

1 **Biological archives reveal contrasting patterns in trace element concentrations in**
2 **pelagic seabird feathers over more than a century**

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4 Alexander L. Bond^{1,2*} and Jennifer L. Lavers²

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6 ¹ Bird Group, Department of Life Sciences, The Natural History Museum, Akeman
7 Street, Tring, Hertfordshire, HP23 6AP United Kingdom

8 ² Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, University of Tasmania, 20 Castray
9 Esplanade, Battery Point, Tasmania, 7004, Australia

10

11 *Corresponding author

12 E-mail: a.bond@nhm.ac.uk, Tel: +44 (0)20 7942 6162

13

14 **Abstract**

15 Contamination of diverse environments and wild species by some contaminants is
16 projected to continue and increase in coming decades. In the marine environment, large
17 volumes of data to assess how concentrations have changed over time can be gathered
18 from indicator species such as seabirds, including through sampling feathers from
19 archival collections and museums. As apex predators, Flesh-footed Shearwaters (*Ardenna*
20 *carneipes*) are subject to high concentrations of bioaccumulative and biomagnifying
21 contaminants, and reflect the health of their local marine environment. We analysed
22 Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers from Australia from museum specimens and live birds
23 collected between 1900 and 2011 and assessed temporal trends in three trace elements of
24 toxicological concern: cadmium, mercury, and lead. Concentrations of cadmium
25 increased by 1.5% per year (95% CI: +0.6, +3.0), while mercury was unchanged through
26 the time series (-0.3% per year; 05% CI: -2.1, +1.5), and lead decreased markedly (-2.1%
27 per year, 95% CI: -3.2, -1.0). A reduction in birds' trophic position through the 20th
28 century, and decreased atmospheric emissions were the likely driving factors for mercury
29 and lead, respectively. By combining archival material from museum specimens with
30 contemporary samples, we have been able to further elucidate the potential threats posed
31 to these apex predators by metal contamination.

32

33 **Keywords:** *Ardenna carneipes*; Flesh-footed Shearwater; mercury; lead; cadmium;

34 Western Australia

35

36 Capsule: Cadmium in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers increased between 1900 and
37 2011, while mercury remained stable and lead decreased.

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Contaminants in marine and atmospheric environments are generally increasing
41 over recent time, and are projected to increase in coming decades (AMAP, 2011;
42 Hoffman et al., 2003; Lamborg et al., 2014; Pacyna and Pacyna, 2001; Streets et al.,
43 2009; UNEP, 2002). With an increase in toxicological studies of a variety of organisms,
44 and generally poor knowledge of effect thresholds in many species, understanding how
45 contaminant concentrations have changed over time is critical to an ecological
46 interpretation and the subsequent management and conservation efforts. If a species has
47 high concentrations of a contaminant contemporarily, is this because it has always
48 experienced such concentrations and has adapted to accommodate them, or have
49 concentrations in the environment increased, and been accumulated by biota? Reporting
50 high concentrations of a given contaminant must therefore be accompanied by
51 appropriate interpretation, including the historical context (Bond et al., 2015).

52 As top predators in the marine environment, seabirds can be exposed to high
53 levels of bioaccumulated and biomagnified pollutants from both natural, and
54 anthropogenic sources (Burger and Gochfeld, 2002; Day et al., 2012). Seabirds can also
55 act as indicators or sentinel species for examining the health of the marine environment,
56 including chemical contamination (Burger and Gochfeld, 2004; Monteiro and Furness,
57 1995), and contaminant concentrations are monitored using seabirds in a variety of
58 oceanic domains (Barrett et al., 1996; Braune, 2007; Burgess et al., 2013; Carravieri et
59 al., 2016; Day et al., 2006; Goodale et al., 2008).

60 Feathers are used frequently to measure contaminants in seabirds (Burger, 1993).
61 They can be sampled without sacrificing the individual, or from preserved museum skins,
62 making studies of long time series possible. Feathers often contain the biologically active
63 form of many metal contaminants (e.g., most mercury is in the form of methylmercury,
64 Bond and Diamond, 2009b), and can be a significant metabolic pathway for contaminant
65 elimination (Braune and Gaskin, 1987; Burger, 1993). Many elements in feathers,
66 however, represent external contamination from the lithosphere, even after vigorous
67 washing (Borghesi et al., 2016), but at present it cannot be partitioned from endogenous
68 deposition.

69 A variety of studies have investigated temporal trends in contaminants, primarily
70 mercury, using seabird feathers (Appelquist et al., 1985; Bond et al., 2015; Monteiro and
71 Furness, 1997; Thompson et al., 1993b; Thompson et al., 1992; Vo et al., 2011). With
72 improvements in analytical methods, reliable metal and metalloid concentrations can be
73 acquired with about 15-25 mg of tissue (Bond and Lavers, 2011; Friel et al., 1990;
74 Haynes et al., 2006), making archival studies more attractive, and complementary to
75 indirect time series of seabirds' contamination through sediment cores (Sun and Xie,
76 2001). Museum samples are also the only way to examine time series of contamination
77 retrospectively, which can inform contemporary conservation and management (Bond et
78 al., 2015).

79 Flesh-footed Shearwaters (*Ardenna carneipes*) are trans-equatorial migrants that
80 breed on islands in New Zealand, South and Western Australia, and on Île Saint-Paul in
81 the Indian Ocean (Lavers, 2015; Roux, 1985; Waugh et al., 2013). Samples collected in
82 the 2008-2009 austral summer indicated that some metal and metalloid concentrations in

83 feathers could be of toxicological concern (Bond and Lavers, 2011), likely because of
84 their diet of predatory fish and squid (Gould et al., 1997). Flesh-footed Shearwaters also
85 ingest large quantities of plastic marine debris, which adults offload to their nest-bound
86 chicks during feeding (Hutton et al., 2008; Lavers and Bond, 2016b; Lavers et al., 2014),
87 and these plastics could provide a route for hydrophobic contaminants, and compounds
88 used in plastic production (Holmes et al., 2012; Lavers and Bond, 2016a; Lavers et al.,
89 2014; Tanaka et al., 2013), though the proportional contribution of many plastic-
90 transported contaminants is unknown (Bakir et al., 2016). The question remains, however
91 – are contaminant concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers increasing or
92 decreasing, and are the high concentrations reported by Bond and Lavers (2011) typical
93 of shearwaters’ contaminant burden? This is particularly germane given the significant
94 trophic declines in shearwaters from Western Australia over the last century (Bond and
95 Lavers, 2014), and the species’ range-wide population decline (Jamieson and Waugh,
96 2015; Lavers, 2015; Reid et al., 2013).

97 Our goals were, therefore, to describe changes in trace elements in Flesh-footed
98 Shearwater feathers over more than a century, to compare historic concentrations with
99 those from contemporary samples, and to discuss these results in the context of
100 contaminants in the marine environment.

101

102 **Materials and Methods**

103 *Sample collection*

104 We sampled feathers from Flesh-footed Shearwater skins housed in museum
105 collections in Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand, and the United States (see
106 Acknowledgements for a list of institutions). Only specimens with precise years of
107 collection were sampled. Breast feathers were selected because they are the best indicator
108 of whole-body metal burdens (Furness et al., 1986), and allowed comparisons with
109 contemporary samples (most museum collections only permit sampling breast feathers).
110 Other tissues commonly sampled from museum specimens (mainly toe pads, but also
111 nails) are used for other purposes (e.g., genomic or isotopic analyses) and are not
112 collected from live birds so for examination of contaminant trends over centennial scales,
113 breast feathers are the most available and appropriate tissue (Bond et al., 2015). In
114 addition, Flesh-footed Shearwaters replace their breast feathers during the latter half of
115 the breeding season (February-April), before wing feathers are moulted on the wintering
116 grounds (Onley and Scofield, 2007); given the varying temporal lags of incorporation
117 into feathers, we cannot link measured concentrations to local exposures as we do not
118 know the age of individual feathers within the moult cycle, and assume that feather
119 elemental concentrations are integrated across a similar time and space among
120 individuals. Feathers were stored in sterile polyethylene bags or paper envelopes at -20°C
121 prior to analysis. The elements considered here are bound to the keratin protein in
122 feathers, and do not sublime below 60 °C, so the possibility that some would have been
123 lost from historic specimens during storage is remote.

124 As many of the museum skins were collected at sea away from breeding colonies
125 as scientific specimens, or were taken as fisheries bycatch, their colony of origin was
126 unknown. Using a combination of biogeochemical markers, Lavers et al. (2013) assigned

127 samples of unknown provenance to a breeding area of origin. We used contemporary
128 samples and archival material assigned to locations in Western and South Australia (n =
129 123), or known to originate there (n = 43).

130

131 *Analytical Methods*

132 Cadmium (Cd), mercury (Hg) and lead (Pb) concentrations were assessed using
133 the same procedures as described in Bond and Lavers (2011). Feathers were washed in
134 0.25M NaOH to remove external contamination (Bearhop et al., 2000; Bond and
135 Diamond, 2009a), and two feathers per bird were pooled as individual feathers can be
136 highly variable in metal concentrations (Bond and Diamond, 2008). Trace element
137 concentrations were measured in a PerkinElmer ELAN DRCII ICP-MS and the protocol
138 used was based on Friel et al. (1990). Procedural blanks and secondary reference
139 materials were included for every 15-20 samples. The secondary materials used were
140 certified human hair samples 6H-09 and 7H-09 from the Centre de Toxicologie du
141 Québec, Institut National de Santé Publique du Québec (Table S1). Mercury was used in
142 museum preservation, contaminating specimens collected < 1940 with inorganic Hg
143 (Bond et al., 2015; Vo et al., 2011). We therefore assessed temporal trends of Cd and Pb
144 from 1900-2011, and Hg from 1946-2011 only. Recovery of the secondary reference
145 material ranged from 89-112% among these elements for all runs (Table S1). Values
146 were corrected for background levels using procedural blanks, and for recovery using
147 values from secondary reference materials within each run.

148

150 We used two approaches to examine temporal changes in metal concentrations.
151 First, we used the program PIA (version 05/11/13; Bignert, 2013) to analyse the time-
152 series of each element, which enabled us to make comparisons with similar studies of
153 elemental concentrations over time, most of which are from the Arctic (Bignert et al.,
154 2004; Rigét et al., 2011). PIA uses a robust regression and log-linear regression
155 techniques to detect linear and nonlinear trends using a running-mean smoother based on
156 annual geometric means (Fryer and Nicholson, 1993). We performed separate analyses
157 for each element, set the statistical power to detect a trend at 80%, and the minimum
158 slope to detect at 10% over 10 years at $p < 0.05$ using a three year running-mean
159 smoother.

160 We also applied general additive models (GAMs; Wood, 2017) in the package
161 *mgcv* (Wood, 2019) where contaminant concentration was a function of a cubic
162 regression spline of collection year. The number of knots was determined by generalized
163 cross-validation in the model fitting process, and resulted in $k = 9$ for all three trace
164 elements.

165 All concentrations are expressed as parts-per-million (ppm, $\mu\text{g/g}$) on a fresh
166 weight basis. Though stable isotope data exist for this time series as well (Bond and
167 Lavers, 2014), there is a temporal mismatch between the integration periods of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
168 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and trace elements in feathers so they do not reflect the same periods (Bond, 2010),
169 and do not change the trace element concentrations measured.

171 **Results**

172 There was a significant linear, increase in Cd in shearwater feathers from 1900-
173 2011 of 1.5% per year (95% CI: +0.1, +3.0%, $F_{1, 34} = 4.64$, $p = 0.037$), and ranged from
174 0.006-20.082 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (geometric mean: 0.354 $\mu\text{g/g}$, SD: 2.924). Based on the variance
175 among years, 29 years of data would be required to detect an annual change of 10% with
176 80% power. Our time series had 99% power to detect a 10% change over the entire
177 period, and the lowest detectable annual change was 7.1% (Table 1). The GAM fit the
178 data well ($r^2 = 0.54$), and the spline term was significant (effective df: 8.66, $F = 22.65$, p
179 < 0.001), remaining relatively flat until the mid-1980s where it rose rapidly and then
180 declined to the previous level (Figure S1).

181 We found no significant trend in feather Hg from 1946-2011 ($\beta = -0.3$, 95% CI: -
182 2.1, +1.5%, $F_{1,22} = 0.12$, $p = 0.73$), though we had very high power to detect a change
183 (94% power to detect a 10% change over the time series, and a lowest detectable change
184 of 8.3%); 21 years of data would be required to detect an annual change of 10% with
185 80% power (Table 1). Feather Hg concentrations ranged from 1.290-113.499 $\mu\text{g/g}$
186 (geometric mean: 8.241 $\mu\text{g/g}$, SD: 18.807). The GAM fit was lower than for Cd ($r^2 =$
187 0.12), and the cubic regression spline showed a dip in the 1990s before rising rapidly in the
188 early 2000s and returning to pre-1990s levels (Figure S2).

189 Pb in shearwater feathers decreased significantly from 1900-2011 by 2.1% per
190 year (95% CI: -3.2, -1.0, $F_{1,24} = 27.85$, $p < 0.001$), and this time series had 100% power to
191 detect a 10% change. An annual change of 10% could be detected with 26 years of data,
192 and the lowest detectable change of the time series was 76% (Table 1). Overall feather Pb

193 concentrations ranged from 0.009-1125.733 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (geometric mean: 1.656 $\mu\text{g/g}$, SD:
194 82.411), though the upper extreme is likely influenced by external contamination.
195 Removing this individual, concentrations ranged from 0.009-255.432 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (geometric
196 mean: 1.592, SD: 21.373). Like Hg, the GAM for Pb with only a cubic regression spline
197 for year did not fit the data well ($r^2 = 0.07$). The spline featured a peak in the late 1940s
198 followed by a gradual decline and stabilization after 1985 (Figure S3).

199

200 **Discussion**

201 It is important to note that the age of the individuals from museum collections
202 were unknown. Flesh-footed Shearwaters, like many in the family Procellariidae, cannot
203 be aged based on plumage (Onley and Scofield, 2007), so our sample may include a
204 combination of birds > 1 year old, which have undergone a complete moult, and those < 1
205 year old, which would still retain feathers grown at the breeding site before fledging, and
206 therefore differ in exposure to contaminants (Braune and Gaskin, 1987; Monteiro and
207 Furness, 2001a; b). This difference in the pool of trace elements that could be deposited
208 into feathers (and feather age ranging from perhaps a few weeks to several months)
209 would result in increased variance, but unfortunately cannot be controlled (Burger, 1995;
210 Malinga et al., 2010; Stewart et al., 1999).

211 Flesh-footed Shearwaters in Western Australia migrate to the northern Indian
212 Ocean (Lavers et al., 2019; Powell, 2009; Shuntov, 1968), an area with potentially
213 concerning concentrations of toxic elements in the water column (Danielsson, 1980; Kar
214 et al., 2008). Understanding where exposure occurs, seabirds' roles in nutrient and

215 contaminant transport (Blais et al., 2005; Doughty et al., 2016), and the potential carry-
216 over effects of contaminant exposure on the non-breeding grounds (Fort et al., 2014) can
217 inform conservation actions, and inform interpretations of population trends.

218

219 *Cadmium*

220 Little of birds' Cd burden is sequestered into feathers (Burger, 1993; Honda et al.,
221 1985), and museum specimens can be a mechanism for monitoring the fraction depurated
222 in feathers (Borghesi et al., 2016; Pilastro et al., 1993) so while feathers are not suitable
223 for assessing total Cd burden, they are appropriate for examining temporal changes. A
224 large portion of Cd in the environment comes from anthropogenic sources, including steel
225 production and waste incineration (Hutton, 1983), and exposure is highly influenced by
226 ocean cycling (Macdonald et al., 2005). Squid, a common prey of Flesh-footed
227 Shearwaters, often have high concentrations of Cd (Gerpe et al., 2000; Gould et al.,
228 1997). The most commonly identified squid in Flesh-footed Shearwaters' diet,
229 *Ommastrephes bartramii*, had liver Cd concentrations of $287 \pm 202 \mu\text{g/g}$ in the 1970s,
230 which was higher than sympatric *Loligo opalescens*, but lower than *Symplectoteuthis*
231 *oualaniensis* (Martin and Flegal, 1975), though Western Australia shearwaters' diets can
232 also be dominated by pilchards (*Sardinops sagax*; JLL unpublished data). Cd in pilchards
233 has not been assessed in Australia (Padula et al., 2016), but concentrations of $0.5 \mu\text{g/g}$
234 dry weight in muscle have been reported elsewhere (Tawfik, 2013).

235 Seabirds may also be able to tolerate higher concentrations of Cd (Scheuhammer,
236 1987). The toxicological effects of Cd on birds include kidney lesions, altered behavior,

237 eggshell thinning, and more (Furness, 1996). These are, however, effects measured on
238 internal organs, and so concentrations at which effects manifest range from 0.1-2.0 µg/g
239 fresh weight (fw) in feathers (Burger, 1993; Burger and Gochfeld, 2000b). Of the 166
240 birds sampled here, 119 (72%) had feather Cd concentrations >0.1 µg/g, and 29 (17%)
241 had concentrations >2.0 µg/g (Figure 1), with four individuals exceeding 10 µg/g Cd in
242 feathers, which is among the highest recorded in wild birds (Anderson et al., 2010;
243 Burger and Gochfeld, 2000c; Hindell et al., 1999). The peak identified in the GAM in the
244 1990s is interesting given that world cadmium production has remained relatively stable
245 from 1990-2012, around 20,000 metric tons (U.S. Geological Survey, 2015).

246 This is the first study to examine changes in Cd in birds over time, and given the
247 significant increase in feather Cd, and high concentrations in some recent individuals,
248 further study on the potential sources, effects, and causes of these concentrations is
249 warranted. The application of stable isotopes of Cd (and Hg) as tracers could be
250 particularly beneficial in answering these questions (Conway and John, 2015; Day et al.,
251 2012).

252

253 *Mercury*

254 Most Hg in the environment is from anthropogenic sources that are transformed
255 into the biologically active methyl Hg, and subsequently bioaccumulated and
256 biomagnified in food webs (Krabbenhoft and Sunderland, 2013; Lindberg et al., 2007;
257 Weiner et al., 2003). Hg is acquired through birds' diet, and mostly eliminated in
258 proteinaceous tissues, such as egg components or feathers, where it binds to disulfide

259 bonds between cysteine molecules (Bond and Diamond, 2009b; Crewther et al., 1965;
260 Monteiro and Furness, 2001a; Thompson, 1996). While contamination near point sources
261 can be a concern for seabirds (Finger et al., 2015), global atmospheric transport and
262 mobile predators and prey mean that Hg affects upper trophic predators, like Flesh-footed
263 Shearwaters, regardless of location. Concentrations of Hg in feathers $> 20 \mu\text{g/g}$ are
264 thought to be of concern to piscivores (Burger and Gochfeld, 1997; Cristol et al., 2012;
265 Evers et al., 2014), though it seems some species, notably albatrosses, are able to tolerate
266 much higher concentrations without observed adverse effects (Bustamante et al., 2016;
267 Hindell et al., 1999). We found 23/137 Flesh-footed Shearwaters (17%) exceeded 20
268 $\mu\text{g/g}$, and ranged as high as $113 \mu\text{g/g}$ in one individual sampled in 2006. Temporally,
269 though the GAM identified a drop in the late 1990s followed by a rapid increase and
270 levelling off of Hg concentrations in shearwater feathers, the variance explained by this
271 regression spline was relatively small, and the global anthropogenic Hg supply has
272 remained constant since the mid-1990s at around 3500 tonnes annually (UNEP, 2013).

273 Life-history strategy may influence exposure to Hg, with female seabirds that
274 breed bi-annually being less able to excrete metals during egg laying (Ackerman et al.,
275 2016; Hindell et al., 1999; Monteiro and Furness, 2001a). Flesh-footed Shearwaters
276 breeding in Western Australia and New Zealand may not breed annually (Lavers et al.,
277 2019; Waugh et al., 2014), and therefore may not have the same opportunities to depurate
278 Hg into eggs. Mercury concentrations did not change over time, which may be surprising
279 given the increases observed in other studies (Bond et al., 2015; Evers et al., 2014;
280 Thompson et al., 1993a; Thompson et al., 1992; Vo et al., 2011) which may be a function
281 of the low number of samples early in the time series. Flesh-footed Shearwaters have

282 experienced considerable trophic shifts since the mid-19th century, including a decrease
283 of one trophic level, and trend towards increased dietary breadth in Western Australia
284 (Bond and Lavers, 2014), and had the lowest contemporary concentrations of Hg (Bond
285 and Lavers, 2011). However, feather Hg concentrations during 1946-2011 (8.241 ± 0.944
286 $\mu\text{g/g}$; Figure 1) are comparable to adult Flesh-footed Shearwaters sampled in Western
287 Australia in 2008 ($6.038 \pm 3.998 \mu\text{g/g}$) (Bond and Lavers, 2011). Flesh-footed
288 Shearwaters' reduction in trophic position may have been a contributory factor in their
289 unchanged feather Hg concentrations (Bond and Lavers, 2014). Given that the ultimate
290 source of Hg is dietary, a detailed examination of Flesh-footed Shearwater diet and prey
291 Hg across its breeding range would help elucidate the reasons for this pattern.

292

293 *Lead*

294 Pb was added to gasoline as an anti-knocking agent in the early 20th century, before being
295 phased out in many countries less than 100 years later because of the negative
296 environmental effects of Pb in automotive emissions (Seyferth, 2003; Wilson and
297 Horrocks, 2008). Like Hg, Pb is also largely acquired through birds' diet, and binds to
298 keratin and other proteins rich in sulfhydryl groups (Burger and Gochfeld, 2000a; Goede
299 and de Bruin, 1984). In birds, high concentrations of Pb are associated with neurological
300 and developmental impairment (Burger and Gochfeld, 2000a), particularly when feather
301 concentrations exceed $4 \mu\text{g/g}$ (Burger, 1993; Burger and Gochfeld, 2000a), and local
302 sources can dramatically affect Pb concentrations (Scheifler et al., 2006). More than a
303 third (65/165; 37%) of shearwaters sampled had feather Pb concentrations above this

304 level (Figure 1). The peak identified in the late 1940s and early 1950s does correspond
305 with the rapid increase in leaded gasoline consumption (Nriagu, 1990; Seyferth, 2003),
306 though as with Hg the r^2 of the regression spline was not high.

307 While Pb contamination has the potential to negatively affect the health and
308 reproductive fitness of individual shearwaters, concentrations are decreasing over time
309 (Table 1). The decrease we observed in shearwater feather Pb mirrors the declines in
310 atmospheric Pb following the reduction in Pb as an additive in gasoline. Concentrations
311 in *Sardinops sagax* muscle from the Arabian Sea, adjacent to shearwaters' over-wintering
312 grounds (Lavers et al., 2019) were also relatively low (0.005 $\mu\text{g/g}$; Tawfik, 2013).

313 On offshore islands and in remote areas, even small populations of migratory
314 species (e.g., salmon, seabirds) can transport significant quantities of hazardous
315 contaminants via their guano (Evenset et al., 2007; Sun and Xie, 2001). As anthropogenic
316 contamination of the marine environment increases, so, too, do inputs from the ocean to
317 the land. Cd concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwaters increased 1.5% per year during
318 1900-2011 (Table 1), suggesting guano deposition on breeding islands in Western
319 Australia may be a previously undocumented source of chemical pollution.

320 Archival samples allowed us to frame contemporary ecotoxicological results in an
321 historical context, which provided insight into changes in the pressures faced by Flesh-
322 footed Shearwaters over the last century. Observing changes in ecosystems over such
323 periods is challenging, as perceived baselines shift over time (Blight et al., 2015;
324 Papworth et al., 2009). By using dated museum specimens, researchers can begin to

325 examine historical changes in ecosystems using archived material and inform modern
326 conservation priorities and actions.

327 While this study has identified temporal trends in metal concentrations, it has also
328 highlighted a lack of information on the diet and foraging behaviour of Flesh-footed
329 Shearwaters and population level effects from metals exposure. Between 17-72% of the
330 shearwaters sampled for this study exceeded thresholds for Cd, Hg, or Pb. Chemical
331 pollutant levels may be an additional stressor on the Western Australian Flesh-footed
332 Shearwater population, which has a low annual adult survival rate (0.634-0.835; Lavers et
333 al., 2019) or on other populations which are declining across the species range (Jamieson
334 and Waugh, 2015; Lavers, 2015; Reid et al., 2013).

335

336 **Conclusions**

337 Flesh-footed Shearwaters have shown contrasting trends in Cd, Hg, and Pb over the 20th
338 and early 21st centuries, driven by several factors. Concentrations of some trace elements,
339 namely lead, may be sufficiently high to cause adverse effects, and future work should
340 investigate this further. Our understanding of the context of contemporary contamination
341 has been improved through examining samples from museums and biological archives.

342

343 **Data availability**

344 Data are available on figshare: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12076704>

345

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687

688 **Tables**

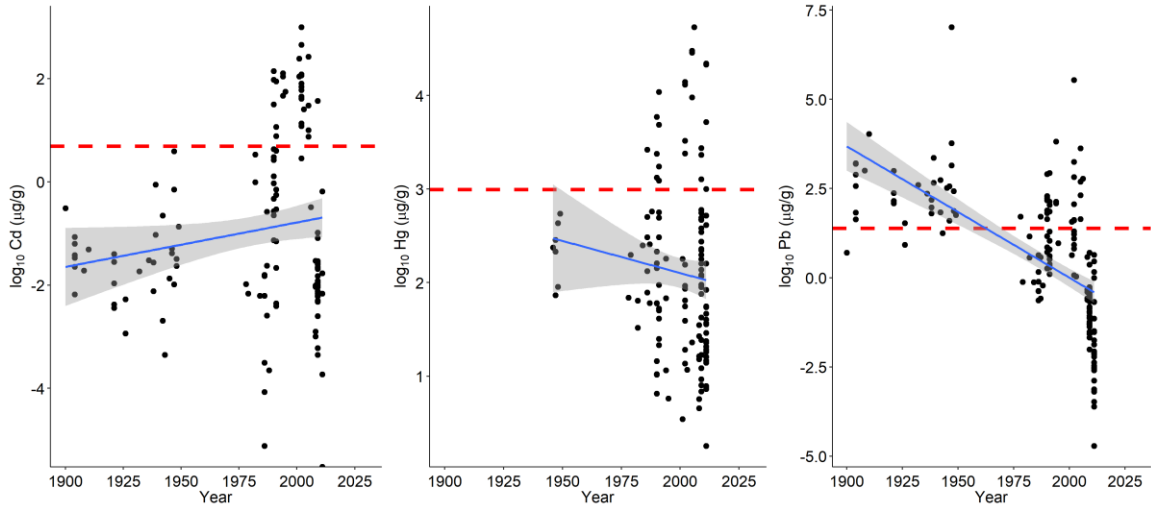
689 Table 1. Robust regression analyses of metals in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers. Reported values are those used in other
 690 assessments of contaminants over time in biota (AMAP, 2011).

Element	n	Number of years (range)	% increase per year (95% CI)	Years required	Lowest detectable change (%)	Power of time series (%)
Cadmium	140	36 (1900-2011)	+1.5 (+0.6, +3.0)	29	7.1	99
Mercury	137	23 (1946-2011)	-0.3 (-2.1, +1.5)	21	8.3	94
Lead	165	36 (1900-2011)	-2.1 (-3.2, -1.0)	26	76	100

691

692 **Figures**

693 Figure 1 – Temporal trends in Cd (increasing), Hg (no significant change), and Pb
694 (decreasing) in feathers from Flesh-footed Shearwaters from Western and South
695 Australia. Blue lines are regressions with standard errors in gray (Table 1), and the
696 dashed red lines are concentrations of concern (see Discussion). Data are log-
697 transformed.



698

699 Figure 1.

700 **Biological archives reveal contrasting patterns in trace element concentrations in**
701 **pelagic seabird feathers over more than a century**

702 Alexander L. Bond and Jennifer L. Lavers

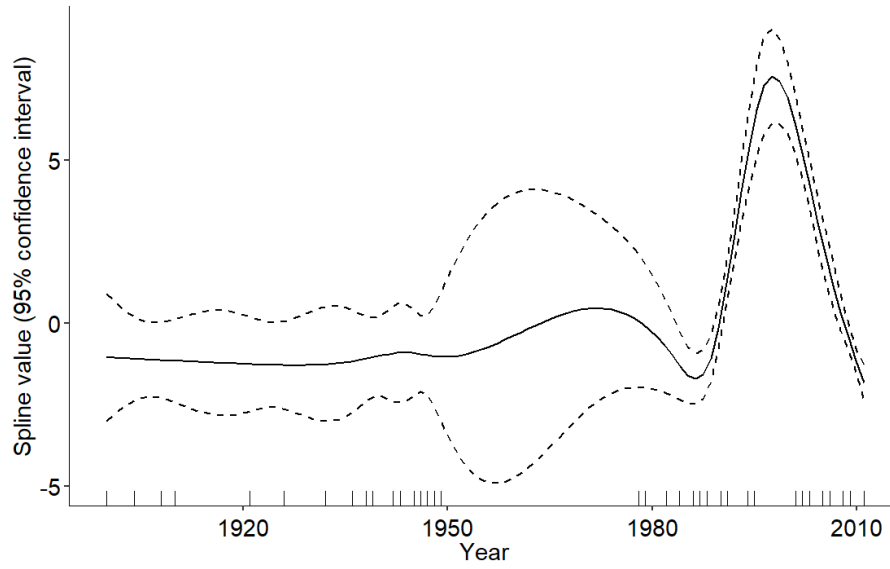
703

704 **Supplemental Material**

705 **Table S1.** We achieved high recovery of two keratin-based reference materials using
706 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) to measure trace element
707 concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD
708 % recovery relative to the mean certified concentration in $\mu\text{g/g}$ (ppm). Table reproduced
709 from Lavers et al. (2013).

Reference	Element	Certified	Measured	Mean %
Material (n)		Concentration	Concentration \pm SD	Recovery
6H-09 (8)	Cd	0.24	0.24 ± 0.05	100
	Hg	4.49	4.58 ± 1.81	102
	Pb	14.8	14.9 ± 0.7	100
7H-09 (8)	Cd	1.7	1.9 ± 0.1	109
	Hg	3.78	3.38 ± 1.28	89
	Pb	5.28	5.92 ± 0.75	112

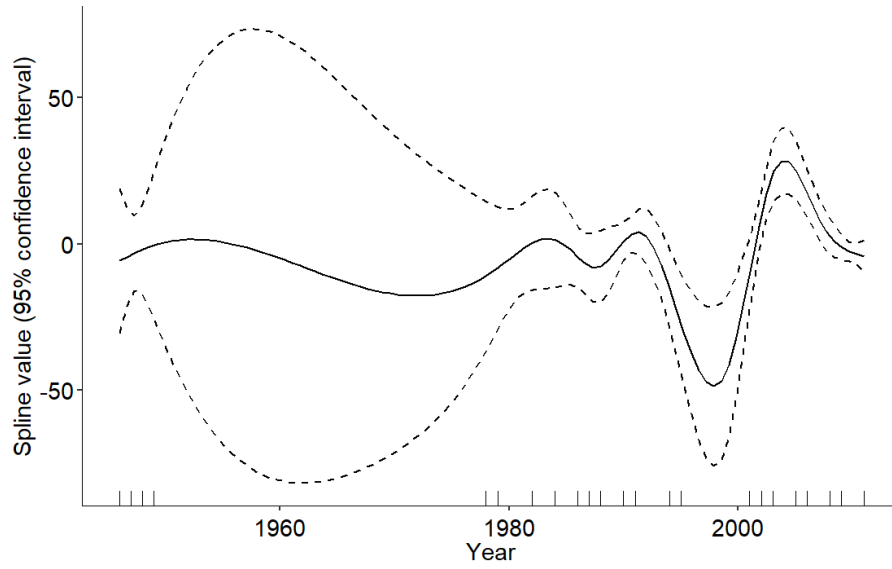
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711

712 Figure S1 – The cubic regression spline of a general additive model of cadmium

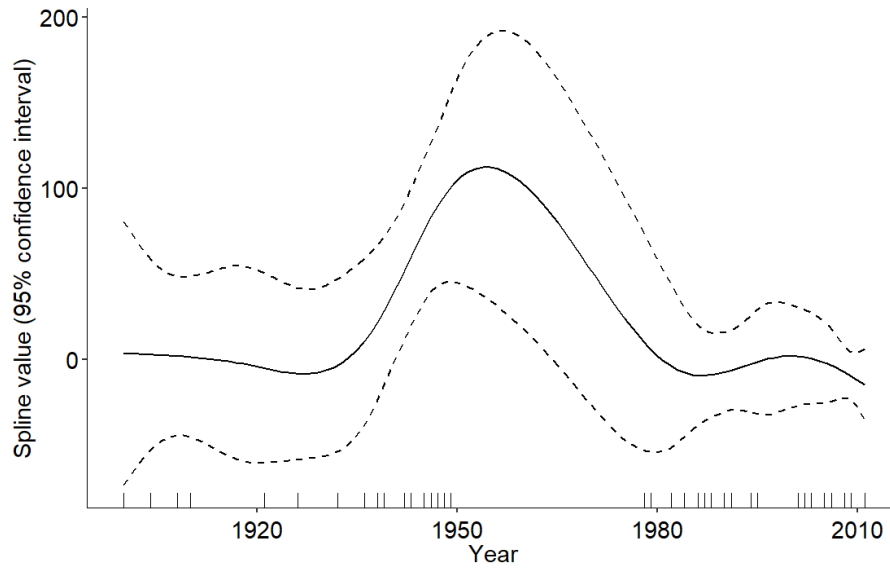
713 concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers over time.



714

715 Figure S2 – The cubic regression spline of a general additive model of mercury

716 concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers over time.



717

718 Figure S3 – The cubic regression spline of a general additive model of lead

719 concentrations in Flesh-footed Shearwater feathers over time.