1	Title
2	Broad-scale mercury bioaccumulation patterns in two freshwater sport fishes: testing the
3	role of growth dilution in a warming climate
4	
5	Authors
6	Shyam M. Thomas <sup>1</sup> , Stephanie J. Melles <sup>1</sup> , Satyendra P. Bhavsar <sup>1,2</sup>
7	<sup>1</sup> Department of Chemistry & Biology, Ryerson University, Toronto
8	<sup>2</sup> Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change, Toronto
9	
10	
11	Word count
12	Main text (excluing abstract): 7352
13	Abstract: 290
14	Tables: 3
15	Figures: 5
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	

## 1 Abstract

2 Sport fishes at the apex of aquatic food webs are indicators of mercury in the environment. 3 However bioaccumulation of mercury in fish is a complex process that varies in space and time. 4 Both large-scale climatic and environmental, as well as biological factors are drivers of these 5 space-time variations. In this study, we avail a long-running monitoring program from Ontario, 6 Canada to better understand spatiotemporal variations in fish mercury bioaccumulation. 7 Focussing on two common large-bodied fishes (Walleye and Northern Pike), the data were first 8 stratified by latitudinal zone (north, mid, and south) and eight temporal periods (between 1975 & 9 2015). A series of linear mixed-effects models (LMEMs) with latitudinal zone, time period, and 10 their interactions as random effects were used to capture the spatial, temporal, and 11 spatiotemporal variations in mercury bioaccumulation. The random slopes from the best-fitting 12 LMEM were used to define bioaccumulation index and capture trends in space and time. Given 13 the generally warming climate trend over the past 45 years, the role of growth dilution in 14 modulating the bioaccumulation trends was also evaluated. The full model comprising of space, 15 time and space-time interactions was the best-fit with interaction effects explaining most of the 16 variation. Spatiotemporal trends showed overall similar patterns for both species. Growth 17 dilution in conjunction with estimated rates of warming for different latitudinal zones failed to 18 explain the spatiotemporal trends. Temporal trends showed contrasting bioaccumulation patterns 19 - increasing in Northern Pike and decreasing in Walleye, suggesting temperature-driven growth 20 dilution is more likely in latter. However, a space-for-time substitution revealed only a weak 21 presence of growth dilution in Walleye, and it was not attributable to temperature differences. 22 Overall, our study summarizes broad-scale variations in fish mercury and explores the role of 23 growth dilution in shaping the observed patterns.

## 24 Keywords

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

27

28

### 1 Introduction

2 Mercury pollution captured global attention during the tragic Minamata poisoning, which 3 highlighted the fatal neurotoxic effects of consuming mercury tainted fish. Despite concerted 4 global efforts to reduce mercury emissions, mercury as an anthropogenic pollutant remains a 5 matter of grave concern, since in elemental form mercury is highly mobile, and often ends up in 6 aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems far from the emission source (Driscoll et al 2013). In aquatic 7 ecosystems the impact of mercury pollution is mostly associated with organic methylmercury 8 (MeHg). MeHg is all the more detrimental as it can biomagnify and bioaccumulate such that 9 older large-sized fishes at the apex of aquatic food chain have disproportionately higher amounts 10 of mercury (Driscoll et al 2013). In short, large-bodied (sport) fishes at the top of food chains are 11 good indicators of mercury levels, and when consumed by humans can adversely affect human 12 health.

13 Both the United States and Canada have established monitoring programs at state and provincial 14 levels to study fish mercury dynamics. Analyses of these large-scale databases typically show a 15 declining trend in fish mercury levels between 1970 and 2000 (Chalmers et al. 2011; Monson et 16 al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). However, there is substantial geographic variation in these long-17 term trends (Kamman et al. 2005; Chalmers et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). Most importantly, 18 many regions are experiencing increasing mercury levels in several key sport fishes in recent 19 years, and this may have severe implications for human health if the trend continues (e.g., 20 Gandhi et al. 2014, Gandhi et al. 2015). Climate change, particularly the rapidly warming 21 climatic conditions experienced by lakes in temperate regions is thought to be one of the likely 22 reasons for the recent surge in mercury levels (e.g., Gandhi et al. 2014, Chen et al. 2018). 23 Warming climate can affect fish mercury levels via several processes operating at different 24 scales, which are poorly understood to date. At the lake and watershed level, warming conditions 25 are known to increase net methylation rates, and thus increase the overall amount of bioavailable 26 methylmercury in a lake (Canário et al. 2007; Stern et al. 2011). Warmer temperatures affects 27 mercury levels at the community level too, by altering trophic position, food-chain length, and 28 productivity (Kidd et al. 2012; Lavoie et al. 2013). However, these impacts are highly variable 29 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.

3 The amount of mercury in a fish is eventually determined by consumption of mercury 4 contaminated food at the individual level, and the final amount retained is a complex function of 5 growth, consumption, and metabolism. Fish with better growth efficiency (i.e., ratio of 6 consumption rate to growth rate) tend to accumulate less mercury, while increased metabolism 7 may demand higher rates of consumption thus increasing accumulation of mercury (Ward et al. 8 2011; Dijkstra et al 2013). Fast growing fish with greater growth efficiency are hypothesized to 9 accumulate less mercury since the net amount of biomass added is much greater for every unit of 10 mercury gained, and this is referred to as growth dilution (GD). Studies also suggest that GD is 11 most likely in situations where fast growth rate is accompanied with low metabolic costs or high 12 quality food (low in mercury contamination) (Karimi et al. 2007; Ward et al. 2010; Dijkstra et al 13 2013). Rising temperatures are expected to boost fish growth rates and resultant GD as long as 14 metabolic costs remain below species threshold levels, and these processes could potentially 15 reduce overall fish mercury levels. However, warmer temperatures may also increase metabolic 16 costs thus potentially offsetting any reduction in fish mercury levels achieved via increased 17 growth rates. As mentioned earlier, warmer temperatures can increase the amount of MeHg 18 through enhanced microbial activity or increase in food-chain length, which eventually can affect 19 fish mercury levels. Put together, rising temperature can impact fish mercury levels in a complex 20 manner. Not surprisingly, few studies have explored the role of warming climate on fish 21 mercury levels (Dijkstra et al 2013). Moreover, studies that have found evidence of GD as a key 22 modulating mechanism of mercury levels are either experimental studies or based on 23 observations from few lakes without any consideration of large-scale climatic factors. This 24 particular paucity of studies on growth dilution in the context of warming climate is not 25 surprising, since large-scale databases with fish age information are scarce. 26 Mercury bioaccumulation also implies mercury concentration in fish varies strongly with fish 27 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
- 30 in fish mercury levels from monitoring data are also usually based on variations within similar

1 standardized size classes (Chalmers et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). This practice of using 2 standardized size or age classes in fish mercury studies is performed to account for the influence 3 of exposure time and thereby to minimize variability in mercury concentrations. However, this 4 approach can potentially lead to substantial information loss as variations outside the standard 5 size classes are ignored, which can result in ambiguous estimates of fish mercury trends. 6 In this study, we first develop a bioaccumulation index based on full range of variation in fish 7 size and mercury levels for two common freshwater sport fishes. To do so, we make use 8 measurements from Ontario's long running monitoring program with data spanning 15 9 latitudinal degrees and 45 years. The bioaccumulation index is then used to characterize the 10 large-scale mercury bioaccumulation trends in space and time. We further explore the 11 summarized spatiotemporal trends in mercury bioaccumulation by explicitly considering GD 12 effects within a climate change context. In the second part of our study, we take advantage of 13 another Ontario-wide monitoring dataset of comparable spatial scope that includes fish age 14 information. Using the age information and a space-for-time latitudinal substitution approach, we 15 test the role of growth dilution in explaining the observed species-specific temporal trends in 16 mercury bioaccumulation.

#### 17 Methods

18 Fish Mercury Data: We used one of the largest known fish monitoring databases compiled by 19 the Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change (OMOECC) that tracks pollutant 20 loads in several key sport fishes. The Ontario-wide monitoring program began in 1970, i.e. a 21 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 $^{\circ}$  to 56.5 $^{\circ}$ ). Each data record provides fish species 22 23 identity, length, body mass, sex and amount of mercury alongside information on lake or 24 waterbody identity/name, and geo-coordinates of the location where the fish was sampled. With 25 multiple fish samples often taken at a given time and location and a total of 126,652 records, the 26 database provides a comprehensive picture of fish mercury levels and several key fish-level 27 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*

1 *lucius*) were the best candidate species in this respect; with their broad nearly identical 2 distribution patterns that span most of Ontario (Figure 1a &b). Walleye is a native cool-water 3 predatory fish that is common in most lakes of Canada and northern United States. Walleye, like 4 many shoaling fishes, prefers large open waters, and its large eyes enable it to hunt effectively in 5 low light conditions, particularly at dusk and at night (Swenson 1977). Northern Pike is an 6 equally common cool-water predatory fish with a broad pan-artic distribution that includes 7 Europe, Russia, Canada and northern United States. Unlike Walleye, Northern Pike is a large 8 ambush predator that prefers to hunt during the day and like most ambush predators they need 9 cover in the form of dense vegetation or submerged logs (Casselman and Lewis 1996). Also 10 notable is the difference in body size with Walleye typically being smaller in size than Northern 11 Pike. In Ontario, Northern Pike are known to attain an average size of 45-75 cm, whereas 12 Walleye typically range between 35-58 cm. Walleye and Northern Pike are consumers at the top 13 of aquatic food-chains that co-occur in several lakes and freshwater bodies in Ontario, however 14 their ecology, feeding habits and growth differ substantially, making this pair of sport fishes 15 particularly interesting to detect species-specific differences in mercury bioaccumulation. In a 16 final data selection process, fish samples collected during the first 5 years (i.e. 1970-1974) were 17 not included as they were selectively collected from locations within close proximity to known 18 sources of mercury pollution, and hence had disproportionately higher mercury levels. In 19 summary, records between 1975 and 2015 of Walleye and Northern Pike were analyzed to 20 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,

23 2005-09, 2010-15) and 3 latitudinal zones (south:  $40^{\circ}N - 46^{\circ}N$ , mid:  $46^{\circ}N - 50^{\circ}N$ , and north:

 $24 > 50^{\circ}$ N). The temporal categories are essentially 5-year periods, except for the '2010-15' period,

25 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

27 effectively capturing spatial, temporal, and spatiotemporal effects.

Mercury levels in fish typically follow an allometric relationship with body size (Gewurtz et al.
2011):

$$30 Y = aX^b$$

1 where *Y* is amount of mercury  $(\mu g/g)$  and *X* is fish body length (cm). When log-transformed, 2 the allometric relationship takes the form of a linear model:

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

4 We use this log-transformed model for all analyses. Specifically, to quantify the effect of space, 5 time, and space-time interactions, we make use of linear mixed-effects models (LMEM) with 6 latitudinal zones and temporal periods as crossed random effects (Bolker et al. 2009). All 7 LMEMs were fit using lme4 package (Bates et al. 2014) and further analyzed with merTools 8 package (Knowles and Fredrick 2016) in R. In total, four distinct LMEM's were separately fit to 9 Walleye and Northern Pike data in order to analyze species-specific variations in mercury 10 bioaccumulation. It may be noted that fish growth models are typically non-linear and they are 11 often analysed using more complex non-linear models such as Gompertz and von Bertalanffy 12 growth functions (Gamito 1998; Katsanevakis and Maravelias 2008). However, for easy 13 interpretation of model parameters such that they effectively capture latitudinal variation in 14 growth and mercury bioaccumulation, we assumed a linear relationship by log-transforming both 15 response and predictor variables. All model comparisons were done using Akaike Information 16 Criterion (AIC), where lower AIC values imply better model fit. The four models can be summarized as shown below: 17

18 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 
$$Y_{ilt} = \beta_0 + Lat_{0l} + (\beta_1 + Lat_{1l}) X_i + Tmp_{0t} + (\beta_2 + Tmp_{2t}) X_i + \varepsilon_{ilt}$$

d) Spatiotemporal Effects:

25  

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

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

1 where,  $Y_{ilt}$  represents mercury concentration found in fish *i* collected at latitudinal zone *l* during 2 time period t, and X implies fish length, which is the predictor variable. Lat and Tmp are 3 latitudinal zones and temporal periods, respectively, which are the random effects in the 4 LMEMs. The parameters inside the parenthesis together form the random slope coefficients, 5 which indicate the magnitude of bioaccumulation for a given latitudinal zone  $l_{i}$  and temporal 6 period t. These random slope coefficients when compiled together form a 'bioaccumulation 7 *index*' for each unique set of random factors and their combination (i.e. spatial, temporal, and 8 spatiotemporal effects). In summary, for each fish species the bioaccumulation index derived 9 from the LMEMs describes variation in mercury bioaccumulation across either latitudinal zones, 10 temporal periods, or a combination of latitudinal zones and temporal periods.

11 *Climate Data*: To provide an environmental context for the long-term bioaccumulation trends, 12 climatic conditions in Ontario were summarized for 45 years (1970-2015) using temperature, 13 growing degree-days and precipitation measure. Specifically stated, the reason for including 14 broad-scale climatic trends was to deduce the potential role of growth dilution in modulating fish 15 mercury bioaccumulation. The data were sourced from Environment Canada's historical climate 16 data website (http://climate.weather.gc.ca/index e.html). The website provides climate 17 information for each station at daily, monthly, and annual intervals. As with spatiotemporal 18 trends of bioaccumulation, climate trends were captured across 5-year periods for each of the 19 three latitudinal zones. There were a total of 9 temporal periods with the earliest being 1970-75 20 and ending at 2010-15. Within each latitudinal zone, stations with complete climate data were 21 used to characterize the climate trends. However for many stations complete climate data 22 spanning the entire 45-year period were not available, which resulted in the selection of very few 23 compatible stations. Thus, three weather stations each were selected for south (Trenton, Ottawa 24 and Glasgow) and mid (Chalk, Sudbury and Kenora) latitudinal zones, while for north only two 25 weather stations were available (Sioux and Moosonee). In summary, average daily temperature 26 and precipitation were estimated for each 5 year period and latitudinal zones, while number of 27 growing degree days were estimated as the cumulative number of days when average daily 28 temperature was above 5 °C.

*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

1 changing climatic conditions, particularly given the increasing temperature conditions. To 2 deduce this, we first explored LMEM-derived bioaccumulation indices to see if the rate of 3 change in temperature and growing-degree days for the three different latitudinal zones explain 4 observed spatiotemporal bioaccumulation trends in Walleye and Northern Pike. We 5 hypothesized that warmer temperatures are likely to increase fish growth rates resulting in 6 increased growth dilution and eventually leading to overall decreases in bio-accumulated 7 mercury levels. Thus, if growth dilution due to temperature driven variation in fish growth rates 8 is the primary mechanism, then latitudinal zones experiencing the greatest rate of increase in 9 temperature conditions are likely to show the sharpest decline in mercury levels compared to 10 latitudinal zones experiencing relatively modest rates of increase. Unlike spatiotemporal trends 11 in mercury bioaccumulation, temporal trends without any spatial variation capture mercury 12 bioaccumulation pattern during the 40-year warming period. We further examined whether the 13 observed temporal bioaccumulation trends in Walleye and Northern Pike were explained by 14 growth dilution in a warming climate. Specifically, we hypothesized that if growth dilution is 15 due to temperature dependent variation in growth rates, then species that show increase in 16 growth rate with temperature will show a decreasing trend in mercury bioaccumulation with 17 increasing temperature conditions as warmer temperatures are expected to strengthen growth 18 dilution. On the other hand, species that show decrease in growth rate with temperature will yield 19 an increasing bioaccumulation trend with increasing temperature as warmer conditions are now 20 expected to weaken the effect of growth dilution. In order to detect this species-specific 21 difference in growth dilution, estimation of growth rate based on fish age is necessary. To this 22 end, we made use of another database with age information – the broad-scale monitoring (BsM) 23 database. The BsM program was developed largely to standardize data collection and manage 24 fisheries at broad-scales for the entire Province of Ontario by sampling a representative number 25 of lakes every 5 years. The first such sampling cycle covered the years 2008-2012, which we 26 avail to estimate growth rates of Walleye and Northern Pike.

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

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

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

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

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

1 range from warm southern lakes to cold northern lakes, and this apparent temperature gradient 2 serves as a template to test the role of variation in growth dilution, which can then be substituted 3 for time to explain temporal trends (see Figure 2 for details). We chose a space-for-time 4 substitution approach over a more direct estimate of temporal variation in growth rate because 5 latitudinal gradient captures temperature differences more substantively and consistently than a 6 temporal sequence of years, thus providing a stronger basis to test the role of temperature-driven 7 variation in fish growth rates. Latitudinal variation in growth rates were estimated using linear 8 mixed-effects models (LMEMs) with latitudes as random effects, such that the random slopes are 9 latitude-specific estimates of growth rate. In summary, the additional LMEM's were fitted to 10 Walleye and Northern Pike data to capture their growth rate.

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

where, *Mass<sub>il</sub>* 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.

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

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

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

21 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,

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

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

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

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

## 27 **Results**

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

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

1 bioaccumulation, the full model that combined spatial, temporal, and spatiotemporal interactions 2 was the best fit with lowest AIC values for both Walleye and Northern Pike (Table 1a &b). 3 Models of spatial effects and temporal effects alone had poor fits and high AIC values, whereas 4 the model with spatial and temporal effects together had a better fit with lower AIC values. 5 Within the best-fitting full model, much of the large-scale variation in mercury levels was 6 captured by the random grouping factor representing space-time interaction effects. This is 7 evident from the substantially larger intra-cluster correlation coefficient (ICC) estimates of 0.735 8 and 0.672 for Walleye and Northern Pike, respectively (i.e. ICC<sub>LatZones:Period</sub> inTable 1a &b). In 9 mixed effects models where data are typically divided into different clusters or groups, ICC 10 describes the amount of variance explained by a grouping factor relative to the total variance 11 explained by all grouping factors involved and amount of residual within-group variance. 12 Analysis of fish mercury in the context of climate: Estimates of random slopes from the full 13 model, indicating the magnitude of bioaccumulation (i.e. bioaccumulation index in Tables 3a -

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

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

16 bioaccumulation with time ( $\beta = -0.026$ ;  $\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.81$ ), whereas the mid zone showed a relatively

17 weak positive trend ( $\beta = 0.0083$ ;  $R^2 = 0.35$ ) and the north latitude showed a very weak positive

18 trend ( $\beta = 0.0045$ ; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.05). For Northern Pike, bioaccumulation increased strongly with time

19 in north latitudes ( $\beta = 0.033$ ;  $R^2 = 0.74$ ), while mid latitudes showed a subtle increase ( $\beta =$ 

20 0.0056;  $R^2 = 0.18$ ) and south latitudes showed a general decline with time ( $\beta = -0.008$ ;  $R^2 =$ 

21 0.19). Overall, both species seem to be bioaccumulating mercury at an increasing rate in the

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- 30 the overall average (i.e. the intercept) of annual mean temperatures and growing degree-days
- 31 decreased with increase in latitude. However, it is worth noting that the rate of increase (i.e. the

1 slope) was greatest in northern latitudes ( $\beta_{\text{temp}} = 0.06$ ;  $\beta_{\text{gdd}} = 7.3$ ) followed by mid ( $\beta_{\text{temp}} = 0.04$ ; 2  $\beta_{edd} = 5.9$ ) and southern latitudes ( $\beta_{temp} = 0.034$ ;  $\beta_{edd} = 5.6$ ), thus suggesting that northern 3 latitudes are warming at a faster rate than southern latitudes. Average daily precipitation, like 4 temperature and growing degree-days, showed a generally increasing trend with time, with 5 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 6 7 compared to those of temperature and growing degree-days. Also, average daily precipitation 8 was on the whole greater in southern Ontario relative to mid and northern regions.

9 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  $44.5^{\circ}$  N to  $55^{\circ}$  N 10 11 (Figures 4a,b). LMEMs testing for latitudinal variation in growth rate with fish age as the 12 predictor yielded significant results for both Walleye and Northern Pike (Table 2). This is 13 evident from the high ICC values associated with growth rate LMEMs. Moreover, latitudinal 14 variation in growth rates highlighted interesting difference between the two species. Stated 15 specifically, the random slopes describing latitude-specific growth rates showed a negative 16 relationship with latitude in Walleye suggesting growth rate decreased with latitude, whereas the 17 mean latitudinal mercury levels showed a weak positive correlation with latitude (Figures 5a,c). 18 Northern Pike, on the other hand, showed a positive relationship between latitude and growth 19 rates as well as between latitude and mean mercury suggesting both growth rates and mercury 20 levels increased with latitude in Northern Pike (Figures 5b,d).

21 *Test of growth dilution:* Correlation analysis of mean mercury against random slopes describing 22 growth rates showed an overall negative relationship for Walleye suggesting growth dilution 23 (Supplementary Figure S2-A). In sharp contrast, Northern Pike showed no evidence of growth 24 dilution, and instead revealed a positive relationship between mean mercury and growth rates 25 (Supplementary Figure S2-B). However, the correlations were not significant and correlation 26 coefficients were very low for both Walleye (Pearson's r = -0.06, p-value = 0.33) and Northern 27 Pike (Pearson's r = 0.11, p-value = 0.08), which implies variation in growth rates fails to explain 28 variation in mercury levels in either species. In summary, the space-for-time substitution 29 approach revealed contrasting growth rate-temperature (i.e. latitudes) relationships between 30 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.

#### 3 Discussion

4 In our analyses of fish mercury levels using LMEMs, the best fitting model was comprised of 5 spatial, temporal and spatiotemporal interactions as random effects; and among these factors, 6 spatiotemporal interactions captured much of the variation. It is thus evident that mercury 7 bioaccumulation in both Walleye and Northern Pike not only varies spatially across Ontario's 8 freshwater lakes and waterbodies, but is also contingent on the time period. The bioaccumulation 9 index for both Walleye and Northern Pike exhibit fairly complex spatiotemporal patterns across 10 the 40-year time period and three latitudinal zones. There were interesting similarities such as 11 both species showed overall increasing bioaccumulation trends for north and mid latitudes, 12 whereas south latitudes revealed a decreasing trend. There was also substantial variation among 13 the 5-year time periods, as evidenced by the low R-square values for most latitudinal zones, 14 except for Northern Pike in the north and Walleye in the south (Figure 3a,b). Such temporal 15 variations in fish mercury levels have previously been reported from long-term studies 16 (Chalmers et al. 2011; Monson et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014). However, unlike these previous 17 studies, which generally show a declining trend in both north and south latitudes, our findings 18 showed increasing trends in north latitudes, as was the case for Northern Pike, and in mid 19 latitudes, as was the case with Walleye. The reason for this difference in fish mercury trends is 20 perhaps because our definition of bioaccumulation index differs substantially from previous 21 studies that typically measure the rate of change in mercury levels over time. Our measure 22 provides an estimate of the magnitude of bioaccumulation given both latitudinal variability in 23 lake location and temporal variability. Moreover, in our analyses bioaccumulation index is based 24 on the full range of fish size to mercury concentration covariation. Interestingly, like several 25 other long-term studies (Monson et al. 2011; Sadraddini et al. 2011; Gandhi et al. 2014; 26 Blucacks-Richards et al. 2017), our results also show an increase in our mercury 27 bioaccumulation index in north and mid latitudinal zones for the most recent time periods 28 (Figure 3a,b). And this recent increase in fish mercury levels is speculated to be climate change 29 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.

3 From a climate change perspective, temperature and growing degree-days showed consistently 4 increasing trends across all latitudinal zones over the 45-year period, while in comparison, 5 mercury bioaccumulation trends surprisingly varied substantially among the latitudinal zones for 6 both Walleye and Northern pike. We hypothesized that the magnitude of growth dilution would 7 be positively correlated with rate of warming, such that latitudinal zones with the highest rates of 8 warming (i.e., the north) would relate to the greatest decrease in fish mercury bioaccumulation. 9 Only Walleye, showed clear evidence of a decreasing trend in mercury bioaccumulation, and this 10 was restricted to the southern latitudinal zone, where relatively slower rates of warming were 11 recorded. It may also be noted that estimated rates of warming did not vary significantly among 12 the three latitudinal zones - though this is perhaps a result of the limited availability of long-term 13 weather data in mid and north latitudinal zones. The implication of nearly similar rates of rising 14 temperature, however, is that temperature driven growth dilution (if present) should be consistent 15 across latitudinal zones, and therefore it is surprising that the latitudinal trends in mercury 16 bioaccumulation do not show the same general pattern. This lack of a general pattern suggests 17 that confounding ecological factors, such as methylation, may play a role. Specifically stated, 18 methylation rates may have increased lately, especially in northern latitudes, since methylation in 19 cold northern latitudes is known to occur during the ice-free season when the soil and ground are 20 not frozen (Stanley et al. 2002; Stern et al. 2012), and northern latitudes are experiencing a more 21 prolonged ice-free season compared to southern latitudes as a consequence of warming climate 22 (Schindler et al. 1990; Dugay et al. 2006). Thus the observed increasing trends in fish mercury 23 levels in the relatively colder north and mid latitudes is possibly due to increasing methylation 24 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.

5 Unlike spatiotemporal trends of mercury bioaccumulation, the temporal trends estimated using 6 time period as the only random effect showed contrasting species-specific patterns. Northern 7 Pike had consistently increasing trends while Walleye showed a generally declining trend 8 (Figure 3c). It was hypothesized that the contrasting patterns in mercury bioaccumulation over 9 time is driven by differential response of growth dilution to warming temperature, which in turn 10 is driven by temperature-induced variation in growth rate. But the space-for-time substitution 11 analysis (Figure 2) based on growth rate and mean mercury estimates across a latitudinal 12 gradient failed to show significant evidence of temperature-induced difference in growth dilution 13 (Supplementary figure 2). In short, the contrasting bioaccumulation temporal trends in Walleye 14 and Northern Pike are not definitively due to differential response of growth dilution to warming 15 temperature. Evidence for growth dilution from observational studies vary a lot (Karimi et al. 16 2010), and among the few studies that have reported growth dilution in both Walleye and 17 Northern Pike (Simoneau et al. 2005; Lavigne et al. 2010), growth dilution was inferred from age 18 and mercury estimates of standardized fish lengths. Thus, our results are perhaps partly due to 19 the inclusion of the entire range of body size variation, which adds more variability to the growth 20 rate-mercury covariation compared to standardized fish lengths. Nonetheless, the latitudinal 21 variation in growth rates and mercury levels showed interesting results, which deserve further 22 discussion.

23 Walleye showed a negative latitudinal growth rate and positive latitudinal correlation with 24 bioaccumulation suggesting growth rates are likely to increase while bioaccumulation decreases 25 with increasing temperature. Previous studies have similarly shown a negative relationship 26 between latitude and growth rates in walleye (Quist et al. 2003; Lavigne et al. 2010). In sharp 27 contrast, for Northern Pike, both growth rate and mean mercury levels showed weak positive 28 correlation with latitude, which suggests that for Northern Pike both growth rate and mercury 29 bioaccumulation are likely to increase with decreasing ambient temperature. Our findings differ 30 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.

6 Latitudinal trends in growth rate and mercury levels, however, do not convey the full picture as 7 both Walleye and Northern Pike showed substantial variation in growth rate and mercury levels 8 for any given latitude. This is evident from the low correlation coefficients associated with 9 latitudinal variation in growth rate and mercury levels, suggesting local factors operating at the 10 lake-level have a stronger influence compared to latitude-specific temperature conditions. In a 11 previous study by Simoneau et al. (2005), Walleye populations from different lakes showed 12 evidence of growth dilution, however this was largely driven by lake-specific variation in growth 13 rates. Similarly, a study on mercury contamination in Northern Pike from 19 Boreal lakes 14 showed a high degree of inter-lake variation that was due to lake-specific variations in water 15 chemistry, prey mercury contamination, and landscape-level disturbances in surrounding 16 catchment areas (Garcia and Carignan 2000). In light of these findings, it is perhaps not 17 surprising that strong latitudinal variation in growth rates and mean mercury levels translates into 18 very weak temperature-driven growth dilution effects. This is evident in Walleye, where the 19 space-for-time substitution results suggested that growth rates can potentially increase with 20 temperature, and mercury levels tend to decrease with temperature. These opposing patterns do 21 not translate into a consistent growth dilution effect with warming temperatures due to the 22 presence of a high degree of latitudinal variation in both growth rates and mercury levels in 23 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 ratemercury 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).

8 Our study demonstrates how a simple bioaccumulation index derived from mixed-effects models 9 can capture broad-scale patterns of fish mercury bioaccumulation. The index reveals the complex 10 nature of mercury bioaccumulation when both spatial and temporal variations are combined (i.e. 11 spatiotemporal trend) relative to the purely temporal trend. Furthermore, the science and 12 application of ecological indicators now increasingly point to limitations in capturing the 13 complexity of environmental systems and ecosystem responses to various anthropogenic 14 stressors using a single indicator species (Carignan and Villard 2002; Siddig et al. 2016). Hence, 15 it is particularly interesting that the temporal trends captured by the bioaccumulation index 16 highlights strong differences between two co-occurring indicator species in mercury 17 bioaccumulation. And finally, studies on fish mercury bioaccumulation have often stressed 18 growth dilution as a key modulatory mechanism, however the potential of growth dilution to 19 affect large-scale fish mercury dynamics has not been explicitly tested so far. In this respect, our 20 study also shows for the first time that temperature-driven growth dilution has very weak 21 modulatory effect on broad-scale mercury bioaccumulation patterns. From a climate change 22 perspective, this implies change in fish mercury levels as consequence of warming climate is a 23 complex process that goes beyond temperature-driven growth dilution effect.

## 24 Acknowledgements

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

27

28

## 1 References

- 2 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.138148.
- 5 Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B. and Walker, S., 2014. lme4: Linear mixed-effects models
- 6 using Eigen and S4. R package version, 1(7), pp.1-23.
- 7 Blukacz-Richards, E.A., Visha, A., Graham, M.L., McGoldrick, D.L., de Solla, S.R., Moore, D.J.
- 8 and Arhonditsis, G.B., 2017. Mercury levels in herring gulls and fish: 42 years of spatio-
- 9 temporal trends in the Great Lakes. Chemosphere, 172, pp.476-487.
- 10 Bolker, B.M., Brooks, M.E., Clark, C.J., Geange, S.W., Poulsen, J.R., Stevens, M.H.H. and
- 11 White, J.S.S., 2009. Generalized linear mixed models: a practical guide for ecology and
- 12 evolution. *Trends in ecology & evolution*, 24(3), pp.127-135.
- 13 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.
- 16 Carignan, V. and Villard, M.A., 2002. Selecting indicator species to monitor ecological integrity:
- 17 a review. Environmental monitoring and assessment, 78(1), pp.45-61.
- 18 Casselman, J.M. and Lewis, C.A., 1996. Habitat requirements of northern pike (Essox
- 19 lucius). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 53(S1), pp.161-174
- 20 Chalmers, A.T., Argue, D.M., Gay, D.A., Brigham, M.E., Schmitt, C.J. and Lorenz, D.L., 2011.
- 21 Mercury trends in fish from rivers and lakes in the United States, 1969–2005. Environmental
- 22 monitoring and assessment, 175(1), pp.175-191.
- 23 Dijkstra, J.A., Buckman, K.L., Ward, D., Evans, D.W., Dionne, M. and Chen, C.Y., 2013.
- 24 Experimental and natural warming elevates mercury concentrations in estuarine fish. PloS one,
- 25 8(3), p.e58401.

- 1 Driscoll, C.T., Mason, R.P., Chan, H.M., Jacob, D.J. and Pirrone, N., 2013. Mercury as a global
- 2 pollutant: sources, pathways, and effects. Environmental science & technology, 47(10), pp.4967-

3 4983.

- 4 Duguay, C.R., Prowse, T.D., Bonsal, B.R., Brown, R.D., Lacroix, M.P. and Ménard, P., 2006.
- 5 Recent trends in Canadian lake ice cover. Hydrological Processes, 20(4), pp.781-801.
- 6 Gewurtz, S.B., Backus, S.M., Bhavsar, S.P., McGoldrick, D.J., de Solla, S.R., Murphy, E.W.,
- 7 2011a. Contaminant biomonitoring programs in the Great Lakes region: Review of approaches
- 8 and critical factors. Environmental Reviews 19, 162-184.
- 9 Gewurtz, S.B., Bhavsar, S.P. and Fletcher, R., 2011b. Influence of fish size and sex on
- 10 mercury/PCB concentration: importance for fish consumption advisories. Environment
- 11 international, 37(2), pp.425-434.
- 12 Gamito, S., 1998. Growth models and their use in ecological modelling: an application to a fish
- 13 population. *Ecological Modelling*, *113*(1), pp.83-94.
- 14 Gandhi, N., Tang, R.W., Bhavsar, S.P. and Arhonditsis, G.B., 2014. Fish mercury levels appear
- 15 to be increasing lately: a report from 40 years of monitoring in the province of Ontario, Canada.
- 16 Environmental science & technology, 48(10), pp.5404-5414.
- 17 Garcia, E. and Carignan, R., 2000. Mercury concentrations in northern pike (Esox lucius) from
- 18 boreal lakes with logged, burned, or undisturbed catchments. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and
- 19 Aquatic Sciences, 57(S2), pp.129-135.
- 20 Kamman, N.C., Burgess, N.M., Driscoll, C.T., Simonin, H.A., Goodale, W., Linehan, J.,
- 21 Estabrook, R., Hutcheson, M., Major, A., Scheuhammer, A.M. and Scruton, D.A., 2005.
- 22 Mercury in freshwater fish of northeast North America–a geographic perspective based on fish
- tissue monitoring databases. Ecotoxicology, 14(1-2), pp.163-180.
- 24 Karimi, R., Chen, C.Y., Pickhardt, P.C., Fisher, N.S. and Folt, C.L., 2007. Stoichiometric
- 25 controls of mercury dilution by growth. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences,
- 26 104(18), pp.7477-7482.
- 27

- 1 Katsanevakis, S. and Maravelias, C.D., 2008. Modelling fish growth: multi-model inference as a
- 2 better alternative to a priori using von Bertalanffy equation. Fish and Fisheries, 9(2), pp.178-

3 187.

- 4 Kidd, K.A., Muir, D.C., Evans, M.S., Wang, X., Whittle, M., Swanson, H.K., Johnston, T. and
- 5 Guildford, S., 2012. Biomagnification of mercury through lake trout (Salvelinus namaycush)
- 6 food webs of lakes with different physical, chemical and biological characteristics. Science of
- 7 the Total Environment, 438, pp.135-143.
- 8 Knowles, J. and Frederick, C., 2015. merTools: tools for analyzing mixed effect regression
- 9 models. R package version 0.1. 0.
- 10 Lavigne, M., Lucotte, M. and Paquet, S., 2010. Relationship between mercury concentration and
- 11 growth rates for walleyes, northern pike, and lake trout from Quebec lakes. North American
- 12 Journal of Fisheries Management, 30(5), pp.1221-1237.
- 13 Lavoie, R.A., Jardine, T.D., Chumchal, M.M., Kidd, K.A. and Campbell, L.M., 2013.
- 14 Biomagnification of mercury in aquatic food webs: a worldwide meta-analysis. Environmental
- 15 science & technology, 47(23), pp.13385-13394.
- 16 Mathers, R.A. and Johansen, P.H., 1985. The effects of feeding ecology on mercury
- 17 accumulation in walleye (Stizostedion vitreum) and pike (Esox lucius) in Lake Simcoe.
- 18 Canadian Journal of Zoology, 63(9), pp.2006-2012.
- 19 Matilainen, T., Verta, M., Korhonen, H., Uusi-Rauva, A. and Niemi, M., 2001. Behavior of
- 20 mercury in soil profiles: impact of increased precipitation, acidity, and fertilization on mercury
- 21 methylation. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution, 125(1), pp.105-120.
- 22 Monson, B.A., Staples, D.F., Bhavsar, S.P., Holsen, T.M., Schrank, C.S., Moses, S.K.,
- 23 McGoldrick, D.J., Backus, S.M. and Williams, K.A., 2011. Spatiotemporal trends of mercury in
- 24 walleye and largemouth bass from the Laurentian Great Lakes region. Ecotoxicology, 20(7),
- 25 pp.1555-1567.
- 26 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.

- 1 Quist, M.C., Guy, C.S., Schultz, R.D. and Stephen, J.L., 2003. Latitudinal comparisons of
- 2 walleye growth in North America and factors influencing growth of walleyes in Kansas
- 3 reservoirs. North American Journal of Fisheries Management, 23(3), pp.677-692.
- 4 Rudd, J.W., 1995. Sources of methyl mercury to freshwater ecosystems: A review. Water, Air, &
- 5 Soil Pollution, 80(1), pp.697-713.
- 6 Rypel, A.L., 2012. Meta-analysis of growth rates for a circumpolar fish, the Northern Pike (Esox
- 7 lucius), with emphasis on effects of continent, climate and latitude. Ecology of Freshwater Fish,
- 8 21(4), pp.521-532.
- 9 Sadraddini, S., Azim, M.E., Shimoda, Y., Mahmood, M., Bhavsar, S.P., Backus, S.M. and
- 10 Arhonditsis, G.B., 2011. Temporal PCB and mercury trends in Lake Erie fish communities: a

11 dynamic linear modeling analysis. Ecotoxicology and environmental safety, 74(8), pp.2203-

- 12 2214.
- 13 Schindler, D.W., Beaty, K.G., Fee, E.J., Cruikshank, D.R., DeBruyn, E.R., Findlay, D.L.,
- 14 Linsey, G.A., Shearer, J.A., Stainton, M.P. and Turner, M.A., 1990. Effects of climatic warming
- 15 on lakes of the central boreal forest. Science, 250(4983), pp.967-970.
- 16 Siddig, A.A., Ellison, A.M., Ochs, A., Villar-Leeman, C. and Lau, M.K., 2016. How do
- 17 ecologists select and use indicator species to monitor ecological change? Insights from 14 years
- 18 of publication in Ecological Indicators. Ecological Indicators, 60, pp.223-230.
- 19 Simoneau, M., Lucotte, M., Garceau, S. and Laliberté, D., 2005. Fish growth rates modulate
- 20 mercury concentrations in walleye (Sander vitreus) from eastern Canadian lakes. Environmental
- 21 Research, 98(1), pp.73-82.
- 22 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.
- 24 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
- 26 influence arctic mercury?. Science of the total environment, 414, pp.22-42.

1	Swenson, W.A., 1977. Food consumption of walleye (Stizostedion vitreum vitreum) and sauger
2	(S. canadense) in relation to food availability and physical conditions in Lake of the Woods,
3	Minnesota, Shagawa Lake, and western Lake Superior. Journal of the Fisheries Board of
4	<i>Canada</i> , <i>34</i> (10), pp.1643-1654.
5	Ward, D.M., Nislow, K.H. and Folt, C.L., 2010. Bioaccumulation syndrome: identifying factors
6	that make some stream food webs prone to elevated mercury bioaccumulation. Annals of the
7	New York Academy of Sciences, 1195(1), pp.62-83.
8	Wren, C.D., Scheider, W.A., Wales, D.L., Muncaster, B.W. and Gray, I.M., 1991. Relation
9	between mercury concentrations in walleye (Stizostedion vitreum vitreum) and northern pike
10	(Esox lucius) in Ontario lakes and influence of environmental factors. Canadian Journal of
11	Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 48(1), pp.132-139.
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	

#### Tables 1

- Table 1a. Summary statistics of the four different LMEMs used to characterize spatial, temporal, 2
- 3 and spatiotemporal effects in Walleye the data stratified into three latitudinal zones (LatZones)
- and eight temporal periods (Period). 4

	Spatial			Temporal			Space & Time				Full		
	B	СІ	р	B	СІ	p	B	CI	Р	B	CI	р	
Fixed Parts													
Intercept	-6.54	-6.886.20	<.001	-6.23	-6.625.84	<.001	-6.62	-6.996.25	<.001	-6.8	-7.476.13	<.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													
$\sigma^2$		0.488			0.522			0.458			0.442		
τ <sub>00, LatZones:Period</sub>											1.648		
τ <sub>00, Period</sub>					0.301			0.063			0.019		
τ <sub>00, LatZones</sub>		0.085						0.077			0.133		
$\rho_{01}$		0.604			-0.943			-0.849			-0.993		
N <sub>LatZones:Period</sub>										24			
N <sub>Period</sub>				8		8			8				
N <sub>LatZones</sub>		3						3			3		
ICC <sub>LatZones:Period</sub>											0.735		
ICC <sub>Period</sub>					0.366			0.105			0.008		
ICC <sub>LatZones</sub>		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		

Abbreviations and Symbols:  $\sigma^2 = residual$  (within-group) variance;  $\tau_{00} = between$ -group 5

variance;  $\rho_{01}$  = correlation between random slope and random intercept; N = number of groups; ICC = intra-class correlation coefficient (see Methods for more details);  $R^2$  = r-squared value; 6

7

8 AIC = Akaike Information Criterion

- 1
- 2 Table1b. Summary statistics of the four different LMEMs used to characterize spatial, temporal,
- 3 and spatiotemporal effects in Northern Pike with the data grouped into three latitudinal zones
- 4 (LatZones) and eight temporal periods (Period).

	Spatial		Temporal			Space & Time			Full			
	B	CI	р	В	СІ	р	В	CI	р	В	CI	р
Fixed Parts					-					-		-
Intercept	-6.45	-7.9 – -5	<.001	-7.33	-8.276.40	<.001	-7.21	-8.45.9	<.001	-7.63	-8.36.8	<.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												
$\sigma^2$		0.500			0.515			0.474			0.458	
τ <sub>00, LatZones:Period</sub>											1.897	
$\tau_{00, \text{ Period}}$					1.789			1.024			0.471	
τ <sub>00, LatZones</sub>		1.704						0.767			0.000	
$\rho_{01}$		-0.998			-0.996			-0.993			-0.996	
N <sub>LatZones:Period</sub>											24	
N <sub>Period</sub>					8			8			8	
N <sub>LatZones</sub>		3						3			3	
ICC_LatZones:Period											0.672	
ICC <sub>Period</sub>					0.776			0.452			0.167	
ICC		0.773						0.339			0.000	
Observations	·	32636			32636		•	32636			32636	
R <sup>2</sup>		.293			.272			.330			.354	
AIC		70055.664			71066.828			68379.025			67314.081	

<sup>5</sup> Abbreviations and Symbols: Same as Table 1a

<sup>6</sup> 

<sup>7</sup> 

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

2 a	nd Northern	Pike with data	grouped by	unique latit	tudes (LAT).
-----	-------------	----------------	------------	--------------	--------------

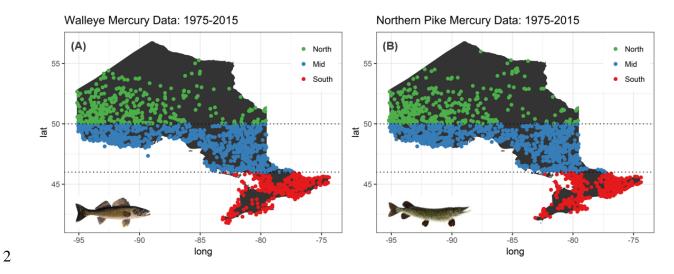
		Walleye	Northern Pike					
	В	CI	р	В	CI	р		
Fixed Parts								
Intercept	4.05	3.92 - 4.18	<.001	5.44	5.36 - 5.53	<.001		
Log(Fish Age)	1.34	1.27 – 1.40	<.001	1.05	1.00 - 1.09	<.001		
Random Parts								
$\sigma^2$		0.092			0.087			
τ <sub>00, LAT</sub>		0.882			0.215			
ρ <sub>01</sub>		-0.896			-0.771			
N <sub>LAT</sub>		291			240			
ICC <sub>LAT</sub>		0.906			0.713			
Observations		3159			1699			
$R^2$		.874			.847			

Abbreviations and Symbols:  $\sigma^2 = residual$  (within-group) variance;  $\tau_{00} = between-group$ 

variance;  $\rho_{01}$  = correlation between random slope and random intercept;  $N_{LAT}$  = number of

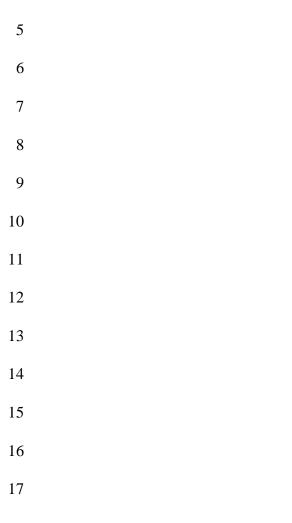
groups (unique latitudes);  $ICC = intra-class correlation coefficient (see Methods for more details); <math>R^2 = r$ -squared value; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion. 

# 1 Figures

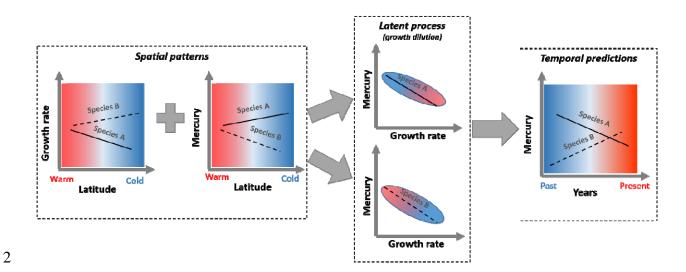


3 Figure 1. Sampling distribution of fish mercury samples in Ontario (1975-2015) for Walleye and

4 Northern Pike across the defined latitudinal zones.







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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

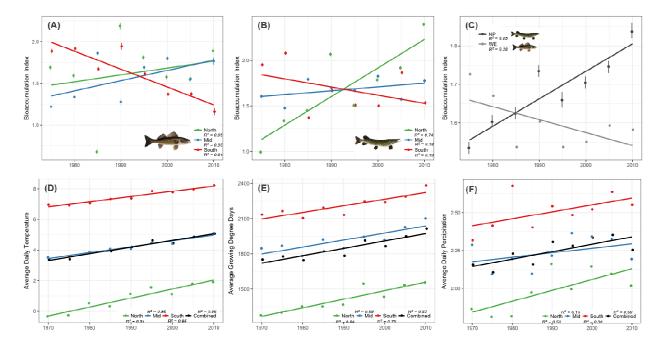
11 species B with contrasting spatial patterns yields a negative temperature driven growth dilution

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

13 results in an increasing temporal trend.

14

- 16
- 17
- 18
- 19





*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* 

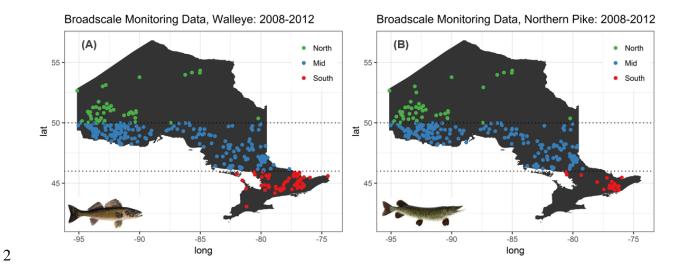
5 interactions as random effects. Temporal trends in bioaccumulation for both Walleye and

6 Northern Pike are shown in c) as the predicted random slopes of the full model with time period

7 alone as the random effect. Change in climatic conditions are shown as spatiotemporal trends in

8 (d) temperature, (e) growing degree days, and (f) precipitation based on average measures at

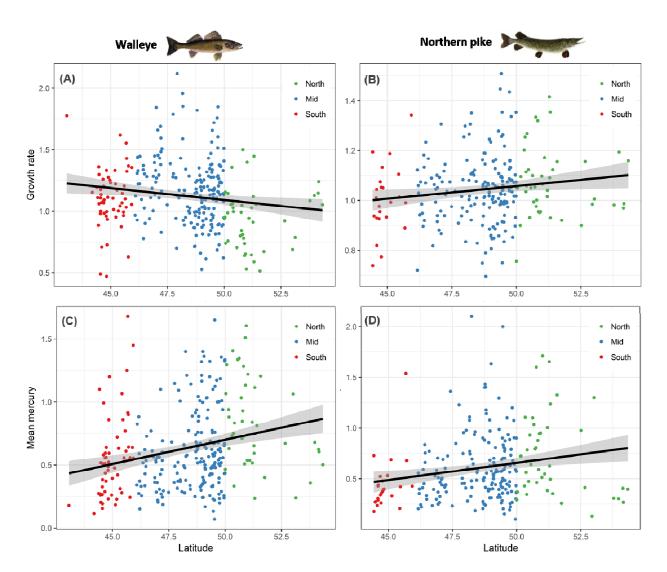
9 Environment Canada sampling stations, estimated from aggregated 5-year time periods.



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

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

- /





1

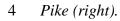
Figure 5. Latitudinal variation in growth rate of A) Walleye ( $N_{Lat} = 291$ ; R = -0.145; p-value = 0.012) and B) Northern Pike ( $N_{Lat} = 240$ ; R = 0.125; p-value = 0.05) expressed as random slopes of LMEMs of fish growth with each unique latitude as the random effect, and latitudinal variation 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

9

10

**Supplementary Figures** 8 7. log[Weight] log[Weight] 6 -5. 4. R-square = 0.989 R-square = 0.982 5.6 5.5 6.0 6.0 6.4 6.5 7.0 5.2 log[Length] log[Length]

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



5

2

1

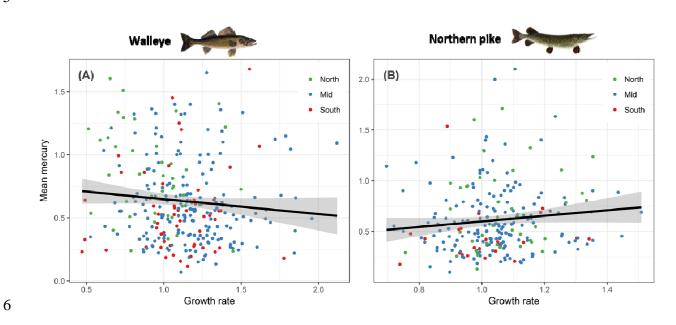


Figure S2. Relationship between estimated growth rates and mean mercury in A) Walleye (NLat = 291; R = -0.06; p-value = 0.33) and B) Northern Pike (NLat = 240; R = 0.11; p-value = 0.08) where mean mercury concentration are based on all samples at a given latitude and growth rates are random slopes of LMEMs of fish growth model with latitude as random effect.