Title

Broad-scale mercury bioaccumulation patterns in two freshwater sport fishes: testing the

role of growth dilution in a warming climate

Authors

Shyam M. Thomas[1], Stephanie J. Melles[1], Satyendra P. Bhavsar[1,2]

[1]Department of Chemistry & Biology, Ryerson University, Toronto

[2]Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change, Toronto

Word count

Main text (excluing abstract): 7352

Abstract: 290

Tables: 3

Figures: 5

Abstract

Sport fishes at the apex of aquatic food webs are indicators of mercury in the environment.

However bioaccumulation of mercury in fish is a complex process that varies in space and time.

Both large-scale climatic and environmental, as well as biological factors are drivers of these

space-time variations. In this study, we avail a long-running monitoring program from Ontario,

Canada to better understand spatiotemporal variations in fish mercury bioaccumulation.

Focussing on two common large-bodied fishes (Walleye and Northern Pike), the data were first

stratified by latitudinal zone (north, mid, and south) and eight temporal periods (between 1975 &

2015). A series of linear mixed-effects models (LMEMs) with latitudinal zone, time period, and

their interactions as random effects were used to capture the spatial, temporal, and

spatiotemporal variations in mercury bioaccumulation. The random slopes from the best-fitting

LMEM were used to define bioaccumulation index and capture trends in space and time. Given

the generally warming climate trend over the past 45 years, the role of growth dilution in

modulating the bioaccumulation trends was also evaluated. The full model comprising of space,

time and space-time interactions was the best-fit with interaction effects explaining most of the

variation. Spatiotemporal trends showed overall similar patterns for both species. Growth

dilution in conjunction with estimated rates of warming for different latitudinal zones failed to

explain the spatiotemporal trends. Temporal trends showed contrasting bioaccumulation patterns

- increasing in Northern Pike and decreasing in Walleye, suggesting temperature-driven growth

dilution is more likely in latter. However, a space-for-time substitution revealed only a weak

presence of growth dilution in Walleye, and it was not attributable to temperature differences.

Overall, our study summarizes broad-scale variations in fish mercury and explores the role of

growth dilution in shaping the observed patterns.

Keywords

fish growth rates, mixed-effects models, Northern Pike, Ontario, spatiotemporal trends,

temperature effects, Walleye

1   **Introduction**

Mercury pollution captured global attention during the tragic Minamata poisoning, which

highlighted the fatal neurotoxic effects of consuming mercury tainted fish. Despite concerted

global efforts to reduce mercury emissions, mercury as an anthropogenic pollutant remains a

matter of grave concern, since in elemental form mercury is highly mobile, and often ends up in

aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems far from the emission source (Driscoll et al 2013). In aquatic

ecosystems the impact of mercury pollution is mostly associated with organic methylmercury

(MeHg). MeHg is all the more detrimental as it can biomagnify and bioaccumulate such that

older large-sized fishes at the apex of aquatic food chain have disproportionately higher amounts

of mercury (Driscoll et al 2013). In short, large-bodied (sport) fishes at the top of food chains are

good indicators of mercury levels, and when consumed by humans can adversely affect human

health.

Both the United States and Canada have established monitoring programs at state and provincial

levels to study fish mercury dynamics. Analyses of these large-scale databases typically show a

declining trend in fish mercury levels between 1970 and 2000 (Chalmers et al. 2011; Monson et

al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). However, there is substantial geographic variation in these long-

term trends (Kamman et al. 2005; Chalmers et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). Most importantly,

many regions are experiencing increasing mercury levels in several key sport fishes in recent

years, and this may have severe implications for human health if the trend continues (e.g.,

Gandhi et al. 2014, Gandhi et al. 2015). Climate change, particularly the rapidly warming

climatic conditions experienced by lakes in temperate regions is thought to be one of the likely

reasons for the recent surge in mercury levels (e.g., Gandhi et al. 2014, Chen et al. 2018).

Warming climate can affect fish mercury levels via several processes operating at different

scales, which are poorly understood to date. At the lake and watershed level, warming conditions

are known to increase net methylation rates, and thus increase the overall amount of bioavailable

methylmercury in a lake (Canário et al. 2007; Stern et al. 2011). Warmer temperatures affects

mercury levels at the community level too, by altering trophic position, food-chain length, and

productivity (Kidd et al. 2012; Lavoie et al. 2013). However, these impacts are highly variable

and are contingent on the species of fish and species composition (Stern et al. 2011). Ecosystem

and community level effects together determine the amount of bioavailable MeHg, which sets

the exposure baseline.

The amount of mercury in a fish is eventually determined by consumption of mercury

contaminated food at the individual level, and the final amount retained is a complex function of

growth, consumption, and metabolism. Fish with better growth efficiency (i.e., ratio of

consumption rate to growth rate) tend to accumulate less mercury, while increased metabolism

may demand higher rates of consumption thus increasing accumulation of mercury (Ward et al.

2011; Dijkstra et al 2013). Fast growing fish with greater growth efficiency are hypothesized to

accumulate less mercury since the net amount of biomass added is much greater for every unit of

mercury gained, and this is referred to as growth dilution (GD). Studies also suggest that GD is

most likely in situations where fast growth rate is accompanied with low metabolic costs or high

quality food (low in mercury contamination) (Karimi et al. 2007; Ward et al. 2010; Dijkstra et al

2013). Rising temperatures are expected to boost fish growth rates and resultant GD as long as

metabolic costs remain below species threshold levels, and these processes could potentially

reduce overall fish mercury levels. However, warmer temperatures may also increase metabolic

costs thus potentially offsetting any reduction in fish mercury levels achieved via increased

growth rates. As mentioned earlier, warmer temperatures can increase the amount of MeHg

through enhanced microbial activity or increase in food-chain length, which eventually can affect

fish mercury levels. Put together, rising temperature can impact fish mercury levels in a complex

manner. Not surprisingly, few studies have explored the role of warming climate on fish

mercury levels (Dijkstra et al 2013). Moreover, studies that have found evidence of GD as a key

modulating mechanism of mercury levels are either experimental studies or based on

observations from few lakes without any consideration of large-scale climatic factors. This

particular paucity of studies on growth dilution in the context of warming climate is not

surprising, since large-scale databases with fish age information are scarce.

Mercury bioaccumulation also implies mercury concentration in fish varies strongly with fish

size and age (Gewurtz et al. 2011a,b). Understandably, ecological studies on fish mercury are

usually based on a standard fish size or age class defined around the sample median (Kamman et

al. 2005; Gewurtz et al. 2011a). Similarly, studies describing historical and contemporary trends

in fish mercury levels from monitoring data are also usually based on variations within similar

standardized size classes (Chalmers et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). This practice of using

standardized size or age classes in fish mercury studies is performed to account for the influence

of exposure time and thereby to minimize variability in mercury concentrations. However, this

approach can potentially lead to substantial information loss as variations outside the standard

size classes are ignored, which can result in ambiguous estimates of fish mercury trends.

In this study, we first develop a bioaccumulation index based on full range of variation in fish

size and mercury levels for two common freshwater sport fishes. To do so, we make use

measurements from Ontario's long running monitoring program with data spanning 15

latitudinal degrees and 45 years. The bioaccumulation index is then used to characterize the

large-scale mercury bioaccumulation trends in space and time. We further explore the

summarized spatiotemporal trends in mercury bioaccumulation by explicitly considering GD

effects within a climate change context. In the second part of our study, we take advantage of

another Ontario-wide monitoring dataset of comparable spatial scope that includes fish age

information. Using the age information and a space-for-time latitudinal substitution approach, we

test the role of growth dilution in explaining the observed species-specific temporal trends in

mercury bioaccumulation.

Methods

Fish Mercury Data: We used one of the largest known fish monitoring databases compiled by

the Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change (OMOECC) that tracks pollutant

loads in several key sport fishes. The Ontario-wide monitoring program began in 1970, i.e. a

temporal scope of more than 45 years (1970 onwards) and covers a broad climatic range with a

latitudinal breadth of nearly 15 degrees (41.5° to 56.5°). Each data record provides fish species

identity, length, body mass, sex and amount of mercury alongside information on lake or

waterbody identity/name, and geo-coordinates of the location where the fish was sampled. With

multiple fish samples often taken at a given time and location and a total of 126,652 records, the

database provides a comprehensive picture of fish mercury levels and several key fish-level

attributes.

Data Selection & Focal Species: In order to develop a bioaccumulation index that captures

variation in mercury levels across a broad range of climatic conditions, we chose species with the

most widespread distribution across Ontario. Walleye (*Sander vitreus*) and Northern Pike (*Esox*

lucius) were the best candidate species in this respect; with their broad nearly identical

distribution patterns that span most of Ontario (Figure 1a &b). Walleye is a native cool-water

predatory fish that is common in most lakes of Canada and northern United States. Walleye, like

many shoaling fishes, prefers large open waters, and its large eyes enable it to hunt effectively in

low light conditions, particularly at dusk and at night (Swenson 1977). Northern Pike is an

equally common cool-water predatory fish with a broad pan-artic distribution that includes

Europe, Russia, Canada and northern United States. Unlike Walleye, Northern Pike is a large

ambush predator that prefers to hunt during the day and like most ambush predators they need

cover in the form of dense vegetation or submerged logs (Casselman and Lewis 1996). Also

notable is the difference in body size with Walleye typically being smaller in size than Northern

Pike. In Ontario, Northern Pike are known to attain an average size of 45-75 cm, whereas

Walleye typically range between 35-58 cm. Walleye and Northern Pike are consumers at the top

of aquatic food-chains that co-occur in several lakes and freshwater bodies in Ontario, however

their ecology, feeding habits and growth differ substantially, making this pair of sport fishes

particularly interesting to detect species-specific differences in mercury bioaccumulation. In a

final data selection process, fish samples collected during the first 5 years (i.e. 1970-1974) were

not included as they were selectively collected from locations within close proximity to known

sources of mercury pollution, and hence had disproportionately higher mercury levels. In

summary, records between 1975 and 2015 of Walleye and Northern Pike were analyzed to

develop the bioaccumulation index.

Mercury Data Analyses: To capture large-scale spatiotemporal patterns, data of each species

were divided into 8 temporal periods (1975-79,1980-84, 1985-90, 1990-94, 1995-99, 2000-04,

2005-09, 2010-15) and 3 latitudinal zones (south: 40°N – 46°N, mid: 46°N – 50°N, and north:

>50°N). The temporal categories are essentially 5-year periods, except for the '2010-15' period,

while each latitudinal zone has a range of 5 latitudinal degrees. We analyzed fish mercury-body

size relationships based on all possible combinations spatial and temporal categories, thus

effectively capturing spatial, temporal, and spatiotemporal effects.

Mercury levels in fish typically follow an allometric relationship with body size (Gewurtz et al.

2011):

$$Y = aX^b$$

where Y is amount of mercury $(\mu g/g)$ and X is fish body length (cm). When log-transformed,

the allometric relationship takes the form of a linear model:

$$\log(Y) = \log(a) + b * log(X)$$

We use this log-transformed model for all analyses. Specifically, to quantify the effect of space,

time, and space-time interactions, we make use of linear mixed-effects models (LMEM) with

latitudinal zones and temporal periods as crossed random effects (Bolker et al. 2009). All

LMEMs were fit using lme4 package (Bates et al. 2014) and further analyzed with merTools

package (Knowles and Fredrick 2016) in R. In total, four distinct LMEM's were separately fit to

Walleye and Northern Pike data in order to analyze species-specific variations in mercury

bioaccumulation. It may be noted that fish growth models are typically non-linear and they are

often analysed using more complex non-linear models such as Gompertz and von Bertalanffy

growth functions (Gamito 1998; Katsanevakis and Maravelias 2008). However, for easy

interpretation of model parameters such that they effectively capture latitudinal variation in

growth and mercury bioaccumulation, we assumed a linear relationship by log-transforming both

response and predictor variables. All model comparisons were done using Akaike Information

Criterion (AIC), where lower AIC values imply better model fit. The four models can be

summarized as shown below:

a) Spatial Effects:

19              $Y_{il} = \beta_0 + Lat_{0l} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l})\ X_i + \varepsilon_{il}$

20   b) Temporal Effects:

21              $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + Tmp_{0t} + (\beta_1 + Tmp_{1t})\ X_i + \varepsilon_{it}$

22   c) Spatial and Temporal Effects:

23              $Y_{ilt} = \beta_0 + Lat_{0l} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l})\ X_i + Tmp_{0t} + (\beta_2 + Tmp_{2t})\ X_i + \varepsilon_{ilt}$

24   d) Spatiotemporal Effects:

25              $Y_{ilt} = \beta_0 + Lat_{0l} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l})\ X_i + Tmp_{0t} + (\beta_2 + Tmp_{2t})\ X_i$

                $+ X_i Lat_{0l} * Tmp_{0t} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l})X_i * (\beta_2 + Tmp_{2t})X_i + \varepsilon_{ilt}$

where, Y_{ilt} represents mercury concentration found in fish i collected at latitudinal zone l during

time period t, and X implies fish length, which is the predictor variable. Lat and Tmp are

latitudinal zones and temporal periods, respectively, which are the random effects in the

LMEMs. The parameters inside the parenthesis together form the random slope coefficients,

which indicate the magnitude of bioaccumulation for a given latitudinal zone l, and temporal

period t. These random slope coefficients when compiled together form a *'bioaccumulation*

index' for each unique set of random factors and their combination (i.e. spatial, temporal, and

spatiotemporal effects). In summary, for each fish species the bioaccumulation index derived

from the LMEMs describes variation in mercury bioaccumulation across either latitudinal zones,

temporal periods, or a combination of latitudinal zones and temporal periods.

Climate Data: To provide an environmental context for the long-term bioaccumulation trends,

climatic conditions in Ontario were summarized for 45 years (1970-2015) using temperature,

growing degree-days and precipitation measure. Specifically stated, the reason for including

broad-scale climatic trends was to deduce the potential role of growth dilution in modulating fish

mercury bioaccumulation. The data were sourced from Environment Canada's historical climate

data website (http://climate.weather.gc.ca/index_e.html). The website provides climate

information for each station at daily, monthly, and annual intervals. As with spatiotemporal

trends of bioaccumulation, climate trends were captured across 5-year periods for each of the

three latitudinal zones. There were a total of 9 temporal periods with the earliest being 1970-75

and ending at 2010-15. Within each latitudinal zone, stations with complete climate data were

used to characterize the climate trends. However for many stations complete climate data

spanning the entire 45-year period were not available, which resulted in the selection of very few

compatible stations. Thus, three weather stations each were selected for south (Trenton, Ottawa

and Glasgow) and mid (Chalk, Sudbury and Kenora) latitudinal zones, while for north only two

weather stations were available (Sioux and Moosonee). In summary, average daily temperature

and precipitation were estimated for each 5 year period and latitudinal zones, while number of

growing degree days were estimated as the cumulative number of days when average daily

temperature was above 5 ℃.

Role of growth dilution: The long-term (40 years) nature of fish mercury data implies both

spatiotemporal and temporal trends in mercury bioaccumulation are likely to be influenced by

changing climatic conditions, particularly given the increasing temperature conditions. To

deduce this, we first explored LMEM-derived bioaccumulation indices to see if the rate of

change in temperature and growing-degree days for the three different latitudinal zones explain

observed spatiotemporal bioaccumulation trends in Walleye and Northern Pike. We

hypothesized that warmer temperatures are likely to increase fish growth rates resulting in

increased growth dilution and eventually leading to overall decreases in bio-accumulated

mercury levels. Thus, if growth dilution due to temperature driven variation in fish growth rates

is the primary mechanism, then latitudinal zones experiencing the greatest rate of increase in

temperature conditions are likely to show the sharpest decline in mercury levels compared to

latitudinal zones experiencing relatively modest rates of increase. Unlike spatiotemporal trends

in mercury bioaccumulation, temporal trends without any spatial variation capture mercury

bioaccumulation pattern during the 40-year warming period. We further examined whether the

observed temporal bioaccumulation trends in Walleye and Northern Pike were explained by

growth dilution in a warming climate. Specifically, we hypothesized that if growth dilution is

due to temperature dependent variation in growth rates, then species that show increase in

growth rate with temperature will show a decreasing trend in mercury bioaccumulation with

increasing temperature conditions as warmer temperatures are expected to strengthen growth

dilution. On the other hand, species that show decrease in growth rate with temperature will yield

an increasing bioaccumulation trend with increasing temperature as warmer conditions are now

expected to weaken the effect of growth dilution. In order to detect this species-specific

difference in growth dilution, estimation of growth rate based on fish age is necessary. To this

end, we made use of another database with age information – the broad-scale monitoring (BsM)

database. The BsM program was developed largely to standardize data collection and manage

fisheries at broad-scales for the entire Province of Ontario by sampling a representative number

of lakes every 5 years. The first such sampling cycle covered the years 2008-2012, which we

avail to estimate growth rates of Walleye and Northern Pike.

Next we used a space-for-time substitution approach, wherein BsM data covering Ontario were

first used to capture latitudinal variation in both growth rates and mean mercury levels. The

latitudinal variation captured the underlying difference in growth dilution due to varying

temperature conditions, since latitude and temperature show strong inverse correlation.

Specifically stated, the broad latitudinal coverage of BsM data spans temperature conditions that

range from warm southern lakes to cold northern lakes, and this apparent temperature gradient

serves as a template to test the role of variation in growth dilution, which can then be substituted

for time to explain temporal trends (see Figure 2 for details). We chose a space-for-time

substitution approach over a more direct estimate of temporal variation in growth rate because

latitudinal gradient captures temperature differences more substantively and consistently than a

temporal sequence of years, thus providing a stronger basis to test the role of temperature-driven

variation in fish growth rates. Latitudinal variation in growth rates were estimated using linear

mixed-effects models (LMEMs) with latitudes as random effects, such that the random slopes are

latitude-specific estimates of growth rate. In summary, the additional LMEM's were fitted to

Walleye and Northern Pike data to capture their growth rate.

$$Mass_{il} = \beta_0 + Lat_{0l} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l})\, Age_i + \varepsilon_{il} \qquad \textit{(Growth rate)}$$

where, $Mass_{il}$ represents body mass of fish, i collected at latitude, l, Age (fish age) is the

predictor variable in the growth model, and Lat represents all unique latitudes as random effects.

Finally, presence of growth dilution was tested by running a correlation analysis between the

latitude-specific estimates of mean mercury levels and growth rates. A negative slope indicates

presence of growth dilution, while the correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) states how well

growth rates explained the variation in mercury levels.

It may be noted that unlike in the analyses of mercury bioaccumulation where fish length was

used to capture trends in space and time, fish mass is used here in the analysis of growth dilution.

We maintain this distinction for three reasons: 1) mercury levels in fish are typically reported

using fish length as the primary covariate and most studies on mercury bioaccumulation trends

are based on standard fish length, 2) growth rates are sensitive to fish length as a predictor,

especially when comparing growth rates and consequent growth dilution between fish species

(i.e., Walleye & Northern Pike) with distinct body forms (Tom Johnston *personal*

communication), and 3) fish length and mass are highly correlated with $R^2 > 0.9$ for both species

(Supplementary Figure S1), thus effectively allowing either to be used as a proxy for the other

Results

The long-term monitoring program spanning 40 years (1975-2015) resulted in 49,690 Walleye

samples and 32,636 Northern Pike samples. Among the four models of mercury

bioaccumulation, the full model that combined spatial, temporal, and spatiotemporal interactions

was the best fit with lowest AIC values for both Walleye and Northern Pike (Table 1a &b).

Models of spatial effects and temporal effects alone had poor fits and high AIC values, whereas

the model with spatial and temporal effects together had a better fit with lower AIC values.

Within the best-fitting full model, much of the large-scale variation in mercury levels was

captured by the random grouping factor representing space-time interaction effects. This is

evident from the substantially larger intra-cluster correlation coefficient (ICC) estimates of 0.735

and 0.672 for Walleye and Northern Pike, respectively (*i.e.* $ICC_{LatZones:Period}$ inTable 1a &b). In

mixed effects models where data are typically divided into different clusters or groups, ICC

describes the amount of variance explained by a grouping factor relative to the total variance

explained by all grouping factors involved and amount of residual within-group variance.

Analysis of fish mercury in the context of climate: Estimates of random slopes from the full

model, indicating the magnitude of bioaccumulation (i.e. bioaccumulation index in Tables 3a -

c), showed distinct spatiotemporal patterns that were consistent for both Walleye and Northern

Pike (Figures 3a & b). In Walleye, the south latitudinal zone showed strong decline in

bioaccumulation with time (β = -0.026; R^2 = 0.81), whereas the mid zone showed a relatively

weak positive trend (β = 0.0083; R^2 = 0.35) and the north latitude showed a very weak positive

trend (β = 0.0045; R^2 = 0.05). For Northern Pike, bioaccumulation increased strongly with time

in north latitudes (β = 0.033; R^2 = 0.74), while mid latitudes showed a subtle increase (β =

0.0056; R^2 = 0.18) and south latitudes showed a general decline with time (β = -0.008; R^2 =

0.19). Overall, both species seem to be bioaccumulating mercury at an increasing rate in the

relatively colder latitudinal zones of mid and north, while in the warmer southern latitudes rate of

bioaccumulation seems to be decreasing. Unlike spatiotemporal trends that appear similar overall

for both Walleye and Northern Pike, a purely temporal perspective (i.e. time as the only random

factor) highlights an interesting dissimilarity with contrasting trends in bioaccumulation:

Walleye bioaccumulation trends declined over time, whereas Northern Pike showed a strong

increase (Figure 3c). Unlike the bioaccumulation trends, climate variables showed an overall

increasing trend (Figure 3d – f), and this was particularly consistent in the case of average daily

temperature (β = 0.044; R^2 = 0.96) and growing degree-days (β =6.3; R^2 = 0.83). As expected,

the overall average (i.e. the intercept) of annual mean temperatures and growing degree-days

decreased with increase in latitude. However, it is worth noting that the rate of increase (i.e. the

slope) was greatest in northern latitudes (β_{temp} = 0.06; β_{gdd} = 7.3) followed by mid (β_{temp} = 0.04;

β_{gdd} = 5.9) and southern latitudes (β_{temp} = 0.034; β_{gdd} = 5.6), thus suggesting that northern

latitudes are warming at a faster rate than southern latitudes. Average daily precipitation, like

temperature and growing degree-days, showed a generally increasing trend with time, with

northern latitudes recording highest rates of increase. However, there was substantial variation

during the 45-year time period as evident from the generally lower R^2 values of precipitation

compared to those of temperature and growing degree-days. Also, average daily precipitation

was on the whole greater in southern Ontario relative to mid and northern regions.

Latitudinal variation in growth rate : The BSM data overall comprised of 3159 Walleye and

1699 Northern Pike samples collected from lakes across Ontario ranging from 44.5° N to 55° N

(Figures 4a,b). LMEMs testing for latitudinal variation in growth rate with fish age as the

predictor yielded significant results for both Walleye and Northern Pike (Table 2). This is

evident from the high ICC values associated with growth rate LMEMs. Moreover, latitudinal

variation in growth rates highlighted interesting difference between the two species. Stated

specifically, the random slopes describing latitude-specific growth rates showed a negative

relationship with latitude in Walleye suggesting growth rate decreased with latitude, whereas the

mean latitudinal mercury levels showed a weak positive correlation with latitude (Figures 5a,c).

Northern Pike, on the other hand, showed a positive relationship between latitude and growth

rates as well as between latitude and mean mercury suggesting both growth rates and mercury

levels increased with latitude in Northern Pike   (Figures 5b,d).

Test of growth dilution: Correlation analysis of mean mercury against random slopes describing

growth rates showed an overall negative relationship for Walleye suggesting growth dilution

(Supplementary Figure S2-A). In sharp contrast, Northern Pike showed no evidence of growth

dilution, and instead revealed a positive relationship between mean mercury and growth rates

(Supplementary Figure S2-B). However, the correlations were not significant and correlation

coefficients were very low for both Walleye (Pearson's r = -0.06, p-value =0.33) and Northern

Pike (Pearson's r = 0.11, p-value = 0.08), which implies variation in growth rates fails to explain

variation in mercury levels in either species. In summary, the space-for-time substitution

approach revealed contrasting growth rate-temperature (i.e. latitudes) relationships between

Walleye and Northern Pike, however there is substantial variation in the estimates of both

growth rates and mean mercury levels at a given latitude (i.e. temperature), which resulted in the

poor correlations between growth rates and mercury levels.

Discussion

In our analyses of fish mercury levels using LMEMs, the best fitting model was comprised of

spatial, temporal and spatiotemporal interactions as random effects; and among these factors,

spatiotemporal interactions captured much of the variation. It is thus evident that mercury

bioaccumulation in both Walleye and Northern Pike not only varies spatially across Ontario's

freshwater lakes and waterbodies, but is also contingent on the time period. The bioaccumulation

index for both Walleye and Northern Pike exhibit fairly complex spatiotemporal patterns across

the 40-year time period and three latitudinal zones. There were interesting similarities such as

both species showed overall increasing bioaccumulation trends for north and mid latitudes,

whereas south latitudes revealed a decreasing trend. There was also substantial variation among

the 5–year time periods, as evidenced by the low R-square values for most latitudinal zones,

except for Northern Pike in the north and Walleye in the south (Figure 3a,b). Such temporal

variations in fish mercury levels have previously been reported from long-term studies

(Chalmers et al. 2011; Monson et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). However, unlike these previous

studies, which generally show a declining trend in both north and south latitudes, our findings

showed increasing trends in north latitudes, as was the case for Northern Pike, and in mid

latitudes, as was the case with Walleye. The reason for this difference in fish mercury trends is

perhaps because our definition of bioaccumulation index differs substantially from previous

studies that typically measure the rate of change in mercury levels over time. Our measure

provides an estimate of the magnitude of bioaccumulation given both latitudinal variability in

lake location and temporal variability. Moreover, in our analyses bioaccumulation index is based

on the full range of fish size to mercury concentration covariation. Interestingly, like several

other long-term studies (Monson et al. 2011; Sadraddini et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014;

Blucacks-Richards et al. 2017), our results also show an increase in our mercury

bioaccumulation index in north and mid latitudinal zones for the most recent time periods

(Figure 3a,b). And this recent increase in fish mercury levels is speculated to be climate change

induced (Gandhi et al. 2014). However, as we shall soon discuss, a comprehensive picture of

bioaccumulation trends in the context of climate change, suggests complex dynamics that are not

easy to generalize.

From a climate change perspective, temperature and growing degree-days showed consistently

increasing trends across all latitudinal zones over the 45-year period, while in comparison,

mercury bioaccumulation trends surprisingly varied substantially among the latitudinal zones for

both Walleye and Northern pike. We hypothesized that the magnitude of growth dilution would

be positively correlated with rate of warming, such that latitudinal zones with the highest rates of

warming (i.e., the north) would relate to the greatest decrease in fish mercury bioaccumulation.

Only Walleye, showed clear evidence of a decreasing trend in mercury bioaccumulation, and this

was restricted to the southern latitudinal zone, where relatively slower rates of warming were

recorded. It may also be noted that estimated rates of warming did not vary significantly among

the three latitudinal zones - though this is perhaps a result of the limited availability of long-term

weather data in mid and north latitudinal zones. The implication of nearly similar rates of rising

temperature, however, is that temperature driven growth dilution (if present) should be consistent

across latitudinal zones, and therefore it is surprising that the latitudinal trends in mercury

bioaccumulation do not show the same general pattern. This lack of a general pattern suggests

that confounding ecological factors, such as methylation, may play a role. Specifically stated,

methylation rates may have increased lately, especially in northern latitudes, since methylation in

cold northern latitudes is known to occur during the ice-free season when the soil and ground are

not frozen (Stanley et al. 2002; Stern et al. 2012), and northern latitudes are experiencing a more

prolonged ice-free season compared to southern latitudes as a consequence of warming climate

(Schindler et al. 1990; Dugay et al. 2006). Thus the observed increasing trends in fish mercury

levels in the relatively colder north and mid latitudes is possibly due to increasing methylation

rates in higher latitudes.

Besides temperature, precipitation is known to affect amount of methylmercury in lakes and

waterbodies via surface run-off from surrounding catchment areas (Rudd 1995). Precipitation in

Ontario showed a clear increasing trend in time for all three latitudinal zones with northern

latitudes showing the greatest rate of increase in time. Such increased precipitation, especially

brief intense periods of rainfall can result in enhanced methylmercury levels in lakes (Matilainen

et al. 2001; Balogh et al. 2006). Thus, when one considers combined effects of both longer ice-

free season and increased precipitation, it is quite apparent that lakes and waterbodies in northern

latitudes are likely to end up with greater amounts of methylmercury and consequently higher

fish mercury levels over time. In short, the observed latitudinal bioaccumulation trends are due to

a complex set of factors that go beyond growth dilution alone.

Unlike spatiotemporal trends of mercury bioaccumulation, the temporal trends estimated using

time period as the only random effect showed contrasting species-specific patterns. Northern

Pike had consistently increasing trends while Walleye showed a generally declining trend

(Figure 3c). It was hypothesized that the contrasting patterns in mercury bioaccumulation over

time is driven by differential response of growth dilution to warming temperature, which in turn

is driven by temperature-induced variation in growth rate. But the space-for-time substitution

analysis (Figure 2) based on growth rate and mean mercury estimates across a latitudinal

gradient failed to show significant evidence of temperature-induced difference in growth dilution

(Supplementary figure 2). In short, the contrasting bioaccumulation temporal trends in Walleye

and Northern Pike are not definitively due to differential response of growth dilution to warming

temperature. Evidence for growth dilution from observational studies vary a lot (Karimi et al.

2010), and among the few studies that have reported growth dilution in both Walleye and

Northern Pike (Simoneau et al. 2005; Lavigne et al. 2010), growth dilution was inferred from age

and mercury estimates of standardized fish lengths. Thus, our results are perhaps partly due to

the inclusion of the entire range of body size variation, which adds more variability to the growth

rate-mercury covariation compared to standardized fish lengths. Nonetheless, the latitudinal

variation in growth rates and mercury levels showed interesting results, which deserve further

discussion.

Walleye showed a negative latitudinal growth rate and positive latitudinal correlation with

bioaccumulation suggesting growth rates are likely to increase while bioaccumulation decreases

with increasing temperature. Previous studies have similarly shown a negative relationship

between latitude and growth rates in walleye (Quist et al. 2003; Lavigne et al. 2010). In sharp

contrast, for Northern Pike, both growth rate and mean mercury levels showed weak positive

correlation with latitude, which suggests that for Northern Pike both growth rate and mercury

bioaccumulation are likely to increase with decreasing ambient temperature. Our findings differ

from a previous broad-scale analysis of Northern Pike data, where rate of growth was negatively

correlated with latitude (Rypel 2012). Moreover, Rypel's study also reports the presence of a

strong counter gradient in growth variation (i.e. potential to adapt growth rate in response to

variation in growing period length) when length-at-age was normalized by growing degree-days,

suggesting growth in circumpolar fish like Northern Pike is highly variable, and growth rates can

potentially increase at higher latitudes to make up for the reduced growing season.

Latitudinal trends in growth rate and mercury levels, however, do not convey the full picture as

both Walleye and Northern Pike showed substantial variation in growth rate and mercury levels

for any given latitude. This is evident from the low correlation coefficients associated with

latitudinal variation in growth rate and mercury levels, suggesting local factors operating at the

lake-level have a stronger influence compared to latitude-specific temperature conditions. In a

previous study by Simoneau et al. (2005), Walleye populations from different lakes showed

evidence of growth dilution, however this was largely driven by lake-specific variation in growth

rates. Similarly, a study on mercury contamination in Northern Pike from 19 Boreal lakes

showed a high degree of inter-lake variation that was due to lake-specific variations in water

chemistry, prey mercury contamination, and landscape-level disturbances in surrounding

catchment areas (Garcia and Carignan 2000). In light of these findings, it is perhaps not

surprising that strong latitudinal variation in growth rates and mean mercury levels translates into

very weak temperature-driven growth dilution effects. This is evident in Walleye, where the

space-for-time substitution results suggested that growth rates can potentially increase with

temperature, and mercury levels tend to decrease with temperature. These opposing patterns do

not translate into a consistent growth dilution effect with warming temperatures due to the

presence of a high degree of latitudinal variation in both growth rates and mercury levels in

Walleye, thus resulting in the observed weak growth dilution.

Unlike Walleye, Northern Pike showed the opposite of growth dilution with an overall slightly

positive correlation between growth rates and mercury levels (Supplementary Figure S2). The

weak presence of growth dilution in Walleye (suggestive negative trend) compared to a

marginally significant positive trend in Northern Pike is worth noting as it suggests growth

magnification may play a modulatory role in Northern Pike's mercury levels. It is not entirely

clear how increase in growth rate results in higher mercury levels in Northern Pike, but it is

possible that consumption of highly contaminated food can result in the disproportional addition

of mercury relative to biomass. Differences in feeding habits, habitats, and predatory behavior might explain some of the observed difference between Walleye and Northern Pike growth rate-mercury correlation. These differences in feeding ecology might also explain the observed contrasting mercury bioaccumulation trends in time between Walleye and Northern Pike. Studies have reported such disparity between Walleye and Northern Pike in mercury loads as a result of dissimilarities in the feeding habits of these two co-occurring fishes (Mathers et al 1985; Wren et al.1991).

Our study demonstrates how a simple bioaccumulation index derived from mixed-effects models can capture broad-scale patterns of fish mercury bioaccumulation. The index reveals the complex nature of mercury bioaccumulation when both spatial and temporal variations are combined (i.e. spatiotemporal trend) relative to the purely temporal trend. Furthermore, the science and application of ecological indicators now increasingly point to limitations in capturing the complexity of environmental systems and ecosystem responses to various anthropogenic stressors using a single indicator species (Carignan and Villard 2002; Siddig et al. 2016). Hence, it is particularly interesting that the temporal trends captured by the bioaccumulation index highlights strong differences between two co-occurring indicator species in mercury bioaccumulation. And finally, studies on fish mercury bioaccumulation have often stressed growth dilution as a key modulatory mechanism, however the potential of growth dilution to affect large-scale fish mercury dynamics has not been explicitly tested so far. In this respect, our study also shows for the first time that temperature-driven growth dilution has very weak modulatory effect on broad-scale mercury bioaccumulation patterns. From a climate change perspective, this implies change in fish mercury levels as consequence of warming climate is a complex process that goes beyond temperature-driven growth dilution effect.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Tom Johnston, Rob Mackereth, Cindy Chu, Bailey McMeans, and Claire Oswald for feedback during the early stages of the project.

References

Balogh, S.J., Swain, E.B. and Nollet, Y.H., 2006. Elevated methylmercury concentrations and

loadings during flooding in Minnesota rivers. Science of the Total Environment, 368(1), pp.138-

148.

Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B. and Walker, S., 2014. lme4: Linear mixed-effects models

using Eigen and S4. R package version, 1(7), pp.1-23.

Blukacz-Richards, E.A., Visha, A., Graham, M.L., McGoldrick, D.L., de Solla, S.R., Moore, D.J.

and Arhonditsis, G.B., 2017. Mercury levels in herring gulls and fish: 42 years of spatio-

temporal trends in the Great Lakes. Chemosphere, 172, pp.476-487.

Bolker, B.M., Brooks, M.E., Clark, C.J., Geange, S.W., Poulsen, J.R., Stevens, M.H.H. and

White, J.S.S., 2009. Generalized linear mixed models: a practical guide for ecology and

evolution. *Trends in ecology & evolution*, *24*(3), pp.127-135.

Canário, J., Branco, V. and Vale, C., 2007. Seasonal variation of monomethylmercury

concentrations in surface sediments of the Tagus Estuary (Portugal). Environmental Pollution,

148(1), pp.380-383.

Carignan, V. and Villard, M.A., 2002. Selecting indicator species to monitor ecological integrity:

a review. Environmental monitoring and assessment, 78(1), pp.45-61.

Casselman, J.M. and Lewis, C.A., 1996. Habitat requirements of northern pike (Essox

lucius). *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, *53*(S1), pp.161-174

Chalmers, A.T., Argue, D.M., Gay, D.A., Brigham, M.E., Schmitt, C.J. and Lorenz, D.L., 2011.

Mercury trends in fish from rivers and lakes in the United States, 1969–2005. Environmental

monitoring and assessment, 175(1), pp.175-191.

Dijkstra, J.A., Buckman, K.L., Ward, D., Evans, D.W., Dionne, M. and Chen, C.Y., 2013.

Experimental and natural warming elevates mercury concentrations in estuarine fish. PloS one,

8(3), p.e58401.

Driscoll, C.T., Mason, R.P., Chan, H.M., Jacob, D.J. and Pirrone, N., 2013. Mercury as a global

pollutant: sources, pathways, and effects. Environmental science & technology, 47(10), pp.4967-

4983.

Duguay, C.R., Prowse, T.D., Bonsal, B.R., Brown, R.D., Lacroix, M.P. and Ménard, P., 2006.

Recent trends in Canadian lake ice cover. Hydrological Processes, 20(4), pp.781-801.

Gewurtz, S.B., Backus, S.M., Bhavsar, S.P., McGoldrick, D.J., de Solla, S.R., Murphy, E.W.,

2011a. Contaminant biomonitoring programs in the Great Lakes region: Review of approaches

and critical factors. Environmental Reviews 19, 162-184.

Gewurtz, S.B., Bhavsar, S.P. and Fletcher, R., 2011b. Influence of fish size and sex on

mercury/PCB concentration: importance for fish consumption advisories. Environment

international, 37(2), pp.425-434.

Gamito, S., 1998. Growth models and their use in ecological modelling: an application to a fish

population. *Ecological Modelling*, *113*(1), pp.83-94.

Gandhi, N., Tang, R.W., Bhavsar, S.P. and Arhonditsis, G.B., 2014. Fish mercury levels appear

to be increasing lately: a report from 40 years of monitoring in the province of Ontario, Canada.

Environmental science & technology, 48(10), pp.5404-5414.

Garcia, E. and Carignan, R., 2000. Mercury concentrations in northern pike (Esox lucius) from

boreal lakes with logged, burned, or undisturbed catchments. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and

Aquatic Sciences, 57(S2), pp.129-135.

Kamman, N.C., Burgess, N.M., Driscoll, C.T., Simonin, H.A., Goodale, W., Linehan, J.,

Estabrook, R., Hutcheson, M., Major, A., Scheuhammer, A.M. and Scruton, D.A., 2005.

Mercury in freshwater fish of northeast North America–a geographic perspective based on fish

tissue monitoring databases. Ecotoxicology, 14(1-2), pp.163-180.

Karimi, R., Chen, C.Y., Pickhardt, P.C., Fisher, N.S. and Folt, C.L., 2007. Stoichiometric

controls of mercury dilution by growth. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences,

104(18), pp.7477-7482.

Katsanevakis, S. and Maravelias, C.D., 2008. Modelling fish growth: multi-model inference as a

better alternative to a priori using von Bertalanffy equation. *Fish and Fisheries*, *9*(2), pp.178-

187.

Kidd, K.A., Muir, D.C., Evans, M.S., Wang, X., Whittle, M., Swanson, H.K., Johnston, T. and

Guildford, S., 2012. Biomagnification of mercury through lake trout (Salvelinus namaycush)

food webs of lakes with different physical, chemical and biological characteristics. Science of

the Total Environment, 438, pp.135-143.

Knowles, J. and Frederick, C., 2015. merTools: tools for analyzing mixed effect regression

models. R package version 0.1. 0.

Lavigne, M., Lucotte, M. and Paquet, S., 2010. Relationship between mercury concentration and

growth rates for walleyes, northern pike, and lake trout from Quebec lakes. North American

Journal of Fisheries Management, 30(5), pp.1221-1237.

Lavoie, R.A., Jardine, T.D., Chumchal, M.M., Kidd, K.A. and Campbell, L.M., 2013.

Biomagnification of mercury in aquatic food webs: a worldwide meta-analysis. Environmental

science & technology, 47(23), pp.13385-13394.

Mathers, R.A. and Johansen, P.H., 1985. The effects of feeding ecology on mercury

accumulation in walleye (Stizostedion vitreum) and pike (Esox lucius) in Lake Simcoe.

Canadian Journal of Zoology, 63(9), pp.2006-2012.

Matilainen, T., Verta, M., Korhonen, H., Uusi-Rauva, A. and Niemi, M., 2001. Behavior of

mercury in soil profiles: impact of increased precipitation, acidity, and fertilization on mercury

methylation. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution, 125(1), pp.105-120.

Monson, B.A., Staples, D.F., Bhavsar, S.P., Holsen, T.M., Schrank, C.S., Moses, S.K.,

McGoldrick, D.J., Backus, S.M. and Williams, K.A., 2011. Spatiotemporal trends of mercury in

walleye and largemouth bass from the Laurentian Great Lakes region. Ecotoxicology, 20(7),

pp.1555-1567.

Pacyna, E.G., Pacyna, J.M., Sundseth, K., Munthe, J., Kindbom, K., Wilson, S., Steenhuisen, F.

and Maxson, P., 2010. Global emission of mercury to the atmosphere from anthropogenic

sources in 2005 and projections to 2020. Atmospheric Environment, 44(20), pp.2487-2499.

Quist, M.C., Guy, C.S., Schultz, R.D. and Stephen, J.L., 2003. Latitudinal comparisons of walleye growth in North America and factors influencing growth of walleyes in Kansas reservoirs. North American Journal of Fisheries Management, 23(3), pp.677-692.

Rudd, J.W., 1995. Sources of methyl mercury to freshwater ecosystems: A review. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution, 80(1), pp.697-713.

Rypel, A.L., 2012. Meta-analysis of growth rates for a circumpolar fish, the Northern Pike (Esox lucius), with emphasis on effects of continent, climate and latitude. Ecology of Freshwater Fish, 21(4), pp.521-532.

Sadraddini, S., Azim, M.E., Shimoda, Y., Mahmood, M., Bhavsar, S.P., Backus, S.M. and Arhonditsis, G.B., 2011. Temporal PCB and mercury trends in Lake Erie fish communities: a dynamic linear modeling analysis. Ecotoxicology and environmental safety, 74(8), pp.2203-2214.

Schindler, D.W., Beaty, K.G., Fee, E.J., Cruikshank, D.R., DeBruyn, E.R., Findlay, D.L., Linsey, G.A., Shearer, J.A., Stainton, M.P. and Turner, M.A., 1990. Effects of climatic warming on lakes of the central boreal forest. Science, 250(4983), pp.967-970.

Siddig, A.A., Ellison, A.M., Ochs, A., Villar-Leeman, C. and Lau, M.K., 2016. How do ecologists select and use indicator species to monitor ecological change? Insights from 14 years of publication in Ecological Indicators. Ecological Indicators, 60, pp.223-230.

Simoneau, M., Lucotte, M., Garceau, S. and Laliberté, D., 2005. Fish growth rates modulate mercury concentrations in walleye (Sander vitreus) from eastern Canadian lakes. Environmental Research, 98(1), pp.73-82.

Stafford, C.P. and Haines, T.A., 2001. Mercury contamination and growth rate in two piscivore populations. Environmental Toxicology and chemistry, 20(9), pp.2099-2101.

Stern, G.A., Macdonald, R.W., Outridge, P.M., Wilson, S., Chetelat, J., Cole, A., Hintelmann, H., Loseto, L.L., Steffen, A., Wang, F. and Zdanowicz, C., 2012. How does climate change influence arctic mercury?. Science of the total environment, 414, pp.22-42.

Swenson, W.A., 1977. Food consumption of walleye (Stizostedion vitreum vitreum) and sauger

(S. canadense) in relation to food availability and physical conditions in Lake of the Woods,

Minnesota, Shagawa Lake, and western Lake Superior. *Journal of the Fisheries Board of*

Canada, *34*(10), pp.1643-1654.

Ward, D.M., Nislow, K.H. and Folt, C.L., 2010. Bioaccumulation syndrome: identifying factors

that make some stream food webs prone to elevated mercury bioaccumulation. Annals of the

New York Academy of Sciences, 1195(1), pp.62-83.

Wren, C.D., Scheider, W.A., Wales, D.L., Muncaster, B.W. and Gray, I.M., 1991. Relation

between mercury concentrations in walleye (Stizostedion vitreum vitreum) and northern pike

(Esox lucius) in Ontario lakes and influence of environmental factors. Canadian Journal of

Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 48(1), pp.132-139.

.

1 **Tables**

2 Table 1a. Summary statistics of the four different LMEMs used to characterize spatial, temporal,

3 and spatiotemporal effects in Walleye the data stratified into three latitudinal zones (LatZones)

4 and eight temporal periods (Period).

	Spatial			*Temporal*			*Space & Time*			*Full*		
	B	*CI*	*p*	*B*	*CI*	*p*	*B*	*CI*	*P*	*B*	*CI*	*p*
Fixed Parts												
Intercept	-6.54	-6.88 – -6.20	<.001	-6.23	-6.62 – -5.84	<.001	-6.62	-6.99 – -6.25	<.001	-6.8	-7.47 – -6.13	<.001
log(length)	1.54	1.50 – 1.59	<.001	1.44	1.32 – 1.55	<.001	1.55	1.49 – 1.62	<.001	1.6	1.45 – 1.74	<.001
Random Parts												
σ^2		0.488			0.522			0.458			0.442	
$\tau_{00,\,LatZones:Period}$		---			---			---			1.648	
$\tau_{00,\,Period}$		---			0.301			0.063			0.019	
$\tau_{00,\,LatZones}$		0.085			---			0.077			0.133	
ρ_{01}		0.604			-0.943			-0.849			-0.993	
$N_{LatZones:Period}$		---			---			---			24	
N_{Period}		---			8			8			8	
$N_{LatZones}$		3			---			3			3	
$ICC_{LatZones:Period}$		---			---			---			0.735	
ICC_{Period}		---			0.366			0.105			0.008	
$ICC_{LatZones}$		0.149						0.129			0.059	
Observations		49690			49690			49690			49690	
R^2		.316			.269			.358			.381	
AIC		105392.353			108774.404			102283.674			100658.545	

5 *Abbreviations and Symbols: σ^2 = residual (within-group) variance; τ_{00} = between-group*

6 *variance; ρ_{01} = correlation between random slope and random intercept; N = number of groups;*

7 *ICC = intra-class correlation coefficient (see Methods for more details); R^2 = r-squared value;*

8 *AIC = Akaike Information Criterion*

Table1b. Summary statistics of the four different LMEMs used to characterize spatial, temporal,

and spatiotemporal effects in Northern Pike with the data grouped into three latitudinal zones

(LatZones) and eight temporal periods (Period).

	Spatial			*Temporal*			*Space & Time*			*Full*		
	B	*CI*	*p*	*B*	*CI*	*p*	*B*	*CI*	*p*	*B*	*CI*	*p*
Fixed Parts												
Intercept	-6.45	-7.9 – -5	<.001	-7.33	-8.27 – -6.40	<.001	-7.21	-8.4 – -5.9	<.001	-7.63	-8.3 – -6.8	<.001
log(length)	1.41	1.1 – 1.7	<.001	1.61	1.40 – 1.82	<.001	1.58	1.34 – 1.82	<.001	1.68	1.5 – 1.8	<.001
Random Parts												
σ^2		0.500			0.515			0.474			0.458	
$\tau_{00, \text{LatZones:Period}}$		---			---			---			1.897	
$\tau_{00, \text{Period}}$		---			1.789			1.024			0.471	
$\tau_{00, \text{LatZones}}$		1.704			---			0.767			0.000	
ρ_{01}		-0.998			-0.996			-0.993			-0.996	
$N_{\text{LatZones:Period}}$		---			---			---			24	
N_{Period}		---			8			8			8	
N_{LatZones}		3			---			3			3	
$\text{ICC}_{\text{LatZones:Period}}$		---			---			---			0.672	
$\text{ICC}_{\text{Period}}$		---			0.776			0.452			0.167	
$\text{ICC}_{\text{LatZones}}$		0.773			---			0.339			0.000	
Observations		32636			32636			32636			32636	
R^2		.293			.272			.330			.354	
AIC		70055.664			71066.828			68379.025			67314.081	

Abbreviations and Symbols: Same as Table 1a

1 Table 2. Summary statistics of LMEMs describing latitudinal variation in growth for Walleye

2 and Northern Pike with data grouped by unique latitudes (LAT).

	Walleye			Northern Pike		
	B	**CI**	**p**	**B**	**CI**	**p**
Fixed Parts						
Intercept	4.05	3.92 – 4.18	<.001	5.44	5.36 – 5.53	<.001
Log(Fish Age)	1.34	1.27 – 1.40	<.001	1.05	1.00 – 1.09	<.001
Random Parts						
σ^2		0.092			0.087	
$\tau_{00,\ LAT}$		0.882			0.215	
ρ_{01}		-0.896			-0.771	
N_{LAT}		291			240	
ICC_{LAT}		0.906			0.713	
Observations		3159			1699	
R^2		.874			.847	

4 *Abbreviations and Symbols: σ^2 = residual (within-group) variance; τ_{00} = between-group*
5 *variance; ρ_{01} = correlation between random slope and random intercept; N_{LAT} = number of*
6 *groups (unique latitudes); ICC = intra-class correlation coefficient (see Methods for more*
7 *details); R^2 = r-squared value; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion.*

1   **Figures**

3   *Figure 1. Sampling distribution of fish mercury samples in Ontario (1975-2015) for Walleye and*

4   *Northern Pike across the defined latitudinal zones.*

Figure 2. The space-for-time latitudinal substitution. Latitudinal variation in growth rate and

mercury concentrations (left panel) can result in contrasting mercury bioaccumulation temporal

trends (right panel) via two distinct temperature-driven growth dilution effects (middle panel) as

highlighted by the hypothetical species A and B. In species A growth rate declines and mercury

levels increases in colder conditions resulting in positive temperature driven growth dilution (i.e.

growth dilution increases with increase in temperature), which when substituted in time results

in a declining temporal trend wherein past years with colder temperatures have higher mercury

levels relative to more recent times with warmer temperature conditions. On the other hand,

species B with contrasting spatial patterns yields a negative temperature driven growth dilution

(i.e. growth dilution increases with decrease in temperature), which when substituted in time

results in an increasing temporal trend.

Figure 3. Spatiotemporal trends of mercury bioaccumulation in (a) Walleye and (b) Northern
Pike as predicted by the random slopes of the full model with time period and latitudinal zone
interactions as random effects. Temporal trends in bioaccumulation for both Walleye and
Northern Pike are shown in c) as the predicted random slopes of the full model with time period
alone as the random effect. Change in climatic conditions are shown as spatiotemporal trends in
(d) temperature, (e) growing degree days, and (f) precipitation based on average measures at
Environment Canada sampling stations, estimated from aggregated 5-year time periods.

3 *Figure 4. Distribution of Walleye and Northern Pike samples in Ontario across the three defined*

4 *latitudinal zones, obtained from the Broad Scale Monitoring program's first sampling cycle.*

Figure 5. Latitudinal variation in growth rate of A) Walleye (N_{Lat} = 291; R = -0.145; p-value =

0.012) and B) Northern Pike (N_{Lat} = 240; R = 0.125; p-value = 0.05) expressed as random

slopes of LMEMs of fish growth with each unique latitude as the random effect, and latitudinal

variation in mercury for C) Walleye (N_{Lat} = 291; R = 0.174; p-value = 0.003) and D) Northern

pike (N_{Lat} = 240; R = 0.193; p-value = 0.002) expressed as the average amount of fish mercury

concentration sampled at a given latitude

 Supplementary Figures

Figure S1. Correlation between fish body mass and body length in Walleye (left) and Northern

Pike (right).

Figure S2. Relationship between estimated growth rates and mean mercury in A) Walleye (NLat

= 291; R = -0.06; p-value = 0.33) and B) Northern Pike (NLat = 240; R = 0.11; p-value = 0.08)

where mean mercury concentration are based on all samples at a given latitude and growth

rates are random slopes of LMEMs of fish growth model with latitude as random effect.