

1 **Simultaneous uptake of Cd from sediment, water and diet in a**
2 **demersal marine goby *Mugilogobius chulae***

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27 **Abstract**

28 The embryonic state of our knowledge regarding the simultaneous uptake of trace
29 metals *via* multiple routes in aquatic organisms makes it difficult to accurately assess
30 the bioaccumulation and risk of metals. This study used cadmium (Cd) and a demersal
31 marine fish (the yellowstripe goby) as a model system to determine tissue-specific
32 uptake of Cd under conditions of simultaneous exposure to Cd from water, sediment
33 and diet. A triple stable isotope tracing method was used in which each exposure route
34 was spiked by a different stable isotope (^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd). The results revealed
35 that the fish took up waterborne and sedimentary Cd *via* gills and gastrointestinal tract
36 (GT), and that of dietary Cd was *via* the GT. The gills absorbed Cd predominantly
37 from water (77.2-89.4%), whilst the GT absorbed Cd mainly from diet (81.3-98.7%).
38 In the muscle and carcass, Cd uptake was mainly from the diet (47.1-80.4%) and
39 water (22.8-51.6%). Our study demonstrated that when aquatic animals were subject
40 to simultaneous exposure through multiple uptake routes, the uptake and relative
41 importance of each route for metal accumulation was highly tissue-specific and more
42 complex than a single route of metal exposure.

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44 **Key words:** marine fish, cadmium, demersal animals, sediment, multiple routes,
45 isotope tracers

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Graphic Abstract

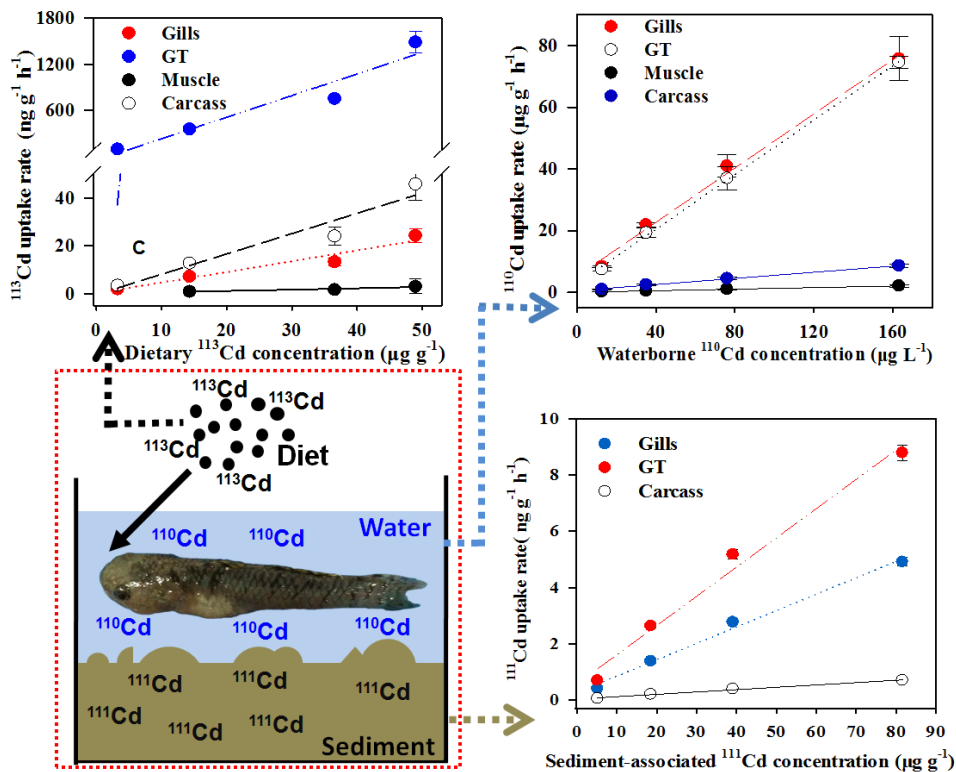


Figure Caption: The simultaneous uptake of waterborne ^{110}Cd , sediment-associated ^{111}Cd , and dietary ^{113}Cd in the different tissues (the gills, gastrointestinal tract (GT), muscle and carcass) of the yellowstripe goby (*Mugilogobius chulae*) exposed to Cd via three routes.

77 **1. Introduction**

78 The widespread exploitation of cadmium (Cd) since the second Industrial Revolution
79 has elevated concentrations of this biologically non-essential and highly toxic trace
80 metal in environments. The occurrence of Cd contamination was responsible for the
81 notorious disease of Itai-itai (a bone disease characterized by fractures and severe pain
82 caused by the excessive Cd intake) in the Toyama Prefecture of Japan in the 1950's
83 [1]. Since then, there has been serious international concern regarding Cd pollution
84 [2,3].

85 Marine ecosystems, the ultimate receptacles of the most anthropogenic pollutants,
86 are frequently subjected Cd pollution, especially in coastal and estuarine areas [3-6].
87 Among aquatic organisms, the level of Cd bioaccumulation in fish has considerable
88 significance for the health of the general population, given the fact that the
89 consumption of fish is usually the dominant route of Cd exposure to human [7-9].
90 Indeed, the bulk of studies have observed high levels of Cd bioaccumulation in fish,
91 which results in the associated high risk of Cd exposure to the general populations *via*
92 fish consumption [10-13].

93 Moreover, fish often play an integral role in aquatic ecosystems, due to their key
94 trophic niches and wide habitats, which facilitates their use as a model with high
95 ecological and environmental relevance for the understanding of trace metal
96 bioavailability and bioaccumulation behaviors [14]. Hence, the levels of metal
97 bioaccumulation in fish, as an assessment endpoint, have been utilized in many
98 previous studies assessing population health risk and ecological risk of heavy metal
99 pollution in aquatic ecosystems [8,13]. However, there have been surprisingly few
100 attempts made to understand the uptake of sediment-associated metals in fish in
101 relation to benthic aquatic invertebrates (e.g., oysters, scallop, and aquatic insects
102 [15,16]), even though sediments are well known as a major carrier of trace metals and
103 thus are potential secondary sources of their contaminants in aquatic ecosystems. To
104 date, the bioavailability and bioaccumulation of sedimentary metals to fish remains at
105 the embryonic state, especially for the demersal fish that are sediment-dwelling and/or

106 deposit-feeding, which should have a great potential for the take up of sedimentary
107 metals (e.g., Gobioidae such as *Rhinogobius giurinus* and *Rhinogobius cliffordpopei*
108 [17,18]). In field studies, there have been many reports that demersal fish can
109 accumulate high levels of metals and thus they might pose a substantial health risk to
110 human health [8,19,20]. Consequently, a substantial need exists to characterize the
111 uptake of sediment-associated metals in fish species, especially in demersal species,
112 which have great significance for both population health and ecological risk
113 assessments for heavy metal pollution in aquatic habitats.

114 In fish, the gills and the gastrointestinal tract (GT) are the two main routes for
115 metal uptake [16]. In general, the gills are the main site for uptake of dissolved metals
116 in the water phase, and the GT is the principle site for the assimilation of dietary
117 metals. However, our previous work has suggested that the GT is also important for
118 uptake of dissolved metals in marine fish, owing to the continuous exposure of the GT
119 caused by the need to drink seawater for osmoregulation purposes [21-23]. Moreover,
120 we have demonstrated the significant influence that simultaneous water borne and
121 dietary metal exposure has on the uptake of dietary metals by the GT of marine fish
122 [24], and we further demonstrated that metal uptake *via* the water route can be
123 substantially affected when fish are simultaneous exposed to metal through the dietary
124 route [23]. These results revealed that the uptake of metal from multiple routes is
125 more complex than a single route of metal uptake, and there are tissue-specific
126 interactions among metals from different exposure pathways [23,24]. Nevertheless,
127 most previous studies on fish determined tissue-specific metal uptake using a single
128 route of metal exposure (i.e. there was no dietary metal exposure in determining
129 waterborne metal uptake and *vice versa*), which yields a very limited picture of how
130 specific fish tissues accumulate metals under realistic conditions. This is especially
131 the case for demersal fish, which are often exposed to metal through three routes
132 simultaneously (i.e., waterborne, dietary and sediment-associated metals).

133 In the present study, we used the highly toxic element Cd and the yellowstripe
134 goby (*Mugilogobius chulae*), a typical demersal fish with potential as a model marine

135 fish [24,25]), as a model system to investigate metal uptake under conditions of
136 simultaneous exposure *via* three routes (i.e. water, sediment and diet). A triple stable
137 isotope tracing method was used to explore to the uptake of spiked waterborne (^{110}Cd),
138 sediment-associated (^{111}Cd) and dietary Cd (^{113}Cd). We quantified time-course
139 bioaccumulation and influx rate of Cd in the gills, GT, muscle and carcass when the
140 fish were simultaneously exposed to the three routes of Cd. Furthermore, the
141 tissue-specific distribution and relative importance of Cd from the different routes was
142 determined.

143

144 **2. Materials and methods**

145 *2.1. The test organisms and Cd*

146 The juvenile marine yellowstripe gobies (*Mugilogobius chulae*, $1.64 \pm 0.12 \text{ g fish}^{-1}$)
147 were provided by Guangdong Laboratory Animals Monitoring Institute (Guangzhou,
148 China). Fish were acclimatized for 2 weeks in the laboratory aquaria before the
149 exposure experiment. During the acclimatization, the fish were fed with oven dried
150 peanut worms (*Sipunculus nudus*) fragmented into pieces with diameters $<1 \text{ mm}$.

151 The stable isotopes ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd (99.6%, International Atomic Energy
152 Agency Office at USA, New York) were used as tracers, whilst CdCl_2 that contained
153 Cd with natural isotopic ratios (Sigma-Aldrich) was used as a typical, non-tracer
154 source of Cd.

155

156 *2.2. Cd equilibration in the water and sediment*

157 The surface sediment ($\sim 0\text{-}5 \text{ cm}$ depth) was collected from Daya Bay (Guangdong
158 Province, South China ($114^\circ 40' \text{ E}$, $22^\circ 40' \text{ N}$)), and transported to the lab in airtight
159 containers. The sediment was sieved (mesh size of 0.43 mm) and washed with
160 distilled water 5 times to remove the background heavy metals. To re-establish the
161 salinity, the sediment was further washed through with seawater (30-32 psu) 3 times.
162 Washed sediment was settled overnight and overlaying water was siphoned off. The
163 sediment was then oven-dried at 80°C . The moisture and organic matter content of

164 the sediment was 16.3 ± 1.12 % and 13.8 ± 1.27 % ($n= 5$). The Cd content in the
165 sediment was 0.019 ± 0.002 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry weight ($n= 5$).

166 The Cd equilibration in the Cd-spiked sea water and sediments was determined
167 in a preliminary experiment. Briefly, the sea water was first spiked with typical Cd.
168 The nominal Cd concentration in the sea water was 20, 50, 100, and 200 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. Then,
169 the prepared sediment was added to the aquaria containing the Cd-spiked sea water,
170 homogenized for 15 minutes, and shaken for 30 minutes. The equilibration of Cd
171 between the spiked water and sediments was then investigated. The results suggested
172 the time required to reach equilibrium was 4 weeks (STable 1 (Supporting
173 Information of Table 1)). Thus, the Cd concentration of water and sediment at the end
174 of the equilibration was the reference for the following Cd uptake experiments
175 (STable 1).

176

177 *2.3. Cd spiking in water, sediment and diet*

178 Four treatments (namely T1, T2, T3 and T4) were used in this study. Seawater
179 treatments were spiked with ^{110}Cd at concentration of 16, 44, 90, and 185 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in T1
180 to T4 respectively (STable 1). Sediments of T1-T4 were spiked with ^{111}Cd at
181 concentrations of 6, 22, 45, and 90 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ DW (STable 1) by adding a known volume
182 of solution containing ^{111}Cd to a known mass of the prepared sediment for each
183 concentration (1: 2 ml g^{-1}). The sediment was then, homogenized for 15 minutes,
184 shaken for 30 minutes, and oven-dried for 48 h at 60 °C. To spike fish diets with ^{113}Cd ,
185 peanut worms were maintained for 4 weeks in seawater containing ^{113}Cd at
186 concentrations of 15, 40, 87 and 178 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for T1 to T4 respectively. The measured
187 ^{113}Cd content in the peanut worm was 5.17 ± 0.61 , 28.45 ± 2.46 , 54.1 ± 6.11 , 69.2 ± 5.03
188 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ in T1-T4, respectively.

189

190 *2.4. Cd uptake experiment*

191 The Cd uptake experiment (24 h) was conducted in 100 ml beakers. The ^{111}Cd spiked
192 sediment was first added in the beaker, and then the ^{110}Cd spiked seawater was lightly

193 added. The beakers were then left to stabilize for 48 h.

194 Juvenile marine yellowstripe gobies were individually kept and fed in similar
195 beakers for 1 week to acclimate to the experimental conditions, during which the fish
196 were not exposed to Cd beyond background. Before Cd exposure, fish were starved
197 for 48 h and then fed with ^{113}Cd spiked diet for 1 h (resulting in the ingestion of food
198 equivalent to ca. 13.5% of body weight). Fish were then individually transferred to the
199 prepared beaker containing the ^{111}Cd spiked sediment and ^{110}Cd spiked seawater. As
200 the chyme evacuation time of the fish was 24 h after a single dose of dietary Cd
201 exposure and the fish finished the dietary Cd uptake within 24 h based on our
202 previous study, the simultaneous uptake experiment was conducted over 24 h for all
203 routes in the present study.

204 During the 24 h uptake experiment, 8 fish in each treatment were sampled at 2, 4,
205 8, 12, and 24 h. The sediment, overlying water (< 5 cm to the sediment) and water
206 (middle column water) was sampled at the same time intervals. Fish feces were
207 siphoned off gently at 8, 12, 18 and 24 h.

208 The fish were sacrificed by overdose MS-222. The gills, gastrointestinal tracts
209 (GT), muscle and carcass were then sampled [24] and the chyme in the stomach and
210 intestine was carefully collected. The pore water in the sediment was immediately
211 extracted by centrifugation at 3500 rpm for 10 min.

212

213 *2.6. Cd stable isotope concentration analysis*

214 Samples of 0.06-0.1 g were digested in 1 ml of HNO_3 (69%, ultrapure, Fisher
215 Scientific, Geel, Belgium) for 48 h at 80 °C. The sample was pooled in the same
216 treatment if the sample was < 0.05 g. The samples of seawater were digested by
217 HNO_3 at room temperature for 48 h (1:1). Then the content of total Cd and stable
218 isotope (^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd) were quantified by inductively coupled plasma-mass
219 spectroscopy (ICP-MS, 7700X, Agilent Technologies Inc., California, USA). The
220 internal standard was ^{115}In and a QC sample was analysed every 20 samples during
221 the analysis. The concentration of ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd in the samples were

222 calculated as described by Croteau et al. [26] and Guo et al. [24] (see details in the
223 Supporting Information).

224

225 2.7. Data calculation and statistical analysis

226 The influx rate of Cd (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) was calculated by linear regression between the
227 net increase of Cd in the fish and exposure time. The J_{in} was estimated from 0-12 h
228 and 12-24 h based on the food gut pass time of this species [24].

229 The dietary ^{113}Cd assimilation efficiency (AEs) was calculated as:

230 $\text{AE} = A_{24\text{h}} / A_{0\text{h}} \times 100$, where $A_{24\text{h}}$ was the ^{113}Cd retained in the fish at 24h, and $A_{0\text{h}}$

231 was the ^{113}Cd content in the fish at 0 h after feeding [24].

232 The differences in AEs among the T1-T4 were analyzed using one-way analysis
233 of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Tukey's HSD *post-hoc* test. Analysis of
234 covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the differences in the slope from the
235 regression between Cd uptake rate and ambient Cd content, using ambient Cd content
236 as the covariate.

237 Normality and homogeneity of data was determined using Kolmogorov-Smirnov
238 test and Levene's test. Difference was regarded as significant when $p < 0.05$. All
239 statistical analyses were performed by the SPSS software package (vs. 18, SPSS Inc.,
240 Chicago, USA).

241

242 3. Results

243 3.1. The verification of Cd content in sediment, water and chyme

244 3.1.1. The ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd contents in the overlying water and water

245 The ^{110}Cd concentration in the water and overlying water was similar (SFig. 1A&D
246 (Supporting Information of Figure 1)). The sediment-derived ^{111}Cd was detected in
247 both in the water ($0.77\text{-}5.92 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, SFig. 1C), and overlying water ($1.26\text{-}15.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$,
248 SFig. 1E) of T2-T4. The dietary ^{113}Cd was detected in the in the water ($0.57\text{-}1.71 \mu\text{g}$
249 L^{-1} , SFig. 1C) and overlying water ($1.02\text{-}2.23 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, SFig. 1F) of T3 and T4.
250 However, ^{111}Cd in sediment and ^{113}Cd in diet was $5.90\text{-}31.4 \times 10^3$ -fold higher than

251 that in the water and overlying water.

252

253 3.1.2. The ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd contents in the pore water and sediment

254 The water-derived ^{110}Cd concentration was between $0.73\text{--}32.7 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in the pore water
255 (SFig. 2A), and $0.77\text{--}7.16 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ in the sediments (SFig. 2D). The pore water ^{111}Cd was
256 $26.6\text{--}695 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in T1-T4 (SFig. 2B). The ^{111}Cd in the sediment was slightly lower
257 than the nominal values (SFig. 2E). Dietary ^{113}Cd in the pore water was only found in
258 T4 ($0.35\text{--}0.58 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, SFig. 2C).

259

260 3.1.3. The ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd contents in the chyme

261 The water-derived ^{110}Cd increased steadily from 4-24 h in the chyme of the fish
262 ($0.22\text{--}8.97 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$, SFig. 3A). The sediment-derived ^{111}Cd was only detectable in the
263 chyme of T3-T4 ($0.21\text{--}1.29 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$, SFig. 3B), while the dietary ^{113}Cd showed a steady
264 decrease from 2-24 h in all four treatment groups (SFig. 3C).

265

266 3.2. The tissue specific uptake of waterborne ^{110}Cd

267 The newly bioaccumulated waterborne ^{110}Cd increased with the exposure time in the
268 four tissues (i.e., gills (Fig. 1A), GT (Fig. 1B), muscle (Fig. 1C) and carcass (Fig.
269 1D)). The gills and GT accumulated comparable amounts of ^{110}Cd , and the muscle
270 had the lowest values (Fig. 1).

271 The gills and GT showed similar ^{110}Cd influx rate (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), which was
272 8~11-fold higher than that of carcass, and 30~60-fold higher than that of muscle
273 (Table 1). Moreover, the J_{in} of ^{110}Cd in the tissues was linearly correlated with the
274 ^{110}Cd contents in water (Fig. 2A). The slope of the regression was significantly higher
275 in the gills and GT compared with those in the carcass and muscle (ANCOVA, $p <$
276 0.05 , Fig. 2A).

277

278 3.3. The tissue specific uptake of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd

279 The sediment-associated ^{111}Cd contents in the four tissues also increased steadily with

280 the exposure time (Fig. 3). The GT showed the highest ^{111}Cd concentration, followed
281 by gills and carcass, and the lowest values was found in the muscle (Fig. 3).

282 The J_{in} of ^{111}Cd in the GT was 1.7~2.0 fold higher than that in the gills, and
283 11.7~13.1-fold higher that in the carcass (Table 2). The slope of the regression was
284 highest in the GT, which was significantly higher than that in the carcass (ANCOVA,
285 $p < 0.05$, Fig. 2B).

286

287 *3.4. The tissue specific uptake of dietary ^{113}Cd*

288 All treatment groups showed similar AEs of dietary ^{113}Cd (1.35-1.74 %, ANOVA, $p >$
289 0.05, SFig. 4). The concentrations of dietary ^{113}Cd in the tissues displayed a quick
290 increase during 0-12 h, and then a low increase during 12-24 h in the gills, muscle
291 and carcass (Fig. 4), while the ^{113}Cd contents in the GT decreased steadily from 12 to
292 24 h (Fig. 4B).

293 During 0-12 h, the J_{in} of dietary ^{113}Cd was highest in the GT, which was
294 47~61-fold and 26~32-fold higher than that of gills and carcass respectively (Table 3).
295 Furthermore, the slope of the regression was significantly higher in the GT than that
296 in the other tissues (ANCOVA, $p < 0.05$, Fig. 2C).

297

298 *3.5. The distribution and relative importance of Cd uptake route*

299 *3.5.1. The tissue specific distribution of Cd*

300 The time-course percentage partitioning of newly bioaccumulated Cd among tissues
301 was similar among T1-T4 for ^{110}Cd (SFig. 5), ^{111}Cd (SFig. 6), and ^{113}Cd (SFig. 7).
302 Thus, the data of T1-T4 was pooled (Fig. 5). The proportion of the ^{110}Cd and ^{111}Cd
303 was highest in the carcass, followed by the gills and GT, and it was lowest in the
304 muscle (Fig. 5A&B). The highest ^{113}Cd contents were in the GT, followed by the
305 carcass (Fig. 5C).

306

307 *3.5.2. The relative importance of Cd*

308 The time-course relative importance (%) of ^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd , and ^{113}Cd in the tissues was

309 similar among T1-T4 (SFig. 8-11). Thus, the data of T1-T4 was pooled (Fig. 6). In the
310 gills, ^{110}Cd from the water was dominant (77-89 %), followed by ^{113}Cd from the diet
311 (5-18 %) and then ^{111}Cd from the sediment (4.3-5.6 %, Fig. 6A). In the GT, the
312 contribution of the ^{113}Cd was dominant (81-99 %, Fig. 6B). In the muscle and carcass,
313 the ^{113}Cd showed slightly higher contribution than ^{110}Cd , while the proportion of ^{111}Cd
314 was very low (0.7-2.2 %, Fig. 6C & D).

315

316 **4. Discussion**

317 *4.1. The scenario of simultaneous uptake of Cd from water, sediment and diet*

318 This study firstly detailed the scenario of time-course tissue-specific uptake of Cd
319 from water, sediment and diet in demersal marine fish. The findings demonstrated that
320 the bioaccumulation of waterborne ^{110}Cd in the four tissues of the fish proportionally
321 increased with the increase of ambient ^{110}Cd levels, and also increased steadily with
322 the exposure time. This pattern was almost same among the four treatment groups (i.e.,
323 T1-T4, Fig.1), which is consistent with our previous studies on Cd uptake in this
324 species [24], and is similar to the findings for the marine black seabream
325 (*Acanthopagrus schlegeli*) [21]. Moreover, we likewise found that the dietary ^{113}Cd
326 AEs and the time-course changes in the ^{113}Cd content of the tissues were also similar
327 among T1-T4 (Fig. 4 & SFig. 4), which corresponded with our previous studies
328 [22,24]. Therefore, there was no unequivocal evidence that the uptake of Cd *via* one
329 of the three routes was significantly affected by the simultaneous exposure of Cd from
330 the other routes, at least within the range of ambient Cd concentrations used in this
331 study.

332 Although our recent findings in marine fish revealed the interaction between
333 waterborne and dietary metal uptake with a simultaneous exposure scenario (i.e. a
334 substantial effect of waterborne Cd on the uptake of dietary Cd [23], and the
335 suppression of dietary metal on the uptake of dissolved metal in the fish GT [24]), it is
336 noteworthy that the presence and magnitude of the effect of a given route of Cd
337 uptake on the another route of Cd uptake might be closely related to the ambient metal

338 concentrations in each route, based on the results of the present study and previous
339 work [24]. Hence, it seems that the paradigm of simultaneous uptake of metals from
340 multiple routes in marine fish is far more complex than that of a single route of metal
341 uptake in both short-term [23,24]) and long-term metal exposure scenarios [27,28]. As
342 a consequence, simultaneous uptake of metals by organisms *via* multiple routes
343 should be addressed extensively because this scenario has a much higher
344 environmental relevance for population health risk and/or ecological risk assessments
345 of heavy metal pollution.

346

347 *4.2. The uptake of sediment-associated Cd in the demersal fish*

348 The present study demonstrated that the uptake of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd showed
349 a similar pattern to waterborne ^{110}Cd (Fig. 3), suggesting that the predominant route of
350 sediment-associated ^{111}Cd uptake is from the dissolved ^{111}Cd in the water (e.g.,
351 overlying and pore water *via* dissolved or particle-associated ^{111}Cd ; SFig. 1). During
352 the exposure in the present study, no frequent burrowing behavior was observed in the
353 fish and the GT of the fish was not found to contain sediments. Consequently, the fish
354 ought to have taken up a very small amount of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd *via* the
355 ingestion of bulk of sediment (SFig. 1). The present findings were in line with several
356 observations made under field exposure conditions [29,30]. In Lake Laflamme
357 (Quebec City, Canada), for instance, Hare et al. [30] reported that most invertebrate
358 taxa accumulated more than 75% of their Cd from the water column compartment
359 (mainly from overlying water). Only those with typical burrowing and/or
360 sediment-feeding behaviors took up amounts of Cd from the sediment compartment.
361 These results demonstrated the great significance of sediment-derived Cd in the water
362 compartment (e.g., overlying water and pore water), which is particularly critical in
363 determining bioavailability and bioaccumulation of the sedimentary metals in
364 demersal fish [29,30].

365 In addition, the results of the present study revealed a remarkable difference in
366 tissue-specific Cd bioaccumulation between the sediment-associated ^{111}Cd and

367 waterborne ^{110}Cd . First, the uptake rate of ^{111}Cd in the gills was much lower than that
368 of waterborne ^{110}Cd when the concentration of ^{111}Cd in overlying water was similar to
369 that of ^{110}Cd in water (Table 1 & Table 2). In contrast, the GT showed a higher
370 ^{111}Cd uptake rate in the T4 (8.42-9.15 $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) than that for ^{110}Cd in the T1
371 (6.83-7.96 $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) when the ambient Cd levels in the two phases were comparable
372 (Table 1 & Table 2). Moreover, we found that the ^{111}Cd uptake rate and concentration
373 in the GT was much higher than that in the gills (Table 2 & Fig. 3), while the two
374 tissues had comparable ^{110}Cd uptake rates and concentrations (Table 1 & Fig. 2). This
375 suggests that the GT played a more important role than the gills in the uptake of the
376 sediment-derived ^{111}Cd in the water (which might be as particle-associated Cd), while
377 the two tissues had comparable importance in the uptake of dissolved waterborne
378 ^{110}Cd , which has been not been demonstrated previously in fish species. Indeed, the
379 dominant role of GT in the uptake of sediment-associated metals has been previously
380 found only in the aquatic invertebrates that ingest sediments as food resources (e.g.,
381 Oligochaetes [31]), or in the suspension-feeders that ingest metal-enriched particles
382 (e.g., snail [32]); clam [33], oyster [34]; and mussel [35]). In the present study,
383 therefore, we suggest that the more important role of the GT than the gills in the
384 uptake of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd might result from the ingestion of ^{111}Cd bound to
385 sediment particles, based on the above empirical studies [32-35]. Thus, further
386 attempts are needed to quantitatively determine the uptake of sediment-associated Cd
387 from the dietary phase *via* ingestion of particles.

388

389 *4.3. The tissue-specific relative importance of Cd from multiple routes*

390 In the present study, we found that fish accumulated most Cd from dietary and
391 waterborne routes, and the contribution of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd to the total Cd in
392 the fish was very small in all four tissues (less than 5.6 %, Fig. 6). This indicated that
393 only small amounts of sediment-associated Cd could be directly taken up by the
394 demersal fish without ingestion of bulk of sediments. Previous studies have reported a
395 small contribution of sediment-associated Cd to uptake in zebra mussels (5-8% [35]),

396 and aquatic oligochaetes (9.8% [36]). Under the simultaneous exposure of Cd from
397 the three routes, our findings shed new light on the relative importance of Cd taken up
398 directly from the sediments in demersal marine fish. Results suggested that when
399 conducting population health and/or ecological risk assessments in benthic fish
400 species, there need be little extra concern over the direct uptake of
401 sediment-associated metals in benthic fish species in comparison with the dietary and
402 waterborne Cd bioaccumulation.

403

404 *4.4. The successful application of the triple Cd stable isotope tracing method*

405 The inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) technologies have been
406 fully developed in the past decades, which allows the accurate and cost-effective
407 measurement of the low abundance stable isotopes. Manipulation of stable isotope
408 ratios was thus quickly developed as a particularly useful tool in determining trace
409 metal uptake in aquatic animals, such as snails, clams, mussels and fish
410 [23,24,26,35,37]. In relation to the traditional gamma emitting radioisotopes, the
411 stable isotope tracing method has several significant advantages, including the lack of
412 handling/disposal hazard materials, the low healthy risk to researchers, relatively
413 inexpense of the pure stable isotopes, commercial availability of stable isotopes for
414 most metals and so forth [37]. Moreover, most elements have 2 or more stable
415 isotopes, which combined with low detection limits by ICP-MS, allows the high
416 potentiality to determine the simultaneous uptake of ambient trace metals through
417 different routes [35,37]. The present study developed a triple Cd stable isotope tracing
418 method (^{110}Cd , ^{111}Cd and ^{113}Cd) to successfully determine Cd uptake from water,
419 sediment and diet in a demersal fish. We strongly recommended the use of multiple
420 stable isotope tracing methods as they proved highly useful in the study of
421 simultaneous uptake and interaction of the different exposure routes in aquatic
422 animals. Such investigations reflect realistic exposure scenarios in which organisms in
423 contaminated environments are simultaneously exposed metals through multiple
424 routes, but few such studies are reported in the literature.

425 In conclusion, using a triple stable isotope tracing method, the present study
426 successfully demonstrated the tissue-specific simultaneous uptake of Cd from water,
427 sediment and diet sources in the demersal marine fish. The results revealed that the
428 uptake of Cd by each of the three routes was not apparently affected by the
429 simultaneous exposure to Cd from other routes. Moreover, we found that the relative
430 contribution of sediment-derived Cd to the total Cd in the fish was very small (less
431 than 5.6 %). In demersal fish species, therefore, we suggested the further attempts are
432 required to evaluate the importance of trophic transfer of dietary metals derived from
433 sediments, as secondary contaminated sources of sedimentary metals in aquatic
434 ecosystems.

435

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- 557

558 **Figure Captions**

559 **Fig. 1.** The time-course Cd bioaccumulation by the yellowstripe goby of waterborne
560 ^{110}Cd contents (ng g^{-1}) in the gills (panel A), gastrointestinal tracts (GT, panel B),
561 muscle (panel C) and carcass (panel D) in treatments T1 to T4 under conditions of
562 simultaneous exposure to Cd *via* of three routes. The concentration of waterborne
563 ^{110}Cd was 15 (T1), 40 (T2), 87 (T3) and 178 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (T4). Values of each point are
564 means of 4-8 replications (the data was not included when there was the unsuccessful
565 measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low concentration of ^{110}Cd).
566 Error bars are 1 standard deviation.

567

568 **Fig. 2.** The regression of waterborne ^{110}Cd uptake rate (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) with the ^{110}Cd
569 contents in water (panel A), sediment-associated ^{111}Cd uptake rate with the ^{111}Cd
570 contents in sediment (panel B), and dietary ^{113}Cd uptake rate with the ^{113}Cd contents in
571 diet (panel C) when the yellowstripe goby was simultaneously exposed Cd from water,
572 sediment and diet. Values of each point are means of 4-8 replications. Error bars are 1
573 standard deviation.

574

575 **Fig. 3.** The time-course Cd bioaccumulation by the yellowstripe goby of
576 sediment-associated ^{111}Cd contents (ng g^{-1}) in the gills (panel A), gastrointestinal tracts
577 (GT, panel B), muscle (panel C) and carcass (panel D) in treatments T1 to T4 under
578 conditions of simultaneous exposure to Cd *via* of three routes. The concentration
579 of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd was 6 (T1), 22 (T2), 45 (T3) and 90 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ (T4) in DW.
580 Values of each point are means of 3-8 replications (the data was not included when
581 there was the unsuccessful measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low
582 concentration of ^{111}Cd). Error bars are 1 standard deviation.

583

584 **Fig. 4.** The time-course Cd bioaccumulation by the yellowstripe goby of dietary
585 ^{113}Cd contents (ng g^{-1}) in the gills (panel A), gastrointestinal tracts (GT, panel B),
586 muscle (panel C) and carcass (panel D) in treatments T1 to T4 under conditions of

587 simultaneous exposure to Cd via of three routes. The concentration of dietary ^{113}Cd
588 was 5.17 (T1), 28.5 (T2), 54.1 (T3) and 69.2 (T4) $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ in DW. Values of each point
589 are means of 4-8 replications (the data was not included when there was the
590 unsuccessful measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low concentration
591 of ^{113}Cd). Error bars are 1 standard deviation.

592

593 **Fig. 5.** The time-course percentage of the newly bioaccumulated waterborne ^{110}Cd
594 (panel A), sediment-associated ^{111}Cd (panel B), and dietary ^{113}Cd (panel C) among the
595 gills, gastrointestinal tracts (GT), muscle and carcass of yellowstripe gobies
596 simultaneously exposed to Cd via three routes. Values are means of pooled data of
597 T1-T4 in each sampling time. Error bars are 1 standard deviation.

598

599 **Fig. 6.** The time-course relative importance (%) of newly bioaccumulated waterborne
600 ^{110}Cd , sediment-associated ^{111}Cd , and dietary ^{113}Cd in the gills (panel A),
601 gastrointestinal tracts (GT, panel B), muscle (panel C) and carcass (panel D) of
602 yellowstripe gobies simultaneously exposed to Cd via three routes. Values are means
603 of pooled data of T1-T4 in each sampling time. Error bars are 1 standard deviation.

Table 1 The estimated waterborne ^{110}Cd influx rate (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) in the gills, gastrointestinal tracts (GT), muscle and carcass of the yellowstripe goby simultaneously exposed to Cd from water, sediment and diet. The concentration of waterborne ^{110}Cd was 15 (T1), 40 (T2), 87 (T3) and 178 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (T4). The “ud” was the undetectable data because of the unsuccessful measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low concentration of ^{110}Cd (Fig. 1).

Treatments	Gills		GT		Muscle		Carcass	
	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.
T1								
0-12h	9.11	0.16	6.83	0.70	ud	ud	0.82	0.09
12-24 h	7.67	0.45	7.96	0.45	0.15	0.004	1.11	0.09
T2								
0-12h	23.75	0.167	17.51	1.74	ud	ud	2.12	0.17
12-24 h	20.06	1.10	21.06	1.42	0.34	0.009	2.83	0.31
T3								
0-12h	42.77	1.04	34.93	3.81	ud	ud	3.85	0.21
12-24 h	39.02	6.24	38.99	3.69	0.83	0.08	5.08	0.42
T4								
0-12h	79.44	4.79	69.95	2.59	2.57	0.57	7.06	0.47
12-24 h	71.98	9.43	79.17	1.56	1.63	0.22	10.14	0.85

Table 2 The estimated sediment-associated ^{111}Cd influx rate (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) in the gills, gastrointestinal tracts (GT), muscle and carcass of the yellowstripe goby simultaneously exposed to Cd from water, sediment and diet. The concentration of sediment-associated ^{111}Cd was 6 (T1), 22 (T2), 45 (T3) and 90 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ (T4) in DW. The “ud” was the undetectable data because of the unsuccessful measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low concentration of ^{111}Cd (Fig. 3).

Treatments	Gills		GT		Muscle		Carcass	
	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.
T1								
0-12h	0.42	0.02	0.69	0.04	ud	ud	-	-
12-24 h	0.39	0.03	0.70	0.03	ud	ud	0.06	0.001
T2								
0-12h	1.48	0.06	2.75	0.08	ud	ud	-	-
12-24 h	1.29	0.08	2.53	0.09	ud	ud	0.21	0.006
T3								
0-12h	2.99	0.08	5.26	0.21	ud	ud	0.42	0.01
12-24 h	2.54	0.09	5.10	0.11	ud	ud	0.37	0.01
T4								
0-12h	5.49	0.19	9.15	0.32	ud	ud	0.72	0.03
12-24 h	4.34	0.11	8.42	0.23	0.07	0.003	0.69	0.02

Table 3 The estimated dietary ^{113}Cd influx rate (J_{in} , $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) in the gills, gastrointestinal tracts (GT), muscle and carcass of the yellowstripe goby simultaneously exposed to Cd from water, sediment and diet. The concentration of dietary ^{113}Cd was 5.17 (T1), 28.5 (T2), 54.1 (T3) and 69.2 (T4) $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ in DW. The “ud” was the undetectable data because of the unsuccessful measurement due to the insufficient amount of sample/low concentration of ^{113}Cd (Fig. 5).

Treatments	Gills		GT		Muscle		Carcass	
	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.	J_{in}	S.E.
T1								
0-12h	1.97	0.02	92.78	5.48	ud	ud	3.47	0.01
12-24 h	0.46	0.01	-28.57	1.12	0.10	0.01	1.08	0.03
T2								
0-12h	7.20	0.12	355.93	9.45	0.91	0.02	12.73	0.36
12-24 h	1.66	0.02	-63.09	2.05	0.51	0.03	2.90	0.11
T3								
0-12h	13.31	0.55	752.40	8.14	1.69	0.03	24.06	0.67
12-24 h	3.18	0.08	-86.96	3.14	0.98	0.04	5.56	0.28
T4								
0-12h	24.23	0.78	1490.31	15.99	2.98	0.05	45.77	0.87
12-24 h	7.05	0.12	-148.24	6.241	1.33	0.06	12.97	0.54

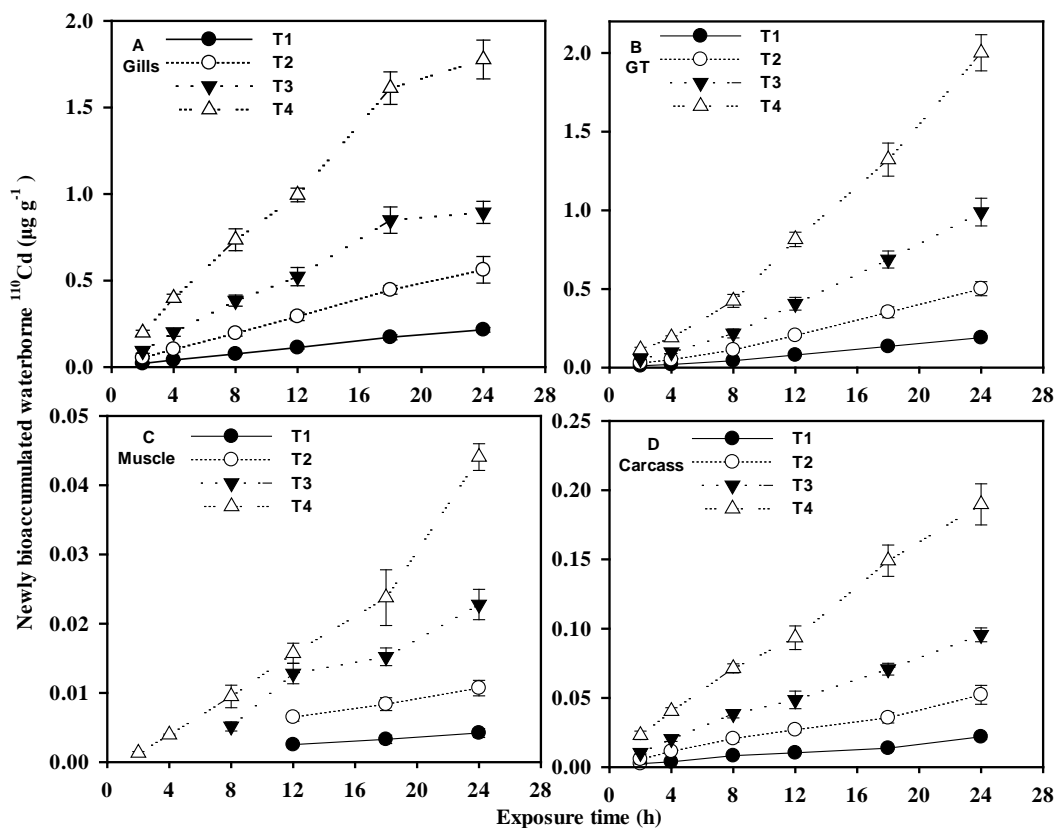


Fig. 1.

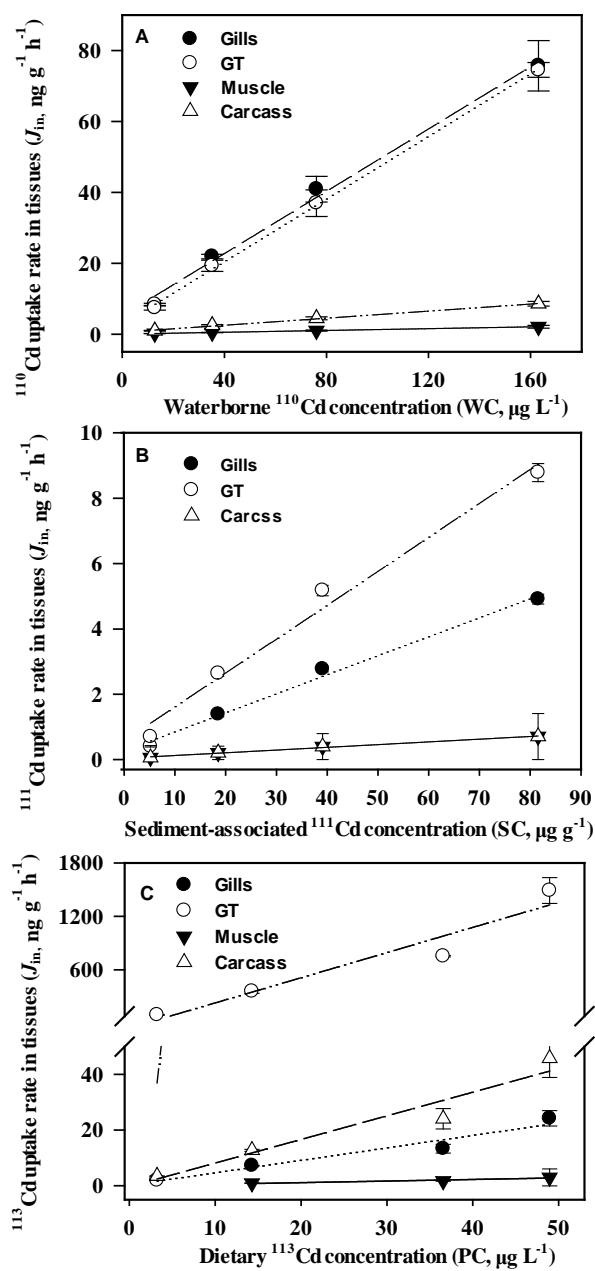


Fig. 2.

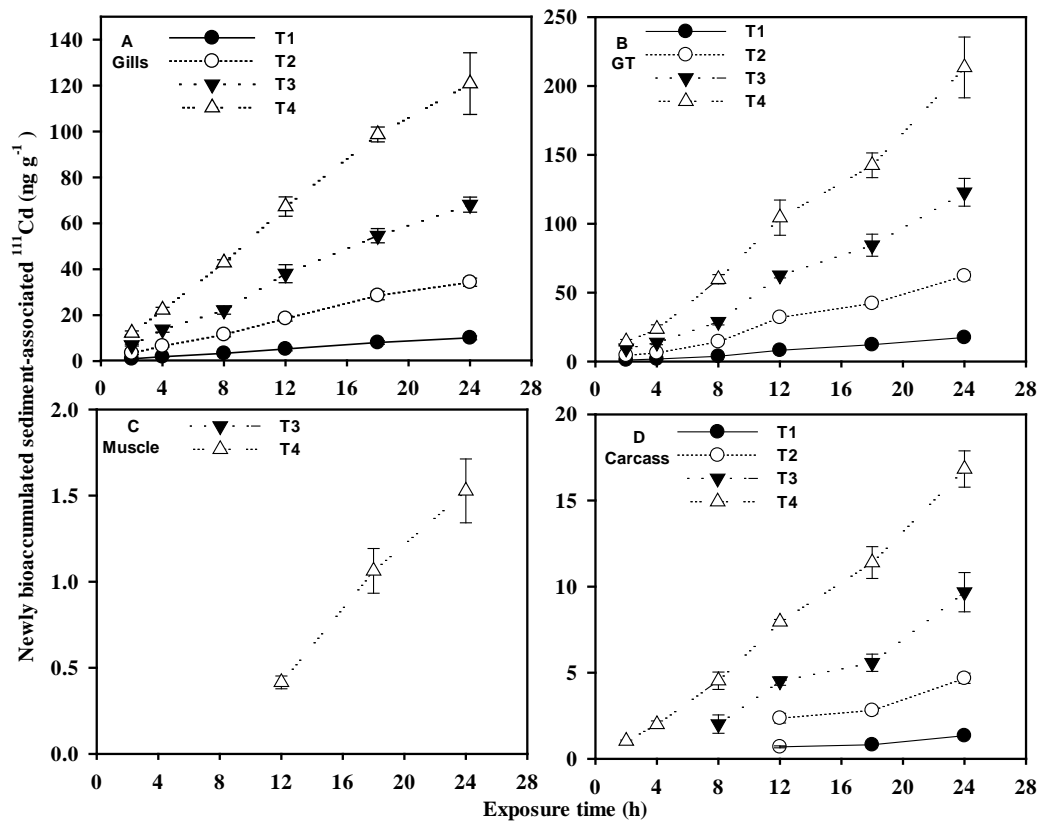


Fig. 3.

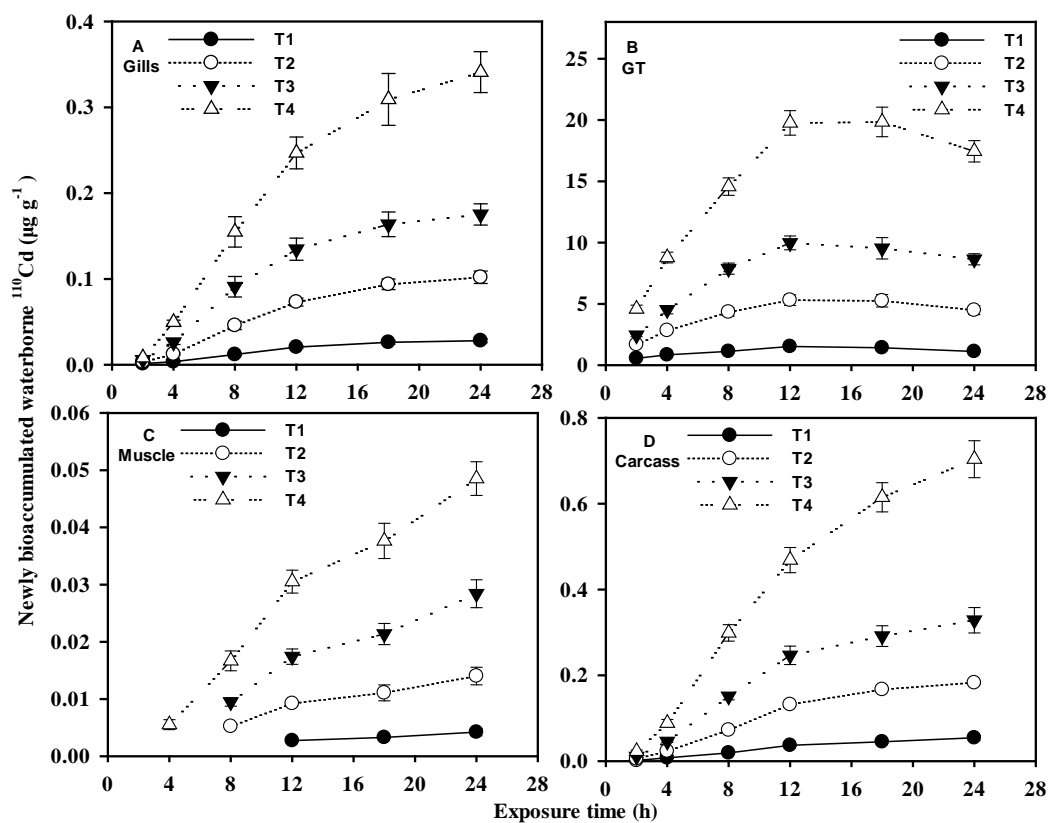


Fig. 4.

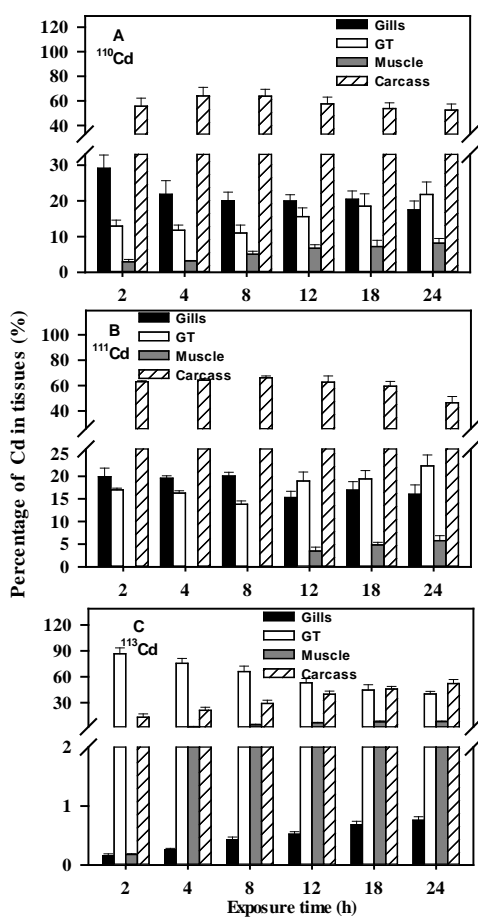


Fig. 5.

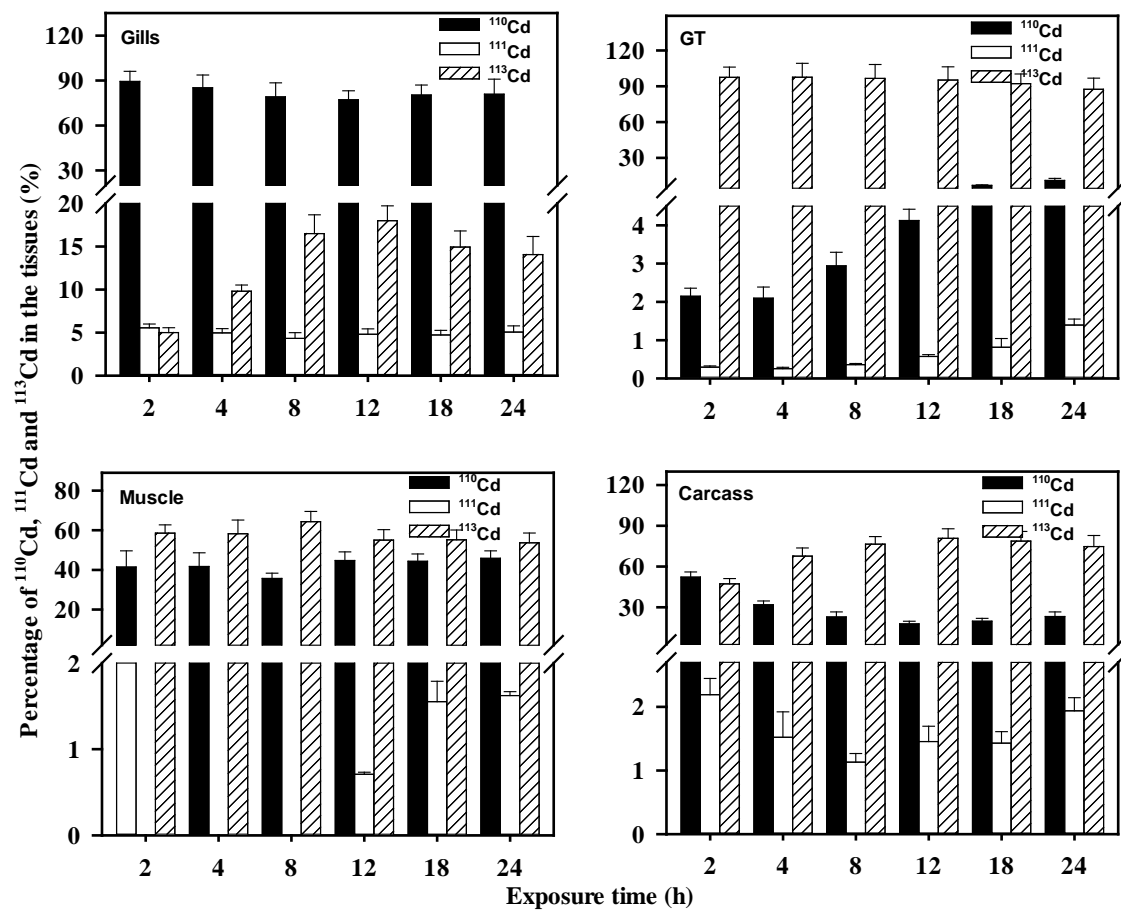


Fig. 6