

## Effects of *in situ* climate warming on monarch caterpillar (*Danaus plexippus*) development

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Climate warming will fundamentally alter basic life history strategies of many ectothermic insects. In the lab, rising temperatures increase growth rates of lepidopteran larvae, but also reduce final pupal mass and increase mortality. Using *in situ* field warming experiments on their natural host plants, we assessed the impact of climate warming on development of monarch (*Danaus plexippus*) larvae. Monarchs were reared on *Asclepias tuberosa* grown under 'Ambient' and 'Warmed' conditions. We quantified time to pupation, final pupal mass, and survivorship. Warming significantly decreased time to pupation, such that an increase of 1° C corresponded to a 0.5 day decrease in pupation time. In contrast, survivorship and pupal mass were not affected by warming. Our results indicate that climate warming will speed the developmental rate of monarchs, influencing their ecological and evolutionary dynamics. However, the effects of climate warming on larval development in other monarch populations and at different times of year should be investigated.

1 **Effects of *in situ* warming on monarch caterpillar (*Danaus plexippus*) development**

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25 **Running Header:** Lemoine et al: Warming effects on monarch development

26 **Abstract**

27           Climate warming will fundamentally alter the development of many ectothermic insects;  
28 understanding how elevated temperatures affect insect development is becoming increasingly  
29 important. Yet most studies examining the relationship between temperature and insect  
30 development do so in highly controlled laboratory settings. While useful, laboratory studies  
31 cannot incorporate natural variability in temperatures or behavioral thermoregulation by insects.  
32 Using *in situ* field warming experiments, we assessed the impact of experimental warming on  
33 development of monarch butterfly larvae (*Danaus plexippus*). Monarch larvae were reared on  
34 butterfly weed (*Asclepias tuberosa*) grown under ‘Ambient’ and ‘Warmed’ conditions. We  
35 quantified time to pupation, final pupal mass, and survivorship. Monarch larval development  
36 proceeded more rapidly at higher temperatures, and this effect was even greater for monarch  
37 larvae reared under ‘Warmed’ conditions. In contrast, survivorship and pupal mass were not  
38 affected by warming. More rapid developmental rates of monarch larvae will alter their  
39 ecological and evolutionary dynamics by potentially speeding up northward migrations and  
40 increasing the number of generations during the summer breeding season. Our results contrast  
41 those from laboratory experiments, wherein rising temperatures increase growth rates of  
42 lepidopteran larvae, but also reduce final pupal mass and increase mortality. Therefore, more  
43 studies assessing the impact of warming and climate change on monarch biology are needed.

## 44 Introduction

45 Modified temperature regimes caused by climate change will fundamentally alter insect  
46 life cycles. As with other insects, lepidopteran larval development is temperature-dependent.  
47 Warming increases growth rates and survivorship; however both growth and survival decline  
48 rapidly once temperatures exceed an individual's thermal optimum (Kingsolver et al. 2006,  
49 Kingsolver and Woods 1997). The effects of elevated temperatures on lepidopteran larval  
50 development have, to date, been mostly examined in highly controlled lab settings. Such  
51 laboratory experiments cannot incorporate natural temperature fluctuations that affect larval  
52 development and survival (Zalucki 1982) or changes in insect behavior (*i.e.* behavioral  
53 thermoregulation, predator avoidance). Furthermore, warming alters plant nutritional quality  
54 (Veteli et al. 2002), and lab experiments often use artificial foods (Kingsolver et al. 2006, Lee  
55 and Roh 2010) or leaf material that was not grown under elevated temperatures (Lemoine et al.  
56 2014). Extrapolating results from laboratory experiments to natural settings is therefore  
57 problematic. Field experiments are necessary to identify how elevated temperatures influence  
58 insect development in a more natural, albeit, variable environment.

59 Monarch butterflies (*Danaus plexippus*) are a charismatic species found throughout North  
60 America and are well known for their annual migrations between Mexico and northern United  
61 States and southern Canada. Monarch migrations have been extensively studied, focusing on  
62 factors that influence migration success and population size (Reppert et al. 2010, Flockhart et al.  
63 2015), potential overwintering and migratory habitat loss (Oberhauser and Peterson 2003,  
64 Pleasants and Oberhauser 2012, Sáenz-Romero et al. 2012), and overwintering behavior  
65 (Masters et al. 1988). Reductions in overwintering and migratory habitat caused by changes in  
66 climate and land-use have stimulated research on thermal constraints experienced by migratory

67 adults and larvae, the need for cool night time temperatures to induce reproductive diapause in  
68 adult monarchs (Goehring and Oberhauser 2002, Guerra and Reppert 2013), and the threat posed  
69 by spring droughts that reduce monarch population sizes in their summer breeding grounds  
70 (Zipkin et al. 2012).

71 As with all insect species, monarch larval growth, consumption, and mortality rates  
72 depend upon environmental temperatures (Zalucki 1982, Goehring and Oberhauser 2002, York  
73 and Oberhauser 2002, Lemoine et al. 2014). Prolonged exposure to extreme heat reduces larval  
74 growth and survival rates in laboratory experiments (Zalucki 1982, York and Oberhauser 2002).  
75 Although warming alters the nutritional quality of monarchs' milkweed host plants (Couture et  
76 al. 2015), few studies consider concurrent effects of warming on both monarch and milkweed  
77 (*but see* Couture et al. 2015). Milkweed nitrogen, lignin, and fiber content increase under  
78 elevated temperatures (Couture et al. 2015). Given that elevated temperatures affect both  
79 monarchs and milkweeds simultaneously, the relationship between temperature and monarch  
80 larval development and survival might be fundamentally different under climate warming. Field  
81 experiments are necessary to explore how warming affects monarch larval development in a  
82 scenario that incorporates natural temperature variability and changes in host plant quality.

83 Here, we report results from an *in situ* warming experiment designed to assess how  
84 elevated temperatures influence growth, survival, and development of monarch larvae under  
85 variable field conditions. We hypothesized that development time would decrease with rising  
86 temperatures under ambient conditions, as has commonly been reported for monarch larvae  
87 (Zalucki 1982). However, this relationship between development time and temperature would be  
88 significantly stronger under warming since milkweed grown under elevated temperatures  
89 contains significantly more nitrogen (Couture et al. 2015). We expected that pupal mass and

90 survival would decrease with rising temperatures (Zalucki 1982, York and Oberhauser 2002), but  
91 that warming would weaken these effects due to the effects of elevated temperatures on  
92 milkweed nutritional quality (Couture et al. 2015).

93

## 94 **Methods**

95 All experiments were conducted at the Smithsonian Environmental Research Center in  
96 Edgewater, MD. The experiment consisted of 16 replicate 2 x 2 m garden beds. Garden beds  
97 were assigned to temperature treatments in a completely randomized design. Warming  
98 treatments were imposed using a single Kalglo MRM-1215 1500W (Kalglo Electronics  
99 Company, Bethlehem, PA) heater installed 1.5 m from the ground over half of the garden beds.  
100 An aluminum frame of the same shape and size as the heaters was hung over the remaining  
101 garden beds to mimic any shading effects ( $n = 8$  garden beds per temperature treatment). In each  
102 garden bed, 1 m long, 20 cm high aluminum sheets were driven 10 cm into the soil to quarter the  
103 2 x 2 m garden bed into four 1 x 1 m subplots. In the fall of 2013, butterfly weed *Asclepias*  
104 *tuberosa* was sown into two of the subplots within each garden bed, resulting in a density of  $\sim 4$   
105 plants per subplot (the remaining two subplots were used for other experiments). We chose *A.*  
106 *tuberosa* over the *A. syriaca* because *A. syriaca* can grow to  $> 2$  m tall, surpassing the height of  
107 our heaters. The experimental unit was therefore 32 1 x 1 m subplots ( $n = 16$  per temperature)  
108 within the sixteen garden beds.

109 We placed Onset HOBO temperature loggers in the center of each garden bed to record  
110 air temperature in 10-minute intervals over the course of the experiment. In ‘Ambient’  
111 treatments, average daytime temperatures were  $25.2 \pm 1.4^\circ \text{C}$  and average nighttime temperatures  
112 of  $19.9 \pm 2.0^\circ \text{C}$ . Maximum daytime temperatures at our study site were  $30.7 \pm 2.5^\circ \text{C}$ , while

113 minimum nighttime temperatures were  $18.2 \pm 2.3^\circ \text{C}$ . Since air temperature measurements may  
114 not accurately reflect the heating achieved by infrared heaters (Kimball et al. 2008), we verified  
115 heating treatments using a handheld IR thermometer to measure temperatures on a plastic sphere  
116 mounted 0.5 m from the ground placed in the middle each experimental subplot at midnight.  
117 Nighttime IR gun measurements verified that heaters raised surface temperatures by  $\sim 4^\circ \text{C}$  on  
118 average ( $p < 0.001$ ), which is below severe projections of a  $6^\circ \text{C}$  increase in temperature but  
119 above the more conservative estimate of a  $2^\circ \text{C}$  temperature increase by 2100 (IPCC 2007).

120         In August 2014, monarch eggs and larvae were gathered from *A. syriaca* within nearby  
121 old-growth fields. Eggs and larvae were reared in mesh cages and fed fresh *A. syriaca* leaves  
122 daily until they reached the third instar. Larval development was checked continuously  
123 throughout the day. First or second instars escaped the mesh bags easily and thus were not used.  
124 Immediately after molting to the third instar, larvae were randomly assigned to a temperature  
125 treatment ('Ambient', 'Warmed') and a single larva was placed on a single *A. tuberosa* within a  
126 randomly chosen plot ( $n = 15$ ,  $n = 18$  for 'Ambient' and 'Warmed' treatments, respectively). A  
127  $20 \times 30.5$  cm organza mesh bag was placed over the plant to retain the monarch. If the monarch  
128 larva consumed the entire host plant, they were transferred to another plant within the same  
129 subplot. Time to pupation was recorded as the number of hours between experiment initiation  
130 and onset of chrysalis formation, and this number was converted to number of days  
131 (development hour / 24). Dead individuals were recorded and removed from the host plant.  
132 Chrysalids were transported to the lab and weighed to obtain final pupal mass.

133         We measured three plant traits (specific leaf area (SLA), water content, and latex  
134 production) to determine whether warming effects on monarch development might be mediated  
135 through warming effects on plant traits. At the end of the experiment, two newly expanded

136 leaves were collected from each plant. For one leaf, we measured leaf area, obtained a fresh wet  
137 mass, and then dried the leaf to obtain a dry mass. We calculated specific leaf area (SLA) as area  
138 / dry mass and percent water content as  $(1 - \text{dry mass (g)} / \text{fresh mass (g)}) * 100$ . Using the second  
139 leaf, we determined latex production by cutting the tip of the leaf and blotting all latex onto a  
140 dry, pre-weighed piece of filter paper (Agrawal 2005). The filter paper was dried again and latex  
141 concentration calculated as the difference in post- and pre-latex filter weights divided by leaf  
142 area (Agrawal 2005).

143         Although heaters raised temperatures of ‘Warmed’ plots by  $\sim 4^\circ \text{C}$  on average, plots  
144 varied considerably in temperature due to different light levels across the experimental garden  
145 and varying plant biomass within each plot. We therefore measured temperature with a handheld  
146 infrared thermometer in each subplot during the night at the end of the experiment. For  
147 consistency, we recorded temperature of a white plastic sphere mounted 0.5 m from the ground  
148 in the middle of each subplot. We then treated temperature as a quantitative rather than  
149 categorical variable in all analyses. Note that these measures reflect relative differences in  
150 temperature among plots that should be relatively constant over the experiment.

151         We used an ANCOVA design to regress  $\text{days}^{-1}$  until pupation and final pupal mass  
152 against night-time temperatures as measured by the IR gun. We included temperature treatment  
153 as a covariate, which allows for the possibility that slopes differ between temperature treatments.  
154 Mortality was assessed using logistic regression that also included night-time temperature and its  
155 interaction with temperature treatment, as in the ANCOVA. Although monarchs experience  
156 mortality as pupae, brief exposure to prolonged temperatures did not alter pupal mortality rates  
157 and third instars were the most sensitive to temperature increases (York and Oberhauser 2002).  
158 Thus, our experiment likely captured most of the influence of temperature on larval survival.

159 Model assumptions were verified with residual plots where appropriate. All analyses  
160 were conducted using Python v2.7 with the ‘*numpy*’, ‘*pandas*’, and ‘*statsmodels*’ modules  
161 (McKinney 2010, Seabold and Perktold 2010, Walt et al. 2011).

162

## 163 **Results**

164 Time to pupation decreased with increasing temperature, but did so differently under  
165 ‘Ambient’ and ‘Warmed’ conditions (interaction:  $p < 0.041$ ) (Fig. 1). At the lowest temperature  
166 in ‘Ambient’ treatments, 12.6° C, monarch larvae required 12.2 days to transition between third  
167 instar and pupa. At the warmest temperature achieved in the ‘Warmed’ plots, monarch larvae  
168 required only 10.0 days to pupate. Importantly, the relationship between temperature and time to  
169 development varied among treatments (Fig. 1). When reared under ‘Ambient’ conditions, larval  
170 development time decreased by ~ 0.4 days per 1° C increase in temperature. In ‘Warmed’ plots,  
171 larval development time decreased by ~ 0.7 days per 1° C increase in temperature. Climate  
172 change may therefore speed larval development by ~ 0.7 – 2.4 days, depending on the severity of  
173 temperature increases.

174 Air temperature measurements do not accurately reflect the intensity of infrared heating  
175 because infrared energy warms surfaces and not the air (Kimball et al. 2008), calculations of  
176 degree-days may not accurately reflect the underlying temperature treatments. Still, we  
177 calculated the number of degree days experienced by each individual for which there was  
178 adequate temperature data following the simple averaging method, since temperatures remained  
179 within the upper and lower thermal limits throughout the experiment (Allen 1976). Monarch  
180 caterpillars experienced ~ 155 ± 17 degree days, and this did not differ between temperature

181 treatments ( $p = 0.978$ ). Thus, monarch larvae accumulated their required number of degree days  
182 faster in the warming treatment than in the ambient treatment.

183 Temperature had no effect on pupal mass ( $p = 0.454$ ,  $R^2 = 0.023$ ). Similarly, mortality  
184 was low throughout the experiment (18%) and independent of temperature ( $p = 0.610$ , pseudo- $R^2$   
185 = 0.01).

186 Warming had no effect on any measured plant trait. SLA ( $p = 0.940$ ,  $R^2 = 0$ ), percentage  
187 water content ( $p = 0.313$ ,  $R^2 = 0.05$ ), and latex concentration ( $p = 0.739$ ,  $R^2 = 0.01$ ) all did not  
188 vary with temperature. Thus, any effects of warming on monarch development time were direct  
189 effects of temperature on monarch physiology rather than being mediated through the plant traits  
190 we measured.

191

## 192 **Discussion**

193 Our study indicates that warming accelerates monarch larval development but has little  
194 effect on larval mortality or pupal mass at our study site. This is consistent with numerous  
195 studies showing positive correlations between larval development and temperature (Kingsolver  
196 and Woods 1997, Bale et al. 2002). Since warming increases larval growth rates, lepidopteran  
197 larvae reach critical mass needed for pupation earlier and proceed through larval stadia more  
198 quickly. Monarch larvae developed more rapidly from the third instar but experienced roughly  
199 the same number of degree days. Our results suggest that climate warming might facilitate  
200 monarch larval development through later instars under moderate climate change scenarios at  
201 sites with relatively cool temperatures, potentially increasing the number of generations in the  
202 temperate summer breeding grounds of eastern migratory monarch populations.

203           Laboratory studies have consistently documented negative effects of extreme  
204 temperatures on monarch caterpillar development and survival. Short-term, extreme heat stress  
205 can have weak negative effects on pupal mass (York and Oberhauser 2002). Likewise, constant  
206 temperatures above 28° C induced high mortality rates in monarch larvae (Zalucki 1982, York  
207 and Oberhauser 2002). However, these studies used either pulses of extremely high temperatures  
208 (*i.e.* 36° C) or held monarch larvae at a constant temperature (*i.e.* 28° C). Ambient, maximum  
209 daytime temperatures averaged 30 °C during our experiment; warming increased this maximum  
210 to 32-34° C. Although these temperatures are above the thermal optimum of monarch survival,  
211 we found no effect of *in situ* warming on either pupal mass or survival of older monarch larvae.  
212 Eggs and first instar larvae are resistant to high temperatures, with third instars, fourth instars,  
213 and pupae being the most sensitive to extreme heat (Zalucki et al. 1982, York and Oberhauser  
214 2002). As temperatures exceeded 28° C for less than 20% of the full 24 hour day, it is likely that  
215 diel and daily temperature fluctuations mitigated the lethality of high temperatures.

216           Interestingly, our study site had warmer temperatures during our experiment than other  
217 locations of the monarch breeding range. Monarchs typically experience cool temperatures  
218 during their northward migration: maximum March temperatures in Texas average  $23.5 \pm 2.4^\circ \text{C}$ ,  
219 maximum April temperatures in Iowa and the midwestern US average  $20.7 \pm 1.5^\circ \text{C}$ , and  
220 maximum May temperatures in the Great Lakes region average  $18 \pm 2.3^\circ \text{C}$  (averages based on  
221 50 year weather station data provided by WorldClim). Even maximum temperatures during the  
222 summer breeding season in the Great Lakes region are typically lower than at our study site,  
223 averaging  $26.0 \pm 2.3^\circ \text{C}$  compared to  $30.7 \pm 2.5^\circ \text{C}$  at during our experiment. We found no  
224 influence of increased temperatures on larval monarch pupal mass and survival at our study site,  
225 which had temperatures well above those in other important breeding ranges. Indeed,

226 temperatures in these ranges rarely exceed the thermal optimum of 28° C and do not exceed the  
227 critical thermal maximum of 36° C (Zalucki 1982, York and Oberhauser 2002). Thus, climate  
228 change is unlikely to raise temperatures to a range that is detrimental to monarch larval  
229 performance.

230         Though monarch larval development proceeded more rapidly when exposed to high  
231 temperatures, this effect was stronger on plants grown under warmed conditions. Increased  
232 sensitivity to temperature in ‘Warmed’ plots likely stems from altered plant nutritional content.  
233 Though we found no difference in *A. tuberosa* leaf characteristics between ‘Ambient’ and  
234 ‘Warmed’ treatments, elevated temperatures alter foliar water content, nutritional content, and  
235 secondary metabolite concentrations of numerous plant species (Zvereva and Kozlov 2006). In  
236 particular, milkweed nitrogen content increases at elevated temperatures (Couture et al. 2015).  
237 Insect development proceeds more rapidly at high temperatures on nitrogen-rich plants (Lemoine  
238 et al. 2013, Lemoine et al. 2014). It is therefore likely that increased foliar nitrogen content of *A.*  
239 *tuberosa* grown under elevated temperatures is responsible for the greater sensitivity of monarch  
240 larvae to rising temperatures.

241         Our paper demonstrates that climate warming may minimally impact the development of  
242 monarch larvae in temperate regions. Though numerous laboratory studies have reported  
243 detrimental impacts of extreme temperatures on monarch larval development and survival  
244 (Zalucki 1982, York and Oberhauser 2002), our field experiment demonstrated that *in situ*  
245 warming had little influence on larval survival or pupal mass even in a site with extreme daytime  
246 temperatures. Rising temperatures may, however, have other important effects on monarch  
247 larvae. Monarch larvae may, for example, suffer higher parasitism rates at high temperatures as  
248 occurs in other insect-parasitoid pairs (Bezemer et al. 1998). Predatory insects also increase their

249 attack and ingestion rates at high temperatures, suggesting that predation pressure on monarch  
250 larvae may increase substantially under warming (Rall et al. 2010). Furthermore, landscape level  
251 distributions of milkweed host plants may be substantially different at elevated temperatures.  
252 Warming may reduce the availability of *Asclepias* host plants during the northward migration via  
253 increased drought or drastically alter the geographic range of *Asclepias* host plants (Zipkin et al.  
254 2012, Lemoine 2015). Thus, this research establishes an important baseline for future work  
255 considering numerous other consequences of increased temperature on monarch larval  
256 performance and survival.

257 **Acknowledgements**

258 We thank S. Cook-Patton, D. Doublet, and M. Palmer for their assistance during this project. We  
259 thank L. Higley, J. Pleasants, R. Peterson, and one anonymous reviewer for their helpful  
260 comments and suggestions.

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**Figure 1** (on next page)

Effects of temperature on monarch development time.

Monarch development time decreased as temperature increased in both Ambient (open circles) and Warmed (filled circles) plots. However, the effect of temperature on monarch larval development was stronger in Warmed plots.

