

Water quality and gill diseases

Gardermoen, November 7, 2012

by

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<http://statisk.umb.no/ina/ansatte/bjorro.php>

[2Norwegian Institute for Water Research, NIVA](#)



Fe on fish gill (scanning electron microscopy
with x-ray microanalyses, UMB, Skryseth (2007)



Vital organs in fish which can be affected by pollutants in the environment

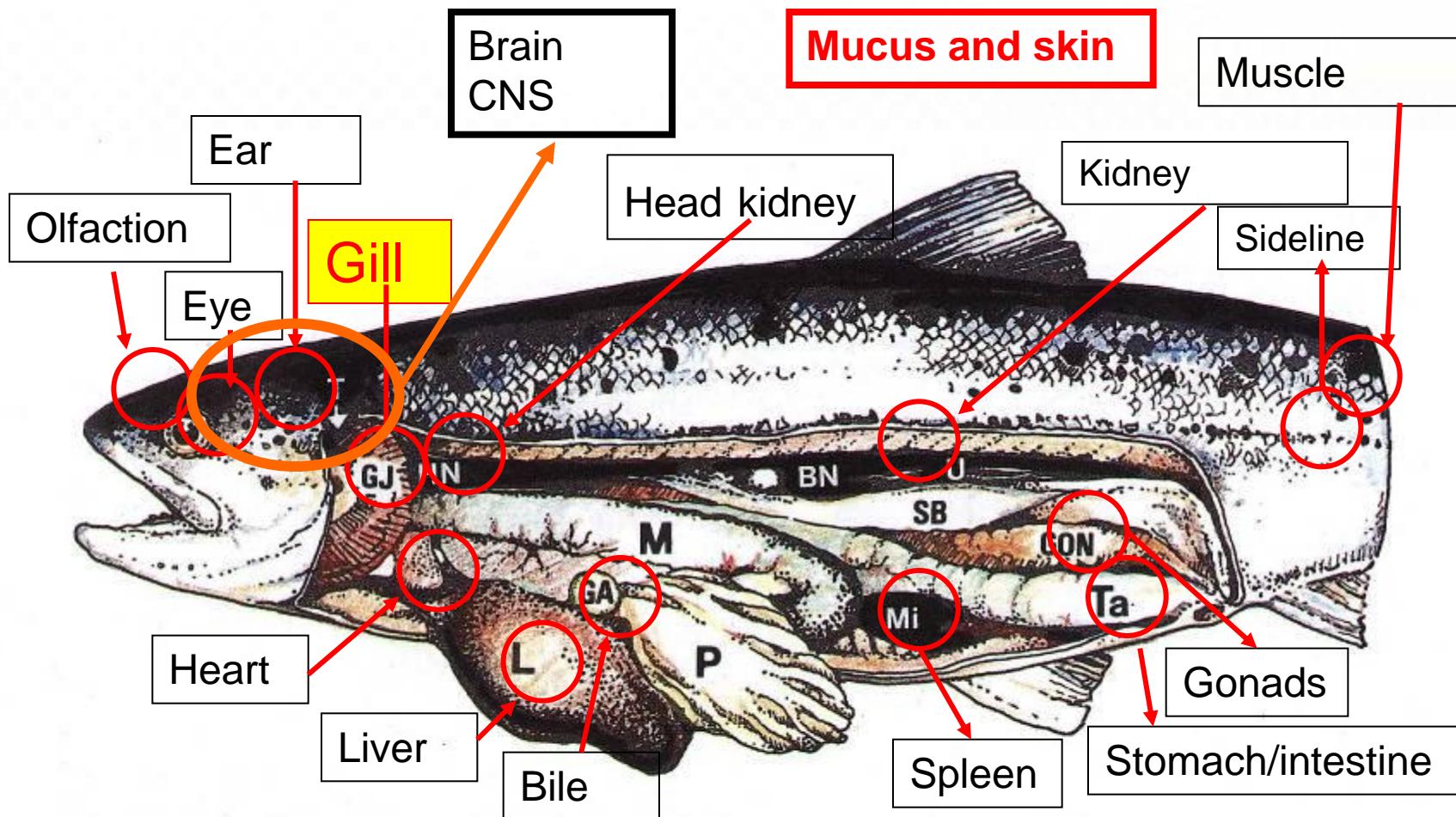


Fig. 1.4 Laksefisk med venstre bukside fjernet for å vise de indre organer. T: Thymus, GJ: Gjeller, HN: Hodenyre, BN: Baknyre, U: Urinleder, GON: Gonade, Ta: Tarm, Mi: Milt, M: Magesekk, P: Pylorusblindsekker, L: Lever, GA: Galleblære. Hjertet sees mellom lever og gjeller. Et stanniuslegeme sees foran BN i nyren.

Modified after Kryvi 1992

What can cause adversely effects to gill surface and gill functioning other than bacteria and virus?

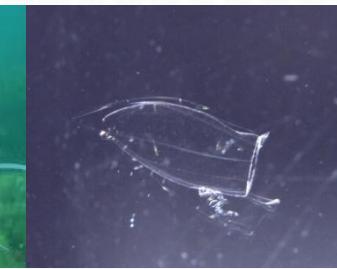
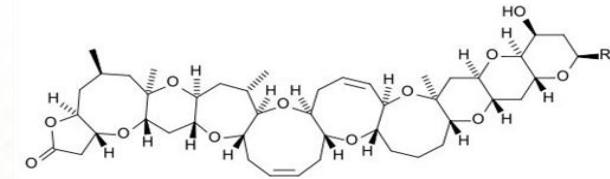
- Metals, mainly inorganic low molecular mass (LMM) species
- Particles with sharp edges (including silicates)
- Chemicals and gasses (NH_3 , Chlorine, N_2)
- Toxins from cyanobacteria, algae, jellyfish etc.
- And probably many more causes linked to primary and secondary events (like “cold water gill disease”).

Major incidents where the gills of Atlantic salmon are “at risk”

- Presmolts through smoltification period before sea transfer (Al, Fe, free radical exposure)
- Exposure to full seawater if not seawater tolerant (increased sea lice infection and mortality)
- During transfer to sea by wellboat or car (hyperoxia, hypercapnia, high TAN/NH₃)
- Use of disinfections with free radical production
- On growth period and freshwater floods with metals
- On growth period with toxic algae, zooplankton and jellyfish

“Non virulent gill diseases”

- Harmful and toxic algae
 - Harmful zooplankton (gelatinous-plankton)
 - Other environmental factors



Rev Fish Biol Fisheries
DOI 10.1007/s11160-010-9182-6

REVIEWS

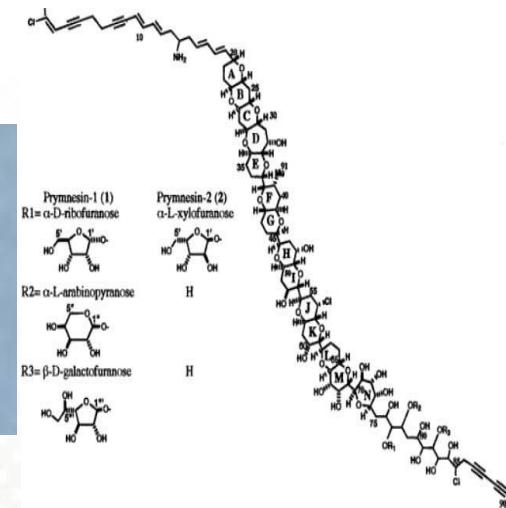
Non-infectious gill disorders of marine salmonid fish

**Hamish D. Rodger · Louise Henry ·
Susan O. Mitchell**

Harmful algae

There are several mechanisms by which algae can harm fish:

- Ichtyotoxins
 - Mainly marine flagellates or dinoflagellates
- Mechanical damage
 - Mainly from diatoms with silica spines/setae
- Suffocation
- High algae biomass creating hypoxia at night time and through biodegradation at the end of blooming
- «Gas-bubble trauma»
- Hyperoxia during algae blooms at daytime
- Probably a case of "free radical" exposure



Toxic algae

- ***Chrysochromulina polylepis***, caused a massive fish kill of caged Atlantic salmon in Southern and Western Norway in 1988.
- Affected the gills and caused osmoregulation failure (Leivestad and Serikstad 1989)

Leivestad, H. og Serikstad, B. (1989). Some observations on the effects of *Chrysochromulina polylepis* on the osmoregulation in fish. ICES-Workshop on the 1988 *Chrysochromulina polylepis* bloom, Bergen, February 28. to March 2., 1989.

- The toxin was probably like Prymnesin

Hektoen, H., Skulberg, O., Rosseland, B.O. & Kvellestad, A. 1990. Økotoksikologiske forsøk (Allelopati) med algegiftstoffer fra *Chrysochromulina polylepis* i det marine miljø. - NIVA-Akvarrapport, O-88225. 19 pp.



Toxic Golden Algae (*Prymnesium parvum*)

Circular 647

Rossana Sallenave¹

Cooperative Extension Service • College of Agricultural, Consumer and Environmental Sciences

This publication is scheduled to be updated and reissued 1/15.



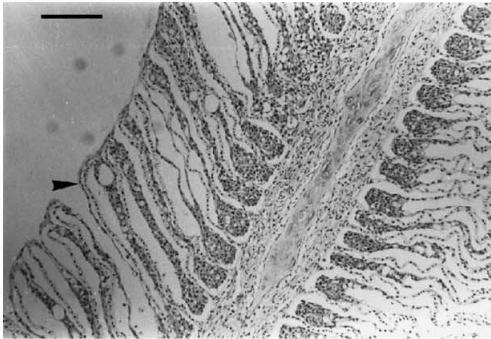
Toxin = prymnesin

Photo: Photograph by Dr. John La Claire II,
University of Texas at Austin

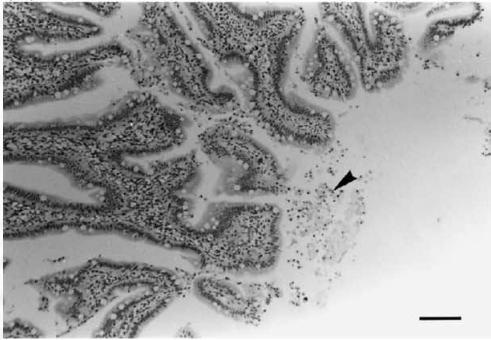
Harmful algae, Dinoflagellates – Red Tide

Chaetoceros wighamii (4.5×10^5 celler liter⁻¹)
dominert blomstring

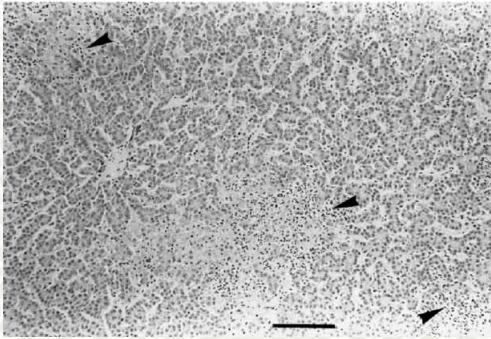
(a)



(b)



(c)



Treasurer et al. 2003

Karenia mikimotoi blomstring

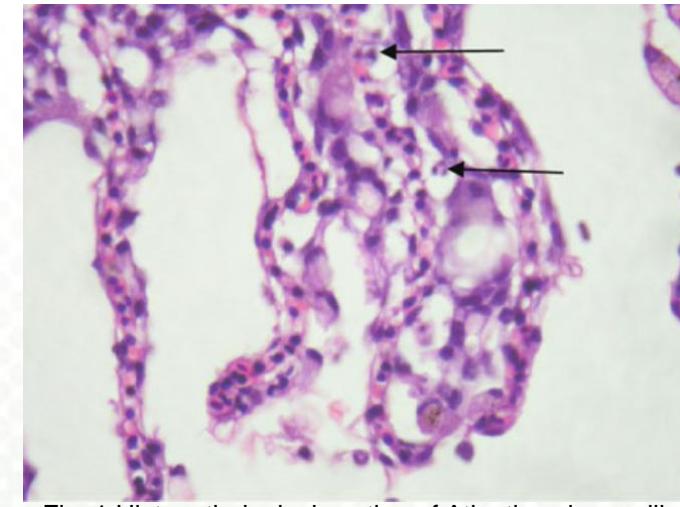


Fig. 1 Histopathological section of Atlantic salmon gills exposed to harmful phytoplankton (*K. mikimotoi*) exhibiting necrotic epithelial cells, irregular surface and epithelial lifting (H&E X100). Hentet fra Rodger et al. (2011)

Bull. Eur. Ass. Fish Pathol., 27(1) 2007, 39

Pathology of wild and cultured fish affected by a *Karenia mikimotoi* bloom in Ireland, 2005

S. Mitchell and H. Rodger* 2007

Fig. 2. Pathology of (a) gills, arrow indicates oedematous separation of epithelia, (b) gut, arrow shows sloughed necrotic cells, (c) liver, arrow indicates focal necrosis with haemorrhage, related to damage from a phytoplankton bloom. Scale shown as bar = 100 µm.

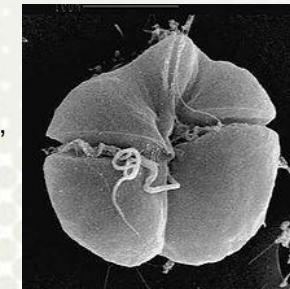


Photo: Wikipedia.org.



Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

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Aquaculture 218 (2003) 103–113

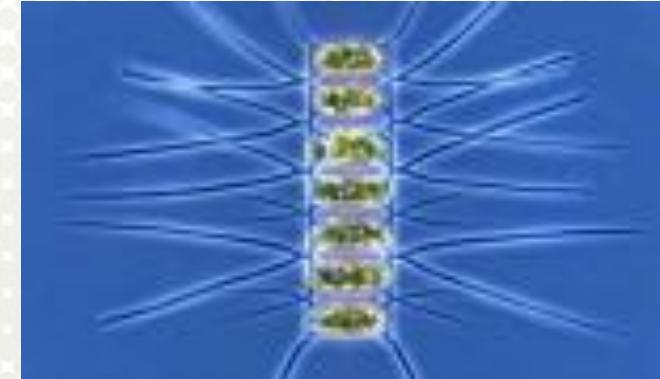
Aquaculture

www.elsevier.com/locate/aqua-online

Impact of a phytoplankton bloom on mortalities and feeding response of farmed Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar*, in west Scotland

James W. Treasurer^{a,*}, Fiona Hannah^b, David Cox^c

Chaetoceros wighamii



Photos: Goldenmap.com

Harmful algae

Table 1 Examples of marine phytoplankton species associated with fish mortalities

| Phytoplankton species | Finfish affected | Country/region | Details | References |
|-----------------------------------|---|---------------------|---|---|
| <i>Karenia mikimotoi</i> | <i>Gadus morhua, S. salar</i> | Ireland | Cod hatchery juveniles killed, 500 mortalities of farmed salmon | Silke et al. (2005), Mitchell and Rodger (2007) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | Scotland | Gill damage in farmed salmon | Jones et al. (1982), Davidson et al. (2009) |
| | <i>S. salar, O. mykiss</i> | Norway | 2.6–100% mortalities farmed fish | Dahl and Tangen (1993) |
| <i>Karenia brevisulcata</i> | <i>Sardinops sagax</i> | New Zealand | 0.5 tonne pichards killed | Jones and Rhodes (1994) |
| <i>Cochlodinium polykrikoides</i> | Various farmed species | Korea, Japan, China | | Kim et al. (1997), Yuki and Yoshimatsu (1989), Qi et al. (1993) |
| <i>Gonyaulax excavata</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | Philippines | Wild reef fish | Azanza et al. (2008) |
| <i>Karlodinium micrum</i> | <i>Mugil cephalus, Sciaenops ocellatus</i> | Faroe Islands | Retention pond fish kill | Mortensen (1985) |
| | <i>Morone saxatilis x chrysops</i> | South Carolina | | Kempton et al. (2002) |
| <i>Gymnodinium sp</i> | <i>Liza macrolepis, Acanthopagrus cuvieri</i> | Arabian Gulf | Farmed and wild fish | Heil et al. (2004) |
| <i>Chaetoceros wighamii</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | Scotland | 550,000 fish died or were culled, 44 tonnes mortality | Bruno et al. (1989), Treasurer et al. (2003) |
| <i>Chaetoceros convolutus</i> | <i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> | British Columbia | 60,000 40 g fish within 1 week | Speare et al. (1989), Albright et al. (1993) |
| <i>Ceratium furca</i> | <i>S. aurata, Liza klunzingeri</i> | Arabian Gulf | Fish kill of wild mullet and farmed bream | Glibert et al. (2002) |
| <i>Ceratium furca</i> | <i>Salmo salar</i> | Scotland (Skye) | 2.69T of 4 kg fish died (670 fish) | ICES report (2005) |
| <i>Ceratium fusus</i> | Various species | Japan | Farmed fish | Onoue (1990) |
| <i>Skeletonema sp.</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | British Columbia | Farmed fish (4% mortality, approx. 16,000 fish, mixed bloom) | Kent et al. (1995) |
| <i>Chrysochromulina polylepis</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | Scandinavia | Farmed and wild fish | Dahl et al. (1989) |
| <i>Heterosigma akashiwo</i> | <i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i> | New Zealand, Japan | Farmed fish | Chang et al. (1990), Khan et al. (1997) |
| <i>Alexandrium tamarense</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | Nova Scotia | Farmed fish | Cembella et al. (2002) |
| <i>Pseudonitzschia sp.</i> | <i>S. salar</i> | British Columbia | Farmed fish | Kent et al. (1995) |

Table from Rodger et al. 2011

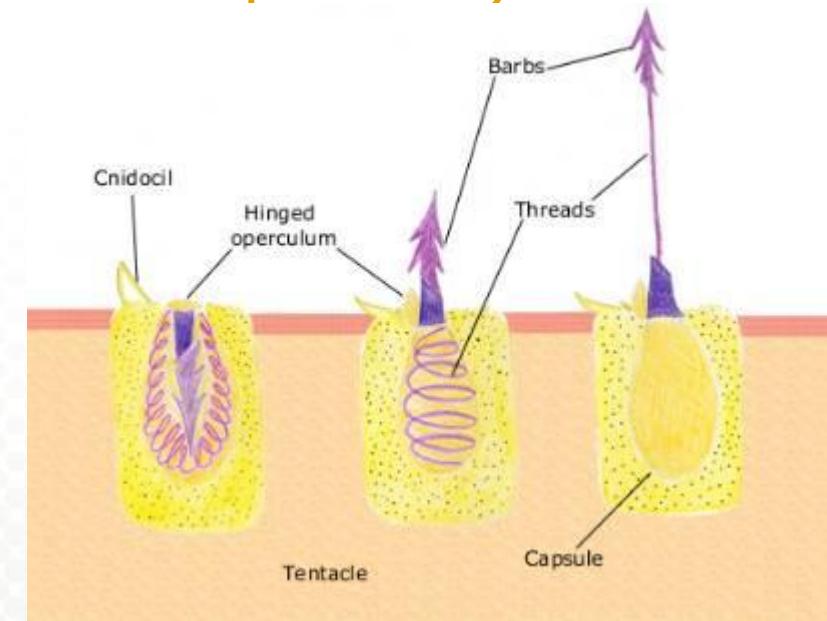
Common species in Norway

Monitored at coastal stations by Mattilsynet (Norwegian Food Safety Authorities)

Several other freshwater species are harmful

Harmful zooplankton (gelatinous-plankton)

- Harm from zooplankton are quite similar to harm from phytoplankton
- Physical damage to skin, mucus and gills
 - Many with nettle (nematocysts) cells with hooks
- Toxins
 - Different compounds, often proteins with paralyzing or necrotic properties
- Suffocation
 - Clogging of gills



Harmful zooplankton (gelatinous-plankton)

Table 2 Examples of gelatinous zooplankton associated with mortalities in farmed salmonids

| Zooplankton species | Fish affected | Country/region | Details | References |
|---|-----------------|----------------------|---|---|
| <i>Aurelia aurita</i> (Scyphozoan) | <i>S. salar</i> | Norway | Farmed salmon | Bamstedt et al. (1998) |
| | | Shetland | Farmed salmon | Bruno and Poppe 1996 |
| | | Ireland | Farmed salmon | Mitchell (personal observation) |
| <i>Pelagia noctiluca</i> (Scyphozoan) | <i>S. salar</i> | Northern Ireland | Approx. 250,000 fish killed | Doyle et al. (2008) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | Ireland, Scotland | O'Connor (2002), Hay and Murray (2008) | |
| <i>Muggiae atlantica</i> (Siphonophore) | <i>S. salar</i> | France | Significant mortalities in farmed fish | Merceron et al. (1995) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | West coast of Norway | >100,000 farmed salmon, 2000 siphonophores/m ³ | Fossa et al. (2002), Hellberg et al. (2003) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | Scotland | Mortalities in farmed fish | Sourd (pers. comm.) |
| <i>Phialella quadrata</i> (Leptomedusa) | <i>S. salar</i> | Shetland | 1500 fish died | Bruno and Ellis (1985) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | Norway | | Bamstedt et al. (1998) |
| <i>Cyanea capillata</i> (Scyphozoan) | <i>S. salar</i> | Scotland, Ireland | Farmed salmon (90,000 mortalities in Ireland in 2004) | Bruno and Ellis (1985), Rodger (personal observation) |
| | <i>S. salar</i> | Scotland | Farmed salmon (650,000 mortalities in 2 days in 2002) | Sourd (pers. comm.) |
| <i>Apolemia uvaria</i> (Siphonophore) | <i>S. salar</i> | Sweden, Norway | Farmed salmon | Bamstedt et al. (1998) |
| <i>Bolinopsis infundibulum</i> (Ctenophore) | <i>S. salar</i> | Norway | Farmed salmon | Rodger (personal observation) |
| <i>Vellella vellella</i> (Atheacata) | <i>S. salar</i> | Ireland | Skin and gill pathology observed | Bamstedt et al. (1998) |
| | | | | Rodger (personal observation) |

Table from Rodger et al. 2011

Marked species are common in Norwegian fauna, often linked to fish kills

NIVA or other institutions **are not** involved in **monitoring** of these species along the Norwegian coast

Jellyfish

OPEN  ACCESS Freely available online

 PLoS one

Gill Damage to Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) Caused by the Common Jellyfish (*Aurelia aurita*) under Experimental Challenge

Emily J. Baxter^{1,2,3*}, Michael M. Sturt², Neil M. Ruane⁴, Thomas K. Doyle¹, Rob McAllen², Luke Harman², Hamish D. Rodger⁵

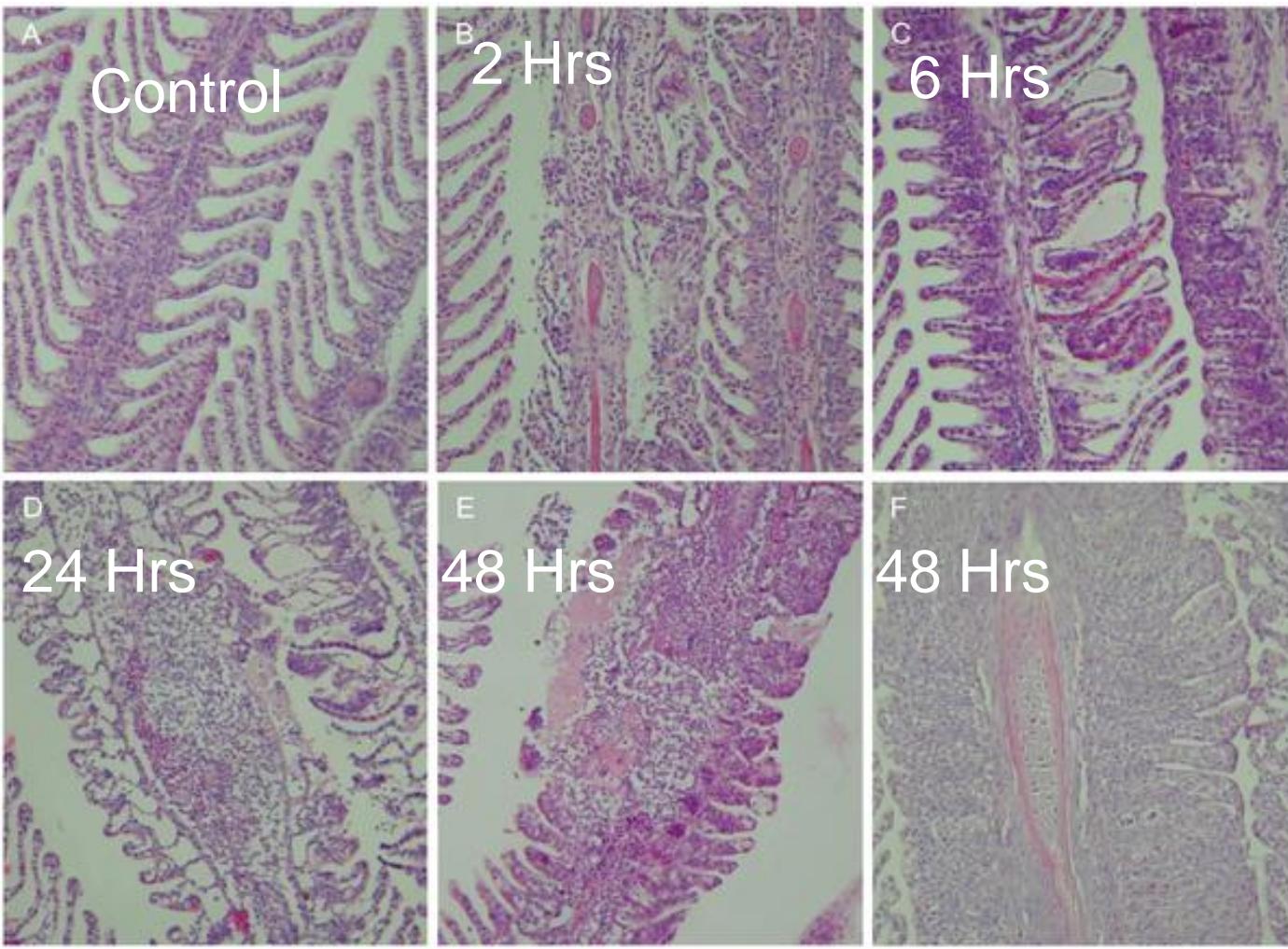


2011

Photo: Marinbi.com

Photographic time series of gill lesions in fish exposed to *Aurelia aurita* under experimental challenge.

Rosseland, B.O., Åland, Å., Dale, T. & Powell, M. Water quality and gill diseases. Gardemoen
October 6, 2012. ©



Baxter EJ, Sturt MM, Ruane NM, Doyle TK, et al. (2011) Gill Damage to Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) Caused by the Common Jellyfish (*Aurelia aurita*) under Experimental Challenge. PLoS ONE 6(4): e18529. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0018529
<http://www.plosone.org/article/info:doi/10.1371/journal.pone.0018529>

The fish gill has become our most important single biomarker for metal toxicity!

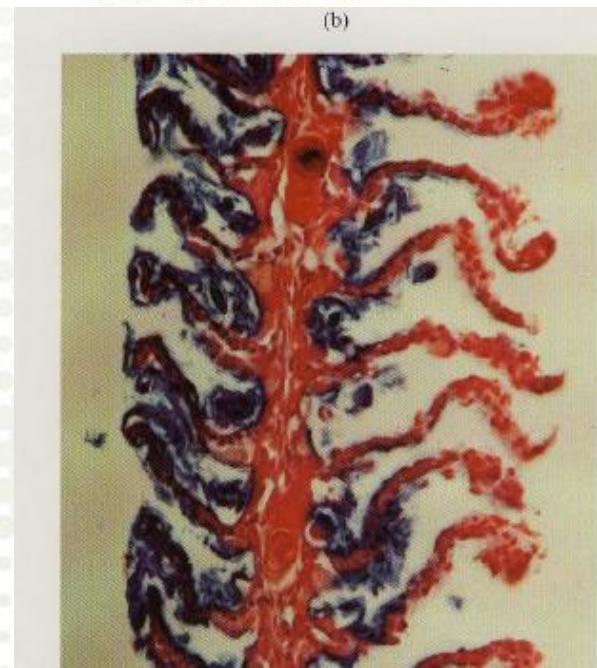
Environmental Pollution 78 (1992) 3–8

Rosseland et al. 1992



The mixing zone between limed and acidic river waters: complex aluminium chemistry and extreme toxicity for salmonids

B. O. Rosseland,^a I. A. Blakar,^b A. Bulger,^c F. Kroglund,^a A. Kvellstad,^d
E. Lydersen,^e D. H. Oughton,^f B. Salbu,^g M. Staurnes^h & R. Vogtⁱ

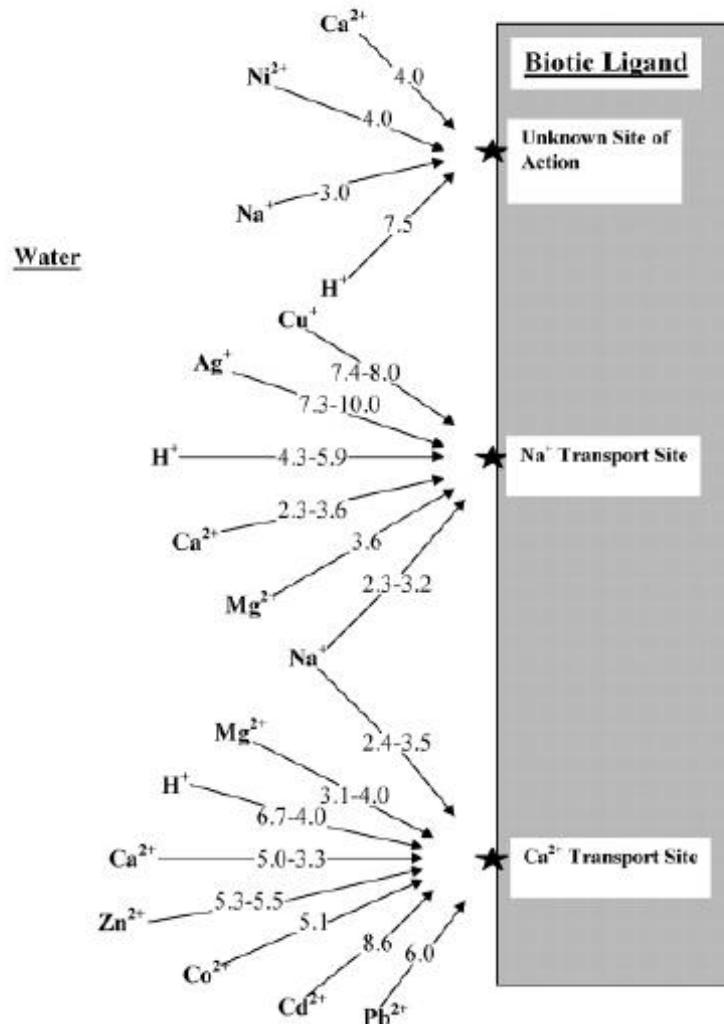


“Blue” = Al

Photos: D. Oughton

Biotic Ligand Model (BLM)

Binding affinities ($\log K$) of “free ions” onto gills



Biotic Ligand Model, a Flexible Tool for Developing Site-Specific Water Quality Guidelines for Metals

SOUMYA NIYOGI AND CHRIS M. WOOD*

6178 • ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY / VOL. 38, NO. 23, 2004

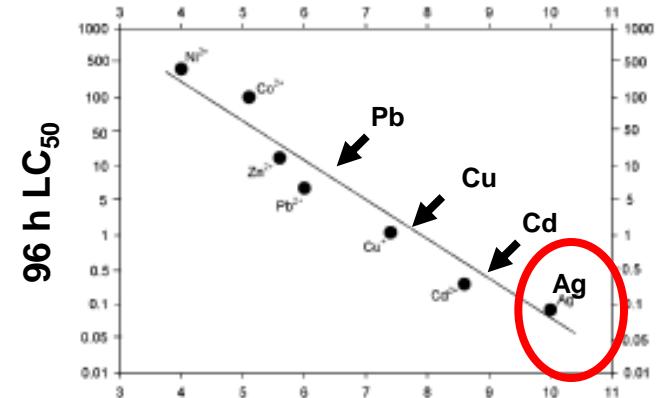


FIGURE 1

Increased affinity = increased toxicity

60, 174, 72, 62, and 162, respectively. The 96 h LC_{50} data for the same metals are taken from the cited literature: refs 13, 75, 73, 173, 77, 176, and 160, respectively. The Y-axis of the plot is in log scale.



Acute and sub-lethal effects in juvenile Atlantic salmon exposed to low µg/L concentrations of Ag nanoparticles

E. Farmen^{a,b,*}, H.N. Mikkelsen^a, Ø. Evensen^c, J. Einset^a, L.S. Heier^a, B.O. Rosseland^a, B. Salbu^a, K.E. Tollefsen^{a,b}, D.H. Oughton^a

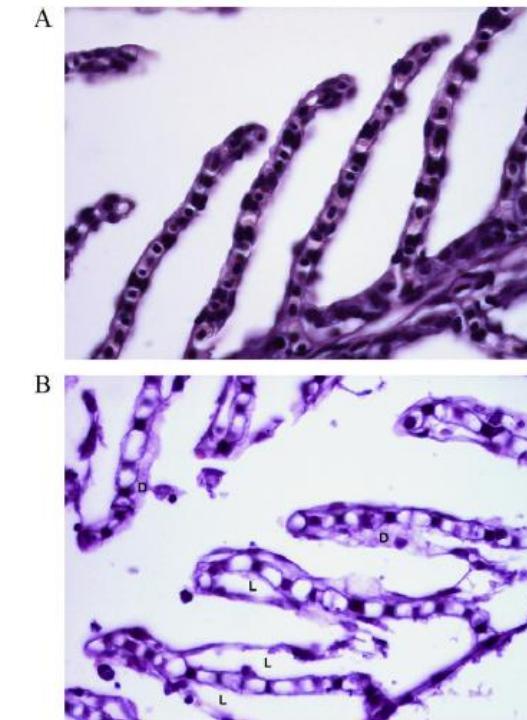
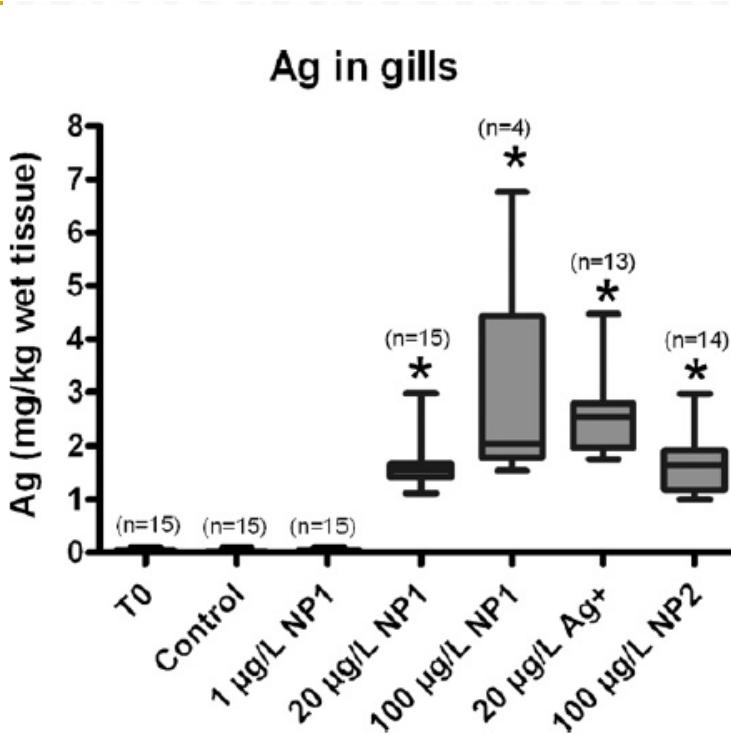
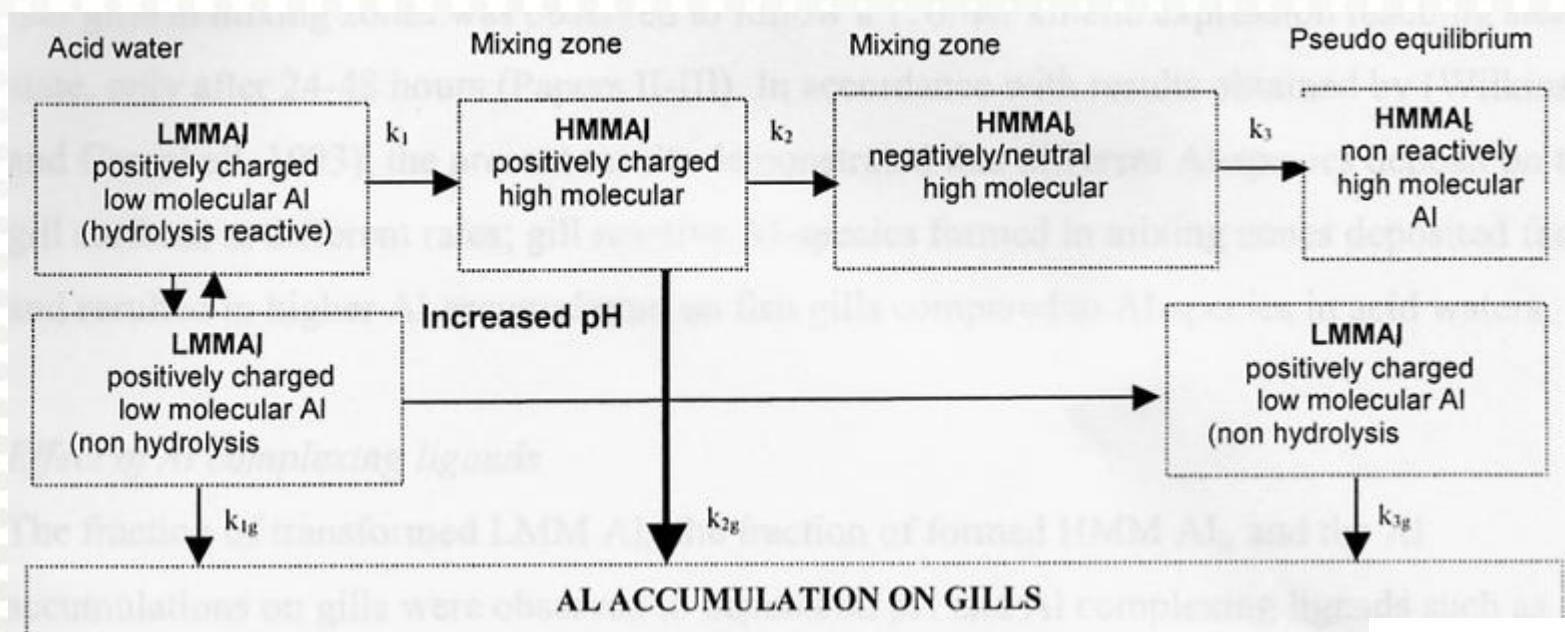
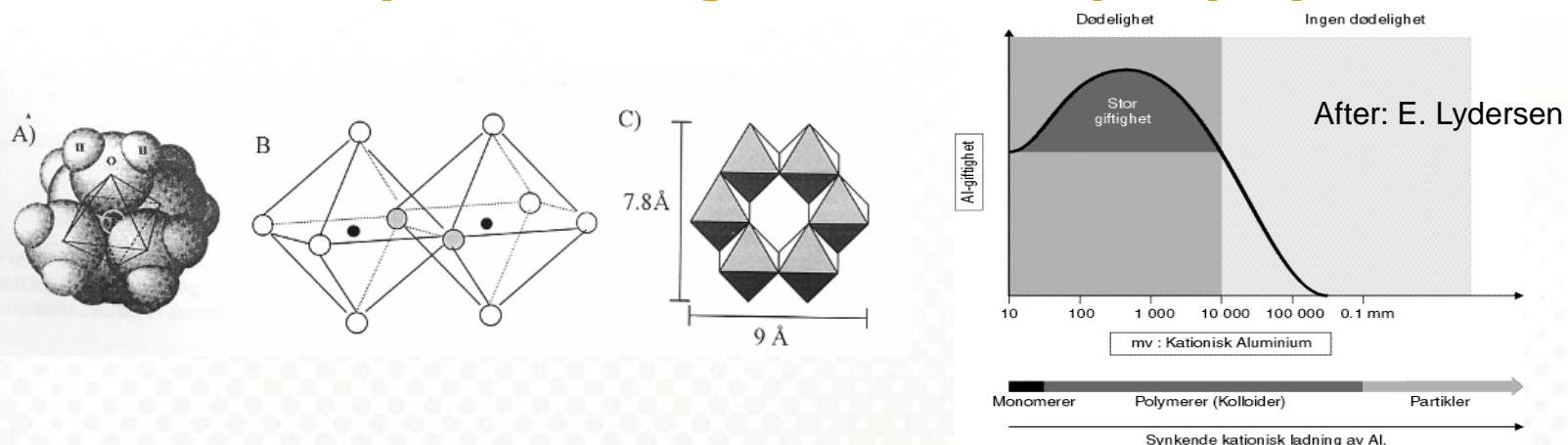


Fig. 3. Gill histology showing (A) normal secondary gill lamellae. In fish exposed to 100 µg/L of the commercial Ag NP (NP1) (B) the epithelial lining of the secondary

Cationic Al-species transform to transient, more “gill-reactive” Al-species during the initial step of polymerisation



Teien et al. 2004

How to measure/monitor bioavailable metals

- The best way of monitoring bioavailable metals are repeated *in situ* analyses of metal species in i.e. water and relate it to content in organs of specific organisms

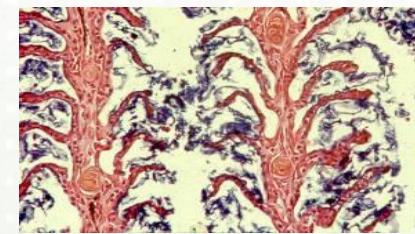
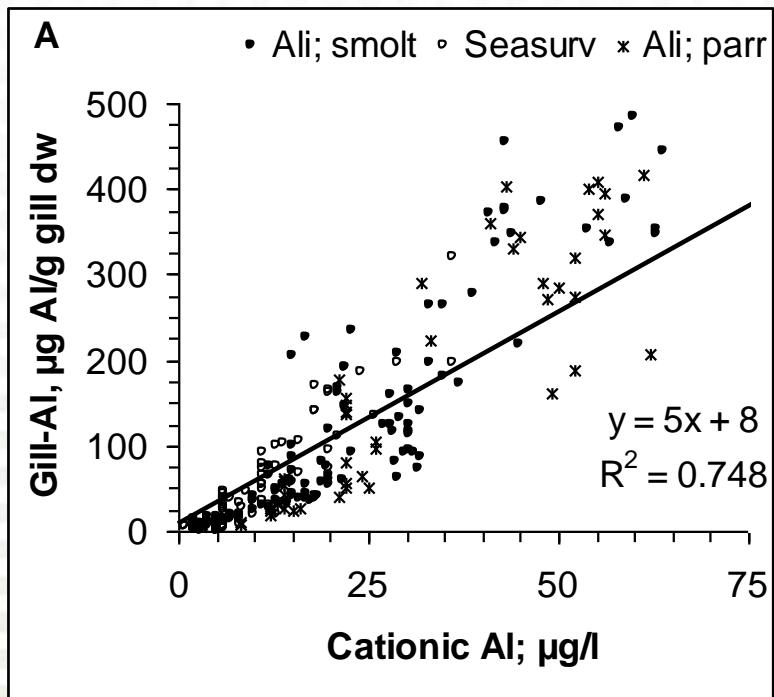


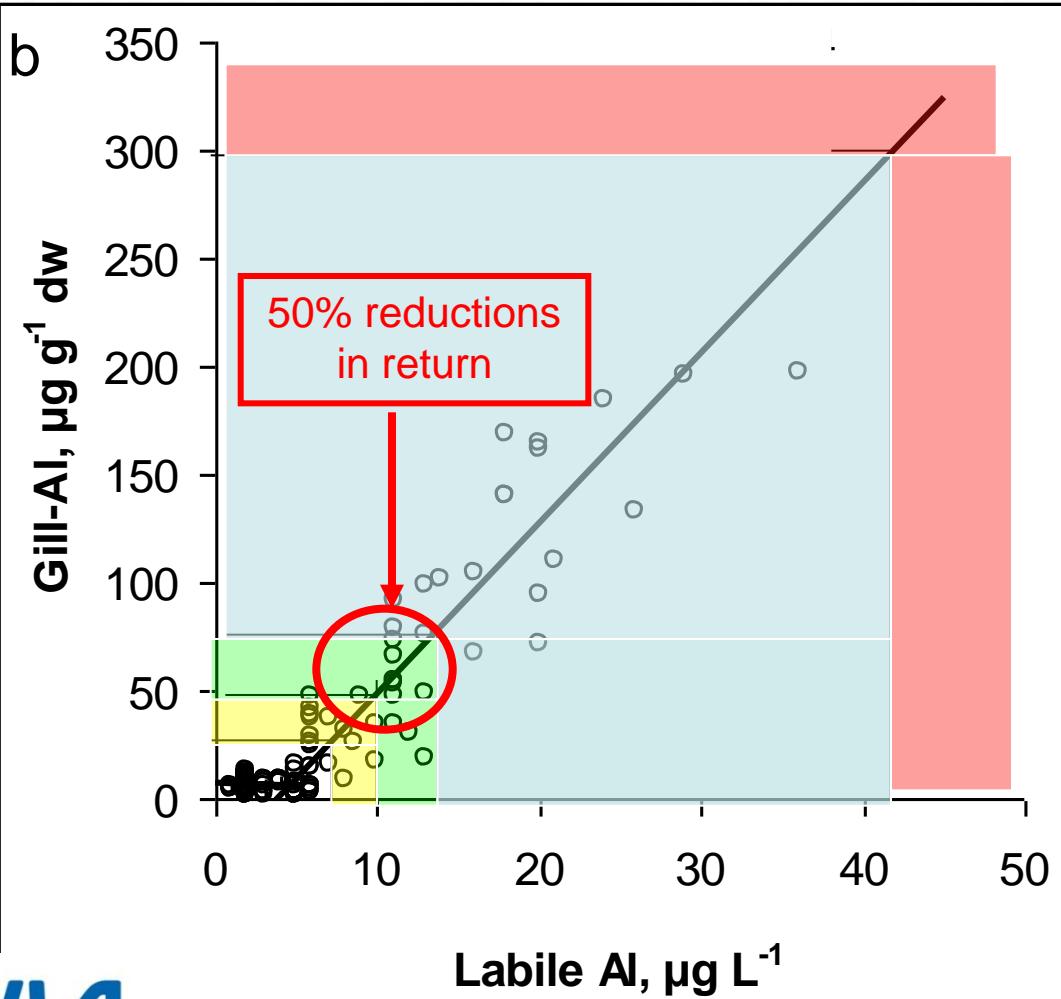
Photo. D. Oughton

Kroglund et al. 2008

- The second best way of monitoring bioavailable metals are i.e to use passive samplers, substituting organ and lake water analyses; DGT (Diffusive Gradients Thin films)



Critical levels of Al in water and gill, relative to smolts



Mortality FW

Reduced Plasma Cl

Increased Glucose

Reduced $\alpha 1\beta$ Na-K-ATPase

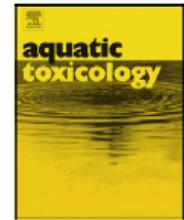


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Aquatic Toxicology

2010

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/aquatox



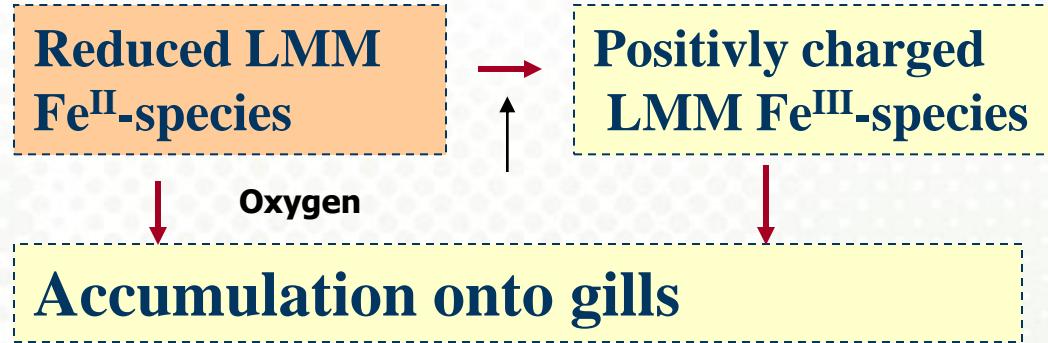
Effects of acidic water and aluminum exposure on gill Na^+ , K^+ -ATPase α -subunit isoforms, enzyme activity, physiology and return rates in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.)

Tom O. Nilsen^{a,*}, Lars O.E. Ebbesson^a, Ole G. Kverneland^a, Frode Kroglund^b,
Bengt Finstad^c, Sigurd O. Stefansson^a

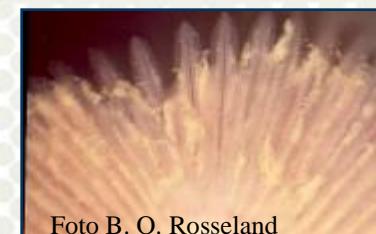
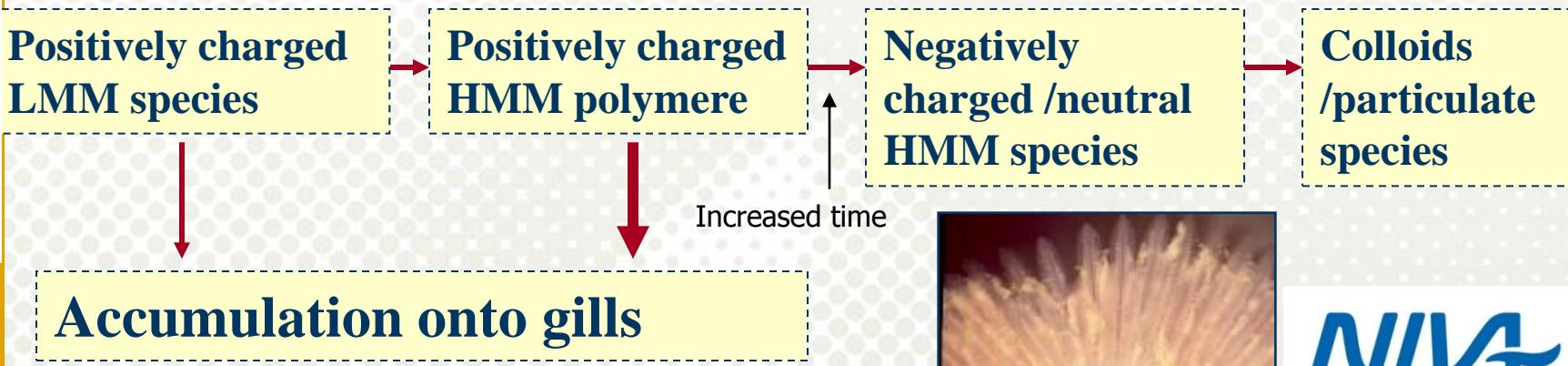
Highest sensitive a few weeks before migration, due to a change from freshwater $\alpha 1a$ NaK-ATPase to the hypersensitive seawater $\alpha 1b$ NaK-ATPase

Processes: Iron toxicity is related to concentration of FeII and the oxidation to FeIII in redox mixingzones

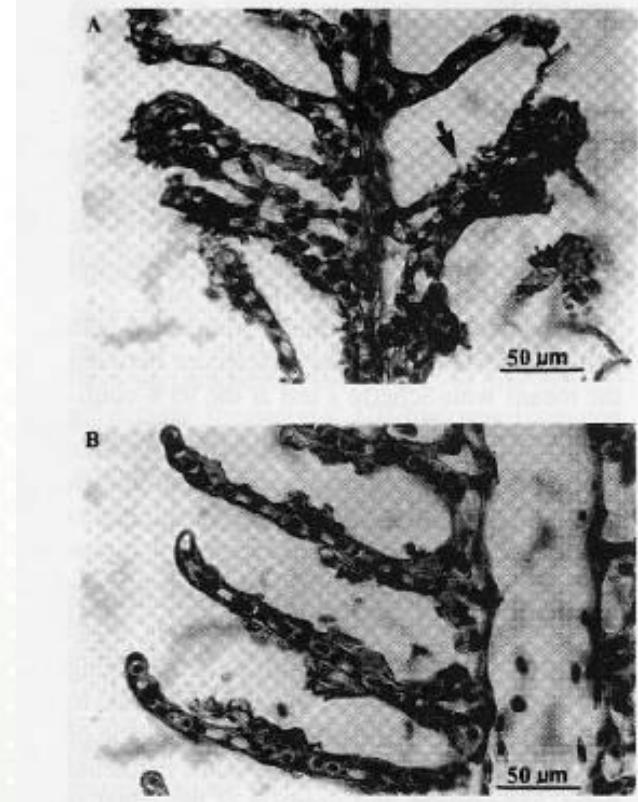
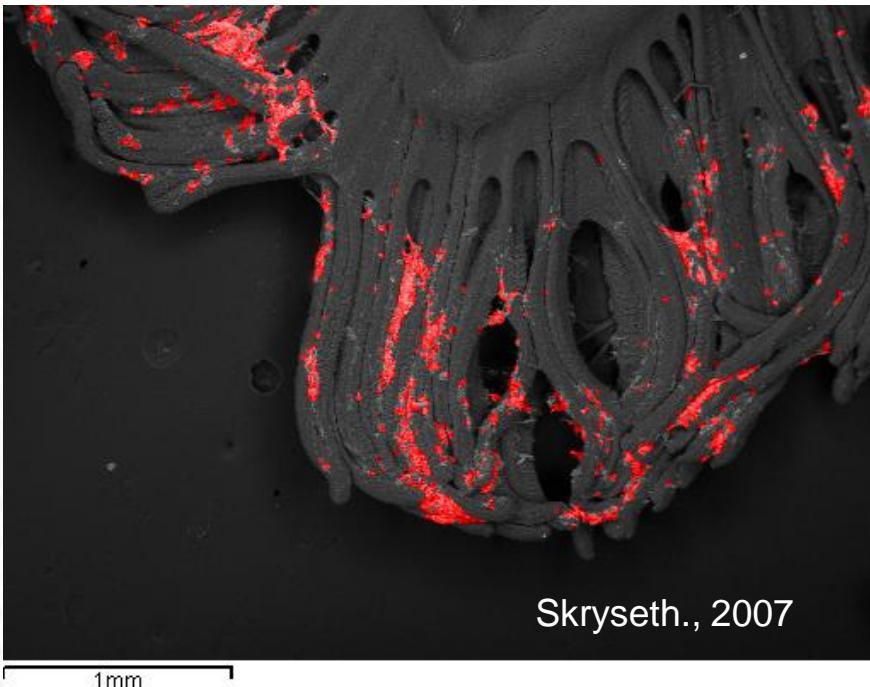
Process 1: Oxidation Fe^{II}



Process 2: Hydrolysis and formation of Fe^{III} polymers



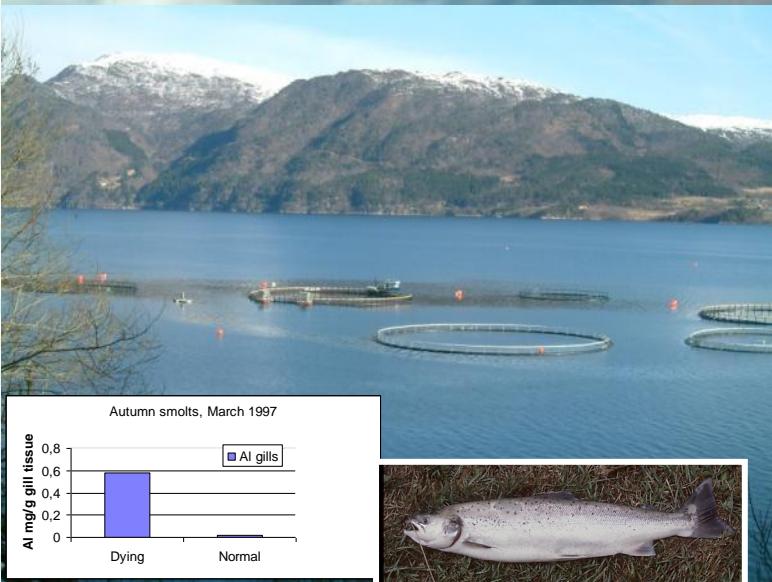
Fe accumulation on gills of fish



- The mapping of Fe (scanning electron microscopy with x-ray microanalyses) demonstrates deposition of Fe on gills after exposure of Atlantic Salmon to 200 µg Fe²⁺ /L for 120 hrs at pH 7.5. (Skryseth 2007)
- Gill damage of brown trout due to two days Fe exposure to Fe at pH 5, A) without and B) with humic acids. (Peuranen et al. 2001)

Flooding spreads pollutants to river, lakes and ocean

Estuarine Mixing Zone



Simulating a river entering an estuary

- NIVA and UMB experimental set up in River Storelva, South East Norway, testing Al speciation changes and water treatment to avoid effects on Atlantic salmon smolts



Photos: B.O. Rosseland

Estuarine Mixing Zone with Mobilization of Al_o from Alo by increased ionic strength in sea

Both an acid, limed and humic river
create Estuarine mixing zones!

Limed River

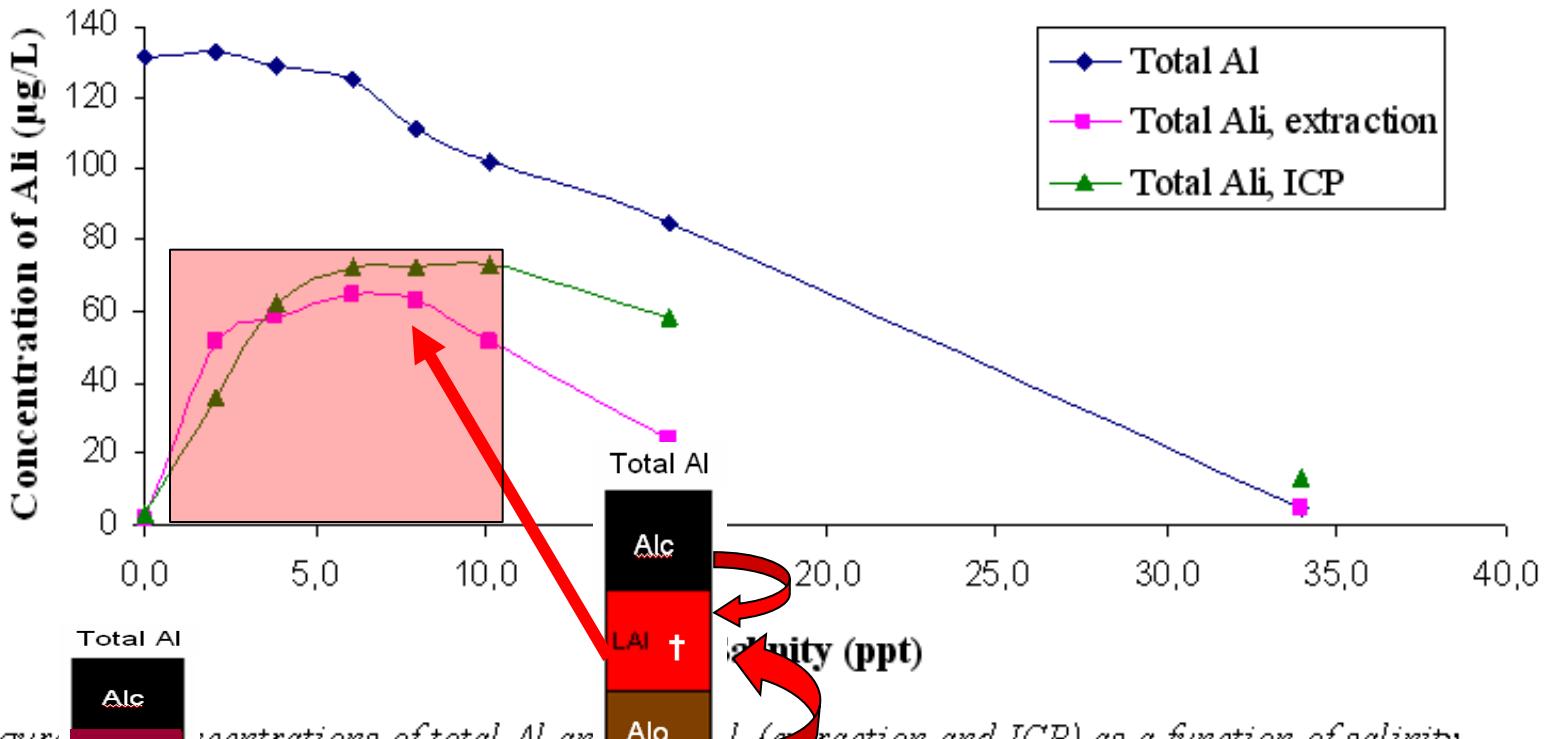
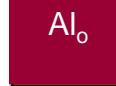


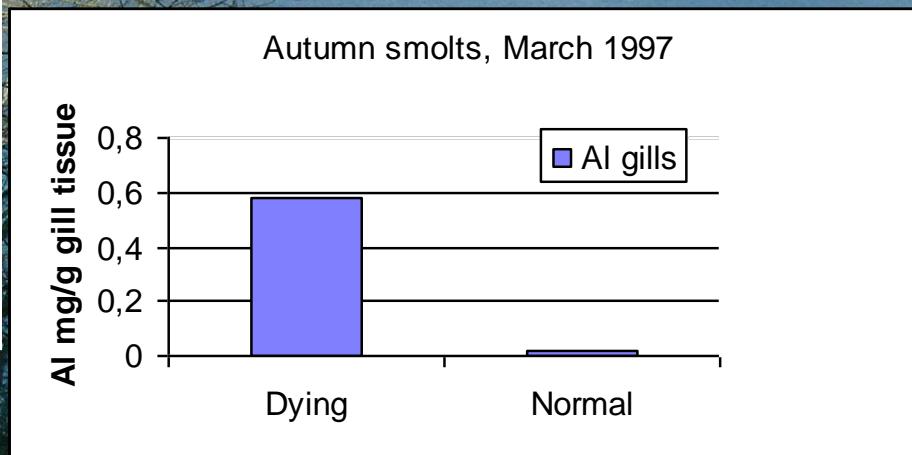
Figure 1. Concentrations of total Al and Al fractions (Al_c extraction and ICP) as a function of salinity.



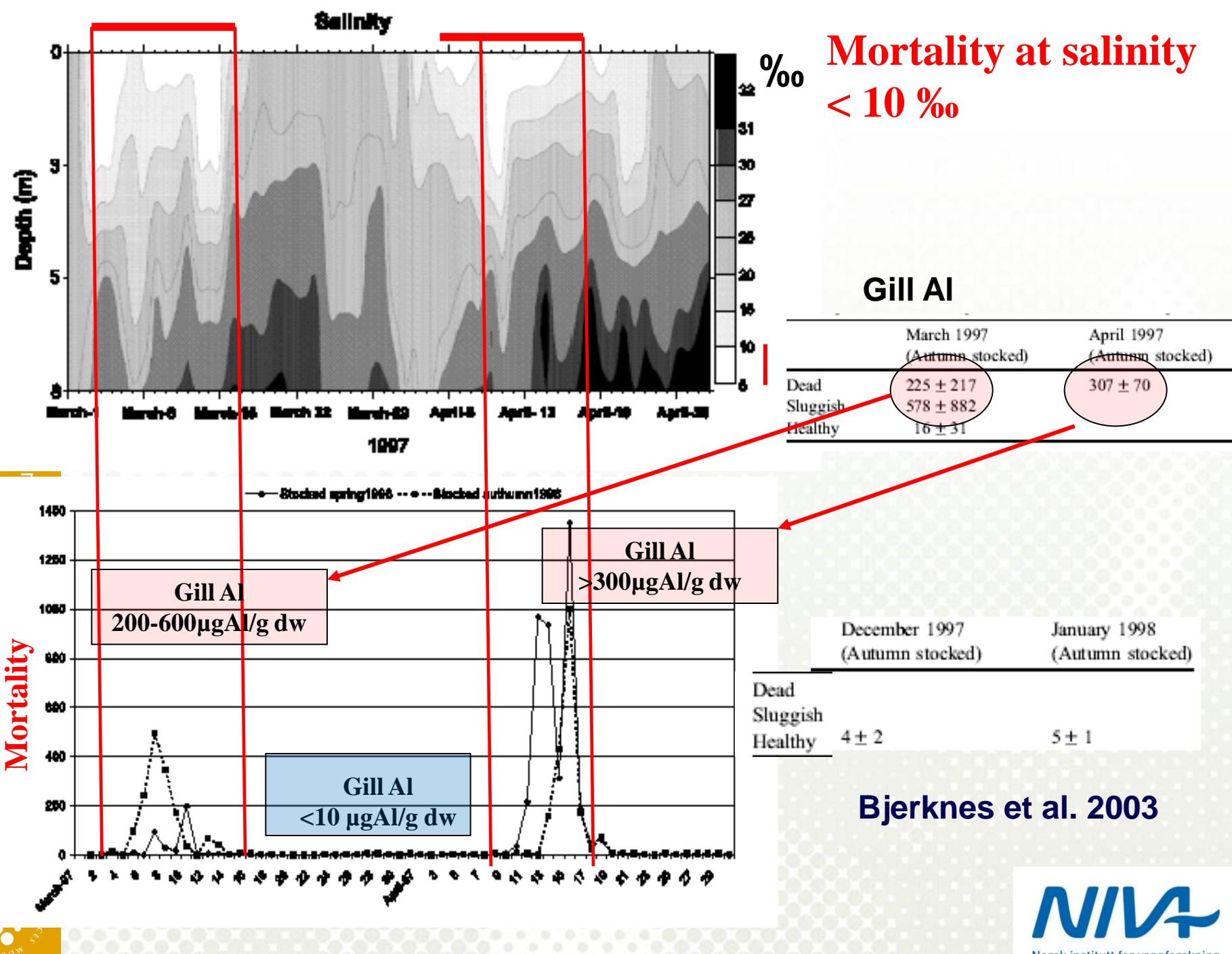
Skalsbakken 2009

AI from rivers kill salmon in brackish areas! Estuarine mixing zone

River water from snowmelting or floods create brackish surface water in fjords and kill salmon in net pens.

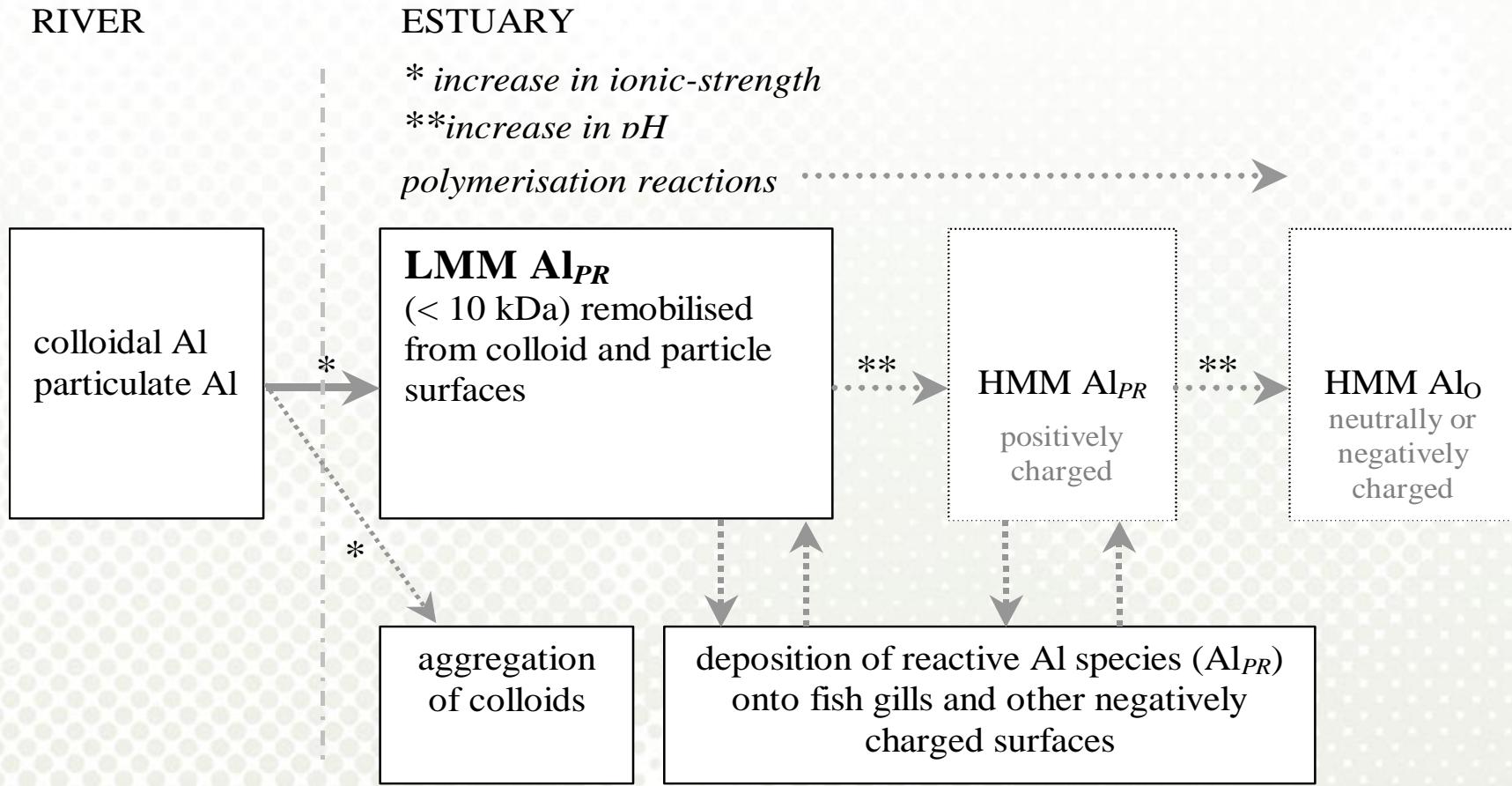


Photos: B.O. Rosseland



Model: Mobilisation and deposition of Al on gills in Estuarine Mixing Zones

We have the model!



Teien et al. 2005

TOC has increased up to 3X since late 1980s mainly due to reductions in acid rain.

Highest concentration in the autumn

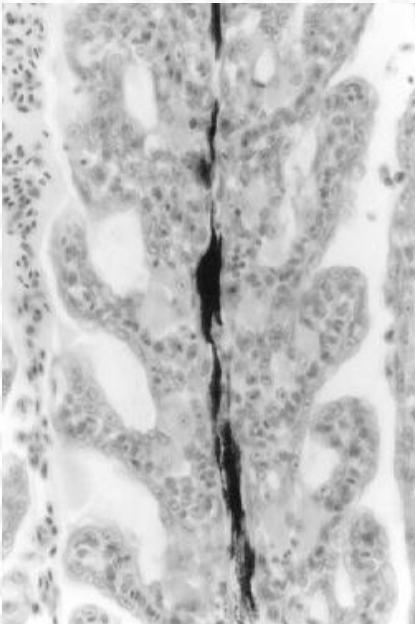
The estuarine mixing zone problems are increasing in all Atlantic salmon producing countries (except Chile)

Estuarine Al problems also affects marine fish

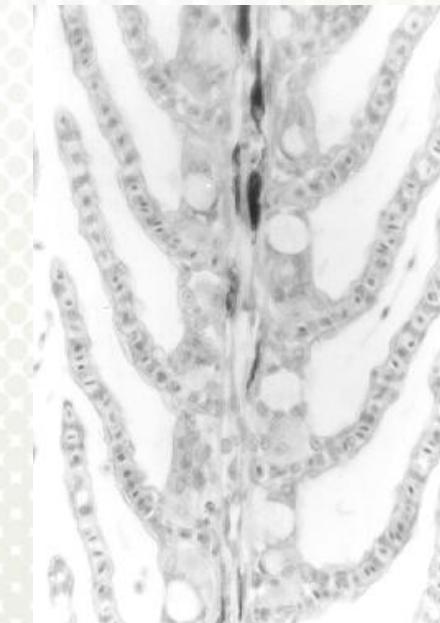
Turbot (piggvar) is also affected by Al in estuarine mixing zones (10‰)

Gills from turbot (*Psetta maxima*)

Al-exposed

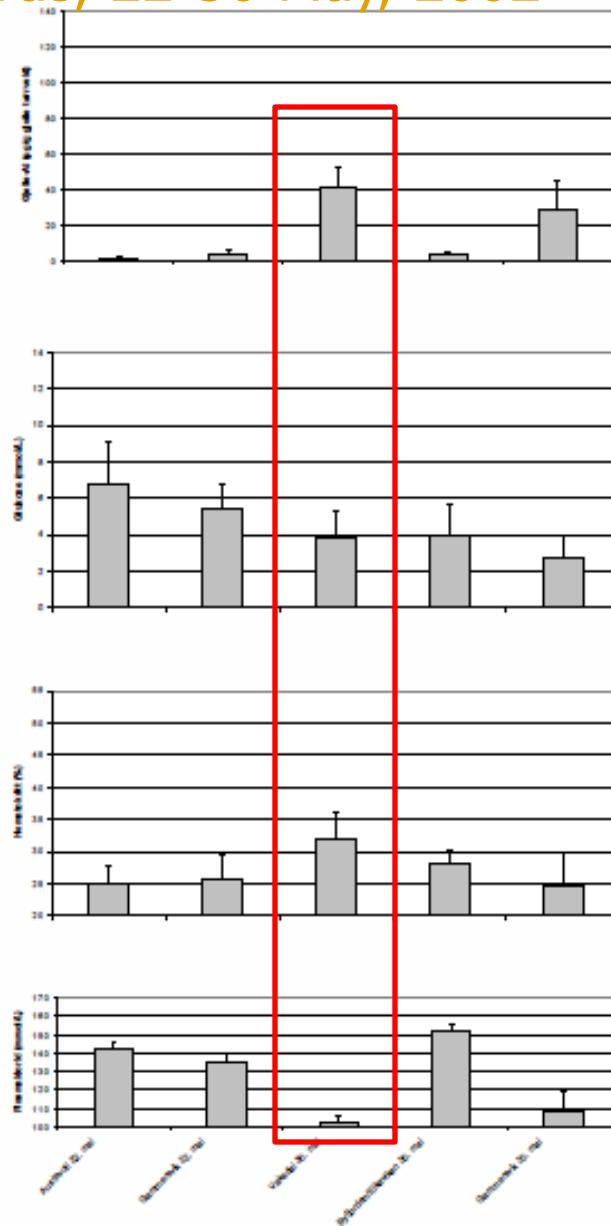


Reference



Rosseland et al. 1998

Monitoring of Atlantic cod in estuarine mixing zones in fjords, 22-30 May, 2002



RAPPORT LNR 5032-2005

Eksponering av torsk i estuarine blandsoner
Effekter av lav salinitet og aluminium

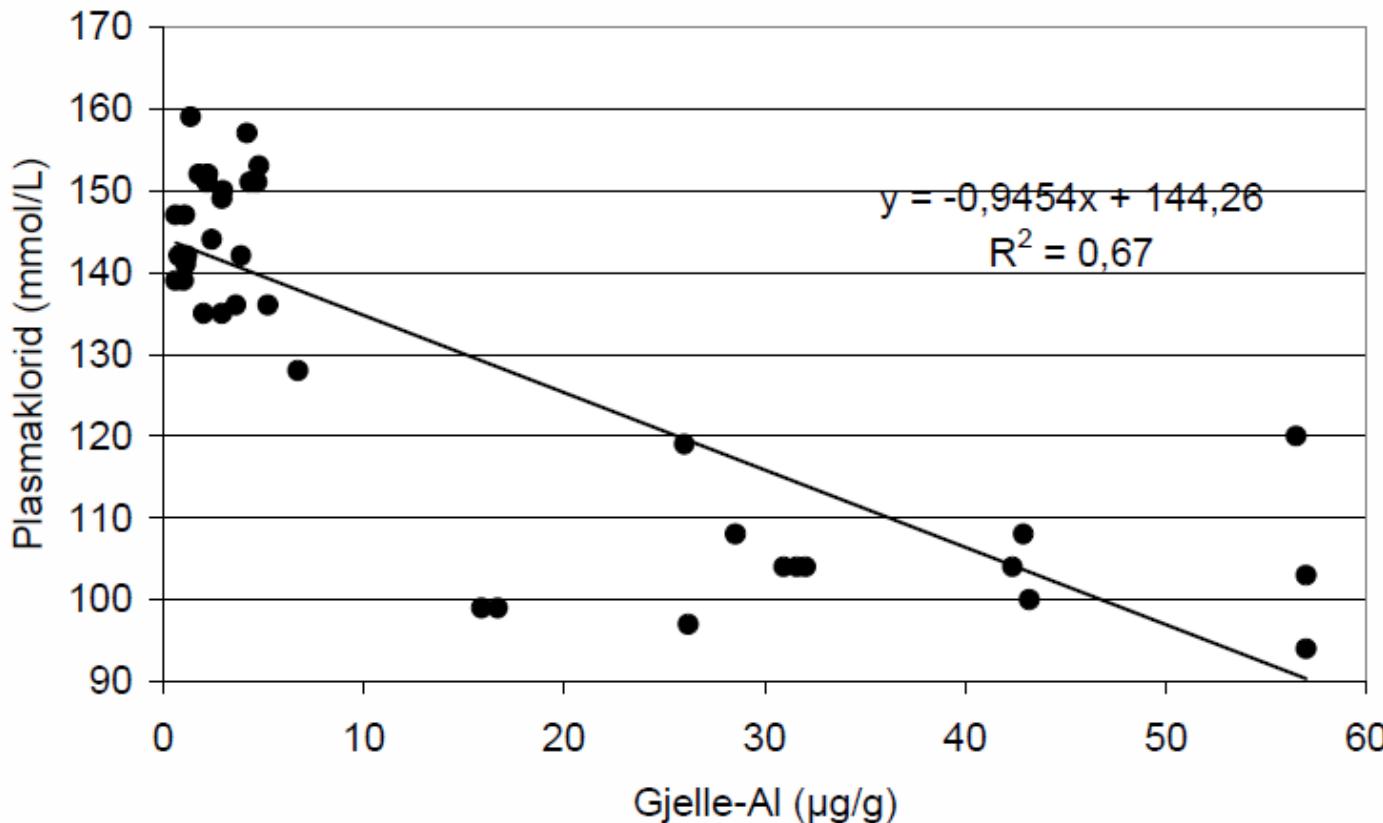


Vilhelm Bjerknes, Åse Åtland, Torstein Kristensen, Frode Kroglund



Atlantic cod – Gill Al and plasma chloride Monitoring of estuarine mixing zones in Sørfjorden, Osterfjorden and Byfjorden

Low plasma Cl (Chloremia) is a sign of high PaCO₂
(Hypercapnia) = Respiratory problems.

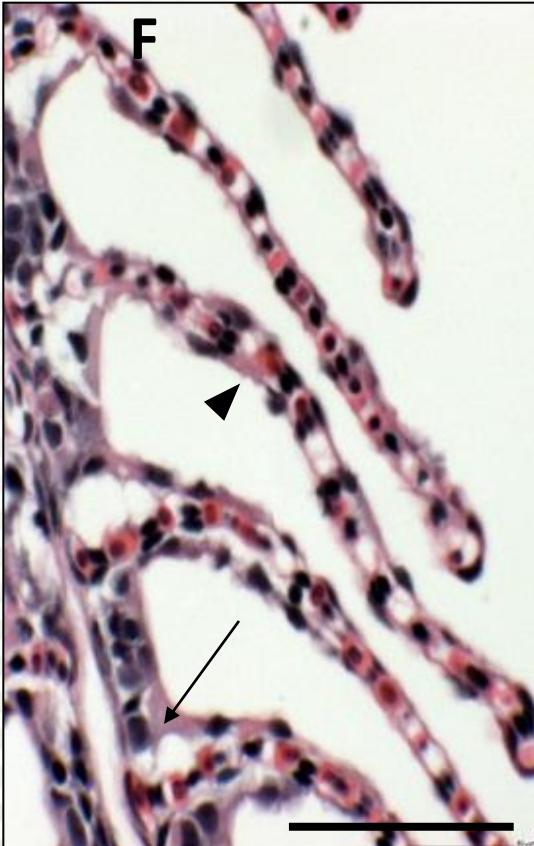


Bjerknes et al. 2006

Use of disinfection with **free radical** effect and gill responses; Chloramine-T in seawater

- Osmotic imbalance
- Hypertrophic compensation to restore the osmotic/ionic imbalance.

Reference



Chloramine-T



Source: Mark
Powell, NIVA

**Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) treatment against
sea lice is a massive exposure to free
radicals!**

**Please be aware of post treatments effects
to gills, immune system etc.**

Conclusion

- Many abiotic water quality factors may cause directly, or indirectly gill problems
- Some of the changes in gill structure, mucus quality and quantity, membrane structure and enzyme activities may change the osmoregulation and general physiology
- Changes in homeostasis may reduce the immune responses to biotic agents, other vice not being problematic
- **One must have a holistic view, including the biotic and abiotic factors when studying “gill diseases”.**