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# Sublethal doses of pyriproxyfen stimulate reproduction and aggressive behavior

### in a non-target parasitoid wasp

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#### 1 Abstract:

2 Insecticides are commonly used to control populations of pests and disease vectors. However, they 3 can have multiple unintended effects on non-target species. Assessing their impacts on the physiology 4 and behavior of beneficial insects, such as biological control agents, is thus necessary to gain insight 5 into the diversity and nature of such side effects. Here, we investigated the effect of sublethal doses 6 of the endocrine disrupting insecticide pyriproxyfen, a juvenile hormone agonist, on females of the 7 solitary ectoparasitoid Eupelmus vuilleti (Hymenoptera: Eupelmidae). These parasitoid wasps can be 8 used as biological control agents to control the cowpea weevil, Callosobruchus maculatus 9 (Coleoptera: Bruchidae), that infests cowpea seeds, Vigna unguiculata (Fabacea). To do so, in 10 addition to classical measures on female fecundity and survival, we focused on female behaviors that 11 can have important consequences on female fitness and host exploitation. First, we showed that 12 pyriproxyfen stimulated egg production without affecting female survival. Second, we observed that low doses of this insecticide had no effect on females' exploration and host discrimination ability but 13 14 stimulated their aggressiveness when fighting for host access. Although a negative impact on other 15 life-history traits cannot be ruled out at this point, these results showed low doses of pyriproxyfen 16 can have unintended positive effects on ectoparasitoid E. vuilleti females, by enhancing at least 17 temporarily their reproduction and host access in a situation of competition. Our work thus highlights 18 the importance of studying the diversity of possible unintended sublethal effects of pesticides on beneficial insects. 19

20

<u>Keywords</u>: endocrine disruptor, juvenile hormone agonist, fecundity, behavioral strategies, non intentional effects, *Eupelmus vuilleti*

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#### 26 1. Introduction

27 It is now well established that beneficial insects play an important role in agro-ecosystem functioning. Agricultural practices, including pesticide use, must therefore take these insects into 28 29 account to be effective. Beneficial arthropods indeed provide many ecosystem services: in addition 30 to ensuring crop pollination, they also permit natural control of crop pests and maintenance of soil 31 fertility (Haan et al., 2021). They thus have a recognized economic importance and monetary value. 32 While 5-8% of global agricultural production, representing an annual market value of \$235-577 33 billions, is directly dependent on pollination (IPBES, 2016), natural pest control by insects is 34 estimated to be worth \$4.5 billions per year in the United States of America alone (Losey and 35 Vaughan, 2006). These natural enemies are mainly predators or parasitoids. For example, the 36 parasitoid wasp Lariophagus distinguendus is used as a biological agent to control the weevil 37 Sitophilus granarius, a major grain pest in temperate climates (Niedermayer et al., 2016). Nevertheless, while the effects of pesticides are widely investigated in honeybees, due to their 38 39 important economic role in crop pollination (as reviewed in Barascou et al., 2021), there are still few 40 studies focusing on the effects of pesticides on parasitoids (Abbes et al., 2015; Desneux et al., 2004; 41 Tappert et al., 2017). However, pesticides can have indirect effects on these beneficial arthropods and 42 decrease their effectiveness in controlling pest populations (Clovd, 2012). To build integrated pest 43 management (IPM) programs, it is now necessary to select pesticides having the least possible impact on pests' natural enemies. 44

Even if research on pesticides' effects on non-target species has increased since the 1950s (Sánchez-Bayo, 2011; Theiling and Croft, 1988), their sub-lethal effects (i.e. effects measured at doses that do not induce a significant increase in mortality, Desneux et al., 2007) remain to be explored in-depth. Such effects can be observed at the physiological level, like the reduction of queen bees' and drones' fertility, but also at the behavioral level (Barascou et al., 2021). Behavioral changes can further modulate how animals respond to abiotic and biotic environmental changes and impact their fitness (Jacquin et al., 2020; Sievers et al., 2019). Analysis of behavioral responses is increasingly used to measure the impacts of environmental stresses such as pesticide exposure because behavioral alterations tend to be more sensitive than fitness indicators (Montiglio and Royauté, 2014 for a review). In insects, several studies are reporting sublethal effects of insecticides on the behavior of non-target species that may be beneficials. For instance, deltamethrin, used worldwide in many crops but also for public health (Davies et al., 2012; Liao et al., 2018) has a specific effect on maternal egg care behavior of earwigs, which are recognized as a crop protection agent against pests in orchards. (Meunier et al., 2020; Mauduit et al., 2021).

59 Hormones mediate both physiology and behavior of animals. By affecting their sensory systems, central integrators and/or peripheral effectors, hormones allow individuals to adjust their 60 61 behaviors to the situation in response to specific stimuli (Nelson, 2010). Juvenile hormone (JH) is 62 one of the main hormones in insects. In addition to regulating molting processes in immature 63 individuals, its main known function in adults is to control female reproduction. At the physiological 64 level, JH has a gonadotropic effect: increased JH levels stimulate the production of vitelline protein 65 precursors, vitellogenins, by the fat body and their uptake by developing oocytes (Roy et al., 2018). 66 Thus, high JH titers are generally positively associated with female fertility, such as in the facultative 67 eusocial bee Megalopta genalis (Smith et al., 2013), or in primitively eusocial bumblebees and 68 halictine bees (Tibbetts and Crocker, 2014). At the behavioral level, JH is known to play various roles 69 in reproductive behavior, from stimulating sexual pheromone production to regulating female 70 receptivity (Ringo, 2002). Aggressive behaviors during reproduction can also be mediated by JH. In 71 odonates, for instance, territory defense is more intense in males with high JH levels (Córdoba-72 Aguilar and Munguía-Steyer, 2015). Similarly, in eusocial Hymenoptera, aggressive and dominance 73 behaviors are more frequent in females presenting high JH circulating levels (Tibbetts et al., 2020, 74 2011). Juvenile hormone also mediates competitive behaviors for access to reproduction sites in a 75 parasitoid wasp: JH-supplemented *Eupelmus vuilleti* females are more aggressive when fighting for 76 hosts against intraspecific competitors than control females supplemented with a solvent (Mathiron 77 et al., 2019). Given the important role of these behaviors in driving female reproduction success in such beneficial insects used to control pest populations (here, the cowpea weevil), it is now essential to investigate the effects of exposure to endocrine disrupting pesticides on such behaviors in nontarget insects.

81 Insect Growth Regulators (IGR) are insecticides with selective toxicity on biochemical 82 pathways or processes essential for insect growth and development. They consequently affect the 83 development of targeted insects by disrupting their molting process, leading to their death, but also 84 to malformations and reduction in fertility in imagoes. Adults are also subjected to sublethal effects, 85 such as a reduced fertility in females or the developmental inhibition of specific imago organs (Desneux et al., 2007). When they interfere with the action of arthropods' hormones (e.g. ecdysone, 86 87 juvenile hormone), they can be considered as endocrine disrupting insecticides (Sánchez-Bayo, 88 2012). Among IGRs, the pyriproxyfen has been synthesized to act as a JH agonist, by competing with 89 JH molecules on receptors (Sullivan and Goh, 2008). Since the early 1990s, it is commonly used in 90 agriculture to control insect pests but also for veterinary purposes, as an antiparasitic for domestic 91 animals. It is also increasingly used in a sanitary context, to prevent Aedes aegypti mosquito larvae 92 from becoming adults and transmitting viruses (Hustedt et al., 2020). Yet, numerous studies have 93 shown that pyriproxyfen disrupts the development, physiology, and behavior of a variety of taxa, 94 from aquatic species (e.g., fish, amphibian tadpoles, crustaceans, daphneids; see Devillers, 2020; 95 Moura and Souza-Santos, 2020) to terrestrial species, in particular non-target insects (Devillers and 96 Devillers, 2020). For instance, exposure of honeybee larvae to sublethal doses of pyriproxyfen leads 97 to the greater avoidance of young bees by other colony members, and accepted bees exhibit less social 98 behavior and more self-directed behavior than untreated bees. In particular, they spend more time 99 grooming themselves and being immobile (Fourrier et al., 2015). Since the effect of pyriproxyfen on 100 fitness is highly species-dependent, it is not possible to generalize what is observed in one species to 101 others (Clovd, 2012).

102 In the present study, we investigated the potential effects of pyriproxyfen on a non-target 103 beneficial insect, the parasitoid wasp *Eupelmus vuilleti* Crawford (Hymenoptera: Eupelmidae).

104 Females of this species parasitize and feed on larvae and pupae of the cowpea weevil, Callosobruchus 105 maculatus (Fab) (Coleoptera: Bruchidae), which infest cowpea seeds, Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp 106 (Fabaceae) (Terrasse and Rojas-Rousse, 1986), both in the field and in storage areas. These parasitoid 107 wasps can be used as biological control agents to control this pest. Nevertheless, IGRs such as 108 methoprene, a juvenile hormone analog, are often used to reduce C. maculatus populations in grain 109 stocks (Abo-Elghar et al., 2004). The use of pyriproxyfen is also effective for a long period of time: 110 it reduces C. maculatus oviposition rate, egg hatching rate during the month post-treatment, and 111 suppresses adult emergence up to 8 months after treatment (Abo-Elghar et al., 2004). Moreover, the 112 tri-trophic system (E. vuilleti, C. maculatus and the cowpea seeds) is located in the western part of 113 the Afro-tropical ecozone (i.e Burkina Faso, Mali, Nigeria, Benin and Togo; Gibson and Fusu, 2016). 114 Its range overlaps that of Aedes aegypti (Kamal et al., 2018; Thabet et al., 2020), against which pyriproxyfen is used (Hustedt et al., 2020). As a result, E. vuilleti females are likely exposed to 115 116 pyriproxyfen in the field and in grain stocks. Although not targeted by this insecticide, occasional exposure, even at reduced doses, may affect their behaviors and reproductive success, hence their 117 118 efficiency as biological control agents. Here, we, therefore, measured the effects of sub-lethal doses of pyriproxyfen on E. vuilleti females' reproduction (egg maturation and host exploitation) and 119 120 competitive behaviors for host access.

121

#### 122 2. Material and methods

#### 123 <u>2.1 Laboratory breeding</u>

*Eupelmus vuilleti* and *C. maculatus* individuals were collected in 2007 in Togo, West Africa. Parasitoids were then mass-reared in a climatic chamber, maintained at 28°C, with a photoperiod of 126 12:12LD following the method described by Jaloux et al., (2004). Their hosts were also maintained 127 in the laboratory, on cowpea seeds of the Blackeye California variety, under controlled conditions 128 (12:12 LD, 30°C : 25°C, 30% humidity). 129 Eupelmus vuilleti females used in experiments were isolated upon emergence to prevent any 130 experience of oviposition on a host of unknown quality and competition between females before 131 assays. They were then individually placed in a Petri dish (diameter: 9.2 cm, height: 1.4 cm) and 132 provided with a cotton ball soaked with water for hydration. One male was added during 24h for 133 mating and oogenesis stimulation (Terrasse and Rojas-Rousse, 1986), except in the survival 134 experience as explained below. Females were also provided with hosts that were replaced daily until 135 behavioral assays were carried out. In experiments measuring discrimination ability and exploratory 136 activity of females, hosts were provided as one seed containing 2 to 3 larvae of C. maculatus. For the 137 other trials, they were presented as individual fourth-instar C. maculatus larvae dissected from seeds 138 and located in a transparent gelatin capsule (length: 18mm, diameter: 5mm). This mimics the cowpea 139 seed and allows better experimental control of host larval stage and it also facilitates the observation 140 of oviposition by the parasitoid (the egg can be seen through the gelatin capsule during its deposition 141 on the host; Gauthier and Monge, 1999), without altering female behavior (Gauthier and Monge, 1999; Jaloux et al., 2004), despite a slight reduction in the number of eggs laid (Damiens et al., 2001). 142 143 All behavioral experiments were carried out in a climate room with a LD photoperiod of 12:12, 144 maintained at 28°C and constant 70% relative humidity.

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#### 146 <u>2.2 Exposure to pyriproxyfen</u>

147 Because *E. vuilleti* juveniles develop (from the host) inside the cowpea seeds, they are unlikely 148 to be exposed to sprayed pesticides. We therefore focused on the effects of pyriproxyfen of free-living 149 adult females, using external application to mimic, in a controlled way, female exposure to pesticide 150 sprayed on treated areas. Females were thus topically applied with pyriproxyfen (Sigma-Aldrich, Inc. 151 #34174) diluted in pure acetone using one of four concentrations: 0 (control), 9.6, 96 or 960 µg/mL. Such doses are consistent with what females can encounter in treated fields, since the Togolese 152 153 legislation authorizes the use of pyriproxyfen at 30g/ha, which is equivalent to 300ng/cm2 (Unité de coordination nationale REDD+, direction nationale ODEF, 2020). Our two lower doses were within 154

that range, as they consisted of applying 9.6 and 96 ng of active substance to females. To apply the solution, females were briefly cold anesthetized at -20°C, and received 1  $\mu$ L of solution on the ventral side of their thorax, where the presence of numerous spiracles (pores) allow the solution to enter their body. Afterwards, females were individually placed in a 1.5mL tube for 4 or 24 hours before being used in experiments.

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#### 161 <u>2.3 Female survival</u>

162 To measure the survival of females in dependence of the solution to which they are exposed, 163 females were treated with either acetone (control, N = 24) or pyriproxyfen (N = 23 for each of the 3 164 concentrations) on the day of their emergence. A fifth group of 23 females (i.e. additional control 165 group) underwent the same procedure as for the other treatments (e.g. handling and cold anesthesia) 166 but no solution was applied. Females were then individually placed in a Petri dish with a cotton ball 167 soaked with water (but no male and no host) and checked daily, until their death.

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#### 169 <u>2.4 Gonadotropic effect</u>

170 The gonadotropic effect of pyriproxyfen was tested by dissecting 3-day old females and counting their mature eggs, 4h or 24h after exposure (N = 20 for each concentration and time tested). 171 172 Mature (i.e. ready-to-lay) eggs were identified based on their homogeneous content and their long 173 and thin pedicel (Bodin et al., 2009). In the 4h treatment, females were treated on day 3, whereas 174 those in the 24h treatment were treated on day 2 and remained in a tube for 24 hours. These latter 175 females therefore had the same age at the time of the dissection as those of the 4h treatment but had 176 access to one fewer host. The egg load of control females (pure acetone treatment) could therefore not be compared between both time delays because oviposition modifies egg load. 177

In the following behavioral assays, as egg number is known to influence host exploitation
behavior including aggressiveness and contest outcome in *E. vuilleti* (Mathiron et al., 2019, 2018;

180 Mohamad et al., 2010), we chose to investigate the effect of pyriproxyfen on behavior at a time where 181 egg load was not modified. Since our results showed the number of mature eggs increased 24h after 182 pyriproxyfen application but not yet 4h after (see Results section), we performed all behavioral 183 observations four hours after pyriproxyfen application.

184

#### 185 <u>2.5 Mobility and exploration</u>

186 The arena used to measure the influence of pyriproxyfen on female mobility and exploration 187 consisted of nine chambers connected by thin corridors and sandwiched between two glass plates 188 (Supplementary Material, Figure S1). The central chamber was connected to four others, each linked 189 to a peripheral zone. A half seed containing a single larva of the beetle C. maculatus was placed in 190 one of the four peripheral chambers. The complete device was placed on an infrared table with a 191 BASLER BCA 1300 (Germany) camera fixed above (Media Recorder v4.0, Noldus Information 192 Systems, The Netherlands). Three-day-old females treated with acetone or one of the three 193 concentrations of pyriproxyfen (N = 27, 26, 27 and 27 respectively) were placed, 4 hours after 194 exposure, in the central area of the device, initially closed with a ring blocking the different exits. 195 After a 5-minute acclimation period, the ring was removed, allowing the female to freely move in the 196 entire arena. Their movement were recorded for 60 minutes. The number of eggs laid was 197 subsequently counted by opening the seeds and inspecting the hosts' surface. Female egg load was 198 measured by dissecting females (as previously explained). We then analyzed videos both manually 199 and using ToxTrac software (version 2.92 (2021/03/30)) to measure the distance covered by females, 200 their speed or time spent stationary. The time taken to arrive at the seed and the time spent on it were 201 also noted.

202

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206 To evaluate the influence of pyriproxyfen on females' host discrimination ability, three-dayold females (N = 20 for each concentration of pyriproxyfen: 0, 9.6, 96 and 960  $\mu$ g/mL) were 207 208 individually introduced four hours after treatment, for one hour, into a Petri dish (diameter: 9.2cm, 209 height: 1.4cm) at equidistance between of two seeds. Each seed contained a single fourth-instar larva 210 of C. maculatus: one had been parasitized 2 hours before the trial by another 3-day-old E. vuilleti 211 female (not used further in experiments) while the other was unparasitized. Using BORIS software 212 (v 7.10.2 - 2021-01-16), we recorded the occurrence and duration of the following behaviors: 213 grooming, resting, antennal exploration and oviposition. The location where these behaviors were 214 displayed was noted: on the unparasitized or parasitized host or on the Petri dish, called 'neutral zone'. 215 At the end of each experiment, cowpea seeds were opened to count the number of eggs present on 216 the host and confirm the oviposition observed during experiments.

217

#### 218 2.7 Female aggressiveness and conflict resolution

219 To identify females individually during contests, we marked them, on the day before the trial, 220 with a yellow or red dot of acrylic paint deposited on the dorsal part of their thorax, avoiding touching 221 the tegula (wing insertion), and after reducing their locomotor activity by cold exposure. Three-day-222 old females were then either treated with pure acetone or 9.6 µg/mL pyriproxyfen and maintained 4h 223 without host before running behavioral assays, to increase their motivation to lay eggs. It has to be 224 noted that, due to the complexity of setting up these trials, we tested only one pyriproxyfen 225 concentration which was the lowest dose of pyriproxyfen having a gonadotropic effect (i.e 9.6µg/mL, 226 see results section) and compared its effect to control (i.e. females treated with acetone).

We set up dyadic encounters between either (i) two control females (i.e. both females were exposed to pure acetone; N = 45), or (ii) one control female and one female exposed to pyriproxyfen (N = 36). Each dyad consisted of visually similar-sized wasps of distinct color. No effect of color on

230 contest was found (Logistic analysis, LR  $\chi^2 = 0.374$ , df = 1, P = 0.541). At the beginning of each observation, both females were simultaneously introduced into an arena consisting of three circular 231 232 chambers connected by a narrow corridor (following Petersen and Hardy, 1996), with a C. maculatus 233 fourth instar larva placed in a gelatin capsule in the central chamber. During each encounter, we 234 recorded which female was (i) first on host, (ii) first to oviposit, and (iii) first to initiate agonistic 235 interactions with her opponent. We also noted the number of the following behaviors: antennal 236 contact, pushing (i.e. a female pushed her opponent with her body), chasing the opponent, climbing 237 to the opponent or kicking the opponent. All these behaviors, apart from antennal contact, were 238 considered aggressive. Contests lasted a maximum of 1 h or were stopped when one of the females 239 exited the central chamber for more than 2 min, or when neither female touched the host or had any 240 agonistic interactions for more than 2 min. A female was designated the winner of the contest when 241 her opponent left the central chamber for more than 2 min. Similarly, when both females in a dyad 242 remained in the central chamber for the entire duration of the observation, or when both females apparently lost interest in the host, the winning female was designated as the one that exhibited 243 244 oviposition behavior. Contests were considered unresolved, when the interaction was not interrupted 245 and both females exhibited oviposition behavior. This was also the case when none of the protagonists 246 appeared to be interested in the host.

After each encounter, females were frozen at -20°C, and the number of eggs laid on the host by the winner counted. Subsequently, females were weighed using an electronic scale (Sartorius Quintix 125 D-15, accuracy 0.01 mg) and dissected to count the number of mature eggs in their abdomens. The initial mature egg load of the winning females was calculated as the number of mature eggs in their ovaries plus the number of eggs laid on the host.

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#### 253 <u>2.8 Statistical analysis</u>

All statistical analyses were performed with R software v4.0.4 and R studio v1.4.1106 with the packages car, DHARMa, emmeans, and using  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The general approach was to use parametric analyses. However, when this was not possible because the parametric assumptions were
not met, nonparametric tests were used. The distribution and homoscedasticity of each model was
checked using the 'testResiduals' function of the DHARMa package (Hartig, 2021).

To estimate differences in female mortality due to pyriproxyfen treatment, we carried out parametric survival analyses using the 'survreg' function of the Survival package. An initial model comparison showed that a Weibull distribution had a better fit than an exponential distribution (P < 0.005).

To explore the effect of pyriproxyfen exposure on female egg load, 4h and 24 h after application, we ran two linear models, followed by Tukey's 2-to-2 multiple comparisons when appropriate.

In the mobility and exploration experiment, we analyzed the effect of pyriproxyfen exposure 266 267 on several variables. We investigated the effect of pesticide concentrations on the total distance 268 covered by females in the arena, the resting time and the time they spent on the seed using Kruskal-269 Wallis tests. The effect on the latency before reaching the seed was evaluated using a generalized 270 linear model with a Gamma error distribution, and the effect on the number of eggs laid on a host 271 with a Poisson error structure. It has to be noted that 8 of the 114 females were removed from this 272 later analysis because either the number of eggs laid could not be accurately determined (i.e. the host 273 was damaged during its extraction from the cowpea seed making potential parasitoid eggs impossible 274 to locate) or were sterile (i.e. they were no oocytes in their ovaries).

To explore the effect of pyriproxyfen on female host discrimination ability, we tested whether the probability that females laid eggs on unparasitized and parasitized hosts varied with the concentration of pesticide they were exposed to, using a generalized linear mixed model ('glmer' function of the lme4 package) with a Binomial error structure, taking the identity of the female as a random variable. The effect of pyriproxyfen exposure on immobility, grooming and foraging time

was evaluated by Kruskal-Wallis tests, and antennal exploration time by a linear regression (with anormal error structure).

282 Among the 81 dyadic encounters set up to explore the effect of pyriproxyfen exposure on 283 female aggressiveness and contest resolution, 65 were clearly resolved: only these were considered 284 in the following analyses. The effect of the treatment on the aggressiveness of the focal females was evaluated using two generalized linear mixed models with the identity of the fight as a random 285 286 variable ('glmer' function). For the first model, the response variable was whether or not females expressed aggressive behaviors (binomial error structure). The total number of agonistic behaviors 287 displayed by each female was considered in the second model (Poisson error structure). The relative 288 289 difference in egg load between females was calculated as the result of '((egg load of focal female -290 egg load of opposing female) / egg load of focal female) x 100)'. Two GLMs were then run with a 291 binomial distribution of errors (logit link function). The first model explored the influence of treatment (acetone or pyriproxyfen), relative egg load difference and their interaction on the 292 293 probability of the focal female winning the contest. A similar analysis was performed with the relative difference in mass instead of egg load. The differences in mass and egg load were not entered into 294 295 the same model because these two variables are correlated. Indeed, the greater the mass of a female, the greater her egg load (Linear model,  $F_{1,63} = 10.526$ , P = 0.002). Binomial tests ('binom.test' 296 297 function) were also performed to explore whether the probability of the focal female exploiting the 298 host first was significantly different from the null expectation at 0.5.

299

#### 300 **3.** <u>Results</u>

### 301 <u>3.1 Female survival and reproduction</u>

302 Survival did not significantly differ between females manipulated but not exposed to any 303 solution, females treated with acetone and females treated with one of the different concentrations of 304 pyriproxyfen ( $\chi^2 = 6.29$ , ddl = 4, P = 0.18). In contrast, egg load was significantly higher in females treated with pyriproxyfen, regardless of the concentration received, than in females treated with acetone, 24h after exposure ( $F_{3,77} = 6.720$ , P < 0.001; Figure 1). Four hours after application, this effect was, however, not yet visible: female egg load did not significantly differ between all treatments ( $F_{3,76} = 0.066$ , P = 0.978).

309

#### 310 <u>3.2 Mobility and exploration</u>

311 Regardless of the pyriproxyfen concentration received, females' exploration ability to explore a complex arena and motivation to find an oviposition site did not differ between treatments (Figure 312 S2). Indeed, the time (Gamma LR- $\chi^2$  = 1.787, df = 3, P = 0.618) and distance (Kruskal-Wallis: H = 313 314 2.229, df = 3, P = 0.513) walked by females to reach the host –containing seed and the time spent on that seed (H = 2.240, df = 3, P = 0.524) did not significantly vary across treatments. All females, 315 316 regardless of the pyriproxyfen concentration received, spent the same proportion of time resting (H = 3.880, df = 3, P = 0.275) and laid a similar number of eggs (Poisson LR- $\chi^2$  = 2.598, df = 3, P = 317 318 0.458).

319

#### 320 <u>3.3 Host discrimination</u>

The effect of pyriproxyfen on female host discrimination ability was assessed in a choice test between a parasitized and an unparasitized host. The interaction between host value and the different concentrations of pyriproxyfen tested had no significant effect on whether females laid eggs on unparasitized or parasitized hosts (LR- $\chi^2 = 6.496$ , df = 3, P = 0.090). Females laid eggs on the first host they encountered, regardless of its quality.

Female behavior on hosts before laying eggs was not modified by the treatment (Figure S3). Indeed, there was no significant difference in the time spent immobile (Kruskal-wallis: H = 2.136, df = 3, P = 0.545), grooming (H = 7.268, df = 3, P = 0.064), or foraging for the seed (H = 4.294, df = 3, P = 0.231), nor any effect on antennal exploration time ( $F_{1,78} = 0.026$ , P = 0.871).

#### 331 <u>3.4 Aggressiveness and conflict resolution</u>

332 The effect of pyriproxyfen exposure (9.6 µg/mL) on female contest behavior and outcome during host access was studied. Females exposed to pyriproxyfen were more likely to display 333 aggressive behavior than those exposed to acetone (logistic analysis, LR- $\chi^2$  = 4.146, df = 1, P = 0.042). 334 335 They also showed a greater number of aggressive behaviors than did control females (Poisson LR- $\gamma^2$ = 6.243, df = 1, P = 0.012, Figure 2A). In spite of this aggressiveness, the probability of the focal 336 337 female winning was not influenced by pyriproxyfen or acetone treatment, the relative difference in 338 mature egg load between contestants, or the interaction between these main effects (Table 1). The 339 difference in reproductive status, i.e. their mature egg load, also had no effect on the probability of winning when only acetone-acetone dyads were considered (logistic analysis, LR-  $\chi^2 = 0.714$ , df = 1, 340 341 P = 0.398). Similarly, the probability that the focal female won did not vary with the relative mass 342 difference with the opponent, the treatment received or the interaction between both (Table 1). When 343 considering only acetone-acetone female contests, the effect of mass difference was also not significant, despite a trend in which heavier females were slightly advantaged (LR  $\chi^2$  = 3.615, df = 1, 344 345 P = 0.057). In contrast, focal females treated with pyriproxyfen were more frequently the first of their 346 dyad to exhibit host oviposition behavior (binomial test: P = 0.007, Figure 2B), than focal females 347 exposed to acetone (P = 0.296).

348

#### 349 4. Discussion

This study aimed to evaluate the potential sublethal effects of pyriproxyfen, an insecticide that regulates growth by mimicking juvenile hormone, in females of *E. vuilleti*, a beneficial parasitoid wasp that attacks the food stock pest, *C. maculatus*. We found that low doses of pyriproxyfen do not affect survival but modulate both reproductive physiology and behavior in this parasitoid. Pyriproxyfen has a gonadotropic effect in *E. vuilleti* females. Additionally, while exploratory and host discrimination behavior did not seem to be modified after pyriproxyfen exposure, agonistic 356 behaviors were affected. Females exposed to pyriproxyfen were more aggressive during female-357 female contests for hosts and were more likely to be the first of the dyad exhibiting oviposition 358 behavior. Even if many studies focused on the impact of pesticides on egg-laying behavior in insects 359 (see Barascou et al., 2021 for bees), especially parasitoids (effects of various neurotoxic insecticides: 360 Delpuech, 2017; Delpuech and Delahaye, 2013; Desneux et al., 2004; Rafalimanana et al., 2002; 361 Sheng et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2016) due to their economic importance as biological control agents, 362 very few studies explored the effect of juvenile hormone analogues on adults (Beloti et al., 2015; 363 Cloyd and Dickinson, 2006) and, to our knowledge, none during intraspecific competition for 364 oviposition sites. Here, we showed that a pesticide that is an Insect Growth Regulator, IGR, can have 365 sublethal effects on non-target insects by impacting their fecundity and oviposition behavior under 366 intraspecific competition.

367 Regarding the effect of pyriproxyfen on reproductive physiology, we showed that, 24 hours 368 after exposure, E. vuilleti females had on average 2 to 3 more mature eggs than control females (i.e. 369 exposed to solvent), regardless of the concentration applied. Four hours after application, this effect 370 was, however, not yet visible. These results confirm pyriproxyfen mimics JH's action on reproduction 371 in E. vuilleti. Juvenile hormone, known to be one of the main gonadotropic hormones in insects by 372 stimulating vitellogenesis (Roy et al., 2018), has indeed been demonstrated to enhance egg maturation 373 in E. vuilleti (Mathiron et al., 2019): injection of JH in females stimulates the maturity of additional 374 eggs. This gonadotropic effect was observed 24h after exposure but not yet after 4h (Mathiron et al., 375 2019). Altogether, these results suggest the complete maturation of new eggs following hormonal (JH 376 or pyriproxyfen) signal takes between 4h and 24h in this species. Furthermore, the duration of 377 pyriproxyfen effect on egg maturation remains to be investigated: it can result in a transient increase 378 that does not necessarily modify females' lifetime egg production, or a longer-lasting effect 379 enhancing females' reproductive potential. Whether eggs produced following exposure to this 380 insecticide develop normally should also be analyzed. IGRs can indeed impact egg viability in adult 381 insects as observed in pests, such as *Platynota idaeusalis* and *Anthonomus grandis grandis* (Myers and Hull, 2003; Rolim et al., 2019). Similarly, exposure of female ladybugs *Tenuisvalvae notata* to
pyriproxyfen resulted in a temporary sterility (Barbosa et al., 2018): treated females laid a similar
number of eggs, but these eggs laid during treatment, and up to 4-5 days after the end of exposure,
were not viable and did not result in the development of any offspring.

386 Under field conditions, the consequences on female fitness, hence parasitoid population size, will also depend on the availability of hosts when females show an enhanced number of ready-to-lay 387 388 eggs. If parasitoid population size increases, the use of low doses of pyriproxyfen would have dual 389 effects on the control of cowpea pests, both by negatively affecting pest survival, and by favoring parasitism rate. On the contrary, if parasitoid population size is negatively impacted by egg quality 390 391 or asynchrony between mature eggs and available hosts, a negative indirect effect on pest regulation 392 is expected. The potential consequences of low doses of pyriproxyfen on offspring production in E. 393 vuilleti remains to be further investigated to understand its effect on pest control efficiency.

394 In addition to affecting the insects' physiology, pyriproxyfen could also alter their behavior. 395 Previous experiments carried out in the eusocial bee Apis mellifera showed that, despite not being a 396 demonstrated juvenile hormone-controlled behavior, workers' mobility was impacted by exposure to 397 pyriproxyfen. Their flight ability was reduced and they spent more time immobile (Fourrier et al., 398 2015; Gomes et al., 2020). This pair of studies are among the very few exploring the influence of 399 pyriproxyfen on this type of behavior in insects. Our video tracking data did not indicate similar 400 effects in female E. vuilleti. This means either these behaviors are not JH-dependent in E. vuilleti or, 401 regardless of the underlying mechanisms regulating them, exploration and mobility were not 402 disrupted by this insecticide at the doses applied. The ability to discriminate host quality, in particular 403 its parasitism status, is common in parasitoid wasps (Godfray, 1994) and is often based on the 404 perception and recognition of chemical cues. After locating their hosts using long-range cues or 405 signals, females detect and recognize chemical information about host quality through the activation 406 of sensory neurons of sensillae mainly located on their antennae and ovipositor, and then adjust their 407 oviposition decisions accordingly (Cury et al., 2019). Neurotoxic pesticides can disrupt the insect 408 olfactory system (Delpuech and Leger, 2011), and smell disruption is a possible effect of endocrine 409 disruptors. In Spodoptera littoralis, bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate alters male detection of female sex 410 pheromone by down-regulating the transcription level of calmodulin and ecdysteroid nuclear 411 receptors in their antennae (Aviles et al., 2020). We therefore anticipated endocrine disruptors may 412 alter parasitoid females' discrimination ability in species where host quality assessment is based on 413 chemical cues perceived during antennal examination, like in E. vuilleti (Jaloux, 2004). In contrast to 414 previous work (Darrouzet et al. 2007), we did not observe host discrimination ability in our 415 experiment. This surprising difference may be due to the time elapsed since the first oviposition, 416 which was shorter in our set-up. Nevertheless, our results did not show any effect of pyriproxyfen in 417 modulating oviposition strategies on parasitized and unparasitized hosts in this parasitoid wasp, at the 418 tested concentrations: parasitized host acceptance rates did not differ between treated and control 419 females.

420 Despite the absence of sublethal effects of pyriproxyfen on exploration and host 421 discrimination behavior in E. vuilleti, we observed that female exposure to a low dose of this 422 endocrine disruptor increased the occurrence and number of aggressive behaviors. Interestingly, other 423 insecticides that are not JH analogues have already been shown to increase the aggression of insects. 424 For instance, females of the beetle *Phaedon cochleariae* exposed to pyrethroid lambda-cyhalothrin 425 show more aggressive behavior than untreated females (Müller et al., 2019). Our result is also in 426 agreement with what is known about the hormonal regulation of aggressiveness in many species. 427 Indeed, high levels of JH in adults are often associated with high levels of aggressiveness and elevated 428 dominance rank (Tibbetts et al., 2020). Furthermore, a similar stimulatory effect of aggression after exposure to another JH analogue, fenoxycarb, has already been demonstrated in Schistocerca 429 430 gregaria and Locusta migratoria (Wiesel et al., 1996). This phenomenon was also found in the necrophagous beetles Nicrophorus orbicollis and N. tomentosus when exposed to methoprene (Scott, 431 2006). In the absence of a resource to fight over, exposure to methoprene indeed increased 432 433 individuals' aggressiveness: when a treated female competed with a untreated conspecific, injuries 434 were more frequent than when neither of the opponents was treated (Scott, 2006). Altogether, these 435 studies, including this current study, support the hypothesis that juvenile hormone-like growth 436 regulator insecticides can influence the behavior of non-target insects, especially in competitive 437 situations.

438 Additionally, E. vuilleti females treated with pyriproxyfen were more likely to be the first of 439 their dyad exhibiting host exploration compared to control females (exposed to solvent). This could 440 reflect a greater motivation among pyriproxyfen treated females to lay eggs. Indeed, JH is known to 441 stimulate egg maturation within 24h (Mathiron et al., 2019), which in turn increases the value that 442 females place in the host (i.e. higher subjective value, Mohamad et al., 2010), hence their motivation 443 to access hosts. Juvenile hormone would thus be the direct or indirect signal modulating motivation 444 to access the host. Exposure to pyriproxyfen would induce a similar signal and lead to an increase in 445 female motivation to take possession of hosts. It would then be interesting to analyze how long this effect lasts. Nevertheless, this increased probability of being first on host (and being first to exhibit 446 447 oviposition behavior) did not translate into a higher probability of being first to lay an egg (i.e. a fully 448 realized win of a contest for host resources). The oviposition sequence of females was frequently 449 interrupted by aggressive behavior of their opponent, leading to their departure from the host or even 450 from the central chamber, while the opponent fully parasitized the host. As a result, females exposed 451 to the insecticide were not more likely than control females to win the overall conflict. These surprising results are consistent with previous work showing that, while *E. vuilleti* agonistic behaviors 452 453 are modulated by JH (Mathiron et al., 2019), contest outcomes are mediated by another hormone, 454 ecdysone (Mathiron et al., 2020). Thus, whereas in silico analyses revealed a possible interaction of 455 pyriproxyfen with USP-EcR, the receptor dimer known to mediate the effects of ecdysteroids in bees 456 (Spaggiari et al., 2021), it seems that in E. vuilleti there is no cross communication between pyriproxyfen and ecdysteroid activity. 457

458

#### 460 **5.** <u>Conclusion</u>

461 Our results revealed exposure to sublethal doses of pyriproxyfen enhances, at least 462 temporarily, egg maturation, aggressiveness and motivation to access host during competition in E. 463 vuilleti females. If these effects lead to a higher fitness in these parasitoids, they could improve the 464 biological control of the cowpea seed pest, C. maculatus. Similarly, positive effects of sublethal concentrations of other insecticides on natural enemies of pests have been identified (Müller, 2018; 465 466 Stothard and Hardy, unpublished). For instance, the frequency of flight and walking, as well as the 467 duration and distance of these movements in ladybugs Harmonia axyridis exposed to beta-468 cypermethrin is increased (Xiao et al., 2017). Female fecundity is also enhanced (Xiao et al., 2016). 469 As flight performance is important for predation but also for dispersal, such changes in a beneficial 470 insect may have important consequences in its biocontrol efficiency. In addition, pesticides can cause 471 transgenerational effects and impact populations over multiple generations even though they are no 472 longer present in the environment (Müller, 2018). However, because a same insecticide can have 473 effects on both pests and beneficial organisms, care must be taken to ensure that the dose used is more 474 beneficial to the latter species than to the former. Furthermore, positive sublethal effects are rare and in most cases insecticides have harmful effects on non-target insects (Desneux et al., 2007). Finally, 475 the influence of pesticides on interactions between sympatric species, whether interspecific or 476 477 between prey and predators, must be investigated to ensure the maintenance of ecosystem dynamics in IPM programs. 478

Under the experimental conditions of this study, pyriproxyfen modulated upward *E. vuilleti* females' fecundity and aggressiveness during conflict for host access. This highlights that pyriproxyfen may have, though relatively specific, unintended effects on non-target species, including parasitoids used to control cowpea pests. At this point, it remains difficult to anticipate the consequences at the population level of these positive effects on reproduction and behavior and effects on other life-history traits cannot yet be ruled out. This study raises the importance of studying the diversity of unintentional sublethal effects of pesticides that may affect non-target species,

486 including arthropods, to improve knowledge of their potential risks to species used in biological487 control.

488

#### 489 Competing interest statement

490 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

491

### 492 Ethical Note

493 No animal ethics approval was required. Nevertheless, we handled all individuals with care, and we
494 kept handling time to an absolute minimum. Acrylic paint used for marking does not cause injury to
495 wasps. Dissected wasps were freeze-killed prior to decapitation.

496

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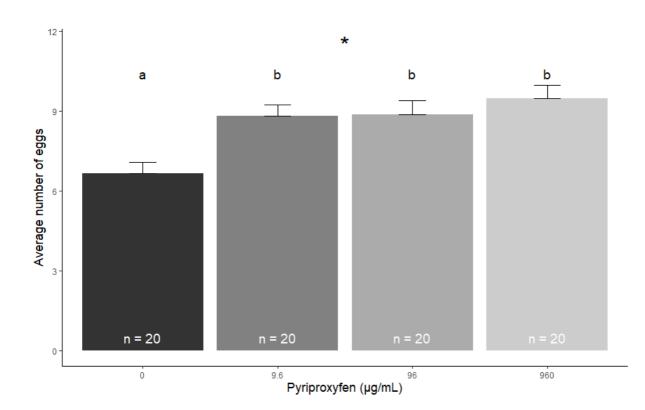
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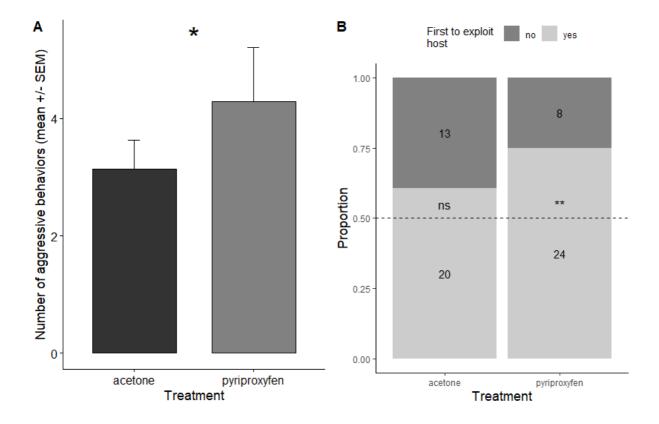
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741	Figure 1: Average number of mature eggs (mean +/- SEM) in <i>E. vuilleti</i> females 24h after being
742	treated with pyriproxyfen at four different concentrations. n indicates the sample size per treatment.
743	* indicates a significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) in mature eggs between the four treatments. Two
744	different letters indicate a significant difference at $\alpha < 0.05$ .
745	
746	Figure 2: Female behavior during conflicts for access to a host depending on whether E. vuilleti
747	females were treated with acetone or pyriproxyfen at 9.6µg/mL four hours before. A. Number of
748	aggressive behaviors (mean +/- SEM) displayed by a focal female, treated with pyriproxyfen or
749	acetone, towards its opponent, a non-treated female. B. Proportion of focal females exploiting the
750	host first. Proportions were compared to chance (i.e. 50%). Figures in the bars indicate the number
751	of females observed in each situation. * and ** indicate a significant difference at $\alpha$ < 0.05 and $\alpha$ <
752	0.001, respectively. ns: indicates a non-significant difference.

Figure 1







**Table 1**: Effect of relative egg load or mass difference and treatment on the probability of the focal female winning.

Factors affecting victory	Df	$LR \chi^2$	Р
Model 1 : Relative egg	load difference		
Relative egg load difference	1	0.101	0.751
Focal female treatment	1	1.514	0.219
Relative egg load difference x Focal female treatment	1	0.727	0.394
Model 2 : Relative ma	ass difference		1
Relative mass difference	1	2.470	0.116
Focal female treatment	1	2.680	0.102
Relative mass difference x Focal female treatment	1	1.300	0.254

#### Side effects of a pesticide on a non-target species:

Does pyriproxyfen, a juvenile hormone agonist, impact physiology and behavior in a beneficial insect?

