Aerial and aquatic respiration of the Australian desert goby, *Chlamydogobius eremius*

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Abstract

Physiological, anatomical and behavioural adaptations enable the Australian desert goby, *Chlamydogobius eremius*, to live in mound springs and temporary aquatic habitats surrounding the south-eastern rim of the Lake Eyre drainage basin in the harsh inland of Australia. This study describes the desert goby’s respiratory and metabolic responses to hypoxic conditions and its use of buccal air bubbles for gas exchange at the water surface. Oxygen consumption for *C. eremius* is significantly higher in water than in air under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. In water, total oxygen consumption ($V_O_2$) increases from normoxic conditions (253 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$) to 8% ambient O$_2$ concentration (377 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$), then decreases with increasing hypoxia of 4% O$_2$ (226 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$) and at 2% O$_2$ (123 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$). In air (fish were moist but out of water), $V_O_2$ progressively decreases from normoxic conditions to hypoxic conditions (21% O$_2$, $V_O_2$ is 169 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ to 39 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ at 2% O$_2$). These data indicate oxygen-conforming patterns with increasing hypoxia both in air and in water below 8% O$_2$. In water, opercular movement rates remain unchanged with increasing hypoxia (139 min$^{-1}$ at 21% O$_2$, 154 min$^{-1}$ at 8%, 156 min$^{-1}$ at 4% and 167 min$^{-1}$ at 2%) but in air, opercular movement rates are significantly lower than in water, corresponding with the lower metabolic rate (71 min$^{-1}$ at 21% O$_2$, 53 min$^{-1}$ at 8%, 96 min$^{-1}$ at 4% and 64 min$^{-1}$ at 2%). *Chlamydogobius eremius* can use a buccal air bubble for aerial O$_2$ uptake, most probably in response to increased aquatic hypoxia. In air, *C. eremius* relies more on the buccal bubble as an oxygen source with increasing hypoxia up to an ambient O$_2$ of 4% (7.1% of $V_O_2$ at 21% O$_2$; 14.5% at 8% O$_2$; and 27.1% at 4% O$_2$), then when the available supply of O$_2$ is further reduced, it decreases (15% of $V_O_2$ at 2% O$_2$) and respiration across the skin again makes a higher relative contribution. The Australian desert goby has a higher metabolic rate in higher salinities (336 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ in 35 ppt, 426 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ in 70 ppt) than in freshwater (235 $\mu$g l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$), presumably because of the increased metabolic cost of osmoregulation. There was no significant difference in $V_O_2$ for fish in air that had come from varying salinities. © 2002 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Desert Goby; *Chlamydogobius eremius*; Metabolism; Operculum movement; Hypoxia; Buccal air bubble

1. Introduction

Air-breathing fishes occur in a variety of habitats. Graham (1997) speculates that aquatic hypoxia and emergence from water are two primary factors that have influenced the evolution of air-breathing fishes. Aquatic hypoxia may be the primary driving force for air-breathing by freshwater fishes, whereas tidal stranding and active exploitation of the littoral-terrestrial boundary may have been the causal factors for marine-brackish littoral fishes. Air-breathing organs that facilitate
the survival of fishes out of their aquatic environment includes lungs or modified swim-bladders, anatomical modifications that increase the buccal, pharyngeal or opercular surface area, gas exchange surfaces along the digestive tract, and modifications to the skin for cutaneous gas exchange (Graham, 1997).

Glover (1971, 1979), Glover and Sim (1978) provided the first description of the basic biology and physiology of the Australian desert goby, C. eremius, which is endemic to the Lake Eyre drainage basin of Australia. This taxon has recently been divided into five species (C. eremius, C. micropterus, C. squamigenus, C. gloveri and C. japalpa) from the Lake Eyre drainage basin and an estuarine species, C. ranunculus, from northern Australia (Larson, 1995). Chlamydogobius eremius is reported to inhabit waters with a total salinity from 1.0 to 8.0 ppt, but will tolerate a wider range in salinity (1–37.5 ppt), a temperature range from 5 to 41 °C, a pH up to 10, and hypoxia down to 0.8 ppm O2 (Glover, 1971, 1973; Scott et al., 1974; Glover and Sim, 1978; Merrick and Schmida, 1994). Merrick and Schmida (1994) reported that C. eremius, in warm conditions, lie in the shallows almost completely out of the water, suggesting survival by aerial respiration. Gee and Gee (1995) suggested that at very low aquatic PO2 (< 2%) Chlamydogobius sp. (and Mugilogobius, Arenigobius and Cryptocentroides) could respire aerially using an air bubble held against the capillary lining of the roof of the buccal cavity, and via skin capillaries on the immersed part of the head, but they provided no direct evidence for aerial respiration.

This study confirms the use of a buccal bubble for gas exchange by C. eremius in hypoxic conditions by flow-through respirometry measurement. We follow the suggestion by Graham (1997) to use respirometry to directly demonstrate aerial gas exchange and present data for aerobic metabolism, rate of opercular movements and O2 consumption by buccal air bubble ejection. Video recordings of respiratory movements and timing of the release and subsequent bursting of the buccal bubble in conjunction with instantaneous graphing of O2 consumption recordings provided direct evidence for buccal bubble gas exchange.

Glover and Sim (1978) reported C. eremius in the Lake Eyre drainage basin. Many of the ephemeral waterways in this system can evaporate, leaving progressively increasing saline conditions until the water disappears. Given the varying salinities and hypoxic conditions that C. eremius are likely to encounter, we also examined V02 for this species in air and water at various O2 concentrations and salinities.

2. Materials and methods

Chlamydogobius eremius (mean body mass for each experiment varied from 0.51 to 0.59 g) were collected from the ‘The Bubbler’ artesian spring (29°23’23” S, 136°51’00” E) on the southern edge of Lake Eyre, then maintained in indoor aquaria, in freshwater, for a period more than 6 months. They were subject to the normal Perth photoperiod at a constant temperature of 23–24 °C. Fish were fed small crustaceans and commercial fish food. All food was withheld for at least 60 h prior to the measurement of aerobic metabolic rate.

Fish were acclimated to distilled water (0 ppt NaCl) and at salinities of 35 and 70 ppt NaCl for at least 7 days prior to experiments. We experiment and found that C. eremius were able to survive in 70 ppt NaCl for several weeks in the laboratory and this value was selected to test, as the upper experimental limit, the effects on metabolism and opercular movement.

Unlike most natural conditions where the air above hypoxic water remains normoxic (i.e. 20.94% O2), we necessarily studied C. eremius in conditions where the O2 concentration of air was the same as in the water (as determined by the gas mixture from compressed air cylinders). Our choice of an experimental protocol is partly a consequence of the difficulty in partitioning gaseous exchange in air and water for such a small fish. However, even if it were technically feasible, measuring the metabolism of gobies in hypoxic water when they were able to aerially respire from normoxic surface air would not permit determination of their metabolic response to hypoxia, other than the extent to which they might increase the use of buccal bubbles and respire across exposed portions of skin. Under these conditions, gobies could simply move to a position that enabled them to place their heads out of the hypoxic water environment and presumably respire normally from the air. Using a flow-through respirometry system enabled us to directly monitor O2 consumption, while video-recording the release and bursting of the buccal bubbles. Chlamydogobius eremius were
placed in a 25-ml clear glass flask held at an angle of approximately 45°, containing either 15 ml of freshwater or only air. The sloping flask facilitated the rapid bubbling of air through the water from the bottom of the flask, enabling us to readily monitor changes in O₂ consumption. To measure aerobic metabolism in air, fish were sealed in the sloping glass flask that had wet sides, but a minimal amount of free water. *Chlamydogobius eremius* were noted to use the sides of an aquarium or the rising slope of the bank to raise their head out of the water, so their position in a sloping flask was not unnatural.

Oxygen consumption was measured for fish in water at 0, 35 and 70 ppt NaCl and in air having been removed from water with these salinities. The aerobic metabolism of these fish was also measured in water and in air with the percentage O₂ in ambient air/water stabilised at 1.92%, 4.0%, 8.12% or 20.94% by bubbling an appropriate O₂/N₂ mixture of compressed air (BOC Gases Australia) from the bottom of the flask through the chamber at the rate of 50 ml min⁻¹.  \( V_{O2} \) was measured continuously by flow-through respirometry for each goby until a steady state was established; this could take 10–60 min. Stable O₂ recordings before and after each goby was introduced into the flask convinced us that we had achieved equilibration between \( P_{O2} \) in the metabolic chamber before the goby was introduced and after the goby had been removed, enabling us to measure O₂ consumption levels when each fish was in the flask (Fig. 1). Fish remained in the chamber long enough to establish an O₂ consumption recording that was stable for a minimum of 10 min. Occasional brief periods of activity were obvious in the O₂-consumption recordings and these were excluded from the measurement of \( V_{O2} \). The percentage O₂ in expired air was measured every 2 or 3 s. *Chlamydogobius eremius* generally remained motionless, resting on the sloping side of the flask once they had settled.

During each experiment, 50 operculum movements were counted visually and timed with a stopwatch for each fish while it was still. Each experiment was recorded by video camera (Canon TR 303E). Graphic pictures of consecutive video frames showing buccal air bubble intake and release were obtained on a PC with a Genius HiVideo Pro capture card. For fish in air, pulses of increased O₂ consumption coincided with the release of buccal air bubbles. The release and bursting of a buccal air-bubble (see Figs. 2 and 3) corresponded with a measured increased in consumption of O₂ in the flask (see Fig. 1). This indicated *C. eremius* had extracted O₂ from the bubble while it was in the buccal cavity.

The excurrent air from the glass flask was passed through a Drierite column to remove water vapour and an Ascarite column to remove CO₂. The O₂ content of the excurrent airstream was then measured with a Servomex 571 paramagnetic O₂ analyser and its voltage output was monitored by a Thurlby 1905A digital voltmeter and a PC GWBASIC program via an RS232 connection. The air-flow rate was controlled by a Sierra Instruments Model 90IC-PE control box and model 840-L-I-VI-S1 controller. Inflow air and water temperature were held at a constant 23.5 °C (±0.5). \( V_{O2} \) was calculated at standard temperature and pressure in dry air after Withers (1977). A base-line record of O₂ consumption was obtained before and after the experiment with ambient air passing through the chamber to allow correction of barometric pressure changes and minor shifts in analyser calibration during the experiment. For recordings with no obvious pulses in O₂ consumption reflecting buccal air bubble release (see Section 3), an average aerobic metabolic rate was calculated, typically over 5–10 min of recording, excluding any periods that obviously corresponded with activity.

The rate of buccal air bubble release was calculated from the number of \( V_{O2} \) pulses (see Fig. 1) in the continuous recording of aerobic metabolism over a measured period. These metabolic
Fig. 2. Buccal bubble being released from the operculum by *C. eremius*. Drawn from a video recording; images are consecutive frames separated by 1/25 of a second (50 frames s⁻¹ interlaced).

Fish acclimated in freshwater for 7 days were transferred to a salinity of 35 ppt NaCl, and fish acclimated at 70 ppt NaCl for a period of 7 days were transferred to a salinity of 35 ppt NaCl, and their \( \dot{V}_O_2 \) was immediately measured. The concentration of NaCl in water was measured by refractometer (Scientific Instruments, 10419). No fish were lost during the experiments. Probability for significance in all cases was \( P<0.05 \).

Fig. 3. Buccal bubble being released and recaptured from the mouth by *C. eremias*. Drawn from a video recording; images are consecutive frames separated by 1/25 of a second (50 frames s⁻¹ interlaced).

recordings were time-averaged to determine the overall aerobic metabolic rate, and then the average aerobic metabolic rate ascribed to the release of buccal air bubbles was determined from the area of the air bubble trace with a Numonics graphics digitizer tablet (model 2210). Subtraction of the buccal air bubble metabolic rate from the total aerobic metabolic rate yielded the average non-buccal bubble metabolic rate, which presumably reflected mainly cutaneous exchange for fish in air.
3. Results

3.1. Respiration in freshwater

There was a significant difference among the \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) values for \( C. \) eremius at the four \( O_2 \) concentrations in freshwater (Table 1). \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) was higher at 8% than at 21% \( O_2 \) \((t_{13}=2.93)\), indicating an initial lack of oxygen-conformity, then declined in an essentially linear fashion below 8% \( O_2 \) indicating oxygen-conformity; oxygen conformers passively allow their \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) to drop with a decrease in \( P_{O_2} \), whereas \( O_2 \) regulators adjust gill ventilation and \( O_2 \) extraction and regulate \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) at near or above normal levels down to a critical \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) below which \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) is reduced (Graham, 1997). Similarly, there was a significant difference among the \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) values at the four different \( O_2 \) concentrations in air, but with only a slightly lower \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) in 8% than 21% \( O_2 \), then a fairly linear oxygen-conforming decline in \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) below 8% \( O_2 \). The \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) was always significantly higher in water than in air at the same \( O_2 \) concentration.

There was no significant difference in the mean rate of operculum movement over the four \( O_2 \) concentrations in water (Table 1). However, operculum movement rates differed significantly among the four \( O_2 \) concentrations in air. They remained about the same (Tukey test, \( P>0.05 \)) for ambient \( O_2 \) concentrations of 21 and 8%, then increased significantly (Tukey test, \( P<0.05 \)) from 8 to 4%, but did not significantly change further at 2% \( O_2 \) (Tukey test, \( P>0.05 \)). The rates were always significantly lower in air than in water at the same \( O_2 \) concentration.

The quantity of oxygen extracted per opercular beat increased initially with aquatic hypoxia from 21 to 8% \( O_2 \) from 0.030 to 0.036 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \) (253 \( \mu l \) \( g^{-1} \) \( h^{-1} \) /139 beats \( min^{-1} \times 60 = 0.030 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \)), then declined at 4% \( O_2 \) (0.024 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \)) and further at 2% \( O_2 \) (0.012 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \)). However, when expressed relative to the ambient fractional \( O_2 \) concentration (\( \dot{F}_{O_2} \); which reflects the \( O_2 \) content of inspired water) the relative amount of \( O_2 \) extracted per opercular beat increased from approximately 0.144 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \) \( \dot{F}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \) at 21% \( O_2 \) (0.03 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} /0.2094 \( \dot{F}_{O_2} = 0.144 \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \) \( \dot{F}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \)) to 0.449 at 8% then to 0.604 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \) \( \dot{F}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \) at 4%, indicating a substantial improvement in relative \( O_2 \) extraction per opercular movement with hypoxia down to 4% \( O_2 \). However, at 2%, the relative opercular extraction remained at 0.639 \( \mu l \) \( O_2 \) \( g^{-1} \) beat\(^{-1} \) \( \dot{F}_{O_2} \) \( g^{-1} \) at 2% \( O_2 \). In air, \( C. \) eremius would normally remain motionless, only leaving their heads to intake or release a buccal air bubble.

3.2. Buccal air bubbles

In water, \( C. \) eremius has never been observed to gulp or release air bubbles. In air, 36 of 46 fish released an obvious bubble (see Figs. 2 and 3) that could be seen (and video-recorded) for a fraction of a second before bursting. In air, \( C. \) eremius would release a bubble from either the mouth or the opercular chamber (Fig. 2); and those from the mouth were occasionally rapidly...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Ambient concentration of ( O_2 ) (%)</th>
<th>( F_{AL} ), ( P ) value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total ( O_2 ) consumption ( (\mu l ) ( g^{-1} ) ( h^{-1} ))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>123±8.0 (8)</td>
<td>226±16.1 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air</td>
<td>39±4.0 (16)</td>
<td>91±17.5 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( t_{AL} ), ( P ) value</td>
<td>9.53, ( P&lt;0.001 )</td>
<td>5.68, ( P&lt;0.001 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opercular movements ( (min^{-1}) )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>167±8.23 (8)</td>
<td>156±3.7 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air</td>
<td>64±7.35 (8)</td>
<td>96±11.0 (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( t_{AL} ), ( P ) value</td>
<td>9.31, ( P&lt;0.001 )</td>
<td>5.18, ( P&lt;0.005 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are mean±1 S.E., with the sample size \( n \); mean body mass 0.51–0.59 g. \( P \) values are for comparisons among different \( O_2 \) concentrations (ANOVA) and \( t \)-test values are for comparisons between water and air for each ambient \( O_2 \) concentration.
recaptured by the mouth (Fig. 3). When the bubble burst there was a corresponding increase in the measured O₂ consumption (Fig. 1) that represents the lower concentration of O₂ in the bubble compared to that in the metabolic chamber. Although the measured consumption indicated ‘pulses’ in consumption, the \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) at the level of the tissues is presumably a continuous process operating at a fairly constant rate.

There was considerable variation in the rate of buccal bubble expulsion from mouth or operculum at any ambient O₂ concentration (see SE in Table 2), and there was no significant difference in the rate of buccal bubble release among the four concentrations of O₂ in air (Table 2). The mean O₂ consumption from each buccal air bubble (\( \mu l \) O₂ g⁻¹ bubble⁻¹; i.e. area under each pulse in Fig. 1) was not significantly different for the four different O₂ concentrations in air. However, the O₂ consumed per buccal air bubble relative to the ambient O₂ content (\( \mu l \) O₂ g⁻¹ bubble⁻¹/\( F_{O_2} \)) was higher at 4% than 8%, and higher at 8% than at 21% O₂ (Table 2). This suggests that O₂ extraction from the air bubble can be increased with hypoxia, presumably reflecting physiological mechanisms (e.g. increased vasodilatation and blood flow, reduced blood \( P_{O_2} \), etc.). There was also a significant inverse correlation (\( R = -0.60, P < 0.05 \)) between the \( \dot{V}_{O_2} \) g⁻¹ bubble⁻¹ value and the rate of bubble release, which suggests that there is greater O₂ extraction from an air bubble if it is retained longer in the buccal cavity. Corresponding to these changes, the percentage of total \( V_{O_2} \) accounted for by buccal air bubble O₂ consumption increased from approximately 7% at normal ambient O₂ to 27% at 4% O₂, then declined to 15% at 2% O₂. At 2% O₂ concentration, the metabolic rate of \( C. eremius \) decreased significantly (\( t_{16} = 2.9 \)) from that at 4% O₂, along with the rate of opercular movements (\( t_{10} = 2.41 \)), the percentage of O₂ consumption extracted from buccal bubble (\( t_{15} = 3.31 \)) and the rate of O₂ consumption via buccal bubbles (\( t_{16} = 4.64 \)) but not the rate of buccal bubble release (\( t_{7} = 0.33 \)).

In air, if the O₂ consumption via buccal bubbles is subtracted from total O₂ consumption then the remainder is presumably O₂ consumption across the skin, assuming there is no transfer of O₂ via the gills. Therefore, in normoxic air the goby has a cutaneous \( V_{O_2} \) of approximately 140 \( \mu l \) g⁻¹ h⁻¹; it was lower at 8% (105 \( \mu l \) g⁻¹ h⁻¹), and lower again at 4% (51 \( \mu l \) g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and at 2% (31 \( \mu l \) g⁻¹ h⁻¹) (Table 2). The amount of O₂ extracted cutaneously relative to the fractional ambient O₂ concentration (\( F_{O_2} \); i.e. at 2% O₂, \( F_{O_2} = 0.031 \div 0.0194 = 1.6 \)) increases with hypoxia; it was lowest at 670 \( \mu l \) \( F_{O_2} \) g⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 21%, higher (1300) at 8% and 4%, and highest (1600) at 2% O₂.

### Table 2
Oxygen consumption via buccal air bubble release and across the skin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambient concentration of O₂ (%)</th>
<th>Rate of air bubble release (h⁻¹)</th>
<th>Air bubble O₂ consumption (( \mu l ) g⁻¹ bubble⁻¹)</th>
<th>Air bubble O₂ extraction (( \mu l ) g⁻¹ bubble⁻¹)</th>
<th>O₂ consumption rate via bubbles (( \mu l ) g⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
<th>Percentage of total O₂ consumption via bubbles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>52 (± 12.1) [7/8]</td>
<td>56 (± 4.4) [16/16]</td>
<td>43 (± 13.6) [4/8]</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>56 (± 4.4) [16/16]</td>
<td>43 (± 13.6) [4/8]</td>
<td>38 (± 14.5) [9/14]</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>56 (± 4.4) [16/16]</td>
<td>43 (± 13.6) [4/8]</td>
<td>38 (± 14.5) [9/14]</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.94</td>
<td>56 (± 4.4) [16/16]</td>
<td>43 (± 13.6) [4/8]</td>
<td>38 (± 14.5) [9/14]</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are mean ± 1 S.E., n is the number of specimens that released a bubble; N is the total number of specimens examined. P values are for comparisons among different O₂ concentrations (ANOVA) and t-test values are for comparisons between water and air for each ambient O₂ concentration.
3.3. Effect of salinity

There was a significant difference \( F_{2,23} = 7.63 \) among \( V_{O_2} \) values for *C. eremius* in water at 0, 35 and 70 ppt NaCl, with fish at the higher salinities having a higher metabolic rate. There was no significant difference among \( V_{O_2} \) values \( F_{2,22} = 0.96 \) for fish in air having come from water containing 0, 35 or 70 ppt NaCl. \( V_{O_2} \) was significantly higher in water than in air (Table 3) for salinities of 35 ppt NaCl \( t_{10} = 3.60 \) and 70 ppt NaCl \( t_9 = 5.4 \), Table 3) as also reported above for fish in freshwater.

No significant difference \( F_{2,19} = 1.93, P = 0.17 \) was noted among the gill ventilation rates in water at the three salinities (0, 35 and 70 ppt NaCl) despite the difference in \( V_{O_2} \), but there was a significant difference \( F_{2,18} = 19.73, P < 0.05 \) among opercular movement rates in air. The rate of opercular movement was significantly different in air and in water with a salinity of 0 ppt NaCl \( t_{11} = 6.90, P < 0.05 \) and 35 ppt NaCl \( t_9 = 4.54, P < 0.05 \) but not at 70 ppt NaCl \( t_9 = 1.17, P = 0.3 \).

There was no difference between the \( V_{O_2} \) \( F_{2,15} = 0.76, P = 0.48 \) and the rate of opercular movement \( F_{2,17} = 2.06, P = 0.16 \) of *C. eremius* when moved from 0 to 35 ppt NaCl, or when moved from 70 to 35 ppt NaCl, compared with those held at 35 ppt NaCl (Table 3).

4. Discussion

4.1. Aerobic metabolism and respiration in water and air

In water, \( V_{O_2} \) for *C. eremius* is higher in 8% \( O_2 \) than normoxia, but was lower at 4% and 2% \( O_2 \) than at 8% \( O_2 \), indicating \( O_2 \)-conformation below 8% \( O_2 \). The opercular pumping rate was not significantly altered with increased hypoxia (21–2% \( O_2 \)). Oxygen extracted per opercular beat matched the \( V_{O_2} \) pattern, being higher at 8% than 21% but lower at 4% and 2% \( O_2 \). However, when expressed relative to ambient fractional \( O_2 \) concentration (which determines the \( O_2 \) content of inspired water), the relative amount of \( O_2 \) extracted per opercular beat increased from 2% to 8% \( O_2 \), then again to 4%, but remained unchanged between 4% and 2% \( O_2 \). These data suggest that at 4% ambient \( O_2 \), *C. eremius* has maximised its relative \( O_2 \) extraction and there was no further possible increase in relative \( O_2 \) extraction at 2% \( O_2 \) or there was a change in ventilation amplitude which was not measured. This is consistent with the observation of Gee and Gee (1991) that *Chlamydogobius* sp. (probably *C. gloveri*; Gee and Gee 1995) begins aerial respiration at approximately 0.7 ppm \( O_2 \) (approx. 1.8% \( O_2 \)).

In air, \( V_{O_2} \) was slightly lower at 8% than 21% \( O_2 \), but it decreased below 8% \( O_2 \) indicating an \( O_2 \)-conforming pattern. *Chlamydogobius eremius* in 8% \( O_2 \) was able to extract sufficient \( O_2 \) to maintain an aerial metabolic rate slightly lower than at 21% \( O_2 \). At 4%, \( V_{O_2} \) decreased and opercular rate increased, absolute \( O_2 \) extraction decreased and the use of buccal air bubbles increased, indicating respiratory stress and compensatory responses. At an \( O_2 \) concentration of 2%, \( V_{O_2} \) of *C. eremius* was significantly lower than at 4%. The opercular pumping rate had also declined, the rate of release of buccal air bubbles had declined although not significantly (but it did not increase further), and the percentage \( O_2 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salinity (ppt NaCl)</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>( O_2 ) consumption rate (( \mu )mol ( O_2 ) g(^{-1}) h(^{-1}))</th>
<th>Opercnum movements (min(^{-1}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>253±24.3 (14)</td>
<td>139±9.2 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Air</td>
<td>169±15.8 (14)</td>
<td>71±5.6 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0→35</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>388±46.2 (7)</td>
<td>144±7.5 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>336±39.4 (7)</td>
<td>145±3.7 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70→35</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>326±66.2 (4)</td>
<td>128±14.4 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Air</td>
<td>136±26.8 (5)</td>
<td>105±8.0 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>426±34.0 (6)</td>
<td>162±10.2 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Air</td>
<td>188±30.5 (6)</td>
<td>198±29.9 (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are mean±1 S.E., with the sample size (n); the mean body mass varied between experiments from 0.41 to 0.94 g.
extracted by buccal air bubbles declined (despite the overall decrease in metabolic rate). These results suggest that *C. eremius* is in severe and insufficiently compensated respiratory distress at 2% O₂.

Although there is no obvious general pattern in the O₂ consumption rate of fish when respiring in water or aerially at the surface, Graham (1997) in his comprehensive review of the metabolism of air-breathing fish, suggested that for active amphibious fishes the *V*<sub>O₂</sub> is generally higher in air than in water, but for aquatically-active species that generally remain quiescent during their exposure to air (such as *C. eremius*) the metabolism in air would be lower than in water. The metabolic rate of *C. eremius* in normoxic air is significantly less than that in water, even with hypoxia down to 4% O₂ and over a wide range of ambient salinity and O₂ levels. There are a number of possible explanations for this. There may be a substantial metabolic cost in water for the high opercular pumping rate of aquatic ventilation, for ionoregulation or for activity. In air, *C. eremius* remained relatively motionless, only lifting their head to intake and release a buccal air bubble. In water, *C. eremius* mainly rested on the bottom but they did seem to move more than when in air, and their operculum movement rate was higher. The goby might become partially anaerobic when in air, but we did not examine this possibility.

4.2. Buccal air bubble respiration

Gee and Gee (1995) report the buccal bubble has two functions for *C. eremius*; maintaining head and body lift at the water surface and gas exchange. Gee and Gee (1995) reported an increased abundance of blood-filled capillaries in the lining of the roof of the buccal cavity for *C. eremius* held at <0.5 ppm O₂ for 5.5 h compared with those held at 8.0 ppm O₂, suggesting aerial respiration across the buccal lining. The release of buccal air bubbles by *C. eremius* when out of water (Figs. 2 and 3) corresponds with a pulsed increase in *V*<sub>O₂</sub> (Fig. 1) providing direct evidence for the view of Gee and Gee (1991, 1995) that *C. eremius* uses its buccal air bubble for O₂ exchange based on their observations of buccal capillary abundance and engorgement during hypoxia. It is possible that a buccal air bubble is used to promote gas exchange across the gills in water, although we did not observe *C. eremius* gulping air at the water surface. The reason for the occasional oral release and recapture of a bubble is unclear, because a fresh bubble should contain more O₂ than one just expelled and rapidly re-engulfed.

Oxygen consumption of gobies in air via the buccal air bubble varied between 27% and 7% of the total metabolic requirement, between 2% and 21% ambient O₂, with the lowest buccal air bubble *V*<sub>O₂</sub> being in normoxic conditions. Oxygen extraction from the buccal air bubble is clearly insufficient to meet the normal metabolic requirements of *C. eremius* when it is out of water.

The amount of O₂ extracted from each buccal air bubble was lower at 2% O₂ than 4%, which, in turn, was lower than at 8% O₂ (Table 2). A decrease is expected, as the amount of O₂ available for extraction from each bubble would decrease in proportion to the percentage of O₂. However, the amount of O₂ extracted relative to the fractional ambient O₂ concentration was higher with hypoxia. This suggests either an increase in the fractional O₂ extraction at lower percentage O₂ to compensate for the lower amount of O₂ present in the buccal bubble, an increase in the buccal air bubble volume, or both. The highest rate of buccal air bubble release and operculum movements was at 4% O₂, presumably to compensate for the lower O₂ extraction levels. This pattern of increased gill ventilation rate with hypoxia then a decrease with severe hypoxia is consistent with the pattern of gill ventilation reported for *Chlamydogobius* sp. by Gee and Gee (1991). The level of hypoxia (2% O₂) at which we observed the above changes in gas exchange corresponds closely to the O₂ level of 0.7 ppm (≈1.8% O₂) observed by Gee and Gee (1991) for aerial respiration by aquatic gobies (i.e. 10% of gobies using aquatic surface respiration).

4.3. Effects of salinity

*Chlamydogobius eremius* in the Lake Eyre drainage are subject to increases in salinity up to and over 100 ppt as the waterholes they inhabit evaporate (Glover, 1982), leaving a dry salt-encrusted depression in many areas. Hence, some fish would be subject to total salinities greater than 70 ppt NaCl. Increasing the salinity from 0 to 35 ppt NaCl or higher should increase the metabolic effort for osmoregulation for a teleost fish that maintains its internal ionic balance (e.g. Rao,
For *C. eremius*, the \( V_{O_2} \) was higher at 35 and 70 ppt NaCl salinities than in freshwater, presumably reflecting in part the cost of osmoregulation (Table 3). Although the rates of operculum movements were slightly higher for gobies at higher salinities, these differences were not significant, indicating that *C. eremius* extracts more \( O_2 \) per operculum movement at higher salinity. Operculum movement rates were higher in fish that came from higher salinities than those from lower salinities when measured in air, although \( V_{O_2} \) did not differ. However, the role of opercular movements for a fish in air is unclear and these results are difficult to interpret. The \( V_{O_2} \) of *C. eremius* moved quickly from 0 to 35, or 75 to 35 ppt NaCl, and are similar to those of gobies at 35 ppt NaCl, suggesting that these gobies rapidly adapt to their new ionic environment. The absence of a difference among the rates of operculum movements for gobies held at 35 ppt NaCl and those transferred from freshwater to 35 ppt NaCl, and 70–35 ppt NaCl, are, therefore, consistent with a constant \( V_{O_2} \).

There are differing conclusions regarding the aerobic metabolic response of fishes to changes in salinity (see Nordlie et al., 1991) compared to the predicted effect of increased salinity and higher cost of osmoregulation (Potts, 1954). In general, over a wide range of salinities, the metabolic rate increases with higher salinity, reflecting the increased metabolic cost of ionic- and osmo-regulation (as we observed for *C. eremius*). However, metabolic rate has not been observed to increase as expected with hypersalinity (>35 ppt NaCl) in some fishes, suggesting possible changes in ionic/osmotic regulation, changes in osmotic permeability, or changes in activity (see Nordlie et al., 1991). It will, therefore, be of interest to examine in more detail the patterns of ionic/osmoregulation and metabolism for *C. eremius* over a wide range of hyper-saline conditions.

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**References**


