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3 **Title: Daily temperature variation lowers the lethal and sublethal impact of a pesticide**
4 **pulse due to a higher degradation rate**

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21 Abstract: Daily temperature variation (DTV) is an important warming-related stressor that
22 may magnify pesticide toxicity. Yet, it is unknown whether the pesticide impact under DTV
23 is partly ameliorated by a faster pesticide degradation caused by cyclically higher
24 temperatures under DTV. As synergisms may be more likely under energy-limiting
25 conditions, the impact of the pesticide chlorpyrifos was tested under DTV on the mosquito
26 *Culex pipiens* in the absence and presence of interspecific competition with the water flea
27 *Daphnia magna*. Chlorpyrifos exposure at a constant temperature without interspecific
28 competition caused considerable mortality, decreased development time, and increased pupal
29 mass of *C. pipiens*. Competition with *D. magna* had negative sublethal effects, but it did not
30 affect the toxicity of chlorpyrifos. In contrast, the presence of *C. pipiens* decreased the impact
31 of chlorpyrifos on *D. magna* probably due to corporal absorption of chlorpyrifos by
32 *C. pipiens*. A key finding was that chlorpyrifos no longer caused lethal effects on *C. pipiens*
33 under DTV, despite DTV on its own being mildly lethal. Additionally, chlorpyrifos exposure
34 under DTV decreased development time less and had no effect anymore on pupal mass
35 compared to chlorpyrifos exposure at a constant temperature. Similarly, the negative
36 chlorpyrifos impact on adult survival of *D. magna* was less under DTV than at the constant
37 temperature. This could be explained by a faster chlorpyrifos degradation under DTV. This
38 antagonism between pesticide exposure and DTV is likely widespread because organisms
39 experience DTV, many pesticides are applied in pulses, and pesticide degradation is faster at
40 higher temperatures.

41 Key words: Antagonistic interaction; Biotic interactions; ‘Climate-induced toxicant
42 sensitivity’ (CITS); Ecological Risk Assessment (ERA); Interspecific competition;
43 Temperature fluctuations

44 1. Introduction

45 In nature, organisms are increasingly facing multiple stressors and their ability to cope with
46 these often interacting stressor combinations is of key importance for their persistence (Côté
47 et al., 2016; Galic et al., 2018). Toxicants and warming are two widespread stressors that may
48 negatively affect aquatic organisms (Galic et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). Moreover,
49 warming may increase the toxicity of many chemical compounds such as metals, and
50 organophosphate and carbamate pesticides (Holmstrup et al., 2010). This has been
51 encapsulated in the climate-induced toxicant sensitivity (CITS) concept (Moe et al., 2013;
52 Noyes et al., 2009). The wide support for the CITS concept is mostly based on studies testing
53 for toxicity at a higher mean temperature. However, also the predictable daily temperature
54 variation (DTV) is another important warming-related variable that should be considered.
55 DTV is omnipresent in nature, is expected to further increase under global warming (Colinet
56 et al., 2015; Paaijmans et al., 2010; Verheyen and Stoks, 2019a) and may increase the toxicity
57 of toxicants such as pesticides (e.g., Barbosa et al., 2017; Verheyen et al., 2019; Verheyen
58 and Stoks, 2019a, 2019b; Willming et al., 2013).

59 When studying the impact of warming on toxicants the focus is mostly on the
60 increase in toxicity, yet the net impact of toxicants under warming may be counteracted by an
61 accelerated breakdown (Hooper et al., 2013). In a rare example study, the lethal impact of

62 Abbreviations: CPF – chlorpyrifos, CITS – climate-induced toxicant sensitivity, DTV – daily
63 temperature variation, ERA – ecological risk assessment, *fdr* – false discovery rate, IA –
64 independent action, L4 – fourth and final larval stage, LC_{50,72h} – lethal concentrations
65 whereby 50% of the population is dead after 72 h, MDR – model deviation ratio, NOEC – No
66 Observed Effect Concentration, OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and
67 Development, UPLC-MS/MS - Ultra performance liquid chromatography - tandem mass
68 spectrometer.

69 chlorpyrifos on the aquatic larvae of the damselfly *Ischnura elegans* was smaller at a higher
70 mean temperature because of a higher degradation and lower accumulation of the pesticide
71 after multiple pulse exposures (Op de Beeck et al., 2017). This accelerated breakdown is
72 often not included in empirical CITS studies which typically keep the concentration of the
73 toxicant constant. While integrating this mechanism in CITS studies is important to arrive at
74 a more realistic ecological risk assessment (ERA) of pesticides under warming (Noyes and
75 Lema, 2015; Van den Brink et al., 2018), this has never been done in the context of DTV.
76 This mechanism can be expected to counteract the increased toxicity under DTV as the
77 higher temperatures encountered during each daily temperature cycle may potentially
78 accelerate pesticide degradation. In line with this idea, pesticide degradation occurred to a
79 much greater extent at fluctuating temperatures under outdoor conditions compared to
80 constant temperatures in the laboratory (Sundaram and Sundaram, 1995).

81 Next to temperature, biotic interactions such as interspecific competition are key to
82 improve the realism of the ERA of pesticides (Rico et al., 2016). Interspecific competition is
83 a major structuring factor in aquatic communities and induces energetic costs by reducing
84 food availability (Kroeger et al., 2013b, 2014). Synergistic interactions between toxicants and
85 natural stressors can be expected when there are energetic costs of coping with each stressor
86 individually (Liess et al., 2016). In line with this, interspecific competition has indeed been
87 shown to increase the immediate pesticide impact (Kroeger et al., 2013a, 2013b; Shuman-
88 Goodier et al., 2017) and to delay the recovery of populations after pesticide exposure
89 (Dolciotti et al., 2014; Knillmann et al., 2013; Liess et al., 2013). Nevertheless, these effects
90 are not consistent and other studies have found no effect of interspecific competition on the
91 direct impact of pesticides (Distel and Boone, 2010; Van den Brink et al., 2017). Interspecific
92 competition is especially relevant to consider in a CITS context as organisms typically have a
93 higher metabolic cost at higher temperatures requiring a higher foraging effort, causing

94 higher encounter rates, and a higher food intake (Boukal et al., 2019; Hallman and Brooks,
95 2015). While never studied explicitly, it can be expected that the effect of interspecific
96 competition also increases under DTV because DTV typically increases the energetic costs of
97 organisms (Colinet et al., 2015).

98 We tested the single and combined effects of chlorpyrifos exposure, interspecific
99 competition with the water flea *Daphnia magna* and DTV on the mosquito *Culex pipiens*. As
100 pesticide, chlorpyrifos was used as it is one of the most commonly used organophosphate
101 insecticides in agriculture worldwide (Eaton et al., 2008; Gómez-Canela et al., 2017), and is
102 listed in the top ten of chemicals with a high risk for aquatic organisms in surface waters in
103 the UK (Johnson et al., 2017). As focal study species, the Northern house mosquito
104 *C. pipiens* biotype *molestus* (Forskål, 1775) was used. Mosquitoes are important prey in
105 terms of biomass in aquatic and in terrestrial food webs (Becker et al., 2010). Larvae of this
106 species live in shallow ponds and lakes where DTV can be considerable (Jacobs et al., 2008).
107 We have shown before that chlorpyrifos toxicity can increase under DTV in this species
108 (Delnat et al., 2019). As competitor species, the water flea *Daphnia magna* was used as both
109 *Daphnia* and *Culex* are filter-feeders sharing the same trophic level and food niche (Blaustein
110 and Chase, 2007). *D. magna* is a well-established model organism in ecology, evolution, and
111 ecotoxicology (Miner et al., 2012; OECD, 2004).

112 By imposing a realistic exposure scenario where we applied a single pulse of the
113 pesticide without renewal of the medium, we allowed pesticide degradation to play a role in
114 how DTV could change the net pesticide impact. Our first hypothesis is that a faster
115 degradation of the pesticide under DTV may occur because of the higher temperatures
116 encountered during each daily cycle, thereby leading to a weakened impact of chlorpyrifos
117 under DTV (Hooper et al., 2013; Op de Beeck et al., 2017; Sundaram and Sundaram, 1995).

118 Our second hypothesis is that a stronger impact of chlorpyrifos in the presence of
119 interspecific competition may occur because of its energetic costs (Dolciotti et al., 2014).

120 **2. Material and methods**

121 *2.1 Study species and laboratory cultures*

122 No permits or animal care protocols by the Animal Ethics Committee of the University of
123 Leuven were required for this experiment since the study organisms are invertebrates. For
124 both study species we kept continuous laboratory cultures for >10 generations in rooms at
125 20 °C, a photoperiod of 14:10 h light:dark, and for the mosquitoes a relative air humidity of
126 >70% (see details of the rearing in Appendix A). Note that we only used a single clone
127 (genotype; clone M55) of the water flea *Daphnia magna* that originated from
128 Langerodevijver (Huldenberg, Belgium); the use of a single clone in all trials maximized
129 standardization across treatments.

130 *2.2 Experimental design*

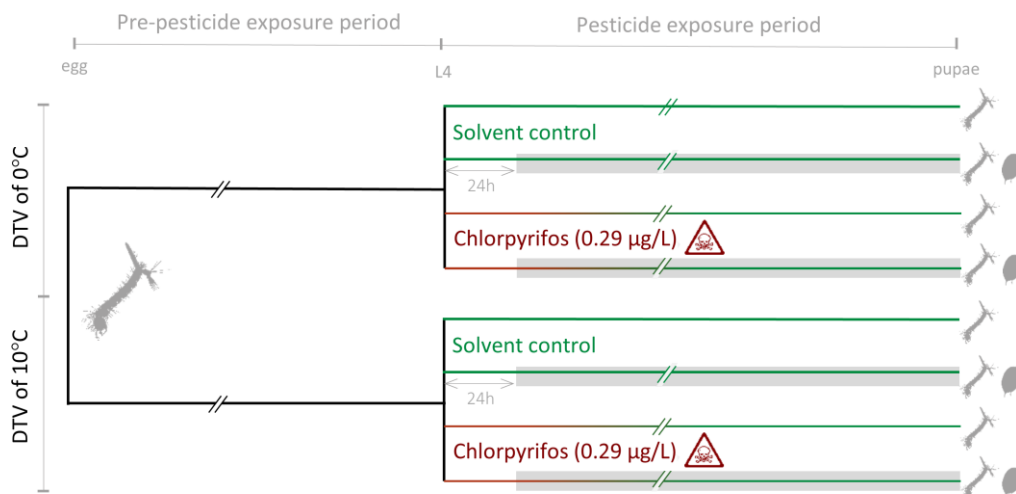
131 To test the single and combined effects of pesticide exposure, daily temperature variation
132 (DTV) and competition with *D. magna* on the mosquito *C. pipiens* a full factorial design was
133 used with 2 chlorpyrifos treatments (absent, present, see 2.3) × 2 DTV treatments (absent,
134 present, see 2.4) × 2 competition treatments ('*Culex* alone', '*Culex* with *Daphnia*')
135 (Figure 1). In addition, a third level of the competition treatment ('*Daphnia* alone') and its
136 four combinations with the two chlorpyrifos treatments and the two DTV levels was also
137 included to obtain information on the effects of the chlorpyrifos and DTV treatments on the
138 competitor (Figure B.1 in Appendix B). These additional treatment combinations did not
139 include mosquito larvae and, therefore, their results are reported in Appendix B. While the
140 DTV treatment was imposed on the mosquitoes from egg hatching onwards, the chlorpyrifos
141 pulse exposure was applied when they molted in the final larval stage (L4). This mimics a

142 realistic scenario where mosquitoes are exposed their entire larval life to DTV, but only to a
143 short-term pesticide pulse. Based on the guidelines by WHO (2005), the L4 stage was chosen
144 for the pesticide exposure as this is typically the most robust larval stage in mosquitoes. Any
145 effects in this stage would therefore also be present and likely more pronounced in the
146 younger larval instars. This has indeed been shown for chlorpyrifos in another dipteran, the
147 midge *Chironomus riparius* (Buchwalter et al., 2004). Twenty-four hours after the start of the
148 chlorpyrifos treatment, we initiated the competition treatment with the water fleas by adding
149 four mature *D. magna* in the glass vials with the L4 mosquito larvae (*Culex* with *Daphnia*)
150 or not (*Culex* alone) (following Becker and Liess, 2015). This way, the *D. magna* were not
151 exposed to chlorpyrifos during the first 24 h, hence they experienced lower chlorpyrifos
152 concentrations (because of degradation). This simulates competition with a more
153 chlorpyrifos-tolerant *D. magna* clone as competitor. Pesticide tolerance has been often
154 documented in *Daphnia* sp. (e.g., Jansen et al., 2011; Simpson et al., 2017). The experiment
155 ended when mosquitoes entered the non-feeding pupal stage (~19 days). We started 12-15
156 vials with 10 mosquito larvae per treatment combination (total of 112 vials with 1,120
157 mosquito larvae). The exact number of replicate vials for each treatment combination is
158 indicated in Figure 4A.

159 To start the experiment, mosquitoes were allocated to a given DTV treatment and
160 reared from the egg stage in white 2 L containers (18.0 cm x 13.3 cm x 12.1 cm) filled with
161 1 L aerated tap water. In each 2 L container ~130 larvae (from 2-3 egg clutches) were kept
162 and fed daily with 250,000 cells/mL of the green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Once the
163 last larval instar (L4) was reached, mosquito larvae were added per ten in 210 mL glass vials
164 filled with 180 mL medium (solvent control or chlorpyrifos, see 2.3). The medium was not
165 refreshed to allow natural breakdown of chlorpyrifos. We daily added 500,000 cells/mL of
166 the green algae *C. reinhardtii* as food per vial. The *D. magna* that were used in the

167 experiment had initially been reared per five starting from the neonate stage (<24 h old).
 168 These neonates were reared in 210 mL vials filled with 180 mL aerated tap water at one of
 169 the two DTV treatments (matching the DTV treatment of *Culex* in the competition trials).
 170 They were also daily fed with 500,000 cells/mL of the green algae *C. reinhardtii* per vial.

171 Throughout the experiment, all animals were reared in incubators under standard
 172 conditions of 14:10 h light:dark. The light intensity measured with a Testo 0500 Lux-meter
 173 was 1730 lux (SE = 132 lux, N = 4). All treatments received the same light intensity,
 174 photoperiod, and mean temperature, only the daily temperature cycle differed between the
 175 two DTV treatments (see 2.4).



176
 177 Figure 1. A visualization of the experimental scheme for the *Culex pipiens* larvae. Larvae
 178 were continuously reared at a constant temperature (DTV of 0 °C) or fluctuating temperatures
 179 (DTV of 10 °C) at the same mean temperature of 20 °C. In the final L4 instar they were
 180 exposed to the solvent control of a chlorpyrifos pulse, and 24 h later the interspecific
 181 competition treatment started. The gray bands indicate periods with interspecific competition
 182 with *Daphnia magna*.

183

184 2.3 *Pesticide treatment*

185 Chlorpyrifos (purity grade > 99%) was purchased at Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, Missouri,
186 USA). To determine the dose-response curve at a constant temperature of 20 °C, we exposed
187 sets of 10 L4 (final larval stage) larvae in 210 mL glass vials filled with 180 mL pesticide
188 medium with the following 15 nominal concentrations: 0, 0.16, 0.18, 0.20, 0.22, 0.24, 0.26,
189 0.28, 0.30, 0.32, 0.34, 0.36, 0.38, 0.40, and 0.60 µg/L. Based on this dose-response
190 experiment, a nominal chlorpyrifos concentration of 0.29 µg/L was chosen that when applied
191 as a single pulse caused ~50% mortality after 72 hours in the L4 mosquito larvae (LC_{50,72h};
192 see results). This concentration of chlorpyrifos is ecologically relevant as peak concentrations
193 in surface waters (Stehle & Schulz, 2015: personal communication: 95% CI = [0.07 µg/L,
194 0.69 µg/L]). Details of the preparation of the chlorpyrifos solution can be found in Appendix
195 A.

196 One pesticide pulse was given at the start of the L4 stage. At the start and after 24 h,
197 water samples were taken from three vials of each of the 2 DTV × 3 Competition treatment
198 combinations with chlorpyrifos. Samples were analyzed at KU Leuven using UPLC-MS/MS
199 with Triple Quadrupole Mass Spectrometry.

200 2.4 *DTV treatment*

201 For both DTV levels, the mean water temperature was 20 °C. The culture of *C. pipiens* was
202 originally derived from field sites in Germany where the mean summer water temperature is
203 ~20 °C (Tran et al., 2016). Water temperatures at the DTV level of 10 °C fluctuated daily
204 between 15 °C and 25 °C using a constant DTV cycle (see Figure C.1 in Appendix C). A
205 DTV of 10 °C frequently occurs at the field sites in Germany during the summer (June-
206 September). Based on air temperature data in the period 1997-2017 from the German Climate
207 Data Centre (https://www.dwd.de/EN/climate_environment/cdc/cdc_node.html), ~45% of the
208 days have a DTV (difference between daily maximum and minimum temperatures) around 10

209 °C (within the range 8-12 °C) in the source region. Under global climate change, increases in
210 DTV are expected (Vázquez et al., 2017), hence the DTV of 10 °C is expected to become
211 more frequent in the future.

212 To obtain a daily cycle, the temperatures were adjusted every three hours in steps of
213 2.5 °C. The water temperatures in the experimental vials were measured every 15 minutes
214 during the experiment using HOBO temperature loggers. The water temperatures are shown
215 in Figure C.1 in Appendix C.

216 2.5 *Response variables*

217 Survival of *C. pipiens* and *D. magna* was checked daily throughout the experiment whereby
218 dead animals were removed. *D. magna* juveniles were removed daily by sieving the medium
219 to maintain constant interspecific competition levels in all replicate vials. To correct for any
220 possible effects of sieving, all vials were sieved simultaneously, also those without *D. magna*.
221 We expressed total survival across the experiment as the percentage of the initial number of
222 animals per vial that survived. Mosquito pupae were collected within 24 hours and were dried
223 at 60 °C. Subsequently, the dry mass was determined using a Cahn C-35 microbalance to the
224 nearest 0.001 mg. Development time from the L4 till the pupal stage was recorded. Note that
225 all response variables (total survival, development time and pupal dry mass) are time-
226 integrated ‘accumulated’ measures of the effects of the treatments across the entire
227 experiment, hence are not linked to a specific moment in the daily temperature cycle.

228 2.6 *Statistical analyses*

229 All statistical analyses were performed in R v3.6.1 (R Development Core Team, 2017) with
230 the packages lme4 v1.1-21 (Bates et al., 2015), car v3.0-6 (Fox and Weisberg, 2018), afex
231 v0.26-0 (Singmann et al., 2017), emmeans v1.4-5 (Lenth, 2016) and drc v3.0.1 (Ritz et al.,
232 2015).

233 Based on the results of the dose-response experiment, dose-response curves of
234 chlorpyrifos were fitted after 24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144, and 168 hours using a log-logistic
235 function (see results in Appendix D). The fit of the dose response curve after 72 h was tested
236 using a lack-of-fit test where a non-significant test indicates a good fit to the data (Ritz and
237 Martinussen, 2011). This dose-response curve was used to determine the $LC_{50,72h}$ value with
238 95% confidence interval.

239 To test the first hypothesis of a higher degradation of chlorpyrifos under DTV, a
240 general linear model was used to test for the effect of the DTV and interspecific competition
241 treatments on the chlorpyrifos concentration after 24 h. Since the interaction between DTV
242 and interspecific competition was not significant ($F_{2,12} = 0.30$, $P = 0.74$), and the model
243 without the interaction also had a lower AIC score, the DTV \times Competition interaction was
244 removed from the model testing for effects on the chlorpyrifos concentration after 24 h.

245 When analyzing total survival from the start of the L4 stage until pupation (so not
246 after a fixed time after the start of the pesticide exposure), we coded survival of each larva
247 within a vial as 0 (alive) or 1 (dead). We tested for effects of chlorpyrifos exposure, DTV,
248 and interspecific competition with *D. magna* on total survival of *C. pipiens* using a
249 generalized linear mixed model with a binomial error structure and the logit link. To get more
250 detailed information on when mortality mainly occurred, the effects of these three stressors
251 and their interactions on survival after 48 h and 72 h were also analyzed (Appendix E). To
252 test if the chlorpyrifos, DTV and competition treatments had an effect on the development
253 time and the pupal mass, we used general linear mixed models with a normal error structure
254 and the identity link. Pupal mass was corrected for development time by adding it as a
255 covariate. For total survival, development time and pupal mass, we used individuals as the
256 unit of replication, yet took into account that animals from the same vial were not
257 independent by adding vial to the models as a random factor. If there was a significant

258 interaction, we performed contrasts with false discovery rate (fdr) correction for pairwise
259 posthoc comparisons using the emmeans package in R to further explore which treatment
260 levels differed.

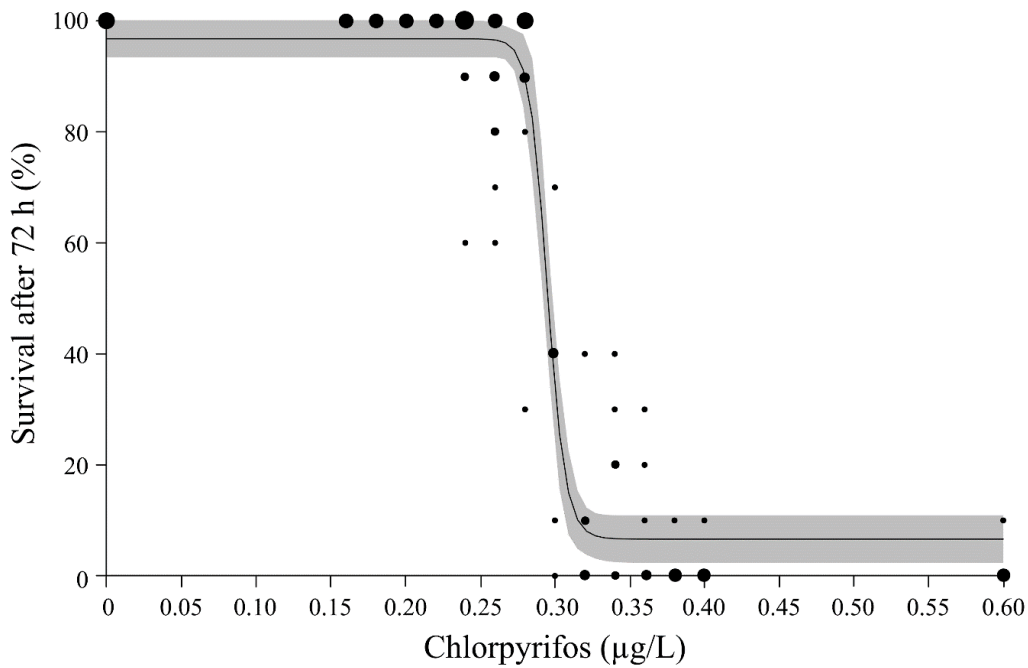
261 To explicitly determine the interaction type for total survival between chlorpyrifos
262 and DTV or interspecific competition, we used the independent action (IA) model (see
263 Appendix F). We did so separately in the absence and presence of the other stressor. To
264 estimate the strength of the interaction effect, the MDR (model deviation ratio) was
265 calculated as the predicted combined survival based on the IA model divided by the observed
266 combined survival (Shahid et al., 2019). For synergistic (antagonistic) interactions MDR
267 values are higher (lower) than one.

268 **3. Results**

269 *3.1 Chlorpyrifos dose-response curve and experimental concentrations*

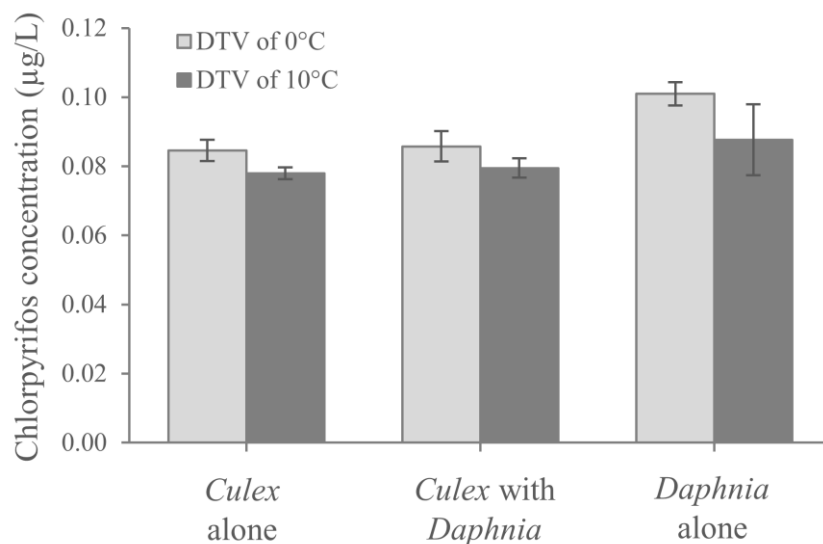
270 The lack-of-fit test of the dose response curve indicated a good fit to the data ($F_{11,109} = 1.45$, P
271 $= 0.16$). The dose-response curve was steep with <10% mortality up to 0.282 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (95% CI
272 [0.275; 0.289]) and >90% mortality starting at 0.309 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (95% CI [0.302; 0.315]) (Figure
273 2). The $\text{LC}_{50,72\text{h}}$ value of chlorpyrifos was 0.295 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (95% CI [0.292; 0.298]) based on
274 nominal concentrations.

275 The measured initial chlorpyrifos concentration was $0.145 \pm 0.008 \mu\text{g/L}$ (mean \pm SE,
276 $N = 3$). Chlorpyrifos levels after 24 h are shown in Figure 3 were ~10% lower at a DTV of
277 10 °C than at the constant temperature (DTV of 0 °C) (DTV: $F_{1,14} = 4.87$, $P = 0.045$; per
278 treatment combination: $N = 3$). The chlorpyrifos concentration after 24 h was ~13% lower in
279 the ‘*Culex* alone’ (Contrast ‘*Culex* alone vs *Daphnia* alone’: $P = 0.043$) and ‘*Culex* with
280 *Daphnia*’ (Contrast ‘*Culex* with *Daphnia* vs *Daphnia* alone’: $P = 0.072$) competition
281 treatment compared to the ‘*Daphnia* alone’ treatment (Competition: $F_{2,14} = 4.39$, $P = 0.033$).



282

283 Figure 2. Dose-response curve for the effect of chlorpyrifos (nominal concentrations) on
 284 survival after 72h in the mosquito *Culex pipiens* at a constant temperature of 20 °C. The gray
 285 area gives the 95% confidence interval and the dots visualize the observed survival
 286 percentage for a given vial. The size of the dots indicates the number of replicate vials
 287 (smallest dot: 1 vial; largest dot: 10 vials).



288

289 Figure 3. Measured chlorpyrifos concentrations 24 hours after the application of the pesticide
 290 pulse for each of the six treatment combinations of interspecific competition and daily
 291 temperature variation (DTV). Each mean concentration is given ± 1 standard error.

292

293 3.2 Total survival of *Culex pipiens*

294 Chlorpyrifos (CPF) exposure decreased the total survival from the start of the L4 stage to
295 pupation by ~47% at the constant temperature (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-constant vs solvent-
296 constant’: $P < 0.001$), while there was no effect of chlorpyrifos on total survival under DTV
297 (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-DTV vs solvent control-DTV’: $P = 0.93$) (CPF \times DTV, Table 1,
298 Figure 4A). DTV decreased the total survival by ~8% in the pesticide-free solvent control
299 (Contrast ‘solvent control-DTV vs solvent control-constant’: $P < 0.001$), but increased the
300 total survival by ~43% in the presence of chlorpyrifos (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-DTV vs
301 chlorpyrifos-constant’: $P < 0.001$) (CPF \times DTV, Table 1, Figure 4A). There was no
302 significant effect of competition with *D. magna*, nor did competition influence the effects of
303 chlorpyrifos and DTV on total survival (Table 1, Figure 4A).

304 The interaction between chlorpyrifos and DTV was antagonistic for total survival
305 both in the absence of competition with *D. magna* (Predicted mean total survival when
306 additive effect = 48.19%; 95% CI observed effect = [83.24, 92.76]; MDR = 0.55) and in the
307 presence of competition with *D. magna* (Predicted mean total survival when additive effect =
308 44.77%; 95% CI observed effect = [83.59, 94.87]; MDR = 0.50). The interaction between
309 chlorpyrifos and interspecific competition was additive for total survival both at a constant
310 temperature (Predicted mean total survival when additive effect = 52.96%; 95% CI observed
311 effect = [37.63, 61.04]; MDR = 1.07) and under DTV (Predicted mean total survival when
312 additive effect = 87.76%; 95% CI observed effect = [83.59, 94.87]; MDR = 0.98).

313 Table 1. Results of the generalized linear mixed model (total survival) and the general linear
314 mixed models (development time and pupal mass) testing for effects of exposure to
315 chlorpyrifos (CPF), daily temperature variation (DTV) and interspecific competition with
316 *Daphnia magna* on *Culex pipiens*. P -values indicated in bold are significant ($P < 0.05$).

	Total survival			Development time			Pupal mass		
	χ^2	df	<i>P</i> -value	χ^2	df	<i>P</i> -value	χ^2	df	<i>P</i> -value
CPF	58.89	1	< 0.001	283.09	1	< 0.001	100.35	1	< 0.001
DTV	1.46	1	0.23	39.21	1	< 0.001	5.30	1	0.021
Competition	0.024	1	0.88	63.80	1	< 0.001	89.56	1	< 0.001
CPF × DTV	60.25	1	< 0.001	110.58	1	< 0.001	92.84	1	< 0.001
CPF × Competition	0.023	1	0.88	5.18	1	0.023	0.016	1	0.90
DTV × Competition	0.14	1	0.70	0.027	1	0.87	5.00	1	0.025
CPF × DTV × Competition	0.10	1	0.75	0.41	1	0.52	0.16	1	0.69

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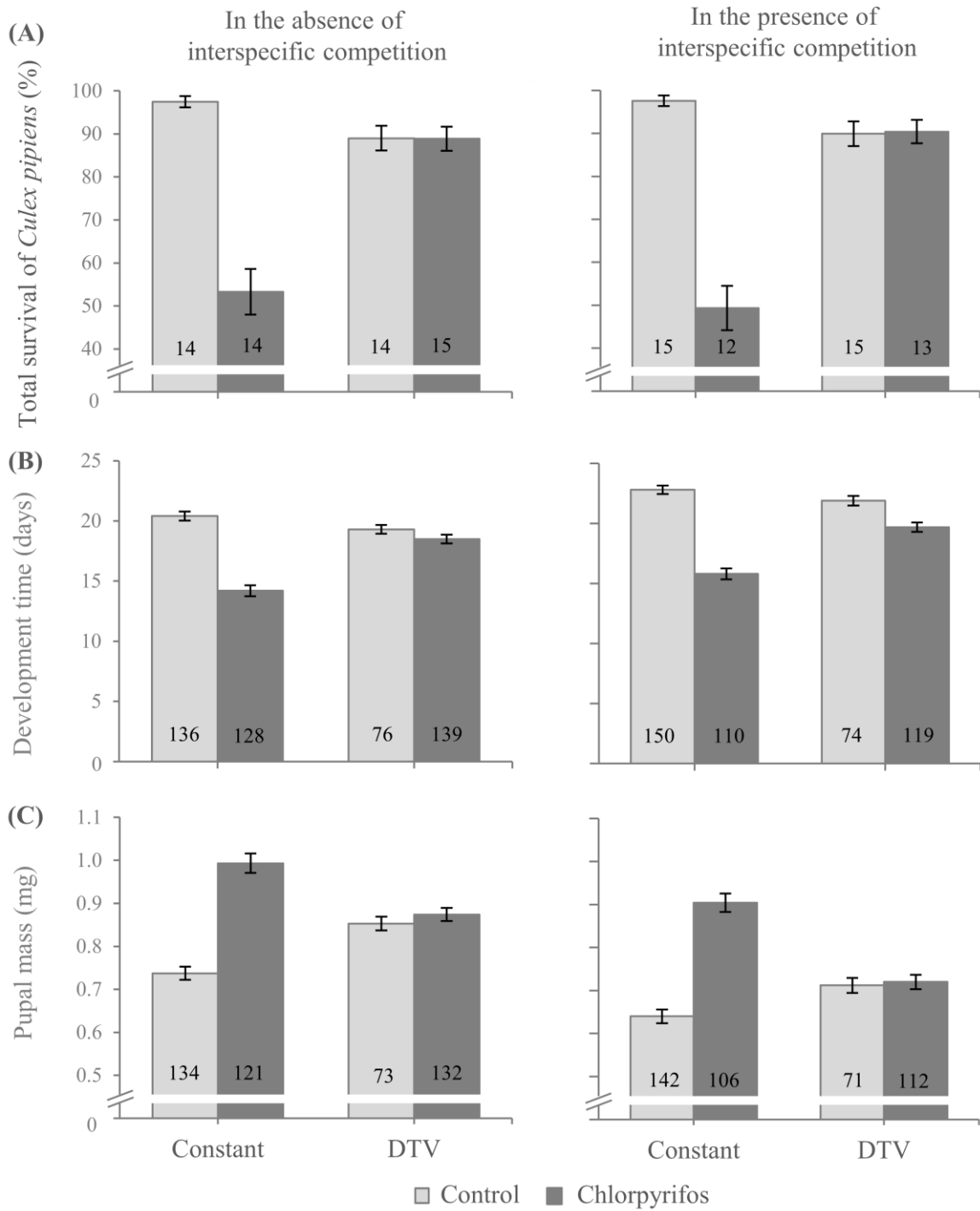
318 3.3 Development time of *Culex pipiens*

319 Chlorpyrifos shortened the development time more (~31%) at the constant temperature than
320 under DTV (~7%) (CPF × DTV, Table 1, Figure 4B, Contrasts ‘chlorpyrifos-constant vs
321 solvent control-constant’ and ‘chlorpyrifos-DTV vs solvent control-DTV’: both *P*-values <
322 0.001). Chlorpyrifos decreased the development time slightly more in the presence of
323 competition (~21%) than in the absence of competition (~18%) (CPF × Competition, Table 1,
324 Figure 4B, Contrasts ‘chlorpyrifos-with competition vs solvent control-with competition’ and
325 ‘chlorpyrifos-without competition vs solvent control-without competition’: both *P*-values <
326 0.001).

327 DTV slightly decreased the development time by ~5% in the solvent control (Contrast
328 ‘solvent control-DTV vs solvent control-constant’: *P* = 0.0012), but increased the
329 development time by ~21% when exposed to chlorpyrifos (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-DTV vs
330 chlorpyrifos-constant’: *P* < 0.001) (CPF × DTV, Table 1, Figure 4B). Competition with
331 *D. magna* increased the development time of *C. pipiens* more in the solvent control (~11%
332 increase) than in the presence of chlorpyrifos (~8%) (Contrasts ‘solvent control-with
333 competition vs solvent control-without competition’ and ‘chlorpyrifos-with competition vs
334 chlorpyrifos-without competition: both *P*-values < 0.001) (CPF × Competition, Table 1,
335 Figure 4B). There was no significant three-way interaction (Table 1, Figure 4B).

336 3.4 Pupal mass of *Culex pipiens*

337 Chlorpyrifos exposure increased the pupal mass by ~27% at a constant temperature (Contrast
338 ‘chlorpyrifos-constant vs solvent control-constant’: $P < 0.001$), while chlorpyrifos had no
339 effect on the pupal mass under DTV (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-DTV vs solvent control-DTV’: P
340 = 0.37) (CPF \times DTV, Table 1, Figure 4C). DTV increased the pupal mass by ~12% in the
341 solvent control (Contrast ‘solvent control-DTV vs solvent control-constant’: $P < 0.001$), but
342 decreased the pupal mass by ~16% when exposed to chlorpyrifos (Contrast ‘chlorpyrifos-
343 DTV vs chlorpyrifos-constant’: $P < 0.001$) (CPF \times DTV, Table 1, Figure 4C). Moreover,
344 DTV decreased the pupal mass by ~7% in the presence of competition (Contrast ‘DTV-with
345 competition vs constant-with competition’: $P = 0.0022$), but not in the absence of competition
346 (Contrast ‘DTV-without competition vs constant-without competition’: $P = 0.94$) (DTV \times
347 Competition, Table 1, Figure 4C). Competition decreased the pupal mass, but less at the
348 constant temperature (~11% decrease) than under DTV (~17%) (Contrasts ‘constant-with
349 competition vs constant-without competition’ and ‘DTV-with competition vs DTV-without



350

351 Figure 4. Effects of chlorpyrifos (CPF) on a lethal and the two sublethal response variables of
 352 the mosquito *Culex pipiens* in function of daily temperature variation (DTV) and competition
 353 with the water flea *Daphnia magna*: (A) total survival from start L4 until pupa, (B)
 354 development time from start L4 until pupa, and (C) pupal mass. Means are given with their

355 standard errors. Numbers inside the bars indicate the number of (A) vials or (B,C) individual
356 mosquitoes.
357 competition': both P -values < 0.001). Competition with *D. magna* did not influence the
358 effects of chlorpyrifos on pupal mass nor the interaction between chlorpyrifos and DTV (CPF
359 \times Competition, CPF \times DTV \times Competition, Table 1, Figure 4C).

360 **4. Discussion**

361 Chlorpyrifos exposure at a constant temperature without interspecific competition caused
362 considerable mortality, decreased development time, and increased pupal mass of *C. pipiens*.
363 In line with our first hypothesis, a key finding was that chlorpyrifos no longer caused lethal
364 effects under daily temperature variation (DTV), despite single exposure to DTV on its own
365 being mildly lethal. Additionally, chlorpyrifos caused smaller (development time) to no
366 (pupal mass) sublethal effects when combined with a DTV of 10 °C. Hereby, a faster
367 degradation of chlorpyrifos under DTV was an important mechanism counteracting any
368 increase in toxicity of the pesticide under DTV. By showing that DTV can reduce the impact
369 of a pesticide pulse, we provide a new important addition to the CITS concept (Moe et al.,
370 2013; Noyes et al., 2009) whereby not only the effects of global warming on pesticide
371 toxicity but also on the pesticide impact is of importance for future risk assessment of
372 pesticides (Amiard-Triquet et al., 2015; Hooper et al., 2013). In contrast with our second
373 hypothesis, competition with the water flea *D. magna*, although it had negative sublethal
374 effects, did not increase the toxicity of chlorpyrifos. Since our focus was on how DTV and
375 interspecific competition could influence the impact of chlorpyrifos on *C. pipiens*, the effects
376 of single exposure to chlorpyrifos, to DTV or to interspecific competition are discussed in
377 Appendix G.

378 4.1 Effects of DTV on the impact of chlorpyrifos

379 In line with our first hypothesis, DTV decreased the impact of chlorpyrifos whereby no effect
380 of chlorpyrifos exposure was present anymore on total survival and pupal mass under DTV.
381 Additionally, chlorpyrifos caused a lower decrease of development time under DTV than at
382 the constant temperature. This resulted in an antagonistic interaction effect for total survival
383 between chlorpyrifos and DTV. This contrasts with the emerging pattern that DTV may
384 magnify the negative impact of toxicants in aquatic invertebrates. This synergism between
385 DTV and pesticides has been shown for the pesticides chlorothalonil in the amphipod
386 *Hyalella azteca* and bifenthrin in the midge *Chironomus dilutus* (Willming et al., 2013), and
387 for chlorpyrifos in damselfly larvae (Verheyen et al., 2019; Verheyen and Stoks, 2019b,
388 2019c) and in the study species (Delnat et al., 2019). For example, chlorpyrifos increased
389 mortality six-fold under DTV in larvae of the damselfly *I. elegans*, while it did not cause
390 mortality at the constant temperature (Verheyen and Stoks, 2019c). In the latter study, the
391 pesticide medium was renewed daily during the six-day pesticide period, thus any potential
392 differential degradation of the pesticide between the temperature treatments was counteracted
393 by changing the medium when giving multiple pulses (Verheyen and Stoks, 2019c). An
394 increase in toxicity under DTV might be expected based on the fact that during the daily
395 thermal cycle higher temperatures are reached under DTV, and chlorpyrifos has been shown
396 to be more toxic at higher temperatures (e.g., Dinh Van et al., 2014; Hooper et al., 2013). The
397 higher toxicity of pesticides such as chlorpyrifos at higher temperatures might be caused by
398 an increase in metabolic activity leading to an increase in uptake (Buchwalter et al., 2003;
399 Hooper et al., 2013) and by a higher metabolic conversion of the original toxicant to a more
400 toxic metabolite (Buchwalter et al., 2004; Harwood et al., 2009).

401 Although the toxicity of a toxicant at a constant concentration might increase under
402 DTV, the net impact of this toxicant might still decrease if the increased toxicity is overruled

403 by a faster degradation rate. In a rare example study on the larvae of the damselfly *I. elegans*,
404 a higher constant temperature of 24 °C caused a faster degradation of chlorpyrifos leading to
405 a lower concentration compared to the lower constant temperature of 20 °C (Op de Beeck et
406 al., 2017). We here for the first time extend this pattern for DTV. In the current study, the
407 faster degradation rate of chlorpyrifos under DTV, leading to a ~8% lower concentration,
408 may explain that the same initial pulse concentration did no longer cause mortality. Important
409 to note is that even a small decrease in concentration can cause a much lower mortality due to
410 the steep dose-response curve of chlorpyrifos for *C. pipiens* (see Figure 2, but note this is
411 based on nominal concentrations precluding a direct comparison of lethal levels observed in
412 the experiment). To illustrate this better, we provide a numerical example: the nominal
413 chlorpyrifos concentration of 0.29 µg/L caused 50% mortality after 72h (LC_{50,72h}), while even
414 a 3% lower nominal chlorpyrifos concentration of 0.28 µg/L only caused ~10% mortality.
415 Similarly, the chlorpyrifos impact on the adult survival of *D. magna* was slightly less under
416 DTV than at the constant temperature (Appendix B). The lower chlorpyrifos concentration
417 under DTV (whereby a maximum temperature of 25 °C was daily encountered for three
418 hours) supports the hypothesis by Hooper et al. (2013) that the expected elevated toxicity at
419 higher temperatures might be tempered by the higher hydrolysis rate of organophosphate
420 pesticides. This further supports the importance of considering not only the direct effect of
421 warming on pesticide toxicity, but also on pesticide exposure to understand the net impact of
422 pesticide exposure under warming (Hooper et al., 2013; Op de Beeck et al., 2017).

423 Note that our finding of a higher chlorpyrifos degradation under DTV was based on
424 measurements 24h after the pulse application, while we reported a lower pesticide-induced
425 ‘time-integrated’ total mortality (from L4 until pupa) under DTV. Yet, this does not
426 invalidate our interpretation of a higher pesticide degradation under DTV causing the lower
427 pesticide-induced total mortality under DTV. Pesticide-induced mortality was rare during the

428 first 24 h after the pulse and was mainly observed in the 48-72h interval after the pulse
429 (Appendix D). Chlorpyrifos typically causes delayed effects (not within 24h after a single
430 pulse application), because it first has to be transformed into the toxic oxon form (e.g.,
431 Xuereb et al., 2009). Notably, the same survival pattern as for total survival was already
432 present when analyzing survival after 48 h and 72 h (CPF \times DTV, Table E.1 and Figure E.2
433 in Appendix E). The measured pattern of a higher concentration of chlorpyrifos 24h after the
434 pulse in the DTV treatment than in the constant temperature treatment is likely to, if
435 anything, persist through time (and not reverse) while at the same time pesticide levels will
436 further decrease after 24h because of ongoing degradation. Moreover, chlorpyrifos
437 concentrations after 24h were already quite low ($< 0.086 \mu\text{g/L}$) whereby their contribution to
438 the survival pattern of *C. pipiens* would be very low. As chlorpyrifos concentrations are
439 highest directly after the pulse, the observed degradation pattern after 24h is therefore the
440 most likely driver of the total survival pattern and the sublethal patterns. Note that survival
441 selection caused by DTV prior to the L4 stage (hence prior to the pesticide exposure) is an
442 unlikely driver of the total survival pattern as there was no differential mortality of the
443 mosquito larvae between DTV treatments before the pesticide exposure (see details Appendix
444 H).

445 4.2 Effects of interspecific competition on the impact of chlorpyrifos

446 Competition with *D. magna* had negative sublethal effects on the mosquito larvae (increased
447 development time by 9% and decreased pupal mass by 11%), suggesting it was energetically
448 costly. Nevertheless, interspecific competition did not change the lethal impact and even
449 slightly improved the sublethal impact of the pesticide which is in contrast with our second
450 hypothesis. Indeed, in the presence of *D. magna* the likely adaptive shortening of
451 development time under chlorpyrifos exposure was 2% larger. This was in contrast with our
452 expectation that interspecific competition would increase the mortality caused by chlorpyrifos

453 based on the assumption that there are energetic costs when coping with each single stressor
454 (Liess et al., 2016). In line with our results, several other studies that tested for effects of
455 interspecific competition on the acute sensitivity to toxicants also did not detect any effects of
456 interspecific competition on the negative impact of pesticides (Del Arco et al., 2015;
457 Knillmann et al., 2012; Van den Brink et al., 2017). For example, no effect of interspecific
458 competition by rotifers on the impact of the fungicide carbendazim on *D. magna* was
459 detected, likely because rotifers were immediately outcompeted by *D. magna* and were
460 possibly even damaged by being swept in the branchial chambers of the daphnids (Del Arco
461 et al., 2015). While some studies did report the expected pattern whereby interspecific
462 competition increased the negative impact of pesticides (Kroeger et al., 2013a, 2013b;
463 Shuman-Goodier et al., 2017), also the opposite pattern has been reported (Distel and Boone,
464 2010; Van den Brink et al., 2017). For example, the survival of American toads *Bufo*
465 *americanus* was 22% higher in the presence of both carbaryl and the northern leopard frog
466 (*Rana pipiens*) than when facing either stressor alone (Distel and Boone, 2010). This could be
467 explained by a greater corporeal absorption of carbaryl by the leopard frog tadpoles, reducing
468 the concentration to which toad tadpoles were exposed (Distel and Boone, 2010). Corporeal
469 absorption of chlorpyrifos by *C. pipiens*, may also explain the lower chlorpyrifos impact on
470 the intrinsic population growth rate, survival, and size of second brood of *D. magna* in the
471 presence of *C. pipiens* in our study (Appendix B). Indeed, the chlorpyrifos concentration after
472 24 h, thus at the start of the *Daphnia* pesticide exposure period, was ~13% lower in the
473 ‘*Culex* alone’ and ‘*Culex* with *Daphnia*’ treatments compared to the ‘*Daphnia* alone’
474 treatment.

475 **5. Conclusions**

476 By showing that DTV can reduce the impact of a pesticide pulse, we provide a new important
477 addition to the CITS concept (Moe et al., 2013; Noyes et al., 2009). The here observed
478 antagonism between pesticide exposure and DTV is likely widespread because nearly all
479 organisms experience DTV, many pesticides are applied in pulses (Van Drooge et al., 2001),
480 and pesticide degradation is faster at higher temperatures (Hooper et al., 2013; Op de Beeck
481 et al., 2017). As this is a highly controlled laboratory experiment, it would be interesting for
482 future studies to test our hypothesis in more realistic settings such as in an outdoor mesocosm
483 experiment. Our findings support the hypothesis by Hooper et al. (2013) that the expected
484 elevated toxicity at higher temperatures might be tempered by the higher hydrolysis rate of
485 organophosphate pesticides, and extend it to DTV. Under a scenario of multiple pulse
486 exposures, that is not unlikely given pesticide application schedules in agriculture
487 (Dabrowski et al., 2002), this higher degradation rate under DTV is likely to play even a
488 larger role as it will result in less accumulation. Note, that the here identified counteracting
489 mechanism does not imply that the general view of a higher pesticide toxicity under warming
490 is not valid. Instead it points to the need of considering not only the direct effect of warming
491 on pesticide toxicity, but also on pesticide exposure which is crucial to correctly assess the
492 predicted environmental concentration (PEC), a crucial component in ecological risk
493 assessment (Amiard-Triquet et al., 2015). DTV is only recently considered in ecotoxicology,
494 yet the accumulating evidence that it may increase the toxicity of pesticides (Barbosa et al.,
495 2017; Verheyen et al., 2019; Verheyen and Stoks, 2019b, 2019c; Willming et al., 2013),
496 together with current evidence that it may also accelerate pesticide degradation and thereby
497 reduce the net impact of a pesticide, makes it an important abiotic factor to consider in
498 ecological risk assessment. As climate models predict DTV to further increase under global

499 warming (Vázquez et al., 2017), DTV will prove especially important to assess the impact of
500 pesticides in a warming world.

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507 **7. Data availability**

508 Data will be available on Mendeley data: xxx.

509 **8. References**

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