

University of Northern Iowa
UNI ScholarWorks

Dissertations and Theses @ UNI

Student Work

1992

Stream microcosm toxicity tests: Colonizing test organisms and predicting the effects of fenvalerate on riffle insect communities

Dan H. Breneman
University of Northern Iowa

Copyright ©1992 Dan H. Breneman

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.uni.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Terrestrial and Aquatic Ecology Commons](#)

Let us know how access to this document benefits you

Recommended Citation

Breneman, Dan H., "Stream microcosm toxicity tests: Colonizing test organisms and predicting the effects of fenvalerate on riffle insect communities" (1992). *Dissertations and Theses @ UNI*. 689.
<https://scholarworks.uni.edu/etd/689>

This Open Access Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Work at UNI ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations and Theses @ UNI by an authorized administrator of UNI ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@uni.edu.

STREAM MICROCOSM TOXICITY TESTS: COLONIZING TEST ORGANISMS
AND PREDICTING THE EFFECTS OF FENVALERATE
ON RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES

An Abstract of a Thesis
Submitted
In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

Dan H. Breneman
University of Northern Iowa
December 1992

ABSTRACT

Small streams and rivers draining agricultural watersheds are frequently exposed to hazardous chemicals. Unfortunately, chemical registration procedures currently do not include standardized protocols capable of predicting chemical impacts in lotic ecosystems. Three experiments were conducted utilizing artificial streams and rock-filled artificial substrates in an attempt to further standardize stream microcosm test procedures.

In the first experiment stream microcosms were used to predict the effects of a synthetic pyrethroid insecticide on riffle insect communities. Aquatic macroinvertebrates colonized on artificial substrates were placed in artificial streams and dosed in triplicate at 0.0, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, and 10.0 ug/L fenvalerate (cyano (3-phenoxyphenyl) methyl-4-chloro-alpha-(1-methylethyl) benzeneacetate) for a 30-day period. The stream microcosms dosed at 0.1 ug/L fenvalerate exhibited significant ($p \leq 0.05$) reductions in species richness and total density following the 30-day toxicity test.

Artificial substrates placed in a natural riffle area during the second experiment were randomly sampled at weekly intervals for a seven week period to determine an optimal colonization period and to compare the artificial and natural substrate communities. Riffle insect communities colonizing the artificial substrates reached species

equilibrium and maximum densities by weeks one and four, respectively. Artificial substrates were selectively colonized by collector-filterers, and collector-gatherers were more abundant in the natural substrate.

The final experiment was conducted in an attempt to reduce colonization periods and collect artificial substrate communities more representative of natural riffle insect communities. Macroinvertebrates were colonized in artificial substrates, embedded and unembedded in the natural substrate, that were either uncolonized or precolonized with periphyton. Precolonized-unembedded substrates were colonized by significantly ($p \leq 0.05$) greater densities than the other experimental groups on week one. Unembedded substrate were colonized by riffle insect communities functionally more similar to the natural stream community than the embedded substrates.

Keywords: Stream microcosms, Synthetic pyrethroids,
Artificial substrates, Macroinvertebrates

STREAM MICROCOSM TOXICITY TESTS: COLONIZING TEST ORGANISMS
AND PREDICTING THE EFFECTS OF FENVALERATE
ON RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES

A Thesis

Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

Dan H. Breneman

University of Northern Iowa

December 1992

This Study by: Dan H. Breneman

Entitled: Stream Microcosm Toxicity Tests: Colonizing
Test Organisms and Predicting the Effects of
Fenvalerate on Riffle Insect Communities

has been approved as meeting the thesis requirement for the
Degree of Master of Arts.

11-16-92

Date

(Dr. Kurt W. Pontasch, chair)

11-16-92

Date

(Dr. Barton L. Bergquist)

11-16-92

Date

(Dr. James P. Dunn)

11-16-92

Date

(Dr. Daryl D. Smith)

12-11-92

Date

(Dr. John W. Somervill, Dean, Graduate College)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was funded, in part, by grants from The Leopold Center for Sustainable Agriculture and The Carver Scientific Research Initiative Grants Program. I would like to thank my colleague, Mark Smith, and several U.N.I. biology students for field assistance and diligence in processing samples. I would like to thank Dr. Barton L. Bergquist, Dr. James P. Dunn, and Dr. Daryl D. Smith for comments and critical review of the draft thesis. Dr. Kurt W. Pontasch gave me the opportunity to conduct these studies, and for his guidance, friendship, and patience in reviewing endless pages of manuscript, I would like to extend my sincere appreciation.

Although my gratitude may not be expressed as often as needed, encouragement from my parents, family, and friends has given me the confidence and fortitude to complete this work. Thanks for everything.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	viii
PROLOGUE.....	1
Objectives.....	9
References.....	11
STUDY AREA.....	17

CHAPTER ONE

STREAM MICROCOSM TOXICITY TESTS: PREDICTING THE
EFFECTS OF FENVALERATE ON RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES

Abstract.....	19
Introduction.....	20
Materials and Methods.....	22
Artificial Streams.....	22
Establishing Stream Microcosms.....	23
Sampling.....	25
Data Analysis.....	26
Results and Discussion.....	26
Conclusions.....	43
References.....	46

CHAPTER TWO

AQUATIC MACROINVERTEBRATE COLONIZATION OF ARTIFICIAL
SUBSTRATES FOR USE IN STREAM MICROCOSM TOXICITY TESTS

Abstract.....	49
Introduction.....	50
Materials and Methods.....	52
Study Area.....	52
Macroinvertebrate Colonization.....	52
Data Analysis.....	53
Results and Discussion.....	54
Artificial Substrate Colonization.....	54
Natural and Artificial Substrate Comparisons.....	66
Conclusions and Recommendations.....	69
References.....	71

CHAPTER THREE

COLONIZING RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES FOR STREAM MICROCOSM
STUDIES: DECREASING LOGISTICAL CONSTRAINTS AND IMPROVING
ENVIRONMENTAL REALISM

Abstract.....	73
Introduction.....	75
Materials and Methods.....	79
Colonization Site.....	79
Periphyton Precolonization.....	79
Macroinvertebrate Colonization.....	81

Data Analysis.....	83
Results and Discussion.....	84
Periphytic Biomass and Chlorophyll a....	84
Macroinvertebrate Colonization.....	84
Species Equilibrium.....	84
Effects of Precolonizing Substrates..	86
Effects of Embedding Substrates.....	98
Core Taxa Reaching Density Equilibrium..	100
Functional Group Comparisons.....	101
Conclusions.....	110
References.....	112
EPILOGUE.....	115
References.....	121
APPENDIX A.....	122
APPENDIX B.....	124
APPENDIX C.....	126

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.1	Natural and artificial stream water quality characteristics.....	27
2.1	Water chemistry and stream parameter data collected from the Volga River, Iowa.....	55
2.2	Core taxa colonizing artificial substrates over a seven week-period.....	59
2.3	Natural and artificial substrate functional group comparisons determined from an upstream site.....	68
3.1	Ephemeroptera core taxa colonizing four substrate types over a six-week colonization period.....	88
3.2	Plecoptera, Coleoptera, and Trichoptera core taxa colonizing four substrate types over a six-week period.....	92
3.3	Diptera core taxa colonizing four artificial substrates types over a six-week period.....	96

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1.1 Aquatic insect drift densities following a fenvalerate pulse dose.....	29
1.2 <i>Isonychia bicolor</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	32
1.3 <i>Baetis spp.</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	33
1.4 <i>Claassenia sabulosa</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	34
1.5 <i>Stenelmis parva</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	35
1.6 <i>Hydropsyche morosa</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	37
1.7 <i>Cheumatopsyche sp.</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	38
1.8 <i>Chimarra sp.</i> densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	39

1.9	Chironominae densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	41
1.10	Orthocladiinae densities in stream microcosms following exposure to fenvalerate for a 30-day period.....	42
2.1	Mean number of taxa per artificial substrate during a seven week colonization study.....	56
2.2	Total macroinvertebrate abundance per artificial substrate during a seven week colonization study.....	58
3.1	Schematic diagram of the four artificial substrate experimental groups.....	82
3.2	Mean number of taxa per substrate colonizing each experimental group over a six-week period.....	85
3.3	Mean macroinvertebrate abundance per substrate from each experimental group over a six-week period.....	87
3.4	Cumulative number of core taxa reaching density equilibrium over a six week colonization study.....	102
3.5	Functional feeding group percentages from PE substrates sampled on week three.....	104

3.6	Functional feeding group percentages from the natural substrate at the colonization site.....	105
3.7	Functional feeding group percentages from PU substrates sampled on week three.....	106
3.8	Functional feeding group percentages from artificial substrates sampled from an upstream site.....	108
3.9	Functional feeding group percentages from the natural substrate at an upstream site.....	109

PROLOGUE

The purpose of biological toxicity testing is to evaluate potentially hazardous materials by determining what concentrations cause substantial risk to the environment. The Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA), first promulgated in 1947, requires pesticide manufacturers to demonstrate product safety in aquatic ecosystems through a series of toxicity test procedures. Prospective agricultural chemicals are subjected to a testing hierarchy designed to evaluate physical/chemical properties, usage patterns, and potential hazards to aquatic ecosystems. Single-species tests, multispecies tests, and field studies constitute the bulk of biological testing required by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) in environmental risk assessment programs. Acute, single-species tests constitute the first tier of aquatic toxicity tests and may trigger further chronic test procedures if potential risks to nontarget organisms are demonstrated. Subsequent testing procedures (e.g., microcosm and mesocosm tests) may be required to fulfill higher-level tests when a substantial risk is evident and an ecosystem-level response is desired. At present, there is considerable controversy over which procedures are both cost-effective and good predictors of xenobiotic impacts on aquatic ecosystems.

Single-species toxicity tests are routinely employed for initial screening to determine potential chemical hazards because the procedures involved are simple and inexpensive. Therefore, a large number of chemicals can be rapidly tested. However, single-species toxicity tests do not adequately predict potential hazards to aquatic ecosystems because they: 1) use genetically homogeneous laboratory-stock organisms that may or may not represent the "most sensitive" species (Cairns 1986a); 2) often lack realistic environmental conditions (e.g., nutrient cycling, energy transfer); 3) do not account for interactions between individuals in a community (e.g., succession, competition, predator-prey interactions); and, 4) use organisms that may not be indigenous to potential receiving ecosystems. Single-species toxicity tests have improved water quality, but because of a better understanding of ecosystem complexity and a need for more realistic tests, some workers have recently questioned the predictive utility of single-species tests when evaluating environmental safety and harm (National Research Council 1981, Cairns 1983, Kimball and Levin 1985).

Multispecies toxicity tests are being developed in an attempt to more accurately predict potential hazards in aquatic ecosystems (Cairns 1985, 1986b). Because multispecies tests require more time and expertise to conduct, they are not the logical choice for initial

screening of chemicals. However, for chemicals that prove toxic during short term toxicity tests and have a potential for widespread use, multispecies toxicity tests should be considered. Multispecies tests currently available include field studies, mesocosm studies, and microcosm studies.

Field studies manipulate natural aquatic ecosystems and monitor the initial response and potential recovery over several experimental seasons. Ecosystem-level studies conducted in the Experimental Lakes Area in Ontario, Canada expanded our understanding of lake eutrophication (e.g., Schindler 1974) and acidification (e.g., Schindler *et al.* 1985). Lotic ecosystem manipulations, conducted on productively and morphologically similar first order streams within the Coweeta Hydrologic Laboratory evaluated macroinvertebrate community response following an insecticide-induced disturbance (Wallace *et al.* 1986). A similar study by Kreuzweiser *et al.* (1989) examined stream invertebrate drift response to a herbicide applied at various sites within the same stream reach. Field manipulation studies present researchers with valuable ecosystem-level responses, but data are site-specific and often not replicated. In addition, exposure of natural environments to hazardous materials raises ethical questions.

In order to increase test replication and maintain an ecosystem-level response, investigators have recently

employed outdoor lake (e.g., Crossland *et al.* 1987, Larsson and Sodergren 1987), estuarine (e.g., Oviatt *et al.* 1984), marine (e.g., Kuiper 1982), and lotic mesocosms (e.g., Stout and Cooper 1983, Irvine 1985, Clements *et al.* 1989a).

Outdoor mesocosms are designed to reflect natural environmental conditions on a smaller-scale by positioning enclosures within the natural ecosystem or transferring a portion of the source ecosystem to terrestrial based chambers. A review by Odum (1984) discussed several mesocosm designs and their contribution to aquatic research on lake and marine ecosystems.

Floating enclosures were used in British Columbia as part of CEPEX (Controlled Ecosystem Pollution Experiment). Ecosystem-level responses were monitored inside plastic floating containers large enough to support a majority of the naturally occurring organisms. In addition, "limno-corrals" have been utilized to evaluate herbicide effects on plankton communities (Hamilton *et al.* 1988) and the effects of mercury and cadmium on several marine trophic levels (Kuiper 1982).

The Marine Ecosystem Research Laboratory (MERL) employs terrestrial based mesocosms to determine the effects of environmental stressors such as oil spills on marine and estuarine ecosystems. MERL consists of a series of large, cylindrical test chambers near Narragansett Bay, Rhode Island. Water and organisms are continuously exchanged

between the test chambers and the source ecosystem to simulate seasonal fluctuations and average turnover, thus establishing a self-sustaining system (Oviatt *et al.* 1984). Although ecosystem-level responses can be monitored continuously, the process of simulating turnover by periodically exchanging the contents of each vessel may discharge potentially hazardous materials directly into the source ecosystem. To reduce potential environmental contamination, Besser and Rabeni (1987) percolated rainwater through test plots and collected the runoff in small vinyl receiving pools stocked with test organisms. This test system examined the bioavailability and toxicity of lead-mine leachates to smaller-scale lentic ecosystems with minimal risk to the environment. In addition, 0.1 to 2-ha pond mesocosms, constructed to comply with standardized criteria, are widely used during the pesticide registration program (Touart 1988, Heinis and Knuth 1992, Lozano *et al.* 1992, Webber *et al.* 1992).

Lotic mesocosms may be constructed by partially re-routing a stream to flow through a series of man-made channels. The USEPA research facility located near Monticello, Minnesota utilizes eight experimental streams containing alternating riffles and pools. The experimental channels are approximately one meter wide and more than 500 m long. Water and organisms indigenous to the Mississippi River are diverted into channels, and toxicants are

introduced below the first riffle, providing an upstream within-channel control (Stout and Cooper 1983, Perry and Troelstrup 1988). Stream water from source ecosystems has also been pumped into smaller streamside artificial streams to study the impact of heavy metals on aquatic macroinvertebrates (Clements *et al.* 1989b) and to test methods for analyzing the structure and function of aufwuchs communities (Clark *et al.* 1980). Utilizing smaller portions of the lotic environment enables workers to investigate ecosystem-level parameters, maintain some degree of investigator control, and in most cases, improve experimental replication. Unfortunately, mesocosms are often costly to construct, difficult or impossible to transport, and are susceptible to climatic, biological, and anthropogenic perturbations.

Laboratory-based biological models of natural ecosystems, or microcosms, have recently been introduced to increase replication and conduct ecosystem-level tests under controlled conditions. Vinyl tubs or glass aquaria are used to support communities indigenous to lentic ecosystems. Test chambers utilized in stream microcosm research are of several designs including rectangular troughs constructed of wood or concrete and oval "racetrack" test vessels to simulate lotic ecosystems. Microcosms have been used to study ecological aspects of freshwater communities such as:

- 1) the effects of herbivores on periphytic communities

(e.g., Lamberti *et al.* 1987, Steinman *et al.* 1987, McCormick and Stevenson 1989); 2) the influence of stream sedimentation on macrobenthic distribution (e.g., Brusven and Prather 1974); and, 3) the effects of temperature on aquatic insect drift (e.g., Sherberger *et al.* 1977). However, much of the current interest in microcosm research is focused on predicting chemical influence on aquatic ecosystems.

Aquatic microcosms have been used to determine xenobiotic effects on periphytic assemblages (e.g., Krieger *et al.* 1988, Pratt *et al.* 1988, Cairns *et al.* 1990, Scanferlato and Cairns 1990) and the influence of toxicants on artificial streams stocked with benthic macroinvertebrates (e.g., Hedtke 1984, Lynch *et al.* 1985, Clements *et al.* 1988a; 1989b, Pontasch *et al.* 1989, Pontasch and Cairns 1989; 1991). Microcosm toxicity tests are easily replicated and can predict the influence of hazardous chemicals without harming the natural environment. However, the lack of standardized methods have limited the use of microcosm toxicity tests within the regulatory framework.

Standard methods for the determination of water quality include those published by the EPA (e.g., USEPA 1985), American Society for Testing and Materials (e.g., ASTM 1985), and American Public Health Association (e.g., APHA *et al.* 1985). These protocols are continuously tested against specific guidelines and periodically revised. In order for

methods to be endorsed as "standard," they must be extensively tested and their limitations known. Cairns (1990) indicated that a number of provisional methods utilizing higher levels of biological organization (i.e. microcosm tests) have been proposed, but these methodologies are not yet standard protocols. The hesitancy in incorporating multispecies, microcosm toxicity tests into the regulatory framework is founded on test expense and complexity of interpreting results. If test expense is a decisive factor, and the costs of both over or underprotecting the environment are considered, microcosm tests may be no more expensive than conventional tests (Niederlehner et al. 1986; Cairns and Pratt 1987).

Environmentally realistic tests may incorporate several ecological processes (e.g., primary production, macrophyte stress response, macroinvertebrate recovery) and often include longer exposure periods to ensure test communities complete partial or entire life cycles. Consequently, tests are more complex and may require a greater level of expertise when interpreting results. However, the ability to examine higher levels of organization provides investigators with an opportunity to make more sound ecological assessments. This two year project is part of a larger effort to develop methods that can reliably and cost-effectively predict chemical hazards to aquatic ecosystems in a multitude of regional settings. Specifically, this

research utilized laboratory-based artificial streams and rock-filled artificial substrates to address the following objectives:

Objectives

- 1) Conduct a stream microcosm toxicity test to predict the effects of the synthetic pyrethroid insecticide fenvalerate on aquatic insects indigenous to Iowa streams.
- 2) Determine the minimum colonization period necessary to maximize macroinvertebrate densities and species richness in rock-filled artificial substrates.
- 3) Test methods designed to decrease macroinvertebrate colonization periods and collect an artificial substrate community more representative of the natural stream community.

Objective one involved exposing artificial substrates colonized by riffle insect communities to selected fenvalerate concentrations in a series of artificial stream microcosms for 30 days. Species-abundances of both adults and immatures per microcosm were used to predict the sensitivity of natural stream communities. Results from this experiment are reported in Chapter One.

Objective two involved randomly sampling artificial substrates colonized by aquatic macroinvertebrates at weekly intervals during a seven week colonization study. Species richness and total density per substrate were used to

determine an optimal colonization period. Results from this experiment are reported in Chapter Two.

Objective three utilized artificial substrates uncolonized and precolonized with periphyton which were embedded or unembedded in the natural stream bottom. Macroinvertebrate densities per substrate at six weekly intervals were used to determine which substrate type reduced the colonization period, yet provided an assemblage of organisms similar to the natural stream community. Results from this experiment are reported in Chapter Three.

References

- American Public Health Association (APHA), American Water Works Association, and Water Pollution Control Federation. 1985. *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water*. 16th ed. Washington, D.C. 1067 p.
- American Standards for Testing and Materials (ASTM), 1985. *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*. Part 31 Water, Philadelphia, PA.
- Besser, J. M. and C. F. Rabeni, 1987. Bioavailability and toxicity of metals leached from lead-mine tailings to aquatic invertebrates. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 6:879-890.
- Brusven, M. A. and K. V. Prather, 1974. Influence of stream sediments on distribution of macrobenthos. *J. Entomol. Soc. Brit. Columbia.* 71:25-32.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1983. Are single species toxicity tests alone adequate for estimating environmental hazards? *Hydrobiologia* 100:47-57.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1985. *Multispecies Toxicity Testing*. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, NY.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1986a. The myth of the most sensitive species. *Bioscience* 36:670-672.
- Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1986b. *Community Toxicity Testing*. STP 920. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1990. The genesis of biomonitoring in aquatic ecosystems. *The Environmental Professional.* 12:169-176.
- Cairns, J., Jr., and J. R. Pratt, 1987. Ecotoxicological effect indices: a rapidly evolving system. *Wat. Sci. Tech.* 19(11):1-12.
- Clark, J. R., J. H. Rodgers, Jr., K. L. Dickson, and J. Cairns, Jr. 1980. Using artificial streams to evaluate perturbation effects on *aufwuchs* structure and function. *Wat. Res. Bull.* 16(1):100-104.
- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988a. Impact of heavy metals on insect communities in streams: a comparison of observational and experimental results. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 45:2017-2025.

- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988b. Structural alterations in aquatic insect communities exposed to copper in laboratory streams. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:715-722.
- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989a. The influence of copper exposure on predator-prey interactions in aquatic insect communities. *Fresh. Bio.* 21:483-488.
- Clements, W. H., J. L. Ferris, D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989b. The influence of water quality on macroinvertebrate community responses to copper in outdoor experimental streams. *Aquatic Toxicology.* 14:249-262.
- Crossland, N. O., D. Bennett and C. J. M. Wolff, 1987. Fate of 2,5,4'-trichlorobiphenyl in outdoor ponds and its uptake via the food chain compared with direct uptake via the gills in grass carp and rainbow trout. *Ecotox Environ. Safety.* 13:225-238.
- Giesy, J. P., and P. M. Allred, 1985. Replicability of aquatic multispecies test systems. In: Cairns, J. Jr., (ed.) *Multispecies Toxicity Testing*. Permagon Press, New York, pp. 187-247.
- Gillett, J. W., 1989. The role of terrestrial microcosms and mesocosms in ecotoxicologic research. In: S. A. Levin, M. A. Harwell, J. R. Kelly and K. D. Kimball (eds.) *Ecotoxicology: Problems and Approaches*. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 367-410.
- Hamilton, P. B., G. S. Jackson, N. K. Kaushik, K. R. Solomon and G. L. Stephenson, 1988. The impact of two applications of atrazine on the plankton communities of in situ enclosures. *Aquatic Toxicol.* 13:123-140.
- Hedtke, S. F. 1984. Structure and function of copper-stressed aquatic microcosms. *Aquatic Toxicology.* 5:227-244.
- Heinis, L. J. and M. L. Knuth. 1992. The mixing, distribution and persistence of esfenvalerate within littoral enclosures. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:11-25.
- Irvine, J. R. 1985. Effects of successive flow perturbations on stream invertebrates. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 42:1922-1927.

- Kimball, K. D. and S. A. Levin, 1985. Limitations of laboratory bioassays: the need for ecosystem-level testing. *BioScience* 35(3): 165-171.
- Kreutzweiser, D. P., P. D. Kingsbury and J. C. Feng, 1989. Drift response of stream invertebrates to aerial applications of Glyphosate. *Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 42:331-338.
- Krieger, K. A., D. B. Baker and J. W. Kramer, 1988. Effects of herbicides on stream *aufwuchs* productivity and nutrient uptake. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 17:299-306.
- Kuiper, J. 1982. Ecotoxicological experiments on marine plankton communities in plastic bags. George D. Grice and Michael R. Reeve (ed.) *Marine Mesocosms*. Springer-Verlag New York, Inc. pp. 181-193.
- Lamberti, G. A., L. R. Ashkenas, S. V. Gregory and A. D. Steinman, 1987. Effects of three herbivores on periphyton communities in laboratory streams. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 6(2):92-104.
- Larsson, P. and A. Sodergren, 1987. Transport of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) in freshwater mesocosms from sediment to water and air. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution.* 36:33-46.
- Lozano, S. J., S. L. O'Halloran, K. W. Sargent and J. C. Brazner. 1992. Effects of esfenvalerate on aquatic organisms in littoral enclosures. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:35-47.
- Lynch, T. R., H. E. Johnson and W. J. Adams, 1985. Impact of atrazine and hexachlorobiphenyl on the structure and function of model stream ecosystems. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 4:399-413.
- McCormick, P. V. and R. J. Stevenson, 1989. Effects of snail grazing on benthic algal community structure in different nutrient environments. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 8(2):162-172.
- Minshall, G. W. and J. N. Minshall, 1977. Microdistribution of benthic invertebrates in a Rocky Mountain (U.S.A.) stream. *Hydrobiologia* 55(3):231-249.
- National Research Council, 1981. *Testing for the Effects of Chemicals on Ecosystems*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.

- Niederlehner, B. R., J. R. Pratt, A. L. Buikema, Jr. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1986. Comparison of estimates of hazard derived at three levels of complexity. In: Cairns, J. Jr. (ed.) *Community Toxicity Testing*. STP920. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA, pp 30-48.
- Odum, E. P. 1984. The mesocosm. *BioScience* 34:558-562.
- Oviatt, C., M. Pilson, S. Nixon, J. Frithsen, D. Rudnick, J. Kelly, J.F. Grassle and J.P. Grassle, 1984. Recovery of a polluted estuarine system: A mesocosm experiment. *Marine Ecology*. 16:203-217.
- Perry, J. A. and N. H. Troelstrup, Jr. 1988. Whole ecosystem manipulation: a productive avenue for test system research? *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:941-951.
- Pontasch, K. W., B. R. Niederlehner and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Comparisons of single-species, microcosm and field responses to a complex effluent. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:521-532.
- Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Establishing and maintaining laboratory-based microcosms of riffle insect communities: their potential for multispecies toxicity tests. *Hydrobiologia* 175:49-60.
- Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1991. Multispecies toxicity tests using indigenous organisms: predicting the effects of complex effluents in streams. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 20:103-112.
- Pratt, J. R., N. J. Bowers, B. R. Niederlehner and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Effects of atrazine on freshwater microbial communities. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 17:449-457.
- Pratt, J. R., J. Cairns, Jr. and M. S. Henebry, 1989. Use of microbial community dynamics and functional indices to assess wetland conditions. *Freshwater Wetlands and Wildlife*. CONF-8603101, DOE Symposium Series No. 61, R.R. Sharitz and J. W. Gibbons (eds.), USDOE Office of Sci. and Tech. Information, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.
- Rabeni, C. F. and G. W. Minshall, 1977. Factors affecting microdistribution of stream benthic insects. *Oikos* 29:33-43.

- Reice, S. R. 1980. The role of substratum in benthic macroinvertebrate microdistribution and litter decomposition in a woodland stream. *Ecology*. 61:580-590.
- Scanferlato, V. S. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1990. Effects of sediment-associated copper on ecological structure and function of aquatic microcosms. *Aquatic Toxicology*. 18:23-34.
- Schindler, D. W. 1974. Eutrophication and recovery in experimental lakes: implications for management. *Science* Vol. 134:897-899.
- Schindler, D. W., K. H. Mills, D. F. Malley, D. L. Findlay, J. A. Shearer, I. J. Davies, M. A. Turner, G. A. Linsey and D. R. Cruikshank, 1985. Long-term ecosystem stress: the effects of years of acidification on a small lake. *Science*. 228:1395-1401.
- Shaw, S. W. and G. W. Minshall, 1980. Colonization of an introduced substrate by stream macroinvertebrates. *Oikos*. 34:259-271.
- Sherberger, F. F., E. F. Benfield, K. L. Dickson and J. Cairns, Jr. 1977. Effects of thermal shocks on drifting aquatic insects: a laboratory simulation. *J. Fish. Res. Board Can.* 34:529-536.
- Steinman, A. D., C. McIntire, S. Gregory, G. Lamberti and L. Ashkenas. 1987. Effects of herbivore type and density on taxonomic structure and physiognomy of algal assemblages in laboratory streams. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 6(3):175-188.
- Stout, R. J. and W. E. Cooper, 1983. Effects of p-cresol on leaf decomposition and invertebrate colonization in experimental outdoor streams. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 40:1647-1657.
- Touart, L. W. 1988. Aquatic mesocosm tests to support pesticide registrations. EPA 540/09-88-035. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, DC.
- Wallace, J. B., D. S. Vogel and T. F. Cuffney, 1986. Recovery of a headwater stream from an insecticide-induced community disturbance. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 5(2):115-126.

Webber, E. C., W. G. Deutsch, D. R. Bayne and W. C. Seesock.
1992. Ecosystem-level testing of a synthetic pyrethroid
insecticide in aquatic mesocosms. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:87-105.

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1985. *Methods for
measuring the acute toxicity of effluents to freshwater
and marine organisms*. EPA/600/4-85/013. Environmental
Monitoring and Support Laboratory, Cincinnati, OH.

STUDY AREA

The Volga River is a first to third order stream in northeast Iowa that follows a ~120.0 km course from west central Fayette Co. to its confluence with the Turkey River in south central Clayton Co. The Volga River flows from a relatively flat, glaciated landscape to a region of greater topographic relief marked by wooded valleys and streams entrenched in Paleozoic age bedrock. This area in northeast Iowa is noted as the Paleozoic Plateau and the bedrock is dominated by limestone and other carbonate rocks. The combination of riparian vegetation and spring-fed streams produce a habitat rich in plant and macroinvertebrate life.

The specific study sites were located in riffle areas. Riffles contain high levels of dissolved oxygen and numerous microhabitats within the substrate. Therefore, riffles are highly productive areas in a stream. Research conducted during the first experimental season (Chapters 1 and 2) utilized a riffle area adjacent to relatively flat agricultural land 7 km downstream from the Volga River headwaters. During typical flow conditions the stream at this site was 16.2 m wide, 22 cm deep, and current velocity was approximately 77 cm/s. The riffle area was 20 m in length and the substrate was dominated by cobbles (6-13 cm) 50% embedded in pebbles (2-6 cm) with considerable sedimentation by sand and silt.

The study site for the second experimental season (Chapter 3) was located within the city limits of Fayette, Iowa approximately 12 km from the Volga River headwaters. During typical flow conditions, the stream at this riffle area was approximately 20 cm deep, 15 m wide, and current velocity was 66 cm/s. Artificial substrates were placed in a ~20 m riffle area dominated by cobbles (13-25 cm) unembedded in pebbles (2-6 cm) with minimal amounts of sedimentation.

CHAPTER ONE

STREAM MICROCOSM TOXICITY TESTS: PREDICTING THE
EFFECTS OF FENVALERATE ON RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES

ABSTRACT

Stream microcosms were used to predict toxicity of the pyrethroid insecticide fenvalerate (cyano (3-phenoxyphenyl) methyl-4-chloro-alpha-(1-methylethyl) benzeneacetate) to riffle insect communities. Over a 30-d test period stream microcosms were dosed in triplicate at 0.0, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, and 10.0 ug/L fenvalerate. The relative sensitivities of 12 species were determined by statistically comparing abundances over all concentrations.

Initial exposure resulted in a significant increase in drift in the 1.0 and 10.0 ug/L treatments. After 30 d, several taxa exhibited density reductions at 0.01 ug/L, but this reduction was significant for only one taxon. Densities of most other taxa decreased significantly at 0.1 ug/L. Significant reductions in species richness and total density also were observed at 0.1 ug/L fenvalerate. Overall, the results suggest that at environmental concentrations of 0.1 ug/L, mayflies and stoneflies would be eliminated and riffle beetles, caddisflies and some chironomids would be present in significantly reduced numbers.

Keywords: Stream microcosms, Toxicity, Fenvalerate, Insects

INTRODUCTION

Synthetic pyrethroids have become a commonly used insecticide in the last decade because they combine high insecticidal activity with low avian [1] and mammalian [2] toxicity. Synthetic pyrethroids resemble natural pyrethrins but, due to changes at several sites on the synthetic molecule, possess greater photostability [3,4] and remain active in various soil conditions [5,6]. The enhanced environmental stability and widespread use of synthetic pyrethroids increase the possibility of unintentional exposures in aquatic ecosystems where non-target organisms may be adversely affected. Fenvalerate is a synthetic pyrethroid commonly employed for pest control in a variety of agricultural settings.

In earlier studies using acute exposures, EC_{50} s for freshwater zooplankton exposed to fenvalerate ranged from 0.12 to 5.0 ug/L [7,8]. Chronic tests with *Daphnia galeata mendotae* resulted in reduced production of young at 0.01 ug/L fenvalerate [9]. Acute toxicity to <24-h old *Pimephales promelas* ranged from a 3 h LC_{50} of 5.0 ug/L to a 96 h LC_{50} of 0.85 ug/L fenvalerate [10]. Bradbury et al. [11] reported LC_{50} s for 30-31 d old *P. promelas* ranged from 2.06 to 0.75 ug/L fenvalerate following 24 h and 168 h exposures, respectively. Early life stage tests with *Cyprinodon variegatus* resulted in an estimated NOEC of ≤ 0.56 ug/L fenvalerate [12]. Clark et al. [13] reviewed the

effects of several synthetic pyrethroids on marine invertebrates and fish and reported similar toxicity ranges. Although most literature concerning the effects of synthetic pyrethroid exposures in aquatic ecosystems is based on single species responses, inadvertent release into aquatic ecosystems will impact entire communities.

The ability of single-species toxicity tests to accurately predict community-level responses has been questioned [14-16]. As a result, multispecies tests have been developed to allow better predictions of community-level responses and reduce uncertainties when extrapolating from the laboratory to the field [17,18]. To simulate potential field situations, Webber *et al.* [19] exposed pond mesocosms in triplicate to both aerial drift and direct sediment runoff containing esfenvalerate, a fenvalerate isomer with similar physical/chemical properties but demonstrating greater insecticidal activity. Following esfenvalerate application, macroinvertebrate densities and adult emergence were significantly lower in high-rate ponds (0.7 ppb and 56.3 ppb mean aqueous and sediment concentrations, respectively) than in medium, low-rate, and control ponds. Heinis and Knuth [20] reported a two stage distribution of esfenvalerate occurred within littoral enclosures. Water contained the majority of esfenvalerate during the first 2 d, but by 4 d, the major reservoir was sediment and macrophytes.

Pond mesocosm studies are currently employed in the testing hierarchy for pesticide registration when triggered by single-species test results. However, in most regions, small streams are exposed more frequently than lakes and ponds to nonpoint source agricultural pollutants. Unfortunately, limited information is available concerning the sensitivity of stream communities to these inputs. Recently, toxicity tests utilizing naturally occurring assemblages of stream organisms have been introduced [21,22] and field-validated [23,24]. This research employed stream microcosms to predict fenvalerate effects on riffle insect community structure. Test concentrations were selected based on results from previous single-species toxicity tests and expected environmental concentrations.

Materials and Methods

Artificial Streams

The laboratory-based artificial stream system consists of 15 oval artificial streams (1.7 x 0.24 x 0.13 m channel) constructed of molded fiberglass. Each stream is covered by a 1.0 x 0.75 x 0.3 m emergence net (mesh size 1.0 mm). Two 120 cm Durotest Vita-lites[®] over each stream provided a photoperiod corresponding to that on d 15 of the test. A 13 cm standpipe, covered with a 1.0 mm mesh screen to prevent macroinvertebrate escape, maintained a volume of 55 L in each stream. Current (25 cm/s) was provided by a 0.25 hp

electric motor turning paddle wheels attached to an iron rod.

Fenvalerate concentrations, based on the active ingredient (cyano (3-phenoxyphenyl) methyl-4-chloro-alpha-(1-methylethyl) benzeneacetate), were prepared by serial dilution from the 2.4 emulsifiable concentrate of Pydrin[®] [30% a.i.(w/v)]. Fenvalerate stock solutions were stored in 20 L glass carboys covered with aluminum foil. Artificial stream microcosms were pulse dosed to proper concentrations by adding 550 ml of appropriate 0.0, 1.0, 10.0, 100.0 and 1000.0 ug/L fenvalerate stock solutions. The microcosms were then continuously exposed in triplicate at 0.0, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, and 10.0 ug/L fenvalerate by adding 3 ml/min. of appropriate stock solutions while a headbox system supplied dechlorinated tap water to all artificial streams at 297 ml/min. Turnover of test medium in the artificial streams occurred approximately eight times every 24 h.

Establishing Stream Microcosms

The colonization site was located in a riffle area 7 km downstream from the Volga River headwaters in northeast Iowa. During normal flow conditions the stream was 16.2 m wide, 0.22 m deep, and mean current velocity was 64.4 cm/s. Substrate was dominated by cobbles (6-13 cm) 50% embedded in pebbles (2-6 cm).

To provide a macroinvertebrate food source, periphyton was colonized on 60, 25 cm³ polyurethane foam units (PFUs)

placed in the source riffle. After 7 d the PFUs were transported in an aerated cooler to the laboratory. The contents were squeezed into a bucket and the slurry strained through a sieve (mesh size 250 microns) to eliminate macroinvertebrates. The periphyton slurry (1.3 L) was then added to each artificial stream and allowed to develop for five weeks prior to initiation of the toxicity test.

Macroinvertebrate colonization occurred in 64 rock-filled plastic containers (10.6 x 10.6 x 8.3 cm) with six circular holes (12 mm diam.) in each side. The artificial substrates were secured to wooden frames previously anchored to the stream bottom with iron rods and concrete blocks. After six weeks the artificial substrates were removed by placing a dip-net (mesh size 350 microns) behind the substrate as it was randomly transferred to one of 32 coolers (7 L capacity) filled with river water. Two substrates were placed in each cooler and transported to the laboratory. During the 2 h transport, temperature and dissolved oxygen were maintained at ambient stream levels (19 °C and 8.7 ppm O₂) by pumping air through a small radiator placed in a cooler of ice. Air was then shunted to airstones in each cooler through a series of valves and hoses. At the laboratory, the contents of two coolers (four substrates) were randomly assigned to each artificial stream. Macroinvertebrate communities were allowed to acclimate for 2 d in the artificial streams before the pulse

dose was administered and peristaltic pumps activated. After 30 d the test was terminated and the contents of each microcosm were sampled (see below).

Sampling

Macroinvertebrate drift was measured in each microcosm 1 h after returning the artificial substrates to the laboratory and 2 d later, following the initial pulse dose. Insect drift was measured by inserting a 15 X 12 cm dip net (mesh size 350 um) in the artificial stream for 1 min. Aquatic insects entering the drift were identified to family and enumerated in a water-filled enamel pan, then returned to the artificial stream. Drift data were used to quantify: 1) mortality during transportation, and; 2) macroinvertebrate avoidance response to initial fenvalerate exposures. Emergent adult insects were aspirated from emergence traps every 48 h to 72 h and preserved in 70% ETOH.

After 30 d the contents of each microcosm were washed through a sieve (500 um) and preserved in 70% ETOH. Insects were sorted by hand using a 2X magnification lens and size-classed as small, medium, large, pupae (for holometabolous insects), or adult. With the exception of midges (Chironomidae: Diptera), insects were identified to the lowest possible taxonomic unit using appropriate references and the species-abundances of both adults and immatures per microcosm were determined.

Grab samples (170 ml) from each artificial stream taken on days 1, 10, 20, and 30 of the test period were extracted with hexane (30 ml) and analyzed to determine actual fenvalerate concentrations. In addition, dissolved oxygen, pH, conductivity, alkalinity, water hardness, temperature, and current velocity were monitored weekly to ensure that the stream microcosms reflected those parameters in the natural source ecosystem.

Data Analysis

Species-abundances of both adults and immatures per microcosm were determined. Macroinvertebrate taxa with mean densities ≥ 4 in at least one treatment were considered a core taxon. Total insect densities for each core taxon were compared over all experimental groups to determine concentration effects. Data were analyzed by a one-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) procedure for separation of means (see Appendix A).

Results and Discussion

Water chemistry data from the stream microcosms and the Volga River are reported in Table 1.1. Dissolved oxygen, conductivity, hardness, alkalinity, temperature, and pH in the stream microcosms reflected conditions in the source ecosystem. Fenvalerate concentrations determined from grab samples taken throughout the test were, in most cases, lower than targeted concentrations (Table 1.1). Fenvalerate

Table 1.1. Water quality characteristics of the Volga River, Iowa and stream microcosms during a 30-day toxicity test.

	Volga River	NOMINAL CONCENTRATIONS				
		0.0 (ug/L)	0.01 (ug/L)	0.1 (ug/L)	1.0 (ug/L)	10.0 (ug/L)
TEMPERATURE (°C)	22.1	19.3	19.3	19.3	19.3	19.3
s.d. =	3.5	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
n =	6	9	9	9	9	9
DO (mg/L O ₂)	8.4	8.9	8.9	8.6	8.7	8.6
s.d. =	0.7	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3
n =	5	9	9	9	9	9
CONDUCTIVITY (uMHOS)	572.5	404.7	409.0	407.7	413.0	410.0
s.d. =	29.6	51.3	55.1	54.9	51.4	50.1
n =	6	9	9	9	9	9
pH [H ⁺]	7.8	8.3	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2
s.d. =	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
n =	6	9	9	9	9	9
HARDNESS (mg/L CaCO ₃)	293.0	246.7	232.3	236.3	245.3	238.0
s.d. =	22.4	8.0	11.9	17.9	9.7	7.5
n =	6	9	9	9	9	9
ALKALINITY (mg/L CaCO ₃)	168.2	197.0	195.0	196.3	197.2	191.0
s.d. =	6.0	7.8	1.7	4.0	4.2	3.5
n =	5	9	9	9	9	9
FENVALERATE (ug/L)	N.A.	N.D.	0.011	0.058	0.286	2.869
s.d. =	----	----	0.0333	0.0894	0.1389	0.8682
n =	----	9	9	9	9	9

N.A. = Not Available

N.D. = Not-Detected

derivatives have been shown to adsorb to plants and sediments [e.g., 20], and in this study, fenvalerate may have adsorbed to particulate organic matter and sediments deposited within the artificial substrates and/or periphytic growth on the stream walls.

Drift samples taken 1 h after returning the artificial substrates to the laboratory indicated aquatic macroinvertebrate transfer was accomplished with only two individual fatalities. These data support previous research in which there was no significant mortality following a similar transfer [22]. Drift samples taken 1 h after the initial pulse dose revealed a significant drift response in the 1.0 and 10.0 ug/L concentrations (Figure 1.1). Relative to control streams, a slight increase in drifting insects was also observed in the 0.01 and 0.1 ug/L treatments. The insects most frequently entering the drift included Baetidae (Ephemeroptera) and Hydropsychidae (Trichoptera). In addition, several *Isonychia bicolor* (Ephemeroptera: Oligoneuriidae) were observed clinging to the sides of the microcosms in the 1.0 and 10.0 ug/L treatments. Most *I. bicolor* nymphs eventually returned to the artificial substrates.

Other than aquatic insects, Oligochaeta were the only other macroinvertebrates regularly observed in the stream microcosms. Oligochaeta were not found in sufficient numbers to allow for statistical analysis but were observed

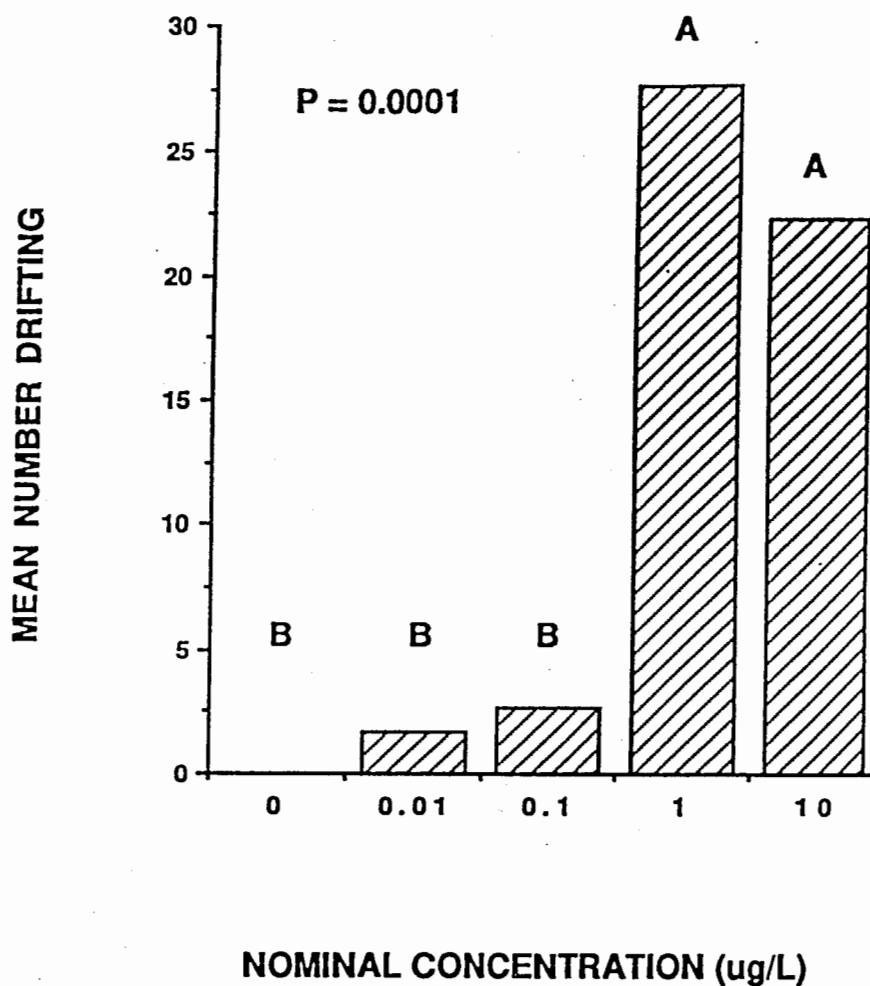


Figure 1.1. Mean number of immature aquatic insects from 1 min. drift samples taken 1 h after the initial fenvaleerate pulse dose. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

in all treatments at test termination, suggesting a tolerance to the fenvalerate concentrations tested. Thirty-four insect taxa, representing seven orders, were collected from the stream microcosms during the 30-d test. Community-level analysis including all 34 taxa revealed a significant reduction ($p \leq 0.05$) in mean species richness from 19.3 in the control microcosms to 12.3 taxa in the 0.1 ug/L treatment. The decrease in mean species richness at 0.1 ug/L was primarily due to a decline in Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Odonata species. A significant reduction ($p \leq 0.05$) in total mean density also occurred in the 0.1 ug/L treatment. Twelve core taxa (mean densities ≥ 4 per treatment) were included in the following analysis.

Most mayflies (Ephemeroptera) were adult insects collected during the 30-d test period. This finding supports previous results indicating the importance of monitoring adult emergence during tests with riffle insect communities [24,25]. Of the 12 mayfly species collected, only *Isonychia bicolor* and *Baetis* spp. (Baetidae) were considered core taxa. *Baetis* spp. included *B. flavistriga*, *B. dubius*, and *B. intercalaris*, with *B. intercalaris* being the dominant species. Due to the lack of keys for adult females and the difficulty in identifying subimago adults, *Baetis* spp. results are reported at the generic level. Both *I. bicolor* and *Baetis* spp. were significantly reduced in the 0.1 ug/L treatment (Figures 1.2, 1.3). All organisms

observed at 0.1 ug/L and higher concentrations were adults that emerged during the first 7 d. The mayflies *Ephoron leukon* and *Ephoron album* (Polymitarcyidae), *Caenis* sp. (Caenidae), and *Stenonema* spp. (Heptageniidae) were present in the stream microcosms but densities were insufficient to allow statistical analysis. A few adult *Ephoron* sp., *Caenis* sp., and *Stenonema* spp. emerged early in the test from the 0.0 ug/L and 0.01 ug/L treatments.

The predatory stonefly *Claassenia sabulosa* (Plecoptera: Perlidae) colonized the artificial substrates in low numbers. Relative to controls, *C. sabulosa* was significantly reduced at 0.01 ug/L and eliminated at the 0.1 ug/L concentration (Figure 1.4). All *C. sabulosa* were nymphs collected at the end of the test.

Riffle beetles (Coleoptera: Elmidae) were represented by five genera. However, *Stenelmis parva* was the only species with densities considered sufficient for statistical analysis. *S. parva* exhibited a significant reduction in the 0.1 ug/L treatment (Figure 1.5). However, mortalities in the 0.1 and 1.0 ug/L treatments were primarily larvae. The adults, none of which were observed in the emergence traps, appeared more tolerant than other core taxa to the lower concentrations tested. *S. parva* adults were not significantly affected ($p \leq 0.05$) until the 10.0 ug/L treatment. Previous research on petroleum hydrocarbon

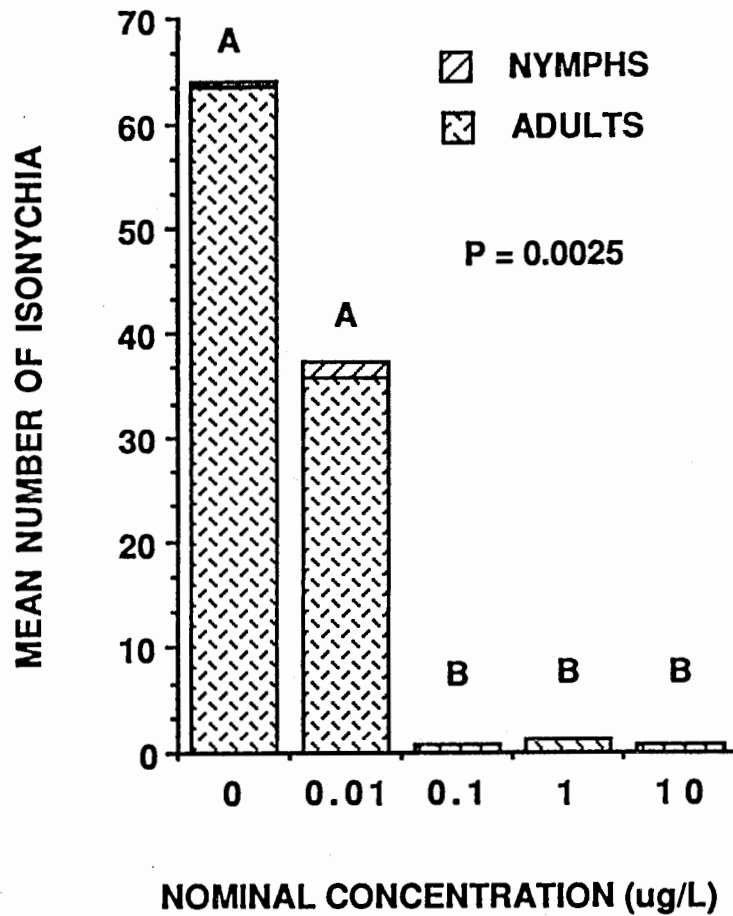


Figure 1.2. Mean number of *Isonychia bicolor* (Ephemeroptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

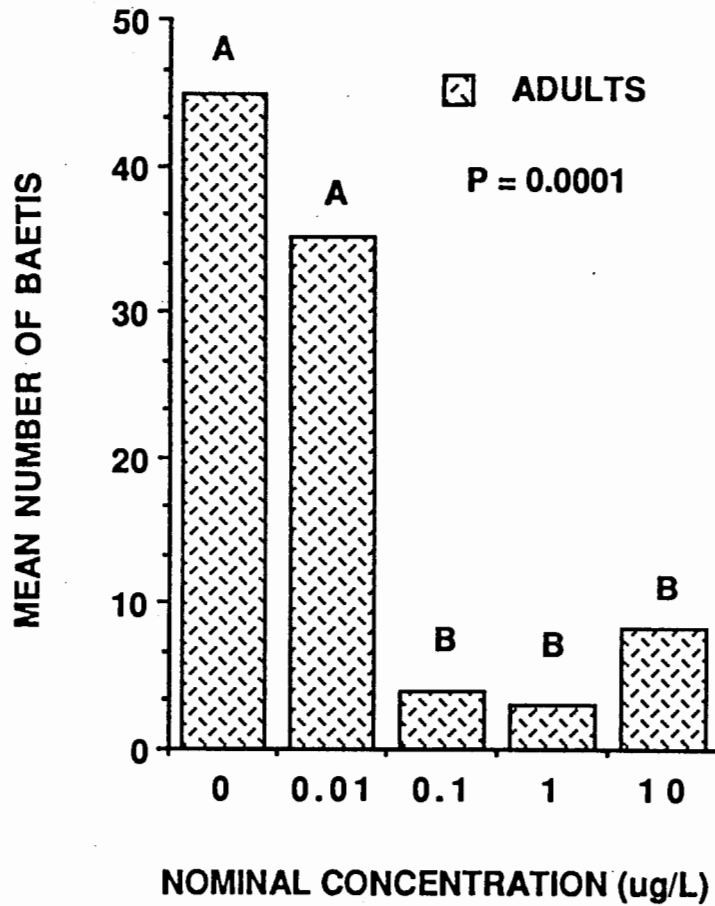


Figure 1.3. Mean number of *Baetis* spp. (Ephemeroptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

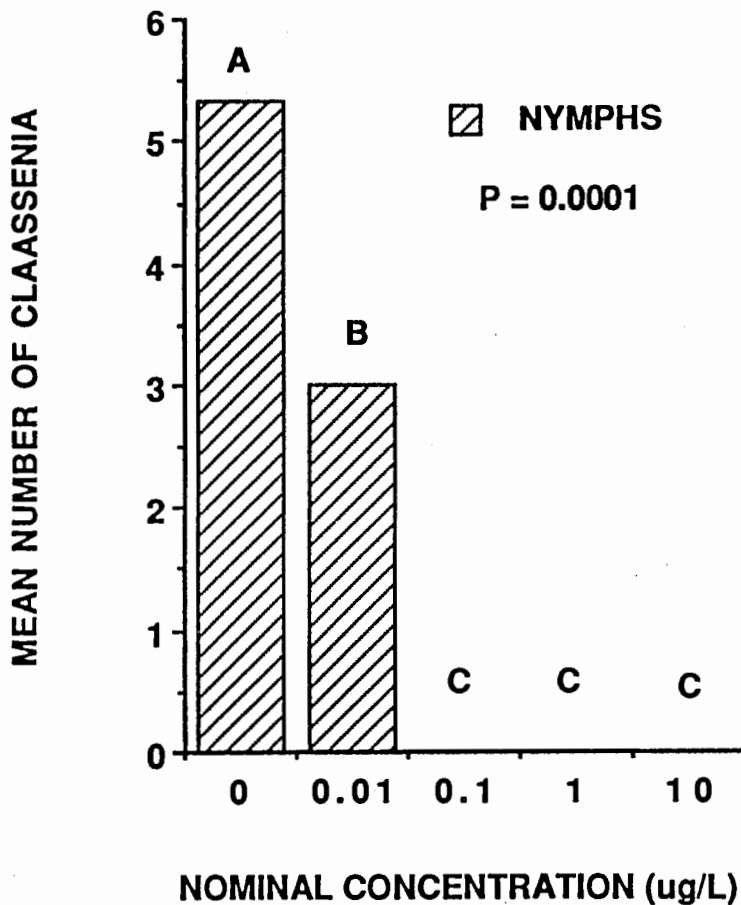


Figure 1.4. Mean number of *Claassenia sabulosa* (Plecoptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

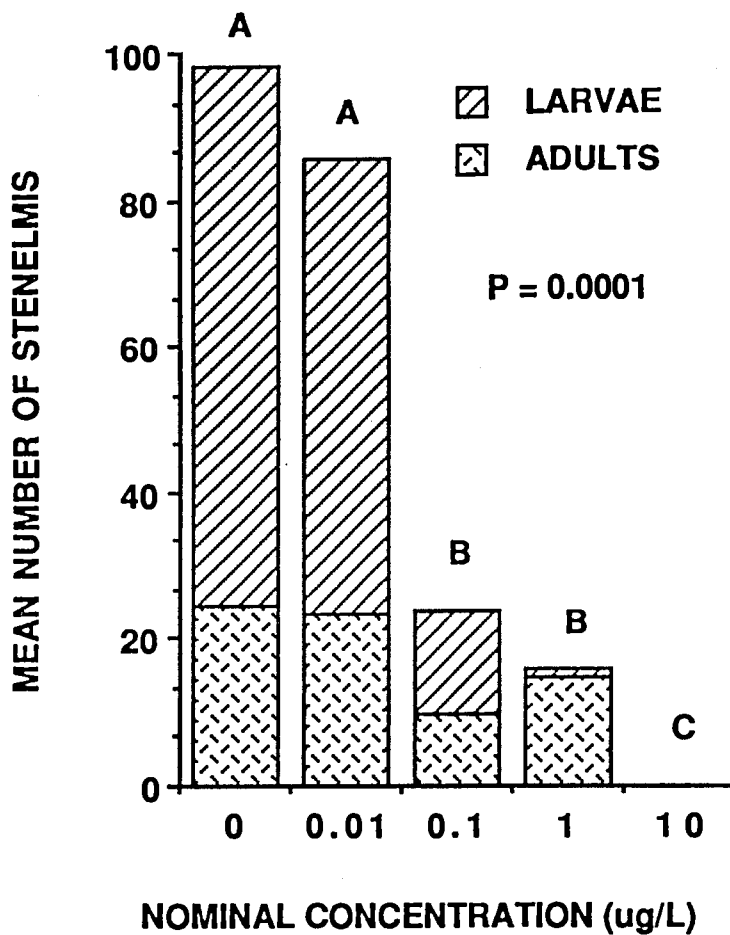


Figure 1.5. Mean number of *Stenelmis parva* (Coleoptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

spills indicate riffle beetles may be more tolerant of some environmental stressors than other stream insects [26,27].

As a group, caddisflies (Trichoptera) had the highest densities in the stream microcosms. Caddisflies exhibited an 8 d mass emergence beginning 13 d after the initial dose. The most abundant caddisfly, *Hydropsyche morosa* (Hydropsychidae), a species known to selectively colonize the artificial substrates used in this research [25], was significantly reduced in the 0.1 ug/L treatment (Figure 1.6). A separate analysis revealed a significant larval density reduction ($p \leq 0.05$) in the 0.01 ug/L treatment. As presented, holometabolous "larvae" include both early to late instars and pupae. The few *H. morosa* remaining in the 0.1 ug/L and higher concentrations at the end of the test period were nearly all pupae. *Cheumatopsyche* sp. (Hydropsychidae) and *Chimarra* sp. (Philopotamidae) exhibited significant density reductions at 0.1 ug/L (Figure 1.7, 1.8). Separate analysis on *Chimarra* sp. revealed that the significant increase in "larvae" occurring from the 0.01 to 1.0 ug/L treatments were exclusively pupae. In addition, other caddisflies such as *Helicopsyche* sp. (Helicopsychidae) and *Pycnopsyche* sp. (Limnephilidae), present in the 0.1 ug/L and higher treatments, were also in the pupal stage. Holometabolous insects in the pupal stage appear to have been more tolerant to the fenvalerate concentrations tested, but as indicated by an increase in *Chimarra* sp. pupae at the

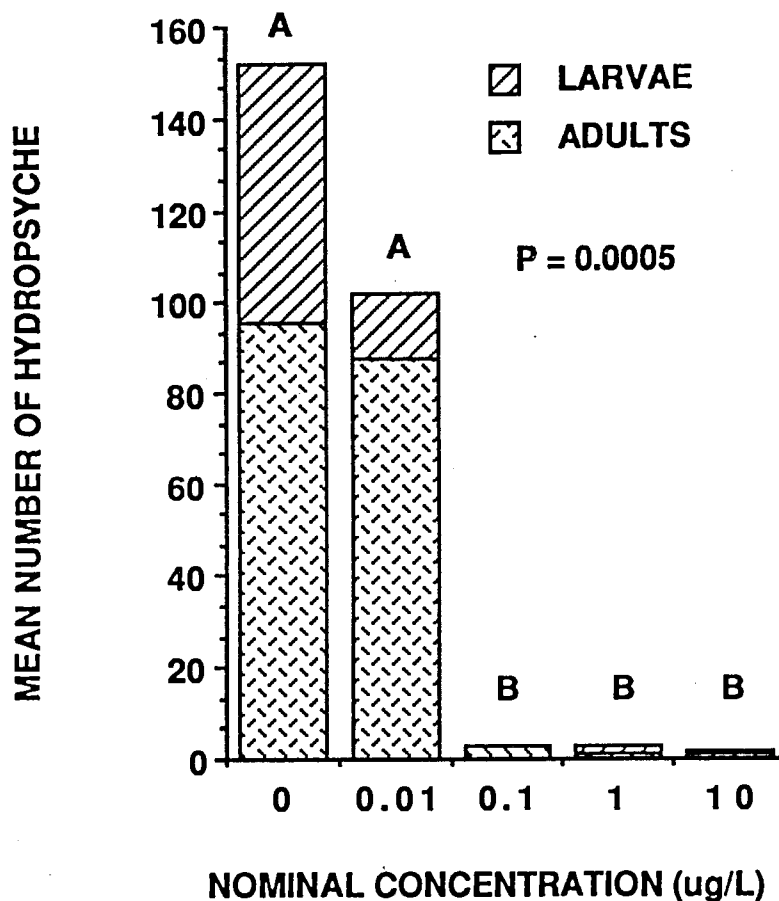


Figure 1.6. Mean number of *Hydropsyche morosa* (Trichoptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

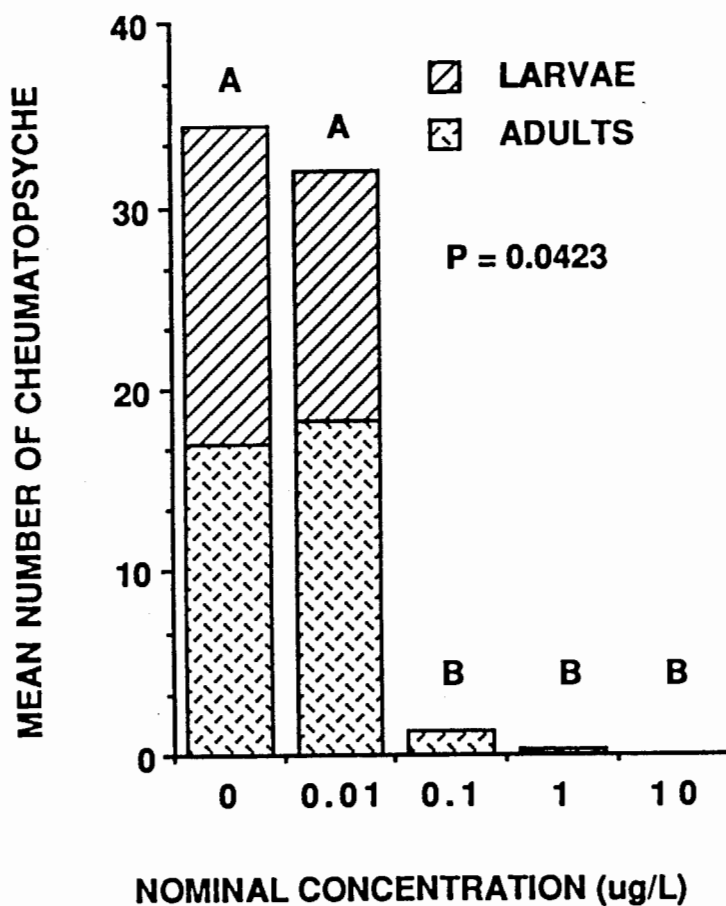


Figure 1.7. Mean number of *Cheumatopsyche* sp. (Trichoptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

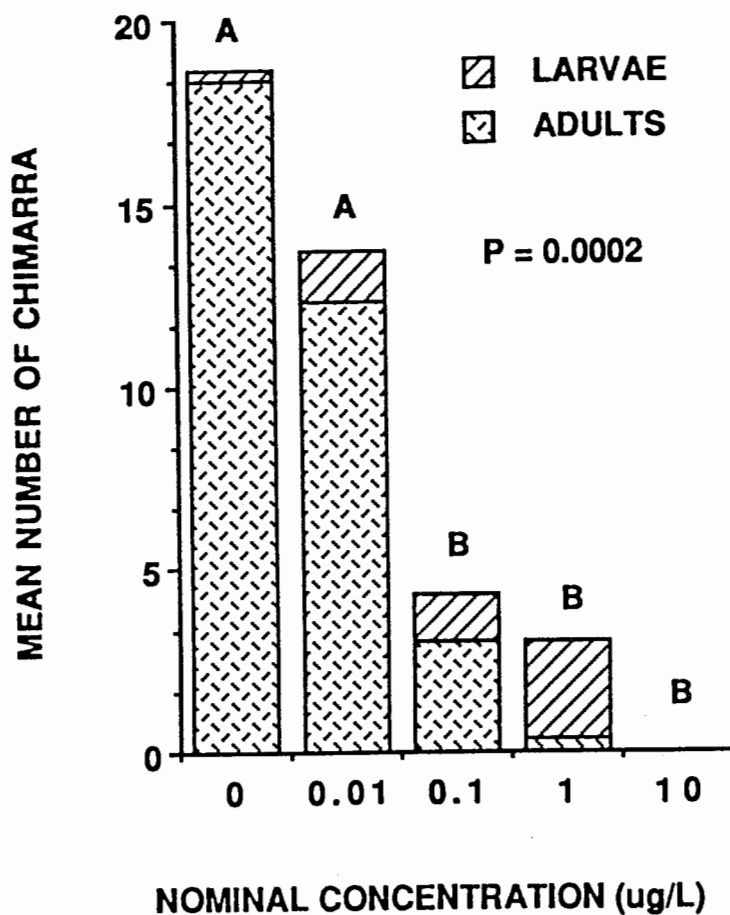


Figure 1.8. Mean number of *Chimarra* sp. (Trichoptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

higher concentrations, adult emergence may have been inhibited.

Diptera were represented by five core taxa. Chironomid midges from the subfamilies Chironominae and Orthocladiinae were the most abundant Diptera. Chironominae and Orthocladiinae densities were significantly reduced in the 1.0 ug/L and 0.1 ug/L treatments, respectively (Figure 1.9, 1.10). Tanypodinae (Chironomidae), *Simulium* sp. (Simuliidae), and *Atherix lantha* (Athericidae) were present in low numbers and, because of high variability within treatments, did not show a significant response to the concentrations tested. However, other than a few adult *Simulium* sp. and Chironomidae collected during the first 6 d of testing, all Diptera were completely eliminated in the 10.0 ug/L treatments.

Previous research examining bioavailability of synthetic pyrethroids to aquatic species reported that test organisms accumulate greater levels when allowed to enter sediments than when placed in the water column above the sediments [e.g., 3]. The persistence of esfenvalerate in littoral sediments was determined by Heinis and Knuth [20] utilizing pond mesocosms. Sediment core samples contained 38.2 ng/goc esfenvalerate 1 d after application and 5.59 ng/goc after 354 d. Although benthic sediments in lentic ecosystems are somewhat more stable than in lotic ecosystems, the two habitats share somewhat similar benthic

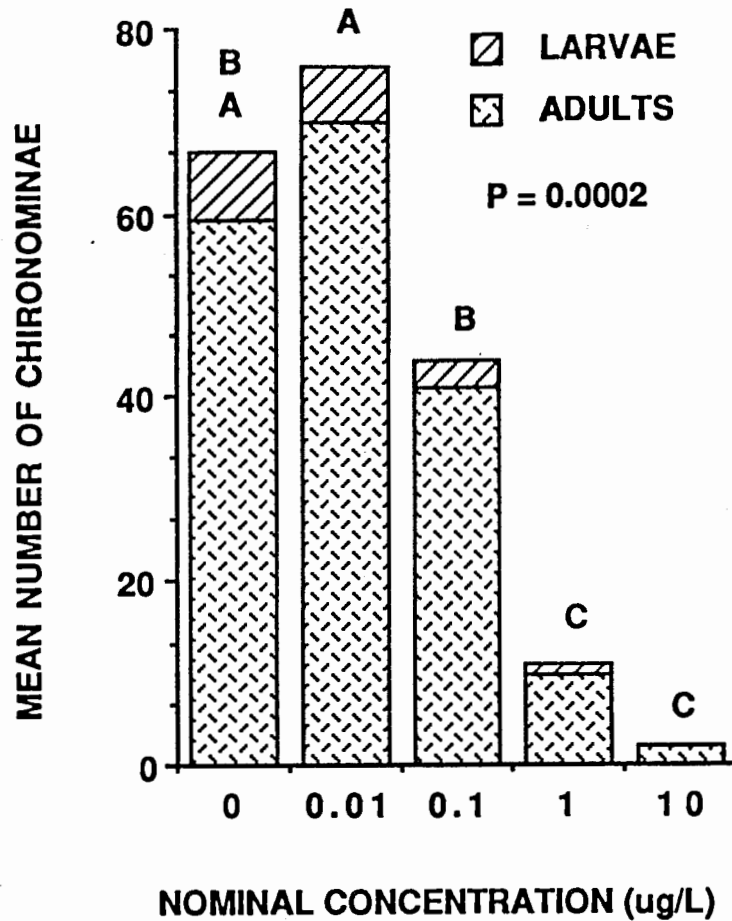


Figure 1.9. Mean number of Chironominae (Diptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

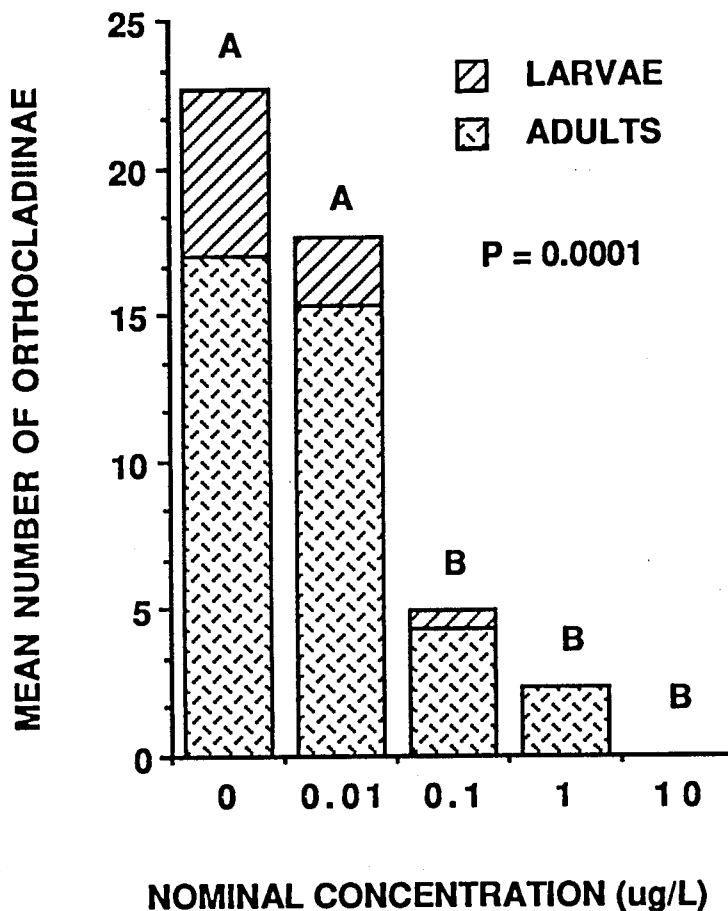


Figure 1.10. Mean number of Orthocladiinae (Diptera) in stream microcosms exposed to fenvalerate. Analysis is based on combined densities of adults and immatures. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Treatments with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$)-analyzed by Fisher's LSD procedure.

and detrital communities. Therefore, the adsorption of fenvalerate by plants and sediments in pond mesocosms [19,20,28] may also occur in streams and rivers. As riffle insect communities utilize contaminated sediments and organic matter for case-building materials or nutrients, the ability of fenvalerate to biotransfer, directly or indirectly from these materials to subsequent trophic levels, becomes an important long-term environmental concern.

Conclusions

The impact of fenvalerate on lotic ecosystems depends on the magnitude and duration of exposure. Under actual field conditions, riffle insect communities would be exposed to fenvalerate during agricultural runoff, aerial drift, and accidental spills. Previous studies reported runoff from experimental plots contained concentrations ranging from 0.2 to 39.7 ug/L fenvalerate [29]. Aqueous concentrations in tidal creeks reached 0.106 ug/L fenvalerate following a 48 h low-intensity rainfall on cultivated fields [30]. The initial fenvalerate pulse dose during this study simulated short-term exposures and indicated that concentrations above 1.0 ug/L fenvalerate will significantly increase drift from impacted areas.

Because most field exposures would be episodic events, the continuous fenvalerate exposures during this 30-d test

subjected riffle insect communities to worst case conditions. The difference between nominal and actual concentrations in the stream microcosms may have resulted from the chemical partitioning to organic matter or sediments present in the microcosms [c.f., 20,30]. Therefore, the riffle insect communities actually exhibited slightly greater sensitivity to fenvalerate than suggested by the nominal concentrations used in the discussion above. Following the 30-d test period density reductions were significant for *C. sabulosa* in the 0.01 ug/L treatment, making a community-level, no observable effect concentration (NOEC) for fenvalerate impossible to determine. However, as concentrations increased from 0.01 to 0.1 ug/L fenvalerate, eight core taxa experienced significant density reductions and *C. sabulosa* was completely eliminated. Except for a significant decrease in Chironominae densities, core taxa appeared unaffected by an increase from 0.1 to 1.0 ug/L fenvalerate. With the exception of a two *H. morosa* pupae, and solitary *S. parva*, *Pycnopsyche* sp., and Limoniinae (Diptera: Tipulidae) larvae remaining in the 10.0 ug/L microcosms following the 30-d test period, riffle insect communities were completely eliminated as nominal concentrations increased from 1.0 to 10.0 ug/L fenvalerate.

Streams and rivers are influenced by xenobiotic disturbances from the point of origin and continue downstream, essentially linking the entire system. Because

the type, intensity, and duration of pesticide exposures can potentially influence a multitude of biotic and abiotic factors, toxicity testing protocols for lotic ecosystems will be difficult to standardize. Toxicity tests that are applicable on a regional basis, provide environmentally realistic results, and are not economically inappropriate for the pesticide registration program must be considered. Laboratory-based, stream microcosm tests provide replicable, community-level predictions that are conveniently applied to site-specific communities under a variety of exposure conditions.

References

1. Bradbury, S. P. and J. R. Coats. 1982. Toxicity of fenvalerate to bobwhite quail (*Colinus virginianus*), including brain and liver residues associated with mortality. *J. Toxicol. Environ. Health.* 10:307-319.
2. Casida, J. E., D. W. Gammon, A. H. Glickman and L. J. Lawrence. 1983. Mechanisms of selective action of pyrethroid insecticides. *Ann. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 23:413-437.
3. Coats, J. R., D. M. Symonik, S. P. Bradbury, S. D. Dyer, L. K. Timson and G. J. Atchison. 1989. Toxicology of synthetic pyrethroids in aquatic organisms: an overview. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:671-679.
4. Elliott, M., N. F. Janes and C. Potter. 1978. The future of pyrethroids in insect control. *Ann. Rev. Entomol.* 23:443-69.
5. Harris, C. R. and S. A. Turnbull. 1978. Laboratory studies on the contact toxicity and activity in soil of four pyrethroid insecticides. *Can. Ent.* 110:285-288.
6. Harris, C. R., R. A. Chapman and C. Harris. 1981. Laboratory studies on the persistence and behavior in soil of four pyrethroid insecticides. *Can. Ent.* 113:685-694.
7. Day, K. E. 1989. Acute, chronic and sublethal effects of synthetic pyrethroids on freshwater zooplankton. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:411-416.
8. Mokry, L. E. and K. D. Hoagland. 1990. Acute toxicities of five synthetic pyrethroid insecticides to *Daphnia magna* and *Ceriodaphnia dubia*. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 9:1045-1051.
9. Day, K. E. and N. K. Kaushik. 1987. An assessment of the chronic toxicity of the synthetic pyrethroid, fenvalerate, to *Daphnia galeata mendotae*, using life tables. *Environ. Pollut. (Series A)* 44:13-26.
10. Jarvinen, A. W., D. K. Tanner and E. R. Kline. 1988. Toxicity of chlorpyrifos, endrin, or fenvalerate to fathead minnows following episodic or continuous exposure. *Ecotox. Environ. Safety.* 15:78-95.

11. Bradbury, S. P., J. R. Coats and J. M. McKim. 1985. Differential toxicity of two fenvalerate formulations in fathead minnows (*Pimephales promelas*). *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 4:533-541.
12. Hansen, D. J., L. R. Goodman, J. C. Moore and P. K. Higdon. 1983. Effects of the synthetic pyrethroids AC 222,705, permethrin and fenvalerate on sheephead minnows in early life stage toxicity tests. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 2:251-258.
13. Clark, J. R., L. R. Goodman, P. W. Borthwick, J. M. Patrick, Jr., G. M. Cripe, P. M. Moody, J. C. Moore and E. M. Lores. 1989. Toxicity of pyrethroids to marine invertebrates and fish: a literature review and test results with sediment-sorbed chemicals. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:393-401.
14. National Research Council. 1981. *Testing for the Effects of Chemicals on Ecosystems*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
15. Cairns, J., Jr. 1983. Are single species toxicity tests alone adequate for estimating environmental hazards? *Hydrobiologia* 100:47-57.
16. Kimball, K. D. and S. A. Levin. 1985. Limitations of laboratory bioassays: the need for ecosystem-level testing. *BioScience* 35:165-171.
17. Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1985. *Multispecies Toxicity Testing*. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, NY.
18. Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1986. *Community Toxicity Testing*. STP 920. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA.
19. Webber, E. C., W. G. Deutsch, D. R. Bayne and W. C. Seesock. 1992. Ecosystem-level testing of a synthetic pyrethroid insecticide in aquatic mesocosms. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:87-105.
20. Heinis, L. J. and M. L. Knuth. 1992. The mixing, distribution and persistence of esfenvalerate within littoral enclosures. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:11-25.
21. Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Structural alterations in aquatic insect communities exposed to copper in laboratory streams. *Environm. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:715-722.

22. Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1991. Multispecies toxicity tests using indigenous organisms: predicting the effects of complex effluents in streams. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 20:103-112.
23. Neiderlehner, B. R., K. W. Pontasch, J. R. Pratt and J. Cairns, Jr. 1990. Field evaluation of predictions of environmental effects from a multispecies-microcosm toxicity test. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 19:62-71.
24. Pontasch, K. W., B. R. Niederlehner and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Comparisons of single-species, microcosm and field responses to a complex effluent. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:521-532.
25. Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Establishing and maintaining laboratory-based microcosms of riffle insect communities: their potential for multispecies toxicity tests. *Hydrobiologia* 175:49-60.
26. Barton, D. R. and R. R. Wallace. 1979. The effects of an experimental spillage of oil sands tailings on benthic invertebrates. *Envir. Pollut.* 18:305-312.
27. Pontasch, K. W., and M. A. Brusven. 1988. Macroinvertebrate response to a gasoline spill in Wolf Lodge Creek, Idaho, USA. *Arch. Hydrobiol.* 113(1):41-60.
28. Lozano, S. J., S. L. O'Halloran, K. W. Sargent and J. C. Brazner. 1992. Effects of esfenvalerate on aquatic organisms in littoral enclosures. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:35-47.
29. Smith, S., T. E. Reagan, J. L. Flynn and G. H. Willis. 1983. Azinphosmethly and fenvalerate runoff loss from a sugarcane-insect IPM system. *J. Environ. Qual.* 12:534-537.
30. Baughman, D. S., D. W. Moore and G. I. Scott. 1989. A comparison and evaluation of field and laboratory toxicity tests with fenvalerate on an estuarine crustacean. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:417-429.

CHAPTER TWO

AQUATIC MACROINVERTEBRATE COLONIZATION OF ARTIFICIAL
SUBSTRATES FOR USE IN STREAM MICROCOSM TESTS

ABSTRACT

Colonized artificial substrates are utilized to stock stream microcosms with aquatic macroinvertebrates during multispecies toxicity tests. We investigated the minimum time period necessary for artificial substrates to reach equilibrium in terms of abundances and kinds of colonizing organisms.

Macroinvertebrate communities were colonized in rock-filled plastic containers secured to wooden frames previously anchored to the natural stream bottom. Five substrates were sampled weekly for seven weeks to determine abundances and number of taxa present.

Maximum species richness was reached by week one. Total density significantly increased ($p \leq 0.05$) during each of the first four sampling periods. A major flood event in week five reduced both species richness and total density. Eleven of fifteen core taxa reached density equilibrium on or before week three, suggesting a three week period is sufficient for colonizing an assemblage of macroinvertebrates for use in stream microcosm tests.

Keywords: Artificial substrates, Colonization,
Streams, Macroinvertebrates

INTRODUCTION

The need to accurately predict aquatic ecosystem response to chemical exposure prompted the development of multispecies toxicity tests utilizing communities indigenous to potential receiving ecosystems (c.f., Cairns 1985, 1986). Artificial substrates previously colonized by riffle insect communities are often used to stock stream microcosms during multispecies toxicity tests (e.g., Clements *et al.* 1988; Pontasch *et al.* 1989; Pontasch and Cairns 1989, 1991). Rosenberg and Resh (1982) described several artificial substrate types and listed advantages and disadvantages of their use in benthic macroinvertebrate studies. Two disadvantages that limit the usefulness of artificial substrates in obtaining test organisms for multispecies toxicity tests include: 1) lengthy colonization periods increase the possibility of vandalism, spate, drought or burial; and 2) the time periods required for populations to reach equilibrium levels are generally unknown. An understanding of macroinvertebrate colonization dynamics is necessary to reduce colonization periods while providing an assemblage of organisms similar to natural stream communities. In addition, macroinvertebrate densities sufficient to statistically determine treatment responses are essential during stream microcosm toxicity tests.

Despite differences in total number of macroinvertebrates colonizing rock trays placed at the same

site during consecutive seasons, Clements *et al.* (1989) observed macroinvertebrate densities leveling off within two to three weeks each year and suggested that longer periods would simply increase the possibility of sampling device disturbance. Similarly, DePauw *et al.* (1986) found that a three week colonization period was adequate for collecting both early and late colonizers. However, Shaw and Minshall (1980) reported that although the total number of colonizing invertebrates leveled-off 32 days after artificial substrate introduction, maximum densities of some taxa may not be reached during a 30-day period. In addition, certain taxa often selectively colonize artificial substrates (e.g., Minshall and Minshall 1977, Pontasch and Cairns 1989) causing differences in proportional abundance for some taxa when compared to natural substrate communities.

Variability in substrate complexity, current velocity, and allochthonous inputs within lotic ecosystems causes differences in biotic and abiotic conditions (e.g., Perry and Schaeffer 1987), and influences riffle insect community structure and function (Rabeni and Minshall 1977, Reice 1980). Therefore, optimal colonization periods for artificial substrates at a given site are difficult to predetermine. The purpose of this study was to: 1) determine the minimum colonization period necessary to maximize species richness and achieve equilibrium densities; and, 2) compare the proportional contribution of various

functional feeding groups to determine if artificial substrate communities reflect the natural stream community.

Materials and Methods

Study Area

The Volga River is a first to third order stream in northeast Iowa that follows a ~120.0 km course to its confluence with the Turkey River. During normal flow conditions the stream at the colonization site was ~16.2 m wide, ~22 cm deep, and current velocity was approximately 77 cm/s. Substrate was dominated by cobbles (6-13 cm) 50% embedded in pebbles (2-6 cm). A major flood event occurred during the fifth week of colonization. Although anchoring techniques prevented artificial substrate loss, a considerable amount of coarse sand and small pebbles (0.2-1 cm) were deposited in and around the artificial substrates.

Macroinvertebrate Colonization

Macroinvertebrates were colonized in rock-filled (2-6 cm) plastic containers (10.6 x 10.6 x 8.3 cm) with six circular holes (12 mm dia.) in each side. The artificial substrates were secured to wooden frames previously anchored to the stream bottom with iron rods and concrete blocks. Five substrates were randomly removed weekly for seven consecutive weeks by placing a dip-net (mesh size 350 microns) behind the substrate as it was transferred to a sampling bucket. The artificial substrate contents were

then strained through a sieve (mesh size 500 microns) and the remaining macroinvertebrates and debris were preserved in 70% ETOH. Natural substrate samples (Hess sampler) were also taken on week six to determine species richness and abundance of natural benthic organisms. The contents of both sample types were sorted by hand using a 2X magnification lens. With the exception of Chironomidae (Diptera), aquatic insects were identified to the lowest possible taxonomic unit using appropriate keys, and species-abundances per sample were determined. In addition, water chemistry (pH, conductivity, dissolved oxygen, hardness, alkalinity) and other stream parameters (temperature, depth, width, current velocity) were monitored at weekly intervals.

Data Analysis

Taxa with mean densities greater than three per artificial substrate in any week were considered a core taxon. Density differences among weeks for each core taxon were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's least significant difference procedure (LSD) for the separation of means (see Appendix B). Species-abundance data from Hess samples were not directly compared to artificial substrate samples because of differences between surface area and volume of the two sample types. However, comparisons based on proportional contribution to total numbers by taxon and functional feeding group were examined using the functional classification described in Merritt and Cummins (1984).

Weekly functional group percentages were analyzed by one-way ANOVA, and Fisher's LSD procedure was employed to determine differences among weeks.

Results and Discussion

Artificial Substrate Colonization

Similar conditions existed in the stream throughout the seven week colonization period (Table 2.1). The artificial substrates were colonized by 28 insect taxa representing six orders. Species richness reached equilibrium by week one, was reduced in week five following the flood, and peaked in week six (Figure 2.1). Wise and Molles (1979) reported species accrual in duplicate wire baskets was most rapid during the first day and appeared to reach equilibrium by day nine. Clements *et al.* (1989) conducted two colonization studies during similar seasons in consecutive years. In the first study species equilibrium was reached by week two, but the following year species equilibrium was not reached until day 28. These studies suggest riffle insect communities can quickly reach species equilibrium, but colonization dynamics are subject to various site-specific and seasonal fluctuations. Due to the flood event during week five, the time period necessary for total macroinvertebrate abundance to reach equilibrium (i.e. maintain maximum densities in two consecutive weeks) could not be determined. Total macroinvertebrate abundance significantly increased each

Table 2.1. Mean current velocity, depth, and water chemistry data collected weekly from the Volga River, Iowa.

Parameter	Colonization Period (week)						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Water Temp.							
(°C)	24.0	26.0	23.0	22.0	18.5	19.0	21.0
DO							
(mg/L O ₂)	8.9	N.A.	7.2	8.8	8.4	8.7	8.6
Conductivity							
(uMHOS)	600	550	525	580	600	580	600
pH							
[H ⁺]	8.0	8.3	8.0	6.6	8.0	8.0	8.0
Hardness							
(mg/L CaCO ₃)	295	258	286	286	323	310	281
Alkalinity							
(mg/L CaCO ₃)	N.A.	162	165	176	165	173	157
Mean Depth							
(cm)	21.7	20.3	20.0	21.2	45.6	26.7	18.3
Mean C.V.							
(cm/s)	73.3	44.1	50.5	54.9	85.3	78.3	64.7

N.A. = Not Available

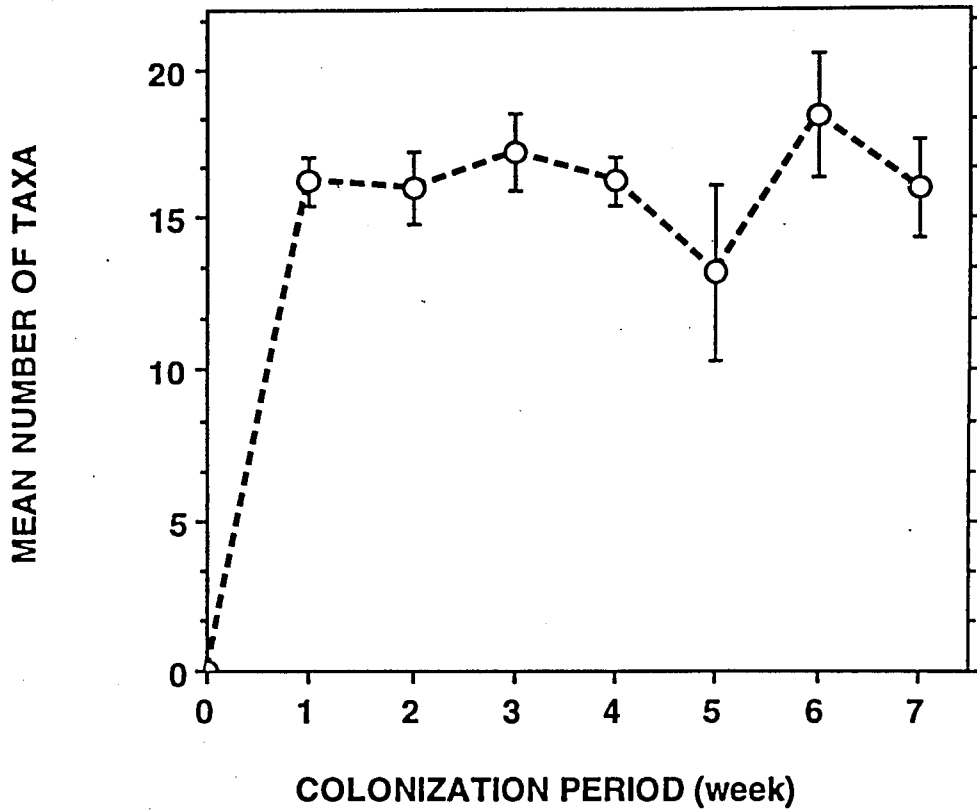


Figure 2.1. Mean number of taxa per artificial substrate during a seven week colonization study. Each point represents the mean \pm standard deviation.

week for the first four sampling periods, but the flood event reduced total numbers below week one densities (Figure 2.2). The riffle insect community recolonized the artificial substrates in weeks six and seven to numbers similar to those obtained in weeks one and two, respectively. Fifteen core taxa from four orders were included in the statistical analysis. The densities of three core taxa apparently stabilized in week one and an additional eight core taxa reached density equilibrium by week three. Of the remaining core taxa, three taxa had not reached density equilibrium but were well established by week three. The final core taxon reached density equilibrium by week six. These findings suggests a three week artificial substrates colonization period is adequate in obtaining macroinvertebrate densities for use in stream microcosm tests. Separate analyses for each core taxa are listed in Table 2.2, and are discussed below.

The mayfly *Isonychia bicolor* (Ephemeroptera: Oligoneuriidae), a filter-feeder known to selectively colonize the substrates used in this research (Pontasch et al. 1989, Pontasch and Cairns 1989), significantly increased in numbers during each of the first four sampling periods. After near elimination from the artificial substrates in week five, *I. bicolor* steadily recolonized the substrates but had not regained preflood densities by week seven. Mayfly core taxa also included *Stenonema* spp.

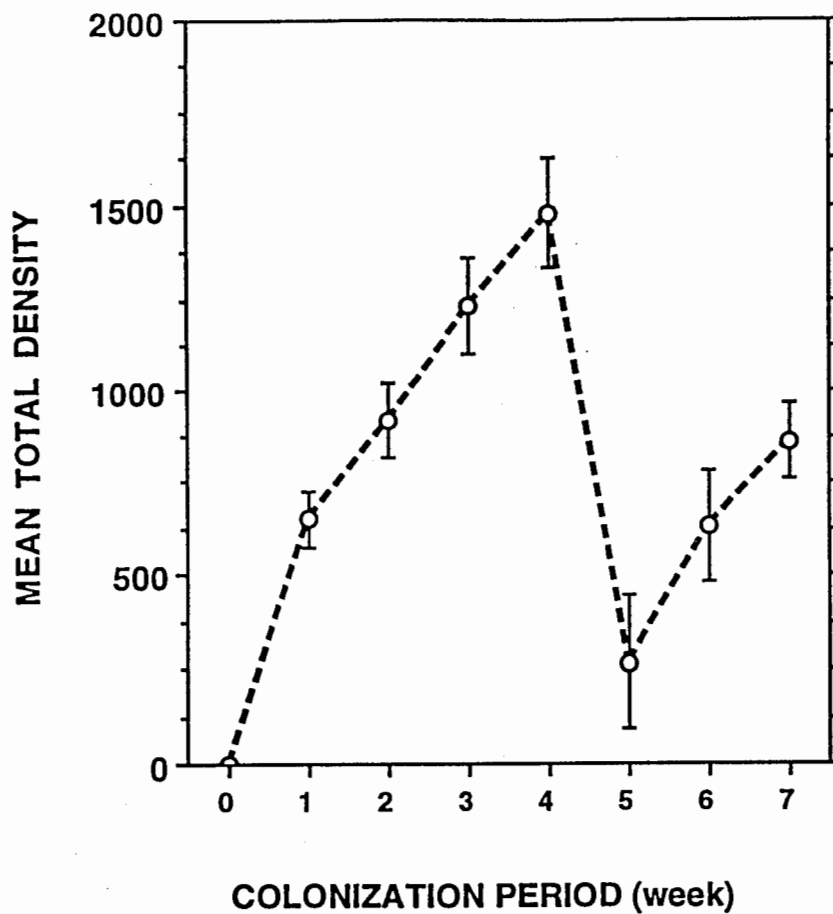


Figure 2.2. Total macroinvertebrate abundance per artificial substrate during a seven week colonization study. Each point represents the mean \pm standard deviation.

Table 2.2. Core taxa colonizing artificial substrates at weekly intervals. Data are means followed by standard error. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Means with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$) based on Fisher's LSD procedure. CF = collector filterers; CG = collector-gatherers; SC = scrapers; PR = predators.

Taxon	Colonization Period (week)							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Functional Group								
P value								
<u>Isonychia bicolor</u>	DE	C	B	A	E	CD	B	
(CF)	0.0001	15±3.14	60±6.59	152±10.1	235±13.6	5.0±5.6	46±10.3	121±24.4
<u>Stenonema</u> spp.	D	CD	AB	A	D	CD	BC	
(SC)	0.0002	4.4±1.33	23±5.70	61±10.9	68±9.59	2.4±2.43	11±2.02	37±15.3
<u>Baetis</u> spp.	B	B	B	A	B	A	A	
(CG)	0.0001	63±10.1	155±7.98	204±11.9	238±44.2	25±5.94	193±28.6	231±28.6
<u>Ephoron</u> spp.	BC	A	AB	BC	C	C	C	
(CG)	0.0007	8.8±2.50	29±5.84	20±9.37	6.8±3.07	1.4±0.87	2.0±0.71	2.0±1.10

Table 2.2 cont.

Taxon Functional Group P value	Colonization Period (week)						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<u>Caenis tardata</u>	D	CB	A	AB	CD	CD	D
(CG) 0.0001	7.6±1.67	30±7.04	51±12.4	44±5.22	13±4.74	15±1.76	8.4±2.14
<u>Tricorythodes</u> sp.	B	A	A	A	B	B	B
(CG) 0.0001	2.2±0.49	9.6±1.81	12±2.11	11±2.36	4.2±0.80	2.2±0.80	0.0±0.0
<u>Stenelmis parva</u>	BC	BC	B	BC	B	A	A
(CG) 0.0001	2.6±0.75	2.4±0.69	0.6±0.60	4.2±1.46	4.6±1.47	8.6±2.16	11±0.93
<u>H. morosa</u>	B	B	B	A	C	BC	B
(CF) 0.0001	199±21.4	240±5.25	281±49.4	431±48.8	54±27.1	106±17.0	201±15.3
<u>Cheumatopsyche</u> sp.	C	BC	AB	A	D	D	C
(CF) 0.0001	97±12.3	124±8.62	143±21.3	174±2.14	19±15.7	40±8.87	95±10.3
<u>Chimarra</u> sp.	C	BC	AB	A	BC	C	BC
(CF) 0.0388	4.8±2.22	9.8±2.18	19±6.02	23±9.00	9.8±2.96	3.8±0.37	6.0±2.19
<u>Hydroptila</u> sp.	A	B	BC	BC	D	CD	BCD
(SC) 0.0001	37±8.81	20±4.41	13±2.83	14±3.97	0.2±0.20	3.4±0.81	9.2±1.50

Table 2.2 cont.

Taxon Functional Group	Colonization Period (week)							
	P value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chironominae		BC	BC	A	ABC	BC	AB	BC
(CG)	0.0255	95±9.43	118±21.3	187±35.2	140±21.7	99±19.1	149±19.4	85±13.6
Orthoclaadiinae		A	A	A	A	B	B	AB
(CG)	0.0127	45±7.31	43±10.2	39±3.81	46±5.19	22±3.81	21±4.68	30±1.67
Tanypodinae		B	A	A	B	B	B	B
(PR)	0.0009	10±1.69	25±6.28	31±8.26	9.6±3.19	4.4±0.87	10±2.93	6.0±1.26
<u>Simulium</u> sp.		A	BC	BCD	AB	CD	CD	BCD
(CF)	0.0008	57±9.89	31±9.52	19±6.79	35±10.9	1.2±0.58	12±4.44	16±7.40

(Heptageniidae), a common scraper, represented by *S. terminatum* and *S. modestum*. Both species achieved equilibrium densities by week three, but were significantly reduced in week five and had not regained preflood numbers by week seven.

Collector-gathering mayflies common to the artificial substrates included *Baetis* spp. (Baetidae), *Ephoron* spp. (Polymitarcyidae), *Caenis tardata*. (Caenidae), and *Tricorythodes* sp. (Tricorythidae). The majority of *Baetis* spp. were *B. intercalaris*, but *B. flavistriga* and *B. armillatus* were also present. All *Baetis* spp. reached equilibrium densities by week four, but were significantly reduced by the flood the following week. *Baetis* spp. quickly recolonized the artificial substrates and regained density equilibrium by week six.

Burrowing mayflies including *Ephoron leukon* and *Ephoron album* reached density equilibrium by the second week of colonization, but numbers then began to steadily decline. *Ephoron* spp. densities following the flood were significantly lower than those recorded in weeks two and three, and remained in low numbers during subsequent sampling periods. *Tricorythodes* sp. and *Caenis tardata* reached density equilibrium in weeks two and three, respectively, and were significantly reduced by the flood event. Following the flood, *C. tardata* remained in low numbers but *Tricorythodes* sp. densities continued to decline

and no organisms were present in the artificial substrates by week seven. *Ephoron* spp., *C. tardata*, and *Tricorythodes* sp. are known to inhabit benthic silts and sediments (Merritt and Cummins 1984, Williams 1984, Hilsenhoff 1991), but successfully colonized artificial substrates containing minimal amounts of sediment at the beginning of this study. These taxa were then collected in reduced numbers following the flood when a habitat apparently more suitable for their existence was created as sediment was deposited in and around the substrates. The reduction in *Tricorythodes* sp. numbers in the artificial substrates may have been due to adult emergence; nymphs develop rapidly during the spring and early summer (Hilsenhoff 1991). *C. tardata* life cycles are poorly understood and explanations for their density reduction remain uncertain. However, the flood event may have reduced both *C. tardata* and *Tricorythodes* sp. densities in the natural substrate to levels that could not be reestablished by downstream drift or immigration from the hyporheic zone during subsequent sampling periods. The reduction in *Ephoron* spp. densities prior to the flood may have resulted from adult emergence or an inability to compete for nutrients and interstitial space in the artificial substrates. The later explanation appears more probable due to the large number of early instar nymphs collected in weeks two and three.

Riffle beetles (Coleoptera) were represented by a single core taxa, *Stenelmis parva* (Elmidae). Both larval and adult *S. parva* were present in low numbers during initial sampling periods and did not significantly increase until after the flooding event. Riffle beetles prefer the hyporheic zone (Williams 1984) and partial burial of the artificial substrates by sand and small pebbles provided this type of habitat. Greater riffle beetle densities due to partial burial of substrates was also reported by Pontasch and Cairns (1989).

The group of aquatic insects colonizing the artificial substrates in the highest densities were caddisflies (Trichoptera). *H. morosa* (Hydropsychidae) and *Cheumatopsyche* sp. (Hydropsychidae) reached equilibrium densities in weeks four and three, respectively. Both genera were significantly reduced by the flood in week five to densities below those achieved in week one. The hydropsychids steadily recolonized the substrates and by week seven densities were similar to those in week one. Pontasch and Cairns (1989) previously reported abundant hydropsychid colonization of rock-filled artificial substrates. *Chimarra* sp. (Philopotamidae), another collector-filtering trichopteran, was well established by week three and significantly reduced by the flood event in week five. *Chimarra* sp. numbers continued to decline and never regained preflood densities. A herbivorous caddisfly,

Hydroptila sp. (Hydroptilidae), reached equilibrium densities by week one and then steadily declined in subsequent weeks. The apparent success of hydroptilids as early colonizers in this study may have resulted from an abundance of early instars present in the drift. The first four hydroptilid instars are free-living and have no cases; the sedentary fifth instars construct retreats attached to stable, smooth-surface substrates (McAuliffe 1984).

Therefore, early instar *Hydroptila* sp. are more likely to enter the drift, increasing the possibility of recolonization at downstream locations, and the *Hydroptila* sp. colonizing the artificial substrates during this study were primarily early instars. The significant reduction of Hydroptilid densities in week two may have been caused by the abundance of net-spinning hydropsychids competing for attachment sites for their retreats. *Hydroptila* sp. densities remained low throughout subsequent sampling periods.

The most abundant dipterans colonizing the artificial substrates were the chironomid subfamilies Chironominae, Orthocladiinae, and Tanypodinae (Chironomidae). Chironominae reached density equilibrium in week three, were significantly reduced by the flood, but regained preflood densities in week six. Orthocladiinae reached equilibrium densities in week one. Following a significant density reduction in week five, Orthocladiinae regained preflood

densities by week seven. Tanypodinae were well established by week two but a significant reduction occurred in week four prior to the flood. Tanypodinae remained in low numbers during subsequent sampling periods. Densities of another dipteran, the common black fly larvae *Simulium* sp. (Simuliidae), peaked by week one but densities were variable thereafter. *Simulium* sp. did experience a significant reduction in densities following the flood. Erman and Chouteau (1979) suggested that competition for substrate attachment between larger Simuliidae larvae and earlier instars results in the displacement of smaller organisms. Gersabeck and Merritt (1979) reported blackfly larvae colonized clean artificial substrates for approximately two weeks, then apparently vacated the substrates because accumulating materials (e.g., sediments, detritus, periphyton) hindered larval attachment. *Simulium* sp. larvae in this study were equally size classed in week one, but as densities decreased in subsequent weeks a majority of the remaining organisms were larger instars.

Natural and Artificial Substrate Comparisons

Natural and artificial substrate comparisons are based on the proportional abundances of four functional feeding groups including collector-filterers (CF), collector-gatherers (CG), scrapers (SC), and predators (PR). Hess sample data from week six suggest the artificial substrates did not provide a representative sample of some taxa in

terms of proportional abundances (Table 2.3). However, the number and kinds of species collected from both types of samples were identical. Collector-filterers from the natural substrate in week six represented $34 \pm 8.05\%$ of total numbers, but mean CF percentages in the artificial substrates over weeks one to four reached $55.0 \pm 5.11\%$ (Table 2.3). Collector-gatherers in the natural substrate achieved percentages (mean of $59 \pm 8.35\%$) substantially greater than in the artificial substrates (mean over weeks 1-4 of $37.4 \pm 4.62\%$). Scrapper percentages from the artificial substrates were comparable to Hess sample data, with the exception of weeks five and six, when densities were significantly reduced ($p \leq 0.05$) in the artificial substrates. Predators collected from the artificial substrates remained in low numbers throughout the study period and were not significantly different from natural substrate samples.

Prior to the flood event, artificial substrates projected into the water column and created habitats structurally different from the natural substrate which was dominated by small cobbles. Therefore, the artificial substrates were probably exposed to greater quantities of filterable organisms and detritus compared to the natural substrate, and consequently, CF selectively colonized the artificial substrates.

Table 2.3. Comparison of proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. Data are mean percentages followed by standard deviation. P value is from the overall ANOVA. Mean percentages with the same letter are not significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$) based on Fisher's LSD procedure. CF = collector-filterers; CG = collector-gatherers; SC = scrapers; PR = predators.

P value	Colonization Period (week)							Hess Sample
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
0.0001	AB	AB	B	A	C	C	AB	C
CF %	57±6.1	51±6.0	50±10.3	61±2.2	28±13.3	32±9.4	51±6.5	34±8.1
0.0001	C	C	C	C	A	AB	C	BC
CG %	34±6.6	42±4.5	41±7.9	32±4.3	69±12.9	63±8.7	42±7.8	59±8.4
0.0099	A	AB	A	A	C	C	A	AB
SC %	7±2.8	5±2.0	6±1.5	6±2.1	1±1.1	2±0.6	6±3.4	5±3.3
0.1076								
PR %	2±0.3	2±1.3	3±1.6	1±0.6	2±0.9	3±1.8	1±0.6	2±1.2

The partial burial of the artificial substrates by sediments deposited by the flood concealed the substrate interstices to some degree, thus reducing the amount of suspended nutrients available to silken nets or filtering appendages. Therefore, following the flood event, the artificial substrates were no longer selectively colonized by CF and resulted in substrate communities functionally more similar to the natural stream community.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Workers utilizing artificial substrates to obtain aquatic macroinvertebrates for testing purposes should consider shorter colonization periods to reduce potential disturbances. Although three dominant core taxa (*Baetis* spp., *I. bicolor*, and *H. morosa*) reached maximum densities after week three, all were well established by weeks one and two. Results from this study suggest artificial substrates colonized for three weeks will achieve maximum species richness and densities sufficient for determining treatment responses during a multispecies toxicity test. In addition, a three week colonization period may improve toxicity test results by colonizing taxa like *Simulium* sp., *Hydroptila* sp., and *Ephoron* sp., not abundant after longer periods, with densities sufficient for statistical analysis. However, utilizing short exposure periods will not safeguard artificial substrates from being selectively colonized by

certain taxa. Habitat conditions created by sediments deposited in and around the artificial substrates during the flood more closely simulated the natural substrate structure and significantly reduced selective colonization by CF. Riffle beetles numbers significantly increased following the flood, probably due to sediment deposition. This indicates that other CG insects common to the hyporheic zone (i.e. caenids, trichorythids) may be attracted to artificial substrates that more closely simulate natural benthic conditions. Artificial substrates colonized by aquatic macroinvertebrates will be more useful for stream microcosm studies when artificial substrate communities and natural stream communities achieve similar functional feeding group proportions. This research suggests that embedding artificial substrates in the natural stream bottom may result in more representative samples of the naturally occurring aquatic community and improve the predictive utility of stream microcosm tests.

References

- Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1985. *Multispecies Toxicity Testing*. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, NY.
- Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1986. *Community Toxicity Testing*. STP 920. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA.
- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Structural alterations in aquatic insect communities exposed to copper in laboratory streams. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:715-722.
- Clements, W. H., J. H. Hassel, D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Colonization, variability, and the use of substratum-filled trays for biomonitoring benthic communities. *Hydrobiologia*. 173:45-53.
- DePauw, N., D. Roels and A. P. Fontoura, 1986. Use of artificial substrates for standardized sampling of macroinvertebrates in the assessment of water quality by the Belgian Biotic Index. *Hydrobiologia*. 133:237-258.
- Erman, D. C. and W. C. Chouteau, 1979. Fine particulate organic carbon output from fens and its effect on benthic macroinvertebrates. *Oikos*. 32:409-415.
- Gersabeck, E. F. and R. W. Merritt, 1979. The effects of physical factors on the colonization of relocation behavior of immature black flies (Diptera: Simuliidae). *Environm. Entomol.* 8:34-39.
- Hilsenhoff, W. L. 1991. Diversity and classification of insects and Collembola. In: *Ecology and Classification of North American Freshwater Invertebrates*. Academic Press, Inc. pp. 593-663.
- McAuliffe, J. R. 1984. Competition for space, disturbance, and the structure of a benthic stream community. *Ecology*. 65(3):894-908.
- Merritt, G. W. and K. W. Cummins, 1984. *Aquatic Insects of North America*. Kendall-Hunt Pub., Dubuque, IA. 722 p.
- Minshall, G. W., and J. N. Minshall, 1977. Microdistribution of benthic invertebrates in a Rocky Mountain (USA) stream. *Hydrobiologia*. 55(3):231-249.

- Perry, J. A. and D. J. Schaeffer, 1987. The longitudinal distribution of riverine benthos: a river dis-continuum? *Hydrobiologia* 148:257-268.
- Pontasch, K. W., B. R. Niederlehner and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Comparisons of single-species, microcosm and field responses to a complex effluent. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:521-532.
- Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Establishing and maintaining laboratory-based microcosms of riffle insect communities: their potential for multispecies toxicity tests. *Hydrobiologia* 175:49-60.
- Pontasch, K. W. and J. Cairns, Jr. 1991. Multispecies toxicity tests using indigenous organisms: predicting the effects of complex effluents in streams. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 20:103-112.
- Rabeni, C. F. and G. W. Minshall, 1977. Factors affecting microdistribution of stream benthic insects. *Oikos* 29:33-43.
- Reice, S. R. 1980. The role of substratum in benthic macroinvertebrate microdistribution and litter decomposition in a woodland stream. *Ecology*. 61:580-590.
- Rosenberg, D. M. and V. H. Resh, 1982. The use of artificial substrates in the study of freshwater benthic macroinvertebrates. J. Cairns, Jr. (ed.) *Artificial Substrates*, Ann Arbor Science Pub. Ann Arbor, MI, pp 175-235.
- Shaw, S. W. and G. W. Minshall, 1980. Colonization of an introduced substrate by stream macroinvertebrates. *Oikos*. 34:259-271.
- Williams, D. D. 1984. The hyporheic zone as a habitat for aquatic insects and associated arthropods. V.H. Resh and D.M. Rosenberg (ed.) *The Ecology of Aquatic Insects*. Praeger Pub. pp 430-455.
- Wise, D. H. and M. C. Molles, Jr. 1979. Colonization of artificial substrates by stream insects: influence of substrate size and diversity. *Hydrobiologia*. 65:69-74.

CHAPTER THREE
COLONIZING RIFFLE INSECT COMMUNITIES FOR STREAM
MICROCOSM STUDIES: DECREASING LOGISTICAL CONSTRAINTS
AND IMPROVING ENVIRONMENTAL REALISM

ABSTRACT

We compared macroinvertebrate colonization of embedded and unembedded artificial substrates to determine which technique results in proportional abundances most similar to natural stream communities. In addition, artificial substrates precolonized with periphyton were compared to uncolonized substrates to determine if macroinvertebrate colonization periods could be reduced.

Riffle insect communities were colonized in rock-filled plastic containers with six circular holes in each side that were either uncolonized or precolonized with periphyton. These substrates were secured to embedded (~10 cm) and unembedded trays previously anchored in a riffle area of the Volga River, Iowa. Five substrates from each experimental group were sampled weekly for six weeks.

Species equilibrium was reached by week one and remained similar among all experimental groups in subsequent weeks. Unembedded substrates precolonized with periphyton had higher densities than uncolonized-unembedded substrates, but the difference was only significant on week one. Embedded substrates reduced selective colonization by collector-filterers, but, because substrates placed in the

water column better simulated the large cobbles which dominated the colonization site, unembedded substrates colonized riffle insect communities functionally more similar to the natural stream community.

Keywords: Artificial substrates, Riffle insects, Microcosms

INTRODUCTION

The need for more accurate predictions of xenobiotic impacts on aquatic ecosystems prompted the development of multispecies toxicity tests, capable of modeling ecological processes such as succession, immigration, and nutrient cycling (e.g., Cairns, 1985; 1986). Currently, pond mesocosm studies are becoming standardized and may be required by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) for registration of agricultural chemicals when single-species toxicity tests indicate potential hazards to aquatic ecosystems (Touart, 1988; SETAC, 1992). However, development and standardization of multispecies test procedures utilizing communities indigenous to streams and rivers has not progressed as rapidly. Artificial stream test systems currently available include outdoor mesocosms and indoor microcosms (c.f. Odum, 1984). Mesocosms are often expensive to construct, difficult to transport (therefore site-specific), and are susceptible to biological and climactic perturbation (Gillett, 1988). Laboratory-based microcosms provide a higher degree of investigator control and are easily adapted to evaluate various chemicals and/or particular trophic levels. However, laboratory-based systems require an assemblage of organisms derived from potential receiving ecosystems.

Riffle insects communities are frequently colonized in artificial substrates for use in stream microcosm toxicity

tests (e.g., Clements et al., 1988; Pontasch & Cairns, 1991; Chapter 1). Colonization often requires lengthy exposure periods, increasing the possibility of natural and anthropogenic perturbation. In addition, selective colonization by some species can result in test communities that are not representative of natural communities (e.g., Rosenberg & Resh, 1982; Pontasch & Cairns, 1989; Chapter 2); thereby, reducing the applicability of test results.

One objective of this research was to determine if macroinvertebrate colonization periods could be reduced by precolonizing the artificial substrates with periphyton. Periphyton communities are of major importance to some macroinvertebrate functional feeding groups (Cummins, 1973; 1974; Minshall, 1978; Lamberti & Moore, 1984). Artificial substrates, initially placed in a sampling location, are probably not good habitats for aquatic insects because sufficient periphytic food resources are not present. Pratt et al. (1989) reported periphyton assemblages achieved species equilibrium on polyurethane foam artificial substrates within 7 to 21 d. Consequently, the time period required for periphytic colonization of artificial substrates may inhibit initial aquatic macroinvertebrate colonization, and therefore, lengthen colonization periods.

A second objective of this research was to determine if selective colonization by some functional feeding groups could be reduced by embedding the artificial substrates in

the natural substrate. Aquatic insects have adapted specialized feeding mechanisms to process nutrients available in freshwater ecosystems (c.f., Sweeney, 1984). For example, caddisfly larvae of the family Hydropsychidae, mayflies of the family Oligoneuriidae, and black fly (Simuliidae) larvae are collector-filtering insects common in North American streams and rivers (Merritt & Cummins, 1984). Collector-filtering insects utilize specialized body parts or construct silken nets to filter food from the water column. Collector-filtering insects are often abundant when both quality and quantity of seston are high, such as in lake outlets and below impoundments (e.g., Wallace & Merritt, 1980). Tricorythid and caenid mayflies (Ephemeroptera), riffle beetles (Coleoptera: Elmidae), and several midges (Diptera: Chironomidae), are collector-gathering aquatic insects common to North American streams (Merritt & Cummins, 1984). Collector-gatherers are often abundant in the hyporheic zone where detritus accumulates in substrate interstices.

Benthic community trophic structure is potentially sensitive to environmental stressors and alterations in macroinvertebrate functional feeding groups are often used to detect disturbances (e.g., Wallace *et al.*, 1986; Clements *et al.*, 1988). Community-level effects may not be detected when utilizing artificial substrates that are selectively colonized by tolerant organisms or if sensitive species are

collected in low densities. Previous research suggests that detrital content (Culp *et al.*, 1983) and artificial substrate positioning (Mason *et al.*, 1973) influences macroinvertebrate colonization. Artificial substrates are usually positioned in the water column, exposing substrate interstices to higher current velocities and suspended detrital particles (Rabeni & Minshall, 1977). The passage of filterable organisms and detritus through the sampling device attracts collector-filterers and limits colonization by collector-gatherers common to the hyporheic zone (Benfield *et al.*, 1974; Minshall & Minshall, 1977; Shaw & Minshall, 1980; Pontasch & Cairns, 1989). Deposition of sediments in and around artificial substrates during riffle insect colonization has been shown to alter community structure, reducing collector-filterers and attracting taxa associated with the hyporheic zone (Pontasch & Cairns, 1989; Chapter 2). It was hypothesized that embedding the artificial substrates would decrease the amount of filterable nutrients passing through the sampling device and reduce selective colonization by collector-filterers. In addition, an increase in detrital accumulation in the substrate interstices should improve colonization by collector-gatherers.

This study tested four artificial substrate experimental groups including: 1) precolonized-embedded

(PE); 2) precolonized-unembedded (PU); 3) uncolonized-embedded (UE); and 4) uncolonized-unembedded (UU).

Materials and Methods

Colonization Site

Periphyton and macroinvertebrate communities were colonized on artificial substrates placed in a riffle area of the Volga River, Iowa. The Volga River is a first to third order stream in northeast Iowa that follows a ~120.0 km course. During normal flow conditions the stream at the colonization site was 20 cm deep, 15 cm wide, and current velocity was 66 cm sec⁻¹. Water chemistry parameters were periodically monitored (mean values: DO = 9.4 mg l⁻¹, pH = 7.9, hardness = 258 mg l⁻¹ CaCO₃, alkalinity = 155 mg l⁻¹ CaCO₃, conductivity = 490 uS cm⁻¹) and remained stable throughout the study. The natural substrate, composed of limestone and other carbonate rocks, was dominated by large cobbles (13-25 cm) unembedded by pebbles (2-6 cm).

Periphyton Precolonization

The artificial stream system used for periphyton precolonization consisted of 15 oval artificial streams (1.7 x 0.24 x 0.13 m channel) constructed of molded fiberglass. Two 120 cm Durotest Vita-lites^R supplied daylight-equivalent lighting. A headbox system supplied water at 300 ml min⁻¹ and a 13 cm standpipe maintained a 59 l volume in each artificial stream. Current (25 cm s⁻¹) was provided by a

0.25 hp electric motor turning paddlewheels attached to an iron rod.

Periphyton was colonized in the field on 150, 25 cm³ polyurethane foam units (PFUs). Following a 7 d colonization period, the PFUs were transported in an aerated cooler to the laboratory, their contents squeezed into a bucket, and the slurry strained through a sieve (mesh size 125 microns) to eliminate macroinvertebrates. The periphyton slurry (2 l) was added to each artificial stream and allowed to colonize rock (2-6 cm) filled plastic containers (10.6 x 10.6 x 8.3 cm) with six circular holes (18 mm dia.) in each side for six weeks.

Periphytic growth on cobbles in the natural source ecosystem was sampled throughout the precolonization period to determine natural periphytic biomass. In addition, five periphyton samples were collected weekly throughout the six-week precolonization period from initially sterile cobbles placed in the artificial streams. All periphyton samples were collected by scraping a $1.77 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$, $9.62 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$, or $1.96 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$ surface area with a bristle brush and then filtering the contents onto glass-fiber filter paper. The surface area collected depended on periphytic growth and ability to filter samples. Filter papers were placed in glass vials and frozen until analyzed. Chlorophyll a concentrations were determined with one-half of the filter paper and biomass (ash-free dry weight) determined from the

other. Analyses for chlorophyll a content and biomass were conducted as described in *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater* (APHA et. al, 1985).

Macroinvertebrate Colonization

Five sets of two wooden trays placed on the stream bottom were alternately positioned between five sets of two trays embedded (~8-10 cm deep) in the natural stream substrate (Figure 3.1). Unembedded wooden trays resembled those used in previous research (c.f., Clements *et al.*, 1989; Pontasch & Cairns, 1991; Chapters 1 & 2). Embedded trays consisted of plastic containers (10.6 cm x 10.6 cm x 8.3 cm) with six circular holes (18 mm dia.) in each side attached to a board (10 cm x 120 cm). The embedded design allowed rock-filled sampling baskets to be positioned inside identical containers previously embedded in the stream bottom. Ten embedded and ten unembedded wooden trays were anchored to the stream bottom with concrete blocks and iron rods.

Artificial substrates precolonized with periphyton were transported to the natural stream in aerated coolers. A total of 70 precolonized and 70 uncolonized artificial substrates were systematically placed in the embedded and unembedded wooden trays to ensure proper retrieval. Five substrates from each experimental group (PE, PU, UE, and UU) were randomly removed from the river at weekly intervals for six weeks by placing a dip-net (mesh size 200 microns)

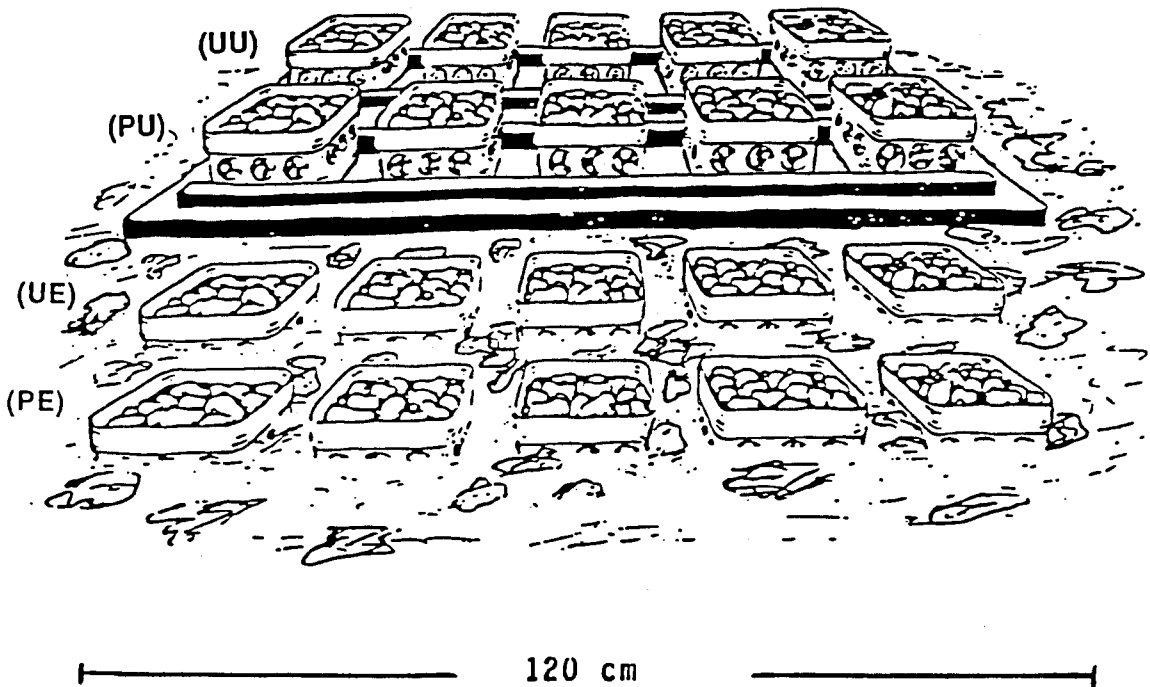


Figure 3.1. Schematic diagram of the four artificial substrate experimental groups: 1) precolonized-embedded (PE); 2) precolonized-unembedded (PU); 3) uncolonized-embedded (UE); and 4) uncolonized-unembedded (UU).

behind the substrate as it was transferred to a sampling bucket. Artificial substrate contents were strained through a sieve (mesh size 500 microns) and macroinvertebrates and remaining debris were preserved in 70% ETOH. Six natural substrate samples (Hess sampler) were taken on days 1 and 42 of colonization to determine abundance of benthic organisms in the natural substrate. All samples were sorted by hand using a 2X magnification lens. With the exception of Chironomidae (Diptera), which were identified to subfamily, aquatic insects were identified to genus or species, size classed, and enumerated.

Data Analysis

Taxa with mean densities greater than four in any experimental group on any sampling date were considered a core taxon. ANOVA was used to determine density differences between experimental groups. Fischer's least significant difference (LSD) procedure was employed for the separation of means (see Appendix C).

Species-abundance data from Hess samples were not directly compared to artificial substrate samples because of differences in surface area and volume of the two sample types. However, comparisons based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group were examined using the functional group classification described in Merritt & Cummins (1984). Differences in functional

group proportions were determined by ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test for the separation of means.

Results and Discussion

Periphytic Biomass and Chlorophyll a

The artificial streams seeded with periphyton were not capable of producing periphytic biomass and chlorophyll a content equal to the natural source ecosystem. Following the six-week precolonization period, periphyton appeared well established in the stream microcosms, but, a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) remained between the two periphytic communities. The natural periphytic community contained a mean chlorophyll a content and ash-free dry weight (AFDW) of 331.2 ± 133.6 and $25,806.5 \pm 13,709.1$ mg m^{-2} , respectively. Periphyton sampled from the artificial streams contained a mean chlorophyll a content of 3.7 ± 2.0 mg m^{-2} and an AFDW of $1,201.9 \pm 684.8$ mg m^{-2} . Although the artificial streams did not establish periphyton biomass equal to the natural source ecosystem, the periphyton precolonized on the artificial substrates appeared to have provided a sufficient food source for riffle insects (see below).

Macroinvertebrate Colonization

Species equilibrium. Species equilibrium in all artificial substrate types was reached by week one (Figure 3.2). PE substrates were colonized by a slightly greater number of taxa toward the end of the study, but the

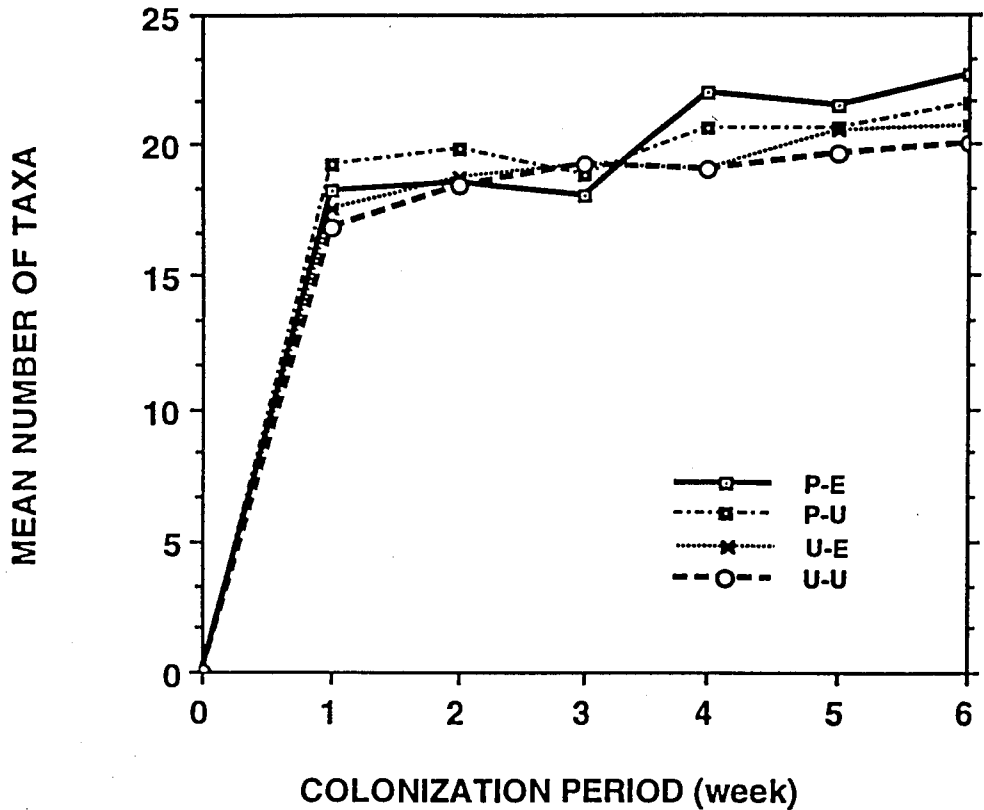


Figure 3.2. Mean number of taxa per substrate colonizing each experimental group over a six week colonization period. PE = precolonized-embedded; PU = precolonized-unembedded; UE = uncolonized-embedded; UU = uncolonized-unembedded.

difference was only significant ($p \leq 0.05$) in week four, and only between the two substrate types not precolonized with periphyton.

Effects of precolonizing substrates. During the six week macroinvertebrate colonization period, 43 taxa representing nine orders were collected from the artificial substrates. Total macroinvertebrate density in the PU substrates was consistently higher than the UU substrates. However, the difference was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) only for week one (Figure 3.3). In week one, precolonized periphyton apparently provided the PU substrates with a food source capable of attracting macroinvertebrate colonists. By week two, natural periphytic communities appeared to be well established on the UU substrates and macroinvertebrates reached densities similar to the PU substrates. These results indicate precolonizing substrates with periphyton may be beneficial if a one week macroinvertebrate colonization period is desired. No significant differences in total macroinvertebrate density occurred between the PE and UE substrates throughout the study. Eighteen taxa reached densities sufficient to be considered core taxa (mean ≥ 4 individuals per substrate), and separate analyses for each are reported below.

The mayflies (Ephemeroptera) were represented by eight core taxa (Table 3.1). PU substrates were consistently colonized by greater *Isonychia bicolor* (Oligoneuriidae)

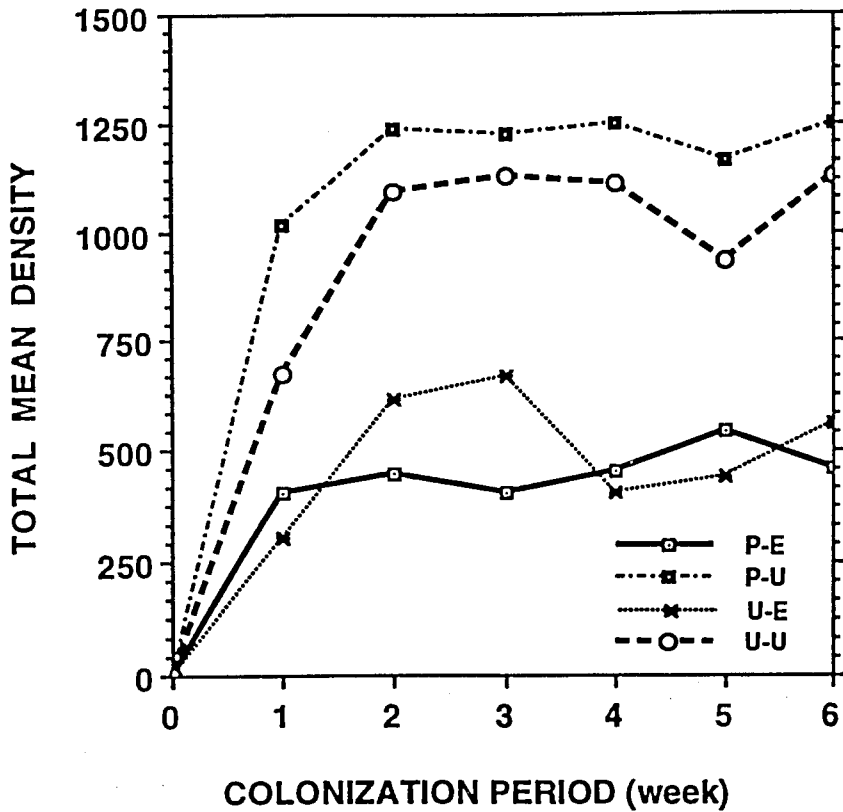


Figure 3.3. Mean macroinvertebrate abundance per substrate from each experimental group over a six week colonization period. PE = precolonized-embedded; PU = precolonized-unembedded; UE = uncolonized-embedded; UU = uncolonized-unembedded.

Table 3.1. Ephemeroptera core taxa colonizing four artificial substrate types at weekly intervals. Data are means followed by standard error. Feeding groups: CF = collector filterers; CG = collector-gatherers; SC = scrapers. Substrate types: PU = precolonized unembedded; UU = uncolonized unembedded; PE = precolonized embedded; UE = uncolonized embedded.

Taxon	Substrate type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Isonychia</u>	PU	108±9.22	144±31.6	139±4.93	220±37.1	222±29.7	211±46.5
<u>bicolor</u>	UU	74±13.7	77±11.1	157±8.56	197±17.1	178±27.6	205±23.6
(CF)	PE	55±16.8	58±15.1	27±4.73	46±21.3	53±26.1	45±20.6
	UE	66±20.6	119±30.9	94±28.4	56±37.4	38±14.5	68±36.1
<u>Baetis</u>	PU	156±19.1	238±31.6	156±4.93	138±37.1	46±29.7	27±46.5
<u>intercalaris</u>	UU	102±18.2	185±29.9	154±33.1	122±20.4	35±12.2	33±6.39
(CG)	PE	51±11.9	44±15.2	11±4.40	20±5.00	12±5.00	5.8±2.46
	UE	24±3.40	78±9.44	29±10.8	14±5.81	6.3±2.10	4.8±1.44

Table 3.1 cont.

Taxon Feeding Group	Substrate Type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Baetis</u>	PU	23±5.33	5.3±0.48	6.0±1.82	3.0±1.91	4.3±1.31	17±7.55
<u>armillatus</u>	UU	14±3.61	4.8±2.50	5.5±1.26	7.3±1.89	5.5±2.22	13±2.22
(CG)	PE	7.3±1.56	4.3±2.84	3.8±1.80	5.8±1.89	5.0±1.68	8.8±1.49
	UE	0.8±0.48	4.0±1.35	2.5±0.96	3.3±1.03	4.5±1.89	3.3±1.70
<u>Baetis</u>	PU	9.0±1.87	2.0±0.41	1.0±1.00	15±3.85	6.0±2.16	0.3±0.25
<u>flavistriga</u>	UU	7.5±4.63	5.8±0.85	12±3.07	11±5.00	11±7.77	8.0±3.56
(CG)	PE	3.5±1.55	0.5±0.50	0.3±0.25	5.5±3.52	1.0±0.58	2.3±0.25
	UE	2.0±1.35	1.8±1.44	3.3±1.60	2.8±1.38	3.3±2.25	2.3±1.31
<u>Stenonema</u>	PU	14±4.13	25±8.56	105±17.0	145±15.8	138±21.6	182±40.4
<u>terminatum</u>	UU	14±2.40	35±9.65	136±20.1	154±25.6	154±29.3	184±24.6
(SC)	PE	35±3.23	43±10.7	72±7.05	91±17.0	111±29.0	82±19.2
	UE	23±4.67	45±7.34	120±26.1	65±24.5	93±14.3	92±22.4

Table 3.1 cont.

Taxon Feeding Group	Substrate Type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Stenonema</u>	PU	3.5±0.65	14±8.46	14±6.80	21±5.07	46±12.0	48±3.16
<u>modestum</u>	UU	4.3±1.18	3.5±0.96	10±2.17	34±5.54	35±10.3	36±10.6
(CG)	PE	18±3.75	15±3.90	23±2.90	43±4.43	39±6.36	46±4.59
	UE	8.0±1.08	16±2.83	40±7.14	27±8.59	34±4.84	32±7.89
<u>Caenis</u>	PU	7.5±1.94	31±1.49	43±14.4	14±3.78	8.5±3.30	4.0±2.12
<u>tardata</u>	UU	5.0±1.78	23±6.49	34±6.83	20±4.77	8.5±3.40	8.0±2.94
(CG)	PE	33±7.98	57±8.77	50±11.0	28±6.56	16±2.53	7.8±1.55
	UE	21±5.96	30±4.02	59±7.31	17±2.25	11±2.04	8.3±2.32
<u>Tricorythodes</u>	PU	2.5±0.65	6.0±0.91	11±4.12	3.8±1.03	1.8±1.18	1.8±0.48
sp.	UU	2.3±0.48	10±4.64	4.0±2.04	0.0±0.0	0.8±0.48	0.3±0.25
(CG)	PE	10±1.96	20±8.29	8.3±1.65	5.3±0.63	2.0±0.71	2.5±1.50
	UE	3.8±2.06	11±4.53	6.0±2.16	4.8±1.25	2.5±0.65	1.3±0.48

densities than UU substrates. However, the differences were not statistically significant. *Baetis* spp. (Baetidae) were dominated by *Baetis intercalaris*, but also included *Baetis armillatus* and *Baetis flavistriga*. PU substrates were colonized by greater *B. intercalaris* densities than the UU substrates, but the difference was significant only for week one. Scraping mayflies included *Stenonema terminatum* and *Stenonema modestum* (Heptageniidae). *S. terminatum* colonized the PE substrates with significantly greater densities than the UE substrates in week one, but numbers were similar in subsequent weeks. *S. modestum* was not significantly influenced by the periphyton precolonization. By week two, *Caenis tardata* (Caenidae) densities in the PE substrates were significantly greater than UE substrates, but no differences among substrate types occurred in subsequent weeks. *Tricorythodes* sp. (Tricorythidae) numbers in the PE substrates were greater than the UE substrates for the first three sampling periods, although the differences were significant only in week one.

Stoneflies (Plecoptera) were present in low numbers and the only core taxon, *Claassenia sabulosa* (Perlidae), showed no significant response to periphyton precolonization (Table 3.2).

Stenelmis parva (Coleoptera: Elmidae) densities increased gradually throughout the six-week colonization period (Table 3.2). Previous research indicated a steady

Table 3.2. Plecoptera, Coleoptera, and Trichoptera core taxa colonizing four artificial substrate types at weekly intervals. Data are means followed by standard error. Feeding groups: CF = collector filterers; CG = collector-gatherers; SC = scrapers; PR = predators. Substrate types: PU = precolonized unembedded; UU = uncolonized unembedded; PE = precolonized embedded; UE = uncolonized embedded.

Taxon	Substrate type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Claassenia</u>	PU	1.3±0.75	2.0±0.91	5.5±0.96	6.8±2.39	4.3±0.95	9.3±3.28
<u>sabulosa</u>	UU	0.5±0.29	4.0±1.78	5.0±1.29	4.8±1.11	7.8±1.11	7.5±2.40
(PR)	PE	1.8±1.44	4.3±1.25	4.5±1.32	2.3±0.85	3.8±1.25	1.5±0.29
	UE	2.8±0.63	3.8±0.63	5.3±2.69	1.8±0.75	2.3±1.11	2.8±0.75
<u>Stenelmis</u>	PU	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	1.8±1.03	2.3±1.11	3.0±1.08	3.3±1.70
<u>parva</u>	UU	0.0±0.0	0.8±0.48	2.0±1.15	2.5±0.96	4.3±1.89	4.5±2.33
(CG)	PE	2.0±0.71	1.8±0.85	4.5±0.96	9.8±4.40	14±3.20	11±1.03
	UE	0.5±0.50	1.3±0.63	8.5±2.18	6.8±3.09	8.8±2.75	9.3±2.75

Table 3.2 cont.

Taxon Feeding group	Substrate Type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Hydropsyche</u>	PU	370±26.5	466±50.1	392±90.6	331±77.3	341±62.6	321±35.7
<u>morosa</u>	UU	153±42.3	307±77.4	300±82.7	313±87.2	328±99.7	235±50.6
(CF)	PE	93±37.6	62±22.5	71±6.41	58±12.5	72±26.7	67±16.6
	UE	71±14.5	153±51.7	104±29.3	65±12.2	68±28.2	76±30.0
<u>Cheumatopsyche</u>	PU	63±11.8	83±6.42	121±32.1	138±11.9	165±23.1	242±24.3
sp.	UU	56±11.9	79±4.85	101±12.5	114±14.9	139±21.7	195±16.5
(CF)	PE	39±14.0	41±18.0	58±14.7	39±10.6	109±36.0	92±28.3
	UE	32±6.60	58±12.6	97±15.0	43±6.12	83±22.2	138±48.3
<u>Chimarra</u>	PU	12±2.39	37±6.42	33±17.1	66±20.8	74±31.3	83±15.2
sp.	UU	7.3±3.45	11±4.60	28±9.39	35±6.94	33±9.13	58±15.3
(CF)	PE	4.3±2.50	5.0±2.80	4.8±2.84	11±9.31	20±11.7	6.5±2.75
	UE	3.3±1.11	5.0±3.11	14±6.66	12±10.8	7.0±4.14	32±24.5

Table 3.2 cont.

Taxon	Substrate	Colonization Period (week)						
		Feeding group	Type	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Hydroptila</u>	PU		22±8.72	6.3±2.78	11±5.92	18±2.66	17±3.68	31±3.04
sp.	UU		19±4.12	8.8±4.11	16±5.91	19±5.92	14±3.99	18±2.71
(SC)	PE		1.5±0.87	1.3±0.48	0.8±0.48	2.5±0.65	7.0±4.08	6.8±1.38
	UE		2.0±0.41	1.0±0.71	2.8±1.11	5.0±1.87	11±5.11	15±6.59

increase in elmid beetle densities also occurred throughout a 64-d colonization period (Shaw & Minshall, 1980).

Although collected in low numbers, *S. parva* densities in the PE substrates were slightly higher than the UE substrates in week one, but densities were similar in subsequent weeks.

Four core taxa represented the caddisflies (Trichoptera). *Hydropsyche morosa* (Hydropsychidae) and *Chimarra* sp. (Philopotamidae) densities in the PU substrates were consistently greater than the UU substrates. However, the differences were significant only in week one for *H. morosa* and week two for *Chimarra* sp. (Table 3.2). *Cheumatopsyche* sp. (Hydropsychidae) numbers were not significantly affected by periphyton precolonization. *Hydroptila* sp. (Hydroptilidae) densities in the PU substrates were consistently greater than the UU substrates, but the difference was significant only on week six.

Diptera were represented by five core taxa and did not respond significantly to periphyton precolonization (Table 3.3). Overall, precolonizing substrates with periphyton increased total macroinvertebrate densities in week one, and did not appear to result in selective colonization by any functional feeding groups. By week two, apparently due to the colonization of all substrate types by natural periphytic communities, precolonized substrates no longer attracted greater macroinvertebrate abundances. Consequently, the advantages associated with substrates

Table 3.3. Diptera core taxa colonizing four artificial substrate types at weekly intervals. Data are means followed by standard error. Feeding groups: CF = collector filterers; CG = collector-gatherers; SC = scrapers; PR = predators. Substrate types: PU = precolonized unembedded; UU = uncolonized unembedded; PE = precolonized embedded; UE = uncolonized embedded.

Taxon	Substrate type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Chironominae (CG)	PU	37±7.49	117±14.1	70±6.08	82±14.4	35±5.12	29±8.01
	UU	32±10.7	122±18.8	75±6.07	90±22.7	24±2.25	26±3.49
	PE	25±5.12	40±8.98	23±11.6	35±11.3	32±10.9	25±5.49
	UE	16±1.97	46±8.63	34±6.75	37±9.41	26±5.52	18±4.91
Orthoclaadiinae (CG)	PU	16±4.19	31±5.17	54±12.4	27±3.10	8.8±1.80	12±2.75
	UU	17±1.04	27±8.61	41±3.07	24±4.77	8.0±2.12	13±2.29
	PE	18±6.24	34±4.33	25±4.63	23±3.47	17±2.50	14±1.68
	UE	18±3.90	28±5.79	33±7.31	17±4.84	12±4.14	15±2.78

Table 3.3 cont.

Taxon Feeding Group	Substrate Type	Colonization Period (week)					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Tanypodinae	PU	4.8±1.03	22±5.88	34±6.16	42±3.81	22±5.99	39±7.77
(PR)	UU	6.8±1.49	26±8.04	28±5.23	45±6.55	13±1.11	39±4.71
	PE	8.8±4.52	13±3.19	8.8±4.01	24±7.56	24±13.9	28±3.50
	UE	3.5±0.87	7.3±0.25	16±5.11	26±6.41	26±7.72	38±12.2
<u>Simulium</u>	PU	160±10.0	59±20.8	12±10.1	4.8±2.43	1.8±0.85	4.8±2.56
sp.	UU	175±60.5	83±58.2	8.5±3.80	2.5±0.87	1.0±0.41	10±8.94
(CF)	PE	1.0±0.71	0.3±0.25	7.3±7.25	0.3±0.25	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0
	UE	6.0±5.02	4.5±4.17	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0

precolonized with periphyton are only applicable during exposure periods of one week or less.

Effects of embedding substrates. Total macroinvertebrate densities in the unembedded substrates were significantly higher ($p \leq 0.05$) than embedded substrates on each sampling date (Figure 3.3). However, densities of most taxa in the embedded substrates were sufficient by week one to determine treatment responses during stream microcosm studies. Comparisons between core taxa colonizing embedded and unembedded substrates were analyzed separately and the results are listed below.

Isonychia bicolor colonized the PU and UU substrates with significantly greater densities than the PE and UE substrates on weeks four through six (Table 3.1). *Baetis intercalaris* colonized the PU and UU substrates with greater densities than the PE and UE substrates throughout the study, but the difference was significant only during the first four sampling periods (Table 3.1). *Stenonema terminatum* had colonized the PU and UU substrates with significantly greater numbers than the PE and UE substrates by week four, and by week six PU and UU densities were double those in the PE and UE substrates (Table 3.1). *Stenonema modestum* colonized the PE and UE type substrates with greater densities than the PU and UU substrates (Table 3.1), but the difference was significant only on weeks one and three. *Caenis tardata* and *Tricorythodes* sp. possess

morphological characteristics advantageous for interstitial, hyporheic habitats (Williams, 1984). However, density differences between the embedded and unembedded substrates were significant only in week one as PE substrates achieved greater densities than the unembedded substrates (Table 3.1).

Claassenia sp. densities in the PU and UU substrates were greater than the PE and UE substrates during the last three sampling periods (Table 3.2). However, the difference was significant only in week five between the UU substrates and those substrates embedded in the stream bottom.

Riffle beetles are common hyporheic inhabitants (Merritt & Cummins, 1984; Williams, 1984) and, although collected in low numbers, *Stenelmis parva* colonized the PE and UE substrates in consistently greater numbers than the PU and UU substrates (Table 3.2).

The four caddisfly core taxa (*Hydropsyche morosa*, *Cheumatopsyche* sp., *Chimarra* sp., and *Hydroptila* sp.) colonized the PU and UU substrates with greater densities than the PE and UE substrates (Table 3.2). However, *H. morosa* was the only caddisfly to colonize the unembedded substrates with significantly greater densities than the embedded substrates throughout the entire study. The selective colonization of unembedded substrates by net-spinning caddisflies has been reported in previous research (Pontasch & Cairns, 1989; 1991).

Midge larvae from the family Chironomidae were the most abundant Diptera colonizing the artificial substrates. Chironominae in the PU and UU substrates maintained significantly greater densities than in the PE and UE substrates until week four (Table 3.3). Similarly, Tanypodinae showed a preference for the PU and UU substrates, but the difference was only significant in week three. Densities of Orthocladiinae were not significantly different in the embedded and unembedded substrates. The response of black fly larvae (Simuliidae) was more variable in the PU and UU substrates than in the PE and UE substrates (Table 3.3). *Simulium* sp. densities in the unembedded substrates were significantly greater than the embedded substrates in weeks one and two, and larval densities in all substrate types were reduced in subsequent weeks.

Overall, taxa known to selectively colonize artificial substrates (i.e. Hydropsychidae, Oligoneuriidae, Simuliidae) were collected in lower densities in the embedded substrates than in the unembedded substrates, and taxa associated with the hyporheic zone were collected in slightly greater densities than in the unembedded substrates.

Core Taxa Reaching Equilibrium Densities

Core taxa maintaining maximum densities for two consecutive weeks were considered to have reached density equilibrium. The cumulative number of core taxa reaching equilibrium densities were enumerated at weekly intervals to

determine an optimal colonization period. Core taxa in the embedded substrates reached equilibrium densities slightly faster than in the unembedded substrates (Figure 3.4), but this was probably caused by significantly lower macroinvertebrate abundances in the embedded substrates. Thirteen core taxa in the PE substrates reached equilibrium on week one and all 18 core taxa in the PE and UE substrates reached equilibrium by week four. Fourteen core taxa reached equilibrium in the PU and UU substrates by week three. However, all core taxa in the unembedded substrates did not reach equilibrium densities until week six. As indicated by species richness, total macroinvertebrate abundance, and the cumulative number of core taxa reaching equilibrium densities, a three week colonization period appears optimal for colonizing riffle insect communities for stream microcosm studies.

Functional Group Comparisons

Because total macroinvertebrate abundance, species richness, and cumulative number of core taxa reaching equilibrium densities all indicate that a three week period is optimal for colonization, discussion of functional group comparisons will be limited to week three data. In addition, only PE and PU substrate data are used to compare substrate positioning. Natural and artificial substrate functional group comparisons from week three revealed PE substrates were colonized by significantly lower

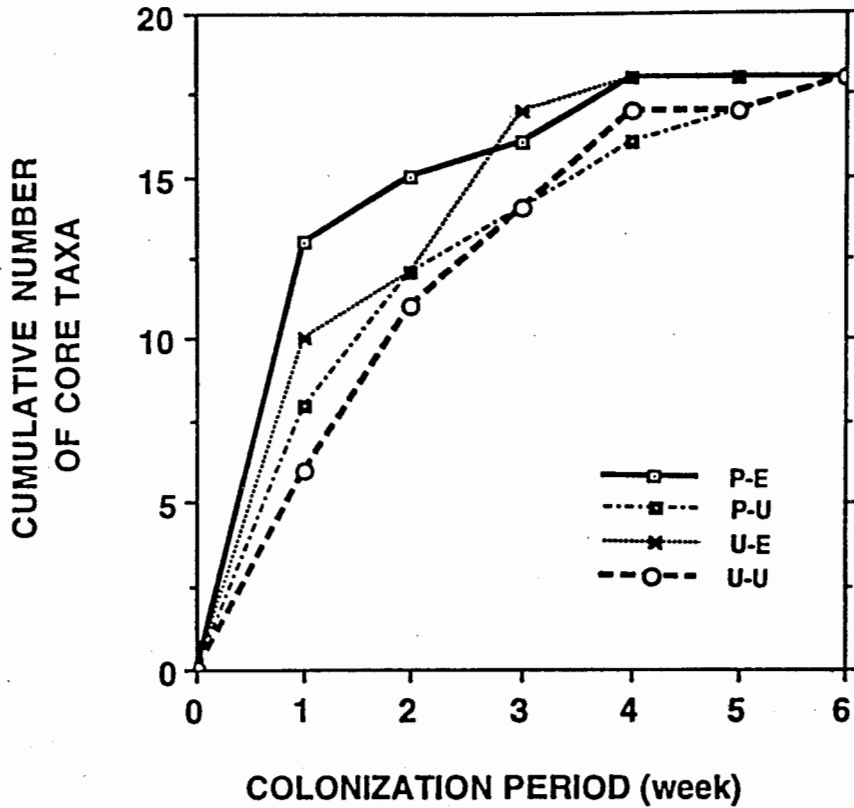


Figure 3.4. Cumulative number of core taxa reaching equilibrium densities per substrate from each experimental group over a six week colonization period. PE = precolonized-embedded; PU = precolonized-unembedded; UE = uncolonized-embedded; UU = uncolonized-unembedded.

collector-filterer (CF) percentages than those observed in the natural substrate (Figures 3.5, 3.6). The PE substrates may have been exposed to lower current velocities, resulting in greater sediment deposition within substrate interstices and limiting the availability of suspended food particles to CF. Consequently, PE substrates did not provide a habitat favorable for abundant CF colonization. However, CF colonized the PU substrates with percentages similar to those in the natural community (Figures 3.6, 3.7). No significant differences in collector-gatherer (CG) percentages occurred among the natural and artificial substrates in week three. Scrapers (SC) colonized the PE substrates with percentages significantly greater than the natural and unembedded substrates, which obtained similar percentages. Predator (PR) percentages were similar in all substrate types throughout the colonization period. Shredder (SH) percentages in the natural substrate community were consistently higher than all artificial substrate types, but extremely low percentages in both substrate types made the differences unimportant.

Although embedded substrates reduced selective colonization by CF, the unembedded substrates were colonized by a riffle insect community functionally more similar to the natural stream community. The colonization site was dominated by large cobbles (13-25 cm) unembedded in pebbles (2-6 cm), creating a riffle with the majority of the

P-E ARTIFICIAL SUBSTRATE
(week three)

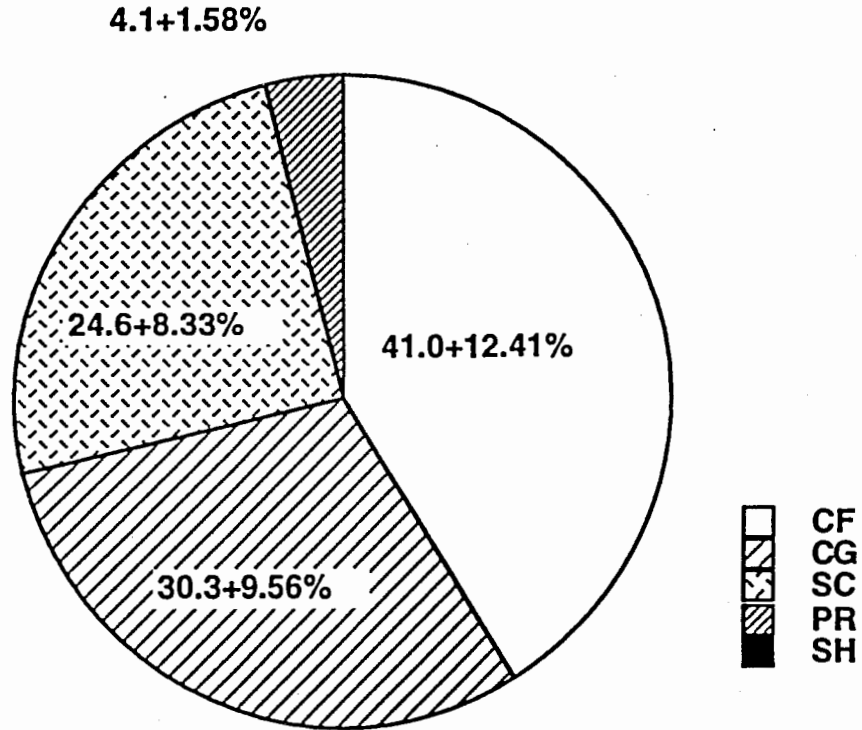


Figure 3.5. Functional group percentages from precolonized-embedded artificial substrates following a three week colonization period. Comparisons are based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. CF = collector-filterer; CG = collector-gatherer; SC = scraper; PR = predator; SH = shredder. Data are mean percentages \pm standard deviation.

NATURAL SUBSTRATE
(Hess Sampler)

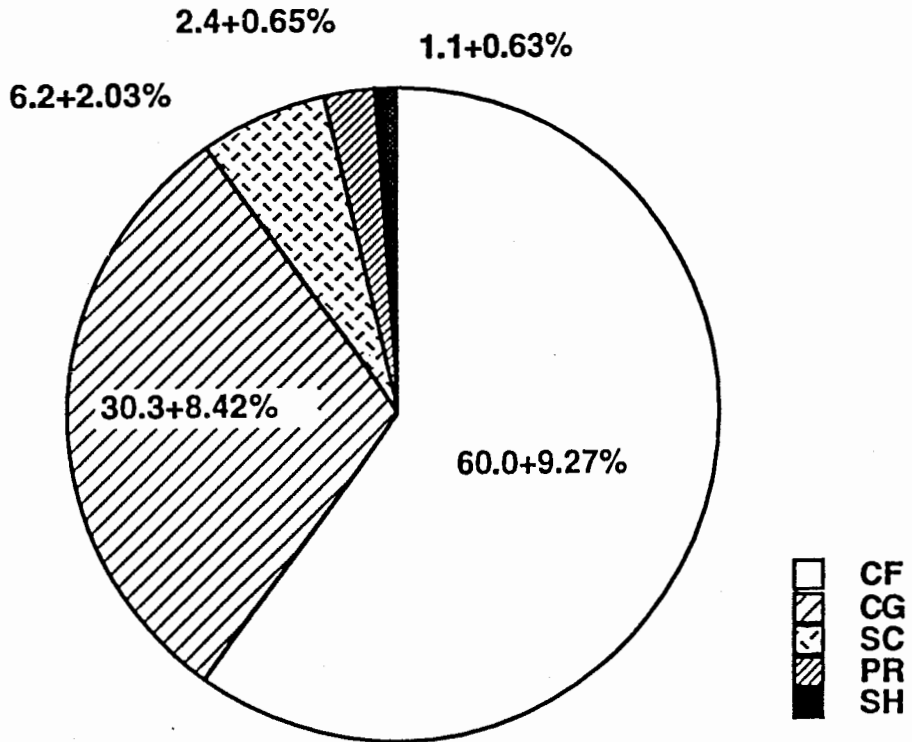


Figure 3.6. Functional group percentages from the natural substrate (Hess sampler). Comparisons are based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. CF = collector-filterer; CG = collector-gatherer; SC = scraper; PR = predator; SH = shredder. Data are mean percentages \pm standard deviation.

P-U ARTIFICIAL SUBSTRATE
(week three)

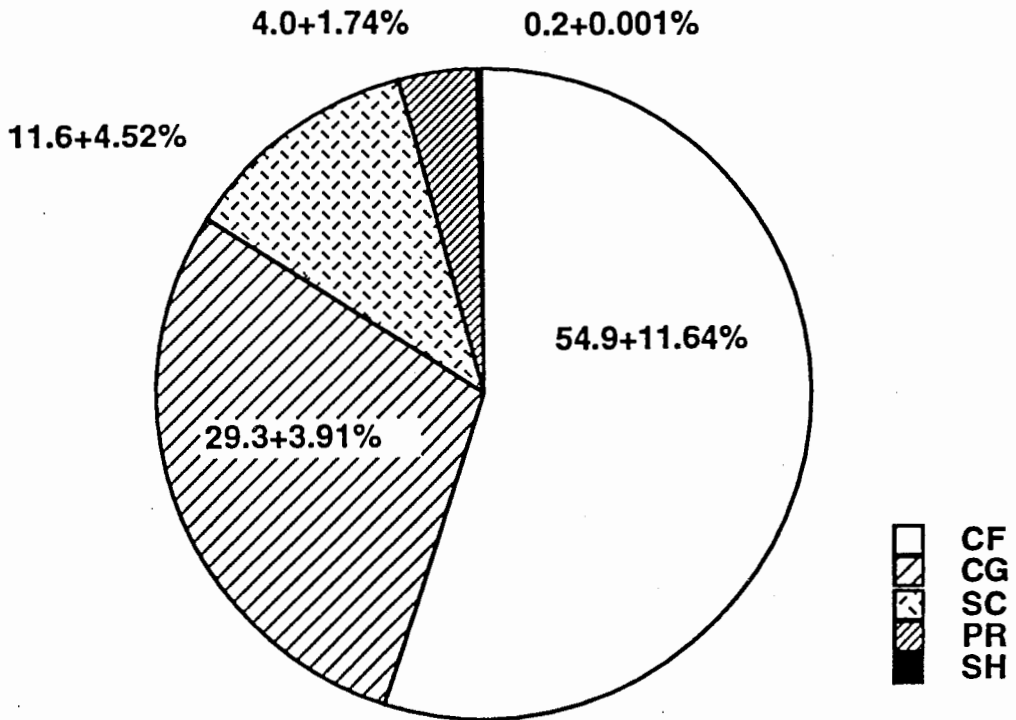


Figure 3.7. Functional group percentages from precolonized-unembedded artificial substrates sampled following a three week colonization period. Comparisons are based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. CF = collector-filterer; CG = collector-gatherer; SC = scraper; PR = predator; SH = shredder. Data are mean percentages \pm standard deviation.

large cobbles projecting into the water column. Unembedded substrates closely simulated natural substrate position, potentially exposing the sampling devices to higher current velocities and suspended filterable nutrients. Consequently, the unembedded substrates were colonized by CF, as well as the remaining feeding groups, in proportions functionally similar to the natural community.

A previous colonization study conducted at an upstream site reported CF insects selectively colonized artificial substrates identical to the UU design (Chapter 2). Riffle structure at the upstream colonization site was dominated by small cobbles (6-13 cm) 50% embedded in pebbles (2-6 cm) with considerable sedimentation by sand. The riffle area at the upstream site did not contain large cobbles projecting into the water column, thus the artificial substrates placed on the streambed created habitats structurally different from the natural substrate. Artificial substrates at the upstream site were apparently exposed to greater amounts of filterable organisms and detritus than the natural substrate. This difference in nutrient availability resulted in CF densities in the artificial substrates nearly double those in the natural substrate (c.f., Figures 3.8, 3.9). In comparison, the natural substrate structure at the upstream site probably accumulated detritus and other nutrients in the substrate interstices, providing CG insects with easier access to an abundant food source.

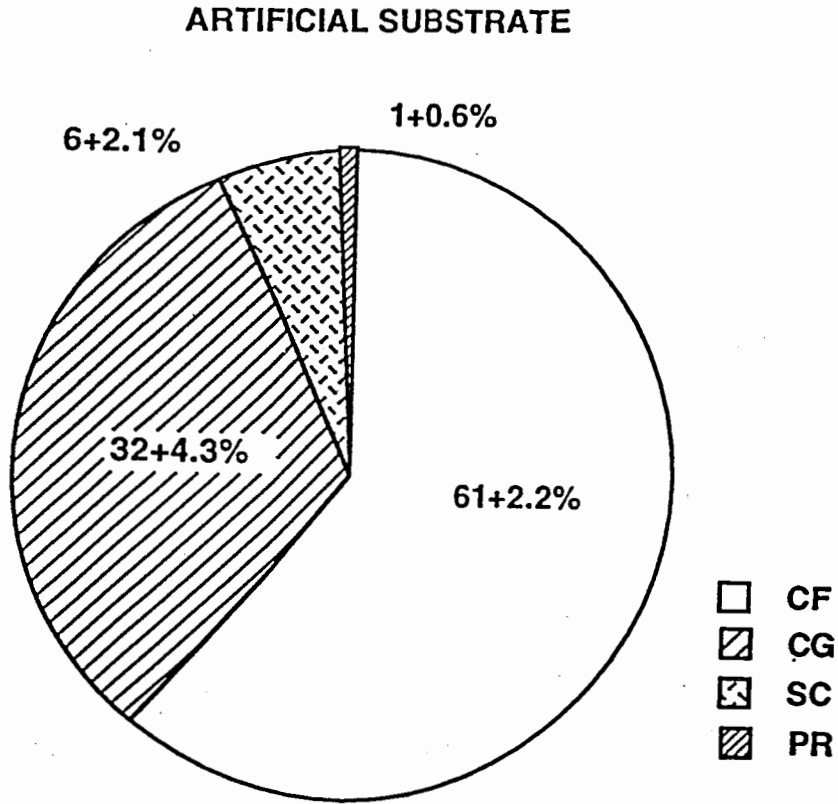


Figure 3.8. Functional group percentages from artificial substrates sampled at an upstream site (Chapter 2). Comparisons are based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. CF = collector-filterer; CG = collector-gatherer; SC = scraper; PR = predator; SH = shredder. Data are mean percentages \pm standard deviation.

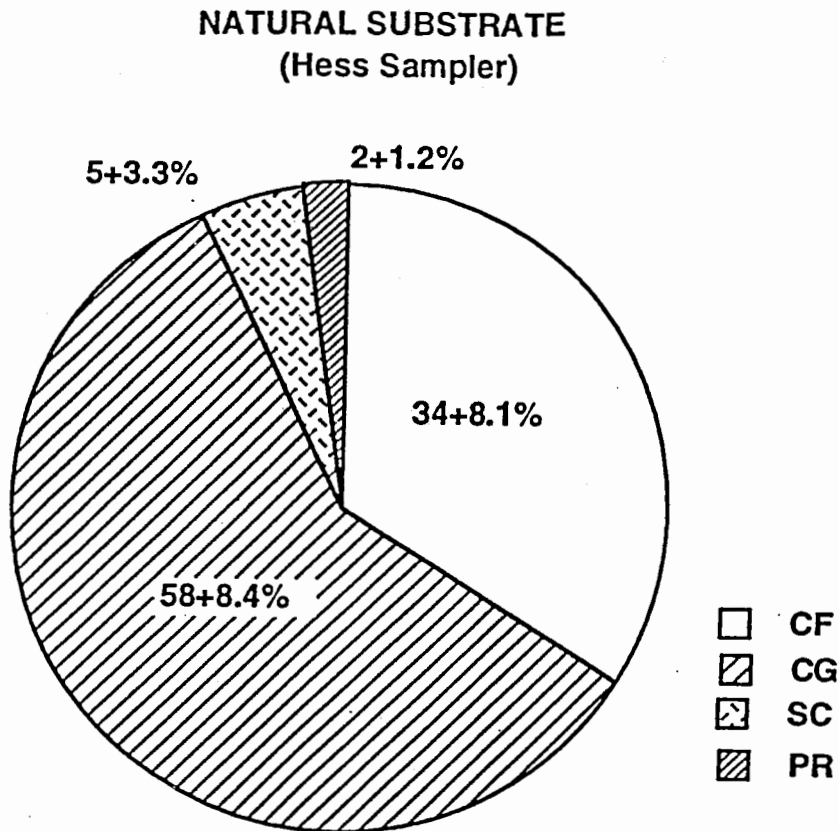


Figure 3.9. Functional group percentages from the natural substrate (Hess sampler) taken from a riffle area at an upstream site (Chapter 2). Comparisons are based on proportional contribution to total numbers by functional group. CF = collector-filterer; CG = collector-gatherer; SC = scraper; PR = predator; SH = shredder. Data are mean percentages \pm standard deviation.

Consequently, the natural substrate community at the upstream site consisted of CG densities nearly two times greater than CG densities achieved in the artificial substrates (c.f., Figures 3.8, 3.9).

Conclusions

Substrate complexity (i.e. size and interstitial space availability) is an important factor in determining riffle insect community structure and function (Minshall, 1984). The results from the functional feeding group comparisons indicate artificial substrates are capable of collecting riffle insect communities functionally similar to natural communities, provided substrate composition (i.e. particle size, food resources) and positioning simulate the natural substrate. As indicated by this study, unembedded substrates probably better simulate the natural substrate structure when placed in riffle areas containing minimal amounts of sedimentation and an abundance of large cobbles or boulders. However, in riffles containing small cobbles and pebbles, or where sedimentation is extensive, embedding substrates should minimize differences caused by positioning artificial substrates in the water column.

Although periphytic biomass on the artificial substrates following the precolonization period was substantially lower than periphytic biomass in the natural stream, total macroinvertebrate density in the precolonized

substrates was significantly greater than the uncolonized substrates on week one. These results indicate that artificial substrates precolonized with periphyton then colonized by macroinvertebrates for one week should reduce the risk of sampling device disturbance, yet provide densities and species richness sufficient for use in stream microcosm tests. However, the advantages of slightly longer colonization periods (e.g., natural periphytic growth, greater detrital deposits, presence of both early and late colonizers, and attainment of equilibrium densities) should be considered when establishing environmentally realistic test systems. Numerous studies employing artificial substrates (e.g., Cairns 1982) have provided a wealth of information regarding ecological organization of benthic communities and should be considered prior to establishing standardized colonization procedures for obtaining test organisms for multispecies research.

References

- American Public Health Association, American Water Works Association, and Water Pollution Control Federation. *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water*. 16th ed. Washington, D.C. 1067 p.
- Benfield, E. F., A. C. Hendriks & J. Cairns, Jr. 1974. Proficiencies of two artificial substrates in collecting stream macroinvertebrates. *Hydrobiologia* 45:431-440.
- Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1982. *Artificial Substrates*, Ann Arbor Science Pub. Ann Arbor, MI, pp 175-235.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1985. *Multispecies Toxicity Testing*. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, NY.
- Cairns, J., Jr. (ed.) 1986. *Community Toxicity Testing*. STP 920. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA.
- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry & J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Structural alterations in aquatic insect communities exposed to copper in laboratory streams. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:715-722.
- Clements, W. H., J. H. Hassel, D. S. Cherry & J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Colonization, variability, and the use of substratum-filled trays for biomonitoring benthic communities. *Hydrobiologia*. 173:45-53.
- Culp, J. P., M. S. Walde & R. W. Davies. 1983. Relative importance of substrate particle size and detritus to stream benthic macroinvertebrate microdistribution. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 40:1568-1574.
- Cummins, K. W. 1973. Trophic relations of aquatic insects. *Annual Review of Entomology*. 18:183-206.
- Cummins, K. W. 1974. Structure and function of stream ecosystems. *BioScience*. 24:631-641.
- Gersabeck, E. F. & R. W. Merritt, 1979. The effects of physical factors on the colonization of relocation behavior of immature black flies (Diptera: Simuliidae). *Environ. Entomol.* 8:34-39.
- Gillett, J. W. 1988. The role of terrestrial microcosms and mesocosms on ecotoxicological research. *Ecotoxicology: Problems and Approaches*. D. E. Reiche, (et al.) ed., Spriner-Verlag Inc., NY. pp 367-400.

- Lamberti, G. A. & J. W. Moore, 1984. Aquatic insects as primary consumers. V. H. Resh and D. M. Rosenberg (ed.) *The Ecology of Aquatic Insects*. Praeger Pub. New York, NY. pp 164-195.
- Mason, Jr., W. T., C. I. Weber, P. A. Lewis & E. C. Julian, 1973. Factors affecting the performance of basket and multiplate macroinvertebrate samplers. *Freshwat. Biol.* 3:409-436.
- Merritt, G. W. & K. W. Cummins, 1984. *Aquatic Insects of North America*. Kendall-Hunt Pub., Dubuque, IA. 722 p.
- Minshall, G. W. & J. N. Minshall, 1977. Microdistribution of benthic invertebrates in a Rocky Mountain (U.S.A.) stream. *Hydrobiologia* 55(3):231-249.
- Minshall, G. W. 1978. Autotrophy in stream ecosystems. *BioScience*. 28:767-771.
- Minshall, G. W. 1984. Aquatic insect-substratum relationships. V. H. Resh and D. M. Rosenberg (ed.) *The Ecology of Aquatic Insects*. Praeger Pub. pp 358-400.
- Odum, E. P. 1984. The mesocosm. *BioScience* 34:558-562.
- Pontasch, K. W. & J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Establishing and maintaining laboratory-based microcosms of riffle insect communities: their potential for multispecies toxicity tests. *Hydrobiologia* 175:49-60.
- Pontasch, K. W. & J. Cairns, Jr. 1991. Multispecies toxicity tests using indigenous organisms: predicting the effects of complex effluents in streams. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 20:103-112.
- Pratt, J. R., N. J. Bowers, B. R. Niederlehner & J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Effects of atrazine on freshwater microbial communities. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 17:449-457.
- Rabeni, C. F. & G. W. Minshall, 1977. Factors affecting microdistribution of stream benthic insects. *Oikos* 29:33-43.
- Rosenberg, D. M. & V. H. Resh, 1982. The use of artificial substrates in the study of freshwater benthic macroinvertebrates. J. Cairns, Jr. (ed.) *Artificial Substrates*, Ann Arbor Science Pub. Ann Arbor, MI, pp 175-235.

Workshop on Aquatic Microcosms for Ecological Assessment of Pesticides. Sponsored by the SETAC Foundation of Environmental Education and RESOLVE (a program of the World Wildlife Fund). Wintergreen, VA, October 6-11, 1991. Workshop Report, February 17, 1992, p. 1-56.

Shaw, S. W. & G. W. Minshall, 1980. Colonization of an introduced substrate by stream macroinvertebrates. *Oikos*. 34:259-271.

Sweeney, B. W. 1984. Factors influencing life-history patterns of aquatic insects. V. H. Resh and D. M. Rosenberg (ed.) *The Ecology of Aquatic Insects*. Praeger Pub. pp 56-100.

Touart, L. W. 1988. Aquatic mesocosm tests to support pesticide registrations. EPA 540/09-88-035. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, DC.

Wallace, J. B., D. S. Vogel & T. F. Cuffney, 1986. Recovery of a headwater stream from an insecticide-induced community disturbance. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 5(2):115-126.

Wallace, J. B. & R. W. Merritt. 1980. Filter-feeding ecology of aquatic insects. *Ann. Rev. Entomol.* 25:103-132.

Williams, D. D. 1984. The hyporheic zone as a habitat for aquatic insects and associated arthropods. V. H. Resh and D. M. Rosenberg (ed.) *The Ecology of Aquatic Insects*. Praeger Pub. pp 430-455.

EPILOGUE

Population and community-level responses are the basis of multispecies research (Cairns 1983, Kimball and Levin 1985, Maciorowski 1988) and ecotoxicologists evaluating environmental pollution problems examine a multitude of natural processes (e.g., primary productivity, invertebrate recovery, alterations in trophic structure). Because laboratory-based systems provide a high degree of investigator control, microcosms are adaptable to a wide variety of experimental objectives associated with aquatic toxicology. However, until microcosm research is incorporated into the regulatory framework, additional studies to further standardize test procedures would be beneficial. The cumulative results of this research should provide valuable information concerning riffle insect community colonization of artificial substrates and the effects of fenvalerate on aquatic insects indigenous to Iowa streams.

The stream microcosm toxicity test in Chapter 1 predicted the following riffle insect community responses to fenvalerate:

- 1) Acute exposures exceeding 1.0 ug/L fenvalerate will significantly increase drift by riffle insect communities.
- 2) Fenvalerate concentrations reaching 0.01 ug/L will significantly reduce mayfly and stonefly numbers. At

fenvalerate concentrations of 0.1 ug/L, mayfly densities will be reduced further, stoneflies will be eliminated, and caddisflies, chironomids, and riffle beetles will be present in significantly reduced numbers. Environmental concentrations reaching 10.0 ug/L fenvalerate will eliminate a majority of the riffle insect community.

Significant density reductions for some core taxa occurred at fenvalerate concentrations that would probably go undetected during routine chemical monitoring in the field. Recent pond mesocosm studies on fenvalerate indicate that although the chemical rapidly leaves the water column, persistence in benthic sediments may cause significant reductions in littoral communities (Heinis and Knuth 1992, Lozano et al. 1992). Small streams and rivers draining agricultural watersheds are periodically subjected to nonpoint source pollutants through surface runoff and contaminated sediments. Unfortunately, little information is available on the persistence of fenvalerate residues in benthic sediments in streams and rivers. Further research focusing on sediment toxicity in lotic ecosystems would be beneficial when assessing insecticidal impact on riffle insect communities.

Successfully protecting aquatic habitats on a large scale will depend on evaluating our current pest management practices and better understanding their environmental

impact. Unfortunately, concerns centered around profitability and a demand for high quality agricultural products inhibit cooperative progress toward minimizing chemical application. The long-term outcome involving economic and environmental safety tradeoffs is one that will have a major impact on the future of sustainable agriculture and the preservation of aquatic habitats.

Artificial substrates colonized by aquatic macroinvertebrates play an important role in stream microcosm studies, and the following conclusions can be drawn from the research presented in Chapter 2:

- 1) Species equilibrium and maximum densities were reached in weeks one and four, respectively. However, results suggest that a three week period collected an assemblage of organisms sufficient for use during stream microcosm tests.

- 2) Artificial substrates were selectively colonized by collector-filtering aquatic insects. However, partial burial of the artificial substrates following a flood decreased collector-filterer densities and increased colonization by organisms common to the hyporheic zone.

Current colonization techniques are useful for examining riffle insect community colonization dynamics and obtaining test organisms for multispecies toxicity tests. Artificial substrates not only provide a non-destructive means of sampling aquatic habitats but are easily utilized by non-

experts and improve sample replication. These qualities are essential if stream microcosm tests are to become standardized procedures within the regulatory framework. However, selective colonization by certain organisms, as indicated by artificial and natural substrate comparisons, provides artificial substrate communities functionally different from natural stream communities. Consequently, test results utilizing artificial substrates colonized by an assemblage of organisms not representing naturally occurring communities remain useful, but with limited applicability in predicting ecosystem-level responses.

The results from Chapter 3 suggest that manipulating artificial substrate conditions (i.e. periphyton precolonization, substrate positioning) can influence macroinvertebrate colonization dynamics. Specifically, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 1) Precolonizing artificial substrates with a periphytic food source increased macroinvertebrate colonization during the first week but did not influence total density in subsequent weeks.
- 2) Embedding artificial substrates in the stream bottom decreased selective colonization by collector-filterers. However, unembedded substrates simulated the natural substrate at the colonization site and collected a riffle insect community functionally more

similar to the natural substrate community than the embedded substrates.

Multispecies tests are not designed to simultaneously conduct several single-species tests but, rather, examine community-level interactions. The roles aquatic insects play in processing stream nutrients are often studied to assess community-level effects following disturbances (e.g., Wallace 1986, Clements *et al.* 1988). The predictive capabilities of stream microcosm tests will improve when riffle insect communities colonizing artificial substrates are functionally similar to natural communities. Results from this study suggest that functionally similar communities can be collected when artificial substrate positioning creates habitats similar to the natural substrate structure.

Currently, recommendations are being considered to develop standardized procedures that incorporate microcosms into the testing hierarchy during pesticide registration (Cairns 1992, SETAC workshop report 1992). Because environmental protection is a widespread concern, testing should include protocols capable of predicting responses of resident communities in all types of aquatic habitats (i.e. lentic, lotic, estuarine, marine) without creating test systems that are economically and logistically inappropriate. Microcosm test systems are easily constructed and are adaptable to test a variety of site-

specific communities. In addition, microcosm tests would provide an intermediate test no less informative than mesocosm studies but logistically less complex.

Regardless of the test system, investigators must understand the limitations of their test system when simulating environmental conditions and interpret results based on sound ecological judgement. For applications in the pesticide registration process, simplistic test systems alone do not provide sufficient evidence to determine environmental safety and harm, and overly sophisticated test systems would not be applicable to the large number of chemicals produced annually. Therefore, test systems capable of producing reliable, applicable, and cost-effective answers should be considered. Employing acute and chronic single-species toxicity tests with subsequent laboratory-based multispecies tests (e.g., Larsen *et al.* 1986, Pontasch *et al.* 1989) will combine quick, inexpensive screening with more realistic, yet replicable environmental predictions.

References

- Cairns, J., Jr. 1983. Are single species toxicity tests alone adequate for estimating environmental hazards? *Hydrobiologia* 100:47-57.
- Cairns, J., Jr. 1992. Paradigms flossed: the coming of age of environmental toxicology. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:285-287.
- Clements, W. H., D. S. Cherry and J. Cairns, Jr. 1988. Structural alterations in aquatic insect communities exposed to copper in laboratory streams. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:715-722.
- Heinis, L. J. and M. L. Knuth. 1992. The mixing, distribution and persistence of esfenvalerate within littoral enclosures. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:11-25.
- Kimball, K. D. and S. A. Levin, 1985. Limitations of laboratory bioassays: the need for ecosystem-level testing. *BioScience* 35(3): 165-171.
- Larsen, D. P., F. deNoyelles, Jr., F. Stay and T. Shiroyama, 1986. Comparisons of single-species, microcosm and experimental pond responses to atrazine exposure. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 5:179-190.
- Lozano, S. J., S. L. O'Halloran, K. W. Sargent and J. C. Brazner. 1992. Effects of esfenvalerate on aquatic organisms in littoral enclosures. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 11:35-47.
- Maciorowski, A. F. 1988. Populations and communities: linking toxicology and ecology in a new synthesis. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 7:677-678.
- Pontasch, K. W., B. R. Niederlehner and J. Cairns, Jr. 1989. Comparisons of single-species, microcosm and field responses to a complex effluent. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* 8:521-532.
- Wallace, J. B., D. S. Vogel and T. F. Cuffney, 1986. Recovery of a headwater stream from an insecticide-induced community disturbance. *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.* 5(2):115-126.
- Workshop on Aquatic Microcosms for Ecological Assessment of Pesticides. Sponsored by the SETAC Foundation of Environmental Education and RESOLVE (a program of the World Wildlife Fund). Wintergreen, VA, October 6-11, 1991. Workshop Report, February 17, 1992, p. 1-56.

APPENDIX A. Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program used in Chapter 1 to analyze the effects of fenvalerate on riffle insect communities.

```

TITLE 'PYDRIN EXPERIMENT OVERALL ANALYSIS';
DATA BUGS;
INPUT CONC STR REP TYPE $ ISO BAE CLA STE HYD CHE CHM CHI ORT TAN ATH
SIM;
CARDS;
0.0 1 1 A 35 40 0 31 104 23 18 62 18 0 0 1
0.0 1 1 L 2 0 6 76 70 21 1 10 9 2 2 0
0.0 2 2 A 94 52 0 19 81 19 22 67 16 0 0 5
0.0 2 2 L 0 0 5 79 45 15 0 8 5 6 2 1
0.0 3 3 A 61 43 0 23 101 9 15 49 17 0 0 1
0.0 3 3 L 0 0 5 67 55 16 0 4 3 1 2 0
0.01 4 1 A 61 18 0 34 156 43 19 95 20 0 0 1
0.01 4 1 L 3 0 4 52 27 29 1 9 4 7 1 0
0.01 5 2 A 29 43 0 27 61 6 11 57 13 0 0 4
0.01 5 2 L 2 0 3 73 12 8 1 7 1 2 7 0
0.01 6 3 A 17 44 0 9 46 6 7 58 13 0 0 9
0.01 6 3 L 0 0 2 62 4 4 2 2 2 5 2 0
0.1 7 1 A 0 6 0 8 0 2 1 33 4 0 0 6
0.1 7 1 L 0 0 0 10 0 0 3 1 1 3 3 0
0.1 8 2 A 2 1 0 18 6 1 8 60 5 0 0 3
0.1 8 2 L 0 0 0 7 1 0 0 1 0 7 5 0
0.1 9 3 A 0 5 0 3 2 1 0 30 4 0 0 3
0.1 9 3 L 0 0 0 25 0 0 1 6 1 4 2 0
1.0 10 1 A 1 2 0 10 1 0 1 15 0 0 0 4
1.0 10 1 L 0 0 0 1 3 0 2 0 0 1 1 0
1.0 11 2 A 2 5 0 16 0 1 0 5 2 0 0 2
1.0 11 2 L 0 0 0 0 0 0 2 2 0 0 1 0
1.0 12 3 A 1 2 0 18 2 0 0 9 5 0 0 3
1.0 12 3 L 0 0 0 2 2 0 4 2 0 0 2 0
10.0 13 1 A 0 5 0 0 2 0 0 1 0 0 0 1
10.0 13 1 L 0 0 0 0 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
10.0 14 2 A 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1
10.0 14 2 L 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
10.0 15 3 A 2 15 0 0 2 0 0 4 0 0 0 6
10.0 15 3 L 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
PROC PRINT;
PROC SORT;
BY CONC;
PROC MEANS;
BY CONC;
VAR ISO BAE CLA STE HYD CHE CHM CHI ORT TAN ATH SIM;
OUTPUT OUT=TWO MEAN=ISOM BAEM CLAM STEM HYDM CHEM CHMM CHIM ORTM TANM ATHM
SIMM;
PROC PRINT;
PROC SORT DATA=TWO;
BY CONC;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=ISOM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=BAEM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=CLAM SUBGROUP=TYPE;

```



```
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=STEM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=HYDM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=CHEM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=CHMM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=CHIM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=ORTM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=TANM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=ATHM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC CHART DATA=TWO;
VBAR CONC / DISCRETE SUMVAR=SIMM SUBGROUP=TYPE;
PROC SORT DATA=BUGS;
BY STR;
PROC MEANS DATA=BUGS;
BY STR;
VAR ISO BAE CLA STE HYD CHE CHM CHI ORT TAN ATH SIM;
ID CONC;
OUTPUT OUT=THREE SUM = ISOS BAES CLAS STES HYDS CHES CHMS CHIS ORTS TANS
ATHS
SIMS;
PROC SORT DATA=THREE;
BY CONC;
PROC PRINT;
PROC ANOVA DATA=THREE;
CLASS CONC;
MODEL ISOS BAES CLAS STES HYDS CHES CHMS CHIS ORTS TANS ATHS SIMS = CONC;
MEANS CONC/LSD TUKEY SCHEFFE;
MEANS CONC/DUNCAN;
```

APPENDIX B. Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program used in Chapter 2 to analyze artificial substrate colonization by riffle insect communities over a seven week period.

```

TITLE 'ARTIFICIAL SUBSTRATE COLONIZATION';
DATA CRITTERS;
INPUT WEEK $ REP $ ISO EPH BAE PSU CAE TRI STM CLA STL
HYD CHE CHM HYT HEL CHI ORT TAN SIM ATH;
MAY = ISO + EPH + BAE + PSU + CAE + TRI + STM;
PLE = CLA;
COL = STL;
CAD = HYD + CHE + CHM + HYT + HEL;
DIP = CHI + ORT + TAN + SIM + ATH;
*baes = bae + psu;
TOT = MAY + PLE + COL + CAD + DIP;
CARDS;
WK1 A 9 5 38 24 6 3 5 0 4 184 126 2 22 1 103 51 12 41 0
WK1 B 11 13 47 13 9 3 4 2 4 195 117 13 18 1 127 61 13 91 0
WK1 C 11 14 43 22 3 3 9 0 0 143 80 6 37 0 94 36 13 37 1
WK1 D 24 11 72 11 7 1 1 0 2 197 59 2 39 0 75 56 10 49 1
WK1 E 22 1 9 35 13 1 3 0 3 275 105 1 68 0 78 21 4 66 0
WK2 A 43 17 54 80 25 12 20 0 2 252 102 12 18 0 202 77 35 66 0
WK2 B 45 41 37 101 37 14 23 0 1 250 153 15 16 0 108 25 26 13 0
WK2 C 66 14 46 73 12 7 17 0 2 242 131 9 16 0 93 23 17 16 0
WK2 D 76 30 82 107 22 4 12 0 2 236 116 2 12 0 89 36 5 33 0
WK2 E 68 42 68 129 53 11 45 1 5 223 117 11 37 0 97 55 40 25 1
WK3 A 184 8 84 98 34 8 42 1 3 248 226 32 24 0 306 40 34 44 2
WK3 B 146 33 69 120 76 13 99 3 0 219 131 9 8 0 204 37 50 10 0
WK3 C 125 50 72 160 84 10 68 1 0 183 116 5 10 1 195 43 47 9 0
WK3 D 163 3 52 150 20 20 38 1 0 293 109 13 12 0 117 49 9 23 0
WK3 E 141 4 123 92 41 10 59 1 0 466 132 34 11 0 114 26 15 9 0
WK4 A 264 2 196 58 34 12 78 0 6 382 174 4 18 0 116 32 14 42 0
WK4 B 224 12 188 36 56 6 34 0 3 336 180 14 8 0 150 52 16 26 4
WK4 C 270 16 82 28 54 5 90 1 9 344 170 14 28 0 122 40 14 74 0
WK4 D 202 0 356 0 30 12 62 0 1 518 168 26 12 0 92 62 4 18 0
WK4 E 214 4 174 74 46 18 76 1 2 576 176 56 6 2 218 42 0 14 0
WK5 A 0 4 13 2 17 4 0 0 2 27 3 13 0 1 104 15 7 1 0
WK5 B 0 0 12 1 5 2 0 0 2 9 0 6 0 0 37 13 3 0 0
WK5 C 7 3 18 0 5 3 0 0 4 32 4 5 1 1 80 20 5 3 0
WK5 D 13 0 42 0 30 6 8 2 5 160 82 20 0 0 146 33 5 0 0
WK5 E 5 0 33 3 9 6 4 2 10 41 7 5 0 4 128 28 2 2 0
WK6 A 18 2 82 3 15 1 3 1 2 56 11 3 1 1 140 7 14 2 3
WK6 B 37 0 186 13 18 2 13 4 15 96 51 3 5 0 170 14 20 25 1
WK6 C 39 1 224 23 19 4 13 1 8 95 29 4 5 2 213 32 8 7 1
WK6 D 60 3 247 12 9 0 12 5 11 125 53 5 2 0 122 29 4 20 0
WK6 E 78 4 164 12 14 4 14 1 7 158 58 4 4 0 102 24 6 6 0
WK7 A 54 0 262 18 8 0 12 2 14 224 102 4 12 0 134 26 10 12 2
WK7 B 122 2 182 60 12 0 26 2 13 156 88 4 8 0 62 34 4 16 0
WK7 C 108 0 116 10 6 0 26 1 10 200 122 12 10 0 66 26 8 10 0
WK7 D 206 6 168 28 14 0 98 0 12 184 60 10 4 0 68 32 4 0 0
WK7 E 116 2 264 46 2 0 26 0 9 244 104 0 12 0 96 32 4 44 0
PROC PRINT;
PROC SORT DATA = CRITTERS;
BY WEEK REP;
PROC MEANS;
BY WEEK;

```

```

VAR ISO EPH BAE PSU CAE TRI STM CLA STL HYD CHE CHM HYT HEL CHI ORT TAN
SIM ATH MAY PLE COL CAD DIP TOT;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=ISO;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=EPH;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=BAE;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=PSU;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=CAE;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=TRI;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=STM;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=CLA;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=STL;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=HYD;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=CHE;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=CHM;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=HYT;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=HEL;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=CHI;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=ORT;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=TAN;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=SIM;
PROC CHART DATA=CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE=MEAN SUMVAR=ATH;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR=MAY;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR=PLE;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR=COL;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR=CAD;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR=DIP;
PROC CHART DATA = CRITTERS;
VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUNVAR=TOT;
PROC ANOVA DATA = CRITTERS;
CLASS WEEK;
MODEL ISO EPH BAE PSU CAE TRI STM CLA STL HYD CHE CHM HYT HEL CHI ORT
TAN SIM ATH MAY PLE COL CAD DIP TOT = WEEK;
MEANS WEEK/LSD;

```

APPENDIX C. Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program used in Chapter 3 to analyze aquatic macroinvertebrate colonization of four artificial substrate types over a six week period.

```

TITLE 'IMPROVED COLONIZATION STUDY ANALYSIS';
DATA BUG;
INPUT WEEK $ TYPE $ REP $ ISO POT BIN BAR BFL TER
MOD STN CAE TRY CLA PTE PER STE
DUB MAC MOR CHU CHM HYD DOL HEL CHI
TAN ORT SIM EMP ATH TIP CEO GOP COR PET HEB;
*PE=PRECOLONIZED-EMBEDDED,PU=PRECOLONIZED-UNEMBEDDED;
*UE=UNCOLONIZED-EMBEDDED,UU=UNCOLONIZED-UNEMBEDDED;
EPH=ISO+POT+BIN+BAR+BFL+TER+MOD+STN+CAE+TRY;
PLE=CLA+PTE+PER;
COL=STE+DUB+MAC;
TRI=MOR+CHU+CHM+HYD+DOL+HEL;
DIP=CHI+TAN+ORT+SIM+EMP+ATH+TIP;
ODO=CEO+GOP;
TOT=EPH+PLE+COL+TRI+DIP+ODO;
IF REP = C THEN DELETE;
CARDS;
WK1 UU  A  38  0  74  12  5  17  6  0  7  3  0  0  0  0  0  0
    125 51  0  14  0  0  22  6  14 123  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UU  B 101  0 153  25  21  11  1  0  0  1  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
    167 77  9  26  0  0  63  8  17 270  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UU  C  71  0  54  8  13  17  3  0  16  0  2  0  0  0  0  0  0
    161 67 10  5  0  0  83  4  27  91  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UU  D  88  0 101  10  0  8  6  0  8  2  1  0  0  0  0  0  0
    260 71 16 26  0  0  26 10 19 278  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UU  E  70  0  78  10  4  18  4  0  5  3  1  0  0  0  0  0  0
    58  24  4  10  0  0  15  3  16  28  0  0  0  1  1  0  0  0

WK1 UE  A 121  0  15  0  1  34  10  1  38  1  3  0  0  0  0  0  0
    94 49  5  2  0  0  17  3  17  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  2
WK1 UE  B  73  0  27  0  6  13  9  0  10  0  4  0  96 31  4  3
    0  0 10  2  7  21  0  0  0  0  1  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UE  D  27  0  31  2  1  18  5  0  20  5  1  0  0  0  2  0  0  0
    56 17  0  2  0  0  17  6  23  2  1  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
WK1 UE  E  42  0  24  1  0  27  8  6  17  9  3  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
    37 29  4  1  0  0  19  3  24  1  0  0  0  0  0  0  1  0

WK1 PU  A 120  0 168  23  13  13  5  0  13  1  3  0  0  0  0  0  0
    305 46  6  13  0  0  49  7  19 157  0  0  0  0  2  0  1
WK1 PU  B 122  0 192  10  9  16  3  0  6  2  2  0  0  0  0  0  1
    424 54 14  16  0  0  34  3  5 150  1  0  0  0  0  2  0  1
WK1 PU  C  66  0 176  7  12  13  6  0  30 11  1  0  0  2  0  0  0
    351 64 15 23  0  0  89  6  31 145  0  0  1  0  2  0  0  0
WK1 PU  D 110  0 102  36  4  24  4  0  4  4  0  0  1  0  0  0  0
    400 98 10 48  0  0  48  6  25 189  2  1  0  1  0  0  0  0
WK1 PU  E  82  0 161  21  10  4  2  0  7  3  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
    350 54 17 11  0  0  17  3  16 144  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0

WK1 PE  A  38  0  57  18  7  37  16  0  17 15  0  0  0  2  0  0
    31 12  5  1  0  0  37  22  2  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0

```

WK1 PE B 25	0	39	1	5	27	10	0	29	11	6	0	0	1	0	0
90 26 0	0	0	0	12	3	15	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK1 PE D 102	0	81	8	2	32	19	2	55	8	0	0	0	1	0	0
199 77 11	4	0	0	26	7	29	3	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK1 PE E 54	0	26	2	0	42	28	2	30	6	1	0	0	4	0	0
50 41 1	1	0	0	24	3	27	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
WK2 UU A 102	0	171	1	8	43	2	0	31	5	7	0	0	0	0	0
199 82 4	4	1	0	154	43	7	20	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK2 UU B 88	0	252	12	6	8	6	0	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
534 90 24	21	0	0	115	37	26	256	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK2 UU C 95	0	287	8	17	19	7	0	3	4	1	0	0	0	0	0
482 86 10	7	0	0	155	6	6	224	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK2 UU D 67	0	205	2	5	53	2	0	35	23	2	0	0	1	0	0
276 76 11	4	0	0	146	13	49	47	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
WK2 UU E 52	0	110	4	4	35	4	0	20	11	7	0	0	2	0	0
219 67 5	6	0	0	71	12	25	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK2 UE A 184	0	74	3	1	31	20	0	27	9	5	0	0	1	0	0
161 71 4	0	0	0	34	7	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
WK2 UE B 156	0	99	3	6	36	8	0	25	3	2	0	0	0	0	0
287 79 14	3	0	0	71	7	45	17	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK2 UE D 88	0	84	8	0	48	16	1	42	24	4	0	0	3	1	0
128 61 2	0	4	0	44	8	23	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
WK2 UE E 49	1	54	2	0	64	20	3	26	8	4	0	0	1	0	0
37 22 0	1	1	0	35	7	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK2 PU A 189	0	190	4	3	0	39	3	30	5	4	0	0	0	0	0
336 85 34	2	0	0	76	16	22	5	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0
WK2 PU B 196	0	272	5	1	31	9	0	28	7	3	0	0	0	0	0
549 84 54	12	0	0	122	19	35	106	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0
WK2 PU C 110	0	185	4	2	25	3	0	52	26	3	0	0	1	0	0
370 82 10	3	0	0	89	12	30	13	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
WK2 PU D 130	0	283	6	2	32	6	0	32	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
437 78 36	1	0	0	135	13	43	57	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK2 PU E 60	0	208	6	2	38	2	1	35	4	1	0	0	0	0	0
540 84 23	10	0	0	136	39	22	66	0	1	0	1	1	2	0	0
WK2 PE A 21	0	13	12	0	35	14	2	70	43	3	0	0	0	0	0
24 6 1	0	2	0	40	14	32	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK2 PE B 44	0	23	5	2	32	25	0	70	19	3	0	0	4	0	0
43 44 0	1	1	0	39	15	44	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK2 PE D 75	0	72	0	0	30	6	0	33	10	3	0	0	2	0	0
127 90 12	2	2	0	61	19	35	0	1	0	0	2	9	0	0	0
WK2 PE E 88	0	68	0	0	75	14	2	54	6	8	0	0	1	0	0
54 25 7	2	0	0	17	4	23	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK3 UU A 140	0	146	8	12	134	12	0	36	10	4	0	0	4	0	0
248 118 12	14	0	0	74	36	46	9	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 UU B 162	0	181	6	19	98	11	0	20	1	2	0	0	0	0	0
496 120 50	32	1	0	92	38	35	19	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0
WK3 UU C 226	0	96	2	0	192	29	2	52	2	8	0	0	6	0	0
288 94 8	4	2	0	102	30	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 UU D 179	0	222	6	12	192	14	0	52	3	8	0	0	0	0	0
350 98 36	12	1	0	72	18	47	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 UU E 148	0	66	2	4	120	4	0	28	2	6	0	0	4	0	0
104 66 12	4	4	0	63	20	37	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
WK3 UE A 122	2	14	4	2	90	56	0	48	8	12	0	0	6	0	0
84 94 4	2	2	0	54	30	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 UE B 37	0	34	4	1	70	22	0	48	6	7	0	0	6	0	0
91 93 11	2	0	1	25	7	13	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

WK3 UE D	160	0	57	0	8	188	44	0	59	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	1
188 137	6	6	0	0	27	10	33	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK3 UE E	58	1	10	2	2	133	36	0	79	10	2	0	0	0	15	1	0
52 64 33	1	0	1	30	16	37	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 PU A	128	0	174	8	4	86	8	0	72	4	4	0	0	3	0	0	0
353 129	16	4	0	0	64	32	35	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
WK3 PU B	134	0	280	4	0	68	0	0	8	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
652 208	84	28	0	0	84	20	40	42	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 PU C	184	0	136	4	4	130	8	0	18	12	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
328 130	14	14	4	0	172	44	62	2	0	0	0	4	0	8	0	0	0
WK3 PU D	144	0	64	10	0	128	14	0	60	20	6	2	0	0	0	0	0
232 66	12	2	6	0	74	50	90	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 PU E	150	0	106	2	0	140	32	0	32	16	4	0	0	4	0	0	0
330 80	20	10	0	0	56	34	52	0	2	0	0	6	0	0	2	0	0
WK3 PE A	33	0	7	9	0	70	29	0	80	8	3	0	0	5	0	0	0
76 74	3	0	1	0	54	9	38	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
WK3 PE B	13	0	6	3	0	92	24	2	47	12	8	0	0	3	0	0	0
53 16	0	0	0	0	12	3	22	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
WK3 PE D	33	0	24	2	1	65	15	0	47	9	5	0	0	3	0	0	0
83 82	3	2	2	0	26	3	21	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK3 PE E	28	0	6	1	0	60	22	0	27	4	2	0	0	7	1	0	0
71 58	13	1	0	0	0	20	17	29	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK4 UU A	223	0	170	8	24	227	44	0	25	0	2	0	0	4	0	0	0
257 104	23	13	2	0	157	57	26	3	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
WK4 UU B	178	0	139	11	8	114	20	0	6	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
572 156	52	36	0	0	62	36	11	3	0	0	0	1	0	5	0	0	0
WK4 UU C	104	0	67	0	8	116	6	0	14	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	0
177 92	8	8	6	0	105	30	15	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK4 UU D	160	0	78	2	0	123	31	0	26	0	7	0	0	2	0	0	0
202 86	24	15	3	0	78	56	23	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	1	0	0
WK4 UU E	230	0	100	8	12	152	42	0	24	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	0
220 110	40	10	2	0	62	32	34	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK4 UE A	29	0	2	5	1	31	35	0	13	8	1	0	0	4	0	0	0
51 28	0	1	5	0	51	41	20	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK4 UE B	14	0	8	1	0	34	8	0	22	4	4	0	0	4	1	0	0
46 43	1	5	3	0	14	20	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK4 UE D	14	1	15	5	4	58	17	0	13	5	1	0	0	3	1	0	0
63 58	2	4	2	0	53	32	9	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK4 UE E	168	0	29	2	6	136	46	0	19	2	1	0	0	16	0	0	0
100 43	44	10	0	0	28	12	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
WK4 PU A	116	0	150	8	23	147	30	0	8	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
111 110	21	26	0	1	122	38	32	2	3	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0
WK4 PU B	290	0	148	0	10	189	8	0	20	5	9	0	0	3	0	0	0
472 141	115	17	0	0	82	53	30	2	2	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
WK4 PU C	216	0	84	22	4	154	26	0	10	1	3	1	0	1	0	0	0
228 154	10	18	2	0	111	53	25	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
WK4 PU D	248	0	122	4	20	124	28	0	6	2	12	2	0	0	0	0	0
382 168	44	16	0	0	64	36	18	12	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
WK4 PU E	226	0	132	0	7	120	18	1	20	6	5	0	0	5	0	0	0
358 134	83	14	0	0	58	41	26	3	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0
WK4 PE A	8	0	5	9	1	47	34	0	16	7	4	0	1	5	0	0	0
53 31	0	2	2	2	63	45	17	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK4 PE B	45	0	22	9	3	83	54	1	27	5	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
40 23	1	1	0	2	31	20	20	0	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
WK4 PE D	106	0	26	2	16	127	38	1	46	4	2	0	1	10	0	0	0
94 70	39	3	0	0	39	22	33	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0

WK4 PE E	26	0	26	3	2	104	46	0	21	5	3	0	0	22	1	0
43 31 5	4	6	0	8	9	23	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0
WK5 UU A	198	0	35	8	0	121	30	0	6	1	7	0	0	5	0	0
258 112 43	13	2	1	20	12	5	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0
WK5 UU B	247	0	69	0	34	170	34	0	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0
616 181 46	23	0	0	30	10	5	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
WK5 UU C	71	0	24	1	2	144	11	0	13	1	8	0	0	3	0	0
149 91 9	23	5	0	45	45	17	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
WK5 UU D	135	0	13	4	6	95	12	0	8	0	10	0	0	9	0	0
282 171 35	17	0	0	23	15	8	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK5 UU E	132	0	23	10	4	228	62	0	18	2	9	0	0	3	0	0
157 93 6	4	4	0	21	14	14	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK5 UE A	33	0	6	2	1	94	43	0	7	2	0	0	0	10	0	0
47 64 1	8	2	1	39	47	17	0	3	0	0	2	2	1	0	0	0
WK5 UE B	80	0	12	2	10	132	36	0	14	1	5	0	0	10	0	0
149 140 19	26	0	0	26	25	21	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK5 UE D	20	0	2	10	1	65	35	0	8	3	3	0	0	1	0	0
55 93 2	3	2	0	12	11	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK5 UE E	18	2	5	4	1	81	20	0	15	4	1	0	0	14	0	0
19 36 6	7	5	2	25	19	6	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
WK5 PU A	261	0	76	8	12	153	30	0	18	5	3	0	0	0	0	0
345 109 26	25	1	0	22	15	11	2	2	0	0	2	0	0	4	0	0
WK5 PU B	134	0	17	3	2	74	21	0	4	0	7	0	0	5	0	0
488 201 158	14	0	0	47	38	12	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
WK5 PU C	186	0	24	18	2	247	41	0	10	3	2	0	0	1	0	0
307 174 14	49	0	2	92	34	14	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
WK5 PU D	252	0	48	4	6	162	70	0	8	0	3	1	0	3	0	0
182 144 26	8	1	0	34	11	8	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0
WK5 PU E	242	0	44	2	4	164	62	0	4	2	4	2	0	4	0	0
348 204 84	20	0	0	36	24	4	0	4	0	0	2	0	0	4	2	0
WK5 PE A	15	0	5	9	0	76	38	0	10	4	4	0	0	19	1	0
39 57 4	5	2	4	64	65	22	0	6	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0
WK5 PE B	120	0	24	4	2	193	57	0	20	1	7	0	0	5	0	0
85 156 53	19	0	0	25	8	18	0	2	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	0
WK5 PE D	70	0	15	6	2	111	35	0	20	1	1	0	0	18	0	0
142 185 21	3	1	0	18	11	17	0	2	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0
WK5 PE E	9	0	2	1	0	65	27	0	13	2	3	0	0	13	0	0
23 39 3	1	0	1	19	10	10	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
WK6 UU A	168	0	28	18	18	162	32	0	14	1	3	0	0	0	0	0
123 203 19	20	6	0	27	40	10	3	4	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0
WK6 UU B	217	0	37	10	2	128	17	0	0	0	8	2	0	1	0	0
364 155 86	22	0	0	17	50	8	37	4	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	1
WK6 UU C	203	0	12	2	1	208	22	0	11	0	11	0	0	5	0	1
297 318 42	53	8	1	26	13	23	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK6 UU D	167	0	18	8	4	240	28	0	10	0	14	0	0	9	0	0
200 186 78	20	4	0	26	39	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
WK6 UU E	266	0	48	14	8	206	66	0	8	0	5	0	0	8	0	0
252 234 48	10	2	0	34	27	15	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
WK6 UE A	75	0	1	8	0	144	53	0	10	1	2	1	0	14	0	0
54 174 12	29	0	0	30	72	23	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
WK6 UE B	20	1	5	3	0	51	18	0	5	2	4	0	0	13	1	0
54 114 6	5	0	1	17	40	15	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
WK6 UE D	170	0	8	2	4	114	35	0	14	2	4	0	0	8	0	0
164 245 105	24	0	1	17	21	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WK6 UE E	14	0	5	0	5	58	22	0	4	0	1	0	0	2	0	0
30 17 4	3	1	2	6	20	10	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0

WK6 PU A	132	0	20	36	0	156	46	0	6	2	1	0	0	2	0	0
310 302 68	38	0	0	53	62	17	12	6	1	1	0	0	3	2	0	0
WK6 PU B	130	0	42	20	1	188	52	0	0	3	15	3	0	0	0	0
424 222 50	28	0	0	18	32	5	4	2	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
WK6 PU C	203	0	8	5	1	126	24	0	5	1	6	1	0	1	0	0
291 291 55	35	3	1	45	37	22	0	3	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	0
WK6 PU D	281	0	12	12	0	97	40	0	1	1	7	0	0	3	0	0
264 188 96	24	3	0	24	34	9	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
WK6 PU E	302	0	33	0	0	290	54	0	9	1	14	1	0	8	0	0
285 256 119	33	0	0	22	28	15	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1
WK6 PE A	11	0	4	8	3	65	48	1	6	4	1	0	0	14	0	0
69 43 3	4	2	1	19	20	12	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WK6 PE B	10	1	2	8	2	41	33	0	8	6	2	0	1	11	1	0
27 44 1	5	1	0	28	24	12	0	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
WK6 PE D	92	1	13	13	2	131	54	1	5	0	2	0	1	11	0	0
108 150 13	10	0	0	14	30	13	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	0	0	0
WK6 PE E	67	0	4	6	2	89	50	0	12	0	1	0	0	9	1	0
64 131 9	8	1	0	39	36	19	0	4	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0

```

*PROC PRINT;
PROC SORT;
  BY type;
PROC MEANS;
  BY type week;
* var EPH PLE COL TRI DIP ODO COR PET HEB;
  var tot;
PROC SORT DATA = BUG;
  BY type;
PROC ANOVA DATA = BUG;
  BY type;
  CLASS week;
*MODEL EPH PLE COL TRI DIP ODO COR PET HEB = week;
MODEL TOT = WEEK;
MEANS week / LSD;
MEANS week / DUNCAN;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = eph group = type;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = ple group = type;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = col group = type;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = tri group = type;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = dip group = type;
*PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
*vbar week / type = mean sumvar = odo group = type;
PROC CHART DATA = BUG;
  VBAR WEEK / TYPE = MEAN SUMVAR = TOT GROUP = TYPE;

* MODEL EPH PLE COL TRI DIP ODO COR PET HEB = WEEK TYPE WEEK*TYPE;
*PROC GLM;
* CLASS WEEK TYPE;
* MODEL EPH PLE COL TRI DIP ODO COR PET HEB = WEEK TYPE WEEK*TYPE;
*PROC MEANS;
* BY WEEK;
* ID TYPE;
* VAR EPH PLE COL TRI DIP ODO COR PET HEB;
* OUTPUT OUT = NEW MEAN = EPHM PLEM COLM TRIM DIPM ODOM CORM PETM HEBM;
*PROC PLOT;
* PLOT EPHM*WEEK = TYPE;

```