Seasonal variation of mercury contamination in Arctic seabirds: a pan-

arctic assessment

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Abstract: Mercury (Hg) is a natural trace element found in high concentrations in top predators, including Arctic seabirds. Most current knowledge about Hg concentrations in Arctic seabirds relates to exposure during the summer breeding period when researchers can easily access

seabirds at colonies. However, the few studies focused on winter have shown higher Hg

concentrations during the non-breeding period than breeding period in several tissues. Hence,

improving knowledge about Hg exposure during the non-breeding period is crucial to

understanding the threats and risks encountered by these species year-round. We used feathers

of nine migratory alcid species occurring at high latitudes to study bird Hg exposure during

both the breeding and non-breeding periods. Overall, Hg concentrations during the non-

breeding period were ~3 times higher than during the breeding period. In addition, spatial

differences were apparent within and between the Atlantic and Pacific regions. While Hg

concentrations during the non-breeding period were ~9 times and ~3 times higher than during

the breeding period for the West and East Atlantic respectively, Hg concentrations in the Pacific

during the non-breeding period were only ~1.7 times higher than during the breeding period. In

addition, individual Hg concentrations during the non-breeding period for most of the seabird

colonies were above 5.00 µg g⁻¹ dry weight (dw), which is considered to be the threshold at

which deleterious effects are observed, suggesting that some breeding populations might be

vulnerable to non-breeding Hg exposure. Since wintering area locations, and migration routes

may influence seasonal Hg concentrations, it is crucial to improve our knowledge about spatial

ecotoxicology to fully understand the risks associated with Hg contamination in Arctic seabirds.

Key words: polar, top predators, metal, seasonal variation, feathers

Introduction

Concentrations of mercury (Hg), a naturally-occurring non-essential element, have

increased in marine ecosystems over the last decades because of anthropogenic emissions

(UNEP, 2013). In its methylated, toxic form (methyl-mercury, MeHg), Hg is considered a

pollutant of concern for both wildlife and human health (Braune et al., 2012; Dietz et al., 2019,

2013; Tan et al., 2009; Wolfe et al., 1998), prevalent even in remote areas such as the polar

regions (Albert et al., 2019; AMAP, 2018; Johansen et al., 2007; Provencher et al., 2014).

Mercury is assimilated by organisms through their diet and biomagnifies through food webs

(Morel et al., 1998). The highest concentrations are generally found in top predators, such as

seabirds and marine mammals, with the latter often carrying even higher body burdens than

seabirds (AMAP, 2005, 1998; Dietz et al., 2019, 2013, 1996). In turn, elevated Hg may be

associated with physiological, behavioral or reproductive impacts, such as neurological

deficiencies, immune disruption or lowered egg hatchability (Ackerman et al., 2016; Dietz et

al., 2019), ultimately having long-term, deleterious effects on seabird population dynamics

(Goutte et al., 2014a, 2014b). Spatial differences have been highlighted in numerous marine

species with higher Hg concentrations found in the Canadian Arctic compared to the European

Arctic (AMAP, 2018), but with large interspecies variation (Albert et al., 2019; AMAP, 2018).

However, current knowledge about Hg concentrations in Arctic seabirds is restricted mostly to

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the breeding period (but see Fleishman et al., 2019; Fort et al., 2014), and little is known about

the non-breeding period, which is mostly spent in areas outside the Arctic.

At the end of the breeding period, most Arctic seabirds leave their breeding site and

migrate principally to southerly areas where conditions, including environmental Hg

contamination, might differ from those encountered at their breeding areas. For example, little

auks (or dovekies; Alle alle) had higher Hg concentrations during the non-breeding period spent

east of Newfoundland than during the breeding period in East Greenland, negatively impacting

their subsequent reproduction (Fort et al., 2014). Outside of the Arctic, common guillemots (or

common murres, Uria aalge) have higher and increasing Hg concentrations while wintering in

the North Sea compared to their breeding grounds (Joiris et al., 1997). In this context, to better

understand the Hg contamination risk to Arctic seabirds, the concentrations of this element

should be studied year-round and at multiple spatial scales.

The alcid family of seabirds (Charadriiformes: Alcidae) comprises the most numerous

species in the Arctic, from the High to the sub-Arctic, and shows a circumpolar distribution.

Some species are endemic to the Pacific Arctic, such as murrelets (Brachyramphus), auklets

(Aethiini) and tufted puffins (Fratercula cirrhata). Others are endemic to the Atlantic Arctic,

such as little auks and razorbills (Alca torda), or are common to both regions, such as black

guillemots (Cepphus grylle), common guillemots and Brünnich's guillemots (or thick-billed

murres; Uria lomvia) (Gaston and Jones 1998). Alcids feed on zooplankton (e.g. little auks,

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least auklets), fish (e.g. common guillemots) or both (e.g. Brünnich's guillemot), with diet

potentially switching during or between seasons (Gaston and Jones, 1998). In the Arctic, most

alcids aggregate in large colonies for reproduction, then migrate to overwinter in open seas,

generally farther south.

Alcids undergo two seasonal molts with important implications for their Hg

contamination, as approximately 70% to 90% of the Hg body burden is excreted into growing

feathers (Agusa et al., 2005; Braune, 1987; Honda et al., 1986). A partial molt (head, cheeks

and neck) occurs after the non-breeding period in the spring leading to the nuptial plumage, and

a total molt (body, head and wings) occurs after the breeding period, leading to winter plumage.

Thus, Hg concentrations in head feathers mostly provide information about non-breeding

exposure (from fall to early spring), while concentrations in body and wing feathers mostly

provide information about contamination at the breeding sites (from early spring to fall) (Albert

et al., 2019; Fort et al., 2014).

Here we focused on nine alcid species distributed around the Arctic, representing

different marine foraging niches and ocean systems. More specifically, we used body and head

feathers to investigate seasonal, spatial and interspecific variation in Hg contamination. We

predicted higher Hg concentrations: i) in head feathers (i.e. non-breeding period) than in body

feathers (i.e. breeding period); ii) in the western Atlantic as compared to other regions; and iii)

in species feeding at higher trophic levels. We based these predictions on known foraging

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ecologies (Gaston and Jones, 1998) and previously documented patterns of Hg exposure in the

Pacific, and West and East Atlantic. The northern Pacific has higher Hg deposition rates due

high emissions from Asia (Selin et al., 2007), but levels in biota are more closely linked to

methylation rates by bacteria (Elliott and Elliott, 2016; Wang et al., 2018), which led us to

expect high levels in the western Atlantic based on previous work (Albert et al., 2019; AMAP,

2018).

Material and methods

Sample collection

Body feathers and head feathers (hereafter BF and HF, respectively) were collected during the

breeding period from ancient murrelets (Synthliboramphus antiquus), Brünnich's guillemots,

common guillemots, crested auklets (Aethia cristatella), least auklets (Aethia pusilla), little

auks, razorbills, rhinoceros auklets (Cerorhinca monocerata) and tufted puffins. Sampling took

place at 28 breeding colonies from the North Atlantic to North Pacific and from the sub-Arctic

to the High Arctic between 2015 to 2017 during the months of May to August (n=1,331, Fig.

1, Table 1, Table SI 1). Seabirds were captured during late incubation and chick-rearing with a

noose pole, noose carpet, mist-net or by hand, handled for 5 - 10 min and released after sampling.

In the Aleutian Islands and the Sea of Okhotsk, BF and HF were sampled from fresh carcasses.

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Mercury analysis

Prior to chemical analysis, any external contaminants were removed by plunging feathers for 3 min in a 2:1 chloroform:methanol solution in an ultrasonic bath. Feathers were then rinsed twice in a methanol solution and dried at 45°C for 48 h. Analyses were then performed on a pool of three homogenized feathers reduced to powder with stainless-steel scissors (Carravieri et al., 2014). Total Hg concentrations were measured on a subsample of 0.50 - 2.00 mg dry powder using an Advanced Mercury Analyzer spectrophotometer (Altec AMA 254) at the Littoral, Environnement et Sociétés laboratory (LIENSs, La Rochelle, France) as described in Chouvelon et al. (2009). Briefly, the samples were combusted under oxygen and the liberated Hg was analyzed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry. For each sample, analyses were repeated two or three times, until the relative standard deviation for the aliquots was <10%. Subsequently, the mean of the repeated Hg measurements was used for statistical analysis. To ensure the accuracy of measurements, certified reference materials (CRM) were analyzed every 15 samples. These included: CRM - lobster Hepatopancreas TORT-3; NRC, Canada; reference values were of $0.292 \pm 0.022 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$ dry weight (dw) SD, mean measured $\pm SD = 0.296 \pm 0.002$ $\mu g g^{-1} dw$, recovery = 101 %; and lobster hepatopancreas TORT-2; $0.27 \pm 0.06 \mu g g^{-1} dw SD$, mean measured = $0.26 \pm 0.01 \,\mu g \, g^{-1} \, dw \, SD$, recovery = 96%. Masses of the CRMs (~10 mg) were adjusted to represent amounts of Hg similar to that in feather samples. In addition, blanks

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were run prior to the analyses and the detection limit was established at 0.05 ng. All values are

given in dry weight unless otherwise noted.

Statistical analyses

To investigate seasonal Hg variations, we first classified seabird colonies into three

regions: the Pacific, the East Atlantic and the West Atlantic (Fig. 1), following previous studies

and known differences in the ecology of seabirds across these regions (see Descamps et al.,

2019). We used linear mixed models (R package "lme4") (Bates et al., 2015) to examine

patterns in Hg seasonality and how that varied among species or region. We considered all

species in a first analysis. Subsequently, we examined only the two guillemot species, as these

were the only two species sampled in all three regions. In each model, we always included the

type of feather (representing the breeding or non-breeding period), plus the region and the

species (1st analysis only) as fixed effects. Colonies and individuals were sampled for one to

three breeding periods during the study period (2015-2017). Hence, to address the potential

non-independence among Hg concentrations taken within years, within individuals, and within

colonies, all three were treated as random effects. The full model followed the form: [Hg] ~

fixed effects (regions + species + type of feathers) + random effects (years + individuals +

sampling sites). Hg concentrations were log_e-transformed to meet the parametric assumptions

of normality and homoscedasticity of residual distribution, and to avoid impossible predicted

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values below zero. We used the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC, Burnham and Anderson,

2002) to compare models. As all \triangle AIC values between two models differed by more than 2,

the model with the lowest AIC was selected. Statistical analyses were performed with R version

3.4.3 (R Core Team, 2017) and maps were created with ArcGIS Pro version 2.5.0 (ESRI, 2019).

Means are reported with standard deviation (mean \pm SD) unless otherwise noted.

Results

Mean Hg concentrations in alcid body and head feathers, by species and by breeding

site are summarized in Table 1, illustrated in Fig. SI 2 (details per year in Table SI 1), and

further summarized by species and region in Table 2 and Fig. SI 3. The mean Hg concentrations

in alcid body and head feathers, by sampling site, are summarized in Fig. 2.

Hg contamination during the breeding period

Overall, the mean Hg concentration in alcid feathers during the breeding period was 1.20 ± 0.83

μg g⁻¹ dw. Regionally, the highest mean Hg concentration across all species during the breeding

period was observed in the West Atlantic (1.70 \pm 0.77 μ g g⁻¹; median = 1.59 μ g g⁻¹; range =

 $0.41-6.97 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$), followed by the Pacific (1.55 ± 1.37 $\mu g \ g^{-1}$; median = 0.95 $\mu g \ g^{-1}$; range =

 $0.32-6.99 \mu g g^{-1}$) and the East Atlantic (0.75 ± 0.26 $\mu g g^{-1}$; median = 0.71 $\mu g g^{-1}$; range = 0.28-

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2.29 μg g⁻¹ – Fig. SI 4A). The lowest mean species Hg concentration during the breeding period

was measured in crested auklets (1.00 \pm 0.51 μ g g⁻¹) and the highest were observed in

rhinoceros auklets (3.47 \pm 1.63 µg g⁻¹ – Fig. SI 5A).

Hg concentrations during the non-breeding period

Mean alcid Hg concentration in feathers during the non-breeding period was $3.60 \pm 2.40 \,\mu g \,g^{-1}$

¹, three times the mean concentration in the breeding period. The highest mean Hg

concentrations during the non-breeding period were observed in the West Atlantic (5.42 ± 2.52

 $\mu g g^{-1}$; median = 5.21 $\mu g g^{-1}$; range = 1.21-15.44 $\mu g g^{-1}$) followed by the Pacific (2.64 ± 2.07)

 $\mu g g^{-1}$; median = 2.06 $\mu g g^{-1}$: range = 0.26-11.65 $\mu g g^{-1}$) and the East Atlantic (2.52 ± 1.46 μg

 g^{-1} ; median = 2.01 μg g^{-1} ; range = 0.47-8.77 μg g^{-1} – Fig. SI 4B). Mirroring the breeding period

results, the lowest mean Hg concentration during the non-breeding period was measured in

crested auklets $(1.45 \pm 0.58 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$ while the highest observed was in rhinoceros auklets (6.89)

 $\pm 2.04 \,\mu g \, g^{-1} - Fig. \,SI \, 5B$).

Hg seasonality

When testing for seasonal and species variation in Hg concentrations, the best-fit model

included the interaction between species and season (AIC model with interaction = 2,433.08;

AIC model without interaction = 2,667.68). This model indicated higher Hg concentrations

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during the non-breeding period, varying according to species. The largest seasonal differences

occurred in Brünnich's guillemots (estimate \pm SD = 1.15 \pm 0.68 μ g g⁻¹), common guillemots

 $(1.12 \pm 0.57 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$, little auks $(0.82 \pm 0.62 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$ and razorbills $(1.50 \pm 1.22 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$; while no

significant seasonal variation in Hg concentrations was found in ancient murrelets (0.36 ± 0.66

 $\mu g g^{-1}$), crested auklets (0.41 \pm 0.69 $\mu g g^{-1}$), least auklets (0.23 \pm 0.70 $\mu g g^{-1}$), rhinoceros auklets

 $(0.75 \pm 0.68 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$ and tufted puffins $(0.29 \pm 0.66 \ \mu g \ g^{-1})$. When testing for seasonal

differences among regions, the best-fit model included the interaction between season and

region (AIC model with interaction= 2,643.84; AIC model without interaction = 2,815.64). This

model indicated higher Hg concentrations during the non-breeding period, varying according

to region. The largest seasonal Hg difference was found in the West Atlantic (1.13 \pm 0.63 μ g g⁻

¹) and the East Atlantic (1.13 \pm 0.73 μ g g⁻¹) followed by the Pacific (0.57 \pm 0.73 μ g g⁻¹). The

frequency of individual (per species and breeding colonies) below of above the toxicity

threshold (Eisler, 1987) of 5.00 µg g⁻¹ during the non-breeding period is represented in Fig. 3.

We tested for seasonal and spatial differences in Hg concentrations for Brünnich's and

common guillemots, the two species sampled in all three regions. For Brünnich's guillemots,

the best-fit model included an interaction between the type of feather and the region (AIC model

with interaction = 943.16; AIC model without interaction = 1,014.28). This indicated that higher

Hg concentrations occurred during the non-breeding period with variations being region-

specific in this species. The largest seasonal difference in Brünnich's guillemots occurred in

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the West Atlantic (estimate \pm SD = 1.30 \pm 0.61 μ g g⁻¹), followed by the East Atlantic (1.14 \pm

 $0.76 \mu g g^{-1}$) and the Pacific ($0.63 \pm 0.60 \mu g g^{-1}$). For common guillemots, similar results were

found with contrasted seasonal differences in Hg concentrations across the three regions (AIC

model with interaction = 363.37; AIC model without interaction = 379.03), and following the

same pattern of largest differences in the West Atlantic $(1.12 \pm 0.60 \,\mu g \,g^{-1})$ and the East Atlantic:

 $1.12 \pm 0.55 \,\mu g \,g^{-1}$), followed by the smallest differences in the Pacific (0.83 ± 0.51 $\,\mu g \,g^{-1}$).

Discussion

Limited data, from both blood and feather samples previously suggested considerable

seasonal variation in seabird Hg concentrations, with higher contamination reported from the

non-breeding period when seabirds are often outside of Arctic regions (Fort et al., 2014; Joiris

et al., 1997; Lavoie et al., 2014; Takahashi et al., 2020). In our study, we found clear seasonal

differences in Hg concentrations for most study sites and species, confirming that higher Hg

exposure occurred during the non-breeding period for some species. However, populations of

ancient murrelets, crested and least auklets, and tufted puffins from the Pacific Region, in

addition to the little auks from the northwest Atlantic (Thule, Greenland), presented low or no

seasonal variation (BF: HF ratio >0.70) in their Hg concentrations. Non-breeding Hg

contamination can be associated with negative effects during the following breeding season;

birds with higher Hg concentrations subsequently had smaller eggs and experienced enhanced

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contamination during the breeding period (Fort et al., 2014, Lavoie et al., 2014). Further study

is needed to assess the importance of effects on breeding driven by Hg contamination,

especially for guillemots in the West Atlantic and rhinoceros auklets in the Pacific, as those

populations have especially high levels of Hg. Four non-exclusive hypotheses could explain

Hg seasonal variation in migratory species: 1) the occurrence of a dietary shift between seasons,

2) different food chain lengths in breeding versus non-breeding areas; 3) contrasting

environmental contamination between sites; and/or 4) higher energy requirements (e.g. during

storms, increased thermoregulatory costs) and thus enhanced food intakes during the winter

period (Burke and Montevecchi, 2018; Dunn et al., 2020; Fort et al., 2009).

Seasonal and interspecific differences

As food represents the main pathway of Hg exposure for seabirds and other marine

predators, their contamination is closely related to their diet and trophic position (Carravieri et

al., 2018), with Hg concentrations increasing with trophic level. Therefore, seasonal dietary

shifts towards higher trophic level prey or the use of longer food chains during the non-breeding

period may lead to higher Hg concentrations (Braune et al., 2014). Nitrogen stable isotope ratios

have been widely used to infer trophic level in Arctic marine systems (e.g. Hobson et al., 2002),

including characterization of Hg biomagnification processes (Atwell et al., 1998; Campbell et

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al., 2005; Pomerleau et al., 2016). However, nitrogen stable isotopes in feathers reflect bird

trophic status during the feather growth period only (which lasts a few weeks), while Hg

concentrations represent their contamination during the intermolt period (lasting several

months). Hence, using nitrogen stable isotopes in feathers to interpret Hg concentrations and

their seasonal variations requires a stable diet through the inter-molt period (Bond, 2010). In

addition, comparing stable isotope values at large spatial scales requires accurate information

about spatial baseline variation (e.g. isoscapes) (Hobson et al., 2012), which is still largely

missing for the non-breeding period and the Arctic and subarctic regions. Moreover, the diet of

Arctic seabirds is generally well-documented during the breeding period but information about

their winter diet is scarce, and only available for five of the nine studied species (Brünnich's

and common guillemots, little auks, ancient murrelets, rhinoceros auklets) from a few wintering

areas (see references below).

For most populations, higher Hg concentrations were found during the non-breeding

period. This contrasts with reported dietary shifts towards lower trophic levels during that

period for some species. For example, across their range Brünnich's guillemots feed on both

fish and zooplankton during the breeding period (Gaston and Jones 1998). During the non-

breeding period, they forage on lower trophic level prey (mostly invertebrates and fish in the

Atlantic and mostly invertebrates in the Pacific, Gaston and Jones, 1998), although differences

across sites might occur (Karnovsky et al., 2008; Linnebjerg et al., 2013; Moody and Hobson,

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2007). Common guillemots (mostly feeding on fish) and razorbills (feeding on fish during

summer and on a mixed diet of fish and zooplankton during winter) are known to have a

constant diet or a switch to lower trophic level prey in winter, respectively (e.g. Huettmann et

al., 2005; Lilliendahl, 2009; Lorentsen et al., 1999). Again, this contrasts with the higher Hg

concentrations measured in the present study during the non-breeding period; we expected that

feeding lower in the food web during the winter would result in lower Hg exposure.

A few studies investigated food web structure in the Arctic (e.g., Baffin Bay; Hobson

and Welch, 1992; Linnebjerg et al., 2016) and subarctic marine systems (e.g., continental shelf

off Newfoundland; Sherwood and Rose, 2005). These findings suggest slightly shortening food

chain lengths toward southern locations. Again, this contrast with our finding of higher Hg

contamination in birds during the non-breeding period, as they distribute more southerly at that

time and we expected higher Hg uptake to result from longer food chains. Thus, our results

suggest that other processes, besides diet shifts or differences in food web complexity, could

be operating. Alternatively, a larger food intake due to higher energy requirements during the

cold season (Burke and Montevecchi, 2018; Fort et al., 2009) and/or less excretion of Hg in

winter due to less plumage exchange/formation at this time of the year may explain the higher

Hg accumulates measured in feathers grown during the non-breeding period/winter. Therefore,

bird movements and distribution, both during summer and winter, are likely the dominant factor

in driving seasonal patterns of Hg concentration in Arctic alcids.

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Seasonal and spatial differences

Our results also highlight spatial differences in seabird Hg contamination during the

non-breeding period, as reflected by HF measurements. Mean Hg concentrations were higher

in seabird populations breeding in the Northwest Atlantic, which are likely overwintering in the

Labrador Sea (Linnebjerg et al., 2018; McFarlane Tranquilla et al., 2014), compared to the

Northeast Atlantic seabirds, overwintering farther east (Fort et al., 2013a). Such results are

concurring with the higher Hg concentrations reported earlier in little auks overwintering off

Newfoundland (Fort et al. 2014) and suggest a Hg hotspot in the Labrador Sea.

In only a few cases, we found low or no seasonal variation in Hg concentrations,

suggesting a constant Hg contamination year-round. This occurred almost exclusively in Pacific

species and populations (i.e. ancient murrelets, crested, least auklets) as well as in one little auk

population breeding in northwest Greenland (Northwest Atlantic). This absence of seasonal

variation in the Pacific region could be due to a similar exposure at both their breeding and non-

breeding sites, representing long distance and widely dispersed transport of mercury from Asia

(Selin et al., 2006). It is unlikely that the similarity is due to a shared resident strategy of birds

staying close to the breeding grounds year-round, as many of the Pacific auks at our study sites

migrate long distances (Gaston et al., 2017; Takahashi et al., 2020) or remain in the region

(Orben et al., 2015). Moreover, some of the Atlantic auks with large seasonal differences have

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been shown to be relatively resident (e.g. New foundland murres: McFarlane Tranquilla et al.,

2014). Further investigations combining migratory movements and Hg contamination in Pacific

seabirds are needed to understand seabird vulnerability to Hg in this region (see Fleishman et

al., 2019). Northwest Greenland little auk population had higher Hg concentrations compared

to other Arctic regions, a pattern also found in some other seabirds and marine top predators

(Albert et al., 2019; AMAP, 2011) and might be explained by similar elevated concentrations

at both their breeding areas and their non-breeding areas off Newfoundland (Fort et al., 2013a).

Finally, our results show spatial differences in bird Hg contamination and seasonal

variation between the Pacific and Atlantic regions. Brünnich's and common guillemots, which

are present in both regions, showed smaller seasonal differences and lower non-breeding Hg

concentrations in the Pacific than in the Atlantic, suggesting differences in Hg environmental

contamination between both regions. The Arctic Ocean is a sink for contaminants such as Hg,

with inflows from both atmospheric and oceanic currents, as well as rivers (Sonke et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, important outflows of Hg also occur from the Arctic to lower latitudes (AMAP,

2018). Because the Arctic is widely open to the Atlantic with more numerous, complex

atmospheric and oceanic fluxes than the Pacific region, oceanic outflows of Hg (e.g. through

the Canadian Arctic Archipelagoes and Fram Strait) (see Outridge et al., 2008) could partly

explain the higher concentrations in Hg found in species from the Western Atlantic region

compared to the Pacific regions of the Arctic. Alternatively, food webs vary among Arctic and

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sub-Arctic (Murphy et al., 2016), with Chukchi food webs being based on benthic inputs

(Whitehouse et al., 2014). Hg levels in Pacific seabirds are closely associated with the base of

the food web (Elliott and Elliott 2016), and variation in food webs among ocean basins may be

one cause of lower Hg levels in the Pacific relative to the Atlantic. For example, a recent survey

comparing Pacific to Atlantic waters in the Canadian Arctic (where Hg levels are higher in

predators in the Pacific) found that variation in Hg in top predators was associated with higher

levels of methylation in the Pacific despite lower levels of total Hg (Wang et al. 2018). Clearly,

food web processes that affect methylation of Hg are important for explaining region

differences, and that study, which linked disparate predator information to a single ship-based

transect, might be strengthened by similar pan-Arctic predator information such as that present

in our study.

Inter-individual variability in non-breeding Hg concentration

In addition to species and population differences, our results showed high inter-

individual variability in Hg concentrations during the non-breeding period. Arctic seabirds are

central-place foragers, feeding mostly in the vicinity of their colony during the breeding period

(Cunningham et al., 2018; Jakubas et al., 2016; Linnebjerg et al., 2015). However, during the

non-breeding period, many migrate towards the open seas to spend the winter within or outside

the Arctic (McFarlane Tranquilla et al., 2013). Recent tracking studies highlight how

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individuals from the same population might engage in contrasting migratory tactics, and thus

occupy very different wintering areas (Fort et al., 2013a; Frederiksen et al., 2016; Studholme

et al., 2019) where exposure to Hg and other pollutants could be substantially different (Leat et

al., 2013; Miller et al., 2020; Watanuki et al., 2015). For instance, Brünnich's guillemots

breeding at Coats Island and at the Gannet Islands (Northwest Atlantic) adopt variable

individual strategies, with wintering areas ranging from the Labrador Sea to Newfoundland

(Frederiksen et al., 2016; McFarlane Tranquilla et al., 2013). This finding is consistent with

higher inter-individual variability in Hg concentrations for non-breeding than for the breeding

Brünnich's guillemots. In comparison, common guillemots from the same colonies showed

lower inter-individual variability in their non-breeding distribution as individuals overwinter

close to their breeding colonies off Newfoundland (Fort et al., 2013b; McFarlane Tranquilla et

al., 2013). Similarly, this was reflected in our results by lower variability in Hg concentrations

for that species. This inter-individual variation in both Hg concentrations and large-scale

distribution supports the hypothesis that individual migratory tactics play an important role in

Hg exposure and calls for further studies linking individual movements to contamination risks.

Hg toxicity and risks for non-breeding Arctic seabirds

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There is limited information about Hg toxicity thresholds for seabird feathers.

Nevertheless, Hg concentrations above 5.00 µg/g dw in feathers are usually considered to be

associated with deleterious health and reproductive effects (Eisler, 1987). In addition, elevated

Hg contamination during the non-breeding period can exert carry-over effects on reproductive

parameters in the following breeding season (e.g. Fort et al., 2014). Our results demonstrate

that some populations of Arctic alcids had Hg values close to or above 5.00 µg/g dw. In total,

26% of the sampled individuals for which non-breeding Hg was measured exceeded this

toxicity threshold. These include rhinoceros auklets breeding in the Gulf of Alaska, and

common and Brünnich's guillemot populations breeding in the Northwest Atlantic. This latter

region has previously been associated with elevated Hg risk in seabirds. For instance, the

investigation of Hg concentrations in the blood of Brünnich's guillemot breeding at Coats

Island (Canadian Arctic, Northwest Atlantic) showed that above ~90% of the sampled

individuals were associated with at least a moderate risk (Dietz et al., 2019).

Hence, many seabird species and populations might be at high risk of Hg contamination

that could negatively impact their reproduction, with potential long-term effects on population

dynamics (Goutte et al., 2014a, 2014b). Population trajectories of different Arctic seabird

populations vary spatially (e.g. Frederiksen et al., 2016), and the potential role played by

environmental pollution on these patterns has been largely overlooked. Therefore, there is a

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need to include exposure to pollutants, notably during the non-breeding period, in population

dynamic studies and conservation programs.

Conclusion

The present study is the first to investigate seabird seasonal Hg contamination at a large,

pan-Arctic scale. Our results demonstrate that the non-breeding period is critical for Hg

contamination of piscivorous and planktivorous seabirds. This period might represent an

important risk for these sensitive populations, especially those breeding in the West Atlantic

Arctic, and to a lesser extent in the Pacific Arctic and the East Atlantic. This study demonstrates

that close monitoring should be pursued to understand both short- and long-term implications

of Hg exposure on seabird population dynamics. Our study also shows that higher non-breeding

contamination most likely depends on both individual, population, and species-specific

migratory strategies determining year-round spatial distributions. We therefore call for further

studies linking non-breeding distribution of seabirds and Hg contamination at the individual

and population scales. This would facilitate better understanding of which wintering areas are

associated with higher Hg contamination and thus pose higher risks for Arctic seabirds. Further

studies including energetic modelling are also required to better understand the role of increased

energy requirements on Hg seasonal changes. Therefore, there is a need for more integrative

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spatial ecotoxicology studies at multiple scales, combining tracking technologies, Hg

measurements, dietary investigations, and including a large range of colonies and species.

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Pictures credit: Ancient murrelet: Dr. A. Andreev, Brünnich's guillemot: S. Descamps, little auk, common guillemot and razorbill: C. Albert, crested auklet: A. Will, rhinoceros auklet: tufted puffin: K. Elliott, least auklet: M. Romano.

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Table 1. Species and region- specific Hg concentrations (mean \pm SD; in μ g g⁻¹ dw) measured in body feathers (BF – representing exposure during the breading period) and head feathers (HF – representing exposure during the non-breeding period). Breeding: non-breeding period Hg concentrations (mean \pm SD BF : HF) calculated from individual values. BF : HF ratio are represented in Fig. SI 6; n = samples size

Species	Region	Sampling site	GPS Coordinates	n	BF mean $\pm SD$	HF mean $\pm SD$	BF : HF
Ancient murrelet	Pacific	Talan Island	59.18°N, 149.05°E	5	2.64±1.00	3.69±1.18	0.81±0.52
Brünnich's guillemot	Pacific	Saint George	56.59°N, 169.61°W	10	0.90 ± 0.20	3.42±1.10	0.29±0.11
		Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	40	0.77 ± 0.33	1.43±0.89	0.79±0.49
	East Atlantic	Alkefjellet, Spitsbergen	79.58°N, 18.51°E	32	0.63 ± 0.20	1.70 ± 0.48	0.39 ± 0.14
		Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	48	0.50 ± 0.09	2.91±1.73	0.24±0.15
		Cape Flora, Franz Josef Land	79.95°N, 50.09°E	61	0.74 ± 0.21	1.64 ± 0.35	0.47±0.16
		Cape Gorodetskiy	69.15°N, 35.95°E	19	0.66 ± 0.10	2.06±0.39	0.33 ± 0.07
		Hornøya, N Norway	70.39°N, 31.16°E	59	0.75 ± 0.20	2.45±1.08	0.34±0.13
		Isfjorden, Spitsbergen	78.25°N, 15.51°E	32	1.17±0.37	6.05 ± 1.56	0.21±0.08
		Kara Gate, Novaya Zemlya	71.42°N, 51.95°E	40	0.64±0.20	1.65±0.52	0.41±0.13
		Oranskyi islands, Novaya Zemlya	77.07°N, 67.64°E	34	0.70 ± 0.20	1.79±0.35	0.39±0.10
	West Atlantic	Coats Island	62.47°N, 83.10°W	19	1.63±0.33	8.22±3.27	0.23±0.12
		Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	41	2.39±0.95	9.24±1.73	0.27±0.12
		Grimsey, Iceland	66.54°N, 18.00°W	11	1.52±0.24	5.56±1.04	0.28±0.08
		Jan Mayen	71.03°N, 8.29°W	65	1.63±0.32	5.70±1.77	0.32±0.14
		Kippaku	73.73°N, 56.63°W	20	1.79±0.44	7.38±2.32	0.26±0.07
		Langanes, Iceland	66.18°N, 15.99°W	35	1.38±0.21	4.83±1.14	0.30 ± 0.08
		Thule, NW Greenland	77.47°N, 69.23°W	17	2.62±0.72	8.14±2.73	0.35±0.12
Common guillemot	Pacific	Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	36	0.59±0.17	1.42±0.63	0.48±0.21
	East Atlantic	Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	48	0.67±0.13	1.95±0.55	0.37±0.12
		Cape Gorodetskiy	69.58°N, 32.94°E	40	0.64±0.14	1.79±0.42	0.37±0.08
		Hjelmsøya, N Norway	71.11°N, 24.73°E	58	0.85±0.20	2.85±0.94	0.32±0.10
		Sklinna	64.74°N, 10.77°E	20	0.94±0.35	3.17±0.90	0.31±0.10
	West Atlantic	Faroes	61.98°N, 6.65°W	8	2.26±1.05	4.91±2.37	0.54±0.26
		Funk Island	49.76°N, 53.18°W	23	2.21±0.39	6.83±1.11	0.33±0.09
		Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	32	2.17±0.51	6.44±1.25	0.35±0.11

		Gull Island	47.95°N, 53.04°W	40	2.04±0.60	5.90±1.47	0.38±0.17
		Jan Mayen	71.03°N, 8.29°W	61	0.98±0.36	3.88±1.65	0.28±0.11
		Langanes, Iceland	66.18°N, 15.99°W	37	1.11±0.39	3.70 ± 0.92	0.31±0.10
Crested auklet	Pacific	Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	14	1.00±0.51	1.45±0.58	0.75±0.32
Least auklet	Pacific	Saint George	56.59°N, 169.61°W	10	1.58±1.22	2.38±1.29	0.72±0.35
		Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	20	2.56±1.13	2.75±1.01	0.96±0.31
Little auk	East Atlantic	Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	31	0.82 ± 0.19	2.57±1.12	0.37±0.15
		Hooker Island, Franz Josef Land	80.23°N, 53.02°E	67	0.81±0.21	1.73±0.92	0.57±0.26
		Hornsund, Spitsbergen	76.97°N, 15.78°E	37	0.82 ± 0.35	2.80±1.01	0.34±0.23
		Isfjorden, Spitsbergen	78.25°N, 15.51°E	5	0.90 ± 0.16	2.97±0.70	0.31±0.03
	West Atlantic	Kap Hoegh, E Greenland	70.72°N, 21.55°W	64	1.34±0.44	2.69 ± 0.70	0.52±0.18
		Thule, NW Greenland	77.47°N, 69.23°W	10	2.08±0.52	2.15±0.40	1.00±0.30
Razorbill	East Atlantic	Hornøya, N Norway	70.39°N, 31.16°E	39	0.79±0.31	4.68±1.54	0.20±0.14
	West Atlantic	Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	13	2.89±1.84	4.84±1.55	0.65±0.47
Rhinoceros auklet	Pacific	Middleton	59.44°N, 146.33°W	19	3.47±1.63	6.89 ± 2.04	0.54±0.33
Tufted puffin	Pacific	Aiktak Island	54.18°N, 164.82°W	11	3.12±1.42	4.04±1.35	0.80±0.26
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Table 2. Geographical variations in Hg concentrations (mean \pm SD -µg.g⁻¹ dw) measured in body feathers (BF – representing exposure during the breeding period) and head feathers (HF – representing exposure during the non-breeding period). Breeding: non-breeding period Hg concentrations (mean \pm SD BF : HF) calculated from individual values; n = samples size

Species	Regions	n	Mean \pm SD BF	Mean \pm SD HF	BF: HF
Ancient murrelet	Pacific	5	2.64 ± 1.00	3.69±1.18	0.81 ± 0.52
Brünnich's guillemot	Pacific	50	0.80 ± 0.31	1.83±1.23	0.69±0.49
	East Atlantic	325	0.72 ± 0.27	2.45 ± 1.61	0.36 ± 0.16
	West Atlantic	208	1.83 ± 0.67	6.84 ± 2.55	0.29 ± 0.12
Common guillemot	Pacific	36	0.59±0.17	1.42±0.63	0.48±0.21
	East Atlantic	166	0.76 ± 0.23	2.37 ± 0.90	0.34 ± 0.11
	West Atlantic	201	1.60 ± 0.74	5.03 ± 1.88	0.33 ± 0.14
Crested auklet	Pacific	14	1.00±0.51	1.45±0.58	0.75±0.32
Least auklet	Pacific	30	2.24±1.23	2.63±1.10	0.88±0.34
Little auk	East Atlantic	140	0.82±0.24	2.24±1.10	0.46±0.25
	West Atlantic	74	1.44 ± 0.51	2.61 ± 0.69	0.58 ± 0.25
Razorbill	East Atlantic	39	0.79±0.31	4.68±1.54	0.20±0.14
	West Atlantic	13	2.89 ± 1.84	4.84±1.55	0.65 ± 0.47
Rhinoceros auklet	Pacific	19	3.47±1.63	6.89±2.04	0.54±0.33
Tufted puffin	Pacific	11	3.12±1.42	4.04±1.35	0.80±0.26

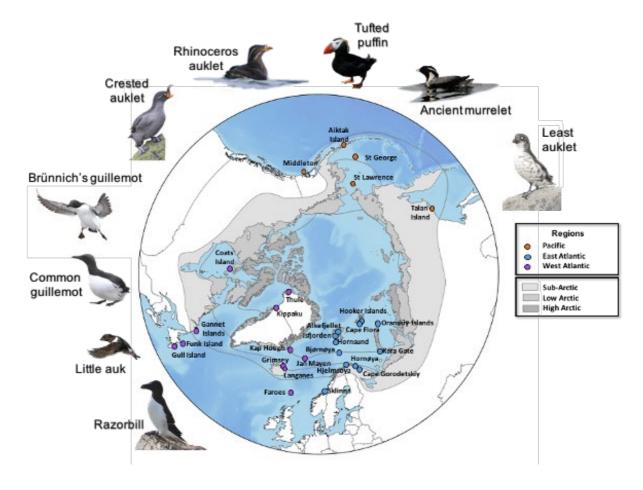


Figure 1. Location of the sampled breeding colonies locations of piscivorous and planktivorous alcids and sampling sites. The study sites were divided into three regions: Pacific (orange), East Atlantic (light blue), West Atlantic (purple). Colonies are colored based on the areas they belong to. Sub, Low and High Arctic are represented following the Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna delimitations (CAFF, 2001).

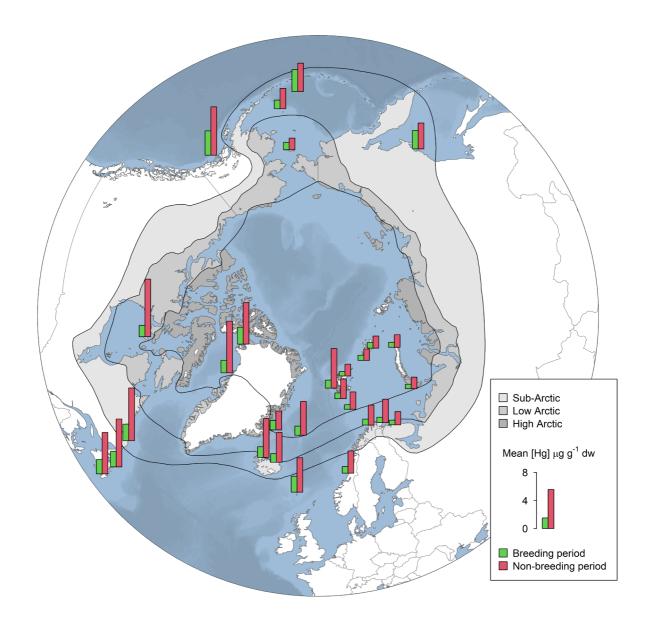


Figure 2. Hg concentrations during the breeding (body feathers - green) and non-breeding period (head feathers - red) for each study colony. Mean Hg concentrations and *SD* per species and colony are presented in Table 1 and Fig. SI 2. Sub, Low and High Arctic are represented following the Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna delimitations (CAFF, 2001).

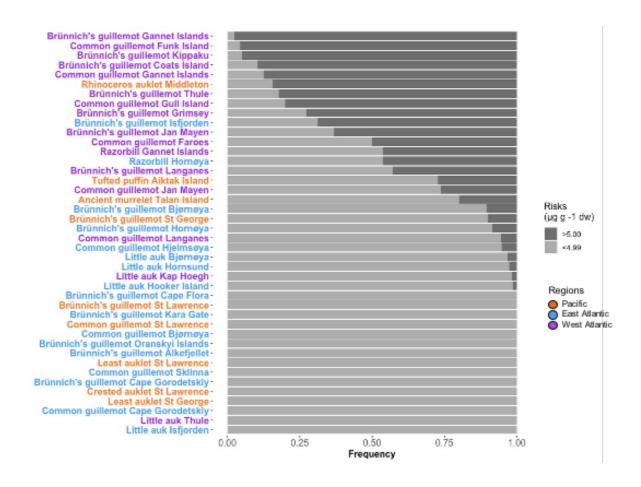


Figure 3. Frequency of individuals below (light grey) or above (dark grey) the toxicity threshold (Eisler, 1987) of 5.00 μg g⁻¹ dw in head feathers (representing exposure during the non-breeding season). The species and breeding colony names are colored by regions (see Fig. 1 - Pacific (orange), East Atlantic (light blue), West Atlantic (purple)). The sample size per species and colony can be found in Table 1.

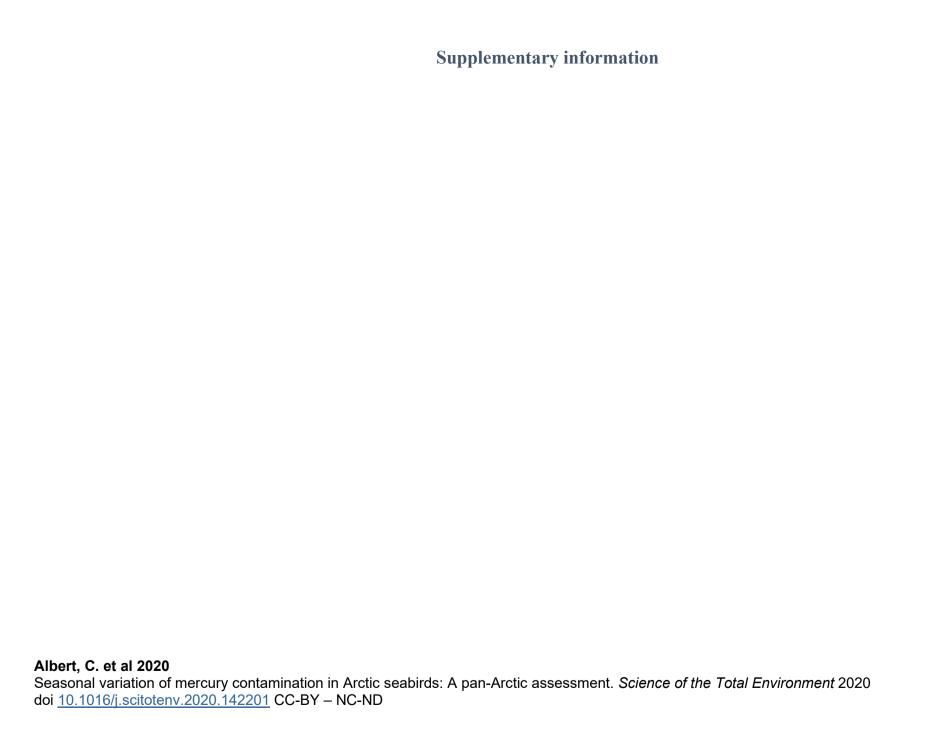


Table S1. Mean \pm SD Hg concentrations per species, regions, breeding sites, type of feathers (HF = Head Feathers, BF = Body feathers) and years.

Smaaiaa	Dogior	Breeding site	GPS Coordinates	Type of	$Mean \pm SD(n)$				
Species	Region			feathers	2015	2016	2017	Mean 2015-2017	
Ancient murrelet	Pacific	Talan Island	59.18°N, 149.05°E	HF	NA	NA	3.69±1.18 (5)	3,69±1,18 (5)	
				BF	NA	NA	2.64±1.00 (5)	2,64±1.00 (5)	
Brunnich guillemot	East Atlantic	Alkefjellet, Spitsbergen	79.58°N, 18.51°E	HF	NA	1.83±0.40 (17)	1.54±0.53 (15)	1,70±0,48 (32)	
_				BF	NA	0.63±0.22 (17)	0.62±0.18 (15)	0,63±0,20 (32)	
		Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	HF	2.84±1.69 (20)	2.92±1.94 (18)	3.03±1.59 (10)	2,91±1,73 (48)	
		•		BF	0.56±0.07 (20)	0.44±0.07 (18)	$0.48\pm0.10(10)$	0,50±0,09 (48)	
		Cape Flora, Franz Josef Land	79.95°N, 50.09°E	HF	1.60±0.43 (21)	1.79±0.19 (20)	1.51±0.35 (20)	1,64±0,35 (61)	
		•		BF	0.70±0.20 (21)	0.77±0.19 (20)	0.76±0.24 (20)	0,74±0,21 (61)	
		Cape Gorodetskiy	69.15°N, 35.95°E	HF	NA	NA	2.06±0.39 (19)	2.06±0.39 (19)	
				BF	NA	NA	$0.66\pm0.10(19)$	0.66±0.10 (19)	
		Hornøya, N Norway	70.39°N, 31.16°E	HF	2.41±0.70 (20)	2.28±1.28 (19)	2.65±1.21 (20)	2,45±1,08 (59)	
		•		BF	0.78±0.24 (20)	0.66±0.15 (19)	0.80±0.17 (20)	0,75±0,20 (59)	
		Isfjorden, Spitsbergen	78.25°N, 15.51°E	HF	5.71±1.33 (13)	6.85±1.73 (11)	5.50±1.39 (8)	6,05±1,56 (32)	
				BF	1.20±0.50 (13)	1.26±0.29 (11)	1.02±0.16 (8)	1,17±0,37 (32)	
		Kara Gate, Novaya Zemlya	71.42°N, 51.95°E	HF	1.71±0.54 (20)	1.58±0.51 (20)	NA	1,65±0,52 (40)	
				BF	0.71±0.19 (20)	0.56±0.19 (20)	NA	0,64±0,20 (40)	
		Oranskyi islands, Novaya Zemlya	77.07°N, 67.64°E	HF	NA	1.79±0.40 (16)	1.79±0.32 (18)	1,79±0,35 (34)	
				BF	NA	0.64±0.20 (16)	0.75 ± 0.20 (18)	0,70±0,20 (34)	
	Pacific	Saint George	56.59°N, 169.61°W	HF	NA	NA	3.42±1.10 (10)	3.42±1.10 (10)	
		C		BF	NA	NA	$0.90\pm0.20\ (10)$	0.90±0.20 (10)	
		Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	HF	NA	1.40±0.92 (20)	1.45±0.89 (20)	1,43±0,89 (40)	
			•	BF	NA	0.59±0.25 (20)	0.96±0.31 (20)	0,77±0,33 (40)	
	West Atlantic	Coats Island	62.47°N, 83.10°W	HF	8.22±3.27 (19)	NA	NA	8.22±3.27 (19)	
			•	BF	1.63±0.33 (19)	NA	NA	1.63±0.33 (19)	

		Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	HF	8.99±1.48 (17)	NA	9.42±1.90 (24)	9,24±1,73 (41)
				BF	2.86±1.24 (17)	NA	2.06±0.47 (24)	2,39±0,95 (41)
		Grimsey, Iceland	66.54°N, 18.00°W	HF	NA	NA	5.56±1.04 (11)	5,56±1,04 (11)
		•		BF	NA	NA	1.52±0.24 (11)	1,52±0,24 (11)
		Jan Mayen	71.03°N, 8.29°W	HF	5.41±1.26 (20)	6.33±2.45 (25)	5.21±0.70 (20)	5,70±1,77 (65)
		,		BF	1.54±0.31 (20)	1.84±0.25 (25)	1.45±0.25 (20)	1,63±0,32 (65)
		Kippaku	73.73°N, 56.63°W	HF	NA	7.38±2.32 (20)	NA	7.38±2.32 (20)
		11		BF	NA	1.79±0.44 (20)	NA	1.79±0.44 (20)
		Langanes, Iceland	66.18°N, 15.99°W	HF	4.57±1.19 (14)	5.35±1.24 (12)	4.53±0.69 (9)	4,83±1,14 (35)
		2		BF	1.31±0.25 (14)	1.48±0.17 (12)	1.36±0.13 (9)	1,38±0,21 (35)
		Thule, NW Greenland	77.47°N, 69.23°W	HF	8.14±2.73 (17)	NA	NA	8.14±2.73 (17)
		,		BF	2.62±0.72 (17)	NA	NA	2.62±0.72 (17)
Common guillemot	East Atlantic	Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	HF	2.58±0.89 (5)	1.80±0.30 (22)	1.97±0.57 (21)	1,95±0,55 (48)
		_gy		BF	0.81±0.13 (5)	0.70±0.13 (22)	0.61±0.10 (21)	0,67±0,13 (48)
		Cape Gorodetskiy	69.58°N, 32.94°E	HF	NA	1.84±0.47 (20)	1.74±0.38 (20)	1,79±0,42 (40)
		1	,	BF	NA	0.60±0.11 (20)	0.68±0.16 (20)	0,64±0,14 (40)
		Hjelmsøya, N Norway	71.11°N, 24.73°E	HF	3.41±1.25 (19)	2.50±0.61 (20)	2.65±0.58 (19)	2,85±0,94 (58)
		J . J ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	BF	0.93±0.16 (19)	0.86±0.23 (20)	0.75±0.18 (19)	0,85±0,20 (58)
		Sklinna	64.74°N, 10.77°E	HF	NA	NA	3.17±0.90 (20)	3.17±0.90 (20)
			,	BF	NA	NA	0.94±0.35 (20)	0.94±0.35 (20)
	Pacific	Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	HF	NA	1.27±0.37 (16)	1.53±0.76 (20)	1,42±0,63 (36)
			,	BF	NA	0.49±0.11 (16)	0.67±0.16 (20)	0,59±0,17 (36)
	West Atlantic	Faroes	61.98°N, 6.65°W	HF	NA	5.51±2.77 (5)	3.90±1.36 (3)	4,91±2,37 (8)
			, ·	BF	NA	2.69±1.12 (5)	1.55±0.32 (3)	2,26±1,05 (8)
		Funk Island	49.76°N, 53.18°W	HF	NA	6.83±1.11 (23)	NA	6.83±1.11 (23)
			,	BF	NA	2.21±0.39 (23)	NA	2.21±0.39 (23)
		Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	HF	6.48±1.09 (12)	NA	6.41±1.36 (20)	6,44±1,25 (32)
			, , , ,	BF	2.25±0.58 (12)	NA	2.12±0.48 (20)	2,17±0,51 (32)

		Gull Island	47.95°N, 53.04°W	HF	NA	5.20±1.56 (20)	6.59±0.98 (20)	5,90±1,47 (40)
				BF	NA	2.21±0.74 (20)	1.87±0.35 (20)	2,04±0,60 (40)
		Jan Mayen	71.03°N, 8.29°W	HF	3.97±1.22 (19)	4.59±2.08 (20)	3.15±1.26 (22)	3,88±1,65 (61)
		·		BF	0.99±0.36 (19)	1.01±0.33 (20)	0.94±0.41 (22)	0,98±0,36 (61)
		Langanes, Iceland	66.18°N, 15.99°W	HF	NA	4.04±0.78 (18)	3.37±0.93 (19)	3,70±0,92 (37)
				BF	NA	1.13±0.29 (18)	1.09±0.48 (19)	1,11±0,39 (37)
Crested Auklet	Pacific	Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	HF	NA	1.38±0.80 (6)	1.51±0.40 (8)	1,45±0,58 (14)
				BF	NA	0.59±0.22 (6)	1.31±0.45 (8)	1.00±0,51 (14)
Least auklet	Pacific	Saint George	56.59°N, 169.61°W	HF	NA	NA	2.38±1.29 (10)	2.38±1.29 (10)
				BF	NA	NA	1.58±1.22 (10)	1.58±1.22 (10)
Least auklet		Saint Lawrence	63.40°N, 170.17°W	HF	NA	NA	2.75±1.01 (20)	2.75±1.01 (20)
				BF	NA	NA	2.56±1.13 (20)	2.56±1.13 (20)
Little auk	East Atlantic	Bjørnøya	74.50°N, 18.96°E	HF	NA	2.23±1.24 (10)	2.74±1.05 (21)	2,57±1,12 (31)
		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		BF	NA	0.84±0.24 (10)	0.81±0.16 (21)	0,82±0,19 (31)
		Hooker Island, Franz Josef Land	80.23°N, 53.02°E	HF	1.64±0.98 (26)	2.05±0.59 (19)	1.56±1.03 (22)	1,73±0,92 (67)
		,		BF	0.74±0.09 (26)	0.89±0.26 (19)	0.83±0.23 (22)	0,81±0,21 (67)
		Hornsund, Spitsbergen	76.97°N, 15.78°E	HF	NA	2.85±1.00 (20)	2.75±1.05 (17)	2,80±1,01 (37)
		, I &		BF	NA	0.91±0.41 (20)	0.71±0.20 (17)	0,82±0,35 (37)
		Isfjorden, Spitsbergen	78.25°N, 15.51°E	HF	NA	2.81±0.34 (2)	3.07±0.94 (3)	2,97±0,70 (5)
		J / 1 &	,	BF	NA	0.84±0.03 (2)	0.94±0.20(3)	0,90±0,16 (5)
	West Atlantic	Kap Hoegh, E Greeland	70.72°N, 21.55°W	HF	3.06±0.86 (20)	2.53±0.61 (20)	2.51±0.48 (24)	2,69±0,70 (64)
		1 2 /		BF	1.25±0.53 (20)	1.44±0.41 (20)	1.34±0.38 (24)	1,34±0,44 (64)
		Thule, NW Greenland	77.47°N, 69.23°W	HF	2.15±0.40 (10)	NA	NA	2.15±0.40 (10)
		•		BF	2.08±0.52 (10)	NA	NA	2.08±0.52 (10)
Razorbill	East Atlantic	Hornøya, N Norway	70.39°N, 31.16°E	HF	NA	4.89±1.47 (20)	4.47±1.62 (19)	4,68±1,54 (39)
		, , ,	, .	BF	NA	0.86±0.39 (20)	0.71±0.19 (19)	0,79±0,31 (39)
	West Atlantic	Gannet Islands	53.94°N, 56.56°W	HF	4.84±1.55 (13)	NA	NA	4.84±1.55 (13)
			,	BF	2.89±1.84 (13)	NA	NA	2.89±1.84 (13)

Rhinoceros auklet	Pacific	Middleton	59.44°N, 146.33°W	HF	NA	NA	6.89±2.04 (19)	6.89±2.04 (19)
				BF	NA	NA	3.47±1.63 (19)	3.47±1.63 (19)
Tufted puffin	Pacific	Aiktak Island	54.18°N, 164.82°W	HF	NA	NA	4.04±1.35 (11)	4.04±1.35 (11)
-				BF	NA	NA	3.12±1.42 (11)	3.12±1.42 (11)

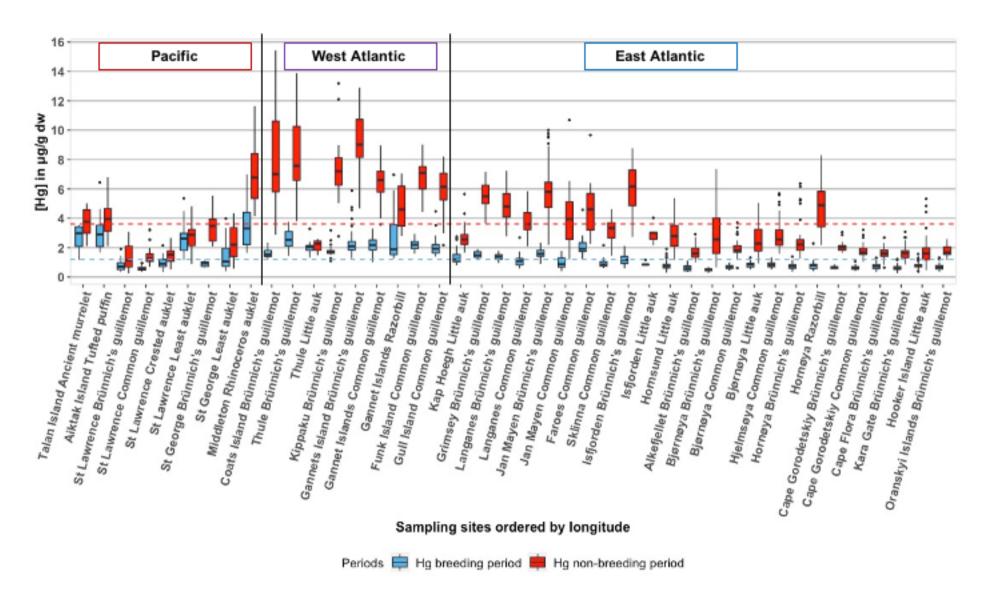
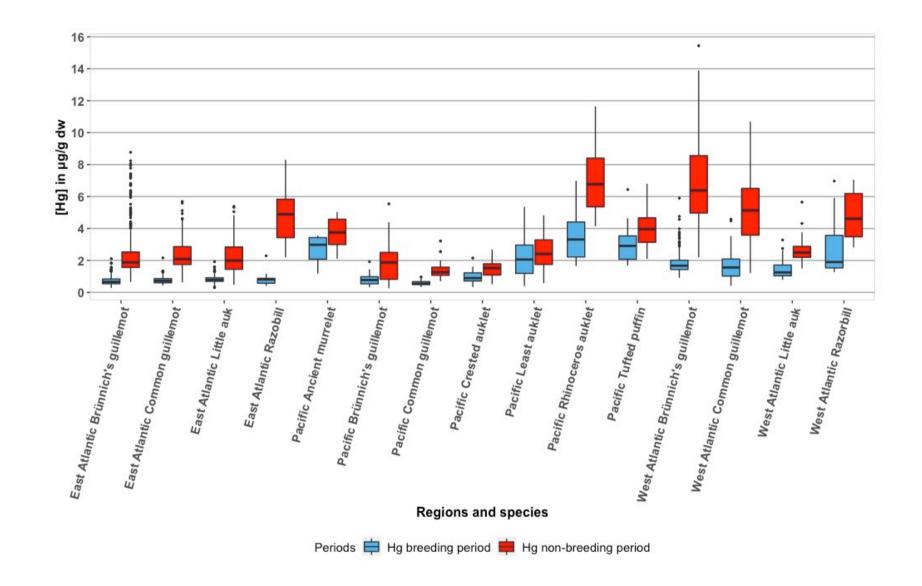


Figure S2. Mean Hg concentrations in Body Feathers (blue - representing the breeding period) and Head Feathers (red – representing the non-breeding period) for each study colony and species along a longitudinal gradient, from the Aleutian Islands to Talan Island. Mean Hg concentrations for BF (1.20 \pm 0.83 μ g/g, blue) and HF (3.56 \pm 2.37 μ g/g, blue) are represented by dashed lines. Mean Hg concentrations and SD per species





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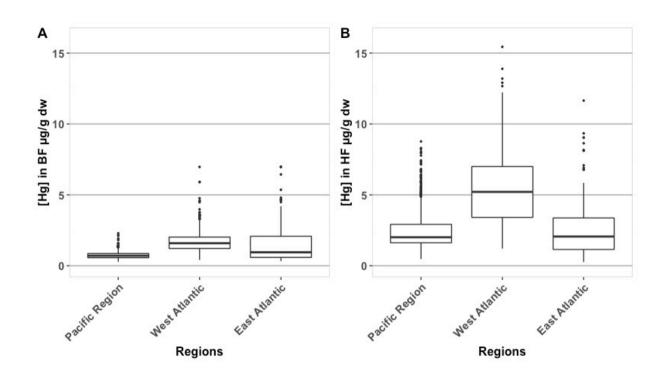


Figure S4. Representation of Hg concentrations (μ g/g dw) in A) body feathers (BF – representing the breeding period), B) head feathers (HF – representing the non-breeding period) per regions.

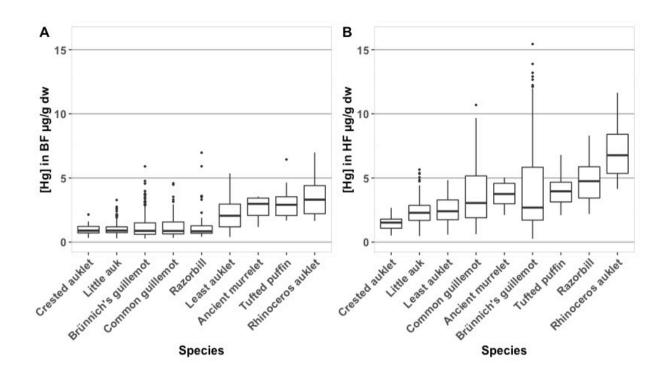
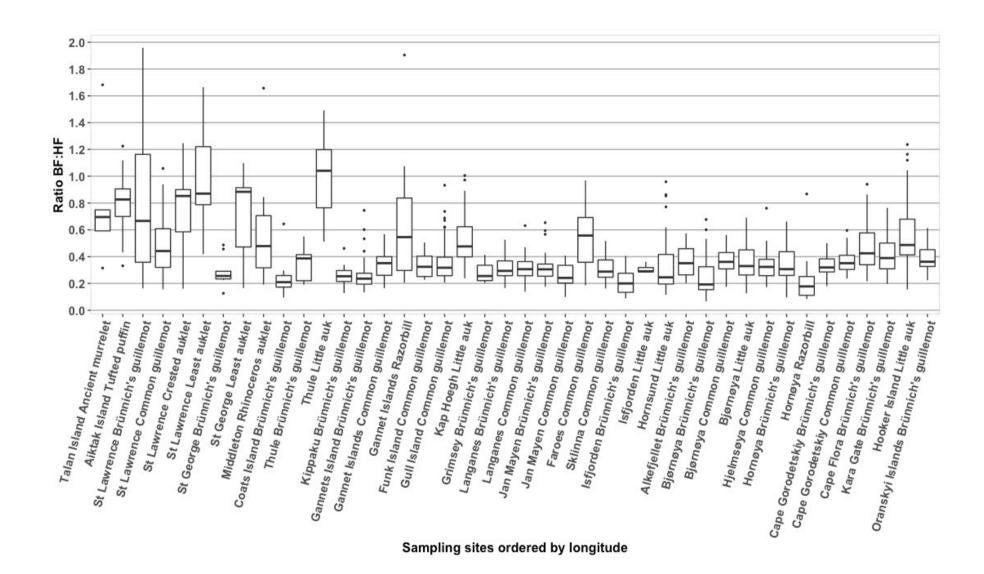


Figure S5. Representation of Hg concentrations (μ g/g dw) in A) body feathers (BF – representing the breeding period), B) head feathers (HF – representing the non-breeding period) per species



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