

1 Comparison between Resident and Caged Mussels: Polycyclic Aromatic
2 Hydrocarbon Accumulation and Biological Response

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1 **Abstract**

2 The aim of this study was to compare the capability of “passive” and “active”
3 biomonitoring to determine the environmental pressure. For this purpose, PAHs content and
4 several biological responses in resident and caged mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) at five
5 sampling sites (Rijeka Bay, Adriatic Sea) were analysed. Resident mussels were found better in
6 reflecting the level of PAH loads at particular sites while only caged mussels could detect
7 input of HMW PAHs. When data of each investigated parameter were compared separately,
8 the majority of differences between resident and caged mussels’ results were site-specific.
9 Integration of biological response patterns expressed as Index of Biological Response (IBR)
10 resulted with different sampling sites ranking for resident and caged mussels. Multiple Factor
11 Analysis (MFA) based on integration of tissue PAH concentration and biological response
12 revealed resident mussels as more powerful for detection of environmental pressure. The use
13 of resident mussels is recommended as appropriate and less costly approach for monitoring
14 the effect of pollution.

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20 *Key words:* biomarkers, caged mussels, monitoring, multiple factor analysis, polycyclic
21 aromatic hydrocarbons, resident mussels

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Design of ecotoxicological surveys monitoring spatial and temporal trends of
3 chemical contamination in coastal and estuarine areas is important for interpretation of
4 collected data. Alongside monitoring of pollutant level in marine organisms due to its
5 possible transfer to humans following seafood consumption, the concept of integration of
6 chemical, biochemical and physiological parameters has been accepted for ecotoxicological
7 characterization of the marine environment (Galloway et al. 2002; Bihari et al. 2007;
8 Fernandez et al. 2010, Barhoumi et al., 2014, Regoli et al., 2014). Biomonitoring has the
9 advantage of an integrated evaluation in time and space of the presence and the effect of the
10 bioavailable pollutants. Additionally, it enables the evaluation of possible causal relationship
11 between contaminant presence and observable biological effects in aquatic organisms
12 dwelling in a contaminated environment. Under environmental stress, marine life responds at
13 all levels of biological organization (molecular, cellular, organism, population, community,
14 and ecosystem). Responses at molecular and cellular levels, as the earliest signals of
15 environmental disturbance before community and ecosystem responses can be detected, have
16 been commonly used to evaluate the health effects of environmental contamination in marine
17 ecosystems (Michel et al. 2000; Nigro et al. 2006; Fernandez et al. 2010). Assessment of
18 PAH-induced cellular damage generally includes determination of genotoxic effect by means
19 of measuring DNA damage or DNA integrity (Galloway 2002; Bihari et al. 2006) and
20 activities of enzyme affected by PAH metabolites (Devier et al. 2005; Fernandez et al. 2010).
21 At the same time, integrated monitoring studies usually include determination of mussel
22 physiological status (Thomas et al. 1999; Bihari et al. 2007). In “mussel watch”, monitoring
23 programs resident (passive biomonitoring) and/or caged mussels (active biomonitoring) as
24 bioindicators of chemical contaminants could be used. Resident mussels have better
25 discriminative capacity in reflecting the cumulative effects (Nigro et al. 2006), display lower
26 seasonal variability of biomarkers (Lehtonen et al., 2016) and due to the long –term exposure
27 are more sensitive to tissue contaminant accumulation (Marigómez et al., 2013, Martínez-
28 Gómez et al., 2017). On the other hand, due to the short-term exposure influences of genetic
29 differences and adaptive phenomena in caged mussels are reduced leading to higher
30 sensitivity (Garmendia et al., 2011). Moreover, determination of biological response in caged
31 mussels is invaluable in the investigation of areas where they better represent the diffused
32 contamination (Martínez-Gómez et al., 2017) and/or native populations are absent. Due to the
33 aforementioned abilities and limitations, several authors agreed that a parallel analysis of
34 caged and resident mussels will improve the assessment of pollution and its effects on

1 ecosystem health; especially in case of chronic pollution and long-term biomonitoring
2 programmes (Nigro et al., 2006, Hunt and Slone, 2010, Marigómez et al., 2013, Lehtonen et
3 al., 2016). Taking into the account financial side, the use of native mussels as cost-effective
4 was indicated as appropriate except in cases of site-point or time-point pollution when caging
5 remains more useful.

6 The aim of this study was to examine the advantages/disadvantages of the caging
7 approach for determination of environmental contamination in the urbanised area of Rijeka
8 bay, Croatia, and compare the results with the results obtained using resident mussels. Due to
9 its coastal population, influence of tourism and industrial facilities, Rijeka Bay was identified
10 as affected by human activities and has been included in MEDPOL and national monitoring
11 programmes. The amount of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the marine sediment
12 indicated this coastal area as an environment with a high PAH input (Bihari et al. 2007;
13 Traven et al. 2008). To asses the input of PAHs in marine environment and the impact on
14 marine organisms, both the concentration of accumulated PAHs and their biological effects
15 (biomarkers) were determined in caged and resident mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*.

16 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are widespread chemicals in the marine
17 environment. PAHs are present at high concentration in most urbanized coastal areas as a
18 consequence of numerous human activities mostly related to combustion or disposal of fossil
19 fuels (pyrolytic sources) and offshore drilling or petroleum shipping activities (petrogenic
20 sources). They can also originate from natural events such as forest or grass fires, volcanic
21 eruptions and petroleum seeps as well as from natural synthesis by organisms (biogenic
22 source). Once released into the marine environment PAHs tend to adsorb on suspended
23 particles in seawater column and sediment becoming bio-available to the marine organisms.
24 Accumulation of PAHs in biota depend upon the proximity to the sources of pollution, their
25 bioavailability and species ability for PAH biotransformation. PAHs affect living organisms
26 through their toxicity. The reactive products of PAHs metabolism such as epoxides and
27 dihydrodiols bind to cellular proteins and DNA causing the biochemical disruption and cell
28 damage. The toxicity of individual PAHs increases as a molecular weight increases and four-,
29 five-, and six-ring PAHs have the highest mutagenic and carcinogenic potential (reviewed in:
30 Neilson 1998; Douben 2003). Due to their harmful biological effects, they are listed as
31 priority substances in the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD).

32 In the attempt to link the exposure of marine organisms to chemicals and *in situ*
33 biological response, several biomarkers were determined in both resident and caged mussels.
34 The testing included quantification of the level of toxic content in mussel tissue (potential

1 toxicity), specific biomarkers of genotoxicity (DNA integrity) and general neurotoxicity
2 (acetylcholine esterase activity) as well as determination of mussel physiological status
3 (“stress-on-stress”). Considering that the level of toxic compounds in an organism relies on
4 the contaminant concentration in the environment, determination of mussel biological
5 extract’s potential toxicity enables detection of toxic contaminants presence and
6 discrimination of polluted environment (Cotou et al. 2002). Toxicity of many chemicals,
7 including PAHs lies in their capacity to interact with DNA. The genotoxicity of environmental
8 pollutants could be observed as a decrease in DNA integrity. Some genotoxic agents, e.g.
9 PAHs contribute to the inhibitory effect of pesticides on acetylcholine esterase activity (Jett et
10 al. 1999). Besides, other types of pollutants such as heavy metals, surfactants and algal
11 biotoxins display anti-choline esterase activity and thus AChE activity has been suggested as
12 an useful biomarker of general stress (Guilhermino et al. 1998, Lehtonen et al. 2003). In
13 addition to referred molecular biomarkers that are more or less responsive to narrow range of
14 contaminants, this study also included the determination of mussel health status. Measured as
15 “stress-on-stress” (de Zwan et al. 1995, Pampanin et al. 2005, Bihari et al. 2007), mussel
16 physiological status reflects the integrative impact of complex contaminant mixture related to
17 the survival potential of an organism.

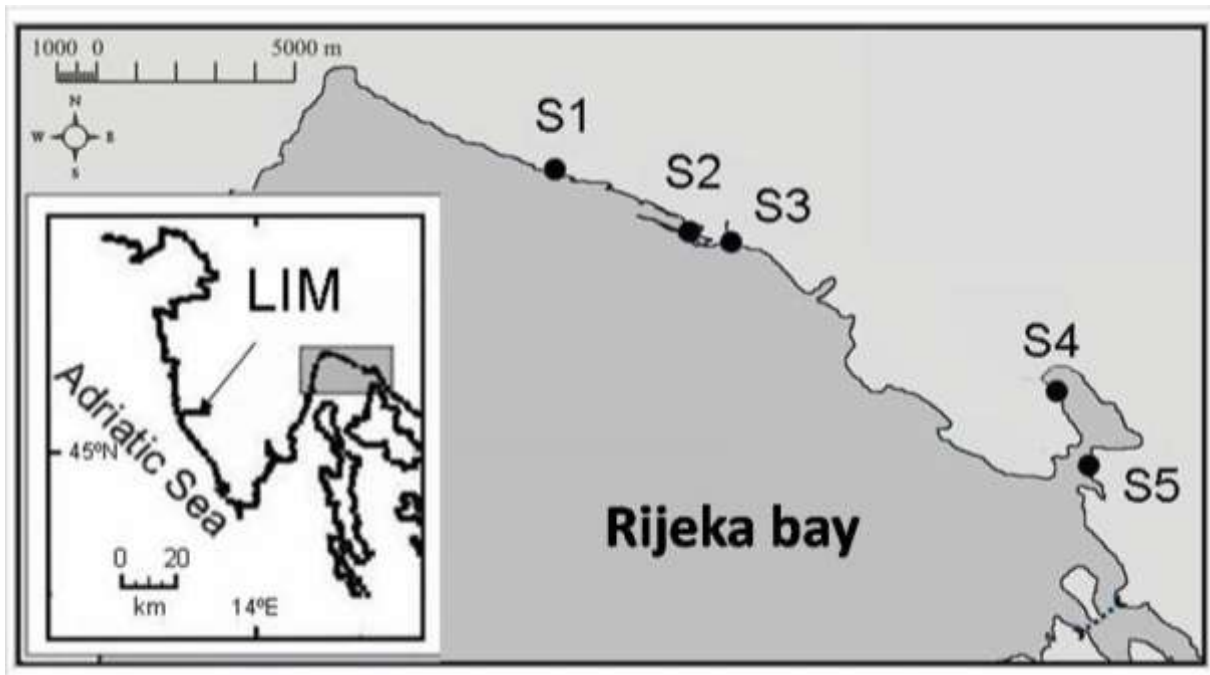
18 Simple and multivariate statistical methods were used to investigate the relationships
19 among biological and chemical variables. The focus was put on the difference of the
20 biological response between caged and resident mussels and the relevance of the particular
21 biological response for design and interpretation of the data in future ecotoxicological studies
22 of the area. Integrated biomarker response index (IBR) that combines investigated biological
23 responses and counteracts the influence of the natural variability as well as adaptive responses
24 of individual biomarkers was used to characterize the pollution load at investigated sampling
25 sites. Moreover, multiple factor analysis (MFA) that analyses data sets of variables (PAHs
26 tissue concentrations and biomarkers) collected on the same set of observations (resident or
27 caged mussels) was performed to analyse differences between those two observations.

28

1 **2. Materials and methods**

2

3 **2.1. Study area**



4

5 **Figure 1.** Investigated area: sampling sites S1-S5 in Rijeka Bay and reference site in
6 Lim Bay. (1,5 column fitted figure)

7

8

9 Investigation was carried out at 5 sites from Rijeka Bay, Adriatic Sea, Croatia, (Fig1)
10 representing areas with high level of human activities: shipyard (S1, S5), harbour (S2), river
11 mouth (S3) and industry (S4). Basic environmental parameters of seawater at investigated
12 sites were given in Table1.

13

14 **Table 1.** Brief description of the investigated area.

Investigated site	Description	T °C	pH	DOM ^a		DO ^b	
				mg/l	Salinity	mg/l	mg/l
REF	Protected area	19.0	7.99	27.10	35.71	8.20	
S1	Shipyard	19.5	8.10	26.90	35.29	8.33	
S2	Harbour	19.0	8.06	21.40	27.30	8.34	
S3	River mouth, urban runoff	17.5	8.16	13.49	16.40	10.85	
S4	Urban sewage, industrial outflow	19.0	7.74	11.26	13.38	10.04	
S5	Shipyard, urban sewage	19.0	7.88	21.74	27.78	7.67	

1 ^aDOM - dissolved organic material

2 ^bDO - dissolved oxygen

3 2.2. Sampling strategy

4 Mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lmk, 1819), shell-length from 5 to 6 cm, referred
5 as reference mussels, were taken from a fish-farm located in the Lim bay and within 3 hours
6 transferred by car in humid atmosphere (18°C) to five locations in Rijeka bay (cca 300
7 specimens per site)(Table 1). They were immersed 1 – 2 m from the surface and caged for 30
8 days. Resident mussels (5-6 cm), dwelling in vicinity of the caged mussels were collected
9 from near the air-water interface (0.3 – 0.5 m) together with caged mussels and transferred to
10 lab immediately after collection. Random sub samples of 30 resident and 30 caged mussels
11 were separated for “stress-on-stress” determination. For PAH analysis and toxicity assay, soft
12 tissue of 100 resident and 100 caged mussels was dissected and for AChE activity and DNA
13 integrity measurement, gills from 15 resident and 15 caged specimens were dissected and
14 immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen.

15

16 2.3. PAH analysis

17 For PAH determination mussel tissue (20 – 30 g) was heated at 70-80°C in 200 ml 1M
18 KOH dissolved in ethanol for 5 h. After addition of 200 ml cyclohexane and heating for 15
19 min. several washing with distilled water were performed until complete removal of KOH.
20 The sample was evaporated to 2 ml and adding 0.5 – 1 g Al₂O₃, removed fat. After
21 evaporation to dryness, samples were dissolved in 1 ml methanol (Stijve and Hischenhuber
22 1987). The determination of PAH amount was performed with high performance liquid
23 chromatography using Thermo-Finnigan (ThermoQuest Corp., USA) equipment and a
24 LiChrospher RP-18 (AGILENT, USA) column (250 * 4 mm). The flow rate was adjusted to
25 1.5 ml/min and the mobile phase mixture was carried out in the following conditions: time = 0
26 min., 80:20 (%) methanol/water, time = 10 min., 100 % methanol. The maximum elution time
27 was 16 min. For simultaneous determination of different PAH compounds UV-VIS and
28 fluorescence detector was used. The excitation and emission wavelengths were changed
29 during the analysis according to the program shown below.

30

31	Wavelengths		
32	Time	Excitation	Emission
33	(min)	(nm)	(nm)
34	0	252	402
35	7.6	238	398

1	8.5	268	398
2	11.5	300	466
3	16.0	300	466
4			

5 The peak heights and relative areas were recorded with ChromQuest Software Ver 2.51
6 (ThermoQuest Corp., USA). The detection limits were 1 ng/l for seawater sample, 1 µg/kg
7 dry weight for sediment samples and 0.1 ng/g wet weights for mussels. 10 of 16 US EPA
8 PAHs were analyzed (ACE-acenaphthene, PHE-phenanthrene, ANT-anthracene, FLU-
9 fluorene, PYR-pyrene, CHR-chrysene, B(a)A-benzo(a)anthracene, B(b)F-
10 benzo(b)fluoranthene, B(a)P-benzo(a)pyrene, IND-indeno(1,2,3,c,d)pyrene). The recoveries
11 of PAHs were from 64 % for anthracene to 98 % for acenaphthene.

12

13 2.4. Toxicity assay

14 The potential toxicity of mussel biological extracts was measured by the Microtox[®]
15 bioassay (Cotou et al. 2002). The bioassay measures the reduction of bacterial (*Vibrio fisheri*)
16 luminescence following the exposure to toxic extract. The biological fluid was extracted from
17 3 pooled mussels (~ 1g wet weight) and homogenized in a dilution buffer (BioFixLumi,
18 Macherey-Nagel, Germany), 1:3 (w/v) with a Potter-Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate
19 was centrifuged at 5000g for 15 min and the supernatant was used for toxicity testing. The
20 decrease in luminescence was measured for serial dilutions of mussel extracts according to
21 the BioFix[®] Lumi procedure prescribed by the manufacturer (Macherey-Nagel, Germany) in
22 Microtox[®] Model 500 luminometer (AZUR Environmental, U.S.A.). EC₅₀ (ml) was estimated
23 using Microtox[®] Omni Software. The potential toxicity was expressed as 1/EC₅₀ x 100.

24

25 2.5. DNA integrity

26 To determine DNA integrity in mussel cells, gill tissue (100 mg) was homogenized in
27 2 ml TE buffer (1 mM EDTA, 10 mM TrisHCl, pH 7.4) and DMSO (9:1) in liquid nitrogen.
28 DNA denaturation rate in mussel gill lysates at alkaline pH was measured by FAST
29 Micromethod[®] (Batel et al. 1999, Bihari et al. 2005) in the Fluoroscan Ascent microplate
30 reader (Labsystem, Finland). The procedure is based on the ability of fluorochrome Picogreen,
31 (Molecular Probes Inc., U.S.A.) to preferentially interact with double-stranded DNA in
32 alkaline conditions. Briefly, 25 µl (100 ng DNA/ml) of gill homogenate was lysed in 25 µl
33 lysing solution (4.5 M urea, 0.1% SDS, 0.2 M EDTA, pH 10.0) supplemented with Picogreen
34 (20 µl/ml lysing solution) in the dark for 30 minutes. Analyses were performed in
35 quadruplicates of 5 gills samples. DNA denaturation conditions were achieved by adding

1 250µl NaOH-EDTA (pH 11.5). Afterwards, the decline in fluorescence of the dsDNA-Pico-
2 Green complex was measured in microplates at room temperature. The decrease in DNA
3 integrity (genotoxicity) reflected as loss of dsDNA after 5 minutes of denaturation time was
4 expressed as $\Delta F/\text{min}$.

5 2.6. *Acetylcholine esterase activity*

6 Acetylcholine esterase (AChE) activity in mussel gills was measured by the method of
7 Ellman et al. (1961), adjusted to microtitar plates (Bocquene and Galgani 1998). The tissue
8 was homogenised in cold (4°C) 0.1M Tris HCl buffer, pH 8.0 (1:4, w/v) using Teflon Potter
9 homogeniser. After centrifugation of homogenate at 10000g, for 30 min the supernatant was
10 taken for immediate measurement of enzyme activity. The reaction mixture contained 14 µl
11 0.1M Tris HCl (pH 8.0), 14 µl 8 mM 5,5'-dithiobis-2-dinitrobenzoic acid and 298 µl gill
12 tissue homogenate. The enzyme reaction was initiated with 14 µl of substrate (45 mM
13 acetylthiocholine, ACTC). The absorbance increase at 415 nm was recorded every 30 seconds
14 in microplate reader (Labsystems, Multiscan Ascent®, Finland) using Ascent Software™,
15 version 2.4 and specific AChE activity was expressed as nanomoles of hydrolysed ACTC per
16 minute per mg of protein ($\text{nmol}/\text{min}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1}$). Tissue protein concentration in homogenates was
17 determined according to the method of Lowry (1951) with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as
18 the protein standard.

19 2.7. *“Stress-on-stress”*

20 Resident mussels, caged mussels and referent mussels were placed in boxes (30
21 animals/ box) in humid atmosphere at 19°C. Survival was assessed daily. Death mussels were
22 recognized according to their specific smell, absence of any muscular activity and open
23 valves. The average survival time (LT_{50}) was determined for each sample (box) using probit
24 analysis (Toxicologist ver. 1.0).

25 2.8. *Statistical analyses*

26 All the statistical data analyses were performed with STATISTICA 8.0 (StatSoft Inc,
27 U.S.A.). Wilcoxon matched pair test was used for the detection of significant difference
28 between two sets of data non-parametric. Cluster analysis using Euclidean distance and
29 complete linkage was performed to determine the similarity between distributions of
30 accumulated PAHs. Non-parametric Spearman test was used to determine the degree of
31 correlation between investigated parameters. To determine the relationship between
32 biomarkers and accumulated PAHs, PCA was performed. To present the difference in
33 biological response between resident and caged mussels and pollution status of each location
34 in a simple way, an integrated biomarker response (IBR) was used. It was calculated as an

1 average (IBR/n) of different arrangements of biomarkers in the set (Beliaeff and Burgeot,
2 2002; Broeg and Lehtonen, 2006, Lehtonen et al., 2006, Marigómez et al., 2013) and
3 visualized using a star plot graphic tool.

4 Multiple factor analysis (MFA) was applied to derive an integrated picture of both
5 biomarker response and PAH level as well as the relationship between observations obtained
6 in resident and caged mussels. MFA (Abdi and Valentin, 2007, Abdi et al., 2013) was used to
7 analyse set of observations (sampling sites) described by several groups (resident and caged
8 mussels) of variables (measured parameters). Each data set was pre-processed (centred and
9 standardized). MFA was performed in two steps. First a principal component analysis (PCA)
10 was performed on each data set (resident and caged mussels) which is then normalized by
11 dividing its elements by the square root of the first eigenvalue (matrix equivalent of the
12 standard deviation) obtained from its PCA. Second, the normalized data sets were merged to
13 form unique matrix and a global PCA was performed on the matrix. The individual data sets
14 were then projected onto the global analysis to analyze communalities and discrepancies.
15

1 **Results and discussion**

2 *3.1. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons*

3 The total concentration of the 10 PAHs determined in the resident and caged mussels
4 from 5 investigated sites in Rijeka Bay is presented in Table 2. The total PAH content in
5 resident mussels at all investigated sites was higher than in mussels from the pristine
6 Mediterranean areas but in the range determined for mussels collected in highly urbanised
7 areas (Baumard et al. 1999, Barhaumi et al., 2014) or in vicinity of gas-drilling activities in
8 the northern Adriatic (Gomiero et al., 2015). The total PAH content in caged mussels was
9 higher than at 123 stations around the coast of the NW basin of the Mediterranean Sea
10 (Galgani et al, 2011) but lower than in urbanized Adriatic coastal areas (Fabbri et al., 2006) .
11 In both, resident and caged mussels PAH levels were higher than previously reported for
12 resident mussels in surrounding areas (Bihari et al. 2007) although neither individual PAH
13 concentration exceeded EAC value (OSPAR, 2013).

14 At one sampling site (S3) situated at the Rječina river estuary and characterised by low
15 salinity (16.4) PAH content in caged mussels decreased during 30 days, probably, due to the
16 high influence of freshwater with low contaminant concentration that had mixed with
17 seawater and had reduced the bioavailability of present contaminants. Decrease in PAH
18 concentration would classify this area as not influenced by recent PAHs input. In contrast,
19 PAH content in resident mussels at S3 was higher than in referent mussels and therefore this
20 site should be classified as an area contaminated by PAHs. Since PAH concentration in
21 resident mussel represented a time-weighted average it is evident that PAH dynamics in the
22 mussels is not only influenced by the presence of PAH but also by the adaptation of
23 indigenous mussel to particular environmental situation (Galgani et al., 2011). The level of
24 PAH content in mussels caged at all other investigated locations was higher than before
25 transplantation indicating accumulation of bio-available PAHs during 30 days period as a
26 consequence of PAHs presence in surrounding water.

27

28 **Table 2.** Concentration of individual PAH compounds (ng/g ww), selected PAH ratios in
29 resident (r1-r5), and caged (c1-c5) mussels *Mytilus galloprovincialis* from referent (REF) and
30 5 investigated sites in the Rijeka Bay.

31

	REF	r1	c1	r2	c2	r3	c3	r4	c4	r5	c5
Acenaphthene	64	146	58	157	102	88	59	121	85	136	88
Phenanthrene	32	49	38	50	40	39	35	41	40	45	36

Anthracene	0.7	1.4	0.8	1.5	1.0	0.9	d.l.	1.4	0.9	1.5	0.8
Fluoranthene	15	50	18	60	22	19	7.1	23	10	49	8.2
Pyrene	5.2	24	12	30	17	8.4	d.l.	13	0.8	25	d.l.
Chrysene	2.5	50	7.5	69	6.3	7.9	2.9	10	7.2	34	3.9
Benzo(a)anthracene	1.0	20	4.3	62	23	2.7	2.6	5.9	3.2	15	4.7
Benzo(b)fluoranthene	d.l.	41	d.l.	57	19	6	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.
Benzo(a)pyrene	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	1.6	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.
Indeno(1,2,3- <i>cd</i>)pyrene	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	2.0	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.	d.l.
Σ PAHs	120	381	139	486	234	172	108	215	147	305	142
Σ COMB ^a	23.7	144	41.8	278	159	44	12.6	52	21.3	40.3	12.1
Σ CARC ^b	3.5	111	9.9	188	51.9	16.6	5.5	15.9	10.4	16.0	20.3
BAPES ^c	0,25	6,86	0,64	12,95	6,14	1,15	0,4	0,91	0,54	2,14	0,65
<i>Ratios</i>											
LMW/ Σ PAHs	0.80	0.51	0.69	0.53	0.61	0.31	0.87	0.75	0.85	0.59	0.88
LMW/HMW	4.00	1.08	2.33	0.75	1.56	3.00	6.69	3.17	6.14	1.50	7.33
COMB/PAHs	0.20	0.48	0.30	0.57	0.39	0.25	0.13	0.24	0.14	0.40	0.12
CARC/PAHs	0.03	0.29	0.09	0.39	0.22	0.10	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.16	0.06

1 d.l. below detection limit

2 ^a PAHs produced by combustion of fossil fuels

3 ^bcarcinogenic PAHs proposed by EPA (USEPA, 1984)

4 ^c carcinogenic potential expressed as equivalents of BaP based upon relative carcinogenic potency of
5 each individual PAH proposed by Nisbet and LaGoy, 1992.

6

7

8 At all sampling sites tissue concentration of 10 PAHs was higher in resident than in
9 caged mussels. Previous studies suggested that the equilibrium time depended on the
10 pollution level, with a faster balance when the environmental levels of pollutants were high
11 indicating that 3-4 weeks was enough to reach the equilibrium between environmental and
12 tissue levels of pollutants (Payne et al, 2008, Marigómez et al., 2013). Observed difference of
13 PAH content between resident and caged mussels in Rijeka Bay may be explained by longer
14 caging time needed to reach equilibrium (Serafim et al, 2011) or irregular PAH input
15 dynamics in the area. When four sampling sites (S2, S3, S4 and S5) were taken into
16 consideration high correlation ($R^2 = 0,908$) between the amount of accumulated PAHs during
17 30 days and PAH content in resident mussels was found suggesting the existence of dynamic
18 equilibrium between matrices in resident mussels and related PAH accumulation kinetics in
19 transplanted mussels. The only exception was S1 where low amount of accumulated PAHs
20 could not be related to relatively high PAH content in resident mussels. This result evidenced
21 site-specific irregular PAH input at S1 that could not be detected by caged mussels.

1 In investigated area the majority of PAHs could have come from motor vehicle
2 exhausts, residential and industrial heating sources, coal, crude oil and natural gas processing.
3 The predominance of combustion PAHs was noticed only at S2. In resident mussels it
4 exceeds 50% that is in accordance with intense accumulation determined in caged mussels (2
5 times over the initial value) reflecting chronic as well as recent input of combustion PAHs.
6 Compared to other sampling stations S2 is located in a harbour, in the city centre, where, due
7 to the concentrated transportation activities, combustion-related PAHs were the expected
8 main source of contamination. However, in caged mussels at S3, S4 and S5, the amount of
9 combustion PAHs after 30 days decreased (50% of initial value at S3 and S5). This decrease
10 indicated that rapid elimination of previously accumulated combustion PAHs (coal and wood
11 burning during winter) occurred during the caging period. However, their absence in May
12 when caging was performed, changed the equilibrium point at those sites.

13 Moreover, only in caged mussels from site S2 Benzo(a)pyrene (BaP) and Indeno(1,2,3-
14 cd)pyrene (IND) were detected indicating their presence during the caging period. Bihari et al.
15 (2007) reported IND presence in sediment and absence in resident mussel from the areas
16 southwest and southeast from the S1 – S5 sampling sites. Absence of BaP and IND in resident
17 mussels could be attributed to the biotransformation and elimination efficiency arising from
18 genetic predisposition of indigenous population to cope with particular environmental
19 conditions in harbour (Lacroix et al, 2017). Caged mussels could have dissimilar metabolic
20 (biotransformation and elimination) efficiency due to the different origin and genetic
21 predisposition for adaptation to a new environment. Nevertheless, the fraction of high
22 molecular weight hydrocarbons was higher in resident than in caged mussels at all sampling
23 sites. However, when compared to initial status, caged mussel accumulated HMW PAHs only
24 at S1 and S2 (Fig. 2) while at S4 and S5 mussel accumulated LMW PAHs.

25 In resident mussels, the LMW/HMW ratio was related to the total PAH content (Fig3).
26 The increase of total PAH amount was followed by a decrease of LMW/HMW suggesting the
27 presence of a dynamic equilibrium between bio-available PAH uptake from the medium and
28 its elimination. The LMW/HMW ratio in caged mussels was Σ PAH independent. Exposure of
29 caged mussel to new environmental condition for a period of 30 days significantly changed
30 the LMW/HMW ratio.

31

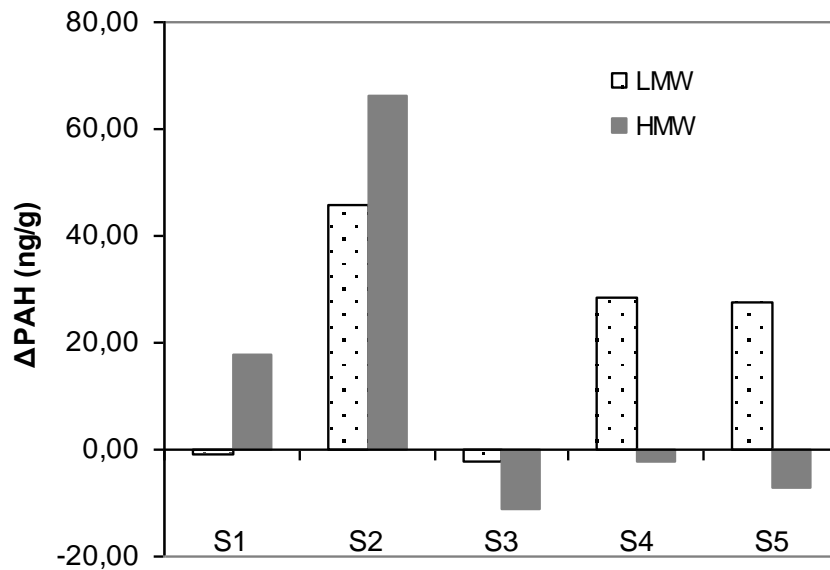
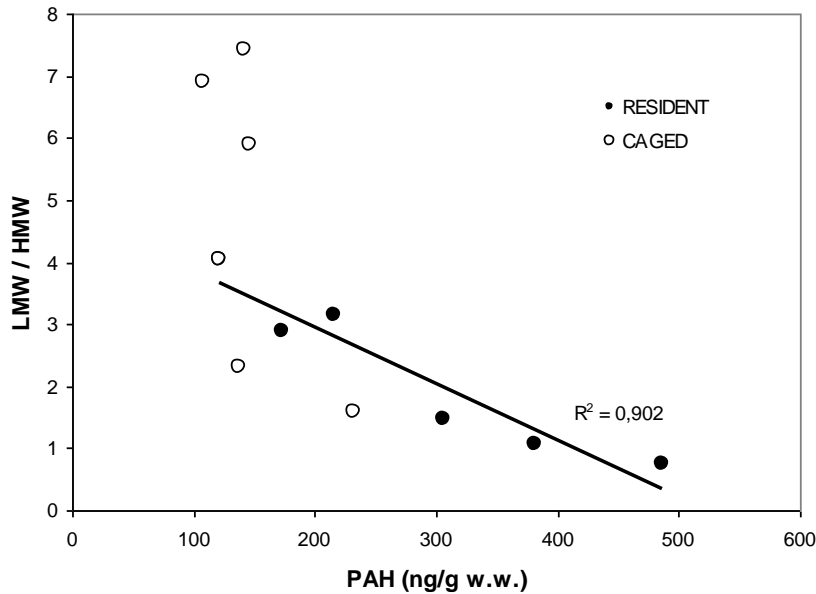


Figure 2. Accumulation/elimination of low molecular weight (LMW) and high molecular weight (HMW) PAHs during caging (30 days) at 5 investigated sites in Rijeka Bay. (1 column fitted figure)

Predominance of bio-available LMW at S4 and S5 PAHs could be ascribed to the absence of HMW and faster uptake of LMW. Mussels can directly absorb lower weight PAHs through interstitial filtered water, while heavier hydrocarbons are mainly ingested in particle form from the digestive system. Moreover, differing effect between resident and caged mussels was detected at S2 where B(a)P and IND were found only in caged mussels. Higher efficiency of PAH biotransformation and elimination pathways in resident compared to caged mussels and suggests existence of resident mussel population adapted to a polluted environment (Lacroix et al., 2015). When compared to caged mussels, resident mussels were chronically exposed to contamination and thus have developed metabolic adaptations for efficient elimination of harmful compounds that would enable their survival in the contaminated environment. This contrasting effect observed at S2, S4 and S5 indicated complex PAH dynamics between matrices (Picardo et al., 2001, Bihari et al., 2007) leading to particular PAH partitioning in distinct environment.



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Figure 3. Relation of low molecular weight (LMW) and high molecular weight (HMW) PAHs ratio and total PAH content in resident and caged mussels *Mytilus galloprovincialis*. (1 column fitted figure)

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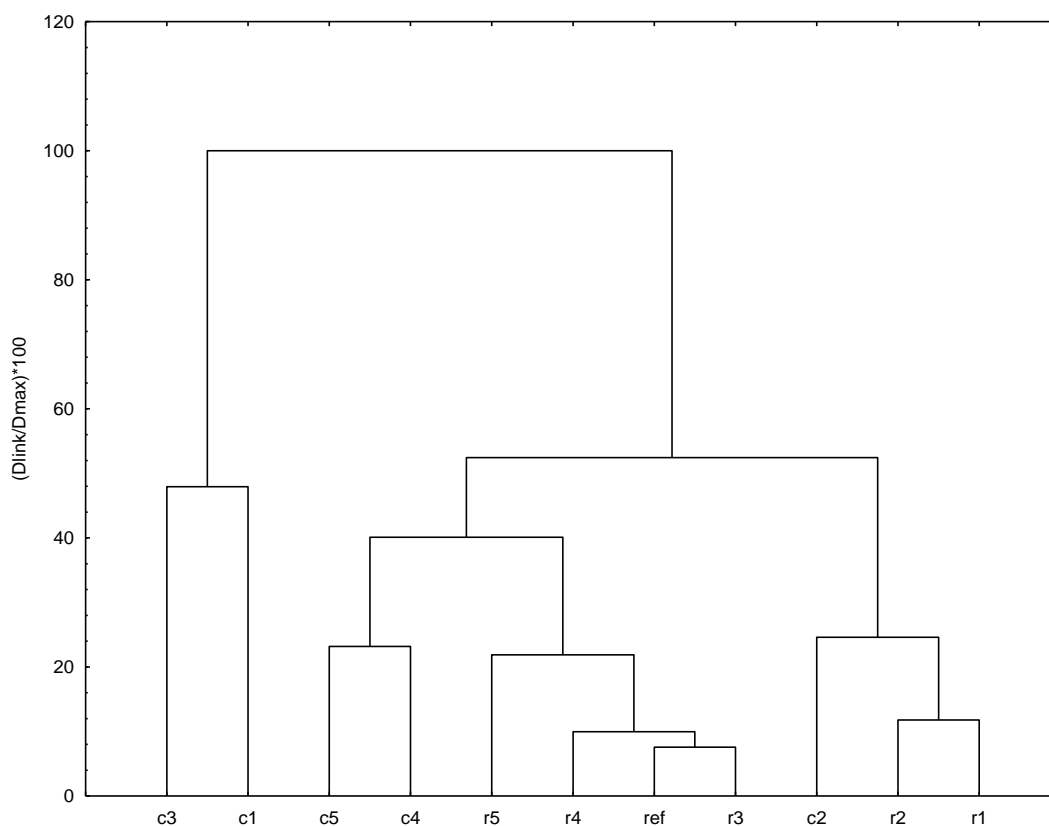
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In order to compare the PAHs distribution in resident and caged mussels the sets of data containing fractions of accumulated individual PAHs were submitted to similarity analysis. A hierarchical cluster analysis of individual PAH content (Fig4) revealed 3 groups of mussels with statistically different PAH distribution (ANOSIM). The first group comprise c2, r2 and r1, the second group r4, r5, c4, c5, ref, r3 and the third group by c1 and c3. Similar PAH distribution between resident and caged mussels indicated similar time-weighted relations of bioavailable PAHs at 3 investigated sites; S2, S4, and S5. This corresponding PAH content between caged and resident mussels at the same site could be related to the amount of accumulated PAHs (Seraphim et al., 2011, Marigómez et al., 2013). Significant correlation between PAH content in caged and resident mussels was found for sampling sites S2 ($r=0.69$, $p<0.05$) and S4 ($r=0.63$, $p<0.05$). Irrelevantly of pollution level at these sites (486 ng/g in resident and 234 ng/g in caged at S2; 215ng/g in resident and 147 ng/g in caged at S4), it indicated the equilibrium between environmental and tissue level of pollutants was reached during caging period. On the contrary, at S1 this equilibrium point was not reached and PAH distribution in caged mussels differed from PAH distribution in resident mussels.



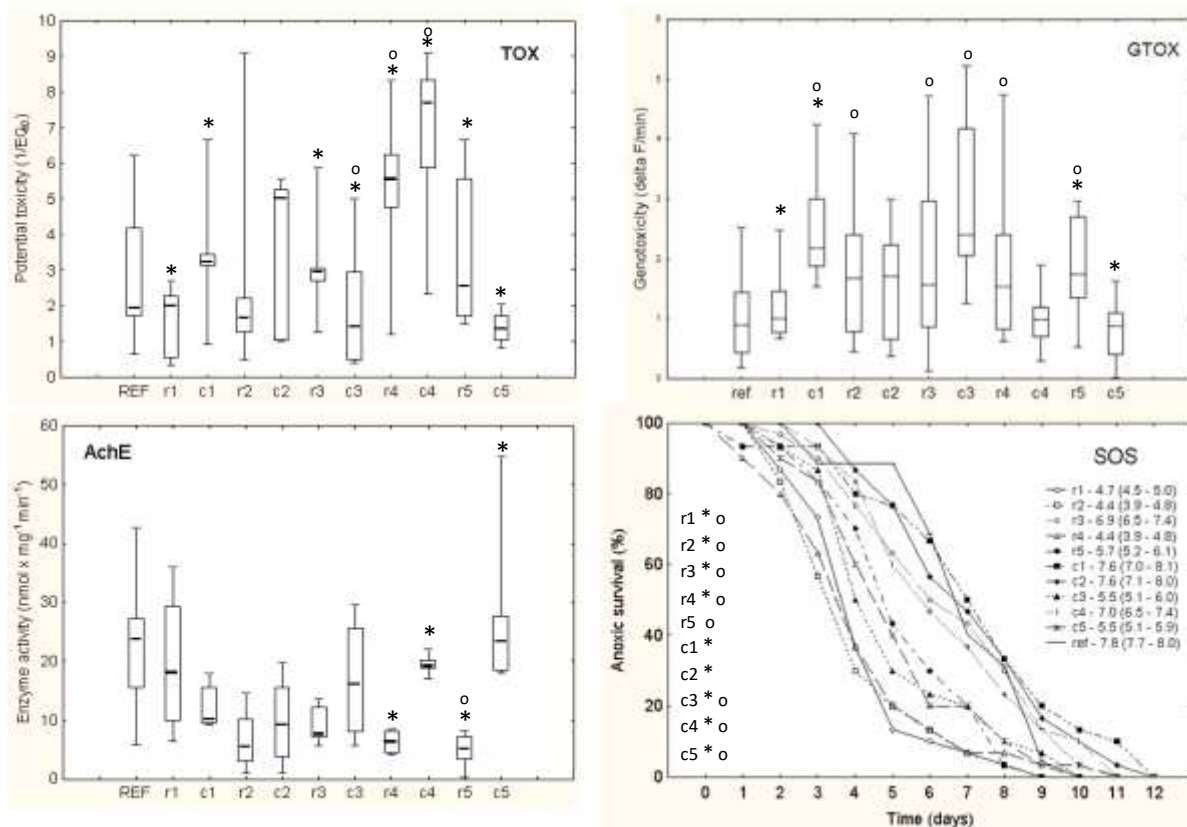
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Figure 4. Similarity of accumulated PAHs distribution between resident (r1-r5) and caged (c1-c5) mussels *Mytilus galloprovincialis* from 5 investigated sites in Rijeka Bay. (1,5 column fitted figure)

During the transplantation period, caged mussels at S1 accumulated the lowest fraction (36%) and mussels at S3 next to the highest fraction (63%) of PAH amount found in resident mussels. Therefore, similarity/dissimilarity of PAH content between caged and resident mussels from the same site could not be related to the amount of accumulated PAHs as observed by Seraphim et al. (2011) and Marigómez et al.(2013). In comparison to r1 and r3, c1 and c3 samples are characterized by the absence of BbF, that suggests slow uptake of HMW PAHs by caged mussels in specific environmental conditions. Besides the differences of decontamination kinetics for each individual PAH (Rantamaki, 1997) and mussel adaptation capacity, PAH pattern differences between resident and caged mussels could be explained by the variability of sources and related input dynamics linked to either site-specific irregular activities (S1-shipyard) or freshwater inflow (S3-estuary).

1 3.2. Biological response

2 Biomarkers were initially analysed separately (Fig5) and statistically significant
 3 differences were determined between referent and investigated sites for resident and caged
 4 mussels as well as between caged mussels before and after transplantation to particular
 5 investigated site. Modulations of biological responses were detected in both resident and
 6 caged mussels at all investigated sites indicating the existence of a chemical pressure in
 7 explored area.



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10 **Figure 5.** Biological response of resident (r1-r5) and caged (c1-c5) mussels *Mytilus*
 11 *galloprovincialis* to environmental conditions at referent site (ref) and 5 sites in Rijeka
 12 bay (TOX – potential toxicity of biological fluids, GTOX- 1/DNA integrity in gills
 13 cell, AchE- acetylcholine esterase activity in gills, SOS – “stress-on-stress”). p < 0.05
 14 vs ref (o), p < 0.05 r_i vs c_i (*). (2 columns fitted figure)

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In resident mussels, the median potential toxicity ranged from 1.7 (r2) to 5.6 (r4), while for caged mussels the median values were from 1.3 (c5) to 7.7 (c4). It corresponded well to previous findings for the Rijeka bay area (Bihari et al. 2007). Toxicity, significantly higher than in referent mussels, was determined in resident and caged mussels collected at S4.

1 Sampling site S4 was in a part of Rijeka suburb situated in a closed bay with limited water
2 exchange (Degobbis, 1981) under the influence of nearby industry (oil-refinery, charcoal
3 transport) and inflow of freshwater from urban and agricultural area (Frančišković_Bilinski,
4 2013, Fafandžel et al., 2015). The potential toxicity of mussel biological extracts could not be
5 related to total PAH content suggesting that PAHs were not the dominant toxic pollutants
6 accumulated in the mussel tissue.

7 At three sampling sites (S1, S2, S4) potential toxicity of caged mussels' biological
8 fluids increased and after caging period was higher than potential toxicity of resident mussels'
9 at the particular site. It indicated rapid accumulation of toxic compounds (including PAHs) in
10 caged mussels during the transplantation period and the presence of elimination mechanisms
11 in resident mussels. When compared to the reference, only mussels at S4, both caged and
12 resident expressed statistically higher potential toxicity, thus, showing similar capacity to
13 detect affected environment.

14 As expected, DNA integrity in resident mussels from S2, S3, S4 and S5 was
15 significantly lower than DNA integrity in referent mussels. However, after the transplantation
16 period the decrease in DNA integrity was observed only in caged mussels from S1 and S3. In
17 spite higher inter-individual differences in resident than in caged mussels, chronic exposure to
18 contaminated environment had greater impact on DNA integrity resulting in better sensitivity
19 of resident mussels to express genotoxic effect.

20 There was no overall correlation between DNA integrity and total PAH content or
21 between DNA integrity and genotoxic potential expressed as benzo(a)pyrene equivalents
22 (BaPEs). Similar results were previously reported suggesting that genotoxic impact derived
23 not from the PAH parental compounds but rather from their reactive metabolites and/or other
24 DNA-interacting chemicals (Thomas et al. 2007; Fernandez-Tajes et al.; 2010). It is still
25 worth mentioning that referent mussels express the highest DNA integrity while the lowest
26 DNA integrity was determined in the resident mussels containing the highest PAH amount
27 and the highest BaPEs. It is very likely that PAHs are not dominant genotoxins at all sampling
28 sites and other environmental factors affected the mussel DNA integrity. Therefore, low
29 DNA integrity found in resident and caged mussels at S3 characterized by low salinity and
30 low PAH input could be related to intense transcriptional activities associated with mussel'
31 adaptation to brackish waters at the Rječina river mouth (Hamer, 2008). The significant
32 differences in DNA integrity between resident and caged mussels was observed at S1 and S5.
33 At S1 the genotoxic effect was detected in caged but was absent in resident mussels. This
34 higher sensitivity of caged mussels has probably arisen from the modification of gene

1 expression rhythm as a consequence of adaptation to a more contaminated environment
2 (Venier et al.2006, Banni et al, 2011). On the contrary, in mussels caged at S5 DNA integrity
3 has not changed after transplantation and was higher than in resident mussels suggesting
4 current lack of genotoxic compound input linked to irregular technological processes
5 associated with local activities (shipyard).

6 The highest median acetylcholine esterase (AChE) activity (25.5 nmol/mg min) was
7 determined at a referent site. It is in the accordance with the previously measured spring
8 activities at the same site (Semenčić 2004) and comparable to activities measured in Adriatic
9 areas not impacted by pesticides (Corsi et al. 2002). The median activities in resident mussels
10 ranged from 5.1 nmol/mg min at S5 to 18 nmol/mg min at S1 while the median AChE
11 activities in caged mussels were from 9.3 nmol/mg min at S2 to 23.3 mnol/mg min at S5. The
12 significant difference in enzyme activity between referent and resident mussels was
13 determined at S5. Although the change of AChE activity in caged mussels during a 30 days
14 period did not express statistical significance, transplanted organisms showed decrease in
15 enzyme activity at all sampling sites. Statistically significant difference of AChE activity
16 between caged and resident mussels was found at S1 and S5. Lower activity in caged mussels
17 could be linked to seasonal/irregular activities, e.g. heavy metals input from the shipyard (S1)
18 while higher activity indicate the absence of inhibiting agents during the transplantation
19 period due to or dilution by intense freshwater inflow (S5). Finally, although caged mussels
20 displayed responsiveness of AChE to new environment, only AChE activity in resident
21 mussels could discriminate an environment impacted by AchE-inhbiting pollutants. In
22 addition, the significant correlation between AChE inhibition and genotoxic effect was
23 determined only in resident mussels ($r = 0.94$, $p < 0.05$). It is not surprising since many
24 environmental pollutants have anti-cholinesterase as well as genotoxic activity. In resident
25 mussels where biological effects are related to the chronic exposure the level of particular
26 response is set by adaptation/elimination mechanisms to some optimal value. In contrast,
27 caged mussels when confronted to the specific pollutants present in a new environment
28 displayed acute response.

29 The “stress-on-stress” survival test revealed stressed conditions at S3, S4 and S5 in
30 both resident and caged mussels. However, at S1 and S2 reduced survival time was detected
31 only in resident mussels designating them as more sensitive. Discrepancy in physiological
32 status between resident and mussels caged for 4 weeks were previously reported for Venice
33 lagoon (Pampanin et al. 2005) as well as for mussels from Galician coast (Marigómez et al.,
34 2013) where caged mussels appeared to be less resistant, than native mussels. It is very likely

1 that lack of change of mussel’s physiological status after transplantation at S1 and S2
 2 reflected current absence of environmental stressors.

3 To reach a general agreement about sensitivity of biological response in resident vs.
 4 caged mussels a simple table (Table 4) was created. It presents sensitivity of each biomarker
 5 to detect the biological effect (express value statistically higher than referent for each
 6 investigated sampling site). At sampling site S3 equal sensitivity was noted. At sampling sites
 7 S2, S4 and S5 resident mussels were more responsive. At sampling site S1 sensitivity of
 8 biological response was biomarker-specific. Biomarker-specific sensitivity was already
 9 observed by Marigómez et al. (2013) who reported that several biomarkers exhibited
 10 significant differences between resident and caged mussels and stressed the importance of
 11 multi-biomarker approach. It seems that the sensitivity did not originate only from the
 12 mussels themselves but also from the site-specific conditions.

13

14 Table 4. Biological response sensitivity of resident and caged mussels at five investigated
 15 sites in Rijeka Bay.

Biological response	Sampling sites				
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
Potential toxicity	-/-	-/-	-/-	R/C	-/-
DNA integrity	-/C	R/-	R/C	R/-	R/-
AChE activity	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-	R/-
“Stress-on-stress”	R/-	R/-	R/C	R/C	R/C

16 “R/-” - biological response was detected only in resident mussels (significantly differ from reference)

17 “-/C” -biological response was detected only in caged mussels (significantly differ from reference)

18 “-/-” - biological response was not detected (does not significantly differ from reference) neither in
 19 resident nor in caged mussels.

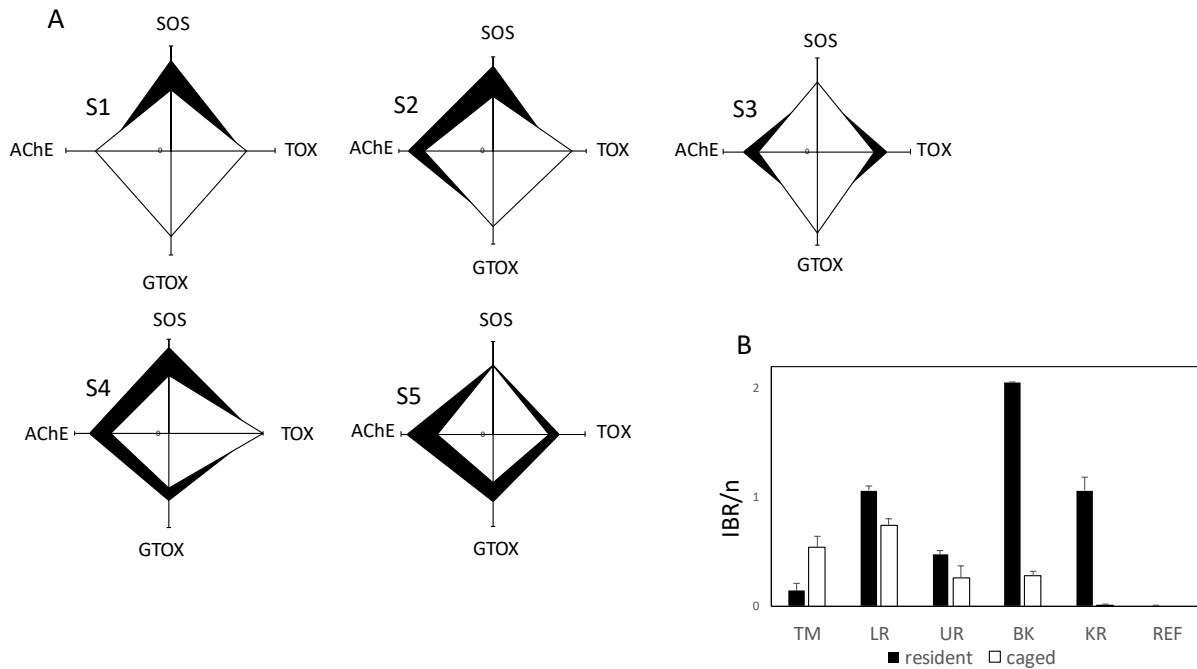
20 “R/C” - biological response was detected (significantly differs from reference) both in resident and
 21 caged mussels.

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23 For both resident and caged mussels no correlation has been found between any of
 24 measured biological effects. This variability of biological response patterns confirms the
 25 importance of the use of several biomarkers since their combination would provide invaluable
 26 information beyond that given by individual biomarker. To quantify multi-biomarker effect
 27 the integrated biomarker response index (IBR) was calculated. It took into account the level

1 of each investigated effect, and was presented as a star-plot (Fig. 7). Based on cumulative
 2 effect integrated in IBR for each investigated site, caged mussels have identified S1 and S2 as
 3 the most affected sampling sites while resident mussels have identified sampling sites S4 and
 4 S5.

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7 **Figure 6.** (A) IBR of biological effects (TOX, GTOX, AChE, SOS) presented as star-
 8 plot for each sampling site, (B) IBR index calculated for 4 biological effects

9 (■— resident mussels, □- caged mussels) (2 columns fitted figure)

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12 It is very likely that the caged mussels, when compared to resident mussel at S1 lack the
 13 adaptation capacity and therefore their transplantation to the new environment containing
 14 increased level of contaminants (including PAHs) caused greater response. Moreover,
 15 apparent difference of biological response between resident and caged mussels at S4 (TOX,
 16 AChE, SOS) and S5 (TOX, GTOX, AChE) due to the low level of effect in caged mussels
 17 could be related to the discontinuous presence of environmental stressors confirming low
 18 sensitivity of caged mussels to time-point pollution.

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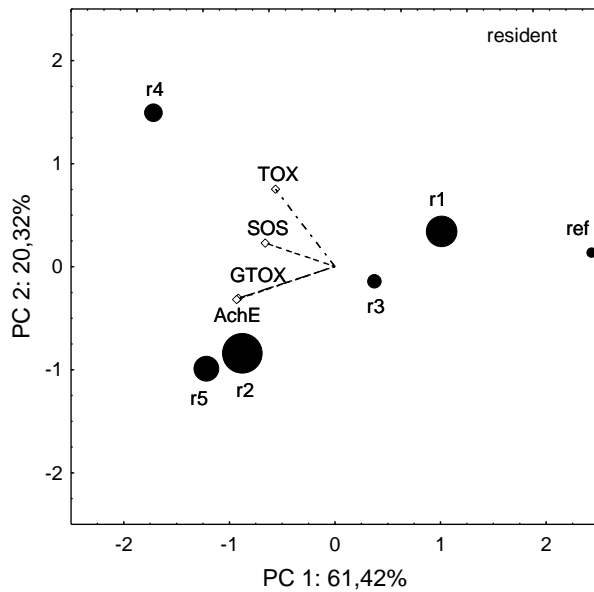
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1 *3.3. Integrating PAH content and biological response*

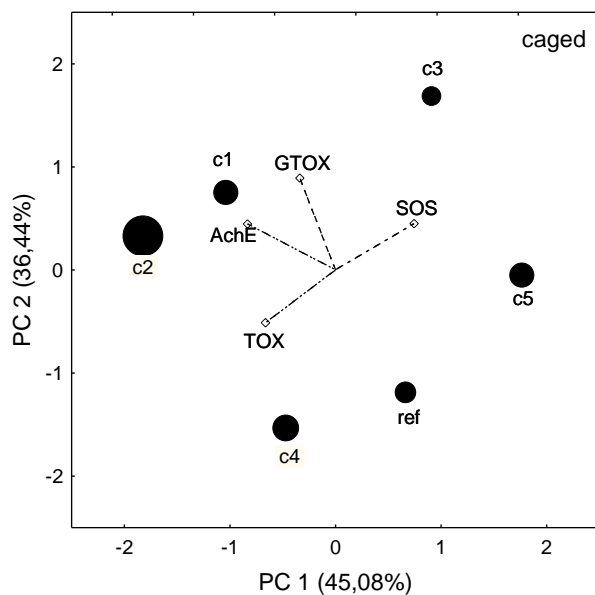
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3 When analyzing field data – often no distinguishable correlations between biomarkers
4 and tissue pollutant concentrations can be observed when evaluated individually by linear
5 regression or when subjected to canonical correlation analysis. In search of correlation
6 between PAH accumulation and biological response in mussels exposed to contaminated
7 environment principal component analyses (PCA) of biological responses in resident and
8 caged mussels was performed (Fig6). The plot of scores shows the position of investigated
9 sites (r1-r5, c1-c5) in the ordination plane of the first two principal components (PC1 and
10 PC2), projection of the variables (TOX, GTOX, AChE, SOS) on the PC plane present their
11 contribution to principal components and the size of the bubble represent the PAH
12 concentration. The sequence of eigenvalues was similar from one analysis to the other: the
13 two sets of variables have a strong first direction of inertia (>50%). All the variables
14 determined in resident mussels were significantly negatively correlated to PC1 that explains
15 the 61.4 % of the total variance, and the sampling sites could be classified according to their
16 PC1 score: referent site as the site with the minimal impact and r4 with the major impact.
17 There was no correlation between PC1 and the accumulated PAHs content. This result
18 reflected the cumulative effect of long-term exposure of resident mussels to mixture of
19 environmental factors where PAHs were not the dominant component or the resident mussels
20 have adapted (Lacroix et al., 2017) so the PAH effect has not been easily recognized. Finally,
21 the effect of other pollutants (e.g. heavy metals) present at investigated sampling sites (Perić
22 et al., 2012) that could modulate biological response (S4, S5) should not be neglected.

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4 **Figure 7.** PCA of biological response of resident (r1-r5) and caged (c1-c5) mussels
 5 *Mytilus galloprovincialis* to environmental conditions at referent site (ref) and 5 sites
 6 in Rijeka Bay (TOX – potential toxicity of biological fluids, GTOX- 1/DNA integrity
 7 in gills cell, AChE- acetylcholine esterase activity in gills, SOS – “stress-on-stress”).
 8 Superimposed bubble size corresponds to total PAH content. (2 columns fitted figure)

9

10 The results of the PC analysis of caged mussels showed that PC1 was negatively correlated to
 11 acetylcholine esterase activity, positively correlated to “stress-on-stress” while PC2 was
 12 positively correlated to genotoxic effect. Therefore, the position of the sites with minimal
 13 impact (ref) would be in the lower right quadrant and the sites with the highest impact (c1, c2)

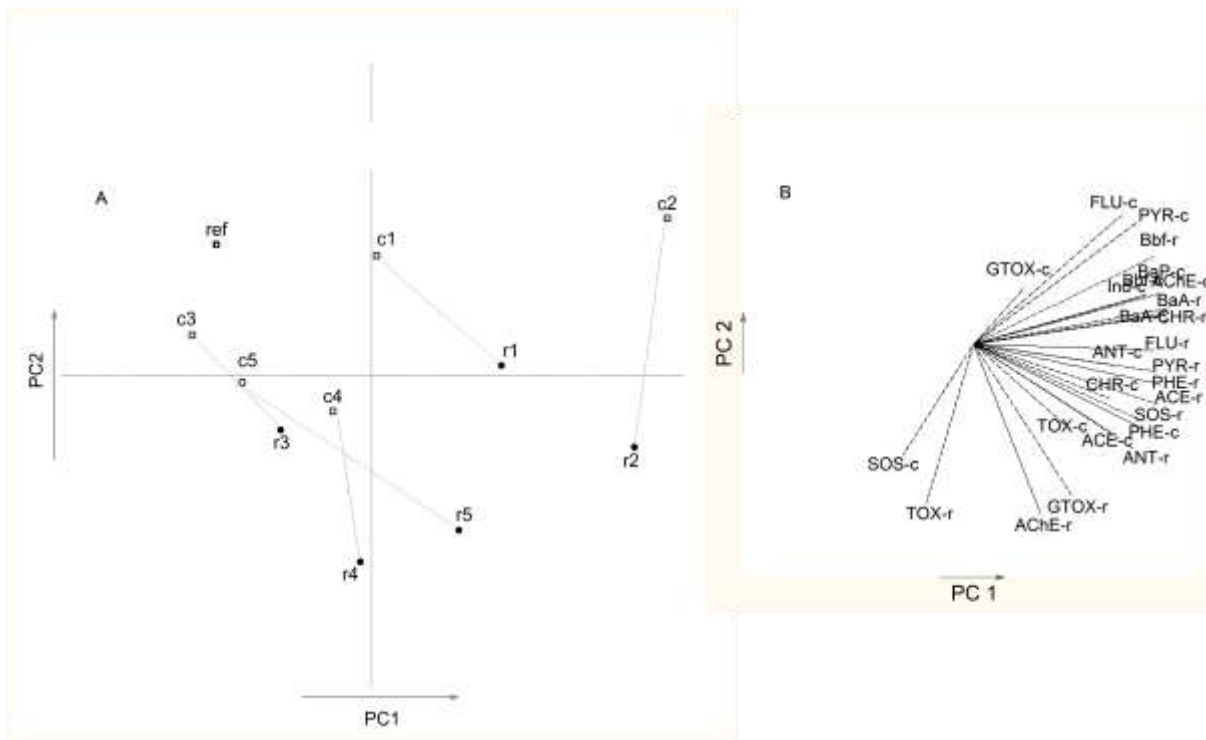
1 in upper left quadrant. The position of the sampling site with the lowest PAH content was in
2 the PC plane area that was characterized by the minimal impact while the sampling site with
3 the highest PAH content (c2) was situated in the quadrant corresponding to the highest
4 impact. However, there was no overall correlation between PAH content and any of the first
5 two principal components. Distinct response times and duration for biomarkers and
6 bioaccumulation are in accordance with previously reported field studies results (Garmendia
7 et al., 2011, Marigómez et al., 2013). This supports currently recommended integration of
8 biomarkers and chemical data (OSPAR, 2013), using integrative indices (Regoli et al., 2014)
9 or multivariate analysis (Turja et al., 2014) for the assessment of environmental disturbance
10 caused by chemical stress in coastal areas.

11 However, the position of sampling sites based on a set of four investigated mussel
12 biological responses clearly shows the difference between PCA results for resident and caged
13 mussels. The observed distinction gave an indication of the different points of view between
14 resident and caged mussels originating from the same biomarkers set. To display differences
15 between resident and caged mussels after integration of all observations (PAH level and
16 biological responses) multiple factor analysis (MFA) was applied. The first step of the
17 analysis that included PCA of each data set revealed that the first eigenvalue of the separate
18 PCA of variables in resident mussels was slightly higher (8.0) than the one of PCA of
19 variables in caged mussels (7.0). Thus, normalization of data allowed balancing and avoided
20 the domination of variables from resident mussels in the construction of the first axis. Taking
21 this way the groups of variables equally into the account, multiple factor analysis (MFA) of
22 chemical and biological data derived an integrated picture of the investigated sampling sites
23 and the relationship between variable groups used to describe them (Fig 8). MFA provided
24 global analysis as a balanced representation of each sampling site according to both resident
25 and caged mussel data set.

26 Projecting the data set of caged and resident mussels onto the global analysis provided
27 partial representations map that revealed the level of agreement between resident and caged
28 mussels. Partial representations of same sampling site are even closer that they do express the
29 same information. It showed a well-defined partition of sampling sites particularly along the
30 first PC. The first axis is highly correlated to PAH content in resident and caged mussels.

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Figure 8. Multiple factor analysis (MFA) relationship between the studies: A) Projection of the resident (●) and caged (□) mussel onto the global analysis. A line segment links the position of the resident/caged mussel to its global position (o). B) Chemical and biochemical descriptors represented as eigenvectors of correlation matrix in the first two planes of PCA-global analysis. (2 columns fitted figure)

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Therefore, when considering tissue contaminant load and the observed partition of sampling sites along PC1 caged mussels showed higher discrimination capacity than resident mussels. The partition on axis 1 between resident and caged mussels for S1, S3 and S5 was related to either irregular contaminant input (S1, S5-shipyard) or freshwater inflow (S3-estuary) since caged mussels were limited to recent input and failed to detect contaminant input at sites with irregular activities.

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The second axis was correlated to biological response (TOX, GTOX, and AChE in resident mussels only) confirming that resident and caged mussels did not respond with comparable patterns to the same environment. This absence of correlation of biological response between resident and caged mussels indicated the presence of different adaptation

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1 traits of the indigenous mussel population when compared to caged mussels. It is in
2 accordance to different sample sites ranking obtained by IBR. Moreover, eigenvectors of
3 correlation matrix of chemical and biological descriptors indicated no correlation between
4 bioaccumulation and biological response in resident mussels. Distinct response between
5 bioaccumulation and biomarkers was already observed (Garmendia et al., 2011, Marigómez et
6 al, 2013) and attributed to different response times. Based on their results in Galicia,
7 Marigómez et al. (2013) concluded that the suite of biomarkers was more sensitive after
8 caging (short-term response) whereas tissue pollutant concentrations were more sensitive in
9 native mussels (long-term response). Our case confirmed that long-term exposure of resident
10 mussels were more reliable for overall contaminant bioaccumulation assessment. At the same
11 time due to the adaptation mechanisms resident mussels expressed reduced discrimination
12 capacity and were prone to false negative results (absence of HMW PAHs at S2). It put
13 forward the importance of mussel origin to reflect particular environmental conditions
14 (Pampanin et al., 2005, Viarengo et al., 2007). Indeed, when considering the level of
15 contaminant bioaccumulation, discrimination capacity was higher in caged mussels but
16 resident mussels were more sensitive than caged mussels in expressing biological effects.

17 Therefore, it was important that MFA integrated chemical and biological data and
18 derived an integrated picture. By the comparison between the representations of partial
19 individuals, the opposition between each sampling site and referent site was much bigger
20 from a resident mussel's point of view than from a caged mussel's point of view. It means
21 that when analysed together tissue PAH concentrations and multiple biological response,
22 resident mussels were more powerful for the detection of environmental pressure in the
23 investigated areas. It can be concluded that despite the observed shortcomings, when
24 contaminant bioaccumulation and biological endpoints were integrated, resident mussels
25 could provide reliable results. Future use of resident mussels in environmental risk assessment
26 that combine chemical and biological measurements by multivariate analysis (Turja et al.,
27 2014), complex modelling tools such as weight of evidence (WOE) (Regoli et al., 2014) or
28 integrated assessment framework (Martinez-Gomez, C. et al., 2017) is supported for long-
29 term monitoring.

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1 **4. Conclusion**

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3 Comparison of resident and caged mussels' results revealed site-specific differences
4 for each investigated parameter. The correlation between total PAH content in resident and
5 caged mussels was found at majority of sampling sites. The absence of HMW PAHs in
6 resident mussels at S2 indicated limitation of indigenous population and higher sensitivity of
7 caged mussels to reflect PAH load in the environment. There was no correlation of biological
8 response between resident and caged mussels. Resident and caged mussels expressed
9 different biological response sensitivity's patterns and different sample site ranking according
10 to the cumulative biological effect. Integration of all biological effects confirmed low
11 sensitivity of caged mussels to time-point pollution.

12 For detection of environmental pressure, it was important to combine multiple
13 biomarkers as well as to integrate contaminant content and biological response due to the
14 limitation of individual investigated parameter. MFA was successfully applied in an
15 ecotoxicological study enabling comparison of complex response in two investigated
16 monitoring systems. The visualization of specific and common structures provided
17 achievement of a comprehensive answer about differences between resident and caged
18 mussel's response. MFA analysis of tissue PAH concentrations together with multiple
19 biological response displayed resident mussels as more powerful for detection of
20 environmental pressure in the investigated area.

21 The results of this study confirmed resident mussels as reliable bioindicator. Their use
22 as an appropriate and less costly approach for monitoring the effect of pollution is
23 recommended. Yet, caged mussels are more suitable in case of areas with chronic
24 contaminant input, but should be avoided at sites characterised by irregular contaminant input.

25 This investigation contributes to comprehension of advantages and limitations
26 connected to the "resident or caged mussels" dilemma before designing a monitoring strategy
27 as well as during the interpretation of acquired information and provision of data that would
28 be beneficial to its final users.

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