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The effect of cold acclimation on active ion transport in cricket ionoregulatory tissues.

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1	The effect of cold acclimation on active ion transport in cricket
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26 Abstract

27

28 Cold-acclimated insects defend ion and water transport function during cold exposure. We 29 hypothesized that this is achieved via enhanced active transport. The Malpighian tubules and 30 rectum are likely targets for such transport modifications, and recent transcriptomic studies indicate shifts in Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase (NKA) and V-ATPase expression in these tissues following 31 32 cold acclimation. Here we quantify the effect of cold acclimation (one week at 12°C) on active 33 transport in the ionoregulatory organs of adult Gryllus pennsylvanicus field crickets. We 34 compared primary urine production of warm- and cold-acclimated crickets in excised 35 Malpighian tubules via Ramsay assay at a range of temperatures between 4 and 25°C. We then 36 compared NKA and V-ATPase activities in Malpighian tubule and rectal homogenates from 37 warm- and cold-acclimated crickets via NADH-linked photometric assays. Malpighian tubules 38 of cold-acclimated crickets excreted fluid at lower rates at all temperatures compared to warm-39 acclimated crickets. This reduction in Malpighian tubule excretion rates may be attributed to 40 increased NKA activity that we observed for cold-acclimated crickets, but V-ATPase activity was unchanged. Cold acclimation had no effect on rectal NKA activity at either 21°C or 6°C, 41 42 and did not modify rectal V-ATPase activity. Our results suggest that an overall reduction, 43 rather than enhancement of active transport in the Malpighian tubules allows crickets to 44 maintain hemolymph water balance during cold exposure, and increased Malpighian tubule 45 NKA activity may help to defend and/or re-establish ion homeostasis.

47

46

Key words: Insect, *Gryllus*, Malpighian tubules, rectum, sodium pump, proton pump, ion
homeostasis, phenotypic plasticity

50 **1. Introduction**

51

52 Chill-susceptible insects lose ion and water homeostasis at temperatures below their critical 53 thermal minimum (the CT_{min}). This loss of homeostasis progresses over hours to days and 54 appears to be driven by gradual migration of Na⁺ down a concentration gradient from the 55 hemolymph to the gut lumen (Coello Alvarado et al., 2015; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011b; 56 Overgaard and MacMillan, 2017). Water follows the migration of Na⁺, leading to decreased 57 hemolymph volume and consequent increase in the concentration of hemolymph K⁺ (in addition to Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) (Coello Alvarado et al., 2015; Des Marteaux and Sinclair, 2016; Koštál et 58 59 al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015a; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011b). This ionic imbalance 60 increases the time required for insects to recover from chill coma (Findsen et al., 2013; Koštál 61 et al., 2007; MacMillan et al., 2014; MacMillan et al., 2012), and likely contributes to the 62 accumulation of chronic chilling injuries (Findsen et al., 2014; Koštál et al., 2006; Lee, 2010; MacMillan et al., 2015b). Defense of water and ion homeostasis during cold exposure is 63 64 improved with prior mild chilling or cold acclimation (Coello Alvarado et al., 2015; Koštál et al., 2006; MacMillan et al., 2015a), but the mechanisms underlying this plasticity are not well 65 66 understood.

67

Insects maintain water and ion balance via the Malpighian tubules (which excrete primary 68 69 urine) and hindgut (across which selective reabsorption of water and ions occurs; O'Donnell 70 and Simpson, 2008; Phillips et al., 1988). Although the primary urine is isosmotic to the 71 hemolymph, excretion by the Malpighian tubules is dependent on ionic gradients established at 72 the apical cell membrane by active and facilitated cation transporter (Beyenbach, 2003). 73 Transporters include the Na⁺-K⁺-2Cl⁻ cotransporter (NKCC, which imports Na⁺, K⁺, and Cl⁻ 74 across the basolateral cell membrane), carbonic anhydrase (CA, which provides cytosolic 75 protons), and V-ATPase (which pumps protons to the lumen for future exchange with intracellular cations; Chintapalli et al., 2013; Coast, 2012; Halberg et al., 2015). Highly 76 77 convoluted, mitochondria-dense paracellular channels in the rectal pads form the scalariform complex, in which membrane-bound Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase (NKA) establishes a high extracellular 78 79 [Na⁺]. This Na⁺ concentration gradient within the rectal epithelium drives migration of water 80 from the highly-concentrated rectal lumen to the relatively less-concentrated hemolymph (i.e. 81 against an osmotic gradient overall).

During cold exposure, active transport of ions across ionoregulatory epithelia is thought to be 83 84 exceeded by passive leak of ions down their concentration gradients. Cold-acclimated insects 85 are therefore expected to defend water and ion homeostasis by reducing epithelial permeability 86 (to minimize water and ion leak) and/or by enhancing active ion transport at lower temperatures 87 (MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011a). The latter hypothesis is supported by shifts in the transcription 88 of genes encoding the ion pumps that drive epithelial transport in cold-acclimated Drosophila 89 melanogaster (MacMillan et al., 2015c; MacMillan et al., 2016) and fall field crickets [Gryllus 90 pennsylvanicus (Burmeister), Orthoptera: Gryllidae] (Des Marteaux et al., 2017). Although 91 cold acclimation increased hindgut NKA mRNA in G. pennsylvanicus, V-ATPase mRNA in 92 the Malpighian tubules was instead downregulated with cold acclimation. These transcriptional 93 changes suggest that cold acclimation reduces active transport across the Malpighian tubules 94 while enhancing active transport across the rectum.

95

96 We hypothesized that cold acclimation: 1) reduces excretion rates by decreasing Malpighian 97 tubule V-ATPase activity, and 2) increases NKA activity in the rectum (which we expect would 98 enhance reabsorption of Na⁺ and water). To test these hypotheses, we compared Malpighian 99 tubule excretion rates (a proxy for active transport) of warm- and cold-acclimated insects, and 100 related recent findings of acclimation-attributed transcriptional changes in NKA and V-ATPase 101 (Des Marteaux et al., 2017) to functional changes in tissue transport via enzyme activity assays 102 in homogenized Malpighian tubules and recta. For this work we used warm- and cold-103 acclimated G. pennsylvanicus; an emerging model system for the study of cold tolerance 104 plasticity and its relation to water and ion homeostasis (Coello Alvarado et al., 2015; Des 105 Marteaux and Sinclair, 2016; MacMillan and Sinclair, 2011b; MacMillan et al., 2012).

106

107 **2. Materials and methods**

108

109 2.1 Insect rearing and acclimation

110 Crickets were reared as described by Des Marteaux and Sinclair (2016). Briefly, crickets were 111 housed in transparent 60 L plastic containers with stacked cardboard egg cartons for shelter, tap 112 water, and *ad libitum* commercial rabbit food (Little Friends Original Rabbit Food, Martin 113 Mills, Elmira, ON, Canada) and developed under constant summer-like conditions (25°C, 114 14L:10D photoperiod, 70% RH). Crickets laid eggs in containers of moist vermiculite and 115 sterile sand which were placed at 4°C to accommodate an obligate three-month diapause 116 (Rakshpal, 1962) before being returned to 25°C to hatch. We used adult female crickets at
117 approximately three months post-hatch for all experiments.

118

119 Crickets were isolated in 180 mL transparent cups (Polar Plastics, Summit Food Distributors, London, ON, Canada) with mesh fabric lids, containing egg carton shelters, rabbit food, and 120 121 water. Warm-acclimated crickets remained in summer-like conditions (25°C, 14L:10D) for the 122 week, while cold-acclimated crickets were placed in a Sanyo MIR 154 incubator (Sanyo 123 Scientific, Bensenville, Illinois) at 12°C, 10L:14D for one week. This acclimation regime 124 lowers the CT_{min} (by 1.7°C), speeds chill coma recovery time 3.5-fold, and reduces the 125 incidence of both mortality and chilling injury following chronic cold exposure (Des Marteaux 126 et al., submitted).

127

128 2.2 Dissections

129 Crickets were pinned through the pronotum and the body cavity was opened by mid-dorsal 130 incision. The Malpighian tubules were removed as a bundle by detaching the ureter from the 131 gut with forceps. The rectum was severed from the rest of the gut with microscissors. Both 132 tissues were immediately placed in droplets of simple Ringer's solution specific to G. 133 pennsylvanicus hemolymph: (in mM) 110 Na+, 8.5 K+, 6 Mg2+, 7 Ca2+, 144.5 Cl-, pH 7.6 134 (derived from Des Marteaux and Sinclair, 2016). Any adhering fat body or tracheae were 135 removed from organs. For Ramsay assays, individual Malpighian tubules were detached from 136 the bundle by severing with forceps as close as possible to the ampulla (where multiple tubules 137 coalesce towards the ureter; Wall et al., 1975).

138

For enzyme activity assays, entire Malpighian tubule bundles were blotted on tissue paper, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until use. Recta were cut open with microscissors to empty the lumen of fecal material, blotted on a tissue, and stored on ice for enzyme activity assays performed on the same day. Each replicate for Malpighian tubule enzyme activity assays was comprised of entire Malpighian tubule bundles pooled from five crickets. For enzyme activity assays in the recta, each replicate was comprised of pooled organs from 5-10 crickets (21°C assays) or 8-11 crickets (6°C assay).

146

147 2.3 Active transport across the Malpighian tubules (Ramsay assay)

148 The rate of primary urine excretion (a proxy for active transport function) was quantified by 149 Ramsay assay (Ramsay, 1954), using methodology modified from Rheault and O'Donnell (2004). Assays were carried out using a custom acrylic enclosure. The top surface of the enclosure contained four, flat-bottomed wells (3.5 cm diameter, 2.5 cm depth) lined with Sylgard 184 (Paisley Products of Canada Inc., Scarborough, ON) and filled with paraffin oil. Well temperature was monitored with type-T thermocouples connected to Picotech TC-08 interface and processed by PicoLog software (Pico Technology, Cambridge, UK). The enclosure was connected to a refrigerated circulator (Model 1157P, VWR International, Mississauga, ON, Canada) filled with a 1:1 mixture of ethylene glycol and water.

157

158 Four blocks (5 x 2.5 mm) of Sylgard 184 were affixed to the bottom of each well in the 159 enclosure, and a shallow incision was made by razorblade medially on the top edge of each 160 block. A 10 µL droplet of Ringer's (with 4 mM glucose and 15 mM HEPES added, buffered to 161 pH 7.6) was added 3 mm from each block and one Malpighian tubule was placed individually 162 into each droplet. The proximal end of each tubule was pulled from the droplet through the 163 paraffin oil and 'cleated' into the incision on the edge of a block. The region of tubule between 164 the droplet and block was gently punctured using a dissecting pin to produce an initial bead of 165 primary urine. This first bead was discarded after 15 min. Each tubule was then allowed to 166 excrete through this puncture for 2 h and the diameter of each bead and the length of tubule 167 within the droplet were measured using a microscope with an ocular micrometer. The sum of 168 the bead diameters (assumed to be spherical) was used to calculate volume ($\pi d^3/6$) excreted per 169 hour, and corrected to the length of tubule within the droplet. Malpighian tubule excretion rate 170 was measured at 24, 16, 12, 8, and 4° C (n = 4, 5, 5, 6, and 2 crickets per treatment, respectively). 171 The excretion rate for each cricket was the mean of the excretion rates measured from six 172 individual Malpighian tubules.

173

174 2.4 NKA and V-ATPase activity assays

175 We measured NKA and V-ATPase activity in homogenates of recta and Malpighian tubules 176 from warm- and cold-acclimated crickets using an NADH-linked activity assay as described by 177 Jonusaite et al. (2011) (n = 5-10 per enzyme/organ/acclimation combination). Pooled tissues 178 were diluted in 400 µL in SEID buffer (in mM: 150 sucrose, 10 EDTA, 50 imidazole, and 2.5 179 Na⁺-deoxycholate, pH 7.3) and homogenized on ice for 10 s with a 7 mm attachment on a 180 Polytron PT 10-35 homogenizer (Kinetica, USA). Homogenates were centrifuged at $10000 \times g$ 181 for 10 min at 4°C and the supernatant was collected. Supernatants were diluted 5-fold further 182 with SEID for use in activity assays. A reaction buffer was comprised (in mM) of 47 NaCl, 2.6 183 MgCl₂, 10.5 KCl, 50 imidazole, 0.27 NADH, 2.6 ATP, and 2.1 phosphoenolpyruvate, with 3 U.mL⁻¹ lactate dehydrogenase (E.C. 1.1.1.27) and 3.75 U.mL⁻¹ pyruvate kinase (E.C. 2.7.1.40),
pH 7.5.

186

187 Duplicate wells on a 96-well plate each received 10 µL of dilute supernatant and 200 µL of 188 either assay buffer, assay buffer with 5 mM ouabain (to inhibit NKA), or assay buffer with 10 189 mM bafilomycin A1 (to inhibit V-ATPase). NADH absorbance (at 340 nm) of the reaction at 190 21°C was then measured each minute for 30 min in a Multiskan Spectrum spectrophotometer 191 and SkanIt Software (v2.2) (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA), simultaneously for all 192 samples. Total protein concentrations of dilute sample supernatants were quantified by 193 Bradford assay against albumin standards (Kruger, 1994). Enzyme activities were calculated as 194 the difference in rates between reactions with and without enzyme inhibitors, corrected for total 195 protein abundance.

196

197 2.5 Hindgut NKA activity at low temperature

198 To determine whether cold acclimation alters rectal NKA activity during cold exposure we 199 quantified NKA activity in homogenized recta from warm- and cold-acclimated crickets at 6°C 200 using assays modified from MacMillan et al. (2015c). Briefly, recta were diluted in 14 volumes 201 of homogenization buffer (25 mM imidazole, 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.2% w/v Na⁺-202 deoxycholate, pH 7.5), homogenized with a Polytron PT 10-35, and sonicated with a Virsonic 203 100 (VirTis, Gardiner, NY, USA). Tissues were homogenized and sonicated each in four, 10 s 204 bursts followed by 20 s on ice. Homogenates were then centrifuged at $7000 \times g$ for 5 min at 205 4°C and the supernatant was collected. Aliquots (300 µL) of supernatant were filtered through 206 a size-exclusion column (a 3 mL syringe barrel plugged with glass wool, containing 3 mL of 207 Sephadex G50, and equilibrated with homogenization buffer) by centrifuging at $500 \times g$ for 1 208 min. The total protein concentrations of filtered supernatants were quantified by Bradford assay 209 against albumin standards.

210

We added 10 μ L of filtered sample to each of four ultra-micro cuvettes; one pair of cuvettes then received 350 μ L of reaction buffer (30 mM KCl, 156 mM NaCl, 7.8 mM MgCl₂, 74 mM imidazole, pH 7.5), while a second pair of cuvettes received 350 μ L of reaction buffer also containing 1.0 mM ouabain. Phosphoenolpyruvate, NADH, lactate dehydrogenase, and pyruvate kinase were then added (final reaction concentrations of 4 mM, 300 mM, 20 U.mL⁻¹, and 20 U.mL⁻¹, respectively). Reactions were initiated by adding 40 μ L of 50 mM ATP in reaction buffer. 218

219 NADH absorbance of each reaction was recorded five times per minute for 20 min at 21°C or 220 $6^{\circ}C$ (n = 6 biological replicates per acclimation) in a Cary 100 Bio spectrophotometer (Varian, 221 Palo Alto, CA, USA) using WinUV Thermal Application software (v3.0, Agilent 222 Technologies). Temperature was maintained with a Cary Temperature Controller (Varian, Palo 223 Alto, CA, USA). To monitor temperature, a type-T thermocouple connected to a TC-08 224 interface was placed in a blank microvolume cuvette containing water. Enzyme activities were 225 calculated as the difference in rates between reactions with and without ouabain, corrected for 226 total protein abundance.

227

228 2.6 Data analyses

We compared the Malpighian tubule excretion rates (Ramsay assays) of warm- and coldacclimated crickets by two-way ANOVA. Enzyme activities of warm- and cold-acclimated crickets were compared by t-tests (or Welch's t-tests when variance differed between acclimation treatments). Values reported in the text are means \pm s.e.m. All statistical analyses were performed in R (v3.3.3, R Development Core Team, 2017).

234

3. Results

236

237 3.1 Active transport across the Malpighian tubules

The rate of fluid excretion by the Malpighian tubules decreased with temperature ($F_{1,40} = 102$, P < 0.001). The Q₁₀s of secretion rate for warm- and cold-acclimated tubules were 2.2 and 1.9, respectively (calculated between 15.4°C and 24.8°C). Rates of fluid excretion by coldacclimated crickets were approximately 35% slower compared to warm-acclimated crickets based on a linear model ($F_{1,40} = 20.5$, P < 0.001; Fig. 1). We observed no significant interaction between temperature and acclimation ($F_{1,40} = 0.046$, P > 0.8).

244

245 3.2 Enzyme activities in the Malpighian tubules

The Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated crickets had higher NKA activity relative to warmacclimated crickets at 21°C ($t_{15} = 2.19$, P = 0.045; Fig. 2a). We did not observe a decrease in Malpighian tubule V-ATPase activity with cold acclimation ($t_9 = 1.21$, P = 0.26). Total protein abundance did not differ between warm- and cold-acclimated Malpighian tubules ($t_{24} = 0.47$, P= 0.64).

252 3.3 Enzyme activities in the rectum

NKA activity in homogenized recta was unaffected by cold acclimation at 21°C ($t_{15} = 0.78$, P = 0.45; Fig. 2b). Rectal NKA activity at 6°C was low (0.0094 ± 0.0026 µmol/mg.min and 0.0070 ± 0.0020 µmol/mg.min for warm- and cold-acclimated crickets, respectively) and did not differ between acclimations ($t_{9.4} = 0.74$, P = 0.48). Similarly, V-ATPase activity was equivalent in the recta of warm- and cold-acclimated crickets ($t_{17} = 1.45$, P = 0.16; Fig. 2b).

258

4. Discussion

260

261 We hypothesized that cold-acclimated insects should defend hemolymph volume by slowing 262 fluid excretion rates of Malpighian tubules, and that this would be driven by a reduction in V-263 ATPase activity. Cold acclimation may have modified active transport across the Malpighian 264 tubules, manifesting as a reduction in fluid excretion rate at both low and optimal temperatures. 265 However, lower rates of fluid excretion were not related to modified V-ATPase activity, rather 266 these slowed rates corresponded with an increase in NKA activity. Although we expected cold 267 acclimation to increase rectal NKA activity (a means of enhancing water and ion reabsorption), 268 we observed no such change at either 6°C or 21°C.

269

270 Cold acclimation reduces fluid excretion rates of the Malpighian tubules

271 Fluid excretion by the Malpighian tubules is driven by active ion transporters, most of which 272 are temperature-sensitive (Dietz et al., 2001; Galarza-Muñoz et al., 2011; O'Donnell and 273 Simpson, 2008; Somero, 2004). MacMillan and Sinclair (2011a) hypothesized that cold 274 acclimation modifies active ion transport such that ion pumping rates are maintained at lower 275 temperatures compared to warm-acclimated insects; however, we show that the Malpighian 276 tubules of cold-acclimated crickets excrete fluid more slowly across a range of temperatures. 277 In *Eurosta solidaginis* larvae, seasonal acclimatization (between September and December) 278 also corresponds with a reduction in the rate of Malpighian tubule transport (Yi and Lee, 2005). 279 By reducing active transport across the Malpighian tubules, cold-acclimated orthopterans may 280 retain hemolymph volume (i.e. mitigate leak of water) during cold exposure. However, this 281 mechanism may not be conserved among insect lineages; in D. melanogaster, the Malpighian 282 tubules of cold-acclimated individuals instead excrete fluid more rapidly than warm-acclimated 283 individuals (Yerushalmi et al., 2017), and knockdown of diuretic capa peptides also slows chill 284 coma recovery (Terhzaz et al., 2015). While we expect that active transport modification is

likely to underlie the changes in fluid excretion, it is also possible that cold acclimation reduces
Malpighian tubule fluid excretion by reducing epithelial permeability (e.g. by modifying cell
junctions or the expression/localization of aquaporins) (Spring et al., 2009).

288

289 Proton pumping drives net cation transport across the Malpighian tubules, and V-ATPase is 290 central to this process (Chintapalli et al., 2013; Klein, 1992). Although V-ATPase mRNA 291 abundance is reduced in the Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated crickets (Des Marteaux et 292 al., 2017), cold acclimation did not reduce the activity of this enzyme in the present study. 293 Decreased fluid excretion rates may therefore involve modification of other enzymes (e.g. NKA 294 or perhaps CA). Carbonic anhydrase mRNA abundance is reduced in the Malpighian tubules 295 of cold-acclimated crickets (Des Marteaux et al., 2017), suggesting that CA is a candidate for 296 this modification. Carbonic anhydrase in the Malpighian tubules provides protons for transport 297 by V-ATPase and potentially the counterions (H⁺ and HCO₃⁻) for import of hemolymph Na⁺ 298 and Cl⁻ (Beyenbach and Piermarini, 2011; Chintapalli et al., 2013; Wessing et al., 1997). 299 Although we did not measure CA activity in warm- and cold-acclimated crickets, decreased 300 activity of this enzyme could drive decreased primary urine excretion in cold-acclimated 301 crickets. Because CA is a thermally-insensitive enzyme (Feller and Gerday, 1997), cold 302 exposure alone would not be expected to reduce activity.

303

304 Cold acclimation increased Malpighian tubule NKA activity, and this should have multiple 305 effects on water and ion balance in the hemolymph. NKA activity in the Malpighian tubules 306 appears to be antidiuretic; in Rhodnius, ouabain (an inhibitor of NKA) stimulates transport of 307 Na⁺ and fluid to the Malpighian tubule lumen (Maddrell and Overton, 1988), and the diuretic 308 hormone 5-HT inhibits NKA activity (Grieco and Lopes, 1997). It is proposed that NKA 309 inhibition leads to the accumulation of intracellular Na⁺, favoring transport of Na⁺ and water to 310 the lumen (Caruso-Neves and Lopes, 2000). Increased NKA activity in the Malpighian tubules 311 of cold-acclimated crickets could therefore account in part for the decreased primary urine 312 production rate. NKA activity in the Malpighian tubules also regulates selectivity of excreted 313 cations. For example, inhibition of NKA by ouabain increases the Na⁺:K⁺ ratio of the primary 314 urine in Acheta domesticus crickets (Coast, 2012). Under optimal temperatures (e.g. 21°C), 315 increased Malpighian tubule NKA in cold-acclimated crickets may thereby hasten the removal 316 of K^+ and re-establish low hemolymph $[K^+]$ during recovery from cold exposure (Beyenbach, 317 2003). As we would predict, chill-tolerant Drosophila spp. Also excrete primary urine with 318 lower Na⁺:K⁺ ratios compared to chill-susceptible species (MacMillan et al., 2015a). Although we did not measure Malpighian tubule enzyme activities at low temperatures, enhanced NKA activity during cold exposure could prevent or delay imbalance of hemolymph Na⁺, water, and K^+ during chill coma (both reducing the CCRT and the energetic costs of re-establishing ionic and osmotic gradients; MacMillan et al., 2012).

323

B24 Rectal NKA and V-ATPase activities are unchanged by cold acclimation

325 Because cold exposure results in leak of Na⁺ and water towards the gut, an obvious hypothesis 326 is that cold acclimation enhances the activity of rectal pad NKA to mitigate this leak. Increased 327 rectal NKA activity at higher temperatures (i.e. during rewarming) should also speed up re-328 establishment of Na⁺ and water balance thereby reducing chill coma recovery time. An increase 329 in hindgut NKA transcript abundance for cold-acclimated G. pennsylvanicus (Des Marteaux et 330 al., 2017) certainly supports this hypothesis. However, we found no evidence of increased rectal 331 NKA activity at 6°C or 21°C. Similarly, although rectal V-ATPase transcript abundance 332 decreases in cold-acclimated G. pennsylvanicus (Des Marteaux et al., 2017), V-ATPase activity 333 in rectal homogenates was unchanged by cold acclimation in the present study. The significance 334 of altered NKA and V-ATPase transcript abundance in cold-acclimated G. pennsylvanicus 335 therefore remains in question, and further illustrates the point that mRNA abundance does not 336 necessarily reflect increased enzyme abundance (Gygi et al., 1999).

337

338 Other enzymes controlling reabsorption across the rectum could be modified by cold 339 acclimation, however many remain to be identified (Chintapalli et al., 2013; O'Donnell and 340 Simpson, 2008). This poses a challenge for predicting how modification of hindgut water or 341 ion transporters may affect transport in the cold. First, active transport across the rectal pads of 342 warm- and cold-acclimated insects should be compared (e.g. via Ussing chamber; Ussing and 343 Zerahn, 1951; Clarke, 2009 or everted-sac technique (Barthe et al., 1998; Lechleitner et al., 344 1989) to determine whether rectal transport is modified by cold acclimation overall. The specific enzymatic targets of cold acclimation (and their relative contribution to altered 345 346 transport function) could then be determined by comparing active transport rates across the 347 rectum with and without selective enzyme inhibitors (Bertram et al., 1991; Clarke, 2009; 348 Hanrahan et al., 1984).

349

An organ-specific role for NKA in cold acclimation?

351 Acquired cold tolerance is associated with a reduction in whole-body NKA activity in D.

352 melanogaster (MacMillan et al., 2015c) and goldenrod gall fly larvae (Eurosta solidaginis)

353 (McMullen and Storey, 2008). However, the functional significance of modified active 354 transport should depend on the specific enzyme and organ in which that modification occurs. 355 In the Malpighian tubules of cold-acclimated G. pennsylvanicus we instead observed increased 356 NKA activity, and this should prevent loss of hemolymph volume during cold exposure. It is 357 possible that cold acclimation modifies transport function differently in dipterans than in 358 orthopterans, but we suspect that this contrast is because NKA is ubiquitously expressed and 359 comparisons of whole-body NKA activity are not informative for predicting how cold 360 acclimation affects transport function in specific ionoregulatory organs.

361

362 Changes in total protein abundance could not explain increased Malpighian tubule NKA 363 activity, but we did not measure NKA abundance specifically. It is also possible that the 364 abundance of NKA increases proportionally with decreased abundance of other enzymes (e.g. 365 V-ATPase) such that total protein abundance is unaffected. Alternately, cold-acclimated 366 crickets could express NKA isozymes with different activities or thermal sensitivities (Blanco, 367 2005; Galarza-Muñoz et al., 2011). NKA activity could also be altered by changes in membrane 368 fluidity {Koštál, 1998 #516}, post-transcriptional modifications (e.g. via RNA editing; Colina 369 et al., 2010) or by post-translational modifications (e.g. phosphorylation or dephosphorylation; 370 McMullen and Storey, 2008; Poulsen et al., 2010; Seo and Lee, 2004). Kinase-mediated 371 phosphorylation is already proposed to reduce NKA activity in overwintering goldenrod gall 372 flies (McMullen and Storey, 2008). However, we do not know the extent to which these 373 modifications persist under present assay conditions. Enzyme activity assays for homogenates 374 are also unlikely to capture differences based on modified recruitment of enzymes to the 375 membrane or modified cytoskeletal structure (Khurana, 2000; Lai and Jan, 2006). A first step 376 may be to determine the effect of cold acclimation on the phosphorylation state of target ion 377 transporters (Pavlides et al., 2011).

378

379 **5. Conclusions**

380

Cold acclimation reduces fluid excretion rates of Malpighian tubules, suggesting an overall reduction in active transport across the insect Malpighian tubules. Decreased excretion rates were not attributed to a reduction in V-ATPase activity (as predicted by transcriptomic changes), but may in part result from increased Malpighian tubule NKA activity. Rectal NKA activity was unchanged by cold acclimation (also contrary to observations of increased hindgut NKA transcript abundance). Modification of Malpighian tubule transport is therefore an important aspect of acquired cold tolerance; by reducing primary urine production, coldacclimated crickets should mitigate loss of hemolymph volume at low temperatures. Upon rewarming, enhanced NKA activity should allow cold-acclimated insects to re-establish ion balance more rapidly by preferentially retaining hemolymph Na^+ content and excreting hemolymph K⁺.

392

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394

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- 541 **Figure captions**
- 542

543 Figure 1. Effect of cold acclimation on fluid excretion rate by the Malpighian tubules in

adult *G. pennsylvanicus* crickets. Fluid excretion was measured on isolated tubules using the
 Ramsay assay (n = 12 to 36 tubules per temperature-acclimation combination). The effects of
 assay temperature and acclimation on excretion rate were both significant according to two-

- 547 way ANOVA (see text for statistics). Trend lines represent linear models for each acclimation548 treatment.
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Figure 2. Effect of cold acclimation on the activity of Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase (NKA) and V-550 551 ATPase in homogenized Malpighian tubules (A) and recta (B) of G. pennsylvanicus 552 crickets. Activity rates were measured at 21°C via NADH-linked assays, and given as moles 553 of ADP converted per hour (corrected for protein concentration in homogenates). Replication 554 for pooled warm- and cold-acclimated Malpighian tubule homogenates was 10 and 7 (NKA) 555 and 6 and 5 (V-ATPase), respectively. Replication for pooled warm- and cold-acclimated rectal 556 homogenates was 8 and 9 (NKA) and 9 and 10 (V-ATPase), respectively. Significant 557 differences in the activity of a given enzyme between warm- and cold-acclimated tissues is 558 represented by an asterisk.







Figure 2