Accepted Manuscript

This is an Accepted Manuscript of the following article:

Hans Fredrik Veiteberg Braaten, Heleen de Wit, Thorjørn Larssen, Amanda Poste. Mercury in fish from Norwegian lakes: The complex influence of aqueous organic carbon. Science of the Total Environment . Volume 627, 2018, pages 341-348, ISSN 0048-9697.

> The article has been published in final form by Elsevier at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.01.252

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## **Abstract**

 Mercury (Hg) concentrations in water and biota are often positively correlated to organic matter (OM), typically measured as total or dissolved organic carbon (TOC/DOC). However, recent evidence suggests 28 that higher OM concentrations inhibit bioaccumulation of Hg. Here, we test how TOC impacts the Hg accumulation in fish in a synoptic study of Methyl-Hg (MeHg) in water and total Hg (THg) in perch 30 (Perca fluviatilis) in 34 boreal lakes in southern Norway. We found that aqueous MeHg ( $r^2$ =0.49,  $p$ <0.0001) and THg ( $r^2$  = 0.69,  $p$ <0.0001), and fish THg ( $r^2$ =0.26,  $p$ <0.01) were all positively related with 32 TOC. However, we found declining MeHg bioaccumulation factors (BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>) for fish with increasing TOC concentrations. The significant correlation between fish THg concentrations and aqueous TOC suggests that elevated fish Hg levels in boreal regions are associated with humic lakes. The declining 35 BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> with increasing TOC suggest that increased OM promotes increased aqueous Hg concentrations, but lowers relative MeHg bioaccumulation. A mechanistic understanding of the 37 response from OM on BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> might be found in the metal-complexation properties of OM, where OM complexation of metals reduces their bioavailability. Hence, suggesting that MeHg bioaccumulation becomes less effective at higher TOC, which is particularly relevant when assessing potential responses of fish Hg to predicted future changes in OM inputs to boreal ecosystems. Increased browning of waters may affect fish Hg in opposite directions: an increase of foodweb exposure to aqueous Hg, and 42 reduced bioavailability of Hg species. However, the negative relationship between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC is challenging to interpret, and carries a great deal of uncertainty, since this relationship may be driven by the underlying correlation between TOC and MeHg (i.e. spurious correlations). Our results suggest that the trade-off between Hg exposure and accumulation will have important implications for the effects of lake browning on Hg transport, bioavailability, and trophodynamics.

### **Keywords**

Bioaccumulation factor, boreal, freshwater, methylmercury, organic matter, perch

### **1 Introduction**

 Mercury (Hg) can undergo long-range transport in the atmosphere, and nearly two centuries of elevated Hg deposition from anthropogenic activities (Streets et al., 2011) have led to considerable stores of Hg in catchment soils, even in remote locations (Fitzgerald et al., 1998). Inorganic forms of Hg can be methylated into the neurotoxic Methyl-Hg (MeHg), which is biomagnified in aquatic food webs with potential harmful effects on aquatic organisms (Wolfe et al., 1998) and their consumers (Scheulhammer et al., 2007), including humans (Driscoll et al., 2013; Zahir et al., 2005). Although the toxic effects of Hg have been known for more than half a century (Kurland et al., 1960), researchers still struggle to understand and describe many of the complex processes involved in the biogeochemical cycling of the element, including mechanisms controlling accumulation and biomagnification of Hg in aquatic food webs.

 Throughout the boreal zone, Hg concentrations in freshwater fish often exceed national and international dietary advisory limits, typically defined from 0.5-1.0 ppm (FAO UN, 1995, UNEP, 2002, Depew et al., 2012). Elevated concentrations are confirmed for both North American (e.g. Gandhi et al., 2014) and Scandinavian lakes (e.g. Åkerblom et al., 2014, Braaten et al., 2017), with levels posing a potential risk to ecosystem and human health. Recent studies have documented widespread increases in concentrations of aqueous organic matter (OM), normally measured as dissolved organic carbon (DOC) or total organic carbon (TOC), in freshwater lakes throughout the boreal forest zone (Monteith et al., 2007), and concentrations are predicted to change markedly with future climate change (de Wit et al., 2016, i.e. altered precipitation patterns). Browning of lakes may have strong impacts on Hg transport, availability and bioaccumulation and a better understanding of the interactions between climate, biogeochemistry and bioaccumulation is needed. In particular there is a need to increase our knowledge about the most decisive factors and processes for Hg accumulation in fish, and how these processes interact. This knowledge gap limits our ability to predict future levels of Hg in fish under various environmental changes.

 Aqueous OM is known to affect the cycling of Hg in aquatic environments through chemical complexation (Ravichandran, 2004), through direct and indirect impacts on photochemical degradation of MeHg (Lehnherr and Louis, 2009, Klapstein et al., 2018), and through microbial production and de-methylation mechanisms and processes (Gilmour et al., 1998). In recent decades, many studies have shown significant, positive correlations between aqueous concentrations of OM 81 and Hg, both in water and biota (Braaten et al., 2014a; Chasar et al., 2009; Driscoll et al., 1995; Meili et al., 1991). However, more recent investigations suggest that at higher OM concentrations, Hg may be less available for uptake into aquatic food webs (e.g. French et al., 2014, Jeremiason et al., 2016, Tsui and Finlay, 2011). French et al. (2014) showed reduced bioaccumulation of both total Hg (THg) 85 and MeHg in aquatic invertebrates (amphipods of different size classes: 250-2000  $\mu$ m and >2000  $\mu$ m) 86 in Arctic lakes at DOC concentrations > 8.6 mg C  $L^{-1}$ , while increased accumulation occurred at DOC < 87 8.6 mg C  $L^{-1}$ . Amphipods from lakes with higher DOC concentrations had lower Hg bioaccumulation factors (BAFs), defined as the ratio between the concentration of Hg in an organism and the 89 concentration of Hg in its surrounding environment, i.e. water (French et al., 2014). A similar threshold 90 value (≈ 8 mg C L<sup>-1</sup>) was proposed by Driscoll et al. (1994) from a limited data set of North American fish populations. French et al. (2014) suggest that the mechanism responsible for the change in BAF with OM concentrations relates to the complexation of Hg by OM, where high presence of humic acids make Hg species less bioavailable.

 Herein, we wanted to investigate the relationship between aqueous concentrations of MeHg and TOC in 34 boreal lakes in southern Norway and assess the effects of TOC concentrations on Hg in perch (*Perca fluviatilis*). We explore various modelling approaches, including a BAF approach similar to that of French et al. (2014), and discuss the limitations and potential future environmental implications of our results. Hg concentrations in aquatic food webs depend strongly on the uptake of Hg at the base of the food web (Chasar et al., 2009), implying that a potential TOC threshold for Hg bioaccumulation in fish prey will also be reflected as a threshold response in fish Hg. We hypothesise that reduced bioavailability of MeHg occurs at higher TOC concentrations, leading to lower BAFs for Hg in fish.

### **2 Experimental**

### **2.1 Study sites and field sampling**

105 Our investigation is based on 34 lakes from southeast Norway, located between 58.84° N and 60.51° N, 7.96° E and 12.51° E (WGS84, see *Figure 1* and *Supporting Information* for details). All lakes are 107 located within the boreal forest ecotone, dominated by coniferous forest and wetlands, without direct influence from agricultural activities. Lake-specific information on geographical location is attached as *Supporting Information* (*Table S1*), while water chemistry (THg, MeHg and TOC) and fish Hg concentrations are shown in *Table 1*.

 Samples were collected in the early autumn (August-September) between 2008 and 2012. Perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) is the most abundant fish species in all lakes, and was collected using gill nets composed of different mesh sizes for a broad distribution of fish size. For further details regarding sampling and sample handling we refer to Braaten et al. (2014b). To be included in our calculations, 115 fish data from each of the 34 lakes had to comprise of at least  $n = 10$  specimens, with the mean ( $\pm$  one 116 standard deviation) being  $n = 23 \pm 7$  fish (*Table 1*).

 Water sampling for chemical analysis was conducted as described in Braaten et al. (2014a). In 118 short, samples of surface water for Hg speciation were collected using 250 mL fluoropolymer bottles, following ultraclean sampling procedures to avoid contamination (USEPA, 1996). All bottles were 120 previously unused, and water for determination of THg and MeHg was sampled in separate bottles to avoid errors resulting from loss of Hg during preservation (Creswell et al., 2016, Braaten et al., 2014c). 122 Samples for TOC determination were collected at the same time as the samples for Hg analysis in an high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottle.

## **2.2 Analytical methods**

 Hg concentrations in fish were determined as THg. Wet samples of muscle tissue were analysed by thermal decomposition and direct atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Lumex Mercury Analyser

 RA915). Quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) are described in detail in Braaten et al. (2014b). Relative standard deviation (RSD) of sample duplicates was < 10 % and recovery of certified reference material (DORM-3 fish protein) within 90-110 %.

 The analytical method for MeHg in water was based on USEPA method 1630 (USEPA, 1998) by distillation, aqueous ethylation, purge and trap, and cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectrometry (CVAFS). The method for THg in water followed USEPA method 1631 (USEPA, 2002) by oxidation, purge 134 and trap, and CVAFS. Method detection levels (MDLs) were 0.02 and 0.1 ng  $L^{-1}$  for MeHg and THg, respectively. For both Hg species, automated systems were used for analysis (Brooks Rand Instruments MERX). QA/QC are described in detail in Braaten et al. (2014a). RSD of sample duplicates was < 10 % and < 20 % for THg and MeHg, respectively. Recoveries of blank spikes and matrix spikes were 80-120 % for MeHg and 90-110 % for THg. Both THg and MeHg were determined on unfiltered water to allow 139 for comparison with levels of TOC.

 TOC was measured by infrared spectrophotometry according to Norwegian and European 141 Standard NS-EN1484 with a measurement uncertainty of  $\pm$  20 % and a MDL of 0.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

### **2.3 Data collection of fish Hg measurements**

 Fish Hg data were collected from previous publications by Fjeld and Rognerud (2009) and Braaten et 145 al. (2017). Mean observed fish Hg concentrations (measured as THg) in the lakes varied from 0.16  $\pm$  0.08 to 0.68 ± 0.12 ppm wet weight (w.w., *Table 1*). Based on monitoring data for perch from Scandinavian lakes (n = 80 lakes, n = 2026 specimens), ratios of MeHg to THg are typically above 0.95 in fish muscle tissue (Braaten et al., 2017), and as such we used concentrations of THg as an estimate of MeHg. Mean fish weight and total length (± one standard deviation), including ranges (min, max), in the complete dataset (n = 776) were 75.8 ± 113.3 g (1.0 – 1141.0 g) and 16.3 ± 5.9 cm (4.7 – 44.3 cm), respectively (Data for individual lakes are shown in the *Supplementary Information*, *Table S2*).

# **2.4 Treatment of fish Hg data**

 For comparison of Hg concentration in fish between lakes, a length and/or age adjustment is needed due to the strong co-variation between Hg concentration and fish size (i.e. length and weight; Sonesten, 2003, Chasar et al., 2009) as well as age (Braaten et al., 2014b). In our dataset, strong 157 significant positive relationships were found for fish Hg concentrations (observed values) with both 158 weight ( $r^2$ =0.46,  $p$ <0.0001) and length ( $r^2$ =0.35,  $p$ <0.0001). To investigate the between-lake fish Hg concentration variations, we carried out an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) creating a general linear model. Explanatory variables included in the model included the fish characteristics available for all lakes; total length and weight. To evaluate potential changes in the relationship between fish length and weight, and Hg concentrations between the different lakes (length\*lake and weight\*lake), interaction terms were also included in the model (all *p* < 0.0001). The final model's summary of fit and analysis of variance are shown in *Supporting Information* (*Table S3*), together with residual and actual (i.e. measured) versus predicted plots (*Figure S1 and S2*). The final adjusted fish Hg 166 concentrations model specifications include  $r^2$  = 0.79 and root mean square error (RMSE) = 0.14.

 All statistical analyses and calculations were performed in JMP 13.0.0 with a significance level 168  $\alpha$  = 0.05, unless otherwise mentioned.

# **2.5 Calculation of bioaccumulation factors**

171 Estimation of BAFs for MeHg (BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>) in each lake were performed by dividing the mean adjusted 172 concentrations of Hg in the perch populations (ppm, w.w.) by the concentrations of MeHg in water (ng L<sup>-1</sup>), by the following function:

# $BAF_{Mehg} = [Hg]_{perch\,adiusted}/[aqueous\,Mehg]$  (2)

177 BAFs should ideally rely on aqueous dissolved MeHg concentrations, however, given the oligotrophic nature of our study lakes (low nutrient concentrations, Braaten et al., 2014a, sustaining low algal productivity, and therefore low particulate matter), we calculated BAFs based on the total MeHg

180 concentrations (including dissolved and potential particle associated MeHg). Although the BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> are calculated from one measurement of MeHg in water from each lake, aqueous MeHg concentrations measured in autumn in south-east Norwegian boreal lakes tend to be relatively stable from year to year (i.e. low inter-annual variability, Braaten et al., 2014a). Lake-specific estimates of BAFs are presented in the *Supporting Information* (*Table S2*).

185 Obtained BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> were tested for outliers and all values were found to be within the 75 % quartile plus 1.5 \* interquartile range.

# **3 Results and Discussion**

# *3.1 Hg concentrations positively related to aqueous organic carbon*

Aqueous concentrations of TOC, THg and MeHg ranged between 3.6 – 20.1 mg C L<sup>-1</sup>, 1.3 – 6.6 ng Hg L<sup>-</sup> 191 <sup>1</sup> and 0.04 – 0.53 ng MeHg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (*Table 1*). As expected, a significant positive linear 192 relationship was found between aqueous concentrations of TOC and both THg ( $r^2$  = 0.69;  $p$  < 0.0001, *Figure 2A*) and MeHg (data transformed to a logarithmic scale, r 2 = 0.49; *p* < 0.0001, *Figure 2B*). For THg, this relationship reflects the importance of OM as transport vector of Hg species from terrestrial to aquatic systems, a pattern well described for boreal areas in Scandinavia (Braaten et al., 2014a; Eklof et al., 2012) as well as North America (Dennis et al., 2005; Driscoll et al., 1995). In boreal humic lakes, where DOC typically constitutes more than 90% of TOC, particulate organic carbon (POC) is only a minor constituent of aqueous OM (Hessen, 2005; Wetzel, 2001). Therefore, TOC is usually a good proxy for DOC in these systems, and we present only TOC data in this manuscript. TOC in boreal forested lakes is often of predominantly terrestrial origin (allochthonous OM) with minor contribution from in-lake derived sources (autochthonous OM, Hessen, 1992), a factor of significant importance for the OM quality (Bravo et al., 2017). For MeHg, the positive correlation with TOC is likely to be related to TOC as a transport vector, but is also consistent with reduced loss of MeHg through photolytic de- methylation (Lehnherr and Louis, 2009; Poste et al., 2015) and increased OM availability for in-lake methylation (Ullrich et al., 2001).

 The positive relationships between TOC concentrations and mean observed (linear regression:  $r^2$  = 0.26;  $p$  < 0.01, *Figure 3*) and adjusted (linear regression:  $r^2$  = 0.21;  $p$  < 0.01) fish THg concentrations were significant. Thus, our study confirms earlier findings demonstrating that elevated levels of Hg in fish in boreal regions are associated with humic lakes (Driscoll et al., 1994; Hakanson et al., 1988). The strong relationship between aqueous TOC concentrations and both aqueous Hg species and THg levels in fish (*Figures 2 and 3*, respectively), reflects the dominant effects of OM on aquatic Hg cycling. However, the positive relationship between observed fish THg concentrations and aqueous TOC 213 concentrations ( $r^2$  = 0.26) leaves a considerable amount of variation unexplained, and disguises complex relationships between bioaccumulation of MeHg in biota and aqueous OM in humic waters (Driscoll et al., 1994; French et al., 2014), as well as other inter-lake differences in biogeochemistry and ecology. We also observed a great deal of within-lake variability in fish THg concentrations (observed concentrations, *Figure 3*), likely driven by between-fish differences in size, age and diet, further supporting our decision to use adjusted fish THg data in our further analyses.

### *3.2 Complex interactions between aqueous organic matter and MeHg bioaccumulation*

221 French et al. (2014) suggested that at lower DOC concentrations (< 8.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), aqueous Hg species are 222 primarily bound to smaller organic molecules (i.e. fulvic acids), while at higher OM concentrations (> 223 8.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), higher molecular weight OM with higher affinity for Hg is more prevalent (i.e. humic acids). Accordingly, in humic lakes, where the Hg to OM ratios are very low (*Table 1*), relatively more Hg is bound to OM and therefore less available for uptake into the lower levels of aquatic food webs. The relatively higher molecular weight and larger radius of OM in boreal lakes with higher TOC concentrations has been confirmed by Vogt et al. (2004).

228 In the present dataset, BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> appeared to have a unimodal response to increasing aqueous 229 TOC concentrations (Figure 4, green continuous line,  $r^2$  = 0.46). The bell-shaped pattern indicates a threshold peak TOC concentration (Lorentzian peak model inflection point, see *Supporting Information* 231 for details, Table S4), at 5.8  $\pm$  0.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (95 % confidence interval: 4.6 – 6.9 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Our modelled TOC

232 threshold value of 5.8 mg  $L^1$  was lower than the threshold value found by French et al. (2014) for 233 aquatic invertebrates, i.e. 8.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. However, our maximum BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> was found in a lake with a TOC 234 concentration of 7.9 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. This result was similar to the maximum DOC concentration ( $\approx 8$  mg L<sup>-1</sup>) 235 obtained for the maximum fish Hg concentration reported by Driscoll et al. (1994) in lakes from the Adirondack region, a predominantly forested area in northern New York State, USA.

**However, it can also be argued that the relationship between BAF**  $M_{\text{MeHg}}$  and aqueous TOC 238 concentrations is simply described by a significantly negative linear relationship (*Figure 4*,  $r^2$  = 0.35, p 239 < 0.001, blue broken line). Jeremiason et al. (2016) found a lower BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> with increasing levels of OM 240 for lower trophic levels (i.e. dragonfly larvae), but over a much larger DOC range (9.6 – 55.7 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) 241 than in French et al. (2014, 6.8 – 30.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and than we present here (3.6 – 20.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Both the threshold (*Figure 4*, green continuous line) and negative linear relationship (*Figure 4*, blue broken line) support the view that bioaccumulation of MeHg in boreal aquatic freshwater food webs is strongly controlled by uptake at the base of the food web (Chasar et al., 2009), and that the uptake is highly 245 influenced by lake TOC concentrations. Thus, the quality and/or quantity of OM is likely to be linked to the physico-chemical properties of MeHg and its bioavailability at the base of the food web. For example, Jeremiason et al. (2016) demonstrates, in contrast to French et al. (2014), that at higher DOC, relatively more MeHg is present in the dissolved phase and associated with DOM, making it less available for accumulation in algae at the base of the food web. It is also shown that reduced uptake of MeHg (estimated as bioconcentration factors for hydropsychid caddisflies) with increased DOC concentrations is related to reduced partitioning of dissolved MeHg to seston (which transfers MeHg to primary consumers, Tsui and Finlay, 2011).

 Additionally, increased concentrations of terrestrial OM can lead to a shift in the balance between primary and bacterial production in lakes, with increased bacterial production and importance of microbial trophic pathways in lakes with higher allochthonous OM inputs (Karlsson et al., 2012; Karlsson et al., 2015). A shift from algal to more bacterial energy sources can be expected to

257 have important implications for MeHg uptake, trophic efficiency, and MeHg bioaccumulation in 258 consumers (de Wit et al., 2012).

259 *Figure 4* suggests that there is a threshold response of MeHg bioaccumulation to aqueous OM 260 concentrations, with highest bioaccumulation at intermediate levels of OM ( $\sim$ 7-10 mg C L<sup>-1</sup>), which is 261 reflected in Hg levels in aquatic biota from lower (i.e. phytoplankton, Gorski et al., 2008; invertebrates, 262 French et al., 2014) to higher trophic levels (i.e. fish, *this study*). The threshold response in relative Hg 263 bioaccumulation to OM implies that expected higher future TOC levels (de Wit et al., 2016) will 264 promote Hg bioaccumulation in lakes with low TOC concentrations (<  $5.8 \pm 0.6$  mg L<sup>-1</sup>), and potentially 265 reduce Hg bioaccumulation in lakes with high TOC concentrations (> 5.8  $\pm$  0.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). A similar 266 threshold value (5.0 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) is suggested for the lower trophic levels (i.e. algae) by Gorski et al. (2008). 267 However, the functions in *Figure 4* could also imply that expected higher future TOC concentrations 268 will simply lead to reduced Hg bioaccumulation over the complete OM concentration gradient (3.6 – 269 20.1 mg C  $L^{-1}$ ) in the boreal ecozone. The two models (Lorentzian and linear) are both possible 270 descriptions of the relation between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC, and both support a similar reduction of relative 271 bioaccumulation of MeHg above the threshold value of 5.8 mg  $L<sup>1</sup>$ . However, the Lorentzian model has 272 a slightly better fit ( $r^2$  = 0.46) than the linear model ( $r^2$  = 0.35).

273 For 30 of the 34 lakes included in this study, additional water chemistry parameters were 274 available, including measurements of total nitrogen (Tot-N), total phosphorous (Tot-P), pH, and 275 sulphate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>, Table S5, Supporting Information). We tested the influence of these parameters on 276 both fish Hg concentrations and BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> (as for TOC in chapter 3.1 and 3.2, respectively), by running 277 both multiple regression analysis and one-way regressions. None of the parameters were significantly 278 related to fish Hg concentrations (all *p* > 0.15), and they did not improve explanatory power when 279 included in a multiple regression analysis with TOC (all *p* > 0.2).

280

#### 281 *3.3 Confounding factors and potential for spurious correlations*

 Although the present data show significant effects on MeHg bioaccumulation from aqueous OM concentrations (*Figure 4*), we should not eliminate other confounding factors. For example, perch from 284 different lakes may feed at different trophic levels, with direct effects on the BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>, and also perch diet may vary with lake TOC concentrations (e.g. preferred prey, pelagic and/or benthic feeding strategies, nutritional quality of prey, trophic position). If so, this could have a strong influence on the 287 observed relationship between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC. Furthermore, inter-lake comparisons of BAFs may also be complicated by differences in fish growth rates between lakes, with higher BAFs expected for 289 lakes with slower growing perch.

 Increased concentrations of TOC have potentially large effects on lake conditions, including reduced light penetration, changing temperature regimes, and oxygen depletion (Read and Rose, 2013, Couture et al., 2015). Given that perch are cool-water adapted visual predators (Diehl, 1988), such changes in physicochemical conditions can be expected to have strong effects on perch foraging and growth, which in turn will affect Hg accumulation.

 When assessing relationships between ratios, e.g. BAFs (fish [THg]/aqueous [MeHg]), and their 296 denominators (e.g. aqueous MeHg) or parameters strongly correlated with their denominators (e.g. TOC), so-called spurious correlations may arise (Dunlap et al., 1997). Spurious correlations potentially lead to misleading or incorrect conclusions (Kronmal, 1993). Historically, ratios have been widely used to incorporate more than one variable into a single measure suitable for bivariate analyses. However, Jackson and Somers (1991) used several statistical examples to demonstrate that the use of ratios often lead to artifical correlations due to a lack of independence between ratios and denominators. Pollman and Axelrad (2014) refer to examples of unsupported conclusions from peer-reviewed publications where BAF is significantly correlated to aqueous contaminant concentrations, failing to recognise the real underlying statistical relationship. An example of such a spurious correlation is when BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> is plotted against aqueous MeHg concentrations, i.e. when the dependent variable is plotted against the variable used to calculate the independent variable. In our data set, such a plot shows a 307 strong exponential negative relationship ( $r^2$  = 0.82, *Supporting Information, Figure S3*). In other words,

308 when THg in fish is divided by MeHg in water, low MeHg in water promotes high BAF $_{\text{MeHg}}$ , and high 309 MeHg in water promotes low BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>. However, we also see a significant positive correlation between 310 adjusted fish THg concentrations and aqueous MeHg concentrations ( $r^2$  = 0.16,  $p$  = 0.02).

311 The relationships between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC (*Figure 4*) is, however, not as obvious an example of a spurious correlation, as TOC is not used to calculate BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>. Because of the strong positive relationship between TOC and log-transformed MeHg in water (*Figure 2*), the strong relationship 314 between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC (*Figure 4*) may be driven by the underlying correlation between TOC and MeHg.

 In order to avoid a possible spurious correlation, we tested if TOC had additional explanatory power for fish THg concentrations when the effect of aqueous MeHg was accounted for. We found that there was no significant relationship between TOC and the residuals of the regression between 319 adjusted fish THg and aqueous MeHg ( $r^2$  = 0.03,  $p$  = 0.29, *Supporting Information*, *Figure S4*). This lack 320 of relationship lends further weight to the possibility that the relationships between BAF $_{\text{Merhe}}$  and TOC that we found (*Figure 4*) may by complicated by the underlying relationship between MeHg and TOC (Pollman and Axelrad, 2014). This highlights the challenges of assessing the effects of OM on Hg bioaccumulation, and the need for care in interpreting relationships that arise between these parameters.

# *3.4 Mechanistic explanations for the influence of TOC on BAF*

327 We hypothesise, if we assume the reality of a threshold response of TOC on BAF<sub>MeHg</sub>, that at lower TOC concentrations, two processes contribute to high uptake and bioaccumulation of MeHg: *1*) less OM is available to bind MeHg; and *2*) the OM available is typically present as smaller and more bioavailable molecules (French et al., 2014). Correspondingly, with increasing concentrations of TOC, more OM is available to bind MeHg and more OM is present as larger molecules (Vogt et al., 2004), potentially decreasing Hg bioavailability (as modelled by French et al., 2014). Thus, bioaccumulation of organic forms of Hg is reduced with increasing TOC concentrations. Hence, in our boreal lakes, increased OM

 promotes increased aqueous Hg concentrations (*Figure 2*), but lowers Hg bioaccumulation (*Figure 4*). 335 If the relationship between BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and TOC is simply linear (*Figure 4*), the same arguments hold, but 336 for the full TOC concentration range, and not restricted to levels above 5.8  $\pm$  0.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

337 A mechanistic understanding of the threshold response from OM on BAF<sub>MeHg</sub> and the linear relationship between the two parameters (*Figure 4*) might be found in the metal-complexation properties of OM. Complexation of metals with OM usually reduces their bioavailability (Stockdale et al., 2010), which implies lower metal-specific BAFs, although there is some evidence that binding to smaller more labile OM may increase the availability of Hg for uptake into bacteria capable of Hg methylation (Chiasson-Gould et al., 2014). The OM-metals complexation is strongly affected by the affinity for specific metals (Haitzer et al., 2002), in addition to the molecular charge, which in turn depends on water chemical conditions such as pH and ionic strength (Haitzer et al., 2003, Tipping, 1993). If we apply these insights to Hg species chemistry, it is likely that OM concentrations and water chemical conditions, such as acidity, will affect distribution of MeHg binding and bioavailability. In agreement with the above, Driscoll et al. (1994) proposed that aluminium (Al) may compete with MeHg for organic binding sites, leading to greater bioavailability of MeHg in lakes with a high Al/DOC ratio.

# *3.5 Future implications on MeHg bioaccumulation following browning of surface waters*

 The current browning trend of surface waters has been explained by declining deposition of sulphur (Monteith et al., 2007), which leads to higher solubility of OM through increased charge density (De Wit et al., 2007), and might have implications also for the distribution of MeHg complexes. If intermediate TOC concentrations are indeed associated with the highest bioavailability of MeHg (*Figure 4*), future browning will significantly affect the BAF for Hg in fish. Hongve et al. (2004) showed that the increase in water colour is much larger than the increase in DOC concentrations, and suggests that this is related to the properties of the OM. The alteration of the OM includes an increase in the relative quantity of high-molecular weight compounds (Hongve et al., 2004). Our study documents ameliorating effects on Hg accumulation in fish at TOC concentrationslower than that of other studies,

 possibly a consequence of qualitative differences in water chemistry between the Norwegian boreal lakes and the American boreal and Canadian Arctic lakes (Driscoll et al., 1994; French et al., 2014). This again might rely on differences in chemical properties of OM between Europe and North America, including differences in cation/DOC ratios, e.g. the Al/DOC ratio, possibly related to different levels of sulphate deposition and associated acidification (Garmo et al., 2014). Accordingly, more attention on relations between OM quality and fish Hg is warranted.

 Our study highlights the complexity of the relationship between OM and Hg transport, bioavailability and bioaccumulation, as well as the challenges of quantitatively assessing the effects of OM on Hg bioaccumulation. However, gaining a comprehensive understanding of these complex relationships and processes is critical in the context of understanding how ongoing and future browning of boreal lakes can be expected to affect fish Hg concentrations and related risks to ecosystem and human health.

### **4 Conclusions**

 Given the complex ways in which OM and MeHg interact in boreal freshwater-catchment systems, and the importance of OM in Hg cycling in these systems, future climate-change driven shifts in OM loading 376 to aquatic systems can be expected to affect Hg concentrations in water and aquatic food webs. Our results suggest that aqueous OM is important for the bioavailability and bioaccumulation of MeHg in aquatic food webs, and show that differences in OM concentrations are also reflected in fish Hg concentrations, with important implications for risk to human consumers. In the future, the trade-off between Hg exposure and accumulation will have important implications with respect to the effects of lake browning on Hg transport, bioavailability, and trophodynamics.

## **Acknowledgements**

- This work was supported by The Research Council of Norway (projects *Climer*, Grant Number 243644
- and *Merino*, Grant Number 196295) and the International Cooperative Programme on Assessment and
- Monitoring Effects of Air Pollution on Rivers and Lakes (ICP Waters).
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