LE GUIDE VISUEL DES CHIRONOMIDES SUB-FOSSILES DU QUÉBEC À L'ÎLE D'ELLESMERE

Rapport de recherche No R-900

Novembre 2006



Le Guide Visuel des Chironomides sub-fossils du Québec à l'Île d'Ellesmere

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Rapport R-900

ISBN 2-89146-430-3

Novembre 2006



Université du Québec Institut national de la recherche scientifique Eau, Terre et Environnement

www.chironomids.com

RÉSUMÉ

Ce guide a pour but d'illustrer les différents taxons de chironomides sub-fossiles extirpés de la surface des sédiments de plusieurs lacs entre Mont-Laurier (Québec) et l'île d'Ellesmere. 90 taxons sont représentés au chapitre 4. Le premier chapitre présente une courte introduction à l'analyse des chironomides, le chapitre 2 explique brièvement le concept de fonction de transfert et le chapitre 3 révise deux nouvelles techniques méthodologiques développées à notre laboratoire. Ce guide n'est pas complet, il concerne simplement les taxons retrouvés dans les lacs que nous avons échantillonnés. Plusieurs autres lacs devraient être échantillonnés dans les prochaines années, la partie taxonomie sera tenue à jour sur notre site internet www.chironomids.com.

Ce guide est destiné aux chercheurs internationaux en analyse des chironomides, et à ceux qui aimeraient s'initier à cette analyse. Il a donc été rédigé en anglais.



A Visual Guide to Sub-fossil Chironomids from Quebec to Ellesmere Island

Isabelle Larocque, Nicolas Rolland



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1. Introduction

Chironomids (Insecta : Diptera) are abundant aquatic insects. They can be found on all the continents, in an extremely diverse array of environments (reviewed in Armitage et al. 1997). While the adult stage is a terrestrial winged insect (Figure 1.1), the larvae develop in or on the surface of different substrates (sediments, plants, dead wood, other invertebrates), in aquatic, humid or semi-terrestrial environments (lakes, ponds, rivers, estuaries, bogs, marshes, etc). Most species go through four distinct larval stages, each leaving behind a molted head capsule with the potentiality of being preserved. Different species have specific ecological preferences and tolerances which make them useful indicators of various environmental variables.



Figure 1.1. Life cycle of a chironomid: the chironomid goes through four larval stages (II-V), a pupa stage (VI) then emerge and start their adult (imago) stage (VII). Molted headcapsules are preserved in the sediment and are used in subfossil chironomid analysis (© Nicolas Rolland).

In lake sediments, the chitinous ($C_6H_{12}O_5N$) head capsules of chironomid larvae preserve well and can be identified to genus, even to species level in certain cases, making it possible to characterize past assemblages with a high degree of accuracy. This has made the use of subfossil chironomid assemblages a powerful paleoenvironmental tool used both qualitatively and quantitatively to infer various limnological variables such as trophic status (Lotter et al. 1998), oxygen level (Quinlan and Smol 2002), salinity (Heinrichs et al. 2001), depth (Korhola et al. 2000), lake size and acidification (Mousavi 2002), chlorophyll a (Brodersen and Lindegaard 1999) and especially air or water temperature (Walker et al. 1991; Lotter et al. 1997; Olander et al. 1997; Walker et al. 1997; Olander et al. 1999; Korhola et al. 2000; Brooks and Birks 2001; Larocque et al. 2001; Brodersen and Andersen 2002; Porinchu et al. 2002; Heiri et al. 2003; Larocque et al. 2006). The use of chironomid remains as paleolimnological indicators has been addressed and revised in length elsewhere (Frey 1964; Walker 1987; Hofmann 1988; Walker et al. 1991; Walker 1995). We especially recommend chapter 3 in DPER volume 4 by Walker (2001) which gives a good overview of the method.

The purpose of this book is not to repeat the information already presented in other sources but to gather and make available new information on the recent advances in methodology and taxonomy of the subfossil chironomid larvae. The major part of this book is dedicated to taxonomy and presents each of the ~100 taxa found in over 100 lakes located between southern Québec and Bylot Island, in northeastern Canada (Figure 1.2). A first transfer function was published recently (Larocque et al. 2006). It covers lakes from Matagami to Purvinituq in Quebec. Since then, lakes from Mont-Laurier to Matagami, in northern Quebec, on Southampton Island and on Cape Bounty have been added creating a new model with improved statistics



Figure 1.2. Studied areas

RMSEP=1.13°C). Recently, lakes were sampled on Bylot and Ellesmere islands, and the distribution of taxa in these lakes should be added in the following year. If new taxa are found, this guide will be updated on our website (www.chironomids.com).

To our knowledge, there is no single reference book for subfossil chironomid taxonomy relating to eastern Canada. The taxonomy of this group has greatly evolved since subfossil chironomid workshops started in 1997, but no specific guide reflecting this evolution has as of yet been published. The multiplication of paleolimnological investigations utilizing chironomid remains in Québec (Fallu et al. 2005; Swadling et al. submitted; Saulnier-Talbot et al. in prep) and in the eastern Canadian Arctic (Rolland et al. in prep) underscores the need for an overview of the diversity and distribution of the taxa encountered to date, and for a better taxonomic guide in order to compare reconstructions obtained from different sites, or in order to adequately use the transfer function recently developed in Québec (Larocque et al. 2006). To gather this information in one textbook is extremely helpful for researchers already working with chironomids in the area but also to any chironomist who wishes to establish work in Québec and/or the eastern Canadian Arctic, or who wants to compare the taxa found in the area with other areas around the world.

Apart from the taxonomic descriptions and considerations which make up the last chapter, other parts of this book concern a short description of the transfer function and different aspects of the advances in methodology and presents two new techniques that can be applied to the sediment for calculating concentrations of headcapsules (marker technique) and to extract chironomid headcapsules (floating technique).

We hope that this book will serve as a reference for anyone working with subfossil chironomids or who wishes to become familiar with the fascinating and challenging world of subfossil chironomid analysis

ACKOWLEDGEMENTS

Émilie Saulnier-Talbot (emilie.saulnier-talbot.1@ulaval.ca) wrote part of the first two paragraphs of this text.

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2. Transfer function

This study was made primarily to create a model (transfer function) to reconstruct air temperature. The transfer function is created by sampling many lakes in a large gradient of temperature. Those lakes are called the training set (T.S) lakes (Figure 2.1 1A). In each of these lakes, the surface sediment is taken (1B) and chironomid headcapsules are extracted and identified (1C). At the sampling time, physical (e.g. depth, surface, catchment area), chemical (nutrients, pH) and climatological (water temperature) parameters are measured (1D). Air temperature is extrapolated from existing climate stations (see Larocque et al. 2006). A detrended canonical analysis (DCA) is made with all measured parameters and the chironomid assemblages to determine which factors best explain the distribution of chironomids in the T.S. lakes. A model for reconstruction (transfer function) based on the temperature optimum for each taxa (2A) is then developed (2B) and will subsequently be applied to chironomid assemblages extracted from sediment cores (3A, 3B).





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Such models (for air or water temperature) have been developed in many countries: western Canada (Barley et al. in press), eastern Canada (Walker et al. 1997), Finland (Olander et al. 1999), Norway (Brooks and Birks 2000), Sweden (Larocque et al. 2001), Switzerland (Lotter et al. 1997; Heiri et al. 2003) and USA (California) (Porinchu et al. 2002). Some of these transfer functions have been applied to reconstruct temperature from lakes in other countries (e.g. the Swiss transfer function to reconstruct temperature in France (Heiri and Millet 2005), a Swedish transfer function to reconstruct temperatures in Russia (e.g. Ilyashuk et al. 2005)). The transfer function presently being developed in Canada will be available to anyone wanting to reconstruct temperature in similar lakes. Although the model could be adjusted to fit a different taxonomy, the transfer function will have its maximum power if it is based on similar taxonomy. The purpose of this is to help determining which names we gave to different headcapsules, and to what level the taxonomy was separated.

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Walker IR, Levesque AJ, Cwynar LC, Lotter AF (1997) An expanded surface-water palaeotemperature inference model for use with fossil midges from eastern Canada. J Paleolimnol 18: 165-178.

Probably the best way to avoid damage to headcapsules during extraction from the sediments would be to pick midges from untreated sediment (Velle 1998). Although this method is protective, the time to pick headcapsules is extremely high, and because the sediment is not deflocculated, there is a greater chance of missing some pale headcapsules during picking. A universal way of sample preparation has been established by Walker and is presented in Walker (2001). Although some variations to the method have been recently made, as using a sonic bath to increase deflocculation of the sediment (Lang et al. 2003), very few adjustments were brought to the method since its development. In general, the number of headcapsules extracted this way is sufficient (depending on the sediment type) and the number of "missed" headcapsules is low if the person who is picking is paying enough attention to its work. Only one aspect of this universally used method could be improved: the time needed to pick all chironomid headcapsules from one sample. The number of headcapsules hand-picked and individually mounted on a microscopic slide can be up to 800 (personal data) and the process can take up to two days. If the time needed to prepare samples was reduced, we could do higher resolution studies, or increase the number of sites to analyse. Recently, two studies (Velle and Larocque accepted; Rolland and Larocque submitted) proposed two ways of improving the universal method by proposing ways to greatly reduce the time used for picking and mounting the chironomid headcapsules. These new methodologies are summarised below.

CALCULATING CONCENTRATIONS WITH MARKERS

Relative abundances are often employed in chironomid reconstructions but the use of absolute abundances, such as concentrations or influx, may provide information overlooked by relative abundances (Heiri et al. 2003; Quinlan et al. 2005). For example, a reconstruction made at Lac du Sommet in Québec (Figure 3.1) shows variations in the interpretation of changes through time if relative abundances (as percentages) or concentrations (number of headcapsules per gram) are used. While *Microtendipes* percentages show few changes through the core, the concentrations indicate two zones (1 and 4) with an increase in the number of recorded *Microtendipes*. By looking at percentages, *Pagastiella* seems to disappear periodically during zones 2 and 3 but the concentrations indicate that the taxon is still present. *Tanytarsus* sp. B, *Pentaneurini* and *Procladius* increase during zone 1 but these increases are masked when percentages are considered. These results enhance the need of presenting both the percentages and the concentration diagrams, when possible.



Figure 3.1. Percentages (black diagrams) and concentrations (gray diagrams) of chosen taxa in the sediment core of Lac Du Sommet, Charlevoix, Québec, Canada (Hausmann et al. in prep).

In the standard procedure developed by Walker (2001), to determine the concentration of head capsule involves counting every headcapsule in a pre-measured quantity of sediment. Densities can greatly vary in subsequent levels in a sediment cores, and there is no way to foresee these variations. In some cases, we end up mounting and counting 800 headcapsules for one level. Velle and Larocque (accepted) described a way to evaluate headcapsule concentrations while



Figure 3.2. Two spheres and a chironomid headcapsule. The white scale in the first micro-sphere represents 150 μ m.

partially counting a subsample.

Markers can be used in chironomid analysis as is done in pollen (Moore et al. 1991) and diatom (Battarbee and Kneen 1982) analyses. A known number of microspheres (Figure 3.2) (generally about 200) are added to a known volume or weight of sediment during the 10 % KOH process.

A short stay in an ultrasonic bath (Lang et al. 2003) can be added to the Walker (2001) universal method. The sonic bath did not seem to affect the spheres. The solution is then sieved in a 90 μ m mesh, placed in a Bogorov counting tray and looked at under a stereozoom microscope. Headcapsules are handpicked and mounted on a microscopic slide while microspheres are enumerated using a counter (Figure 3.3).



Slide mounting and microscope identification

Figure 3.3. Sample preparation with microspheres

The chironomid analyst can decide on a number of headcapsules to be picked in the sample. Various studies have shown that at least 50 headcapsules should be counted per sample for accurate statistical analyses (Quinlan and Smol 2000; Heiri and Lotter 2001; Larocque 2001). Velle and Larocque (accepted) have shown that, with the use of markers, at least 50 headcapsules should be counted, but better results were obtained with at least 85 headcapsules.

Concentrations can then be calculated using this formula:

$$N = (n S_a) / Sf / W$$

where N is the total number of headcapsules per weight or volume

n is the number of headcapsules retrieved

S_a is the number of spheres added

Sr is the number of spheres retrieved

W is the sediment volume or weight

The concentrations calculated might be dependant on sediment characteristics (sedimentation rate, sediment focusing and sediment density). If an age-depth model is available, we suggest using influx (number per annum per cm^2) instead of only concentration. This number obtain comprises a concentration that is relative to the sediment characteristics which may highly fluctuate in sediment cores. To calculate influxes, the following formula can be used:

 $Y = N_d (W_d / W_p) (1/dr)$

Where Y = influx

 N_d = number of fossil per gram

 $W_d = dry$ weight of the sample

 W_p = the percentage dry weight

d = the sediment density

r = sedimentation rate

FLOATING TECHNIQUE USING KEROSENE

Another way to decrease the time for picking and to know the chironomid head capsules concentration is to use a floating technique which is generally used for insects (Coope 1986) such as Coleoptera (Elias 2001) and aquatic mites (Proctor 2001). This technique started to be applied for chironomid analysis (e.g., Gandouin et al. 2005; Ruiz et al. 2006) but, to our knowledge, the technique was never tested before the study of Rolland and Larocque 2006. The technique is rather simple (Figure 3.4) and is based on a) the affinity between chitin and kerosene and b) the difference in densities of headcapsule, kerosene and ethanol.

First, 10 % KOH is added to a known amount of dry or wet sediment. The solution can be left overnight or heated for 5-10 minutes to deflocculate the sediment. The solution is filtered in a 100 μ m mesh. The sediment left in the mesh is placed in an Erlenmeyer using distilled water. Ethanol is added to bring the volume to 100 ml. We then add 50 ml of kerosene, cap the Erlenmeyer and shake gently to mix the sediment, the ethanol and the kerosene. The Erlenmeyer is left to stand until the separation of ethanol and kerosene. The hadcapsules, being attracted by the kerosene but having densities between kerosene and ethanol, will float to the line of separation between the two solutions. A pipette is then used to extract the headcapsules and the kerosene. A second floatation can be made by adding again 50 ml of kerosene, shaking gently the solutions and letting the two solutions separate. Headcapsules are again retrieved with a pipette. Rolland and Larocque (submitted) found that one floating was enough to remove at least 85 % of the headcapsules but two floats are generally used to ensure the capture of most headcapsules.

Various sediment types were tested with this technique, from clay sediment to peat samples. The floating responded very well to all sediment types between inorganic (Loss on ignition (LOI = 2 %) to organic (LOI = 68 %) (Rolland and Larocque, submitted). The method has then become a standard in our laboratory and all long cores are treated this way. We routinely verify samples to be sure that most headcapsules are floating and in all cases very few (2 %) to no headcapsule were found in the sediment remaining after the float.



Clean with detergent

Figure 3.4. Sample preparation for kerosene floating

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4. Taxonomy

INTRODUCTION

The taxonomy presented here is based on various sources including published keys (e.g., Wiederholm 1983; Oliver and Roussel 1983; Moller Pilot 1984 a,b, Epler 1995; Rieradevall and Brooks 2001), information gathered at various workshops attended in Europe and North America (e.g., unpublished keys developed by Steve Brooks on Tanytarsini), Oliver Heiri's website on Tanytarsisni (<u>www.bio.uu.nl/~palaeo/Chironomids /Tanytarsini/intro.htm</u>) and personal observations and classifications of different taxa.

This guide is not complete, it only concerns the taxa found in the training set lakes. For complete guides, please consult the sources enumerated above. A complete guide for subfossil taxonomy by Brooks, Langdon and Heiri should be soon available. The taxonomy part of this guide is separated into Tribe and subtribes, based primarily on parts that are preserved and are present in sub-fossils: the mentum and the ventromental plates.

The Chironominae have elongated ventromental plates. They are divided into two subtribes: the Chironomini, with wide ventromental plates (Figure 4.1) and the Tanytarsisni, with thin ventromental plates (Figure 4.2). The shape of the ventromental plates and the shape of the teeth on the mentum are used to differentiate the taxa.



Figure 4.1 ventromental plates of Chironomini

The taxonomy of Tanytarsini is based on Steve Brooks' unpublished key. The presence and shape of the spur on the antenna, the number of teeth on the mandible and the shape of the occipital plates are characteristics used to separate the different taxa.



Figure 4.2 Ventromental plates of Tanytarsini

The Orthocladinae have thin ventromental plates which follow the mentum and are often hard to see (Figure 4.3). The shape of the ventromental plates, the shape of the median, the shape and number of the lateral teeth are characteristics used to differentiate the taxa.



Figure 4.3. Ventromental plates of Orthocladinae

The Diamesinae are distinguished by a high number (>6) of lateral teeth on the mentum. The shape and number of teeth on the mentum are used to differentiate the taxa (Figure 4.4).



Figure 4.4. Pseudodiamesa

The Tanypodinae have elongated headcapsules, they do not have a mentum but a ligula. Taxonomy is based on Rieradevall and Brooks (2001) where seta pores are used. The ventromental pore is oval (A), the setae pores are round and look double-lined (B-C) (Figure 4.5).



Figure 4.5 Telopelopia headcapsule

CHIRONOMINAE

CHIRONOMINI


























































CHIRONOMINAE

TANYTASINI



























ORTHOCLADINAE













































































DIAMESINAE







TANYPODINAE









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