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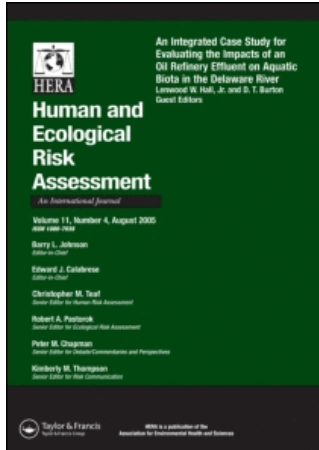
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## Human and Ecological Risk Assessment

### An International Journal

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title-content=t713400879>

Comment on Assessing the Need for Groundwater Quality Guidelines for Pesticides Using the Species Sensitivity Distribution Approach by Hose (2005).

To link to this article: DOI: 10.1080/10807030601107551

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10807030601107551>

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## LETTER TO THE EDITOR

### **Comment on *Assessing the Need for Groundwater Quality Guidelines for Pesticides Using the Species Sensitivity Distribution Approach* by Hose (2005).**

People are increasingly reliant on aquifers for water but the nature, extent and distribution of hyporheic and groundwater ecosystems is widely overlooked (Boulton 2001; Humphreys 2006). Aquifers contain a significant component of total biodiversity (Gibert *et al.* 1994; Marmonier *et al.* 1994; Rouch and Danielopol 1997; Culver and Sket 1999; Danielopol *et al.* 2002) and play an important role in maintaining water quality (Danielopol *et al.* 2003). However, the ability of aquifers to sustain these functions is potentially threatened by the increasingly degraded quality of groundwater owing to their contamination with a wide range of industrial chemicals and from eutrophication. Thus, it is timely that Hose (2005) questions whether surface water quality guidelines are appropriately applied to groundwater ecosystems. In the absence of data on groundwater (hypogean) organisms he used, as surrogate groundwater taxa, the types of organisms found in both surface and groundwaters compared with taxa found only in surface waters (epigean) (Hose 2005, p. 954), while appropriately restricting his comparison to those groups of animals that are found within the truncated subterranean biodiversity found in subterranean waters (Gibert and Deharveng 2002). Within this subset of animals he then uses published acute (48 h and 72 h) toxicity data to apply species sensitivity distribution (SSD) analysis (Brix *et al.* 2001). Significantly, his analysis suggests that some hypogean fauna may be less sensitive than epigean fauna, for example to Atrazine, or that there was no indicated risk for groundwater animals at the concentrations of toxicants that have been reported from Australian groundwaters (two herbicides and five insecticides).

Here, I question whether it is appropriate to use data in this manner as a measure of acute toxicity on groundwater organisms and caution against its uncritical general acceptance. The first concern is the absence of close phylogenetic matching of the tested taxa whereby sister taxa with epigean and hypogean representatives should properly be compared. This has been a general issue in the analyses of hypogean adaptations (*e.g.*, Hervant *et al.* 1997 and papers therein) owing to the widespread lack of suitable paired taxa, and it will not be further discussed here.

The second factor is that subterranean organisms, as a class, have much lower metabolic rates than comparable surface lineages. This factor is generic to the SSD approach taken by Hose and could lead to severe systematic error in the estimates of the toxicity of test substances to subterranean organisms, although the direction of any bias is not always clear. Although metazoans of many higher taxa, including

insects and vertebrates, are represented in groundwaters, stygofauna overwhelmingly comprise crustaceans belonging to many different groups. Although insects and arachnids are better represented in hyporheic fauna, here I will focus on metabolic differences between epigeal and hypogeal crustaceans.

Obligate subterranean metazoans typically display a suite of characteristics presumed to adapt them to life underground in low energy and low PO<sub>2</sub> environments (Hervant *et al.* 1998c; Malard and Hervant 1999; Hüppop 2000), the latter being a common feature of groundwaters. Among these characteristics, and especially pertinent in this context, are the low metabolic rates in hypogeal species (rates from 29–59%: Hervant *et al.* 1998b) compared with surface members of their broad lineage, and reductions up to an order of magnitude in anchialine animals (Bishop *et al.* 2004) that typically inhabit severely hypoxic water (Sket 1996; Humphreys 1999). Even in fish, cave-adapted forms had reduced standard (18–27%) and resting (19–53%) metabolic rates compared with epigeal forms (Poulson 1985; Hüppop 1986). This reduced metabolism is not solely a result of reduced activity, because in excised gill tissue of *Procambarus* spp. (Decapoda) rates of oxygen consumption were 12–17% that of surface dwelling relatives and this may be coupled with concomitant changes in ventilation rates, ATP turnovers, resistance to starvation, fat mobilization, *etc.* (Dickson and Franz 1980).

Many stygobitic animals are highly resistant to low levels of dissolved oxygen, some only being known from such waters (<0.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> DO), and may sometimes rapidly switch between areas of low and high PO<sub>2</sub> (Hervant *et al.* 1998c; Malard and Hervant 1999) and many hypogeal species survive anoxia for much longer than surface relatives (Hervant and Mathieu 1995; Hervant *et al.* 1995). The responses of crustaceans to PO<sub>2</sub> are complex and may have significant impact on energy balance in low-energy environments. The critical PO<sub>2</sub> level below which respiration rates could not be maintained, and post-hypoxic oxygen debt repayment, was lower in hypogeal than in surface species (Hervant *et al.* 1998b). Some hypogeal species, having no critical PO<sub>2</sub> (Caine 1978; Danielopol *et al.* 1994), are even considered to be oxyregulators (Hüppop 2000).

Resistance to hypoxia in hypogeal animals is mainly due to lower energy expenditure by a reduction in ventilation and locomotion, and due to anaerobic metabolism based on the coupled fermentation of glycogen and amino acids. In some crustaceans this is aided by the large stores of glycogen and arginine phosphate that permit efficient and prolonged anaerobic metabolism and subsequent recovery by gluconeogenesis from the lactates synthesized during hypoxia (Hervant and Mathieu 1996). Similarly, hypogeal crustaceans survive longer without food than any crustaceans previously studied and during which time locomotion, ventilation, and respiratory rates were markedly reduced in hypogeal species, whereas epigeal species responded by marked and transitory hyperactivity (Hervant 1998a; Hervant *et al.* 1997), factors of particular import in acute testing.

Hypogeal vertebrates and invertebrates commonly have much greater fat stores than surface relatives (Hüppop 2000; Gibert and Mathieu 1980; Mathieu and Gibert 1980), and this is pertinent to measures of metabolic intensity and where fat solubility of toxicants may be an issue. Metabolic pathways may also differ between epigeal and hypogeal species, as shown by lactate excretion by the hypogeal isopod *Stenasellus viriei*, which is unusual for crustaceans (Hervant *et al.* 1998c).

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In the presence of a toxicant, the significance of metabolism may be detected only after exposure to hypoxic conditions (Spicer and Weber 1992; Meade and Watts 1995). The toxicant itself may require increased metabolism (Grieshaber and Völkel, 1998), or else result in elevated (Smith and Hargreaves 1984) or depressed (Smith and Hargreaves 1984; Meade and Watts 1995) metabolism of the test organism. Acute measures of toxicity occur in a time span that generally does not allow equilibrium conditions to be attained between the uptake of the toxicant and its elimination, and significant improvement in testing can be achieved, even over a 96-hour test by a mere 2.5-fold increase in test time (Canivet *et al.* 2001). Toxicants may accumulate and be eliminated passively but in many cases the degradation/elimination of toxicants is an active process and thus metabolically dependent. Under toxic stress an organism may exhibit an increase in respiration rate as a result of the increased rate of protein turnover, which is thought to play an important part in the general response of animals to toxicants (Barber *et al.* 1990). Because toxicants induce stress this results in a reduction of the net energy balance (Koehn and Bayne 1988) and thus may impact differentially on groundwater animals that typically inhabit low energy environments.

The varied nature, but seeming ubiquity, of large differential metabolic responses of hypogean as compared with epigean species, makes suspect the use of the epigean groundwater surrogates in toxicity testing of relevance to groundwaters as used by Hose (2005). Even if hypogean organisms are to be used, the effects of toxicants may be enhanced *in vivo* by the low PO<sub>2</sub> environment and manifest only slowly due to the increased metabolic rate required of the organism by the toxicant.

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