

1       **Functional Plasticity of the gut and the Malpighian tubules underlies cold**  
2       **acclimation and mitigates cold-induced hyperkalemia in *Drosophila***  
3       ***melanogaster***

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5               Gil Y. Yerushalmi, Lidiya Misyura, Heath A. MacMillan\*, Andrew Donini

6               Department of Biology, York University, Toronto, Canada, M3J 1P3

7       \*Current Address: Department of Biology, Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada, K1S 5B6

8  
9       Corresponding author:

10      Gil Yerushalmi

11      [gili@my.yorku.ca](mailto:gili@my.yorku.ca)

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14      **Keywords:** chill tolerance, ionoregulation, gut, Malpighian tubules, SIET

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16      **Summary Statement:** At low temperatures, *insects* lose the ability to regulate ion and water  
17      balance and can experience a lethal increase in hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>]. Previous exposure to low  
18      temperatures can mitigate this effect and improve chill tolerance. Here, we show that plasticity of  
19      ion and fluid transport across the Malpighian tubule and rectal epithelia likely drive this  
20      response.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 At low temperatures, *Drosophila*, like most insects, lose the ability to regulate ion and water  
24 balance across the gut epithelia, which can lead to a lethal increase of  $[K^+]$  in the hemolymph  
25 (hyperkalemia). Cold-acclimation, the physiological response to low temperature exposure, can  
26 mitigate or entirely prevent these ion imbalances, but the physiological mechanisms that  
27 facilitate this process are not well understood. Here, we test whether plasticity in the  
28 ionoregulatory physiology of the gut and Malpighian tubules of *Drosophila* may aid in  
29 preserving ion homeostasis in the cold. Upon adult emergence, *D. melanogaster* females were  
30 subjected to seven days at warm (25°C) or cold (10°C) acclimation conditions. The cold  
31 acclimated flies had a lower critical thermal minimum ( $CT_{min}$ ), recovered from chill coma more  
32 quickly, and better maintained hemolymph  $K^+$  balance in the cold. The improvements in chill  
33 tolerance coincided with increased Malpighian tubule fluid secretion and better maintenance of  
34  $K^+$  secretion rates in the cold, as well as reduced rectal  $K^+$  reabsorption in cold-acclimated flies.  
35 To test whether modulation of ion-motive ATPases, the main drivers of epithelial transport in the  
36 alimentary canal, mediate these changes, we measured the activities of  $Na^+K^+$ -ATPase and V-  
37 type  $H^+$ -ATPase at the Malpighian tubules, midgut, and hindgut.  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase and V-type  $H^+$ -  
38 ATPase activities were lower in the midgut and the Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated flies,  
39 but unchanged in the hindgut of cold acclimated flies, and were not predictive of the observed  
40 alterations in  $K^+$  transport. Our results suggest that modification of Malpighian tubule and gut  
41 ion and water transport likely prevents cold-induced hyperkalemia in cold-acclimated flies and  
42 that this process is not directly related to the activities of the main drivers of ion transport in  
43 these organs,  $Na^+/K^+$ - and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPases.

44

## 1. Introduction

### 45 1.1 Chill susceptibility in insects

46 Chill-susceptible insects are those that succumb to the effects of chilling at temperatures  
47 well above the freezing point of their body fluids (Bale, 1996; Overgaard and MacMillan, 2017).  
48 While most insect species are considered chill susceptible, the physiology underlying chill  
49 susceptibility remains poorly understood. Three metrics are principally used to assess the cold  
50 tolerance of chill susceptible insects. The critical thermal minimum ( $CT_{min}$ ) is the temperature at  
51 which insects lose coordination and subsequently enter a state of complete neuromuscular  
52 paralysis known as a chill coma (Block, 1990; Mellanby, 1939). In the case of mild and/or short  
53 cold exposures, chill susceptible insects may recover from a chill coma and regain full  
54 neuromuscular function and the time it takes for an insect to stand following removal from a cold  
55 exposure is termed chill coma recovery time (CCRT) (Jean David et al., 1998; Macdonald et al.,  
56 2004; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011). Following an intense cold exposure (longer duration  
57 and/or lower temperature), chill-susceptible insects acquire irreversible injuries and eventually  
58 die (Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; Rojas and Leopold, 1996) and rates of survival  
59 following chilling are also regularly used as a measure of insect cold tolerance (Andersen et al.,  
60 2015; MacMillan et al., 2015a; Sinclair et al., 2015). While there is often a high degree of  
61 covariance in these three metrics, the mechanisms that underlie each of them is different and  
62 uniquely informative, and thus all three are regularly used (Sinclair et al., 2015).

### 63 1.2 Physiology of chill coma and injury

64 The resting membrane potential of dipteran muscles and nerves is energized by  $Na^+/K^+$ -  
65 ATPase in two ways: (1) the active transport of cations to the external environment, and (2) the  
66 passive leak of positive charge (primarily  $K^+$ ) to the extracellular environment, facilitated by the

67 ion gradients set by Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase (Fitzgerald et al., 1996; Thomas, 1972). As such, one of the  
68 major challenges for animals at low temperatures is the reduction of enzymatic activity,  
69 particularly of ion-motive ATPases, which results in cellular depolarization (Ellory and Willis,  
70 1982; MacMillan et al., 2015b). Cold-induced depolarization thus occurs in two phases, first  
71 from the immediate reduction of active ion transport and second from the gradual loss of the  
72 ionic gradient necessary for passive ion leak. During the first phase, depolarizations at the onset  
73 of a cold exposure have been shown in both muscles and nerves immediately at the onset of a  
74 cold exposure (Goller et al., 1990; Hosler et al., 2000; MacMillan et al., 2014). For example,  
75 when exposed to low temperatures, various chill-susceptible insects, including *D. melanogaster*,  
76 experience muscular depolarization, likely resulting from the reduced electrogenic current of ion-  
77 motive ATPases (Goller et al., 1990; Hosler et al., 2000; MacMillan et al., 2014). In addition to  
78 reduced electrogenic current, the small extracellular space surrounding locust nerves allows for a  
79 rapid surge of extracellular [K<sup>+</sup>] which also likely contributes to initial cellular depolarizations  
80 (Robertson et al., 2017; Rodgers et al., 2010). Ultimately reductions of nerve and muscle  
81 excitability both likely underlie the neuromuscular paralysis of a chill-coma (Goller et al., 1990;  
82 Hazell and Bale, 2011; Hosler et al., 2000).

83         In contrast to the immediate effects of low temperatures, prolonged cold exposure is often  
84 accompanied by large disruptions of hemolymph ion and water homeostasis in many chill-  
85 susceptible insects including *Drosophila* (Andersen et al., 2013; Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál et al.,  
86 2006; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011; MacMillan et al., 2015c). When chill susceptible insects  
87 are exposed to low temperatures, Na<sup>+</sup> leaks down its concentration gradient, away from the  
88 hemolymph and into the gut (Košťál et al., 2004; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011). Since Na<sup>+</sup> is a  
89 major hemolymph osmolyte, water passively follows into the gut, leading to an overall reduction

90 in hemolymph water content (Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2012).  
91 This reduction in hemolymph volume leads to the concentration of hemolymph  $K^+$ , a commonly  
92 reported consequence of low temperatures in chill-susceptible insects (Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál  
93 et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015c; Yerushalmi et al., 2016). There is also growing evidence  
94 suggesting that cold-induced hyperkalemia also stems from the direct leak of  $K^+$  from tissues  
95 and/or the gut in crickets (Des Marteaux and Sinclair, 2016), fruit flies (MacMillan et al., 2015a),  
96 and migratory locusts (Andersen et al., 2013; Findsen et al., 2013), but what causes this leak  
97 remains unknown. Increased cold-induced hyperkalemia has been linked to longer CCRT and  
98 decreased chilling survival, suggesting that failure of ion regulation is a central problem for chill-  
99 susceptible insects in the cold (Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015a;  
100 Yerushalmi et al., 2016). Chill coma recovery is therefore thought to depend on the restoration of  
101 homeostatic hemolymph  $[K^+]$ , evidenced by the active reuptake of  $Na^+$  from the gut into the  
102 hemolymph in crickets, which restores hemolymph volume and consequently homeostatic  
103 hemolymph  $[K^+]$  (MacMillan et al., 2012). Chilling injury is also closely associated with the  
104 degree of hemolymph  $[K^+]$  elevation, such that the time of an approximate two-fold increase in  
105 hemolymph  $[K^+]$  is roughly predictive of a species' median lethal temperature ( $LT_{50}$ ) (Košťál et  
106 al., 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011; MacMillan et al., 2014). Cold-  
107 induced hyperkalemia further depolarizes resting membrane potential by reducing the  $K^+$   
108 gradient necessary for passive  $K^+$  leak, and it is these cumulative short- and long-term  
109 depolarizations that has been linked to cellular damage in locusts (MacMillan et al., 2015c).

110 The chill tolerance of insects (including species of the genus *Drosophila*) can vary as a  
111 result of evolutionary adaptation, thermal acclimation, or even acute exposure to low  
112 temperatures (rapid cold-hardening) (Andersen et al., 2017b; Chown and Terblanche, 2006;

113 Colinet and Hoffmann, 2012; Hoffmann et al., 2003; Kelty and Lee, 2001; Košťál et al., 2004;  
114 Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015a). For example, exposing *D. melanogaster* to 15°C  
115 for six-days as adults extended the  $Lt_{50}$  (lethal time of exposure to -2°C that results in 50%  
116 survival) from less than 5 h to over 20 h (MacMillan et al., 2015a). These gains in chill tolerance  
117 with cold acclimation are closely associated with improved maintenance of ion and water  
118 balance in the cold. Together, this body of evidence suggests that failure to maintain water and  
119 ion homeostasis in the cold underlies *D. melanogaster* cold tolerance, and that cold acclimation  
120 mitigates the extent of this ion imbalance.

### 121 **1.3 Ion and water regulation in insects**

122 At the organismal level, ion and water homeostasis are principally maintained by the  
123 transport and permeability of ions and water across the ionoregulatory epithelia, namely the  
124 midgut, Malpighian tubules, and hindgut epithelia. It is across these epithelia that cold-induced  
125 ion and water leak occurs in crickets (MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011; MacMillan et al., 2012),  
126 and thus an investigation of their transport properties before and after thermal acclimation is  
127 likely key to understanding cold acclimation.

128 The midgut is the largest segment of the *Drosophila* gut and is responsible for carrying  
129 out the vital functions of nutrient digestion, absorption, and defence against ingested pathogens  
130 (Overend et al., 2016). Following the midgut are the Malpighian tubules, diverticula of the gut  
131 that function as the main site of ion and water secretion from the hemolymph into the gut in  
132 insects. The Malpighian tubules actively transport ions from the hemolymph into the tubule  
133 lumen, which osmotically drags water to produce an isosmotic primary urine (Dow and Davies,  
134 2001; Larsen et al., 2014). The primary urine exits the Malpighian tubules where it enters the gut  
135 lumen at the junction of the midgut and hindgut mixing with contents from the midgut before

136 passing posteriorly to the hindgut where the reabsorption of water, ions, and metabolites takes  
137 place prior to the excretion of wastes (Phillips et al., 1987; Wigglesworth, 1932). The hindgut of  
138 *Drosophila* is composed of the ileum and rectum. Most ion and water reabsorption occurs at  
139 specialized areas of thickened rectal epithelia called rectal pads that actively absorb ions to create  
140 local osmotic gradients for the reabsorption of water (Larsen et al., 2014).

141 To date, differences in ionoregulatory organ function that relate to cold tolerance have  
142 only been described in the Malpighian tubules and rectal pads among *Drosophila* species that  
143 differ in chill tolerance (Andersen et al., 2017b; MacMillan et al., 2015d) and in the Malpighian  
144 tubules of cold acclimated *G. pennsylvanicus* (Des Marteaux et al., 2018). Whereas low  
145 temperatures disturbed the ratio of  $\text{Na}^+:\text{K}^+$  secreted by the tubules of chill susceptible *Drosophila*  
146 species, tolerant species experience little or no such change (MacMillan et al., 2015d). Since  $\text{Na}^+$   
147 and  $\text{K}^+$  are the main cations secreted by the tubules, the ratio of  $\text{Na}^+:\text{K}^+$  secretion is particularly  
148 informative in illustrating the ion-selective effect of low temperature exposure. Maintenance of  
149 this ratio may assist in preventing hyperkalemia by (1) maintaining  $\text{K}^+$  excretion in the cold or  
150 (2) minimizing excretion of hemolymph  $\text{Na}^+$ , an osmolyte important to the maintenance of  
151 hemolymph volume. Further, the rectal pads of chill tolerant *Drosophila* species reabsorb less  $\text{K}^+$   
152 in the cold than those of chill susceptible species, which would also facilitate the maintenance of  
153 low hemolymph  $[\text{K}^+]$  (Andersen et al., 2017b).

154 While the underlying mechanisms for the ionoregulatory changes of cold tolerant flies at  
155 low temperatures remain unclear, the regulation of ion-motive ATPases that energize these  
156 tissues is a possibility. For example, increased ion-motive ATPase activity in the Malpighian  
157 tubules would raise the basal fluid and ion secretion rate, allowing greater  $\text{K}^+$  clearance in the  
158 cold. Conversely, in absorptive tissues such as the hindgut and the Malpighian tubules,

159 reductions of ion-motive ATPases would reduce ion absorption and thus mitigate the active  
160 reuptake of  $K^+$  in the cold. To date, whole body  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase activity was measured in cold-  
161 acclimated *Drosophila* (MacMillan et al., 2015b) and an organ-specific assessment of  $Na^+/K^+$ -  
162 ATPase and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPase activity in cold-acclimated *G. pennsylvanicus* have been  
163 conducted (Des Marceaux et al., 2018). In the present study a complete assessment of both organ-  
164 specific  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPase activities alongside functional measurements for  
165 the midgut, the Malpighian tubules, and the hindgut are presented for *D. melanogaster*.

#### 166 **1.4 Experimental goals and hypotheses**

167 In this study, we investigate the effect of cold acclimation following seven days at  $10^\circ C$  on  
168 functional ion transport parameters of the ionoregulatory organs of *D. melanogaster*. We  
169 hypothesize that both  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPase activities will increase in the  
170 Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated flies, and that these increases will enable a higher  
171 capacity for  $K^+$  clearance at low temperatures (Figure 1). Conversely, we hypothesized that in  
172 the midgut and hindgut, decreases in  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPase activities will  
173 reduce  $K^+$  absorption and mitigate hyperkalemia in the cold (Figure 1). To test this, we first  
174 confirm that cold-acclimation improves the cold tolerance of *D. melanogaster* and mitigates  
175 cold-induced hyperkalemia. We then measure ion transport parameters of Malpighian tubules  
176 and gut function directly. Lastly, we quantify the activities of  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase and V-type  
177  $H^+$ -ATPase in the primary ionoregulatory organs (midgut, Malpighian tubules, and hindgut) to  
178 test whether their modulation underlies organ-specific function.



179

## 2. Methods

### 180 2.1 Animal husbandry and acclimation treatments

181 The population of *Drosophila melanogaster* used in this study was established in 2008 by  
182 combining 35 isofemale lines from southwestern Ontario, Canada (Marshall and Sinclair, 2010).  
183 Fly rearing was conducted as previously described (Yerushalmi et al., 2016) by transferring  
184 mature adults into 200 mL plastic bottles containing ~50 mL of a standard rearing diet  
185 (Bloomington *Drosophila* medium; Lakovaara, 1969) for 1-2 h, ensuring an approximate egg  
186 density of 100-150 eggs/bottle. The bottles were then stored at 25°C and a 14:10 h light:dark  
187 cycle. Filter paper was placed in each bottle to increase surface area for pupation. Newly-  
188 emerged adults were collected daily and transferred into 40 mL plastic vials containing 7-10 mL  
189 of the rearing diet. The vials were then randomly assigned to one of the two treatments: warm- or  
190 cold-acclimation. Warm-acclimated (WA) flies were maintained at 25°C with a 14:10 h  
191 light:dark cycle and cold-acclimated (CA) flies were maintained at 10°C with 10:14 h light:dark  
192 cycle (aimed to mimic summer and fall conditions, respectively). All experiments were  
193 conducted on non-virgin adult females following a one-week exposure to their acclimation  
194 treatment.

### 195 2.2 Chilling tolerance phenotypes

196 In the present study we measured the critical thermal minimum ( $CT_{min}$ ) and chill coma  
197 recovery time (CCRT). Chilling survival was recently measured in the same laboratory  
198 population of flies under identical rearing and acclimation conditions, and was described by  
199 MacMillan et al. (2017).

200 To measure  $CT_{min}$  as previously described (Andersen et al., 2015; Yerushalmi et al.,  
201 2016), flies were individually placed in 4 mL glass screw-top vials. Vials were then attached to a  
202 custom-built rack and placed in a temperature-controlled bath (Model MX7LL, VWR  
203 International, Mississauga, Canada) containing a 1:1 mixture of ethylene glycol and water at  
204 room temperature (25°C). The bath temperature was then ramped down at a rate of  $-0.15^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$   
205 and the temperature was monitored independently using a pair of type-K thermocouples  
206 connected to a computer running Picolog (version 5.24.8) via a Pico TC-08 interface (Pico  
207 Technology, St. Neots, UK). Flies were individually observed throughout the ramping period and  
208 the temperature at which no fly movement was observed following a disturbance of the vial with  
209 a plastic probe was recorded as its  $CT_{min}$ .

210 To measure CCRT as previously described (MacMillan et al., 2015a; Yerushalmi et al.,  
211 2016), female flies were individually placed in 4 mL glass screw-top vials. The vials were sealed  
212 in a plastic bag and submerged in an ice-water mixture (0°C). After 6h the vials were removed  
213 from the ice-water mixture and placed at room temperature (25°C) where the flies were  
214 individually observed. The time that it took an individual fly to stand on all six legs following its  
215 removal from the cold treatment was recorded as its CCRT.

### 216 **2.3 Hemolymph $[K^+]$ measurements**

217 Hemolymph  $[K^+]$  was assessed in flies from both acclimation groups following exposure  
218 to 0°C for various durations from 0 h to the maximal survival duration at 0°C (up to 30 h for  
219 warm-acclimated flies and up to 110 h for cold acclimated flies) using the ion-selective  
220 microelectrode technique (ISME) as previously described (Jonusaite et al., 2011). The cold-  
221 exposure durations used here mirrored those previously used in a chill-survival analysis  
222 (MacMillan et al., 2017), except for 36 h and 42 h for warm-acclimated flies, where hemolymph

223 extraction was unsuccessful and survival rates were very low. Hemolymph droplets were  
224 collected by placing individual flies in 200  $\mu$ L pipette tips and attaching the tips to a custom-  
225 made device (MacMillan and Hughson, 2014). Air pressure was applied to position the fly head  
226 at the end of a pipette tip and an antenna was then carefully removed under a dissection  
227 microscope. Droplets of hemolymph that emerged at ablated antenna were immediately placed  
228 under paraffin oil for assessment using ISME.

229 Ion-selective microelectrodes were prepared from borosilicate glass capillaries (TW150-  
230 4; World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, USA) and pulled using the P-97 Flaming-Brown  
231 micropipette puller (Sutter Instruments Co., Novato, USA) to a tip diameter of  $\sim$ 5  $\mu$ m. The  
232 microelectrodes were then salinized in vapours of N,N-dimethyltrimethylsilylamine (Fluka,  
233 Buchs, Switzerland) at 300°C for 1 hour. K<sup>+</sup>-selective microelectrodes were backfilled with 100  
234 mM KCl and front loaded with the K<sup>+</sup> Ionophore cocktail B (100 mM KCl; Fluka). Na<sup>+</sup>-selective  
235 electrodes (used for assessment of [Na<sup>+</sup>] in the Malpighian tubule secreted fluid, see below) were  
236 backfilled with 100 mM NaCl and front loaded with the Na<sup>+</sup> Ionophore II cocktail A (100 mM  
237 KCl/100 mM sodium citrate, pH 6.0; Fluka). The ion-selective microelectrodes were then dipped  
238 in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) to prevent the leakage of ionophore into the paraffin oil. To  
239 complete the circuit, a conventional microelectrode was prepared from borosilicate glass  
240 capillaries (IB200F-2; WPI) and backfilled with 500 mM KCl. Both electrodes were connected  
241 to the PowerLab 4/30 data acquisition system (AD Instruments Inc., Colorado Springs, USA)  
242 through an ML 165 pH Amp and analyzed with LabChart 6 Pro software (AD Instruments Inc.).  
243 Once the set up of ISME was complete, 5  $\mu$ L calibration droplets with known concentrations of  
244 the ion of interest and a 10-fold difference in its concentration were measured. To ensure ion-  
245 specificity, the lower of the two concentration droplets was corrected in ionic strength using

246 LiCl. For example, for the measurement of hemolymph  $[K^+]$ , 10 mM KCl/90 mM LiCl and 100  
247 mM KCl were used for calibration. The final ion concentrations were then calculated with the  
248 following equation:

$$249 \quad a^h = a^c \times 10^{\frac{\Delta V}{S}}$$

250 Where  $a^h$  is the hemolymph ion concentration,  $a^c$  is the concentration of one of the calibration  
251 droplets,  $\Delta V$  is the difference in voltage between the hemolymph and the calibration solution and  
252 S is difference in voltage between two calibration droplets with a tenfold difference in ion  
253 activity.

#### 254 **2.4 Malpighian tubule fluid and ion secretion rates**

255 To assess differences in Malpighian tubule activity, modified Ramsay assays (Ramsay,  
256 1954) were conducted on tubules extracted from cold- and warm-acclimated flies and at 0°C,  
257 5°C, 10°C, and 23°C. To isolate Malpighian tubules, individual flies were first dipped in 70%  
258 ethanol for 5-10 seconds to remove the cuticular waxes and transferred into a dish lined with a  
259 silicone elastomer (Sylgard 184; Dow Corning Corp., Midland, USA) and containing *Drosophila*  
260 saline (10 mM glutamine, 20 mM glucose, 15 mM MOPS, 4.2 mM  $NaH_2PO_4$ , 10.2 mM  
261  $NaHCO_3$ , 8.5 mM  $MgCl_2$  (hexahydrate), 2 mM  $CaCl_2$  (dihydrate), 20 mM KCl, 117.5 mM NaCl,  
262 pH 7.0) for dissections. The anterior pair of Malpighian tubules were then isolated along with a  
263 portion of the ureter by cutting the ureter near the ureter-gut junction. Upon their removal, the  
264 Malpighian tubules were transferred into another silicone-lined dish containing 35  $\mu$ L droplets of  
265 a 1:1 mixture of *Drosophila* saline and Schneider's insect medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,  
266 USA) placed in premade wells under paraffin oil. Using a glass probe, one tubule was placed in  
267 the droplet and the other was carefully wrapped around a metal pin adjacent to the droplet,

268 ensuring exposure of the excised ureter to the paraffin oil where secreted fluid would accumulate  
269 to be collected for analysis (see Larsen et al., 2014).

270 To assess Malpighian tubule function at 0°C, 5°C and 10°C, after the Ramsay assays  
271 were set up at room temperature, the silicone-lined dish housing the assay was placed in a glass  
272 dish containing ~1cm of water within a Precision™ Low Temperature BOD Refrigerated  
273 Incubator (Model PR205745R, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). The temperature of  
274 the water bath holding the Ramsay assay dishes was monitored independently using type-K  
275 thermocouples and maintained within 1°C of treatment temperature at all times. Because chilling  
276 slows rates of fluid transport (Anstee et al., 1979; MacMillan et al., 2015d; Maddrell, 1964),  
277 incubation times were adjusted depending on temperature to ensure a droplet of sufficient size  
278 for measurement and analysis by ISME; Ramsay assays were incubated for 30 min, 120 min, 150  
279 min, or 180 min for assays running at 23°C, 10°C, or 5°C, or 0°C, respectively. Following this  
280 incubation period, a glass probe was used to isolate the primary urine droplet under paraffin oil.  
281 Droplets of the secreted fluid were then suspended in oil (to ensure a spherical shape) and droplet  
282 diameter was measured using the ocular micrometer of a Motic® K-400L Stereo Microscope  
283 (Motic North America, Richmond, Canada). The fluid secretion rate was then calculated using  
284 the following equation:

285 
$$\text{secretion rate} = \frac{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}{t}$$

286 Where r is the radius of the secreted fluid droplet in mm, and t is the incubation period of  
287 the Ramsay assay in minutes.

288           Lastly,  $[\text{Na}^+]$  and  $[\text{K}^+]$  of the fluid secreted by the Malpighian tubules were measured  
289 using ISME as described above (see section 3.3).

## 290 **2.5 Midgut and hindgut $\text{K}^+$ flux**

291           The scanning ion-selective microelectrode technique (SIET) was used to measure  $\text{K}^+$  flux  
292 across the midgut and hindgut epithelium as previously described (Andersen et al., 2017c;  
293 Jonusaite et al., 2013; Rheault and O'Donnell, 2001). Briefly, a  $\text{K}^+$ -selective microelectrode was  
294 prepared as described above and mounted onto a headstage with an Ag/AgCl wire electrode  
295 (WPI). The headstage was connected to an ion polarographic amplifier (IPA-2, Applicable  
296 Electronics, Forestdale, USA). The circuit was completed using a reference electrode composed  
297 of 3% agar in 3 M KCl that solidified inside a glass microcapillary. One end of the electrode was  
298 placed in the bathing solution while the other end was connected to a headstage via an Ag/AgCl  
299 half-cell (WPI). Ion selective microelectrodes were calibrated in 5 mM KCl/45 mM LiCl and 50  
300 mM KCl solutions.

301           Rates of  $\text{K}^+$  flux at the midgut and rectum of both warm- and cold-acclimated flies were  
302 measured at 23°C and 6°C using SIET. Whole guts were carefully isolated and bathed in fresh  
303 *Drosophila* saline in the lid of 35 mm Petri dishes. The use of the Petri dish lid minimized gut  
304 movement due to the adhesion of the gut to the surface of the dish. Individual measurements  
305 were conducted 5-10  $\mu\text{m}$  from the gut epithelium and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  away, for the assessment of  
306 concentration differences near and away from the preparation. To minimize potential gradient  
307 disturbance effect of the electrode movement, a 4 s wait time was employed between the two  
308 positions of measurement, followed by a 1s recording period. For each measured position, this  
309 protocol was repeated four times, and the average voltage gradient between the two points was  
310 used for the calculation of  $\text{K}^+$  flux. The Automated Scanning Electrode Technique (ASET)

311 software (version 2.0, Science Wares, East Falmouth, USA) was used to automatically run the  
312 sampling protocol and calculate the average voltage gradient at each assessed site. A  
313 measurement of background noise was recorded for each preparation ~3mm away from the gut  
314 and was used in the calculation of K<sup>+</sup> flux to account for mechanical disturbances in the ion  
315 gradients that arise from the movement of the electrode during sampling.

316 Voltage gradients were converted into concentration gradients using the following  
317 equation as previously described by Donini and O'Donnell (2005):

$$318 \quad \Delta C = C_B \times 10^{\frac{\Delta V}{S}} - C_B$$

319 Where  $\Delta C$  is the concentration gradient between the two measured points,  $C_B$  is the background  
320 gradient measured away from the gut preparation,  $\Delta V$  is the voltage gradient adjacent to the  
321 tissue, and  $S$  is the difference in voltage between two calibration droplets with a tenfold  
322 difference in ion activity. While in reality this technique measures ion activity, data can be  
323 expressed in concentrations if it is assumed that the ion activity coefficient in the experimental  
324 solution is the same as that of the calibration (Donini and O'Donnell, 2005).

325 Measurement sites across the gut included six equidistant sites across the midgut  
326 (averaged and represented as a single flux), three sites across the ileum (averaged and  
327 represented as a single flux), and 2-3 sites on the rectal pads (averaged and represented as a  
328 single flux). For each site, two or more measurements were taken and averaged.

## 329 **2.6 Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase enzyme activity**

330 Tissue-specific Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activities were measured as  
331 described by Jonusaite et al. (2011) by quantifying the oubain- (Sigma-Aldrich Canada,

332 Oakville, Canada) or bafilomycin-sensitive (LC Laboratories, Woburn, USA) hydrolysis of  
333 adenosine triphosphate (ATP) at 25°C.

334 Midguts, Malpighian tubules, and hindguts were each collected from warm- and cold-  
335 acclimated flies. To isolate these organs, individual flies were first dipped in 70% ethanol for 5-  
336 10 seconds for the removal of cuticular waxes and transferred into a dish lined with a silicone  
337 elastomer containing *Drosophila* saline for dissections. To minimize rapid thermal plasticity,  
338 dissections were conducted at temperatures approximating the acclimation treatments. Warm-  
339 acclimated flies were dissected at room temperature (~23°C) and cold-acclimated flies were  
340 dissected at ~10°C by placing the dissecting dish on a PE100 Inverted Peltier System connected  
341 to a PE95 controller (Linkam Scientific Instruments, Tadworth, England) in the view of the  
342 dissecting microscope. Following the dissection of each individual fly, isolated organs were  
343 transferred to 2 mL microcentrifuge tubes and immediately flash frozen using liquid nitrogen.  
344 Frozen samples were stored at -80°C for later tissue processing.

345 To homogenize the organs, samples were thawed on ice and 100 µL of homogenizing buffer  
346 was added to each tube (150 mM sucrose, 10 mM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA, 50 mM imidazole, 0.1%  
347 deoxycholic acid; pH 7.3). The samples were homogenized on ice using a PRO 250 homogenizer  
348 with a 5 x 75 mm generator (PRO Scientific Inc., Oxford, USA) for 8-10 seconds and  
349 centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 10 minutes at 4°C using a 5810R centrifuge (Eppendorf Canada,  
350 Mississauga, Canada). The resulting supernatants were then collected into 2 mL tubes and stored  
351 at -80°C.

352 Three assay solutions (A, B, and C) containing the appropriate enzymes and reagents were  
353 prepared. Solution A was composed of 4 U/mL lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), 5 U/mL pyruvate  
354 kinase (PK), 2.8 mM phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), 3.5 mM ATP, 0.22 mM NADH, 50 mM



355 imidazole, and a pH of 7.5. Solutions B and C were similar in composition but also contained  
356 5 mM ouabain or 10  $\mu$ M bafilomycin, respectively, for the inhibition of the ATPases under  
357 investigation. Following their preparation, each solution was mixed in a 3:1 ratio with a salt  
358 solution composed of 189 mM NaCl, 10.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 42 mM KCl, 50 mM imidazole, and a pH  
359 of 7.5. Final conditions for the assays were as follows: 3 U/mL LDH, 3.75 U/mL PK, 2.1 mM  
360 PEP, 2.63 mM ATP, 0.17 mM NADH, 47.25 mM NaCl, 2.6 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 10.5 mM KCl, 50 mM  
361 imidazole, and a pH of 7.5

362 Prior to running the assays, an adenosine diphosphate (ADP) standard curve was run to  
363 ensure that all reagents used are working normally. First, 0 nM, 5 nM, 10 nM, 20 nM, 40 nM  
364 ADP standards were prepared by diluting stock ADP in imidazole buffer. Two technical  
365 replicates containing 10  $\mu$ L of each ADP standard were then added to a 96-well polystyrene  
366 microplate (BD Falcon™, Franklin Lakes, USA) and 200  $\mu$ L of the assay solution (solution A +  
367 salt solution) was added to each well. The plate was then placed in a Thermo Electron  
368 Multiskan™ Spectrum microplate spectrophotometer (Thermo Electron Co., Waltham, USA) set  
369 to 25°C and measuring absorbance at 340 nm (the peak absorbance of NADH). The recorded  
370 absorbance was analyzed using Skanlt version 2.2.237 (Thermo Electron Co.). The assay  
371 solution was approved if the optical density of the ADP standards were within 0.2 and 0.9 and if  
372 the slope of the curve was between -0.012 and -0.014 OD nmol ADP<sup>-1</sup> (Jonusaite et al., 2011).

373 To run both assays (Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase), experimental homogenates  
374 were thawed and added to a 96-well microplate that was kept on ice in six replicates of 10  $\mu$ L  
375 each. Following this, 200  $\mu$ L of the assay solutions (Salt solution mixed with solutions A, B, or  
376 C) were added to two replicates for each experimental sample, resulting in two technical

377 replicates per sample. The plate was then inserted into the microplate reader and the linear  
378 disappearance of NADH (peak absorbance: 340 nm) was assessed over a 30 min period.

379 Upon assay completion, raw absorbance data was extracted from the Multiskan Spectrum  
380 data acquisition system and the rates of NADH disappearance were independently assessed in R  
381 version 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2015) using the `lmList()` function available in the `lme4` package  
382 (Bates et al., 2016). Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase specific ATP consumption was  
383 determined by assessing the difference in activity between samples running with or without  
384 ouabain or bafilomycin, respectively. Enzyme activity was standardized to the protein content of  
385 each sample using a Bradford assay (Sigma-Aldrich Canada) according to the manufacturer's  
386 guidelines and using bovine serum albumin as a standard (Bioshop Canada Inc., Burlington,  
387 Canada). Final enzyme activities were calculated using the following equation:

$$388 \quad \text{enzyme activity} = \frac{\Delta \text{Activity}}{S \times [P]}$$

389 Where  $\Delta \text{Activity}$  is the difference in the rate of ATP hydrolysis in the absence and presence of  
390 ouabain or bafilomycin,  $S$  is the slope of the ADP standard curve, and  $[P]$  is the protein  
391 concentration of the sample.

## 392 **2.7 Malpighian tubule size**

393 In analysis of ion-motive ATPase activities in the Malpighian tubules, it became apparent  
394 that the protein content of cold-acclimated Malpighian tubules was significantly elevated (Figure  
395 6A). Thus, to investigate the cause of this difference in protein content, Malpighian tubule size  
396 was assessed for flies of both acclimation groups. The anterior pair of tubules of individual flies  
397 were dissected out, ensuring that no direct contact was made with the Malpighian tubules  
398 themselves. Images of the tubules were then captured using an Olympus IX81 inverted

399 microscope (Olympus Canada, Richmond Hill, Canada). Images were recorded and analyzed  
400 using Olympus cellSens digital imaging software version 1.12 (Olympus Canada). Malpighian  
401 tubule length was measured from the ureter-Malpighian tubule junction to the distal end of each  
402 tubule. Tubule width measurements were always taken ~100  $\mu\text{m}$  from the ureter-tubule junction.

## 403 **2.8 Statistical analysis**

404 The  $\text{CT}_{\text{min}}$  and CCRT of warm- and cold-acclimated flies were compared using unpaired  
405 student's t-tests. Two-way ANOVAs were used to determine the independent and interacting  
406 effects of acclimation temperature and exposure temperature on Malpighian tubule fluid and ion  
407 secretion rates, ion concentrations in the secreted fluid, and the ratio of  $\text{Na}^+:\text{K}^+$  in the secreted  
408 fluid. Holm-Sidak post-hoc tests were then conducted to compare differences in activity between  
409 the two acclimation treatments at each exposure temperature. The effects of exposure  
410 temperature and acclimation temperatures on  $\text{K}^+$  flux across the midgut, ileum, and rectum were  
411 also analyzed using two-way ANOVAs. An ANCOVA was used to assess the effect of exposure  
412 duration on hemolymph  $[\text{K}^+]$  and to compare this effect between warm- and cold-acclimated  
413 flies. Tissue-specific ATPase activity, Malpighian tubule protein content, and Malpighian tubule  
414 length and width were compared between the two acclimation treatments using unpaired  
415 student's t-tests. All statistical tests were conducted on GraphPad Prism version 6.0.1 (GraphPad  
416 Software, La Jolla, USA).

## 417 **3. Results**

### 418 **3.1 Cold acclimation improved chill tolerance and mitigated cold-induced hyperkalemia**

419 The  $\text{CT}_{\text{min}}$  of cold-acclimated flies was significantly lower than that of warm-acclimated  
420 flies (unpaired t-test;  $P < 0.0001$ ; Figure 2A); on average, cold-acclimated individuals entered a

421 chill coma  $\sim 3.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  below warm-acclimated flies. The chill coma recovery time following 6 h at  
422  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  was lower by approximately 50% in cold-acclimated flies (unpaired t-test;  $P < 0.0001$ ;  
423 Figure 2B). While cold-acclimated flies recovered in  $17.3 \pm 0.9$  min, warm-acclimated flies  
424 required  $36.4 \pm 2.9$  min to recover from the same amount of time at  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

425 Hemolymph  $[\text{K}^+]$  levels were assessed in warm- and cold-acclimated flies following  
426 exposures to  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  of varying durations reflecting our previous assessment of chill survival in this  
427 population (MacMillan et al., 2017). With increasing duration to cold exposure, hemolymph  $[\text{K}^+]$   
428 significantly increased in both warm-acclimated flies ( $P = 0.0045$ ,  $R^2 = 0.83$ ) and cold-  
429 acclimated flies ( $P = 0.0117$ ;  $R^2 = 0.77$ ; Figure 2C). The rate of  $[\text{K}^+]$  accumulation, however,  
430 differed by a factor of nine among the acclimation groups (ANCOVA;  $F_{1,10} = 27.27$ ,  $P =$   
431  $0.0004$ ); whereas hemolymph  $[\text{K}^+]$  increased at a rate of  $\sim 1.5$  mM/hour in warm-acclimated flies,  
432 it increased at a rate of  $\sim 0.17$  mM/hour in cold-acclimated flies (Figure 2C).

### 433 **3.2 Cold acclimation altered Malpighian tubule fluid and ion secretion across a range of** 434 **temperatures**

435 Malpighian tubule function was measured using Ramsay assays at  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and  
436  $23^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $n = 7-16$  individuals per temperature per acclimation group). Exposure temperature and  
437 acclimation temperatures interacted to affect all assessments of Malpighian tubule function  
438 including fluid secretion rates, ion concentrations in the secreted fluid, ion secretion rates, and  
439 the ratio of  $\text{Na}^+:\text{K}^+$  secretion ( $P < 0.05$  in all cases; see Table S1 for all two-way ANOVA  
440 results). Notably, the fluid secretion rates at  $5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and  $23^{\circ}\text{C}$  were significantly higher in  
441 cold-acclimated flies (Holm-Sidak test;  $P = 0.0015$ ,  $P = 0.0002$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , respectively; Figure  
442 3A) where the most pronounced difference was an 9-fold higher fluid secretion rate at  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the  
443 same temperature as the cold-acclimation temperature (Figure 3A). Cold acclimation altered both

444 [Na<sup>+</sup>] and [K<sup>+</sup>] in the secreted fluid. For warm-acclimated flies, [Na<sup>+</sup>] was relatively stable in the  
445 secreted fluid between 5°C and 23°C (~75 mM), but was elevated to 147 ± 19 mM at 0°C  
446 (Figure 3B). Cold-acclimated flies secreted fluid with lower [Na<sup>+</sup>] relative to warm-acclimated  
447 flies at every tested temperature (Holm-Sidak test;  $P = 0.0032$ ,  $P = 0.0442$ ,  $P = 0.0002$ ,  $P =$   
448  $0.0128$  for 0°C, 5°C, 10°C, and 23°C; Figure 3B), and never exceeded the [Na<sup>+</sup>] measured at  
449 23°C. In parallel, while [K<sup>+</sup>] was stable in cold-acclimated flies throughout all exposure  
450 temperatures, [K<sup>+</sup>] in the secreted droplets of warm-acclimated flies was significantly reduced at  
451 0°C and 10°C in comparison to cold-acclimated flies (Holm-Sidak test;  $P = 0.0004$ , and  $P =$   
452  $0.0073$ , respectively; Figure 3C). Changes in Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> concentrations of the fluid secreted by  
453 the Malpighian tubules can result from changes to fluid or ion secretion rates, or both. Rates of  
454 Na<sup>+</sup> secretion at 23°C were ~50% higher in cold-acclimated flies, a significant difference (Holm-  
455 Sidak test;  $P = 0.0030$ ; Figure 3D). Similar trends were noted at 5°C and 10°C where Na<sup>+</sup>  
456 secretion was increased by 86% and 115%, respectively, but these differences were not  
457 significant. While K<sup>+</sup> secretion decreased with decreasing temperatures in both acclimation  
458 groups, cold-acclimated flies maintained higher K<sup>+</sup> secretion at all temperatures (Holm-Sidak  
459 test;  $P = 0.0060$ ,  $P = 0.0018$ ,  $P = 0.0002$ ,  $P = 0.0022$ , for 0°C, 5°C, 10°C, and 23°C,  
460 respectively; Figure 3E). Taken together, these changes in ion transport rates prevented the rise  
461 of Na<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> at low temperatures in cold-acclimated flies, where the ratio of Na<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> in the secreted  
462 fluid was maintained between 0.18 ± 0.10 at 10°C and 0.56 ± 0.10 at 23°C (Figure 3F). In  
463 contrast, this ratio was highly disturbed in warm-acclimated flies, rising from 0.59 ± 0.16 at  
464 23°C to 1.87 ± 0.43 at 0°C. This ratio of Na<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> was significantly higher in warm-acclimated  
465 flies in comparison to cold-acclimated flies at 0°C and 10°C (Holm-Sidak test;  $P = 0.0080$ ,  $P =$   
466  $0.0093$ , respectively; Figure 3F) but not at 5°C or 23°C.

### 467 **3.3 Cold-acclimation reduced rectal reabsorption of K<sup>+</sup>**

468 To assess the impact of thermal acclimation on gut K<sup>+</sup> flux in the cold, K<sup>+</sup> flux was  
469 assessed along the midgut and hindgut (ileum and rectum) at 6°C and 23°C using the scanning  
470 ion-selective electrode technique (Figure 4). In the midgut, neither exposure temperature ( $F_{1,20} =$   
471  $0.19$ ,  $P = 0.67$ ; Figure 4A) nor acclimation temperature ( $F_{1,20} = 0.57$ ,  $P = 0.57$ ) altered mean K<sup>+</sup>  
472 flux. In contrast, mean ileal K<sup>+</sup> flux was predicted by acclimation temperature ( $F_{1,36} = 4.31$ ,  $P =$   
473  $0.045$ ; Figure 4B) and its interaction with exposure temperature ( $F_{1,36} = 6.37$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ), but not  
474 exposure temperature ( $F_{1,36} = 1.30$ ,  $P = 0.26$ ). Lastly, both exposure temperature ( $F_{1,32} = 4.29$ ,  
475  $P = 0.047$ ) and acclimation temperature ( $F_{1,32} = 4.33$ ,  $P = 0.046$ ) predicted K<sup>+</sup> flux at the rectum  
476 such that K<sup>+</sup> flux was lower in cold-acclimated flies and at lower exposure temperatures (Figure  
477 4C).

### 478 **3.4 Cold acclimation decreased midgut and Malpighian tubule Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-** 479 **type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity**

480 The enzymatic activity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase (relative to total  
481 protein) was assessed in the midgut, Malpighian tubules, and hindgut of warm- and cold-  
482 acclimated flies (Figure 5). Reductions in the maximal activity of both ATPases were noted in  
483 the Malpighian tubules and the midgut. Activity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase was 41% lower in the midgut  
484 (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.01$ ;  $n = 5$ ) and 53% lower in the Malpighian tubules (unpaired t-test;  $P =$   
485  $0.006$ ;  $n = 3$ ) of cold-acclimated flies relative to those that were warm-acclimated. By contrast,  
486 no difference in Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity was found in the hindgut (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.7$   $n = 5$ ;  
487 Figure 5). In a similar pattern, V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity was 92% lower in the midgut  
488 (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.0004$ ;  $n = 3$ ), 61% lower in the Malpighian tubules (unpaired t-test;  $P =$

489 0.01;  $n = 5$ ) and did not differ in the hindgut of cold-acclimated flies (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.9$ ;  $n$   
490  $= 5$ ; Figure 5).

491 Interestingly, differences in activity of both ATPases in the Malpighian tubules were  
492 largely driven by differences in protein content (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.01$ ; Figure 6A), despite a  
493 similar number of Malpighian tubules collected per group. When assessed independently of  
494 protein content, there was no significant difference in the enzymatic activity of either  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -  
495 ATPase (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.52$ ; Figure 6B) or V-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase ( $P = 0.32$ ) between flies  
496 from different acclimation temperatures. In contrast, total protein did not differ between midguts  
497 (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.41$ ) or hindguts ( $P = 0.30$ ) of warm- and cold- acclimated flies.

498 To assess whether the difference in protein content may be driven by difference in  
499 Malpighian tubule size, the width and length of Malpighian tubules of flies from both  
500 acclimation groups were assessed. Malpighian tubule length did not differ between the two  
501 acclimation groups (unpaired t-test;  $P = 0.240$ ; Figure 6C), but the Malpighian tubules of cold-  
502 acclimated flies were significantly wider than those of warm-acclimated flies (unpaired t-test;  $P$   
503  $= 0.007$ ; Figure 6D-E).

504

505

## 4. Discussion

### 506 **4.1 Cold acclimation mitigates hyperkalemia and improves the cold tolerance of female**

#### 507 *D. melanogaster*

508 Cold acclimation improves the cold tolerance of *D. melanogaster* females and mitigates  
509 the degree of cold-induced hyperkalemia. Specifically, cold acclimated flies entered chill coma  
510 at a lower temperature (lower CT<sub>min</sub>) and recovered faster from a chill coma (lower CCRT;  
511 Figure 2A-B). These results are consistent with recent findings that chill tolerance dramatically  
512 improves under the same acclimation treatment, with the Lt<sub>50</sub> nearly doubling (MacMillan et al.,  
513 2017), and where improvements in chill tolerance (CCRT, CT<sub>min</sub>, and survival) have been  
514 illustrated in a variety of insects following cold acclimation, including *D. melanogaster*  
515 (Andersen et al., 2017a; Košťál et al., 2011; Overgaard et al., 2008; Ransberry et al., 2011). Also  
516 consistent with findings in firebugs, crickets, cockroaches, and fruit flies, cold-induced  
517 hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>] elevations were greatly mitigated following cold acclimation (Košťál et al.,  
518 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015c). This is consistent with the observed  
519 improvements in CCRT and survival, that have consistently been related to the prevention of  
520 cold-induced hyperkalemia (Košťál et al., 2004; Košťál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015a;  
521 Yerushalmi et al., 2016). Thus, our population of *D. melanogaster* responds to a cold acclimation  
522 treatment similarly to previous studies on this species (with improved chill tolerance and  
523 mitigated cold-induced hyperkalemia). We therefore assessed whether the ionoregulatory organs  
524 of *D. melanogaster* are involved in facilitating this preservation of K<sup>+</sup> balance.

### 525 **4.2 Physiological plasticity of the Malpighian tubules improves K<sup>+</sup> clearance**

526 In *Drosophila*, the Malpighian tubules are responsible for the formation of the primary  
527 urine and act as the main excretory organ, and thus play a central role in organismal iono- and



528 osmoregulation. We used Ramsay assays and measured secreted fluid ion concentrations with  
529 ion-selective microelectrodes to assess temperature effects on fluid, Na<sup>+</sup>, and K<sup>+</sup> secretion  
530 following thermal acclimation. As predicted, the Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated flies  
531 maintained K<sup>+</sup> secretion rates at low temperatures better than those from warm-acclimated flies,  
532 which would facilitate K<sup>+</sup> clearance in the cold (Figure 3E). This resulted in preserving the  
533 [Na<sup>+</sup>]:[K<sup>+</sup>] ratio of the secreted fluid from tubules of cold-acclimated flies, while warm-  
534 acclimated flies experienced a 4-fold increase in the [Na<sup>+</sup>]:[K<sup>+</sup>] ratio (Figure 3F). Reduced K<sup>+</sup>  
535 secretion in the tubules of warm-acclimated flies would reduce their capacity for K<sup>+</sup> clearance  
536 and thus likely contribute to the accumulation of hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>].

537         The Malpighian tubules are energized by temperature-sensitive ATPases, and the basal  
538 rate of fluid secretion across the Malpighian tubules dramatically decreases in the cold  
539 (MacMillan et al., 2015d; Ramsay, 1954). In an apparent compensatory response, following one  
540 week at 10°C, the fluid secretion rate of tubules from cold-acclimated flies was elevated at 5°C,  
541 10°C, and 25°C, but not at 0°C, relative to warm-acclimated flies (Figure 3A). For instance, the  
542 secretion rate of tubules from cold-acclimated flies increased by a factor of ~9 from 0.05 nL  
543 min<sup>-1</sup> to 0.46 nL min<sup>-1</sup> at their acclimatory temperature of 10°C. These rates are still below those  
544 of tubules from warm-acclimated flies at room temperature (~50%) demonstrating that exposure  
545 to 10°C for 1-week results in partial compensation of fluid secretion rates. However, at 0°C, the  
546 temperature used for CCRT and a previous survival analysis (MacMillan et al., 2017), there was  
547 no difference in fluid secretion rates but ion secretion rates differed.

548         To our knowledge, this is the first assessment of the role of Malpighian tubules in  
549 *D. melanogaster* cold acclimation, but both MacMillan *et al.* (2015d) and Andersen *et al.*  
550 (Andersen et al., 2017b) assessed the role of the tubules in cold tolerance among five *Drosophila*

551 species raised under common garden conditions (21-22°C). Together, these results suggest that  
552 thermal acclimation and adaptation may work through shared or similar physiological  
553 mechanisms in the Malpighian tubules. Both cold adaptation and acclimation reduce (or entirely  
554 prevent) hemolymph  $[K^+]$  disturbance in the cold (MacMillan et al., 2015d; MacMillan et al.,  
555 2017). In both cases more cold tolerant flies better maintained tubule  $K^+$  secretion and  
556 consequently the ratio of  $[Na^+]:[K^+]$  while warm adapted or acclimated flies experienced  
557 preferential secretion of  $Na^+$  over  $K^+$  (Andersen et al., 2017c; MacMillan et al., 2015d). Thus,  
558 chill tolerance in cold adapted and acclimated flies appears to be at least partially improved by  
559 improved tubule  $K^+$  secretion at low temperature. In addition, in contrast to the tubule fluid  
560 secretion in cold acclimated *D. melanogaster*, a recent study on cold-acclimated crickets found  
561 reduced fluid secretion rates at lower temperatures, suggesting a different mechanism exists in  
562 the cold acclimation of these two insects (Des Marteaux et al., 2018).

### 563 **4.3 Rectal $K^+$ reabsorption is lower in cold-acclimated flies**

564 Whereas the Malpighian tubules serve as the primary site for ion and fluid excretion into  
565 the gut, the midgut and hindgut absorb ions and water from the gut into the hemolymph (D'Silva  
566 et al., 2017; Larsen et al., 2014). As such, we hypothesized that reduced  $K^+$  absorption in the  
567 cold across these epithelia would alleviate cold-induced hyperkalemia. To assess  $K^+$  absorption  
568 across the gut we utilized the scanning ion selective electrode technique to measure  $K^+$  flux at  
569 6°C and 23°C across the midgut and hindgut (ileum and rectum). While neither acclimation nor  
570 exposure temperature impacted mean  $K^+$  flux in the midgut, differences were observed in the  
571 hindgut. Temperature had no effect on the  $K^+$  flux at the ileum of cold-acclimated flies but ileal  
572  $K^+$  flux of warm-acclimated flies was higher at 23°C compared to 6°C (Figure 4B). The greatest  
573 effect of both acclimation and exposure temperatures was observed in the rectum, where  $K^+$  flux

574 in the rectums of cold-acclimated flies was significantly lower than that of warm-acclimated flies  
575 at both temperatures (Figure 4C). Additionally, K<sup>+</sup> fluxes at the rectum were reduced at 6°C  
576 regardless of acclimation group and this is consistent with reduced metabolic demand in the  
577 rectum of grasshoppers in the cold (Palazzo and August, 1997). The K<sup>+</sup> flux across rectal pads of  
578 five *Drosophila* species was also reduced in low temperatures regardless of degree of chill  
579 tolerance of the species (Andersen et al., 2017c). The reduction of rectal K<sup>+</sup> reabsorption at low  
580 temperatures likely assists in preventing lethal hyperkalemia, and is thus consistent with the  
581 hypothesis of the current study that cold acclimation mitigates hyperkalemia by reducing net K<sup>+</sup>  
582 uptake in the main ionoregulatory epithelia of *D. melanogaster*.

#### 583 **4.4 Hemolymph K<sup>+</sup> balance depends on the integrated functions of the Malpighian tubule** 584 **and the rectum**

585 Under homeostatic conditions, the Malpighian tubules and rectum, as the primary sites of  
586 K<sup>+</sup> transport, must work in a synchronous and complementary manner to maintain organismal K<sup>+</sup>  
587 balance. Thus, to estimate the degree of cold-induced disruption to whole body K<sup>+</sup> balance, a  
588 comparison between their relative inhibition at low temperature is informative; a mismatch in the  
589 effects of temperature on these two organs would lead to an imbalance in hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>] in the  
590 cold. To do so, we first compared the temperature effect on K<sup>+</sup> transport between 23°C and 6°C  
591 for the rectum and between 23°C and 5°C in the Malpighian tubules. This was done by  
592 calculating the temperature coefficient (Q<sub>10</sub>), which represents the effect of a 10°C reduction in  
593 temperature on K<sup>+</sup> transport. Q<sub>10</sub> values were calculated using the following equation (the  
594 Malpighian tubules are used as an example):

$$595 \quad Q_{10} = \left( \frac{\text{ion transport rate at } 23^{\circ}\text{C}}{\text{ion transport rate at } 5^{\circ}\text{C}} \right)^{\left(\frac{10}{\Delta T}\right)}$$

596 Where  $\Delta T$  is the difference in temperature (18°C). To estimate the relative effect of temperature  
597 on  $K^+$  transport in the Malpighian tubules in comparison to the rectum, the following equation  
598 was used:

$$599 \quad \Delta Q_{10} = MT K^+ \text{ secretion rate } Q_{10} - \text{Rectum } K^+ \text{ flux } Q_{10}$$

600 The further this metric deviates from one, the greater imbalance in the overall circuit of  $K^+$   
601 transport between these two organs. In warm acclimated flies, the  $Q_{10}$  of Malpighian tubule  $K^+$   
602 secretion is 4.7 and the  $Q_{10}$  of rectal  $K^+$  flux is 1.8, resulting in a  $\Delta Q_{10}$  of 2.7. Hence the cold has  
603 a higher effect on Malpighian tubule function than on the rectum. In cold acclimated flies, the  
604  $Q_{10}$  of Malpighian tubule  $K^+$  secretion is 3.2 and the  $Q_{10}$  of rectal  $K^+$  flux is 2.0, resulting in a  
605  $\Delta Q_{10}$  of 1.2. Therefore, even with cold acclimation, the cold has a greater effect on Malpighian  
606 tubule function compared to the rectum; however, cold acclimation reduces the imbalance in  $K^+$   
607 transport between the two organs such that  $K^+$ -clearance is more severely affected in the cold in  
608 comparison to rectal  $K^+$  absorption in warm acclimated flies compared to cold acclimated flies.  
609 As a result, we would expect that  $K^+$  would accumulate in the hemolymph of warm acclimated  
610 flies more rapidly, as observed in the current study. These results are also informative in that  
611 they show that the Malpighian tubules are more temperature sensitive than the rectum and,  
612 exhibit a greater degree of adjustment to  $K^+$  transport following cold acclimation both in terms of  
613 thermal sensitivity and in absolute  $K^+$  transport rates. This supports the idea that reduced  
614 Malpighian tubule  $K^+$  clearance is a central problem for *D. melanogaster* at low temperatures, as  
615 is the case for crickets (Des Marteaux et al., 2018), and that its preservation is thus beneficial to  
616 the development of chill tolerance.

617 **4.5 The effects of cold acclimation on ion transport are independent of V-type  $H^+$ - and**  
618  **$Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase activity.**

619 We hypothesized that cold acclimation would mitigate the loss of ion balance through the  
620 alteration of active ion transport in ionoregulatory organs. To test this, we measured the activities  
621 of V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in isolated midguts, Malpighian tubules, and hindguts  
622 of warm- and cold-acclimated flies.

623 In *D. melanogaster*, an apically-located V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase is the primary driver of  
624 Malpighian tubule fluid secretion, while a basolateral Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase contributes 10-19% of  
625 fluid secretion and is responsible for increasing the [K<sup>+</sup>]:[Na<sup>+</sup>] ratio in the secreted fluid (Linton  
626 and O'Donnell, 1999). Thus, to account for increased Malpighian tubule fluid secretion and the  
627 preservation of K<sup>+</sup> secretion over a variety of temperatures, we expected that the activities of  
628 both ion-motive ATPases would increase in cold-acclimated flies. Contrary to this hypothesis,  
629 however, the activity of both ATPases significantly decreased in cold-acclimated flies when  
630 compared to their warm-acclimated counterparts when these activities were standardized by total  
631 protein content of tubules (Figure 5A-B). However, when ATPase activities were expressed per  
632 individual organ, no significant differences in activities were found (Figure 6B). Each sample  
633 contained the same number of tubules, so we measured Malpighian tubule size and found that  
634 cold-acclimated tubules are significantly wider than warm-acclimated tubules (Figure 6D-E).  
635 Similar measurements of the Malpighian tubules revealed no such size differences in chill  
636 tolerant *Drosophila* species when corrected for total body mass (Andersen et al., 2017b).  
637 Currently, it is unclear whether this increased tubule width in cold-acclimated flies stems from  
638 hypertrophy, hyperplasia, or simply the enlargement of the Malpighian tubule lumen, and  
639 whether this size difference is indeed the cause of increased protein content. Further studies are  
640 also required to elucidate whether these morphological changes have any functional relevance.  
641 Regardless, we found no evidence to support our hypothesis that functional changes in ion

642 transport would be mediated by changes in ion-motive ATPase activity, suggesting that an  
643 alternative mechanism is responsible for the functional differences (e.g. increased fluid secretion  
644 and  $K^+$  transport rates) that were observed in the Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated flies  
645 (discussed below). This is of particular interest, because in crickets,  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase activity  
646 increased in the Malpighian tubules despite a decrease in fluid secretion in the cold (Des  
647 Marteaux et al., 2018).

648         At the ureter-gut junction, Malpighian tubule and midgut contents mix prior to their entry  
649 into the hindgut, where ions are actively reabsorbed into the hemolymph, resulting in  
650 concentrated excreta (Larsen et al., 2014). Unlike the Malpighian tubules, however, our basic  
651 mechanistic understanding of insect rectal function is weak. In cockroaches, locusts, and flies,  
652 the main site of ion reabsorption occurs at four areas of thickened epithelia known as rectal pads  
653 (Larsen et al., 2014). Studies of ion transport across locust rectum suggest that an apical V-type  
654  $H^+$ -ATPase at least partially energizes epithelial ion transport (Gerencser and Zhang, 2003;  
655 Phillips et al., 1996).  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase is also highly expressed in *D. melanogaster* hindgut,  
656 second in abundance only to the Malpighian tubules, and has been localized to the basolateral  
657 membrane in *A. aegypti*, yet its function remains unknown (Chintapalli et al., 2007; Patrick et al.,  
658 2006). As is the case in crickets (Des Marteaux et al., 2018), the activities of  $Na^+/K^+$ - and V-type  
659  $H^+$ -ATPase in the hindgut did not differ between the acclimation treatments in the current study,  
660 suggesting an alternative mechanism is responsible for altered  $K^+$  flux across the ileum and  
661 rectum. As with the tubules and hindgut, a mismatch also exists between ion-motive ATPase  
662 activity and midgut  $K^+$  flux. While mean midgut  $K^+$  flux did not change with acclimation  
663 treatment, both  $Na^+/K^+$ - and V-type  $H^+$ -ATPases decreased in activity.

664 Cumulatively, these misalignments between ion-motive ATPase activity and ion transport  
665 suggest that other mechanisms affect epithelial transport following cold acclimation. Such  
666 alternative mechanisms may include: (1) changes to the plasma membrane environment known  
667 to affect key transport proteins such as Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase (reviewed by Hazel (1995)), (2) changes  
668 in paracellular permeability which may mediate cold-induced ion leak in the cold (Andersen et  
669 al., 2017c; MacMillan et al., 2017), (3) changes in endocrine control of ion- and osmoregulation  
670 (Terhzaz et al., 2015), (4) changes in mitochondrial ATP production in the cold (Colinet et al.,  
671 2017) or (5) changes in the thermal sensitivity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>- or V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase. Since all  
672 enzyme activity assays in this study were conducted at 25°C, the thermal sensitivity of these  
673 enzymes was not determined here. However, MacMillan (2015b) previously showed that no  
674 difference in the thermal sensitivity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase exists following cold-acclimation in *D.*  
675 *melanogaster*. The thermal sensitivity of V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase following cold acclimation remains  
676 a possibility that should be assessed in future studies.

## 677 **Conclusion**

678 As previously demonstrated in a variety of chill-susceptible insects, cold acclimation led  
679 to reduced CT<sub>min</sub>, faster recovery from a chill coma, and reduced degree of cold-induced  
680 hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>] in *D. melanogaster*. This improvement in hemolymph K<sup>+</sup> balance in the cold  
681 coincided with increased Malpighian tubule K<sup>+</sup> and fluid secretion rates at low temperatures. In  
682 parallel, reabsorption of K<sup>+</sup> was reduced in the rectum but unchanged in the midgut of cold-  
683 acclimated flies in comparison to warm-acclimated flies. Together, these changes illustrate that  
684 cold-acclimated flies have a greater capacity for K<sup>+</sup> clearance than warm-acclimated flies in the  
685 cold and support an important role for these ionoregulatory organs in the prevention of cold-  
686 induced hyperkalemia following cold acclimation. Furthermore, measurement of the activities of

687  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase and V-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase revealed no clear link to  $\text{K}^+$  transport across the midgut,  
688 Malpighian tubules, or hindgut, suggesting that modulation of these organs following cold  
689 acclimation is mediated through an alternative mechanism. Our results lend support to the role of  
690 plasticity of the Malpighian tubule and the rectum in the cold acclimation of chill-susceptible  
691 insects, and the independence of this functional plasticity to the modulation of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase  
692 and V-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase.

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### 698 **Competing interests**

699 The authors declare no competing interests.

### 700 **Author contributions**

701 GY, HAM, and AD conceived of the study. GY, LM, and HAM collected the data. GY analyzed  
702 the data and drafted the manuscript, and all authors edited the manuscript.

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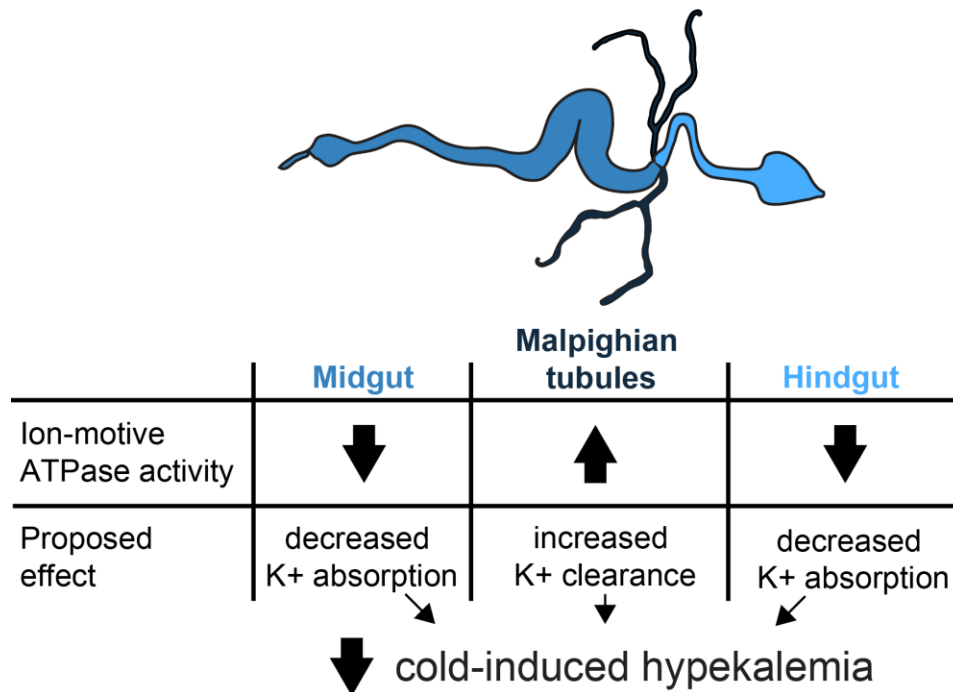
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884 *melanogaster*. *J. Insect Physiol.* **95**, 89–97.
- 885

886 **Figures**



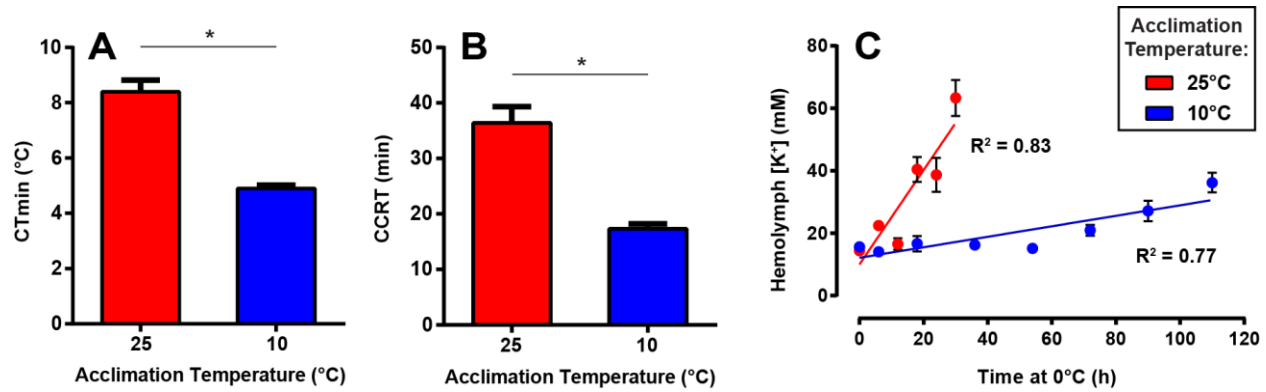
887

888 **Figure 1. A proposed model of the ionoregulatory changes in the midgut, Malpighian**  
889 **tubules, and hindgut that prevent cold-induced hyperkalemia in cold-acclimated**  
890 ***D. melanogaster*.** Ion-motive ATPases such as Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase are the  
891 main drivers of epithelial transport in the gut and the Malpighian tubules of insects, and their  
892 activity is proposed to alter gut and tubule function to reduce K<sup>+</sup> absorption and increase K<sup>+</sup>  
893 excretion. Decreased ion-motive ATPase activity in absorptive organs such as the midgut and the  
894 hindgut is therefore predicted to reduce K<sup>+</sup> absorption while increased ion-motive ATPase  
895 activity in the Malpighian tubules is proposed to increase K<sup>+</sup> clearance. Cumulatively, these  
896 changes are proposed to facilitate net K<sup>+</sup> excretion and the maintenance of low hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>]  
897 in the cold.

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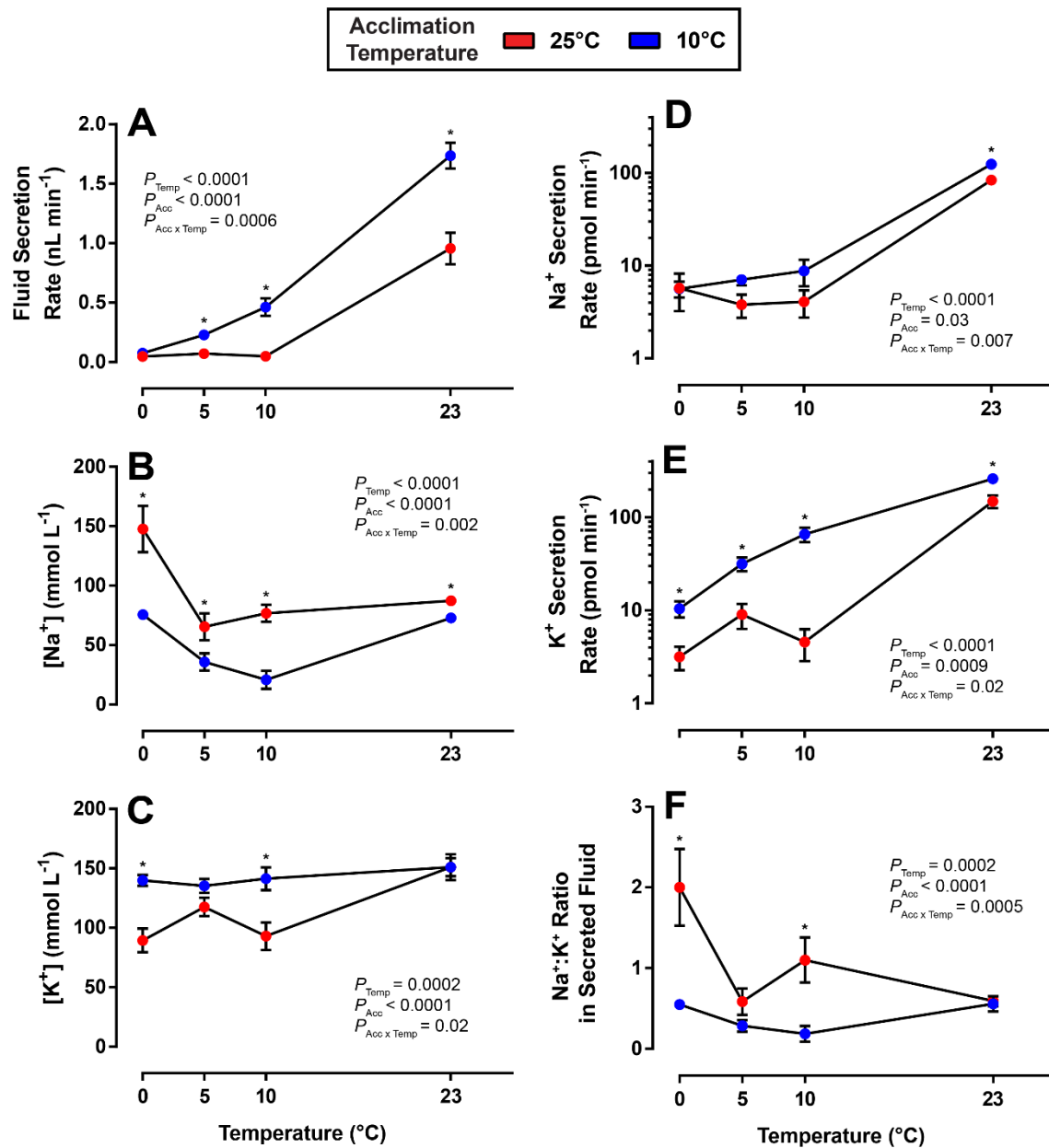




900

901 **Figure 2. Cold acclimation mitigates cold-induced hyperkalemia and improves the chill**  
902 **tolerance of adult *D. melanogaster* females.** (A) Critical thermal minimum (CT<sub>min</sub>) of warm-  
903 and cold acclimated flies (n = 18 flies per group). (B) Chill coma recovery time (CCRT) for  
904 warm- and cold- acclimated flies (n = 20 flies per group). Both CT<sub>min</sub> and CCRT were  
905 significantly lower in cold-acclimated flies. (C) Hemolymph [K<sup>+</sup>] of cold- and warm-acclimated  
906 flies following exposure to 0°C. All bars represent mean ± SEM. Asterisks denote significant  
907 difference (unpaired t-test; *P* < 0.001).

908

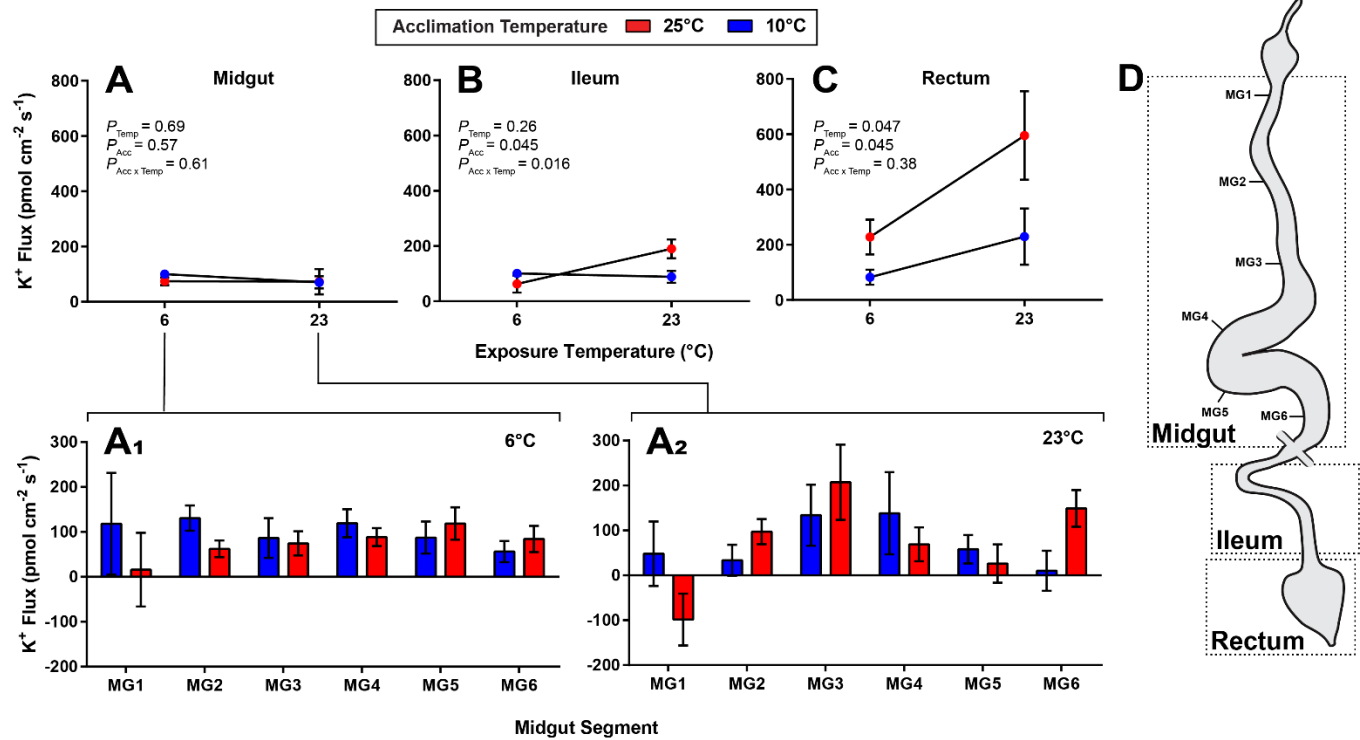


909

910

911 **Figure 3. Cold acclimation altered Malpighian tubule function in female *D. melanogaster***  
 912 **across a variety of thermal conditions.** (A) Malpighian tubule fluid secretion rate, (B) [K<sup>+</sup>] and  
 913 (C) Na<sup>+</sup> in the secreted fluid, (D) Na<sup>+</sup> and (E) K<sup>+</sup> secretion rates, and (F) Na<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> secretion ratio  
 914 assessed at 0°C, 5°C, 10°C, and 23°C in warm- (red) and cold-acclimated flies (blue). Bars  
 915 represent mean ± SEM, and bars that are not clearly visible are obscured by the symbols.  
 916 Asterisks denote significant differences between warm- and cold acclimation at the same  
 917 exposure temperature (Holm-Sidak test;  $P < 0.05$ ). Two-way ANOVAs were conducted on all  
 918 three variables and the resulting  $P$ -values are embedded in each respective panel (see Table S1  
 919 for all two-way ANOVA results).

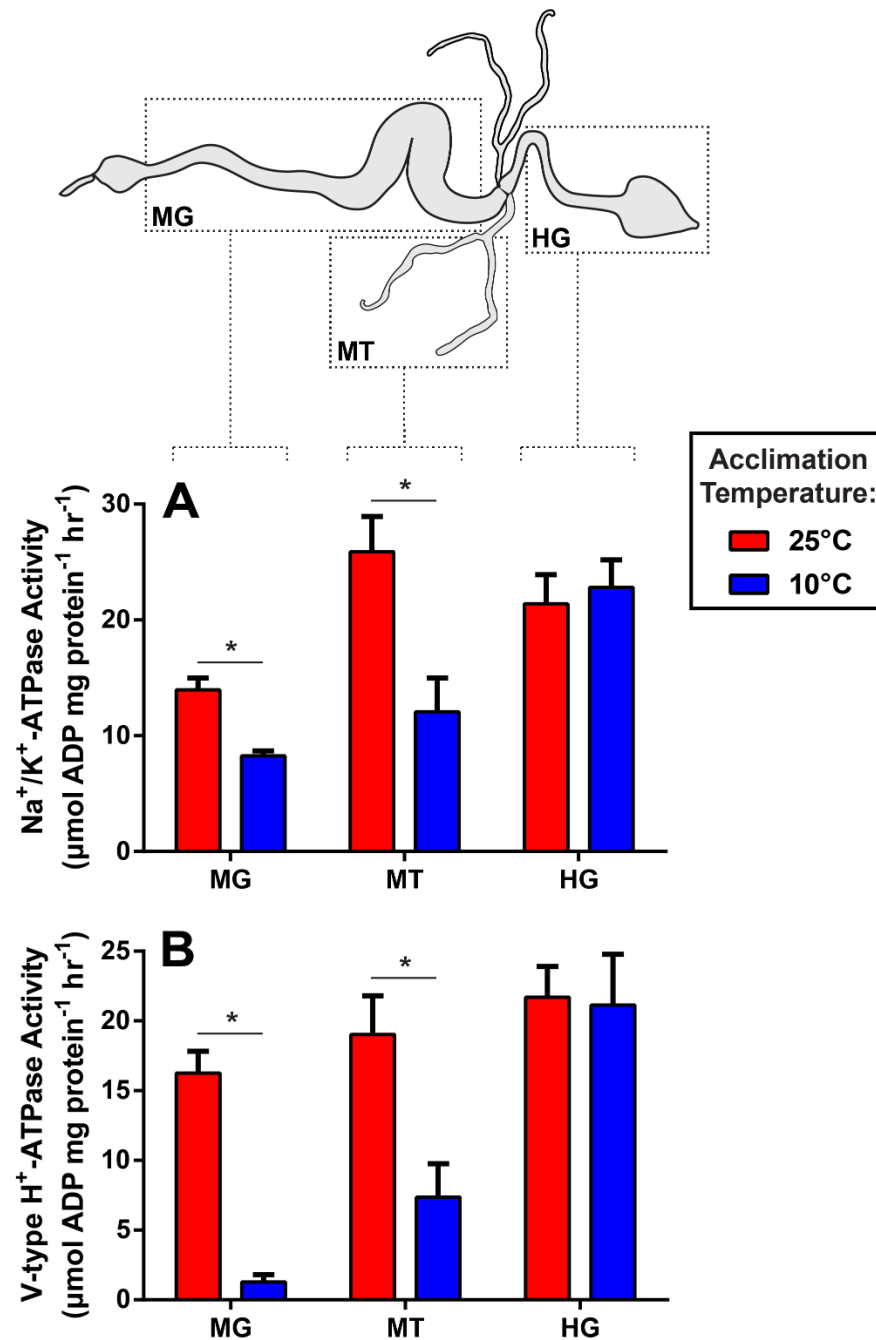




920

921 **Figure 4. K<sup>+</sup> reabsorption is reduced in the rectum of cold-acclimated *D. melanogaster***  
 922 **females.** (A) Mean K<sup>+</sup> flux in the midgut (average of six midgut sites), (B) ileum, and (C) rectum  
 923 (rectal pads) of warm- (red) and cold-acclimated flies (blue). (D) Schematic of alimentary canal  
 924 illustrating sites of K<sup>+</sup> flux measurements. Midgut K<sup>+</sup> flux was measured at six equidistant sites  
 925 along the midgut denoted MG1 (anterior end) to MG6 (posterior end) at (A<sub>1</sub>) 6°C and (A<sub>2</sub>) 23°C.  
 926 Bars represent mean ± SEM.

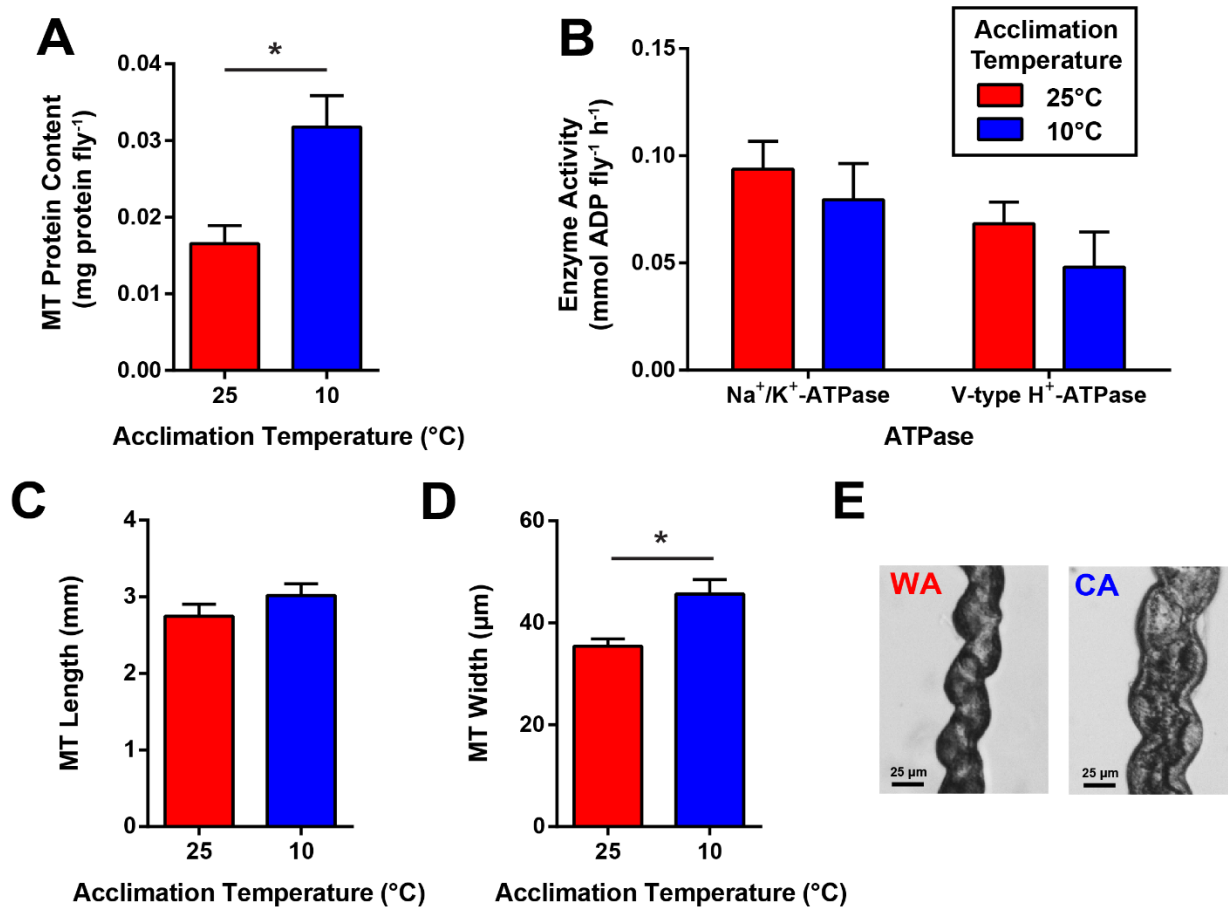
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929 **Figure 5. Cold-acclimation decreased the activity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase**  
930 **(relative to protein content) in the midgut and Malpighian tubules of adult female**  
931 ***D. melanogaster*.** (A) Enzymatic activity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in the midgut (MG), Malpighian  
932 tubules (MT), and hindgut (HG) of warm- (red bars) and cold-acclimated (blue bars) flies.  
933 (B) Enzymatic activity of V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in the midgut, Malpighian tubules, and hindgut in  
934 warm- and cold-acclimated flies. Bars represent mean ± SEM. Asterisks denote significant  
935 difference in enzymatic activity (unpaired t-tests; *P* < 0.05).

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939

940 **Figure 6. Increased Malpighian tubule width and protein content underlies apparent**  
941 **changes in ion-motive ATPase activity in cold-acclimated *D. melanogaster* females.**  
942 (A) Malpighian tubule protein content per fly in warm- and cold-acclimated flies (n = 5 sets of  
943 Malpighian tubules from 30 flies per acclimation group). (B) Enzymatic activity of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-  
944 ATPase and V-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase per individual fly (as opposed to protein content) in warm- and  
945 cold-acclimated flies. Malpighian tubule (C) length and (D) width assessed in warm- (WA) and  
946 cold-acclimated (CA) flies (n = 7 tubules per group). (E) Example image of warm-acclimated  
947 (left) and cold-acclimated (right) Malpighian tubule illustrating alterations in MT size. Bars  
948 represent mean ± SEM. Asterisk denotes a significant difference (unpaired t-test; P < 0.01).

949

950 **Table S1. Results of two-way ANOVAs assessing the effects of acclimation and exposure**  
 951 **temperatures on Malpighian tubule function. Ramsay assays and ion-selective**  
 952 **microelectrodes were used to measure fluid secretion rate, [Na<sup>+</sup>] in secreted fluid, [K<sup>+</sup>] in**  
 953 **secreted fluid, Na<sup>+</sup> secretion rate, K<sup>+</sup> secretion rate, and the ratio of Na<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> in the secreted**  
 954 **fluid. DF = degrees of freedom.**

955

<b>Trait</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Statistic (DF)</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Secretion Rate	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 70) = 6.6	P = 0.0006
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 70) = 91.6	P < 0.0001
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 70) = 21.5	P < 0.0001
[Na <sup>+</sup> ] in Secreted Fluid	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 66) = 5.7	P = 0.0016
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 66) = 22.5	P < 0.0001
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 66) = 54.2	P < 0.0001
[K <sup>+</sup> ] in Secreted Fluid	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 67) = 3.7	P = 0.0157
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 67) = 7.6	P = 0.0002
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 67) = 17.3	P < 0.0001
Na <sup>+</sup> Secretion Rate	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 68) = 4.5	P = 0.0065
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 68) = 117.1	P < 0.0001
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 68) = 5.1	P = 0.0265
K <sup>+</sup> Secretion Rate	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 69) = 3.3	P = 0.0239
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 69) = 57.0	P < 0.0001
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 69) = 12.1	P = 0.0009
Na <sup>+</sup> :K <sup>+</sup> Ratio in Secreted Fluid	Acclimation temperature x Exposure temperature	F (3, 66) = 6.8	P = 0.0005
	Exposure temperature	F (3, 66) = 7.7	P = 0.0002
	Acclimation temperature	F (1, 66) = 28.3	P < 0.0001

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