

1 **Title:** Relationship between the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and bioaccumulation of  
2 persistent organic pollutants in sympatric Alaskan seabird (*Uria aalge* and *U. lomvia*) eggs  
3 between 1999 and 2010.

4 **Author line:** Vrinda Kalia<sup>1†</sup>, Stacy S. Schuur<sup>2</sup>, Keith A. Hobson<sup>3</sup>, Howard H. Chang<sup>4</sup>, Lance A.  
5 Waller<sup>4</sup>, Steven Hare<sup>5</sup>, Matthew O. Gribble<sup>1,6</sup>

6 **Author affiliation:**

7 <sup>1</sup> Department of Environmental Health, Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, 1518  
8 Clifton Road NE, Atlanta, Georgia 30322

9 <sup>2</sup> National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Hollings Marine Laboratory, 331 Fort  
10 Johnson Road, Charleston, South Carolina 29412

11 <sup>3</sup> Environment and Climate Change Canada, Stable Isotope Hydrology and Ecology Research  
12 Laboratory, 11 Innovation Blvd. Saskatoon, SK 27N 3H5 Canada

13 <sup>4</sup> Department of Biostatistics, Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, 1518 Clifton Road  
14 NE, Atlanta, Georgia 30322

15 <sup>5</sup> The Pacific Community, BP D5, 98848 Noumea, New Caledonia

16 <sup>6</sup> Department of Epidemiology, Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, 1518 Clifton  
17 Road NE, Atlanta, Georgia 30322

18 † Current affiliation: Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Columbia University Mailman  
19 School of Public Health, 722 W 168<sup>th</sup> St, New York, New York 1003

20 **\*Corresponding author:** [vk2316@cumc.columbia.edu](mailto:vk2316@cumc.columbia.edu)

21 Postal address: 650 W 168<sup>th</sup> street, Room 1604, New York, New York, 10032

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23 **Keywords:** Climate variability, ecotoxicology, behavioral ecology

24 **Abstract:**

25 Although climate change occurs alongside other anthropogenic ecosystem impacts, little is known  
26 about how sea-surface temperature variability influences the ecotoxicology of persistent organic  
27 pollutants (POPs). We analyzed POP contaminant levels, and stable isotopes  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  as  
28 measures of trophic position, in eggs collected from the Gulf of Alaska and Bering Sea between  
29 1999 and 2010 from two similar avian species with different trophic positions: common murre  
30 (*Uria aalge*) and thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*). The ebb and flow of the Pacific Decadal  
31 Oscillation (PDO), a long-lived El Niño-like pattern of climate variability in the Pacific Ocean,  
32 predicted both trophic position and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) levels in thick-billed murre,  
33 but not in common murre. There was a similar pattern of association of the PDO with  
34 organochlorine pesticide levels in thick-billed murre, but not in common murre. The magnitude  
35 of association in thick-billed murre of PDO with the level of a specific PCB congener was a  
36 function of the number of chlorine groups on the PCB congener. Although this statistical analysis  
37 does not account for all factors contributing to climate variation, this contrast between the species  
38 suggests that facultative changes in foraging behavior, reflected in trophic position, can determine  
39 how POPs flow through and thereby alter ecosystems under climate change.

## 40 1. Introduction

41 The health of marine ecosystems is influenced by factors including variations in climate  
42 and the presence of chemical contaminants in food webs (Bustnes et al., 2015). This is especially  
43 true at high latitudes where climate variability and change are pronounced, and contaminants  
44 deposit and concentrate in long food chains (Burkow and Kallenborn, 2000; Stocker et al., 2013).  
45 Climate variations affect the movement of environmental contaminants by altering  
46 biogeochemical cycles involving their transport and flux (Macdonald et al., 2005; Noyes et al.,  
47 2009). Climate variations also produce changes in the availability of prey (Ng and Gray, 2011)  
48 and biological processes involving primary producers (Macdonald et al., 2005), thus affecting  
49 trophic dynamics. Furthermore, climatic conditions are likely to affect average wind speed and  
50 associated patterns of ocean circulation, which are known to affect food availability (Mueter and  
51 Litzow, 2008; Oechel et al., 2012; Spear et al., 2019).

52 Variations in local climatic and oceanographic conditions can be driven by large-scale  
53 oscillations such as the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and Pacific Decadal Oscillation  
54 (PDO), which include temporal trends in sea-surface temperature (SST) in the equatorial and  
55 north Pacific, respectively (Deser et al., 2010; Mantua et al., 1997). SST is correlated with a range  
56 of ecologically important climate variables (Mueter et al., 2002). Changes in SST affect  
57 competition between and among different marine species (Stenseth et al., 2015), normal  
58 biochemical processes of marine organisms (Hochachka and Somero, 2002) and ocean  
59 production rates (Gregg et al., 2003). The warm (or positive) phase of the PDO has been linked  
60 to changes in mortality, breeding and diet of a seabird (*Sula granti*) in the Pacific marine  
61 ecosystem (Champagnon et al., 2018).

62 Seabirds are useful indicators of the health of marine ecosystems and biomonitoring  
63 studies have suggested persistent organic pollutants (POPs), like polychlorinated biphenyls  
64 (PCBs) and legacy organochlorine pesticides (e.g., chlordanes and DDT), can adversely affect  
65 the health of these top predators (Bustnes et al., 2015). POPs have been associated with

66 behavioural impairment, poor reproductive performance and lowered survival in seabirds  
67 (Gabrielsen, 2012).

68 Common and thick-billed murres are closely related alcids that often breed sympatrically  
69 in the Arctic. However, the birds have subtle differences in their feeding behavior. While primarily  
70 piscivorous, differences in feeding behavior and diving depths between these species have been  
71 identified. Common murres feed in the meso-pelagic closer to the colony while thick-billed murres  
72 dive deeper, also consuming benthic organisms, and forage farther from shore. This suggests  
73 that the birds have different trophic flexibility, i.e., thick-billed murres are more likely to swap food  
74 sources at different trophic levels (Ainley et al., 2002; Gaston and Hipfner, 2000). Thick-billed  
75 murres nesting in the Hudson Bay have shown altered trophic position (measured using stable  
76 isotopes of nitrogen) during 1993-2013, attributed to a change in diet, which altered contaminant  
77 temporal trends (Braune et al., 2015).

78 The role of trophic dynamics can be assessed using stable isotopes of carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and  
79 nitrogen ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ). Values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in consumer tissues reflects that of their diet. A stepwise  
80 increase in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  with each trophic level in marine ecosystems allows the use of this stable isotope  
81 as an indicator of trophic level (Sydeman et al., 1997). In marine systems,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values can provide  
82 insight into inshore or offshore foraging (Sydeman et al., 1997).

83 Using data obtained through the access policy of the Seabird Tissue Archival and  
84 Monitoring Project (STAMP – a multiple government agencies, academic institutions, non-  
85 governmental organizations, and Alaska Native communities program to use seabird tissues as  
86 a proxy for ocean and human health), we obtained levels of POPs: PCBs (36 congeners; 30  
87 analytes with co-elutions), seven organochlorine pesticides, and stable carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and  
88 nitrogen ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) isotopes in eggs from common and thick-billed murres collected between 1999  
89 and 2010 in Alaska (**SI Data**).

90 To study how contaminant levels correspond to changes in regional climate, we used the  
91 PDO index, which measures an east-west dipole pattern of SST variation in the North Pacific

92 Ocean (20N-65N) (Mantua and Hare, 2002; Newman et al., 2016), as a marker of climate  
93 variation. The index has positive values when the SST within 1000 km of the west coast of North  
94 America are warmer than normal and the SST in the western and central North Pacific Ocean off  
95 Japan are colder than normal, and negative when these conditions are reversed (Mantua and  
96 Hare, 2002).

## 97 2. Materials and methods

### 98 2.1. Sample Information

99 Common and thick-billed murre eggs were collected, processed and archived for STAMP using  
100 standard protocols (Rust et al., 2010; York et al., 2001). Data obtained through the access policy  
101 for 198 eggs collected from four colonies in Alaska that were sampled in at least three years  
102 between 1999 and 2010 were used for this study (**SI Data**).

103

### 104 2.2. Persistent organic pollutant analysis

105 Earlier publications describe the sample analysis in specific detail (Vander Pol et al., 2012, 2009,  
106 2004, 2003). Extraction of compounds of interest were accomplished by pressurized fluid  
107 extraction (PFE). Lipids were measured gravimetrically or directly determined separately using  
108 nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) technology before removal by size exclusion chromatography  
109 (SEC). Further clean-up may have been by aminopropylsilane liquid chromatography (LC) or solid  
110 phase extraction (SPE). Analysis was completed by gas chromatography (GC) with electron  
111 capture detection (ECD) or mass-spectrometry (GC/MS) with electron impact (EI) ionization for  
112 PCBs and selected pesticides and negative chemical ionization (NCI) for selected pesticides with  
113 selected ion monitoring mode for mass to charge (m/z) ratios as given in **SI Data**. The results  
114 were obtained as internal standard ratios in samples and calibration solutions. Quality control  
115 included three procedural blanks per batch of samples and SRM 1946 and an in-house egg  
116 control material (Vander Pol et al., 2007).

117

118 Data was reduced to those analytes with less than 20 % of the values below the Limit of  
119 Detection/Quantitation (LOD/LOQ), resulting in 36 PCBs (30 analytes with co-elutions): PCB  
120 28+31, 52, 56, 63, 66, 70, 74, 99, 101, 105, 106+118, 107, 128, 138, 146, 149, 153+132,  
121 156+202+171, 157, 158, 163, 170, 180+193, 183, 187, 194, 195, 201, 206, and 209 and seven  
122 organochlorine pesticides:  $\alpha$ -HCH (alpha-hexachlorocyclohexane), 4,4'-DDE  
123 (dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethylene), *cis*-nonachlor, HCB (hexachlorobenzene), heptachlor  
124 epoxide, mirex, and oxychlordan (**SI Data**).

125

### 126 2.3. Stable isotope analysis

127 Samples were analyzed at the Stable Isotope Hydrology and Ecology Research Laboratory facility  
128 (Environment and Climate Change Canada) for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  analyses using methods previously  
129 described by Hobson et al (2003). After the samples were freeze dried, lipids were extracted and  
130 extraction filtrates were dried under a fume hood for 24 hours. Values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  were  
131 obtained using continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometry (CFIRMS) on a Europa 20:20  
132 IRMS interfaced with a Robo Prep combustion system. The ratios were expressed in delta ( $\delta$ )  
133 notation relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) or AIR standards for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ,  
134 respectively.

135

### 136 2.4. The Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO)

137 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and the University of Washington track  
138 the Pacific decadal oscillations, and data is openly available at  
139 <http://research.jisao.washington.edu/pdo/>. As the birds are most likely gathering energy stores at  
140 the colony for egg laying between February and May, the mean of these months was used for  
141 analysis (**SI Data**).

142

143

144 2.5. Data Management

145 All data management was done in Stata 15.1 S/E (StataCorp, College Station, Texas). Datasets  
146 obtained from STAMP and the University of Washington with different variables were merged,  
147 providing the final dataset with values for the years 1999 through 2010. Contaminant levels at  
148 LOD/LOQ were replaced with  $(\text{LOD}/\text{LOQ})/\sqrt{2}$ . All contaminant levels were adjusted for lipid  
149 content, by dividing by lipid content, and were natural log-transformed.

150

151 2.6. Statistical analysis

152 2.6.1. *Linear spline regression:*

153 We created a spline knot at PDO (February to May) = 0, to allow for possible heterogeneity in the  
154 association between the cool and warm phase of PDO. We used cluster-robust standard errors  
155 to account for the non-independence of eggs collected from the same colony.

156

157 *Model specification for linear spline regression:*

158 For chemical (organochlorine pesticide, PCB congener, or stable isotope)  $c$  and for bird  $j$ ,  
159 lognormal lipid-adjusted biomarker or the isotope ratio  $b$ , Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) score  
160  $p$ , indicator variables  $I_{p<0}$  or  $I_{p>0}$  for when PDO is negative or positive, year  $t$ , and location  
161 indicators (Gulf of Alaska or Bering Sea)  $I_{l_1}, I_{l_2}$ : for bird  $j$ ,

162 
$$\ln b_{j,c} = \alpha + (I_{p<0})\beta_{c,1}(p_j) + (I_{p>0})\beta_{c,2}(p_j) + \beta_{c,3}(t_j) + \beta_{c,4}(t_j^2) + \beta_{c,5}(I_{l_1,j}) + \beta_{c,6}(I_{l_2,j}) + \varepsilon_{j,c}$$

163 
$$\varepsilon_{j,c} \sim N(0, \tau_c^2)$$

164 where  $\tau_c^2$  is the residual variance.

165

166 2.6.2. *Bayesian meta-analysis and meta-regression:*

167 Second-stage Bayesian meta-analysis or meta-regression models of the coefficients from the  
168 first-stage spline regression models were implemented using just another Gibbs sampler (JAGS)

169 in R (version 3.4.4) with packages *R2jags* (version 0.5-7 linked to JAG 4.3.0) and *coda* (version  
 170 0.19-1). We provide point estimates and their 95% credible intervals (statistical significance is  
 171 determined by whether the posterior 95% credible intervals include the null value.)

172

173 *Model specification for Bayesian meta-analysis:*

174 For PCB congener  $c$ , index  $k$  for whether pre/post knot association: ( $k=1: \hat{\beta}_{1,c}$ ,  $k=2: \hat{\beta}_{2,c}$ ), and  
 175 covariance matrix of estimates  $S_c$ ,

$$176 \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_{1,c} \\ \hat{\beta}_{2,c} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{1,c} \\ \theta_{2,c} \end{bmatrix}, S_c \right)$$

$$177 \theta_{1,c} \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$$

$$178 \theta_{2,c} \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

179 where  $\theta_{k,c}$  is the unobserved true effect,  $\mu_k$  is the average effect across PCB congeners, and  $\sigma_k^2$   
 180 is the between-congener heterogeneity variance. Weakly-informative priors were assigned to  
 181 parameters  $\mu_k$  and  $\sigma_k^2$  ( $\mu_k = \sigma_k^2 = 1 \times 10^{-4}$ )

182

183 *Meta-regression in thick-billed murres conditioning on the number of chlorine groups:*

184 For PCB congener  $c$ , index  $k$  for whether pre/post knot association: ( $k=1: \hat{\beta}_{1,c}$ ,  $k=2: \hat{\beta}_{2,c}$ ),  $x$  the  
 185 number of chlorine groups in the congener and covariance matrix of estimates  $S_c$

$$186 \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_{1,c} + \hat{a}_{1,c}(x_c) \\ \hat{\beta}_{2,c} + \hat{a}_{2,c}(x_c) \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{1,c} \\ \theta_{2,c} \end{bmatrix}, S_c \right)$$

$$187 \theta_{1,c} \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$$

$$188 \theta_{2,c} \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

189 All other assumptions remain the same as in the meta-analysis above.

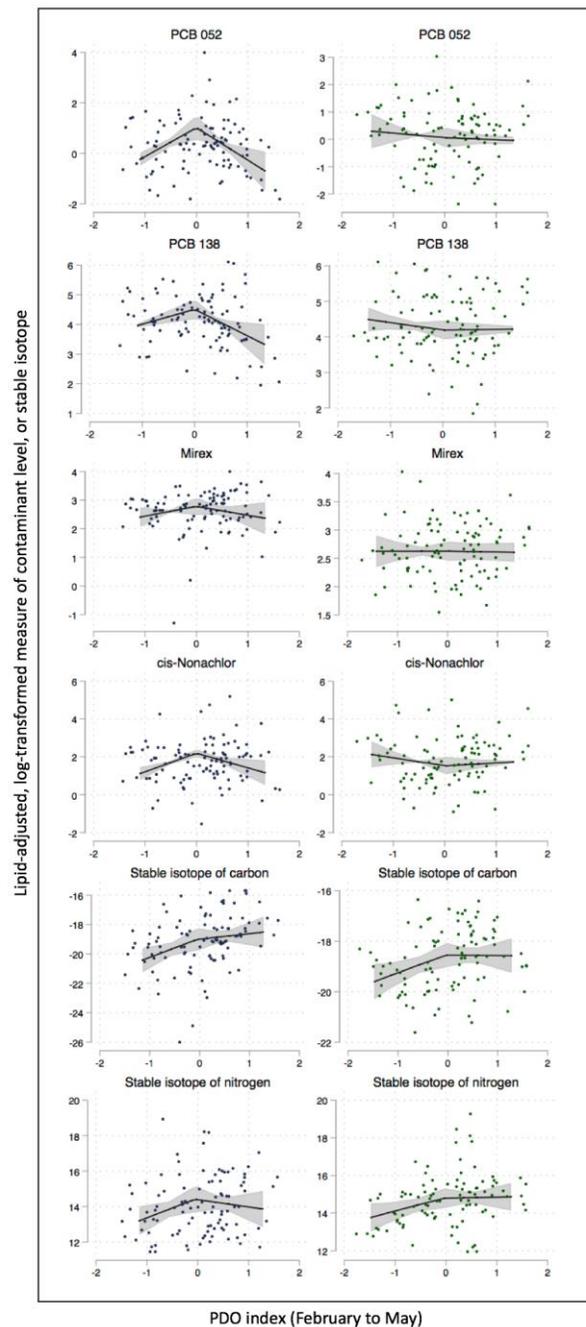
190

191 2.6.3. Sensitivity analysis:  
 192 We obtained monthly ocean sea  
 193 surface temperature anomalies for  
 194 latitudes ranging from 20°N to 90°N  
 195 from the NOAA Merged Land Ocean  
 196 Global Surface Temperature Analysis  
 197 Dataset (NOAAGlobalTemp) (Zhang  
 198 et al., 2019). The linear spline  
 199 regression model from 2.6.1. was  
 200 additionally adjusted for the average  
 201 sea surface temperature anomaly  
 202 from February to May during 1999 –  
 203 2010, and its squared term.

204

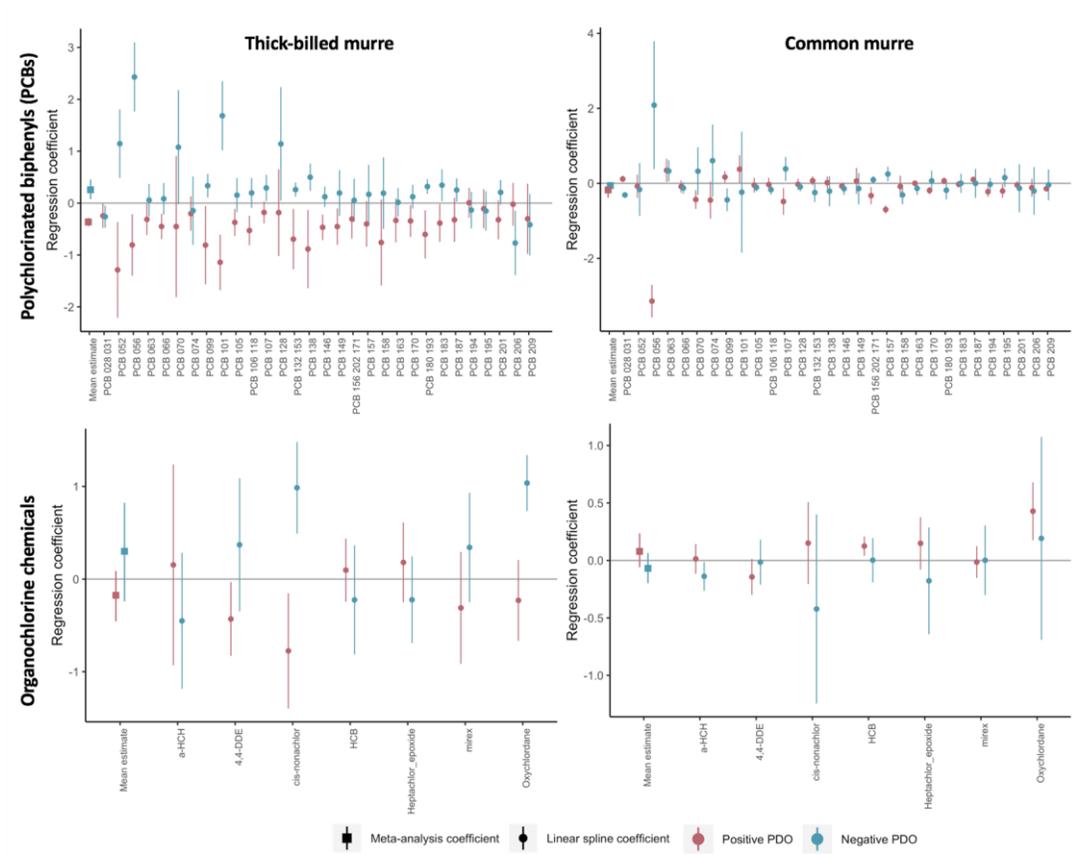
### 205 3. Results

206 In thick-billed murre, when  
 207 the PDO was in its cool phase, there  
 208 was a positive association between  
 209 the egg contamination by PCBs and  
 210 the PDO index (**Figure 1**). When the  
 211 PDO was in its warm phase, the levels  
 212 of PCBs in the egg was negatively  
 213 associated with the PDO index  
 214 (**Figure 1**). Levels of chlorinated  
 215 pesticides in thick-billed murre were  
 216 also negatively associated with the



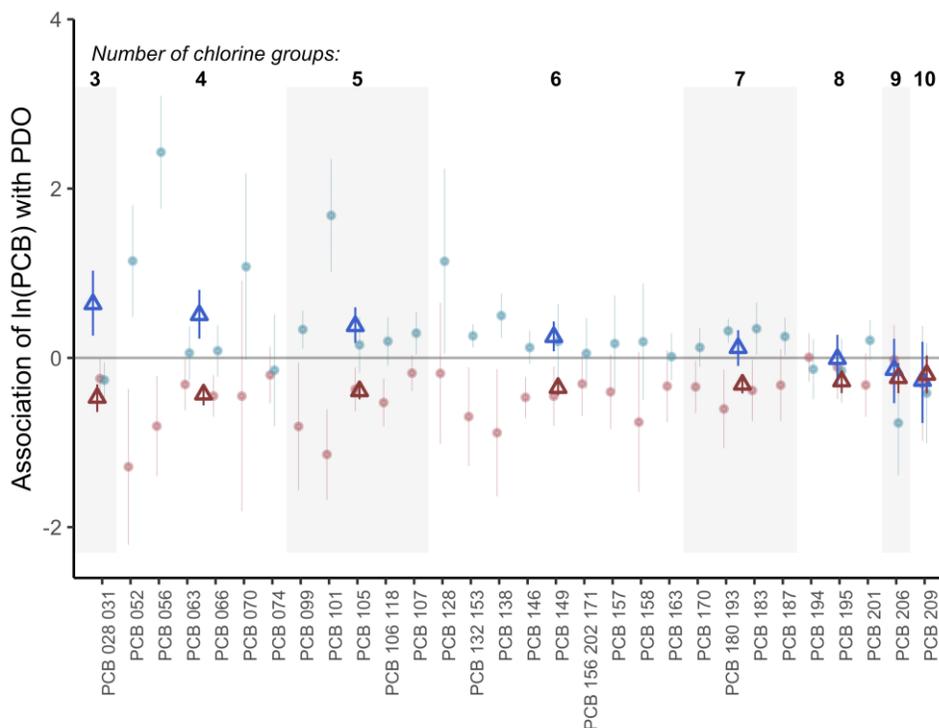
**Figure 1. Relationships between the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) index and the natural log-transformed levels of lipid-adjusted persistent organic pollutants, and stable isotopes ratios ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) in the eggs of thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*, in blue on the left) and common murre (*U. aalge*, in green on the right) collected from colonies in the Gulf of Alaska and Bering Sea between 1999 and 2010.** This plot illustrates the patterns for a few chemicals, results for additional chemicals are presented in Supplemental Figures S1 and S2. Associations were estimated using linear regression models with a spline knot at PDO index = 0 (separating the cool phase from the warm phase of the PDO), adjusted for year and for geographic region, with cluster-robust standard errors to account for the clustering of eggs within seabird colonies. Dots show observed data. The black line shows the expected value of a ln-transformed chemical at each value of the PDO index, adjusted for year and region, and the grey shaded region depicts the corresponding 95% confidence interval.

217 PDO index when the PDO was in its positive phase. In common murre, the associations between  
 218 all organochlorines and the PDO index were null, and did not differ by phase (**Figure 1**). The  
 219 inflection point (point of the curve at which a change in the direction of curvature occurs) of  
 220 contaminants around the neutral PDO in only thick-billed murre was not expected, but may be  
 221 related to species-specific differences in trophic structure and dynamics that change from the cool  
 222 to the warm phase.



**Figure 2. Associations between the PDO index and lipid-adjusted persistent organic pollutant biomarkers measured in bird eggs, adjusted for year and geographic region, differed according to bird species, chemical, and cool vs. warm phase of the PDO.** For thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*), an increase in the PDO index corresponded to higher levels of PCBs in eggs during the cool phase of PDO, and to lower levels of PCBs during the warm phase of the PDO, after adjusting for year and geographic region. Chlorinated pesticides showed a similar pattern in thick-billed murre. In contrast, there were not clear relationships of the PDO index to persistent organic pollutant levels in common murre (*U. aalge*) eggs, after adjusting for year and geographic region. The dots represent the estimate of association between levels of the transformed POP and PDO in the warm (pink) and cool (blue) phase. The lines around the points represent the 95% confidence interval. The mean estimate of association between each type of chemical (PCB or Organochlorine pesticide) and the warm (pink) and cool (blue) phase of the PDO determined by the Bayesian meta-regression are represented by the square points. The lines around the mean estimate represent the 95% credible interval.

223 The relationship between contaminant loads and the PDO index was consistent across  
 224 almost all PCB congeners and chlorinated pesticides in thick-billed murre (**Figure 2**). A Bayesian  
 225 meta-regression model (**Figure 3**) estimated that, on average across all PCB congeners, each  
 226 unit increase in the PDO index in its cool phase was associated with a 0.26 increase in geometric  
 227 mean ratio of PCBs (95% credible interval: 0.074 to 0.44). In the warm phase of PDO, each unit  
 228 increase in the PDO index was associated with a 0.38 (95% credible interval: -0.46 to -0.306)  
 229 decrease in geometric mean ratio of PCBs. Chlorinated pesticides showed a similar trend with



**Figure 3. PCB congeners with fewer chlorine groups had a larger difference between the positive and negative phases of the PDO in the expected association after adjustment for age and geographic region of the PDO index with lipid-adjusted PCB biomarker levels in thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*) eggs.** Regression coefficients from the linear spline models of ln-transformed PCB levels on the PDO index, adjusted for year and geographic region, for thick-billed murre eggs, were entered as outcomes into a second-stage bivariate normal Bayesian meta-regression model that included the number of chlorine groups in the PCB congener as a linear continuous predictor: see Methods text in 2.8.2 for additional model specification details. The expected relationship (i.e., regression coefficient of the PDO index to the ln-transformed PCB level region, adjusted for year and geographic region) for a congener with a given number of chlorine groups is represented as a triangle; vertical lines around the triangle show the 95% credible interval. The dots and vertical lines around the dots are repeated from Figure 2 and show the point estimates and 95% confidence intervals of the multivariable-adjusted associations of PDO with each PCB congener. During the cool phase of the PDO (shown in blue), as the number of chlorine groups on the PCB congener increased, the year-and-region-adjusted association of PDO with PCB biomarker levels became less positive. During the warm phase of the PDO (shown in red), the number of chlorine groups had a negligible effect on the year-and-region-adjusted relationship of PDO index to PCB biomarker levels.

230 the warm phase of PDO, a decrease of 0.19 in geometric mean ratio (95% credible interval: -  
231 0.452 to 0.031), and under cool phase PDO conditions, an increase of 0.47 (95% credible interval:  
232 -0.18 to 1.16). Further, in thick-billed murre, the mean association between PCB congener levels  
233 decreased with increasing number of chlorine groups in the congener (**Figure 3**).

234 In our study, both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values associated differently with the PDO index under  
235 warm and cool phases. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were positively associated with the cool phase of the  
236 PDO and negatively with the warm phase of PDO in common murre. In thick-billed murre,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
237 values were positively associated with both the cool and warm phase of the PDO. Similarly, the  
238 patterns of association between  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and the PDO index were found to be different between the  
239 two species. In common murre,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  was positively associated with both, the cool phase and the  
240 warm phase of PDO, while in thick-billed murre,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values are positively associated with the  
241 cool phase of PDO and negatively associated with the warm phase of PDO (**Figure 1**).

242 Sensitivity analysis adjusting for the effect of average sea surface temperature anomaly  
243 from February through May changed the relationship between PCB congeners and PDO in thick-  
244 billed murre and the meta-analysis coefficient no longer showed a clear trend between the  
245 association of PCB congener levels and the two phases of the PDO (**Figure S3**).

## 246 **Discussion**

247 Persistent, organic pollutants (POPs) are resistant to degradation and persist in the  
248 atmosphere, land, and aquatic environment. While a large proportion of these chemicals are  
249 emitted in warmer parts of the globe, the chemicals travel long distances toward cold parts, like  
250 the arctic (Burkow and Kallenborn, 2000; Jiménez et al., 2015; Klecka et al., 2000). The  
251 degradation, fate, and transport of these chemicals is dependent on atmospheric conditions and  
252 their physicochemical properties (Hansen et al., 2015). Several studies have attempted to predict  
253 how changes in atmospheric conditions due to climate change will affect their behavior in the  
254 environment. It is predicted that a higher mean temperature will cause a shift in the mass of these  
255 chemicals from surface media to the atmosphere, however, increased mean temperature is also

256 likely to increase the degradation of the chemicals. It remains unclear whether climate change  
257 will decrease or increase the environmental concentration of POPs (Hansen et al., 2015).

258         Studies have also considered the effect of changing SST on the bioaccumulation of POPs  
259 in the marine food web. The highly complex nature of biotic interactions and feedback processes  
260 makes this a difficult relationship to study (Walther, 2010). Changes in SST can have effects  
261 across all layers of the food web. It has been reported that the positive (warm) phase of ENSO  
262 (El Niño- Southern Oscillation) is associated with altered phytoplankton chlorophyll levels and  
263 primary production anomalies (Racault et al., 2017). A different study reported adverse effects on  
264 essential amino acid and fatty acid levels in a primary producer when artificially exposed to  
265 warmer and more acidic environments (Bermúdez et al., 2015). Altered health and biochemistry  
266 in these lower trophic level organisms can propagate changes across the food web as bottom-up  
267 effects through the ecological networks (Walther, 2010), thus also affecting the bioaccumulation  
268 of POPs in the network. Change in SST has also been associated with the ability of penguins, a  
269 high trophic-level organism, to capture prey (Carroll et al., 2016).

270         Our data suggest that the effect of the PDO index on the bioaccumulation of a POP  
271 depends on the physicochemical properties of the chemical and the trophic network. We find that  
272 in thick-billed murres, PCB congeners follow a similar pattern of association with the PDO index  
273 (Supplemental Figure 1) while this pattern was less pronounced in the organochlorine pesticides,  
274 some of which, like HCH, are more easily degraded than other members of this class. Common  
275 murres did not show a clear pattern of association with the PDO index in these two classes of  
276 chemicals (Supplemental Figure 2). We found that in thick-billed murres, during the cool phase of  
277 PDO, the estimated association between the PDO index and PCB levels decreased significantly  
278 as the number of chlorine groups increased, while during the warm phase of PDO, there was not  
279 significant variation in the PDO-PCB association according to the number of chlorine groups. The  
280 number of chlorine groups is a surrogate for the hydrophobicity and persistence of a PCB in the  
281 environment (Bruggeman et al., 1982).

282 We believe these overall findings are consistent with the idea that more environmentally  
283 persistent PCBs may be less sensitive to changing sea surface temperatures and vice versa as  
284 we observed different accumulation patterns in the eggs of thick-billed murrelets whose feeding  
285 habits may differ by sea surface temperature.

286 After adjusting for anomalous SST, we found that the relationship between the PDO index  
287 and chemical levels were changed. This suggests that SST anomaly is probably an important  
288 variable determining the pattern between PDO and chemical levels. However, the SST anomaly  
289 data were coarse and could make us susceptible to measurement error.

290 Findings from this study uncovered a complex relationship between climate variability and  
291 vulnerability to POPs in two sympatric Alaskan seabirds. The species-specific difference in  
292 relationship could be due to several reasons, including: differences in trophic structure and  
293 dynamics, changes in primary producers related to changes in sea-surface temperature, or  
294 changes in space use by the two species. The association of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and PDO revealed a pattern  
295 similar to the association between the PCB congeners and PDO seen in thick-billed murrelets. Thus,  
296 indicating that the observed pattern of bioaccumulation could be driven by changes in trophic  
297 dynamics. Feeding behavior in more extreme sea-surface temperature conditions were  
298 associated with lower levels of the contaminants in the eggs. The association of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  with PDO  
299 revealed a pattern consistent with known differences in foraging behaviors of the two species and  
300 relate to pelagic vs. more inshore foraging (Ainley et al., 2002; Gaston and Hipfner, 2000).

301 We were unable to account for other variables that may be associated with PDO and with  
302 the environmental fate and transport of POPs such as storms, sediment resuspension, and  
303 precipitation (Trenberth and Shea, 2005). Thermal inertia can induce a decoupling of anomalously  
304 cold winter temperatures in deep oceanic layers from summer SSTs. This “memory” of  
305 temperature can reemerge the following winter through entrainment at deep layers (Newman et  
306 al., 2016). The effect of trapped and lagged temperature on trophic structure would provide more  
307 information in teasing apart this relationship. Other changes in atmospheric chemistry and  
308 properties could affect both, the amount of POPs entering the food web, the distribution of fish,

309 and the PDO (Mueter et al., 2002; Nye et al., 2009). Furthermore, more mechanistic bioenergetics  
310 and food web modeling would enable a better understanding of factors affecting the observed  
311 trends.

312           A recent study found a similar negative association between sea surface temperature and  
313 accumulation of methylmercury in fish tissue measured from the Gulf of Maine (Schartup et al.,  
314 2019). When determining risk of exposure and adverse effects of POPs in seabirds, it will be  
315 important to account for differences in vulnerability that stem from changes in trophic structure,  
316 which are large enough to affect two sympatric birds in dissimilar ways. We would also expect  
317 this differential vulnerability to impact local populations that rely on their ecosystem for  
318 subsistence and their economy (Balbus et al., 2013; Lam et al., 2016). The stability of marine  
319 biospheres relies on many variables that can interact in multiple ways. Predicting their change  
320 under a changing climate is complicated by these interactions and by differently resilient  
321 behavioral ecology.

322 **Disclaimer**

323 Certain commercial products are identified in this paper to foster understanding. Such  
324 identification does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the National Institute of  
325 Standards and Technology, nor does it imply that the products identified are necessarily the best  
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338 (Stacy.Schuur@nist.gov).

339

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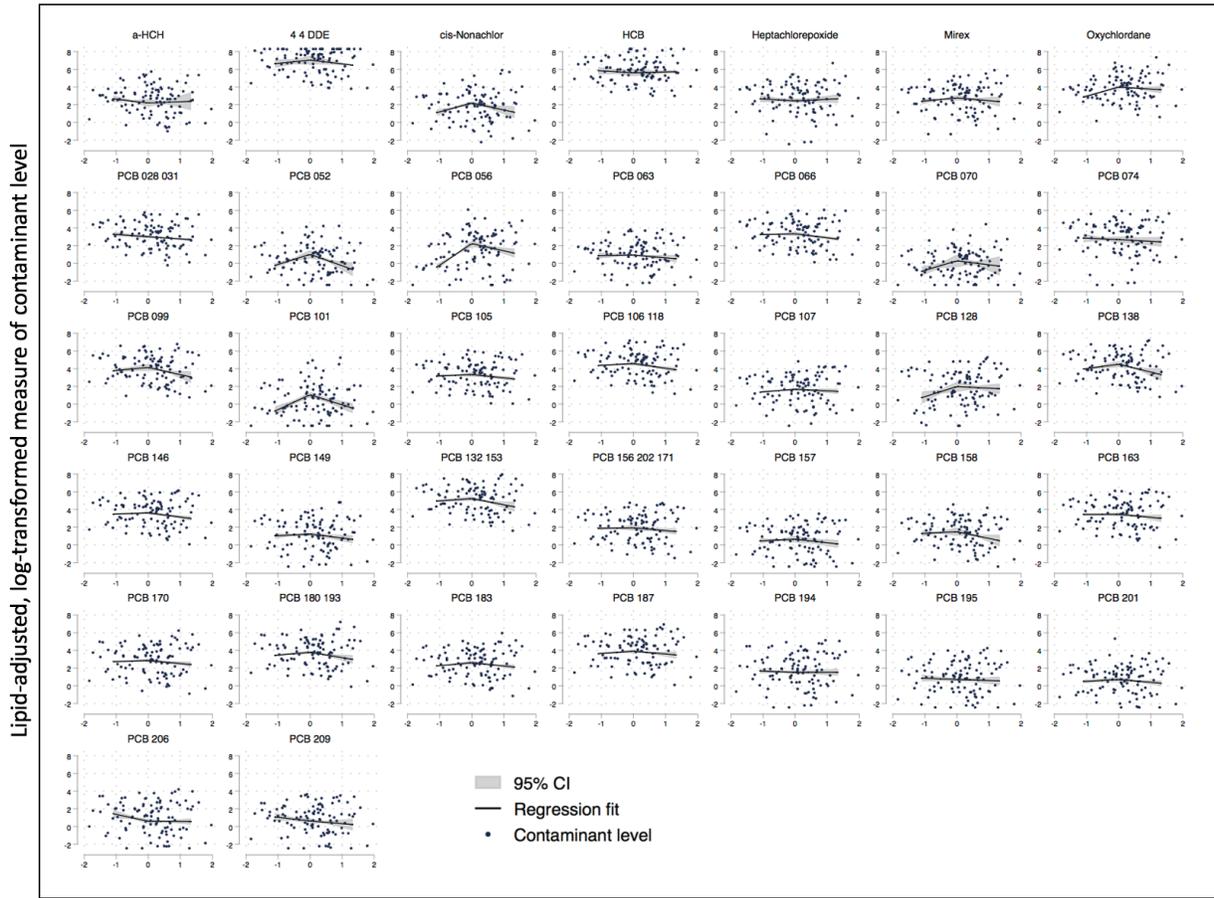
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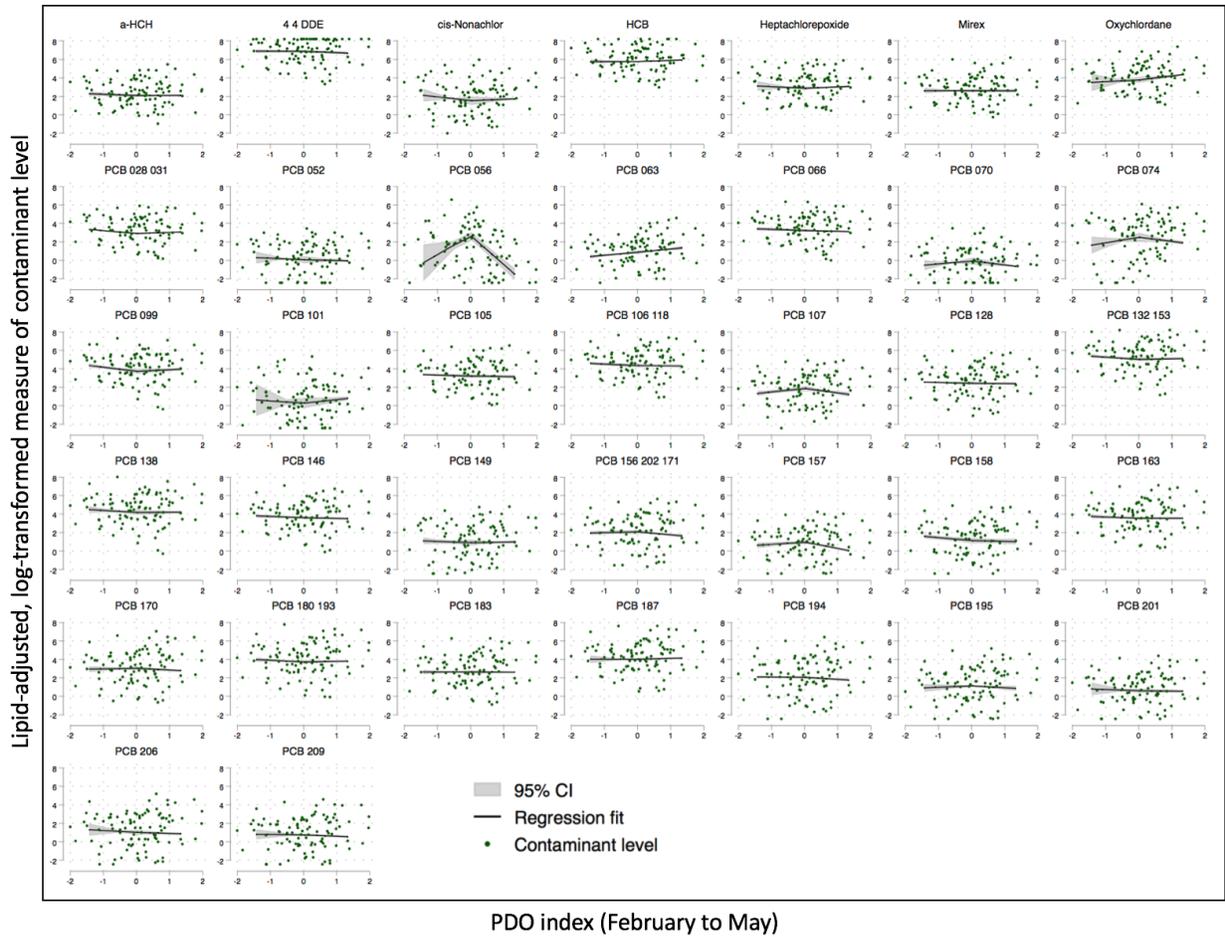
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490



PDO index (February to May)

492  
 493 **Figure S1.**  
 494 **Differential association of an oceanographic oscillation with chemical levels in thick-billed murre**  
 495 **(*Uria lomvia*) eggs depending on the sea surface temperature.** Persistent organic pollutants  
 496 measured in thick-billed murre eggs show different associations with a marker of climate variability, the Pacific  
 497 Decadal Oscillation (PDO). The plots show results of a linear spline regression models with cluster robust  
 498 standard errors that account for intra-colony correlation in eggs obtained from the same sea bird colony.  
 499 a-HCH: alpha-hexachlorocyclohexane, DDE: dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene, HCB:  
 500 hexachlorobenzene, PCB: polychlorinated biphenyl.



501

502

**Figure S2.**

503

**Differential association of an oceanographic oscillation with chemical levels in common murre**

504

**(*Uria aalge*) eggs depending on the sea surface temperature.** Persistent organic pollutants measured

505

in common murrens show different associations with a marker of climate variability, the Pacific Decadal

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Oscillation (PDO). The plots show results of a linear spline regression models with cluster robust standard

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errors that account for intra-colony correlation in eggs obtained from the same sea bird colony. a-HCH:

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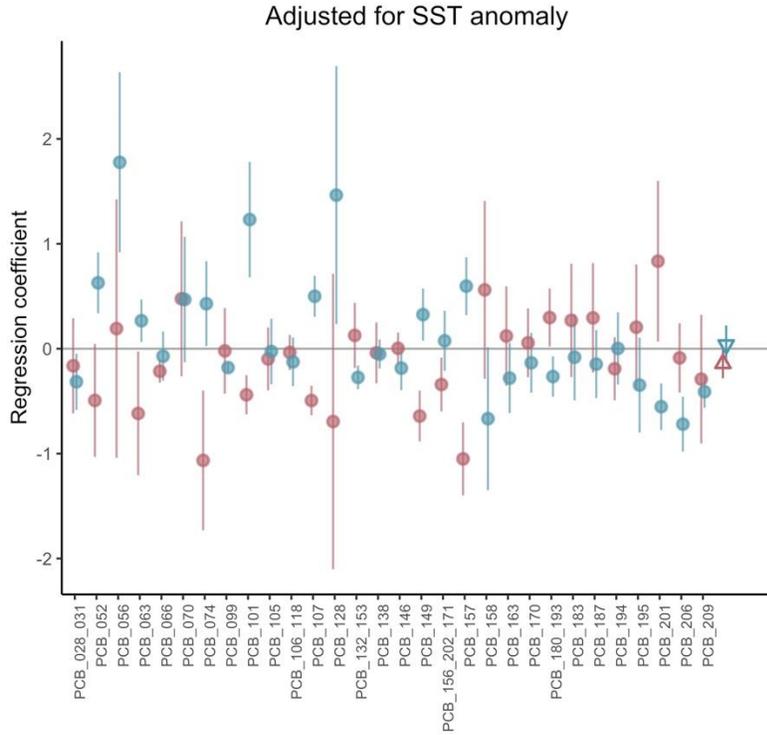
alpha-hexachlorocyclohexane, DDE: dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene, HCB: hexachlorobenzene, PCB:

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polychlorinated biphenyl.

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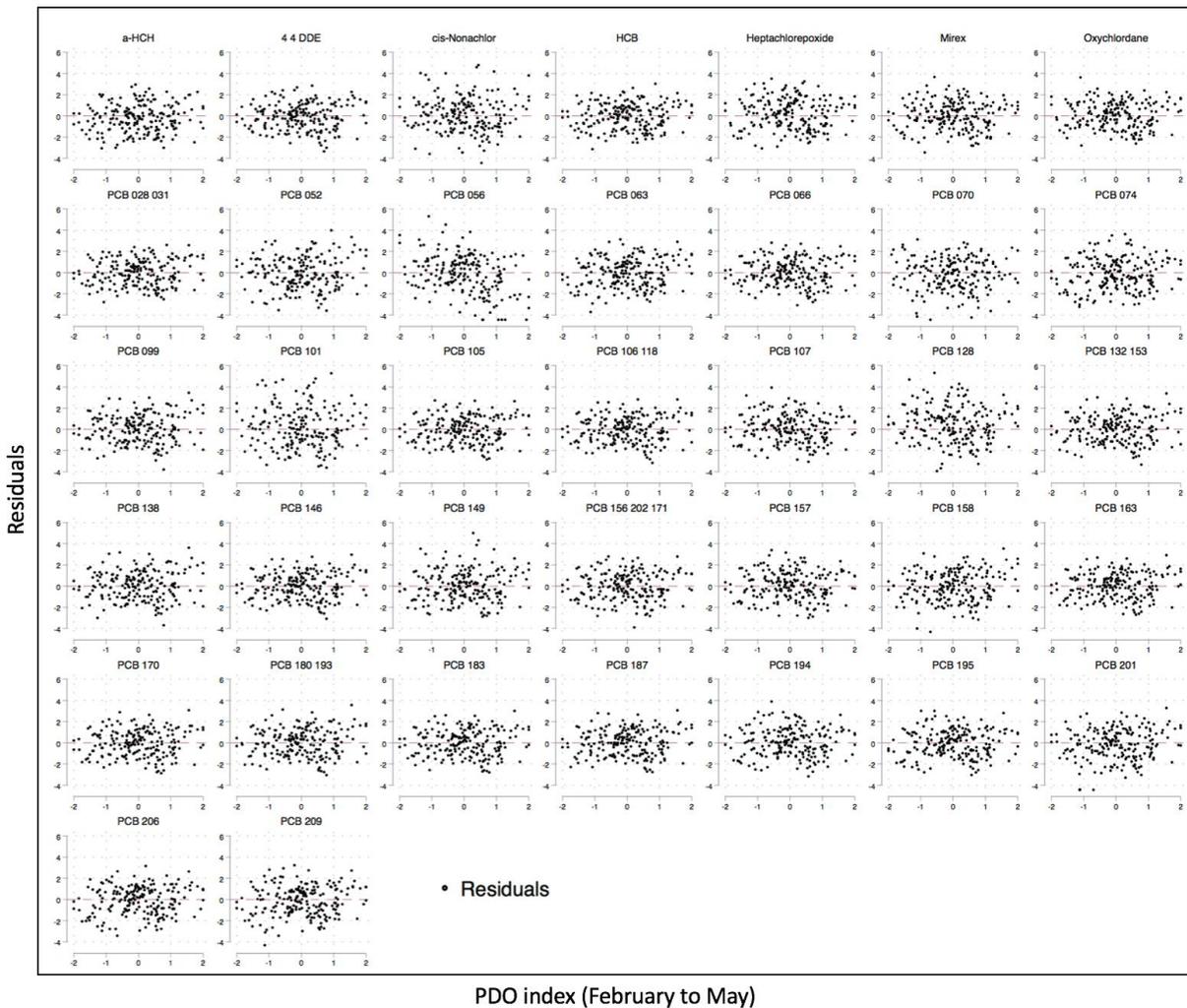
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513 **Figure S3.**

514 **Change in relationship between PCB congener and phase of PDO index after adjusting for SST**  
 515 **anomaly in thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*) eggs.** A sensitivity analysis after adjusting for average SST  
 516 anomaly between February and May changed the relationship between PCB congener and the phase of  
 517 PDO in thick-billed murres. The dots represent the estimate of association between the PCB congener on  
 518 the x-axis and the phase of PDO (pink for the warm phase and blue for the cool phase), the lines around  
 519 the dots represent the 95% confidence interval. The triangular points show the mean estimate of the  
 520 relationship between PCBs and the warm and cool phase of the PDO, determined through a Bayesian  
 521 meta-analysis (see section 2.6.2. for model specifications). The lines around the triangles represent the  
 522 95% credible interval for each estimate.



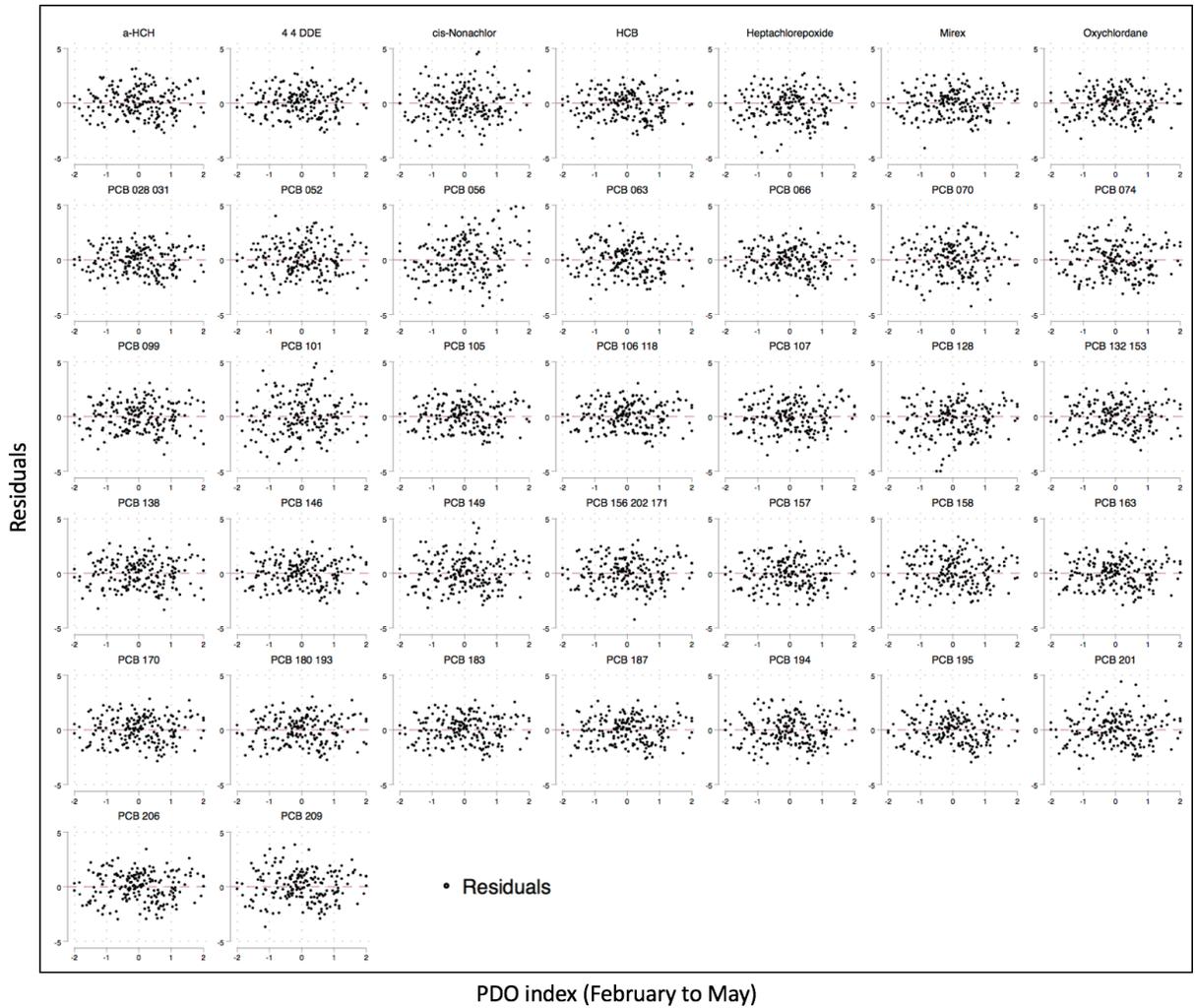
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**Figure S4.**

526 **Residual variable plots** from linear spline regression analysis in thick-billed murre (*Uria lomvia*) eggs. In  
 527 each plot, residuals from linear spline model (on y-axis) are plotted against the PDO index from February  
 528 to May. a-HCH: alpha-hexachlorocyclohexane, DDE: dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene, HCB:  
 529 hexachlorobenzene, PCB: polychlorinated biphenyl.

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**Figure S5.**

533 **Residual variable plots** from linear spline regression analysis in common murre (*Uria aalge*) eggs. In  
 534 each plot, residuals from linear spline model (on y-axis) are plotted against the PDO index from February  
 535 to May. a-HCH: alpha-hexachlorocyclohexane, DDE: dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene, HCB:  
 536 hexachlorobenzene, PCB: polychlorinated biphenyl.

537

538

539 **Supplemental data S1 (excel workbook)**

540 Please contact VK for questions about the codebook or the code used.

541

542 **Code S1 (separate file)**

543 The stata.txt file contains STATA code that can import the data file, run spline regression, and create  
544 spline regression plots and their associated residual plots.

545

546 **Code S2 (separate file)**

547 The R.txt file contains R code that take in coefficients generated from spline regression and generates a  
548 forest plot. It also contains code for the Bayesian meta-analysis and meta-regression.

549