

Transgenerational effects of cyanobacterial toxins on a tropical micro-crustacean Daphnia lumholtzi across three generations

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- 1 Transgenerational effects of cyanobacterial toxins on a tropical micro-crustacean
- 2 Daphnia lumholtzi across three generations
- 3

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23 Abstract

Climate change and human activities induce an increased frequency and intensity of 24 cyanobacterial blooms which could release toxins to aquatic ecosystems. 25 Zooplankton communities belong to the first affected organisms, but in tropical 26 freshwater ecosystems, this issue has yet been poorly investigated. We tested two 27 questions (i) if the tropical *Daphnia lumholtzi* is capable to develop tolerance to an 28 ecologically relevant concentration of purified microcystin-LR and microcystins from 29 cyanobacterial extract transferable to F1 and F2 generations? And (ii) would F1 and 30 F2 generations recover if reared in toxin-free medium? To answer these questions, 31 we conducted two full factorial mutigenerational experiments, in which D. lumholtzi 32 was exposed to MC-LR and cyanobacterial extract at the concentration of 1 μ g L⁻¹ 33 microcystin continuously for three generations. After each generation, each treatment 34 was spit into two: one reared in the control (toxin free) while the other continued in 35 the respective exposure. Fitness-related traits including survival, maturity age, body 36 length, and fecundity of each *D. lumholtzi* generation were guantified. Though there 37 were only some weak negative effects of the toxins on the first generation (F0), we 38 found strong direct, accumulated and carried-over impacts of the toxins on life history 39 traits of D. lumholtzi on the F1 and F2, including reductions of survival, and 40 reproduction. The maturity age and body length showed some inconsistent patterns 41 between generations and need further investigations. The survival, maturity age (for 42 extract), and body length (for MC-LR) were only recovered when offspring from toxin 43 exposed mothers were raised in clean medium for two generations. Chronic 44 exposure to long lasting blooms, even at low density, evidently reduces survival of D. 45 *lumholtzi* in tropical lakes and reservoirs with ecological consequences. 46

47 Key words: microcystins, zooplankton, life history traits, tolerance, adaptation

49 Capsule

50 Exposure to environmentally relevant concentrations of cyanobacterial toxins for 3 51 generations tropical *Daphnia lumholtzi* developed no or marginal tolerance

52 **1. Introduction**

Eutrophication and global climate change cause an increase of frequency and 53 intensity of cyanobacterial blooms with the occurrence of their toxic metabolites 54 55 (microcystins, MCs, amongst others; Harke et al., 2016). Besides being a public health risk, cyanobacteria and their toxins can strongly alter the phytoplanktivorous 56 zooplankton communities, which are connecting the photosynthetic energy 57 acquaintance to consumption in food webs of aquatic ecosystems (Ger et al., 2016). 58 In standing or slow flowing tropical waters, the favorable temperature and nutrients 59 for cyanobacterial bloom are typically met all year round and MCs and other bioactive 60 cvanobacterial metabolites are commonly present (Chorus and Bartram, 1999; Mowe 61 et al., 2015). While MC-LR is one of the most potent MCs congeners to vertebrates, 62 other metabolites. e.g. microviridins, cyanopeptolines and others, could even 63 stronger impair daphnids than MCs (Ger et al., 2016). There is ample evidence 64 showing that exposures to cyanobacterial toxins and their metabolites can impair 65 behaviors, life history traits and biochemical responses of daphnids (e.g. Nizan et al., 66 1986: DeMott et al., 1991: Ferrão-Filho et al., 2000: Rohrlack et al., 2001, 2004; 67 Wiegand et al., 2002; Lürling and Van der Grinten, 2003; Ghadouani et al., 2004; 68 Dao et al., 2013), but in most studies the exposure duration focused on one 69 generation and on species in northern temperate regions (reviewed in Ger et al., 70 2016). Much less is known about how tropical daphnids deal with the cyanobacterial 71 toxins if exposure duration lasts for several generations. This question is particularly 72 relevant to the tropical freshwater ecosystems where cvanobacterial blooms are 73 predictable and last for months (Mowe et al., 2015) while the generation time of 74 tropical daphnia species such as *Daphnia lumholtzi* typically takes less than a week. 75

In *Daphnia*, maternal effects play an important role in their response to algal 76 toxins or contaminants across generations. Maternal effects may either increase or 77 decrease the offspring fitness. Many studies have showed that after exposure to 78 79 cyanobacterial toxins (Gustafsson and Hansson, 2004) or other contaminants (Massarin et al., 2010; Krause et al., 2017) in the first generation, the next 80 generations showed an increase in tolerance. Typically in the the case when the 81 stressful conditions in which the mothers are living are predictable, they would invest 82 more in offspring fitness (Burgess and Marshall, 2014). This is supported by a 83 number of studies investigating the effects of cyanobacteria and their toxins beyond 84 one generation of the temperate species (e.g. D. magna Gustafsson and Hansson, 85 2004: Gustafsson et al., 2005: Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012; von Elert et al., 2012) or 86 sub-tropical species (e.g. *D. carinata*; Jiang et al., 2013b). These studies consistently 87 revealed that the second generation of temperate daphnid species showed an 88 increased tolerance to cyanobacterial toxins that was associated with their elevated 89 base levels of detoxification enzymes e.g. glutathione S-transferase (Ortiz-Rodriguez 90 et al., 2012) or changing of digestive isoenzymes (von Elert et al., 2012). On the 91 other hand, several studies demonstrted that parental exposure to harmful 92 compounds would have negative effects on offspring through adverse effects on 93 nutrition provisioning. This prediction was supported by a study from Beyer and 94 Hambright (2017) showing that the rotifer Brachionus calyciflorus exposed to 95 cyanobacteria produced offspring more vulnerable to algal toxins. Additionally, the 96 toxin tolerance of *D. magna* is clone specific (Gustafsson and Hansson, 2004; 97 98 Schwarzenberger et al., 2014). However, it is yet unknown if Daphnia species from tropical regions may have different responses and toxin tolerance development 99 compared to their relatives from temperate and sub-tropical regions. 100

Most previous studies investigated the multigenerational effects on daphnids 101 using living cells of *Microcystis* rather than their extract or purified toxins (but see Dao 102 et al., 2010; Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012). In nature, cyanobacteria typically form 103 104 large colonies (e.g. Microcystis) or long and big bunch filaments (e.g. Anabaena, Aphanizomenon, Planktothrix) upon their mass development, which are not suitable 105 106 for consumption by micro-crustaceans such as *Daphnia* due to their size (> 70 µm; Ebert, 2005) and unfavorable mucilage production (Rohrlack et al., 1999). Dissolved 107 cyanobacterial toxins, however, commonly occur and could last for days, weeks and 108 up to months, depending on the cyanobacterial lysis and the conditions in the water 109 (e.g. MCs; Chorus and Bartram, 1999; Giramida et al., 2013). Several studies 110 showed that living cells of cyanobacteria would induce stronger impacts than 111 dissolved cyanobacterial toxins on life history traits of daphnids (Nandini et al., 2017, 112 Lürling and Van der Grinten, 2003) due to nutritional insufficience and feeding 113 inhibition. 114

One of the major gaps of knowledge that was highlighted in a review by Ger et 115 al. (2016) is whether tropical daphnid species may develop an increased tolerance to 116 cyanobacterial toxins after several generations have been exposed to the toxins as it 117 has been showed to many related temperate species (e.g. D. magna, Gustafsson 118 and Hansson, 2004). Tropical species or populations typically have faster life history 119 and shorter generation time and are more vulnerable to contaminants such as metals 120 than the temperate ones (Dinh Van et al., 2014). This is the result of the prioritizing 121 energy allocation to growth and development which in turn may trade off the energy 122 investing in elevating mechanisms to detoxify or excrete the toxins or contaminants 123 (Sibly and Calow, 1989; Congdon et al., 2001; Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012). Hence it 124 could be that the offspring generation suffers more from the toxins as the 125

consequence of adverse effects on nutrition provisioning, or exposure duringembryonic development but this remains to be tested.

To address these issues, we conducted two full factorial mutigenerational 128 129 experiments in which the tropical micro-crustacean D. lumholtzi was exposed to the cyanobacterial toxins both in purified form, MC-LR, and cyanobacterial extract for 130 three consecutive generations at 1 μ g L⁻¹ MCs. After each generation, each 131 treatment was spit into two: one reared in the control (toxin free) and another one 132 continuously reared in the respective cyanobacterial toxins. This experimental design 133 resulted in 2 treatments in the F0 generation (control vs MC-LR or cyanobacterial 134 extract treatment), 4 and 8 treatments in generations F1 and F2, respectively. With 135 this approach, we tested two hypotheses: (1) the tropical *D. lumholtzi* develops an 136 increased tolerance to an ecologically relevant concentration of MCs in the next 137 generations (F1 and/or F2); and (2) F1 and F2 generations recover if reared in toxin-138 free medium. Fitness-related traits such as survival, time to maturation, body length, 139 and fecundity of *D. lumholtzi* of each generation were quantified to examine these 140 hypotheses. 141

142

143 **2. Materials and methods**

144 **2.1** Chemicals and organisms for the tests

Microcystin-LR (Enzo Life Science Inc) was dissolved in MeOH at a concentration of 1 mg mL⁻¹. The MCs-containing extract was prepared with reverse osmosis water from a bloom of *Microcystis* in Dau Tieng Reservoir, Vietnam (Dao et al., 2014). The extract was prepared from the collected bloom material by filtering, repeated freeze/thaw cycles of the filters in distilled water to break the cells and centrifugation to obtain the dissolved compounds; it was stored at –70°C after determining the MC- LR (20.3 μ g g⁻¹ dried weight, DW), MC-RR (635 μ g g⁻¹ DW), and MC-YR (31.7 μ g g⁻¹ 152 ¹ DW) concentrations (Dao et al., 2014).

The tropical micro-crustacean D. lumholtzi (Bui et al., 2016) was used as test 153 organism. The culture of D. lumholtzi was initiated with more than 500 mothers 154 collected in a fish pond in northern Vietnam where the bloom of cvanobacteria had 155 not been previously observed since at least one year before. The culture has been 156 kept in the laboratory of Hochiminh City University of Technology for over 4 years 157 with the density of ca. 50 individuals L^{-1} . A previous study has showed that a 158 population of from 500 individuals is required to avoid gene diversity decrease (Colin 159 and Dam, 2004). The green alga *Chlorella* sp. and YTC (a mixture of yeast, cerrophyl 160 and trout chow digestion; US. EPA, 2002) were used as food for the daphnids. Both 161 D. lumholtzi and Chlorella sp. were in continuous culture in COMBO medium (Kilham 162 et al., 1998). The D. lumholtzi was fed ad libitum every second day with Chlorella and 163 YTC before the experiment. 164

165 2.2 Experimental set up

The experiments were conducted under laboratory conditions of 25 ± 1 °C, a 166 photoperiod of 12h light: 12h dark and the light intensity of around 1000 Lux (APHA, 167 2005) appropriate for the tropical D. lumholtzi. Tests were started with neonates of D. 168 *lumholtzi* (age \leq 24 h, from 2nd - 3rd brood) obtained from a cohort of 50 mother 169 daphnids. Two experiments on the chronic effects of MC-LR or MCs-containing 170 cyanobacterial extract (E) at a concentration of 1 μ g L⁻¹ of either MC-LR or total MCs 171 from extract on D. lumholtzi were implemented according to Dao et al. (2010) with 172 minor modifications. Briefly, in the first experiment, neonates (called F0 Daphnia) 173 were randomly selected and individually incubated for each treatment in 50 mL glass 174 beakers containing 20 mL of exposure solutions (toxin free medium, C; and medium 175

containing MC-LR, M). Each treatment had 10 replicates (n = 10). The daphnids were 176 fed with 140,000 cells of *Chlorella* per mL (approximately 1 mg C L⁻¹) and 20 µL of 177 YTC. The test media and food were renewed every second day during the 14 days of 178 179 exposure. The offspring from the F0 control (F1 Daphnia) were split in 2 groups: a) one was raised in control medium (CC) and b) one was raised in MC-LR containing 180 medium (CM). Similarly, the offspring from the MC-LR exposure were also split in 2 181 groups: a) raised in control medium (MC) and b) raised in medium containing MC-LR 182 (MM). The offspring from the second generation (called F2 Daphnia) were sampled 183 the same way and split and incubated in either control medium or MC-LR containing 184 medium, resulting in CCC, CCM, CMC, CMM, MCC, MCM, MMC, and MMM (Fig. 185 1a). The MeOH concentration in control was around 1 μ L L⁻¹, and this MeOH 186 concentration would not have side effects on D. lumholtzi because at the 187 concentration of 25 µL L⁻¹ it showed no effects on life traits of *D. lumholtzi* during 21 188 days of incubation (our unpublished data). 189

Similarly, in the second experiment, the purified MC-LR was replaced by MCs-190 containing cyanobacterial extract (E) at the concentration of 1 μ g MCs L⁻¹ (Fig 1b) 191 and *D. lumholtzi* were tested the same way as it was in the first experiment. The toxin 192 concentration of 1 μ g L⁻¹ was chosen because of three reasons: (i) the common 193 range of recorded dissolved MCs concentrations in natural water bodies $(0.1 - 10 \mu g)$ 194 L^{-1} , Chorus and Bartram, 1999), (ii) the WHO safety guideline value of MCs (1 µg L^{-1} 195 ¹) for drinking water supply (WHO, 1996), (iii) the range of cell bound MCs (0.73 – 196 1.37 μ g L⁻¹) used in a three generational exposure to *D. magna* by Gustafsson et al. 197 198 (2005).

199 2.3 Life history traits

Life history traits of the *Daphnia* including mortality, maturity age, and reproduction 200 were scored daily. Maturity age was defined as the day on which the first egg 201 appeared in the brood chamber of the Daphnia. Numbers of neonates per clutch of 202 each mother daphnid were checked daily, collected and counted for clutch size to 203 evaluate the fecundity. Fecundity was calculated as total accumulated offspring 204 produced by a mother daphnid. When the tests terminated, living mother daphnids 205 were immediately fixed with Lugol solution (Sournia, 1978) and body length was 206 measured from the eye to the base of tail spine of the mothers, using a microscope 207 (Olympus BX 51) coupled with a digital camera (DP 71). 208

209 2.4 Data analyses

Survivorship rate of *D. lumholtzi* was calculated as percentage of which a gap of 20% 210 or more between two treatments was considered as significant difference (APHA, 211 2005). For other response variables, we ran general linear models for generations 212 F0, F1, and F2, respectively. In these models, direct exposure (F0) and the main 213 effects and interactions of direct exposure (F1 or F2) and previous exposures (F0 214 and/or F1) on D. lumholtzi was included as fixed factor(s) for generations F0, F1 and 215 F2, respectively. For body length of the third generation, because the body length 216 could not be measured for one treatment, ECC, we could only run the main effects of 217 E-F0, E-F1, E-F2 and the interactions of E-F1 and E-F2). The normal distribution of 218 data was tested by Shapiro-Wilk and the homogeneity of variances was tested by 219 Levene's tests. When there was a main effects or interactions of present and 220 previous exposures on a response variable, we performed a Bonferroni correction to 221 correct for multiple testing (n = 1, 4 and 8 Duncan's posthoc tests for the F0, F1 and 222 F2 generations, respectively; see appendix S1). All analyses were performed with 223 STATISTICA 12 (StatSoft Inc., Tulsa, OK, United States). 224

226 **3. Results**

227 3.1 Effects of microcystins on generation F0

228 In F0 generation, survival, maturity age and fecundity did not differ between the control and MC-LR or cyanobacterial extract treatment (maturity age: MC-LR, $F_{1, 18}$ = 229 0.24, P = 0.63 and cyanobacterial extract, $F_{1, 18} = 0.001$, P = 0.99; the fecundity: MC-230 LR, $F_{1, 18} = 0.74$, P = 0.40 and cyanobacterial extract, $F_{1, 18} = 0.27$, P = 0.61, Fig. 2A-231 E, G-I). For body length, there were no statistical differences between the control and 232 MC-LR treatment ($F_{1, 17} = 1.93$, P = 0.18), but *D. lumholtzi* exposed to cyanobacterial 233 extract grew slightly larger 0.1 mm (equivalent to 5%) in exposed females compared 234 to the control ($F_{1, 17} = 8.16$, P = 0.011, Fig. 2F). 235

236 3.2 Effects of microcystins on generation F1

237 In this exposure, most of the F1 that had been first time exposed to either MC-LR or cyanobacterial extract (CM rsp CE) confirmed the results of the F0 generation (M rsp 238 E) concerning survival, maturity age, as well as body length for CM, and fecundity for 239 CE. However, some inconsistent responses occurred that body length decreased in 240 the CE treatment and fecundity in CM, both did not occur in the F0. Overall, 241 exposures to MC-LR and cyanobacterial extract for two continuous generations (MM, 242 EE, respectively) reduced survival, shortened body length, and lowered fecundity (all 243 P-corrected values< 0.05, Fig. 3A-B, E-J). Exposure to MC-LR did not impact on 244 maturity age (Fig 3C) while cyanobacterial extract increased it by 2 days, equivalent 245 to 43 % of the development time (Fig 3D). The body length of MC-LR exposed 246 individuals was only significantly shortened after two generations, but for those 247 exposed to cyanobacterial extract, their body length was shorter with each 248

generation (11 % shorter in CE and 26 % in EE treatments; Fig. 3E, F) despite this
was not observed for the extract exposure in F0.

There were no signals of recovery when F1 individuals from exposed mothers 251 252 were reared in toxin-free medium (Fig. 4). Specifically, parental exposure to MC-LR (MC) or cyanobacterial extract (EC) reduced survival, body length, and fecundity in 253 non exposed F1 to the same extent to what were observed in *D. lumholtzi* exposed to 254 MC-LR or cyanobacterial extract for two consecutive generations (MM and EE, 255 respectively, Fig 3; main effects of MC-LR-F0 and E-F0, Table S1 in Supplementary 256 1, Fig 4A-B, E-J). For example, when F1 individuals from exposed mothers were 257 reared in toxin free medium (MC and EC), the fecundities were still five times lower 258 than those whose mothers were cultured in clean medium (CC); this pattern was 259 comparable to what was observed in MM and EE to the control CC. MC-LR-exposed 260 mothers had no effect on maturity age in their offspring (Fig. 4C), but cyanobacterial 261 extract exposure of mothers caused a delayed maturity in their offspring (Fig. 4D). 262

263 **3.3 Effects of microcystins on generation F2**

In the third exposed generation (F2) occurred a tendency of a better survival in the MC-LR or cyanobacterial extract exposed individuals, in comparison to the two consecutive exposed generations before (F0 and F1) (Fig. 5A,B), indicating an increase in tolerance. The third consecutive generation of exposed *D. lumholtzi* survived better than the F2 but still not as good as after first exposure, and lower than the controls (CCC).

Exposures to MC-LR for two (CMM) and three (MMM) consecutive generations resulted in delayed maturation in F2 compared to those reared in control (CCC) or exposed to MC-LR only in F2 (CCM) (Fig. 5C), but differed from F1 that showed no difference in maturity age between CC and MM. *D. lumholtzi* exposed to

cyanobacterial extract, displayed the opposite of the inconsistent result between F1 274 and F2: EE in F1 was delayed in maturity, whereas CEE did not show a different 275 maturity age compared to CCC in F2. Delayed maturation only occurred in D. 276 277 lumholtzi exposed to cyanobacterial extract after three generations (Fig. 5D). Similar to the maturity age, the inconsistent result of body length was also observed for the 278 F0 and F2 generations (Figs. 2F, 5F). Body length of *D. lumholtzi* was similar among 279 the exposure to MC-LR for one (CCM) two (CMM) or three (MMM) generations (Fig. 280 5E). For cyanobacterial extract, body length of F2 individuals was shortened after 281 exposure for two (CEE) or three (EEE) generations (Fig. 5F). 282

Fecundity dropped significantly when F2 individuals were exposed to MC-LR 283 for the first time (CCM, Fig 5G), and resulted in three times lower fecundity. No 284 further fecundity reduction occurred in F2 whose mother (CMM) or grand-mother 285 (MMM) were also exposed to MC-LR (Fig. 5G). For cyanobacterial extract, the 286 fecundity decreased after animals being exposed for two (CEE) and three 287 generations. Statistically, the fecundity of CEE and EEE was significantly lower than 288 that of CCC. However, significant difference was not observed between fecundity of 289 CCC and CCE, and CEE and EEE (Fig. 5H). 290

Hence, in extract exposure the better survival of the 3^{rd} generation in comparison to the 2^{nd} was connected to a slower growth, which resulted in delayed maturity, and consequently a lower fecundity. It is important to note that the fecundity remained low or was even further decreased.

295 Similar to the comparison between the F0 and F1, most of the results focusing 296 on the third generation confirmed the previous observations, with some exceptions: 297 in the CMM treatment, maturity age was delayed, while it was neither significantly 298 different in F0 nor in F1. In contrast, the F2 CEE treated group did no longer suffer

from delayed maturity age, as did the EE treatment. Surprisingly, body length was no longer significantly reduced in the CMM, as it was in the MM treatment of F1; and similar for CCE versus CE treatment.

302 Some recovery occurred concerning survival (Fig. 6A, B) in the F2 generation offspring from F0/F1 exposed mothers to both MC-LR and cyanobacterial extracts. 303 after one or two generations in toxin free environment (control). However, delayed 304 maturity age of MC-LR exposed-F0 offspring was not recovered after one and two 305 generations reared in toxin free environment (Fig 6C), nor did it completely disappear 306 in offspring of cyanobacterial extract-exposed F0 (Fig 6D). The reduced fecundity 307 was not recovered when offspring from F0-exposed animals were reared in toxin free 308 environment for one (MMC and MME) or two consecutive generations (MCC and 309 ECC, Fig. 6G-H). With few exceptions (survival and maturity age after extract 310 exposure), the recovery did not increase after 2 generations in toxin free medium. 311 Despite the observed recovery for some life traits, fecundity remained low. 312

313

314 **4. Discussion**

315 4.1 Effects of microcystins on generation F0

An ecologically relevant concentration of cyanobacterial toxins, either in form of the 316 pure MC-LR or as cyanobacterial extract, resulted in mild effects on fitness-related 317 traits including survival, and the accumulated number of neonates produced per 318 female D. lumholtzi in our study. The survival of D. lumholtzi in our study is in 319 agreement with previous studies in which D. magna exposed to similar 320 cyanobacterial toxin concentrations (e.g. $3.5 - 5 \mu g$ MC-LR L⁻¹; Lürling and Van der 321 Grinten, 2003; Dao et al., 2010). Exposure to higher densities of toxic Microcystis 322 may result in strong mortality of many Daphnia species such as D. carinata, D. 323

magna, D. pulex, D. galeata, D. hyalina, D. pulicaria (e.g. Rohrlack et al., 2001; Jiang 324 et al., 2013a). Also D. lumholtzi suffered more than 60% mortality when fed with 325 mixtures of Scenedesmus and Microcystis for 10 days at a higher density or 326 concentration (1 mg DW L^{-1} of *Microcystis* equivalent to 280 μ g MC L^{-1}) than 327 equivalent to our study (Semvalo et al., 2009). Higher concentrations, such as 5 and 328 50 μ g L⁻¹ prolonged the developmental time and increased body length in *D. magna* 329 in a previous study (Dao et al., 2010). A longer body (0.1 mm, equivalent to 5%) was 330 surprisingly observed in *D. lumholtzi* after exposure to cyanobacterial extract. Despite 331 the significance of this result, the difference was in fact quite small and did not impact 332 on related life traits such as maturity age and fecundity (Fig. 2D, H). 333

334

335 4.2 Effects of microcystins on generation F1

Exposure to cyanobacterial toxins of the F1 generation whose mothers were reared 336 in toxin free medium confirmed most of the patterns of survival, maturity age, body 337 length (for MC-LR) and fecundity (for E) we found when exposing the F0 generation. 338 Some differences, however, occurred in body length of extract-exposed (CE) and the 339 fecundity of MC-LR exposed animals (CM). For the discrepancy concerning body 340 length, we cannot provide a sound explanation, however, the decrease of body 341 length in F1 was in line between the treatments (CC, CE, EE), which could hint to a 342 biological implication. The fecundity was declining with each MC-LR exposed 343 generation in the F1, evidencing the augmentation of the toxic impact. This could be 344 a consequence of a decreasing body length with the second continuously exposed 345 generation and is moreover connected to a reduction of the survival. Again, we could 346 not observe this in the treatment of the F0 for which we cannot provide a plausible 347 explanation at this point. Though MCs are very potently toxic to aquatic animals 348

(Stoner et al., 1989; Oberemm et al., 1999) other cyanobacterial metabolites from
extract might have generated the observed effects, but we didn't have the possibility
to determine in the current study.

352 Continuous exposure to both MC-LR and cyanobacterial extract resulted in aggravated effects on fitness-related traits of F1 generation. This was expected, as 353 during exposure to low concentrations of cyanobacterial toxins, while not lethal, 354 Daphnia would have to spend more energy on amending the damages. In our study 355 we used MC-LR and MCs from extract at the concentration within the range that had 356 been tested with D. magna (0.07 – 6 μ g L⁻¹), but much lower than used with D. 357 carinata (4.8 – 9.6 μ g L⁻¹). Previous investigations showed that MCs deregulate 358 many processes in cells via protein phosphatases inhibition (MacKintosh et al., 359 1990), enhance oxidative stress (Wiegand and Pflugmacher, 2005), and reduce the 360 ATP synthesis activity (Mikhailov et al., 2003), all of which to the expenditure of 361 energy to compensate. Exposed to MCs, Daphnia would spend energy for 362 physiological adjustments such as antioxidant and biotransformation enzyme 363 activities, toxin excretion and mechanisms of repairing damages that result in trade 364 offs concerning the energy for reproduction (Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012). 365 Consequently, while F0 mothers D. lumholtzi could secure their survival, it can be 366 assumed that the energy allocated to cope with toxic stress in F0 mothers 367 diminuished energetic resources and therewith the fitness of the F1 generation. This 368 can be interpreted as transmissive maternal effects (Marshall and Uller, 2007; Beyer 369 and Hambright, 2017). 370

Another important finding was that there was no signal of recovery when offspring from F0-exposed *D. lumholtzi* were reared in toxin free medium. These results are in agreement with previous studies (e.g., Gustafsson and Hansson, 2004;

Gustafsson et al., 2005). Dao et al. (2010) found a severe damage of embryos and 374 neonates inside brood chambers of mother *D. magna* exposed to MCs such as 375 decomposition, malformation and mortality. Probably, the neonate D. lumholtzi in the 376 377 current study were already negatively affected before released from their mothers' brood chambers. Presumably these offspring did not develop sufficient physiological 378 ability to detoxify the harmful compounds. D. lumholtzi showed less tolerance 379 development than *D. magna* in a previous study, in which seven days of preexposure 380 of the parental generation induced detoxification and energy allocation enzymes 381 enabling the offspring to better withstand MC-LR (Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012). In 382 that study, however, exposure of the mothers was clearly separated from exposure of 383 the offspring (Ortiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012), while in the current study, a continuous 384 exposure was chosen to mimic a more environmental relevant situation. Certain 385 temperate and sub-tropical daphnids such as *D. magna* and *D. carinata* however, 386 developed tolerance to toxins already in the next generation in similar experiments 387 after exposure to living cells of *Microcystis aeruginosa* containing around $5 - 7.5 \mu g$ 388 MCs L^{-1} (Gustafsson and Hansson, 2004; Jiang et al., 2013b; Lyu et al., 2016). 389 These species specificities may be closely linked to the shift of zooplankton during 390 cyanobacterial blooms with the decrease of cladoceran abundance in temperate 391 water bodies (Hansson et al., 2007). Further in situ investigations on dynamics of 392 cyanobacterial biomass, toxins and cladoceran density in tropical freshwaters are 393 suggested. 394

395

4.3 Direct and transgenerational effects of microcystins on generation F2

In order to truly evaluate the transgenerational effects of contaminants or toxins on species like *Daphnia* it is important to expose them to these stressors for at least

three generations (reviewed in Brander et al. 2017). So far, Gustafsson et al. (2005) 399 was the only study investigating impacts of toxic *Microcystis* on maturity ages, and 400 fecundity of the temperate species D. magna for 3 consecutive generations. They 401 402 evidenced increased fitness of *D. magna* already starting in the second generation and no difference between the second and third generation (Gustafsson et al. 2005). 403 The authors used a *D. magna* clone isolated from a pond without cyanobacterial 404 blooms and preadapted for five months prior to their experiment. Tolerance of D. 405 magna to toxic Microcystis is clone specific (Gustafsson and Hansson, 2004). The D. 406 lumholtzi specimen used in our study originated as well from a pond without 407 cvanobacterial bloom but were cultivated in the laboratory for four years. While we do 408 not rule out a possibility for a genetic drift, the local adaptation to toxins from 409 cyabobacteria would be minor and indeed they showed a high sensitivity to both MC-410 LR and extract at low concentration $(1 \mu q L^{-1})$. In our study, the second continuously 411 exposed D. lumholtzi generation (F1) was more vulnerable to MC-LR and MCs, while 412 there was visible increase of survival in the third continuously exposed generation 413 (F2). However, all other fitness-related traits were still below the control levels, hence 414 a complete tolerance development was not achieved. The better survival is, however, 415 416 to the expense of a later maturity in both treatments, which in turn is connected to a decreased body length in the extract exposure and consequently to decreased 417 fecundity in both exposure scenarios. 418

It has been explained that the increased survival in offspring generations derives from multiple factors: genetic selection, transgenerational or developmental plasticity or maternal effects via epigenetics or provisioning (Brander et al., 2017). In our study, the mortality was low therefore the decreased survival in F1 was unlikely a result of genetic selection or stimulation as proposed by Gustafsson et al. (2005). It

could rather be a result of less energy allocated to the offspring or the adverse 424 effects of MCs during brood development (Dao et al. 2010) or both mechanisms. 425 Similarily, Microcystis aeruginosa decreased survival and fecundity of the rotifer 426 427 Brachionus calyciflorus probably due to constraints on the ability to up-regulate detoxifying enzymes or to compensate for the nutritional inadequacy, or both (Bever 428 and Hambright, 2017). Hence, toxic cyanobacterial biomass correlates negatively via 429 nutritional and toxin effects with cladoceran density (Ferrão-Filho et al., 2002; 430 Hansson et al., 2007). Bigger cladocerans were apparently more affected because 431 they unselectively ingested toxic cyanobacteria while smaller cladocerans seemed to 432 indirectly benefit, being more selective feeding groups. Consequently, toxic 433 cyanobacteria induce a shift in zooplankton size and community composition in 434 temperate inland waters (Hansson et al., 2007). 435

The reduced fecundity as total offspring was probably a result of delayed maturity age, despite it did not occur in all the generations and with some discrepancies between the generations. Start of reproduction is, however, a major determinant of the reproductive output in copepod species, *Temora longicornis* (e.g. Sichlau and Kiørboe, 2011), and cladoceran species, *D. magna* (Gustafsson et al., 2005; Dao et al., 2010). Contrasting to the F1 generation, the body length was due to the Bonferroni correction no longer significantly reduced in F2.

Importantly, the high mortality in F1 and the tendency of increased survival in F2 suggest that maternal effects together with transgenerational, or developmental plasticity may play a role in the slightly increased tolerance of *D. lumholtzi* to MCs and cyanobacterial extracts. Whatever mechanisms, the consistent, slight increased survival of *D. lumholtzi* to toxin in both forms: pure toxin and cyanobacterial extract is especially important to explain the co-existence of *D. lumholtzi* with cyanobacteria and MCs in tropical lakes. Even though F2 *D. lumholtzi* developed higher tolerance,
the still lower fecundity, however, possibly limits population survival in tropic lakes
with continuous cyanobacterial blooms if the following generations don't evolve a
better tolerance.

Our study revealed severe impairment of dissolved MCs at already 1 μ g L⁻¹ on 453 D. lumholtzi that may provide a mechanistic understanding to explain the low density 454 of *D. lumholtzi* in tropical lakes and reservoirs. It is also important to note that the 455 MC concentration of 1 μ g L⁻¹ is considered to be safe for drinking water for human 456 beings (WHO, 1996) while it has impairments on D. lumholtzi until at least the third 457 generation of this tropical Daphnia species. Further experiments are needed to 458 reveal differences between clones, and between populations of different exposure 459 and acclimation history. 460

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462 **4.4 Conclusions**

Dissolved MCs at low concentration (1 μ g L⁻¹) did not impact on life history traits of 463 F0 D. lumholtzi. Instead, continuously toxin exposure impaired the survivorship, 464 delayed maturation, and reproduction of the daphnids in F1 and F2 generations. The 465 trend of slightly recovery survival in F2 generation only partly support our first 466 hypothesis of an increased tolerance to ecologically relevant concentrations of MCs 467 within two generations. Our finding is controversial to previous investigations with 468 temperate and sub-tropical Daphnia species and suggests that adaptive maternal 469 effects are not applicable to all species of this genus. D. lumholtzi needed at least 2 470 consecutively exposed generations before signs of tolerance development appeared. 471 Only survival was moderately improved but not completely recovered when the 472 neonates from toxin experienced mother daphnids were raised in clean medium for 473

two generations. These results partly proved our second hypothesis of recovery 474 capacity of *D. lumholtizi* after three generations. Longer exposure duration is 475 therefore highly recommended to explicitly find out how many generations a tropical 476 477 daphinid like *D. lumholtizi* needs to adapt to low concentrations of cyanobacterial toxins. Together with the study by Beyer and Hambright (2017), our study suggests 478 that mechanisms of adaptation to stress depend on the nature of the stressor, the 479 species and clone/population and most important the exposure history (including 480 their ancestors) of the speciemen that are investigated. This challenges the 481 ecotoxicologists to identify which contaminants and zooplankton species would be 482 expected to rapidly increase in tolerance (e.g. Krause et al., 2017). Identifying this 483 requires comprehensive studies with different groups of zooplankton, different 484 classes of toxins and contaminants with multiple generations exposure durations, but 485 it would benefit conservation plans by identifying which are the most vulnerable 486 species in the tropical lakes and resevoirs. Furthermore, investigations on the 487 biochemical responses of *D. lumholtzi* exposed to MCs are suggested to unravel 488 underlying physiological mechanisms. Field monitoring on relation between 489 cladoceran community and MCs or cyanobacteria in tropical standing waters is 490 essential too. 491

492

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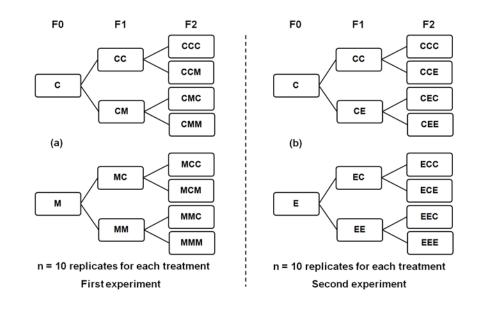
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652 Figure legends



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Fig. 1. The experimental set up. C, control treatment; M, exposure solutions containing 1 μ g L⁻¹ of MC-LR; E, exposure solutions containing 1 μ g L⁻¹ of MCs from cyanobacterial extract. F0, F1 and F2 are the first, second and third generation of the *D. lumholtzi*, respectively.

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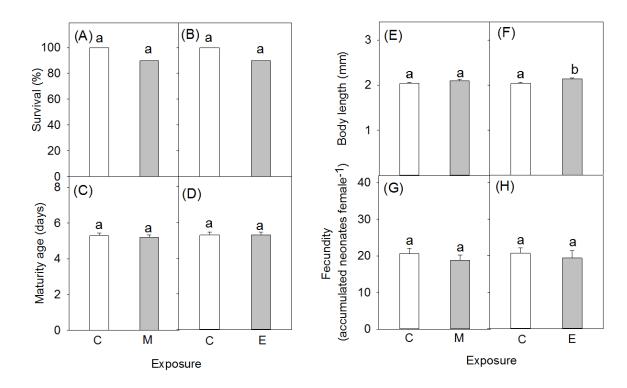


Fig. 2. Means + 1 SE of survival (A, B), maturity age (C, D), body length (E, F), and fecundity (G, H) of *Daphnia lumholtzi* F0 generation in response to the MC-LR (M) and cyanobacterial extract (E). Letters (a, b) on the bars indicate significant difference among the exposures by Duncan's posthoc tests (p < 0.05).

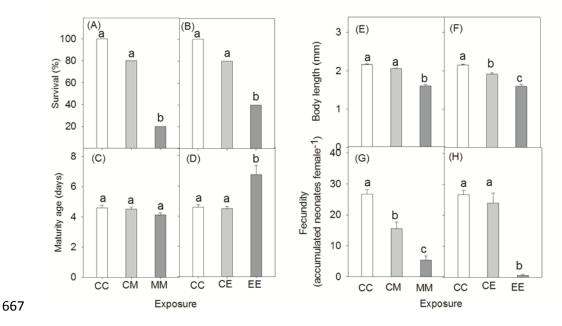
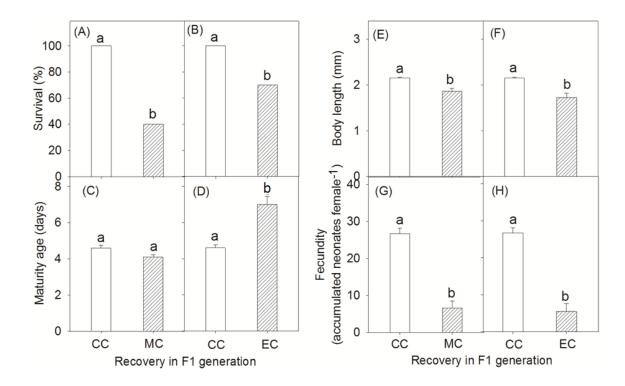


Fig. 3. Means + 1 SE of survival (A, B), maturity age (C, D), body length (E, F), and fecundity (G, H) of *Daphnia lumholtzi* F1 generation in response to exposures to the MC-LR and cyanobacterial extract for one (CM or CE) and two (MM or EE) consecutive generations. Letters (a, b, c) indicate significant difference among the exposures by Duncan's posthoc tests (p < 0.05). Abbreviation as in Fig. 1.



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Fig. 4. Means + 1 SE of survival (A, B), maturity age (C, D), body length (E, F), and fecundity (G, H) of non-exposed F1 *Daphnia lumholtzi* after exposure of the F0 to MC-LR and cyanobacterial extract. Letters (a, b) on the bars indicate significant difference between the recovery of the F1 from non-exposed F0 and F1 from exposed F0 by Duncan's posthoc tests (p < 0.05). Abbreviation as in Fig. 1.

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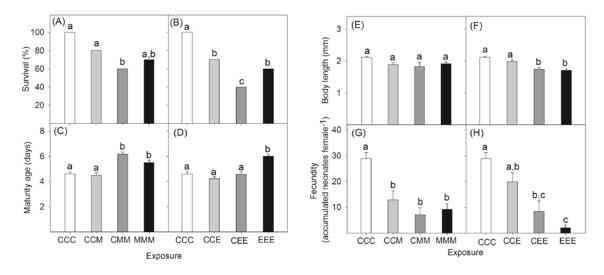


Fig. 5. Means + 1 SE of survival (A, B), maturity age (C, D), body length (E, F), and fecundity (G, H) of *Daphnia lumholtzi* after one, two and three consecutive generational exposure to MC-LR or MCs from cyanobacterial extract. Letters (a, b, c) on the bars indicate significant difference among the exposures by Duncan's posthoc tests (p < 0.05). Abbreviation as in Fig. 1.

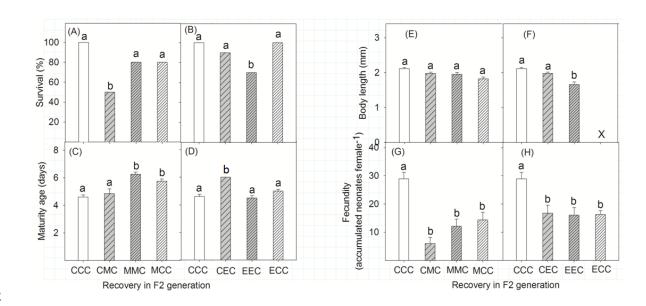




Fig. 6. Recovery capacity of *Daphnia lumholtzi* in generation F2 after one or two generations reared in toxin free medium. Letters (a, b) on the bars indicate significant difference among the treatments by Duncan's posthoc tests (p < 0.05). The body length of the group ECC could not be measured. Abbreviation as in Fig. 1.