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# Accepted Manuscript

Bioaccumulation of metals in juvenile rainbow trout (*oncorhynchus mykiss*) via dietary exposure to blue mussels

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1	BIOACCUMULATION OF METALS IN JUVENILE RAINBOW TROUT
2	(ONCORHYNCHUS MYKISS) VIA DIETARY EXPOSURE TO BLUE MUSSELS
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#### 26 Abstract

The potential for metals to bioaccumulate in aquatic species, such as fish, via trophic level 27 transfer was investigated. An in vivo experiment was set up in a flow-through system in 28 29 which juvenile rainbow trout were fed blue mussels collected from a Class A pristine site and an effluent-impacted river estuary, over a period of 28 days. Selected elements (As, Cd, Cr, 30 Co, Cu, Fe, Pb, Mn, Mo, Ni, Se, Sn, V, Zn) were determined in the mussels and fish tissues 31 (muscle and skin) collected at 0, 14 and 28 days. This study reveals the occurrence of metals 32 in mussels sampled in the Irish marine environment and highlights the bioaccumulation 33 potential of metals in fish tissues via trophic transfer. All 14 monitored metals were 34 determined in the mussels collected from both sites and mussels collected from the effluent-35 impacted site contained three times more Co, Mo, Sn and V than the mussels collected from 36 37 the Class A site. Following a 28-day dietary exposure, concentrations of As and Se (fish muscle), and Pb, Se and Zn (fish skin), were significantly greater in fish feeding on 38 contaminated mussels compared to those with a regular fish feed diet. The significance of 39 40 metal detection and bioaccumulation in the mussel and fish tissues, highlights the potential for metal exposure to humans through the food chain. As fish are recommended as a healthy 41 and nutritious food source, it is important to fully understand metal bioaccumulation in 42 commercially important aquatic species and ensure the safety of human consumers. 43

44

45 Keywords: Aquatic pollutants · Metals · Trophic transfer · Bivalves · Fish · Inductively
46 coupled plasma – mass spectrometry

47

#### 48 **1.0 Introduction**

49 Metals are naturally occurring constituents of the earth's crust that can be divided into50 biologically essential and non-essential groups. Essential groups of metals are vital for certain

51 biochemical and physiological functions and are classed according to their concentration in the body i.e. macro and micro-essential metals (Underwood, 1971; Reinhold, 1975). Other 52 natural metal components of the environment include non-essential metals such as cadmium, 53 54 lead, mercury and arsenic which have no known biological function but exposure to excessive quantities could lead to poisoning (Naja and Volesky, 2009). These non-essential 55 metals in particular have increased in concentration in the aquatic environment over recent 56 years due to the rise in anthropogenic activities such as agriculture, mining and industrial 57 processes (Cobelo-Garcia et al., 2004; Yilmaz, 2010). Due to their stable nature, these 58 elements can accumulate and persist in water, soil, sediment and biotic matrices following 59 entry into the aquatic environment (Tudor et al., 2006). Increasing efforts in wastewater 60 treatment have resulted following the establishment of strict environmental standards and 61 laws for the regulation of industrial emissions, however, a recent study by Jones et al. showed 62 significant metal concentrations entering the Irish aquatic environment from municipal 63 wastewater treatment plants (Healy et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2016). 64

In aquatic systems, the availability of a metal to an organism depends on many 65 physico-chemical factors such as metal concentration, solubility, pH, dissolved oxygen, 66 temperature, water hardness, salinity, as well as biological factors such as species specific 67 uptake mechanism, age and feeding habits (Jezierska and Witeska, 2006). Furthermore, 68 metals may bind to organic compounds, suspended particles and sediments present in the 69 aquatic environment therefore affecting availability to aquatic life (Dallinger et al., 1987). 70 For fish species, there are two main mechanisms by which metals may enter the body: direct 71 entry via the gills or the body surface and trophic transfer via the alimentary tract (Ciardullo 72 et al., 2008; Sauliutė and Svecevičius, 2015). For the normal metabolism of fish, essential 73 metals must be taken up from water, food or sediment, however, similar to essential metals, 74 uptake and bioaccumulation of non-essential metals can also occur (Subotic et al., 2013). 75

76 Direct uptake of non-essential metals and elevated levels of essential metals in aquatic biota has been shown to be toxic at trace concentrations, causing severe alterations to physiological 77 functions, growth rates and reproduction and in some cases have led to mortality (Fisher and 78 Hook, 2002; Tchobanoglous et al., 2003). The Oslo-Paris Convention for the Protection of 79 the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR) monitors and regulates 80 environmental conditions to inform policymakers such as the European Community (EC) 81 about current hazardous water pollutants. Under the most recent EU Water Framework 82 Directive (WFD), cadmium, lead, nickel, mercury, and organotin compounds are listed as 83 priority substances due to the level of concern surrounding their persistence, bioaccumulation 84 and/or toxicity in the aquatic environment and for which environmental quality standards 85 (EQSs) are specified in water, sediment and biota. The presence of these compounds needs to 86 be substantially reduced in the aquatic environment and, in the case of cadmium, mercury and 87 organotin; these compounds have been identified as priority hazardous substances which 88 need to be phased out of use (EU WFD, 2013). 89

Many fish species are among the top consumers of trophic pyramids in aquatic 90 ecosystems, feeding on algae, benthic animals and plants, and as a consequence, they are 91 potentially endangered by both water-borne and diet-borne pollutants transferred along the 92 food chain (Sauliutė and Svecevičius, 2015). Dietary exposure may be a major uptake route 93 of many potentially toxic metals in aquatic biota, however, bioavailability of dietary metals is 94 still not considered in regulatory guidelines and data regarding metal bioaccumulation in 95 aquatic organisms via trophic transfer is lacking. In addition, fish is highly recommended as a 96 food source as part of a healthy and nutritious diet for humans but the presence of these 97 chemical pollutants is concerning, particularly for regular consumers of fish and a more 98 comprehensive understanding of metal bioaccumulation via dietary intake is required. For the 99 first time, this study will investigate the potential for bioaccumulation of a range of metals in 100

juvenile rainbow trout via dietary exposure to wild bivalves sourced from two locations off
the Irish coast. An attempt was also made to evaluate the contributions of fish feed to metal
uptake by fish and assess its potential impact on human health.

104

#### 105 2.0 Materials and Methods

#### 106 2.1 Experimental setup

The facilities at Shannon Aquatic Toxicology Laboratory, Ireland were used for this exposure 107 experiment. Juvenile rainbow trout, (Oncorhynchus mykiss, Walbaum, 1752, Salmoniformes, 108 Actinopterygii, approximate weight  $50\pm15$  g), were sourced from a pond system fish farm 109 facility (Roscrea, Ireland) and acclimatised for 13 days in one large tank of carbon filtered 110 municipal supply water. A flow-through system was established for nine 70 L aerated, glass 111 covered tanks, using the same water supply set at a flow rate of 0.2 L min<sup>-1</sup>. Organisation for 112 Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Guideline No. 305 was followed for the 113 set-up and duration of this exposure with any exceptions noted (OECD, 2012). Tanks were 114 organised randomly, as shown in Figure S1 of the supplementary material. Six fish were 115 weighed (see Table S1 of the supplemental data for individual weights) and transferred into 116 each tank to acclimatise for a further 24 h to reduce stress levels before exposure initiation. 117

118

#### 119 *2.2 Feeding*

During acclimatisation, fish were fed Nutra Parr 1.8 fish feed pellets (Skretting UK, Northwich) daily at 1-2% of total fish weight. The experimental design included nine exposure tanks i.e. three control tanks (EXP1) in which fish continued to feed on the commercial Nutra Parr 1.8 pellets, three mussel control tanks (EXP2) in which fish were fed wild blue mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) sourced from a Class A shellfish production area under EC Regulation 854/2004 (<230 *E. coli* per 100 g of bivalve mollusc flesh and intra-valvular

126 fluid), off the west coast of Ireland, and three exposed mussel tanks (EXP3) in which fish were fed wild blue mussels (Mytilus edulis) collected from an effluent wastewater exposure 127 site on the east coast of Ireland. The mussels chosen for this study were of the same size class 128 (4-6 cm) and were collected at the end of August (2012), before the spawning period in 129 September. After collection, mussels (n=100 for each site) were transported back to the 130 laboratory in a cooler box, rinsed free of debris with ultra-pure water, de-shelled, pooled, 131 chopped into small fragments, weighed into feed bags for each day of exposure and stored at 132 -80 °C until laboratory analysis. Bagged mussel feed was removed from the freezer, cut into 133 small frozen pellets and fed to the corresponding tanks. All tanks were fed daily at 2% of the 134 total fish weight present in the tank. For the control tanks, fish were fed commercial fish feed 135 pellets at the same quantities fed to the fish in the mussel control and exposure tanks. 136 Commercial fish feed can contain both macro- (sodium, chloride, potassium and phosphorus) 137 and micro- (copper, chromium, iodine, zinc and selenium) minerals so it was important to 138 sample fish post-acclimatisation to assess initial levels of metals in the fish pre-exposure. 139 Fish faeces were removed approximately 6 h after feeding by siphoning from the base of the 140 tank system. 141

142

143 *2.3 Sampling* 

Fish (n=3) were sampled from the acclimation tank before the first day of exposure (0 d) as a control and from each of the nine exposure tanks after 14 days (14 d) and 28 days (28 d) of feeding (n=9 per exposure). Fish were individually caught with a net, sacrificed and length and weight measurements were recorded. Fish fillets (average weight of 12 g×2) were collected at each sampling time point, dissected and placed in labelled plastic bags. All samples were transported back to the laboratory on dry ice and frozen at -80 °C for subsequent analysis.

151

152 2.4 Sample preparation and analysis of fish and blue mussel tissue

Mussel and fish samples were washed with Milli-Q water [18.3 M $\Omega$ ·cm, Millipore, Bedford, 153 USA] to remove debris and any adhering particulate material and all samples were freeze-154 dried at -52 °C [FreeZone 12, Labconco, Missouri, USA]. Fish samples were separated into 155 muscle and skin tissues and pulverised in an agate ball mill (Fritsch<sup>TM</sup> Pulverisette 6 156 Planetary Mono Mill). Aliquots of tissue (approximately 0.25 g) were decomposed and 157 mineralised using closed vessel microwave digestion (Multiwave 3000, Anton Paar, Graz, 158 Austria (Ratcliff et al., 2016)) in a class 10,000 (ISO class 7) clean room using 3 mL of 67-159 69% HNO<sub>3</sub> [SpA grade, Romil<sup>™</sup>, Cambridge, UK] and 3 mL of 30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> [TraceSelect<sup>®</sup> 160 Ultra, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA]. 161

Metal concentrations in the samples (As, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Fe, Pb, Mn, Mo, Ni, Se, Sn, 162 V, Zn) were determined using a Perkin Elmer ELAN, DRC-e (Waltham, USA) inductively 163 coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) in standard mode and equipped with a flow 164 injection autosampler (FIAS 93 plus) in a class 1,000 clean room (ISO class 6). The 165 determination of Cr, Fe, Zn, Ni and Se was carried out in dynamic reaction cell (DRC) mode 166 with methane as the reaction gas and for As with oxygen as the reaction gas (Staunton et al., 167 2014; Healy et al., 2016). Calibration standard solutions were prepared from a customized 168 multi-element standard (Inorganic Ventures, 1000 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>) prepared in Milli-Q<sup>TM</sup> water and 169 rhodium (<sup>103</sup>Rh) and indium (<sup>115</sup>In) were used as internal standards to account for 170 instrumental drift and matrix effects. 171

172

173 *2.5 Quality control* 

Certified reference materials (CRMs) of NIES No. 6 (*Mytilus edulis*; National Institute for
 Environmental Studies, Japan), ERM<sup>®</sup> – BB422 (Fish Muscle – *Pollachius virens*, European

Reference Materials, Joint Research Centre, Institute for Reference Materials and Measurements, Belgium) and DOLT-4 (Dogfish liver certified reference material for trace metals, National Research Council of Canada [NRC-CNRC]) were used for standardisation and method validation. Procedural blanks and CRMs were included in each analytical batch and the precision of the technique was evaluated by the incorporation and assessment of duplicate samples and calibration check standards throughout the multi-element determination.

183

#### 184 2.6 Data processing and statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics software (Version 22.0, Released 2013, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA.). To test whether the dataset was of Gaussian distribution, a Shapiro-Wilk normality test was used. Since most of the data set was not normally distributed, with non-homogeneous variances, nonparametric tests were applied. For the comparison of metal concentrations between exposures at defined time points and metal concentrations over time for each exposure experiment, a Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunns post-test were used. The statistical significance level was set to p < 0.05.

192

#### 193 **3.0 Results and Discussion**

194 *3.1 Quality control* 

Both fish and mussel CRMs were utilised for method validation and quality control. All experimental values are shown in Table S2 in the supplementary data and agree well with the certified reference values given.

198

199 3.2 Metal concentrations in fish feed and blue mussels collected from the Irish coastline

200 Nutra Parr 1.8 fish feed is a typical fingerling diet for trout weighing between 5-15 g and was administered during the depuration phase and the 28 d EXP1 experiment. As this batch of 201 feed was not directly analysed for minerals, theoretical levels of metal content (Cu, Fe, Mn, 202 Se, Zn) have been provided by the manufacturer and are shown in Table 1. None of the other 203 metals studied were added to the feed during the production process, however, the presence 204 of these metals cannot be ruled out as raw materials used in the production of this feed e.g. 205 fishmeal and fish oil, can be potential sources of agricultural chemical residues and metals 206 (FAO, 2002). Metal concentrations (As, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Fe, Pb, Mn, Mo, Ni, Se, Sn, V, Zn) 207 were determined in marine mussel tissue collected from a Class A shellfish production site 208 off the west coast of Ireland (used in EXP2) and effluent exposed marine mussels from the 209 highly contaminated site off the east coast of Ireland (used in EXP3). Mussels from both sites 210 were found to contain all of the selected metals with tin measuring lowest at  $<0.1 \ \mu g \ g^{-1} \ dry$ 211 weight and iron and zinc measuring highest at 304  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> dry weight (EXP3) and 121  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> 212 dry weight (EXP2), respectively (Table 1). As mussels can be consumed directly by humans 213 it is important to note that all of the metal residues measured in the mussel tissues collected 214 from both sites were below specified MRL values (European Commission Regulation 215 1881/2006) and deemed fit for human consumption. 216

	Average concentration					
Matal	$(\mu g g^{-1} dry weight) \pm S.D.$					
Wietai	Fish feed	Mussels	Mussels			
	(EXP1)	(EXP2)	(EXP3)			
As	-	26.749±14.303	16.314±0.019			
Cd	-	$0.558 \pm 0.141$	$0.646 \pm 0.004$			
Cr	-	$1.045 \pm 0.051$	$2.124 \pm 0.060$			
Co	-	$1.498 \pm 0.643$	$5.096 \pm 0.657$			
Cu	11.9	$5.893 \pm 0.582$	7.902±0.682			
Fe	105.7	129.282±4.936	303.627±23.027			
Pb	-	$2.755 \pm 2.441$	3.094±0.043			
Mn	15.7	$2.906 \pm 0.288$	6.931±0.108			
Mo	-	$0.647 \pm 0.127$	3.972±0.275			
Ni	-	$1.789 \pm 0.537$	$4.052 \pm 0.050$			
Se	0.65	3.246±0.935	$5.124 \pm 0.146$			
Sn	-	$0.005 \pm 0.002$	$0.085 \pm 0.007$			
V	-	0.440±0.032	1.389±0.033			
Zn	140.5	121.110±51.838	102.360±8.634			

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Table 1. Metal concentrations in fish feed (theoretical value) administered during the depuration phase and to fish in EXP1 experiment, and mussel tissues (measured average value and standard deviation) fed to fish in EXP2 (Class A site) and EXP3 (contaminated site) experiments. Mussel tissues analysed were a pooled and homogenised sample (n=2).

222

223

The monitoring of metals in Irish marine waters, sediments, fish and shellfish tissues 224 is carried out to meet the requirements of the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD) and the 225 EC Quality of Shellfish Waters Regulation and, to contribute to the Co-ordinated 226 Environmental Monitoring Programme (CEMP) and Joint Assessment and Monitoring 227 Programme (JAMP) of the OSPAR Convention. These national water monitoring studies aim 228 to provide tested methodologies to enable comparable maritime data for assessment. As well 229 as priority metals, such as Cd, Hg and Pb, several other essential micro-elements, such as Zn, 230 Cu, Cr, As, Ni and Ag are also regularly monitored for and assessed in the aquatic 231 environment. As highlighted by previous studies, aquatic species at lower trophic levels may 232

233 not possess a metabolic system as efficient or complex as their predators, increasing their susceptibility to contaminant bioaccumulation and more markedly reflecting contamination in 234 the marine environment (Kainz and Fisk, 2009). In particular, bivalve molluscs are widely 235 236 used in marine monitoring programmes as they can reside in areas where metals and other contaminants may be abundant and feed on the surrounding water and sediment (Fung et al., 237 2004; Hunt and Slone, 2010). Metal concentrations detected in mussel and fish tissues are 238 measured against several assessment criteria, shown in Table 2, namely environmental 239 quality standards (EQSs) set by the EU WFD, background assessment concentrations (BACs) 240 set by the OSPAR CEMP and guide values set by the EC Regulation for shellfish tissues. 241 Using these values to assess the metal concentrations detected in the mussels collected for 242 this study (shown in Table 1), copper, lead and zinc concentrations determined in both mussel 243 samples exceed the BACs outlined by the OSPAR CEMP. BAC values are used by OSPAR 244 to highlight metal concentrations higher than background levels but particularly for metals in 245 biological systems where a more in depth assessment criteria is required, the current risk of 246 effects associated with specified BAC values are unknown. The data yielded correlates to 247 information provided by the annual CEMP reports that show upwards trends in copper and 248 lead concentrations in mussels residing in the Irish Sea and more recently, concentrations of 249 Cu and Zn exceeding the stated BAC values in blue mussels collected around the Irish coast 250 (OSPAR, 2013, 2014). Other metals measured in the sampled mussels close to CEMP 251 background assessment concentrations included Cd, As (west coast only) and Ni (east coast 252 only). 253

As stated above, annual reports by the OSPAR CEMP show clear upwards trends in copper concentrations in mussels in the Irish Sea which was also the case for Cd, Hg and Pb. Concentrations of Hg in sediment are at levels giving rise to risk of pollution effects in the Irish Sea, but, levels in fish and shellfish remain generally below EU maximum food residue

limits (<0.5  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> wet weight) (EU WFD, 2013). As temporal trends in concentrations can 258 only be determined using data collected systematically over relatively long periods, relatively 259 few significant trends could be discerned for trace metals in Irish waters due to limited data 260 series, although, a significant upward trend was detected particularly for Cd, Cu and Zn at the 261 North Bull Island site (Co. Dublin) in recent years (McGarrigle, 2010). This finding is 262 supported by a recent monitoring study which showed elevated levels of Pb, Cu and Zn in 263 surface waters sourced from inner city and industrial locations such as Dublin City 264 Docklands and in some cases, EQS values for these metals in surface waters were exceeded 265 (Jones et al., 2016). Shellfish sampled by the Marine Institute from the Irish coastline has 266 been previously shown to exceed the guide values given in the EC Quality of Shellfish 267 Waters Regulation for Cd, As, Ni and Pb in shellfish tissue (McGarrigle, 2010). 268

Matal	EQS, BACs and guide values for metal residues in biota $(\mu g g^{-1} dry weight)$					MRLs for metals in foodstuffs <sup><i>a</i></sup> (µg g <sup>-1</sup> dry weight)	
	EU WFD (2000)		OSPAR (2014)		EC Regulation in ISI (2006)	EU Commission (2006)	
Wetur	Environmental quality standard (EQS) <sup>a</sup>		Background assessment concentrations (BACs)		Guide values for metal concentrations		
	Mussels	Fish	Mussels	$Fish^{a}$	Shellfish	Mussels	Fish
Cd	-	-	0.96	0.13	5	5.0	0.25-0.5
Cu	-	-	6	-	400	-	-
Pb	-	-	1.3	0.13	7.5	7.5	1.5
Zn	-	-	63	-	4000	-	-
As	-	-	-	-	30	-	-
Cr	-	-	-	-	6	-	-
Ni	-	-	-	-	5	-	-
Ag	-	-	-	-	15	-	-
Sn			-	1000*	1000*		

\*For tinned food 271

<sup>*a*</sup> Converted value from wet weight to dry weight using a factor of 5 (Law et al., 2010). 272 273

Table 2. List of metals and their environmental quality standard in biota as set out in the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD), the OSPAR 274

Coordinated Environmental Monitoring Programme (CEMP) and the EC Regulations on the Quality of Shellfish Waters as well as the maximum 275

residue limits (MRLs) for metals in mussels and fish as foodstuffs, as set by the EU Commission. 276

278 *3.3 The effect of diet on the accumulation of metals in fish* 

The experimental design of this study was based on an organism's ability to graze on lower 279 trophic species more susceptible to metal bioaccumulation and aimed to assess the potential 280 281 for metal exposure and bioaccumulation within fish and up a tropic level potentially leading to human exposure. Rainbow trout are carnivores that feed on small insects, fish and 282 invertebrates. Blue mussels have been used in previous rainbow trout diet studies (Berge and 283 Austreng, 1989). More recently, Arneson et al. (2015) recommended blue mussels as a 284 'sustainable and environmentally friendly' fish feed additive due to their high production 285 rates and high protein and amino acid content. However, due to the effective accumulation of 286 metals in mussels, metal monitoring is required for this fishmeal alternative. 287

Previously established methods were applied for the identification of metals in fish 288 tissues following a 28-day in vivo bioaccumulation experiment. Fish were sampled from the 289 acclimation tank pre-exposure and from each of the nine tanks at 14 d and 28 d to evaluate 290 bioaccumulation of selected metals in rainbow trout feeding on contaminated mussel tissue. 291 As fish skin often remains attached to the muscle when consumed by humans, metals were 292 also determined in the skin to highlight all potential routes of human dietary exposure to 293 metals. Fish muscle and skin were collected from each fish sample and analysed via triplicate 294 injection on the ICP-MS. Water pH, temperature and dissolved oxygen content were 295 measured throughout the 28-day in vivo experiment on the days marked in Table S3 (a)-(c) in 296 297 the supplemental data.

The data presented within this paper is a reflection of the exact experimental conditions described and attempts to depict a worst-case (using wastewater effluent exposed mussels in EXP3) and best-case (mussels deemed suitable for human consumption in EXP2) scenario, thus representing two different extremes of dietary exposure. Using mussels from a site where these fish thrive naturally may yield results similar to those achieved in EXP2 and

303 EXP3, however, as previous national monitoring studies (Jones et al., 2016) have shown, the spatial occurrence of metals and their concentrations can vary from site to site. From the 304 results shown in Table 1, it can be accepted that juvenile rainbow trout in EXP2 and EXP3 305 306 were exposed to varied concentrations of metals through a diet of wild marine mussels. The average metal concentrations measured in the fish muscle and skin sampled over the 28-day 307 exposure are shown in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. Boxplots were used to clearly depict the 308 spread of data points (interquartile range or ICR), the median value, errors in the form of 309 whiskers (Tukey style i.e. no more than 1.5×IQR) and outliers for each dataset shown as an 310 asterisk. Statistical results for all metals can be found in Tables S4 (a) and (b) and S5 (a) and 311 (b) in the supplemental data. Those metals showing statistically significant differences 312 (p<0.05) in fish muscle and skin tissue concentrations across timepoints and exposures are 313 314 shown in Figure 1 for priority metals and in Figure 2 for all other unregulated

2	1	5
J	т	J

	Average concentration in fish muscle ( $\mu g g^{-1}$ dry weight) $\pm$ S.D.						
Motol	0 d		14 d		28 d		
Wietai		EXP1	EXP2	EXP3	EXP1	EXP2	EXP3
	(n=8)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)
As	$3.773 \pm 1.013$	$3.900\pm0.595$	$4.869\pm0.717$	$4.454\pm0.639$	$4.242 \pm 1.343$	$5.241 \pm 0.674$	$5.360\pm0.543$
Cd	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Cr	$0.046\pm0.023$	$0.031\pm0.017$	$0.027\pm0.008$	$0.029\pm0.009$	$0.025\pm0.010$	$0.022\pm0.008$	$0.027\pm0.019$
Co	n.d.	n.d.	$0.010\pm0.008$	$0.027\pm0.032$	$0.010\pm0.003$	$0.011\pm0.002$	$0.020\pm0.004$
Cu	$1.471\pm0.181$	$1.599\pm0.207$	$1.763\pm0.127$	$1.809\pm0.170$	$1.528\pm0.201$	$1.691\pm0.157$	$1.666\pm0.223$
Fe	$16.311\pm3.374$	$13.261\pm3.752$	$14.686\pm2.559$	$11.123\pm0.972$	$14.586\pm5.272$	$14.469\pm3.083$	$11.801\pm1.454$
Pb	$0.018\pm0.004$	$0.007\pm0.005$	$0.015\pm0.007$	$0.013 \pm 0.004$	$0.007 \pm 0.003$	$0.009\pm0.003$	$0.008\pm0.003$
Mn	$1.491\pm0.339$	$1.002\pm0.466$	$1.091\pm0.314$	$0.789\pm0.196$	$1.192 \pm 0.620$	$1.005\pm0.465$	$0.816\pm0.138$
Mo	$0.022\pm0.017$	$0.011\pm0.002$	$0.017\pm0.011$	$0.021\pm0.005$	$0.017 \pm 0.003$	$0.013\pm0.002$	$0.025\pm0.007$
Ni	$0.059\pm0.016$	$0.079\pm0.025$	$0.080\pm0.021$	$0.063\pm0.016$	$0.045\pm0.008$	$0.044\pm0.010$	$0.050\pm0.012$
Se	$0.833\pm0.077$	$0.866\pm0.105$	$0.822\pm0.139$	$0.921 \pm 0.117$	$0.817\pm0.050$	$0.960\pm0.082$	$0.931\pm0.057$
Sn	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
V	$0.024\pm0.007$	$0.022\pm0.006$	$0.024\pm0.006$	$0.019\pm0.002$	$0.\overline{023}\pm0.0\overline{11}$	$0.022\pm0.007$	$0.020\pm0.004$
Zn	$24.523\pm3.167$	$25.\overline{177 \pm 3.346}$	$23.\overline{290 \pm 2.987}$	$23.269 \pm 3.124$	$25.835\pm5.081$	$\overline{22.506\pm2.097}$	$22.\overline{188 \pm 2.421}$

n.d. = Not detected

**Table 3.** Metal concentrations measured in fish muscle sampled from each exposure (EXP1, EXP2 and EXP3) at all sampling time points (0, 14

318 and 28 days).

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	Average concentration in fish skin ( $\mu g g^{-1}$ dry weight) $\pm$ S.D.						
Matal	0 d		14 d		28 d		
Wietai		EXP1	EXP2	EXP3	EXP1	EXP2	EXP3
	(n=8)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)	(n=9)
As	$2.088\pm0.798$	$1.986\pm0.322$	$2.179\pm0.386$	$1.837\pm0.337$	$1.867\pm0.543$	$1.817\pm0.254$	$1.717\pm0.398$
Cd	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Cr	$0.059\pm0.020$	$0.063\pm0.052$	$0.050\pm0.015$	$0.048\pm0.024$	$0.042 \pm 0.014$	$0.115\pm0.207$	$0.053\pm0.017$
Со	n.d.	$0.030\pm0.009$	$0.031\pm0.013$	$0.039 \pm 0.012$	$0.039\pm0.008$	$0.041\pm0.005$	$0.043\pm0.010$
Cu	$1.751\pm0.340$	$2.032\pm0.255$	$1.785\pm0.472$	$1.413\pm0.226$	$1.683\pm0.512$	$1.415\pm0.407$	$1.410\pm0.192$
Fe	$49.490 \pm 18.658$	$46.530 \pm 12.857$	$52.203 \pm 15.568$	$54.904 \pm 14.180$	$57.761 \pm 14.112$	$60.339 \pm 10.030$	$64.943 \pm 10.908$
Pb	$0.043\pm0.029$	$0.045\pm0.019$	$0.074\pm0.022$	$0.072\pm0.027$	$0.043\pm0.009$	$0.074\pm0.020$	$0.106\pm0.024$
Mn	$6.620\pm3.171$	$5.752 \pm 1.956$	$5.460 \pm 1.778$	$6.371 \pm 2.208$	$7.039 \pm 1.795$	$5.816 \pm 1.803$	$7.731 \pm 2.294$
Mo	$0.034\pm0.013$	$0.046\pm0.007$	$0.026\pm0.008$	$0.042\pm0.009$	$0.038 \pm 0.008$	$0.025\pm0.005$	$0.067\pm0.021$
Ni	$0.103\pm0.026$	$0.212\pm0.082$	$0.234 \pm 0.103$	$0.152\pm0.051$	$0.105\pm0.034$	$0.168\pm0.137$	$0.126\pm0.024$
Se	$0.756\pm0.063$	$0.651\pm0.093$	$0.625\pm0.058$	$0.762\pm0.186$	$0.714\pm0.065$	$0.873\pm0.144$	$0.970\pm0.163$
Sn	$0.018\pm0.014$	$0.011\pm0.004$	$0.030\pm0.025$	$0.012\pm0.003$	$0.013\pm0.006$	$0.012\pm0.006$	$0.012\pm0.006$
V	$0.\overline{095\pm0.054}$	$0.062 \pm 0.017$	$0.094 \pm 0.041$	$0.\overline{107\pm0.028}$	$0.\overline{097 \pm 0.043}$	$0.\overline{086\pm0.027}$	$0.157 \pm 0.055$
Zn	$167.422 \pm 70.713$	$161.034 \pm 28.970$	$167.303 \pm 47.803$	$196.963 \pm 51.603$	$149.767 \pm 52.333$	$202.861 \pm 56.186$	$228.043 \pm 47.865$

324 n.d. = Not detected

**Table 4.** Metal concentrations measured in fish skin sampled from each exposure (EXP1, EXP2 and EXP3) at all sampling time points (0, 14

326 and 28 days).

328 metals. Significant differences in metal concentrations across timepoints for each exposure are highlighted with lower-case letters and significant differences between exposures at 329 specific timepoints are shown with solid and dashed lines. Although every attempt was made 330 331 to select fish of similar size, there was still considerable variability in the metal concentrations determined in these fish populations prior to *in vivo* exposure, mainly 332 attributable to intra-species and size variations which may explain why there were large non-333 parametric variances observed across the data. Fish growth was measured across all 334 exposures over the 28-day exposure time. For the controlled fish feed study (EXP1), growth 335 measured highest at 37-50%. In comparison, the mussel control study (EXP2) measured 336 growth between 0-16% and the mussel exposure study (EXP3) measured growth between 0-337 4%. Similar to results shown by Berge and Austreng (1989), where rainbow trout were fed 338 diets of blue mussel tissue, poorer fish growth was observed with increased levels of blue 339 mussel in the diet. Growth performance was also previously monitored in a Nordic study in 340 2015 in which rainbow trout fed fishmeal and mussel meal based diets were compared. 341 342 Poorer growth was observed in the mussel meal based diet but only when the fish were fed in a restrictive manner with controlled portions. When fed 'ad libidum', the lower methionine 343 level in the restricted mussel meal diet was not limited and resulted in the same growth 344 performance as the fishmeal due to the greater feed and protein intake (Arneson et al., 2015). 345

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347 3.3.1 Temporal accumulation of priority and regulated metals (Pb, Cd, Ni, As, Sn)

Lead was the only priority metal measured in all mussel samples at concentrations exceeding the BAC values for mussels and in addition to this, lead was also found in fish skin preexposure at almost double that of the BAC value for fish. Significant increases in lead concentrations were observed in fish skin across time for EXP2 (represented by *a* and *b*) and EXP3 (represented by *c*) following the consumption of lead-contaminated mussel tissues over

353 28 days, as shown in Figure 1 (i). Significant differences were shown between these musselfed exposures and EXP1 at 28 d (solid and dashed lines) as EXP1 showed no significant 354 change in lead concentrations in the fish skin over the same period (see Table S4 (b)). 355 356 Interestingly, lead concentrations showed a statistically significant decrease in fish muscle collected from all three exposures over the 28-day period (Figure 1 (ii)) resulting in no 357 significant difference observed between exposures at 28 d. In contrast, arsenic concentrations 358 significantly increased in fish muscle collected from both EXP2 (represented by *a*) and EXP3 359 (represented by b) with no significant change observed in EXP1 over the same 28-day period. 360 This resulted in significant differences between the mussel-fed exposures and EXP1 at 28 d 361 as shown in Figure 1 (iii) (solid and dashed lines). No significant changes in arsenic 362 concentrations in fish skin were recorded (see Table S4 (b)). Nickel and tin concentrations 363 did not change significantly at 28 d but instead displayed significant differences for 364 concentrations measured in muscle (nickel only as tin was not detected in fish muscle) and 365 skin tissues, at 14 d across exposure types and over the first and latter half of the 28-day 366 period within each exposure (see Tables S4 (a) and (b) and S5 (a) and (b) in the supplemental 367 information). For metals where significant differences were observed at or between 14 d, it 368 has been suggested that the accumulation of metals in fish at sub-lethal exposure is time 369 dependent and during the initial period of exposure, the metal is absorbed and accumulated at 370 a high rate, but then the level stabilises when an equilibrium of metal uptake and excretion 371 rates is attained. This may be true to a greater extent for low level non-essential potentially 372 toxic metals than more essential metals (Dallinger et al., 1987; Jezierska and Witeska, 2006). 373 Cadmium was not present in the fish tissues at quantifiable levels and thus any changes in 374 concentration over time could not be determined. 375



Figure 1. Boxplots depicting the change in priority metal concentrations ( $\mu g g^{-1}$ ) determined in fish muscle and skin tissues across time points (0, 14 and 28 d) and show lead concentrations measured in (i) fish skin and (ii) fish muscle; and (iii) arsenic concentrations measured in fish muscle. Boxplots display the interquartile range, median value, error bars ( $\leq 1.5 \times IQR$ ) and outliers (\*) for each dataset. Letters denote significant differences measured within exposures over time, solid and dashed lines denote significant differences measured between exposures at certain time points.

386 3.3.2 Temporal accumulation of essential (Cu, Fe, Mn, Mo, Se, V, Zn) and non-essential (Cr,
387 Co) unregulated metals

Zinc concentrations in fish skin sampled from EXP1 and EXP3 at 28 d were shown to be 388 389 significantly different, with measured concentrations higher in the EXP3 exposure (Figure 2 (i)), surprising considering the mussel feed administered for this exposure contained the 390 lowest concentration of zinc (Table 1). No significant changes in zinc concentrations were 391 measured in skin sampled from EXP3, however, the slight decrease in zinc concentrations in 392 fish skin from EXP1 over the 28-day period (Table 4), although not a statistically significant 393 decrease, resulted in the significance measured between these two exposures at 28 d. No 394 significant changes in zinc concentrations in the fish muscle were measured. As shown in 395 Figure 2 (ii) and (iii), selenium concentrations in fish muscle and skin, respectively, were 396 significantly different for EXP2 and EXP3 when compared to EXP1 at 28 d. Selenium 397 concentrations measured significantly higher in fish muscle from EXP2 (represented by a in 398 Figure 2 (ii)) and EXP3 (represented by b in Figure 2 (ii)) after the 28 day exposure period, 399 however, selenium concentrations measured in fish skin at 28 days for EXP2 (represented by 400 a in Figure 2 (iii)) and EXP3 (represented by b in Figure 2 (iii)) were only significantly 401 different to those collected at 14 d but not to those concentrations measured at 0 d. The 402 sizable bioaccumulation capacity and bioavailability of selenium in rainbow trout has 403 previously highlighted its potential as a good source of selenium in the human diet (Ciardullo 404 et al., 2008). However, dietary selenium levels of  $\geq 5 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$  in foodstuffs may be considered 405 toxic which is concerning considering the selenium levels detected in the mussel feed (Table 406 1) measured up to 5  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> dry weight (Sciortino and Ravikumar, 1999). Molybdenum and 407 vanadium showed significant increases in concentration in fish skin sampled from the EXP3 408 exposure across the 28-day period, shown in Figure 2 (iv) and (v), respectively. This resulted 409 in significant differences measured for these two compounds in fish skin samples collected at 410

28 d between EXP2 and EXP3, but interestingly not between EXP1 and EXP3 (only for 411 vanadium at 14 d) most likely due to the wider spread of data points for EXP1. Chromium 412 was measured in fish skin and muscle tissues at low-level concentrations (<0.05  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> dry 413 weight) and thus any significant differences observed may be a result of the high variation 414 between sample replicates (Tables 3 and 4). Cobalt could not be detected in fish muscle and 415 skin tissues at 0 d due to the method sensitivity but was quantified in both tissues at 14 d and 416 28 d which suggests an increase in cobalt concentrations, however, as the 0 d timepoint was 417 not measured it is unknown if these results are significantly different to any original 418 419 concentrations present. Copper, magnesium and manganese did not show significant changes at 28 d but, similarly to nickel and tin, displayed significant differences for concentrations 420 421 measured in tissues at 14 d across exposure types.

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**Figure 2.** Boxplots depicting the change in essential and non-essential metal concentrations ( $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) determined across time points (0, 14 and 28 d) for (i) zinc measured in fish skin; selenium measured in (ii) fish muscle and (iii) fish skin; (iv) molybdenum measured in fish skin; and (v) vanadium in fish skin. Boxplots display the interquartile range, median value, error bars ( $\leq 1.5 \times IQR$ ) and outliers (\*) for each dataset. Letters denote significant differences measured within exposures over time, solid and dashed lines denote significant differences measured between exposures at certain time points.

436 3.3.3 The propensity of select metals to accumulate in fish muscle and skin tissues

Five of the fourteen monitored metals (Cu, Mn, Zn, Fe and Se) were present in all three fish 437 feeds administered. Copper, manganese and zinc were measured at lower average 438 439 concentrations in mussel feed, iron measured at similarly high concentrations in all samples and selenium measured highest in mussel feed. In line with what was measured in the 440 different feed types, a significant increase in selenium concentrations was observed in the fish 441 tissues collected from both mussel fed exposures, highlighting the responsiveness of fish 442 muscle and skin to the dietary uptake of selenium. Certain metals such as tin, vanadium, 443 molybdenum and cobalt were measured in the effluent-exposed mussels (EXP3) at 444 concentrations at least three times those detected in the mussels collected from the Class A 445 site (EXP2) but this difference was not observed in the fish muscle or skin following dietary 446 exposure. For all other metals present in the mussel feed only, fish muscle was shown to be 447 responsive to the dietary uptake of arsenic whereas fish skin was found to be responsive to 448 the dietary uptake of lead. 449

450 Relatively few studies have addressed the issue of metal bioaccumulation in aquatic biota via dietary intake. Nair et al. (2006) noted that metal bioaccumulation varies between 451 fish species and between metals, where the accumulation of metals was also found to be 452 greatly associated to feeding habits. Both laboratory and field experiments have shown 453 dietary intake as a major pathway of bioaccumulated metals in fish species (Spry et al., 1988; 454 Qiu et al., 2011). The majority of studies carried out to date on metal ecotoxicology also 455 focus on single element exposure to fish or invertebrate species (Pohl et al., 1997; Andrade et 456 al., 2015), however, as metals do not occur in isolation in the natural environment, further 457 study is required to assess the ecological relevance and ecotoxicological potential of 458 prevalent metal mixtures in the aquatic environment. The limited knowledge surrounding 459 metal contamination via dietary intake is of particular concern in terms of commercially 460

461 important species such as those examined in this study (mussels and trout), as well as other 462 threatened food webs. Closing this knowledge gap could allow for the early detection of 463 metal contamination in higher trophic levels through the examination of bioavailable metal 464 concentrations at lower trophic levels (Bonanno and Di Martino, 2016), potentially allowing 465 for the effective implementation of pre-emptive mitigation measures.

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#### 467 *3.4 Potential for human exposure via seafood consumption*

The determination of potentially harmful substances, such as metals, in aquatic organisms is 468 extremely important for human health due to the potential exposure via seafood consumption 469 (Shepherd and Bromage, 1988; Cid et al., 2001; Dadar et al., 2016). An ever increasing 470 number of studies report elevated metal concentrations in both invertebrate and fish species 471 which exceed the nationally or internationally agreed quality standards for fish meat (Elnabris 472 et al., 2013; Alkan et al., 2016). One of the main human exposure routes to toxic metals is 473 through the consumption of fish (Shepherd and Bromage, 1988; Dadar et al., 2016) but, the 474 extent to which these pollutants can travel through the food chain and ultimately pose a threat 475 to human health remains relatively unknown. 476

With regards to the metals selected as part of this study, a Spanish nature reserve was 477 severely polluted after toxic chemicals such as sulphur, lead, copper, zinc and cadmium, were 478 transported into the reserve from a burst mining dam (Grimalt et al., 1999; Lenntech, 2017). 479 The bioavailable contaminants in the environment following the Spanish 'Doñana disaster' 480 quickly entered food chains in the affected area (Meharg et al., 1999). Elevated metal 481 concentrations were reported in many migratory and resident bird populations following the 482 incident (Taggart et al., 2006) and eight years later, elevated metal contamination were still 483 present in terrestrial food chains (Marquez-Ferrando et al., 2009). These cases highlight the 484 importance of understanding the transport, bioaccumulation and biomagnification of metals 485

along food chains. Fish species generally reside close to the top of marine food chains (Dadar
et al., 2016), and where metals bioaccumulate along these food webs, this could potentially
pose a risk to human consumers of seafood (Mathews and Fisher, 2009; Qiu et al., 2011).

489 O. mykiss and M. edulis are both commercially and socio-economically important species, with an estimated global production for human consumption of 812,939 and 185,433 490 tonnes, respectfully, in 2014 (FAO, 2017). Both species represent a substantial portion of 491 global seafood production and consumption. It is therefore important to understand the 492 influence of dietary intake on the bioaccumulation and biomagnification of metals in these 493 species, and many more commercially important species, to ensure the safety of consumers 494 and the prosperity of commercial seafood production. To achieve this, more comprehensive 495 assessments are needed, in terms of dietary intake, metal ecotoxicology of metal mixtures and 496 bioaccumulation along food chains to allow for a more holistic and robust assessment of 497 bioavailable metals in commercially exploited food webs. 498

499

#### 500 **4.0 Conclusions**

This study has highlighted the significance of dietary intake for the bioaccumulation of 501 metals in fish tissues and the further potential for metal exposure to human consumers of 502 commercial seafood. Mussels sourced from the contaminated exposure site contained Co, 503 Mo, Sn and V at concentrations at least three times more than those detected in the mussels 504 collected from the Class A site. Cu, Pb and Zn present in both mussel samples were found to 505 exceed the background assessment concentrations given by the OSPAR Co-Ordinated 506 Environmental Monitoring Programme (CEMP). This is particularly worrying with regards to 507 the mussels collected from the Class A shellfish site as there are no requirements for these 508 mussels to undergo depuration prior to human consumption. Pb concentrations measured in 509 fish skin were found to be high prior to the dietary experiment at almost double that of the 510

511 BAC value stated for fish. A significant increase in Se, Pb and As concentrations was 512 observed in the fish tissues collected from the mussel fed exposures after 28 days, 513 highlighting the responsiveness of fish muscle and/or skin to the dietary uptake of these 514 particular metals. Future research should regard dietary intake as a major source of 515 bioaccumulated metals and, where possible, metal bioaccumulation should be examined 516 across a mixture of metals for greater ecotoxicological relevance.

517

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## **Highlights:**

- 28-day in vivo study demonstrates metal bioaccumulation in fish via dietary intake.
- Uptake of 14 metals in rainbow trout on diets of fish feed and mussels compared.
- Effluent-impacted mussels from Irish waters contained x3 more Co, Mo, Sn and V.
- Pb, As and Se concentrations significantly greater in fish feeding on mussels.
- Highlights further potential for metal exposure to human consumers of seafood.