RESPONSES OF TRANSPLANTED LICHENS TO SULPHUR DIOXIDE DOSAGES – A NEW SEMI-STATISTICAL DOSA-GE/INJURY MODEL

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A semi-statistical model is suggested for injury to monitor plants for long-time field exposures (months). The model is based on the following assumptions:

- 1. The concentrations of air pollutants in the atmosphere follow the Johnson S_B distribution.
- 2. The degree of plant injury is proportional to the logarithm of air pollutant dose.
- 3. No injuries occur below a certain dose level.

4. A dose is defined as the air pollutant concentration multiplied by the duration of exposure raised to an exponent.

Based on the air pollutant frequency distribution a total dose for the exposure period is calculated by integration, and the total dose is related to the observed plant injury by non-linear regression.

The model is tested for long-time exposures of sulphur dioxide to transplanted lichens in natural environments.

INTRODUCTION

Lichens seem to react specifically to sulphur dioxide pollution (SO₂). The action of the pollutant is performed through dosages in relation to physiological and morphological properties of the thallus. The dose is usually defined as the product of pollutant concentration and exposure time. For higher plants in short-term fumigation situations the two factors - concentration and time of exposure – have been seen not to be of equal importance, and furthermore, a threshold concentration below which no visible injury occurs has been introduced. For lichens, comparison of the lichen vegetation located adjacent to physico/chemical measurement stations of SO, has suggested that selected lichen species can be calibrated to a winter SO2 level in southern Scandinavia frequency distributions. A (HAWKSWORTH and ROSE, 1970; JOHN-SON and SØCHTING, 1973). Futher, the lichen Hypogymnia physodes (L.) has been transplanted with standardized transplantation and exposure techniques into urban

areas to evaluate the air quality. (KROG and BRANDT, 1975; SØCHTING and JOHN-SON, 1978; RAMKæR et al., 1980) By assuming a direct proportionality between dose calculated as winter SO2 average - and rated extent of damage on thallus, SØCHTING and JOHNSON (1978) could explain about 50 % of the variation in thallus injury by the SO, level on different monitor sites. RAMKæR et al. (1980) found that 81 % of the variation in thallus injury could be explained by SO₂ level by using a logaritmic dose/injury relationship.

Since the effect of pollutants on plants is a function of dosages it is not satisfactory to use seasonal SO₂ averages only. Usually air pollution data are reported in the form of calculate the relevant dosage from a frequency distribution will be shown, and a non-linear dose/injury relationship with a threshold value of the dose will be suggested.

CALCULATION OF DOSAGE

Let the air pollution concentrations C be arranged in a probability density function PDF with a minimum value Cmin and a maximum value C_{max}, Fig. 1.

Usually the distribution of air pollution concentrations are assumed to be logarithmic normal, that means $Y = k \cdot 1n C$ follows a normally distributed PDF with the geometric mean mg and the geometric standard deviation sg (a twoparameter logonormal distribution). If C does not follow a lognormal distribution, a suitable model to fit the data is the Johnson SB model as pointed out by Mage (1980a). The Johnson SB model transforms the variable C to

$$\chi = \ln \left(\frac{C - C_{\min}}{C_{\max} - C} \right)$$

where X is normally distributed with mean u of 1. The standard normal PDF is and standard deviation o (a four parameter lognormal model, Cmin and Cmax are the (4) third and fourth parameters of the distribution). In the following it is assumed that then the PDF is logonormal, which means that the data have been transformed as shown, if (5) necessary.

If the effect of a dosage is independent of other dosages we can discuss the problem of the impact of SO₂ air pollution on transplanted lichens in a receptor point for a given period of time (months) in terms of the moment E(Cq) of the PDF. The q'th moment of the distributions is

(1)
$$E(CQ) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} CQ PDF (C)dc$$
or $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} CQ PDF (C)$

q is a weighting factor between concentration and time because one specific concentration Ci in a time period ti (hours, days) adds the

$$(2) D_i = (C_i)q \cdot t_i$$

to the dosage, which we define as the E(Cq) times the exposure period.

 $C = m_{\mathbf{g}} \cdot s_{\mathbf{g}}^{\mathbf{z}}$

where z is a normally distributed parameter with a mean of zero and a standard deviation

(4)
$$F(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}z^2)$$

$$(5) PDF(C) = F(z)$$

where z is related to C through wq. (3).

If N is the total number of hours or days with SO₂ measurements in the transplantation period, then rewriting eq. (1) integrating and rearranging:

DOSAGE
$$D = E(CQ) \cdot N$$

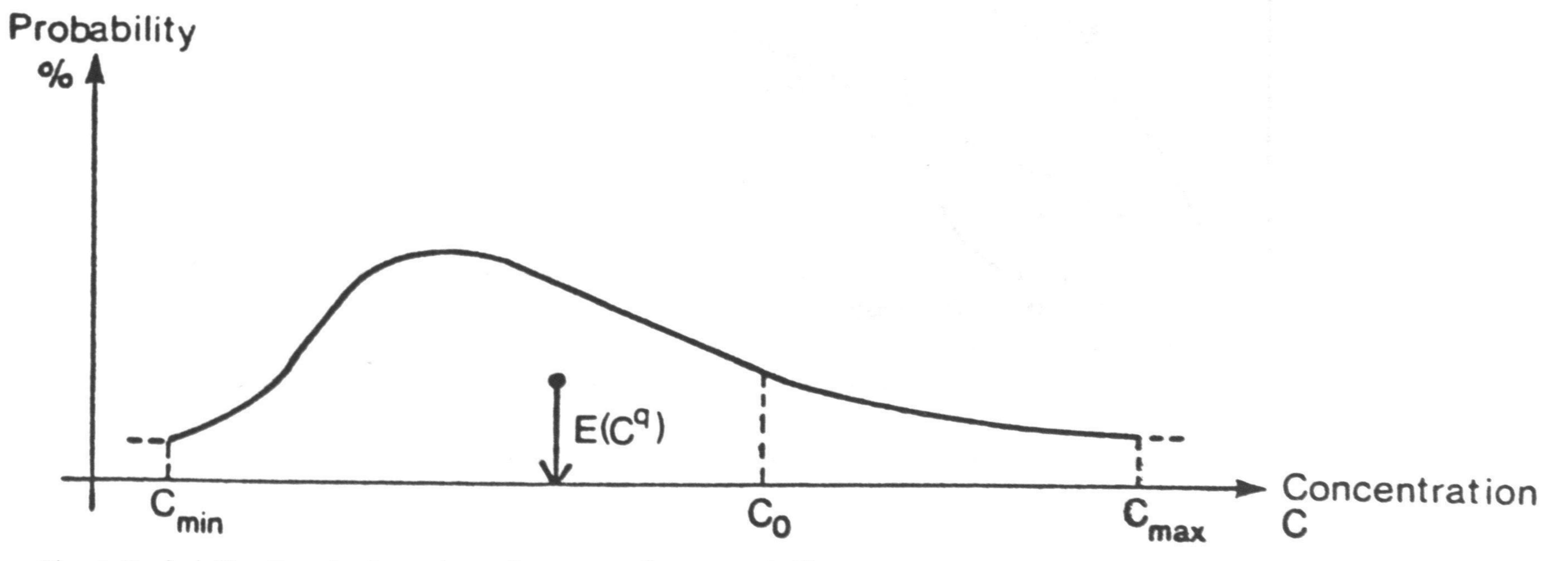


Fig. 1 Probability Density Function of an air pollutant. E(Cq) = moment, $C_Q = threshold concentration$

(6)
$$= \int_{z_{\min}}^{z_{\max}} (m_g \cdot s_g^z)^q \cdot N \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}z^2) dz$$

(7)
$$= (m_g \cdot s_g^{1/2} q \ln s_g) q \cdot N.$$

$$\left[\boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{\psi}_1) - \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{\psi}_2) \right]$$

where

(8)
$$\psi_1 = \frac{1}{\ln s_g} \ln \left[\frac{C_{\text{max}}}{m_g \cdot s_g q \ln s_g} \right]$$

(9)
$$\psi_2 = \frac{1}{\ln s_g} \ln \left[\frac{C_{\min}}{m_g \cdot s_g q \ln s_g} \right]$$

(10)
$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\mathbf{x}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^2) d\mathbf{x}$$

If q = 1, that means concentration and time are of equal importance, eq. (7) becomes

(11)
$$D = m_g \cdot s_g^{1/2} \ln s_g \cdot N \cdot \left[\Phi (\psi_1') - \Phi (\psi_2') \right]$$

(12)
$$= \overline{X} \cdot N \cdot \left[\Phi (\psi_{1}) - \Phi (\psi_{2}) \right]$$

(13) = arithmetic mean times exposure time times a correction factor in relation to the limited PDF

The effects then are most likely related as a first-hand approximation of the dosage to the arithmetic average concentration as suggested by MAGE (1980 b). In fact, the first moment in a PDF is by definition the arithmetic mean.

dose/effect relationship cannot be established

DOSE/EFFECT RELATIONSHIP

A dose/effect relationship is a relation the injury is the rated extent of dead thallus between dose and the degree of injury. For from zero to 100 per cent. The shape of lichens transplanted as biological indicators

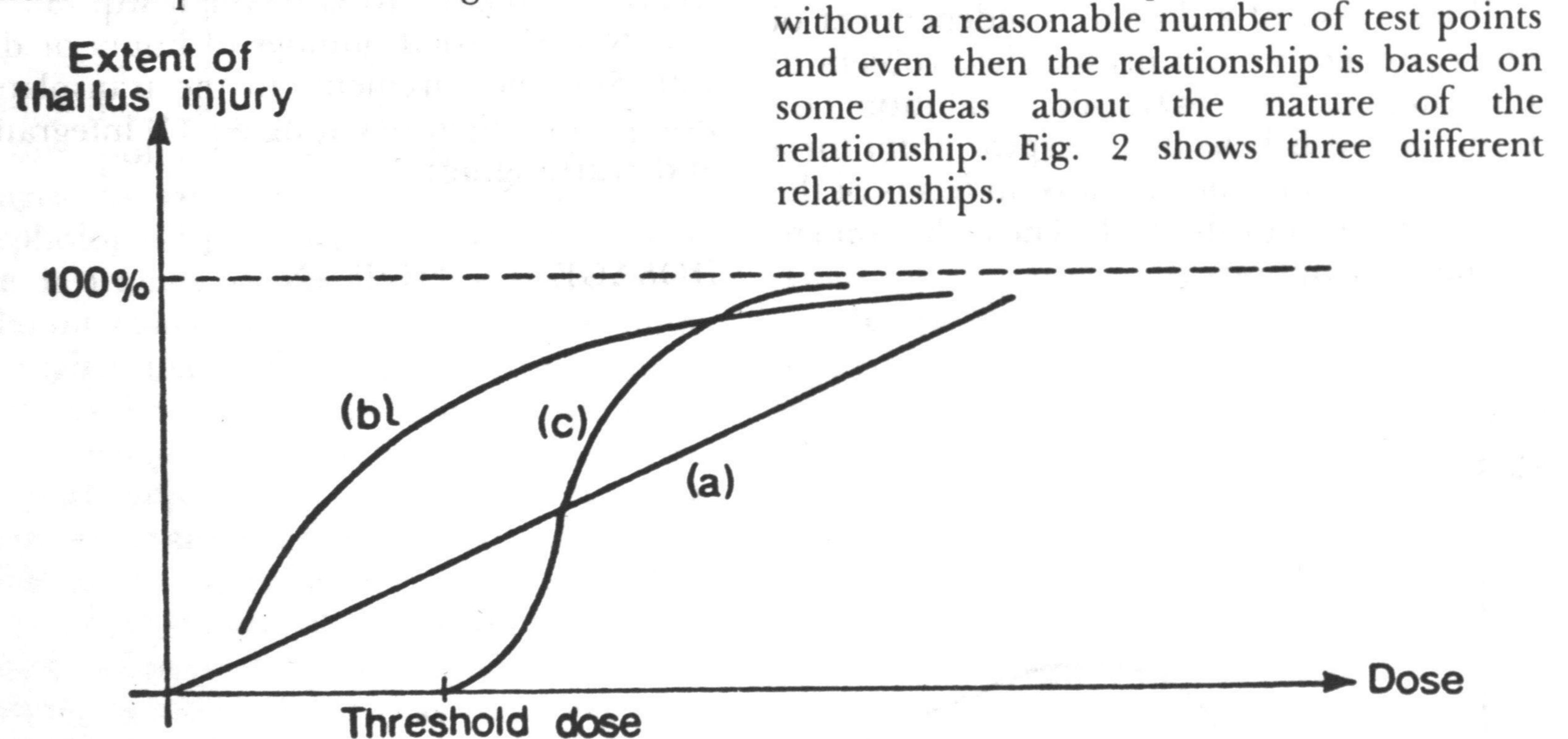


Fig. 2. Dose/effect Relationship

- (a) linear relationship i.e. direct proportionality between dose and effect over the entire dose range
- (b) logarithmic relationship i.e. direct proportionality between log (dose) and effect over the entire dose range
- (c) non-linear relationship with a threshold value of the dose and 100 % injury as asymptotic values

Other relationships could be suggested e.g. the "growth" or logistic curve or the lognormal probability function.

The relationship (c) has been chosen because of three reasonable characteristics:

- 1. The extent of injury is a function of the logarithm of the dose.
- 2. The concept of a threshold dose.
- 3. An upper asymptotic degree of injury. D_0 = threshold dose

The equation for (c) is:

(14)
$$Y = a \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{b}{\ln(D/D_0)}\right)$$

Y = thallus injury in per cent

a = upper asymptote

b = a slope that relates $1n^{-1}(D/D_0)$ to 1n y

D = dose

TEST OF THE MODEL

The suggested theory of dosage calculation ble 1 have been calculated and tabulated in and the relationship to thallus injury was Table 3. tested by data from two years of transplantation experiments with Hypogymnia physodes in Copenhagen, carried out by RAMK R et al. (1980). The SO₂ air pollution (24 hrs) measurements have been carried out by the Greater Copenhagen Air Pollution Authority and have been supplied by the Danish Meteorological Institute. Table 1 shows the results.

From the values in Table 1 the following parameters in eq. (7) and eq. (4) were found by regression analysis.

The two estimated values of b are significantly different (t = 9.04***, f = 6). The values of q and Do cannot be tested against each other. But from the values of Do the corresponding values of Cthreshold for the PDF's in Ta-

Table 2. Estimated Parameters.

1877/78
$$q = 0.16$$

 $D_{0} = 295 (\mu g/m^{3})^{0.16} \times 24 \text{ hours}$
 $a = 102 \% \begin{cases} <109 \% \\ >96 \%, P > 0.95 \end{cases}$
 $b = 0.015 \pm 0.005, P > 0.95$
 $r^{2} = 0.9724$
 $n = 5$
1978/79 $q = 0.09$
 $D_{0} = 203 (\mu g/m^{3})^{0.09} \times 24 \text{ hours}$
 $a = 258 \% \begin{cases} <272 \\ >246 \end{cases}, P > 0.95$
 $b = 0.228 \pm 0.065, P > 0.95$
 $r^{2} = 0.9761$
 $n = 5$

Table 1. Air Pollution Data and Injury on Transplanted h. physodes. Transplantation perioid: 20 Oct. to 20 Apr.

Winter	STATION	m _g μg/m³	$\mu g/m^3$	C _{min} μ g/m ³	Cmax µg/m³	Mean injury %
1977/78	STORM	40.4	1.51	16	158	84.4
	VALB	55.7	1.58	10	222	90.3
	GLOS	35.2	1.68	5	178	88.6
	HELL	48.9	1.68	11	203	96.5
	STAV	22.9	1.97	2	139	53.7
1978/79	STORM	32.8	1.75	2	130	81.2
	VALB	51.4	1.75	8	200	98.5
	GLOS	32.1	1.75	6	148	86.2
	GLAD	45.6	1.79	6	171	98.9
	STAV	21.3	1.92	5	120	60.3

Table 3. Calculated threshold concentration for a given threshold dose

O	1977/78	l concentration (µg/m³ 1978/79
STORM	69.6	54.6
VALB	90.8	80.4
GLOS	72.3	53.7
HELL	89.4	
GLAD		73.9
STAV	84.9	43.2
Mean	81.1	61.2

It cannot be shown that the two mean values in Table 3 are significantly different (t=2.206, f=8). They are then pooled to give a best estimate of a threshold concentration: $^{1}/_{2}(81.4+61.2) = 71.3 \,\mu g/m^{3}$.

Fig 3 shows the two regression lines for the two transplantation experiments. The dotted lines show the theoretical 95 % limits for the variation around each regression line.

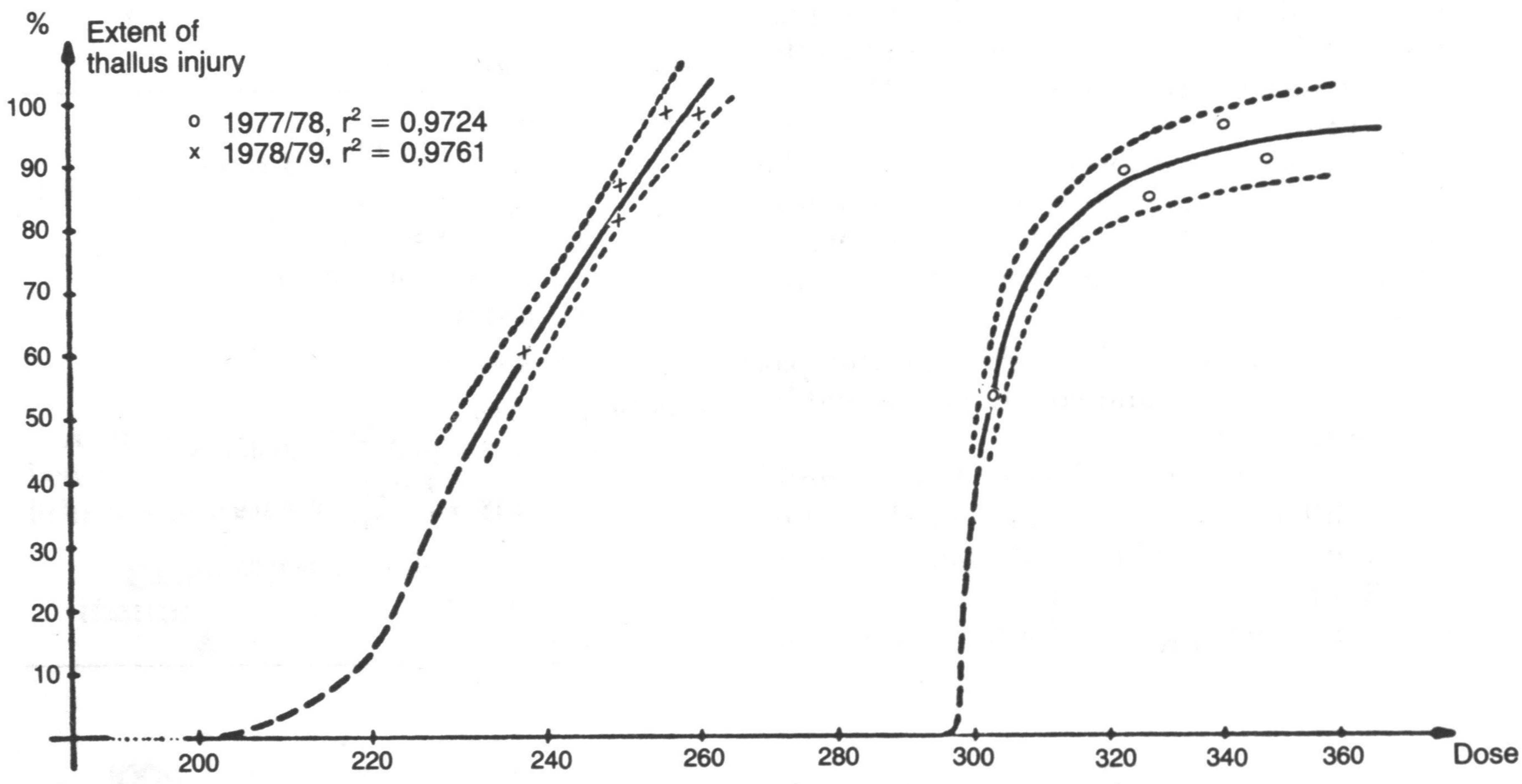


Fig. 3 Regression lines for the data in Table 1 fitted by eq. (7) and eq. (14).

DISCUSSION

agreement between the estimated parameters (2). for the two independent sets of observations.

A notable result is the very low value of q (15) found (q_{mean} =0.12). This means that transplanted lichens – and possibly lichens in

The calculation of dosages and the situ as well – to a very high degree are injured suggested dose/injury relationship seems to by the SO, "level" and not by fumigation fit the data very well (r²>0.97) as expected episodes with high concentrations. This can from the number of parameters and be illustrated by doubling the time of expoobservations. More important is the sure and concentration, respectively, in eq.

(15)
$$a = \frac{D_{2t}}{D_{2c}} = \frac{C_i^{0.12} \cdot 2 \cdot t}{(2 \cdot C_i)^{0.12} \cdot t} = 1.84$$

Doubling the exposure time gives about 84 concentration.

The limiting levels for SO₂ for epiphytic in situ H. physodes were 90-110 μ g/m³ in Copenhagen (JOHNSON and SØCHTING, 1973) and 60-70 µg/m³ in England and Wales (HAWKSWORT and ROSE 1970) as arithmetic winter averages. As shown in Table in their surroundings without being 3 threshold concentrations of 45-90 μg/m³ are found with the mean value 70 µg/m³. The threshold concentrations are of course varying considerably when threshold dose is kept constant. Only the dose contributions from concentrations between Co and Cmax are having an effect on the lichens. Using seasonal arithmetic means may therefore lead to misleading results in trying to set limiting levels for SO, for lichens.

There is one irregularity in Table 3, i.e. the upper asymptotic value for the winter 1978/79 of 258 %. This is nonsense of course, as the injury cannot exceed 100 %. For the winter 1977/78 the value is between 96-109 % which is the theoretical correct value. An explanation to this result is the greater sensitivity of the transplants to the SO, exposure during the winter of 1978/79 than during the winter of 1977/78; the slope of sensitivity b is 15 times greater and the threshold dose is lower. In 1978/79 at the two stations with the largest extent of thallus injury (VALB and GLAD) 68 % and 76 %, respectively, of the transplanted e.g. the slope of sensitivity. The degree of lichens were completely dead, while this thallus injury is possibly the result of a percentage during 1977/78 was about 20 %. If stocastic process involving the probability of dead lichens had been replaced by living ditto high moisture status of thallus and during the transplantation period the injury could have been more than 100 %. H. physodes were too sensitive in 1978/79 to be a

suitable indicator at the most polluted % greater relevant dose than doubling the localities when using a six month transplantation period, or the lichens at these stations have been influenced by other factors than SO₉.

The sensitivity of the lichens to SO₂ is closely dependent on their moisture status. Dried thalli survive high SO, concentrations damaged. The difference in sensitivity in the two year period should be explained by climatic factors. Table 4 shows some possible factors. The season 1978/79 was mostly wet.

Table 4. Some climatic factors in Copenhagen in the transplantation periods

	1977-78	1978/79
оС	2.8	1.4
mm	237	248
%	83	84
%	76	87
	mm	°C 2.8 mm 237 % 83

The main problem by making dose/response models is the reduction of the biological variability and the physiological properties of the thallus in relation to the environment to one factor for each period occurrence of high SO, concentrations. Perhaps this process is an explanation for the shown insensitivity for fumigation episodes.

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