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Individual variability in contaminants and physiological status in a resident Arctic seabird species

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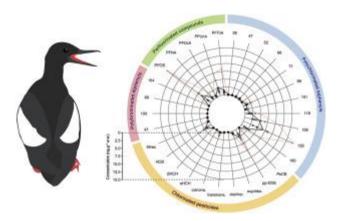
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Abstract:

While migratory seabirds dominate ecotoxicological studies within the Arctic, there is limited knowledge about exposure and potential effects from circulating legacy and emerging contaminants in species who reside in the high-Arctic all year round. Here, we focus on the case of the Mandt's Black guillemot (Cepphus grylle mandtii) breeding at Kongsfjorden, Svalbard (79.00°N, 11.66°E) and investigate exposure to legacy and emerging contaminants in relation to individual physiological status, i.e. body condition, oxidative stress and relative telomere length. Despite its benthic-inshore foraging strategy, the Black guillemot displayed overall similar contaminant concentrations in blood during incubation (∑PCB11 (15.7 ng/g w.w.) > ∑PFAS5 (9.9 ng/g w.w.) > ∑Pesticides9 (6.7 ng/g w.w.) > ∑PBDE4 (2.7 ng/g w.w.), and Hg (0.3 µg/g d.w.) compared to an Arctic migratory seabird in which several contaminantrelated stress responses have been observed. Black quillemots in poorer condition tended to display higher levels of contaminants, higher levels of reactive oxygen metabolites, lower plasmatic antioxidant capacity, and shorter telomere lengths; however the low sample size restrict any strong conclusions. Nevertheless, our data suggests that nonlinear relationships with a threshold may exist between accumulated contaminant concentrations and physiological status of the birds. These findings were used to build a hypothesis to be applied in future modelling for describing how chronic exposure to contaminants may be linked to telomere dynamics.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

▶ The Arctic resident Black guillemot showed overall similar exposure to contaminants during incubation compared to an Arctic migratory seabird in which several contaminant-related stress responses have been observed. ▶ Black guillemots in poorer condition tended to display higher levels of contaminants and shorter telomere lengths. ▶ Our data suggests that nonlinear relationships with a threshold may exist between accumulated contaminant concentrations and physiological status of the birds.

Keywords: black guillemot, pollutants, Polar Regions, oxidative stress, seabirds, telomeres

1. Introduction

A seabird's contaminant burden at a given time can be viewed as the product of cumulative processes driven by small or large differences in foraging strategies, physiology and life history. As a result, individuals foraging high in the food web, on lipid-rich prey - or in areas with higher inputs of contaminants often present the highest concentrations of contaminants (Muir et al., 1992; de March et al., 1998; Dietz et al., 2000). The growing body of research on Arctic seabirds demonstrates that species with higher concentrations of contaminants experience sub-lethal effects, such as lower breeding success, reduced return rate and higher stress responses (e.g. Erikstad et al., 2013; Tartu et al., 2014a; Bustnes et al., 2015). Yet, the fact that the toxicological effects do not depend solely on contaminant exposure, but are also influenced by life history, physiology, and other environmental stressors (Bourgeon et al., 2012; Goutte et al., 2014) often obscure the relationships between contaminant exposure and health impacts. Consequently, two populations - or species - may exhibit different negative effects of contaminants, despite having similar contaminant body burdens (Bustnes et al., 2015). Most seabirds nesting in the Arctic migrate to lower latitudes after breeding and experience different contaminant exposure at their overwintering sites compared to their Arctic breeding grounds (Baert et al., 2013; Fort et al., 2014); however species that reside in the high Arctic all year round remain understudied and so does their response to the current multi-stress scenarios in Polar Regions.

The Mandt's Black guillemot (*Cepphus grylle mandtii*) is known to be one of the few seabird species that overwinter in the Arctic, as it's movements are limited to open water near the sea ice margins close to its breeding site (Brown, 1985; Divoky *et al.*, 2016). While this seabird's life history exposes it to various contaminants that have deposited in the Arctic via long-range transport/deposition mechanisms (Vorkamp *et al.*, 2004 & 2015; Braune *et al.*, 2015 & 2016; Peck *et al.*, 2016), the Black guillemot is considered to be sensitive to current and future climate alterations due to its dependency on the sea ice marginal zone in both the breeding (Divoky *et al.*, 2015) and non-breeding seasons (Divoky *et al.*, 2016). Typically, the Black guillemot will alternate between the use of nearshore waters in the breeding season and offshore waters during non-breeding season foraging mostly on Arctic cod (Hobson, 1993), which could differ in contamination and quality of prey (i.e. lipid content and antioxidants). During the breeding season, it rarely feeds more than ten kilometres away from the nest site; while chicks

are fed almost exclusively on benthic fish, adults have a mixed diet of both benthic fish and invertebrates (Cairns, 1987a & b; Barrett *et al.*, 2002).

The few exposure studies on black guillemots have used invasive and/or lethal sampling matrices or tissues that reflect time-interval of contaminants exposure outside the breeding seasons (e.g. liver, muscles, eggs, feathers) (e.g. Koistinen *et al.*, 1995; Appelquist *et al.*, 1983; Borgå *et al.*, 2001 & 2005 & 2007; Olafsdottir *et al.*, 2005; Vorkamp *et al.*, 2015). Thus, the impact of exposure from blood circulating contaminants on health parameters during sensitive life history events (e.g. breeding season) in this resident, nearshore Arctic species remains unknown.

Exposure to contaminants has the potential to cause an imbalance in the anti-oxidant defence system through increased levels of oxidative stress (Constantini *et al.*, 2014; Wielsøe *et al.*, 2015). Here contaminants may play two different roles: a) as an actual threat through energy competition resulting from biotransformation and maintenance (e.g. Durant *et al.*, 2007), and/or b) as a "blurring" factor by triggering the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenalin axis (HPA) (Tartu *et al.*, 2014a), *i.e.* due to their endocrine disruptive properties, or by interfering with the antioxidant defence system itself. Both mechanisms may result in increased oxidative stress and ultimately reduced health status over time.

A new and promising cellular biomarker in ecotoxicology is telomere dynamics. Telomeres are repetitive, non-coding DNA sequences located at the end of each chromosome, whose length is reduced during cell division (i.e. through aging) - and through oxidative stress (see Blackburn, 2000; Von Zglinicki, 2002; Epel *et al.*, 2004; Monaghan & Haussmann, 2006, Reichert & Stier, 2017). Thus, telomere length depends on hereditary factors, early-life conditions and life-history trade-offs (Beaulieu *et al.*, 2011; Schull *et al.*, 2016) and should be informative as to integrated stress during an individual's lifetime (Horn *et al.*, 2010). In addition, telomere length is a strong predictor of longevity (Barrett *et al.*, 2013). Long-lived species, such as seabirds, are able to decrease the rate of telomere reduction through enzymatic activity (Blackburn, 2005; Haussmann *et al.*, 2007), and telomere length is proposed to be a predictor of intrinsic individual quality (Bauch *et al.*, 2013; Young *et al.*, 2017). Recently, Blévin *et al.* (2016)

112	& 2017a) found associations between contaminants (i.e. perfluorinated compounds, oxy-
113	chlordane) and relative telomere length in breeding black-legged kittiwakes (Rissa tridactyla).
114	The main objective of the present study is to investigate how exposure to both legacy and
115	emerging contaminants may influence physiological status in an understudied resident Arctic
116	seabird species. This is attempted by relating circulating concentrations of both legacy and
117	emerging contaminants in blood to individual physiological status defined by body condition,
118	stress levels and relative telomere length in black guillemots.

119

2. Materials and methods

120	2.1 Sampling
121	Our study was carried out in Kongsfjorden, Svalbard (79.00°N, 11.66°E), on three different
122	black guillemot nest sites (Juttaholmen, Midtholmen, Observasjonsholmen) during the breeding
123	season of 2015 (June-July), with the necessary permissions from the Governor of Svalbard (RIS
124	ID 10290) and Norwegian Animal Welfare authorities (FOTS ID 7666). We used snares to catch
125	black guillemots (n = 15) resting on rocks outside of their nest during incubation phase. Of these,
126	11 birds were successfully sampled for blood (i.e. minimum 2 mL, maximum < 10 % of body
127	mass) from their brachial wing vein, using heparinized syringes. Blood samples were kept cold
128	(< 4°C) and in the dark, before being centrifuged and stored at -20°C. All captured birds were
129	biometrically measured (i.e. body mass, wing length, bill and skull size) and inspected for brood
130	patch.
131	2.2 Contaminant analyses
101	2.2 Contaminant unuty ses
132	We measured mercury (Hg) in red blood cells (~ 0.5 mL) of 11 black guillemots. Hg was
133	determined using in-house methods: NILU-U-117 "Procedure for sample digestion by use of
134	high performance microwave reactor (UltraClave)" and NILU-U-65 "Procedure for
135	determination of Hg in biological samples using Could Vapor Atomic Fluorescence
136	Spectrophotometry (CV-AFS)". Aliquots of 0.20-0.35 g of red blood cells were added 5 mL
137	concentrated supra pure HNO ₃ and 3 mL deionized water (MilliQ) and digested at 250°C for 15
138	minutes, using UltraClave (Milestone, Italy). Blank samples and certified reference material
139	(CRM) were digested in the same run as the blood samples. After digestion, samples, blank
140	samples and CRM were diluted to 50 mL. From the extracts, subsamples of 25 mL were further
141	diluted to 50 mL before 5 ml BrCl were added. Determination of Hg was performed using CV-
142	AFS from Tekran, Canada according to method US-EPA-1631.
143	In the statistical analysis, we also included published contaminant data from reported in
144	Haarr et al. (2017) on the same black guillemots individual as in present study. These
145	contaminant data include concentrations of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs),
146	dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDTs) and its metabolites, isomers of hexachlorocyclohexane

147	(HCH), hexachlorobenzene (HCB), chlordanes, polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs),
148	perfluorinated compounds (PFAS) that was extracted from plasma (1 mL) using protocols
149	described in detail in Blévin et al. (2017 a & b) and Haarr et al. (2017).
150	2.3 Isotopic signatures in black guillemots
151	Signatures of stable isotopes are used to estimate individual foraging behaviour in two-
152	dimensions: pelagic-benthic and low-high trophic level feeding. The use of carbon and nitrogen
153	stable isotope ratios (∂^{13} C and ∂^{15} N in ‰) is an established practice for assessing carbon source
154	(e.g. pelagic vs. benthic) and relative positions in the food web (i.e. high or low trophic levels)
155	(Hobson et al., 1995). Red blood cells (\sim 200 μ L) from black guillemots (n = 11) were freeze-
156	dried and analysed for heavy and light isotopes of nitrogen and carbon at the University of
157	Windsor, Canada; as described in Fisk et al. (2001).
158	2.4 Oxidative stress, telomere length and body condition in black guillemots
159	We estimated oxidative stress levels in plasma of black guillemots using well-established
160	methods on derivatives of reactive oxygen metabolites (d-ROM) in plasma and total plasma
161	antioxidant capacity (Oxy), described in detail by Schull et al. (2016). In short, we measured the
162	amount of hyperoxides (d-ROM test, Diacron International) in 8 µl of plasma for each bird,
163	(expressed as mg H_2O_2 equivalent dl^{-1}) with duplicates for each sample. We used the Oxy
164	adsorbent test (Diacron International, Grosseto, Italy) to quantify the ability to buffer massive
165	oxidation (i.e. hydroperoxide acid) in 5 μl of 1:100 diluted plasma, for each bird with duplicates
166	for each sample. The variation between individuals was 5.5% and 5.5% for d-ROM and Oxy,
167	respectively (only one plate was run, thus no inter-plate repeatability was assessed).
168	We extracted DNA using Nucleospin Blood QuickPure Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren
169	Germany) and estimated the relative length of telomeres by qPCR using a well-established
170	protocol for King penguin (Aptenodytes patagonicus) (Stier et al., 2014; Le Vaillant et al., 2015;
171	Reichert et al., 2015). Chromosomic sex of individuals was determined from red blood cells
172	extracted DNA following Sambrook et al. (1989) protocol.
173	In order to understand how successfully a bird interacts with its environment, we used a
174	body condition measure to estimate its supply of energy (i.e. fat and protein content) (Labocha &

175	Hayes, 2012). Since larger birds are obviously heavier than smaller birds, the variation in mass
176	generally correlates with size, while departures from this pattern are explained by inter-
177	individual differences in body condition. Therefore, we calculated a Scale Mass Index - SMI,
178	using the biometric measure with the highest correlation coefficient with body mass in our data
179	(i.e. bill length) as length measure to scale the mass accordingly (see Peig & Green 2009):
180	$SMI_{individual} = body \; mass_{individual} \; x \; (bill_{mean}/bill_{individual}) \; ^{\land} \; coef_{body \; mass \sim beak}$
181	2.5 Statistical analyses
182	Statistical analysis was conducted in R 3.4.2 (R Development Core Team, 2016). One black
183	guillemot individual was excluded due to issues during chemical analyses, thus leaving us with a
184	final dataset of ten birds.
185	The Limit of Detection for contaminants (LOD) was set as the mean of the blanks added
186	by three times the standard deviation of the blanks (Armbruster & Pry, 2008). Values below
187	LOD - or non-detects - were treated using distributional methods and imputation by maximum
188	likelihood (Baccarelli et al., 2005). For each contaminant, we assumed a log-normal distribution.
189	Non-detects were treated using three different steps: 1) the most likely distribution was fitted
190	based on both censored and non-censored data using a simple Expectation-Maximisation
191	algorithm; 2) the minimum number of non-censored points (i.e. cut-off) necessary for a robust
192	inference of the log-normal distribution parameters was estimated by simulations, and filtered
193	accordingly; 3) for contaminants with a sufficiently low number of non-detects, multiple
194	imputation by maximum likelihood was performed using a specified interval (i.e. zero to LOD).
195	Contaminant profiles are mixtures of many contaminants so to extract robust indicators
196	that reliably compare individuals in regression analyses, we need to reduce variation to a lower
197	number of dimensions. We thus first collapsed contaminants into groups depending on their
198	chemical structure, in order to account for differences in weights (i.e. functional relationships
199	with response variables) between different chemical groups. Secondly, since contaminants within
200	the same chemical group may have different dose-dependency (i.e. toxic potential), we need to
201	scale their relative contribution to focus on the shape and not the size of the data (Greenacre,
202	2017). Hence, we preferred to use an equally weighted index that rank individuals based on their

203	exposure to different chemical groups and total contaminants load. This approach does not
204	account for differences in toxic potency and functional relationships within chemical groupings;
205	however we consider it to address more correctly the underlying theoretical assumptions, and the
206	approach itself produces an index that provide a more transparent interpretation when used as a
207	predictor, compared to principle components for example. Thus, we created a score index for
208	each chemical group (i.e. iPCB, iPesticides, iPBDE, iPFAS and iHg) and one for total
209	contaminant load (iCON), where each individual is given a summed score relative to the mean of
210	the sample population for each contaminant:
211	Index Contaminant group $X = \sum (x_i / \overline{x})$
212	where x_i are the values of each of the individual chemical groups in individual i, \overline{x} represents the
213	mean concentration of the individual chemical over the entire sample population within the given
214	chemical group (X).
215	We applied different generalized linear models (GLMs) to test potential relationships
216	between the contaminant groups and the response variables as well as residual plot analysis to
217	assess the validity of the model. If the residuals showed non-random patterns, we tried different
218	families of transformations, $g(y)$, until the residuals plots of the regression $g(y) = beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{ix} e^{ix}$
219	beta X were consistent with independent Gaussian error.
220	3. Results
221	3.1 Contaminants and isotopic signatures in black guillemots
222	Concentrations of Hg in red blood cells of black guillemots was measured to 0.32 ± 0.8 ug/g d.w.
223	Treatment of LOD censored values resulted in detection of all 11 targeted PCB congeners, but
224	only 10 of the 17 organochlorine pesticides, 5 of 20 perfluorinated compounds, and 4 of 10
225	PBDEs, in plasma of black guillemots (see Supplementary Table 1). ∑PCBs was the dominating
226	compound group (dominated by PCB153 > PCB138 > PCB180), followed by ∑PFAS (mainly
227	$PFOS > PFUnA) > \sum Pesticides (mainly HCB > p,p'-DDE) > \sum PBDEs (mainly PBDE47) (see$
228	Fig. 1).

229	The black guillemots show a high dispersion in trophic positions (∂15N ranging from 12.0
230	- 13.5‰), while carbon isotopic signatures show a clear benthic signal and overall low
231	dispersion - except one extreme individual ($\partial^{13}C = -21.5\%$). This female presented also higher
232	lipid content and was one the two individuals with highest contaminant concentrations, highest
233	stress levels and shortest telomeres. As we did not have the sufficient information (unknown
234	breeding status) to exclude her from the statistical analysis, we kept this individual in further
235	analysis (see Discussion).
236	
237	3.2 Relationships among contaminants, isotopic signatures and physiological status in black
238	guillemots
239	We created four score indices based on the chemical groupings where each bird was given
240	a score relative to the mean of the population per chemical group (i.e. iPCB, iPesticides, iPBDE,
241	iPFAS and iHg) and one for total contaminant load (i.e. iCON). Correlation tests (Spearman's
242	test) between the indices showed that birds with high scores on PCB also had high scores on the
243	other contaminants. However, we found no significant correlations among iPBDE, iPFAS and
244	iHg, or between iHg and iPesticides (see Supplementary Fig 2.). All score indices, except iHg,
245	correlated significantly with iCON.
246	No significant relationship among isotopic signatures, lipid content and physiological
247	status measures (for p-values see results from Spearman's correlation test in Supplementary Fig.
248	1) was detected. We found a significant positive correlation between body condition (SMI) and
249	telomere length (RTL) and a significant negative correlation among iPesticides and SMI and
250	RTL (see p-values from Spearman's correlation test in Supplementary Fig 1).
251	Our low sample size prevented us from conducting a thorough evaluation of the
252	relationship between contaminants and physiological status in black guillemots. However, the
253	data provided insight into these relationships and showed a consistent tendency with several
254	variables driven by the two most contaminated individuals (see Fig 2). It should be noted that
255	one individual (female) obscured this tendency; the individual with the shortest telomeres was in
256	the modal of lower contaminant concentrations.

3.3 From contaminants to telomere length

we opted for a regression model of the form:

257

- Initial evaluation of our data through the residual plot analysis revealed a nonlinear relationship between iCON, SMI, Oxy, d-ROM and RTL (see Fig 2). The observed patterns imply that the average effect of the predictor on the response variable increases for moderate contaminant concentrations, but after a certain value is reached, the response approaches a saturation level (K) that needs to be determined. This suggests that an S-shaped function would be appropriate and
 - $Y_K = K \frac{e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}}{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}}$
- This function describes all nonlinear effects found in the data better than other simple nonlinear
- 265 functions such as quadratic or exponential. This parametric family of functions describes all
- 266 nonlinear effects found in our variables and is flexible enough to provide a good fit in all
- situations in our dataset. In this equation, Y represents the response (i.e. SMI, d-ROM, Oxy,
- 268 RTL), and X represents each of the contaminant score indices (i.e. iCON, iPCB, iPesticides,
- 269 iPFAS, iHg) and physiological status variables (i.e. SMI, d-ROM, Oxy) (see Table 1 for
- 270 parameter estimates and p-values).
- K is a constant determined by minimising the mean squared error of the regression fit, that is:

$$K = \arg\min \sum (Y_K - Y_K^*)^2$$

- where Y_K is the value of the function using the measured data, and Y_K * is the predicted value
- 274 under a logistic model fitted with value K as scaling factor, that is:

$$\operatorname{logit}\left(\frac{Y^*}{K}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

- We found a significant relationship between RTL and iPesticides (p-value = 0.022) RTL and
- iCON (p-value = 0.047), RTL and SMI (p-value = 0.002), and between SMI and iPesticides (p-
- value = 0.039). There were no significant relationships between oxidative stress and any of the
- other variables.

279	4. Discussion
280	4.1 Contaminant concentrations and profiles in black guillemots during the breeding
281	season
•••	
282	To our knowledge, the present study is the first to report concentrations of circulating
283	contaminants in blood, a less-invasive matrix, in breeding Mandt's Black guillemot. Blood
284	reflect contaminant concentrations from recently consumed prey at a relatively short time-frame
285	(< 10 hours, Drouillard & Norstrom, 2000) and thus our study is restricted to reflect the
286	contamination situation for black guillemots during incubation period. Our results shed light on
287	different aspect of the black guillemots interactions with contaminants: i) black guillemots seem
288	to experience different contaminant exposure depending on the Arctic region and
289	season/foraging areas, and ii) black guillemots during breeding season appear to experience
290	similar exposure to circulating contaminants compared to another seabird species in which
291	several studies have reported increased stress-response, decreased physiological condition and
292	adult survival related to contaminants (e.g. Tartu et al. 2013; Goutte et al., 2015; Blevin et al.,
293	2017 a & b).
294	Black guillemots are diving, subsurface feeders that switch from offshore Arctic cod
295	(Boreogadus saida) to nearshore and near-nest-site benthic prey such as sculpin (Myoxocephalus
296	scorpioides) or different invertebrates during their breeding season (Cairns, 1987a & b; Mehlum
297	& Gabrielsen, 1993; Byers et al., 2010). While non-breeding guillemots and guillemots from
298	other Arctic regions share similar contaminant patterns, black guillemots present during the
299	breeding season in Kongsfjorden different patterns of POPs in the plasma ($\sum DDTs > \sum PCBs >$
300	$HCB > \sum CHL > Mirex > \sum HCHs$) compared to what has been previously reported for liver and
301	muscle of black guillemots from the Barents Sea and in eggs from the Canadian Arctic (\sum PCBs
302	> Σ DDTs >HCB > Σ CHL > Σ HCHs >Mirex) (Borgå <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Braune <i>et al.</i> , 2018). We also
303	found a higher number of congeners of PFASs than earlier studies investigating liver and eggs of

The black guillemots in our study show similar mean ∂^{13} C signal as earlier studies on non-breeding black guillemots from Greenland which indicate that black guillemots breeding in Kongsfjorden may forage less benthic at least during incubation (Linnebjerg *et al.*, 2016). One

black guillemots in the West Arctic (Martin et al., 2004; Peck et al., 2016).

304

305

308	female, however, has a more pelagic ∂^{13} C signal similar to juvenile black guillemots during non-
309	breeding season in the central Barents Sea (Borgå et al., 2005). This specific female also displays
310	higher contaminant concentrations, especially HCB, trans-Nonachlor, PBDE-47, Hg and certain
311	PFASs which support a different exposure scenario depending on either breeding state or
312	foraging grounds. Unfortunately, although there was no apparent brood patch, we do not have
313	sufficient information to determine the breeding status (e.g. juvenile or inexperienced/late/failed
314	breeder). Implications of differences in breeding status on physiological status is further
315	discussed in chap. 4.2. $\partial^{15}N$ signals range from 11.9 to 13.5‰, which is similar to the isotopic
316	range of juveniles reported by Borgå et al. (2005). At best, our results suggest that black
317	guillemots experience different contaminant situation at different foraging grounds (offshore-
318	nearshore/benthic-pelagic). Whether foraging offshore or pelagic lead to higher exposure
319	remains unclear as the most contaminated bird (a male with especially high level of PFASs)
320	displayed a ∂^{13} C signal similar to the rest of the sample population.
321	Compared to other seabird species breeding in the same fjord, black guillemots i) have
322	lower Hg concentrations (0.32 ug/g d.w.) than previously reported for black-legged kittiwakes
323	(Rissa tridactyla; 1.8 ug/g d.w. red blood cells, Tartu et al., 2013) and ii) show similar wet
324	weight plasma of Σ PCBs, Σ Pesticides, Σ PBDEs and Σ PFAS compared to black-legged
325	kittiwake sampled the same year (Haarr et al., 2017). However, plasma concentrations are often
326	used as proxy for body burden, expressed as lipid weight concentrations to control for the
327	varying lipid content in blood within and between species (Bustnes et al., 2001; Hebert &
328	Keenleyside, 1995). The two species differed in lipid weight contaminant concentrations, thus,
329	we cannot exclude that the two species may still differ in total body burden, i.e. stored
330	contaminants in other organs and tissues accumulated outside breeding season.
331	Seabirds can go through drastic changes in body mass during breeding season, resulting in
332	lipid-mobilisation and subsequently re-mobilise of contaminants into the bloodstream (Henriksen
333	et al., 1998; Bustnes et al., 2012 & 2017; Fenstad et al., 2016). This seems unrealistic as black
334	guillemots appear rather to increase their body mass during incubation (Aevar Petersen,
335	pers.com.) and we find no relationship between body condition and blood lipid content. It is
336	more plausible that black guillemots have a higher lipid content than other seabird species as
337	reported in Harr et al. (2017) due to frequent inputs from more lipid-rich prey during incubation.

Black-legged kittiwakes are subsurface feeders foraging on fish, invertebrates and
zooplankton in the pelagic part of the ecosystem, with an offshore foraging distribution during
winter. During the breeding season, the black-legged kittiwakes of Kongsfjorden forage within
the same fjord system as the black guillemots in this study (nearshore) but in different parts
(benthic vs. pelagic) (Vihtakari et al., 2018). Our results also support that auks have a lower
biotransformation capacity compared to other gulls (Borgå et al., 2005); as plasma
concentrations mirror the same high proportion of cis-Chlordane in ΣCHL as found in internal-
tissue samples of non-breeders and black guillemot eggs (Borgå et al., 2001; Braune et al.,
2018). Thus, it may seem that even though these two seabirds species have different foraging
strategies and biotransformation capacities, they end up with the same exposure to circulating
contaminants (of the ones we targeted in this study, except Hg). Furthermore, even though blood
lipid content and isotopic signatures fall short to explain contaminants concentrations in the
Black guillemot of our study, foraging in less contaminated areas but on prey with higher lipid
could lead to the same exposure as the opposite. This aspect may only be understood through
integrative methods combined with individual tracking data, as demonstrated by Fort et al.
(2014).

4.2 The relationships between contaminants and physiological status

Telomere length is a time-integrated measure of life history processes, including age and experienced stress (Young *et al.*, 2013). It has also been proposed as a predictor for *intrinsic* quality (see discussions on different definitions and use of quality in Wilson & Nussey (2010) and Bergeron *et al.* (2011)). In this case, lower quality individuals are expected to present a lower physiological status (i.e. poorer condition) experience more stress and thus greater telomere attrition. Our results show that birds in poor condition had shorter telomeres than birds in better condition, which is consistent with findings in other seabird species showing that relative telomere length and body condition are positively related (Le Vaillant *et al.*, 2015). In addition, birds with higher contaminant scores also tended to be in poorer condition and have shorter telomeres (only significant for total contaminant load and pesticides). This is consistent

with what has been observed for oxychlordane and telomere length in the chick-rearing black-legged kittiwakes by Blévin *et al.* (2016), despite that concentrations were lower in our study.

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The two most contaminated individuals (one female and one male) separating the dataset into two groups dictated the significance in the correlations observed in our data. Although observed at the nest site together with other breeding individuals, we were not able to determine breeding status for the female (i.e. non-breeder or failed or late breeder). Moreover, we lack information about the age of these birds, thus it is difficult to conclude whether or not this female was a juvenile visitor that did not try to breed at all or an unexperienced breeder attempting and failing to reproduce, returning to off-shore foraging ground to eat and coming back to the colony. This bird could also have been a late breeder that recently arrived from off-shore foraging grounds: in the closely related Pigeon guillemot (Cepphus columba), experienced breeders arrive earlier than unexperienced, and during egg-formation, females have shown reduced nest attendance compared to males (Nelson, 1987). This female may also have failed because of a poor condition as indicated, by her low body condition, high stress levels and short telomeres. Only in the first situation (juvenile), would it be statistically sound to exclude the individual from the analysis as an outlier; however immature individuals tend to have smaller body size measures (i.e. wing length, bill depth) and this was not the case for this specific individual compared to the rest of the sample population. Thus, with noted caution, we consider it more plausible that the female reflect natural variation of contaminant concentrations and physiological condition related to individual foraging tactics within breeding black guillemots.

Another aspect is the sample size: an increase of sample size could well have distinguished these two individuals as clear outliers; on the other hand, one should also take caution being-blinded by the mean-response of the population (Bennett, 1987) as toxic effects can also influence the variance of the physiological response (Forbes & Depledge, 1999). The distribution in our contaminant data may also be the product of cumulative processes: some birds end up as extremes due to individual strategies over time (e.g. individual foraging specialisation as observed for diving seabirds by Bearhop *et al.* (2006)). Such extreme values induce non-linearity in the data (i.e. S-shaped function) with 1) lower contamination score with little or no effect observed on response variables measured, and 2) high contamination score and higher effect on response variables measured. This is also what we see as the main tendency in our data. Yet iHg

did not correlate with the other score indices but showed a more linear functional relationship

397	with the physiological status responses.
398	The same tendency of relationship with contaminants was also observed in respect to
399	stress: although insignificant, the reactive oxygen metabolites (d-ROM) levels seemed to
400	increase with increasing contaminant score, while for the variance, observations indicate a
401	decrease. The individuals with higher d-ROM had also lower global plasmatic antioxidant
402	defence (Oxy). This is consistent with previous findings in birds (Hegseth et al., 2011; Bourgeon
403	et al., 2012; Sletten et al., 2016; Abbasi et al., 2017) that support the hypothesis that contaminant
404	exposure may contribute to increased oxidative stress (Isaksson et al., 2010; Constantini et al.,
405	2014). The lack of relationship between d-ROM and telomeres may be due to a mismatch of
406	tissue (Constantini et al., 2014) or time scales. Telomere length is commonly understood as an
407	integrative measure of accumulated oxidative stress, while d-ROM is an indicator of
408	instantaneous oxidative stress (Urvik et al., 2016).
409	4.3 Theoretical response pathway for contaminant exposure and telomere length
410	The low sample size restricted us from evaluating our proposed response pathway in regards to
411	contaminant loading and telomere length. However, the tendency in the data allowed us to build
412	a hypothetical scenario for future investigation in which oxidative stress and telomere length will
413	be dictated by accumulated contaminant burden and body condition above and below certain
414	thresholds.
415	The threshold idea is based on inter-individual physiological variability (Depledge, 1990)
416	resulting in different abilities to perform across different environmental conditions (e.g., low and
417	high food availability, low and high contamination), without increasing the cost (i.e. stress,
418	condition) – or intrinsic quality (Bergeron et al., 2011). Furthermore, at some point, contaminant
419	exposure may start influencing these abilities. A central question is then if birds with higher
420	contaminant concentrations are a result of lower body condition, as observed in Wayland et al.
421	(2002) – or vice versa – if higher concentrations of contaminants have led to lower body
422	condition. In the former, body condition may determine physiological status while the correlating
423	contaminants play a co-founding role; the effect of weight loss is more important for the overall
424	stress situation compared to the contribution from contaminants (Fenstad et al., 2014).

425	However, black guillemots do not experience significant weight loss during incubation due to
426	shared parental effort and strategies of short-distance trips (both partners forage every day)
427	(Aevar Petersen & George Divoky, pers.com.). This is supported by our findings, where no
428	relationship between lipid content, body condition and contaminants was observed. An
429	alternative explanation is that the most contaminated birds may be in poorer condition due to the
430	presence of high contaminant concentrations over time (i.e. strategy driven cumulative
431	processes). In this case, we may expect a shift between physiological states where an individual
432	with contaminant concentrations above a certain threshold value is bound to have a lower
433	physiological status over time.
434	5. Conclusions
435	In conclusion, our results demonstrate that, during the breeding season, black guillemots
436	experience the same circulating contaminant concentrations as a pelagic migratory seabirds, the
437	Black-legged kittiwake, for which several clear associations between contaminants, stress
438	response and breeding success have been reported. Our study also emphasize the importance of
439	individual tracking datasets and information on breeding and foraging status in wildlife
440	ecotoxicology. Despite non-significant relationships, our data shows a consistent tendency that
441	black guillemots in poorer condition had shorter telomeres, higher concentrations of
442	contaminants and higher levels of oxidative stress. Our threshold hypothesis should be tested
443	with a larger dataset, coupled with life history data, in the future: if a threshold for effects exists,
444	it will likely both depend on breeding behaviour (e.g. fasting during incubation shift) and
445	environmental stressors (e.g. food availability, habitat quality acting on body condition), and a
446	species' behavioural and physiological traits (e.g. life history, biotransformation). Thus, we
447	should expect the same non-linear relationship between telomere length and contaminants and
448	body condition, with species-specific thresholds, in other seabirds as well.
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458	Data availability
459	Data is publicly available on FigShare (DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.6225071). [During the review
460	process these data can be accessed using this temporary URL:
461	https://figshare.com/s/8d10a917a3274aba1d6b].

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695	Figure legends
696	Figure 1. Contaminant profiles in the Black guillemot. Radar plot showing concentrations
697	(ng/g w.w.) and profile signatures of PCB, pesticides, PBDE and PFAS congeners detected in
698	incubating black guillemots (points, with 'extreme' male marked in red colour) and line (black)
699	indicating the mean.
700	Figure 2. Scatterplots of relations between contaminant score indices, body condition,
701	oxidative stress, anti-oxidant capacity, and relative telomere length, in females (red) and
702	males (blue). (a) iCON and SMI with RTL indicated by the size of the points. (b) iCON and d-
703	ROM with RTL indicated by the size of the points. (c) d-ROM and Oxy with iCON indicated by
704	the size of the points. (d) iPCB and SMI with RTL indicated by the size of the points. (e)
705	iPesticides and SMI with RLT indicated by the size of the points. (f) iHg and body SMI with
706	RTL indicated by the size of the points. (g) iPBDE and body SMI with RTL indicated by the size
707	of the points. (h) iPFAS and SMI with RTL indicated by the size of the points.
708	Table 1: Parameter estimates for modelling the relationships among contaminants (iCON)
709	and physiological status (SMI, d-ROM, RTL) in incubating black guillemots. Bold
710	characters refer to significant relationships under alpha < 0.05 .
711	
712	

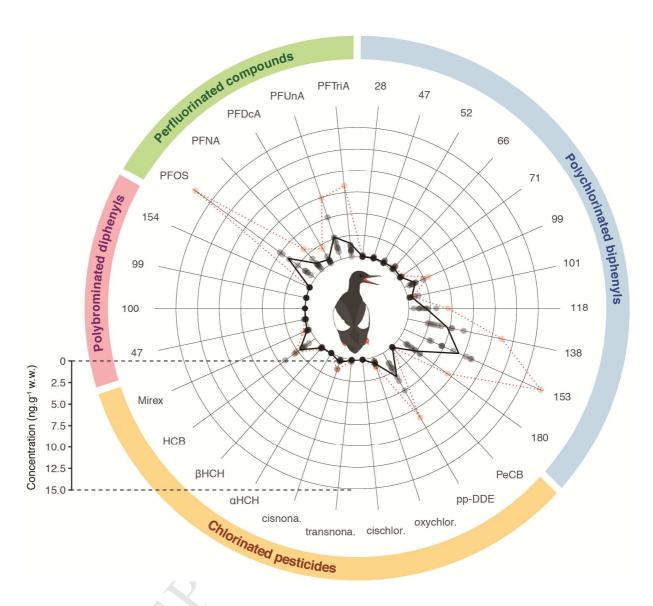


FIGURE 1

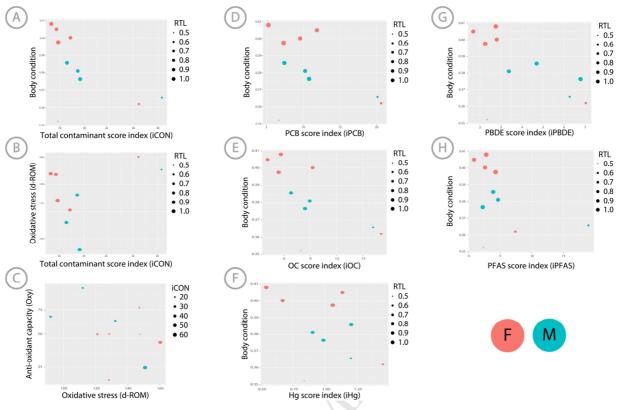


FIGURE 2

Table 1.

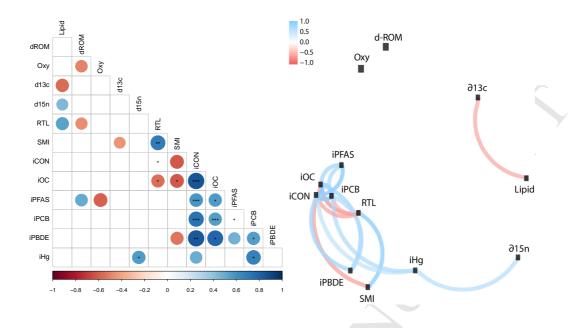
Dependent variable	Independent variable	K	Beta0	Beta1	Df	t-value	P-value
RTL	iCON	1.5	0.77	-0.02	8	-2.34	0.047
KIL							
	iPCB	1.5	0.77	-0.06	8	-2.12	0.067
	iPesticides	1.5	0.88	-0.08	8	-2.85	0.022
	iPBDE	1.5	0.48	-0.09	8	-1.04	0.328
	iPFAS	1.54	0.33	-0.05	8	-1.79	0.112
	iHg	1.5	0.85	-0.73	8	-1.16	0.279
	SMI	1.5	-8.70	23.00	8	4.69	0.002
	d-ROM	1.5	1.55	-0.01	8	-1.34	0.218
	Oxy	1.64	-0.31	0.004	8	0.64	0.538
SMI	iCON	2.04	-1.40	-0.002	8	-1.95	0.086
	iPCB	0.61	0.65	-0.012	8	-1.51	0.168
	iPesticides	2.04	-1.38	-0.009	8	-2.47	0.039
	iPBDE	0.63	0.57	-0.04	8	-1.90	0.094
	iPFAS	2.04	-1.44	-0.005	8	-1.35	0.216
	iHg	2.04	-1.37	-0.098	8	-1.33	0.219
d-ROM	iCON	800.95	-1.80	0.005	8	1.17	0.277
	SMI	257.19	0.27	-0.557	8	-0.09	0.928
Oxy	iCON	141.27	0.01	-0.018	8	-0.98	0.355
	SMI	141.27	-1.91	3.616	8	0.236	0.819

724	SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL
725	Supplementary Table 1. Concentrations of contaminants (pg/g w.w., Hg given as ng/g d.w.),
726	lipid content, dietary signatures (%), oxidative stress, and relative telomere length in blood from
727	black guillemots. Values are given as detection frequency, mean, standard deviation, and range
728	(min-max).
729	* Due to poor extraction recoveries with two of the three method blanks of the internal standard for
730	oxychlordane, we calculated a conservative detection limit by multiplying the blank response in the blank sample
731	which acceptable extraction recoveries were obtained by a factor of three to avoid the potential of reporting false
732	positives. In addition, a minor isobaric interference coeluted with oxychlordane. As blank substraction was not
733	performed, concentrations approaching detection limits will be heavily influenced by co-eluting interference and
734	should be treated with caution. We decided on a conservative, cautionary approach and excluded oxychlordane from

		Detection ACCEPT	Mean (median) TED MANUSC	Standard CRIPT deviation	Min	Max
		frequency (%)		deviation		
\sum Pesticides ₁₇	PeCB	100	109 (92.8)	60.5	45.1	274.5
	аНСН	60	14.8 (15.5)	3.7	9.1	19.2
	ьнсн	100	186.2 (180.6)	94.8	59.0	382
	үНСН	10	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td><u> </u></td></lod<>			<u> </u>
	НСВ	100	2227 (1900)	925	929	4300
	Oxychlordane*	50	900 (778)	248	699	1246
	Trans-chlordane	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td>2</td><td>7</td></lod<>		2	7
	Cis-chlordane	100	16.1 (16.5)	2.4	12.1	19.5
	Trans-nonachlor	100	85.0 (61.3)	81.6	24.7	297
	Cis-nonachlor	100	605 (452)	456	278	1491
	Mirex	100	352 (327)	214	131	877
	o,p DDE	0	<lod< td=""><td>7</td><td></td><td></td></lod<>	7		
	p,pDDE	100	3188 (2259)	2235	1338	8653
	o,p DDD	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	p,p DDD	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	o,p DDT	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	p,p DDT	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
$\sum PCB_{11}$	PCB28	60	118 (90.6)	69.6	74.2	258
	PCB47	100	173 (147)	83.8	101	328
	PCB52	100	184 (145)	128	86.0	442
	PCB66	100	337 (302)	191	111	612
	PCB71	100	231 (196)	115	82.0	478
	PCB99	100	1390 (1179)	757	625	3033
	PCB101	100	479 (360)	349	147	1277
	PCB118	100	1977 (1779)	1145	577	4529

	PCB138	100	4689 (3793)	2646	2378	11156
	PCB153	100	6897	4143	3169	17303
	PCB180	100	2474 (2076)	1710	1034	6922
\sum PBDE ₁₀	PBDE28	20	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PBDE71	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td>2</td></lod<>			2
	PBDE47	100	145 (127)	80.4	72.0	322
	PBDE66	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td>- 7</td><td></td></lod<>		- 7	
	PBDE100	100	48.1 (37.0)	24.2	24.0	88.0
	PBDE99	90	35.9 (32.2)	20.2	12.0	79.0
	PBDE154	90	43.1 (38.0)	19.4	24.0	70.0
	PBDE153	20	<lod< td=""><td>Y</td><td></td><td></td></lod<>	Y		
	PBDE183	10	<lod< td=""><td>7</td><td></td><td></td></lod<>	7		
	PBDE209	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
\sum PFAS ₂₀	6:2FTS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	8:2FTS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFOSA	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFBS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFPS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFHxS	40	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFHpS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	brPFOS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	linPFOS	100	3892 (1984)	4923	630	17162
	PFNS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFDcS	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			

	PFHxA	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFHpA	0	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFOA	20	<lod< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></lod<>			
	PFNA	100	1067 (807)	876	139	3247
	PFDcA	100	568 (393)	581	44.4	2048
	PFUnA	100	2718 (2086)	2033	926	7450
	PFDoA	20	<lod< td=""><td></td><td>7</td><td></td></lod<>		7	
	PFTriA	90	1781 (872)	2457	577	8286
	PFTeA	20	<lod< td=""><td></td><td>7</td><td></td></lod<>		7	
∑Hg	totalHg	100	323 (330)	83.2	175	469
%Lipid	EOM	100	1.2 (1.34)	0.5	0.5	1.9
Trophic position	∂15N (‰)	100	12.7 (12.9)	0.6	11.9	13.5
Carbon source	∂13C (‰)	100	-19.9 (-19.7)	0.7	-21.5	-19.2
Baseline- corrected trophic level	TL	100	4.5	0.2	5.0	4.3
Derivatives of reactive oxygen metabolites	d-ROM	100	132 (130.2)	20.5	91.8	160
Plasmatic antioxidant barrier	Oxy	100	55.3 (53.9)	23.7	13.9	94.2
Relative telomere length	RTL	100	0.80 (0.87)	0.2	0.5	1.0



Supplementary Figure 1. Left: Correlations among the contaminant score indices (iCON, iPCB, iPesticides, iHg, iPBDE, iPFAS), dietary descriptors ($\partial 15N$, $\partial 13C$, lipid content) and physiological status measures (SMI, d-ROM, Oxy, RTL) in the Black guillemot. Significant relations (Spearman's test) indicated by *** (p<0.001), ** (p<0.05) and * (p<0.1). Right: Correlation network graph between the contaminant score indices, dietary descriptors and physiological status.

Chemical analysis: Details of instrument

Analysis of PCBs

Analysis of PCBs was performed by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) using an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Böblingen, Germany) coupled to a Quattro Micro triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters Coporation, Manchester, United Kingdom). Separation was carried out using a DB-5 MS column (30 m x 250 μ m inner diameter (id), 0.25 μ m film thickness, J&W, Folsom, USA) equipped with a 5 m guard column (Restek

757	Corporation, Bellefonte, PA, USA) at 1ml/min with Helium as a carrier gas. Samples were				
758	injected at 250°C using a split/splitless injector equipped with a 4 mm id packed (wool) glass				
759	liner operated in splitless overflow mode with an injection of 5 μL injection volume. Oven				
760	temperature program started at an initial temperature of 67°C (1.5 min hold), ramped at				
761	15°C/min to 180°C, followed by a second temperature ramp of 5°C/min to 280°C (hold 3 min).				
762	Single ion monitoring was used for the detection of PCB congeners using mass spectrometry in				
763	electron impact mode (70 eV) with the ion source temperature of 250°C. Ions monitored for both				
764	parent and 13C12 mass-labelled internal standards are outlined in Supplementary Table 2.				
765					
766	Analysis of DDT/DDE				
767					
768	Analysis of DDT and DDE isomers was performed by GC/MS) using an Agilent 7890A gas				
769	chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Böblingen, Germany) coupled to a Quattro Micro triple				
770	quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters Coporation, Manchester, United Kingdom). Separation				
771	was performed using a Zebron multi-residue1 column (30 m x 250 μm id, 0.25 μm film				
772	thickness, Phenomenex, Denmark) equipped with a 5 m guard column (Restek Corporation,				
773	Bellefonte, PA, USA) at 1ml/min with Helium as a carrier gas. Similar to PCBs, samples				
774	njected using a split/splitless injector equipped with a 4 mm id packed (wool) Sky liner (Restek				
775	Corporation, Bellefonte, PA, USA) in splitless overflow mode using a 5 μL injection volume at				
776	220°C. Oven temperature program started at an initial temperature of 85°C (1.0 min hold),				
777	ramped at 25°C/min to 280°C (hold 2 min), followed by a second temperature ramp of 40°C/min				
778	to 300°C (hold 5 min). Detection of DDT and DDE isomers my mass spectrometry used				
779	conditions as described for PCB analysis. Parent and 13C12 mass-labelled internal standards are				
780	outlined in Supplementary Table 2.				
781					
782	Analysis of organochlorine pesticides				
783					
784	Analysis of organochlorine pesticides was performed by GC/MS using an Agilent 7890A gas				
785	chromatograph equipped with a 5975C inert XL mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies,				
786	Böblingen, Germany). Separation was carried out using a DB-Ultra2 column (25 m x 200 μm id,				
787	0.11µm film thickness, J&W, Folsom, USA) equipped with a 5 m guard column (Restek				

Corporation, Bellefonte, PA, USA) at 1ml/min with Helium as a carrier gas. Injection of samples was carried out under similar conditions as described for DDT/DDE isomers. Oven temperature program started at an initial temperature of 80°C (2 min hold), ramped at 20°C/min to 100°C (hold 5 min), 20°C/min to 170°C (hold 3 min), 5°C/min to 200°C, and a final ramp of 20°C/min to 300 (hold 2 min). Detection of organochlorine pesticides was performed using chemical ionization with methane as a reagent gas at a flow rate of 0.4 ml/min with a source temperature of 160°C. Parent and 13C12 mass-labelled internal standards are outlined in Supplementary Table 2.

Supplementary Table 2. Quantification and qualifier ions for targeted compounds and their 13C-mass labelled internal standards.

Compound	Quantification/Qualifier ions
PCBs	
Tri-chlorinated PCB	256/258
13C12- Tri-chlorinated PCB	268
Tetra-chlorinated PCB	290/292
13C12- Tetra-chlorinated PCB	302
Penta-chlorinated PCB	324/326
13C12- Penta-chlorinated PCB	336
Hexa-chlorinated PCB	360/362
13C12- Hexa-chlorinated PCB	370
Hepta-chlorinated PCB	392,394
13C12- Hepta-chlorinated PCB	404
DDT/DDE isomers	
o,p-DDE	246/248
p,p-DDE	246/248
13C12-p,p-DDE	258
o,p-DDD	235/237
p,p-DDD	235/237
o,p-DDT	235/237
p,p-DDT	235/237
13C12 p,p-DDT	247
Organochlorine pesticides	
HCH isomers	253/255

13C6-HCH isomers	260	799
НСВ	284/286	
13C6 -HCB	290	
Oxychlordane	350/352	
trans-chlordane	408/410	
cis-chlordane	408/410	
13C12 -cis-chlordane	418	
trans-nonachlor	442/444	
cis-nonachlor	442/444	
13C12-cis-nonachlor	452	
Mirex	441/439	
13C12-Mirex	449	(6)

Quality Assurance

To avoid the reporting of false positives, concentrations were only reported for targeted analytes in which both quantification and qualifier ions were detected. In addition, target compounds detected in sample extracts must possess ion ratio between quantification and qualifier within 20% to the ion ration observed within the quantification standard. A minimum of three method blanks were extracted with each sample batch to calculate limits of detection per extraction batch. Extraction recoveries for internal standards from sample extracts are listed in Supplementary Table 3.

Supplementary Table 3. Internal standard recoveries (%) and variation within sample extracts.

Compound	Average Recovery (%) and variation
13C12-PCB 28	94 ± 19
13C12-PCB 52	93 ± 16
13C12-PCB 101	90 ± 16
13C12-PCB 118	90 ± 15
13C12-PCB 138	86 ± 16
13C12-PCB 153	88 ± 17
13C12-PCB 180	90 ± 18
13C12-p,p'-DDE	92 ± 14
13C12-p,p'-DDT	59 ± 23

13C6-αHCH	81 ± 17
13С6-βНСН	75 ± 24
13С6-үНСН	85 ± 19
13C6-HCB	80 ± 19
13C12-trans-chlordane	99 ± 22
13C12-cis-chlordane	96 ± 21
13C12-trans-nonachlor	101 ± 24
13C12-cis-nonachlor	84 ± 14
13C12-trans-nonachlor	94 ± 20