# INVESTIGATIONS INTO CADMIUM TOLERANCE IN CHIRONOMUS RIPARIUS: SPATIAL PATTERNS OF TRANSPORT AND SEQUESTRATION

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# INVESTIGATIONS INTO CADMIUM TOLERANCE IN *CHIRONOMUS RIPARIUS*: SPATIAL PATTERNS OF TRANSPORT AND SEQUESTRATION

By

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A thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements For the Degree

**Master of Science** 

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- TITLE: Investigations into Cd tolerance in *Chironomus riparius*: spatial patterns of Cd transport and sequestration.
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NUMBER OF PAGES: x, 90

#### ABSTRACT

Chironomus riparius are the least sensitive aquatic species in the U.S. EPA (2000) species sensitivity distribution (SSD) for cadmium (Cd). LC50 values over 25.000 times the Criterion Maximum Concentration suggest that chironomids have an extraordinary capacity to excrete or sequester cadmium as a means of increasing their overall tolerance to toxic metals. Using atomic absorption spectroscopy, we have shown saturable uptake of cadmium by whole chironomids and isolated guts. The transport of Cd from the gut lumen to the hemolymph exposes other tissues such as the nervous system and muscles to Cd. To quantify the movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the main point of entry, the digestive tract, we have identified regional differences of Cd transport along the gut using a Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective microelectrode in conjunction with the Scanning Ion-Selective Electrode Technique (SIET).  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes were determined in high mucosal or serosal  $Ca^{2+}$  to analyze the contribution of  $Ca^{2+}$  transporters to  $Cd^{2+}$  uptake. The major tissues responsible for elimination of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph are the posterior midgut and the ileum. In addition, experiments using an isolated Malpighian tubule preparation (the Ramsay assay) have shown that the Malpighian tubules both sequester and secrete  $Cd^{2+}$ . The tubules can secret the entire hemolymph burden of  $Cd^{2+}$  in ~ 18 hours.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to offer my sincerest thanks to Dr. Mike O'Donnell for this wonderful opportunity and for providing me with ongoing guidance and support throughout the past two years. Your invaluable assistance and understanding has helped me grow as a scientist and given me the courage to move forward with further academic studies.

Thank you to Dr. Chris Wood for believing in me as an undergraduate student two years ago, and for introducing me to the field of toxiclology. Your scientific guidance and support as my co-supervisor has been an invaluable asset over the past two years. I am grateful for your continued belief in me as I endeavor upon my Ph.D. under your supervision.

Many thanks to Dr. Patricia Gillis for all her technical advice, helpful ideas and continued support. Your encouragement, insight and perspective have been incredibly valuable over the course of my Master's degree.

A big thank you to all past and current members of the O'Donnell and Wood labs for their continued friendship and support. I have thoroughly enjoyed working with all of you.

To Kris, my best friend, you are my strength and my laughter. I'm looking forward to a lifetime of memories. I love you, Babe, www.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my Mumsy who is greatly missed everyday.

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### State of Mind:

If you think you are beaten, you are. If you think you dare not, you don't. If you'd like to win but think you can't. It's almost a cinch that you won't. If you think you'll lose, you've lost. For out in the world, you'll find Success begins with a person's will – It's all in the state of the mind.

- Author unknown

#### THESIS ORGANIZATION AND FORMAT

This thesis is presented as an "open-faced sandwich thesis" with a general introduction and objectives of the research presented in chapter 1 followed by two research papers which are in the format of manuscripts to be submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals.

Chapter 1: Introduction and project objectives

Chapter 2: Investigation into Cd tolerance in *Chironomus riparius*: spatial patterns of Cd transport and sequestration.
Authors: Erin M. Leonard, Laura M. Pierce, Patricia L. Gillis, Chris M. Wood and Michael J. O'Donnell
Chapter 3: The effect of calcium on cadmium transport across the gut of *Chironomus*

riparius

Authors: Erin M. Leonard, David Irwin, Chris Wood and Michael J. O'Donnell

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#### **CHAPTER 1:**

#### **General Introduction**

#### Cadmium in the aquatic environment- sources and chemistry

Cadmium (Cd) is a divalent metal found in the environment as impurities of metallic ores, mainly those of zinc, copper and lead (Godt et al., 2006; Martelli et al., 2006). Cd is released into the air during mining and smelting of these ores and can be transported from its origin as suspended atmospheric particles. Cd is therefore present in many bodies of water in the Northern Hemisphere and enters these aquatic systems by being absorbed onto particles and settling on the surficial sediments leading to the accumulation within benthic organisms (Naimo, 1995; Martelli et al., 2006). Cd can also enter into the environment by leaching from industrial products. These include nickel-cadmium (NiCd) batteries, colour pigments in paints and plastics, coating by electroplating and polyvinyl chloride (PVC) products (Godt et al., 2006; Naimo, 1995; Martelli et al., 2006).

Recently, there has been more attention paid to the toxicity of cadmium to plants, animals and humans, because of increased dependence on industrial metal consumption (Lee et al., 2006). Studies have highlighted cadmium's ability to displace or mimic essential ions within organisms, mainly calcium, zinc and iron (Martelli et al., 2006). The displacement of these ions from proteins leads to loss of function and the production of reactive oxygen species from the free iron molecules (Lee et al., 2006). Under biological conditions, cadmium maintains a  $Cd^{2+}$  oxidation state and acts as a Lewis acid by accepting electrons allowing for easy binding to many sulfur containing proteins and

enzymes (Martelli et al., 2006). In doing so, cadmium perturbs redox homeostasis and ion transport systems (Martelli et al., 2006), thereby disrupting many essential cellular processes. Following exposure to Cd, invertebrates have displayed alterations in intracellular organelles including nuclei, mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum and plasma membranes (Seidman et al., 1986). In aquatic invertebrates, Cd exposure can result in physiological and behavioural changes affecting mating, oviposition, egg development and pupation (Lee et al., 2006).

#### Chironomids as highly tolerant bioindicator species

The midge *Chironomus riparius* (Order Diptera, Family Chironomidae) is often found in bodies of water highly contaminated with toxic metals (Postma et al., 1996). This insect has therefore become of key interest as a bioindicator of metal contamination and a model species for toxicological studies pertaining to Cd. The aquatic larvae have four instars which spend most of their time in the sediment compartment below the sediment-water interface. This interface is the primary location for Cd accumulation in aquatic environments (Lee et al., 2006). Aquatic invertebrates such as chironomids are important in terms of their ecological health, especially with respect to metal toxicity within the environment (Buchwalter and Luoma, 2005). Chironomids are an ideal species for toxicological experiments because they have a short life-cycle (approximately 27-29 days at 21° C), they are easily cultured in the laboratory, they are a common aquatic species found around North America and the world (Gillis et al., 2002) and they are an important food for many fish and bird species (Lee et al., 2006).

#### Toleration of toxic metals by C. riparius

Chironomids have been found in waters heavily contaminated with metals and are one of the first species to repopulate areas where industrial activities have subsided (Postma et al., 1994). The concentrations of Cd, Cu, Pb, Ni and Zn associated with 50 % survival (LC50) for first instar chironomids are 25 thousand to 500 thousand times higher than the levels permitted in the environment by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) and the Canadian Councils of the Ministers of the Environment (CCME), respectively (Béchard et al., 2008). This extraordinary tolerance suggests that chironomids have a significant capacity to excrete or sequester Cd as a means of coping with exposure to high levels of metals. It should be noted that the first instars have been shown to be the most sensitive to Pb toxicity (Williams et al., 1986; Nebeker et al., 1984; Postma et al., 1994). Therefore, even when using the most sensitive larval phase, chironomids display LC50 values orders of magnitude higher than environmentally relevant levels. The LC50 value for Cd for chironomids is 200 times higher than that of Daphnia carinata (Khan and Nugegoda, 2007) and approximately 420 times higher than that of Oncorhynchus mykiss (Sloman et al., 2003).

#### Mechanisms involved in toxic metal detoxification

At high levels of toxic metal exposure, there are three methods for protection: formation of a physical barrier, detoxification by binding to complexes, and elimination (Naimo, 1995; Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). Detoxification methods include sequestration by proteins (Amiard et al., 2006) and incorporation into inorganic

crystalline concretions (Naimo, 1995). Both of these detoxification mechanisms render metals incapable of exerting their toxic effects.

For marine invertebrates the concretions consist of lead carbonate, zinc phosphate or ferric phosphate whereas in freshwater species calcium salts are more common (Naimo, 1995). Organisms demonstrate several changes following exposure to Cd. One such change at the molecular level is the production of metallothionein-like proteins (MTLP) which are cysteine rich, low-molecular weight proteins which bind available metals, rendering them inactive (Seidman et al., 1986). MTLP's have been studied as a possible biomarker to assess toxicity in benthic invertebrates (Gillis et al., 2002). MTLP have been found in several *Chironomus* species such as *C. thummi* (Seidman et al., 1986) and *C. yoshimatsui* (Yamamura et al., 1983) following exposure to Cd. MTLP are not limited to *Chironomus* species, and have been identified in the freshwater oligochaete, *Tubifex tubifex* (Gillis et al., 2002) and the nereid polychaete, *Perinereis aibuhitensis* (Ng et al., 2008). As well, metallothionein production has been determined in the teleost, *Onchorhynchus mykiss* (Chowdhury et al., 2005).

#### Anatomy of the gut

Several studies have described changes in the gut when chironomids are exposed to Cd in the environment (e.g. Craig et al., 1998; Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). The chironomid gut consists of seven segments. Posterior to the mouth is the esophagus (ESO) which connects to the caecae. The caecae consists of finger-like projections extending from the esophagus-midgut junction. The segment of the caeca which attaches to the rest of the gut is the proximal segment (PC), whereas the distal segment (DC) makes up the component of the caeca further away from the gut. Anterior (AMG) and posterior (PMG) midguts follow the caeca. These two segments are morphologically distinct in that the anterior midgut has small projections to increase surface area whereas the posterior midgut is thinner and the surface is smoother. Four individually attached Malpighian tubules (MT) are attached at the junction between the midgut and the hindgut (see below). The ileum is considerably thinner than the midgut segments and connects to the anterior rectum. The anterior rectum (AR) has thick projections followed by the posterior rectum (PR) and anal papillae.

#### Anatomy of the Malpighian tubules

The excretory system of *C. riparius* consists of the Malpighian tubules and the hindgut. The four Malpighian tubules are individually attached to the junction between the midgut and hindgut. They are one cell layer thick and can be divided into two main segments: the lower segment (LMT) which attaches to the midgut-hindgut junction and the distal segment (DMT). Urine in insects is produced from the active transepithelial movement of ions from the hemolymph to the Malpighian tubule lumen with osmotically obliged water (O'Donnell et al., 1998). Ions can be reabsorbed in the lower Malpighian tubules or in the hindgut.

# Methods for analysis of Cd<sup>2+</sup> transport in Chironomids

The small size of insects has necessitated the modification or development of micro methods for measuring the concentrations of ions and toxins, including some organic anions and organic cations, in cells, fluid samples or in the unstirred layer near the surface of isolated tissues such as the gut and the Malpighian tubules. I have applied these approaches to the development of techniques for analysis of  $Cd^{2+}$  transport by chironomids and these methods are described briefly in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. However, those chapters have been written in the format of papers for submission to journals, and thus the space available for methodological descriptions is limited. I have therefore provided a more extensive description of the methods used in this thesis in this section.

Radiolabelled probes have long been used to measure the concentration of inorganic ions and organic compounds in fluid samples collected from Malpighian tubules *in vitro* (e.g. Maddrell and Gardiner, 1974). Although <sup>109</sup>Cd could, in theory, be used to measure Cd transport by the tubules, there is a potential drawback because of the very small size of samples secreted by Malpighian tubules of small insects such as chironomids (~ 10 nl).

An alternative approach is the use of ion-selective microelectrodes. Ion-selective microelectrodes have been used extensively for analysis of physiological ions ( $H^+$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Cl^-$ ) inside cells of the Malpighian tubules or in samples of secreted fluid (O'Donnell and Maddrell, 1995; Ianowski et al., 2002). In this thesis I have applied a  $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrode originally developed for analysis of  $Cd^{2+}$  uptake by plant

roots (Piñeros et al., 1998) to the analysis of  $Cd^{2+}$  transport by isolated tissues of the larvae of *Chironomus riparius*. Ion-selective microelectrodes have also been used to study transport of the prototypical organic cation tetraethylammonium (TEA) and the organic anion salicylate (Rheault and O'Donnell, 2004; O'Donnell and Rheault, 2005). In both cases, the detection limit for micromolar concentrations in sub-nanoliter samples is well below that achievable using radioisotopic methods. Moreover, these microelectrode methods are cheaper, faster and safer when compared to radioisotopic methods. In addition, the non-invasive scanning ion-selective electrode technique (SIET) can be applied to measure the fluxes of  $Cd^{2+}$  across isolated tissues such as the gut and the Malpighian tubules of insects, using methods similar to those used for other ions (Rheault and O'Donnell, 2004; O'Donnell and Rheault, 2005).

SIET exploits ionic concentration gradients created in the unstirred layer by ion transport across cell membranes or epithelial layers (Fig. 2A). The microelectrode is positioned by an orthogonal array (X, Y, Z) of computer-controlled stepper motors and is moved between two points at each measurements site (Fig. 2B). The first point is close (within 5 to 10 µm) of the cell surface and the second point is  $30 - 100 \mu$ m farther away, at right angles to the surface. The voltage difference between the two limits of the microelectrode excursion ( $\Delta V$ ) is used to calculate a corresponding concentration difference ( $\Delta C$ ) using the electrode calibration curve. The concentration difference is then converted to net flux (mols cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) using Fick's Law: J = D $\Delta C/\Delta X$ , where D is the diffusion coefficient of the ion of interest and  $\Delta X$  is the excursion distance. SIET is particularly useful for spatial and temporal analysis of ion transport. The role of different

segments of the gut and the Malpighian tubules in  $Cd^{2+}$  transport can thus be determined even for small insects such chironomids that are not amenable to the Ussing chamber studies used for gut segments of larger species such as locusts and *Manduca sexta*.

I have also made use of ion-selective microelectrodes to measure the concentrations of ions in the fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules set up in the Ramsay assay (Fig. 3). Multiple droplets can be collected from 10 or more tubules set up in the Ramsay assay. Transepithelial flux (pmol min<sup>-1</sup>) for each tubule is calculated as the product of fluid secretion rate (nl min<sup>-1</sup>) and ion concentration (mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) determined by the ion-selective microelectrode. Ion concentration is determined from the voltage difference between the sample and a calibration droplet and from the electrode slope, using the following equation:

$$[Cd^{2+}]_{sf} = [Cd^{2+}]_{cal} \times 10^{(\Delta V/S)}$$

Where  $[Cd^{2+}]_{sf}$  is the concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$  in the secreted fluid,  $[Cd^{2+}]_{cal}$  is the concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$  in a calibration droplet,  $\Delta V$  is the voltage difference between the calibration droplet and the secreted fluid and S is the slope of the electrode, measured as the voltage change for a 10-fold difference in  $Cd^{2+}$  concentration. Although ion-selective microelectrodes measure ion *activity* and not *concentration*, data can be expressed in terms of concentration if it is assumed that the ion activity coefficient is the same in the secreted fluid samples and the calibration solutions. Expression of data in terms of concentrations simplifies comparisons with other studies using techniques such as atomic absorption spectroscopy which measure ion concentration.

 $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes have not been used previously for analysis of droplets secreted by insect Malpighian tubules, and part of this thesis thus concerns measurement of parameters such as the detection limit for  $Cd^{2+}$ , electrode slope and selectivity relative to other ions (e.g.  $Ca^{2+}$ ) for small fluid samples containing levels of ions comparable to those in insect hemolymph, considerably higher than the media used in the media bathing plant root tips in the original study by Piñeros et al. (1998).

An additional problem arises when ion-selective microelectrodes are used for analysis of samples maintained under paraffin oil. The ionophore cocktail is made up in an organic solvent, typically nitrophenyl octyl ether. Since the cocktail is hydrophobic, the glass micropipettes must be made hydrophobic in order to retain the cocktail in the tip and prevent capillary rise of aqueous fluids into the microelectrode. The glass is made hydrophobic through exposure to the vapours of silane compounds such as dimethyl trimethyl silyl amine. Baking the glass at ~ 200 C after exposures to silane vapour produces a hydrophobic glass surface. However, ion-selective microelectrodes made in this way cannot be used for aqueous samples under paraffin oil, since the oil is also hydrophobic and it will thus tend to rise into the microelectrode tip by capillarity and displace the ionophore cocktail. This problem can be avoided by dipping the tip of the ion-selective microelectrode in a solution of polyvinyl chloride in tetrahydrofuran. Evaporation of the tetrahydrofuran leaves a very thin coating of polyvinyl chloride around the tip of the microelectrode. Polyvinyl chloride prevents entry of oil into the microelectrode but allows the permeation of ions from aqueous samples to the ionophore

cocktail. It is worth noting that the membranes used for conventional macroscopic ionselective electrodes are fabricated from polyvinyl chloride.

#### Putative cadmium transporters:

The divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1; also known as SLC11A2-HUGO and Nramp2) is a proton-coupled divalent cation transporter (Southon et al., 2008) which can transport Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, Cd<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup> (Gunshin et al., 1997). In mammalian systems, DMT1 is found on the brush border membrane of enterocytes and is responsible for iron homeostasis (Martini et al., 2002). In teleost fish, DMT1 is thought to be responsible for Cu (Nadella et al., 2007) and Cd (Cooper et al., 2006) transport in the gut of *Oncorhynchus mykiss* and *Danio rerio*, respectively. However, more recent studies have shown the prevalence of DMT1 in several other tissues. In the invertebrate, *Drosophila melanogaster*, Malvolio (the DMT1 homolog found in *Drosophila*), is located in the Malpighian tubules, midgut, testes and brain (Southon et al., 2008; Folwell et al., 2006). DMT1 homologs are also found in the Malpighian tubules, midgut and testes of the mosquito, *Anopheles albimanus* (Martinez-Barnetche et al., 2007). Cd has been shown to be transported by DMT1, in the yeast species, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Rosakis and Koster, 2005) and in the duodenum of rats (Garrick et al., 2006).

Cd may also be transported by P-glycoproteins, which are a type of ATPdependent efflux pump found within the membranes of cells making up the tissues of the gut, kidney, liver and blood-brain barrier (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005). P-glycoproteins are associated with the development of cancer drug therapy resistance. With the

expansion of chemotherapies and other cancer related drugs that carry out their function inside the cells, there has been more attention to this set of genes coding for multidrug resistance transporters. They actively pump out a wide array of neutral or cationic toxins from the interior of cells (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005). P-glycoprotein-like transporters have been found in the cuticle of the tobacco budworm, Heliothis virescens and in the Malpighian tubules of the tobacco hornworm, Manduca sexta, the cricket, Teleogryllus commodus, and the fly, Drosophila melanogaster (Podsiadlowski et al., 1998; Leader and O'Donnell, 2005). As well, colchicine, a known P-glycoprotein substrate, increases expression of the genes for two P-glycoproteins (mdr49 and mdr65), in the gut and brain of Drosophila melanogaster larvae (Tapadia and Lakhotia, 2005). P-glycoproteins have also been implicated in Cd resistance in invertebrates; Callaghan and Denny (2002) exposed Drosophila melanogaster to Cd and a known P-glycoprotein blocker, verapamil, and demonstrated a significant reduction in adult emergence. Podsiadlowski et al. (1998) demonstrated the presence of P-glycoprotein ATP-ase activity in the anal papillae of C. riparius larvae. The anal papillae are one of the major organs responsible for ion homeostasis in the larvae of C. riparius (Podsiadlowski et al., 1998). Taken together, the studies of Callaghan and Denny (2002) and Podsiadlowski et al. (1998) raise the possibility that a P-glycoprotein-like efflux pump may play a role in C. riparius tolerance to high levels of cadmium exposure.

Cd has a similar ionic radius to calcium and may compete with calcium at transporter sites (Craig et al., 1999; Martelli et al., 2006). Craig et al. (1999) investigated the role of  $Ca^{2+}$  channels on Cd uptake in *Chironomus staegeri*, where Cd uptake was

inhibited when  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration is elevated. As well, Cd uptake is perturbed in the presence of calcium channel blockers such as verapamil and lanthanum (Craig et al., 1999).

Calcium is absorbed primarily across the anterior midgut epithelium of dipteran insects where the low pH favours  $Ca^{2+}$  solubility (Taylor, 1985). However, in contrast to mammals, regulation of hemolymph  $Ca^{2+}$  levels in the blowfly, *Calliphora vicina*, involves excretion rather than absorption (Taylor, 1985). Hemolymph  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration are stabilized by regulation of Malpighian tubule excretion and not by regulation of  $Ca^{2+}$ absorption through the midgut epithelium. The Malpighian tubules of *Drosophila melanogaster* are able to transport large amounts of  $Ca^{2+}$  either by secretion or sequestration (Dube et al., 2000). Given the high rates of  $Ca^{2+}$  transport by the anterior gut epithelium (Taylor, 1985), the capacity of the Malpighian tubules to cope with a large  $Ca^{2+}$  burden (Dube et al., 2000), and the potential for Cd to displace  $Ca^{2+}$  in membrane transport (Craig et al., 1999), further studies of the tissues involved in Cd transport in the Cd tolerant species, *C. riparius*, and the competition between Cd and  $Ca^{2+}$  are warranted.

In particular, this thesis therefore examines sequestration and secretion of Cd by the gut, Malpighian tubules and rectum. Cd levels have also been measured in the hemolymph to determine if the gut and cuticle prevent access of Cd into the hemolymph. Entry into the hemolymph means that other tissues such as the nervous system and muscles are exposed to Cd, and also that the Malpighian tubules and the basolateral (i.e. hemolymph-facing) surface of the gut might therefore play roles in minimizing Cd

toxicity through secretion and/or sequestration of Cd. The following specific questions are addressed:

- What are the levels of Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the hemolymph of chironomid larvae exposed to Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the water?
- 2. Is Cd<sup>2+</sup> absorbed across the anterior midgut (i.e. from gut lumen to hemolymph)?
- 3. Do the Malpighian tubules sequester and/or secrete  $Cd^{2+}$ ?
- 4. Do other segments of the gut such as the ileum and rectum transport  $Cd^{2+}$ ?
- 5. Do the anal papillae excrete  $Cd^{2+}$ ?

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Figure 1. Schematic representation of the *C. riparius* gut. ESO = esophagus, PC = proximal caecae, DC = distal caecae, AMG = anterior midgut, PMG = posterior midgut, LMT = lower Malpighian tubule, DMT = distal Malpighian tubule, AR = anterior rectum, PR = posterior rectum.



Figure 2. Non-invasive measurement of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes by the scanning ion-selective electrode technique. (A) The technique exploits gradients in ion activity within the unstirred layer that is created by ion transport across cells or epithelia. In this example, secretion of  $Cd^{2+}$  across the epithelium in the direction of the arrows reduces the concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$  close to the epithelial surface relative to that farther away. The size of the labels and the density of the shading correspond to the concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$ . (B) Schematic diagram of equipment used for SIET measurements. The isolated tissue and the ion-selective microelectrode are observed through a microscope equipped with a CCD camera. A computer-controlled motion control system drives an orthogonal (X, Y, Z) array of stepper-motors which move the amplifier headstage and attached ion-selective microelectrode to sites along the tissue and then at two points orthogonal to the tissue surface, as indicated in (A). Voltage differences between the two limits of excursion are recorded by the data acquisition system. Voltage gradients at different sites can be overlaid as vectors on an image of the tissue captured by the frame grabber connected to the CCD camera (as seen in Figure 3A in Chapter 2).



B


Figure 3. Measurement of the concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$  in droplets of fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules in the Ramsay assay. (A) An isolated Malpighian tubule is placed in a droplet of bathing saline under paraffin oil. The open end (formed where the tubule was separated from its junction with the gut) is pulled out and wrapped around a stainless steel pin embedded in the Sylgard-line base of a Petri dish. Secreted fluid droplets which form at the ureter, positioned just outside the bathing saline droplet, are collected on glass rods and placed on the bottom of the dish adjacent to calibration droplets containing known concentrations of  $Cd^{2+}$  in C. riparius saline. For each droplet, the potential difference between the  $Cd^{2+}$  -selective microelectrode ( $Cd^{2+}$  ME) and the reference microelectrode (Ref ME) is measured by a high impedance (>10<sup>15</sup>  $\Omega$ ) operational amplifier and recorded on a PC-based data acquisition system. Cd<sup>2+</sup> concentration in the secreted droplets is calculated from the voltage difference between the secreted droplet and the calibration droplets, as described in the Rheault and O'Donnell (2005). The tip of the  $Cd^{2+}$  -ME is coated with a solution of ~10% polyvinyl chloride (PVC) in tetrahydrofuran to avoid capillary rise of the paraffin oil into the silanized microelectrode. (B) Photograph showing 20 tubules set up in a Ramsay assay in a 55 mm diameter Petri dish. One of the 20 µl bathing droplets is indicated by the white arrow. Each tubule is secured to a black minutien pin anchored in the Sylgard to the right of each bathing saline droplet. Three secreted droplets collected at 30 min intervals are shown within the ellipse in the center of the frame. Reference and  $Cd^{2+}$  -selective microelectrodes (dark arrows) are positioned in a bathing saline droplet.





#### **CHAPTER 2:**

#### Abstract

C. riparius larvae are the least sensitive aquatic species in the U.S. EPA (2000) species sensitivity distribution (SSD) for cadmium (Cd). LC50 values over 25,000 times the Criterion Maximum Concentration suggest that chironomids have an extraordinary capacity to excrete or sequester cadmium as a means of increasing their overall tolerance to toxic metals. Using atomic absorption spectroscopy, we have shown saturable uptake of cadmium by whole chironomids and guts isolated from exposed intact chironomids. The transport of Cd from the gut lumen to the hemolymph exposes other tissues such as the nervous system and muscles to Cd. To quantify the movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the main point of entry, the digestive tract, we have identified regional differences of Cd transport along the gut using a Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective microelectrode in conjunction with the Scanning Ion-Selective Electrode Technique (SIET). Cd<sup>2+</sup> is transported into the anterior midgut cells from the lumen and out of the cells into the hemolymph. The major tissues responsible for elimination of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph are the posterior midgut and the ileum. In addition, experiments using an isolated Malpighian tubule preparation (the Ramsay assay) have shown that the Malpighian tubules both sequester and secrete  $Cd^{2+}$ . For larvae bathed in 10  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup>, the tubules can secrete the entire hemolymph burden of  $Cd^{2+}$  in ~ 6 hours.

# Introduction

*Chironomus riparius* are the least sensitive aquatic species in the U.S. EPA (2000) species sensitivity distribution for Cd. They are known for their ability to survive harsh environmental conditions including exposure to industrial byproducts such as metals (Bervoets et al., 1996; Mousavi et al, 2003; Brinkhurst, 1974; Gillis and Wood, 2008b). In fact Béchard et al. (2007) found that the 24-h LC50 values for first instar *C. riparius* are 25,000 to 500,000 times above the environmental guidelines outlined by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) and the Canadian Council of the Ministers of the Environment (CCME) for the five metals tested (Cd, Cu, Pb, Ni and Zn). High LC50 values suggest that chironomids may have an extraordinary capacity to excrete (Timmermans and Walker, 1989) or sequester (Gillis et al., 2002; Gillis and Wood, 2008b) Cd as a means of increasing their overall tolerance to toxic metals.

At high levels of metal exposure, three strategies aid survival: formation of a physical barrier (i.e. reducing metal uptake), elimination of metals in the urine or feces and metal detoxification (Hall, 2002; Naimo, 1995; Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990).

Detoxification involves the sequestration by proteins and/or incorporation into inorganic crystalline concretions, rendering the metal incapable of exerting its toxic effects (Naimo, 1995). Sequestration entails binding of  $Cd^{2+}$  to proteins or precipitation as insoluble salts, thereby reducing the amount of freely diffusible  $Cd^{2+}$ . In general, metal sequestration occurs in the organs responsible for digestion, storage and ion regulation (Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). Cd has been shown to accumulate in association with low-molecular weight proteins inside cells in both terrestrial and aquatic

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invertebrates, such as in the midge-larvae, *Chironomus yoshimatsui* (Yamamura et al., 1983), the stonefly, *Eusthenia spectabilis* (Everard and Swain, 1983), the earthworm, *Eisenia foetida* (Suzuki et al., 1980), the freshwater oligochaete, *Tubifex tubifex* (Gillis et al., 2004) and some plant species (Hall, 2002). These metallothionein-like proteins (MTLP), bind toxic metals, thereby protecting cells against toxicity (Roesijadi, 1992).

The potential role of metal sequestration within the gut tissues of *Chironomus staegeri* was shown by Craig et al. (1998) using microautoradiography. They suggested that sequestration within the gut was the dominant mechanism of Cd tolerance in this species. Although noting the gut as an important site for metal accumulation in chironomids, Krantzberg and Stokes (1990) proposed that detoxification was not limited to this organ. They highlighted the importance of the rectum and Malpighian tubules in ion transport and homeostasis, as well as in metal metabolism. Other studies have also implicated the Malpighian tubules in detoxification of metals in the housefly, *Musca* (Sohal et al., 1976) and silkworm larvae (Suzuki et al., 1984).

Although Cd is a non-essential metal, it has been shown to compete for transport with calcium (Craig et al., 1999; Martelli et al., 2006). Cd uptake by *Chironomus staegeri*, is inhibited by 88% by high levels (10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) of Ca<sup>2+</sup>, and Cd<sup>2+</sup> uptake is perturbed in the presence of calcium channel blockers such as verapamil and lanthanum (Craig et al., 1999). Calcium is absorbed primarily across the anterior midgut epithelium where the lower pH favours Ca<sup>2+</sup> solubility (Taylor, 1985). However, in contrast to mammalian systems, regulation of hemolymph Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels in the blowfly, *Calliphora vicina*, involves the renal system rather than the intestine (Taylor, 1985). Hemolymph Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations are regulated by Malpighian tubule excretion and not by regulation of  $Ca^{2+}$  absorption across the midgut epithelium. Dube et al. (2000) determined that the Malpighian tubules of *Drosophila melanogaster* can secrete the entire  $Ca^{2+}$  content of the body within approximately 9 hours and that the distal segments of the Malpighian tubules can sequester the same amount in approximately 2 hours.

The aim of this study was to identify sites and rates of Cd transport and sequestration with a particular focus on the gut and Malpighian tubules. In particular, we wished to determine if the gut is a site for Cd transfer into the hemolymph, and also whether secretion and/or sequestration of Cd by the gut and Malpighian tubules contributes to the high tolerance of environmental Cd that is characteristic of *Chironomus*. We have also measured H<sup>+</sup> gradients near the gut and Malpighian tubules because changes in pH can alter the availability of divalent metals such as Cd<sup>2+</sup>.

### Methods

# 2.1. Chironomid larvae

The *Chironomus riparius* culture presently maintained at McMaster University was initiated with egg ropes obtained from Environment Canada, Burlington, Ontario. First instar larvae were placed in 10 L aquaria containing one part fine-grained silica sand and three parts aerated Hamilton dechlorinated moderately hard tap water. The ionic composition of Hamilton tap water (in mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) was Na<sup>+</sup> (0.6), Cl<sup>-</sup> (0.8), Ca<sup>2+</sup> (1.8), K<sup>+</sup> (0.4), Mg<sup>2+</sup> (0.5) and Cd (<0.5 x 10<sup>-7</sup>). Water hardness was 140 mg 1<sup>-1</sup> CaCO<sub>3</sub> and pH was 7.8-8.0. The cultures were maintained at  $21 \pm 2$  °C under a 16:8 h light:dark photoperiod. *C. riparius* larvae were fed *ad libitum* on ground Nutrafin<sup>TM</sup> fish flakes (45% protein, 5% crude fat, 2% crude fibre, 8% moisture).

### 2.2. Chironomus riparius saline composition

#### Hemolymph ion levels:

A recipe for *C. riparius* saline was not available in the literature and we therefore designed a saline based on measured hemolymph ion levels. Samples of hemolymph were collected under paraffin oil. The head and anal papillae of the chironomid were held with forceps and a slight tension was applied to pull the anal papillae and gut out the posterior end of the carcass causing the hemolymph to pool in a droplet. Each gut was checked for lesions to ensure that the hemolymph sample was not contaminated by leakage of the gut contents. Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> levels were determined using ion-selective electrodes (see 2.3.). The composition of *C. riparius* larval saline was as follows

(in mmol  $l^{-1}$ ): KCl (5), NaCl (74), CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (8.5), NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (10.2), PIPES (1) and glucose (20). The saline was titrated to pH 7. Mg<sup>2+</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> levels were based on those in *Drosophila melanogaster* saline (O'Donnell et al., 1998).

### Minimizing Cd buffering by pH buffers:

Although "Good" buffers are widely used in biological salines, there is extensive research demonstrating that these buffers form complexes with metal ions, such as copper (Kandegedara and Rorabacher, 1999; Leverrier et al., 2007; Lleu and Rebel, 1991). One such "Good" buffer is HEPES, commonly used in insect saline (e.g. O'Donnell and Maddrell, 1995). "Better" buffers were designed so as to avoid complexation of the buffer and the metal (Kandegedara and Rorabacher, 1999). "Better" buffers are tertiary amines that lack hydroxyl groups on their  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  carbons, thereby increasing steric hindrance and preventing metal ions from complexing with the buffer (Kandegedara and Rorabacher, 1999). The "Better" pH buffer used in this study was PIPES, which works optimally in the range of pH 6.1 to 7.5. Although PIPES was reported not to buffer Cd, since the measurement by Scanning Ion Selective Electrode Technique (SIET) resolves very small changes in Cd concentration, it was necessary to verify that there were no changes in Cd concentration produced by a pH-dependent shift in buffer-Cd complexation within the unstirred layer next to the tissue of interest. The slopes of Cdselective microelectrodes were determined between 0.1 and 0.01 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd in 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> and 10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> PIPES-buffered saline at pH 6.5 and 7.5. Preliminary results showed no difference of slopes in 1 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> PIPES buffer. However, in saline containing 10

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mmol  $l^{-1}$  PIPES, the voltage in 0.01 mmol  $l^{-1}$  Cd at pH 6.5 increased by ~ 15%, thereby, decreasing the electrode slope. A concentration of 1 mmol  $l^{-1}$  PIPES was therefore used in the *C. riparius* saline.

#### 2.3. Ion-selective microelectrodes

Ion concentrations in samples of hemolymph or fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules set up in the Ramsay assay were determined using ion-selective microelectrodes. Borosilicate glass capillaries (TW150-4; WPI, Sarasota, FL, USA) were pulled to a tip diameter of approximately 5-8 µm on a P-97 Flaming-Brown pipette puller (Sutter Instruments Co., Novato, CA, USA). Micropipettes were silanized with N.Ndimethyltrimethylsilylamine at 200 °C for 60 min and silanized micropipettes were kept over desiccant until use. Micropipettes were backfilled and tips were loaded via capillary action with a column of the appropriate ionophore ( $\sim$ 50-100 µm; Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland). Na<sup>+</sup> selective micropipettes were backfilled with 500 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> NaCl and frontfilled with Na<sup>+</sup> ionophore II cocktail A. K<sup>+</sup> selective micropipettes were backfilled with 500 mmol  $l^{-1}$  KCl and frontfilled with K<sup>+</sup> ionophore I cocktail B. Ca<sup>2+</sup> selective micropipettes were backfilled with 500 mmol  $l^{-1}$  CaCl<sub>2</sub> and frontfilled with Ca<sup>2+</sup> ionophore I cocktail A. Detection limits for microelectrodes based on these ionophores are  $10^{-4.8}$ ,  $10^{-2.5}$ ,  $10^{-7.4}$  mol 1<sup>-1</sup> for K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>, respectively (Fluka ionophores http://sigmaaldrich.com/Brands/Fluka Riedel Home/Analytical/Sensoric Applications.h tml). Electrodes were calibrated in solutions bracketing the concentration range of interest for each ion. Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> electrodes were calibrated in solutions of

NaCl/LiCl, KCl/LiCl and CaCl<sub>2</sub>/NaCl, respectively. H<sup>+</sup> selective micropipettes were backfilled with a 100 mmol<sup>-1</sup> NaCl/100 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> Na citrate (pH 6), frontfilled with H<sup>+</sup> Ionophore Cocktail B and calibrated in *C. riparius* saline at pH 6.5 and 7.5. Cl<sup>-</sup> ionophores are sensitive to several organic anions (e.g. SCN<sup>-</sup>). To avoid interference from these organic anions, solid state Cl<sup>-</sup> selective micropipettes were constructed from silver wire. A 15 cm length of 0.005 inch silver wire was advanced down the barrel and through the tip of a micropipette broken to a diameter of ~ 50 µm. Hot melt glue was used to secure the silver wire in the micropipette tip so that a length of ~ 50 µm protruded. A razor blade was used to taper the end of the silver wire to a fine (10 µm) point. The exposed tip of the silver wire was immersed in FeCl<sub>3</sub> solution (25 g FeCl<sub>3</sub> in 75 ml of 1 N HCl) to coat the tip with AgCl. Cl<sup>-</sup> microelectrodes were calibrated in solutions of KCl/KHCO<sub>3</sub>.

Silanized  $Cd^{2^+}$ -selective micropipettes, modified from Piñeros et al. (1998), were backfilled with a solution of 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O (Fisher Scientific) and 75 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> of KCl. A 50-100 µm length of Cd ionophore cocktail containing 10% cadmium ionophore I (Fluka), 10% potassium tetrakis (3,5 bis-[trifluoromethyl] phenyl) borate (Fluka) and 80% 2-nitrophenyl octyl ether (Fluka) was loaded into the tip of the electrode via capillary action. Selectivity of the Cd<sup>2+</sup> microelectrodes for Cd<sup>2+</sup> over other ions was determined by Piñeros et al. (1998). Selectivity for Cd<sup>2+</sup> exceeds that for Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> by factors of 10<sup>10.8</sup> and 10<sup>12.2</sup>, respectively. Electrodes were equilibrated in a 10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution for 30 min prior to calibration. Preliminary experiments showed that equilibration time increased if the ionophore column length was greater than 100 µm. Cd microelectrodes were calibrated in 0.1, 0.01 and 0.001 mmol  $1^{-1}$  of Cd in *C. riparius* saline. Cd electrodes calibrated in 0.1, 0.01 and 0.001 mmol  $1^{-1}$  of Cd in *C. riparius* saline displayed a slope (mean ± SEM) of 28.61 ± 0.4 mV/decade between 0.1 and 0.01 mmol  $1^{-1}$  Cd (N = 5), close to the value of 29 mV/decade predicted by the Nernst equation for a perfectly Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective electrode. The slope decreased 24.22 ± 0.68 mV/decade between 0.01 mmol  $1^{-1}$  and 0.001 mmol  $1^{-1}$  Cd (N = 5).

For measuring hemolymph samples and Malpighian tubule secretions under paraffin oil, ion-selective microelectrodes based on ionophore cocktails were dipped in a solution of 10 % polyvinylchloride (PVC, Fluka) in tetrahydrofuran (Fluka) to prevent displacement of the ionophore cocktail by the paraffin oil (O'Donnell and Rheault, 2005).

Reference electrodes were constructed from 1.5 mm x 0.86 mm x 10 cm glass capillaries pulled to a tip diameter of 1-3  $\mu$ m and filled with 500 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> KCl. Voltages were recorded and analyzed using a PC-based data acquisition system (PowerLab 4/25) with CHART version 5 software (ADInstruments Inc., Colorado Springs, CO, USA).

#### 2.4. Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy

All experiments were performed on unfed larvae, starved for 24 hours prior to analysis to allow for gut clearance and avoid overestimation of fluxes (Gillis *et al.*, 2004, 2005). Cd concentrations in the exposure water were all within  $\pm$  22 % of the nominal values. Organisms were then transferred to 250 ml glass beakers containing 200 ml of aerated dechlorinated Hamilton tap water (25 chironomids per beaker) containing the desired Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentration. Following a 48 h exposure period, chironomids were

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transferred to fresh water for five minutes to remove non-specifically bound Cd and blotted dry using filter paper (Gillis and Wood, 2008a). Whole chironomids were weighed in pre-weighed microcentrifuge tubes. Dissections of the gut and carcass were performed under Chironomus saline. All tissues were transferred to microcentrifuge tubes and digested using full strength metal grade HNO<sub>3</sub> (10  $\mu$ l/mg wet weight) for 168 h followed by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (4 µl/mg wet weight) for 24 h (Gillis and Wood, 2008a). All samples were analyzed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy using a Graphite Furnace (GFAAS; Varian SpectrAA -220 with graphite tube atomizer [GTA - 110], Mulgrave, Australia). Cd recovery was 96  $\% \pm 0.72$  %) as determined by an Environment Canada certified reference material, TM15 (a trace element fortified sample). Cd concentrations were not corrected for recovery. All experiments were performed in glass beakers because preliminary studies performed in polyethylene (PE) beakers at 0.3 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> dissolved Cd revealed an 85% reduction in whole chironomid body burden of Cd. Similar results were documented by Norwood et al. (2007). There was no significant difference in  $Cd^{2+}$ concentrations determined by Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective microelectrodes in water contained in plastic versus glass beakers at the beginning or end of the 48-h period. Electrodes were placed both in the bulk water and near the surface of the beaker. We speculate that a compound leaching from the plastic alters the binding and/or uptake of Cd by the larvae.

### 2.5. Hemolymph Cd levels

Hemolymph was collected using the same technique as described in section 2.2. following a 48-h Cd waterborne exposure as outlined above in section 2.4. Hemolymph

volume was calculated from optical measurement of droplet diameter. Hemolymph droplets were then transferred by pipette to microcentrifuge tubes. Hemolymph samples were digested using the protocol outline above for other tissues

# 2.6. Scanning Ion Electrode Technique (SIET) measurements of ion ( $Cd^{2+}$ and $H^{+}$ ) gradients adjacent to the gut and Malpighian tubules

Flux measurements across isolated tissues were made using the Scanning Ion Electrode Technique. Reference electrodes were made from 10 cm borosilicate glass capillaries that were bent at a 45° angle, 1-2 cm from the end, to facilitate placement in the sample dish. Capillaries were filled with boiling 3 mol 1<sup>-1</sup> KCl solution containing 3% - 5 % agar and were stored at 4 °C in 3 mol 1<sup>-1</sup> KCl solution. More extensive descriptions of SIET for isolated insect tissues are reported in Rheault and O'Donnell (2001, 2004) and Donini and O'Donnell (2005).

The gut, rectum, Malpighian tubules and anal papillae were dissected out of the carcass under physiological saline and transferred to a Petri dish coated with Poly L-lysine (Sigma) to facilitate adherence of the preparation. The apical surface of the gut lumen was accessed by splitting open and pinning out the gut in a Sylgard lined Petri dish.

SIET measurements were made using hardware from Applicable Electronics (Forestdale, MA, USA) and automated scanning electrode technique (ASET) software (version 2.0, Science Wares Inc., East Falmouth, MA, USA). SIET measurements within the unstirred layer were done as described by Rheault and O'Donnell (2001, 2004). Measurement and calculation of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes:

 $Cd^{2+}$  microelectrodes for use with SIET were calibrated in 1, 10 and 100 µmol  $\Gamma^{1}$ Cd in *C. riparius* saline. All scans were performed in 10 µmol  $\Gamma^{1}$  Cd. The Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective microelectrode was placed 5-10 µm from the surface of the tissue. The microelectrode was then moved a further 50 µm away, perpendicular to the tissue surface. The "wait" and "sample" periods at each limit of the 50 µm excursion distance were 5.5 and 0.5 seconds, respectively. Voltage differences were measured three times at each of the five sites for each tissue and a scan of the same sites was repeated four times over a one hour period. Data were discarded if there was a greater than 25% difference in Cd<sup>2+</sup> flux between the first and the fourth measurements over one hour.

Voltage differences ( $\Delta V$ ) obtained from the ASET software was converted to the corresponding change in Cd<sup>2+</sup> concentration by the following equation (Donini and O'Donnell, 2005):

$$\Delta C = C_B * 10^{(\Delta V/S)} - C_B$$
 Equation 1

where  $\Delta C$  is the Cd<sup>2+</sup> concentration difference between the two limits of the excursion distance (µmol l<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>); C<sub>B</sub> is the background Cd concentration within the media (µmol l<sup>-1</sup>);  $\Delta V$  is the voltage gradient (µV); and S is the slope of the electrode between 100 and 10 µmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd. Concentration gradients are used to determine the Cd<sup>2+</sup> flux using Fick's law of diffusion:

$$J_{Cd} = D_{Cd}(\Delta C) / \Delta X \qquad Equation 2$$

where  $J_{Cd}$  is the net flux in pmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>;  $D_{Cd}$  is the diffusion coefficient of Cd (7.20 x 10<sup>-6</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>);  $\Delta C$  is the Cd concentration gradient (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) and  $\Delta X$  is the excursion distance between the two points (cm).

Data were expressed in units of fmol s<sup>-1</sup> by multiplying the flux in fmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> by the surface area of each tissue calculated as  $\pi dl$  where d is the diameter of the gut or tubule segment and l is the corresponding length.

# Measurement and calculation of $H^+$ fluxes:

Measurements of  $H^+$  fluxes were conducted according to protocol outlined above with the following alterations. The excursion distance for the  $H^+$ -selective microelectrode was 20  $\mu$ m. The "wait" and "sample" periods at each limit were 2 and 1 seconds, respectively.

The calculation of  $H^+$  fluxes is different than other ions because the ion fluxes must be adjusted for the buffering capacity of PIPES. The following equations were used to determine  $J_{H^+}$  for  $H^+$  (Donini and O'Donnell, 2005; Kunkel et al., 2001):

$$J_{H+} = [(D_P + D_{H+})B_P] * (\Delta C / \Delta X), \qquad \text{Equation 3}$$

where  $D_P$  is the diffusion coefficient of PIPES and  $B_P$  is the buffering capacity of PIPES.

$$B_P = (C_P/C_B) * [F/(1+F)^2],$$
 Equation 4

where  $C_P$  is the concentration of PIPES (mmol l<sup>-1</sup>),  $C_B$  is the background concentration of H<sup>+</sup> and F is given by:

$$F = log_{10}(pK_{aP})/C_B$$
 Equation 5

where  $\log_{10} pK_{aP}$  is the dissociation constant of PIPES ( $pK_{aP} = 6.76$ ).

# 2.7. Measurement of Cd<sup>2+</sup> secretion by Malpighian tubules in the Ramsay assay

Malpighian tubules are often studied using the Ramsay assay (Dow et al., 1994; Rheault and O'Donnell, 2004). Dissections were conducted under C. riparius saline as described above. Chironomid larvae contain four Malpighian tubules individually attached to the gut at the junction of the posterior midgut and hindgut. In a separate dish, 20  $\mu$ l droplets of C. riparius saline containing a selected concentration of Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> (nominally Cd free, 30, 100, 300  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup>) were suspended within the paraffin oil of a Sylgard lined Petri dish. To facilitate collection of sufficient volume of secreted fluid for analysis, tubules were stimulated with 1 mmol  $1^{-1}$  cAMP (Davies et al., 1995; Bijelic and O'Donnell, 2005). Stimulation of fluid secretion may give a closer representation of the in vivo conditions of freshwater organisms, such as chironomids. Osmotic water gain from the environment is expected to increase Malpighian tubule fluid secretion rate in vivo. Dissected tubules were transferred to the droplets within the paraffin oil and the lower end of the tubule was removed from the droplet and wrapped around a steel minuten pin inserted into the Sylgard (Dow Corning). The tubules were examined to ensure there was no damage. Secreted droplets were collected from the lower end of the tubule after 2-4 hours, the diameters were recorded using an ocular micrometer and the droplet volume was calculated as  $\Pi d^3/6$ . Fluid secretion rates were calculated by dividing the droplet volume by the time (min) over which the droplet formed. Cd concentration  $(\mu mol l^{-1})$  was determined by Cd-selective microelectrodes. Flux (fmol min<sup>-1</sup> tubule) was calculated as the product of fluid secretion rate (nl min<sup>-1</sup>) and ion concentration ( $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup>).

# 2.8. Cd sequestration within the Malpighian tubules

Malpighian tubules were transferred from the dissection dish to saline droplets containing nominally Cd free, 30, 100, 300  $\mu$ mol  $\Gamma^1$  Cd suspended within paraffin oil in a Sylgard lined Petri dish. Tubules were left for a two hour period and then transferred to three consecutive saline droplets (2 min each) to remove surface-bound Cd from the tissue (Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). Malpighian tubule tissue samples as well as exposure and wash droplets were analyzed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy using a Graphite Furnace as described above. The concentration of Cd in the wash droplets declined with successive droplets. The Cd lost in the wash droplets for Malpighian tubules exposed to 30, 100 and 300  $\mu$ mol  $\Gamma^1$  Cd was 236%, 32% and 5% respectively of the Cd sequestered within the tissue.

### 2.9. Percent secretion vs. sequestration of Cd in the Malpighian tubules

Malpighian tubule secretions in  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> were multiplied by the fluid secretion rate of *C. riparius* Malpighian tubules to determine Cd secretion per hour ( $\mu$ mol hr<sup>-1</sup>). Sequestration of Cd in the Malpighian tubules ( $\mu$ mol kg<sup>-1</sup>) was multiplied by the average weight of the tubules (approximately 90 µg) and divided by the exposure time (2 h) to determine the total Cd sequestered over a one hour period ( $\mu$ mol hr<sup>-1</sup>). Percent secretion was calculated as (Cd secretion rate)/(sum of Cd secretion rate and Cd sequestration rate) \* 100. Percent sequestration was calculated similarly.

#### 2.10. Statistical analysis

Michaelis-Menten kinetic parameters for Cd uptake by whole chironomids or selected tissues were calculated using the equation:

$$C_{max} = C_{max} Cd / K_t + Cd$$
 Equation 6

where  $C_{max}$  is the maximum concentration of Cd in the whole chironomid or selected tissue (mmol kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight), *Cd* is the concentration of Cd in the chironomid or selected tissue (mmol kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight) and  $K_t$  is the concentration of Cd in the water corresponding to half of the maximum concentration in the chironomid or selected tissue (µmol l<sup>-1</sup>).

Curves relating the concentration of Cd in the fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules as a function of Cd in the bathing saline were fit to the equation:

$$[Cd]_{sf,max} = [Cd_{sf,max}][Cd]/K_t + [Cd]$$
 Equation 7

where  $Cd_{sf,max}$  is the maximum concentration of Cd in the secreted fluid of isolated tubules (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup>), *Cd* is the concentration of Cd in the secreted fluid (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) and  $K_t$  is the concentration of Cd in the hemolymph corresponding to half of the maximum concentration in the secreted fluid (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup>). Curves were fit using a commercial graphics and analysis package (GraphPad InStat, GraphPad software, Inc. San Diego, CA, USA).

Comparisons between two treatment groups employed Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test, whereas comparisons amongst multiple treatment groups were assessed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post-hoc test (GraphPad InStat, GraphPad software, Inc. San Diego, CA, USA). Statistical significance was allotted to differences with p< 0.05. Data have been reported as means  $\pm$  SEM (*N*).

#### Results

#### 3.1. Cd uptake kinetics

Uptake of waterborne Cd into intact *C. riparius* and gut followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics (Fig. 1). Although the capacity of gut transport ( $C_{max}$ ) was only half that of the whole chironomid, the affinity ( $1/K_t$ ) was nine times higher. This may be because the  $K_t$  reported here for the whole chironomid is an apparent  $K_t$  and it has not been corrected for competing ions such as calcium. At the concentrations tested, uptake of Cd into the carcass was linear (non-saturable). The gut accumulated the largest amount of Cd per unit weight basis in comparison to the carcass and whole chironomid.

#### 3.2. Hemolymph Cd levels

At the lower exposure levels (~0, 10 and 30  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup>), hemolymph Cd levels are similar to those in the water (Fig. 2), implying that the gut and/or body surface are not complete barriers to Cd. At exposure levels of 100 to 300  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd, hemolymph Cd concentrations were approximately one third those in the water. There was no significant difference between the hemolymph Cd levels at water concentrations between 30 and 1000  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup> suggesting regulation of Cd hemolymph levels at higher exposure concentrations (Fig. 2).

# 3.3. Spatial pattern of $Cd^{2+}$ flux along the gut

We used a background Cd concentration that was representative of that in the haemolymph of chironomids exposed to waterborne Cd. 10  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd was the Cd

concentration of the hemolymph following a 48-h waterborne exposure and this concentration yielded  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes which were ~ 5 - 150 times above the background electrode signal recorded at sites distant (1600 µm) from the preparation.

SIET scans of the apical surface showed that the anterior midgut (AMG) and posterior midgut (PMG) both absorb  $Cd^{2+}$  in a lumen to hemolymph direction (Fig. 3B). Scans of the basolateral surface showed a large efflux of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the AMG in a gut-tohemolymph direction, with a small efflux from the distal caecae. Taken together, the apical and basolateral scans indicate that there is net absorption of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the lumen to hemolymph across the AMG. By contrast, the PMG absorbs  $Cd^{2+}$  from the gut lumen, as well as from the hemolymph (Fig. 3A), suggesting sequestration of Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the PMG cells (Fig. 3C). There were influxes of  $Cd^{2+}$  across the esophagus (ESO), proximal caecae (PC), Malpighian tubules (MT; distal and lower), ileum and anterior rectum (AR) in the hemolymph-to-lumen direction. These small influxes may be responsible, along with the flux across the PMG, for the clearance of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph (Fig. 3B). The sum of the basolateral influxes across the tissues (9.9 fmol  $s^{-1}$ ) is approximately equal to the sum of the basolateral effluxes across the DC and AMG (10 fmol  $s^{-1}$ ; Fig. 3B). The data in Fig. 3B have been replotted in Fig. 3C, which shows the morphology in schematic form and summarizes the mean flux of  $Cd^{2+}$  across the tissue.

# 3.4. Contribution of the Malpighian tubules in $Cd^{2+}$ clearance from the hemolymph

Fluid secretion rate was constant at approximately 1.9 nl min<sup>-1</sup> for 2-4 hours (data not shown) in  $Cd^{2+}$  concentrations ranging from 0-300 µmol l<sup>-1</sup> in the bathing saline.

Above 300  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup>, the fluid secretion rate decreased significantly (data not shown). This presumably reflected toxicity and Cd<sup>2+</sup> levels in the secreted fluid were therefore not measured. Transepithelial Cd<sup>2+</sup> uptake was saturable for Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the range of 0-300  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4A). MTs appear not to concentrate Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the secreted fluid above the level in the hemolymph (Fig. 4A).

By contrast to  $Cd^{2+}$  secretion, the sequestration of Cd within the tubules does not appear to saturate between 10 and 300 µmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. 4B). For tubules exposed to 10 µmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup>, the concentration of Cd in the Malpighian tubules was equal to that in the bathing saline. At higher concentrations of Cd<sup>2+</sup> (100 and 300 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>) there is up to seven times more Cd in the tissue than in bathing saline (Fig.4B).

 $Cd^{2+}$  secretion predominated (65% of the total) for tubules bathed in 10 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>  $Cd^{2+}$ . By contrast, at 100 and 300 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>  $Cd^{2+}$ , more Cd is sequestered within the tubules (65% and 85% of the total, respectively) than is secreted during an equivalent period (Fig. 4C).

# 3.5. Measurement of $H^+$ ion fluxes using SIET

We wished to determine if the variation in ion transport along the chironomid gut resembled those of other better studied dipteran species such as the mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*. Transport of H<sup>+</sup> has been well characterized along the larval mosquito gut using SIET (Boudko, 2001). Midgut H<sup>+</sup> fluxes from the present study are comparable in size and direction to H<sup>+</sup> fluxes of *A. aegypti* (Boudko, 2001). Positive flux values of ~1-6 pmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> were shown in *A. aegypti*, suggesting a net efflux of H<sup>+</sup> ions (Boudko, 2001). Efflux of  $H^+$  is also seen in the PMG of *C. riparius*.  $H^+$  fluxes across the gut and Malpighian tubules are presented in Fig. 5 after correcting for the surface area of each tissue.

As for Cd transport, the largest  $H^+$  fluxes after correction for surface area (fmol s<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. 3A and 5) are the AMG and PMG. The implications of the differences in  $H^+$  and  $Cd^{2+}$  flux across the posterior midgut are discussed below.

#### Discussion

This study reports the first measurements of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes across isolated animal tissues obtained through the use of  $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes and the Scanning Ion Electrode Technique. In addition, we provide the first application of ion-selective microelectrodes for measurement of physiological ion levels and Cd in the hemolymph of chironomid larvae. As well, this is the first report of secretion of  $Cd^{2+}$  by insect Malpighian tubules set up in the Ramsay assay. In conjunction with measurements of Cd in whole larval chironomids and isolated tissues by GFAAS, these measurements allow us to develop a model describing the roles of specific tissues in Cd uptake and excretion.

# 4.1. Cd accumulation in C. riparius

Previous studies have proposed that most of the Cd accumulated within *Chironomus* species is sequestered within the gut cells; 85% of the total Cd was accumulated in the gut of *Chironomus thummi* (Seidman et al. 1986a,b) and 94% of the total in *Chironomus staegeri* (Craig et al. 1998). In the present study using *Chironomus riparius*, 45%-76 % of the whole chironomid Cd is accumulated in the gut. Carcass levels of Cd are relatively low in a per weight basis in comparison to the gut and whole body. These findings are not unexpected considering that the gut, along with the Malpighian tubules and rectum, comprise one third of the total weight of the organism.

In the present study, the whole body burden of Cd in chironomids exposed to  $1000 \ \mu mol \ l^{-1}$  Cd in the water was 6.4 mmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, which is comparable to the value of approximately 5.3 mmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (after conversion from dry to wet weight) in the study of

Gillis and Wood (2008b). The significantly lower  $K_t$  (284 ± 160 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>; i.e higher affinity) of Cd for the gut in comparison to whole chironomid (2280 ± 4430 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>) again emphasizes the gut as the primary site of Cd accumulation.

# 4.2. Hemolymph Cd levels

At lower exposure concentrations (below 30  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup>), the concentration of Cd in the hemolymph is the same as that in the water, suggesting that the gut is not a complete barrier to Cd. Because Cd enters the hemolymph, this implies that the nervous system as well as the muscles and viscera are exposed to the free metal. At higher concentrations of Cd (above 30  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup>) there was no further increase in hemolymph Cd levels, suggesting some form of regulation. Regulation would involve a reduction in the rate of Cd entry or increases in the rates of sequestration and/or excretion. It is worth pointing out that the concentration of Cd in the hemolymph does not exceed ~100  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2), well below the level of 300  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd associated with toxic effects on Malpighian tubule fluid secretion rate.

# 4.3. Spatial pattern of Cd flux along the gut

Our SIET measurements showed that the anterior midgut appears to be the primary gut segment involved in Cd absorption from the gut lumen into the hemolymph. By contrast the posterior midgut absorbs Cd into the tissue from both the gut lumen and from the hemolymph, consistent with sequestration of Cd in these gut cells. These results are in agreement with those of Craig et al. (1998), who showed that the anterior portion of the posterior midgut is the principal site of Cd accumulation in *C. staegeri* following either waterborne or dietary exposures.

The stabilization of Cd levels in the hemolymph (Fig. 2) indicates possible Cd regulation. The posterior midgut, along with the esophagus, Malpighian tubules, ileum and rectum show influxes of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph to tissue. These segments may account for some of the  $Cd^{2+}$  clearance from the hemolymph and may therefore be involved in  $Cd^{2+}$  regulation (Fig. 3A).

The distal caeca transports  $Cd^{2+}$  in the direction of the hemolymph, whereas, the proximal caeca absorbs  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph. The significance of this pattern is unclear, but it is worth noting that another study has differences in ion motive ATPase distribution in the gastric caeca of *A. aegypti*; P-type Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPases are located in the proximal two-thirds and V-type H<sup>+</sup> ATPases are located in the distal one-third (Patrick et al. 2006).

# 4.4. Contribution of the Malpighian tubules in $Cd^{2+}$ clearance from the hemolymph

Our results also highlight the importance of the Malpighian tubules in secretion and sequestration of Cd. Secretion of metals by the Malpighian tubules of chironomids was first proposed by Postma et al. (1996) and we have provided the first direct evidence for such secretion. Tubules bathed in 10  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup> can secrete 25 fmol min<sup>-1</sup> of Cd<sup>2+</sup> as calculated by multiplying the fluid secretion rate (nl min<sup>-1</sup>) by the concentration of Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the secreted fluid ( $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup>) and the number of tubules per chironomid (4). If Cd<sup>2+</sup> is present in the hemolymph at 10  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup>, the quantity of Cd<sup>2+</sup> present in the hemolymph is 9 pmol as calculated by multiplying hemolymph  $Cd^{2+}$  concentration by volume (~ 0.9 µl). An approximation of the time required to eliminate this quantity of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph can be calculated by dividing the secretion rate of  $Cd^{2+}$  by the quantity of  $Cd^{2+}$  in the hemolymph yielding a value of 6 hours.  $Cd^{2+}$  secretion by the Malpighian tubules can thus contribute to the elimination of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the hemolymph at a significant rate.

Cadmium is also sequestered within the Malpighian tubules, consistent with earlier proposals (Seidman et al., 1986, Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). One benefit of sequestration (both in the tubules and in the posterior midgut) is that the downstream tissues (the ileum and the rectum) are not exposed to high levels of metals, as proposed by Maddrell et al. (1991). Our results suggest that it is the concentration of Cd which determines the dominant form of detoxification. Although sequestration is the major mechanism at high levels, secretion is the dominant form of detoxification by the Malpighian tubules at levels closer to those which are environmentally relevant (10  $\mu$ mol  $1^{-1}$  or less).

# <u>3.5. Measurement of $H^+$ ion fluxes using SIET</u>

There are two reasons for measuring  $H^+$  fluxes along the gut. We showed that there was no difference in Cd concentration produced by a pH-dependent shift in Cdbuffer complexation by 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> PIPES between pH 6.5 and 7.5 (see methods). It was therefore important to show that pH gradients in the unstirred layer did not exceed one pH unit. The largest  $H^+$  gradient was found for the PMG, where the difference between

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the two limits of excursion of the pH microelectrode within the unstirred layer was 0.03 pH units. We are therefore confident that there is a negligible effect of pH changes in the unstirred layer on Cd-buffering by PIPES and that Cd fluxes therefore, are a consequence of transport into or across the tissues studied.

Secondly, we wished to determine if ion transport along the gut of chironomid larvae resembles the pattern seen in other dipteran species and whether the pattern of  $Cd^{2+}$  transport reflects changes in the availability of free  $Cd^{2+}$  in the gut lumen due to changes in pH. H<sup>+</sup> fluxes across the gut of *C. riparius* were in the direction same as those across the anterior midgut of the larvae of the mosquito *A. aegypti* (Boudko et al., 2001). However, whereas we observed an H<sup>+</sup> efflux across the posterior midgut of *C. riparius*, Boudko et al. (2001) detected H<sup>+</sup> influx across the posterior midgut of *A. aegypti*. The observed H<sup>+</sup> efflux may be due either as a consequence of midgut lumen alkalization or metabolic CO<sub>2</sub> production. In *A. aegypti*, for example, lumen pH is ~10 in the anterior midgut and ~8 in the posterior midgut (Boudko et al., 2001). The effect of an alkaline lumen is to decrease the availability of Cd<sup>2+</sup> for uptake. Thus, some degree of protection from Cd<sup>2+</sup> in the diet of dipteran insects may be provided by the lumenal alkalinization of the anterior midgut. It will be of interest in future studies to directly measure lumenal pH in the gut of *C. riparius* with a view to determining the extent of this effect.

In this study, we have further emphasized the gut as the primary site for cadmium accumulation; however, it is not the sole detoxification mechanism in *C. riparius*. The gut does not act as a complete barrier, allowing access of  $Cd^{2+}$  to the hemolymph. Using SIET, we have determined that the main site of  $Cd^{2+}$  entry into the hemolymph appears to

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be the anterior midgut, whereas the posterior midgut absorbs  $Cd^{2+}$  from the gut lumen as well as from the hemolymph, possibly to sequester cadmium within the tissue. The esophagus. Malpighian tubules, ileum and rectum may aid in Cd<sup>2+</sup> clearance from the hemolymph. Our SIET measurements allow us to formulate a balance sheet, identifying sites and rates of  $Cd^{2+}$  influx and efflux. The movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  into the hemolymph across the anterior midgut is balanced by movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  towards the lumen by the remaining gut segments and by secretion and sequestration by the Malpighian tubules. As a result, there is no net flux into the hemolymph. Cd is a non-essential metal, raising the question as to why the anterior midgut absorbs the metal into the hemolymph.  $Cd^{2+}$  has been shown to compete for transport with  $Ca^{2+}$  (Craig et al., 1999) and the anterior midgut of dipterans is the primary site of  $Ca^{2+}$  absorption (Taylor, 1985).  $Cd^{2+}$  absorption may thus be an unavoidable consequence of the need to absorb the essential dietary ion,  $Ca^{2+}$ . Our companion paper examines patterns of  $Ca^{2+}$  transport across the gut of chironomids and the extent of competition between  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Cd^{2+}$  in this organism.

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Fig. 1. Cd content of isolated tissues and whole chironomid larvae after 48 hour waterborne exposure to the indicated Cd concentrations. Values are means  $\pm$  S.E.M.; N = 8-10 per treatment.



Fig. 2.  $Cd^{2+}$  concentration in the hemolymph ( $[Cd^{2+}]_{hemolymph}$ ) following a 48 h waterborne exposure to concentrations indicated on the abscissa. Values are means of S.E.M.; N = 10. Columns labeled with the same letters are not significantly different (p>0.05).



Fig. 3. (A) Representative example of SIET measurements along the posterior midgut. Arrows denote the relative size of the  $Cd^{2+}$  flux and the arrowheads show the direction of the  $Cd^{2+}$  flux. (B) SIET measurement of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes. Positive values represent movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from gut lumen to hemolymph. Negative values indicate the movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from hemolymph to gut lumen. Flux values have been corrected for the surface area of each tissue segment, as described in methods. Values are means of S.E.M.; N = 5-10 per tissue. (C) Schematic diagram of the *C. riparius* gut showing  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes in the various gut segments. ESO = esophagus, PC = proximal caecae, DC = distal caecae, AMG = anterior midgut, PMG = posterior midgut, LMT = lower Malpighian tubule, DMT = distal Malpighian tubule, AR = anterior rectum, PR = posterior rectum.



Α



С

Hemolymph



Fig. 4. Contribution of the Malpighian tubules to  $Cd^{2+}$  clearance from the hemolymph. (A)  $Cd^{2+}$  concentration in the fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules ( $[Cd^{2+}]_{sf}$  as a function of bathing saline Cd ( $[Cd^{2+}]_{bath}$ ). (B) Dependence of Cd sequestration by isolated Malpighian tubules on the bathing saline  $Cd^{2+}$  concentration. (C) Percent cadmium secretion and sequestration in the Malpighian tubules following one hour exposure to nominally Cd free (0), 10, 100 or 300 µmol  $I^{-1}$  Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in the bathing saline. Values are means of S.E.M.; N = 6-12 Malpighian tubules. Asterisks denote significant differences (p<0.05).



Fig. 5.  $H^+$  fluxes across the gut of *C. riparius*. Positive values represent movement of  $H^+$  from gut lumen to hemolymph. Fluxes have been corrected for the surface area of the gut segment. Values are means of S.E.M.; N = 6 per gut segment. AMG = anterior midgut, PMG = posterior midgut, LMT = lower Malpighian tubule, DMT = distal Malpighian tubule, AR = anterior rectum, PR = posterior rectum.



#### **CHAPTER 3:**

## Abstract

Chironomids are an important bioindicator species and are known in particular for their tolerance of very high levels of toxic metals such as Ni, Cu, Pb, Zn and Cd (Béchard et al., 2008). In this study, we have used SIET to measure the effects of  $Ca^{2+}$  on  $Cd^{2+}$  flux across isolated guts and Malpighian tubules of C. *riparius*.  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes from the gut lumen into the cells of both the anterior and posterior midgut are reduced by 50 % and 80 %, respectively, when saline  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration is increased, consistent with competition between  $Cd^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  from transport. Transport of  $Cd^{2+}$  from hemolymph to tissue is reduced by approximately 50 % by high  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration for the posterior midgut, both lower and distal segment of the Malpighian tubule and both proximal and distal caecae. There was no effect of high  $Ca^{2+}$  saline on  $Cd^{2+}$  flux from hemolymph to cell for the esophagus, the ileum or the rectum. In this case as well, Ca<sup>2+</sup>-independent mechanisms may be involved. We provide evidence that  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes into or across the gut and Malpighian tubules are reduced by high  $Ca^{2+}$ , suggesting that  $Cd^{2+}$  may be transported in some cells by mechanisms which normally transport the physiological ion,  $Ca^{2+}$ .

### Introduction

Chironomids are an important bioindicator species and are known in particular for their tolerance of very high levels of toxic metals such as Ni, Cu, Pb, Zn and Cd (Béchard et al., 2008). A number of studies have highlighted the importance of the gut as a site of Cd sequestration (Craig et al., 1998; Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990). The earlier suggestion that the Malpighian tubules and rectum contribute to metal metabolism in chironomids (Krantzberg and Stokes, 1990), was examined directly in our previous study (Leonard et al., 2008). Using the Scanning Ion-selective Electrode Technique (SIET), Cd<sup>2+</sup> activity gradients were measured in the unstirred layer next to the surface of the isolated gut segments and Malpighian tubules. These measurements indicated net absorption of Cd<sup>2+</sup> from the lumen of the anterior midgut into the hemolymph. There was also evidence of sequestration of  $Cd^{2+}$  within the posterior midgut and influxes of  $Cd^{2+}$  in a hemolymph to tissue direction for the esophagus, Malpighian tubules, ileum and rectum. Analysis of the Malpighian tubule Cd content and the Cd<sup>2+</sup> concentration within samples of fluid secreted by isolated Malpighian tubules set up in the Ramsay assay indicated that the tubules both secrete Cd<sup>2+</sup> (from hemolymph to lumen) and also sequester Cd within the cells. At levels of Cd at or below 10  $\mu$ mol 1<sup>-1</sup> secretion is predominant, whereas sequestration predominates at higher levels of Cd. After accounting for the surface area of each tissue, the total movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the gut lumen to hemolymph, mainly across the anterior midgut, is balanced by hemolymph to tissue movements of  $Cd^{2+}$ across the remaining gut segments and the tubules. It therefore appears that the animal is in steady state with respect to  $Cd^{2+}$  at the exposure level of 10 µmol  $1^{-1}$ .

The absorption of  $Cd^{2^+}$  across the anterior midgut is puzzling observation given the toxicity of  $Cd^{2^+}$ . The muscles, nervous system and other tissues are thus exposed to Cd in the hemolymph. However, the anterior midgut is known to be the site of  $Ca^{2^+}$ absorption from the diet in another species of dipteran, the blowfly, *Calliphora vicina* (Taylor, 1985). In contrast to mammals, blowflies do not regulate hemolymph  $Ca^{2^+}$  levels through changes in the rate of  $Ca^{2^+}$  absorption across the midgut. Rather,  $Ca^{2^+}$  is absorbed at a high and relatively constant rate, even when the diet contains levels of  $Ca^{2^+}$ in excess of the insect's needs. Regulation of hemolymph  $Ca^{2^+}$  levels in blowflies is accomplished through the actions of the Malpighian (renal) tubules.

We suggested in our earlier study that the absorption of Cd across the anterior midgut of *Chironomus* may be a consequence of physiological mechanisms for  $Ca^{2+}$  absorption in that segment (Leonard et al., 2008).  $Cd^{2+}$  is known to compete with  $Ca^{2+}$  for transport in many organisms. High levels of  $Ca^{2+}$  (10 mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) inhibit  $Cd^{2+}$  uptake in *C. staegeri* (Craig et al., 1999) and the calcium channel blockers, lanthanum and verapamil, reduce  $Cd^{2+}$  uptake by the whole larvae.

In this study, we have used SIET to measure the effects of  $Ca^{2+}$  on  $Cd^{2+}$  flux across isolated guts and Malpighian tubules of *C. riparius*. We report  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes for tissues bathed in saline containing the physiological levels of  $Ca^{2+}$  (1 mmol l<sup>-1</sup>; Leonard et al., 2008) as well as  $Ca^{2+}$ -rich (10 mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) saline.

### Methods

## 2.1. Chironomid larvae

*Chironomus riparius* larvae were maintained at McMaster University in 10 L tanks containing fine-grained silica sand and Hamilton dechlorinated moderately hard tap water with an ionic composition of (in mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) Na<sup>+</sup> (0.6), Cl<sup>-</sup> (0.8), Ca<sup>2+</sup> (1.8), K<sup>+</sup> (0.4),  $Mg^{2+}$  (0.5) and  $Cd^{2+}$  (<0.5 x 10<sup>-7</sup>). Water hardness was 140 mg 1<sup>-1</sup> CaCO<sub>3</sub> and pH was 7.8-8.0. Tanks were continuously aerated with an air stone and the culture room was maintained at 21 ± 2 °C under a 16:8 h light:dark photoperiod. *C. riparius* larvae were fed *ad libitum* on ground Nutrafin<sup>TM</sup> fish flakes (45% protein, 5% crude fat, 2% crude fibre, 8% moisture).

## 2.2. Microelectrode system

 $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes across isolated tissues were determined using  $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes and the Scanning Ion Electrode Technique (SIET). Microelectrodes were constructed from borosilicate glass capillaries (TW150-4; WPI, Sarasota, FL, USA) pulled to a tip diameter of approximately 5-8 µm on a P-97 Flaming-Brown pipette puller (Sutter Instruments Co., Novato, CA, USA). Micropipettes were placed on a hot plate heated to 200 °C and N,N-dimethyltrimethylsilylamine was added to silanize the micropipettes. Following silanization, micropipettes were kept over desiccant until use. Micropipettes were backfilled with a solution of 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O (Fisher Scientific) and 75 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> of KCI and tips were loaded via capillary action with a 50-100 µm length of Cd ionophore cocktail containing 10% cadmium ionophore I (Fluka), 10% potassium tetrakis (3,5 bis-[trifluoromethyl] phenyl) borate (Fluka) and 80% 2nitrophenyl octyl ether (Fluka; Leonard et al., 2008; Piñeros et al., 1998).  $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes were calibrated in 0.1, 0.01 and 0.001 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> of Cd in *C. riparius* saline. The composition of *C. riparius* larval saline was as follows (in mmol l<sup>-1</sup>): KCl (5), NaCl (74), CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (8.5), NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (10.2), PIPES (1) and glucose (20). For high calcium conditions, one part *C. riparius* saline was added to one part 19 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> calcium in *C. riparius* saline. All salines were titrated immediately before scans to reduce alkalization from CO<sub>2</sub> loss (Leonard et al., 2008). The slope of the Cd<sup>2+</sup>selective microelectrodes between 0.1 and 0.01 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd averaged 28.61 ± 0.4 mV decade<sup>-1</sup> and 24.22 ± 0.68 mV decade<sup>-1</sup> between 0.01 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> and 0.001 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd. Microelectrode slopes were not affected by changes in bathing saline Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration from 1 to 10 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> (data not shown).

Reference electrodes were made from 10 cm borosilicate glass capillaries that were bent at a 45° angle, 1-2 cm from the end, to facilitate placement in the sample dish. Capillaries were filled with boiling 3 mol  $1^{-1}$  KCl solution containing 3% - 5 % agar and were stored at 4 °C in 3 mol  $1^{-1}$  KCl solution. More extensive descriptions of SIET for isolated insect tissues are reported in our previous study (Leonard et al., 2008) and in Rheault and O'Donnell (2001, 2004).

# 2.3. Effect of high Ca<sup>2+</sup> on Cd<sup>2+</sup> fluxes using Scanning Ion Electrode Technique (SIET)

Measurements of  $Cd^{2+}$  flux across isolated tissues were determined in saline containing the physiological levels of calcium (1 mmol  $l^{-1}$ ) and in calcium-rich saline (10

mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) using SIET. Chironomids were held at their head and anal papillae with forceps and a slight tension was applied to extract the gut, rectum and Malpighian tubules. Dissections were conducted under *C. riparius* saline and tissues were transferred to Petri dishes coated with poly-L-lysine to facilitate adherence of the preparation. The apical surface of the gut lumen was accessed by splitting open and pinning out the gut in a Sylgard lined Petri dish.

SIET measurements were made using hardware from Applicable Electronics (Forestdale, MA, USA) and Automated Scanning Electrode Technique (ASET) software (version 2.0, Science Wares Inc., East Falmouth, MA, USA).

 $Cd^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes were placed 5-10 µm from the surface of the isolated tissue and then directed 50 µm away, perpendicular to the tissue surface. At the excursion distance limits, the voltage was sampled for 0.5 s after a 5.5 s wait during which voltages were not recorded. Voltage differences were measured three times at each of the five sites along a tissue segment. This was repeated two times for each tissue. The preparations were first scanned in saline containing 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Half of the saline was then removed from the Petri dish and replaced with the same amount of 19 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> ca<sup>2+</sup>. Care was taken not to move the preparation during this exchange and identical sites were measured for each segment in physiological and high calcium conditions.

Voltage differences ( $\Delta V$ ) were converted to the corresponding change in Cd<sup>2+</sup> concentration by the following equation (Leonard et al., 2008):

$$\Delta C_{Cd} = C_B * 10^{(\Delta V/S)} - C_B \qquad Equation 1$$

where  $\Delta C_{Cd}$  is the Cd concentration difference between the two limits of the excursion distance (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>); C<sub>B</sub> is the background Cd concentration in the Petri dish (µmol 1<sup>-1</sup>);  $\Delta V$  is the voltage gradient (µV); and S is the slope of the electrode between 0.1 and 0.01 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd. The flux of Cd across the tissue was calculated using Fick's law:

$$J_{Cd} = D_{Cd}(\Delta C) / \Delta X \qquad \text{Equation } 2$$

where  $J_{Cd}$  is the net flux in pmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>;  $D_{Cd}$  is the diffusion coefficient of Cd (7.20 x 10<sup>-6</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>);  $\Delta C$  is the Cd concentration gradient (µmol l<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) and  $\Delta X$  is the excursion distance between the two points (cm).

# 2.4. Statistical analysis

Comparisons between two treatment groups employed Student's two-tailed paired t-test (GraphPad InStat, GraphPad software, Inc. San Diego, CA, USA). Statistical significance was allotted to differences with p< 0.05. Data have been reported as means  $\pm$ SEM (*N*).

# Results

# Spatial pattern of Cd<sup>2+</sup> flux along the gut

As a companion to our first paper determining the spatial pattern of  $Cd^{2+}$ , this study aims to determine the influence of high  $Ca^{2+}$  levels (10 mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) on  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes along the gut and Malpighian tubules in salines containing 10 µmol l<sup>-1</sup>  $Cd^{2+}$ . Scans of the apical surface of the gut showed that absorption of  $Cd^{2+}$  by the anterior and posterior midgut was significantly reduced by 50 % across the anterior midgut and by 80 % across the posterior midgut when saline  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration was increased from 1 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> to 10 mmol l<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1A).

Scans of the basolateral surface of the gut and tubules showed that  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes into the posterior midgut from the hemolymph were significantly reduced by 50 % in the when bathing saline  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration was increased from 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> to 10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1 B). A similar reduction was observed in the  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes for the lower and distal Malpighian tubules. However, a more marked declined in  $Cd^{2+}$  flux of 90 % across the proximal caeca and 80% across the distal caeca was measured when saline  $Ca^{2+}$ concentration was increased from 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> to 10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1B).  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes were unchanged in the esophagus, anterior midgut, ileum and anterior rectum when saline  $Ca^{2+}$ concentration was changed from 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> to 10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>.

## Discussion

 $Cd^{2+}$  is transported into the anterior midgut cells from the lumen and out of the cells into the hemolymph, confirming our previous results showing absorption of  $Cd^{2+}$  from lumen to hemolymph across the anterior midgut (Leonard et al., 2008)<sup>1</sup>. Similarly,  $Cd^{2+}$  moves from gut lumen into the cells of the posterior midgut and from the hemolymph into the cells, consistent with  $Cd^{2+}$  sequestration, as observed previously (Leonard et al., 2008).

 $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes from the gut lumen into the cells of both the anterior and posterior midgut are reduced when saline  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration is increased, consistent with competition between  $Cd^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  from transport. This trend is consistent with the data of Gillis and Wood (2008a) that showed a 70 % reduction in whole body  $Ca^{2+}$  following a  $Cd^{2+}$  exposure in the LC50 range.  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Cd^{2+}$  may out-compete each other for transport sites at in the midgut, thereby decreasing the limiting ion's uptake across the gut lumen. However, movement of  $Cd^{2+}$  from the anterior midgut cells to hemolymph is unaffected by changes in bathing saline  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration. This may reflect either the low (<0.1 µmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) levels of  $Ca^{2+}$  in cells or a transport mechanism (e.g. P-glycoproteins) that does not involve competition between  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Cd^{2+}$  for transport.

Transport of  $Cd^{2+}$  from hemolymph to tissue is reduced by high  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration for the posterior midgut, both lower and distal segment of the Malpighian

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the earlier study, fluxes were measured in pmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and were then multiplied by the surface area of each tissue (cm<sup>2</sup>) so that the flux across each tissue (fmol s<sup>-1</sup>) was represented. In this study we have reported the data as pmol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, for each tissue type or segment.

tubule and both proximal and distal caecae. It thus appears that there may be competition between  $Cd^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  for transport into these tissues as well. The small size of the tissues other than the midgut precludes splitting them open so that SIET scans of the apical surface can be performed. We cannot therefore determine whether hemolymph to tissue  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes indicate transepithelial  $Cd^{2+}$  flux (from hemolymph to lumen) or sequestration within the tissue, which occurs in the posterior midgut.

There was no effect of high  $Ca^{2+}$  saline on  $Cd^{2+}$  flux from hemolymph to cell for the esophagus, the ileum or the rectum. In this case as well,  $Ca^{2+}$ -independent mechanisms may be involved.

In summary, our results provide evidence that  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes into or across the gut and Malpighian tubules are reduced by high  $Ca^{2+}$ , suggesting that  $Cd^{2+}$  may be transported in some cells by mechanisms which normally transport the physiological ion,  $Ca^{2+}$ .

## <u>Future Studies:</u>

It will be of interest to use SIET and  $Ca^{2+}$ -selective microelectrodes to measure the pattern of  $Ca^{2+}$  transport across the gut segments and Malpighian tubules. If  $Cd^{2+}$  is transported by mechanisms normally used for  $Ca^{2+}$ , then we would expect the  $Ca^{2+}$  fluxes to mirror, at least in direction and relative magnitude, the  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes reported in this and in our previous paper (Leonard et al., 2008).

It will also be useful to examine the effects of agents known to alter  $Ca^{2+}$ transport.  $Ca^{2+}$  channel blockers such as diltiagen and lanthanum may reduce  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes if  $Cd^{2+}$  is moving through  $Ca^{2+}$  channels. Verapamil is both a P-glycoprotein inhibitor and a  $Ca^{2+}$  channel blocker, and it might therefore be expected to reduce  $Cd^{2+}$  flux through either pathway. Changes in membrane potential produced by increases or decreases in bathing saline K<sup>+</sup> concentration would also be expected to alter  $Cd^{2+}$  flux through channels.

Lastly, it will be of interest to determine whether  $Cd^{2+}$  is transported across the anal papillae. The papillae are normally involved in the uptake of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in freshwater dipteran larvae, but they have also been implicated in the excretion of ammonia (Donini and O'Donnell, 2005). P-glycoproteins have been implicated in  $Cd^{2+}$  transport and there is evidence for P-glycoprotein activity in the anal papillae of chironomid larvae (Podsiadlowski et al., 1998). Our preliminary data (Appendix 1) of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes measured for the anal papillae of chironomid larvae reared in  $Cd^{2+}$ -rich (30  $\mu$ mol l<sup>-1</sup>) water suggest that  $Cd^{2+}$  is excreted across the papillae. Further studies are required to determine if active transport is involved and the nature of the transporters.

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Fig. 1 SIET measurement of  $Cd^{2+}$  fluxes in saline containing the physiological calcium level (1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) and in calcium-rich (10 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup>) saline. Both salines contained 10 µmol 1<sup>-1</sup> Cd<sup>2+</sup>. (A) Apical Cd<sup>2+</sup> fluxes. (B) Basolateral Cd<sup>2+</sup> fluxes. Positive values represent movement of Cd<sup>2+</sup> from gut lumen to hemolymph. Negative values indicate the movement of Cd<sup>2+</sup> from hemolymph to gut lumen. Values are means of S.E.M.; N = 5-10per tissue. \*Asterisks denote significant differences (paired t-test; p<0.05) in Cd<sup>2+</sup> flux in saline containing 1 mmol 1<sup>-1</sup> versus 10 mol 1<sup>-1</sup> Ca<sup>2+</sup>. ESO = esophagus, PC = proximal caecae, DC = distal caecae, AMG = anterior midgut, PMG = posterior midgut, LMT = lower Malpighian tubule, DMT = distal Malpighian tubule, AR = anterior rectum, PR = posterior rectum.



В

A



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Fig. 1.  $Cd^{2+}$  efflux from the anal papillae following waterborne exposure in 30 µmol l<sup>-1</sup> Cd (in Hamilton tapwater) for 1-6, 24, 48 and 72 hours with a minimum of N = 8-17preparations.\* denote statistical significance (p<0.05) compared to the 1-6 h group.