying) were added to the soil surface. 50 ml of water was dispensed
223 onto the soil surface (to a gravimetric moisture content of 32.3 ± 1.7 %) and one weighed
224 earthworm was added to each bioassay box.

225

226 **2.5.3 Glyphosate treated OSR seeding leaves at different feeding rates**

227 *L.terrestris* (5.86 ± 0.2 g) was used within 24 h on receipt from wormsdirect.co.uk. *A.longa*
228 adults (2.32 ± 0.11 g) were used within 24 h after collection from the margins of the Highfield
229 field experiment (which is adjacent to the Great Field Experiment where the seedlings were
230 collected) by using a mustard solution (1 tablespoon mustard powder to 1 litre of water) to
231 bring the earthworms to the surface on areas with extensive earthworm casting activities. The
232 experiment was conducted in the NZ field trial soil using finely ground glyphosate treated OSR
233 leaves at 0 g, 1 g, 2 g or 4 g rate. The reason for comparing the anecic earthworms is that
234 *L.terrestris* were large (ca. 5 – 6 g), purchased and not previously exposed to agrichemicals
235 whereas *A. longa* is much smaller (ca. 2 g), arable field collected and locally abundant on the
236 Great Field experiment (extensive casting activities). That is, NZ field had an abundance of
237 *L.terrestris* middens, Fosters field had neither middens nor casting, and Great Field had an
238 abundance of *A.longa* (as indicated by earthworm castings). The reason for this range of
239 feeding rates (1 – 4 g, which is ca. 4 – 16 g kg⁻¹ per month) is that previous authors have found
240 up to 1 g increase in *L.terrestris* earthworm biomass with feeding rates of 6 g kg⁻¹ per month
241 (Sizmur *et al.*, 2017).

242

243 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

244 All plant chemical characterisation is reported on a dry weight basis. Genstat (18th edition,
245 18.1.0.17008, VSN International Ltd., UK) was used to perform the statistical analyses.
246 General ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used for midden counting assessments with the
247 following parameters: Block = block/plot, Treatment = treatment; where ‘treatment’ was a two-
248 factor category, comparing glyphosate treated to untreated areas. The residual graphs indicated
249 that no transformation was required to meet the normality assumption. For the feeding assay

250 comparing crop types the parameters were: Block = block, Treatment = rate/(crop*treatment),
251 where 'rate' was the amount of straw (0 - 4 g), 'crop' was barley or wheat, and 'treatment' was
252 glyphosate treated or untreated straw. For the repeated feeding assay and OSR feeding assays
253 the parameters were: Block = Block, Treatment = rate/treatment, as above. The residual graphs
254 indicated that no transformation was required to meet the normality assumption. There was
255 one *A.longa* death in experiment 2.5.3 and managed as a 'missing' result as this was the only
256 mortality recorded during these bioassays (n = 100 earthworms). Differences between means
257 for pairs of treatments of most interest obtained at levels $p \leq 0.05$, LSD (least significant
258 difference) were reported as significant.

259

260 **3. Results**

261 ***3.1 Midden counting***

262 There were significantly ($F_{1, 44} = 8.67, p = 0.005$) more middens found on the glyphosate-
263 treated areas than the non-glyphosate treated areas on the NZ winter wheat field trial.

264

265 ***3.2 Characterisation of the soil and plant materials***

266 The agricultural field soils and straws used for the earthworm bioassay had received a range of
267 pesticides (Supplementary Table 1) and were screened for general pesticide residues to provide
268 the agricultural context for this post-monitoring of pesticides research activity. Concentrations
269 of epoxiconazole were detected in Fosters soil at 0.11 mg kg⁻¹ and straw at 0.070 mg kg⁻¹ and
270 NZ soil at 0.10 mg kg⁻¹. Epoxiconazole was not used on the NZ spring barley experiment and
271 was not detected in the spring barley straw. No glyphosate was detected in the non-glyphosate
272 treated plants and the wheat straw had a glyphosate residue level of 2.7 mg kg⁻¹. There was an
273 indication that there were higher concentrations of N and P (and other macro-nutrients) in the
274 glyphosate treated straws, and they had the same energy content (Table A2). There was no

275 evidence for plant cell wall breakdown (i.e. decomposition) in the glyphosate treated or
276 untreated plants (Figure A1), and there was little evidence of a spatial relationship between
277 fungal hyphae and elemental P distributions (however, fungal hyphae encrusted glyphosate
278 treated straw) (Figure A2). OSR seedlings measured before and after glyphosate spraying had
279 the same N content (Table A2) and there was no change in cell wall structure (Figure A3). The
280 glyphosate treated leaves had a glyphosate residue level of 62 mg kg⁻¹.

281

282 **3.3 Earthworm feeding assays**

283 Glyphosate treatment (field aged) was a statistically significant factor affecting earthworm
284 *L.terrestris* biomass ($F_{1,12} = 5.75, p = 0.03$, Figure 1a). In the repeated experiments, glyphosate
285 treatment (field aged) was a statistically significant factor affecting earthworm *L.terrestris*
286 biomass in both soil types ($F_{1,6} = 4.8, p = 0.042$; $F_{1,6} = 6.11, p = 0.048$, Figures 1b, 1c).
287 Glyphosate treatment (comparison of fresh leaves) was not a statistically significant factor
288 affecting earthworm *L.terrestris* biomass ($F_{1,6} = 0.16, p = 0.92$, Figure 2). There was a
289 statistically significant rate of food (dried, ground, glyphosate treated OSR) leaves affecting
290 earthworm biomass [($r = 0.72$ (*L. terrestris*), $n = 16, p < 0.05$, F test of the correlation), ($r =$
291 0.73 (*A.longa*), $n = 15, p < 0.05$, F test of the correlation)].

292

293 **4. Discussion**

294 There were 23 % more *Lumbricus terrestris* middens on glyphosate-treated areas than on the
295 non-glyphosate treated areas on the NZ winter wheat field trial, and no middens on the
296 control/compost/FYM Fosters field trial plots (in agreement with a larger, previous study
297 (Stroud *et al.*, 2016c)). The differences between the field trials are likely to be caused by
298 differing *L.terrestris* populations, there is an active population on the NZ minimum tillage field
299 trial (Stroud *et al.*, 2016) and negligible populations on the Fosters conventional tillage field

300 trial (Whitmore et al., 2017). Tillage intensity is detrimental to populations of midden-building
301 earthworm species (Briones and Schmidt, 2017). There was no evidence for avoidance
302 behaviours associated with glyphosate-treated, field-aged plant materials, earthworms gained
303 biomass feeding on straw from both field trials (Figure 1). This result differs from the
304 laboratory studies which detected reduced activities (Gaupp-Berghausen *et al.*, 2015) which
305 could be explained by timings, the laboratory studies followed earthworm responses to
306 spraying, whereas here field-aged glyphosate plant materials were used to understand an
307 increase in activity observed in the field.

308 In terms of the laboratory feeding study, the glyphosate-treated (field aged) plant materials
309 significantly ($p < 0.05$, F-test) increased earthworm biomass over the untreated plant materials
310 (Figure 1). There was no evidence for decomposition (breakdown of cell walls, Figure A1) or
311 energy content between the plant materials (Table A2). There was an indication this may be
312 linked to an increased nutrient value (N, P and macronutrients, Table A2) and fungal hyphae
313 which encrusted the glyphosate treated cereal straw (Figure A2). This suggests the effects were
314 caused by fungal conditioning/priming. That is, the colonisation of the straw by fungi forming
315 a litter-fungus complex that improved the nutrient(s) to C ratio, thus improves macronutrient
316 food quality for the *L. terrestris*. This is a novel finding, and the improved macronutrient food
317 quality would likely explain the stimulation in earthworm activity (midden building) after
318 glyphosate treatment detected on the NZ field experiment. These results suggest that in
319 agricultural systems where glyphosate treated plants are retained (e.g. conservation tillage
320 management practices), leads to saprotrophic fungal succession patterns which improve the
321 macronutrient food quality and subsequent biomass of anecic earthworms. This may help to
322 explain the trend of increased abundance and biomass when glyphosate is included in the
323 rotation (Briones and Schmidt, 2017). Other authors have detected an increase in feeding

324 activity by earthworms after the application of glyphosate which could not be explained by the
325 variables (soil moisture, food supply) measured (Reinecke *et al.*, 2002; Santos *et al.*, 2011).

326 Our results are within the context of post-registration monitoring, that is, concentrations of
327 epoxiconazole were detectable in both soil and straw used for these bioassays. The
328 bioavailability of epoxiconazole is beyond the scope of this study, but as a fungicide, it may
329 influence the colonisation of the straw by the hypothesised litter-fungus complex. To date, the
330 effects of epoxiconazole include a tolerance by earthworms to this chemical via an accelerated
331 activation of a detoxification enzyme (Givaudan *et al.*, 2014a), increased burrowing behaviour,
332 which stimulates pesticide degradation (Givaudan *et al.*, 2014b) and potential bioaccumulation
333 by earthworms (Pelosi *et al.*, 2021).

334 To determine the effect of glyphosate-only field treated plants on earthworm biomass, OSR
335 volunteers (unwanted seedlings of the previous crop) were collected immediately before and
336 after glyphosate spraying. There was no change in the N content of OSR nor change in cell
337 wall structure, indicating that the adjuvant does not cause increased N contents and no
338 biodegradation had occurred. There was a significant ($p < 0.05$, LSD) increase in *L. terrestris*
339 biomass from both the untreated and treated leaves in comparison to the control where no food
340 was provided (Figure 2). This effect is not limited to *L. terrestris*, as field collected endo-aneic
341 *A. longa* were fed glyphosate treated leaves and gained biomass over the control (no food)
342 (Figure 3b). This could be problematic because anecic earthworms have a unique exposure to
343 pesticides from their foraging and feeding behaviours towards plant materials, and glyphosate
344 may bioaccumulate in earthworms which may have implications for their fitness and has
345 implications for the animals which consume them for food (Pelosi *et al.*, 2022).

346 In terms of farmers' information needs, specifically the impact of glyphosate on soil life
347 (Stroud, 2020), and scientific calls for improving environmental realism (Topping *et al.*, 2020),
348 it seems that the use of glyphosate stimulates the colonisation of plant residues by a litter-

349 fungus complex that increases foraging and feeding activities by anecic earthworms. Whilst
350 this can be linked to increasing the macronutrient food quality for anecic earthworms, the plant
351 materials may also contain other pesticide residues (e.g. epoxiconazole) and are a direct source
352 of pesticide exposure to soil organisms.

353

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419 **Acknowledgements**

420 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare. This work was supported by a NERC
421 (NE/N019253/1) fellowship.

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424 **Additional information**

425

426 **Appendix**

427 Table A1-A2 and Figures A1 – 3 are available.

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433 **Figure captions**

434 **Figure 1:** Percentage earthworm biomass change from feeding with cereal straw treated with
435 or without glyphosate (a) wheat from the Fosters experiment and barley straw from the NZ
436 experiment, (b) repeat of the wheat experiment in Fosters soil (c) repeat of the wheat
437 experiment in NZ soil.

438

439 **Figure 2:** Percentage earthworm biomass change from feeding with Oil Seed Rape treated
440 with or without glyphosate in the NZ soil.

441

442 **Figure 3:** Percentage earthworm biomass change from feeding with increasing rates of Oil
443 Seed Rape treated with glyphosate (a) *L.terrestris* earthworms and (b) *A. longa* earthworms in
444 the NZ soil.

