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1	REVISION						
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3							
4	TESTING WHAM-	FTOX WITH LABORATORY TOXICITY DATA FOR					
5	MIXTURES OF METALS (Cu, Zn, Cd, Ag, Pb)						
6							
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28	ABSTRACT					
29	The WHAM- $F_{TOX}$ model describes cation toxicity to aquatic organisms in terms of (a)					
30	accumulation by the organism of metabolically-active protons and metals at reversible					
31	binding sites, and (b) differing toxic potencies of the bound cations. Cation accumulation ( $\nu_{i}$					
32	in mol g <sup>-1</sup> ) is estimated through calculations with the WHAM chemical speciation model b					
33	assuming that organism binding sites can be represented by those of humic acid. Toxicity					
34	coefficients ( $\alpha_i$ ) are combined with $v_i$ to obtain the variable $F_{TOX}$ (= $\Sigma \alpha_i v_i$ ) which, between					
35	lower and upper thresholds ( $F_{TOX,LT}$ , $F_{TOX,UT}$ ), is linearly related to toxic effect. Values of $\alpha_i$ ,					
36	$F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$ and $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$ are obtained by fitting toxicity data. Reasonable fits (72% of variance in					
37	toxic effect explained overall) were obtained for four large metal mixture acute toxicity					
38	experiments involving daphnids (Cu, Zn, Cd), lettuce (Cu, Zn, Ag) and trout (Zn, Cd, Pb).					
39	Strong non-additive effects, most apparent in results for tests involving Cd, could be					
40	explained approximately by purely chemical competition for metal accumulation. Tentative					
41	interpretation of parameter values obtained from these and other experimental data suggests					
42	the following order of bound cation toxicity: $H < Al < (Cu Zn Pb UO_2) < (Cd Ag)$ . Another					
43	trend is a strong increase in Cd toxicity relative to that of Zn, as organism complexity					
44	increases (from bacteria to fish).					

48 Note to the editor and reviewers: This is one of 11 manuscripts under consideration for an ET&C Special 49 Section on Metal Mixtures. The Section includes an introduction, a technical background, a comparative 50 evaluation of multiple modeling approaches, a lessons-learned manuscript, and seven manuscripts on 51 specific modeling and interpretation approaches. While each manuscript should be able to stand alone, the individual manuscripts are interrelated and cross-reference each other. If another cross-referenced, 52 53 submitted manuscript is essential to complete the review of the present manuscript, please request the 54 other manuscript from the Corresponding Guest Editor, copying the handling editor. The Corresponding 55 Guest Editor for the series is Eric Van Genderen (evangenderen@zinc.org). Any unpublished material 56 provided to assist your review must also be treated in confidence.

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# **INTRODUCTION**

59 Hitherto, quantification of metal toxicity to aquatic and soil organisms has been based 60 almost entirely on the results of experiments involving single metals, even when 61 bioavailability has been taken into account using either the Biotic Ligand Model (BLM) [1] or 62 simpler pH-dependent descriptions [2]. The information obtained in this way has been used 63 in environmental risk assessment to define concentrations of individual metals above which 64 unacceptable toxic effects would be expected in the field. This approach is pragmatic, 65 sensibly exploiting a large body of available knowledge, obtained from laboratory toxicity testing, to protect the natural environment. When it comes to mixtures, single metal standards 66 67 based on conventional toxicity endpoints have been combined using the Cumulative Criterion Unit [3] to generate combined quality standards. This approach will give conservative risk 68 69 assessments if mixture effects are less-than-additive, but there would be underestimation of 70 risk if more-than-additive effects occur.

71 Risk assessment on the basis of laboratory experiments involves the definition of 72 maximum acceptable concentrations. It is also desirable to be able to interpret observed field 73 effects, to test whether effects projected from laboratory data actually occur in the field, to 74 confirm and justify quality standards, to understand the extents of effects, and to evaluate the 75 feasibility and success of remediation methods (e.g. clean up of mines and contaminated 76 land). This definitely needs models that take into account both environmental chemistry and 77 mixture toxicity, and has prompted efforts to adapt the BLM for application to mixtures, by 78 theoretical [4], data fitting [5-7] and field work [8]. Further work with the BLM is reported in 79 this volume [9-12]. An alternative approach is the WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  model [13,14].

Instead of postulating a specific biotic ligand through which metal toxicity is 80 81 mediated, WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  expresses exposure of the organism to toxic metals by the overall, 82 non-specific, accumulation of cations at the reversible binding sites present within the 83 organism or on its surface. Such sites exist due to the presence of weak-acid groups in 84 different biomolecules (e.g. proteins, polysaccharides, lipids, nucleic acids, fatty acids), and 85 their occupancy depends upon the competitive interactions of toxic and non-toxic metals and 86 protons, assuming them to be in equilibrium with the surrounding solution. The binding 87 ligands could, in principle, include one or more specific biotic ligands but the majority will 88 not be associated directly with the toxic response. The model then assigns a toxicity 89 coefficient to each cation, which quantifies the extent to which the bound cation is toxic. 90 Total toxicity is then determined by the sum of the products of amounts bound and the 91 toxicity coefficients.

92 To apply this concept quantitatively, it is assumed that metal accumulation by living 93 organisms can be estimated with a pre-existing chemical speciation model, i.e. WHAM, using 94 cation binding by humic acid (HA) as a proxy. In other words, the array of HA binding sites 95 postulated in WHAM is assumed to provide an acceptable representation of the sites 96 possessed by organisms, taking into account differences in total site contents per unit dry 97 weight. This is at least a reasonable first approximation, given that humic substances are 98 formed from by the partial decomposition of living tissue, albeit mainly from plants. Results 99 showing strong correlations between observed metal contents of living organisms, in both 100 field and laboratory studies, and predicted metal binding to HA have been reported by 101 Tipping et al. [15], Stockdale et al. [13] and Tipping & Lofts [14]. These correlations are 102 taken to justify the modelling approach, although it is recognised that the modelled bound 103 metals constitute a "metabolically-active body burden", whereas body burdens determined by 104 chemical analysis may in some cases also include metal that has been rendered metabolically 105 inactive, e.g. by strong binding to metallothioneins or incorporation into precipitated granules 106 [16], which means that precise agreements are not necessarily expected.

107 We have already applied WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  to 11 published laboratory data sets describing 108 metal mixture toxicity to aquatic organisms, with promising results [14]. However, those data 109 sets did not present major difficulties for the model because the solution chemical conditions 110 were quite limited, and indeed the fits with WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  were only slightly superior to those 111 with a conventional toxicity model based on total concentrations in solution, and assuming 112 additive toxic effects. In the work reported here, we applied WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  and the 113 conventional model to four more comprehensive data sets (Table 1) that were anticipated to 114 provide sterner tests, gathered as part of the "Metal Mixture Modeling Evaluation (MMME) 115 Project" [Table 2, 17]. In particular, these additional data cover conditions under which 116 metals would be expected to compete significantly for the postulated reversible binding sites 117 on the organisms, which we expect to be accounted for by WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  but not by the purely 118 additive solution-based model.

119

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#### **METHODS**

## 123 Modelling chemical speciation and accumulation in living organisms

124 We used WHAM [18] incorporating Humic Ion-Binding Model VII [19]. Model VII 125 uses a structured formulation of discrete, chemically-plausible, binding sites for protons in 126 humic and fulvic acids (HA, FA), in order to allow the creation of regular arrays of bidentate and tridentate binding sites for metals. Metal aquo ions ( $Al^{3+}$ ,  $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $Cd^{2+}$  etc.) and their first 127 hydrolysis products (AlOH<sup>2+</sup>, CuOH<sup>+</sup>, CdOH<sup>+</sup> etc.) compete with each other, and with 128 129 protons, for binding. The same intrinsic equilibrium constant ( $K_{MA}$ ) for binding to carboxyl 130 or type A groups is assumed to apply to the aquo ion and its first hydrolysis product. The 131 constant ( $K_{\rm MB}$ ) for binding to weaker acid groups is related to  $K_{\rm MA}$ , and the contributions of 132 rarer "soft" ligand atoms are factored in. The intrinsic equilibrium constants are modified by 133 empirical electrostatic terms that take into account the attractive or repulsive interactions 134 between ions and the charged macromolecule. The humic ion-binding model is combined 135 with an inorganic speciation model, the species list and constants for which were given by 136 Tipping [18]. The inorganic reactions in this database are restricted to monomeric complexes 137 of metals. The effects of ionic strength on the inorganic reactions are accounted for with the 138 extended Debye-Hückel equation. Temperature effects on reactions between inorganic 139 species are taken into account using published or estimated enthalpy data, but in the absence 140 of experimental information, reactions involving humic substances are assumed to be 141 independent of temperature.

If dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was present in the solutions considered here, we took complexation into account by assuming dissolved organic matter (DOM) to be 50% carbon, and 65% of the DOM to be active with respect to cation binding, represented by FA [15]. For example, a DOC concentration of 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to an FA concentration of 6.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> for modelling. For toxicity experiments in which natural waters were used to prepare the test solutions, dissolved Fe(III) activities were estimated with the empirical equation of Lofts et al. [20], re-parameterised for Humic Ion-Binding Model VII.

We calculated the equilibrium binding of protons and metals to HA by assuming it to be present at a very low concentration, insufficient to affect the bulk speciation, and finding v<sub>i</sub> values (mol gHA<sup>-1</sup>). The v<sub>i</sub> are the combined contributions from coordinative binding and accumulation as counterions in the diffuse layer surrounding the (invariably negatively) charged humic molecules.

#### 154 *Fitting toxicity data*

162

In WHAM- $F_{\text{TOX}}$ , it is assumed that each organism possesses binding sites that have the same properties as those of HA, and it is the fractional occupancy of these sites that measures exposure to cations, rather than the absolute amount of metal per unit weight of organism. Thus, because only relative binding is needed, the model simply uses the calculated v<sub>i</sub> values for HA as the measure of exposure. This means that toxicity parameters for different organisms are directly comparable.

## 161 The toxicity function is defined by the equation;

$$F_{\text{TOX}} = \Sigma \alpha_i \nu_i \tag{1}$$

163 in which  $\alpha_i$  is the toxicity coefficient of cation *i*. Thus the model assumes strictly additive 164 toxicity, when exposure is expressed in terms of accumulated or bound metal. The toxic 165 response (TR), on a scale from zero to unity, depends upon lower and upper thresholds of  $F_{\text{Tox}}$ 166 according to the following definitions;

167 
$$F_{\text{TOX}} \le F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$$
  $\text{TR} = 0$  (2)

168 
$$F_{\text{TOX,LT}} < F_{\text{TOX,UT}} \qquad \text{TR} = (F_{\text{TOX}} - F_{\text{TOX,LT}}) / (F_{\text{TOX,UT}} - F_{\text{TOX,LT}})$$
(3)

169 
$$F_{\text{TOX}} \ge F_{\text{TOX},\text{UT}}$$
  $\text{TR} = 1$  (4)

170 For each data set, the object of the fitting was to minimise the sum of the squared differences 171 between observed and calculated toxic response. To fit the model, the values of  $\alpha_i$ ,  $F_{TOX,LT}$ 172 and  $F_{\text{TOX,UT}}$  could in principle be optimised by fitting the model to the available toxicity data. 173 Since the toxicity coefficients are only relative numbers, the value of  $\alpha_{\rm H}$  can be set to the 174 same value in all cases, and unity is chosen for convenience. In previous work [14] we 175 constrained the values of  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$  and  $F_{\text{TOX,UT}}$  such that their average was the same (4.12) for 176 each data set, because the data were insufficient to permit both parameters to be estimated. 177 We continued with this constraint in the present study (see Discussion). In practice, we optimised  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$ , so that  $F_{\text{TOX,UT}}$  is equal to 8.24 -  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$ . 178

For comparison with the outputs of WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  modelling, a conventional toxic unit approach was applied to the datasets, assuming additivity of toxic responses. This entailed fitting the dataset to a standard logistic dose–response curve:

$$TR = TR_0 / (1 + TU^{\beta})$$
(5)

183 where TR is the toxic reponse, TR<sub>0</sub> is the control response and  $\beta$  is a slope parameter. The 184 term TU quantifies the 'toxic units' for a given exposure:

185

187

 $TU = \sum [X_i] / EC_{50}(i)$ (6)

186 where  $[X_i]$  is the dissolved concentration of toxicant *i* in the exposure and EC<sub>50</sub>(*i*) is the

dissolved concentration of metal *i* causing a 50% toxic effect. The model, referred to as CTU,

188 was fitted to each entire dataset by optimisation of the parameters  $\beta$  and EC<sub>50</sub>(*i*).

189 The toxicity calculations were performed with Microsoft Excel, using its SOLVER function190 to optimise parameter values.

#### 191 Data sets

192 Data for the toxicity of Cu, Zn and Cd to Daphnia magna were from a comprehensive 193 series of acute toxicity (48 hour survival) tests carried out by Meyer et al. [22], which is Index 4 in Van Genderen et al. [17]. Each experiment comprised 2, 3 or 4 separate dose-response 194 195 series (up to 25 data in all), aimed a systematic examination of mixture toxicity effects, and 196 with an unprecedented degree of replication. Combination of the chemical speciation outputs 197 with the solubility products (25°C) given by Grauer [23] indicated oversaturation of some of 198 the test solutions with respect to the carbonates of both Zn (11% of the solutions) and Cd 199 (21%), by up to a factor of 10. This raised the possibility that in some tests the organisms 200 were exposed to smaller amounts of Zn and Cd than the measured "soluble" concentrations 201 would suggest. However, the exact extents of saturation are quite uncertain, because the 202 solutions are dilute and the times for precipitation to occur are fairly short, so any precipitates 203 would likely be poorly-crystalline and therefore have higher solubility products than the 204 better-ordered phases used to obtain the published solubility products. Therefore we did not 205 attempt to take into account the possibility that metal precipitation affected toxic responses.

Data for the toxicity of Cu, Zn and Ag to *Lactuca sativa* (Index 9 in ref. 17) were published by Le et al. [7, 24], and refer to the effects of single metals and pairs of metals (Cu and Zn, Cu and Ag) on 96-hour root elongation. Free-ion metal concentrations were reported, which meant that WHAM did not have to be used for solution speciation, only to estimate accumulation by the plant.

Data for the toxicity of Zn, Cd and Pb to trout species (Index 6 in ref. 17) were published by Mebane et al. [25], and refer to 96-hour survival of juvenile cutthroat (*Oncorhynchus clarkii lewisi*) and rainbow (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) trout. The test media were natural waters from the South Fork Coeur d'Alene River watershed, Idaho, USA, amended with metals. We assumed dissolved Al to be present at a concentration of 0.25  $\mu$ M (based on data of Balistrieri & Blank [27] and Mebane et al.[25]). Combination of the chemical speciation outputs with the solubility products (25°C) given by Grauer [23] indicated oversaturation with respect to PbCO<sub>3</sub>(s) of 6% of the cutthroat trout test solutions and 7% of the rainbow trout solutions, by up to a factor of 10. However, for the reasons given above in relation to the results for *D. magna*, we did not attempt to take into account the

221 possibility that metal precipitation affected toxic responses.

#### RESULTS

All the results presented here refer to chemical speciation modelling conducted with Model VII, but very similar results were obtained with Model VI [21]. The toxicity data sets and fitted toxicity parameters are summarised in Table 1.

## 227 Toxicity of Cu, Zn and Cd to Daphnia magna

228 Firstly we fitted the entire data set (870 data points) with optimisation of a single 229 parameter set ( $F_{TOX,LT}$ ,  $\alpha_{Cu}$ ,  $\alpha_{Zn}$ ,  $\alpha_{Cd}$ ). The model was able to explain 57% of the variance in 230 % survival with an RMSD (root-mean-squared deviation) between observed and calculated 231 survival of 29%. Comparison of observed and predicted values revealed that the greatest 232 discrepancies arose in experiments involving cadmium, whereas the single parameter set gave 233 consistent results for the copper-zinc experiments. Therefore, we next fitted all the data with 234 universal values of  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$ ,  $\alpha_{\text{Cu}}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{Zn}}$ , but with  $\alpha_{\text{Cd}}$  optimised for each experiment. The use of the experiment-specific values of  $\alpha_{Cd}$  appreciably improved the overall fit ( $r^2 = 0.74$ , 235 RMSD = 22%), but produced considerable variation in  $\alpha_{Cd}$  with values as low as zero and as 236 237 high as 1200.

To progress further, i.e. to consider interactions between metals in individual experiments, we restricted the modelling analysis to the experiments that yielded the middle 50% of individual  $\alpha_{Cd}$  values, thereby reducing the total number of data points to 542. When these data were fitted with four adjustable parameters ( $F_{TOX,LT}$ ,  $\alpha_{Cu}$ ,  $\alpha_{Zn}$ ,  $\alpha_{Cd}$ ), the values of r<sup>2</sup> and RMSD were 0.65 and 25% respectively. Analysis of the same data with the CTU model yielded a poorer fit (Table 1).

244 To illustrate metal mixture effects, plots were made comparing the experimental data 245 with predictions made by WHAM-FTOX and CTU, both parameterised on the entire 542-point 246 data set, i.e. the model predictions are not the best fits of individual experiments. Figures 2 247 and 3 show that the effects of Cu and Zn on each other's toxicity approximately follow the 248 expectations of the WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  model, which postulates interference via competitive 249 chemical binding reactions. However, the calculated competition effects are minor, and 250 consequently the CTU model, which ignores any effects of one metal on another, provides 251 results that are nearly as good as those from WHAM- $F_{TOX}$ . More extreme situations are 252 found with Cu-Cd and Zn-Cd pairings (Figures 4 and 5), in which the less toxic metals (Cu 253 and Zn) are observed to reduce Cd toxicity. Thus in several cases, increases in the concentrations of Cu or Zn actually decrease the toxicity of the mixture over a substantial portion of the experimental range (bottom two panels of Figures 4 and 5). This phenomenon is approximately reproduced by WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  because the chemical speciation model predicts that Cu and Zn can displace the more toxic Cd from organism binding sites. However, the CTU model cannot simulate this phenomenon.

259 WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  outputs (v<sub>i</sub> and  $F_{TOX}$ ) for two of the mixture toxicity experiments are 260 shown in Figure 6, and compared with expected effects were there no competition. 261 Considering the left-hand panels, it is seen that competition by Cu decreases the binding of Zn 262 by about one-third, and of course the binding of Cu must be less than would occur in the 263 absence of Zn. These competition effects diminish the total  $F_{TOX}$  by a modest amount, and so the predicted mixture toxicity differs relatively little from additive behaviour. The right-hand 264 265 panels of Figure 6 show how the addition of only 0.25 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Zn severely reduces Cd binding, sufficient to decrease the total  $F_{\text{TOX}}$ . Subsequent additions of Zn then cause total 266 267  $F_{\text{TOX}}$  to increase, but the predicted mixture toxicity is now substantially lower than expected 268 for the case with no competition.

#### 269 Toxicity of Cu, Zn and Ag to Lactuca sativa

270 The WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  fit (Figure 7) gave  $r^2 = 0.78$  and an RMSD of 14%. The derived 271 values of  $\alpha_{Cu}$ ,  $\alpha_{Zn}$  and  $\alpha_{Ag}$  are 12.2, 3.5 and 2090 respectively, showing the very high 272 toxicity of bound Ag.

273 Figure 8 compares observed and modelled results for some of the individual 274 experiments. The model deals reasonably well with Cu-Zn mixtures (panels a and b), and 275 predicts that bound Cu protects somewhat too strongly against Ag toxicity (panel c). The 276 model predicts that Cu should cause an appreciable reduction in toxicity when added to 277 solutions containing fixed free-ion concentrations of Ag, but the data are equivocal in this 278 respect. This, and the fact that the CTU model gives a slightly better overall fit than WHAM-279  $F_{\text{TOX}}$  for this data set (Table 1), suggests that any competition effects generated in the 280 experimental data are fairly minor.

These data were also analysed by Le et al. [7, 24], using both the BLM and an extended empirical concentration-addition toxicity model. To apply the BLM, they assumed that Cu and Zn compete for binding to their respective biotic ligands, whereas Cu and Ag do not. The fitted BLM gave an  $r^2$  of 0.65 for Cu-Zn mixtures and 0.69 for Cu-Ag mixtures. Their extended concentration-addition toxicity model included adjustable parameters accounting for interactions among metals. For Cu-Zn mixtures they achieved  $r^2 = 0.92$ , and for Cu-Ag  $r^2 = 0.80$ .

## 288 Toxicity of Zn, Cd and Pb to trout species

We fixed the value of  $\alpha_{Al}$  at 2.1, the value obtained for rainbow trout from the data of Hickie et al. [27] by Tipping & Lofts [14]. However, contributions of Al to  $F_{TOX}$  were small. Some competition by Fe(III) (which is assumed not to be toxic) for metal binding was evident, most importantly towards Cd. The fitted WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  model gave RMSD = 16% and  $r^2 = 0.81$  for the cutthroat trout, but a poorer fit (RMSD = 24%,  $r^2 = 0.64$ ) for the rainbow trout. The parameter values were similar for the two species (Table1), with particularly high values of  $\alpha_{Cd}$ . Figure 9 shows WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  fits to the two data sets.

The experiments were carried out less systematically then those for *D. magna* and *L. sativa*, and consequently lend themselves less well to plotting. However, Figure 10 compares calculated and observed survival as a function of Cd concentration for low and high Zn concentrations for the two trout species. The data show that Zn reduces toxicity for both species, and this is correctly forecast by WHAM- $F_{TOX}$ , but not by the CTU model, which predicts greater toxicity at high Zn, because it cannot deal with competitive effects.

### 302 Compilation of data

303 Table 2 combines the four new parameter sets derived in the present work with data 304 previously reported for laboratory toxicity data by Tipping & Lofts [14]. The derived 305 parameters indicate that the toxicities ( $\alpha$  values) of bound Zn and Pb do not vary greatly 306 among test species,  $\alpha_{Cu}$  varies by a factor of ten, and  $\alpha_{Cd}$  varies over more than two orders of 307 magnitude. The ratio  $\alpha_{Cd}/\alpha_{Zn}$  is not much more than unity for bacteria, about 10 for 308 invertebrates, and about 100 for fish, which means that the relative toxicity of the two metals 309 diverges with organism complexity. Overall, we can propose a tentative order of toxicity H <310  $Al < (Cu Zn Pb UO_2) < (Cd Ag).$ 

Tipping & Lofts [14] found that when exposure to toxic cations was expressed by  $F_{\text{TOX}}$  (i.e. accumulated cations) the overall range of values over which toxic effects change from 5% to 95% was 2.2-fold. Because the mean value of  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$  and  $F_{\text{TOX,UT}}$  is fixed, this range is effectively normalised. After normalising the CTU model results, the comparable range was much higher, 22-fold. The fact that the range depends upon the variable chosen to express exposure was taken to indicate that variation among individual organisms in toxicity tests is actually much less than might have been supposed. Tipping & Lofts [14] explained this in terms of the variation of bound metal with solution concentration. The present results are consistent with the previous ones, the combined data yielding a 5-95% toxic response range of 3.7-fold with  $F_{\text{TOX}}$ , but 59-fold with the normalised CTU model.

#### DISCUSSION

323 The WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  model explains diverse data fairly successfully using a simple 324 structure with few adjustable parameters. On average, the model explained 72% of the 325 variance in the data considered here, with an average RMSD between observed and calculated 326 toxic response of 20%. Some of the discrepancy must be due to the model's approximation of 327 metal accumulation though its use of humic acid as a surrogate, and some perhaps to 328 oversimplification of the relationship between organism-accumulated cations and toxic 329 response. But the fitting of the four data sets of the present work was less than that obtained 330 by Tipping & Lofts [14] for 11 different data sets (average RMSD 13%, average r<sup>2</sup> 0.85). The 331 poorer precision may partly reflect the greater ranges of experimental conditions covered by 332 the present data sets, but must also result from noise in the experimental toxicity data. This is 333 especially seen in the results of Meyer et al. [22] for D. magna (Index 4 in ref. 23) which were 334 obtained by many replications or near-replications, show considerable variation in the 335 apparent toxicity of Cd, and led us to remove a substantial part of the data set (328 points, 336 38% of the total) in order to conduct our analysis. The variation demonstrated by Meyer et al. 337 [22] highlights the difficulties in obtaining reproducible results, which should be borne in 338 mind when considering the results of the more usual, smaller scale, experiments. This means 339 that parameters derived from the results of a single limited study cannot be taken as 340 representative for that organism and the metals involved; they may better be regarded as a 341 sample from a population of toxicity outcomes. Understanding the variability in toxicity 342 experiment results is thus a pressing need.

343 A major motivation for carrying out this work within the MMME project was to 344 ascertain the extents to which metals, or more generally cations, influence one another's 345 toxicities. In WHAM- $F_{TOX}$ , the postulated mechanism by which this occurs is chemical 346 competition for the non-specific binding sites. The contribution of cations to the toxic effect 347 is strictly additive, being based on bound cations, i.e. the "metabolically active body burden". 348 Thus any interference among metals, toxic or non-toxic, is attributed to purely chemical 349 We recognise that this is likely an over-simplification, but in the absence of effects. 350 information about actual toxic receptor sites within organisms (see also below) it provides an 351 approach that is readily implemented using available information about the chemical 352 composition of the aquatic medium to which the organisms are exposed. How interference 353 between metals can come about is illustrated in the simulations for Zn and Cd toxicity 354 towards D. magna in Figure 6, which show how competition between metals with similar

355 chemical affinities but widely differing toxicities ( $\alpha$  values), can lead to strong deviations 356 from additivity. The same effect is also evident for the pairing of Cu and Cd (Figure 4), in the 357 trout results of Figure 10, and is forecast for Ag-Cu competition in L. sativa, although less 358 well supported by the experimental data (Figure 8, bottom right panel). For the present data, 359 the superiority of WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  over the CTU model arises chiefly from the inability of the 360 latter to deal with these competitive effects. It is worth pointing out that, in general, the 361 WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  model does not recognise true single-metal toxicity because H<sup>+</sup> is ever-present 362 so that even tests with a single added metal involve cation competition.

363 Even though WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  has few adjustable parameters, it has not proved possible 364 to define them very well with the data sets available thus far, since various combinations of 365 parameter values yield similarly good fits. Therefore to constrain the fitting we resorted to 366 fixing the average value of  $F_{\text{TOX,LT}}$  and  $F_{\text{TOX,UT}}$ . The need to do this might be avoided if new 367 data sets become available that cover ranges of pH, since this would constrain the relative  $\alpha_i$ 368 values, reducing the compensatory co-variance of  $\alpha_i$ ,  $F_{TOX,LT}$  and  $F_{TOX,UT}$ . Although 369 formally, the adjustable or potentially-adjustable parameters  $\alpha_i$ ,  $F_{TOX,LT}$  and  $F_{TOX,UT}$  are 370 separate from the binding model (i.e. WHAM/Model VII), it must be borne in mind that the 371 adjustments may compensate for inaccurate representation of exposure (accumulation by the 372 organism) through the speciation calculations.

373 The above considerations demand circumspection in the interpretation of parameter 374 values derived by the application of WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  (Table 2), and the following discussion is 375 offered with this in mind. Consideration of the  $\alpha_i$  values suggests an approximate order of 376 toxicity (see above), with bound Cd and Ag being especially toxic. Although the model does 377 not specify how bound metals exert their toxic effect, the general picture is that the pool of 378 non-specifically bound metal controls the supply of that metal to one or more key toxicity 379 receptors, not in equilibrium or steady-state with the external solution. The high toxicities of 380 accumulated Cd and Ag might therefore depend upon the presence of sulphur ligands in those 381 receptors, since the two metals have appreciably higher affinities for S in organic compounds 382 than do the other metals considered here [28]. If so, we would expect Cu(I), Hg(II) and 383  $CH_3Hg$  also to have high  $\alpha$  values. However, relative binding affinities to S-containing 384 example ligands would not readily explain the toxic mechanisms of Al, Cu, Zn, Pb and UO<sub>2</sub>, 385 since several metals usually considered non-toxic (Mg, Ca, Fe) have similar or higher 386 affinities for S [28]. Therefore, from the WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  results we can hypothesise that more 387 than one type of receptor for metal toxicity must exist. The second implication of the

derived values of  $\alpha_i$  is an apparent relationship of Cd toxicity to organism complexity, given that the relative toxicity of Cd compared to Zn increases with order (see Results), and this may prove to be informative in deciphering the chemical properties of toxic receptors.

391 These and our previous results [14], together with those reported by others in 392 connection with the MMME project [9-12, 22, 25, 29-31], have improved our understanding 393 of mixture effects with cations, but further measurements and modelling are needed to 394 provide a full picture. Data on a wider range of metals, and at different pH values, are 395 desirable, and there is a need to follow the approach of Meyer et al. [22] in designing metal 396 mixture experiments to challenge the models. In turn, the models might productively be used 397 to design such experiments. In addition, there is a large body of single-metal toxicity data, for 398 example those compiled in the ECOTOX database [32] which could fruitfully be analysed to 399 help establish patterns and trends among metals and toxicity test species, including durations 400 of exposure. The relatively sparse empirical data base on mixture effects, and the 401 complexities of both chemical speciation and mechanisms of toxicity, mean that more 402 research is required before we can confidently predict mixture toxicity in the field.

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406	CONCLUSIONS						
407	The WHAM- $F_{\text{TOX}}$ model was able to provide reasonable fits of four large and challenging						
408	data sets for metal toxicity to a daphnid, lettuce, and fish. In three cases the fit was clearly						
409	superior to that obtained using a conventional additive model based on solution exposure.						
410	Lack of precision in fitting must partly be due to the over-simplifications of the model, but a						
411	major factor is noise in the experimental data.						
412	Strong non-additive effects of metal mixtures were apparent in the data for tests involving						
413	Cd, the toxicity of which could be markedly reduced by Cu and, particularly, Zn. WHAM-						
414	$F_{\text{TOX}}$ could explain this effect approximately, on the basis of purely chemical competition for						
415	the accumulation of metals by the organisms.						
416	Tentative interpretation of parameter values obtained from these and other data suggests						
417	the following order of bound cation toxicity: $H < Al < (Cu Zn Pb UO_2) < (Cd Ag)$ . Another						
418	trend is a strong increase in Cd toxicity relative to that of Zn, as organism complexity						
419	increases (from bacteria to fish).						
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- 519 or assumed. RMSD is the root-mean-squared deviation between observed and calculated
- 520 values, and the  $r^2$  refers to comparison of observed and calculated values.

	Daphnia Lactuca magna sativa		Oncorhynchus clarkii lewisi	Oncorhynchus mykiss		
Index (ref. 17)	4	9	6	6		
End point	48 hr survival	96 hr root elongation	96 hr survival	96 hr survival		
n	542	238	162	207		
temperature °C	18.9 - 25.4	15	8.1 - 12.1	6.8 – 11.1		
pН	7.0 - 8.7	7.0	6.6 – 7.6	6.0 - 7.6		
metals	Cu, Zn, Cd	Cu, Zn, Ag	Zn, Cd, Pb	Zn, Cd, Pb		
DOC mg L <sup>-1</sup>	0.2 - 4.2	0.5	0.2 - 0.7	0.6		
Ca mg L <sup>-1</sup>	12 - 16	115	3 - 26	2 - 20		
WHAM-F <sub>TOX</sub> par	rameters and fits					
F <sub>TOX,LT</sub>	1.85	1.40	2.39	2.13		
$F_{\text{TOX},\underline{U}}$ T	6.39	6.84	5.85	6.11		
α <sub>H</sub>	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
α <sub>Al</sub>	-	-	2.1	2.1		
α <sub>Cu</sub>	21.9	12.2	-	-		
α <sub>Zn</sub>	8.4	3.5	6.7	10.3		
α <sub>Cd</sub>	320	-	1790	2070		
α <sub>Ag</sub>	-	2090	-	-		
α <sub>Pb</sub>	-	-	6.7	4.6		
RMSD (%)	25	14	17	24		
r <sup>2</sup>	0.65	0.78	0.81	0.64		
CTU fits						
RMSD	26	14	25	26		
$r^2$	0.59	0.80	0.56	0.58		

# 522 Table 2. Summary of parameter values from this study and Tipping & Lofts [14].

test organism	toxic response	F <sub>Tox,LT</sub>	F <sub>Tox,UT</sub>	$\alpha_{\rm H}$	$\alpha_{Al}$	$\alpha_{Cu}$	$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{Zn}$	$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{Cd}$	$\alpha_{\text{Ag}}$	$\alpha_{Pb}$	$\alpha_{\text{UO2}}$
Escherichia coli	luminescence inhibition 15 min	3.57	4.67	1.0		3.2	13.9	18.6			
Pseudomonas fluorescens	luminescence inhibition 15 min	3.29	4.95	1.0		4.0	14.0	23.3			
Vibrio fischeri	luminescence inhibition 5 min	2.45	5.79	1.0				3.8		4.1	
Lemna aequinoctialis	growth rate 96 hr	2.24	6.00	1.0		20.8					16.0
Lemna paucicostata	growth rate 96 hr	1.73	6.51	1.0		2.7		7.6			
Lactuca sativa	root elongation 96 hr	1.40	6.84	1.0		12.2	3.5		2091		
Ceriodaphnia dubia	survival 96 hr	1.90	6.34	1.0			5.8	65.3			
Daphnia ambigua	survival 96 hr	2.04	6.20	1.0			5.5	133.7			
Daphnia magna	survival 96 hr	3.03	5.21	1.0			4.6	27.0			
	survival 48 hr	1.94	6.30	1.0		21.2	9.0	314.4			
Daphnia pulex	survival 96 hr	1.79	6.45	1.0			6.5	63.8			
Dreissena polymorpha	filtration rate 48 hr	1.84	6.40	1.0		30.3	6.0	85.8			
Oncorhynchus mykiss	survival 144 hr	2.39	5.85	1.0	2.1	11.9	4.6				
	survival 96 hr	2.13	6.11	1.0			10.3	2070		4.6	
Oncorhynchus clarkii lewisi	survival 96 hr	2.39	5.85	1.0			6.7	1790		6.7	

527 Figure 1. WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  fit of selected *D. magna* toxicity data (542 points; see the text 528 for explanation).

529 Figure 2. Effects of Cu on Zn toxicity towards D. magna, pH 7.6 - 7.9, [DOC] 2.9 -

530 3.3 mg  $L^{-1}$  [22]. The top left panel shows the effect of Zn alone, the other three show

the effects of Cu at fixed concentrations of Zn (mg  $L^{-1}$ ). Solid and dashed lines are

532 WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  and CTU fits respectively to the entire data set. Note that the lines

- simply join discrete predicted points.
- 534 Figure 3. Effects of Zn on Cu toxicity towards *D. magna*, pH 7.4 7.9, [DOC] 3.0 –

535 3.1 mg  $L^{-1}$  [22]. The top left panel shows the effect of Cu alone, the other three show

536 the effects of Zn at fixed concentrations of Cu (mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Solid and dashed lines are

537 WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  and CTU fits respectively to the entire data set. Note that the lines

- simply join discrete predicted points.
- 539 Figure 4. Effects of Cu on Cd toxicity towards D. magna, pH 7.9 8.2, [DOC] 3.3 -

540 3.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> [22]. The top panels show the effect of Cd alone, the remainder show the 541 effects of Cu at fixed concentrations of Cd (mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Solid and dashed lines are 542 WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  and CTU fits respectively to the entire data set. Note that the lines 543 simply join discrete predicted points.

- Figure 5. Effects of Zn on Cd toxicity towards *D. magna*, pH 8.0 8.4, [DOC] 2.9 3.3 mg L<sup>-1</sup> [22]. The top panels show the effect of Cd alone, the remainder show the effects of Zn at fixed concentrations of Cd (mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Solid and dashed lines are WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  and CTU fits respectively to the entire data set. Note that the lines simply join discrete predicted points.
- Figure 6. WHAM- $F_{\text{TOX}}$  outputs (v<sub>i</sub> and  $F_{\text{TOX}}$ ) for Cu-Zn and Zn-Cd toxicity experiments with *D. magna* [22]. The left panels refer to experiments with 0.33 mg Zn L<sup>-1</sup> and varying Cu concentration, pH 7.9 and [DOC] 3.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. The right panels refer to 0.023 mg Cd L<sup>-1</sup> and varying Zn concentration, pH 8.3 and [DOC] = 3.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. In the bottom panel, the values of total  $F_{\text{TOX}}$  include the contribution form H<sup>+</sup>, and the horizontal lines show  $F_{\text{TOX-LT}}$  and  $F_{\text{TOX-UT}}$ .

Figure 7. WHAM- $F_{TOX}$  fit of the data of Le et al. [24,25] for Cu, Zn and Ag toxicity to *Lactuca sativa*.

Figure 8. Observed (points) and fitted metal mixture toxicity to *Lactuca sativa.*, data of Le et al [7, 24]. In each case the (constant) free-ion concentration of one of the metals increases in the order open circles < closed circles < open squares. Panel (a), fixed metal Cu, free-ion concentrations 1.3, 37, 190 nM. Panel (b), fixed metal Zn, free-ion concentrations 1.0, 42, 120  $\mu$ M. Panel (c), fixed metal Cu, free-ion concentrations 0.12, 100, 400 nM. Panel (d), fixed metal Ag, free-ion concentrations 18, 150, 210 nM.

- Figure 9. WHAM- $F_{\text{TOX}}$  fits of the data of Mebane et al. [25] for Zn, Cd and Pb toxicity to trout species.
- Figure 10. Variation of toxic response by trout species towards Cd, at low (open symbols, solid lines) and high (filled symbols, dashed lines) concentrations of Zn. The fits refer to the entire Mebane et al. [25] datasets. For cutthroat trout, the high Zn concentration ranged from 49 to 905  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>, for rainbow trout it was 83.5  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>. Concentrations of Pb were at or near the limits of detection in all cases.
- 571















650 Figure 5.







692 Figure 8.



