1	1 Challenging popular belief, mosquito larvae breathe underwater		
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5	Running tittle: Mosquito larvae breathe underwater		
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Alvarez-Costa et al.

39 Summary statement

We present the first quantitative analysis of mosquito larvae respiration in air and water,
unravelling the unknown capacity of larvae of the most cosmopolitan disease vector of
breathing underwater.

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44 Abstract

45 It is taken for granted that immature mosquito only breathe atmospheric air through their siphons. However, there is no quantitative study that demonstrated it. We analysed the 46 survival of the last instar larvae of *Aedes aegypti* fully submerged at different temperatures, 47 and measured oxygen consumption from air and dissolved in water, of larvae and pupae of this 48 species under different conditions. Results revealed that under water, larvae survived much 49 longer than expected, reaching 50% mortality only after 58, 10, and 5 days at 15°, 25° and 50 35°C, respectively. Interestingly, whereas we registered moults to pupae in larvae with access 51 52 to air, individuals kept submerged never moulted. When remaining at the water surface, larvae 53 obtained 12.72% of O₂ from the water, while pupae only 5.32%. When completely submerged, 54 larvae consumed less oxygen than in contact with the surface, but enough for surviving, while pupae did not. At both media, temperature affected larvae respiration rate, with relatively close 55 56 Q_{10} values. In the related species, *Ae. albopictus*, a similar pattern of Q_2 consumption were observed. Larvae got 12.14% of their oxygen from the water. Interestingly, no significant 57 differences in total O₂ consumption were found between water O₂ consumption, when Ae. 58 albopictus larvae were submerged, or when they also have access to air (dual O₂ consumption). 59 Our findings not only challenge the classical idea that mosquito larvae only breathe 60 atmospheric O₂, but also force us to reconsider the potential effectiveness of control methods 61 based on asphyxiating larvae by detaching from water surface. 62

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- 65 *Keywords:* Aedes, metabolism, survival, respiration, temperature, Q₁₀
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Alvarez-Costa et al.

68 Introduction

As an originally terrestrial group and from an evolutionary standpoint, when insects 69 colonized the freshwater, have to deal with many vital functional problems. Respiration was 70 71 probably the greatest one. As an environment, water is a less favourable medium for respiration 72 because its oxygen concentration is twenty times lower, and its rate of oxygen diffusion is lower by a factor of 105 (Dejours, 1988). In this sense, insects that had adapted to water 73 74 environments developed plenty of different strategies to acquire oxygen. Among them, there 75 are examples of cutaneous respiration, developed spiracular, tracheal, and blood gills, the use 76 of air stores carrying air bubbles, or the use of hydrofuge structures to remain attached to the 77 water surface and breathe atmospheric air (Wigglesworth, 1972). It is taken for granted that the 78 last is the case of mosquito larvae and pupae, who would use their siphons as "snorkels" when 79 they rest attached to water surface. This statement is widely affirmed in textbooks, internet 80 scientific and dissemination sites, and also in protocols for controlling mosquito populations at juvenile stages. Yet, the vital role of aerial respiration in immature mosquitoes has been 81 82 challenged by sporadic observations since long time ago (e.g., Da Costa Lima, 1914; MacFie, 1917; Ramsey and Carpenter, 1932; Wang, 1938; Richards, 1941). 83

84 Even though it seems reasonable that atmospheric air would constitute the main source of oxygen, it cannot be excluded that mosquito larvae and pupae could gather some 85 oxygen from the water. On the one hand, the survival underwater of larvae belonging to 86 different mosquito species, along with some measurements of oxygen consumption from the 87 water (Sen, 1914; Fraenkel and Herford, 1938) are pieces of evidence that water-dissolved 88 oxygen could be sufficient for maintaining vital functions during periods without contact 89 90 with the surface. However, the relative contribution atmospheric and water-dissolved oxygen 91 to the metabolism of mosquito larvae and pupae has not been yet investigated.

92 In our study, we attempt to shed light on respiratory gas exchange in immature mosquito stages. We analysed the survival and oxygen intake of mosquito larvae and pupae 93 94 having or not having access to air and measured the effect of the temperature on these variables. For the first time, we provide quantitative data on oxygen consumption from air and water, 95 measuring them both, separately and simultaneously. Finally, we discuss the evidence obtained 96 during our experiments in the framework of mosquito respiratory physiology, as well as the 97 possible consequence of our findings for control methods based on the suffocation of juvenile 98 99 mosquitoes

Alvarez-Costa et al.

100 Materials and methods

101 *Mosquitoes*

Eggs of Aedes aegypti of the Bora strain (insecticide susceptible) and Ae. albopictus of 102 Vectopole strain reared at Vectopole (Montpellier, France) were provided by the European 103 network InFravec2 (https://infravec2.eu/). Eggs were put in dechlorinated tap water for 104 hatching, adding traces of ascorbic acid and tropical fish food, and kept at $26^{\circ}C$ (± $1^{\circ}C$) in a 105 climatic chamber, under a light/dark cycle 12h:12h/ (lights on at 08:00 am). Food was regularly 106 provided until they reached the 4th instar (6-10 days in our conditions), and used for 107 experiments. Individuals were handled by aspirating them with plastic Pasteur pipettes with 108 their tip cut. Each larva was tested only once and discarded afterward. 109

110 Survival experiments

111 The survival time of fourth-instar larvae of *Ae. aegypti* was evaluated at three 112 temperatures (15°, 25°, and 35°C). A climatic chamber was set at the experimental temperature, 113 and these values were kept constant at nearly 1°C. A 12h:12h light cycle was imposed with 114 lights on at 08:00 am. Relative humidity was kept at 70% to reduce the evaporation of the water 115 in the recipients. In case some evaporation occurred, deionised water was daily added to return 116 to the initial volume.

For each temperature, two larvae were placed in recipients with 300 ml of dechlorinated 117 water under two conditions, submerged or with access to air. In both cases, a unique larva was 118 placed into a glass cylinder (0.6 cm in diameter and 2 cm in length), both ends closed by a 119 tissue mesh kept with the aid of an O-ring; to allow water circulation, but keeping the larva 120 caged at the same time. In the first condition (submerged), the cylinder was completely sunk 121 at the bottom of the recipient, taking care that no air remained captive inside. The control 122 condition consisted of a larva placed in the same cylinder maintaining half of it in contact with 123 the air, and the other half underwater (Fig. S1). No food was provided, but the water was neither 124 changed, nor the development of microorganisms impeded. Recipients were placed inside a 125 climatic chamber at 15°, 25° or 35°C (\pm 0.5°C), under a light/dark cycle at 12h:12h/ (lights on 126 127 at 08:00 am). The number of dead and moulted insects was recorded daily.

128 Oxygen consumption

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Alvarez-Costa et al.

129 The individual oxygen consumption of immature Ae. aegypti was measured using optodes. We employed two 4-channel Firesting O₂ meter (Pyro Science, Aachen, Germany) 130 131 using 4 ml vials with an integrated optical oxygen transducer (OXVIAL 4). Briefly, flashes of light of specific wavelengths generated in the interface are guided through a light fibre to excite 132 133 a transducer inside the vial from the outside. The fluorescens of the substance, which is proportional to the oxygen concentration in the medium (air or water) is gathered by the same 134 135 optic guide and analysed at the interface. The temperature of the vials was controlled using a Peltier element and controller (QuickCool 34W; Peltron Gmbh, Germany). A temperature 136 137 sensor from the oxygen meter measured the temperature inside an empty vial, and its signal allowed the system to adjust the values of the measured O₂ concentrations. 138

139 Fourth-instar larvae of Ae. aegypti and Ae. albopictus, and pupae of Ae. aegypti were evaluated. Most measurements were carried out on Ae. aegypti under three vial conditions: 140 submerged, closed vial, and open vial, at 15°, 25° and 35°C. The condition submerged 141 consisted in a closed vial filled with water with an individual inside, and water O₂ concentration 142 143 was registered for four hours. In this treatment, the total absence of air bubbles was carefully checked. For the closed vial condition, an individual of the mosquito immature stage was 144 145 placed in a closed vial half filled with water, and the water and air O₂ concentration was registered for four hours. Finally, the open vial condition consisted of an open half-filled water 146 147 vial with an individual mosquito inside, and the water O₂ concentration was registered for four 148 hours. Each treatment was replicated between 12 and 30 times. The rate of oxygen consumption was calculated for each replicate, calculating the slope of a linear regression of the O₂ 149 concentration versus the time of the experiments. For Ae. albopictus same assays were 150 performed except for open vial condition and close vials at 15 and 35°C. 151

152 *Statistics*

To analyse differences in survival across temperatures and conditions (submerged andcontrol) a Kaplan-Meier analysis was performed.

For the analyses of oxygen consumption, the effects of vial conditions (submerged, closed vial, and open vial), temperature $(15^\circ, 25^\circ \text{ or } 35^\circ \text{C})$, the medium where O₂ was taken (air or water) and stage (larva or pupa) in O₂ consumption one or two-ways ANOVAs were performed. *A posteriori* comparisons of significant ANOVAs were performed by means of Tukey test. The significance threshold was chosen at 0.05 for all analyses.

Alvarez-Costa et al.

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161 **Results**

162 *Survival experiments*

The survival of Ae. aegypti larvae were significantly affected by the temperature and 163 immersion conditions (p<0.05). In the control treatment (i.e., with access to air) at 25°C, no 164 death was registered, and the survival curve was significantly higher than the curve of the 165 166 submerged treatment at the same temperature. At 35°C, the survival curve of the submerged larvae presented the lowest values with the higher negative slope, differing significantly from 167 its control at the same temperature. Surprisingly, at 15 °C the submersion treatment did not 168 differ from the control (Fig. 1A). The 50% mortality of submerged larvae differed with the 169 temperature, being 58, 10, and 5 days at 15°, 25°, and 35°C, respectively (Fig. 1B). 170 Remarkably, some individuals remained alive for as long as 30 days at 25°C and 68 days at 171 15°C. Finally, whereas we registered moults to pupae in control larvae, individuals kept 172 173 submerged never moulted (Table 1).

174 *Oxygen consumption*

175 *Larvae and pupae at 25°C*

176 In all three conditions: submerged, closed vial and open vial, Ae aegypti larvae and pupae evinced to consume measurable amounts of oxygen from the water (Fig. 2). A significant 177 178 difference in O₂ consumption from the water was observed between the interaction of immature stages and the vial conditions (two-way ANOVA F: 107.31, DF: 5, p<0.0001). Larvae under 179 180 the submerged condition presented the highest rate of water-dissolved O₂ consumption, followed by pupae under the same vial conditions. In addition, larvae under closed vial and 181 open vial conditions presented higher rates of O₂ consumption than pupae under the same vial 182 conditions, but their O₂ consumption rates were always lower than larvae and pupa under 183 184 submerged conditions (Fig. 2). No significant difference was found between closed and open vial treatments for both immature stages, allowing us to employ closed vials for next 185 186 measurements.

Pupae presented higher oxygen consumption from the air than larvae under closed vial
conditions (two-way ANOVA, F: 119.75, DF: 3, p<0.0001, Fig. 3). The air O₂ consumption of

7

Alvarez-Costa et al.

both immature stages tested was significantly higher than their water O_2 consumption (p<0.05, Fig. 3). The dual rate of O_2 consumption, adding air and water O_2 consumption of closed vial treatment, were 0.111 and 0.128 moles/h for larvae and pupae respectively. Larvae obtained most of their oxygen from the air, but about 13% from water, while pupae obtained almost 95% from the air and the rest from water (Fig. 4B, C). Finally, the dual (air + water) O_2 consumption in closed vial condition was significantly higher than O_2 consumption from the water of the submerged condition (two-way ANOVA, F: 68.85, DF: 3, p<0.0001, Fig. 4).

196 <u>Effect of temperature on oxygen consumption (Q_{10} of larvae)</u>

The consumption of water-dissolved oxygen of Ae. aegypti larvae when they were 197 submerged, also significantly varied with temperature (one-way ANOVA, F: 33.46, DF: 2, 198 p<0.0001). The highest O₂ consumption was registered at 35°C, followed by 25°C, and the 199 200 lowest one was registered at 15°C. The Q₁₀ calculated between 15° and 25°C was 1.47 and 1.66 201 between 25° and 35°C, so the mean Q₁₀ across the experiment was 1.56. Also, O₂ consumption from air of Ae. aegypti larvae significantly varied with temperature (one-way ANOVA, F: 202 18.09, DF: 2, p<0.0001). The highest O₂ consumption was registered at 35°C, followed by 203 25°C, and the lowest was registered at 15°C. The Q₁₀ calculated between 15° and 25°C was 204 2.21 and between 25° and 35°C was 1.45, so the mean Q₁₀ across the experimental temperatures 205 206 was 1.83.

207 <u>Aedes albopictus</u>

Similar patterns of O₂ consumption were observed in Ae. albopictus. A significant 208 difference in O₂ consumption from the water was observed between vial conditions (one-way 209 ANOVA, F: 278.36, DF: 1, p<0.0001, Fig. 5). Ae. albopictus larvae from the submerged 210 condition treatment presented significantly higher O₂ consumption than larvae from the closed 211 vial (Fig. 5). In the closed vial condition, the mean dual (air + water) rate of O_2 consumption 212 was 0.0185 μ moles of O₂/h for larvae. They consumed a significantly higher amount of O₂ 213 (around 88%) from the air than from water (one-way ANOVA, F: 27.97, DF: 1, p< 0.0001, 214 Fig. 6). Interestingly, no significant differences in the total O₂ consumption of *Ae. albopictus* 215 216 larvae were found between water-dissolved oxygen consumption when they were submerged 217 or when they also had access to air (dual O₂ consumption) in the closed vial condition (oneway ANOVA, F: 0.99, DF: 1, p= 0.325, Fig. 7). 218

Alvarez-Costa et al.

On the other hand, the temperature affected the rate of O_2 consumption from water (oneway ANOVA, F: 77.52, DF: 2, p<0.0001). The rate of O_2 consumption did not differ significantly between 15° and 25°C, but a significant increase was registered between either 15° or 25° and 35°C. The Q₁₀ calculated between 15° and 25°C was 1.47, and between 25° and 35°C was 3.01, so the average Q₁₀ between 15° and 35°C was 2.24.

224

225 Discussion

We report the first quantitative data on oxygen consumption, both from the air and from the water, by larvae and pupae of two major disease vectors, *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*. In both cases, far from a great surprise, most of the oxygen consumed comes from atmospheric air, but not all of it. The portion gathered from the water is low, but physiologically significant, which means it is just enough for survival, and much lower in pupae, which obtain practically the totality of the oxygen they consume from the air.

232 Even though underwater respiration by mosquito larvae has been repeatedly reported, this phenomenon remained anecdotal, deserving no attention by most people. In fact, not only 233 there is no evidence to what extent oxygen gathered from water might be physiologically 234 significant to mosquito larvae, but it has been completely ignored as a potential drawback in 235 control procedures involving larval suffocation. Indeed, being detached from the surface and 236 237 losing contact with the air, does not mean the immediate death of the larvae by asphyxiation. In complete submersion, they were capable of surviving for days, weeks, or even months, 238 239 depending on the temperature of the water.

As can be expected for a poikilotherm and ectotherm organism, water temperature has 240 a significant impact on larval metabolism, which is reflected in the intensity of both aerial and 241 aquatic respiration. This dependence is quantitatively expressed by the calculation of Q_{10} 242 243 values for oxygen consumption, and also by the differential survival time of completely submerged larvae across a wide range of temperatures. As expected, the lower the temperature, 244 245 the longer the survival time observed. This fact can be explained by the modulation of larvae metabolism, reflected on the Q_{10} different from 1, together with a higher O_2 concentration in 246 247 the water, since the solubility of oxygen increases as temperature decreases. So, in tropical

9

Alvarez-Costa et al.

areas or areas where human activities result in relatively warm temperatures, we could expecta lower capacity to tolerate immersion for prolonged periods.

Interestingly, the moult cycle was markedly affected by the deprivation of access to 250 atmospheric air. No larva was capable of accomplishing a normal moult in the prolonged 251 submersion experiments. The oxygen gathered exclusively from the water resulted to be 252 253 sufficient for surviving and swimming (larvae did not remain immobile nor in akinesis into the tubes), but not enough for moulting. Only larvae kept at the lower temperature showed signs 254 of incomplete ecdysis after many weeks under water, which indicates that the first steps of the 255 moult process took place. Probably, ecdysis is excessively expensive in terms of energetic 256 257 demands to complete it under these conditions.

Aquatic respiration was reported several times in mosquito larvae. One of the first 258 259 scientists to turn his interest towards water respiration in mosquito larvae was the Brazilian 260 entomologist Ângelo Moreira Da Costa Lima more than a century ago. He performed a series 261 of experiments placing larvae of different Culicidae species under complete submersion and reporting day by day the status of each individual (Da Costa Lima, 1914). The author observed 262 that some larvae survived for several days and that one larva whose "leaflets" (i.e., anal 263 papillae) had been removed, returned at the surface more often than another intact used as 264 control. These results led the author to assert: "The results of my experiments convinced me 265 that mosquito larvae, while generally breathing mainly free air by the two tracheae of the 266 respiratory syphon, also respire the oxygen of the air dissolved in water, the gaseous exchanges 267 being made by the branchial leaflets and the general integument of the body.". This assertion 268 was criticised by colleagues, who distrusted the results due to poor control of the experimental 269 270 conditions (Sen, 1914). Da Costa Lima (1916) replicated some of the original experiments taking additional care and reporting similar observations to his previous ones. On the other 271 272 hand, Da Costa Lima noted the resemblance to gills of anal papillae, in line with other colleagues considering these structures as respiratory organs in aquatic Diptera (Koch. 1938). 273 274 The demonstration of the osmoregulatory function of the papillae (Wigglesworth, 1932, 1933, review by Bradley, 1987), together with the general assumption that the potential contribution 275 276 of oxygen dissolved in the water should be insignificant, rapidly made aquatic respiration to 277 be disregarded as physiologically relevant for mosquito larvae (Thorpe, 1933).

Other early investigations, such as those conducted by MacFie (1917), Ramsey and
Carpenter (1932), Wang (1938), and Richards (1941) focussed on the oxygen requirements of

Alvarez-Costa et al.

mosquito larvae by submerging them in oxygenated or deoxygenated water, observing
differential survival. According to our results (Fig. 5), and those obtained by Fraenkel and
Herford (1938), fully submerged *Ae. aegypti* larvae would consume only half as much oxygen
as larvae swimming in the normal manner. However, this is not the case in *Ae. albopictus*,
whose larva can gather similar amounts of oxygen when fully submerged or attached to the
surface (Fig. 8).

Using a different experimental approach, Krogh (1941) noticed that the gaseous pressure in the trachea of *Culex* larvae reduced during submersion; according to the author, this could be caused by the withdrawal of oxygen for respiration and the loss of CO_2 through the external cuticle. This author estimated the volume of the tracheae close to 1.5 µlitre, suggesting that the content of oxygen would be enough for surviving 5-10 min underwater Krogh (1941).

Hagstrum (1970) measured the aerial and aquatic respiration of larvae of different species, in the presence of petroleum oils in the water. His study suggested that for *Ae. aegypti* aquatic respiration could represent *ca.* 5-20% of aerial respiration, rather than 50% as formerly proposed by Fraenkel and Herford (1938). This agrees with our results where the aquatic respiration of *Ae. aegypti* larvae constituted about 13%. Hagstrum (1970) also reported delayed mortality in *Ae. aegypti* larvae, although their tracheae were blocked with petroleum oil, noting that these larvae were unable to pupate.

299 Later on, different authors started to focus their attention on the fact that the amount of oxygen dissolved in the water might impact on the survival of larvae and pupae, and, as a 300 301 consequence, eventually affect their control based on larval suffocation. Reiter (1978) kept 302 submerged larvae of three mosquito species in water with fixed dissolved oxygen contents and 303 at different temperatures. The author concluded that those larvicides which kill by anoxia are likely to be effective only when the water is less than 30% saturated with oxygen, the exact 304 value depending on the species. Westwood et al. (1983) and Silberbush et al. (2015) extended 305 this idea to larvae living in natural environments with access to the air, providing additional 306 quantitative data related to survival and oxygen saturation in the water. 307

308 Interestingly, different authors commenced in recent years to insinuate that breathing 309 in mosquito larvae may have been misunderstood, raising questions about canonical 310 assumptions and the real effectiveness of larval suffocation as a method for controlling natural

Alvarez-Costa et al.

311 populations of mosquitoes. For instance, in an attempt to understand the underlying mechanism of breathing cut-off (e.g., wettability of the siphon), Lee et al. (2018) exposed larvae of Aedes 312 313 togoi to water treated either with oil-film layers or with surfactants (i.e., substances impeding 314 larvae to remain attached to the water surface). The survival times recorded were variable 315 according to the treatment, but reached times of about one day. The authors concluded that cutaneous respiration dependent on the oxygen concentration in the water could affect the 316 317 efficacy of larval asphyxiation methods. In this sense, Lee et al. (2018) underlined the need to prevent oxygen dissolution by blocking the exchange between the water and the atmospheric 318 air at the surface. It is clear that this procedure would negatively affect not only mosquitoes, 319 but also the rest of the organisms living in the same environment. More recently, Nyberg and 320 Muto (2020) investigated the mechanism of action of what authors called "mosquito acoustic 321 322 *larviciding*". They reported that their acoustic treatment provoked the tracheal system a series of what they reported as "previously unobserved phenomena" According to Nyberg and Muto 323 (2020), these phenomena would be difficult to explain based on the present knowledge of 324 mosquito respiration, eventually concluding that the respiratory function in mosquitoes is far 325 326 from being completely understood.

Our study sheds light on the respiratory physiology of the mosquito aquatic instars by analysing the survival and oxygen intake of mosquito larvae and pupae having or not having access to the air, and measuring the effect of the temperature on these variables. For the first time, we provide quantitative data on oxygen consumption from air and water, which have been measured separately and simultaneously. Our work also provides evidence demonstrating how our limited knowledge of crucial aspects of mosquito respiratory physiology may compromise control methods based on the suffocation of juvenile mosquitoes.

334

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Alvarez-Costa et al.

341 Competing interest

342 Authors declare no competing nor financial interests.

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Alvarez-Costa et al.

Table 1. Proportion of pupae \pm s.e.m. (number of individuals) of *Ae. aegypti* larvae at control and submerged treatments at three temperatures: 15°, 25°, and 35°C.

Temperature (°C)	Control	Submerged
15°	0.09 ± 0.09 (11)	0 (7)
25°	0.52 ± 0.11 (21)	0 (36)
35°	0.18 ± 0.10 (16)	0 (28)

Alvarez-Costa et al.

405 Figure Captions

406 Figure 1. (A) Survival of Ae. aegypti larvae: control (solid line) and submerged treatments (dotted line) at three temperatures: 15°, 25°, and 35°C (blue, green, and red respectively). (B) 407 Survival time 50 (estimated and 95 % confidence intervals) of Ae. aegypti larvae at control and 408 submerged treatments at three temperatures: 15°, 25°, and 35 °C (blue, green, and red 409 respectively). Different letters indicate significant differences between conditions (submerged 410 and control) and between temperatures in the submerged condition (p < 0.05). *It was not 411 possible to estimate the survival time 50 due to the lack of mortality in the control treatment at 412 25 °C, so the value shown is the maximum survival time registered. 413

Figure 2. Consumption of water-dissolved O₂ (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) by *Ae*. *aegypti* larvae and pupae under three conditions: submerged, closed vial and open vial.
Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments (Tukey multiple comparison).

Figure 3. (A) O₂ consumption (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) obtained from air and
water of *Ae. aegypti* larvae and pupae in the closed vial condition. Different letters indicate
significant differences between treatments (Tukey multiple comparison). Percentage of oxygen
consumption of *Ae. aegypti* larvae (B) and pupae (C), obtained from air and water.

422 Figure 4. Total O₂ consumption (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) of Ae. aegypti larvae
423 and pupae with (dual) and without (submerged) access to air. Different letters indicate
424 significant differences between treatments (Tukey multiple comparison).

Figure 5. Consumption of O2 from water (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) by Ae.
albopictus larvae under two conditions: submerged and closed vial. Different letters indicate
significant differences between treatments.

Figure 6. (A) O₂ consumption (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) obtained from air and
water of *Ae. albopictus* larvae in the closed vial condition. Percentage of oxygen consumption
of *Ae. albopictus* larvae (B) obtained from air and water. Different letters indicate significant
differences between treatments.

Alvarez-Costa et al.

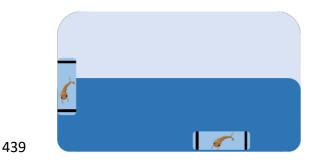
- 432 Figure 7. Total O₂ consumption (mean and 95 % confidence intervals) of *Ae. albopictus* larvae
- 433 with (dual) and without (submerged) access to air. Different letters indicate significant
- 434 differences between treatments.

Alvarez-Costa et al.

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438 Supplementary material



440 Fig S1. Setup for testing larval survival at different temperatures.

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