

1 **Consistent Effects of Pesticides on Community Structure and Ecosystem Function in**  
2 **Freshwater Systems**

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19 Data Availability: Data will be made available via figshare upon acceptance of the publication.

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## ABSTRACT

Predicting ecological effects of contaminants remains challenging because of the sheer number of chemicals and their ambiguous role in biodiversity-ecosystem function relationships. We evaluated responses of pond ecosystems to standardized concentrations of 12 pesticides, nested in four pesticide classes and two pesticide types. We show consistent effects of herbicides and insecticides on ecosystem function, but slightly less consistent effects on community composition. Effects of pesticides on ecosystem functions were often mediated by changes to biodiversity, and our analyses show that consistency in effects of pesticide types on functions was driven by functional redundancy among species. These results suggest that risk assessment of the thousands of registered chemicals on ecosystem responses could be simplified to a smaller number of chemical groups and to groups of functionally redundant taxa.

31           Freshwater systems are the most biodiverse in the world and provide important  
32 ecosystem services (1), yet they are imperiled by pesticide contamination (2). Two major  
33 challenges, among many, impede prediction of responses of freshwater ecosystems to pesticides.  
34 First, the extent to which individual pesticides have consistent effects on ecosystem functions  
35 and biodiversity is unknown. In the U.S. and Europe, tens of thousands of synthetic chemicals  
36 are registered, and in the U.S. >350 pesticides are applied annually (3). If the effects of pesticides  
37 are consistent within ‘pesticide classes’ (those with similar chemical structures) or ‘pesticide  
38 types’ (those targeting similar pests), then the complexity in predicting impacts of pesticides  
39 could be markedly reduced (4). Such consistency would improve efficiency of risk assessment  
40 and allow a greater focus on exceptions to general patterns. Second, the role of pesticides in  
41 biodiversity-ecosystem function relationships has not been elucidated (5). Historically, random  
42 and direct manipulations of single-trophic level communities and measurement of associated  
43 ecosystem processes (6) have established causality between biodiversity and ecosystem function  
44 (7). However, this approach overlooks the importance of anthropogenic factors, whose  
45 influences on communities are far from random (8), alter multiple trophic levels (9), and occur  
46 via direct and indirect pathways (5).

47           In an effort to suggest improvements to risk assessment, the objectives of the current  
48 study were to: 1) evaluate the consistency of effects across pesticide types, classes, and  
49 individual pesticides on ecosystem processes and communities, 2) assess whether the effects of  
50 pesticides on ecosystem processes and communities were the result of sublethal, non-target  
51 effects or changes in abundance of ‘targeted taxa’, and 3) determine if disruptions in ecosystem  
52 processes from pesticides were mediated by changes in biodiversity. We propose three  
53 hypotheses. First, ecosystem processes respond consistently to different pesticides within

54 pesticide types because taxonomically related community members often have similar functional  
55 roles within the ecosystem. So, reductions in the abundance of taxa of a single group (e.g., green  
56 algae) might be specific to an individual pesticide or class, but these reductions would result in  
57 similar effects on ecosystem function overall (e.g., photosynthesis) (10). Second, communities  
58 respond consistently to pesticides within classes because of taxa-specific sensitivities to  
59 pesticides (11). Third, disruptions in ecosystem processes are mediated by changes to  
60 biodiversity.

61 We used 72 outdoor mesocosms to evaluate the effects of two control treatments (water  
62 and solvent), four simulated-pesticide treatments, and 12 pesticides on tri-trophic temperate pond  
63 communities. The pesticide treatments were nested in four classes (organophosphates,  
64 carbamates, chloroacetanilides, triazines) and two types (insecticides and herbicides) (Fig. 1a,b).  
65 To represent pesticide runoff following rainfall, pesticides were applied singly at the beginning  
66 of the experiment at standardized environmentally relevant concentrations calculated using U.S.  
67 EPA software. Simulated-pesticide treatments were top-down or bottom-up food web  
68 manipulations that attempted to mimic direct (i.e. lethal) effects of actual herbicides and  
69 insecticides on algae and zooplankton abundances, respectively. Mesocosm studies are an  
70 efficient approach to toxicity testing as they provide toxicity data on multiple species  
71 simultaneously under environmentally realistic conditions (Supplemental Text).

72 Pesticide type explained 46% of the variation in ecosystem function associated with the  
73 pesticide treatments (Table S1, Fig. 1c). Herbicides were associated with a decrease in suspended  
74 phytoplankton that led to increased abundance of attached periphyton, likely through an increase  
75 in light availability (Fig. 1d,e). With decreased phytoplankton, pH at dusk and dissolved oxygen

76 at dawn and dusk decreased (Fig. 1d,e), reflecting reduced primary productivity relative to whole  
77 system respiration, which might have been driven by the decomposition of dead phytoplankton.

78 In contrast to herbicide-exposed systems, insecticide-exposed systems had an increase in  
79 phytoplankton, which shaded and thus decreased periphyton (Fig. 1d,e), an effect shown in other  
80 studies (11). Increases in phytoplankton were likely driven by shifts in zooplankton communities  
81 away from cladocerans and towards copepods (described below). The corresponding increase in  
82 dissolved oxygen at dawn and dusk and in acidity at dawn reflects increased respiration and  
83 primary production (Fig. 1d,e). While some variation in ecosystem responses was also explained  
84 by individual pesticides, it was small relative to variation explained by pesticide type and was  
85 driven by two pesticides (e.g., aldicarb within carbamates, chlorpyrifos within organophosphates;  
86 Fig. 1c).

87 We tested for the effects of individual pesticides, classes, and types separately on the  
88 single-trophic-level zooplankton community (six zooplankton genera) and on the tri-trophic  
89 community (insect and salamander predators, snail and anuran herbivores, and periphyton and  
90 phytoplankton primary producers). Similar to ecosystem function, pesticide type explained the  
91 majority of the variance (44.2%) in the zooplankton community, followed by pesticide class  
92 (18.8%) (Table S1). Distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) showed that: 1) herbicide-  
93 and insecticide-treated mesocosms had distinct zooplankton communities, 2) within their  
94 respective pesticide types, organophosphate insecticides, chloroacetanilide herbicides, and  
95 triazine herbicides caused further distinction in zooplankton communities, and 3) there was  
96 relatively high multivariate dispersion within the carbamate class (Fig. 2a). In response to  
97 insecticides, cladoceran zooplankton were virtually eliminated, likely leading to competitive  
98 release of copepods (Fig. 2b,c). Reduced cladocerans, which are more efficient phytoplankton

99 grazers than copepods (*12*), likely drove the increased relative abundance of phytoplankton in the  
100 algal community (Fig. 1c). In contrast to the changes in community composition associated with  
101 insecticides, herbicides decreased zooplankton abundance with no apparent change in  
102 composition (Fig. S3), likely by reducing phytoplankton (i.e., bottom-up effect). The stronger  
103 bottom-up effect of triazines compared to chloroacetanilide herbicides on zooplankton was likely  
104 because of longer environmental persistence (soil half-lives 110-146 d vs. 14-26 d, respectively  
105 [Pesticide Action Network Pesticide Database]). Thus, consistent with the ecosystem function  
106 results, these findings on the zooplankton community suggest that ecological risk assessment can  
107 be largely simplified to generalized effects of pesticide type or class.

108         In the tri-trophic community, variation explained by pesticides was about equally  
109 distributed among type, class, and individual pesticide (Table S1). The dbRDA showed that: 1)  
110 herbicide- and insecticide-treated mesocosms had distinct communities, 2) within herbicides,  
111 triazines and chloroacetanilides classes caused further distinction in communities, and 3) there  
112 was relatively high multivariate dispersion in communities exposed to carbamate and  
113 organophosphate insecticides (Fig. 3a). Overall, survival of predators was low with insecticides,  
114 except for aldicarb (Fig. 3b,c). Amphibian and snail prey generally had greater positive  
115 responses to insecticides compared to controls or herbicides (Fig. 3b,c), suggesting benefits from  
116 a release from predators, a trend found in other studies (*13*). When we grouped responses of taxa  
117 by functional role in the community (algae, herbivores, and predators), the amount of variance  
118 accounted for by pesticide type (29%) was almost double the variance accounted for by either  
119 pesticide class (17.6%) or individual pesticide (17.3%) (Table S1). From these results we  
120 conclude that complexity in predicting the effects of pesticides on communities could be reduced  
121 by evaluating responses of functional groups instead of individual taxonomic responses.

122           Next, we evaluated if the effects of pesticides occurred via changes in abundance of  
123 ‘targeted taxa’ by examining simulated pesticide treatments. This evaluation was motivated by a  
124 call to uncover non-target effects and mechanisms by which anthropogenic drivers alter  
125 biodiversity and ecosystem function via direct manipulations of taxa (6). With the exception of  
126 the bottom-up simulated herbicide, the effects of simulated pesticide treatments on ‘targeted  
127 taxa’ did not match the effects of pesticide classes (pair-wise comparisons Fig. 1-3), likely  
128 because of difficulties in sustaining manipulations that matched the magnitude and specificity of  
129 actual pesticides (see Supplemental Text and Fig. S3 for details) on species with short generation  
130 times. While manipulating species composition has been critical historically in the study of  
131 biodiversity-ecosystem function, the same approaches are likely not well-suited for 1) species  
132 that can exhibit population dynamics in the timescale of an experiment because they should be  
133 able to quickly recover from a manipulation and 2) studies of disturbance because matching the  
134 complexity of the effects of actual disturbance is challenging.

135           Only the bottom-up simulated herbicide (i.e., triple shade cloth) was effective at reducing  
136 the targeted taxa, as it significantly reduced algae ( $t=2.009$ ,  $p=0.015$ , Fig. 1). When we compared  
137 this treatment to triazine herbicides, there were minor differences in effects on ecosystem  
138 function and community composition, but only in magnitude, not direction, and neither triazines  
139 nor bottom-up simulated herbicides led to detectable lethal effects on non-target taxa. Bottom-up  
140 simulated herbicides and triazines grouped together in the tri-trophic community cluster diagram  
141 (Fig. 3c), and triazines were not different from bottom-up simulated herbicide treatments in the  
142 zooplankton community analysis (Fig. 2c). These results suggest that the observed effects of  
143 triazines on freshwater ecosystems were driven predominantly by direct toxicity to targeted taxa  
144 and their associated indirect effects, rather than non-target effects.

145 Path models revealed that effects of herbicides on ecosystem functions, such as primary  
146 productivity and respiration, were mediated by their effects on biodiversity (Fig. 4a; via changes  
147 in evenness of algae and not richness, Fig. S5). In contrast, although insecticides influenced  
148 biodiversity (Fig. 4c), insecticides primarily altered ecosystem function via the direct path, which  
149 captures both direct effects of pesticides (e.g., biogeochemical alterations to carbon cycle) and  
150 indirect effects mediated by unmeasured aspects of biodiversity (e.g., microbiota). The absence  
151 of a significant biodiversity-mediated effect of insecticides is likely because insecticides directly  
152 reduced species (e.g., predators, zooplankton) that contributed little to the ecosystem functions  
153 we measured (photosynthesis, respiration, decomposition). Given that species responses showed  
154 greater variability to pesticides compared to ecosystem functions and pesticide-induced changes  
155 to ecosystem functions were at times mediated by changes to biodiversity, the observed  
156 consistency in the responses of ecosystem functions to pesticides within pesticide types is likely  
157 driven by functional redundancies of species. Indeed, when we simplified our community by  
158 functional roles, pesticide type explained almost twice the variance as pesticide class or  
159 individual pesticide (Table S1).

160 Ecological risk assessment, made complex by tens of thousands of synthetic chemicals  
161 and diverse species assemblages, could be simplified by assessing groups of chemicals that share  
162 similar chemical structures or environmental targets and examining responses of functional  
163 groups of taxa (14). A similar approach is taken by Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationships  
164 (QSAR) (15), which attempts to assess toxicity of synthetic chemicals using information on  
165 compound structure. The clustering of pesticides in this study was not consistent with predictions  
166 from QSAR models, likely because predictions are based on few model organisms and do not  
167 include indirect effects (Supplemental Text). Nevertheless, this study suggests that simplifying



168 groups of commercial chemicals that share similar chemical structures or environmental targets  
169 can be extended from individuals to ecosystems, which would improve predictions and provide  
170 more time and resources to identify potential exceptions to general patterns. Before these  
171 changes are adopted by risk managers, additional testing would be warranted to evaluate if the  
172 patterns observed here are consistent across additional contaminants, biomes, and community  
173 compositions and structures.

174

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232 **Figure 1. Experimental design and similarity of ecosystem responses by pesticide type.**

233 **A)** Food web diagram of experimental communities. **B)** Experimental design showing  
234 hierarchical structure of treatments. Each treatment was replicated four times with mesocosm as  
235 the replicate. **C)** Distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) plot of multivariate ecosystem  
236 responses showing differences among treatments grouped by pesticide type. Individual points are  
237 the centroids of 18 treatments in the experiment. For pair-wise comparisons, treatments sharing  
238 letters are not different from each other. **D)** Vector overlay of ecosystem responses for the  
239 corresponding dbRDA plot. The gray circle corresponds to vector lengths that would have a  
240 correlation coefficient of one with each axis. **E)** Cluster diagram of experimental treatments and  
241 ecosystem-level responses showing grouping of experimental treatments according to pesticide  
242 type.

243

244 **Figure 2. Zooplankton communities respond consistently to pesticides within type, class,**

245 **and individual pesticide. A)** dbRDA plot, **B)** vector overlay, and **C)** cluster diagram of  
246 multivariate zooplankton densities showing differences among type, class, and individual  
247 pesticide.

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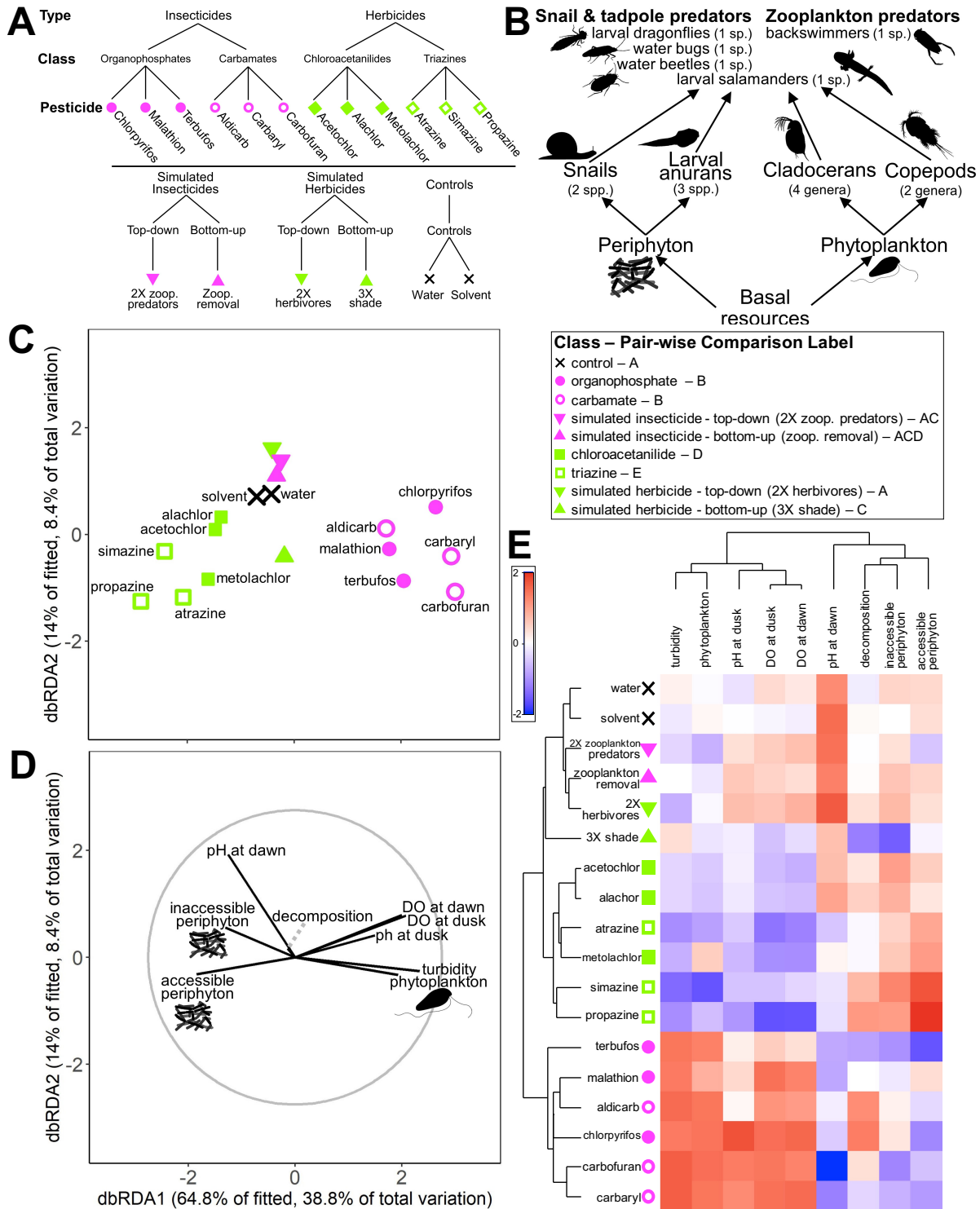
249 **Figure 3. Insecticides generally reduce insect predators in tri-trophic communities,**

250 **resulting in increases in the survival and growth of their prey. A)** dbRDA plot, **B)** vector  
251 overlay, and **C)** cluster diagram of multivariate community responses showing differences  
252 among type, class, and individual pesticide. When responses within tri-trophic communities are  
253 grouped by functional role (algae, herbivores, predators), type explains twice as much variation  
254 as class and individual pesticide (Table S1).

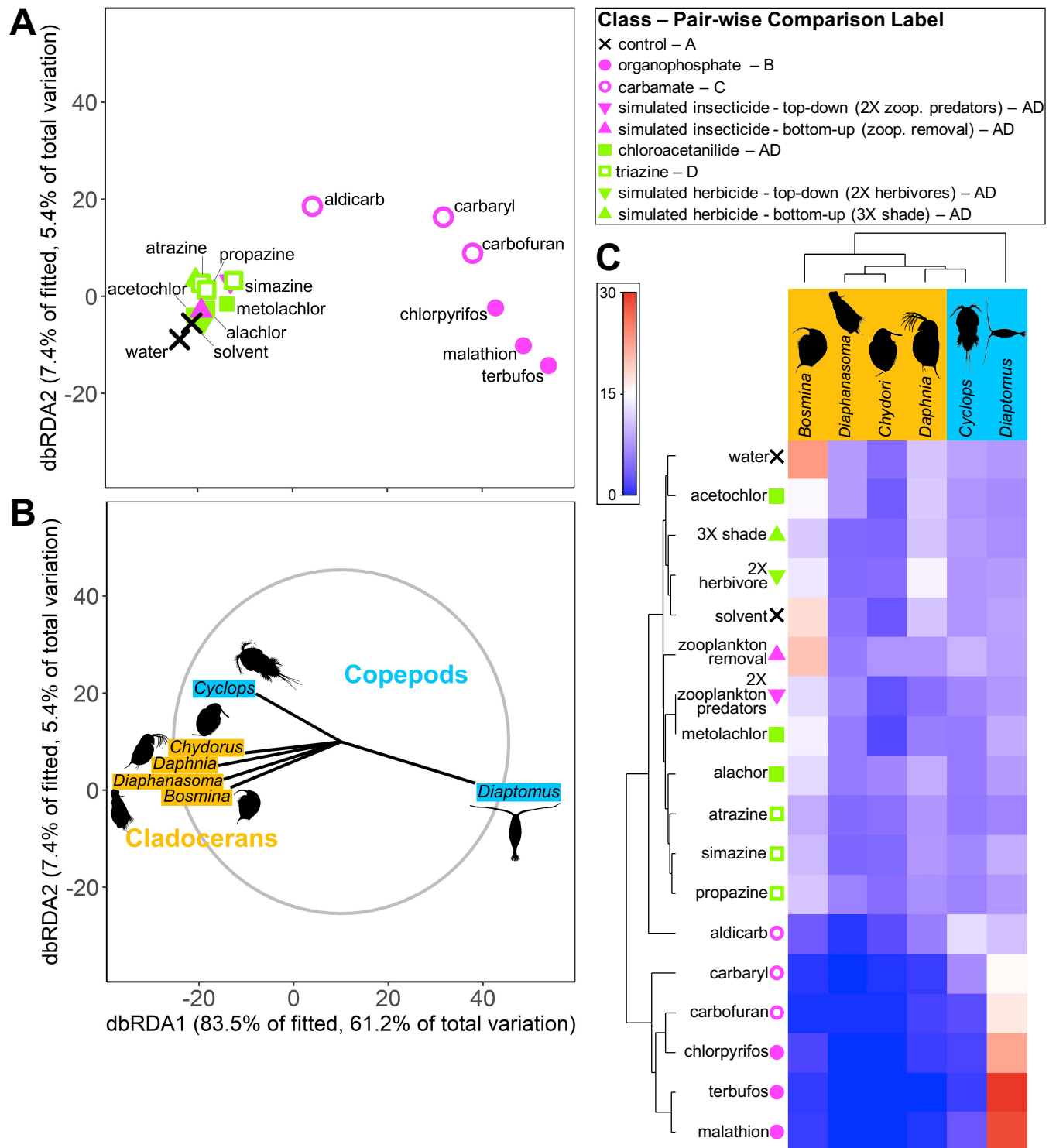
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256 **Figure 4. Path models among pesticides, biodiversity, and ecosystem function.** Relationships  
257 among Shannon diversity, ecosystem functions, and **A)** herbicides or **C)** insecticides, and  
258 associated scatterplots of Shannon diversity and ecosystem functions for the **B)** herbicides and  
259 controls and **D)** insecticides and controls. Herbicides affected ecosystem function by increasing  
260 evenness and reducing primary productivity, whereas there was no detectable relationship for  
261 insecticides. Solid arrows are significant paths, and dotted arrows are non-significant paths. P-  
262 values, standardized coefficients, and conditional  $R^2$  values are provided.

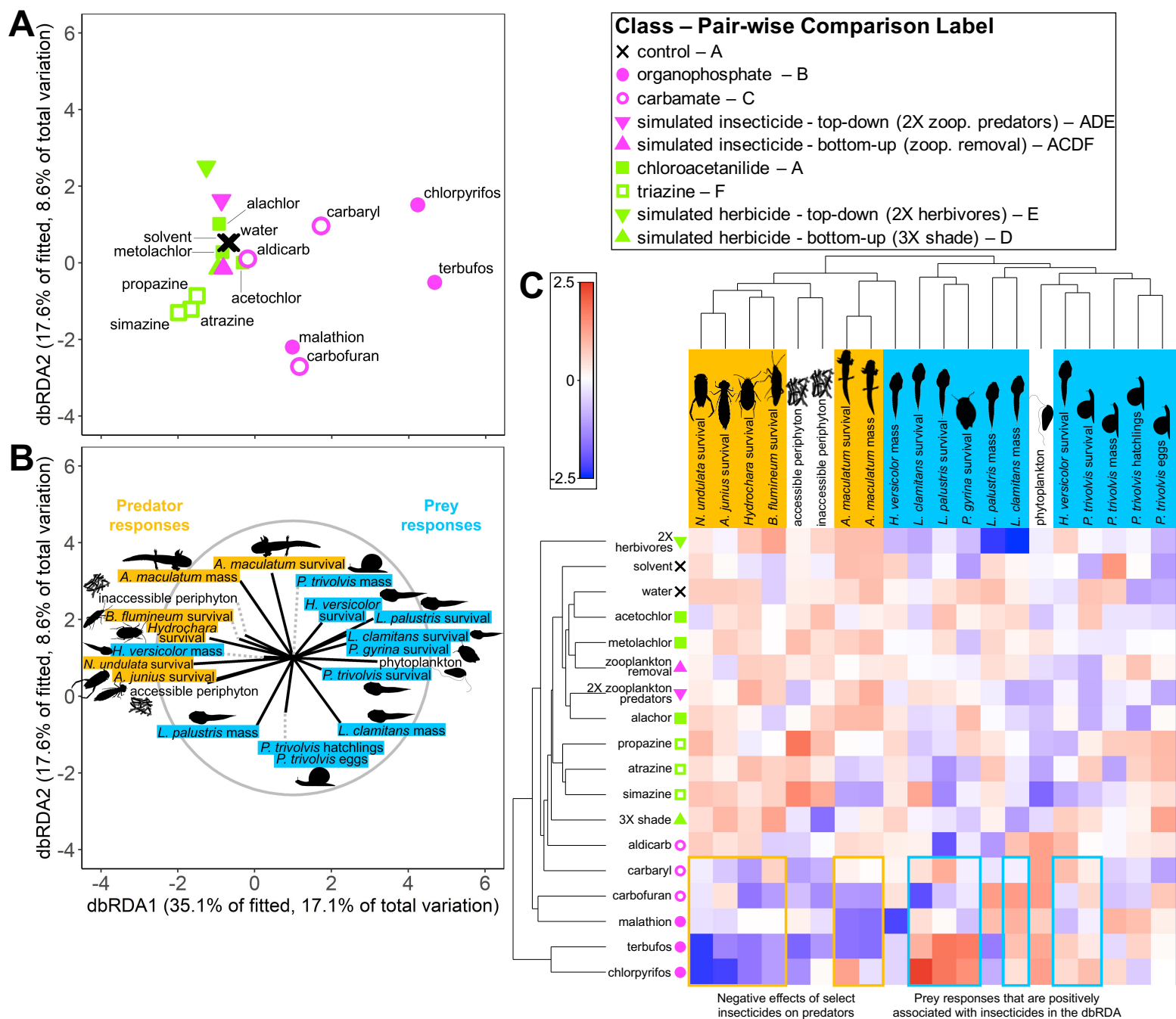
263 Figure 1.



264 Figure 2.



265 Figure 3.





266 Figure 4.

