Phytotoxicity of Copper and Lead to *Oryza sativa* L. with Regard to Different Exposure Durations and Endpoints

Syamkumar R¹, Rajathy Sivalingam²

^{1,2} School of Environmental Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kerala, India 682022 Corresponding Author: Syamkumar R

Abstract: Heavy metal pollution can become a major threat to biota due to its greater potential to bioaccumulate through the food chain. The heavy metal phytotoxicity remains unnoticed in plants because plants are generally less sensitive to heavy metal toxicity. Even though the toxicity is detected, it is difficult to ascertain which toxicant is responsible for toxicity because toxicity tests are usually based on single end point or single exposure duration. The study presented here focuses on toxic response of different organs of O. sativa at different time points to delineate the type of toxicant. The results demonstrated that this approach can be very useful in differentiating between the type of toxicants.

Date of Submission: 30-05-2018

Date of acceptance: 17-06-2018

I. Introduction

Most heavy metals in the environment originate due to anthropogenic activities [1]. Some heavy metals are also used as reference toxicants – the compounds used to assess the general health and sensitivity of the test species and to compare results obtained from different laboratories [2]. Plants are generally less sensitive to heavy metal toxicity, compared with animals. This poses the risk of heavy metal exposure to consumers through the food chain [3]. Toxicity tests are generally directed towards the detection of toxicity rather than the identification of toxicants [4]. Though this seems to be a limitation, the response pattern produced by the same toxicant to different organisms or different organs of the same organism can be made useful in the identification of toxicants. The ratio between the endpoint estimates (EC, IC, or LC) of different organs (or response) may produce more or less constant values as the toxic response is organ specific. Similarly, the ratio between endpoint estimates of the same organ and the toxicant tested. The problem with the point estimates like IC_{25} is that the confidence intervals produced for them are sometimes unrealistic. To tackle such issues, simultaneous confidence intervals for relative effects between several treatments and control can be computed using recent software packages [5]. These confidence intervals are also useful when interpretations are based on NOEC (no observed effect concentration), for which confidence intervals cannot be computed.

It should also be noted that, instead of looking at point estimates only, the full dose-response curve should be interpreted to reach the conclusion about the toxicant. This is because two toxicants can have the same LC_{50} , but different slopes, and hence the conclusions based on point estimates only may lead to confounding results [6]. In the present study, an effort has been made to assess the toxicity of two heavy metals with regard to different time points and different organs as endpoints. The Cu chosen for this study is one of the standard reference toxicants used in toxicity tests by different agencies.

II. Material and Methods

Two heavy metals (CuSO₄, and Pb(NO₃)₂) were used in the toxicity test. The CuSO₄ is also a standard reference toxicant recommended by agencies like EPA. All the reagents used were analytical grade. *Oryza sativa* (var. Jyothi) seeds were obtained from Regional Agricultural Research Station, Pattamby, Palakkad, Kerala, India. The concentration range used was 0, 6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, and 200 mg/L for PbN(O₃)₂, whereas it was 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32 mg/L for CuSo₄. Solutions were prepared using distilled water.

Ten seeds were placed in Petri dish filled (without any supporting material) with 10 ml of test solution. Triplicate of Petri dishes with seeds were then kept at 28 ± 2 °C under cool white light (300 µmol/m²/s, 14:10 light:dark) for 96-h. The photographs of germinating seeds were taken at 72 and 96-hrs using a digital camera. Root, shoot length, seedling length, and seed germination were measured. All measurements were performed using an image analysis software called Fiji [7].

Statistical analysis

Endpoint estimates (LC_{25} for seed germination and IC_{25} for other variables) were computed using an R-software package called drc [8]. Bounds of uncertainty intervals were computed using another package called mratios [9]. The IC₂₅ values were compared as per method described in the drc package.

III. Results

The results demonstrated a dose-dependent response pattern for both the metals. Cu was found to be more toxic than Pb with regard to LC/IC₂₅ for root and seedling length, and seed germination (Table 1 and 2). CuSO₄ was non-toxic to rice shoot at tested concentration ranges. After 96-hrs of exposure, Cu even produced a stimulatory effect (hormesis) on the shoot at lower ranges of concentration. The Cedergreen-Ritz-Streibig model [10] with $\alpha =$ 0.25 was found to be the best fit model for shoot at 96-hr (p < 0.01). Although Cedergreen-Ritz-Streibig model and Brain-Cousen's models [11] were found to be non-significant (p > 0.05) for root in Cu at 72- and 96-hrs, respectively, they explained the growth curves well (Fig. 1 a and b). However, Cu could not produce any doseresponse relationship at earlier stages (72-hrs) of exposure. Though Pb showed a tendency towards stimulatory effect on shoot at 96-hrs, it was found to be non-significant (Fig. 2 a and b). For both the metals, the seed germination was fitted using 2 parameter log-logistic model. The only exception was Pb at 72-hr, for which Weibull model was used. The ratio between IC_{25} of Pb and Cu showed that the root IC_{25} for Pb was several folds (6.46 times) higher than those obtained for Cu at 96-hr (Table 3). The lowest ratio was observed for germination at 96-hr (2.09). Except for seedling length, all other morphometric variables produced different IC values at different time points. The ratio of LC_{25} for germination between 72 and 96-hr in Pb (Table 4) was less than 1 (0.86), indicating that the concentration Pb required to produce inhibition of seed germination was greater as the duration extended (Fig. 2 c). This is in contrast with Cu(1.12) in which the concentration required to inhibit seed germination reduced as the exposure duration extended (Fig. 1 c).

Table 1: IC25	$(LC_{25} \text{ for seed})$	germination)	and 95% C	I values for	different	morphologic	al endpoints	of O. sative	<i>a</i> a fter 72-
h an	d 96-h exposu	re to $PbN(O_3)$	a BOU = ba	ounds of ur	certaintv(5). The value	s are in mg/L	4.	

Duration	Endpoint	LC/IC ₂₅	95% CI		BOU (25%	BOU (25%)	
	_		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
96-h	Root	29.1	15	43	0	100	
	Shoot	96.1	58	135	12.5	> 200	
	Seedling	35.3	26	45	12.5	100	
	Germination	81.8	65	99	50	200	
72-h	Root	35.6	24	47	0	100	
	Shoot	192.9	165	221	100	> 200	
	Seedling	38.5	25	52	0	100	
	Germination	70.1	55	85	25	100	

Table 2: IC_{25} (LC25 for seed germination) and 95% CI values for different morphological endpoints of O. sativa after72-h and 96-h exposure to CuSO4. BOU = bounds of uncertainty(5). The values are in mg/L.

Duration	Endpoint	LC/IC ₂₅	95% CI		BOU (25%)	
			Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
96-h	Root	4.5	2.9	6.1	1	8
	Shoot	>32	19	57	16	> 32
	Seedling	7.25	4.8	9.7	2	16
	Germination	18.4	15	22	8	32
72-h	Root	8.06	5.6	11	0	16
	Shoot	>32			0	>32
	Seedling	8.01	5	11	0	32
	Germination	20.6	15	26	0	> 32

For root elongation in Pb, the BOU value spanned 6 concentrations, whereas for Cu it spanned 4 concentrations. Control was not covered for lower bounds of BOU in the case of root in Cu, whereas it was included for Pb. Contrastingly for shoot length in both the metals, the upper bounds of BOU surpassed the highest concentration tested, indicating the lower sensitivity of shoots towards these metals. For both Pb and Cu, the sensitivity of seedling length was midway between root and shoot length. The seed germination was found to be the least sensitive among the morphometric variables.

 Section 3: Ratios between IC25 (LC25 for seed germination) of Cu and Pb for different morphometric endpoints of O.

 sativa after 72-h and 96-h exposure to heavy metals. Upper and Lower represents 95% CI values.

Duration	Endpoint compared	Fstimate	Std Frror	Lower	Unner
Duration	Enupoint comparcu	Estimate	Stu. El 101	Lowei	Opper
72	Root	4.419	0.950	2.557	6.282
72	Shoot	-	-	-	-
72	Seedling	4.808	1.168	2.519	7.097
72	Germination	3.395	0.597	2.224	4.566
96	Root	6.457	2.271	2.005	10.909
96	Shoot	2.520	0.767	1.017	4.023
96	Seedling	4.869	1.017	2.876	6.863
96	Germination	2.091	0.410	1.287	2.895

- IC₂₅ was greater than the tested concentration ranges of CuSO₄.



а

Figure 1 continued in the next page



CuSO₄ concentration (mg/L)

Fig. 1: Dose-response curves for root, shoot, and seedling lengths at 72-h (a), 96-h (b), and seed germination (c) of *O. sativa* after exposure to CuSO₄. Points without lines denote no significant dose response relationship.



Figure 2 continued in the next page





CuSO₄ concentration (mg/L)

Fig. 2: Dose response curves for root, shoot, and seedling lengths at 72-h (a), 96-h (b), and seed germination (c) of *O*. *sativa* after exposure to PbN(O₃)₂.

Table 4: Ratios between IC₂₅ (LC₂₅ for seed germination) of different time points (72-hr/96-hr) for each heavy metal and morphometric endpoints of *O. sativa* after 72-h and 96-h exposure to CuSO₄. Upper and Lower represents 95% CI values.

Metal	Endpoint	Estimate	Std. Error	Lower	Upper
Pb	Root	1.23	0.34	0.56	1.89
Pb	Shoot	2.01	0.40	1.23	2.80
Pb	Seedling	1.09	0.23	0.64	1.54
Pb	Germination	0.86	0.13	0.60	1.11
Cu	Root	1.79	0.41	0.99	2.60
Cu	Shoot	-	-	-	-
Cu	Seedling	1.10	0.27	0.58	1.63
Cu	Germination	1.12	0.20	0.74	1.51

- IC₂₅ was greater than the tested concentration ranges of CuSO₄.

IV. Discussion

From the results presented here, it is inferred that both Cd and Pb have their unique toxic behaviour on different organs (endpoints) of rice plant. This uniqueness can be useful in specific identification of such compounds. The varied response of CuSO₄ might be of interest as it produced the stimulatory effect on one organ (shoot) and inhibitory effect on another organ (root) at the same time. Such response was not observed previously in a similar study by Wang [12]. One reason for this is that the concentration ranges chosen by him might have skipped the hormetic effect. It has already been reported that the concentration ranges chosen and the spacing between them (especially at lower ranges) affects the determination of hormesis in bioassays [13, 14]. It should also be noted that such stimulatory effect is due to the function of Cu as a micro nutrient. Higher LC₂₅ for Pb points to the low sensitivity of O. sativa to this metal compared to Cu. To cause toxicity, the Pb was required at higher concentrations with the longer exposure duration in contrast with Cu which was required at lower concentration with the shorter exposure duration. This is an important observation in the study. This behaviour indicates the ability of O. sativa to attain resistance with time against the toxicity of Pb. This resistance might be due to a special mechanism in which the Pb in the solution is adsorbed by the oxalate secreted by the rice [15]. Comparing the entire dose-response curve is also found to be advantageous in identifying specific patterns unique to each toxicant. From the ongoing discussion, it is clear that BOU for point estimates draws a boundary line for uncertainties of reaching wrong conclusions. Thus it supplements the confidence intervals produced from point estimates. The confidence intervals of LC₂₅ in combination with BOU can be very useful in environmental management aspects.

V. Conclusion

The results presented here clearly indicate that the inclusion of different endpoints and different point estimates may be helpful in specifically identifying the toxicants. The study has also proven that pattern of change in point estimates (IC/EC/LC) at different time points is unique to each compound, a property which can be made use of in the identification of toxicants.

References

- [1]. Wuana RA, Okieimen FE. Heavy metals in contaminated soils: a review of sources, chemistry, risks and best available strategies for remediation. ISRN Ecology. 2011;2011:1-20.
- USEPA. Methods for Measuring the Acute Toxicity of Effluents and Receiving Waters to Freshwater and Marine Organisms. 5th ed. [2]. Office of Water, Washington DC: United States Environmental Protection Agency; 2002. (EPA-821-R-02-012).
- [3]. Brinke A, Buchinger S, Reifferscheid G, Klein R, Feiler U. Development of a sediment-contact test with rice for the assessment of sediment-bound pollutants. Environmental Science and Pollution Research. 2015 Aug;22(16):12664-75.
- USEPA. Methods for Aquatic Toxicity Identification Evaluations: Phase I Toxicity Characterization Procedures [Internet]. 2nd ed. Office of Water, Washington, DC: United States Environmental Protection Agency; 1991 [cited 2017 Jul 27]. (EPA/600/6-9 I/003). [4]. Available from: https://www3.epa.gov/npdes/pubs/owm0343.pdf
- [5]. Delignette-Muller M-L, Forfait C, Billoir E, Charles S. A new perspective on the Dunnett procedure: filling the gap between NOEC/LOEC and ECx concepts. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry. 2011 Dec;30(12):2888-91.
- Rand GM. Fundamentals of Aquatic Toxicology: Effects, Environmental Fate And Risk Assessment. CRC Press; 1995. 1160 p.
- [6]. [7]. Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, et al. Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods. 2012 Jun 28;9(7):676-82.
- [8]. Ritz C, Baty F, Streibig JC, Gerhard D. Dose-response analysis using R. Xia Y, editor. PLOS ONE. 2015 Dec 30;10(12):e0146021.
- Dilba D, Mario H, Daniel G, Frank S. mratios: Inferences for ratios of coefficients in the general linear model. 2012; Available from: [9]. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=mratios
- [10]. Cedergreen N, Ritz C, Streibig JC. Improved empirical models describing hormesis. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry. 2005;24(12):3166.
- [11]. Brain P, Cousens R. An equation to describe dose responses where there is stimulation of growth at low doses. Weed Research. 1989;29(2):93-6.
- [12]. Wang W. Rice seed toxicity tests for organic and inorganic substances. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment. 1994 Jan;29(2):101-
- Belz RG, Piepho H-P. Modeling effective dosages in hormetic dose-response studies. Wu R, editor. PLoS ONE. 2012 Mar 16;7(3): [13]. e33432.
- [14]. Calabrese EJ, Blain RB. The hormesis database: the occurrence of hormetic dose responses in the toxicological literature. Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology. 2011 Oct;61(1):73-81.
- [15]. Yang Y-Y, Jung J-Y, Song W-Y, Suh H-S, Lee Y. Identification of rice varieties with high tolerance or sensitivity to lead and characterization of the mechanism of tolerance. Plant Physiol. 2000 Nov;124(3):1019-26.

Syamkumar R. "Phytotoxicity of Copper and Lead to Orvza sativa L. with Regard to Different Exposure Durations and Endpoints." IOSR Journal of Environmental Science, Toxicology and Food Technology (IOSR-JESTFT) 12.6 (2018): 64-69.