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21 Abstract

22 The chronic toxicity of an innovative Hg water treatment system using tin (Sn) (II) chloride (SnCl₂) 23 followed by air stripping was assessed through measurements of survival, growth, and reproduction rate 24 in the freshwater cladoceran Ceriodaphnia dubia, a model species for toxicity testing. We first calculated the concentrations of Hg causing 25% reduction in survival and reproduction (Lethal or 25 26 Inhibition Concentrations, or LC₂₅ and IC₂₅, for survival and reproduction, respectively) through exposure to aqueous Hg at concentrations ranging from 0 to 25000 ng L⁻¹. Then, we treated media 27 (DMW and natural stream water) contaminated with Hg at LC_{25} and IC_{25} concentrations with $SnCl_2$ at a 28 29 Sn:Hg stoichiometric ratio of 8:1 and air stripping and exposed C. dubia to this Sn-amended media. Our results showed that Hg significantly affected survival, reproduction rates and impaired growth. SnCl₂-30 treatment removed 100% of the Hg from the media at all concentrations tested with no deleterious 31 effects on survival, growth and reproduction. Our results confirmed the efficacy of SnCl₂ in removing 32 aqueous Hg from stream water and showed that the added Sn did not impact C. dubia at the 33 concentrations tested, supporting the suitability of SnCl₂-based treatments in appropriate Hg-34 contaminated environments. 35

36 Keywords: *Ceriodaphnia dubia*, Chronic toxicity, Hg, SnCl₂, Tin

37 1. Introduction

38 Mercury (Hg) is extensively used in many industrial applications worldwide because of its unique 39 properties including density, volatility, redox chemistry, etc. This widespread use has led to releases into 40 the environment. In the United States alone, there are currently >800 Hg-contaminated sites on the National Priorities List for remediation established by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, 41 42 2020). Annual anthropogenic Hg emissions were estimated to about 2220-2390 tonnes in 2015 (UNEP, 43 2018; Streets et al., 2019) and this element is now listed among the "ten leading chemicals of concern" 44 (WHO, 2017) because of its toxic effects on human health (Beckers and Rinklebe, 2017) and ecological 45 effects (Boening, 2000). Mercury can be found in many forms in the environment. For example, Hg is emitted into the atmosphere in its elemental form (Hg⁰) which is readily transported and dispersed in the 46 environment. Elemental Hg can be oxidized in the environment to inorganic divalent mercury Hg (II), or 47 converted to methylmercury (MeHg) by anaerobic microorganisms (Parks et al., 2013). Mercury can 48 also complex with dissolved organic matter. Both the form and concentration of Hg affect its mobility, 49 50 bioavailability, and toxicity. At sites with large inorganic Hg releases (e.g. mining, industrial sites), concentrations can be elevated enough to be acutely toxic. 51

Like other elements, inorganic mercury cannot be degraded in ecosystems, leading to its persistence in 52 53 the environment (Wang et al., 2020). Mercury remediation at contaminated sites is challenging in part because of the transformations that mercury can undergo in the environment which may make it more or 54 less amenable to treatment or removal. Among various methods aiming to remove Hg(II) from water, 55 adsorption is the most commonly utilized approach (Abbas et al., 2018; Bao et al., 2017; Kyzas and 56 Kostoglou, 2015; Rocha et al., 2016). The sorbents usually possess high surface area as well as high 57 58 porosity and the formation of chelates is the major sorption mechanism (Kyzas and Kostoglou, 2015; Rocha et al., 2016). New materials have been developed to capture environmental mercury including 59

nanomaterials, polymers, hydrotalcites, graphene, and covalent and metal organic frameworks (Muller et
al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020). Sustainable options for large scale environmental remediation must
consider the removal of mercury without the addition of other materials which adversely affect the
ecosystem.

A pilot study has reported the efficacy of Sn(II) chloride (i.e. stannous chloride; SnCl₂) followed by air stripping (Looney et al., 2003) to remove Hg from groundwater entering a stream system in South Carolina, USA (Mathews et al., 2015). This innovative treatment system was based on common analytical methods for Hg (Southworth, 1996) where SnCl₂ is used as a reducing agent to reduce Hg²⁺ to Hg(0), which is sparged into the gaseous phase by bubbling with air (Jackson et al., 2013), where it can be removed with a sand trap (Looney et al., 2003), as follows:

$$HgCl_0^2 + Sn^{2+} + 2H_2O \rightarrow Hg(0) + 2Cl^- + SnO_2(s) + 4H^+$$

While this treatment system was effective at decreasing aqueous and fish tissue Hg concentrations by over 70%, it introduced tin into the receiving stream, leading to an increase in tin concentrations in the water and resident fish(Mathews et al., 2015). Recent investigations have also shown SnCl₂ to be efficient at reducing hexavalent chromium [Cr(VI)] to less toxic trivalent chromium Cr(III) in groundwater (Henrie et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2020). While SnCl₂ appears to be promising in reducing concentrations of toxic heavy metals, the longer-term impacts of adding tin to aquatic ecosystems have not been evaluated.

The aim of the present study was to examine the effects of Sn and SnCl₂-treated Hg-containing media on the aquatic invertebrate model species *Ceriodaphnia dubia*. We exposed *C. dubia* to six aqueous Hg treatments, ranging from 0-25000 ng L⁻¹ in a 7-d chronic toxicity test to assess effects on survival, growth, and reproduction. We then treated Hg-contaminated media with SnCl₂ and air stripping and exposed *C. dubia* to this Sn-amended media at various concentrations to examine whether: 1) SnCl₂ reduced Hg concentrations in water, 2) SnCl₂ treatment removed Hg toxicity and 3) whether the added SnCl₂ had toxic effects on *C. dubia*. Further, we compared the effect of Hg in artificial freshwater medium and natural creek water to assess the relevance of our lab exposures. Our results are relevant to the broader evaluation of the environmental impacts of chemical remediation of Hg in aquatic ecosystems.

87

88 2. Materials and Methods

89 2.1. *Ceriodaphnia dubia* culture

Ceriodaphnia dubia is a parthenogenetically reproducing freshwater microcrustacean (<1 mm length) 90 91 that is commonly used in toxicity testing because of its ease of culture, short life span, sensitivity to water quality, and prolific reproductive cycle. C. dubia mass cultures were maintained in 25% Dilute 92 Mineral Water (DMW) medium (EPA, 2002) prepared by mixing Perrier[®] + Milli-O[®] water at a ratio of 93 1:3 v/v and adding trace elements at concentrations for WC media (Guillard, 1975) without 94 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA). Mass cultures were kept in 1-L glass containers in an incubator 95 set at: 25 °C with a light intensity of 10-20 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ under a 16:8 h light:dark cycle (EPA, 2002). C. 96 dubia food consisted of a combination of commercial yeast purchased from Aquatic BioSystems (Fort 97 Collins, CO, USA) and laboratory-cultured unicellular green algae Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata (ex 98 99 Raphidocelis subcapitata; 3-4 µm in diameter). Algae were grown in 10-L clear polycarbonate Nalgene carboys containing aerated WC medium (Guillard, 1975) without EDTA at 23-24 °C; light intensity: 100 150-200 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹; light/dark: 12h/12h). Algae were harvested during their exponential growth phase 101 for feeding to C. dubia (i.e. after 14 ± 4 d at $11 \pm 4 \times 10^6$ cells mL⁻¹). Algal cell counts were done by 102

103 imaging flow-cytometry (FlowCam® Benchtop B3 Model). Prior to feeding, live P. subcapitata cells were concentrated by centrifugation (5000 RPM for 5 min) and resuspended in Milli-Q[®] water. The use 104 of concentrated algae allowed a reduction of feeding volume (i.e. 7 μ L mL⁻¹) and avoided significant 105 changes of water volume to preserve physical and chemical parameters of each tested media. 106 Throughout the experiments, special care was taken to avoid biological contamination of algal cultures; 107 all glassware used for experiments was put through a rigorous acid washing protocol and rinsed three 108 times with deionized water before drying. Photos generated by the cytometer during the cell counts 109 confirmed the absence of biological contamination. 110

111

112 2.2. Experimental media

DMW prepared as described Section 2.1 was maintained in a 20-L Nalgene carboy with an air bubbler for one week to de-gas the Perrier and aerate the solution. Two mercury stocks solutions (0.0001 M and 0.001 M) and a tin stock solution (0.0001 M) were prepared in 1-L glass containers by dissolving appropriate weights of HgCl₂ (LabChem®) or SnCl₂ dihydrate (J.T.Baker®) in ultrapure water. All stock solutions were kept closed under a hood at room temperature.

In Experiment 1, *C. dubia* were exposed to five nominal Hg concentrations: 500, 5000, 10000, 17500 and 25000 ng L⁻¹ and a control treatment with DMW (no Hg added). These concentrations were chosen based on preliminary experiments designed to target ranges at which Hg was expected to reduce *C. dubia* survival and reproduction by 25% to test the effectiveness of SnCl₂ as a remediator. Each treatment medium was prepared daily during the experiment by spiking 300-mL DMW with appropriate volumes of Hg stock solutions (i.e. 0-187 μ L). In Experiment 2, *C. dubia* were exposed to nine different treatments. The first two treatments tested the toxicity of Hg concentrations at the LC₂₅ and IC₂₅ 125 concentrations for Hg for survival and reproduction determined in Experiment 1 (i.e., 2110 and 890 ng L^{-1} respectively). Two treatments contained the same LC_{25} and IC_{25} Hg concentrations spiked with $SnCl_2$ 126 at a Sn:Hg stoichiometric ratio of \sim 8:1 (i.e., values in the range of what has been tested in previous 127 investigations: Jackson et al., 2013; Looney et al., 2003) and bubbled for 16h (i.e. 4440 and 10550 ng Sn 128 L^{-1} , so-called [Sn1] and [Sn2] respectively). Toxicity of Sn alone was assessed in two treatments 129 prepared with the same Sn concentrations used for Hg stripping. A control treatment with DMW (no Hg 130 or Sn amendments) was used. In addition, in order to assess environmental relevance of the results from 131 artificial media (i.e. DMW based), two treatments were prepared using water from First Creek (FC), an 132 133 uncontaminated stream on the Oak Ridge Reservation in Oak Ridge, TN (see Table 1 for water quality). First Creek water was filtered (75-µm) prior to use in order to avoid introduction of *C. dubia* predators. 134 The first of these natural water-based media was kept Hg-free while the second was spiked with Hg at a 135 nominal concentration of 5000 ng L⁻¹, a concentration which was shown in Experiment 1 to affect both 136 survival and reproduction in C. dubia. 137

Composition of all the media used during the experiments is provided in Table 1. Mercury concentrations were measured every day in subsamples of each media. All media were kept in an incubator set at 25 °C for one-hour prior to using. Water quality (i.e., pH, conductivity and O_2 concentration) of DMW media (prior to Hg or Sn additions, to avoid any contamination of the equipment used) were monitored daily using YSI® MultiLab 4010-3W. Additional measurements through titration were done for alkalinity and hardness and concentrations of NH_4^+ , NO_2^- and NO_3^- were measured 3-4 times during the experiments (HACH® SL 1000).

145 2.3. Chronic test procedure

Prior the test, 120 adult *C. dubia* were isolated in 15 mL plastic cups and an individual monitoring of the
production of neonates was carried out (in "brood boards" as described in EPA, 2002). To start the test,

<24h old C. dubia neonates born within the same 8-h period were individually distributed to test vials 148 (i.e., 20 mL borosilicate Ichem vials covered by a transparent plexiglass sheet; n=10 C. dubia neonates 149 per treatment except as described below for growth measurements in Experiment 1) filled with 15 mL of 150 media (DMW with and without Hg and/or Sn amendments) and food (3 x 10^6 cells *P. subcapitata* and 151 100 µL of yeast). Test vials were assigned to a position within a test board using a block randomization 152 procedure to keep treatments blind to the observer and avoid bias in data collection. We used an 153 additional five C. dubia individuals for growth measurements in Experiment 1 to determine whether the 154 additional handling would induce stress and affect survival and reproduction. Since no effect of the 155 156 growth measurement manipulation was observed on reproduction or survival, data for all individuals were used for LC₂₅ and IC₂₅ determination (see Section 2.5). Sample media was renewed and C. dubia 157 were fed daily by preparing media and vials as described above and moving original C. dubia from old 158 159 vial to new vial with a glass Pasteur pipette. During media renewal, C. dubia were observed and data for survival and reproduction (i.e. number of neonates produced) were recorded prior to transfer to the new 160 vials. Subsamples of media from each treatment were taken before and after the 24-h exposure for water 161 162 chemistry and contaminant analysis (see section 2.4). In Experiment 1, growth of the C. dubia was assessed at day 0 (n = 30), 2, 4 and 7 (n = 3-15 per treatment) by measuring total length from the base of 163 164 the spine to the top of the eye according to Agatz et al. (2015). Measurements were performed using a stereomicroscope (Leica® M80) calibrated using a 200 µm stage micrometer under a 5x magnification. 165 Each individual was carefully transferred from its original vial onto a Petri dish lid with a glass Pasteur 166 167 pipette. The drop of liquid surrounding the sampled individual was small enough to prevent movement of the body while avoiding contact with air. At the end of each measurement (<30 s), the individual was 168 169 returned to its original vial. The same procedure was repeated in Experiment 2 at day 0 (n = 30) and day 170 7 (n = 4-10 per treatment).

At the end of each experiment, all the surviving *C. dubia* were rinsed for 5 min in fresh DMW and
stored at -18 °C for further Hg analysis (see Section 2.4).

173

174 2.4. Mercury and Sn analysis

175 Water samples were taken before and after exposure for Hg analysis. Before each exposure, subsamples of each media were prepared in 40-mL glass Ichem vials and preserved with BrCl (5 µL mL⁻¹) for Hg 176 177 analysis. After each of the 24-h exposure periods, 4 mL from each of the 10 vials per media was 178 sampled and pooled in a 40-mL glass Ichem vial as a composite sample and preserved with BrCl for Hg 179 analysis. Mercury was measured by cold vapor atomic absorption spectroscopy (CV-AAS) Zeeman 180 effect Hg analyzer (RA-915+, Ohio Lumex Company, Inc., Twinsburg, OH, USA). The instrument was calibrated using Hg(NO₃)₂ standards with a detection limit of 10 ng L^{-1} . Duplicates were run every 2 181 samples and procedural blanks were analyzed for quality control. Blanks were typically below detection 182 183 limits, and duplicates were on average <5% different from their parent sample.

Aliquots were taken from all Sn-containing treatments and DMW control for Sn analysis at three time periods during the experiment (i.e., at days 2, 4 and 6). Subsamples of 40 mL of each media were prepared in 40-mL glass Ichem vials and preserved with trace metal grade nitric acid. Samples were shipped to Activation Laboratories Ltd (Ontario, Canada) for analysis. Sn concentrations were assessed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Standards and procedural blanks were analyzed for quality control.

Prior to Hg analysis, *C. dubia* pooled samples (n = 1 pool of 9 to 15 individuals per treatment) exposed to 0, 500 and 5000 ng Hg L^{-1} for 7 d were freeze-dried for 24 h and weighed using a microbalance. Prior to measurements, the microbalance was checked with reference weights from 1 mg to 10 g prior using and variations were always < 0.1 mg. The pooled samples were then digested in 100 µL acid (70 HNO₃:30 H₂SO₄ v/v) and analyzed by cold vapor atomic absorption as described for water samples. Procedural blanks and standard reference materials (IAEA 407 and IAEA 436) were analyzed for quality control and demonstrated Hg recovery from standards >90% while blanks were below detection limits.

197

198 2.5. Data analysis

In Experiment 1, Hg LC₂₅ and IC₂₅ values were calculated for survival and reproduction using standard methods as used in Brausch et al. 2010, Besser et al. 2009, Wang et al. 2020 and employed by the spreadsheet provided by the EPA (EPA, 2019). The LC₂₅ value from linear interpolation was used to determine Hg concentrations for Experiment 2, and this concentration decreased survival by 30% in Experiment 2, demonstrating that this LC₂₅ value was a decent approximation. The IC₂₅ calculation for reproduction was based on the total number of neonates produced for each experimental treatment divided by the total number of individuals started.

The comparison of survival curves was based on the non-parametric log-rank test, the most widely used method of comparing two or more survival curves, using the R package *survival*().

Differences in reproduction rate (number of neonates surviving female⁻¹) between treatments were assessed using an ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. The reproduction rate was calculated by averaging the number of neonates per female who survived over the entire test. Note that we calculated IC₂₅ values for reproduction using the number of offspring reproduced per number of *initial* females, a metric which combines the contaminant's effect on mortality and reproduction, but is the standard metric preferred by the EPA for reproduction (EPA 2002, section 13.13.3.1). In order to more accurately

214	tease out effects of the treatments on C. dubia reproduction, the number of neonates per surviving
215	female was used as this metric does not combine the effects of reproduction and mortality.
216	In Experiment 1, the growth kinetics of the C. dubia between the different Hg treatments over time were
217	assessed using a repeated-measures ANOVA designed as a linear-mixed-effect model. "Treatment" and
218	"Time" were used as fixed factors and "Individual" was used as a random factor to consider the
219	dependency of data from the same individuals. In Experiment 2, differences in final growth of surviving
220	C. dubia from each media was compared by ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test as described
221	above.

Assumptions of normality and heteroscedasticity were examined on plotted residuals of the models. The level of significance for statistical analyses was set to $\alpha = 0.05$. All statistics were performed using R version 4.0.1 (R Development Core Team, 2021) unless stated otherwise.

225

226 **3. Results**

227 3.1. Effects of Hg on survival, reproduction, and growth

In Experiment 1, C. dubia neonates were exposed to a range of nominal Hg concentrations in a 7-d 228 chronic toxicity test. Measured Hg concentrations in media were within 0-7% of nominal values (Table 229 1). Mercury body burdens in C. dubia were 2 ng mg⁻¹ (dry weight) when exposed to 500 ng Hg L⁻¹ and 230 10 ng mg⁻¹ (dry weight) when exposed to 5000 ng Hg L⁻¹. The bioconcentration factors (BCF, i.e. the 231 ratio between Hg concentrations in C. dubia and in the exposure media) were 2.0 x 10^3 and 4.8 x 10^3 L 232 kg⁻¹ (dry weight) in individuals exposed to 5000 and 500 ng Hg L⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). We found 233 234 that Hg significantly affected all the biological endpoints considered in this study (i.e. survival, reproduction and growth). 235

Survival rate was significantly affected by Hg concentrations (Figure 1A). While a 100% survival rate was observed in the control and the lowest Hg concentration treatment (i.e. 0 and 500 ng Hg L⁻¹ respectively) after 7 d, survival rate was only 60% when *C. dubia* were exposed to 5000 ng Hg L⁻¹. At ≥ 10000 ng Hg L⁻¹, no surviving *C. dubia* remained at the end of the experiment, with the last surviving individuals observed at day 5, 2 and 0 at Hg concentrations of 10000, 17500 and 25000 ng L⁻¹ respectively (0% survival rate; Figure 1A, Table 2).

Mercury also significantly affected reproduction in C. dubia expressed as the number of neonates 242 surviving female⁻¹ d⁻¹ ($F_{(2.36)} = 22.61$, p < 0.0001; Figure 1B). The highest reproduction rate was 243 observed in the control treatment with 49 \pm 13 neonates surviving female⁻¹, a value that was not 244 significantly different (p = 0.781) from the reproduction rate observed in C. dubia exposed to 500 ng Hg 245 L^{-1} (i.e. 46 ± 10 neonates surviving female⁻¹). The reproduction rate in the 5000 ng Hg L^{-1} treatment was 246 reduced by 60% with respect to the control (p < 0.001) with only 19 ± 10 neonates surviving female⁻¹. 247 No reproduction was observed at concentrations ≥ 10000 ng Hg L⁻¹ (Figure 1B). The total number of 248 neonates produced per surviving female throughout the Experiment 1 is provided in Table 2. 249

Hg exposure led to a reduction in *C. dubia* growth throughout the 7-d experiment. However, because 100% mortality was observed at concentrations \geq 10000 ng Hg L⁻¹, growth could only be followed in three experimental treatments (i.e. 0, 500 and 5000 ng L⁻¹). The growth differed among the experimental treatments ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 123.80$, p < 0.001, Figure 2). The maximal growth was observed in the control treatment and at 500 ng Hg L⁻¹ (i.e. final length of 1.12 ± 0.04 mm for the two treatments) and was reduced at 5000 ng Hg L⁻¹ (0.94 ± 0.05 mm; Figure 2).

256

257 3.2. Toxicity of Sn-based Hg treatment in *Ceriodaphnia dubia*

In Experiment 2, we evaluated the effects of $SnCl_2$ treatment on Hg bioaccumulation and toxicity in *C*. *dubia*, as well as the potential toxic effects of the added Sn on *C. dubia*. Our results confirmed the efficiency of Hg removal from aqueous samples by $SnCl_2$ and air stripping, with 100% of the Hg removed at both Hg concentrations examined (i.e., 890 and 2110 ng L⁻¹; Table 1). These results were reflected in the biological endpoints observed in *C. dubia*.

When exposed to a nominal concentration of 2110 ng Hg L⁻¹ (measured values of 2020 ± 110 ng Hg L⁻¹) in Experiment 2, *C. dubia* survival was reduced by 30% compared to the control treatment, supporting the LC₂₅ value calculated in Experiment 1. In media with the same nominal Hg concentration treated with SnCl₂ at a Sn:Hg stoichiometric ratio of ~8:1 ([Sn1], Table 2), no mortality was observed (Figure 3A, Table 2). The same observation was made in *C. dubia* exposed to Sn alone at the same concentration ([Sn1]; Table 2). In the [Sn2] treatment, one adult was found dead, tangled in its molt, on the last day of the experiment.

In Experiment 2, when the C. dubia were exposed to the calculated IC_{25} for reproduction from 270 Experiment 1 (i.e., 890 ng L^{-1} ; measured values of 850 ± 70 ng Hg L^{-1}), a 25% decrease in reproduction 271 rate was observed compared to the control treatment (26 ± 8 vs. 35 ± 4 neonates surviving female⁻¹), 272 supporting the IC₂₅ values for reproduction estimated in Experiment 1. C. dubia exposed to the same Hg 273 concentrations treated with $SnCl_2$ had a reproduction rate similar to the control treatment (p = 0.999) 274 with 36 ± 3 neonates surviving female⁻¹ d⁻¹. Exposure to SnCl₂ alone did not affect the reproduction rate 275 in either of the tested Sn concentrations ($p \ge 0.984$, Figure 3B). The total number of neonates produced 276 per surviving female throughout the Experiment 1 is provided in Table 2. 277

278 *C. dubia* growth was not affected by $SnCl_2$ ($p \ge 0.965$), with similar total length measurements observed 279 between the $SnCl_2$ -treated Hg, $SnCl_2$ and control treatments at the end of Experiment 2 (i.e. 1.03 ± 0.03 280 and 1.05 ± 0.01 mm) for all the Sn-containing media and the DMW control, respectively). 282 3.3. Hg toxicity: comparison between artificial medium and stream water

283 While standard toxicity tests often use artificial growth media, Hg speciation and therefore toxicity may be significantly different in natural waters (Miller et al., 2009). Survival of C. dubia exposed to 5000 ng 284 L^{-1} Hg in FC water and DMW decreased 50 and 60%, respectively, compared to the control media (i.e., 285 286 FC water and Hg-free DMW; Figure 1A and Figure 3A). We observed similar results on C. dubia growth, with decreases of 13% and 16% when exposed to the same concentrations of Hg in FC water 287 and DMW, respectively, compared to the respective control treatments (Figure 4). Effects of Hg on 288 reproduction rate were greater in DMW than in FC with decreases of 61% for DMW vs. 50% in FC 289 relative to the controls (Figure 1B and Figure 3B). 290

291

292 **4. Discussion**

4.1. Toxicity of Hg on *Ceriodaphnia dubia* in artificial media and stream water

We observed that Hg exposure affected the fitness of C. dubia with chronic effects found on survival, 294 production of neonates and growth. Survival was significantly affected by Hg: survival decreased in C. 295 dubia exposed at 5000 ng Hg L⁻¹ with no survival observed at the end of the chronic test at 296 concentrations \geq 10000 ng Hg L⁻¹. Previous studies experimentally assessed the effects of aqueous Hg in 297 298 Daphniidae (Biesinger and Christensen, 1972; Kim et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Tsui and Wang2006). While the LC₂₅ value we report for survival in C. dubia was similar to the one we estimated 299 from Biesinger et al. (1982) data for and 21-day chronic exposure of Hg to D. magna (~1700 ng Hg L⁻¹, 300 301 calculated via linear interpolation using EPA (2019)), effects of Hg on Daphniidae survival are highly dependent of the testing conditions (e.g., temperature, population, body size, and pre-exposure, Tsui and 302

Wang 2006). For example, Tsui and Wang (2006) found the median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) after 24 or 48h of exposure to aqueous Hg for *D. magna* to be highly variable, ranging from 5 to $\ge 250 \ \mu g \ Hg \ L^{-1}$ across different daphnid populations, sizes, pre-exposures, and temperatures. From the initial 48h of the chronic assay performed in Experiment 1, the LC₅₀ in *C. dubia* is 7.04 $\mu g \ Hg \ L^{-1}$ (calculated using EPA (2019)), suggesting that Hg has similar effects on survival of *C. dubia* and *D. magna* (Biesinger and Christensen, 1972; Kim et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Tsui and Wang 2006).

The IC₂₅ value we calculated for reproduction in C. dubia was lower than the LC₂₅ for survival. Our 309 findings corroborate Biesinger et al. (1982) where IC₂₅ for reproduction in *D. magna* was estimated at 310 ~1150 ng L⁻¹ for inorganic Hg (calculated via linear interpolation using EPA (2019)). While acute or 311 312 lethal toxicity may occur at elevated Hg concentrations, in natural systems, Hg concentrations are likely to be much lower than the lethal concentrations found in this study. Because sublethal responses on 313 reproduction are more likely to govern population responses than lethal responses measured at 314 environmentally unrealistic high toxic exposure levels, reproduction toxicity tests are among the few 315 sensitive ecotoxicological tests that provide the basis for legislative decisions (Breitholtz et al., 2006; 316 Rudén et al., 2017). In our study, the reproduction rate during the chronic assay was significantly 317 reduced by increasing Hg concentrations of 500 and 5000 ng L^{-1} while no reproduction was observed at 318 10000 ng Hg L⁻¹ with the last female dead after 5 days. Negative effects of Hg on reproduction were also 319 found in Daphnia sp. with a reduction in the production of neonates (e.g. Biesinger and Christensen, 320 1972; Biesinger et al., 1982; Tsui and Wang, 2005a) and deleterious effects on embryonic development 321 322 (Khangarot and Das, 2009).

While growth was similar at 0 and 500 ng Hg L^{-1} , final total length was 16% less than controls at 5000 ng Hg L^{-1} , showing that Hg also affected *C. dubia* growth (Figure 4). Animals under Hg stress direct more energy towards detoxification and recovery at the expense of other mechanisms such as feeding, 326 somatic growth and reproduction (Fong et al., 2019; Issa et al., 2021). Past studies also highlighted that 327 metal exposure may change cellular energy allocation in D. magna (Bossuyt and Janssen, 2004; Tsui and Wang, 2004a) while a direct relationship between energy reserves and the tolerance of *D. magna* to 328 329 acute metal toxicity was found by Canli (2005). It could be hypothesized that mercury stress can decrease the amount of resources available to C. dubia by decreasing their filtration activity and also by 330 331 impairing their swimming ability through oxidative stress and thus alter feeding behavior as shown in Daphnia sp (Bownik, 2017; Lopes et al., 2014). As a consequence, reduced food intake can 332 subsequently result in deleterious effects on the endpoints we looked at in the present study. 333

334 Daphnia are common freshwater zooplankton species in temperate lakes making the link between primary producers like phytoplankton and high trophic levels organisms. They are relatively large in size 335 and can carry higher Hg body burdens than other taxa (Watras et al., 1998). Understand the pathways of 336 Hg bioaccumulation of Hg at the base of the food networks is crucial for the subsequent transfer to 337 higher trophic levels. In the present study in which we exposed C. dubia to Hg primarily through water, 338 we found a BCF of 4.8 x 10^3 and 2.0 x 10^3 L kg⁻¹ in *C. dubia* with respective exposures of 500 and 5000 339 ng Hg L⁻¹. The BCF values we measured in C. dubia are in accordance with BCF values reported for D. 340 magna (Tsui and Wang, 2004a). Tsui and Wang (2004a) found that water exposure represents 31–96% 341 342 of inorganic Hg bioaccumulation in *D. magna*, depending on the variation of Hg BCF in ingested food. Although mechanisms of Hg bioaccumulation in Daphniidae are not fully elucidated yet, a recent 343 experimental in vivo study provided new insights of inorganic Hg bioaccumulation in D. carinata. Using 344 345 aggregation-induced emission fluorogen, He et al. (2019) found that the carapace and eye are the major recipient organs of aqueous Hg, which may have implications for observed effects. Previous works has 346 shown that the exposure route to contaminants can affect bioaccumulation and toxicity in zooplankton 347

taxa (e.g. Hook and Fisher, 2001; Wang et al., 2018). Future work should investigate how exposure
affects mercury bioaccumulation and toxicity in daphnids.

350 To assess the environmental relevance of the experimental approach we used, we compared effects in C. 351 dubia when exposed to artificial medium and stream water (i.e., FC water). We found slight differences in the controls: survival was 80% in control FC water while no mortality was observed in the control 352 353 DMW. However, when the media were spiked with Hg, the toxicity response relative to the respective 354 control media was similar between DMW and FC water. These findings suggest that our conclusions based on DMW medium may be environmentally relevant. Another study (Muna et al. 2018) also 355 356 compared the toxicity of heavy metals to zooplankton in natural versus artificial freshwaters and, unlike our study, found that the toxicity changed with different media. Muna et al. (2018) studied the combined 357 effects of dietary algae and test media and found that the toxicity of CuSO₄ and ZnSO₄ in *D. magna* 358 359 were mitigated by algal addition in the natural lake water media but not in the artificial medium. Such results were not expected and mechanisms underlying such differences remain largely unknown. 360 Further, Cu and Zn may react differently in freshwaters than Hg, which may also explain the different 361 results found here compared to Muna et al. (2018). 362

363

4.2. Sn-based treatment: Hg removal and the effects of *Ceriodaphnia dubia* fitness

Environmental concentrations for Hg are generally much lower than the Hg concentrations used in the present study (0 - 22 ng L^{-1} in average based on a worldwide survey of published measurements collected in rivers flowing into estuaries; Amos et al., 2014). However, at industrially contaminated sites (e.g., mining etc.) concentrations can be up to thousand times greater than maximum baseline concentrations for total Hg (Wentz et al., 2014; Brooks and Southworth, 2011). We experimentally used 370 SnCl₂ treatment to remove Hg from DMW media. Previous field pilot studies have demonstrated the efficiency of SnCl₂ for Hg stripping from water with abatement of ~90% (Mathews et al., 2015; 371 Southworth, 1996; Southworth et al., 2009). In the present study, SnCl₂ used at a Sn:Hg stoichiometric 372 373 ratio of 8:1 and coupled with air bubbling air was effective for Hg stripping with 100% of Hg removed after a 16-h treatment regardless of the initial concentrations of Hg used (i.e., 890 and 2110 ng L⁻¹). 374 While SnCl₂ appeared to be effective in reducing concentrations of toxic heavy metals in field trials, the 375 376 effects of the added Sn to aquatic ecosystems had not been previously evaluated. The present study demonstrates the absence of toxicological effects of Sn at concentrations of 2.1 \pm 0.4 and 10.9 \pm 0.6 μg 377 L^{-1} in the model invertebrate *C. dubia*. Previous studies assessing toxicity of SnCl₂ reported high values 378 for LC₅₀ (i.e. 22-55 mg L⁻¹; Biesinger and Christensen, 1972; Khangarot et al., 1987) in D. magna. 379 Okamoto et al., (2014) found IC₅₀ values for SnCl₄ of 6.2 mg L^{-1} based on acute immobilization in the 380 same species while, more recently, Okamoto et al. (2021) found EC_{50} for reproductive toxicity of 6.5 mg 381 L^{-1} for the same compound in C. dubia. As a comparison, Mathews et al. (2015) found that pilot SnCl₂-382 based treatment system increased aqueous Sn concentrations from <0.5 to $\sim 12 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ in treated stream. 383 384 Interestingly, in addition to the absence of toxicological effects of Sn on growth, survival and reproduction, we also demonstrated that the stripping of Hg using SnCl₂ allowed a full recovery of the 385 386 three investigated endpoints. Nevertheless, in the present study, the bioaccumulation of Sn was not been measured in C. dubia and the potential long-term impacts of an Sn enrichment at low trophic levels in 387 freshwater ecosystems remain unknown (Mathews et al., 2015) and need to be investigated before SnCl₂ 388 389 can be considered a treatment to remediate Hg in natural environments.

390

391 **5. Conclusion**

Our experimental results indicate that inorganic Hg causes chronic effects on C. dubia. Increasing 392 aqueous concentrations of Hg induced mortality, reproduction inhibition, reduced growth, and decreased 393 long term population growth rates. Toxicity of Hg has been confirmed both in artificial media and 394 stream water. We demonstrated that SnCl₂ treatment is efficient to remove Hg from the water column 395 and also removes the toxicological effects of Hg on survival, reproduction and growth. Our findings 396 397 indicate that at concentrations relevant for Hg removal, the addition of Sn does not cause any toxicological effects on C. dubia. The effectiveness of SnCl₂-based remediation of Hg has already been 398 demonstrated in the field but the toxicological risks of this remediation treatment were previously 399 400 unknown.

401

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588 Captions to Figures

589 Figure 1. Survival kinetics (A) and reproduction rates (expressed as the number of neonates surviving

female⁻¹, Means \pm SD, see Section 2.5 for details) (B) of *Ceriodaphnia dubia* (n = 10-15 per condition)

- 591 exposed for 7 days to DMW media containing a gradient of Hg concentrations. Letters denote significant
- 592 differences.
- 593 Figure 2. Growth kinetics (expressed as the length from the top of the eye to the base of the spine;
- (Agatz et al., 2015) of *Ceriodaphnia dubia* (n = 3-15 per condition) exposed for 7 days to DMW media
- containing a gradient of Hg concentrations. Symbol denotes significant differences (p < 0.001).
- 596 Figure 3. Survival kinetics (A) and reproduction rates (expressed as the number of neonates surviving
- female⁻¹, Means \pm SD, see Section 2.5 for details) (B) of *Ceriodaphnia dubia* (n = 10 per condition)
- 598 exposed for 7 days to experimental media containing SnCl₂ and/or Hg based on DMW or First Creek
- 599 water. Letters denote significant differences.
- Figure 4. Final length (in mm from the top of the eye to the base of the spine; (Agatz et al., 2015) of
- 601 *Ceriodaphnia dubia* (n = 4-10 per condition) exposed for 7 days to experimental media containing SnCl₂
- and/or Hg based on free-EDTA DMW or First Creek water. Letters denote significant differences.













606 Figure

Table 1. Composition and water quality of the different media used in (1) Experiment 1 assessing the effects of Hg on survival, reproduction and growth in *Ceriodaphnia dubia* and (2) in Experiment 2 investigating potential toxicity of $SnCl_2$ -treated media. Values are Means \pm SD (n = 3-13). In Experiment 1 and Experiment 2, letters denote significant differences for each of the measured water parameters among the different media.

Madia	Hg	Sn	рН	Conductivity	Oxygen	Alkalinity	Hardness	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	NO ₂ ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻
Media	$(ng L^{-1})$	$(\mu g L^{-1})$		$(\mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg CaCO_3 L^{-1})$	$(mg CaCO_3 L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$
Experiment 1										
DMW Control	0 ± 0^{a}	-	8.37 ± 0.05	150 ± 3	8.41 ± 0.14	55 ± 1	68 ± 1	0.04 ± 0.02	0.004 ± 0.003	0.36 ± 0.11
Hg: 500 ng L ⁻¹	501 ± 17^{b}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg: 5000 ng L ⁻¹	4791 ± 145^{c}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg: 10000 ng L ⁻¹	$9825 \pm 435^{\rm d}$	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg: 17500 ng L ⁻¹	17119 ± 282^{e}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg: 25000 ng L ⁻¹	$23279 \pm 841^{\rm f}$	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Experiment 2	L		I	1	1	1	1	I		I
DMW Control	0 ± 0^{a}	0.2 ± 0^{a}	8.33 ± 0.11^{a}	156 ± 3^{a}	8.53 ± 0.19^{a}	56 ± 2^{a}	70 ± 2^{a}	0.03 ± 0.03^{a}	0.004 ± 0.002^{a}	0.44 ± 0.03^{a}
Hg [LC ₂₅ survival]	2023 ± 113^{b}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg [IC ₂₅ reproduction]	$854 \pm 71^{\circ}$	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg [LC ₂₅ survival] + [Sn1]	0 ± 0^{a}	8.6 ± 0.6^{b}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hg [IC ₂₅ reproduction] + [Sn2]	0 ± 0^{a}	$3.1 \pm 0.6^{\circ}$	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
[Sn1]	0 ± 0^{a}	10.9 ± 0.6^{b}	8.33 ± 0.05^{a}	156 ± 3^{a}	8.51 ± 0.25^{a}	57 ± 1^{a}	69 ± 2^{a}	0.05 ± 0.03^{a}	0.005 ± 0.003^{a}	0.36 ± 0.04^{a}
[Sn2]	0 ± 0^{a}	4.3 ± 0.8^{c}	8.34 ± 0.05^a	156 ± 3^{a}	8.53 ± 0.23^a	58 ± 2^{a}	69 ± 1^{a}	0.04 ± 0.05^a	0.005 ± 0.003^{a}	0.036 ± 0.05^a

First Creek water	0 ± 0^{a}	-	8.39 ± 0.26^{a}	301 ± 3^{b}	8.25 ± 0.16^{b}	161 ± 1^{b}	162 ± 1^{b}	0.04 ± 0.02^{a}	0.002 ± 0.002^{a}	0.14 ± 0.02^{b}
First Creek water	4530 ± 1045^d	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
+ 11g. 5000 lig L										

Table 2. Chronic toxicity and bioconcentration of Hg by *Ceriodaphnia dubia* in (1) Experiment 1 assessing the effects of Hg on survival, reproduction and growth and (2) in Experiment 2 investigating potential toxicity of SnCl₂-treated media.

Media	Hg in media (ng L ⁻¹)	Survival (%)	Reproduction (neonates surviving female ⁻¹)	Hg in <i>C. dubia</i> (ng mg ⁻¹ , DW)	BCF (L kg ⁻¹)	
Experiment 1						
DMW Control	0 ± 0	100	49 ± 13	0	-	
Hg: 500 ng L ⁻¹	501 ± 17	100	46 ± 10	2.3	4800	
Hg: 5000 ng L ⁻¹	4791 ± 145	60	19 ± 10	10.0	2000	
Hg: 10000 ng L ⁻¹	9825 ± 435	0	0 ± 0	-	-	
Hg: 17500 ng L ⁻¹	17119 ± 282	0	0 ± 0	-	-	
Hg: 25000 ng L ⁻¹	23279 ± 841	0	0 ± 0	-	-	
Experiment 2						
DMW Control	0 ± 0	100	35 ± 4	-	-	
Hg [LC ₂₅ survival]	2023 ± 113	70	19 ± 6	-	-	
Hg [IC ₂₅ reproduction]	854 ± 71	80	26 ± 8	-	-	
Hg [LC ₂₅ survival] + [Sn1]	0 ± 0	100	33 ± 7	-	-	
Hg [IC ₂₅ reproduction] +[Sn2]	0 ± 0	100	36 ± 3	-	-	
[Sn1]	0 ± 0	100	34 ± 3	-	-	
[Sn2]	0 ± 0	90	32 ± 5	-	-	
First Creek water	0 ± 0	80	30 ± 8	-	-	
First Creek water + Hg: 5000 ng L ⁻¹	4530 ± 1045	40	15 ± 3	-	-	

BCF: Bioconcentration factor