1	Long-term pharmaceutical contamination and temperature stress
2	disrupt fish behaviour
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# 19 ABSTRACT

20 Natural environments are subject to a range of anthropogenic stressors, with 21 pharmaceutical pollution being among the fastest-growing agents of global change. 22 However, despite wild animals living in complex multi-stressor environments, 23 interactions between pharmaceutical exposure and other stressors remain poorly 24 understood. Accordingly, we investigated effects of long-term exposure to the pervasive pharmaceutical contaminant fluoxetine (Prozac<sup>®</sup>), and acute temperature stress, on 25 26 reproductive behaviours and activity levels in the guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*). Fish were 27 exposed to environmentally realistic fluoxetine concentrations (measured average: 38 or 28 312 ng/L) or a solvent control for 15 months using a mesocosm system. Additionally, 29 fish were subjected to one of three acute (24 h) temperature treatments: cold stress (18 30 °C), heat stress (32 °C) or a control (24 °C). We found no evidence for interactive 31 effects of fluoxetine exposure and temperature stress on guppy behaviour. However, 32 both stressors had independent impacts. Fluoxetine exposure resulted in increased 33 male coercive copulatory behaviour, while fish activity levels were unaffected. Under 34 cold-temperature stress, both sexes were less active and males exhibited less frequent 35 reproductive behaviours. Our results demonstrate that long-term exposure to a common 36 pharmaceutical pollutant, and acute temperature stress, alter fundamental fitness-37 related behaviours in fish, potentially shifting population dynamics in contaminated 38 ecosystems.

39 Introduction

40 Contamination of aquatic habitats by pharmaceuticals is a major environmental 41 problem, evoking concern among scientists, health officials, and communities around the globe.<sup>1–3</sup> Most pharmaceuticals are incompletely metabolised when consumed and 42 their metabolites can remain biologically active when excreted.<sup>4,5</sup> Wastewater treatment 43 44 plants (WWTPs) are typically not designed to remove pharmaceutical compounds from sewage<sup>6</sup> and discharge of wastewater effluent into the environment is, therefore, a 45 primary source of contamination.<sup>7</sup> Accordingly, pharmaceuticals such as antibiotics, 46 47 painkillers, cardiovascular drugs, blood lipid regulators, and antidepressants, are frequently detected in surface and ground waters around the world.<sup>3</sup> The presence of 48 49 these active pharmaceutical products in natural environments is problematic because of their capacity to induce a range of sub-lethal effects in exposed organisms.<sup>1,8,9</sup> Indeed, 50 51 pharmaceuticals can disrupt fundamental behavioural processes, such as reproductive behaviour, aggression, boldness, activity levels, and feeding rates.<sup>1,10</sup> Changes to such 52 53 behaviours can directly impact the strength and direction of selection, fitness, and even 54 population viability, with potential for broader ecosystem and evolutionary consequences.11-14 55

Fluoxetine (Prozac<sup>®</sup>) is one of the most widely prescribed antidepressants globally,<sup>15</sup>
being used to treat depression and anxiety-related disorders in humans and
domesticated animals.<sup>16,17</sup> Fluoxetine is also a relatively stable compound (half-life of 68
days in water at pH 7 under light conditions)<sup>18</sup> that is commonly detected in freshwater
environments worldwide.<sup>19,20</sup> In aquatic habitats, fluoxetine concentrations range
between <1 ng/L to as high as 1400 ng/L,<sup>3,20,21</sup> although concentrations above 350 ng/L

tend to only occur in direct sewage effluent.<sup>20</sup> Fluoxetine inhibits the reuptake of
neuronal serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine), which acutely increases synaptic serotonin
levels and, after 2–3 weeks, produces anxiolytic effects in humans.<sup>16</sup> The serotonergic
system is conserved across all vertebrate classes<sup>22</sup> and, consequently, fluoxetine has
the capacity to alter behaviour in a wide range of species.<sup>23</sup>

67 Continuous discharge of fluoxetine-contaminated effluent from WWTPs, coupled with 68 the stability of dissolved fluoxetine, results in long-term ('pseudo-persistent') exposure of many aquatic environments.<sup>8</sup> Duration-dependent effects have been observed in 69 70 mussels (*Mytilus californianus*), with some physiological changes manifesting only after 6 weeks of fluoxetine exposure.<sup>24</sup> Yet, most studies investigating impacts of fluoxetine 71 72 are conducted using short-term exposure durations (i.e. <1 month) that represent a small fraction of the model species' lifespan.<sup>25–30</sup> This is problematic because effects 73 74 that persist after long-term exposure may have important consequences on the lifetime 75 fitness of individuals and population dynamics, making studies addressing effects of 76 chronic exposure to pharmaceutical contaminants, such as fluoxetine, an urgent 77 research priority.

78 Aquatic species are subjected to a range of environmental stressors

contemporaneously.<sup>31</sup> It is, therefore, important to understand how species respond to pharmaceutical pollutants in the presence of other concurrent stressors, especially because joint effects of interacting stressors can be challenging to predict. In particular, effects of combined stressors can be less, or greater, than expected (i.e. antagonistic or synergistic, respectively), compared to stressors tested in isolation. For example, in the Mediterranean mussel (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*), concurrent exposure to fluoxetine and

the high blood pressure medication propranolol resulted in an antagonistic interaction
with regard to cell signalling,<sup>32</sup> with the combined effect of both pharmaceuticals being
less than what would be expected if the independent effects were simply summed
together.

89 Temperature is an important stressor, especially in aquatic environments. Increased 90 temperature variability represents a disproportionately greater threat to organisms than 91 mean temperature increases,<sup>33</sup> and ambient environmental temperature is crucial to body temperature regulation in ectotherms.<sup>34</sup> In this respect, aquatic ectotherms are 92 poorly adapted to cope with large temperature fluctuations,<sup>35–37</sup> especially in the context 93 of reproduction.<sup>38</sup> Furthermore, temperature stress can compromise an individual's 94 ability to respond effectively to other environmental stressors.<sup>39</sup> For instance. toxicity of 95 96 pesticides to juvenile coho salmon (Oncorhynchus kisutch) was elevated at higher temperatures.<sup>40</sup> In zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), isolated exposures to high temperature or the 97 98 endocrine disruptor progestin had a negative effect on female fecundity, whereas 99 exposure to both of these stressors simultaneously resulted in complete reproductive failure.<sup>41</sup> Similarly, in the water flea *Daphnia magna*, fluoxetine and temperature 100 101 variability had an adverse synergistic effect on reproductive success and population growth.<sup>42</sup> More generally, however, interactive effects between temperature and 102 103 exposure to realistic levels of pharmaceutical pollution have received surprisingly little 104 attention to date. Indeed, more work is clearly needed, given the prevalence of 105 pharmaceutical contaminants in aquatic environments and the importance of 106 temperature to ectothermic species.

107 Here, we investigated how two important determinants of fitness, reproductive 108 behaviour and activity, are influenced by two stressors, chronic fluoxetine exposure and 109 acute temperature stress, in a freshwater fish. Specifically, guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) 110 sourced from mesocosm populations were exposed to environmentally realistic levels of 111 fluoxetine (nominal concentrations: 30 ng/L or 300 ng/L) or left unexposed (i.e. solvent 112 control only) for a period of 15 months and then underwent one of three temperature 113 treatments. Fish were placed under cold stress (at 18 °C), heat stress (at 32 °C), or 114 maintained at a control temperature (24 °C) for 24 h prior to experimental trials. We then 115 investigated how reproductive behaviours and activity levels of guppies were impacted 116 by the fluoxetine and temperature treatments. Because isolated exposure to fluoxetine 117 and cold stress have been shown to generate opposite effects on reproductive 118 behaviour in fish—i.e., increased male copulatory behaviour resulting from fluoxetine exposure<sup>25,28,43</sup> and decreased male sexual motivation due to cold stress<sup>44</sup>—we 119 120 hypothesised that these two stressors would act antagonistically, with the effect of one 121 countering the effect of the other when experienced in combination. We also predicted 122 that heat stress and fluoxetine exposure would, in turn, interact synergistically to increase levels of courtship and copulation.<sup>45</sup> For activity levels, we tested the generality 123 124 of previous findings suggesting that fluoxetine may not significantly affect fish activity.<sup>30,46,47</sup> We predicted, instead, that activity increases with temperature.<sup>48</sup> 125

126

127 Materials and methods

128 Study species

The guppy is a small poeciliid fish native to freshwaters of northern South America.<sup>49</sup> As 129 130 a highly successful invader, the guppy is now found in tropical and subtropical regions around the world.<sup>50</sup> The preferred temperature range of guppies is 24–27 °C,<sup>51–53</sup> with 131 females having fewer offspring per brood under heat stress (i.e.  $\geq$  32 °C)<sup>54</sup> and males 132 subjected to cold stress (i.e. ≤20 °C) courting less.<sup>44</sup> Guppies undergo internal 133 134 fertilisation, with males inseminating females using a modified anal fin, the gonopodium.<sup>49</sup> Male guppies exhibit two alternative mating strategies, either performing 135 136 courtship displays to elicit consensual copulations with choosy females or carrying out coercive 'sneak' copulations that circumvent female mate choice.<sup>55</sup> Courtship displays 137 138 involve the male positioning himself in the female's line of sight, bending his body into an s-shape and guivering (termed 'sigmoid display').<sup>49</sup> Sneak copulation attempts 139 140 involve a male chasing a female from behind and attempting to insert his gonopodium into the female's genital pore without first performing courtship.<sup>49</sup> Because the latter 141 strategy is associated with lower insemination efficiency and reduced offspring quality,<sup>56</sup> 142 143 changes in the relative use of these two strategies can impact the quality and quantity of progeny<sup>55</sup>, potentially altering population dynamics and size. 144

145 Mesocosm system and fluoxetine treatments

Guppies used in this experiment were sourced from mesocosm populations that had

been maintained in a temperature-controlled greenhouse facility under natural (i.e.

ambient) light conditions at Monash University, Melbourne, Australia. These mesocosm

- populations were founded using wild-caught guppies collected in November 2016 from
- 150 Alligator Creek, a rainforest-fed stream located within Bowling Green Bay National Park,

151 Townsville, Australia (19°23'50.3" S, 146°56'56.5" E; collection permit: WITK17685216). 152 Water samples taken from this site at the time of fish collection revealed no 153 contamination with fluoxetine (Envirolab Services; all samples under the minimum 154 detection limit of 2 ng/L, n = 5). After collection, fish were housed in 12 stainless steel 155 mesocosm tanks (648 L; 180 cm × 60 cm × 60 cm), each of which was established with 156 a founding population of 300 sexually mature guppies at an equal sex ratio, with these 157 mesocosm populations having since been utilised for a series of experiments, including 158 the present study. Mesocosm tanks were filled with carbon-filtered fresh water to a 159 depth of 30 cm and contained aquatic plants (Java moss, Taxiphyllum barberi) and a 3-160 cm layer of gravel substrate (~7 mm grain size). Commercial air pumps (Resun LP100) 161 were used to aerate tanks, and aquarium heaters used to maintain water temperature. 162 The temperature and pH of all tanks were tested weekly (temperature: mean = 23.4 °C, 163 SD = 1.0 °C, *n* = 720; pH: mean = 7.36, range = 5.08–9.67, *n* = 720). Fish were fed *ad* 164 libitum once every two days with commercial food pellets (Aquasonic Nutra Xtreme C1 165 pellets; 0.8 mm). Once per week, 20% water changes were conducted for each tank. 166 Mesocosm tanks were randomly allocated to one of three fluoxetine exposure regimes. 167 a low-fluoxetine treatment (nominal concentration: 30 ng/L, n = 4 tanks), a high-168 fluoxetine treatment (nominal concentration: 300 ng/L, n = 4 tanks) or an unexposed 169 treatment (i.e. solvent control, n = 4 tanks) from April 2017. The low-fluoxetine treatment 170 is representative of concentrations commonly found in surface waters, whereas the 171 high-fluoxetine treatment represents levels detected in effluent-dominated systems.<sup>3,20,21</sup> A population survey conducted in the month following behavioural 172 173 experiments (August 2018) showed that adult densities within the twelve mesocosms

were similar across the treatments (mean  $\pm$  SD: 78  $\pm$  57, 66  $\pm$  39, and 62  $\pm$  26, for the control, low, and high treatments, respectively).

176 To maintain the desired fluoxetine water concentrations, dosing solutions were added to 177 the low- and high-exposed tanks twice weekly. This involved fluoxetine hydrochloride 178 (Sigma Aldrich; product number: F132, CAS: 56296-78-7) being dissolved in methanol 179 to form two separate 100 mL stock solutions (20 and 200 mg/L for the low- and high-180 fluoxetine treatments, respectively), which were then used to create dosing solutions 181 twice weekly. Dosing solutions were prepared by diluting 1 mL of either stock solution in 1 L of reverse-osmosis water. To eliminate any potential for solvent effects<sup>57</sup> and to 182 183 ensure consistency in the level of handling and disturbances across treatments, a 184 solvent solution (1 mL of methanol in 1 L of reverse-osmosis water) was added to all 185 control tanks twice weekly (equates to 0.0006% methanol by volume).

#### 186 Analytical verification of fluoxetine treatment levels

187 Throughout the experiment, water samples (40 mL) were drawn approximately once per 188 month from each of the low- and high-fluoxetine treatment mesocosm tanks to 189 determine the concentrations of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine (the major metabolite of fluoxetine)<sup>19</sup> using gas chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (7000C Triple 190 191 Quadrupole GC-MS/MS, Agilent Technologies, Delaware, USA; minimum detection 192 limit: 2 ng/L). Control tanks were also sampled every second month using the same 193 method, to ensure the absence of contamination. Water analyses were performed by 194 Envirolab Services (MPL Laboratories; NATA accreditation: 2901; accredited for 195 compliance with ISO/IEC: 17025) within 4 days of collection. A detailed description of the water analysis protocol is provided in Bertram et al.<sup>25</sup> Mean measured fluoxetine 196

197 concentrations in the low- and high-fluoxetine mesocosm tanks were 38 ng/L (SD = 24, 198 n = 60) and 312 ng/L (SD = 214, n = 60), respectively. Fluoxetine was not detected in 199 any of the control tanks (all samples under the minimum detection limit, n = 30). 200 Norfluoxetine was not observed in any of the tested samples. Fluoxetine readily sorbs to 201 sediment in water/sediment systems.<sup>19,58</sup> Hence, while the gravel substrate used in the 202 mesocosm system was important in simulating more natural environmental conditions, it 203 likely contributed to the variability in measured fluoxetine concentrations observed.

# 204 Experimental procedure and temperature treatments

205 The goal of the study was to investigate behavioural effects of long-term fluoxetine 206 exposure under ecologically realistic conditions comprising multiple overlapping and interacting generations, which is reflective of guppy populations in nature.<sup>49,59,60</sup> Trials 207 208 were conducted in July 2018, resulting in a 15-month exposure protocol. Given an 209 approximate generation time of 4 months in guppies, up to 4 generations were present within the mesocosm system at the time of trials.<sup>59,60</sup> One week prior to experimental 210 211 trials, sexually mature fish were caught and separated by sex into fine-mesh cylinders 212 (35 cm × 32 cm, diameter × height, water depth: 30 cm) within their respective 213 mesocosm tanks. To ensure that fish were sexually mature, we selected females that 214 were over 15 mm in standard length, and males displaying nuptial colouration and a fully developed gonopodium.<sup>49</sup> Fish were then sourced from these cylinders for use in 215 216 trials, ensuring individuals were only tested once. Twenty-four hours prior to 217 experimentation, fish underwent temperature manipulations in 1 L cylindrical glass tanks 218 (10 cm × 30 cm, diameter × height, water depth: 20 cm, maximum 3 fish per tank), with 219 males and females housed in separate tanks. Three temperature treatments were

220 employed: heat stress (32 °C), cold stress (18 °C), and a control temperature treatment 221 (no change; 24 °C). The control treatment was chosen to represent the long-term 222 average temperature observed across mesocosm tanks (mean = 23.4 °C, SD = 1.0 °C, 223 n = 720). The heat stress treatment involved an 8 °C increase over the average 224 mesocosm tank temperature. This temperature increase was selected to simulate heat 225 stress but, importantly, was still below the critical thermal maximum of guppies (i.e. 38 °C).<sup>61</sup> The cold stress treatment involved a 6 °C reduction from the average mesocosm 226 227 tank temperature, which was chosen because guppies are more vulnerable to rapid decreases in temperature than to rapid increases in temperature.<sup>62</sup> The temperature 228 229 changes of +8 °C and -6 °C used in these experiments are plausible in an 230 environmental context, with daily fluctuations of this scale having been observed within the guppy's native range.<sup>53</sup> To avoid shock caused by instantaneous temperature 231 232 changes, temperature alterations occurred over a period of 6 h, which is common practice in temperature manipulation experiments involving fish.<sup>63,64</sup> The tanks remained 233 234 at the new temperatures for the subsequent 18 h before fish were tested in behavioural 235 trials.

# 236 Experimental trials

Behavioural trials (*n* = 162) were conducted on the day after fish were exposed to
temperature manipulations, in glass tanks (60 cm × 30 cm × 30 cm, water depth: 15 cm)
filled with carbon-filtered water maintained at 18 °C (mean: 18.2 °C, range: 17.8–18.5
°C), 24 °C (mean: 24.3 °C, range: 24.0–24.5 °C) or 32 °C (mean: 32.3 °C, range: 31.8–
32.5 °C). The male and female used in each trial had been subjected to the same
fluoxetine and temperature treatment (solvent control treatment [i.e. 0 ng/L fluoxetine]:

243 control temperature: n = 20, low temperature: n = 17, high temperature: n = 17; low-244 fluoxetine treatment: control temperature: n = 16, low temperature: n = 20, high 245 temperature: n = 19; high-fluoxetine treatment: control temperature: n = 19, low 246 temperature: n = 18, high temperature: n = 16). Fish tested in each trial were sourced 247 from different mesocosm tanks to ensure that male-female experimental pairs were 248 novel to each other. This was done to control for familiarity, which is known to influence mate choice in guppies.<sup>65</sup> Each trial involved the male and female being placed into 249 250 separate acclimation chambers (opaque cylinders; 7.5 cm × 20 cm, diameter × height, 251 water depth: 15 cm) in an experimental tank matching the desired temperature used in 252 the temperature manipulation. Fish were acclimated for 5 min, after which the 253 acclimation chambers were removed so that the two fish were free to explore the trial 254 tank and interact for 40 min. Tank water was replaced between each trial to prevent any potential for chemical cues to influence fish in subsequent trials.<sup>66</sup> 255 256 Throughout behavioural trials, tanks were video-recorded from above (Panasonic HC-257 V180), with male and female behaviour subsequently scored from recordings, blind to

treatment, using behavioural observation key-logging software (BORIS v. 6.3).<sup>67</sup> 258 259 Specifically, the time taken for the male to first attempt a sneak copulation and the 260 number of attempted sneak copulations were scored for each trial. The time until the 261 first courtship display and the number of courtship displays performed by each male 262 were also recorded. Additionally, activity levels of the male and female were evaluated 263 using 5 cm grid squares marked on the base of each experimental tank. We counted 264 the number of 5 cm grid squares crossed by each fish for 1 min every 5 min over the 265 40-min trial, resulting in a total of 8 min of observations for each fish. We then estimated

activity as movement/time (cm/sec). After each trial, both of the fish were measured for body mass ( $\pm 0.0001$  g) and standard length (i.e. body length excluding tail;  $\pm 0.01$  mm). The fish were then returned to their respective mesocosm source tanks, where they were isolated from untested fish.

### 270 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed in R 3.5.1.<sup>68</sup> As a proxy for body condition, we 271 calculated a scaled mass index, which was done separately for males and females.<sup>69</sup> 272 273 Specifically, we performed a standard major axis regression on the log of body mass 274 and standard length of fish (sma function, smatr package), and calculated a sex-specific 275 beta coefficient, which was then used (with mean standard length) to obtain the scaled 276 mass for each fish. These scaled mass indices for males and females were initially 277 included in all models but were later removed as they did not significantly improve their 278 fit, as tested by Akaike information criterion comparisons.

279 Generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) were used to test the effects of fluoxetine 280 treatment, temperature treatment, and the interaction between them, for both sneak 281 copulations and courtship displays, separately. For sneak copulations, a negative 282 binomial distribution (NB GLMM; *nb.glmer* function, *MASS* package) was selected to 283 account for overdispersion. For courtship displays, a binomial distribution was selected 284 over a Poisson distribution because an insufficient number of fish conducted the 285 behaviour for it to be analysed as a count variable (i.e. 19.8% across all groups). To 286 account for possible mesocosm tank effects, the source tank IDs of male and female 287 fish, as well as the combination of male and female source tank IDs, were included as

random effects in both GLMM models (see supplementary tables S1–S4 for randomeffects results).

To analyse potential effects of the fluoxetine and temperature treatments, and their interaction, on the time taken for males to perform their first sneak copulation and courtship display, we applied separate Cox's mixed effect (COXME) proportional hazard models (*coxme* function, *survival* package) for the two response variables (i.e. sneak attempts and courtship displays). Both models met the assumption of proportionality, as determined by examining the interaction between Schoenfeld residuals and log time (*cox.zph* function, *survival* package).

Data on fish activity levels were square-root transformed so that assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were satisfied (Shapiro-Wilk test, *shapiro.test* function and Bartlett test, *bartlett.test* function). We then analysed activity levels of fish using linear mixed effects models (LME; *Imer* function, *Ime4* package). Fluoxetine and temperature treatments, the interaction between the two, and sex, were included as fixed effects, and mesocosm source tank ID was added as a random effect.

adjustments were used to generate pairwise comparisons (*glht* function, *multcomp*package).

Where relevant, general linear hypothesis tests (GLHTs) with Tukey's post-hoc p-

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Effects of fluoxetine exposure on morphology (weight, standard length, and scaled mass index) were investigated for each sex, using Kruskal-Wallis tests to account for non-normal distributions in data (KWT; *kruskal.test* function). Dunn's tests were used with Bonferroni corrections for pairwise comparisons (*dunnTest* function, *FSA* package).

## 311 Results

## 312 *Reproductive behaviours*

313 No significant interaction was detected between fluoxetine treatment and temperature treatment for the number of sneak copulations performed by males (NB GLMM:  $\chi^2$  = 314 3.885, df = 4, p = 0.43). We did, however, find a significant difference between the 315 316 number of sneak copulations conducted by males in different fluoxetine treatments (NB GLMM:  $\chi^2 = 7.843$ , df = 2, p = 0.019; Fig. 1a), with unexposed fish performing fewer 317 318 sneaks than males in the low- and high-fluoxetine treatments (NB GLMM: z = -2.455, p = 0.037, and z = -3.129, p = 0.005, respectively). The low- and high-fluoxetine 319 320 treatments did not differ significantly (NB GLMM; z = 0.3595, p = 0.63; Fig. 1a). 321 Temperature treatment also significantly affected the number of sneak copulations performed by males (NB GLMM;  $\chi^2 = 20.33$ , df = 2, p < 0.001; Fig. 1b). Males under 322 323 low-temperature stress performed fewer sneak copulations than did those in the heat stress and control treatments (NB GLMM: z = 4.745, p < 0.001, and z = 3.370, p =324 0.002, respectively; Fig. 1b). No significant difference was detected between the control 325 326 and heat-stress treatments (NB GLMM; z = 1.728, p = 0.19; Fig. 1b).





Figure 1. Number of male coercive 'sneak' copulations performed in the (a) unexposed (0 ng/L; n = 54), low-exposed (38 ng/L; n = 55) and high-exposed (312 ng/L; n = 53) fluoxetine treatments, and in the (b) low (18 °C; n = 54), control (24 °C; n = 56) and high (32 °C; n = 52) temperature treatments

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We found no significant interactive effect between fluoxetine exposure and temperature treatment in terms of time taken to the first male sneak copulation (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 1.491$ , df = 4, p = 0.83). Furthermore, fluoxetine treatment did not affect the time elapsed before males attempted a sneak copulation (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 3.783, df = 2, p = 0.15$ ; Fig. S1) but temperature treatment did (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 13.17, df = 2, p = 0.001$ ; Fig. 2). Specifically, males at 18 °C were significantly delayed in performing their first sneak relative to males at 32 °C (GLHT: z = 2.387, p = 0.043). Males in the 24 °C control temperature treatment did not differ significantly from those at 18 °C (GLHT; z = 2.045,

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$$p = 0.098$$
) or 32 °C ( $z = 0.5680$ ,  $p = 0.83$ ).

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Figure 2. Time taken to first coercive 'sneak' copulation for males by temperature treatment, right-censored at 2400 sec. The solid line represents the low-temperature treatment (18 °C; n = 54), the dashed line represents the control temperature treatment (24 °C; n = 56) and the dotted line represents the high-temperature treatment (32 °C; n348 = 52)



355 performing at least one courtship display. Temperature, however, did significantly influence the proportion of males that performed courtship displays (GLMM:  $\chi^2 = 7.284$ , 356 df = 2, p = 0.026). A significantly lower proportion of males in the low-temperature 357 358 treatment performed at least one courtship display (3.6%), relative to those in the 359 control treatment (30.9%; GLMM: z = 3.138, p = 0.002), and the high-temperature 360 treatment (25.0%; GLMM: z = 2.791, p = 0.005). No significant difference between the 361 control and high-temperature stress treatments was observed for courting behaviour (GLMM: z = 0.6820, p = 0.52). 362

For the time elapsed until first courtship display, there was no significant interaction between temperature and fluoxetine treatment (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 3.877$ , df = 4, p = 0.42), nor was there a significant main effect of fluoxetine exposure (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 5.066$ , df = 2, p = 0.41; Fig. S2). A marginally non-significant main effect was, however, observed for temperature treatment (COXME:  $\chi^2 = 10.88$ , df = 2, p = 0.054, Fig. S3).

### 368 Activity levels

369 We found no significant interaction between fluoxetine treatment and temperature treatment on fish activity levels (LME:  $\chi^2$  = 5.385, *df* = 4, *p* = 0.25). Fluoxetine exposure 370 did not influence activity (LME:  $\chi^2$  = 1.217, df = 2, p = 0.54; Fig. S4) but temperature did 371 372  $(\chi^2 = 118.6, df = 2, p < 0.001;$  Fig. 3). The cold-temperature treatment resulted in a 373 significant reduction in activity levels relative to the control and heat-stress treatments 374 (GLHT: z = 5.902, p < 0.001, and z = 4.904, p < 0.001, respectively) but there was no significant difference between the control and heat-stress treatments with regard to 375 activity levels (GLHT: z = -0.8040, p = 0.70). Regardless of exposure treatment, female 376 fish were significantly less active than males ( $\chi^2$  = 7.577, df = 1, p = 0.006), and activity 377

378	level correlated with a variety of reproductive behaviours. Specifically, activity level was
379	negatively correlated with time to first courtship display (Spearman's rank correlation:
380	<i>rho</i> = $-0.273$ , <i>df</i> = 160, <i>p</i> < 0.001) and time to first sneak copulation (Spearman's rank
381	correlation: $rho = -0.301$ , $df = 160$ , $p < 0.001$ ). In addition, activity was positively
382	correlated with the propensity to conduct at least one courtship display (Spearman's
383	rank correlation: <i>rho</i> = 0.273, <i>df</i> = 160, $p < 0.001$ ), as well as the number of sneak
384	copulations performed (Spearman's rank correlation: $rho = 0.304$ , $df = 160$ , $p < 0.001$ ).

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**Figure 3.** Activity levels of fish in the low-temperature treatment (18 °C; n = 108), the

388 control temperature treatment (24 °C; n = 112), and the high-temperature treatment (32

389 °C; *n* = 104)

390 Morphology

Fluoxetine exposure did not impact weight (KWT:  $\chi^2 = 2.527$ , df = 2, p = 0.28), standard 391 length (KWT:  $\chi^2$  = 1.925, df = 2, p = 0.38), or scaled mass (KWT:  $\chi^2$  = 0.9388, df = 2, p392 = 0.63) in male guppies. Fluoxetine did, however, impact weight (KWT:  $\chi^2$  = 9.115, df = 393 2, p = 0.010) and standard length (KWT:  $\chi^2 = 9.263$ , df = 2, p = 0.010) in females. 394 Specifically, females in the low-fluoxetine treatment were heavier (z = 2.995, p = 0.008) 395 396 and longer (z = 2.958, p = 0.009) than those in the control treatment. There was no 397 difference between unexposed and high-exposed fish (weight: z = 1.165, p = 0.73; 398 standard length: z = 0.8590, p = 0.39), or low- and high-exposed fish (weight: z = 1.810, 399 p = 0.21; standard length: z = 2.081, p = 0.11). Fluoxetine exposure did not have a significant effect on female scaled mass (KWT:  $\chi^2$  = 5.539, df = 2, p = 0.063). 400

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# 402 Discussion

403 Contrary to predictions, we did not find an interaction between fluoxetine exposure and 404 temperature stress on guppy reproductive behaviour. We did, however, find that both 405 stressors generated independent effects on reproductive behaviour. Specifically, for 406 fluoxetine, long-term (15-month) exposure resulted in an increase in male coercive 407 mating behaviour (i.e. sneak copulations) in both the low (38 ng/L) and high (312 ng/L) 408 treatments, but did not alter courtship behaviour. With regard to the effect of 409 temperature on reproductive behaviours, we found that acute (24 h) cold stress (i.e. 18 410 °C) resulted in reduced courtship by males, as well as a delay in the time taken to first 411 perform a coercive mating attempt. Activity levels, in turn, were not affected by the 412 interaction between fluoxetine exposure and temperature stress, or by fluoxetine

413 exposure independently. There was, however, an independent effect of temperature
414 stress on activity levels, with cold stress causing a reduction in activity in both males
415 and females.

416 To date, we know of only one other study addressing impacts of fluoxetine exposure 417 under varying temperature conditions. In contrast to the results of the present study, Barbosa et al.<sup>42</sup> reported that chronic (fourth-generation) fluoxetine exposure interacted 418 419 synergistically with temperature variability to impair reproductive success in water fleas 420 (Daphnia magna). However, that study examined temperature variability and rate of 421 reproduction, rather than acute temperature stress and reproductive behaviour, which 422 may explain the disparity in results. We also cannot rule out differences in speciesspecific sensitivities to fluoxetine or temperature stress.<sup>30,52</sup> In this regard, it is worth 423 424 noting that previous research in guppies has also failed to find interactions between 425 fluoxetine (61 ng/L and 350 ng/L for 28 days) and another common environmental stressor, predation risk.<sup>43</sup> Yet, it is important to highlight that two stressors inducing 426 427 independent effects can nevertheless be detrimental, if an individual is exposed to both 428 stressors simultaneously.

For fluoxetine, our study shows that, irrespective of temperature, environmentally realistic exposure levels (i.e. 38 ng/L and 312 ng/L) can disrupt reproductive behaviours in fish, with exposed males increasing their use of a coercive mating strategy. In this regard, it is important to note that effects of fluoxetine on reproductive traits can vary between species. For instance, fluoxetine has been shown to increase nest defence behaviours in fathead minnows (*Pimephales promelas*; 1000 ng/L for 28 days),<sup>70</sup> reduce courtship displays in starlings (*Sturnus vulgaris*; 2700 ng/day for 28 weeks),<sup>71</sup> and

increase copulatory behaviours in livebearing fish (479 ng/L for 30 days:<sup>25</sup> 350 ng/L for 436 28 days;<sup>43</sup> 31 ng/L for 35 days<sup>28</sup>), while shorter-term exposure has been shown to have 437 438 no effect on reproductive behaviours in Siamese fighting fish (Betta splendens: 540 ng/L for 5 h).<sup>26</sup> The mechanisms by which selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors alter 439 reproductive traits are not fully understood.<sup>23,72,</sup> One possible explanation is that 440 441 fluoxetine can influence circulating levels of hormones via the hypothalamic-pituitary-442 gonadal axis by affecting the retention of serotonin and, more generally, the serotonergic system.<sup>23,73</sup> For example, in fish, increases in extracellular serotonin can 443 444 stimulate the release of gonadotropin-releasing hormones, gonadotropic hormones, and androgens. Such hormonal changes can, in turn, alter levels of sexual motivation<sup>74</sup> and 445 446 potentially modify how attractive individuals are to the opposite sex by, for example, altering chemical and visual cues of sexual fitness in males and females.<sup>75</sup> However, 447 448 pinpointing precise physiological factors and hormones affected by fluoxetine is 449 challenging. For example, female starlings exposed to fluoxetine were courted less by 450 males than were unexposed females, but no differences in body condition or levels of 451 circulating testosterone or oestradiol (sex hormones) were observed between females from different exposure treatments (2700 ng/day for 28 weeks).<sup>71</sup> Further research 452 453 targeted at identifying what physiological changes underpin observed effects of 454 fluoxetine on reproductive behaviours would be valuable in understanding differences 455 between species, and in determining which species may be particularly susceptible to 456 fluoxetine-mediated alterations to reproductive processes.

457 While the physiological processes underpinning fluoxetine's effects on reproductive 458 traits remain unclear, this study has nonetheless shown that long-term exposure to

459 fluoxetine generates an increase in coercive reproductive behaviour in male guppies. 460 The relative shift towards this unsolicited sneaking strategy over cooperative mating (i.e. 461 male courtship) could impair fitness by, for example, reducing the ability of females to 462 exercise mate choice. Female mate choice plays an important role in reproduction and, 463 when females are unable to select males displaying indicators of high fitness to mate with, the quality and quantity of offspring may be impacted.<sup>13</sup> Additionally, increases in 464 465 male sneaking behaviour often result in females spending more time actively avoiding 466 males, with consequences for female fitness even in a non-reproductive context. For example, female guppies will alter their habitat use to areas where predation risk is high 467 to avoid sexual harassment by males,<sup>76</sup> and suffer reduced foraging opportunities when 468 targeted by male sneaking behaviours.<sup>77</sup> Female avoidance tactics further impair male 469 470 fitness by reducing interaction between the sexes and mating opportunities for males. 471 Moreover, sneak copulations confer a lower insemination efficiency compared to postcourtship copulations.<sup>56</sup> Hence, although fluoxetine exposure increased the number of 472 473 male copulation attempts performed, it may actually reduce overall male fitness.

474 Because effects of fluoxetine may be dependent on exposure duration, we employed a 475 long-term 15-month experiment to identify effects of chronic exposure on reproductive 476 traits. Recently, a shorter-term experiment on guppies found that 28 days of fluoxetine 477 exposure at 350 ng/L caused males to perform more frequent sneaking behaviour than 478 unexposed fish, but this effect was not seen in males exposed at the lower concentration of 61 ng/L.<sup>43</sup> The latter finding contrasts with our results in that 15-month 479 480 exposure to 38 ng/L of fluoxetine did increase sneaking behaviour in the present study. 481 Given that both studies were conducted in a similar fashion and on the same species.

482 we contend that exposure duration is the most likely explanation for the different results 483 observed, with male guppy reproductive behaviour being relatively more vulnerable to 484 disruption by longer-term fluoxetine exposure. Our study, therefore, provides new 485 evidence for time-dependent effects of fluoxetine exposure on behavioural traits, and 486 underscores the importance of longer-term studies for understanding impacts of 487 environmentally realistic pharmaceutical contamination. In this regard, it is important to 488 note that this study was specifically designed to simulate a realistic exposure scenario, 489 with up to four overlapping generations exposed and allowed to interact, as is reflective 490 of natural populations. However, future studies investigating long-term effects of 491 pharmaceutical exposure and disentangling plastic versus genetic responses to 492 contamination will also be valuable.

493 In contrast to reproduction, fluoxetine exposure had no effect on activity levels in male 494 or female guppies. This is consistent with studies in zebrafish (100 000 ng/L for 2 weeks),<sup>78</sup> killifish (*Aphanius dispar*; 300 ng/L for 7 days),<sup>46</sup> and mosquitofish (*Gambusia* 495 *holbrooki*; 31 and 374 ng/L for 35 days),<sup>28</sup> in which no impacts of fluoxetine on activity 496 497 were observed. In contrast, activity levels increased in mosquitofish after 28 days of 498 exposure to a low level of fluoxetine (25 ng/L), although no change in activity was seen at a higher dosage (226 ng/L).<sup>79</sup> These studies highlight the potential for fluoxetine to 499 500 induce non-monotonic effects (i.e. where the slope of a dose-response curve changes 501 direction within the range of tested doses) and generate contrasting results depending 502 on exposure concentration and duration, and the species tested. While fluoxetine was 503 not found to affect activity in the present study, it is important to emphasise that activity is just one aspect of spatial use. In particular, Egan et al.<sup>78</sup> found that fluoxetine-504

exposed zebrafish were quicker to enter the top half of a trial tank and spent more time in the upper portion of the water column. Fish that spend more time near the water's surface are more vulnerable to aerial predators<sup>80</sup> and, therefore, exposure to fluoxetine may increase vulnerability to predation. These potentially costly alterations to behaviour would not have been identified if only activity levels had been measured, suggesting that future research may benefit from investigating how other aspects of swimming performance, movement, and spatial use respond to fluoxetine exposure.

512 Regarding independent effects of temperature, we found that cold stress leads to a 513 reduction in reproductive-related traits in fish, whereas elevated temperatures did not 514 affect these traits. Reproductive processes are sensitive to temperature and are often impaired when temperature falls outside of an organism's optimal range.<sup>81,82</sup> For 515 516 example, courting behaviours are lower in guppies exposed to temperature decreases,<sup>44</sup> and reproductive performance is hindered in female pejerrey (*Odontesthes* 517 *bonariensis*) under heat stress.<sup>83</sup> It may, therefore, seem counterintuitive that the heat-518 519 stress treatment employed in our experiment did not alter reproductive behaviour. 520 However, this may be because the temperature used was not sufficiently high to induce 521 a notable stress response in guppies.

522 Guppies under low-temperature stress showed reduced reproductive behaviours 523 relative to other treatments. Such temperature stress in aquatic organisms can generate 524 responses including changes to behaviour, metabolic rate, and the expression of heat 525 shock proteins.<sup>44,84</sup> Under acute stress, these changes are usually temporary and are 526 reversed when ambient temperature returns to normal.<sup>84</sup> The temperature 527 manipulations used in this study were acute, indicating that the reproduction-related

behavioural changes observed may not persist once temperatures return to the longterm average of 24 °C. Future research may, therefore, benefit from investigating
whether such temperature-mediated short-term adjustments in mating behaviours have
long-term impacts on the reproductive success of individuals and populations.

532 In line with our predictions, fish exposed to cold-temperature stress were significantly 533 less active than those undergoing heat stress or maintained at an intermediate control 534 temperature, irrespective of fluoxetine treatment. Temperature variation results in shifts 535 to metabolic rate in aquatic ectotherms, and behavioural changes, such as adjusted activity, are a key mechanism used by animals to restore metabolic homeostasis.<sup>85</sup> 536 537 Swimming speed increases with temperature, meaning that fish at low temperatures tend to have lower cruising speeds,<sup>86</sup> which is consistent with the results of the current 538 539 experiment. This reduction in swimming speed may have fitness consequences 540 because fish that are slower when encountering predators are less likely to escape and/or survive.87 541

542 The 15-month fluoxetine exposure resulted in sex-specific, non-monotonic changes to 543 fish morphology, with females in the low-fluoxetine treatment being heavier and longer 544 than unexposed fish. This contrasts with research on goldfish (*Carassius auratus*), in which exposure resulted in decreased weight gain (540 000 ng/L for 28 days),<sup>88</sup> and 545 546 juvenile guppies, which had reduced weight and standard length under fluoxetine exposure (30 and 500 ng/L for 35 days).<sup>89</sup> It is worth noting that fluoxetine has 547 548 previously been reported to alter foraging dynamics in mosquitofish (215 ng/L) following 549 a 28-day exposure, while no associated changes in morphological traits (i.e. weight, body length and body condition) were detected.<sup>90</sup> It is important to point out, however, 550

551 that the earlier studies on goldfish, guppies and mosquitofish employed relatively short-552 term exposures. Further research into the mechanisms causing morphological changes 553 in long-term fluoxetine exposure would be valuable in identifying why the observed non-554 monotonic, sex-specific differences arise. It is also important to highlight that fluoxetine-555 induced non-monotonic effects have previously been reported in a wide range of species, especially in the context of behavioural traits.<sup>79,91–97</sup> The mechanism(s) driving 556 557 these types of fluoxetine-induced non-monotonic effects is/are not yet fully understood. 558 However, a number of mechanisms that are known to drive other non-monotonic effects<sup>98</sup> have the potential to apply to fluoxetine. 559

560 In summary, we found no interaction between chronic exposure to the pervasive 561 pharmaceutical contaminant fluoxetine and acute temperature stress on reproductive 562 behaviour or activity levels in guppies. However, long-term (15-month) exposure to 563 fluoxetine led to an increase in the frequency of coercive sneak copulations carried out 564 by male guppies at both of the environmentally realistic dosages tested, while male 565 courtship behaviour, and activity levels in both sexes, were not affected. Regarding 566 effects of temperature, males exposed to acute (24 h) cold stress were slower to first 567 perform a coercive copulation (relative to males in the heat-stress treatment), performed 568 fewer such copulations, and were less likely to perform courtship behaviour. In addition, 569 cold-temperature stress was associated with reduced activity levels in both males and 570 females. In combination, our findings demonstrate complex independent effects of 571 multiple stressors on ecologically important behavioural processes in fish. Despite a 572 growing appreciation of the importance of a multi-stressor approach, there remains a 573 dearth of knowledge on this topic, particularly for novel stressors like pharmaceutical

pollutants, as well as the direct and indirect effects they can generate. Such studies are
clearly necessary, however, if we are to gain a more holistic understanding of the
potential impacts of pharmaceutical contaminants on wildlife populations around the
globe.

578

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