Combined salinity and acidity stressors alter *Daphnia magna* population growth and

structure under severe absence of photoperiod

Mouhammad Shadi Khudr[1*], Samuel Alexander Purkiss[1*], Reinmar Hager[1]

[1] Faculty of Biology, Medicine and Health, Manchester Academic Health Science Centre, The

University of Manchester, Michael Smith Building, M13 9PT, Manchester, UK

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

Running title: Combined physico-chemical stress affects *Daphnia* fitness

Corresponding author   Reinmar Hager   Reinmar.Hager@manchester.ac.uk

Corresponding author   Mouhammad Shadi Khudr   scholia_1@tutanota.com

ms.khudr@manchester.ac.uk

Statement of contribution

All authors wrote the article. **MSK** conceived and designed the experiments, performed the
experiments, analysed the data, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the
paper, enriched and approved the final draft. **SAP** contributed to the extension of the concept of the
experiment, performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final
draft. **RH** authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.

Abstract

Although natural and anthropogenic influences affect freshwater ecosystems globally at unprecedented levels, the effects of co-occurring physico-chemical stress on zooplankton phenotypic plasticity under extreme conditions remain understudied.

We exposed a laboratory-raised clonal population of *Daphnia magna* to different stress levels of acidity and salinity undergoing complete constant light over 30 days. Overall, population size and age structure at day 10 considerably differed between specific stress contexts. All populations expanded compared to the starting population on day 1. On day 30, overall, population size increased but showed significant differences between treatment groups. Surprisingly, *Daphnia* performed better under combined stress of salinity and acidity than under acidity alone as the extra salinity in the medium may have counterbalanced sodium loss caused by lower pH. Our results reveal a considerable degree of differential reproductive and ontogenetic plasticity in response to combined stressors under disrupted photoperiod. Exposure to constant light led to increased population size, which may be a result of supercharged ion regulation that enables zooplankton to survive better under specific levels of extreme environmental change and adverse chemical stress. Our findings merit further molecular investigation of phenotypic plasticity of the congeners across severe combined stress conditions.

Introduction

Co-occurring chemical stressors

Natural and anthropogenic influences on aquatic ecosystems have increased the effects and occurrences of salinisation and acidification of freshwater ecosystems in a number of ways including seawater intrusions, mining, urbanisation and agricultural as well as industrial processes[1-5]. Daphnids are keystone cladoceran zooplankton and important models in the study of environmental stress and biodiversity in aquatic ecosystems[6]. Daphnids produce genetically identical daughters under temperate conditions through parthenogenesis. The genome of *Daphnia* may express different phenotypes in reaction to different environmental conditions; a phenomenon referred to as phenotypic plasticity[7]. Rapid responses to environmental stressors, such as ionic and osmotic regulation[8], which may be mediated by transgenerational epigenetic effects[9-10], are associated with high energetic costs[2,11], and may enable *Daphnia* to occupy a wider niche range compared to other freshwater inhabitants[12]. However, low pH levels have been shown to reduce zooplankton species richness and alter the structure of cladoceran populations[13,14], leading to diminished survival and growth of *D. magna* below pH 5[15]. For instance, *Daphnia* species are less abundant in acidified lakes compared to other arthropods (*e.g.*, calanoid copepods and insects), which may, therefore, dominate the ecosystem instead of *Daphnia*[2,16].

Like acidification, salinisation of aquatic habitats presents a key stressor of aquatic life. Some species, such as *Daphnia exilis* (Herrick) and *Daphnia pulex* (Leydig), can maintain a positive and constant osmolality difference with the environment at salinities up to 6-8 gL^{-1} via osmoregulation[12]. In particular, *D. magna* (Straus) is a generalist whose niche is defined by a much higher range of salinity tolerance than other aquatic *Daphnia* species. Populations of *D. magna* have been documented to inhabit both fresh and slightly salty waters[17], with strong evidence of their ability to adjust ion regulation (osmoregulation and osmoconformance) to cope with various levels of salinity[18]. This spans fresh to brackish waters, up to 10 gL^{-1} salinity[19], with the upper limit of their tolerance depending on population life history and within-species genetic variation[17,20, 21].

A further ecological challenge arises when changes in salinity may become coupled with water acidification[22] due to natural and anthropogenic causes leading to increasing levels of salinity and varying levels of acidity in many zooplankton habitats and thus increasingly creating adverse conditions for these organisms[22]. Osmoregulation in *Daphnia* is pH dependent as low pH is thought to inhibit the uptake and increase the loss of sodium much as it does in freshwater fish[21,22]. The negative effects of increased salinisation and acidification on freshwater zooplankton result from impairing the organism's osmoregulatory system; a compromised ion-regulation can lead to higher sensitivity to low pH, and the latter may alter tolerance to lethal and sub-lethal levels of salinity and

vice versa[22]. This highlights the need to investigate the effects of co-occurring physical and
chemical stressors on keystone species, such as *D. magna*, in freshwater ecosystems[23].

Lack of photoperiod as a novel environmental challenge

The duration and intensity of light exposure can have a strong influence on many organisms and
research on zooplankton has studied effects on diapause[24,25]; egg hatching[26], circadian clock, diel
vertical migration[27] and ontogenesis[28] in response to photoperiod and light quantity[29]. Somewhat
surprisingly then, investigations of the effect of exposure to elevated light at night, constant light, or
lack of light, on plastic responses of zooplankton in general, and *D. magna* in particular, have been
overlooked for decades except for the area of diapause and sexual morph production[25], and
alteration of phototaxis[30]. The negative effects of too little or too much light extend beyond the
direct effect on circadian rhythms. Exposure to complete darkness for 7 days has been reported to
significantly reduced the survival of *Daphnia parvula* compared to exposure to 14:10 light/dark
cycle by a mechanism that is not yet completely understood[31]. On the other end of the spectrum,
Meyer & Sullivan (2013) demonstrated that ecological light pollution through increased night
lighting modifies community composition, structure, and characteristics and thus ecosystem
functioning via alteration of nutrient exchange and aquatic–terrestrial fluxes of invertebrates[32].
These altered fluxes may have cascading effects through riparian and aquatic food webs[33,34].
However, although a number of studies endeavoured to shed light on the effects of light at night on
the physiology, behaviour, growth and development, and fitness of a range of aquatic
organisms[34-37], the effect of lack of photoperiod on the phenotype of keystone zooplankton is
surprisingly poorly studied. This also includes the effects of existing in waters trapped underground
or in caves following storms, tsunamis, and floods[38-41], or in areas close to the earth's polar
circles[36,42] that experience both extended periods of Siberian and Nordic nights or midnight sun
(*e.g.,*[43]), while being subject to natural and man-made environmental changes. To date, daphnid
responses to the implications of ecosystem vulnerability to salinisation and acidification subject to
disrupted photoperiod remains largely unexplored.

These patterns and types of complex physico-chemical stress are predicted to lead to a
reduction in biodiversity, especially when accompanied by upsetting the thermal regimes in aquatic
ecosystems because of climate change and environment modification (*e.g.,* arboreal and riparian
vegetation alteration)[34,44,45]. There is a significant gap in current knowledge about how aquatic
organisms in general, and zooplankton of economic importance in particular, would respond, in
terms of reproductions and development, to the absence of photoperiod, let alone the combination
of such physical stress with composite chemical stress (salinisation and acidification of water).

In this work, we aimed to investigate phenotypic plasticity of a clone of *D. magna* under

severe conditions of complex abiotic stress as we sought to answer the following main question:

How do daphnid reproductive success and age structure differ across varying levels of salinity and

acidity, and their combinations, over a 30-day period of exposure to constant light?

Materials and Methods

Model organism

The *D. magna* (Straus) clonal population used in this experiment was established from a single

female sampled from a population purchased from Sciento©, Manchester UK. The resulting clonal

population was reared in a growth chamber, at the Faculty of Biology, Medicine and Health, The

University of Manchester, under a 16h:8h light/dark cycle at 23°C. Under these conditions,

daphnids reproduce asexually by parthenogenesis resulting in a female-only population. The ability

to endure a range of abiotic stressors or sensitivity to contaminants made daphnids a key model to

study tolerance[2,46], phenotypic plasticity[47], and toxicity in aquatic environments[48]. Feeding occurred

every two days by injecting a diet mix into the medium. The diet consisted of 1ml of 'Allinson

dried active yeast' (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), purchased from a local store, and 2ml of alga

Scenedesmus quadricauda (sourced from Sciento ©, Manchester UK), maintained and quantified in

the lab, in Artificial *Daphnia* Medium (ADaM), *sensu* Ebert (2013)[49], at pH ~7 and 0.33 gL^{-1}

salinity. One litre of ADaM consists of 0.33 g sea salt, 2.3 ml CaCl$_2$ x 2H$_2$O (117.6 gL^{-1}), 2.2 ml

NaHCO$_3$ (2.52 gL^{-1}), and SeO$_2$ (0.007 gL^{-1}), all dissolved and homogenised in ultra-pure deionised

Milli-Q water.

Experimental design of severe physico-chemical stress

Daphnid population size (total number of daphnids in the beaker at each census, as a proxy of

reproductive success) and the proportion of juveniles relative to the total population in the beaker

per census (age structure, hereafter) were examined. Adults were identified through observing the

brood pouches. The experimental conditions were based on extensive pilot studies during which we

established different levels of pH and salinity (chemical stress) that were lethal and sub-lethal to our

clone of *D. magna*[47]. The pH treatment levels were 5, 5.5 and 6 and the salinity treatment levels

(plus the above-mentioned ADaM salinity) were 1.33, 3.33, and 6.33 gL^{-1}. The investigation of

salinity and/or acidity stressors, as detailed below, was done in two separate experiments of

exposure to physical stress, *i.e.,* lack of photoperiod (constant light).

We used Sigma Aldrich (USA) 'sea salts', and distilled acetic acid (Sarson's ©) procured from

a local supplier. To lower the pH in the treatment conditions the acetic acid was added drop-wise to

the medium in the beaker and measured continuously using a 'Mettler Toledo™ FE20 FiveEasy™ benchtop pH meter' until the desired pH was reached. Here, acetic acid provided a practical way of acidifying the volume of water in question. Acetic acid can have extensive effects on the metabolism of living organisms and it can be found in nature and also close to anthropogenic activity such as bioethanol industry[50], pond preparation[51], as a product of anaerobic activity associated with biological decay[52], waste decomposition and processing[53], biodegradation of petroleum and hydrocarbon contaminants[54,55], ocean water, oilfield waters, and both cloud and rain waters[56-60]. Furthermore, adjusting water pH using vinegar is applied in studies on the effects of complex natural organic acids on larval stages of animals (*e.g.,* amphibians[61]). Additionally, the application of vinegar is commonplace in fish farming to neutralise water alkalinity or increase water acidity, owing to proton donation into the aqueous solution ($CH3COOH_{(aq)} \rightleftharpoons CH3COO^-_{(aq)} + H^+$). The salinity conditions were achieved by dissolving the correct weight of sea salts in the beaker using a magnetic stirrer and salinity levels were regularly measured using a conductive probe. All experimental beakers were kept in a dedicated growth chamber at 23°C under constant light (24h) regime (lack of photoperiod).

We randomly selected 329 age-synchronised early instars from the stock clone culture reared in the above-mentioned optimal conditions for 20 generations, and allocated from this population 7 instars to 9 different treatment groups (with 5 replicates each) plus a control (the standard ADaM under 24h:0h light/dark cycle, salinity of 0.33 gL^{-1}, and pH = ~7). The treatment groups were as follows: *Salinity1, Salinity2, Salinity3, Acidity1, Acidity2, Acidity3, Salinity1 & Acidity1, Salinity2 & Acidity2, Salinity3 & Acidity3*). Our pilot study showed that survival was extremely low under such severe experimental conditions as the exposed *Daphnia* clone was not trained/acclimated prior to the exposure. This was done to imitate abrupt as well as extreme environmental change. as provision of food every other day irrespective of animal densities was purposed to take the environmental challenge of the complex physico-chemical stress to the utmost degree beyond the suboptimal, in test of the plasticity of a proportion of the daphnid clone that would manage to wedge, in the Darwinian sense, through adversity into survival and possible subsequent replication.

By Day 10 of the experiment, due to high mortality under severe conditions, only 26 beakers contained live populations from the following treatment groups: *Salinity1* [1.33 gL^{-1}, 3 replicates], *Salinity2* [3.33 gL^{-1}, 3 replicates], *Salinity3* [6.33 gL^{-1}, 2 replicates], *Acidity1* [pH 6, 3 replicates], *Acidity2* [pH 5.5, 3 replicates], *Acidity3* [pH 5, 2 replicates], *Salinity1 & Acidity1* [3 replicates], *Salinity2 & Acidity2* [3 replicates], and *Salinity3 & Acidity3* [2 replicates]) plus the control. The

beakers (12.5 cm x 10 cm x 10 cm) were cuboid and transparent, each filled with 600 ml of adjusted ADaM. We randomised the positions of the beakers within the growth chamber upon every feeding time. To refresh ADaM, a 75% media change and calibration were conducted weekly because refreshing more often would risk making the severe conditions more hospitable.

Daylight LED bulbs (2800 K Warmwhite 230VAC [NorthLight] purchased from Clas Ohlson ©, Manchester, UK) were used and the light in the growth chamber was surrounding all sides except the base of each beaker, which was placed on a white base. The bulb is a daylight mimic emitting warm soft yellowish light of more than 1100 lumens, which is equivalent to a typical overcast midday in the UK and northern Europe; see also Supplementary Information *Note 1*.

Analysis of *Daphnia* traits

All statistical analyses were conducted in R[62] via RStudio[63]. The data were collected on Day 10 and Day 30. A generalised mixed effects model (GLMM), family 'Poisson', model optimiser 'bobyqa'[64], R packages 'lme4'[65], was applied to analyse daphnid population size (as defined above) throughout the experiment duration (GLMM 1). There were two censuses. The census (count day) was randomised in the model. This was followed by a posteriori test (Tukey), R package 'multcomp'[66], to examine multiple pairwise comparisons of the stressors in question. The explanatory variable (fixed effects) was stressor (salinity, acidity, salinity & acidity) under 24h light comprising the following levels: baseline = the control, *Salinity1* was 1.33 gL^{-1}, *Salinity2* was 3.33 gL^{-1}, and *Salinity3* was 6.33 gL^{-1}; *Acidity1* was pH 6, *Acidity2* was pH 5.5, and *Acidity3* was pH 5; *Salinity1 & Acidity1*, *Salinity2 & Acidity2*, and *Salinity3 & Acidity3*. Due to high mortality over time, several treatment combinations and/or replicates were omitted from the analysis. In other words, treatments/replicates without *Daphnia* on Day10 were excluded.

Another model (GLMM 2) was used to analyse age structure per census (as defined above) with the same set up as aforementioned. Besides the model summaries, the main effects of both models are respectively shown via analysis of deviance by using the Anova (Type II) command in R, package 'car'[67]. We note that conducting single analyses of acidity and salinity produced the same pattern of the results outcome retrieved from the approach specified above and thus the single stressor analyses are not presented herein.

Results and Discussion

Lack of photoperiod (constant light, 24h), acidity and/or salinity

Daphnia population size

Under constant light, 24h, *Daphnia* population size was significantly affected by overall physico-chemical stress treatment ($X^2_{(9,39)}$ = 1117.3, P <0.0001), and specifically by each of the stress levels as follows: *Salinity1* (P < 0.0001), *Salinity2* (P < 0.0001), *Salinity3* (P = 0.03), *Acidity1* (P < 0.0001), *Acidity2* (P < 0.0001), Acidity3 (P < 0.0001), *Salinity1 & Acidity1* (P < 0.0001), *Salinity2 & Acidity2* (P = 0.047), *Salinity3 & Acidity3* (P < 0.0001), (Fig 1); there were 16 daphnids in the control on Day 10 that increased to 328 daphnids on Day 30 (note for reference that under ideal culture conditions of 16:8 light/dark cycle and optimal ADaM the *Daphnia* clone reached from a starting population of 7 instars a population of 35 daphnids on Day 10 increasing to 119 daphnids on Day 30), (Table 1) and Supplementary Information (Tables S1-S3).

Table 1. Matrix of multiple pairwise comparisons, *Daphnia* population size under physico-chemical stress. Stress contrasts of the effects of salinity, acidity, and their combination in constant light are presented in a matrix as per the results of the posteriori Tukey test, following GLMM1 (testing *Daphnia* population size [total numbers in the beaker] as specified in the main text Methods). Ctrl (the control, [constant light, 24h day:0h night], salinity of 0.33 gL⁻¹, and pH = ~7), *Salinity1* = 1.33 gL⁻¹, *Salinity2* = 3.33 gL⁻¹, and *Salinity3* = 6.33 gL⁻¹; *Acidity1* (pH = 6), *Acidity2* (pH = 5.5), and *Acidity3* (pH = 5). Only significant results are shown; *ns* refers to non-significance; Sal = Salinity, Acid = Acidity, Sal & Acid = Salinity & Acidity, Light only = constant light without chemical stress, comparable paired labels have matching colour-backgrounds, the orange rectangle label is comparable with all the other labels, the grey rectangles are filling blocks.

			Light only (Control)	Acid1	Acid2				
		Acid3	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001				
		Acid2	P<0.001	P<0.001					
		Acid1	P<0.001						
Sal2	*Sal1*		Light only (Control)	*Acid1*	*Acid2*	*Acid3*	*Sal1 & Acid1*	*Sal2 & Acid2*	*Sal3 & Acid3*
ns		*Sal1*	P<0.001	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	P<0.001
	ns	*Sal2*	P<0.001	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	P<0.001
P<0.001	P<0.001	*Sal3*	ns	P<0.001	P<0.001	P<0.001	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001
		Sal1 & Acid1	P<0.001	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001			
		Sal2 & Acid2	ns	P<0.001	P<0.001	P<0.001	P<0.001		
		Sal3 & Acid3	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	ns	P<0.001	P<0.001	

Compared to Day 1, overall population sizes were considerably larger on Day 10 under stress combinations; notable examples of average percentage of increase/decrease were as follows: *Salinity1* (495% larger population), *Salinity3* (279% larger); *Acidity1* (176% larger), *Acidity2* (5% smaller); *Salinity1 & Acidity1* (362% larger); *Salinity2 & Acidity2* (67% larger), (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S3). Comparing population sizes on Day 30 to Day 10 reveals that daphnid population size dramatically increased over time with a variable magnitude contingent on the population ability to respond to different stress scenarios. The highest increases displayed under combined stress was *Salinity2 & Acidity2* (2400% larger), followed by *Acidity2* (1865% larger), *Acidity3* (1030% larger) and *Salinity2* (965% larger). By contrast, the smallest increases were seen under *Salinity1* (144% larger) and *Acidity1* (171% larger). The highest level of combined stress, *Salinity3 & Acidity3*, corresponded with a remarkable 352% larger population size. Further, compared to the population at Day 1, the maximal population size, by Day 30, was reached in the combined stress (*Salinity2 & Acidity2*) (4067% larger), and (3764% larger) in *Salinity3*, while the minimal population increase, by Day 30, was observed under *Acidity1* (648% larger) then *Salinity3 & Acidity3* (857% larger), Supplementary Information (Table S3).

In the short run, acidity stress had a clear negative impact on *Daphnia* population size markedly in *Acidity3* (Fig 1). The poor performance up to Day 10 is attributable to what is known as pH shock[68] characterised by rapid harmful change in acidity from the stock culture's semi-neutral pH to the severe experimental acidic conditions. The pH levels of the current study strongly limited *Daphnia* reproductive success and resulted in delayed development to maturity (see age structure below). But, *Daphnia* were able to acclimate to a degree to acidity as the population showed variable resilience over time. By Day 30, a largely juvenile population emphatically recovered in

Acidity3; *Daphnia* numbers burgeoned in *Acidity2* (mostly juvenile population), whilst the margins of population growth and juvenility were comparatively smaller in *Acidity1* (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S3). This indicates that the surviving daphnids were more reproductive at pH 5.5 (*Acidity2*) over time than at pH 6 (*Acidity1*) and pH 5 (*Acidity3*). Our findings are in line with the observations documented by Weber & Pirow (2009) in *Daphnia pulex*, reporting that tolerance and acclimation, particularly at pH 5.5, can be high and plausibly linked to an induced compensatory active ion transport, owing to *Daphnia*'s ability to lower sodium efflux and increase its influx[2]. It has been shown that in the long run, exposure to pH 5.5 may correspond with better survival and reproduction rates than exposure to pH 5, as values less than 5 can lead to extinction[15].

Low pH levels are known to reduce survival and growth in *D. magna* due to sodium deficiency[21,22], a sharp decline in respiratory rates, oxygen uptake depression, and impairment of ion-regulation[15,69]. On the one hand, levels of free-form carbon dioxide (CO_2) in the surroundings of *Daphnia* concomitantly increase in acidified freshwater, *e.g*., due to acid spills and acid rain akin to the pH levels tested in this work. At pH 6 the level of free-form CO_2 is usually more than 60% and at pH 4 this rises to 100%[69]. As such, an external increase in water acidity accompanied by abundant CO_2 will disturb the internal acid-base balance in *Daphnia;* a degree of haemolymph acidosis that occurs interdependently with decreased CO_2 diffusion through the gills leading to impeded oxygenation[2], in accordance with the Bohr effect[69]. In fact, CO2-dependent freshwater acidification is a major new challenge for zooplankton; shown by Weiss et al. (2018) to lead to impairment of *Daphnia* detection of predators with consequences for the entire freshwater ecosystem[70]. Those impacts may worsen when 'acidified' saltwater intrudes the land by rising sea levels[71,72].

On the other hand, sodium uptake and osmoregulation in *Daphnia* becomes rapidly destabilised and compromised in acidified water[2,73,74]. The consequence of the above complex interdependence for the functioning of the organism will be energetically costly due to hyper-metabolism caused by increased stress[2]. Daphnids, therefore, may survive the acidity stress dependent on their acidity sensitivity/tolerance[2,74,75]. In sum, daphnid acid-sensitivity and shortage of ambient calcium in acidified water[76] with subsequent sodium deficit[2], oxidative stress, increased maintenance under stress[8], and the resulting costly bioenergetics[2,11] were the likely reasons behind the poor daphnid performance under the acidity levels of the current work. These findings contribute to our understanding of the damaging effects of low pH levels on aquatic systems that are presently vulnerable to constant change worldwide[5,45]. Like changes in ion concentration in water[5,77], freshwater acidification is caused by multiple natural and anthropogenic, direct and

indirect, short- and long-term causes[78-80], *e.g.,* acid rain[81] alongside with organic acids from land

catchments and localise acid deposition[78], pond draining[82] and drainage waters particularly in areas

with soils originated from granite or weathering-resistant mineral aggregates[77,83], atmospheric and

soil deposition of sulphur[78,80,84], land use and management policies[80,83], afforestation[80] and

mobilisation of acid anions, via heavy rain, following forest fires and draughts[80,85-87], use of

nitrogen-based fertilisers[88], melt of snow rich in sulphuric and nitric compounds[81,83,84], and

increased levels of carbon dioxide and pCO_2 in water[70,89,90]. Indeed, water acidification are

projected to lead to alarming ecological consequences with time[70-72,75,89-91].

For each level of comparison, the differences in population sizes between salinity and

acidity stressors were large but then decreased over time; for the contrast *Salinity2 vs Acidity2* the

margin of difference between Day 10 (55% larger in salinity) and Day 30 (16% smaller in salinity)

is nearly twofold, whilst the difference margin for the contrasts *Salinity1 vs Acidity1* or *Salinity3 vs*

Acidity3 between Day10 and Day 30 is evidently smaller, Supplementary Information (Table S4).

Overall, *Daphnia* population size was notably larger under each level of salinity stress compared to

acidity (Day 10: 116%, 55%, and 430%, respectively) and on Day 30 (94%, 16%, and 379%,

respectively). Thus, it is clear that salinity was far less damaging to the population than acidity. This

relates to halotolerance in *D. magna*[92] which may have contributed to resilience to the severity of

salinity over time in this experiment, but acute and elevated levels of salinity can be detrimental to

Daphnia[92] as freshwater salinisation significantly contributes to biodiversity loss and alteration of

ecosystem functioning[93,94].

Both above and below ground freshwater resources are threatened around the globe by

elevated levels of salinity within and away from coastal regions due to primary (natural) and

secondary (anthropogenic) causes[95]. This includes runoff associated with road-treating salts with

consequent groundwater salinisation[93,96], hydrological alterations of waterways and changes in

water quality[4,97,98], mining and agriculture[4], and movement of saltwater inland following storm

surges, flash floods, rising sea level, and tsunamis[38-41]. For example, the consequences of tsunamis

may extend to include the salinisation of coastal/inland fresh surface water, groundwater, and

aquifers by means of intrusion, infiltration, and inundation[39,99,100]. It should be noted that our

knowledge of both ecosystem and organism responses to alterations of water ionic quality and

strength is not comprehensive [4,101], although increased salt toxicity is predicted to intensify[4,102,103].

Under normal photoperiods, this can be attributed to osmotic stress and ion cytotoxicity[46].

Osmotic stress occurs when the salt concentration of the environment is higher than the intracellular

salt concentration and, as a result, water moves out of the cells. By contrast, cytotoxicity refers to

the disruption of the hydrophobic and electrostatic forces that maintain the structure of proteins, inhibiting the normal functioning of enzymes[46]. Our findings show that *Daphnia* was prolific under the highest level of salinity (*Salinity3*) on Day 30 with a population size ~169% larger than the observation under *Salinity*1, and ~161% larger than that under *Salinity2*. This may be due to *Daphnia*'s ability to acclimate to a range of salinity levels by altering their osmotic and ionic regulation when water acidity and salinity levels are sub-lethal[8], (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S3)

To our surprise, the effect of the chemical stressors under constant-light stress led to unexpected results. *Daphnia magna* showed the same or greater population growth under combined salinity and acidity. On Day 10, there was greater growth in 1 (*vs Salinity2*) out of 3 scenarios compared to salinity alone; and in 3 out of 3 compared to acidity alone. On Day 30, the population size under combined salinity and acidity was larger in 1 (*vs Salinity2*) out of 3 scenarios compared to salinity, and in 2 out of 3 compared to acidity, (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S5). In contrast to our prediction, across all treatment groups, population size was the largest in the combined stress *Salinity2 & Acidity2*. In this group, there were on average 291.66 individuals, generated from as little as 12 individuals on Day 10. The value of ~292 individuals on Day 30 was 165% and 123%, respectively, larger than what was achieved by *D. magna* in *Salinity2* and *Acidity2*. Further, the population size under combined stress, *Salinity2 & Acidity2*, was respectively ~8%, ~187%, ~416%, ~457%, ~201%, and ~335% larger than what were achieved in *Salinity3*, *Salinity1*, *Acidity3*, *Acidity1*, *Salinity1 & Acidity1*, and *Salinity3 & Acidity3,* respectively; see (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Tables S4 and S5). As highlighted above, the uptake of sodium is reduced in acidic conditions as sodium uptake takes place in exchange for hydrogen ions[73], where the rate of sodium loss in *D. magna* is documented to increase fourfold between pH 7 and pH 3[73], leading to death by reduced uptake of environmental sodium, especially under low concentrations[73]. This might explain why *D. magna* in *Salinity2 & Acidity2* obviously outperformed the reproductive success in *Salinity1 & Acidity1* and *Salinity3 & Acidity3*. This result could be linked to the capacity of the daphnid genotype to rapidly respond to ecological challenge and preconditioning offspring through adopting different strategies[9,10,104], ensuring prioritising energy allocation towards reproduction as opposed to growth under stress[11,94]. The combined effect of salinity and acidity under constant light on population sizes in our work was more severe than each of the individual stressors on Day 10. However, by Day 30, the combined stress effect became more than additive for level 3 of salinity or acidity, considerably less than additive for level 2, and almost equal to the total effect of salinity for level 1, (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S5). This is in line with

the findings documented by Zalizniak et al. (2009) who experimented on low pH effect on lethal

and sub-lethal salinity tolerance in macro-invertebrates[22]; they found that abundant ambient salinity

may offset the negative effect of acidity perhaps through exchanging the excess protons in the

haemolymph with sodium. In our study, however, the fact that population size under *Salinity3 &*

Acidity3 was larger than the population size under *Acidity3*, at the first census by 11% then smaller

by the same percentage at the second census, but in both cases smaller than under salinity alone, is

partly in accord with the common view that increased acidity should aggravate salinity effects[22.],

and becomes more intriguing given the fact that higher sodium concentration in the ambient

medium can aid sodium turnover[22]. Overall, our results corroborate the view advocated by Altshuler

et al. (2011) that a comprehensive understanding of the combined effects of multiple stressors will

require the specific assessment of the interactive effects of these stressors rather than individually

examining the effects of each stressor[23]. Furthermore, a causative relationship between

physico-chemical stressors may exist as changes in one stressor can lead to changes in other

stressors, *e.g.*, freshwater salinisation syndrome[4,77,105]. Hence, one could argue that complex toxic

effects of stressor interactions may underlie our results. To date, a comprehensive understanding of

the physiological responses to ionic changes (alone and accompanied with pH changes) is still

developing[4,103]. Coping with the combined chemical stress that is naturally unfavourable for

exponential reproduction can be plausibly associable with a compensatory metabolic response

under constant exposure to light through an as yet unknown mechanism. Light pollution effects, in

terms of artificial light, sky glow and interference with daylight-night-time patterns, which

increasingly affect aquatic ecosystems and ecological interactions[34,106], are becoming a serious

concern associated with urbanisation and industrialised zones with increasing human population

around the globe[30,34,107-110]. The far-reaching effects of extended light exposure[34] can not only lead

to changes in vital phototactic behaviours with disruptive impacts on the aquatic system[30,34], but

may also extend to how zooplankton respond to a cocktail of stressors[77,111]; see Supplementary

Information *Note 2* for further discussion of *Daphnia* coping mechanisms against complex

ecological challenge.

Daphnia population age structure

Under lack of photoperiod (constant light, 24h), *Daphnia* juvenile proportions were significantly

affected by overall physico-chemical stress treatment ($X^2_{(9,36)}= 119.89$, P <0.0001), and specifically

only by the following stress levels: *Acidity2* (P = 0.035) and *Acidity3* (P < 0.0001), (Fig 1) and

Supplementary Information (Tables S6 and S7). There was an abrupt decrease in adult proportion

from 67% adults on Day 10 to 0% on Day 30 in *Acidity3*, and a sharp drop from 46% to 20% in

Salinity2. Interestingly, only in 2 out of all the 10 stress treatments were there more adults than juveniles on Day 10 with respect to *Acidity2* (63% adults) and *Acidity3* (67% adults); this was markedly reversed on Day 30 as significantly more juveniles were recorded then under each of these stress scenarios, (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S8). Conversely, only two cases of the remainder (7 scenarios out of 10), *Salinity1* and combined stress *Salinity1 & Acidity1*, led to noticeable increases in adults on Day 30 compared to Day 10, (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Table S8). Moreover, it is worth pointing out that the proportions of juveniles (84%) and adults (16%), on Day 30 under constant light for *Salinity1*, *Acidity1*, and combined stress *Salinity2 & Acidity2*, were identical despite the very different stress conditions in these treatments, and the respective differences in average population size at Day 30 (~102 individuals, ~52 individuals, and ~292 individuals, respectively). However, overall, there were more adults on Day 10 in the acidity than in the salinity levels. In contrast, the opposite was observed on Day 30 except for *Salinity1 vs Acidity1* where the adult proportions were identical irrespective of the larger population size achieved under *Salinity1*, (Fig 1) and Supplementary Information (Tables S4 and S8).

Daphnia showed the greatest resilience under *Salinity2*, *Salinity3*, *Acidity2* (pH 5.5), and combined stress *Salinity2 & Acidity2* as the population increased from means of (~10, ~27, ~7, and ~12 individuals, respectively) on Day 10 to means of (110, 271, 131, and 292, individuals, respectively) on Day 30, with large proportions of juveniles. Having a prolonged juvenile period seemed to help *D. magna* in coping, as a form of resilience. Note that by Day 30 under the highest level of water acidification in *Acidity3* the entire population consisted of juveniles. However, such resilience was less apparent at Day 30 in *Acidity1* and combined stress, *Salinity1 & Acidity1*, as more adults were found there in the population. At any rate, there were more juveniles with delayed maturation when the photoperiod was lacking (constant light), but generally the population on Day 30 was more juvenile under acidity stress than salinity or the combination of both stressors. This corresponds with the findings reported by De Coen & Janssen (2003)[112] that exposure to sub-lethal chemical stressors might cause a decreased 'net energy budget' in *D. magna,* which means that the physiological energetics of the stressed daphnids will be shifted more towards costly compensatory metabolic mechanisms[11], such as respiration and exoskeleton formation[76] rather than growth and reproduction. This view is supported by Glover & Wood (2005) who suggested that *D. magna* sensitivity to acidic environments can be explained by a dependency of sodium influx on sodium-proton exchange system and co-occurrent remineralisation of the exoskeleton[74]. Acidic media (with low levels of sodium and calcium), accompanied by exhausted respiration and ion-regulation, may slow metamorphosis, which occurs approximately twice per week in optimal

conditions. In turn, this may benefit *D. magna* in mitigating the flux deficit of essential minerals

with less allocation of minerals to re-mineralise the exoskeleton. Such a survival strategy of more

investment in longevity may be advantageous until conditions become more hospitable[11].

Furthermore, the rates of sodium turnover in *Daphnia* are high when compared to those of other

fresh water animals. However, the rate of sodium turnover is related to their small size and greater

surface area to volume ratio[73], which is even larger in juveniles than adults[73]. Moreover, Na^+ uptake

in *D. magna* is ATP-dependent (Na^+/K^+ pump), which is different in juveniles compared to adults

due to developmentally dependent biochemical differences[113]. The affinity constant for sodium

transport is much lower in adults, and juveniles have a lower affinity for sodium, which is

counterbalanced by a higher maximum capacity of sodium uptake[113]. It can be argued that delayed

maturation is a plastic trait governed by maternal preconditioning of offspring phenotype[9,10,104],

akin to diapause, *i.e*., resting[28], which will favour survival rather than reproduction in adverse

environmental conditions. This may be beneficial when accompanied by the ability of the

preconditioned neonates to alter their ionic and osmotic regulation[8]. In this respect, a delay of

reproduction for the advantage of investment in energy accumulation, to be made available for

sequent reproduction when the severity of conditions lessens, has been shown as a survival tactic by

Daphnia on deficient/limited resources[114,115]. However, these survival strategies may be

context-dependent, clone-specific[17] and again affected by transgenerational effects[9,10]. Overall, the

excess ambient amount of Na^+ in combined stress (*Salinity2 & Acidity2* and *Salinity3 & Acidity3*)

could have played a vital role in mitigating the negative impact of acidification on exhausting the

haemolymph content of sodium[74]. This could also explain the high mortality in acidity alone

treatments in our study. Both weak and strong acidification are known to directly and indirectly

negatively affect the physiology, fitness, and survival of freshwater biota[70,116] and thus leading to

mortality and biodiversity loss[75,117], especially for taxa such as *Daphnia* that are sensitive to pH

changes[74,75]. Finally, we observed no egg production under any conditions although daphnids are

known to produce diapausing eggs during periods of environmental stress induced by natural and

anthropogenic factors (e.g.,[118,119]); this further suggests that our results may be reflective of

plasticity found in *D. magna*[47,120].

Conclusion

471 This work is the first to demonstrate that exposure to physical stress (prolonged disrupted

472 photoperiod, constant light) combined with chemical stresses (salinity and/or acidity) can

473 differentially alter *Daphnia* population growth and age structure over time, and may underlie a

474 degree of acclimation to severe chemical stress. Our findings are a first step to a more

comprehensive understanding of how aquatic organisms adapt to extreme complex conditions under prolonged disruption of photoperiod. Exploration of the metabolomic regulation of uptake and efflux of haemolymph ions needs to be the next step to test the organism's response and adaptability under combinations of multiple physical and chemical stressors.

Acknowledgements

We thank Alice de Sampaio Kalkuhl for her help in the maintenance of the system and in data collection.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Data Availability: The data analysed in this work are available at the figshare data repository via the URL: https://figshare.com/s/34d8a98c279b2dc2cb81

References

1. Hall, C. & Burns, C. Mortality and Growth Responses of *Daphnia carinata* to Increases in Temperature and Salinity. *Freshw. Biol.* **47**, 451–458 (2002). https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2427.2002.00815.x

2. Weber, A. & Pirow, R. Physiological Responses of *Daphnia pulex* to Acid Stress. *BMC Physiol.* **9** (2009). https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6793-9-9

3. Hoomehr, S., Akinola, A., Wynn-Thompson, T., Garnand, W. & Eick, M. Water Temperature, pH, and Road Salt Impacts on the Fluvial Erosion of Cohesive Streambanks. *Water* **10**, 302 (2018). https://doi.org/10.3390/w10030302

4. Cañedo-Argüelles, M., Kefford, B. & Schäfer, R. Salt in Freshwaters: Causes, Effects and Prospects - Introduction to the Theme Issue. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci.* **374**, p.20180002 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2018.0002

5. Ross, E. & Behringer D. Changes in Temperature, pH, and Salinity Affect the Sheltering Responses of Caribbean Spiny Lobsters to Chemosensory Cues. *Sci. Rep.* **9** (2019). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-40832-y

6. Gannon, J. & Stemberger, R. Zooplankton (Especially Crustaceans and Rotifers) As Indicators of Water Quality. *Trans. Am. Microsc. Soc.* **97**, 16–35 (1978). https://doi.org/10.2307/3225681

7. West-Eberhard, M. *Developmental Plasticity and Evolution.* (Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2003).

8. Baillieul, M., Selens, M. & Blust, R. Scope for Growth and Fitness of *Daphnia magna* in
Salinity-Stressed Conditions. *Funct. Ecol.* **10**, 227–233 (1996). https://doi.org/10.2307/2389847

9. Youngson, N. & Whitelaw, E. Transgenerational Epigenetic Effects. *Annu. Rev. Genom. Hum. G*
9, 233–257 (2008). https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.genom.9.081307.164445

10. Vandegehuchte, M., Lemière, F., Vanhaecke, L., Berghe, W. & Janssen, C. Direct and
Transgenerational Impact on *Daphnia magna* of Chemicals with a Known Effect on DNA
Methylation.   *Comp.   Biochem.   Phys.   C*   **151**,   278–285   (2010).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbpc.2009.11.007

11. Rivera-Ingraham, G. & Lignot, J. Osmoregulation, Bioenergetics and Oxidative Stress in
Coastal Marine Invertebrates: Raising the Questions for Future Research. *J. Exp. Biol.* **220**,
1749–1760 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.135624

12. Heine-Fuster, I., Vega-Retter, C., Sabat, P. & Ramos-Jiliberto, R. Osmoregulatory and
Demographic Responses to Salinity of the Exotic Cladoceran *Daphnia exilis*. *J. Plankton Res.* **32**,
1405–1411 (2010). https://doi.org/10.1093/plankt/fbq055

13. Locke, A. & Sprules, W. Effects Of Acidic pH and Phytoplankton on Survival and Condition of
Bosmina   longirostris   and   *Daphnia   pulex*.   *Hydrobiologia*   **437**,   187–196   (2000).
https://doi.org/10.1023/A:102656310

14. Pollard, H., Colbourne, J. & Wendel, K. Reconstruction of Centuries-Old *Daphnia*
Communities in a Lake Recovering from Acidification and Metal Contamination. *Ambio* **32**,
214–218 (2003). https://doi.org/10.1579/0044-7447-32.3.214

15. Ghazy, M., Habashy, M. & Mohammady, E. Effects of pH on Survival, Growth and
Reproduction Rates of the Crustacean, *Daphnia magna*. *Aust. J. Basic Appl. Sci.* **5**, 1–10 (2011).

16. Brönmark, C. & Hansson, L. *The Biology of Ponds and Lakes*. (Oxford University Press,
Oxford, 1998).

17. Teschner, M. Effects of Salinity on the Life History and Fitness of *Daphnia magna*: Variability
within   and   between   Populations. *Hydrobiologia*   **307**,   33–41   (1995).
https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00031995

18. Martínez-Jerónimo, F. & Martínez-Jerónimo, L. Chronic Effect of NaCl Salinity on a
Freshwater Strain of *Daphnia magna* Straus (Crustacea: Cladocera): A Demographic Study. *Ecotox.*
Environ. Safe. **67**, 411–416 (2007). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2006.08.009

19. Schuytema, G., Nebeker, A. & Stutzman T. Salinity Tolerance of *Daphnia magna* and Potential
Use for Estuarine Sediment Toxicity Tests. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* **33**, 194–198 (1997).
https://doi.org/10.1007/s002449900242

20. Carvalho, G. The Clonal Ecology of *Daphnia magna* (Crustacea: Cladocera): II. Thermal
Differentiation   among   Seasonal   Clones. *J.   Anim.   Ecol.*   **56**,   469–478   (1978).
https://doi.org/10.2307/5061

21. Aladin, N. & Potts, W. Osmoregulatory Capacity of the Cladocera. *J. Comp. Physiol. B* **164**,
671–683 (1995). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00389810

22. Zalizniak, L., Kefford, B. & Nugegoda. D. Effects of pH on Salinity Tolerance of Selected
Freshwater Invertebrates. *Aquat. Ecol.* **43**, 135–144 (2009).
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10452-007-9148-5

23. Altshuler, I., Demiri, B., Xu, S., Constantin, A., Yan, N. & Cristescuet, M. An Integrated
Multi-Disciplinary Approach for Studying Multiple Stressors in Freshwater Ecosystems: *Daphnia*
As a Model Organism. *Integr. Comp. Biol.* **51**, 623–633 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1093/icb/icr103

24. Stross, R. Photoperiod Control of Diapause in *Daphnia*. IV. Light and CO_2-Sensitive Phases
Within the Cycle of Activation. *Biol. Bull.* **140**, 137–155 (1971). https://doi.org/10.2307/1540033

25. Roulin, A., Bourgeois, Y., Stiefel, U., Walser, J. & Ebert, D. A Photoreceptor Contributes to the
Natural Variation of Diapause Induction in *Daphnia magna*. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **33**, 3194–3204 (2016).
https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw200 .

26. Shan, R. Influence of Light on Hatching Resting Eggs of Chydorids (Cladocera). *Int. Rev.*
Hydrobiol. **55**, 295–302 (1970). https://doi.org/10.1002/iroh.19700550209

27. Häfker, N., Meyer, B., Last, K., Pond, D., Hüppe, L. & Teschke, M. Circadian Clock
Involvement in Zooplankton Diel Vertical Migration. *Curr. Biol.* **27**, 2194-2201.e3 (2017).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.06.025

28. Toyota, K., Cambronero Cuenca, M., Dhandapani, V., Suppa, A., Rossi, V., Colbourne, J. &
Orsini, L. Transgenerational Response to Early Spring Warming in *Daphnia*. *Sci. Rep.* **9** (2019).
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-40946-3

29. Ślusarczyk, M. & Flis, S. Light Quantity, Not Photoperiod Terminates Diapause in the
Crustacean *Daphnia*. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **64**, 124–130 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1002/lno.11023

30. Moore, M., Pierce, S., Walsh, H., Kvalvik, S. & Lim, J. Urban Light Pollution Alters the Diel
Vertical Migration of *Daphnia*. *SIL Proceedings 1922-2010* **27**, 779–782 (2000).
https://doi.org/10.1080/03680770.1998.11901341

31. Connelly, S., Stoeckel, J., Gitzen, R., Williamson, C. & González, M. Effect of Clonal Selection
on *Daphnia* Tolerance to Dark Experimental Conditions. *PLoS ONE* **11**, p.e0159628 (2016).
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0159628

32. Meyer, L. & Sullivan, S. Bright Lights, Big City: Influences of Ecological Light Pollution on
Reciprocal Stream–Riparian Invertebrate Fluxes. *Ecol. Appl.* **23**, 1322–1330 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1890/12-2007.1

33. Manfrin, A., Singer, G., Larsen, S., Weiß, N., van Grunsven, R. & Weiß, N-S, et al. Artificial
Light at Night Affects Organism Flux across Ecosystem Boundaries and Drives Community
Structure in the Recipient Ecosystem. *Front. Environ. Sci.* **5** (2017).
https://doi.org/10.3389/fenvs.2017.00061

34. Zapata, M., Sullivan, S. & Gray, S. Artificial Lighting at Night in Estuaries—Implications from
Individuals to Ecosystems. *Estuar. Coasts* **42**, 309–330 (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1007/s12237-018-0479-3

35. Rich, C. & Longcore, T. *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting* (Washington,
D.C., USA: Island Press, 2006).

36. Hammerschlag, N., Meyer, C., Grace, M., Kessel, S., Sutton, T. & Harvey, E. et al. Shining a
Light on Fish at Night: An Overview of Fish and Fisheries in The Dark of Night, and in Deep and
Polar Seas. *Bull. Mar. Sci.* **93**, 253–284 (2017). https://doi.org/10.5343/bms.2016.1082

37. Moore, M., Kohler, S. & Cheers, M. Artificial Light at Night in Freshwater Habitats and its
Potential Ecological Effects. In *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting* (eds. Richand,
C. & Longcore, T) 365–384 (Washington, D.C., USA: Island Press, 2006).

38. Frazer, T., Notestein, S., Jacoby, C., Jones, Little. C., Keller, S. & Swett, R. Effects of
Storm-Induced Salinity Changes on Submersed Aquatic Vegetation in Kings Bay, Florida. *Estuar.*
Coasts **29**, 943–953 (2006). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02798655

39. Villholth, K. & Neupane, B. Tsunamis as Long-Term Hazards to Coastal Groundwater
Resources and Associated Water Supplies. In *Tsunami—A Growing Disaster* (ed. Mokhtari, M.)
(InTech: Rijeka, Croatia, 2011).

40. Schumacher, R. Heavy Rainfall and Flash Flooding. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Natural*
Hazard Science (USA: Oxford University Press, 2002).
https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780199389407.013.132 (2017).

41. World Health Organization. Chemical Releases Associated with Floods. *World Health*
Organization. Available from https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/272392 (2018).

42. Bekker, E., Karabanov, D., Galimov, Y., Haag, C. & Neretina, T. Phylogeography of *Daphnia*
magna Straus (Crustacea: Cladocera) in Northern Eurasia: Evidence for a Deep Longitudinal Split
between Mitochondrial Lineages. *PLoS ONE* **13**, p.e0194045 (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0194045

43. thisisFINLAND. Finland's Weather and Light. *thisisFINLAND*. [online] Available from
https://finland.fi/life-society/finlands-weather-and-light/ (2019).

44. Allan, J. Landscapes and Riverscapes: The Influence of Land Use on Stream Ecosystems. *Annu.*
Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst. **35**, 257–284 (2004).
https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.35.120202.110122

45. Heino, J., Virkkala, R. & Toivonen, H. Climate Change and Freshwater Biodiversity: Detected
Patterns, Future Trends and Adaptations in Northern Regions. *Biol. Rev.* **84**, 39–54 (2009).
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-185X.2008.00060.x

46. Latta, L., Weider, L., Colbourne, J. & Pfrender, M. The Evolution of Salinity Tolerance in
Daphnia: a Functional Genomics Approach. *Ecol. Lett.* **15**, 794–802 (2012).
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2012.01799.x

47. Khudr, MS., Purkiss, S., de Sampaio Kalkuhl, A. & Hager, R. Novel Resilience in Response to Revitalisation after Exposure to Lethal Salinity Causes Differential Reproductive Success in an Extremely Plastic Organism. *PeerJ* **6**, p.e5277 (2018). https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.5277

48. Le, Q., Sekhon, S., Lee, L., Ko, J. & Min, J. *Daphnia* in Water Quality Biomonitoring - "Omic" Approaches. *Toxicol. Environ. Health Sci.* **8**, 1–6 (2016). https://doi.org/10.1007/s13530-016-0255-3

49. Ebert, D. Web-guide to Daphnia Parasites: Artificial *Daphnia Medium (ADaM)* [Online]. Available from http://evolution.unibas.ch/ebert/lab/adam.htm (2013).

50. Yang, X., Wang, K., Wang, H., Zhang, J., Tanga, L. & Mao, Z. Control of pH by Acetic Acid and Its Effect on Ethanol Fermentation in an Integrated Ethanol–Methane Fermentation Process. *RSC Adv.* **6**, 57902–57909 (2016). https://doi.org/10.1039/C6RA04129A

51. Nash, H. *The Complete Pond Builder: Creating a Beautiful Water Garden* (New York: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc., 1997).

52. Howard, P. *Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data For Organic Chemicals, Volume 2*. (USA: CRC Press LLC., 1990).

53. Awasthi, M., Chen, H., Awasthi, S., Liu, T., Wang, M., Duan, Y. & Li, J. Greenhouse Gas Emissions through Biological Processing of Solid Waste and Their Global Warming Potential. In *Biological Processing of Solid Waste* (eds. Kumar, S., Zhang, Z., Awasthi, MK. & Li, R.) 111–127. (USA: CRC Press, 2019).

54. Meckenstock. R., Safinowski. M. & Griebler, C. Anaerobic Degradation of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* **49**, 27–36 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.femsec.2004.02.019

55. Das, N. & Chandran, P. Microbial Degradation of Petroleum Hydrocarbon Contaminants: An Overview. *Biotechnol. Res. Int.* **2011**, 1–13 (2011). https://doi.org/10.4061/2011/941810

56. Collins, A. Chapter 7. Origin of Oilfield Waters. In Collins A, editor. *Developments in Petroleum Science, Volume 1*. Elsevier; pp. 193–252 (1975). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0376-7361(08)70200-0

57. Sanhueza, E., Elbert, W., Rondón, A., Arias, M. & Hermoso, M. Organic and Inorganic Acids in Rain from a Remote Site of the Venezuelan Savannah. *Tellus B Chem. Phys. Meteorol.* **41**, 170–176 (1989). https://doi.org/10.3402/tellusb.v41i2.15066

58. Khare, P., Kumar, N., Kumari, K. & Srivastava, S. Atmospheric Formic and Acetic Acids: An Overview. *Rev. Geophys.* **37**, 227–248 (1999). https://doi.org/10.1029/1998RG900005

59. Wagner, F. Acetic Acid. *Kirk-Othmer Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology.* 4th ed. (USA: John Wiley & Sons, (2002). https://doi.org/10.1002/0471238961.0103052023010714.a01.pub2

60. Sun, X., Wang, Y., Li, H., Yang, X., Sun, L., Wang, T. & Wang, W. Organic Acids in Cloud Water and Rainwater at a Mountain Site in Acid Rain Areas of South China. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. R.* **23**, 9529–9539 (2016). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-016-6038-1

61. Barth, B. & Wilson, R. Life in Acid: Interactive Effects of pH and Natural Organic Acids on
Growth, Development and Locomotor Performance of Larval Striped Marsh Frogs (*Limnodynastes*
peronii). *J. Exp. Biol.* **213**, 1293–1300 (2010). https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.028472

62. R Development Core Team. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.*
(Vienna, Austria: *R Foundation for Statistical Computing*, 2017). ISBN 3-900051-07-0; Available
from http://www.R-project.org

63. RStudio Team. *RStudio: Integrated Development for R* (Boston, MA: RStudio, Inc., 2015).
Available from http://www.rstudio.com/

64. Powell, M. The bobyqa Algorithm for Bound Constrained Optimization without Derivatives.
Tech. rep., Department of Applied Mathematics and Theoretical Physics, Cambridge University
(2009).   Available   from
https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/0d2e/dc46f81f9a0b0b62937507ad977b46729f64.pdf

65. Bates. D., Mächler. M, Bolker, B. & Walker, S. Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using
lme4. *J. Stat. Softw.* **67** (2015). https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01

66. Hothorn, T., Bretz, F. & Westfall, P. Simultaneous Inference in General Parametric Models.
Biom. J. **50**, 346–363 (2008). https://doi.org/1002/bimj.200810425

67. Fox, J. & Weisberg, W. *An {R} Companion to Applied Regression*. 3rd ed. (Thousand Oaks CA:
Sage, 2019). Available from http://socserv.socsci.mcmaster.ca/jfox/Books/Companion

68. Bulkowski, L., Krise, W. & Kraus, K. Purification of *Cyclops* Cultures by pH Shock
(Copepoda). *Crustaceana* **48**, 179–182 (1985). https://doi.org/10.1163/156854085X00864

69. Alibone, M. & Fair, P. The Effects of Low pH on the Respiration of *Daphnia magna*
Straus. *Hydrobiologia* **85**, 185–188 (1981). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00006629

70. Weiss, L., Pötter L., Steiger, A., Kruppert, S., Frost, U. & Tollrian, R. Rising pCO2 in
Freshwater Ecosystems Has the Potential to Negatively Affect Predator-Induced Defenses in
Daphnia. *Curr. Biology* **28**, 327–332.e3 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.12.022

71. Turley, C. & Gattuso, J. Future Biological and Ecosystem Impacts of Ocean Acidification and
Their Socioeconomic-Policy Implications. *Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain.* **4**, 278–286 (2012).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2012.05.007

72. Hall-Spencer, J. & Harvey, B. Ocean Acidification Impacts on Coastal Ecosystem Services due
to Habitat Degradation. *Emerg. Top. Life Sci.* **3**, 197–206 (2019).
https://doi.org/10.1042/ETLS20180117

73. Potts, W. & Fryer, G. The Effects of pH and salt Content on Sodium Balance in *Daphina*
magna and *Acantholeberis curvirostri*s (Crustacea: Cladocera). *J. Comp. Physiol. B* **129**, 289–294
(1979). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00686983

74. Glover, C. & Wood, C. Physiological Characterisation of a pH- and Calcium-Dependent
Sodium Uptake Mechanism in the Freshwater Crustacean, *Daphnia magna*. *J. Exp. Biol.* **208**,
951–959 (2005). https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.01426

75. Moiseenko, T. Effects of Acidification on Aquatic Ecosystems. *Russ. J. Ecol.* **36**, 93–102
(2005). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11184-005-0017-y

76. Pérez-Fuentetaja, A. & Goodberry, F. *Daphnia*'s Challenge: Survival and reproduction When
Calcium and Food Are Limiting. *J. Plankton Res.* **38**, 1379–1388. (2016).

77. Kaushal, S., Likens, G., Pace, M., Haq, S., Wood, K., Galella, J., et al. Novel 'Chemical
Cocktails' in Inland Waters Are a Consequence of the Freshwater Salinization Syndrome. *Philos.*
Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci. **374**, p.20180017 (2018a). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2018.0017

78. Gorham, E., Underwood, J., Martini, F. & Ogden, J. Natural and Anthropogenic Causes of Lake
Acidification in Nova Scotia. *Nature* **324**, 451–453 (1986). https://doi.org/10.1038/324451a0

79. Gee, A., Stoner, J. A Review of the Causes and Effects of Acidification of Surface Waters in
Wales and Potential Mitigation Techniques. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* **18**, 121–130 (1989).
https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01056196

80. Battarbee, R., Howells, G., Skeffington, R. & Bradshaw, A. The Causes of Lake Acidification,
with Special Reference to the Role of Acid Deposition. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci.*
327, 339–347 (1990). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.1990.0071

81. Leduc, A., Munday, P., Brown, G. & Ferrari, M. Effects of Acidification on Olfactory-Mediated
Behaviour in Freshwater and Marine Ecosystems: a Synthesis. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol.*
Sci. **368**, p.20120447 (2013). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2012.0447

82. Usio, N., Imada, M., Nakagawa, M., Akasaka, M. & Takamura, N. Effects of Pond Draining on
Biodiversity and Water Quality of Farm Ponds. *Conserv. Biol.* **27**, 1429–1438 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.12096

83. Cresser, M. & Edwards, A. Natural Processes in Freshwater Acidification. *Endeavour* **12**,
16–20 (1988). https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-9327(88)90205-0

84. Galloway, J., Hendrey, G., Schofield, C., Peters, N. & Johannes, A. Processes and Causes of
Lake Acidification during Spring Snowmelt in the West-Central Adirondack Mountains, New York.
Can. J. of Fish. Aquat. Sci. **44**, 1595–1602 (1987). https://doi.org/10.1139/f87-193

85. Bayley, S., Schindler, D., Parker, B., Stainton, M. & Beaty, K. Effects of Forest Fire and
Drought on Acidity of a Base-Poor Boreal Forest Stream: Similarities between Climatic Warming
and Acidic Precipitation. *Biogeochemistry* **17**, 191–204 (1992).
https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00004041

86. Brown, L., Johnston, K., Palmer, S., Aspray, K. & Holden, J. River Ecosystem Response to
Prescribed Vegetation Burning on Blanket Peatland. *PLoS ONE* **8**, p.e81023 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0081023

87. Lydersen, E., Høgberget, R., Moreno, C., Garmo, Ø. & Hagen, P. The Effects of Wildfire on the
Water Chemistry of Dilute, Acidic Lakes in southern Norway. *Biogeochemistry* **119**, 109–124
(2014). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-014-9951-8

88. Schroder, J., Zhang, H., Girma, K., Raun, W., Penn, C. & Payton, M. Soil Acidification from
long-Term Use of Nitrogen Fertilizers on Winter Wheat. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* **75**, 957-964 (2011).
https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2010.0187

89. Phillips, J., McKinley, G., Bennington, V., Bootsma, H., Pilcher, D., Sterner, R. & Urban, N.
The Potential for CO2-Induced Acidification in Freshwater: A great Lakes Case Study.
Oceanography **28**, 136–145 (2015). https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2015.37

90. Haines T. Acidic precipitation and its consequences for aquatic ecosystems: A review. *Trans.*
Am. Fish. Soc. **110**, 669–707 (1981).
https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659(1981)110<669:APAICF>2.0.CO;2

91. Beaune, D., Sellier, Y., Luquet, G. & Grandjean, F. Freshwater Acidification: an Example of an
Endangered Crayfish Species Sensitive to pH. *Hydrobiologia* **813**, 41–50 (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-018-3504-4

92. Gonçalves, A., Castro, B., Pardal, M. & Gonçalves, F. Salinity Effects on survival and Life
History of Two Freshwater Cladocerans (*Daphnia magna* and *Daphnia longispina*). *Ann. Limnol. -*
Int. J. Lim. **43**, 13–20 (2007). https://doi.org/10.1051/limn/2007022

93. Tiwari, A. & Rachlin, J. A Review of Road Salt Ecological Impacts. *Northeast Nat.* **25**,
123–142 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1656/045.025.0110

94. Venâncio, C., Castro, B., Ribeiro, R., Antunes, S., Abrantes, N., Soares, A. & Lopes, I.
Sensitivity of Freshwater Species under Single and Multigenerational Exposure to Seawater
Intrusion. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci.* **374**, p.20180252 (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2018.0252

95. Greene, R., Timms, W., Rengasamy, P., Arshad, M. & Cresswell, R. Soil and Aquifer
Salinization: Toward an Integrated Approach for Salinity Management of Groundwater. In
Integrated Groundwater Management (eds. Jakeman, A., Barreteau, O., Hunt, R., Rinaudo, J. &
Ross, A.) 377–412 (Cham: Springer, 2016). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-23576-9_15

96. NH Department of Environmental Services. Water Quality Impacts - Environmental, Health and
Economic Impacts of Road Salt - Salt Reduction - Watershed Assistance Section. *NH Department*
of Environmental Services. [online] Des.nh.gov. Available from
https://www.des.nh.gov/organization/divisions/water/wmb/was/salt-reduction-initiative/impacts.ht
m (2017).

97. Arora, M., Casas-Mulet, R., Costelloe, J., Peterson, T., McCluskey, A. & Stewardson, M.
Chapter 6 - Impacts of Hydrological Alterations on Water Quality. In *Water for the Environment:*
From Policy and Science to Implementation and Management. (eds. Horn, A., Webb, A.,
Stewardson, M., Richter, B. & Acreman, M.) 101–126 (Academic Press, 2017).
https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-803907-6.00006-1

98. Entrekin, S., Clay, N., Mogilevski, A., Howard-Parker, B. & Evans-White, M. Multiple
Riparian–Stream Connections Are Predicted to Change in Response to Salinization. *Philos. Trans.*
R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci. **374**, p.20180042 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2018.0042

99. Illangasekare, T., Tyler, S., Clement, T., Villholth, K., Perera, A., Obeysekera, J. et al. Impacts of the 2004 Tsunami on Groundwater Resources in Sri Lanka. *Water Resour. Res.* **42** (2006). https://doi.org/10.1029/2006WR004876

100. Roy, K., Sasada, K. & Kohno, E. Salinity status of the 2011 Tohoku-oki Tsunami Affected Agricultural Lands in Northeast Japan. *Int. Soil Water Cons. Res.* **2**, 40–50 (2014). https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-6339(15)30005-8

101. Cormier, S., Suter, G. & Zheng, L. Derivation of a Benchmark for Freshwater Ionic Strength. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* **32**, 263–271 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.2064

102. Kaushal, S., Groffman, P., Likens, G., Belt, K., Stack, W., Kelly, V., Band, L. & Fisher, G. From The Cover: Increased Salinization of Fresh Water in the Northeastern United States. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **102**, 13517–13520 (2005). https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0506414102

103. Le, T., Kattwinkel, M., Schützenmeister, K., Olson, J., Hawkins, C. & Schäfer, R. Predicting Current and Future Background Ion Concentrations in German Surface Water under Climate Change. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci.* **374**, p.20180004 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2018.0004

104. Harris, K., Bartlett, N. & Lloyd, V. *Daphnia* as an Emerging Epigenetic Model Organism. *Gen. Res. Int.* **2012**, 1–8 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/147892

105. Kaushal, S., Likens, G., Pace, M., Utz, R., Haq, S., Gorman, J. & Grese, M. Freshwater Salinization Syndrome on a Continental Scale. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **115**, E574–E583 (2018b). https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1711234115

106. Perkin, E., Hölker, F., Richardson, J., Sadler, J., Wolter, C. & Tockner, K. The Influence of Artificial Light on Stream and Riparian Ecosystems: Questions, Challenges, and Perspectives. *Ecosphere* **2**, 122 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1890/ES11-00241.1

107. Gaston, K., Duffy, J., Gaston,, S., Bennie, J. & Davies, T. Human Alteration of Natural Light Cycles: Causes and Ecological Consequences. *Oecologia* **176**, 917–931 (2014). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-014-3088-2

108. Kaniewska, P., Alon, S., Karako-Lampert, S., Hoegh-Guldberg, O. & Levy, O. Signaling Cascades and the Importance of Moonlight in Coral Broadcast Mass Spawning. *eLife* **4** (2015). https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.09991

109. Kurvers, R. & Holker, F. Bright Nights and Social Interactions: a Neglected Issue. *Behav. Ecol.* **26**, 334–339 (2015). https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/aru223

110. Tamir, R., Lerner, A., Haspel, C., Dubinsky, Z. & Iluz, D. The Spectral and Spatial Distribution of Light Pollution in the Waters of the Northern Gulf of Aqaba (Eilat). *Sci. Rep.* **7** (2017). https://doi.org/10.1038/srep42329

111. Compton, P., Devuyst, D., Hens, L. & Nath, B. *Environmental Management in Practice: Vol 1: Instruments for Environmental Management* (London: Routledge, 2013).

112. De Coen, W. & Janssen, C. The Missing Biomarker Link: Relationships Between Effects on
the Cellular Energy Allocation Biomarker of Toxicant-Stressed *Daphnia magna* and Corresponding
Population Characteristics. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* **22**, 1632–1641 (2003).
https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5620220727

113. Bianchini, A. & Wood, C. Sodium Uptake in Different Life Stages of Crustaceans: the Water
Flea *Daphnia magna* Straus. *J. Exp. Biol.* **211**, 539–547 (2008). https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.009175

114. Kozłowski, J. Measuring Fitness in Life, History Studies. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **8**, 84–85 (1993).
https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-5347(93)90056-U

115. Pietrzak, B., Bednarska, A., Markowska, M., Rojek, M., Szymanska, E. & Slusarczyk M.
Behavioural and Physiological Mechanisms behind Extreme Longevity in *Daphnia*. *Hydrobiologia*
715, 125–134 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-012-1420-6

116. Hasler, C., Jeffrey, J., Schneider, E., Hannan, K., Tix, J. & Suski, C. Biological Consequences
of Weak Acidification Caused by Elevated Carbon Dioxide in Freshwater Ecosystems.
Hydrobiologia **806**, 1–12 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-017-3332-y

117. Muniz, I. The Effects of Acidification on Scandinavian Freshwater Fish Fauna. *Philos. Trans.*
R. Soc. Lond., B, Biol. Sci. **305**, 517–528 (1984). Available from
http://www.jstor.org/stable/2396102

118. Weider, L., Lampert, W., Wessels, M., Colbourne, J. & Limburg, P. Long–term Genetic Shifts
in a Microcrustacean Egg Bank Associated with Anthropogenic Changes in the Lake Constance
Ecosystem. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B.* **264**, 1613–1618 (1997). https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.1997.0225

119. Paes, T., Rietzler, A., Pujoni, D. & Maia-Barbosa, P. High Temperatures and Absence of Light
Affect the Hatching of Resting Eggs of *Daphnia* in the Tropics. *An. Acad. Bras. Ciênc.* **88**, 179–186
(2016). https://doi.org/10.1590/0001-3765201620140595

120. Simon, J., Pfrender, M., Tollrian, R., Tagu, D. & Colbourne, K. Genomics of Environmentally
Induced Phenotypes in 2 Extremely Plastic Arthropods. *J. Hered.* **102**, 512–525 (2011).
https://doi.org/10.1093/jhered/esr020

Fig 1. *Daphnia* population sizes and age structure under chemical stress in the absence of
photoperiod (constant light). The bars illustrate the changes in *Daphnia* population (mean of total
daphnid numbers in the beaker per treatment) ± SEM. The bar parts display the rounded proportions
of juveniles against adults relative to the beaker population (*Daphnia* age structure). There were
two counts on Day 10 and Day 30. The conditions were as follows: constant light (24h day:0h
night), *Salinity1* [1.33 gL^{-1} , 3 replicates], *Salinity2* [3.33 gL^{-1} , 3 replicates], *Salinity3* [6.33 gL^{-1} , 2
replicates], *Acidity1* [pH 6 , 3 replicates], *Acidity2* [pH 5.5 , 3 replicates], *Acidity3* [pH 5 , 2
replicates], *Salinity1 & Acidity1* [3 replicates], *Salinity2 & Acidity2* [3 replicates], and *Salinity3 &*
Acidity3 [2 replicates]); Sal = Salinity, Acid = Acidity, Sal & Acid = Salinity & Acidity. The clonal
daphnid population in the control (the standard ADaM under 24h:0h light/dark cycle, salinity of
0.33 gL^{-1}, and pH = ~7) was of 16 daphnids on Day 10 and 328 daphnids on Day 30.