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Temporal variability of food determines the outcome of pesticide exposure in *Daphnia*

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Abstract In nature the effect that pollutants exert on exposed organisms could depend on the state and dynamics of natural environmental factors as well as on the internal state of the exposed organisms. In this study we evaluated how level and variability of food, as well as the age of exposure can modify the effects of the pesticide deltamethrin on the freshwater crustacean *Daphnia magna*. The effects of the pesticide were measured on life history and nutritional traits (lipid storage) of the test organisms, which were exposed at different juvenile ages under constant (high and low) food as well as food shortage treatments. Our results show that deltamethrin exerts significant effects on all evaluated traits of *Daphnia*, and several responses are shaped by deltamethrin interacting with food and age of exposure. Two novel results are remarkable. First, at constant food treatments the effects of the pesticide were stronger on younger individuals, whereas in food shortage treatments the effects were stronger on older individuals. Second, we observed that deltamethrin exerted stronger effects on certain traits (survival, body growth and median consumption time of lipids) in *Daphnia* exposed to food shortage, as compared to constant low food treatments. Our results highlight the importance of the dynamics of resources in freshwater systems for shaping the vulnerability of herbivores to pollutants released to the ecosystem and improve our understanding of how the organismal responses to environmental stress are

determined by the ecological condition of the organisms at the instant of being exposed to perturbations.

Keywords Zooplankton · Pyrethroids · Deltamethrin · Age · Ecotoxicology · Lipids

Introduction

Aquatic ecosystems are recurrent recipients of pollutants released by human activities (Kreuger 1998; Voeltz et al. 2005). They also exhibit wide variations in natural physicochemical variables such as temperature or salinity (Aladin and Potts 1995; Reichwaldt et al. 2004), as well as in biological factors, such as food availability (McCauley et al. 1990) and predation (Fulford et al. 2006). The assessment of effects of stressors on aquatic biota are commonly carried out by means of controlled experiments in which the environment is kept nearly constant, exposing test organisms to a focal stressor during part of their life cycle. In nature, nevertheless, the effect that pollutants exert on exposed organisms could be dependent on the state and dynamics of natural environmental factors (Heugens et al. 2001; Jonker et al. 2004). Food availability is a critical ecological factor that often exhibits wide fluctuations over time and space in aquatic environments (Sommer et al. 2012). In addition, a finite budget of energy and nutrients gathered by organisms from food has to be allocated to different vital functions including development, reproduction, repair and maintenance of body components. Thus, food limitation is expected to increase the organisms' sensitivity to chemical stressors through decreasing their energy budget available for physiological process leading to repair and detoxification (Smolders et al. 2005). The nutritional status of an aquatic organism can significantly modify the toxicity of chemicals, such it has been reported for fishes and cladocerans (Antunes et al. 2003; Holmstrup et al. 2010). Furthermore, differences in maternal nutrition can give rise to divergences in offspring tolerance to stressors (Enserink et al. 1990;

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Pieters et al. 2006). On the other hand, the nature and strength of the effects that stressors exert on the exposed organisms are commonly dependent on their developmental stage. For example, several studies addressing the effects of radiation, metals and organic compounds have found an age-specific or stage-specific sensitivity of aquatic organisms (Ringwood 1990; Forget et al. 1998; Petersen and Kristensen 1998; Klein 2000; Schulz and Liess 2001; Medina et al. 2002; Ramos-Jiliberto et al. 2004; Bielmeyer et al. 2005; Hoang and Klaine 2007; Manyin and Rowe 2010). Consideration of multiple natural stressors is one step to improve the effects assessment especially of toxic compounds. Folt et al. (1999) highlight the potentially strong effects of temperature to zooplankton taxa and the degree of enhanced stress that is likely when episodes of low food or toxic exposure are combined.

Also, cumulative additive effects and non-additive interactions of natural antagonists as parasitism and predation have shown to interact with pollutants and exert considerable impacts on ecologically relevant parameters (Coors and De Meesters 2008). Natural variables are common experimental factors in ecological research, but the interplay between variation in natural factors and stressor exposure is still poorly understood. For a deeper understanding of the effects of stressors in natural aquatic ecosystems appears necessary to examine a wide set of interactions between the exposure to stressors, variations in environmental factors and the internal state of the exposed organisms. In this vein, in this study our aim is to assess whether the effects of a pesticide depend on the temporal variation of food availability and the age at which organisms are exposed. We hypothesize that irrespective of exposure age, we would expect stronger effects of deltamethrin on those individuals growing under constant low food densities, weaker effects under constant high food levels and effects of intermediate strength on individuals exposed to decreasing (from high to low) food levels.

We chose deltamethrin as a model stressor, since it is a widely used type II pyrethroid in the formulation of products against insect pests in agriculture and in the treatment of infections by ectoparasites in salmoniculture. Depending on its concentration this pyrethroid has been shown to exert lethal or sublethal effects on crustaceans (Xiu et al. 1989; Beketov 2004; Toumi et al. 2014). As response variables we considered a set of physiological and life history traits of the freshwater zooplankton *Daphnia magna*.

Methods

Experimental organisms and culture conditions

Strains of *D. magna* and *P. subcapitata* were obtained from cultures maintained at the Biodiversity Laboratory of the National Center for the Environment (CENMA), Santiago, Chile. From a stock culture of 15 adults L⁻¹,

juveniles (<72 h) of a single *D. magna* clone were extracted and placed individually into 50 mL beakers filled with 40 mL of reconstituted hard water (ASTM 1980). This clone line has been maintained for many generations and it has been utilized periodically for ecotoxicity testing. Test organisms (neonates < 24 h) were obtained from the second clutch of the previously selected *Daphnia* individuals. The food was a suspension of the microalgae *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* at a density of 10⁵ cell mL⁻¹ and the medium for *D. magna*, including food, was renewed daily. Temperature was kept at 20 ± 1 °C, pH at 7.8 ± 0.1 and photoperiod 16:8 (L:D). In the experiments, test organisms were randomly allocated to the treatments.

Test chemical

A saturated stock solution of deltamethrin (CAS 52918-63-5, Merck) was prepared by adding 10 mg of the compound to 1 L of acetone, refrigerated at 5 ± 1 °C and kept in darkness. For each experiment it was prepared an aqueous solution of deltamethrin following Medina et al. (2002) by adding 500 µL of the stock solution into a glass bottle and then allowing the solvent to evaporate completely, leaving a crystalline residue of deltamethrin on the glass. Subsequently, the container was filled to 0.5 L with reconstituted hard water and mixed for 2 days at 10 °C on an orbital shaker. This procedure allows solubilizing the test chemical in water, eliminating acetone. Nevertheless, in a low dose acetone has been previously reported as a harmless substance for *D. magna* (LeBlanc and Surprenant 1983).

The deltamethrin concentration to be used in the main experiments was 5 × 10⁻³ µg L⁻¹. This level was calculated to be the one needed to kill 15 % of the test organisms (i.e., 24 h-LC₁₅). We choose this level because we wanted to perform our experiments with pesticide concentrations causing only subtle effect, and this is known to occur closely above the LC₁₀ (Kast-Hutcheson et al. 2001). The toxicity test was performed modifying the OECD (2004) procedure, with five replicates for each of the test concentrations, each one containing four newborns in 40 mL of medium. The modification to the standard test consisted of feeding the individuals during the test with *P. subcapitata* at 10⁶ cell mL⁻¹, in order to mimic conditions of the main experiments.

Experimental design

Main experiments were carried out at two food densities: 10⁴ cell mL⁻¹ (low food) and 10⁶ cell mL⁻¹ (high food) of *P. subcapitata*. These food densities were below and above the incipient limiting concentration of food for *D. magna* individuals, respectively (Lampert 1987). Two main experiments were performed: the first one with constant food treatments and the second one with food shortage treatments. Each experiment lasted for 7 days,

the time needed for the first brood to be released. This period chosen for experimental observations is considered to be enough to capture the reproductive variability among treatments (see for example Guilhermino et al. 1999), and resembles many natural conditions, where *Daphnia* only survives short after its first reproduction due to size-selective predation by vertebrates (Pijanowska et al. 2006).

In both experiments, each treatment included five replicates with four *D. magna* neonates (<24 h) in a 50 mL beaker filled with 40 mL of medium that was renewed daily.

Each experiment included a pulsed (24 h) exposure to $5 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ of deltamethrin. Pulsed exposures of pesticides are commonly observed in the field, especially in aquatic systems due to high precipitation and runoff events (Liess et al. 1999). This is expected to be the rule particularly for deltamethrin, given its fast decay rates in water (Maguire et al. 1989).

In the first experiment (constant high and constant low food treatments), the test organisms were exposed to a single 24-hour pulse of deltamethrin at ages of either 0, 1 or 2 days. In addition, two control treatments were run without deltamethrin exposure, one in high food and one in low food. For the second experiment, a shift in food density from high to low density was exerted 24 h after the pulsed exposure to deltamethrin. Hereafter we refer to those treatments as “food shortage”. Thus, the treatments exposed to deltamethrin at ages 0, 1 and 2 days were exposed to a decrease in food density at ages 1, 2 and 3 days, respectively. Control treatments were run, without deltamethrin exposure but with a food shortage at the time described above.

Response variables

We evaluated life-history and physiological traits of *D. magna* as response variables. For each replicate consisting in a jar with four test individuals, we measured and then analyzed mean values of the following life-history traits: the ability to survive for 7 days (hereafter seven-day survival), body length and fertility (clutch size). These variables were measured daily. In order to minimize manipulation of animals in the course of the experiments, body length measures (from the top of the head to the base of the tail spine) were made from digital images obtained with a digital camera attached to a microscope, keeping individuals at the same focal point. The precision of the length measurements was 10^{-4} mm. For each replicate, data of mean body length versus age (days) were fitted to the following sigmoid model by means of least-squares non-linear regression:

$$L(a) = \left(\frac{L_{max} - L_{min}}{1 + (a/t_h)^k} \right) + L_{min}$$

where $L(a)$ = body length at age a , L_{max} = asymptotic body length (i.e., projected body length at infinite age),

L_{min} = initial body length, t_h = age at which the middle value between L_{min} and L_{max} is reached, and k = abruptness of the curve. Parameter k was not considered for further analyses, so we focused on the responses of L_{max} and t_h . We also evaluated physiological traits related to the storage of lipid reserves. Lipids (tryacylglycerol) are a mayor storage product of cladoceran (Goulden and Hornig 1980). These lipids are stored as droplets arranged laterally and ventrally to the gut. The measurement of the amount of stored lipids allows the assessment of the nutritional state of zooplankton (Bychek et al. 2005). These reserves were evaluated daily, and we took the average values over the four individuals in each replicate. Reserve measurements in each individual were performed through processing digital images with the software Biopix IQ 2.0 (Gothenburg, Sweden) to separate the colored lipid droplets stored around the gut. This method based on image analysis can be considered to be a modification of the well-known lipid index, based on the evaluation of visible lipid droplets in the body (Goulden and Hornig 1980). Even though our method only represents a rough approximation to measurements made by conventional analytical methods (Folch et al. 1957), it has the advantage of allowing perform repeated measurements on a single individual and minimizes the manipulation time. The lipid amount was calculated as the total area of these droplets in the body of individuals. Figure S1 illustrates the image processing used for this measurement. From the assessed temporal change of lipid amount in the experimental individuals we determined the following traits: (a) cumulative lipid amount (hereafter “TL”), calculated as the area under the curve between days 0 and 5 (start of the experiment and the appearance of eggs in the brood chamber, respectively), (b) maximal lipid amount reached within the period indicated above (hereafter “MLA”), and (c) time employed by an individual to consume 50 % of its maximal lipid amount (hereafter “CT₅₀”) calculated by linear regression using the MLA as 100 % of lipid amount stored. See figure S2 for a graphical explanation of these measurements.

Statistics

We used two-way MANOVA for analyzing our results. In the first experiment food and deltamethrin exposure were used as factors. In the second experiment, deltamethrin exposure and age at exposure were used as factors. Furthermore, to verify the univariate MANOVA results a two-way randomization ANOVA was performed in each experiment, running 1500 randomizations over the original values of the variables. Randomization ANOVA is robust against data departures from parametric assumptions and small sample sizes. The MANOVA analyses were performed using the R Project for Statistical Computing (<http://www.r-project.org/>). Randomization ANOVA was performed using the software RT 2.1 (Manly 1997).

Results

Constant food treatments

The MANOVA analysis showed that the overall effect of food (d.f. = 1, $F = 2123.54$, $p < 0.0001$), age at pesticide exposure (d.f. = 3, $F = 6.34$, $p < 0.0001$) and their interaction (d.f. = 3, $F = 5.05$, $p < 0.0001$) were significant on physiological and life history traits of *D. magna*.

Subsequent univariate analysis showed that food and deltamethrin exposure significantly affected the seven-day survival of *D. magna* (Table 1; Fig. 1a) when food density was kept constant. Randomized ANOVA rendered the same qualitative results than univariate components of MANOVA. Post hoc analysis among deltamethrin exposure treatments revealed that exposure at age 0 reduced significantly their seven-day survival as compared to exposure at older ages. In high food treatments, only exposure at age 0 differed from the control, while in low food treatments seven-day survival was lower than the control under all exposure treatments (Fig. 1a). The fertility (clutch size) of *D. magna* was affected by food, deltamethrin exposure and their interaction (Table 1). In high food treatments, deltamethrin affected clutch size only in individuals exposed at age 0, whereas in low food treatments offspring production was canceled by deltamethrin exposure (Fig. 1b). Body

growth closely matched a sigmoid curve of body length versus age. The nonlinear regressions were all significant ($R^2 > 0.96$; $P < 0.05$ in all cases; Figs. S3, S4). For body length, parameter L_{max} was significantly affected by the interactive effect of food availability and deltamethrin exposure (Table 1). At both food treatments, exposure at ages 0 and 1 reduced L_{max} , being stronger when individuals were exposed earlier in their ontogenies and in high food treatments (Fig. 1c). Body growth rate parameter t_h , which indicates the time required to achieve the half of maximum growth, was affected additively by food and deltamethrin exposure (Table 1). Nevertheless, an increase in t_h was observed only when individuals were exposed at age 0 (Fig. 1d).

Total lipids (TL) and Maximal lipid Amount (MLA) were affected significantly by the interaction between food and deltamethrin exposure (Table 2). In high food treatments TL decreased significantly with deltamethrin exposure at age 0. Conversely, at age 2 a significant increase in TL respect to control was observed. In low food treatments deltamethrin exposure decreased TL with negligible differences among exposure ages (Fig. 1e). Deltamethrin exposure decreased significantly MLA in high food treatments only at age 0. However, under low food treatments MLA was decreased at all exposure treatments (Fig. 1f). Finally, CT_{50} was affected additively by food level and deltamethrin exposure (Table 2), with stronger decreases of this variable when individuals were exposed at age 0 (Fig. 1g).

Table 1 Summary of univariate results from the 2-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) performed for testing the effects of age at deltamethrin exposure and food level on life history and physiological traits of *Daphnia magna* under constant (high and low) food treatments

Trait	Source	d.f.	F	P
Seven-day survival	Food level (F)	1	34.78	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	16.23	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	0.93	0.44
	Error	32		
Clutch size	Food level (F)	1	3464.30	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	85.67	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	55.12	< 0.0001
	Error	32		
Asymptotic body length (L_{max})	Food level (F)	1	3387.01	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	44.26	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	6.68	< 0.01
	Error	32		
Age to half asymptotic body length (t_h)	Food level (F)	1	625.16	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	25.14	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	0.86	0.47
	Error	32		
Total lipids (TL)	Food level (F)	1	4702.58	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	43.60	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	19.79	< 0.0001
	Error	32		
Maximal lipid amount (MLA)	Food level (F)	1	1338.02	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	3	27.75	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	6.14	< 0.001
	Error	32		
Consumption time of lipids (CT_{50})	Food level (F)	1	132.71	< 0.0001
	Age exposure (A)	3	82.91	< 0.0001
	F × A	3	2.55	0.07
	Error	32		

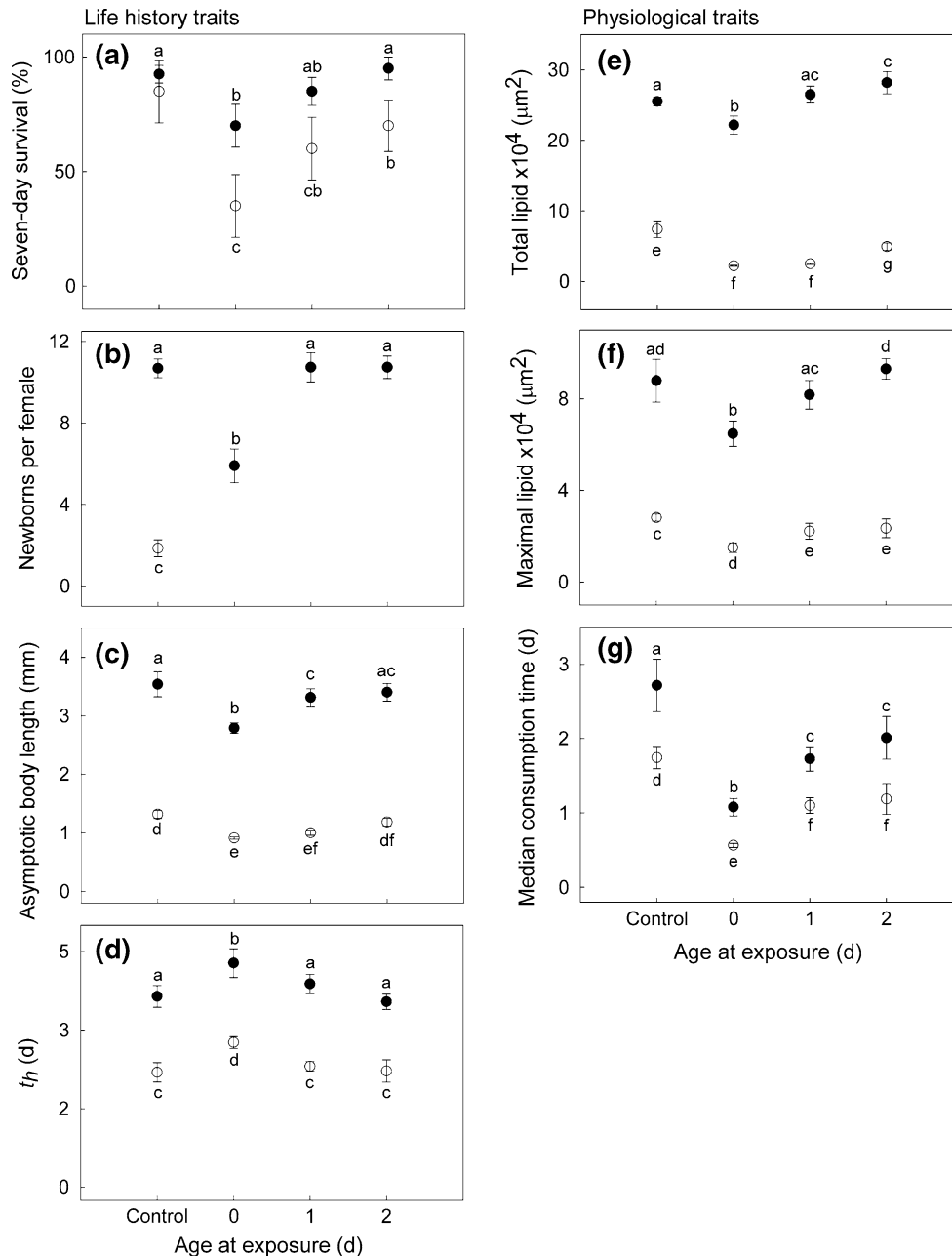


Fig. 1 Effects of deltamethrin exposure at different ages under constant food treatments, on life history (left panel) and physiological (right panel) traits of *Daphnia magna*. Life history traits are: **a** seven-day survival, **b** clutch size, **c** asymptotic body length (L_{max}) and **d** age to half asymptotic body length (t_h). Physiological traits

are: **e** total lipid amount (TL), **f** maximal lipid amount (MLA) and **g** median consumption time (CT_{50}). Each symbol in low food (white circles) and high food (black circles) treatments represent mean values \pm SD. Different letters above symbols indicate significant differences among treatments (post hoc test, $P < 0.01$)

Food shortage treatments

The MANOVA analysis showed that the overall effect of deltamethrin exposure (d.f. = 1, $F = 97.04$, $p < 0.0001$), age of disturbance exposure (d.f. = 2, $F = 29.49$, $p < 0.0001$) and their interaction (d.f. = 2, $F = 3.43$, $p < 0.002$) in food shortage treatments were significant on physiological and life history traits of *D. magna*. The univariate analysis showed that deltamethrin exposure and age at disturbance exposure (either

shortage in food density or shortage in food density followed by exposure to deltamethrin) additively affected seven-day survival (Table 2). Deltamethrin decreased seven-day survival at all ages of exposure with stronger effects on younger individuals (Fig. 2a). Clutch size was affected interactively by deltamethrin exposure and age at disturbance exposure (Table 2). Deltamethrin decreased the clutch size in older exposed individuals (of age 2). Individuals disturbed at earlier ages (age 0 and 1 under deltamethrin exposure and age 0 without delta-

Table 2 Summary of univariate results from the 2-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) performed for testing the effect of deltamethrin exposure and age at disturbance exposure on life history and physiological traits of *Daphnia magna* under food shortage treatments

Trait	Source	d.f.	F	P
Seven-day survival	Deltamethrin (D)	1	53.33	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	10.53	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	1.73	0.20
	Error	24		
Clutch size	Deltamethrin (D)	1	183.56	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	289.62	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	86.68	< 0.0001
	Error	24		
Asymptotic body length (L_{max})	Deltamethrin (D)	1	47.38	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	258.76	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	7.34	< 0.005
	Error	24		
Age to half asymptotic body length (t_h)	Deltamethrin (D)	1	92.01	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	46.80	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	4.59	0.021
	Error	24		
Total lipids (TL)	Deltamethrin (D)	1	197.66	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	99.36	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	27.55	< 0.0001
	Error	24		
Maximal lipid amount (MLA)	Deltamethrin (D)	1	221.61	< 0.0001
	Age at exposure (A)	2	100.84	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	29.82	< 0.0001
	Error	24		
Consumption time of lipids (CT ₅₀)	Deltamethrin (D)	1	149.27	< 0.0001
	Age exposure (A)	2	48.28	< 0.0001
	D × A	2	4.58	0.021
	Error	24		

methrin exposure) had no offspring (Fig. 2b). Body length (L_{max}) and body growth rate (t_h) parameters were also affected interactively by deltamethrin and age of disturbance exposure (Table 2), with stronger effects of deltamethrin at older ages of disturbance exposure (Fig. 2c, d).

Physiological parameters TL and MLA were significantly affected by the interaction between deltamethrin exposure and age of disturbance exposure (Table 2). For both traits, their values were lower as the disturbance was applied earlier in the ontogeny of *Daphnia*, although the isolated effect of deltamethrin was slightly stronger when older individuals suffered the disturbance (Fig. 2e, f). Consumption of lipid was also affected interactively by deltamethrin and age at disturbance exposure (Table 2). *Daphnia* consumed their lipid storage faster under deltamethrin exposure and when disturbed earlier in their development. The effect strength of deltamethrin increased with the age at disturbance exposure (Fig. 2g). As in the first experiment, randomized ANOVA rendered the same qualitative results than univariate components of MANOVA. In addition, for both experiments we also performed the analysis of lipids using the lipidic fraction (lipid amount/body area), and the results remained the same than those reported in Tables 1 and 2.

Finally we assessed the effect strength ($(\bar{x}_T - \bar{x}_C)/\bar{x}_C$) of pesticide exposure on each trait under the different food regimes, for all ages merged, where \bar{x}_T and \bar{x}_C

represent mean values of a given trait under pesticide and control treatments, respectively. These results are shown in Fig. 3. As expected, the lowest effects of pesticide exposure were observed in the high food treatments. Interestingly, the strongest effects of pesticide exposure were observed under the food shortage treatments on seven-day survival, body growth and lipid storage traits (TL, MLA and CT₅₀).

A similar analysis was made to assess age specific effect strength, shown in Fig. 5S. Under both constant food treatments, younger individuals (age 0) exhibited the largest effect strength on all traits excepting clutch size and TL. In contrast, under food shortage treatments, the older individuals (age 2) exhibited the largest effect strength on all traits excepting seven-day survival and clutch size (Fig. 5S).

Discussion

The results of this study expand our understanding of how the organismal responses to environmental stress are determined by the ecological condition (internal plus environmental factors) of the organisms at the time of being exposed to the source of stress. Here we were mainly interested in evaluating the role of two dimensions of the organisms' ecological condition: variability of food availability and age at stress exposure. As stress agent we used the pyrethroid pesticide deltamethrin, and

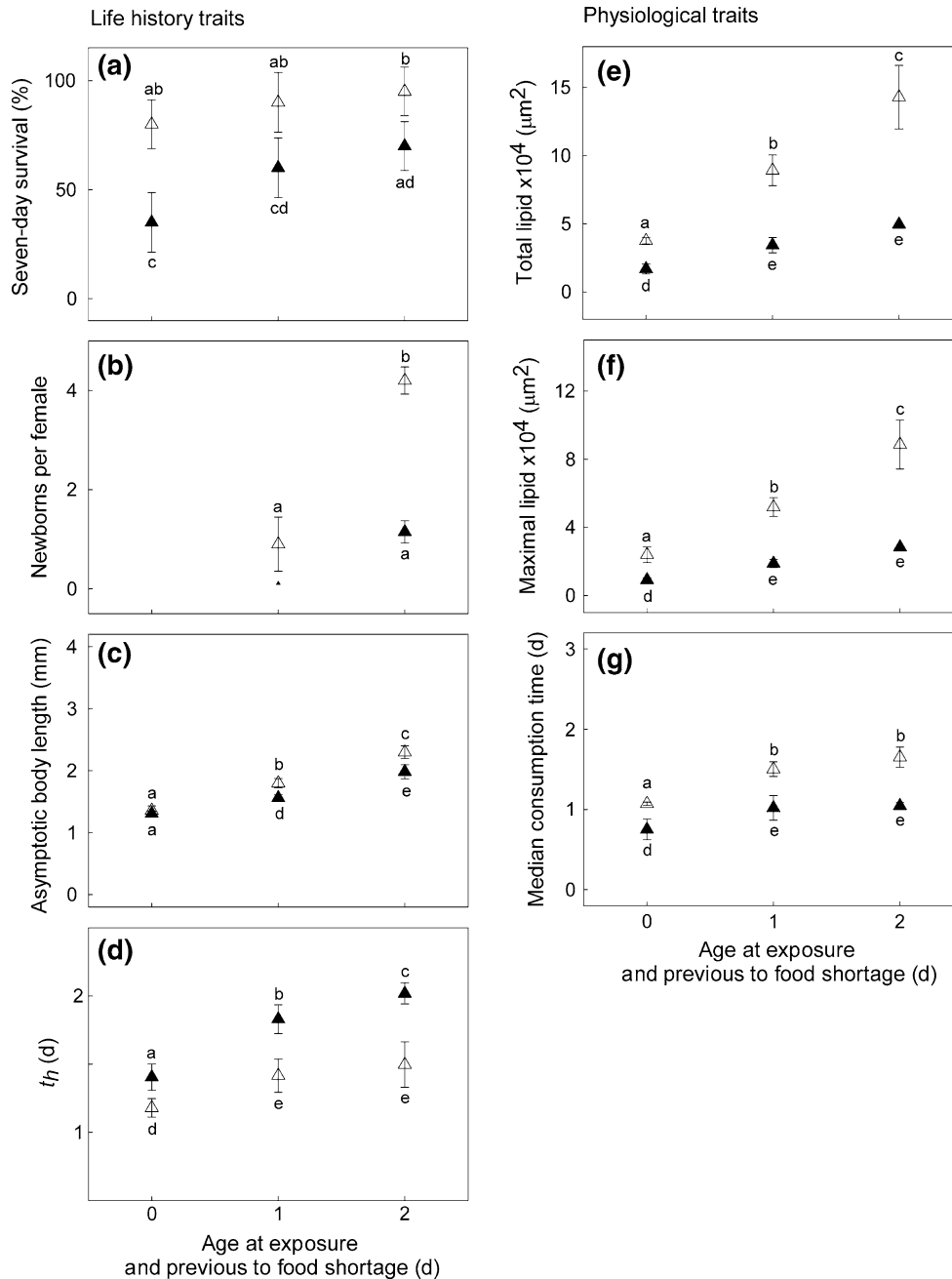


Fig. 2 Effects of deltamethrin exposure at different ages under food shortage treatments, on life history (*left panel*) and physiological (*right panel*) traits of *Daphnia magna*. Life history traits are: **a** seven-day survival, **b** clutch size, **c** asymptotic body length (L_{max}) and **d** age to half asymptotic body length (t_h). Physiological traits are: **e** total lipid amount (TL), **f** maximal lipid amount (MLA) and

g median consumption time (CT_{50}). Each symbol in control (*white triangles*) and exposure (*black triangles*) treatments represent mean values \pm SD. Different letters above symbols indicate significant differences among treatments (post hoc test, $P < 0.01$). In all cases, food shortage was conducted 1 day after deltamethrin exposure

as response variables we measured a number of life history traits directly related to fitness (seven-day survival, reproduction, body growth) and a set of physiological parameters related to energy (lipid) storage. Stored lipids are an important source of metabolic energy and their amount in the body has been used for decades as a measure of feeding success and resistance to stress in cladoceran species (Tessier et al. 1983). Clearly, our study was restricted to a single study species (*D.*

magna) and a single clone of this species. This sacrifices generality for replicability, but is a valid choice as a first step for assessing interaction effects among multiple factors.

Pyrethroids have a neurotoxic mode of action (Xiu et al. 1989) and have been used widely to control insect pests on crops due to its limited persistence. The exposure of freshwater crustaceans, to low pyrethroid levels lead to immobility, reduction in coordination move-

ments and thus filtering activity (Christensen et al. 2005; Reynaldi et al. 2006). Like many other synthetic pyrethroids, deltamethrin has been shown to be toxic also to fish (Viran et al. 2003).

Our results showed that deltamethrin exposure exerted significant effects on all evaluated traits of *Daphnia*. Furthermore, parameters of body growth, lipid storage and reproduction were affected by the interaction between deltamethrin exposure and food treatments. Overall, deltamethrin exposure exerted detrimental effects on seven-day survival, clutch size and body length on *Daphnia* under constant—both low and high food—as well as under food shortage treatments, which confirm the toxicity of this pesticide to *Daphnia* and its detrimental effects on fitness components. In addition, lipid consumption time was accelerated by deltamethrin exposure, which indicated that energy expenditure increased for compensatory mechanisms. On the other hand, negative effects on lipid storage were observed at constant food and food shortage treatments. However, a positive effect was obtained for individuals exposed at age 2 in high food treatments. Such responses cannot be explained without further research, but it is possible that the deltamethrin exposure under high food availability could promote higher energy demand and allow higher uptake for detoxification and repair. Overcompensatory responses of this kind have been reported previously for aquatic invertebrates such as *D. magna* (De Coen et al. 2001; Duquesne et al. 2006).

The age of test organisms at the time of exposure was an important determinant of deltamethrin toxicity but, more interestingly, the relative age-specific sensitivity to the pesticide varied qualitatively according to food variability. Under constant food availability, the younger individuals exhibited a greater sensitivity to deltamethrin. This response was exhibited through seven-day survival, reproduction, body growth, total lipid storage and its consumption. Predictably, these effects were stronger under low food treatments. In contrast, under food shortage treatments, older individuals exhibited a greater deltamethrin sensitivity through seven-day survival, body growth, total lipid storage and lipid consumption (Fig. S5).

In line with our results for constant food densities, previous studies showed that pyrethroid pesticides exert their neurotoxic activity preferentially on early developmental stages of invertebrates (Xiu et al. 1989). Often, body size is believed to explain the higher toxicant sensitivity exhibited by earlier stages, particularly to pyrethroids. The usual mechanism is an increased mass-specific uptake and bioconcentration of toxicants displayed by smaller-sized individuals (Day and Kaushik 1987). Similar findings have been reported for larval stages of invertebrates, where a brief pyrethroid exposure was able to reduce survival and developmental rate (Forbes and Cold 2005; Pieters et al. 2006). Nevertheless, the physiological mechanisms responsible for a higher sensitivity of older organisms under food short-

age treatments are unclear, being necessary to perform new research to uncover such causes.

Conversely to our hypotheses, we observed that deltamethrin exposure exerted stronger effects on *Daphnia* seven-day survival, body growth and parameters of lipid storage in food shortage treatments, as compared to *Daphnia* growing in constant low food treatments (Fig. 3).

The causes of this effect cannot be determined from our experiments, but we guess that they could rest on two main mechanisms. A first plausible mechanism is that the physiological condition of zooplankters would be weakened more severely by an abrupt decrease in food densities, as compared to any regime of constant food density, which impede organisms to compensate the harmful effects of the toxicant. A second plausible mechanism is that decreasing food availability triggers consumption of food reserves gained during an initial phase of high food availability and thereby the release of lipophilic pollutants stored in the adipose tissues. This increases the plasmatic concentration of the toxicant, reaching and poisoning critical organs through the circulation. For testing the first mechanism we would need independent measures of physiological performance or stress under decreasing versus constant food availability. For the second proposed mechanism, which has been proven to occur in humans (Chevrier et al. 2000; Imbeault et al. 2001, 2002; Hue et al. 2006; Lim et al. 2011), we would need measures of plasmatic concentration of the toxicant. Nevertheless, our results provide partial evidence in support of the second mechanism, since the consumption of lipid reserves in the deltamethrin-exposed organisms showed to be faster under food short-

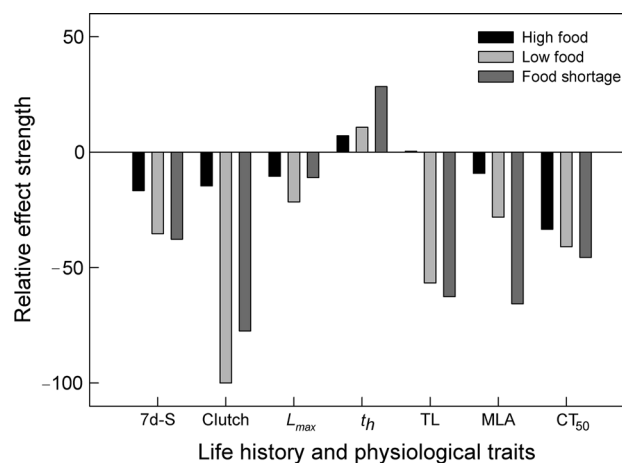


Fig. 3 Relative effect strength ($(\bar{x}_T - \bar{x}_C)/\bar{x}_C$) of deltamethrin exposure under high (black), low (light gray) and food shortage (dark gray) treatments on life history and physiological traits of *Daphnia magna*. Mean values for pesticide (\bar{x}_T) and control (\bar{x}_C) treatments were computed as the mean over all evaluated ages. Each bar shows the mean effect strength on seven-day survival (7d-S), clutch size, asymptotic body length (L_{max}), age to half asymptotic body length (t_h), total lipid amount (TL), maximal lipid amount (MLA) and median consumption time (CT₅₀)

age treatments, as compared to constant food treatments.

Whatever the underlying mechanisms, our findings suggest that the phenological phase in which a pollutant is released to ecosystems strongly determines the strength of the ecological outcome, with stronger adverse effects on certain traits if the pollutant is released short before a shortage in food density.

Marked temporal and spatial variation of food availability is a common phenomenon in aquatic ecosystems. The phenological succession of communities in temperate freshwaters (Cloern and Jassby 2008; Sommer et al. 2012) generate patterns of severe decrease of population size of primary producers in a short time, as in the clear-water-phase or in a longer time due to the end of the vegetative season. On the other hand, the diel vertical migration of zooplankters in response to predator cues (Haupt et al. 2009) imposes herbivores to sharply shift the availability of their food on an hourly basis. Thus, our study suggests that the dynamics of food resources may determine a high vulnerability of herbivores to certain pollutants released to the ecosystem, and that the analysis of the outcome of pollution in natural communities should consider the effects of this ecological dynamics, whose deep understanding and forecasting is still evasive to science.

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