

Comparing impacts of metal contamination on macroinvertebrate and fish assemblages in a northern Japanese river (#53178)

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Comparing impacts of metal contamination on macroinvertebrate and fish assemblages in a northern Japanese river

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Researchers have long assessed the ecological impacts of metals in running waters, but few such studies investigated multiple biological groups. Our goals in this study were to assess the ecological impacts of metal contamination on macroinvertebrates and fishes in a northern Japanese river receiving treated mine discharge and to evaluate whether there was any difference between the metrics based on macroinvertebrates and those based on fishes in assessing these impacts. Macroinvertebrate communities and fish populations were little affected at the downstream contaminated sites where concentrations of Cu, Zn, Pb, and Cd were 0.1–1.5 times higher than water-quality criteria established by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. At the two upstream contaminated sites with metal concentrations 0.8–3.7 times higher than the water-quality criteria, we detected a significant reduction in a few macroinvertebrate metrics such as mayfly richness and the abundance of heptageniid mayflies. There were, however, no remarkable effects on the abundance or condition factor of the four dominant fishes, including masu salmon. These results suggest that the richness and abundance of macroinvertebrates are more sensitive to metal contamination than abundance and condition factor of fishes in the studied river. Because the sensitivity to metal contamination can depend on the biological metrics used, and fish-based metrics in this study were limited, it would be valuable to accumulate empirical evidence for ecological indicators sensitive to metal contamination within and among biological groups to help in choosing which groups to survey for general environmental impact assessments in metal-contaminated rivers.

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2 **a northern Japanese river**

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21

22 Abstract

23 Researchers have long assessed the ecological impacts of metals in running waters, but few such
24 studies investigated multiple biological groups. Our goals in this study were to assess the
25 ecological impacts of metal contamination on macroinvertebrates and fishes in a northern
26 Japanese river receiving treated mine discharge and to evaluate whether there was any difference
27 between the metrics based on macroinvertebrates and those based on fishes in assessing these
28 impacts. Macroinvertebrate communities and fish populations were little affected at the
29 downstream contaminated sites where concentrations of Cu, Zn, Pb, and Cd were 0.1–1.5 times
30 higher than water-quality criteria established by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. At
31 the two upstream contaminated sites with metal concentrations 0.8–3.7 times higher than the
32 water-quality criteria, we detected a significant reduction in a few macroinvertebrate metrics
33 such as mayfly richness and the abundance of heptageniid mayflies. There were, however, no
34 remarkable effects on the abundance or condition factor of the four dominant fishes, including
35 masu salmon. These results suggest that the richness and abundance of macroinvertebrates are
36 more sensitive to metal contamination than abundance and condition factor of fishes in the
37 studied river. Because the sensitivity to metal contamination can depend on the biological
38 metrics used, and fish-based metrics in this study were limited, it would be valuable to
39 accumulate empirical evidence for ecological indicators sensitive to metal contamination within
40 and among biological groups to help in choosing which groups to survey for general
41 environmental impact assessments in metal-contaminated rivers.

42 **Keywords:** Aquatic insects, fish, trace metals, abandoned mines, legacy mines, cross taxon
43 congruence, environmental assessment, ecological risk assessment

44 **Introduction**

45 The impact of trace metals on aquatic ecosystems is an important issue in many regions of the
46 world (Iwasaki & Ormerod 2012; Nriagu & Pacyna 1988). Laboratory toxicity tests of surrogate
47 species are routinely used to assess the potential effects of metals on aquatic organisms and to
48 provide a first step in inferring the effects on ecosystems. Responses of surrogate species in the
49 laboratory, however, are not necessarily a good indicator for predicting responses of natural
50 populations and communities (Clements, Cadmus & Brinkman 2013; Hickey & Clements 1998;
51 Kimball & Levin 1985; Niederlehner et al. 1990). Thus, biological assessments of natural aquatic
52 populations and communities that likely reflect time-integrated effects can provide useful
53 information for evaluating ecological impairments in actual environments (Barbour et al. 1999).

54 In conducting the biological assessments in natural environments, the first question to answer
55 is which aquatic organisms are to be investigated. For example, benthic macroinvertebrates have
56 a wide range of sensitivities to contamination by metals (Iwasaki, Schmidt & Clements 2018).
57 Also, macroinvertebrates have been the most frequently used in assessing the ecological impacts
58 of metals in streams and rivers (Namba et al. 2020). Studies have indicated, however, that in
59 aquatic ecosystems there are generally low correlations between changes in different biological
60 groups (de Morais et al. 2018; Heino 2010; Namba et al. 2020). Despite this observation,
61 surprisingly a limited number of studies published in peer-reviewed journals have investigated
62 multiple biological groups in metal-contaminated rivers (Freund & Petty 2007; Namba et al.
63 2020). Therefore, to provide a more comprehensive assessment for overall ecosystem protection,
64 it is important to investigate responses of not only macroinvertebrates but also other biological
65 groups in metal-contaminated rivers.

66 The closed Motokura mine is located in the upstream area of the Tokushibetsu River in
67 northern Japan (Figure 1). The mine mainly produced Cu, Pb, and Zn. In 1962, there were mass

68 mortalities of Pacific salmon (*Oncorhynchus* spp.) in the river and Takayasu et al. (1964)
69 concluded that mine drainage discharged into the river was likely a major cause. The mine was
70 closed in 1967, and discharge from the mine is currently treated by using artificial wetlands. A
71 bioassessment in 2017 using only macroinvertebrates showed that the abundance and richness of
72 macroinvertebrates were little affected at downstream sites in the Tokushibetsu River (Iwasaki et
73 al. 2020). Given that hatchery-reared masu salmon (*Oncorhynchus masou*) are released into the
74 river system, it is important to evaluate the effects of mine drainage on not only
75 macroinvertebrates as food resources for fish, but also on fish communities. However, no recent
76 studies have evaluated the effects of mine discharge on fish in the river (but see Takayasu et al.
77 1964). We thus aimed to assess whether there are ecological impacts in the contaminated river by
78 investigating macroinvertebrates and fishes. By doing so, we also evaluated whether there were
79 any differences between metrics based on macroinvertebrates and those using fishes in detecting
80 effects of metal contamination.

81

82 **Materials & Methods**

83 *Study site*

84 Field sampling of macroinvertebrates, fishes, and physicochemical characteristics was performed
85 at nine sites in the Tokushibetsu River system in Hokkaido Island, northern Japan (Figure 1)
86 from 26 to 28 June 2018. Five of the nine sites (sites S1a–S4) were in the Ofuntarumanai River,
87 a metal-contaminated stream receiving treated mine discharge, and four reference sites (R1–R4)
88 were in the main stream of the Tokushibetsu River. The reference sites were established at
89 similar elevations as the contaminated sites, and study sites with the same numbers had similar
90 elevation levels, for example, S1 (a and b) and R1. Sites S1a and S1b were upstream and

91 downstream of the inflow of treated mine discharge, respectively (Figure 1). Permits for field
92 sampling in the river were obtained from the local municipal office and Hokkaido government.

93

94 *Water-quality parameters*

95 During field sampling, three water samples (50 ml) were filtered from each study site for
96 dissolved metals analysis (0.45 μm pore-size) and refrigerated in the field. Ultrapure nitric acid
97 was added to those water samples on the day of sampling so that the pH was less than 2.

98 Concentrations of dissolved Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb were measured by using an inductively coupled
99 plasma mass spectrometer (Element XR, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Tokyo, Japan) according to
100 method 200.8 of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U. S. EPA 1994). The limits of
101 quantification were 0.001 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for Cu, 0.06 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for Zn, and 0.005 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for both Cd and Pb.

102 Water temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, and electrical conductivity were measured by
103 using multi-parameter portable meters (Multi 3630IDS, Xylem Analytics Germany, Weilheim,
104 Germany). Filtered water samples were also collected for measuring concentrations of dissolved
105 organic carbon (DOC) and major ions (Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , and SO_4^{2-}). DOC was measured
106 with a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-L CPH, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Concentrations of
107 major ions were measured with an ion chromatograph (Dionex ICS-1100/2100, Thermo Fisher
108 Scientific). We calculated water hardness as $2.497 \times [\text{Ca}^{2+}] + 4.118 \times [\text{Mg}^{2+}]$.

109 As an index of contamination by multiple metals, we calculated the cumulative criterion unit
110 (CCU; Clements et al. 2000) as the sum of the ratios of measured concentrations of four metals
111 to the U.S. EPA hardness-adjusted water-quality criteria (WQC; U. S. EPA 2002):

112

$$113 \text{CCU} = \sum(m_i/c_i), \quad (1)$$

114

115 where m_i is the concentration of dissolved metal i and c_i is the corresponding WQC. Hardness-
116 adjusted WQC for Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb were calculated at a water hardness of 10 mg/L based on
117 the observed range of water hardness in this study (Table 1) and a previous study of the same
118 river (Iwasaki et al. 2020). Note that, because the hardness of 10 mg/L is below the lower end of
119 the hardness range of toxicity data used in the WQC development (20 mg/L; U. S. EPA 2002),
120 caution is required for the interpretation of the calculated CCU values. Also, we did not consider
121 water quality variables other than water hardness (e.g., pH and DOC) in this calculation (Iwasaki
122 et al. 2020). This is because these variables varied little among study sites (Table 1), and U.S.
123 EPA WQCs based on biotic ligand models that can consider the influence of water chemistry on
124 metal toxicity were available only for Cu (U. S. EPA 2007).

125

126

127 *Physical parameters*

128 Average channel width (surface-water width measured at run) and riffle width were measured at
129 each study site. Riffle width was averaged if benthic macroinvertebrates were collected at
130 multiple riffles within individual sites. The catchment area of each site was quantified using a
131 digital elevation model (50-m grid; Geographical Survey Institute of Japan,
132 www.gsi.go.jp/ENGLISH/index.html) and a geographic information system (ArcGIS 10.2 for
133 Desktop, Esri Japan, Tokyo, Japan). Maximum water velocity and depth were evaluated on the
134 basis of measurements at multiple places in riffles that macroinvertebrates were collected at each
135 study site. Current velocity was measured at 60% of water depth using an electromagnetic
136 velocity meter (VR-301; Kenek, Tokyo, Japan).

137

138 *Macroinvertebrates*

139 At riffles at each site, we collected macroinvertebrates from five randomly chosen stones
140 (maximum diameter, 14–27 cm) using a Surber net (mesh size, 0.355 mm). Samples were
141 preserved in the field in 99.5% ethanol and washed through a 0.5-mm sieve in the laboratory.
142 Macroinvertebrates remaining on the sieve were preserved in 70% ethanol and identified
143 generally to genus or species level. For each stone from which macroinvertebrates were
144 collected, water depth and current velocity (at 60% depth) were measured above its upper
145 surface before collecting macroinvertebrates. The relative surface area of each stone was
146 estimated as the product of its maximum diameter and maximum boundary length.

147 We analyzed eight community metrics for abundance (the number of individuals per
148 stone) and richness (the number of taxa per stone): total abundance, total taxon richness, and the
149 abundance and richness of three major aquatic insect orders in the benthic samples collected:
150 Ephemeroptera (mayflies), Trichoptera (caddisflies), and Diptera (true flies). We also determined
151 the abundance of the dominant families (i.e., Ephemerellidae, Baetidae, Heptageniidae,
152 Hydropsychidae, Chironomidae, and Simuliidae) of the three major aquatic groups, which were
153 defined as those families that accounted for more than 5% of the total abundance at each sampled
154 stone and that were collected at more than 30% of the sampled stones (i.e., more than 14 stones
155 of a total of 45 stones collected). For all macroinvertebrate metrics, the means and standard
156 errors (as indicators for the uncertainty in site mean) of five stones at each site were calculated
157 and used for further analyses. Macroinvertebrate abundances were \log_{10} -transformed ($x + 1$)
158 before calculation of the site means to satisfy the assumptions of further analyses.

159

160 *Fishes*

161 At each **site**, we established five fish-sampling areas of approximately 5 m × 10 m to cover all of
162 the habitats available (e.g., run, riffle, pool, and backwater) as much as possible. The distance
163 between sampling areas was set to be >20 m. Fishes were collected from the downstream to the
164 upstream end of each sampling area by using a backpack electrofishing unit (200–300 VDC; LR-
165 20B, Smith-Root, Inc., Vancouver, WA, USA) and by throwing a cast-net. After one pass
166 electrofishing, we used a cast-net four or five times within each sampling area to catch fishes in
167 places where the pool was too deep for electrofishing to work. The captured fishes were
168 anesthetized with phenoxyethanol and identified to species level if possible. The fork length was
169 measured to the nearest 1 mm and body weight was measured to the nearest 0.1 g onsite.

170 A total of five fish species were collected: *Oncorhynchus masou* (masu salmon; Salmonidae),
171 *Salvelinus leucomaenis* (white-spotted char; Salmonidae), *Barbatula oreas* (stone loach;
172 Nemacheilidae), *Lethenteron* spp. (lamprey; Petromyzontidae), and *Tribolodon* spp.
173 (Cyprinidae). We excluded *Tribolodon* spp. from the analyses because of their very limited
174 abundance in our samples (only two individuals collected at R4) and determined the abundance
175 (the number of individuals per sampling area) and condition factor of the other four species. The
176 abundances of fishes were \log_{10} -transformed ($x + 1$), and the means and standard errors of the
177 five replicate samplings at each site were used for later analyses. Also, the condition factor (CF)
178 was calculated as an indicator representing the health status of individual fish by using the
179 following equation:

180

$$181 \text{ CF} = \text{body weight (g)} / [\text{fork length (cm)}]^3 \times 1000. \quad (2)$$

182

183 The condition factor is relatively easy to measure in the field and is a sensitive measure to detect
184 the population-level consequences (Environment and Climate Change Canada 2015; Munkittrick
185 & Dixon 1989a). Condition factor data were pooled at individual sites and used in later analyses.

186 Approximately 128,000 individual hatchery-reared masu salmon fry (*O. masou*; mean fork
187 length: 5.6 cm) were released at a location between S2 and S3 on the contaminated river
188 (44°41'49"N, 142°30'20"E; Figure 1) on 6 June 2018. Masu salmon were also released at three
189 other locations including a tributary between R1 and R2 in the Tokushibetsu River basin in April
190 and June 2018 (not shown). All released fry have thermally induced otolith marks (Volk,
191 Schroder & Grimm 1999). To estimate the proportion of wild (natural-origin) and hatchery fish
192 at each site, we sampled and checked the otolith marks of 20–27 masu salmon captured from
193 each site in the laboratory. We then tested whether the inclusion of hatchery fish affected the
194 results of our analyses.

195

196 *Data analysis*

197 All statistical tests were performed using R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team 2019). A significance
198 level (α) of 0.05 was used. All the data used are available in the Supplementary File. In order to
199 evaluate any effects at the **five contaminated sites** in the river receiving the mine discharge (i.e.,
200 S1a–S4), we first evaluated whether the site mean for each biological metric was within the 90%
201 confidence interval for the four reference sites calculated on the basis of the standard deviation
202 of the reference site means. We refer to the 90% confidence intervals as “reference ranges” that
203 are assumed as likely observed ranges at reference sites. We then examined whether there were
204 statistically significant differences in biological metrics between each contaminated site and the
205 corresponding reference site with a similar elevation (R1 vs. S1a, R1 vs. S1b, R2 vs. S2, R3 vs.

206 S3, R4 vs. S4) by using a multiple comparison test (the single-step *P*-value adjustment; Bretz,
207 Hothorn & Westfall 2010) followed by analysis of variance.

208 We used the results of these two analyses to operationally interpret the findings in three
209 ways. If the mean of a given biological metric at a contaminated site was lower or higher than
210 the corresponding reference range and was significantly lower or higher than that of the
211 corresponding reference site by the multiple comparison test, we report that as an “adverse
212 effect”. If either one of these two results was observed we report that as “some effect of concern”
213 and if neither was observed, we conclude that there was “no effect of concern.”

214

215 **Results**

216 *Physicochemical parameters*

217 Concentrations of the four trace metals (Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb) at the contaminated sites (S1a–S4)
218 were approximately 2 to 190 times higher than the concentrations at the corresponding reference
219 sites at similar elevations, except for the concentration of Zn (25 µg/L) at reference site R1,
220 which was similar to the concentrations at S1a and S1b (Table 1). Concentrations of the metals
221 excluding Cu at many contaminated sites were higher than the values of the U.S. EPA WQC,
222 with higher concentrations and CCU values at the upstream sites. As previously observed
223 (Iwasaki et al. 2020), there was little difference in metal concentrations between the site just
224 upstream (S1a) and just downstream (S1b) of the inflow of treated discharge. This was most
225 likely due to the high concentrations of metals in an upstream tributary draining the mining area
226 (Iwasaki et al., unpublished data; Note that this is beyond the scope of the present study). CCU
227 values were greater than 1 at all of the contaminated sites except for S4, indicating potential
228 ecological risks based solely on the concentrations of the trace metals measured.

229 There were marginally lower values of pH, DOC, and water hardness at the metal-
230 contaminated sites compared with reference sites (Table 1), all of which generally increase the
231 bioavailability of metals (Adams et al. 2020). The estimated catchment areas of the metal-
232 contaminated sites were generally larger than those of the corresponding reference sites with
233 similar elevations (particularly between S2 and R2 and S3 and R3; Table 2), but other physical
234 parameters were similar at those sites.

235

236 *Macroinvertebrates and fishes*

237 All eight community metrics for macroinvertebrates at S3 and S4 were within the reference
238 ranges and were not significantly different from those at the corresponding reference sites
239 (Figure 2), indicating that there were no effects of concern at those contaminated sites. On the
240 other hand, there were adverse effects or some effects of concern for several of the community
241 metrics at the upstream contaminated sites (S1a, S1b, and S2). For example, the mayfly richness
242 at S2 (46% lower than at R2), the mayfly abundance at S1b (58% lower than at R1), and the
243 caddisfly abundance at S1b (83% lower than at R1), were lower than the reference ranges and
244 significantly lower than at the corresponding reference sites.

245 As with the metrics for the macroinvertebrate community, there were no effects of concern
246 for the abundances of any of the six dominant macroinvertebrate families at S3 and S4 (Figure
247 3). Although the variations within individual sites (i.e., the 90% confidence intervals of site
248 means) were relatively large, the abundances of heptageniid mayflies at S1a and S1b (68% lower
249 than R1) and the abundance of hydropsychid caddisflies at S1a (84% lower than R1) were lower
250 than the reference ranges and significantly lower than at the corresponding reference sites,
251 indicating adverse effects. Furthermore, there were some effects of concern for the abundances
252 of Simuliidae and Chironomidae at some of the upstream contaminated sites (S1a, S1b, and S2).

253 No adverse effects were detected for the abundances or condition factor of the four fish
254 species sampled, except for the abundance of *O. masou* at S3. Although there were some
255 occasional effects of concern (e.g., the abundances of *B. oreas* at S2–S4; Figure 4), the sites
256 where significant differences were observed or the mean value was higher or lower than the
257 reference range varied depending on species. An adverse effect was detected for the abundance
258 of *O. masou* at S3, whereas there were no effects of concern for this metric at other contaminated
259 sites. The estimated proportions of released hatchery masu salmon at three of the reference sites
260 (R1, R3, R4) and two of the contaminated sites (S1a, S1b) were 0%, whereas at R2, S2, S3, and
261 S4 the proportions were 9% (2 of 23), 48% (13 of 27), 5% (1 of 21), and 18% (4 of 22),
262 respectively. We estimated the abundances of wild *O. masou* at each site using these proportions
263 and reran the two analyses. The reanalysis did not change the conclusions on the effects of mine
264 contamination on the abundance of *O. masou* at contaminated sites.

265

266 Discussion

267 Our results suggest that macroinvertebrate communities and fish populations at the two
268 downstream sites in the contaminated river in northern Japan, with CCU values <4, were little
269 affected by metal contamination. This is consistent with the results of a previous study in 2017
270 sampling benthic macroinvertebrates (see Iwasaki et al. 2020 for the detailed discussion about
271 the relationship between CCUs and effects on macroinvertebrate richness and abundance).
272 Although we observed a significant decrease in the abundance of *O. masou* at S3, this is unlikely
273 due to metal contamination because no such decrease was observed at the contaminated sites
274 farther upstream with higher metal concentrations (Figure 4).

275 The concentration of dissolved Zn at the most upstream reference site (R1; Table 1) was
276 relatively high compared with other reference sites and the U.S. EPA WQC (the CCU value was

277 2.1 at this site). The relative standard deviation for Zn based on three replicate water samples
278 was small (2%) at R1. Although there were no measurements before the sampling campaign, the
279 Zn concentration at R1 was comparable to other reference sites in the sampling conducted in
280 September 2018 (1.0 $\mu\text{g/L}$; Table S1). It is impossible to determine the underlying reasons for
281 the relatively high Zn concentration at R1, but it is reasonable to regard R1 as a reference site
282 given that we detected no effects on macroinvertebrates and fishes at S3 and S4 with CCUs <4.

283 At the two upstream sites (S1a and S1b) with CCU values of approximately 9, we detected
284 adverse effects with some macroinvertebrate metrics, such as the mayfly abundance and the
285 abundance of heptageniid mayflies. Similar results were obtained in the benthic
286 macroinvertebrate sampling in September 2018 (Figures S1 and S2). Among the
287 macroinvertebrate metrics, mayfly richness and abundance are relatively sensitive to changes in
288 metal contamination levels (Carlisle & Clements 1999; Clements, Vieira & Church 2010) and
289 heptageniid mayflies are also well known as one of the families most sensitive to metal
290 contamination (Clements et al. 2000; Iwasaki, Schmidt & Clements 2018). These results suggest
291 that the metal contamination levels at sites S1a and S1b might have been close to the threshold
292 where some adverse effects on sensitive macroinvertebrates would be detected.

293 We observed several significantly lower values for some macroinvertebrate metrics at S2
294 compared with the corresponding reference site (R2), but few effects were observed at S2 in a
295 previous study (Iwasaki et al. 2020) or in the field sampling in September 2018 (Figures S1 and
296 S2). The lower values at S2 could have been attributable to factors other than metal
297 contamination, given that such lower values in the macroinvertebrate metrics were not often
298 observed at the more upstream sites (S1a and S1b). One possible factor is the presence of
299 stenopsychid caddisflies (3.4 individuals/stone at R2; they were absent at S2). The biomass of
300 macroinvertebrates can increase following colonization of the riverbed by net-spinning stream

301 caddisfly larvae, which construct fixed “retreats” that increase riverbed stability and modify the
302 microhabitat structure (Nunokawa et al. 2008; Stanzner 2012; Takao et al. 2006; Tumolo et al.
303 2019). Thus, we speculate that the differences in macroinvertebrate metrics between S2 and R2
304 might have been associated with the presence of stenopsychid caddisflies at R2. While biological
305 assessments like this study are useful to detect ecological impairments in the field (Barbour et al.
306 1999), diagnostic tests of metal exposure and biomarkers may be valuable to further examine the
307 causes (Forbes, Palmqvist & Bach 2006; Miller et al. 2015).

308 With the exception of *S. leucomaenis*, there were no effects of concern for fish abundances or
309 condition factor, even at the two most contaminated sites (S1a and S1b). Although the abundance
310 and condition factor of *S. leucomaenis* at S1a and S1b were significantly lower than at the
311 corresponding reference site, they were still within the reference ranges. Given the relatively
312 large variation and the limited number of individuals collected (a total of 13), further study is
313 likely required to reach a more firm conclusion for this species as well as for *Lethenteron* spp.
314 Results from fish sampling in September 2018 were generally similar to our results (Figure S3),
315 but there are inconsistencies; the contaminated sites showing significant differences from
316 reference sites varied between the two sampling periods. However, these results at least suggest
317 that there is little need for concern about the effects of metal contamination on the abundance
318 and condition factor of *O. masou*, for which there is a local stocking program.

319

320 **Conclusions**

321 Overall, the results from our field study suggest that the richness and abundance of
322 macroinvertebrates (e.g., mayfly richness and abundance of heptageniid mayflies) are more
323 sensitive to metal contamination than the abundance and condition factor of fishes in the river
324 studied. These differences in responses to metal contamination have been reported in several

325 studies, and metrics based on fishes are generally less responsive to metal contamination than
326 those based on macroinvertebrates (Clements, Vieira & Church 2010; Freund & Petty 2007;
327 Namba et al. 2020), which is consistent with our results. Although it is difficult to determine the
328 underlying reasons for these differences, spatial–temporal characteristics of organisms’
329 responses to metal contamination should have an important role; macroinvertebrates tend to
330 reflect local and more recent conditions than fishes, which are more mobile and relatively
331 longer-lived. Compared with macroinvertebrates, however, the number of fishes captured and the
332 associated metrics were limited in our study. For instance, benthic fishes such as sculpins can be
333 more responsive to metals than salmonids (Maret & MacCoy 2002; Munkittrick & Dixon
334 1989b), and physiological and biochemical responses of fishes have been employed as early
335 warnings for the population level effects (Forbes, Palmqvist & Bach 2006; Hanson 2009). It
336 would therefore be valuable to accumulate empirical evidence for ecological indicators sensitive
337 to metal contamination within and among biological groups to choose which groups to survey for
338 general environmental impact assessments in contaminated rivers.

339

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344

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Figure 1

Map showing location of the study area and sampling sites.

The cross mark indicates the location where hatchery-reared masu salmon were released (see text for details). Map was created using Quantum Geographic Information System (QGIS version 3.10; <http://qgis.osgeo.org>) based on National Land Numerical Information provided by Geospatial Information Authority of Japan (<http://nlftp.mlit.go.jp/ksj/>).

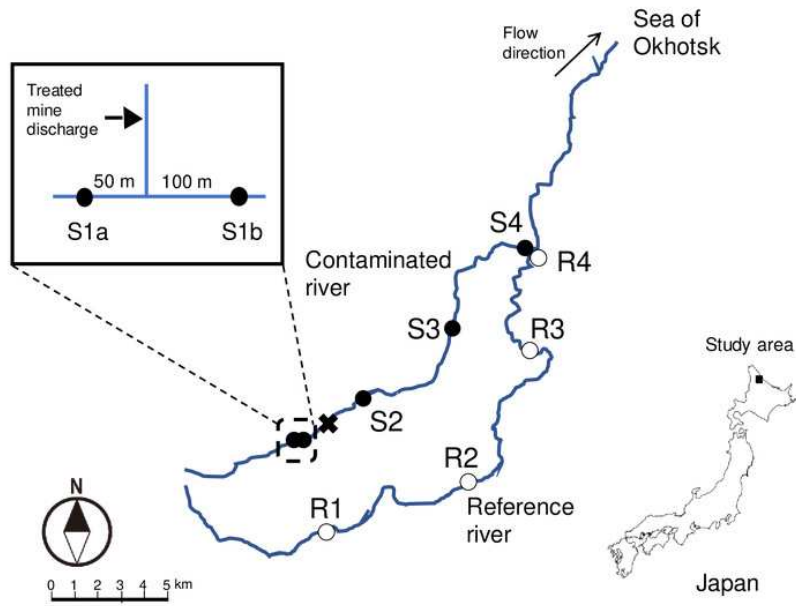


Figure 2

Abundance (number of individuals) and taxon richness (number of taxa) of macroinvertebrates at reference (R1-R4) and contaminated (S1a-S4) sites.

The same symbols indicate sites with similar elevations. Error bars indicate 90% confidence intervals of site means. Horizontal lines and gray areas are the means and 90% confidence intervals calculated from means for the four reference sites, respectively. Asterisks indicate contaminated sites with values significantly lower or higher than the corresponding reference sites with similar elevation ($P < 0.05$).

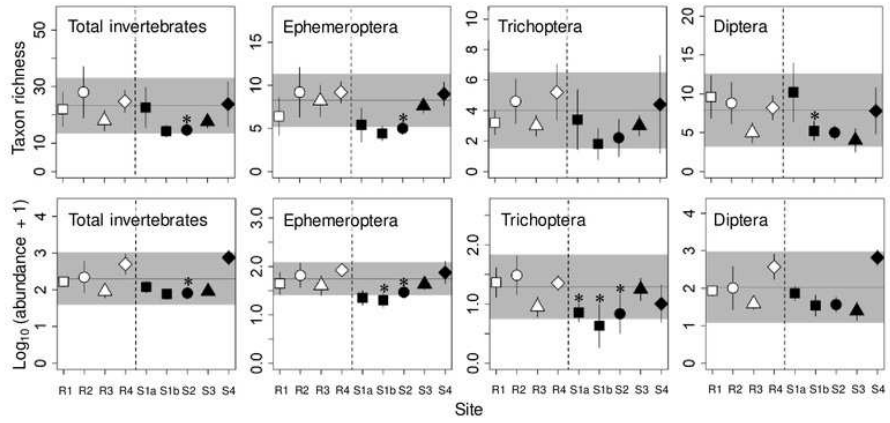


Figure 3

Abundance (number of individuals per stone) of dominant families of macroinvertebrates at reference (R1-R4) and contaminated (S1a-S4) sites.

The same symbols indicate sites with similar elevations. Error bars indicate 90% confidence intervals of site means. Horizontal lines and gray areas are the means and 90% confidence intervals calculated from means for the four reference sites, respectively. Asterisks indicate contaminated sites with values significantly lower or higher than the corresponding reference sites with similar elevations ($P < 0.05$).

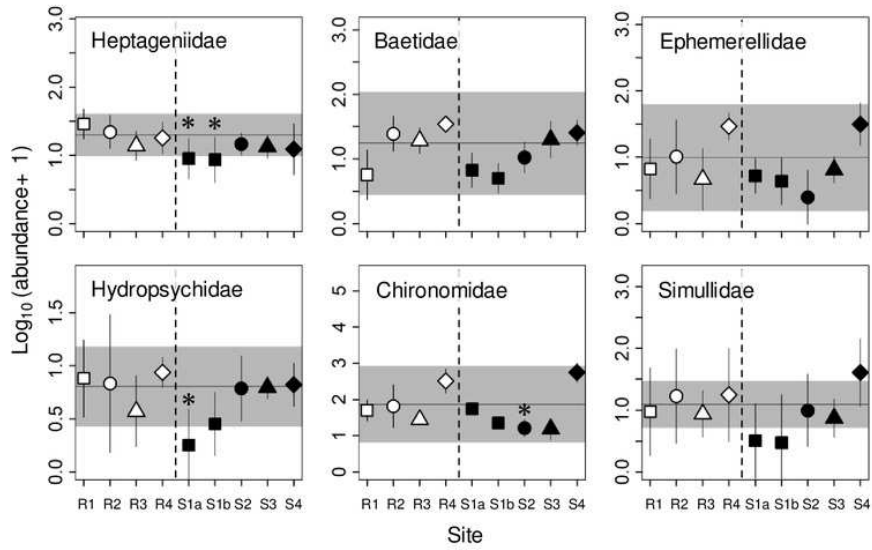


Figure 4

Abundance (number of individuals per 50 m²) and condition factor of fishes at reference (R1-R4) and contaminated (S1a-S4) sites.

The same symbols indicate sites with similar elevations. Error bars indicate 90% confidence intervals of site means. Horizontal lines and gray areas are the means and 90% confidence intervals calculated from means for the four reference sites, respectively. Asterisks indicate contaminated sites with values significantly lower or higher than the corresponding reference sites with similar elevations ($P < 0.05$). For *S. leucomaenis*, the 90% confidence interval was not calculated from reference site means because this species was only captured at one reference site (R1).

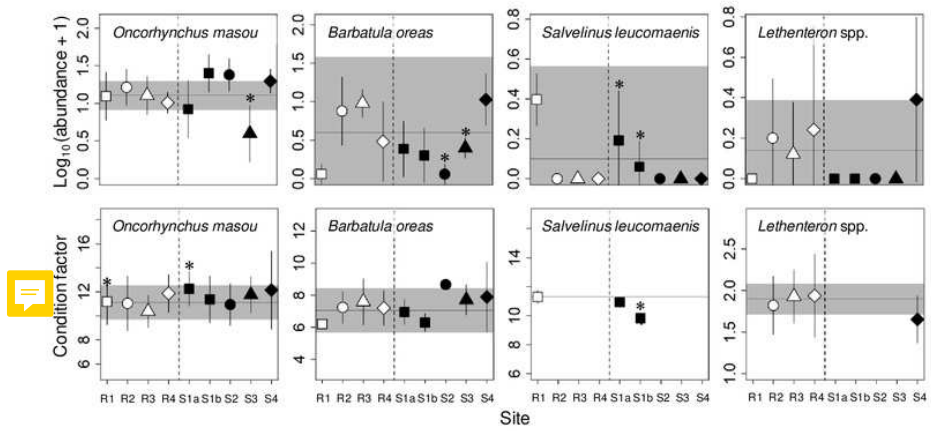


Table 1 (on next page)

Water-quality measurements at study sites in the Tokushibetsu River system, northern Japan (26–28 June 2018)

1 Table 1. Water-quality measurements at study sites in the Tokushibetsu River system, northern Japan (26–28 June 2018)

Site	Cu	Cd	Pb	Zn	CCU	Temp	pH	DO	DOC	Conductivity	Hardness
□	Dissolved (µg/L)				□	(°C)	□	(mg/L)	(mg/L)	(µs/cm)	(mg/L)
Contaminated sites											
S1a	1.0	0.13	0.69	24.0	8.4	9.1	7.1	11	0.3	54	13
S1b	1.1	0.16	0.71	27.5	9.4	9.3	7.0	11	0.4	52	13
S2	0.8	0.17	0.25	25.9	6.8	9.4	7.2	11	0.3	57	14
S3	0.5	0.07	0.23	11.5	3.8	11.5	7.4	11	0.4	56	13
S4	0.3	<0.005	0.05	4.8	0.9	10.2	7.5	11	0.7	60	14
Reference sites											
R1	0.1	<0.005	0.09	25.3	2.1	10.6	7.5	10	0.8	41	10
R2	0.1	<0.005	<0.005	0.1	0.1	10.2	7.5	11	0.7	46	11
R3	0.1	<0.005	0.04	0.1	0.3	11.7	7.7	11	0.6	48	11
R4	0.1	<0.005	0.03	0.3	0.3	9.7	8.0	12	0.7	50	12
WQC	1.3	0.05	0.19	16.8	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

2 DO, dissolved oxygen; DOC, dissolved organic carbon; CCU, cumulative criterion unit (see text for details); Temp, temperature;

3 WQC, U.S. EPA chronic water-quality criterion at a water hardness of 10 mg/L (U. S. EPA 2002). Limits of quantification for Cu, Zn,

4 Cd, and Pb were 0.001, 0.06, 0.005, and 0.005 µg/L, respectively.

Table 2 (on next page)

Physical parameters at the study sites in the Tokushibetsu River system, northern Japan

1 Table 2. Physical parameters at the study sites in the Tokushibetsu River system, northern Japan

Site	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Catchment area (km ²)	Channel width (m)	Studied riffles			Sampled stones		
				Width (m)	Maximum depth (cm)	Maximum velocity (cm/s)	Depth (cm)	Velocity (cm/s)	Relative surface area (cm ²)
Contaminated sites									
S1a	330	18	11	4.5	27	170	6.9 (3.5)	102 (33)	1026 (403)
S1b	330	19	10	8.6	28	170	6.3 (3.2)	73 (27)	851 (169)
S2	230	29	9	9	25	165	7.6 (3.6)	98 (25)	1003 (260)
S3	130	46	11	14	25	200	6.6 (2.5)	98 (31)	1192 (404)
S4	30	117	21	5.1	25	230	6.5 (2.8)	89 (24)	1114 (396)
Reference sites									
R1	285	27	11	11	26	180	7.4 (1.2)	87 (47)	1016 (278)
R2	170	77	14	11	25	170	4.2 (1.6)	91 (40)	931 (311)
R3	75	107	21	16	23	170	6.4 (3.3)	100 (36)	1007 (280)
R4	35	127	24	7.7	24	170	5.5 (1.7)	86 (24)	1039 (322)

2 Depth, velocity, and relative surface area for sampled stones are the means (and standard deviations) of five stones sampled.