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Correlated Biomarker Responses for DNA Damage and Innate Immunity Revealed in a Comparison

between Field and Laboratory Studies: Fathead Minnow Exposed to Tritium

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Abstract

Tritium entering the aquatic environment contributes to the doses received by aquatic organisms.

Multiple stressors inherent in natural environments, however, confound estimates for radio-sensitivity

determined in controlled laboratory settings. To disentangle differences between field and laboratory

outcomes, a multivariate analysis of biomarkers is described for fathead minnows (*Pimephales*

promelas) exposed to tritium for 60 days and allowed to depurate for 60 days. In the laboratory study,

the biomarkers for DNA damage and innate immunity display a dose-response relationship to

internalized tritium. At the same tritium activity concentrations, the biomarkers for genotoxicity from

21 the field study were lower than those from the laboratory study. This finding does not support an

increase in genotoxic stress or sensitivity in the field-exposed fish, as was suggested by a meta-analysis

comparing field data for radiation exposure from the Chernobyl exclusion zone and data from laboratory

studies.

25 In the laboratory, we see strong correlations between tritium exposure (up to 180 kBq/L), DNA damage

(comet and micronuclei formation in gonad) and innate immune responses (phagocytosis and

fluorescence associated with lysosomal membrane integrity in spleen). In the field, we see a high

proportion of phagocytosis where the comet tail moment, but not the micronucleus frequency,

correlated with fluorescence associated with lysosomal membrane integrity in spleen.

The biomarkers for oxidative stress (catalase and superoxide dismutase) were specific to each study

location with higher liver catalase activity in the laboratory exposures and higher superoxide dismutase

 in the field exposures. Indicators of overall health were not different between exposures, locations, or weight, length and organ somatic indices.

This comparison highlights the relevance for using the DNA damages and innate immune system

- response endpoints as biomarkers of chronic low-dose tritium exposure, and the need to obtain a better
- mechanistic understanding of initiating events for the immune response.

Introduction

- The principle of protecting the environment from anthropogenic sources of ionizing radiation recognizes
- our responsibility to protect non-human biota from early mortality, reduced physical well-being, and
- reduced fertility and fecundity. A recent critical examination of anthropocentric approaches to
- environmental protection (Mothersill et al., 2018) acknowledged the common goals of radiobiology and
- radioecology considering their different frames of reference (that of understanding the biological
- mechanisms triggered by exposure to low doses or dose rates, and that of understanding the
- consequences of radiation transfer within an ecosystem). Two points of discussion were (1)
- disentangling the contributions of multiple environmental stressors on morbidity, mortality and
- reproduction, and (2) the application of biomarkers to population level assessment of exposure and
- fitness. This examination follows from a meta-analysis by Garnier-Laplace et al. (2013) that found that
- the estimated dose rate for effects on non-human biota was about 8× lower for field studies (located
- within the Chernobyl exclusion zone) compared to results from laboratory studies, suggesting that
- multiple stressors are confounding estimates for radio sensitivity by lowering the apparent dose rate at
- which radiation exposure effects may be seen (Garnier-Laplace et al., 2013).
- Tritium is a naturally-occurring trace isotope of hydrogen that is produced when cosmic rays interact with nitrogen atoms in the upper atmosphere. Aquatic concentrations of naturally-occurring tritium are ~2 Bq/L or lower. It has a half-life of 12.3 years and decays to helium. Anthropogenic formation of tritium occurs by the neutron activation of lithium, boron and hydrogen isotopes during, for example, normal operation at nuclear power plants, at research reactors and at fuel processing facilities. Tritium contamination in groundwater, due to planned and unplanned releases from such facilities (NRC, 2016; Galeriu et al., 2005; CNSC, 2009), may impact organisms living in the local receiving water. Tritium releases to the aquatic environment contribute to the doses received by aquatic organisms in the form of the highly bioavailable tritiated water (HTO), and as bioavailable organically bound tritium (OBT). Upon ingestion of bioavailable tritium, endogenous OBT will also be formed. Aquatic organisms
- chronically exposed to tritium contaminated water, therefore, may display certain toxicological

 endpoints like genotoxicity, cellular stress responses and developmental effects at dose rates from tritium decay at or below 500 µGy/hr (Jha et al., 2006; Adam-Guillermin et al., 2012). A study of channel catfish peripheral blood B-lymphoblast and fathead minnow testis cells exposed to tritium concentrations of up to 100 kBq/L (Stuart et al., 2016) showed detectable DNA damage based on formation of micronuclei and the comet assay. Exposure tests performed with teleost exposed to up to 1,000× higher tritium activity concentrations showed non-transient effects such as decreased gonad organ weight, fewer spermatogonia and formation of OBT (as tritiated nucleic acids and tritiated phospholipids) (Hyodo-Taguchi and Egami, 1977; Ueno and Yusuke, 1978; Etoh and Hyodo-Taguchi, 1983; Hyodo-Tagushi and Etoh, 1993). At tritium activity concentrations much lower than 100,000 kBq/L, biomarker analyses from a field study (Gagnaire et al., 2017) and a laboratory study (in preparation) showed exposure related changes for DNA damage in gonad tissue, micronucleus frequency in blood cells, phagocytosis activity in spleen and lysosomal membrane integrity in spleen from fathead minnows (*Pimephales promelas*). For the field study, the fish were raised within water sources that varied in tritium contamination from background levels to levels that were 3.5× and 25×, respectively, higher than the current Canadian drinking water guideline for tritium of 7 kBq/L (Guidelines for Canadian Drinking Water Quality – Summary Table, February 2017). The laboratory study emulated these activity levels, but was not impacted by variable physicochemical characteristics at the different field locations (conditions that may also account for some of the observed biomarker outcomes) (Falfushynska et al., 2011; Omar et al., 2012; Conceiçao Vieira et al., 2012, Qu et al., 2014). Other biomarkers tested included enzyme activities and fatty acid compositions within selected tissues. Both studies consisted of a 60-day exposure period to each of the water sources followed by a 60-day depuration period that, for the field study, started after moving the holding tanks to the 85 uncontaminated water source used as the reference site (Gagnaire et al., 2017) and, for the laboratory study (in preparation), by discontinuing tritium additions to the aquaria.

 In this analysis, we compare the common measured endpoints in the fathead minnow tissues from these two studies. The fish were exposed to water containing increasing HTO activity concentrations from background to up to 180 kBq/L. Each study also included feed containing tritiated amino acids to gauge the influences of ingesting OBT. After a 60-day exposure period, tritium activity was brought to background levels for another 60 days (the depuration period). Throughout each study, both tritium internalization and cellular endpoints for cell viability, genotoxicity, immune response and oxidative stress were assessed. This comparison enabled us to gain insight into similarities and differences in

 biological responses to chronic low-dose tritium exposure in a laboratory setting and in a natural environment.

Materials and Methods

 The locations of each exposure in the laboratory and field studies are shown in Figure S1. Also shown are the average tritium activity concentrations at each exposure location and whether the tanks in the field included feeding the fish tritiated feed (treatment group designated as "OBT") or regular (non- tritiated) feed (treatment group designated as "HTO"). For the laboratory study, we were able to test fish fed OBT without the co-exposure of HTO. The laboratory aquarium in which control fish were housed in water with background tritium and regular feed is designated as "T". At the start of each exposure, the fish density was 1 fish/L. Holding tanks in the field were 40 L, while aquaria in the laboraorty were 40 L and 20 L. Uptake of HTO was rapid, reaching equilibrium with the surrounding medium within ~2 hrs. Uptake of OBT in the feed was much slower and was unlikely to be at equilibrium by the end of the 60-day exposure period.

Field

 The field study occurred between April and October, 2013. In the Chalk River Laboratories (CRL) environment, groundwater plumes from waste management areas contain HTO; receiving waters are 110 therefore contaminated with tritium. Trtium on the the aquatic vegetation, as OBT, is ~40% of the HTO activity concentration. The source waters used for each exposure were chosen for their tritium content, ranging from background (OR) to ~180 kBq/L (PC). One-month old fathead minnows, *Pimephales promelas*, were received from the Toxicity Laboratory at the Ontario Ministry of the Environment (Etobicoke, ON). These fish were a mixture of male and female juveniles. The fish were first acclimatized for 20 days by housing them in the reference location in containers that were fed from the reference source water, the Ottawa River (OR). In order of increasing tritium contamination, the other source waters were from Maskinonge Lake (MAL), Perch Lake (PL), Duke Swamp (DSW) and Perch Creek (PC). The locations of the test sites are shown in Figure S1. After the acclimatization period, fish in tanks were transported to each of the test sites and the tritium exposures to above-background levels started by continuous pumping source water at a rate of one tank volume per hour. For each treatment group, ten fish were used for each time point. At each location, half of the tanks (OBT groups) also received tritiated feed to a maximum activity concentration of up to 40,000 Bq/L (31,000 Bq/kg dry). 123 This activity concentration was chosen for OBT in feed as it represents the ~40% OBT of the HTO activity 124 of the aquatic vegetation found in the source water having the highest tritium contamination, PC. The

 tritium exposure period was for 60 days, after which time the tritium activity concentrations (HTO and OBT) were reduced to background by moving the fish at the contaminated sites to the references site (i.e., OR), providing only regular feed to the fish, and then continuing the exposure to this reference water and feed for an additional 60 days. The measured tritium content at each site is listed in Table 1. Throughout the study, the fish were fed daily by adding an amount of commercial feed to achieve up to 130 1% of the fish body weight. Water quality parameters for pH, temperature and nitrogen compounds were regularly measured. The temperature varied with the ambient air temperature, with an overall average of 17.4°C ± 4.5°C. The water pH also varied over the course of the study, ranging from pH 5.5 to pH 7.5. Ten individual fish were randomly sampled from each exposure group for analysis of physical and biological markers at Day 15, 30, 60, 75, 90 and 120. The data obtained for Day 60 and Day 120 were used for the comparisons with the laboratory study.

Laboratory

 The laboratory study occurred between September and January, 2015. Approximately five-month old fathead minnows, *Pimephales promelas*, were received from Aquatics Research Organisms (Hampton, NH), which was the original supplier to the Ontario Ministry of the Environment's Toxicity Laboratory (Etobicoke, ON), who supplied the fish for the field study. Older fish were obtained for this study to ensure that we were testing only males. The aquaria used for tritium exposures and the aquaria used 142 for the control were housed separately inside rooms that were maintained at 21 ± 1 °C. Each 40 L or 20 L aquarium was equipped with circulation and filtration systems.

144 The fish were kept in reconstituted water prepared by adding 11.0 g of calcium chloride (CaCl₂), 8.4 g of 145 sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), 3.0 g of magnesium sulfate (MgSO₄), 0.4 g of potassium chloride (KCl) and 0.1 g of sodium bromide (NaBr) to 100 L of deionized (reverse osmosis) water. The tank water was changed weekly and the fish were fed daily by adding an amount of commercial feed to achieve up to 1% of the fish body weight. Water quality parameters for pH, nitrogen compounds, temperature and hardness were regularly measured.

 Prior to being exposed to tritium, the fish were acclimated to the tank environment for 21 days, after which tritium was added to cover an activity concentration range from background up to a maximum of 180,000 Bq/L. One tank, referred to as 25KOBT, was treated with an average of 25 KBq/L tritium as HTO and also received tritiated feed to an activity concentration of 27,000 Bq/L (21,000 Bq/kg dry). This activity concentration was chosen as it represents OBT at equilibrium with the HTO activity concetration. A second tank, refered to as OBT, received background reference water and tritiated feed, also to an

 activity concentration of 27,000 Bq/L (21,000 Bq/kg dry). The remaining aquaria are referred to as T (control), 12K, 25K and 180K in reference to the added HTO tritium activity concentrations.

 The tritium exposure period was for 60 days, after which time the tritium activity concentrations were reduced to background values for an additional 60-day depuration period. Ten individual fish were randomly sampled from each exposure group for analysis of physical and biological markers at multiple time points. The data obtained at 60 days and 120 days were used for the comparison with the field study.

Preparation of Tritiated Food

 The same material lots and batches were used for the field and laboratory studies. Silver Cup extruded, sinking, 1.0 mm pellet fish feed was ordered from Martin Mills Inc. (Elmira, ON). The OBT-spiked feed was prepared by adding three radio-labelled amino acids: lysine, leucine and arginine. The tritiated amino acids (Perkin Elmer) were purchased as 1 mL volumes, each containing 37 MBq of tritium. These amino acids were diluted to a concentration of 245 KBq/L, and then pre-determined quantities of the diluted amino acids were further diluted and emulsified by mixing with vegetable oil, water and soy lecithin to the final desired concentration (listed in Table 1). This was done inside of a 600 mL flask 171 warmed to 50°C on a stir plate and mixed for approximately 20 min to make a homogenous emulsion. Non-labeled control food was also mixed with oil, water and soy lecithin to eliminate the potential for the variable of feed palatability, and to ensure equivalent food quality was added to each tank and aquarium. The emulsion was then added to the commercial feed pellets and thoroughly mixed inside of a 1 L Nalgene bottle before dispensing.

Tritium Measurements

HTO in source waters and aquaria

 HTO activity concentrations within the tanks or the aquaria were measured weekly throughout the exposure and depuration periods. Water samples were collected from each tank and aquarium in 15 mL centrifuge tubes that had been rinsed with sample water 3× beforehand. From each 15 mL volume, a 1 mL aliquot was pipetted and transferred into a labelled 20 mL polyethylene vial and mixed with 5 mL of Ultima Gold XR scintillation cocktail. A standard of 242 Bq/mg tritium was used to determine counter efficiency. A blank sample was also prepared that contained 1 mL of deionized water and 5 mL of Ultima Gold XR scintillation cocktail. The samples were mixed and counted for 15 min on a Tri-Carb 2700 TR Liquid Scintillation Analyzer. The detection limit was approximately 50 Bq/L.

Tissue free water tritium and OBT in fish

 On Days 0, 15, 30, 60, 75, 90 and 120, ten minnows per treatment group were randomly collected for analysis of tissue free water tritium (TFWT) and OBT activity concentrations. Two to four carcasses were also pooled and analyzed at Days 0, 60 and 120. The resulting tritium values were corrected for dilution and background. The resulting dose rates from TFWT and OBT were calculated as described in Gagnaire et al. (2017).

 TFWT was vacuum extracted from frozen fish and collected on a refrigerated circulator trap (-35°C) using a freeze-drying system. OBT was determined by combustion as described by Kim et al. (2015). For the fish samples, 2 g each of homogenized and dried carcass were mixed with 2 g of polyethylene beads. The resulting tritium activity concentrations were determined by first adding tritium free water to the volumes to a total volume of 10 mL, then mixing this volume with 10 mL of Ultima Gold XR scintillation cocktail and counting on a Tri-Carb 3110 TR Liquid Scintillation Analyzer. The minimum detectable activity (MDA) for TFWT was approximately 40 Bq/L, with an estimated uncertainty of 15%, and for OBT was approximately 50 Bq/L, with an estimated uncertainty less than 50%.

OBT in feed

OBT concentration from duplicate samples of fish feed was determined by combustion as described by

Kim et al. (2015). The resulting combustion water was distilled and a 10 mL volume was mixed with

- 203 10 mL of Ultima Gold XR scintillation cocktail. The OBT activity concentration determined using a Wallac
- 204 OUANTALUS[™] 1220 LSC with a count time of 360 minutes and a MDA of approximately 5 Bq/L.

Biological Parameters

Fish dissection and sample collection

At the designated time points, the sampled fish were euthanized via rapid cooling followed by

decapitation in accordance with the animal care protocol, approved by the CRL Animal Care Committee.

Each fish was weighed and dissected for various endpoint measurements. Spleen, liver and gonads

- were weighed to calculate the Spleno-Somatic Index (SSI), Hepato-Somatic Index (HSI) and Gonado-
- Somatic Index (GSI), respectively as:

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Fulton's condition factor (K) was calculated as (fish weight (g) / (fish length (cm))) (Amara et al., 2009).

Fulton's $\mathbf{1}$ fish length (cm)³

 A small amount of blood was collected from each fish, smeared on a microscope slide and air dried before processing for counting micronuclei (MN). More blood was collected and mixed with cryopreservation buffer (8.55 g sucrose, 1.176 g sodium citrate tribasic dihydrate and 5 mL of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) in 100 mL of phosphate buffer saline solution (PBS)), and stored at −80°C for future analyses.

The brain was extracted, weighed and placed in homogenization buffer consisting of PBS mixed with

 20% glycerol and 1 M phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). The brain tissues were stored at −80°C for later protein analyses.

The spleen was removed, weighed and gently pressed through a sterilized 40 μm Cell Strainer (Becton

Dickinson©) in modified L15 medium and kept at 4°C until analysis the following day. Spleen cell

phagocytosis activity and lysosomal membrane stability were then assessed by flow cytometry, as

described in the next section, within 24 h of collection.

The liver was removed, weighed and then divided into two fractions: one fraction was placed in

homogenization buffer and stored at −80°C for later enzymatic analyses, and the other fraction was

gently pressed through a sterilized 40 μm Cell Strainer (Becton Dickinson©) then further sub-divided

(one sub-fraction was stored at −20°C and used for fatty acid composition analysis, and the other

sub-fraction was placed at −80°C).

 Gonad tissues were removed, weighed and then pressed through a sterile 70 μm cell strainer in cryopreservation buffer (field study, stored at −80°C until analysis) or PBS (laboratory study, stored overnight at 4°C and then analyzed). The pressed sample was used to measure cell viability and DNA damage by the comet assay. Pieces of the gonad tissues were also archived by preserving them in RNALater™ (Life Technologies) at 4°C overnight, then at −20°C.

Flow cytometry analyses for immunity endpoints

Analyses were carried out on the splenic suspensions in a 96-well plate using the MPL module of a Cell

Lab Quanta flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter). For each sample, at least 10,000 cells were counted. All

238 assays were performed using 100 μ L of 3 \times 10⁶ cells/mL in modified L15 buffer cell suspension buffer

mixed with 200 μL of phosphate buffered saline. The total and propidium iodide-positive spleen cell

distributions were detected simultaneously as previously described (Bado-Nilles et al., 2014).

241 Phagocytosis activity was assessed using fluorescent beads (FluoSpheres® carboxylate-modified 242 microspheres, 1.0 µm, yellow-green fluorescent (505/515), Invitrogen). The splenic cells were incubated 243 with diluted beads (ratio beads:cells 130:1) for 1 hr at room temperature and then analyzed for uptake 244 of fluorescence. Only the events showing a fluorescence intensity of at least three beads were 245 considered positive for phagocytic activity. Results were expressed as the percentage of positive cells 246 for phagocytosis activity. Lysosomal membrane integrity (LMI) was measured (following excitation with 247 a 488 nm laser) as mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of red fluorescence after incubating spleen cells 248 with acridine orange (10 μ M, Sigma) (Bado-Nilles et al., 2013).

249 *Comet assay for DNA damage*

250 The comet assay was performed as previously described in Festarini et al. (2016). Images of at least

251 100 cells per fish were captured at 400× magnification using an Axio Observer. Z1 fluorescent

252 microscope system (Carl Zeiss Canada Ltd.), equipped with a fluorescein filter and an Exi Aqua colour

253 bioimaging microscopy camera (QImaging). For each cell, the CometN application of the Northern

254 Eclipse Version 8.0 image analysis software (Empix Imaging, Inc.) was used to measure comet length, 255 comet moment and tail moment.

256 *Micronucleus frequency for DNA damage*

 The blood smears were stained with either a Giemsa solution (10% Giemsa in Gurr Buffer, during the laboratory study) for 15-20 minutes or an acridine orange solution (50 μg/mL, during the field study) for 15 to 30 seconds, then the slides were rinsed twice with deionized water. Slides were viewed at 400× magnification using a Leica DMLS fluorescence microscope. At least 1,100 cells per slide were scored and the micronucleus frequency (MN per 1,000 cells) was calculated using the following equation:

$$
MN frequency = 1000 \left[\frac{1 \times n_{1MN} + 2 \times n_{2MN} + 3 \times n_{3 \ge MN}}{n_{total}} \right]
$$

263 where n_{1MN} refers to the number of cells with a micronucleus, n_{2MN} refers to the number of cells with 264 two micronuclei, n_{N32MN} refers to the number of cells with three or more micronuclei, and n_{total} refers to 265 the total number of cells counted on the slide.

- 266 *Enzymatic assays*
- 267 Brain, liver and muscle were each homogenized in an ice cold potassium phosphate buffer (0.1 M,
- 268 pH 7.5) supplemented with 20% glycerol and 0.2 mM PMSF to inhibit proteolysis. Total protein
- concentrations were determined by the Bradford (1976) method using bovine serum albumin as the
- 270 protein standard. The tissue homogenates were centrifuged at 10,000 g, 4°C for 15 min and the
- resulting supernatant fraction was used for biomarker measurements. Hepatic biomarkers tested were
- glutathione peroxidase (GPX), catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD), and brain biomarkers
- tested were GPX and SOD. These were measured as described by Paglia and Valentine (1967), Babo and
- Vasseur (1992) and Paoletti et al. (1986), respectively. All of these assays were adapted to 96-well
- microplates. Results are expressed as enzyme activity units per mg of total protein, U/mg protein.

Fatty acids

- The fatty acids were extracted to isolate lipids using the methods of Bligh and Dyer (1959) by Lipid
- Analytical, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario.

Statistical Analysis

 Multivariate analyses comparing the laboratory study (in preparation) and the field study (Gagnaire et al., 2017) were performed using the R software (version 3.3.3) (R Core Team, 2017). Non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS) and analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) were performed using the 'vegan' package, version 2.4-3. The number of dimensions was chosen to achieve a scaling stress of approximately 5% or lower. The distance metric was Euclidian. Only those parameters that were measured for both studies were included in the analysis. Pairwise comparisons between the field and laboratory datasets were done by the t-test. Functions within the package, ggplot (version 2.2.1) and 287 ggcorrplot (version 0.1.1) were used to plot and to calculate linear correlations between variables.

Results

 The two phases of each study are referred as the exposure phase (or Day 60) and the depuration phase (or Day 120). We compared the experimental results for genotoxicity, immune response and oxidative stress in tissues of fathead minnows exposed to tritium. The measured tritium values in food and water, and estimated dose rates from each study, are listed in Table 1. Estimated dose rates ranged from 2.1 $\times 10^{-4}$ to 6.5 $\times 10^{-1}$ μ Gy/hr. The laboratory study aimed to emulate the field conditions in terms of the tritium activity concentrations (as tritiated water and as tritiated food). The range of tritium activities in 295 the laboratory study were wider than what was measured for tritium activity at the field sites. Figure 1 296 shows the estimated total dose rates from the 60 day exposures to HTO and OBT, as $\mu Gy/hr$, relative to the average HTO activity concentration in the tanks and aquaria. The asterisks in the plot refer to the estimated dose rates in the laboratory study when OBT was added to the feed either alone or in

combination with 25 kBq/L HTO. This plot shows that the estimated dose rates in the field, based on

internal tritium, appear to be higher for fish exposed in the field than for fish exposed in the laboratory.

This plot also shows that the OBT added with the feed did not contribute additional dose.

Physicochemical conditions within tanks in the field and aquaria in the laboratory

 Water temperatures were more varied over the field study than over the laboratory study. The changes in temperature over time are shown in Figure S2, and the average values over the exposure and depuration phases are listed in Table 2. Over the exposure phase, the average temperatures were 306 similar between exposure locations, at approximately 20° C, but after Day 60 and to the end of the 307 study, the ambient air temperature in the field declined to an average of about 13° C at each exposure 308 location. By the end of the study, water temperatures in the field were below 10° C.

 Water pH values were also more varied over the field study than over the laboratory study. The changes in pH over time for both studies are shown in Figure S3. The average values by phase are listed in

Table 3. The pH values in the field were lower than in the laboratory, averaging about pH 6.6 in the field

compared to pH 7.7 in the laboratory. The trend of a rising pH between April and October, 2013 in the

field may reflect the lower carbon dioxide solubility at lower water temperatures.

Fathead minnow growth and fatty acid metabolism

 The growth characteristics of the fathead minnows are shown in Figure 4 as boxplots for fresh weight and standard length. A plot of the weight-to-length ratios are shown in Figure S4. The fish used in the field study were younger than the fish used in the laboratory study. Furthermore, the one-month juveniles used in the field study were a mixture of males and females. These fish were also smaller than the initially five-month old male fish used in the laboratory study. Age-related differences in weight and lengths between the two studies can be seen in Figure 2. The change in weight and length between exposures groups was not significant. The only notable difference between the field and laboratory length-to-weight ratios were for the fish tested at the end of the depuration period of the laboratory study. These fish were leaner at the last time point, when these fish were about nine-months old (Figure S4). This observation was seen across each treatment group and is unlikely to be an effect of tritrium exposure.

To gauge differences in food sources, we compared the liver fatty acid compositions at the end of the

exposure phase (Day 60) and at the end of the depuration phase (Day 120). We find that the

metabolism of specific fatty acids differed between the two studies. For example, the C18:1 trans fatty

 acid (vaccenic acid, octadec-11-enoic acid) in the laboratory study was not significantly correlated with any of the other liver fatty acids (Figure 3B, Male Liver Day 60 and Day 120). In the field study, this same fatty acid was negatively correlated (purple) with the omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids, and positively correlated (red) with the saturated fatty acids.

 Non-metric multidimensional scaling of the fatty acids by class (unsaturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated), split into omega-3 and omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids, show that the field exposed fish had liver compositions higher in saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids and the laboratory exposed fish had liver compositions that were higher in omega-3 and omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids.

Multivariate analyses of biomarkers

 Biomarkers of exposure to toxicants provide a gauge for potential effects that may enable prediction of overall consequences to a population. Both the laboratory study and the field study measured markers for DNA damages, immune system and enzymatic activities in tritium exposed fathead minnows. These were: comet assay in gonad, micronucleus frequency in blood, lysosomal membrane integrity and phagocytosis activity in spleen cells, activity of enzymes linked to oxidative stress, and catalase and SOD activities in liver, muscle and brain tissues. The results of these comparisons are shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5.

 Non-metric multidimensional scaling using biomarkers for genotoxicity and lysosomal membrane integrity

 We find that the biomarker responses differed between the two studies. Non-metric multidimensional scaling of individual fish responses for biomarkers of genotoxicity and innate immunity showed clear separation between the studies. Scaling was integrated over three dimensions, resulting in a stress of 3.9% (Figure 4A, NMDs plot). Analysis of similarities, ANOSIM, shows that the fish from each study responded differently (R statistic of 0.513, significance 0.001, Figure 4A, NMDS plot). The fish from the field study were more like other fish from the field study, and fish from the laboratory study were more like other fish from the laboratory study. Responses based on these biomarkers were not significantly different between exposure and depuration (R statistic of 0.01, significance 0.149, Figure 4A, NMDS plot). The analyses of similarity are corroborated by multiple pairwise analyses within and between the two studies (Table S1).

Correlations between biomarkers for genotoxicity and lysosomal membrane integrity

 By plotting the correlations between the measures for relative lysosomal membrane integrity with the measures for DNA damages and phagocytosis activity (Figure 4B), we find that, for both studies, the lysosomal membrane integrity in spleen cells correlated with gonad DNA damages by the comet assay (R² = 0.83, each, Figure 4B, top left plot), but only the results from the laboratory study were correlated 363 with DNA damages as measured by the micronucleus assay $(R^2 = 0.89$ vs 0.3, Figure 4B, top right plot). Temperature variations over the course of the field study do not appear to have influenced the measurement of micronuclei (Figure 4 B top left inset and top right inset). The number of micronuclei were higher in the laboratory exposed fish.

 The values for fish exposed to OBT in feed (Figure 4B, large triangle all plots) were not included in the correlations because, although the estimated dose rate from OBT was on a par with the fish from the field study (Figure 1, asterisk), the DNA damage responses by these fish were like that of the control fish. This relationship can be seen in the plot comparing results for micronucleus frequency and the comet assay (Figure 4B, bottom right plot).

Correlations between phagocytosis activity and lysosomal membrane integrity

 We find that the relative lysosomal membrane integrity in spleen cells correlated with spleen cell 374 phagocytosis activity in the laboratory study, but not in the field study (R^2 = 0.98 vs 0.22, Figure 4, bottom left plot). The phagocytosis activity in spleen for field exposed fish appeared to be at maximum capacity for each exposure at around 31% (average). The inset plot shows that phagocytosis activity was higher during the warmer exposure part of the field study, at about 40% activity (see the average temperature values listed in Table 2 and shown in Figure S2). The inset also shows that phagocytosis activity for these fish was lower during the cooler depuration part of the study, at about 20% activity. Even at this lower rate, the cellular innate immunity in the field exposed fish is more highly activated than that in the laboratory.

Correlations between genotoxicity biomarkers

 Study locations display differences in the correlations between the comet and micronucleus frequency. Figure 4B, bottom right plot, shows the relationship between DNA damage measured by the comet assay and DNA damage measured by the micronucleus assay. For the laboratory exposed fish, these 386 measures are well correlated ($R^2 = 0.9$), but for the field exposed fish, DNA damage measured by the 387 comet assay is not well correlated with DNA damage measured by micronucleus frequency ($R^2 = 0.32$). The higher proportion of activated spleen cells for fish in the field may help explain these differences.

Non-metric multidimensional scaling using biomarkers for enzyme activity

 We find that the biomarker responses for enzymatic activities differed between the two studies. Non-metric multidimensional scaling of individual fish responses for catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD) and acetylcholine esterase (AChE) activities in liver, brain and muscle of individual fish showed separation between the laboratory study and the field study (Figure 5A), but the separation is not as clear as the separation seen for the genotoxicity biomarkers (Figure 4A). Scaling was integrated over four dimensions, resulting in stress of 5.4%. The analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) shows that the 396 location and phase of the studies are significant for these markers (p-value = 0.001), with similarity

coefficients of 0.084 and 0.39, respectively.

 A comparison of catalase and superoxide dismutase activities between field and laboratory tritium exposures (Figure 5B) show that liver catalase activity was higher in the laboratory exposures, but that liver superoxide dismutase was higher in the field exposures. Multiple pairwise analyses within and between the two studies (Table S2) show that these differences were significant across each exposure group between the laboratory and the field. The differences in oxidative stress response in liver may be associated with differences in field and laboratory conditions.

Discussion

 We compared multiple biological markers in tissues of fathead minnows exposed to tritium in both field and laboratory settings. Tritium activity concentrations ranged from background values of 0.002 and 0.06 kBq/L to up to 25× the Canadian drinking water guideline of 7 kBq/L. The initiating event for the effects of radiation exposure is damage to macromolecules. The highest dose rate estimated from 409 internalized tritium is 0.14 μ Gy/hr (field) and 0.65 μ Gy/hr (laboratory). Aquatic organisms exposed to much higher dose rates from HTO and tritiated amino acid uptake display DNA damage and markers for cytotoxicity (Jha et al., 2005; Jha et al., 2006; Jaeschke et al., 2011; Hagger et al., 2005; Suyama et al., 1981). At the much lower dose rate in our study, we also found that for both the field and laboratory exposures, the measures for DNA damage and fluorescence associated with lysosomal processes increased with increased tritium activity concentrations. The proportion of activated splenic cells, however, was different for the two studies. In the field exposed fish, the markers for phagocytosis and lysosomal activities were not correlated to the tritium exposure groups, while in the laboratory exposed fish, these markers were correlated to the tritrium exposure groups.

 The range of values for DNA damage, as measured by the comet assay, were similar for both field and laboratory (Figure 4B, top left plot), but the field exposed fish spanned a narrower range of comet tail moment values. DNA damage, as measured by micronucleus frequency, was lower for the field exposed fish compared to the laboratory study (Figure 4B, top right plot). These results contrast with the outcome of a meta-analysis comparing estimated population dose rate effects on markers for morbidity for biota living within the Chernobyl exclusion zone. This meta-analysis found an apparently higher radio-sensitivity in field exposed biota compared with similar markers for morbidity from laboratory data (Garnier-Laplace et al., 2013). However, in our comparison of fathead minnows grown in tritiated environments, the markers for DNA damage do not indicate higher stress or sensitivity in the field exposed fish.

 Given that a goal of environmental protection is to gauge the risk to populations using the dose response relationships of individuals within a population, the biomarkers employed would ideally display a change with an increase in the exposure of interest. In our comparison, the estimated dose rates in the field exposed fish were associated with lower average aqueous tritium activity concentrations (Figure 1). This finding suggests that tritium accumulation in fathead minnows may reflect multiple exposure pathways, namely the internalized tritium was not derived solely from the aqueous tritium concentration in the water (which is easy to measure and forms the basis of dose modeling), but that the internalized tritium was also derived from other forms of tritium that the fish consumed or retained when feeding. Although the fish in both studies were given feed from the same lot and, thus, the tritium activity concentration was the only variable, the possibility for access to products of primary production and insects in the field means that field exposed fish had likely consumed algae and other material that was not accessible to the laboratory exposed fish. The form of the tritium consumed and the form of the tritium retained are, therefore, important considerations for predicting any corresponding population effects. Differences in feeding opportunity is supported by the measured differences in liver fatty acid compositions between the laboratory and field studies (Figure 3).

 Aquatic organisms equilibrate rapidly with the ambient water HTO concentrations (Blaylock et al., 1986; (Melintescu and Galeriu., 2011). The exchange of tritium from HTO with the hydrogen in biological molecules (the exchangeable OBT) takes longer to equilibrate (Melintescu et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2006). Longer still is time for formation of non-exchangable OBT from ingested HTO (Kim et al., 2015) and the non-exchangable form of OBT also has a longer biological half life (Kim et al., 2013; Kim et al.,

 2015). OBT obtained from the environment, rather than as HTO, may be bioavailable if it is ingested as part of the food chain. To account for multiple possible exposure pathways, minnows from both of the exposure studies were also exposed to tritiated food in the form of tritiated amino acids, and minnows from the field exposure, we posit, were also exposed to tritiated natural food sources such as from photosynthetic algae and insects. For example, algae growing within tritium contaminated water have extractable lipid fractions accounting for 45 and 58% of the tissue bound tritium and an extractable protein fraction accounting for 34% of the tissue bound tritium (IAEA, 1981). Fish feeding on these algae would digest a proportion of these tritiated macromolecules and use them in anabolic biochemcial processes such as the biosynthesis of proteins, membranes and nucleic acid structures. In this scenario, the distribution of tissue bound tritium would be different than if these fish fed on only tritiated amino acids.

We also compared markers for the cellular immune response in tritium exposed minnows by measuring

both the proportion of phagocytic splenic cells and the fluorescence associated with lysosomal

membrane integrity of splenic cells. Since fish lack bone marrow and lymph tissues (Press and Evensen,

1999), hematopoietic cells come from the spleen and kidney (including the immune cells that function in

tissue homeostasis after damage and as part of the host defence against pathogens) (Riera Romo et al.,

2016; Sunyer, 2013), the difference between them being the recognized patterns for self and non-self,

respectively (Tanekhy, 2016; Li et al., 2016; Matzinger, 2002).

 In laboratory exposed fish, but not the field exposed fish, we observe a possible role of cell damage relative to the decay of tritium atoms since the percentage of phagocytosing splenic cells increased with exposure to increased tritium activity concentrations (Figure 4B, bottom left plot). For the field exposed fish, the lack of change in the proportion of phagocytosing splenic cells with tritium exposure may be because of the consistently high proportion of activated splenic cells (including in fish grown within the reference water source (Figure 4B, bottom left plot)) and due, we assume, to potentially unmeasured field stressors that laboratory grown fish would not experience.

 The lower DNA damages and the higher proportion of activated splenic cells in field exposed fish suggest 475 that the choice of biomarkers may help disentangle the contributions of multiple stressors on

comparable low dose tritium exposures, and perhaps explain some of the differences between field and

laboratory outcomes. The correlations between the genotoxicity and immunity biomarkers were high in

478 the laboratory exposed fish, with R^2 values of 0.83 or higher (Figure 4B, all plots). The same correlations

479 for the field study were not as good, with an $R²$ values of 0.83 for the comet assay and lysosomal

480 membrane integrity. Otherwise, the comparisons between biomarkers were with $R²$ values of 0.3 or lower. The interrelationships between the genotoxicity markers and immunity markers from multiple tissues suggest that the higher DNA damages seen in the laboratory exposures may be related to the overall lower proportion of activated splenic cells in these fish, a process that would dynamically remove the endogenous debris created when cells are damaged or tissues are infected by pathogens. Given that challenges to innate immunity may be observable as improved fitness to subsequent challenges (Wang et al., 2016; Yengkhom et al., 2018), we believe that the relationship between the markers for DNA damage and the markers for immune response is worth further exploration.

Conclusions

Multivariate analysis of biomarkers for tritium exposure show that data obtained from the field are

distinct from data obtained from a laboratory study that aimed to emulate the field conditions for

chronic low dose tritium exposure.

 The fatty acids composition of fish liver suggests that there were differences in feeding opportunities between the two studies. Ingestion of organic tritium from natural food sources may explain the differences in internalized tritium between the laboratory and field.

 The biomarkers that display a dose-response relationship to internalized tritium are the markers for genotoxicity (comet and micronuclei formation) and innate immunity (phagocytosis and lysosomal membrane integrity) in both the laboratory and the field exposed fish. The genotoxicity biomarkers, when viewed on their own, do not support an increase in genotoxicity in the field exposed fish. When viewed in combination with the biomarkers for immunity, we see strong correlations between the tritium exposures, DNA damage and innate immune responses. A high proportion of activated immune cells in the field exposed fish appear to mask the correlations between micronucleus frequency and lysosomal membrane integrity; even so, this host defence mechanism may protect the whole organism. Indictors of overall health were not different between exposures or locations.

 The biomarkers for oxidative stress (catalase and superoxide dismutase) were specific to each study location, but may reflect ROS that is part of the innate immune response. The remaining biomarkers did not correlate with tritium exposure.

 This comparison highlights a potential for using biomarkers from the innate immune system to help elucidate the impact of chronic low dose tritium exposure.

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- 675 Table 2. Average water temperatures (\degree C) at each study location.
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682 * L - laboratory study location

- 683 * F field study location
- 684 ** reference site
- 685 † estimated dose rates refer to total dose rates from internal HTO and OBT
- 686 †† below the minimum detectable activity
- 687 OBT organically bound tritium, added as part of the feed
- 688
- 689

690 **Table 2. Average water temperatures (C) at each study location.**

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692 **Table 3. Average water pH at each study location.**

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- responses, p-value>0.001, ns: s not significant.
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average aqueous tritium activity concentrations (Log Bq/L), relative to the average measured HTO

activity concentration in the tanks and aquaria in the laboratory (blue triangles). The asterisks refer

to the estimated dose rates in the laboratory study when OBT was added to the feed either alone or

in combination with 25 kBq/L HTO.

Figure 2. Boxplot data showing the range of values for fish weights and lengths for each exposure

condition and at multiple time points: Day 0, 15, 30, 60, 75, 90 and 120. Labels for each exposure are

the same as those listed in Table 1 (red plots: the initially one-month old, un-sexed juveniles used in

the field; green plots: the initially five-month old males used the laboratory). Ottawa River (OR) is

 the reference source water in the field and T refers to control in the laboratory study that had no added tritium. Circles represent statistical outliers.

 Figure 3. (A) Non-metric, multi-dimensional scaling of the liver fatty acid composition of individual fish color-coded by either location (field or laboratory) or phase of the study (Day 60 or Day 120). (B) Significant positive (red), significant negative (purple) and non-significant (white)

linear correlations between fatty acid compositions in laboratory and field exposed fish liver. Significance level was set to a p-value<0.01.

 Figure 4. (A) Non-metric, multi-dimensional scaling of biomarker responses. Individual fish are color-coded by either location (field or laboratory) or phase of the study (Day 60 or Day 120). The ANOSIM R statistic for similarity and the significance values are shown. Biomarkers were DNA damage (comet and MN counts) and immunity (fluorescence associated with lysosomal membrane integrity (AO) and phagocytosis activity (phago)). (B) Linear correlations for the DNA damage (comet and MN counts), phagocytosis activity relative to the lysosomal membrane integrity for the field data (black circles) and the laboratory data (red triangles), respectively. The insets show the influence of field temperature over the warmer exposure phase and cooler depuration phase. Fish exposed to OBT in feed in the laboratory study (large red triangle) were not included in the correlations.

758 **Figure 5. Non-metric, multi-dimensional scaling of fish responses (A) and the overall mean values by study location and phase (B) for liver,**

759 **muscle and brain enzymes. The ANOSIM R-statistic (A) and significance values for all fish (B) are shown. The asterisks indicate significant** 760 **differences in the average responses, p-value>0.001, ns: s not significant.**

761 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION** 762

Table S1. Multiple pairwise comparisons for biomarkers: Comet, micronucleus frequency, phagocytosis activity, lysosomal membrane integrity. Adjustment of p-values by Benjamini-Hochberg.

Table S2. Multiple pairwise comparisons for biomarkers: Superoxide dismutase and catalase. Adjustment of p-values by Benjamini-Hochberg.

- **Figure S1. Location of Chalk River Laboratories within Ontario, Canada, and the locations of where**
- **fathead minnows were exposed to tritium in the field and in the laboratory. Average tritium activity**
- **concentrations are listed in Bq/L. bck =background levels; ~2 Bq/L.**
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 Figure S2. Water temperature values (ºC) measured throughout the exposure and depuration phases during the laboratory study and at each exposure location of the field study. The vertical lines mark Day 60 and Day 90.

 Figure S3. Water pH values measured throughout the exposure and depuration phases during the laboratory study and at each exposure location during the field study. The vertical lines mark Day 60 and Day 90.

787 **Figure S4. Ratio of fathead minnow length and weight values from the start and end of the field and** 788 **laboratory studies.**