

1 **Exposure of black-necked grebes (*Podiceps nigricollis*) to metal pollution during the moulting**
2 **period in the Odiel Marshes, Southwest Spain**

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26 **Abstract**

27 European populations of black-necked grebes (*Podiceps nigricollis*) congregate every year to
28 moult at the salt ponds of the Odiel Marshes (SW Spain). However, the Odiel Marshes are part of
29 one of the most metal-polluted coastal estuaries in the world, which may pose risks to wildlife. We
30 assessed the exposure of grebes to metal pollution during the critical moulting period in the Odiel
31 Marshes and its potential to cause adverse health effects. Levels of metals in red blood pellet (as a
32 biomarker of exposure), plasma carotenoids, eye redness, and body condition (as biomarkers of
33 effects) were studied. Metal content was also analyzed in the brine shrimp *Artemia*
34 *parthenogenetica*, the most important food for grebes in this hypersaline ecosystem during the
35 moulting period. Results showed that, in comparison to toxicity thresholds, grebes had relatively
36 high blood levels of arsenic (As), mercury (Hg) and zinc (Zn). The high loads found in *Artemia* and
37 the way blood levels vary during the moulting period indicate that shrimp consumption may be
38 the main route of metal exposure for grebes. Plasma carotenoids and body condition showed a
39 positive association with exposure to As, while the relationship of lutein-like carotenoids with Hg
40 accumulation was negative at the beginning of the moulting period to become positive
41 afterwards. Moreover, eye redness was negatively affected by As accumulation. Factors including
42 food resource availability, seasonal fluctuations in physiological status, and interannual variations
43 in the degree of environmental contamination should be considered in monitoring efforts when
44 using moult migrant waterbirds as sentinel species.

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46

47 *Keywords:* Waterbirds, *Artemia*, Body condition, Carotenoids, Eye redness, Metal pollution

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50

51 Moulting is a critical life-history event in the annual life cycle of birds since it requires a
52 considerable amount of time and resources (energy and proteins), carrying important
53 physiological costs (Barta et al., 2008). For many waterbirds, the most important moult occurs just
54 after the breeding season and consists of the simultaneous replacement of their wing feathers,
55 which renders them completely flightless for a period. In some species, this moulting period is
56 associated with a migration to specific habitats, far from breeding areas, where animals can meet
57 those high biological requirements. These moulting waterbirds typically select wetlands that
58 provide the basic necessities for survival without the immediate need to fly, including sufficient
59 food resources to meet their nutritional demands (moulting and accumulation of fat reserves
60 before moving to wintering areas), shelter and safety (reduced risk of predation) (Gehrold, 2014).
61 These bird species have also developed several physiological adaptations that increase their
62 chances of survival (Fox and Kahlert, 2005; Portugal et al., 2007). However, flightless waterbirds
63 may be vulnerable to anthropogenic disturbance occurring at wetlands during this sensitive
64 period, such as environmental pollution. The release of contaminants into these fragile habitats
65 may involve the impoverishment in water quality with the consequent impacts on their ecological
66 processes and functions. Thus, these habitats can become ecological traps for their dependent
67 biodiversity (Battin, 2004) because of the negative effects on the health and survival of exposed
68 wildlife populations (Kingsford et al., 2016).

69 The black-necked grebe (*Podiceps nigricollis*) is probably the avian species that forms the
70 largest aggregations during moulting throughout its worldwide range. In Europe, about 10,000
71 grebes from breeding areas across the continent may congregate from August to December at the
72 salt ponds of the Odiel Marshes in Southwest Spain (province of Huelva, Andalusia), one of the
73 most important moulting sites for European populations of the species. During this period, the

74 brine shrimp *Artemia parthenogenetica* is the most important food item for grebes (Varo et al.,
75 2011). Grebes adjust foraging effort during the moulting period in line with the progressive
76 decrease in brine shrimp biomass and water temperature, contributing to the natural decline in
77 *Artemia* abundance and causing grebes to move to wintering areas when they can no longer meet
78 their energy requirements (Varo et al., 2011). Grebes also adopt body mass accumulation
79 strategies according to the timing of the moult, i.e., delayed moulters acquire greater fat stores in
80 advance of moult to contribute to feather replacement and in anticipation of failing food supplies
81 (decline in *Artemia* population) late in the moulting season (Fox et al., 2013).

82 The Odiel Marshes, together with the estuary formed at the confluence of the rivers Odiel
83 and Tinto, are considered some of the most metal-polluted areas in the world (Vallés et al., 2017).
84 The main pollution source is past/present mining activity in the Iberian Pyrite Belt (located in
85 Northern Huelva), which is one of the largest polymetallic sulphide deposits in the world.
86 Additional pollution emerges from a large industrial chemical complex at the lower end of the
87 estuary, which discharges toxic waste into the Tinto river (Pérez-López et al., 2011; Nieto et al.,
88 2013). The oxidation of mining residues produces upstream acid mine drainage with high levels of
89 several metals and metalloids (hereafter referred as metals or elements) which reaches the Odiel
90 and Tinto river basin. This results in the accumulation of high levels of arsenic (As), mercury (Hg),
91 lead (Pb), cadmium (Cd), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and other metals in estuarine water and sediments
92 (Beltrán et al., 2010; Vallés et al., 2017). Previous work regarding exposure of wildlife to metal
93 pollution in the Odiel and Tinto estuary is scarce but has considered oysters, mussels (Funes et al.,
94 2006) and fish (Usero et al., 2004). However, few studies have examined native waterbirds
95 (Borghesi et al., 2011; Rubio et al., 2016), even though waterbird diversity is central to legal
96 protections place in the area (Vallés et al., 2017). Another reason to investigate metal pollution in
97 birds like the black-necked grebe is that high-level predators tend to bioaccumulate greater
98 amounts of toxic substances in their tissues than organisms lower in the food chain. Thus, these

99 types of waterbirds are considered especially useful, sensitive and accessible sentinels to evaluate
100 ecological and health risks from pollutants in aquatic ecosystems (Zhang and Ma, 2011; Stankovic
101 et al., 2014).

102 Here, the exposure of the grebes in the Odiel Marshes to metal pollution during the critical
103 moulting period is evaluated alongside its potential to compromise their health. For this purpose,
104 levels of metals in blood pellets were studied as biomarkers of exposure (Ortiz-Santaliestra et al.,
105 2015), while levels of plasma carotenoids, eye redness (ornamental carotenoid-based coloration)
106 and a mass/length body condition index were selected as biomarkers of potential subclinical
107 health effects. Metal content was also studied in *Artemia* as a potential key source of metal
108 exposure in the grebes. The main objectives were (1) to determine whether metal exposure
109 changed during the moulting period, studying the role of moult status and *Artemia* in temporal
110 variations; (2) to interpret the level of exposure in relation to certain toxicity thresholds; and (3) to
111 analyse how selected biomarkers vary as a function of metal accumulation in order to evaluate the
112 potential impact of metal exposure on grebes' health.

113

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115

116 *2.1. Study area*

117 The study was conducted in the Odiel Marshes (37°14'N, 6°57'W), which comprises of an
118 estuarine complex (7185 ha) at the mouth of the Odiel and Tinto rivers in the province of Huelva
119 (Southwest Spain). This estuarine complex includes 1174 ha of salt pans where seawater is pumped
120 from primary to secondary evaporation ponds and then to crystallizers (Sánchez et al., 2006). The
121 evaporation ponds are used as moulting sites by black-necked grebes every year between August
122 and December (Varo et al., 2011; Fox et al., 2013; Amat et al., 2014). Here, fieldwork was
123 conducted in four adjacent ponds with similar salinity, representative of the salt pan area. Water

124 level in these ponds is usually <1 m, and brine shrimp is the most abundant aquatic invertebrate
125 (Sánchez et al., 2006).

126

127 *2.2. Grebe trapping and sample collection*

128 A total of 180 grebes caught for ringing from October to December 2008 (n=127) and in
129 August and November 2009 (n=53) were used in the present study. Day of capture (based on the
130 number of days from the 1st of January each year) ranged from 225 (August) to 341 (December).
131 Some birds were recaptured (n=18: captured first in October and recaptured in November 2008),
132 but only data from the initial capture were considered for analyses. However, metal exposure in
133 recaptured birds was also compared with that from the initial capture. Captured grebes were aged
134 according to iris coloration following Storer and Jehl (1985) and categorized as juveniles (≤ 1 year
135 old; iris tan with an orange tint; captured in October: n=13; and November: n=4) and adults (>1
136 year old; iris orange to orange-red; captured in August: n=29; October: n=50; November: n=54;
137 and December: n=30). Sex was also determined (for sexing procedures see Amat et al., 2014 and
138 Sáez-Gómez et al., 2017). Depending on the state of the remiges, a total of 166 birds could be
139 clearly assigned to one of three categories in terms of moult status: unmoulted (still with old
140 feathers), moulting (actively moulting) and moulted (already with new feathers). Unmoulted
141 grebes (n=9) were captured throughout the moulting period, from August to December; moulting
142 grebes (n=41) were mostly detected in August (63.4%) and October (34.1%); and moulted grebes
143 (n=116) were primarily identified in October (28.4%), November (44.8%) and December (25.0%).

144 Blood samples, taken by puncturing a tarsus vein, were stored in heparinized vials and kept
145 refrigerated until processed in the laboratory the same day. Blood samples were centrifuged at
146 10000 g for 5 min at 4°C to separate plasma from the blood pellet, and both samples were
147 immediately frozen at -80°C until analysis. The time elapsed between blood collection in the field
148 and storage of the pellet and plasma sample at -80°C was 3-4 h.

149

150 2.3. Elemental analysis

151 Blood pellets (0.2-2 g; n=180) were used to quantify metal exposure. Samples were freeze-
152 dried (Christ Alpha 1-2, Braun Biotech), then acid-digested in Pyrex tubes using a heating block
153 (Micro, for 40 tubes, Selecta) following the methodology described by Rodríguez-Estival et al.
154 (2011), and analysed for As, Hg, Pb, Cd, Cu and Zn. Digest solutions were diluted to a final volume
155 of 15 ml with Milli-Q grade water. The analysis of Pb, Cd and As in digests was achieved using
156 graphite furnace atomic absorption spectroscopy (GF-AAS; AAnalyst 800, Perkin Elmer). The
157 analysis of Cu and Zn was undertaken using a flame-AAS system (AAnalyst 800, Perkin Elmer). Hg
158 analysis was achieved using the cold vapor technique and a hydride generation system (MHS-15,
159 Perkin-Elmer) coupled to the AAS. Calibration standards were prepared from certified commercial
160 solutions (Panreac).

161 Blanks (n=9) and certified reference material (lobster hepatopancreas: TORT-2, National
162 Research Council, Canada; n=9) were also processed and analyzed to identify potential laboratory
163 contamination and to evaluate method accuracy. Limits of detection (LOD, in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight,
164 back-calculated to in tissue concentrations) were 0.054 (As), 0.053 (Hg), 0.034 (Pb), 0.003 (Cd),
165 0.001 (Cu) and 0.001 (Zn). Recovery (mean \pm SD) of the certified reference material was 93.7 \pm 8.3%
166 (As), 90.7 \pm 13.0% (Hg), 100.5 \pm 21.3% (Pb), 95.8 \pm 4.0% (Cd), 93.7 \pm 1.7% (Cu), and 105.9 \pm 10.7% (Zn).
167 Dry residue (mean \pm SD) of digested samples was 36.06 \pm 1.92%. Final metal concentrations are
168 reported in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight (d.w.).

169

170 2.4. *Artemia* sampling and elemental analysis

171 *A. parthenogenetica* (adults) sampling was conducted in April 2014 in a 0.5 m deep channel
172 receiving water from secondary evaporation ponds where grebes moult every year at the Odiel
173 salt pans (Sánchez et al. 2006). Samples were collected from 4 different points within the water

174 body at a depth of ~30 cm using a 0.5 mm mesh net. Water salinity was 160 g/L. In the laboratory,
175 *Artemia* samples were dried to constant weight and then digested using an Anton Paar Multiwave
176 Pro microwave digestion system with a 24 Teflon vessel carousel. Dry samples (0.2-0.5 g) were
177 added to vessels and high purity concentrated HNO₃ (2 ml) was then added for a pre-digestion
178 step overnight at room temperature. The next day, after the addition of high purity hydrogen
179 peroxide (0.5 ml), vessels were sealed and heated for 2 hours at 160°C. Finally, digests were
180 diluted to 14 ml with H₂O (Milli-Q grade) and stored at 4°C until analysis.

181 *Artemia* digests were analyzed for a suite of 11 metals, including As, Pb, Cd, Cu, Zn, cobalt
182 (Co), chromium (Cr), manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), nickel (Ni), and selenium (Se), using
183 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES). Blanks (n=3) and certified
184 reference materials (lobster hepatopancreas: TORT-2, National Research Council, Canada; n=2)
185 were processed and analyzed with the *Artemia* samples. Limits of detection (LOD, in µg/g dry
186 weight, back-calculated to in sample concentrations) were 0.036 (As), 0.017 (Pb), 0.005 (Cd), 0.005
187 (Cu), 0.009 (Zn), 0.007 (Co), 0.002 (Cr), 0.012 (Mn), 0.010 (Mo), 0.011 (Ni), and 0.044 (Se).
188 Recovery (mean±SD) of the certified reference material was 91.3±10.5% (As), 104.7±8.4% (Pb),
189 95.9±2.2% (Cd), 93.6±15.3% (Cu), 94.7±8.4% (Zn), 90.5±6.5% (Co), 90.1±13.1% (Cr), 88.0±11.1%
190 (Mn), 98.0±6.0% (Mo), 90.4±9.2% (Ni), and 102.8±6.4% (Se). Results are given in ng/g d.w.

191

192 2.5. Determination and quantification of plasma carotenoids

193 Carotenoids were extracted from a subset of plasma samples (n=139) as described by Blanco
194 et al. (2013). Briefly, a plasma aliquot (100 µl) was lyophilised and the carotenoid pigments were
195 extracted from the dry residue with 100 µl of N,N-dimethylformamide for 60 min, including
196 sonication for 5 min every 20 min (three times). The resulting extract was analyzed by high-
197 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) following Mínguez-Mosquera and Hornero-Méndez
198 (1993) with some modifications (Blanco et al., 2013). The chromatographic analysis was carried

199 out on the same day as the preparation of the extracts. All work was carried out under dimmed
200 light to prevent isomerization and photodegradation of carotenoids. Concentration of plasma
201 carotenoids is expressed in $\mu\text{g/ml}$.

202 The identification of the carotenoid pigments was carried out following standard
203 procedures, including co-chromatography with standards, acquisition of UV-visible spectra, as well
204 as chemical derivatization microscale tests for the examination of some functional groups
205 (hydroxyl and carbonyl) (Schiedt and Liaaen-Jensen, 1995; Eugster, 1995). The chromatographic,
206 spectroscopic and chemical properties of the pigments were compared with authentic carotenoid
207 samples and with data available in the literature (Britton, 1991, 1995; Britton et al., 2004).
208 Authentic pigment samples of carotenoids were isolated from natural sources: β -carotene, β -
209 cryptoxanthin and zeaxanthin were obtained from red pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.) and lutein
210 from mint leaves (*Mentha arvensis* L.). Canthaxanthin was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and G.
211 Britton (School of Biological Sciences, University of Liverpool, UK) provided the echinenone
212 standard. The identification of *cis* isomers of lutein and zeaxanthin was based on the spectroscopic
213 and chromatographic data: the presence and relative intensity of the *cis* peak at about 330-340
214 nm in the UV-visible spectrum; the reduction in the fine structure and a small hypsochromic shift
215 in λ_{max} with respect to the *all-trans* isomer; and the chromatographic behavior in the C18 reversed
216 phase HPLC column (the *cis* isomers are slightly more retained than the *all-trans* isomer; Britton,
217 1995).

218 Quantitative analysis of carotenoids was carried out using HPLC according to the method
219 described by Mínguez-Mosquera and Hornero-Méndez (1993) with some modifications. The
220 system consisted of a Waters e2695 Alliance HPLC fitted with a Waters 2998 photodiode array
221 detector, all controlled with Empower2 software (Waters Cromatografía, S.A., Barcelona, Spain). A
222 C18 reversed phase analytical column (Mediterranea SEA18, 200 mm \times 4.6 mm i.d., 3 μm ;
223 Teknokroma, Barcelona, Spain) was used. Separation was achieved using binary-gradient elution

224 and an initial composition of 75% acetone and 25% deionised water. This was increased linearly to
225 95% acetone over 10 min, then to 100% over 2 min, and maintained for 10 min (the return to
226 initial conditions then took 5 min). An injection volume of 20 μ l and a flow rate of 1 ml/min were
227 used. Detection was performed at 450 nm, and the online spectra were acquired in the 350-700
228 nm wavelength range. Quantification was carried out using external standard calibration curves
229 prepared with zeaxanthin, lutein, canthaxanthin, echinenone, β -cryptoxanthin and β -carotene
230 standards. Calibration curves were prepared between 0.5 - 50.0 μ g/ml, and constructed by
231 plotting the peak area at 450 nm versus the pigment concentration. The calibration curves of *all-*
232 *trans* isomers were also used to determine the concentration of the *cis* isomers.

233

234 2.6. Eye redness measurement

235 From the same subset of 139 individuals, we took a picture of the right eye in RAW format
236 using a Canon EOS-400 digital camera equipped with a Canon EFS 18-55 mm macro lens. All
237 pictures were taken against a neutral grey standard (Lastolite Ezybalance, 30 cm, 18% reflectance).
238 For each picture we selected a region of interest in the iris: a square between the pupil and the
239 border's eye free of glossiness (averaging around 1500 pixels). We used the SpotEgg tool (Gómez
240 and Liñán-Cembrano, 2017) to linearize and normalize the images using the grey standard and to
241 obtain the reflectance in the visible spectra (channels R, G and B). The eye redness was calculated
242 as $R/(R+G+B)$, producing a value between 0 and 1.

243

244 2.7. Determination of body condition index

245 Several body measurements, including the head-bill length and tarsus length (± 0.01 mm;
246 both measured with a digital caliper), wing length (± 0.1 mm) and body mass (± 0.1 g), were taken
247 from 177 individuals. Body condition was calculated according to the Scaled Mass Index (SMI)
248 proposed by Peig and Green (2009) using the body mass and head-bill length. The scaling

249 exponent b_{SMA} value (3.15) was calculated from the SMA regression of log-transformed body mass
250 on head-bill length based on data collected during summer-autumn ringing campaigns carried out
251 between 2005 and 2010 ($n=3033$) in the Odiel Marshes. A head-bill length of 56.91 mm,
252 corresponding to the arithmetic mean value of the studied grebe population, was used as the L_0
253 value to standardize the index. This species has a degree of sexual dimorphism, but not enough to
254 sex birds reliably in the hand (for details, see Amat et al., 2014, Sáez-Gómez et al., 2017). For this
255 reason, gender was not taken into account when calculating the SMI.

256

257 *2.8. Statistical analysis*

258 For statistical purposes, metal concentrations $<LOD$ were assigned a value of half of the
259 respective LOD for each element. Statistical analyses were conducted after testing for normality
260 (Shapiro-Wilk normality test) and homogeneity of variance (Levene test) for each variable, and log-
261 transforming (natural logarithm) those variables that did not display a normal distribution. All tests
262 were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0 software. Significance was set at the 0.05 level.

263 Temporal changes in metal exposure during the moulting period were studied through
264 General Linear Models (GLMs), including the month of capture (August vs. October vs. November
265 vs. December) as a predictor term. Gender (males vs. females), age (juveniles vs. adults) and moult
266 status (unmoulted vs. moulting vs. moulted) were also tested in the models to consider potential
267 biases. A backward stepwise procedure was used to find the best-fit model, sequentially removing
268 non-significant interactions and terms and maintaining non-significant terms included in
269 significant interactions (Vittinghoff et al., 2005). When a significant temporal variation was
270 detected, specific differences between the months and moult status (when appropriate) were
271 studied through post-hoc Tukey tests. These models were also analyzed after removing the
272 smallest subgroups of individuals (1 un-moulted and 2 moulted birds in August, 2 un-moulted and 1
273 moulting birds in November, and 1 un-moulted bird in December) in order to avoid statistical

274 misinterpretation in the effect of moult status caused by such low number of birds. Differences in
275 metal exposure between years (we only had data for November for both years) were also tested
276 for each variable separately using one-way ANOVAs to consider potential interannual variations.
277 When a difference between years was detected for any variable, models including the variable
278 were explored both considering data collected in the two ringing campaigns and excluding those
279 from 2009. Metal exposure in recaptured birds (November 2008) was explored and compared
280 (one-way repeated measures analysis of variance) with exposure from the initial capture (October
281 2008) in order to support the interpretation of results. The effects of metal exposure on
282 carotenoid status, eye coloration and body condition were evaluated with GLMs with each
283 response as dependent variable, and initially including the same factors as reported above for
284 metal statistical analyses. Metal concentrations in blood pellet were separately included in these
285 models as covariates. Best-fit model selection was performed as described above.

286

287 **3. Results**

288

289 *3.1. Metal residues in grebe blood pellet and Artemia*

290 Blood As in grebes increased from October through to December ($F_{3,169}=32.13$, $p<0.001$;
291 **Table 1**), such progression being explained by moulted birds ($F_{2,111}=54.30$, $p<0.001$; **Fig. 1**). Initially,
292 the interaction “Month of capture × Moulting status” was significant, revealing that in August,
293 moulting grebes had lower As than those moulted, and in November, unmoulted grebes had
294 higher As than those moulted ($F_{3,155}=9.84$, $p<0.001$). However, this effect disappeared from the
295 model when the smallest subgroups of individuals were removed from the analysis. For Hg, blood
296 levels were higher in August and November than in October and December ($F_{3,176}=6.66$, $p<0.001$;
297 **Table 1**). For As, the interaction “Month of capture × Moulting status” was significant in the model
298 and revealed that, in August, moulting grebes had lower As than those moulted, and in November,

299 unmoulted grebes had higher As than those moulted. Levels of Pb increased from August through
300 to November and decreased again in December (to similar levels as in October; $F_{3,176}=7.81$,
301 $p<0.001$; **Table 1**). Levels of Cu increased in December with respect to the rest of the moulting
302 period ($F_{3,176}=4.88$, $p=0.003$; **Table 1**), whereas Zn levels, which were over 5% lower in males than
303 in females ($p<0.001$), decreased considerably in October, especially in females, in comparison with
304 the rest of the moulting period ($F_{3,175}=36.67$, $p<0.001$; **Fig. 2**).

305 Three individuals showed extremely high levels of Hg (23.71, 28.38 and 85.76 $\mu\text{g/g d.w.}$,
306 respectively), and one bird showed a particularly high level of Pb (1.09 $\mu\text{g/g d.w.}$); these were
307 excluded from the analysis above. Levels of Cd were above the analytical LOD in only six grebes
308 (mean \pm SE of 5.60 ± 1.5 ng/g d.w.). Grebes captured in November 2009 had higher As, Hg, Cu and Zn
309 levels than those captured in November 2008, whereas the opposite was observed for Pb levels
310 (all $F_{1,56}\geq 5.51$, all $p\leq 0.022$). However, none of these interannual differences biased the pattern
311 presented above. Grebes recaptured in November 2008 had higher Hg, Pb and Zn levels than
312 when they were initially captured in October 2008, whereas the opposite was observed for Cu (all
313 $F_{1,34}\geq 7.37$, all $p\leq 0.010$; **Fig. 3**). Age had no effects on metal levels.

314 Element concentrations in *A. parthenogenetica* from the Odiel Marshes are shown in **Table**
315 **2**.

316

317 3.2. Association of health-indicative responses with metal accumulation in grebes

318 Lutein-like carotenoids and *trans*-zeaxanthin were affected by metal exposure (**Table 3**).
319 Lutein-like carotenoids showed a negative relationship with Hg in August, and positive
320 relationships between October and December. Depending on the moult status and time of the
321 moulting period, *trans*-zeaxanthin showed a positive relationship with As levels (**Table 3**). On
322 contrary, eye redness, which was higher in adults than in juveniles, showed a negative relationship
323 with As accumulation both in adults and juveniles throughout the moulting period (**Table 3**). SMI

324 was positively related to As levels in moulted female grebes during November and December
325 (Table 3).

326

327 4. Discussion

328

329 European populations of black-necked grebes congregate every year for moulting at the
330 Odiel Marshes where they feed (primary) on the brine shrimp *Artemia parthenogenetica*. Brine
331 shrimps are an important source of carotenoids for birds, thus influencing pigmentation, but our
332 results show that they also accumulate high levels of metals. The way blood levels vary by month
333 suggests that the relatively high blood levels of As, Hg and Zn (in comparison to toxicity
334 thresholds) in grebes during their stay at the Odiel Marshes may be due to a food chain transfer,
335 mainly from *A. parthenogenetica*. Our results also indicate that temporal variations due to
336 changing physiological (e.g., moulting process) and environmental factors (e.g., diet) may
337 complicate the interpretation of the health risks associated with this metal exposure scenario.

338

339 4.1. Temporal changes in metal exposure: The role of *Artemia* and moulting

340 Dietary exposure to metals is an important pathway for birds (Berglund, 2018), and *A.*
341 *parthenogenetica* is the most important food item for grebes during their stay (for moulting) at
342 the Odiel Marshes (Fox et al., 2013). Overall, we found that exposure (as assessed through blood
343 levels) of grebes to As, Hg, Pb and Zn followed a temporal pattern similar to that of brine shrimp
344 abundance for this period of the annual cycle (Varo et al., 2011), i.e., decreasing between August-
345 September and the beginning of October and then increasing through October until November.
346 This suggests that metal exposure is largely attributable to food chain transfer through a
347 dependency on brine shrimp availability as a food resource (Conover and Vest, 2009; Darnall and
348 Miles, 2009). Concentrations of As, Pb, Cu and Zn in *A. parthenogenetica* from the Odiel salt pans

349 are about 12, 2, 6 and 3-fold higher, respectively, than mean levels reported as reference values
350 for these metals in *Artemia* spp. from unpolluted aquatic ecosystems (see references in **Table 2**).
351 Thus, the relatively high loads found in *Artemia* (which indicate that this macroinvertebrate takes
352 up and assimilates metals from polluted waters and sediments; Rainbow, 2002; Stewart et al.,
353 2008; Adams et al., 2015; Huang, 2016), and the progressive increase in the consumption rate of
354 adult brine shrimps expected during the late summer and early autumn (aging brine shrimp
355 population accumulates higher concentrations of metals; Naftz et al., 2008), support this
356 interpretation. Furthermore, the very low Cd levels found in *Artemia* agree with the fact that this
357 metal was undetected in most grebes, and when detected (only in six grebes), it was found at very
358 low blood concentrations. The comparison between Pb, Hg and Zn levels observed in grebes
359 recaptured in November 2008 respect to those detected at the initial capture in October 2008 also
360 support the food chain transfer of metals pollution to grebes from *Artemia*.

361 Metals in feathers tend to reflect levels in blood during feather growth, when the feather is
362 connected to blood vessels and metals are incorporated into the keratin structure (Sánchez-
363 Virosta et al., 2015; Ackerman et al., 2016). Thus, moult status may reflect the transfer of toxic
364 metals into growing feathers during active moulting, which may (passively or actively) act as a
365 metal detoxification pathway (Dauwe et al., 2003; Martínez et al., 2012; Finger et al., 2016;
366 Hartman et al., 2017). Fluctuations in circulating levels of essential elements such as Cu and Zn
367 would also be expected to respond to physiological processes such as breeding or moult, or to
368 dietary changes (Stewart et al., 1999; Berglund et al., 2018). Here, we initially observed that
369 temporal variation in As levels was influenced by the moult status, but this effect was not robust,
370 probably because of the lack of a representative number of birds for certain subgroups. On the
371 other hand, both the depletion of Zn levels in October and the increase in Cu in December (in
372 blood pellets) might be linked to metal-dependent metabolic processes associated with the
373 moulting process (e.g., keratinization during active moulting, thyroid regulation and feather

374 pigmentation), in which Zn and Cu have key roles (Honda et al., 1986; Stewart et al., 1999; Holman
375 et al., 2015; Borghesi et al., 2016). However, our results also failed to detect clear links
376 (interactions) between moult status and temporal changes in blood for these elements.

377 The comparison of samples from November 2008 and 2009 suggests that there may be
378 interannual differences in exposure of grebes to metals. Although this did not bias our analysis
379 regarding temporal/monthly variations, it may have ecotoxicological relevance to explain
380 variations in pollutants levels in the environment or fluctuations in the availability of sources of
381 exposure (Baos et al., 2006; Padula et al., 2010; Johns, 2012). Nieto et al. (2013) demonstrated
382 that the pollution load transported by the Tinto and Odiel rivers into the coastal salt marshes is
383 subject to strong interannual variation dependent on flood events associated with intense rainfall.
384 This would in turn influence interannual differences in bioaccumulation patterns of metals by the
385 brine shrimp and thus levels of exposure for consumers (Adams et al., 2015). On the other hand,
386 Varo et al. (2011) observed that brine shrimps were more abundant in 2009 in comparison with
387 2008, which might explain the lower levels of exposure to metals in grebes in 2008 vs. 2009, due
388 to changes in foraging intake rates between years. In this regard, it is also worth noting that data
389 for August (in the present study) were only obtained from grebes captured in 2009. For As, Hg and
390 Zn, August values were higher than in October 2008, which may be a consequence of these
391 interannual differences.

392

393 *4.2. Interpreting levels of exposure to metals in grebes*

394 Non-essential elements (As, Hg, Pb, and Cd here) have no known biological function, and
395 become toxic when they exceed certain limits. These metals are endocrine disruptors and can
396 affect a multitude of physiological systems, including the reproductive and immune systems. As
397 such, exposure can have important implications for wildlife population dynamics and fitness,
398 reproductive success, resistance to diseases and survival (Iavicoli et al., 2009). Therefore,

399 monitoring exposure of wildlife to these toxic metals and assessing their effects is important.
400 However, inter- and intra-species related differences in metal absorption, accumulation,
401 metabolism, excretion and resistance to toxic effects, together with ecophysiological population
402 adaptations, often make it difficult to establish critical thresholds (Sánchez-Virosta et al., 2015).
403 Although we did not measure metal levels in whole blood, simple estimations still allow us to
404 compare our results (expressed in $\mu\text{g/g}$ d.w. of blood pellet) with published data, i.e., when we
405 assume that most of the metal burden is in the cell fraction, and consider average dry matter in
406 our pellet samples (36.06%), average haematocrit values for grebes ($\approx 50\%$; Kloskowski et al.,
407 2017), and an approximate density of 1.1 g/ml for blood pellet (Ortiz-Santaliestra et al., 2015).
408 Thus, we used conversion factors of 0,198 and 0,180 to convert our data to $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (and then to
409 ng/ml by multiplying by 1000) and $\mu\text{g/g}$ w.w. in whole blood, respectively.

410 Inorganic As (arsenite and arsenate) is found at high concentrations in the Odiel Marshes
411 (Sánchez-Rodas et al., 2005; Sarmiento et al., 2009), which potentially poses serious risks for this
412 ecosystem, its wildlife and human health. A whole blood As level of 20 ng/ml has been suggested
413 as a reference baseline value for birds inhabiting unpolluted environments (Benito et al., 1999);
414 while Franson et al. (2000) suggested that blood As < 0.10 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (wet weight; w.w.) was related to
415 unpolluted systems when studying common eiders (*Somateria mollissima*); and Grand et al. (2002)
416 measured mean blood As of 0.16 $\mu\text{g/g}$ w.w. in common and spectacled eiders (*S. fischeri*),
417 suggesting that such levels were not likely to cause harm. Here, mean As in blood pellets in the
418 moulting grebe population (mean \pm SE: 0.756 \pm 0.035 $\mu\text{g/g}$ d.w.) would be equivalent to ≈ 150 ng/ml
419 or ≈ 0.14 $\mu\text{g/g}$ w.w. in whole blood. As such, levels suggest relatively elevated exposure to
420 environmental As pollution, which is particularly apparent at the end of the moulting period (i.e.,
421 in December, when mean As was 1.162 $\mu\text{g/g}$ d.w., equivalent to ≈ 230 ng/ml or ≈ 0.21 $\mu\text{g/g}$ w.w. in
422 whole blood). Arsenic is not a well-documented element when it comes to birds, thus it is

423 necessary a comprehensive overview of As exposure levels at which bird populations may start
424 suffering negative health consequences (Sánchez-Virosta et al., 2015).

425 Ackerman et al. (2016) showed that the lowest documented toxic effects associated with Hg
426 exposure in birds occurred at blood Hg levels of 0.2 µg/g w.w. Here, mean Hg levels in blood pellet
427 (mean±SE: 0.565±0.084 µg/g d.w.) would be equivalent to ≈112 ng/ml or ≈0.10 µg/g w.w. in whole
428 blood, i.e., below this baseline value. Specifically, 87% of birds would have Hg exposure below this
429 reference threshold, whereas 12% would have blood levels corresponding to a low risk of adverse
430 health effects (0.2-1.0 µg/g w.w.). Furthermore, three animals (outliers) had extremely elevated
431 Hg exposure (23.71, 28.38 and 85.76 µg/g d.w. in blood pellet, equivalent to ≈4.27, 5.11 and 15.44
432 µg/g w. w. in whole blood, respectively). This would represent a high risk of toxic consequences
433 (≥3.0 µg/g w.w. in whole blood; Ackerman et al., 2016; Hartman et al., 2017). Taking into account
434 that most of the Hg in avian blood is normally in the more toxic methylmercury form (Alvarez et
435 al., 2013; Rimmer et al., 2005), these three animals would also be above the threshold associated
436 with effects on reproduction for small-medium size birds (2.1 µg/g w.w. in whole blood; Fuschman
437 et al., 2017). The fact that these three individuals showed anomaly high levels of Hg could
438 contradict the hypothesis of the brine shrimp, which constitutes 60 to 90% of food items for the
439 grebe population from the Odiel marshes (Varo et al., 2011), as the main source of accumulation
440 of this elements in birds. However, Varo et al. (2011) also found, after examining gizzard contents
441 of six dead grebes from this population, other invertebrate groups capable of accumulating large
442 amounts of Hg like Hydrobia (Gastropoda) (Cardoso et al., 2013) and Corixidae (Hemiptera) (Hall et
443 al., 1998). Interestingly, the three grebes with outlying Hg concentrations had moulted recently,
444 thus they might have spread their feeding ranges to areas neighbouring salt ponds, to which
445 *Artemia* is restricted, and accessed other food items or zones with punctual accumulation of high
446 Hg inputs from the nearby industrial effluents. In fact, previous studies have described the spatial
447 variations of heavy metal concentrations in sediments of the Odiel river catchment area, including

448 the presence of points with remarkable levels of Pb and Hg (Santos Bermejo et al., 2003). Finally, it
449 must be considered that Hg is a persistent, cumulative metal that may have a long body retention
450 time (Gupta et al., 2018), and that part of these migrant birds might come from biological Hg
451 hotspots in European breeding areas (Lavoie et al., 2015).

452 Our results contrast with two previous studies that considered Hg exposure in little egret
453 (*Egretta garzetta*) nestlings and greater flamingo (*Phoenicopterus roseus*) fledglings in the Odiel
454 Marshes through the analysis of feathers (Rubio et al., 2016; Borghesi et al., 2011). Both
455 considered the Odiel Marshes to have some of the lowest Hg levels found among several
456 Mediterranean sites. Surprisingly, Borghesi et al. (2011) further suggested that Hg in the Odiel
457 Marshes might be considered at a “baseline” level for western Mediterranean greater flamingo
458 populations. Nevertheless, our results (for the 12% of grebes with Hg levels corresponding to a low
459 risk of adverse health effects and for those that had extremely elevated Hg exposure) would agree
460 with those found in three grebe species inhabiting freshwater environments subject to different
461 degrees of Hg contamination in western North America (Ackerman et al., 2016); wherein mean±SE
462 equivalent total mercury (THg) in whole blood ranged from 0.48±0.13 to 4.75±1.89 µg/g w.w. They
463 would also be comparable to those found by Álvarez et al. (2013) in several bird species from the
464 Doñana National Park (Southwest Spain) after a toxic mine spill accident (wherein mean total Hg in
465 whole blood ranged from 4.67 to 567 ng/ml in 11 species).

466 Whole blood Pb levels below 200 ng/ml are considered background, between 200 and 500
467 ng/ml subclinical exposure, and > 500 ng/ml clinical poisoning in waterbirds (Franson and Pain,
468 2011). However, Martinez-Haro et al. (2011) noted that a specific subclinical health effect
469 biomarker linked to Pb exposure (the enzyme δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase, ALAD), is
470 inhibited at blood Pb levels as low as 60 ng/ml in mallards (*Anas platyrhynchos*). This suggests that
471 the no-effect physiological level may well be lower than the background value frequently assumed
472 for birds. Grebes from the Odiel Marshes had Pb levels in blood pellets that would be well below

473 both possible reference value (mean±SE: 0.025±0.006 µg/g d.w., which would be equivalent to
474 ≈4.95 ng/ml in whole blood). One grebe, considered an outlier, did display a particularly high Pb
475 level (1.094 µg/g d.w.; ≈217 ng/ml in whole blood), but this could be explained by the ingestion of
476 Pb shot or sinker, which would cause this level of subclinical exposure. With regard to Cd, blood
477 levels ≤50 ng/ml are considered normal for wild birds, whereas birds with blood concentrations
478 ≥260 ng/ml should be considered at risk of suffering toxic effects (Wayland and Scheuhammer,
479 2011). Here, only six grebes showed detectable blood Cd levels (mean±SE: 5.60±1.5 ng/g d.w.;
480 equivalent to ≈1.11 ng/ml in whole blood), which would be, in all cases, within the normal
481 reference threshold.

482 Although metals such as Cu and Zn are key to normal biological functions, when they are
483 outside required ranges, deficiency or toxicity can lead to adverse health consequences. Tissue
484 concentrations of both these essential elements are under homeostatic control, and normal
485 physiological levels can range widely within and between species depending on several intrinsic
486 factors associated with particular metabolic requirements (Goyer and Clarkson, 2001). Overall,
487 whole blood Cu and Zn levels ranging from 80 to 500 ng/ml and from 1300 to 3400 ng/ml,
488 respectively, may be considered within the reference threshold for birds (see reference values for
489 blood of birds in Table 1 of Wyss et al., 2014, expressed in µg/dl). Mean Cu and Zn levels in blood
490 pellets here in moulting grebes (mean±SE: 1.885±0.085 and 17.97±0.10 µg/g d.w., respectively;
491 equivalent to ≈373 and 3558 ng/ml in whole blood, respectively) would thus be within the normal
492 range for Cu. But, for Zn, 72% of birds would have blood levels higher than the upper limit of this
493 normal range, which may be indicative of high environmental exposure. Our values for both
494 metals are in line with those found by Benito et al. (1999) in several waterbird species from areas
495 around the Doñana National Park affected by a toxic mine spill (wherein mean Cu and Zn in whole
496 blood ranged from 133 to 586 and from 900 to 5900 ng/ml, respectively, in 11 species).

497

498 4.3. Health biomarkers: Effects of metal exposure

499 Carotenoids play key physiological functions as part of the antioxidant system in
500 vertebrates, acting as immune system enhancers and influencing social and sexual signalling in
501 birds through the production of yellow, orange and red traits (e.g., eye redness), which can
502 advertise the quality and condition of their bearers (Lifshitz and St Clair, 2016). They are a limited
503 resource that has to be acquired through the diet, and expression is sensitive to the cascade of
504 physiological effects produced by stressful events, such as exposure to metal pollution (Vallverdú-
505 Coll et al., 2016; García-Heras et al., 2017). For grebes at the Odiel Marshes, a key potential source
506 of carotenoids during the moulting period is likely *Artemia*, since it is widely recognized for its
507 carotenoid contribution in aquatic food webs (De Carvalho and Caramujo, 2017). Our results
508 showed a changing relationship between lutein-like carotenoids and Hg exposure and between
509 *trans*-zeaxanthin and As exposure, the latter potentially being linked to moult status, which were
510 accompanied by a negative relationship between eye redness and As accumulation throughout the
511 moulting period. The positive relationships between plasma carotenoids and metal exposure
512 support the idea of *Artemia* being the main source of both carotenoids and metals. Overall, our
513 findings likely reflect temporal differences in the availability and use of carotenoid-rich food items
514 (Eeva et al., 2012) and a possible allocation trade-off between using available carotenoids for
515 maintaining cellular redox balance (potentially disturbed by metal exposure) and for carotenoid-
516 based signalling (Giraudeau et al., 2015; Lifshitz and St Clair, 2016; Sumasgutner et al., 2018).
517 Ortiz-Santaliestra et al. (2015) observed that circulating levels of carotenoids were negatively
518 related to As exposure in nestlings of Bonelli's eagle (*Aquila fasciata*), which may occur when
519 organisms need to utilise carotenoids in redox processes to balance against increased oxidative
520 stress caused by pollutants. According to this, the carotenoids obtained by grebes from *Artemia*
521 should have been used, in part, to counteract the reactive oxygen substances generated from the
522 metabolism of the co-occurring metals, obtained also from *Artemia*, or to ameliorate the effect of

523 metals on other functions. This allocation of carotenoids might contribute to explain a potential
524 altered coloration. White and Cristol (2014) found that belted kingfishers (*Megaceryle alcyon*)
525 breeding on a Hg-contaminated river exhibited altered plumage coloration, suggesting that this
526 might have consequences for behavioural signalling and fitness. On contrary, carotenoid levels and
527 other biochemical parameters were not affected in great tit nestlings (*Parus major*) experimentally
528 exposed to 0.2 or 1 µg/g-day of sodium arsenite, or in individuals from a metal-polluted area in
529 comparison to controls (Sánchez-Virosta et al., 2018).

530 Body condition represents energy resources in the body and correlates with fitness through
531 effects on reproduction and survival, and therefore is a meaningful morphometric biomarker of
532 overall health in wildlife that can be affected by exposure to environmental pollution (Takekawa et
533 al., 2002; Wayland et al. 2002). Our results showed that, in moulted female grebes, mass gain was
534 positively related to an increased exposure to As during November and December, likely due to
535 higher consumption rates of brine shrimps during these months (Sánchez et al., 2006; Varo et al.,
536 2011; Fox et al., 2013). In other work, Conover and Vest (2009) did not detect an effect of
537 relatively high blood Hg (mean±SE: 7.85±2.08 µg/g d.w.; equivalent to ≈3.57 µg/g d.w. in blood
538 pellet) on body mass, concluding that even high levels of environmental pollution are unlikely to
539 prevent grebes from increasing or maintaining mass in a normal way. In contrast, Ackerman et al.
540 (2012) estimated a potential decrease in body mass of 5-7% over a range of blood Hg
541 concentrations in Californian clapper rails (*Rallus longirostris*) that would be comparable with the
542 range of exposure found in some grebes here (mean, range: 0.56, 0.15-1.43 µg/g w.w.; equivalent
543 to ≈3.11, 0.83-10.06 µg/g d.w. in blood pellet).

544

545 **5. Conclusions**

546

547 Results here showed that black-necked grebes moulting at the Odiel Marshes had relatively
548 high blood levels of As and Zn; while 12% of the monitored individuals had also elevated blood
549 levels of Hg, in all cases in comparison to toxicity thresholds. These findings are not surprising
550 given that they temporarily inhabit/moult in a highly polluted aquatic ecosystem, and suggest a
551 risk of negative health consequences during this period. The temporal changes observed in blood
552 pellets (as a marker of exposure/uptake) suggested that variable metal exposure may be mostly
553 attributable to food chain transfer through the most important dietary component for grebes
554 during their stay at the Odiel Marshes, *A. parthenogenetica*. Variations in plasma carotenoids, eye
555 redness, and body condition may have been influenced by metals exposure. Monitoring metal
556 levels in moult migrant grebes is useful in understanding possible health risks, and blood metal
557 concentrations are reflective of local contamination and food chain transfer. However, many other
558 factors, including food resource availability, moult status and timing, gender-related physiological
559 differences, interannual variations in environmental contamination and seasonal adjustments in
560 the biomarkers selected here should be taken into account to avoid misinterpretations. Especially,
561 when studying birds during critical events within in their annual life cycle, such as moulting,
562 breeding and egg laying.

563

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575

576 **Conflict of interest**

577 Authors have no competing interests to declare.

578

579 **References**

580

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840

841 **Figure captions**

842

843 **Fig. 1.** Temporal variation in blood pellet As level (n values; mean±SE) in black-necked grebes
844 (*Podiceps nicricollis*) from the Odiel Marshes during the moulting period, as a function of moult
845 status. Letters indicate significant differences ($p\leq 0.05$) between months for each category of moult
846 status. Smallest subgroups of individuals (1 unmoulted and 2 moulted birds in August, 2
847 unmoulted and 1 moulting birds in November, and 1 unmoulted bird in December) were excluded
848 from the statistical analysis in order to avoid misinterpretation in the effect of moult status on As
849 blood levels.

850

851 **Fig. 2.** Temporal variation in blood pellet Zn level (n values; mean±SE) in black-necked grebes
852 (*Podiceps nicricollis*) from the Odiel Marshes during the moulting period, as a function of gender.
853 Letters indicate significant differences ($p\leq 0.05$) between months for each gender, asterisks (*)
854 indicate significant differences between males and females within the same month, and numbers
855 indicate the specific n values.

856

857 **Fig. 3.** Blood As, Hg, Pb, Cu and Zn levels (mean±SE) in grebes captured in October 2008 (initial
858 capture) and recaptured in November 2008 (n=18). Superscript letters indicate significant
859 differences ($p\leq 0.05$) between months for each metal.

Highlights

- Moulting migrant grebe was used as sentinel of metal pollution in the Odiel Marshes.
- Grebes had high blood levels of As, Hg and Zn in comparison to toxicity thresholds.
- Metals in *Artemia* and temporal changes in exposure suggest a food chain transfer.
- Plasma carotenoids, eye redness and body condition were influenced by metal exposure.

1 **Tables**

2

3 **Table 1.** Concentrations (geometric mean, GM) of metals in blood pellets (n=176), expressed in µg/g d.w., of black-necked grebes (*Podiceps*
 4 *nigricollis*) from the Odiel Marshes during the months comprising the moulting period. Levels of Cd were above the analytical LOD in only six grebes,
 5 thus this metal was not included in the table.*

Metals		Moulting period							
		N	August	N	October	N	November	N	December
As	GM (95%CI)	29	0.619 (0.519-0.738) ^{ab}	63	0.522 (0.464-0.587) ^a	58	0.719 (0.665-0.778) ^b	30	1.162 (1.033-1.307) ^c
	Range		0.174-1.954		0.154-1.448		0.307-1.310		0.691-2.293
Hg	GM (95%CI)	29	0.719 (0.557-0.928) ^b	62	0.383 (0.291-0.504) ^a	56	0.719 (0.615-0.841) ^b	30	0.440 (0.377-0.515) ^a
	Range		0.027-1.916		0.027-28.50 ⁺		0.106-85.63 ⁺		0.162-0.923
Pb	GM (95%CI)	29	<LOD ^a	62	0.024 (0.021-0.028) ^b	58	0.033 (0.028-0.038) ^c	30	0.024 (0.020-0.029) ^b
	Range		-		<LOD-1.094 ⁺		<LOD-0.115		<LOD-0.077
Cu	GM (95%CI)	29	1.649 (1.229-2.212) ^a	63	1.859 (1.621-2.132) ^a	58	1.522 (1.301-1.780) ^a	30	2.509 (2.320-2.714) ^b
	Range		0.733-8.935		0.733-4.221		0.733-4.015		1.477-3.669
Zn	GM (95%CI)	29	19.11 (18.74-19.48) ^c	63	16.95 (16.62-17.28) ^a	58	18.17 (17.82-18.53) ^b	30	17.64 (17.30-17.99) ^b
	Range		16.77-20.29		14.44-19.89		14.88-20.49		16.12-19.30

6 * Superscript letters indicate significant differences (Tukey tests: $p \leq 0.05$) between months for each element.

7 <LOD: below the analytical limit of detection.

8 ⁺ Maximum values in the ranges include outliers, but they were excluded from the calculation of the GM (hence N value decrease).

9 **Table 2.** Concentrations of metals in *Artemia parthenogenetica* ($\mu\text{g/g}$, dry weight) collected from 4
 10 different points in a channel at the Odiel saltpans and comparison with reference values obtained
 11 from other studies. For metals analyzed in the grebes' blood, those showing high concentrations in
 12 *Artemia* with respect to the reference values are highlighted.

Metal	Present study		Reference values *		
	Mean \pm SE	Range	Mean \pm SE	Range	References
As	43.14 \pm 4.28	33.13 - 50.37	3.56 \pm 0.79	2.5 - 5.1	[2]; [3]
Hg	Not analyzed	-	0.13 \pm 0.07	0.07 - 0.21	[2]; [3]; [4]
Pb	5.89 \pm 1.04	3.67 - 7.74	3.74 \pm 0.91	0.25 - 6.20	[1]; [2]; [3]; [4]
Cd	0.11 \pm 0.02	0.08 - 0.14	0.17 \pm 0.04	0.10 - 0.37	[1]; [2]; [3]; [4]
Cu	48.70 \pm 6.72	33.84 - 60.22	8.26 \pm 1.11	4.9 - 12.9	[1]; [2]; [3]; [4]
Zn	250.9 \pm 16.9	206.3 - 278.8	85.4 \pm 12.25	42.90 - 144.0	[1]; [2]; [3]; [4]
Co	1.88 \pm 0.28	1.27 - 2.72	2.60 \pm 0.30	2.30 - 2.90	[3]
Cr	3.14 \pm 0.51	2.05 - 4.11	12.55 \pm 0.07	12.50 - 12.60	[3]
Mn	58.25 \pm 9.12	39.44 - 75.37	-	-	-
Mo	1.63 \pm 1.06	0.40 - 4.79	0.55 \pm 0.25	0.30 - 0.80	[3]
Ni	2.44 \pm 0.35	1.65 - 3.07	14.85 \pm 1.95	12.90 - 16.80	[3]
Se	1.40 \pm 0.10	1.26 - 1.68	1.7	-	[2]

13 * Concentrations of elements in *Artemia* spp. (mean \pm SE) recorded at different localities
 14 (considered as unpolluted aquatic ecosystems: lakes, saltworks and coastal lagoons) around the
 15 world from strains commercialized and used in aquaculture for fish farming, therefore assumed as
 16 reference values: [1] Olney et al., 1980; [2] Petrucci et al., 1995; [3] Leonova et al., 2007; [4] Aloui
 17 et al., 2012.

18 **Table 3.** Best-fit models explaining the effect of metal accumulation on the studied biomarkers of effect in black-necked grebes (*Podiceps nigricollis*)
 19 from the Odiel Marshes during the moulting period. *

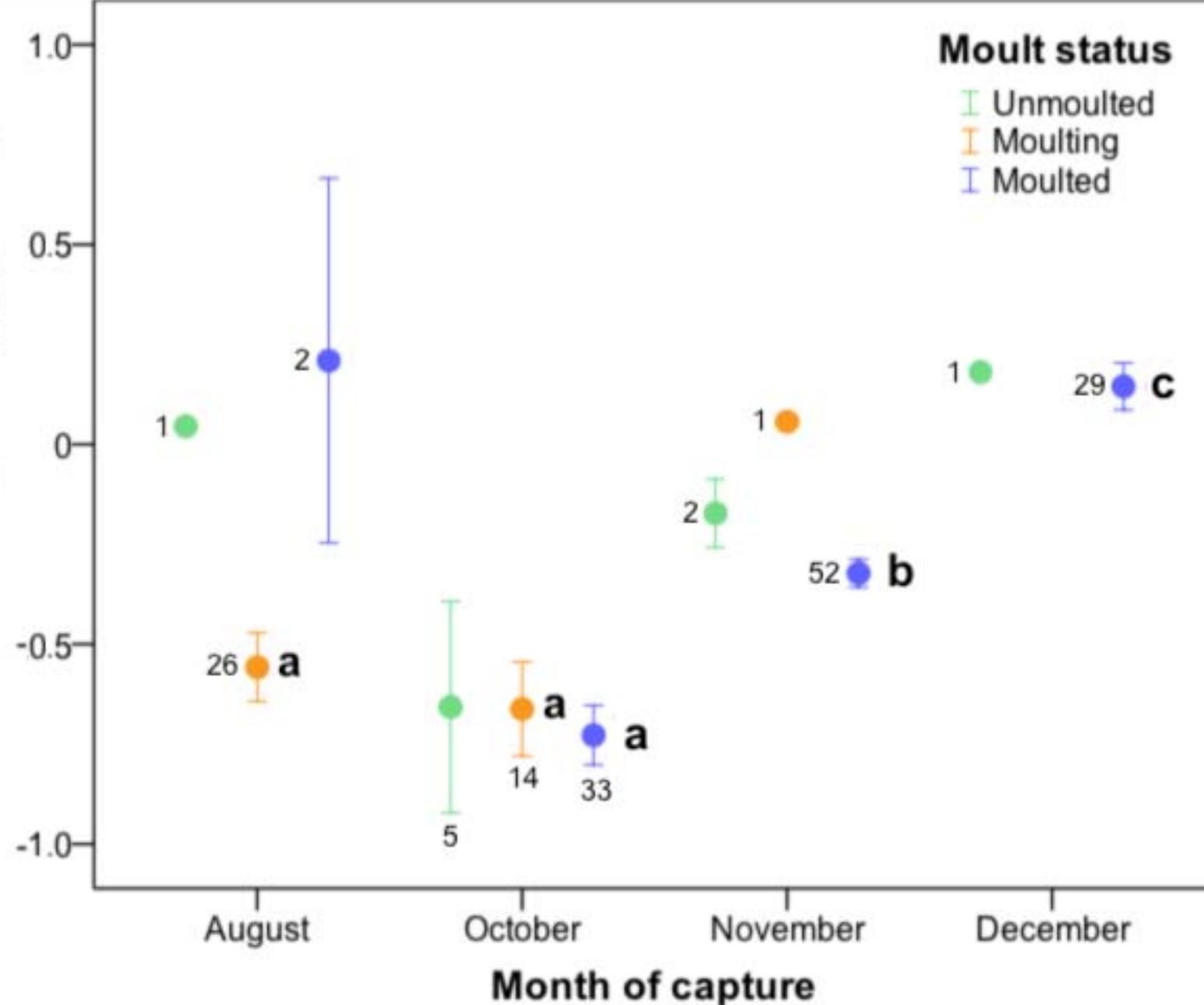
Dependent variable	Terms in the model	Effects of metals	F statistic	d. f.	p-values	Adjusted-R ²
Lutein-like carotenoids (Log)	Month of capture	(Aug) = - 0.329 × Hg (Log) + 0.538	13.77	3, 118	0.010	0.58
	Hg (Log)	(Oct) = 0.040 × Hg (Log) - 0.024	2.80	1, 118	0.069	
	Month of capture × Hg (Log)	(Nov) = 0.543 × Hg (Log) + 1.302	2.74	3, 118	0.047	
		(Dic) = 1.023 × Hg (Log) - 1.403				
trans-Zeaxanthin (Log)	Month of capture	(Aug, Moulting) =	0.76	3, 108	0.519	0.43
	Moult status	0.357 × As (Log) + 1.425	0.87	2, 108	0.421	
	As (Log)	(Oct, Unmoulted) =	1.44	1, 108	0.233	
	Month of capture × Moult status	0.583 × As (Log) + 1.941	1.83	2, 108	0.166	
	Month of capture × As (Log)	(Nov, Moulted) =	3.42	3, 108	0.020	
	Moult status × As (Log)	0.161 × As (Log) + 1.965	2.59	2, 108	0.080	
	Month of capture × Moult status × As (Log)	(Dec, Moulted) =	5.41	2, 108	0.006	
	0.650 × As (Log) + 1.407					
Eye redness (Log)	Month of capture	(Oct, Juveniles) =	10.46	3, 133	<0.001	0.51
	Age	- 0.016 × As (Log) - 0.251	89.26	1, 133	<0.001	
	As (Log)	(Aug, Adults) =	5.10	1, 133	0.026	
		- 0.016 × As (Log) - 0.162				
		(Oct, Adults) =				
		- 0.016 × As (Log) - 0.164				
	(Nov, Adults) =					

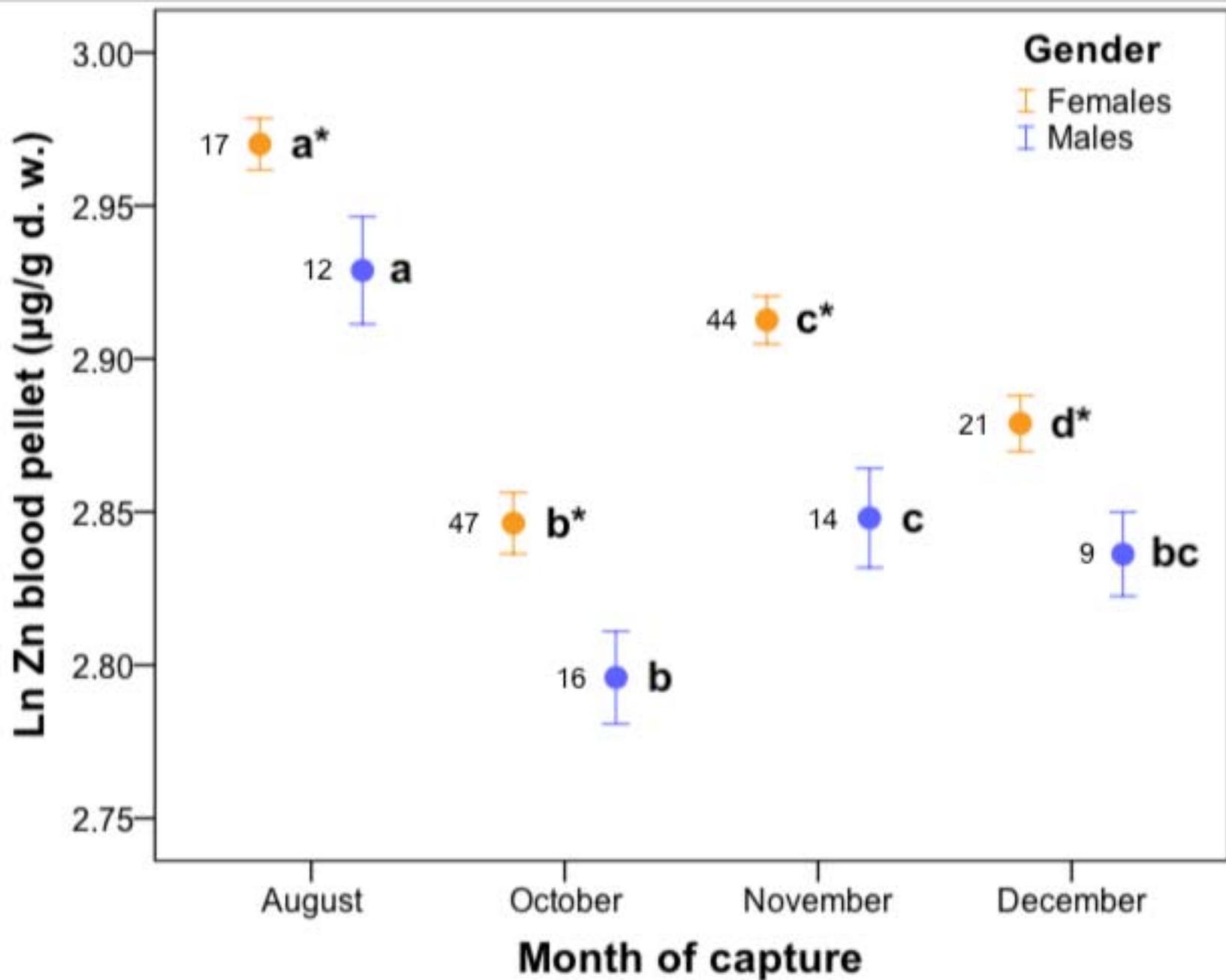
		- 0.016 × As (Log) - 0.125 (Dec, Adults) = - 0.016 × As (Log) - 0.123				
Scaled Mass Index (Log)	Month of capture		9.23	3, 149	<0.001	0.29
	Moult status		0.07	2, 149	0.936	
	Gender	(Nov, Moulted females) = 18.55 × As (Log) + 416.6	46.39	1, 149	<0.001	
	As (Log)		18.09	1, 149	<0.001	
	Month of capture × Moult status	(Dec, Moulted females) = 18.55 × As (Log) + 397.5	4.50	5, 149	0.001	
	Moult status × As (Log)		4.69	2, 149	0.011	

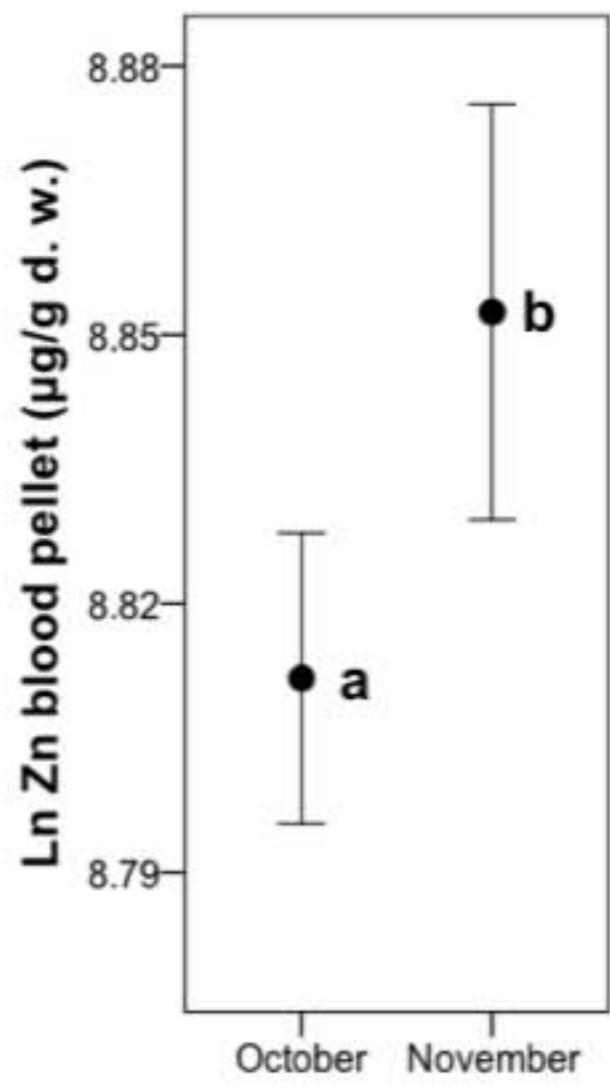
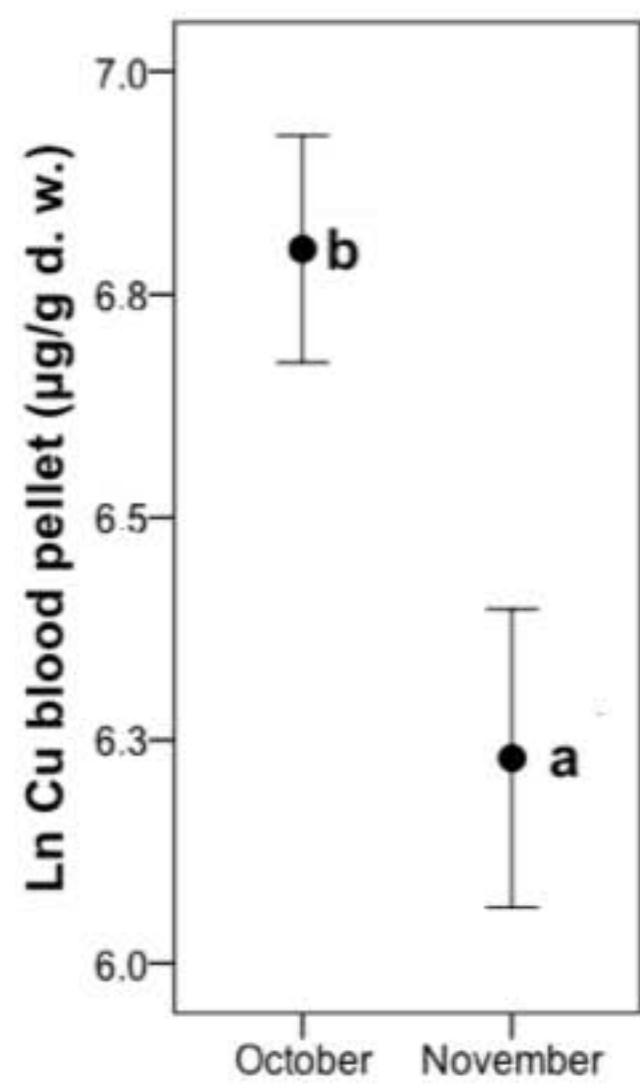
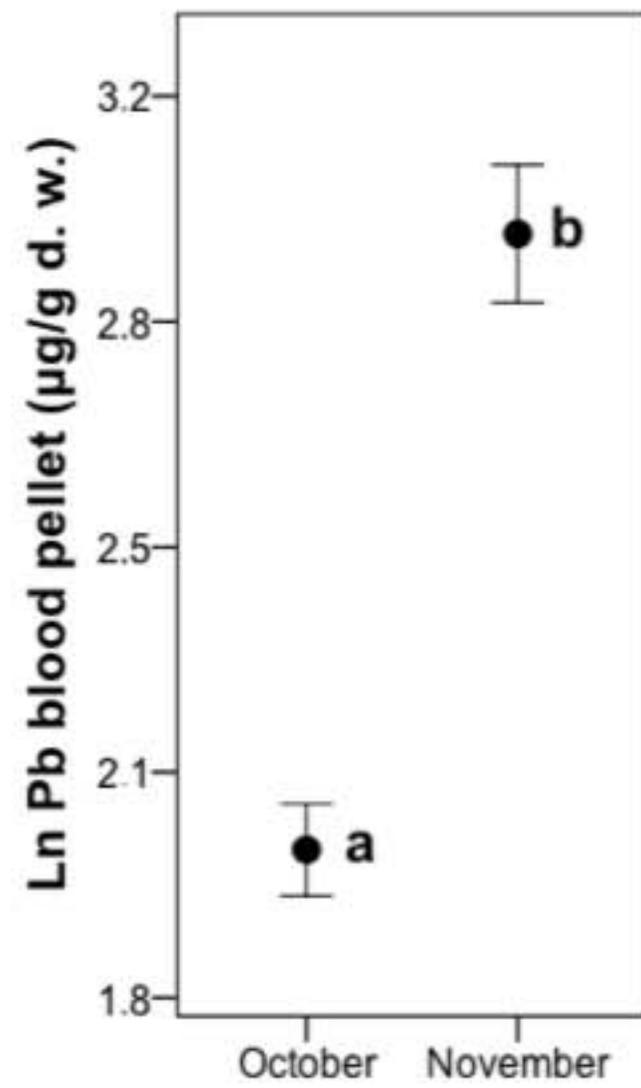
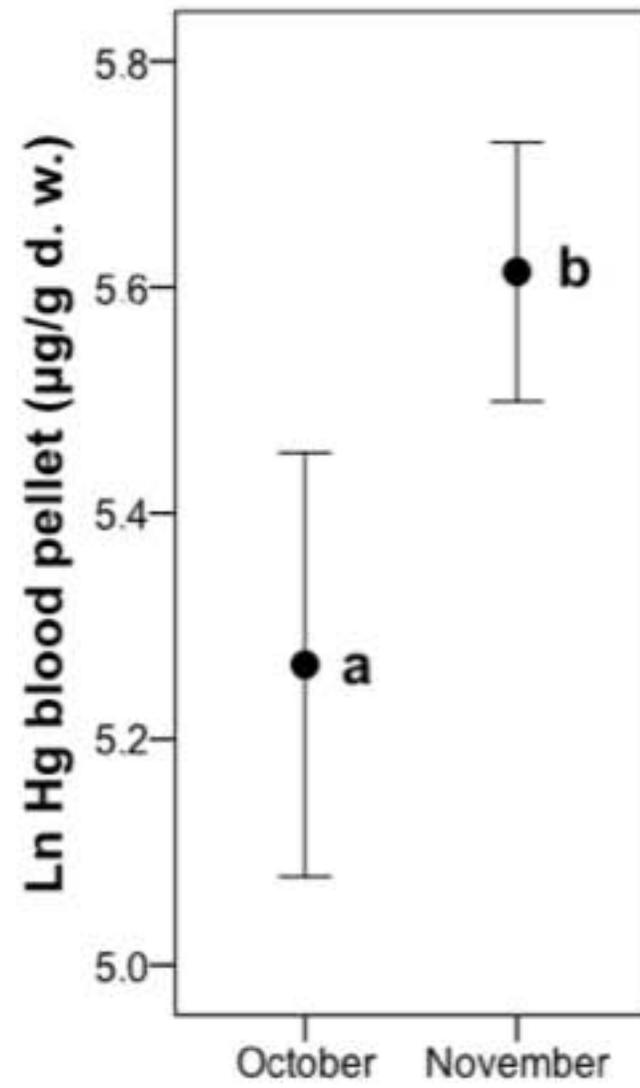
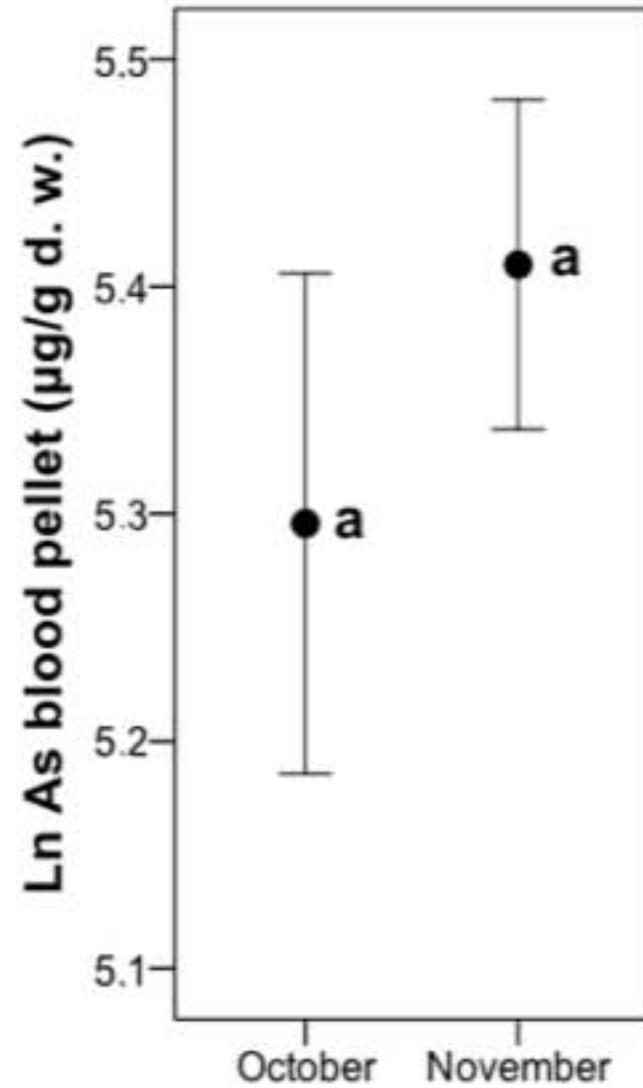
20 * Metals having an effect on each biomarker have been marked in bold. The column showing the effects of metals includes the model equations for
21 each particular case, where the positive or negative direction of the effects of metal accumulation is marked. Only significant effects have been
22 included in this column.

Ln As blood pellet ($\mu\text{g/g d.w.}$)

Moult status
Unmoulted
Moulting
Moulted







Month of capture

The Odiel Marshes (SW Spain)

Mining area
(Iberian Pyrite Belt)

Metal pollution
(As, Hg, Pb, Cd, Cu, Zn)

Blood metals
Plasma carotenoids
Eye redness
Body condition



Artemia parthenogenetica

Metal exposure

Moulting period

Aug Oct Nov Dec



Black-necked grebes
(*Podiceps nigricollis*)