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Valentine K. Mubiana, Ronny Blust. Effects of Temperature on Scope for Growth and Accumulation of Cd, Co, Cu and Pb by the Marine Bivalve. Marine Environmental Research, 2007, 63 (3), pp.219. 10.1016/j.marenvres.2006.08.005 . hal-00501888

HAL Id: hal-00501888 https://hal.science/hal-00501888

Submitted on 13 Jul 2010

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Accepted Manuscript

Effects of Temperature on Scope for Growth and Accumulation of Cd, Co, Cu and Pb by the Marine Bivalve *Mytilus edulis*

Marine Environmental Research

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To appear in:

 PII:
 S0141-1136(06)00178-4

 DOI:
 10.1016/j.marenvres.2006.08.005

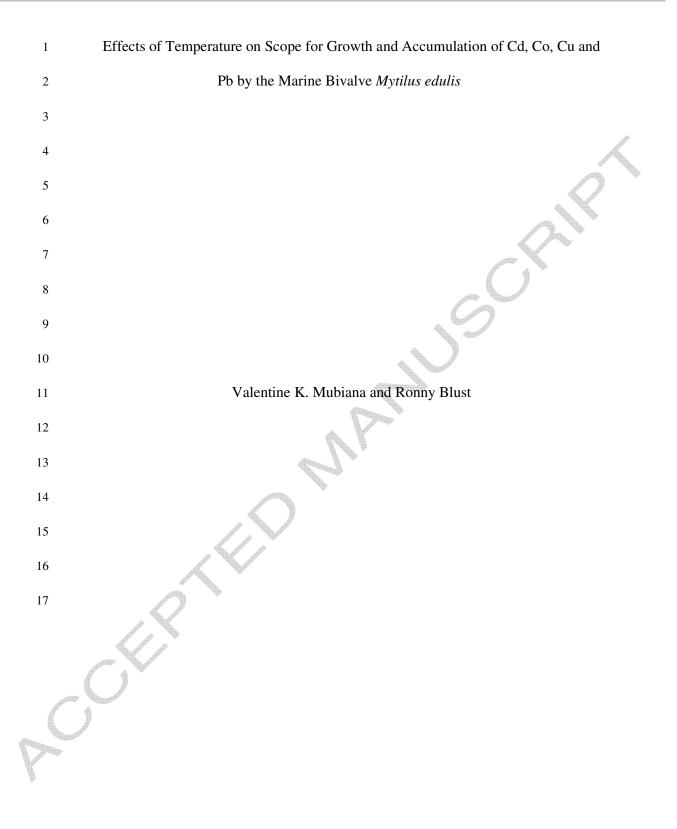
 Reference:
 MERE 3067

Received Date:4 January 2006Revised Date:9 August 2006Accepted Date:31 August 2006



Please cite this article as: Mubiana, V.K., Blust, R., Effects of Temperature on Scope for Growth and Accumulation of Cd, Co, Cu and Pb by the Marine Bivalve *Mytilus edulis, Marine Environmental Research* (2006), doi: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2006.08.005

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1 Abstract

2 In many aquatic organisms including Mytilus edulis, the role of temperature on 3 bioaccumulation of metals is still not clearly understood. In this study, uptake and accumulation of Cu, Co, Cd and Pb in mussels were investigated at different 4 temperatures (6 - 26 °C). Results from exposure of isolated gills showed a positive 5 6 relationship between temperature and metal uptake. But in whole organism experiments, 7 only the accumulations of non- essential metals (Cd, Pb) showed a similar trend while 8 the two essential metals Co and Cu were either independent or inversely related to temperature, respectively. With exception of Cu, elimination process appeared to be 9 independent of temperature. The study also showed that neither changes in scope for 10 growth (SFG) of mussels nor chemical speciation could fully account for the observed 11 temperature-effects. Overall, these results suggest that fundamentally (i.e. at epithelial 12 13 membranes), temperature-effects on uptake are largely due to changes in solution 14 chemistry and physical kinetics, which favours higher uptake at high temperature. But at whole organism level, complex physiological responses appears to mask the 15 relationship, particularly for biologically essential metals like copper. 16

Key words; Mussels, Heavy metals, Bioaccumulation, Temperature, Speciation, Scope
for Growth.

19

20 1. Introduction

Bioaccumulation of heavy metals in aquatic organisms such as mussels depends not only on environmental concentrations but also on a variety of biological and environmental factors. The common marine mussel *M. edulis* is widely used in monitoring metal pollution in coastal and estuarine waters (e.g. Goldberg, Koide, Hodge, Flegal, & Martin, 1983; De Kock & Kramer, 1994). Therefore, understanding

1 the possible roles of temperature and other environmental factors on metal uptake and 2 accumulation in these biomonitors is critical in order to correctly relate tissue 3 concentrations to those in the surrounding environment. Temperature affects both metal chemistry in seawater (Byrne, Kump, & Cantrell, 1988) and physiology of mussels. 4 5 (Dame, 1996). Temperature affects metal chemistry by changing chemical speciation, pH, solubility, reaction rates or physical kinetics (Byrne et al., 1988; Blust, Van 6 7 Ginneken, & Decleir, 1994). Theoretical calculations of chemical speciation in seawater indicate that changes in temperature and pH have most effects on strongly hydrolysed 8 9 and carbonate complexes and less effect on chlorides and free metal ions (Byrne et al., 10 1988). Though it is widely known that uptake is largely controlled by the free metal ion, 11 some studies have also shown significant contribution of other species, particularly 12 metals bound to weak complexes (i.e. Campbell, 1995; Hudson, 1998; Lorenzo, Beiras, 13 Mubiana, & Blust, 2005). Chemical speciation indicates that increase in temperature 14 generally results in increase in the concentrations and activities of bioavailable metal forms, therefore, enhance uptake, at least in theory. 15

16 Like most aquatic organisms, mussels cannot regulate their body temperature in 17 accordance with surrounding environment, as a result most physiological and 18 biochemical processes are temperature dependent (Dame, 1996). One measure of 19 animal's integrated physiological status is Scope for growth (SFG), which is essentially 20 an energy balance equation of an individual determined from energy absorbed from 21 ingested food items minus the energy lost through respiration and excretion (Widdows, 22 1978; Widdows & Johnson, 1988). During the past 15 years, many studies have applied 23 SFG approach as a quantitative measure of the impact of environmental stress due to i.e. 24 salinity and temperature (Widdows, 1978; Sobral & Widdows, 1997; Smaal & Widdows, 1994; Vercauteren & Blust, 1999) and chemical pollution (Widdows & 25

Johnson, 1988; Widdows, Nasci, & Fossato, 1997; Widdows, Donkin, Staff, Matthiessen, Law, Thain et al., 2002; Smaal & Widdows, 1994). The role of physiological energetics such as SFG in ecotoxicology is discussed in detail in a review by Widdows & Donkin (1991). Smaal & Widdows (1994) outlined the justification for use of SFG as an integrated response in biological monitoring programmes.

6 The role of temperature on metal uptake and accumulation in marine mussels has not been well studied. This is despite the fact that mussels are important biomonitoring 7 organisms. Furthermore, there seem to be no general consensus among the few available 8 9 studies on the subject. Carpene & George (1981) found no temperature effects on Cd 10 uptake in isolated gills. However, lack of prior temperature acclimation of mussels used in that study may have influenced the results. In whole organism experiments, Phillips 11 12 (1976) detected no temperature effects on accumulation of Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn except at 13 low salinity (<18 ppt). Fischer (1986) also observed that Cd accumulation by mussels 14 was only significantly decreased at very low temperatures (<7 °C). In both studies temperature exposures were coupled with different salinity treatments, therefore it is not 15 clear whether salinity or interaction between the two may have influenced the results. 16 17 Some recent studies have reported uptake that is dependent and increases with increase 18 in temperature (Wang, Chuang, & Wang, 2005). Baines, Fisher, & Kinney (2005) also 19 found a positive relationship between assimilation efficiency of dietary metals with 20 temperature. These studies are consistent with results involving many different 21 organisms, which tend to show a positive correlation between temperature and metal 22 uptake, accumulation or toxicity (McLusky, Bryant, & Campbell, 1986; Blust et al., 23 1994; Bervoets, Blust, & Verheyen, 1996; Chowdhury & Blust, 2001).

The objective of the current study was to investigate the influence of temperature on uptake and accumulation of two types of metals i.e. Co, Cu as biologically essential

1 metals and Cd and Pb as non- essential metals. Accumulation kinetics of these metals 2 were determined in long-term exposure experiments. Short-term exposures involving 3 isolated gills were also conducted. These experiments involved exposure of gills to either single metal solutions or metal mixtures. The two treatments were intended to 4 5 check whether there were significant interactions among metals during uptake. Isolated gills experiments minimised the influence of animal physiology and hence provide a 6 7 better insight into the fundamental mechanisms and processes involved. The main consequences of temperature changes namely, metal speciation, pH and dissolved 8 9 oxygen were also determined. SFG was determined as an integrated measure of the 10 animal physiological status in response to differences in ambient temperature.

11

12 2. Materials and methods

13 2.1. Test animals

Adult mussels of 40 – 50 mm shell length were collected from Eastern Scheldt (The Netherlands), a former estuary turned into a semi-enclosed marine bay after construction of dams across river channels in the early 1980s. This area is largely a marine tidal bay with relatively low levels of metal pollution (Mubiana, Qadah, Meys, & Blust, 2005).

18 2.2. Exposure medium

Artificial seawater was prepared by dissolving 35 g/L sea salt *hw Sea Salt professional* (Wiegandt GmbH, Germany) in deionised water. Elemental composition of this salt is well described and contains only traces of heavy metals i.e. Cu (200 ng/kg), Pb (19 ng/kg), Co (3 ng/kg) and Cd (0.1 ng/kg) (<u>http://www.hw-wiegandt.de</u>). Metal exposure solutions were then prepared by dissolving high purity salts of CdCl₂, CoCl₂, CuCl₂ and PbNO₃ either as a mixture of all four metals or single metal solutions. Exposure concentrations (see Table 1) were neither too low for measurable uptake nor

too high to be environmentally relevant. However, in view of the short exposure times for isolated gills (1-h), relatively high exposure concentrations (0.5 μ M) were used in order to achieve measurable uptake in the gills.

Prepared solutions were always left for 48-hrs to equilibrate, analysed for metal 4 5 concentrations and if necessary additional metals were added. In long-term exposures, water was changed regularly to avoid significant drop in concentrations. Metal 6 7 concentrations in water samples were analysed with ICP-AES (Liberty series II, Varian 8 Australia) and as shown in Table 1 metal concentrations did not fluctuate by more than 10 % within or among tanks. Metal speciation in prepared seawater as a function of 9 10 temperature and pH was calculated using chemical speciation model Visual MINTEQ 2.32 (Gustafsson, 2005). Metal speciation calculations were only performed for the 11 12 water that was used in isolated gills experiments. Concentration of DOC in the exposure water (in gills experiments) was found to be below method detection limits (0.01 mg/l) 13 14 and was therefore not included in the speciation model.

15 2.3. Whole organism experiments

16 After sampling, animals were transported on ice to the laboratory and on arrival 20 17 and 14 individuals were chosen randomly for metal analysis and SFG measurements, respectively. Remaining mussels were divided into three groups of about 250 mussels 18 19 and each group was placed in 500 L tanks. Initially, temperature was set at 13 °C (field 20 temperature) then after a week and during two weeks it was slowly adjusted to obtain 6 21 °C, 16 °C and 26 °C after which acclimation was then continued for another week. 22 Mussels were always fed 10 mg /individual of enriched yeast cells (Lanzy PZ, Inve, 23 Belgium) twice a week. To minimise organic matter loading in the experimental tanks, 24 feeding of mussels was in separate tanks during 3-hrs with conditions identical to experimental tanks. Furthermore, organic carbon was monitored every 3 days using a 25

1 TOC 5000 Analyzer (Shimadzu) fitted with a 0.8 mm diameter suspended particle 2 sampler. Both DOC and POC varied insignificantly with values consistently below 0.1 3 mg/L and 0.01 mg/L, respectively.

At time intervals 7 - 9 mussels were collected from each tank for metal analysis. On 4 day 28, animals were transferred to clean seawater for elimination during 28 days. In the 5 first 14 days water was replaced every three days and then every six days for the 6 7 remaining period. After sampling, each animal was partially opened and the inside 8 cavity sprayed with purified water to flush-out trapped seawater. They were then 9 dissected and soft tissues were individually placed in pre-weighed polypropylene vials. 10 The tissues were freeze-dried at -60 °C for 72-h, after which tissue dry weight was determined. 11

Five ml high purity concentrated HNO₃ and 0.25 ml of 27% H₂O₂ were then added 12 and the digest was further destructed by microwave heating according to Blust, Vander 13 14 Linden, Verheyen, & Decleir (1988). Samples were heated in four steps of five minutes at 80, 160, 240 and 320 watts, and then diluted with purified water to bring acid 15 16 concentration to about 2%. Metal concentrations in the final solutions were measured 17 with ICP-MS (Ultra Mass 700, Varian Australia) employing yttrium and indium as internal standards. As quality control, three reference samples (mussel tissue CRM 18 19 278R, IRMM, Geel Belgium) and three preparation blanks were included in each 40-20 sample rack and were carried along in every step of the analysis. Recoveries for all four 21 metals in the reference samples were consistently within 96 - 101 % of the certified values. 22

23 2.4. Measurements of scope for growth

Scope for growth measurements were conducted according to a procedure adopted from Widdows & Johnson (1988) and Widdows & Staff (1997). Unless stated, all the

constants used in the equations were adopted from these references. The first SFG 1 parameter determined was clearance rate (CR). Mussels were placed in clean filtered 2 3 seawater for 1-hr to flush-out any particles enclosed inside shell valves and then individually placed in 2-L seawater, which was previously filtered (0.45 μ m) and then 4 5 spiked with yeast cells (Lanzy PZ, Inve, Belgium) at 50,000 cells/ml. The vessels were aerated to provide homogenous distribution of cells and then every 15 minutes for 90 6 7 minutes, 10 ml water samples were taken for cell counting with a Coulter Counter. By definition, CR is the volume of water cleared of particles per gram mussel per hour and 8 9 was calculated according to the expression:

10 CR (L
$$g^{-1} h^{-1}$$
) = volume of water (L) x (log_e C₁ - log_e C₂) / DW x time interval (h)

Where C_1 and C_2 are cell concentrations at the beginning and end of each time increment and *DW* is soft tissue dry weight (g). CR during each time interval was calculated and for each individual the highest CR or 'maximum clearance rate' (MCR) was converted into energy equivalent according to the formula:

15 Energy absorbed
$$(J/h/g) = MCR (L g^{-1} h^{-1}) x POM x 23 J mg^{-1} x 0.5$$

Where, POM is concentration of yeast cells (mg/L) with energy of 23 J mg⁻¹ ash free dry weight (obtained from the manufacturer, Inve, Belgium) and 0.5 is absorption efficiency from yeast cells, which was calculated from ash free dry weight of ingested cells and faeces produced by the mussels.

After measuring CR, each mussel was then transferred into a 500-ml respirometer filled with clean filtered (0.45 μ m) water and fitted with an oxygen electrode connected to a computer, which recorded dissolved oxygen over time (90 minutes). Measured respiration rates were then converted into energy equivalent according to the formula:

Energy respired
$$(J/h/g) = \text{Respiration rate} (\mu \text{ moles } O_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}) \times 0.456$$

1 Where 0.456 J μ mole⁻¹ O₂ is the heat equivalent of oxygen uptake.

Energy excreted was calculated from ammonia produced during respiration
measurements. Water samples were taken before and after incubation and were filtered
(0.45 μm) and then analysed for ammonia concentration according to the phenolhypochlorite method of Solorzano (1969). Ammonia produced by each mussel was then
converted into energy equivalents as follows:

7 Energy excreted (J/h/g) = Ammonia excretion rate (μ moles NH₃-N g⁻¹ h⁻¹) x 0.349

9 Where excretion of 1 μ mole NH₃-N h⁻¹ is equivalent to energy loss of 0.349 J h⁻¹.

- 10 Finally SFG was calculated as:
- 11

8

SFG = Energy absorbed – (Energy respired + Energy excreted)

12 2.5. Metal uptake in isolated gills

For each temperature treatment, three groups of gills consisting of 14 - 15 replicates were obtained from fully temperature acclimated mussels. After extraction, gills from one group were rinsed in clean seawater and individually incubated for 1-h in 300 ml of clean seawater (controls). The second and third groups were incubated under the same conditions and at 0.5 μ M single and metal mixture solutions, respectively.

18 After incubation gills were washed three times in 300 ml clean seawater and then in purified water. This procedure was found to be sufficient to remove loosely adsorbed 19 20 metals. It is generally accepted that strongly adsorbed metals are associated more with 21 internalised than external metal fraction (Endo, Kimura, & Sakata, 1998). After washing 22 gills were placed in pre-weighed polypropylene tubes and freeze –dried at -60 °C during 23 72-hrs. Dry samples were then digested in 1 ml HNO₃ and 0.05 ml H_2O_2 as described earlier and reference material and preparation blanks were also included. Metal 24 25 concentrations in diluted solutions were then analysed with ICP-MS as earlier described.

1 2.6. Modelling bioaccumulation

2 Metal accumulation in mussels was best fitted by linear regressions while 3 elimination data was best fitted by single exponential elimination model (Newman, 4 1995):

$$C_{\text{mussel}} = a + b * (1 - e^{-k_e t})$$

where *C* is metal concentration (μg/g) in soft tissues, *a* and *b* are model estimates, *k_e*is elimination rate constant (day⁻¹) and *t* is time (days). The data were fitted in the
software GraphPad Prism 4.0.

9

10 **3. Results**

11 *3.1. Scope for growth*

Figure 1a shows soft tissue dry weights (mean of 14 - 20 mussels) at the time of 12 sampling (field) and at the end of the experiment. Since sample sizes were small data 13 were tested for differences using Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA and results showed no 14 15 significant differences among the four groups. Figure 1b & c shows MCR and respiration rates of mussels after sampling (field) and after acclimation (crossed bars) 16 17 and at end of experiment (grey bars). Both data were subjected to Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc and results showed higher MCR under field conditions and there 18 19 were significant differences among temperature treatments (as shown in the Figures). 20 Respiration rate was only significantly lower at 6 °C. Both respiration rate and MCR 21 showed no differences between measurements performed after acclimation and after 22 metal exposures (results not shown for clarity), similar trend was shown for energy excreted (as ammonia) but there were differences among temperature treatments with 23 highest energy excreted at 26 °C (1.26 +0.2 J h^{-1} g⁻¹) followed by 16 °C (0.23 +0.05 J h^{-1} 24

g⁻¹), then field (0.13 ±0.03 J h⁻¹ g⁻¹) and the least was at 6 °C (0.05 ±0.01 J h⁻¹ g⁻¹).
Energy excreted contributed less 1 % towards SFG while clearance rate (or food acquisition) contributed most, consistent with literature (Sobral & Widdows, 1997;
Widdows & Staff, 1997). Finally, as shown in Figure 1d, SFG was highest under field conditions, lowest at 26 °C and there was no difference between 6 °C and 16 °C.

6 3.2 Metal accumulation in whole organisms

7 Figure 2 shows metal concentrations in mussels at sampling (day 0), during metal exposure (day 28 - 56) and during depuration (day 56 - 84). In order to determine 8 whether acclimation and temperature had effect on metal concentrations, day 0 and day 9 28 data in all three temperature treatments were subjected to ANOVA. Results showed 10 that overall there were significant differences (p < 0.05) as shown in the figure and post-11 hoc test results for specific differences are summarized in Table 2. Metal accumulation 12 increased linearly with time and in order to evaluate the effect of temperature, slopes of 13 the linear lines were compared using *F*-statistics. Results showed significant differences 14 except for Co concentration whose pooled slope was calculated as 0.046. Post-hoc test 15 (Table 2) showed that slopes increased with increase in temperature for the non-16 17 essential metals Cd and Pb while the slope for Cu decreased with temperature.

Metal elimination data were best fitted using single exponential elimination kinetics (Newman, 1995) and results showed no effect of temperature (*F-statistics, p>0.05*) on the elimination rate constants (k_e) with exception of Cu, which showed lower k_e at 6 °C (Table 2). Finally net metal accumulation calculated as a difference between preexposure (day 28) and after depuration (day 84) showed that the two essential metals Co and Cu did not register significant net accumulation (see Figure 2).

24 3.3. Metal uptake in isolated gills

1 Figure 3 shows metal concentrations in control gills and those exposed to either 2 single or metal mixtures at three test temperatures. The data were analysed for 3 significant differences among the groups using Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA with post-hoc test. For all four metals, uptakes in gills exposed to metals were higher than the controls, 4 except for Cu 6 °C. For the purpose of clarity only post-hoc test results comparing 5 uptake from single metal and metal mixtures are shown (*p-values* on top of bar graphs). 6 7 As shown in Figure 3, uptake from single metal solutions were consistently higher than 8 from metal mixtures, except in a few cases i.e. Co at 6 °C and 16 °C, Cu at 16 °C and 26 9 °C and Pb at 6 °C.

Inserted graphs in Figure 3 show metal uptakes in gills exposed to single metal solutions. The values were calculated as averages (±SD) of the differences between mean controls and concentration in individual gills. The data were subjected to Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA and results as shown in Table 3 indicated significant differences, confirming that uptake was higher at higher temperature.

15

16 4. Discussion

17 The study showed that with exception of Cu, tissue concentrations decreased during 18 acclimation as was expected due to low background levels of metals in the acclimation 19 water. However, the decreases appeared to depend on temperature of acclimation, with 20 animals in the lowest temperature losing most metals. This effect was in contrast with later results during elimination phase where no effects of temperature were observed 21 22 with the exception of copper (Figure 2 & Table 2). Therefore, temperature-effects during 23 acclimation appeared to be an initial response, which disappeared once animals were fully acclimated and had been exposed to higher metal concentrations. It is not clear 24 25 what kinds of processes are responsible for such responses. However, it is reasonable to

1 assume that some physiological and biochemical changes related to temperature 2 acclimation may be somehow responsible for influencing metal loss during the early 3 stages of acclimation. These types of effects may be relevant for inter-tidal organisms such as mussels, which are often exposed to temperature fluctuations during tidal cycle. 4 5 The general lack of temperature effects on elimination especially for non- essential metals Cd and Pb is consistent with some studies on marine bivalves (Amiard, Amiard-6 7 Triquet, Berthet, & Métayer, 1986, 1987; Hutchins, Stupakoff, Hook, Luoma, & Fisher, 1998), echinoderms (Hutchins, Teyssié, Boisson, Fowler, & Fisher, 1996) and Japanese 8 9 eel (Yang & Chen, 1996). In field studies seasonal variations in tissue metal 10 concentrations may to some extent imply temperature effects. However, many studies seem to indicate that most of the seasonal variability may well be due to changes in 11 12 animal body weight, since total body burdens remained largely unchanged (Cossa, Bourget, & Piuze, 1979; Amiard et al., 1986; Mubiana et al., 2005). However, size 13 14 related factors (i.e. growth rate, age and body size), can still significantly influence not 15 only concentrations but can also affect bioaccumulation of metals in marine mussels 16 (Mubiana, Vercauteren, & Blust (in press). Therefore, changes in body weight during 17 long-term exposure experiments can have an influence on accumulated metals. However, in this particular study, differences in tissues weights among the treatments 18 19 before and after exposures were not significantly different (Fig 1a). Therefore, change in 20 tissue weight could not have been a significant factor responsible for the observed metal 21 accumulation patterns, other factors must be evoked.

As demonstrated in this study and evidence from literature, it seems more likely that in the long-term, temperature has little or no influence on elimination of most metals, except perhaps for some essential metals such as Cu. In the case of Co, the lack of temperature-effects on both accumulation and elimination in whole organisms despite

clear temperature effects at isolated gills level is further indication of physiological
regulation. It is well known that most organisms are capable of controlling internal
concentrations of essential metals up to a certain threshold level (Rainbow, 1997, 2002).
Animals regulate metal concentrations either in response to external metals exposures
and /or in response to environmental factors including temperature or due to attainment
of critical body levels (Rainbow, 2002).

7 Lack of clear evidence for the effect of temperature on the elimination of metals is surprising since temperature has such a profound effect on physiology and metabolism 8 9 of marine mussels (Hawkins & Bayne, 1992; Dame, 1996). Furthermore, in almost all 10 aquatic invertebrates many essential metals are known to play a variety of important roles in physiological and metabolic processes (Rainbow, 1997, 2002). Rainbow (2002) 11 12 described different types of metal accumulation patterns in invertebrates. It is clear that 13 the fate of metabolically available metals in an organism can involve direct excretion or 14 storage in a detoxified form prior to excretion. The role of changes in physiology in all these processes leading to metal excretion is still not well understood in many 15 organisms. Therefore, the general role (or lack of involvement) of physiology and 16 17 metabolism on metal elimination process deserves further investigation. Unlike elimination, there is a bulk of literature showing evidence for temperature effect on 18 19 metal uptake, accumulation and toxicity (i.e. McLusky et al., 1986; Blust et al., 1994; 20 Hutchins et al., 1996, 1998; Yang & Chen, 1996).

In seawater, temperature influences a variety of physiochemical factors and the important ones include changes in pH and chemical speciation of metals (Byrne et al., 1988). As shown in Figure 4 and consistent with literature, temperature showed little effect on metal speciation, particularly on the free metal ion activity, which is the most bioavailable form for most metals and organisms (Campbell, 1995; Hudson, 1998).

1 Generally, increase in temperature results in the increase in free metal ion activity and a 2 few other metal species like carbonates. Some studies have indicated that besides free 3 metal ions, other metal forms such as OH^2 and CO_3 complexes can somehow be bioavailable to organisms (Hudson, 1998; Laporte, Truchot, Ribeyre, & Boudou, 1997). 4 Therefore, although temperature-effects on metal speciation were generally modest at 5 least within environmentally relevant temperature ranges, nevertheless, it was expected 6 7 that increase in temperature would generally favour higher uptake. Besides speciation 8 effects, changes of most physiochemical factors such as chemical reaction and diffusion rates would favour higher uptake with increase in temperature (McLusky et al., 1986; 9 10 Blust et al., 1994; Bervoets, Blust, & Verheyen, 1996; Chowdhury & Blust, 2001). In the case of pH, since it is usually positively correlated with temperature (Byrne et al., 11 1988), increase in temperature was expected to decrease metal uptake. However, since 12 seawater has high buffering capacity, only moderate changes in pH between 6 – 26 °C 13 14 were observed (Table 1). On this basis pH was not expected to be a major factor determining metal uptake or accumulation in this study. 15

The range of SFG determined in this study is comparable with literature concerning 16 *M. edulis.* As shown in Figure 1, clearance rate of about 7 L g^{-1} h⁻¹ corresponding to 17 SFG of nearly 14 J g^{-1} h⁻¹ measured under field conditions, which are within a typical 18 19 range for mussels from clean environment (i.e. Widdows & Staff, 1997; Smaal & 20 Widdows, 1994). SFG measurements representing field conditions (day 0) are consistent 21 with the fact that Eastern Scheldt is well known for its favourable conditions for 22 shellfish farming in The Netherlands. However, after laboratory acclimation SFG 23 decreased almost by half at 6 °C and 16 °C. This decrease was mainly due to low 24 clearance rate, which is not surprising considering the obvious differences between field and laboratory conditions in terms of food quality and quality. Negative SFG at 26 °C 25

1 implied that animals were utilizing energy reserves, mainly because high temperature 2 seriously inhibited clearance rate. As demonstrated in other studies (i.e. Sobral & 3 Widdows, 1997; Smaal & Widdows, 1994) clearance rate (or food acquisition) is the most sensitive parameter for SFG. The study showed that apart from the initial drop in 4 5 SFG during acclimation, temperature only influenced SFG at the highest temperature while there was no significant difference between 6 - 16 °C. This is consistent with 6 7 expectations, temperate *Mytilus spp.* are well known for their ability to tolerate very low 8 temperatures (<10 °C) whereas very high temperatures (generally >22 °C) can have very 9 serious detrimental effects on mussels (Seed & Suchanek, 1992; Dame, 1996). In this 10 respect, the study has shown that in terms of energy budgets, mussels are physiologically more tolerant to very low temperatures. The study has also shown that 11 SFG can be a useful tool to determine stress from high temperature exposures such as 12 13 occasionally experienced in the summer periods.

14 SFG is essentially an integration of many complex physiological processes some of which can be directly or indirectly linked to metal uptake or accumulation in mussels. 15 16 For example, change in clearance rate has the potential to affect exposure to dissolved 17 metals, but the nature of the relationship is not yet clear. Theoretically, increased clearance rate implies increased contact with waterborne metals and thus enhanced 18 19 uptake and accumulation. However, Blackmore and Wang (2003) observed low uptake 20 among mussels with high filtration rates, though those results may have been influenced 21 by other factors. Respiration rate also has the potential to affect metal content of 22 mussels, Wang et al. (2005) found uptake of Cd and Zn to decrease with decrease in 23 respiration rate. In this study, none of the SFG parameters could be directly correlated 24 with observed metal uptake or accumulation among the temperature treatments. This does not in anyway exclude effects of SFG on metal accumulation, what the results 25

highlight is the fact that temperature related physiological responses are complex and
many of them can directly or indirectly influence metal uptake and accumulation.
Further research is required especially including wide differences in terms of SFG, in
order to better assess the impact or lack of SFG on metal accumulation in mussels.

5 The study has shown that when considered at the solution-organism interface such as isolated gills, temperature effects on both essential and non- essential metals is largely 6 7 controlled by solution chemistry and physical kinetics, which tend to favour higher 8 uptake with increase in temperature (Byrne et al., 1988; Blust et al., 1994; Simkiss, 1995). However, at whole organism level, complex physiological responses tend to 9 10 mask the relationship, particularly for biologically essential metals like copper, which are subject to regulation over a certain range and conditions (Rainbow, 2002; Amiard et 11 12 al., 1986, 1987).

13

14 Acknowledgements

We are very thankful to the Belgian Federal Office for Science, Technical and Cultural Affairs (OSTC) who partially financed this work through the CALMARS project contract DWTC-EV/05/04C. We are also thankful to our former post-graduate student Mr. Richard Juma for his contribution in the preliminary experiments.

19

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4	
5	List of Tables and Figures
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- 24 **Figure 2**

1 Concentrations of metals (μ g/g dry weight) in mussels as a function of time and fitted 2 regressions (see text for details). Also shown are ANOVA results for effect of 3 acclimation on metal concentration and results of *F-statistic* for effects of temperature 4 on uptake slopes and elimination rate constants (k_e values).

5 Figure 3

6 Metal uptake in isolated gills and the effect of temperature on gills exposed to single 7 metal (shaded bars) and to metal mixture (crossed bars). Indicated *p*-values are Kruskal-8 Wallis results comparing uptake in gills exposed to single and metal mixtures. Inserted 9 graphs show net uptake in gills exposed to single metals (see Table 3 for statistical 10 analysis).

11 Figure 4

The effect of temperature on metal speciation (percent activities) in chemically defined seawater with pH of 7.8 (at 6 °C), 7.9 (at 16 °C) and 8.0 (at 26 °C). Chemical speciation modelling was performed using the software Visual MINTEQ 2.32.

3

Table 1

Experimental			netals in <i>µg/l (<u>+</u></i>		[O ₂]	pН
temperature	Cd	Co	Cu	Pb	(mg/l)	4
6 °C	3.3 (0.2)	2.9 (0.2)	4.0 (0.3)	2.2 (0.1)	10.4 (0.7)	7.8 (0.3
16 °C	3.1 (0.1)	3.0 (0.2)	4.1 (0.3)	2.3 (0.2)	9.3 (0.8)	7.9 (0.2
5 26 °C	3.2 (0.3)	2.9 (0.1)	4.2 (0.2)	2.3 (0.1)	7.4 (1.0)	8.0 (0.3

Table 2

	Effect of Acclimation Summary of ANOVA with post-hoc	Slopes (Uptake rate +SE) compared using <i>F-statistic</i>	Elimination k_e (<u>+</u> SE) compared using <i>F</i> - <i>statistic</i>
	Field vs 6°C *			
	Field vs 16°C *	6°C	0.219 (0.01)* ^{b,c}	No effect of temperature
Cd	Field vs 26°C *	16°C	0.496 (0.04)* ^{a,c}	a contract
	6°C vs 16°C ^{ns}	26°C	0.646 (0.02)* ^{a,b}	Pooled k_e
	6°C vs 26°C *			= 0.165 (0.026)
	16°C vs 26°C *			
	Field vs 6°C ^{ns}			
	Field vs 16°C ^{ns}	No eff	fect of temperature	No effect of temperature
Со	Field vs 26°C *			
	6°C vs 16°C ns		Pooled slope	Pooled k_e
	6°C vs 26°C ns	=	0.046 (0.003)	= 0.096 (0.017)
	16°C vs 26°C *			
	Field vs 6°C *	A		
	Field vs 16°C *	6°C	0.468 (0.026)* ^{b,c}	6 ° C 0.035 (0.01)* ^{b,c}
Cu	Field vs 26°C *	16°C	0.140 (0.024)* ^{a,c}	16°C 0.129 (0.014)* ^a
	6°C vs 16°C *	26°C	0.049 (0.015)* ^{a,b}	26°C 0.115 (0.028)* ^a
	6°C vs 26°C *	Ψ		
	16°C vs 26°C *			
	Field vs 6°C *			
	Field vs 16°C ^{ns}	6°C	0.472 (0.029)* ^{b,c}	No effect of temperature
Pb	Field vs 26°C *	16°C	1.001 (0.042)* ^{a,c}	
	6°C vs 16°C *	26°C	1.357 (0.064)* ^{a,b}	Pooled k_e
	6°C vs 26°C *			= 0.059 (0.010)
	16°C vs 26°C *			

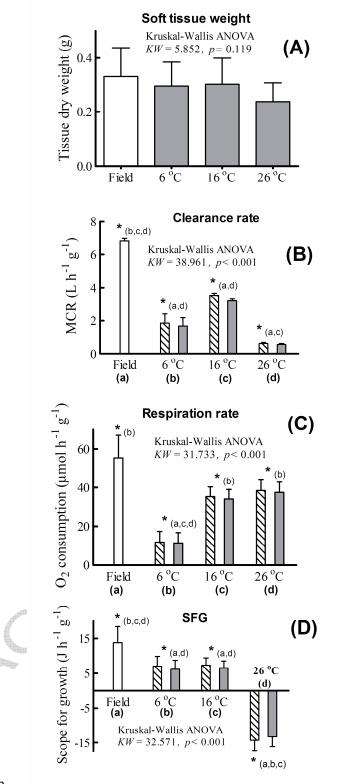
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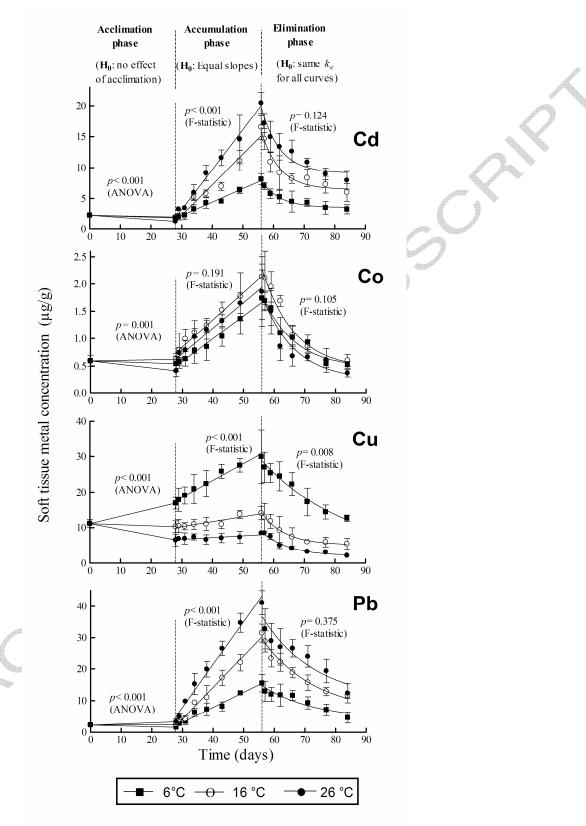
Table 3 4

4				
	Kruskal-Wallis			
	KW statistic	p-level	(<i>n</i>)	
Cd	15.283	0.0005	(42)	
Со	12.737	0.0017	(43)	and the second se
Cu	7.752	0.0207	(42)	
Pb	11.673	0.0029	(42)	
5	And a			

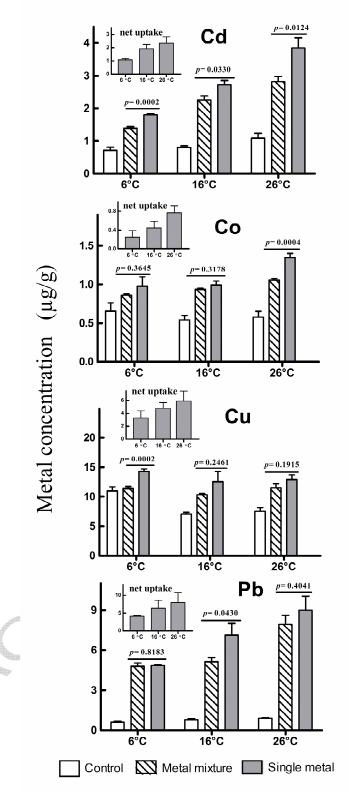
1 Figure 1

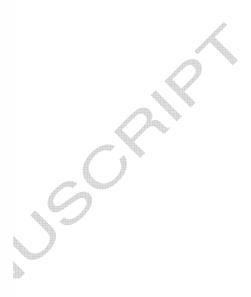


1 Figure 2



1 Figure 3





1 Figure 4

