

Ecotoxicology Populations & Communities

Ludek Blaha + ecotox colleagues



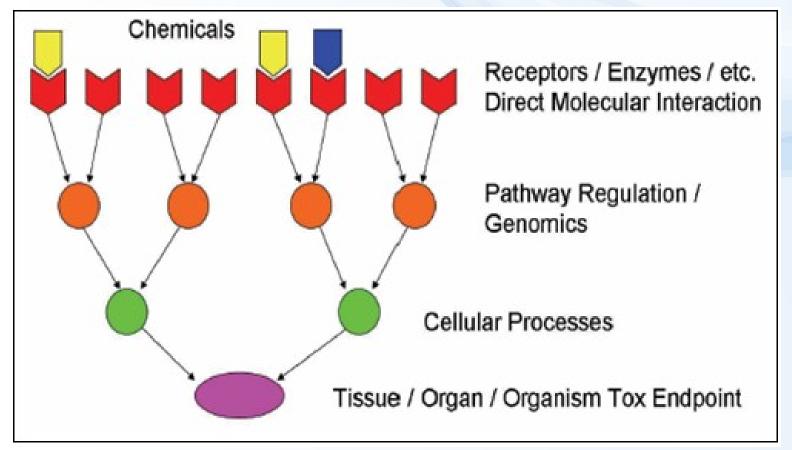






1) From molecules to individuals

MECHANISMS OF TOXICITY







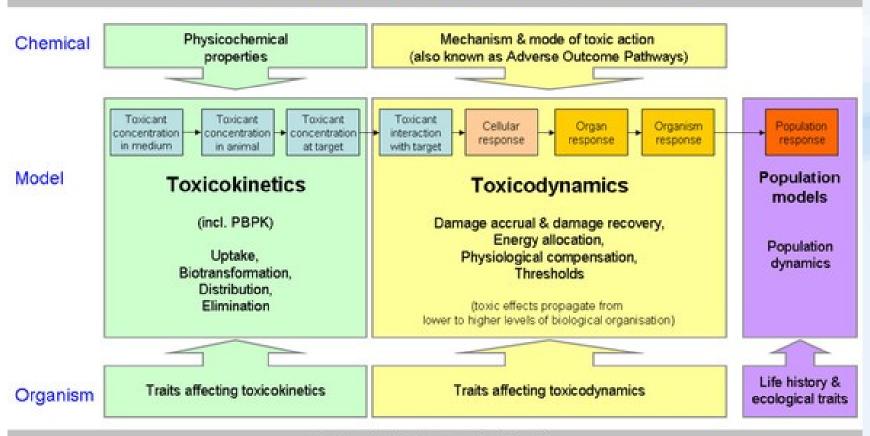




2) From molecules to individuals - AOPs

ADVERSE OUTCOME PATHWAYS

Mechanistic effect models for ecotoxicology



→ Arrows indicate a causal relationship

See also: Ashauer & Escher JEM (2010), Rubach et al. IEAM (2011), Jager et al. ES&T (2011), Ashauer et al. ET&C (2011)

The ultimate objective of **ECO**TOXICOLOGY

→ to understand and protect populations, communities, ecosystems

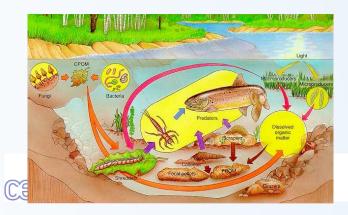
Populations

Communities (interacting populations)

Ecosystems
(communities
interacting with
abiotic environment)









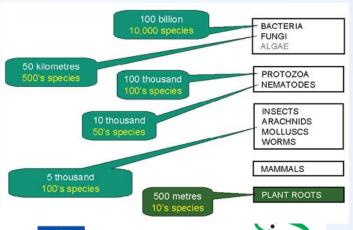


- Ecosystems are
 - not only more complex than we think
 - but more complex than we can think *

* FRANK E. EGLER, THE NATURE OF VEGETATION: ITS MANAGEMENT ANDMISMANAGEMENT (1977).















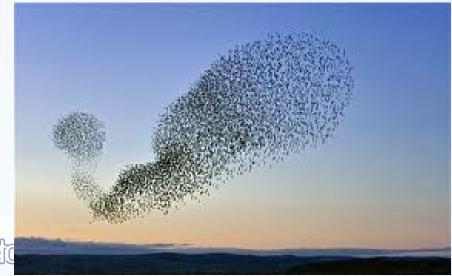
Effects at different levels

Population

... all the individuals that belong to the same taxonomic group or species, they can sexually reproduce, and they live within the same time and within the same geographical area

Toxicants have ...

- effects on structure (→ we can measure structural parameters)
 - elderly vs. young, males vs. females
- effects on functioning (→ we can measure functional parameters)
 (~ maintenance & growth)
 - Natality, mortality, reproduction fitness



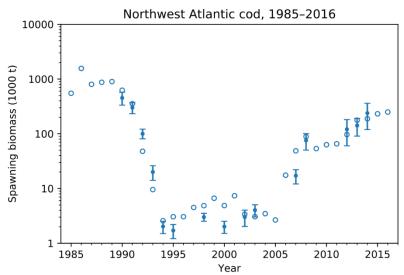


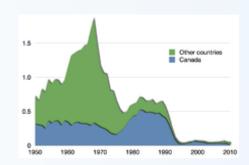
STRUCTURAL PARAMETERS of populations ("demographic parameters")

Primary parameters

- size (performance) number of individuals (animals), surface coverage (plants), amount of biomass (algae)
- natality increase of population size: numbers of organisms per unit of time
- mortality decrease of size: numbers of organisms per unit of time

Temporal variability in population of fish (due to overfishing)





Capture of the Atlantic northwest cod stock in million tonnes, with Canadian capture in blue^[8]









Air contamination effects on populations (evolutionary adaptation, natural selection of genetic & phenotypic variants)

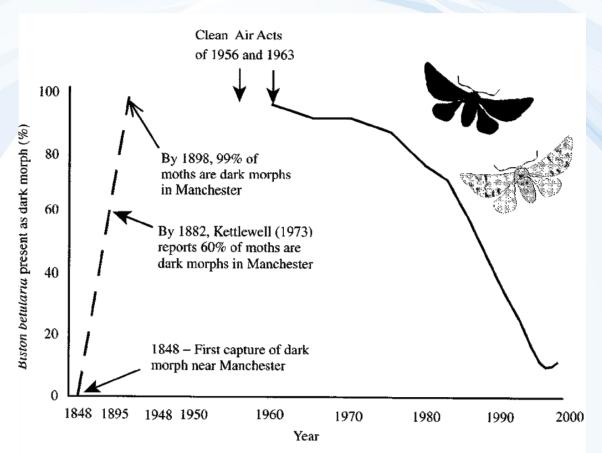
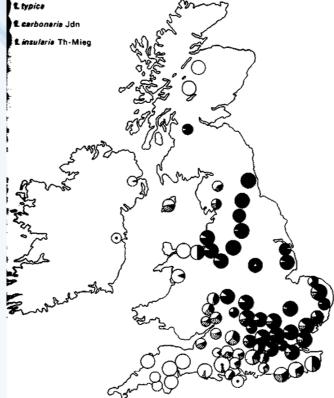


Fig. 2.2. Rise and fall in the proportion of *Biston betularia* of the melanistic morph caught near Liverpool, UK. Information for the decline in the dark morph come from Clarke and Grant (Clarke *et al.* 1994; Grant and Clarke 1999) who monitored a moth population outside of Liverpool from 1959 to the present







4.4 The relative frequencies of the normal and two melanic forms of peppered moth, Biston betularia, in Britain. The results are based on we than 30 000 records collected from 1952 to 1970 at 83 sites. (From Kettlewell, 1973.)

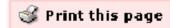




Air contamination effects on populations (evolutionary adaptation, natural selection of genetic & phenotypic variants)



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Published online: 21 October 2005; | doi:10.1038/news051017-16

Pollution makes for more girls

The stress of dirty air skews sex ratios in Sao Paulo.

Erika Check

Toxic fumes favour the fairer sex, a group of researchers in Brazil has found.

Jorge Hallak and his team at the University of Sao Paulo turned up the surprising result by studying babies born in their city. They divided the metropolis of 17 million people into areas of low, medium and high air pollution, using test results from air-quality monitoring stations. They then studied birth registries of children born from 2001 to 2003.

The team found that 48.3% of babies were female in the least polluted areas, but 49.3% were female in the dirtiest parts of town. After measuring the ratio of boys to girls born in all the areas, they calculated that 1,180 more babies would have been boys in the pollute.



Babies born in highly polluted areas are more likely to be girls.

© Alamy

calculated that 1,180 more babies would have been boys in the polluted areas if they had the same sex ratios as the cleaner areas. The team reported their findings on 17 October at the American

Effects of benzene and lead (Pb) on sex ratio in Drosophila

Generic effect:

HIGHER STRESS → more FEMALES

(F are more "resistant" also to assure survival of the population during the crisis)

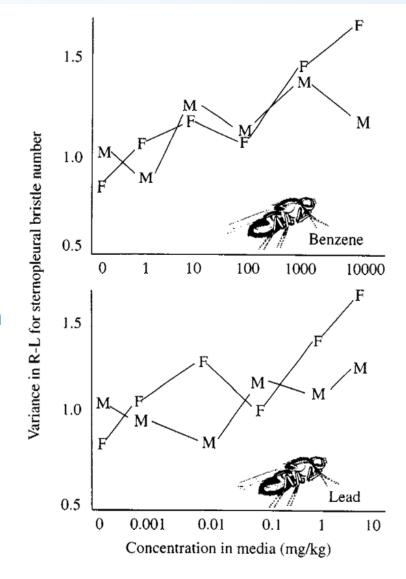


Fig. 6.7. The influence of lead and benzene concentrations in media on the developmental stability of *Drosophila melanogaster* (Data from Table 3 in Graham, Roe and West. 1993b). Sternopleural bristle number was counted on the right and left sides of each individual. M = male and F = female



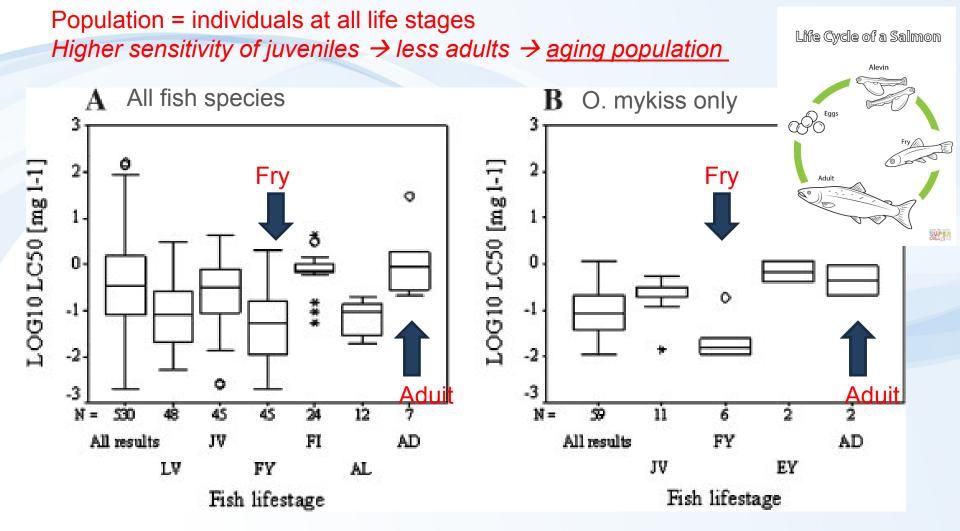


Fig. 2. Log LC50 variability for all available test results and for the five most frequently used fish life stages (larvae (LV), juvenile (JV), fry (FY), fingerling (FI), alevin (AL), eyed egg (EY) and adult (AD) life stage) for **CuSO4** - sulphuric acid, copper(2+) salt (1:1) (CAS 7758-98-7).

Test results for <u>all reported fish test species</u> (A) and for <u>Oncorhynchus mykiss</u> (B) were compared. <u>http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0273230009000956</u>







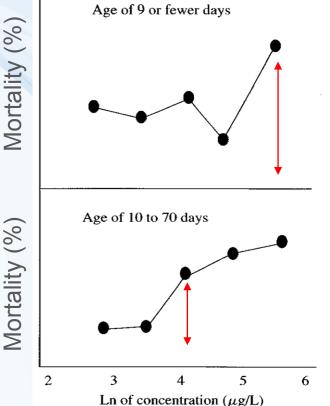


Population = individuals at all life stages Higher sensitivity of elderly individuals



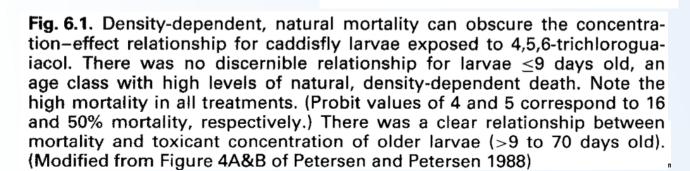


Mortality (%)



Caddisfly larvae

Higher mortality at elderly at the same concentration





How to study effects on populations?

1) Reproduction toxicity assays

- D. magna 21-day reproduction
- Earthworms several weeks: reproduction tests
- Folsomia candida (springtails) reproduction tests

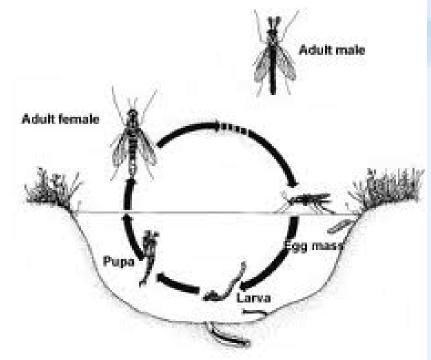


2) Whole life cycle toxicity test

- E.g. Chironomus (nonbiting mi (OECD guideline 233)

3) Modelling

(např. Distribution of energy –the "Enth" example)







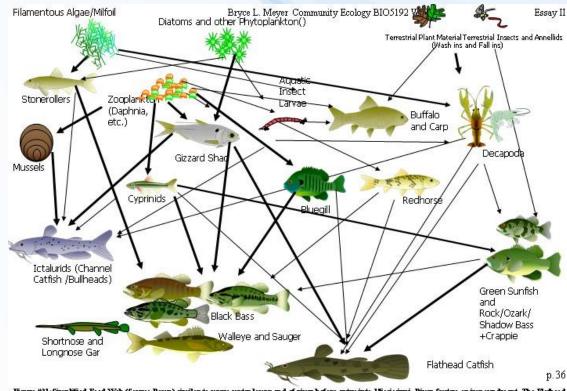


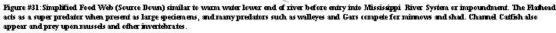


Communities ... interacting populations

Toxicants (stressors) may have

- ... effects on structure of communities
 - Loss of species, loss of biodiversity
- ... effects on functioning

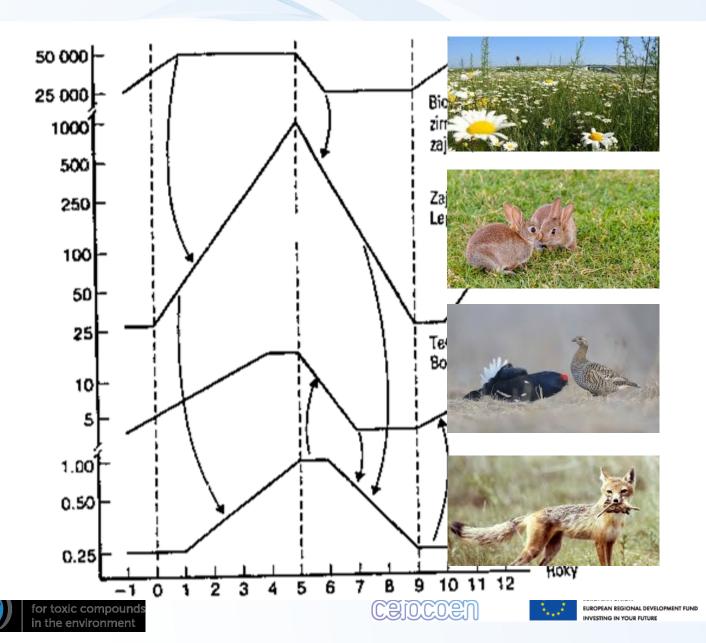






Natural variability in community (food web)

Changes in populations (biomass / numbers of animals) during 12 years





Community STRUCTURE characterization

-- example -- Floristic record

Occurrence of species (+ < 1 < 2 < 3 < 4 < 5)

in relationship to "stressor" (conditions) MOIST vs DRY

→ B vs D are very different communities



Table 3.4 The relative abundance of plant species in 12 samples in Polish forests^a

			Fir forests			Pine-bilberry forests								
				-				Mo	oist			Dry		
Group	Species	Sample no	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	Abies alba Pinus sylve Picea excel Vaccinium Vaccinium	lsa myrtillus	4 + + + + +	2 + + 2	2 + 2 + +	2 + + +	+ 4 5 +	+ 3 2 4 +	+ 2 + 2	+ 4 + +	+ 4 + 1 1	+ 1 + + 3	2 + 3	+ 3 + 2 2
В	Lycopodiur Circaea alp Pyrola secu Pyrola min	ina ında	+	+ 1 +	+++	++++++	+							
С	•		2 4	+	+ 4 2 +	+ + 2	+ 2 + 5	+ + 1	+ 3 + 5	+ 3 + 2	+	+		+
D	Pyrola chlo Melampyru Calluna vul Cladonia sy Cladonia ra	ım vulgatum garis vlvatica					+ 1 2 1	++++	1 +	+ 2	+ 2 3 2	+ + + +	+ 3 4	+ +
E	Quercus se Betula vern Thymus ov Lycopodiur	ucosa atus		+		•			+	+	+ + + +	+ + 2 +	+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++	+ + +
Total	number of s	species	35	37	38	37	20	17	24	25	39	41	32	34

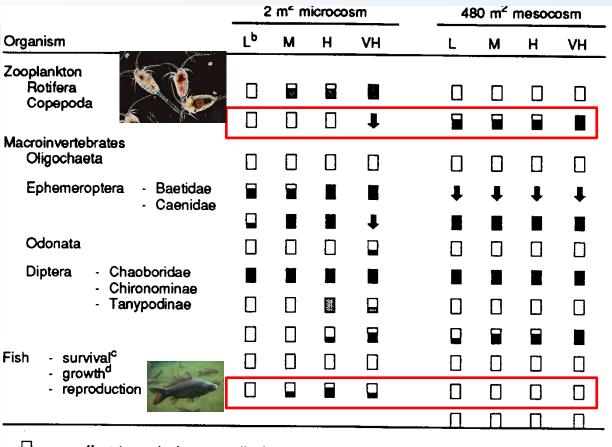
From Whittaker (1975): original data from Frydman (1968).

^{*+,} Rare; 1-5, increasing degrees of abundance. The species of groups B-E are diagnostic.

Ecotoxicology example

Changes in community treated with four doses (L-low, M-medium, H-high, V H-very high) <Results relative to controls>

Same exposures in two different set-ups Microcosm vs Mesocosm < Different responses of communities highlighted>



= no effect (quantitative or qualitative) **□** = <50%, **□** = 50−95%. quantitative decrease quantitative increase $\square = <50\%$, $\square = 50-95\%$, $\square = >95$; = decrease, 1 = increase. qualitative data

Treated with 10 drift (D) and 5 run-off (R) applications; each application as % of USA maximum label cotton rate:

	microcosm	mesocosm						
Low	D 0.7% + R 4.2%	D 0.8% + R 5.1%						
Mid	D 1.8% + R 4.2%	D 2.1% + R 5.1%						
<u>H</u> igh	D 3.5% + R 4.2%	D 4.2% + R 5.1%						
Very Hi	oh D 3 5% + B 21%	D 4 2% + B 25%						

Survival of juveniles (microcosms) and adults (mesocosms) added prior to pyrethroid treatments. Biomass of juveniles (microcosms) and adults/voung-of-year juveniles (mesocosms)



How to simplify complexity of community characterization?

Use index / indices

Diversity indices

Shannon-Wiener (H = $-\sum Ni/N \ln (Ni/N)$)

- Higher H → Higher diversity
- Shannon's index of eveness (E = H / InS)
 - Higher E → higher "eveness of community"

... and many others (Margalef's e.g. D = (S-1) / InN)

Ni – Number of individuals of one species
N – Total number of individuals in community
S – Number of species







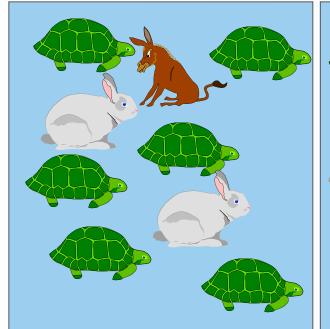


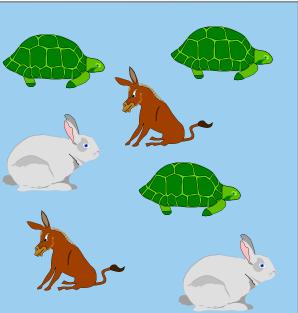
Which of the following three communities has the highest EVENESS?

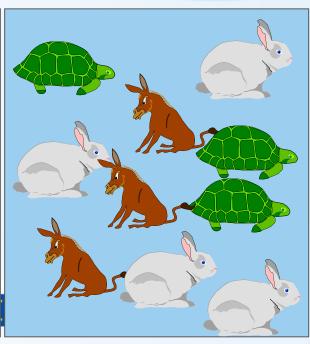
Example of H calculation for locality A:

```
H' = - (6/9 . ln (6/9) turtles
+ 1/9 . ln (1/9) donkeys
+ 2/9 . ln (2/9) rabbits = .....
E = .... ?
```

A B







How to compare communities?

c – number of shared (common) species

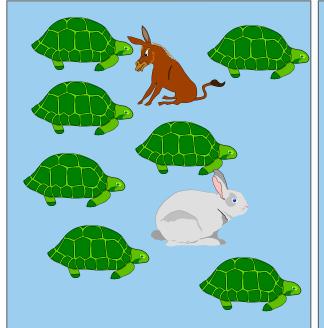
A – number of species at locality A

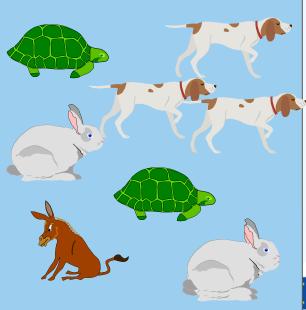
B – number of specieas at locality B

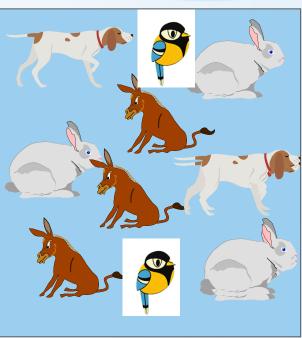
- INDICES ... for example ...
 - Jaccard's similarity index = [c / (A + B c)] x 100%
 - Higher J-index higher similarity

Which two are the most similar? AxB or AxC or BxC? (Ecotoxicology: A = control; B and C – different pesticides ... which pesticide has "strongest" effect?)

A B C

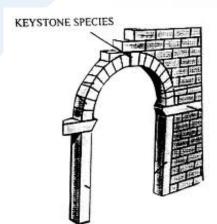






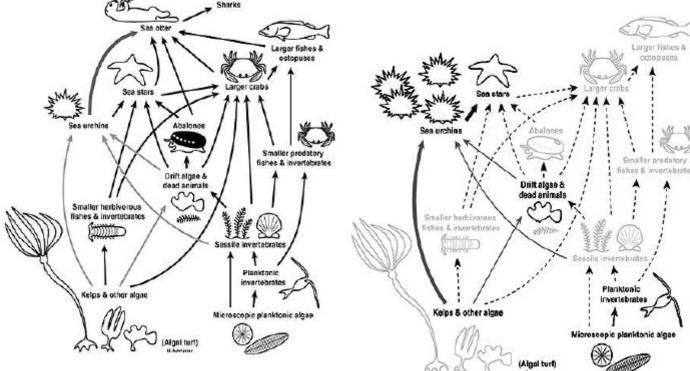
Key / Keystone species

- Effects on keystone species → dramatic changes on all community
- Usually predators (low numbers = high sensitivity to disruption)



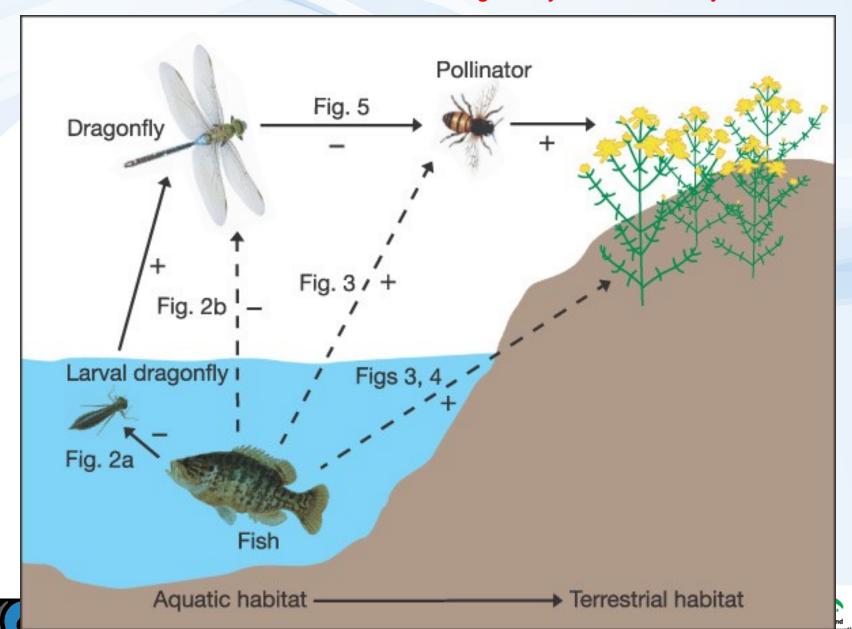
A. With sea otters, kelp forest food web

B. Without sea otters, urchin barren food web





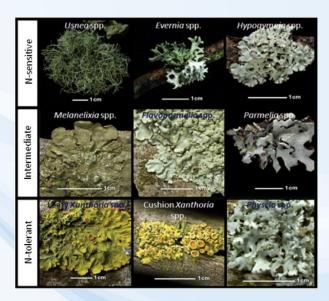
Fish as keystone species affecting also yields on nearby fields



INDICATOR SPECIES (bioindicators)

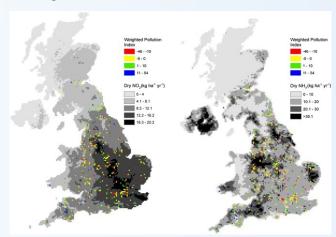
- Species for which (not)presence indicate certain parameter of the environment
 - Sensitive or tolerant species
 - Ocurrence in community → INDICES





LICHENS - air quality

Dry deposition of nitrogenous pollutants across the UK overlaid with dots showing the value of the lichen-based Weighted Pollution Index



https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2013.07.045







