
Two cetacean species reveal different long-term trends for toxic trace elements in European Atlantic French waters

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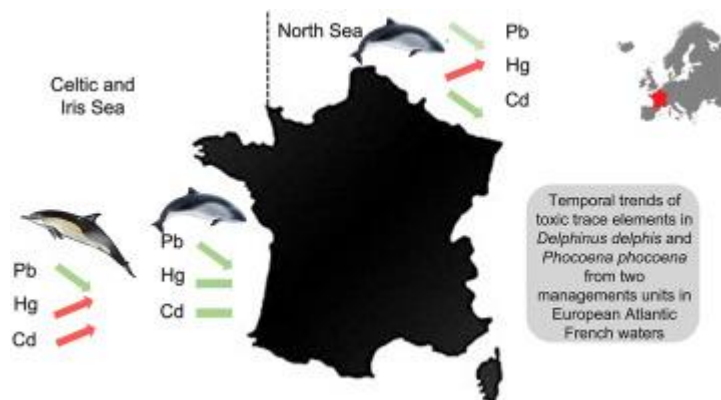
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Abstract :

Cetaceans have been naturally exposed to toxic trace elements (TEs) on an evolutionary time scale. Hence, they have developed mechanisms to control and/or mitigate their toxic effects. These long-lived species located at high trophic positions and bioaccumulating toxic elements are assumed to be good biomonitoring organisms. However, anthropogenic emissions have strongly increased environmental levels of toxic TEs in the last decades, questioning the efficiency of the detoxication mechanisms in cetaceans. In this context, temporal trends of mercury (Hg), cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb) concentrations were studied through the analysis of 264 individuals from two cetacean species the common dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*) and the harbour porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*) and belonging to two different Management Units (MUs) for the latter. These individuals stranded along the French Atlantic coasts from 2000s to 2017. All the trends presented were age- and sex-corrected and stable isotope ratios of carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) were measured as proxies of their feeding ecology. Results showed that Pb concentrations clearly decreased over time in both species and MUs. This decrease agrees with the lead petrol regulation after 2000s, supporting the use of these species as valuable bioindicators of changes for TE levels in the marine environment. A significant long-term increase of total Hg concentrations was only observed in common dolphins. Cadmium concentrations also revealed different trends over the period in both species. The different Hg and Cd trends observed in the two species, probably reflected a contrasted contamination of habitat and prey species than a global increase of the contamination in the environment. These results highlight the necessity and gain of using different species to monitor changes in marine environments, each of them informing on the contamination of its own ecological niche. Lastly, the Se:Hg molar ratios of species suggested a low risk for Hg toxicity over time.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

► Temporal trends of Pb, Hg and Cd in two cetacean species and management units. ► Eco-biological factors were included in models to assess temporal trends. ► Pb showed the same trend for both species with few effects of ecological factors. ► Hg and Cd showed different trends for both species and porpoise management units. ► The Se:Hg molar ratios evolution over time suggested low risk for Hg toxicity.

Keywords : Temporal variation, Detoxification process, Dynamic linear models, Common dolphin, Harbour porpoise, North-east atlantic

42 **Introduction**

43 Over the last decades, industrial and technological development together with the density of
44 human populations around coastal areas have intensified, leading to a sharp increase in
45 pressures on the marine environment. Chemical pollution is recognized as one of the main
46 drivers for ecological changes on marine ecosystems due to anthropogenic disturbances
47 (Halpern et al. 2008). Among chemical pollutants, trace elements (TEs) are naturally present in
48 the environment, however, human activities contribute to increase their concentrations in
49 marine waters. The worldwide refinery activities and mine production have substantially
50 increased these last decades, particularly since the beginning of 2000s (Tiess 2010), to cope
51 with the global increase in mineral demand due to the economic and industrial development of
52 emerging countries (Daughton 2005, Ilyn et al. 2007). Facing the threats to ecosystems and
53 human health, various policies have been implemented to regulate the potential impacts of toxic
54 elements. In this context, the European Union adopted in 2008 the Marine Strategy Framework
55 Directive 2008/56/EC (MSFD), which had the main objective of maintaining or restoring the
56 "Good Environmental Status" (GES) of European marine waters by 2020. To achieve this
57 objective, an initial assessment and the subsequent monitoring of the contamination state of
58 marine ecosystems were necessary. To this end, the MSFD recommended monitoring
59 contamination levels in different marine species. However, the bioindicator species commonly
60 used for monitoring contaminants in the environment, belong to numerous taxonomic groups
61 (e.g micro- and macro-algae, seagrasses, polychetes, crustaceans, bivalve and gastropod
62 molluscs, seabirds, fishes, marine reptiles and mammals, Eilser 2009a, 2009b), each one
63 showing some special merits when compared to the others (Zhou et al. 2008). Cetaceans are
64 part of these bioindicator species since they are long-lived species, located at the top of marine
65 food webs, likely incorporating high concentrations of contaminants. They are therefore
66 considered as integrative and reliable tracers of environmental TE contamination (Capelli et al.

67 2000). In these species, the trophic route is the main source of exposure rather than direct
68 contact with the environment, even in highly contaminated habitats. Inter- and intra-species
69 variations in contaminant concentrations are therefore related to food preferences, feeding areas
70 and biological factors such as age, sex or sexual maturity (Muir et al. 1988, André et al. 1990a,b,
71 Aguilar et al. 1999, Caurant et al. 1994).

72 Cetaceans have been exposed to toxic TEs at an evolutionary time scale. As such, they have
73 developed mechanisms to limit their toxic effects. For instance, their capacity to demethylate
74 methyl-mercury (MeHg) and to sequester Hg with selenium (Se) in a non-toxic form named
75 tiemanite, is a well-known process (Martoja and Berry 1980, Wagemann et al. 1984). Liver is
76 the tissue where inert HgSe crystals mainly accumulate. However, Se could be involved in the
77 detoxification process of Hg in other tissues than just liver as was confirmed by Nakazawa et
78 al. (2011). But, this binding process may also cause indirect physiological problems older than
79 act as a defensive mechanism against the direct effects of Hg exposure. Spiller (2018) also
80 suggested that the “protective effect” may in fact produce a deficient state in Se, with the
81 sequestration of Se by MeHg directly affecting both the synthesis and activity of important Se-
82 dependent enzymes for other biological functions (Ralston et al. 2012). Therefore, the strong
83 increase of TE environmental levels, as a consequence of anthropogenic emissions, may
84 question the efficiency of detoxication mechanisms in cetaceans.

85 The objective of this work is to assess the temporal evolution of toxic TE concentrations (i.e.
86 Hg, Cd and Pb) in two common cetacean species from European Atlantic waters, the common
87 dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*) and the harbour porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*). The harbour
88 porpoises analysed in this study belong to two Management Units (MUs) among the five MUs
89 that have been delineated within the North-east Atlantic for this species (ICES WGMME 2013,
90 2014; IAMMWG 2015), namely the Celtic and Irish Seas and the North Sea. These borders
91 were based on genetic analysis and measurements of time-integrated ecological tracers and

92 morphological differences. The two cetacean species have different prey sources and feed on
93 different habitats. In fact, common dolphins can be found in both coastal and offshore waters
94 up to more than 1000m depth, while porpoises (for any MU) frequently visit shallow bays,
95 estuaries and tidal channels with less than 200m in depth and the majority of sightings occur
96 within 10km of land. The diet of the harbour porpoise is mostly composed of small schooling
97 fish living close to the seafloor (98 percent by mass) (e.g. blue whiting *Micromesistius*
98 *poutassou*, sardine *Sardina pilchardus*, scads *Trachurus* spp., and whiting *Merlangius*
99 *merlangus*; Spitz et al. 2006, Santos and Pierce 2003). The diet of the continental shelf common
100 dolphins is dominated by small schooling fish (e.g. scads *Trachurus* spp., sardine, anchovy
101 *Engraulis encrasicolus* and mackerel *Scomber scombrus*) (Meynier et al. 2008, Santos et al.
102 2013).

103 TE concentration in cetaceans can reflect a broader marine habitat than the coastal habitats
104 usually represented by sessile species such as bivalve mollusks, commonly used in
105 biomonitoring programs. We can thus expect at least two different scenarios: a same trend of
106 TE concentrations over time for both species, likely reflecting a global marine contamination,
107 or, in opposition, different temporal trends for the two species, MUs and/or TEs considered,
108 likely reflecting an heterogenous marine contamination of the studied cetaceans depending on
109 habitats, intrinsic factors (age, sex, maturity, etc.) or prey consumed. **Therefore, these potential**
110 **intrinsic factors were all measured and considered to investigate the temporal trends. In**
111 **addition, the stable isotope approach is suited to better interpret contaminant exposure and**
112 **levels in historic and contemporary samples. This is all the more important in changing**
113 **ecosystems where cetacean species may have modified their feeding area or movements.**
114 **Therefore, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were also measured as proxies of their feeding ecology and**
115 **integrated as variables in the temporal trend models for TEs in both species.**

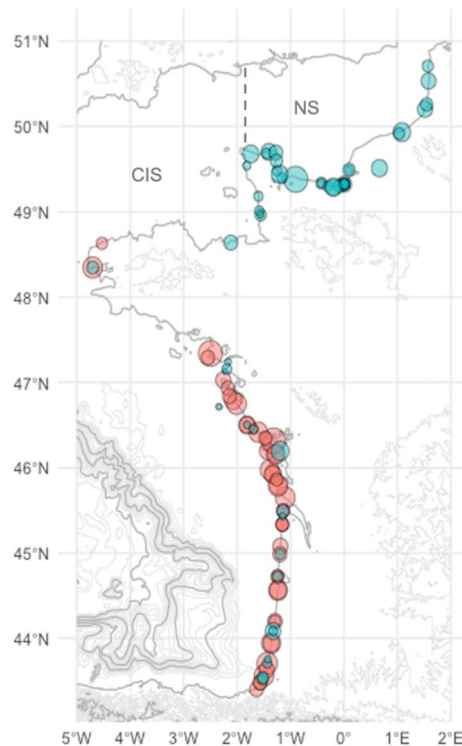
116 Lastly, in order to evaluate the question alluded above on the efficiency of the MeHg
117 detoxification process, the molar ratio Se:Hg was calculated for both species and its temporal
118 evolution explored.

119

120 **Materials and Methods**

121 *Sample collection*

122 Pieces of muscle, liver and kidneys of a total of 184 individuals of common dolphin (*Delphinus*
123 *delphis*) and 80 harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) were collected from stranded or by-
124 caught animals on the French Atlantic coasts (Fig. 1) for the different analyses.



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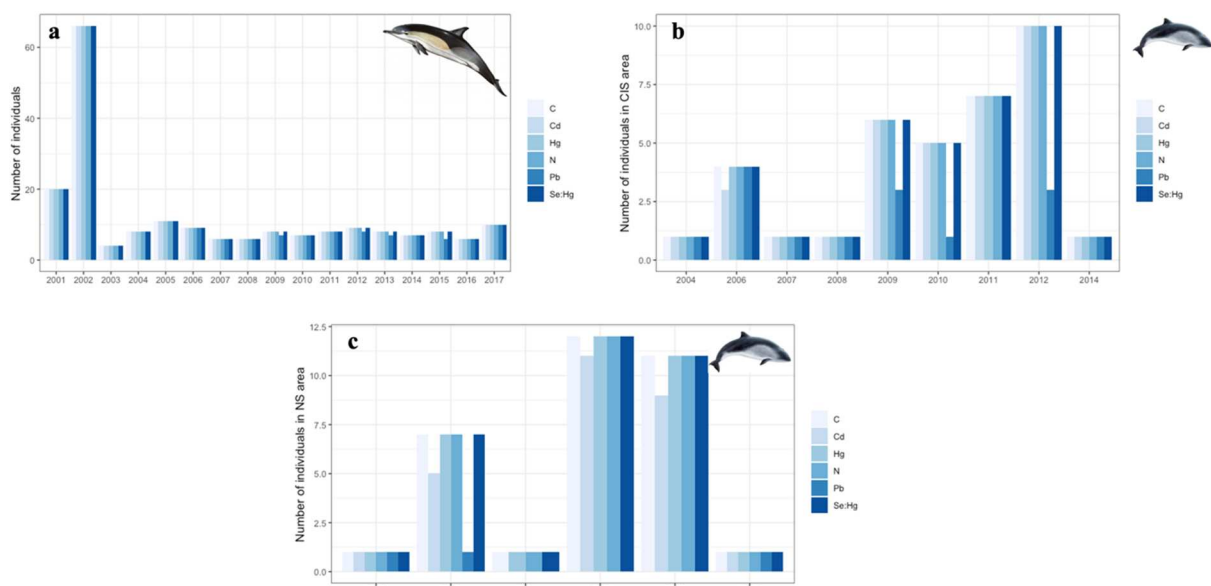
126 Figure 1. Map showing the location where the animals were stranded. Red and blue dots
127 represent common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*) and harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*),
128 respectively. The dash line indicates the harbour porpoise management unit boundaries, namely
129 the Celtic and Irish Seas (CIS) and the North Sea (NS).

130

131 First, animals were identified to species, measured and sexed by external observation of the
132 genitals cavities. Then, only fresh or slightly decomposed animals (i.e. decomposition state ≤ 3

133 based on the classification proposed by [Kuiken and Garcia Hartmann 1993](#) and more recently
 134 by [Ijsseldijk et al. 2019](#)) were dissected by the trained staff from the French stranding network
 135 (“Reseau National Echouage”, RNE). Common dolphins’ and harbour porpoises’ samples were
 136 collected from 2001 to 2017 and from 2004 to 2015, respectively. However, the conducted
 137 analysis differ depending on the chemical element and management unit for porpoises related
 138 with tissues availability (Fig. 2).

139



140

141 Figure 2. Temporal sampling distribution for a) common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*), b)
 142 harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) of the Celtic and Irish Sea (CIS) management unit and
 143 c) harbour porpoises of the North Sea (NS) management unit. C (carbon stable isotope
 144 analyses), N (nitrogen stable isotope analyses), Se:Hg (Se:Hg molar ratio).
 145

146 After dissection, all samples of muscle, liver and kidney were stored in polyethylene bags and
 147 stored frozen at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until required for carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) stable isotope and total
 148 TE analyses. Teeth of the same individuals were also collected for age determination.

149

150 *Trace element analyses*

151 Total TE concentrations were analysed in the main storage tissues for marine mammals, namely
 152 the liver for Hg and Se, and kidneys for Cd (e.g. [Honda et al. 1983](#), [Wagemann and Muir 1984](#),

153 Frodello et al. 2000). Lead has a strong affinity for calcified tissues, thus they are more
154 appropriated than soft tissues for studying bioaccumulation, however, among soft tissues, liver
155 and kidney exhibit the higher concentrations (Thompson 1990, Ma 1996). Due to the small
156 number of bones available for analyses, liver has been selected for Pb concentrations in this
157 study.

158 Liver and kidney were first freeze-dried and ground to a fine powder. For Cd, Pb and Se
159 analyses, a Varian Vista-Pro for Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission
160 Spectrophotometry (ICP-AES) and a Thermofisher Scientific XSeries 2 for Inductively
161 Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) were used. For ICP measurements, aliquots of
162 dried samples (0.1 to 0.3 g) were digested in a 3:1 mixture of 65% HNO₃ (Merck, suprapur
163 quality) and 37% HCl (Merck, suprapur quality). Acid digestion of the samples was carried out
164 overnight at room temperature and then in a Milestone microwave oven. After digestion, each
165 sample was made up to a final volume of 50 mL with milli-Q water. Procedural blanks and
166 certified reference materials (CRMs) – dogfish liver (DOLT-5, National Research Council
167 Canada / NRCC) and lobster hepatopancreas (TORT-3, NRCC) – were treated and analysed in
168 the same way as the samples. Recoveries of the elements ranged from 86 to 118% and the limits
169 of quantification (LOQ) for Cd and Pb were 0.025 µg/g based on 0.2 g. All the equipment used
170 in the sample processing was cleaned, and subsequently decontaminated for 24h in a solution
171 composed of 35 mL HNO₃ (65%) and 50 mL HCl (36%) mixed into 1 L of Milli-Ro quality
172 water.

173 Total Hg was determined in the liver using an Advanced Mercury Analyser (ALTEC AMA
174 254, with a detection limit of 0.05 ng), which does not require an acid-digestion of the samples.
175 Aliquots of 0.5 ± 0.2 mg dried samples were directly analysed. One blank and one standard
176 sample of CRM DOLT 5 (Dogfish liver; NRCC) were analysed every 10 samples (mean
177 recovery rate of the CRM = 109%).

178 All TE concentrations in tissues are reported in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight (dry wt).

179

180 *Carbon and nitrogen stable isotope analyses in the muscle*

181 Muscle samples were cut, freeze-dried and ground into a fine powder before isotopic analyses.

182 Lipids being highly depleted in ^{13}C relative to other tissue components (DeNiro and Epstein

183 1978), they were extracted from all muscle samples using cyclohexane to avoid any bias in

184 $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratios. To this end, 50 mg of muscle powder were agitated with 2 mL of cyclohexane

185 for 1 h. Next, the samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 2500 g, and the supernatant containing

186 the lipids was discarded. This procedure was repeated 1-3 times depending on the sample lipid

187 content. Then, the samples were dried in an oven at 45°C for 48h, and 0.35 ± 0.05 mg

188 subsamples of lipid-free dry powder were weighed in tin capsules for stable isotope analyses.

189 Analyses were performed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta V Advantage with a

190 ConFlo IV interface, Thermo Scientific) coupled to an elemental analyzer (Flash EA 2000,

191 Thermo Scientific). Results were expressed with the classical δ notation relative to the deviation

192 from international standards (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, and atmospheric

193 nitrogen for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values), in parts per thousand (‰).

194 Based on replicate measurements USGS-61 and USGS-62 used as laboratory internal standards,

195 experimental analytical precision was $<0.10\text{‰}$ and $<0.15\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values,

196 respectively.

197

198 *Determination of age*

199 At least five teeth were collected from each sampled individual, selecting the least

200 worn/damaged and least curved teeth to ensure sufficient material for replicate preparations.

201 Teeth were preserved frozen or in 70% alcohol.

202 Tooth preparation was adapted from the protocol described by Lockyer (1995). Teeth were
203 immersed in a decalcifying agent (DC3 Labonord, Z.I. de Templemars, f-59175 Templemars,
204 France) before sectioning and staining in toluidin blue (Martoja and Martoja 1967) and then
205 washed overnight in running tap water. Sections were fixed in a synthetic medium (Isomount
206 Labonord ®) and observed with a stereomicroscope with transmitted polarized light
207 (Olympus® BH2, Olympus Optical Co., Ltd.). Growth layer groups (GLG) were counted,
208 assuming that one GLG equals one year (Gurevich et al. 1980, Perrin and Myrick 1980,
209 Klevezal 1996). Three independent readings were done for each tooth section (Hohn and
210 Fernandez 1999). All readings were recorded to the nearest whole year and age was expressed
211 as mean for each individual.

212

213 *Data treatment*

214 All statistical analyses and plotting of results were performed using R studio version 1.4.1106
215 (R Core Team, 2019). Firstly, the mean concentrations of the three toxic TEs analysed and the
216 mean of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were statistically compared among species and/or MUs (for
217 porpoises) using the non-parametric Mann Whitney Wilcoxon test.

218 Dynamic linear models (DLMs) were used to investigate the temporal trends of toxic TEs and
219 identify the variables that better explained their specific trends. Isotopic ratios (i.e. ecological
220 variables) were also modeled with DLMs in order to identify potential environmental changes
221 (or at least changes in the cetacean feeding behavior). **However, as these ratios showed a strong
222 correlation, they were separately added to the models.**

223 Only the individuals for which we had data for all accompanying (explanatory) variables and
224 toxic TE concentrations in the dedicated tissue were used for fitting DLMs. The sample size,
225 the studied time range and the number of individuals thus varied in the models, depending on
226 the TE studied. The models were all constructed with year, age (or length for Pb models using

227 harbour porpoise's dataset since not enough age data were available) and sex as biological
 228 explanatory variables. For Pb models using porpoise's dataset, sex was not included since not
 229 enough females were available. Moreover, for harbour porpoises, models were split by MUs
 230 depending on the location where animals were stranded, the North Sea (NS) located east of the
 231 French Cotentin, and the Celtic and Irish Seas (CIS) located west of the French Cotentin (Fig.
 232 1). This geographical division was based on the recommended Management Units for harbour
 233 porpoise delineated by the ICES Working Group on Marine Mammal Ecology (WGMME)
 234 (ICES 2014).

235 A general script for dataset analysis using DLMS was written in Stan (Carpenter et al. 2017).
 236 Then, it was incorporated into an R script using the rstan library (Stan Development Team
 237 2020). DLMS are linear models that reveal trends over time (such as 'shifts') in a dataset (Petris
 238 et al. 2009). The model is based on the decomposition of a data y_{it} (on a log scale for TE
 239 concentration values) about an individual i at time t into a component related to the individual's
 240 own characteristics (e.g. a set of p covariates x_p) and another one specific to time α_t (and a
 241 residual ε_{it}):

$$242 \quad y_{it} = \mu + \sum_{k=1}^p \beta_k \times x_{ik} + \alpha_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

243 The equation (1) is a decomposition of the response variable into time-invariant characteristics
 244 of an individual i (for example sex or age at death) modelled with linear regression, and a time-
 245 varying component α_t modelled with a random walk of order 1:

$$246 \quad \begin{cases} \alpha_1 = 0 \\ \alpha_{t+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_t, \sigma_\alpha) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

247 where σ_α is a scale parameter controlling the magnitude of temporal change from one year to
 248 the next.

249 The R script was then adapted for the different TEs (i.e. Pb, Hg and Cd) and systematically run
 250 taking the above presented co-variables in the following order: age, sex, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

251 The WAIC (widely applicable information criterion, a measure of the goodness of fit of a
252 statistical model; Gelman et al. 2014) was taken and compared between models: the smaller
253 WAIC revealed the better model in terms of parsimony and fit to the dataset. The results of the
254 inter-model comparisons were used to determine the influence of co-variables on the TE
255 temporal trends. The models with the smallest WAIC were selected, and the linear trend
256 between the first and last year was estimated from the posterior distribution of the parameters.
257 **Data and code to reproduce the analyses are available at [https://gitlab.univ-](https://gitlab.univ-
258 lr.fr/pelaverse/pelaMSFD)**

259 **Finally, the Se:Hg molar ratios were also calculated in liver from each individual and modelised**
260 **over time.**

261

262 **Results**

263 *General levels of toxic trace elements and $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values*

264 Liver Pb concentrations were significantly higher in harbour porpoises than in dolphins (p-
265 value < 0.05), and similar between MUs (p-value = 0.7705). Mean liver Hg concentrations were
266 similar in both species (p-value = 0.5145) but different between MUs for harbour porpoises (p-
267 value < 0.05) (Table 1). On the contrary, Cd concentrations in kidneys were significantly higher
268 in common dolphins (p-value < 0.05) (Table 1) and similar between areas for porpoises (p-
269 value = 0.7462). Concerning C and N stable isotope ratios, both species exhibited significantly
270 different values (p-value < 0.005), but the values were similar between areas for harbour
271 porpoises (Table 1). Regarding the mean Se:Hg molar ratio in liver, it was of 3.8 (\pm 3.7) in
272 common dolphins and 2.4 (\pm 1.3) and 2.8 (\pm 1.3) in CIS and NS porpoises, respectively. These
273 ratios were not significantly different between species, nor between MUs (p-value = 0.8614 and
274 0.5077, respectively).

275

276 Table 1. Toxic trace element concentrations in $\mu\text{g/g}$ of dry weight, Se:Hg molar ratio and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
 277 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in ‰ (means \pm standard deviations) measured in common dolphins (*Delphinus*
 278 *delphis*) and harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) from European Atlantic waters. “n”
 279 represents the total number of individuals analysed per species and management units (MUs).
 280 The different letters in parentheses indicate when significant differences (p-value < 0.005) were
 281 observed between species or MUs for porpoises.

Chemical elements & Stable isotope ratios	<i>Delphinus delphis</i>		<i>Phocoena phocoena</i>			
			Celtic & Irish Sea		North Sea	
	n	mean \pm SD	n	mean \pm SD	n	mean \pm SD
Pb in liver	87	0.035 \pm 0.03 (a)	31	0.061 \pm 0.036 (b)	26	0.060 \pm 0.042 (b)
Hg in liver	201	28.6 \pm 43.2 (a)	36	42.9 \pm 59.7 (b)	33	21.0 \pm 24.6 (a)
Cd in kidney	201	5.18 \pm 7.66 (a)	35	2.64 \pm 2.39 (b)	27	1.75 \pm 1.49 (b)
Se in liver	201	26.7 \pm 36.2 (a)	36	21.0 \pm 25.3 (a)	33	30.8 \pm 50.8 (a)
Se:Hg molar ratio	201	3.8 \pm 3.7 (a)	36	2.4 \pm 1.3 (a)	33	2.8 \pm 1.3 (a)
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	201	-17.6 \pm 0.6 (a)	36	-17.1 \pm 0.5 (b)	33	-17.2 \pm 0.5 (b)
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$	201	12.2 \pm 0.8 (a)	36	13.2 \pm 0.9 (b)	33	15.7 \pm 1.2 (b)

284

285

286 *Temporal trends of toxic trace elements*

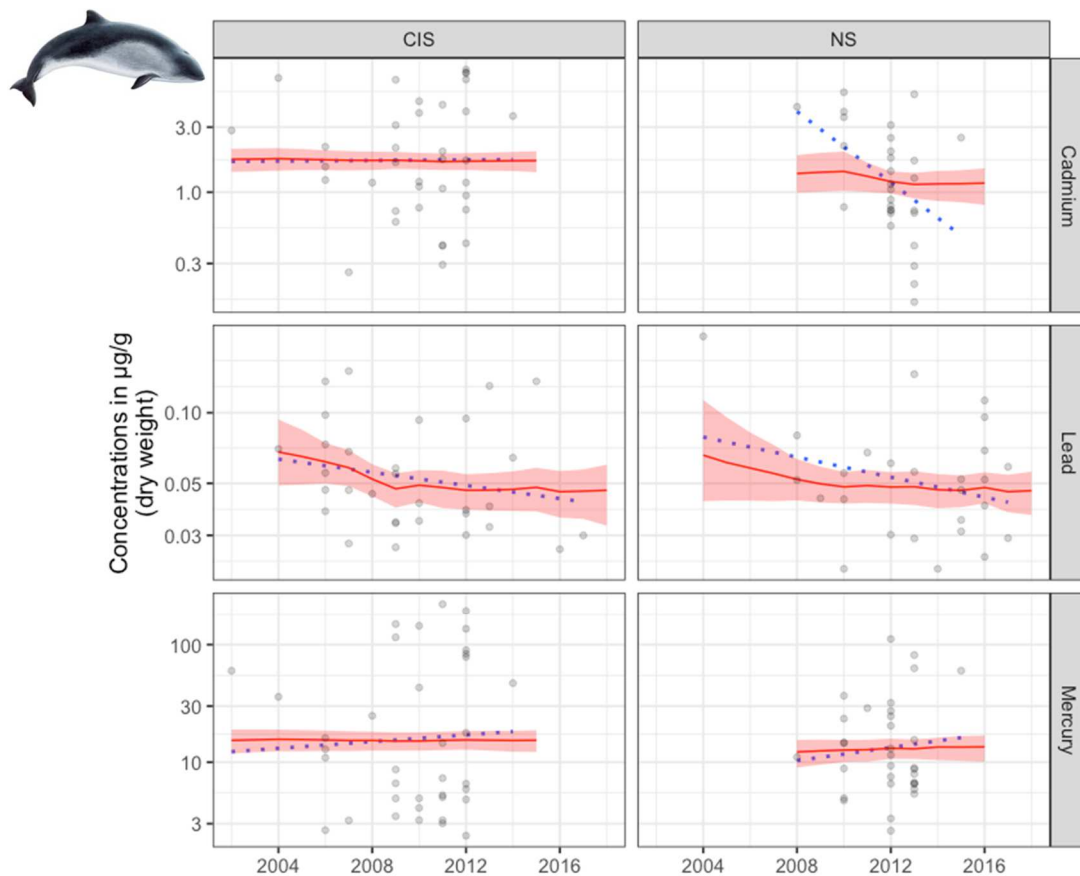
287 The temporal evolution of the three toxic TEs were studied using DLMS, with biological and
 288 ecological data (i.e. stable isotope ratios) used as co-variables that may explain these trends
 289 while they can correct their effect. Thus, the models with the best statistical values for each
 290 species and MUs (herein called the “best models”) are summarized in Table 2.

291 Table 2. Results for the “best models” selected to explain temporal trends of (log transformed) TE concentrations and Se:Hg molar ratios in harbour
 292 porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*, from the two MUs studied) and common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*). WAIC values and the best model performed
 293 are indicated together with the sample size “n”.
 294

Species	n	Celtic and Irish Sea (CIS)	North Sea (NS)
Harbour porpoise (<i>Phocoena phocoena</i>)	31/26	Log [Pb] ~ year + sex + length WAIC = 47.58	Log [Pb] ~ year + sex + length WAIC = 44.04
	37/33	Log [Hg] ~ year + sex + age WAIC = 89.42	Log [Hg] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ WAIC = 85.85
	36/29	Log [Cd] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 74.37	Log [Cd] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 68.26
	36/33	Log [Se:Hg] ~ year + sex + age WAIC = 27.35	Log [Se:Hg] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 6.05
Common dolphin (<i>Delphinus delphis</i>)	95	Log [Pb] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 145.77	
	184	Log [Hg] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ WAIC = 459.78	
	184	Log [Cd] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 421.31	
	180	Log [Se:Hg] ~ year + sex + age + $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ WAIC = 246.30	

295

296 For porpoises from both MUs, the best Pb concentration models (smallest WAIC) were those
 297 including year, sex and length as co-variables. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were not considered
 298 in these models (Table 2). Both MUs showed a high probability to have a negative trend,
 299 however, these trends were not significant (Table 3 and Figure 3). For common dolphins, we
 300 observed a clear decreasing trend (Figure 4) confirmed by a probability to have a negative trend
 301 of 0.999 (Table 3). Moreover, this negative trend was statistically significant, with a p-value of
 302 0.008 (Table 3). The best Pb model for dolphins included year, sex, age and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values as co-
 303 variables influencing its temporal trend (Table 2).
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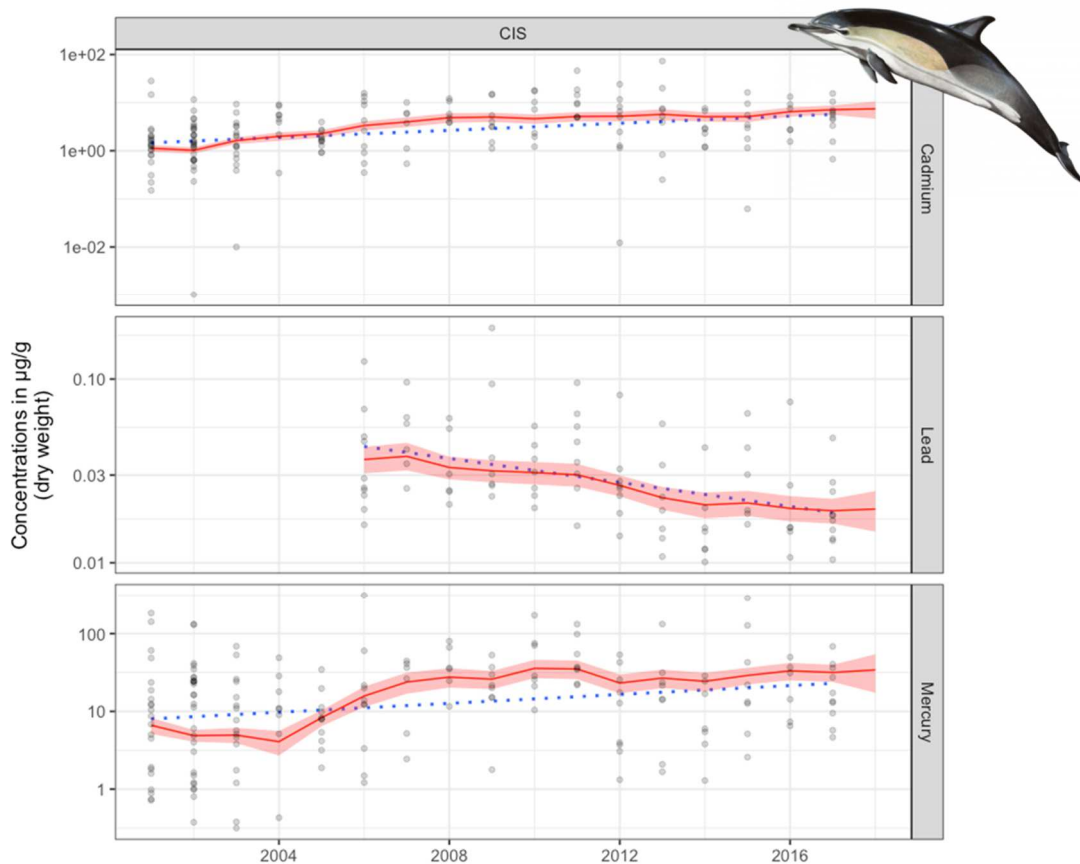
305
 306 Figure 3. Dynamic linear best models for log-transformed TE concentrations ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)
 307 measured in harbour porpoises (*Harbour porpoise*) from the two management units, namely
 308 Celtic and Irish Sea (CIS) and North Sea (NS). Grey dots represent the raw data, the red shaded
 309 areas the trajectory estimated by the model and the blue dotted line the trend.

310 Table 3. Results of the trend assessment between the first and last year for Hg, Cd and Pb concentrations and for Se:Hg molar ratios. The trend
 311 corresponds to the trend direction coefficient, the standard error gives information on the interval where the trend direction coefficient is most
 312 likely to be found, and the p-value gives information on the statistical significance of this coefficient (the significance threshold being set at 0.05).
 313 Finally, the trend probabilities provide information on the probability that the trend is positive or negative and these probabilities are between 0
 314 and 1. The highest probability are in bold.

	Chemical element	Trend	se	p-value	Probability of positive trend	Probability of negative trend
<i>Delphinus delphis</i>						
	Pb	-0.002	0.001	0.008	0.001	0.999
	Hg	1.806	0.293	0	1	0
	Cd	0.366	0.046	0	1	0
	Se:Hg	0.164	0.023	0	1	0
<i>Phocoena phocoena</i>						
	Pb	-0.002	0.002	0.312	0.112	0.888
Celtic & Irish Sea	Hg	-0.006	0.281	0.983	0.504	0.496
	Cd	-0.003	0.032	0.915	0.476	0.523
	Se:Hg	0.037	0.048	0.445	0.804	0.196
	Pb	-0.002	0.004	0.656	0.283	0.717
Nort Sea	Hg	0.229	0.796	0.774	0.619	0.382
	Cd	-0.024	0.13	0.855	0.334	0.665
	Se:Hg	-0.006	0.058	0.915	0.462	0.538

315

316 For porpoises, the best models selected for Hg concentrations included year, sex and age as co-
317 variables. Moreover, for NS porpoises, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values also affected the Hg trend (Table 2). No
318 visual trend was observed for both MUs (Fig. 3), that is confirmed by the non-statistically
319 significant p-value observed for both trends (Table 3). However, NS porpoises showed a higher
320 probability to have a positive trend than CIS porpoises (0.619 positive trend vs 0.382 negative
321 trend, Table 3). In opposition, dolphins showed a clear and statistically significant positive trend
322 for Hg concentrations, with a probability to be positive of 1 (Fig. 4 and Table 3). The best model
323 for this species included year, sex, age and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values as co-variables having an effect (Table
324 2).
325



326
327 Figure 4. Dynamic linear best models for log-transformed TE concentrations ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight
328 for common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*). Grey dots represent the raw data, the red shaded
329 areas the trajectory estimated by the model and the blue dotted line the trend.
330

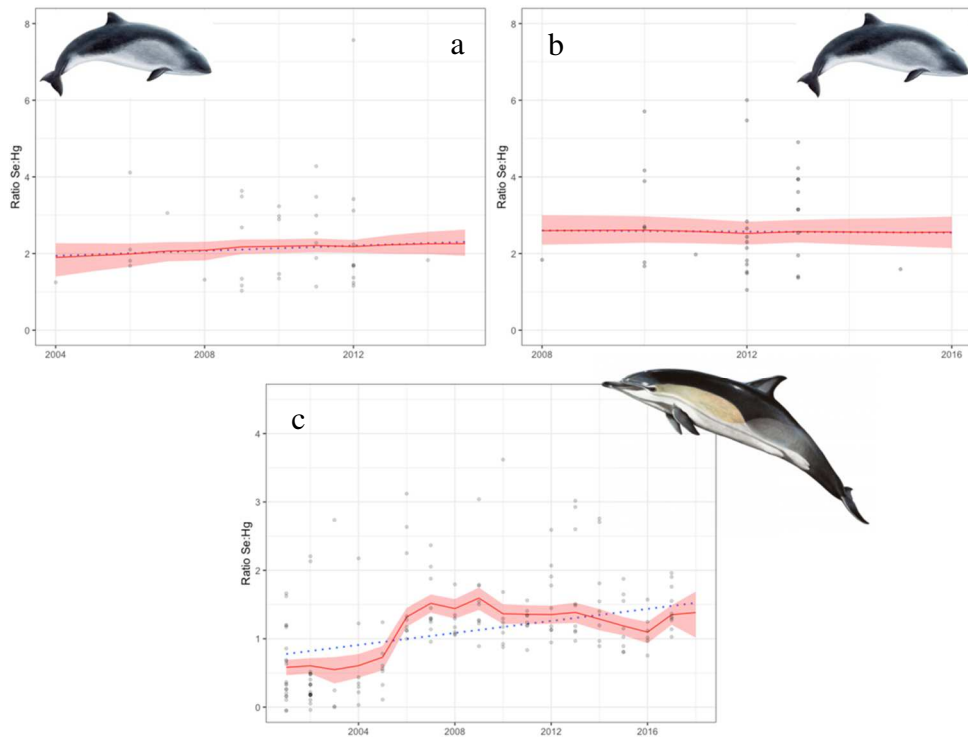
331 As for Hg, porpoises did not reveal a clear trend for Cd concentrations (Fig. 3). The trend was
332 not statistically significant for both MUs, but NS porpoises showed a higher probability to have
333 a decreasing trend (0.665 vs 0.334) than CIS porpoises (0.504 vs 0.496, Table 3). Moreover,
334 the best models for both MUs included the same co-variables year, sex, age and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
335 (Table 2). In contrast to porpoises, dolphins revealed a positive and significant trend for Cd (p-
336 value < 0.05), with a probability of 1 to be positive (Table 3). The best model selected for this
337 species also included $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, in addition to year, sex and age (Table 2).

338

339 *Temporal trends of Se:Hg ratios*

340 Both species showed mean hepatic Se:Hg molar ratio higher than 1 (Table 1), exhibiting an
341 excess of Se compared to Hg. However, while no porpoise presented values lower than 1, nine
342 common dolphins showed ratios below 1. The best Se:Hg models revealed the importance of
343 biological variables for both species (Table 2) and, moreover, the effect of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for NS
344 porpoises and common dolphins. In addition, the Se:Hg trend was significant and positive for
345 common dolphins while no significant for porpoises (Fig. 5 and Table 3). However, the CIS
346 porpoises showed a probability to have a positive trend of 0.804.

347



348

349 Figure 5. Dynamic linear best models for Se:Hg molar ratio in a) harbour porpoise (*Phocoena*
 350 *phocoena*) from Celtic and Irish Sea (CIS) management unit, b) harbour porpoise from North
 351 Sea (NS) management unit and c) in common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*). Grey dots represent
 352 the raw data, the red shaded areas the trajectory estimated by the model and the blue dotted line
 353 the trend.

354

355

356

357 **Discussion**

358 Marine mammals are well-known to be considered as good integrators of the environmental
359 contamination on a wide spatial scale. This is explained because marine mammals are long-
360 lived marine apex predators that consume a wide range of prey. They have, moreover,
361 developed mechanisms to control metal concentrations in their bodies or to mitigate their toxic
362 effects. They have the capacity to store anthropogenic chemicals and toxins and they are highly
363 mobile animals (e.g. Honda et al. 1983, Aguirre and Tabor 2004, Bossart 2011). Hence, they
364 are selected as one of the functional groups to assess the marine environmental status of
365 European marine waters in the context of the MSFD, which includes abundance, range and
366 population parameters monitoring, as well as impacts of threats like fishery bycatch, ship
367 strikes, underwater noise, pollution, etc.

368 Changes in cetacean contaminant concentrations with time may, however, reflect two different
369 events. Changes in the environmental contamination since cetaceans consume the same prey
370 species which, on the contrary, do not present the same levels of contamination due to changes
371 in the environment levels. Or changes in their feeding habits, namely, the prey species ingested
372 and/or the foraging areas where cetaceans feed varied. Therefore, to investigate the temporal
373 trends of toxic TEs and to identify whether these two cetacean species may reflect changes in
374 the environmental contamination *vs* changes in their feeding habits, the evolution of the raw
375 concentrations must be assessed in the light of eco-biological variables (as explained in data
376 treatment section).

377

378 *Lead*

379 For Pb, the best models showed a decreasing trend with time, in both species and both MUs for
380 porpoises. All models revealed an effect of the biological factors. Moreover, in the case of
381 dolphins, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (i.e. proxy of animals' foraging habitat) also had an effect. Anyhow this

382 element showed a common downward trend with a higher effect of the biological factors, such
383 as length, suggesting a decrease of Pb concentrations in cetaceans probably related to a decrease
384 in the environment. This decrease is consistent with the widespread and drastic decrease of Pb
385 in gasoline after the leaded gasoline ban from the European Union market (on 1 January 2000),
386 which has also been observed in several studies carried out on marine and terrestrial dependent
387 species. Caurant et al. (2006) observed a change on the isotopic composition of Pb analysed in
388 teeth and bones of three cetacean species (common dolphin, harbour porpoise and striped
389 dolphin *Stenella coeruleoalba*) from European waters. The stable Pb isotope ratios reflects the
390 geological system from which the metal derives. Grousset et al. (1994) observed an increase of
391 the ratio $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ in the oldest individuals analysed reflecting a decrease in the production
392 of alkyl lead in Europe, i.e., the increasing use of unleaded gasoline. Similarly, Couture et al.
393 (2010) analysed the Pb concentrations and the stable isotope composition of blue mussels
394 (*Mytilus edulis*) from the French Atlantic coast. They also observed difference between the
395 stable Pb isotope ratios measured in the mussels and the Pb emitted in western Europe as a
396 result of leaded gasoline combustion. In fact, the Pb isotope composition of mussels was more
397 like of that of the Pb released to the environment by wastewater treatment plants, municipal
398 waste incinerators and industries, such as metal refineries and smelters. Recently, decreasing
399 Pb concentrations were also observed in bones of a small cetacean species of the southwestern
400 Atlantic, the Franciscana dolphin (*Pantoporia blainvillei*) (Garcia-Garin et al. 2021). Authors
401 also associated this decrease in Pb concentrations with the ban in the use of this element as an
402 additive in gasoline and as component of car batteries. Likewise, such decrease of Pb
403 concentrations have also been shown in the terrestrial environment. Thus, the European moss
404 survey on the temporal trend in atmospheric heavy metal deposition that has been repeated at
405 five-yearly intervals (from 1990 to 2010), showed a decrease of 72% in Pb concentrations
406 between 1995 and 2005 (Harmens et al. 2010). A study carried out in kestrel from rural and

407 urban areas in Spain showed a decrease of Pb concentrations in livers between two periods:
408 1995-97 and after 2001 when the restrictions on leaded fuel were implemented (García-
409 Fernández et al. 2005).

410 Consequently, the highest effect of biological co-variables on models and the concordance with
411 literature of the Pb temporal decrease observed in these two cetacean species and in both
412 geographical areas has probably to be related to a reduced environmental contamination linked
413 to Pb restrictions worldwide. Nevertheless, this Pb decrease seems to be slower and later in the
414 high trophic levels to which the cetaceans belong.

415

416 *Mercury*

417 Mercury is listed as one of the “ten leading chemicals of concern” (WHO, 2017) and, in contrast
418 to other metals, it is considered as a “global pollutant” due to the long residence time of some
419 Hg forms that can be transported thousands of miles in the atmosphere around the globe.
420 Mercury is a natural element from the earth’s crust, although human activities (e.g. mining,
421 fossil fuel combustion) have led to its widespread pollution. The largest source of
422 anthropogenic mercury emissions are artisanal and small-scale gold mining (37.7%), followed
423 by stationary combustion of coal (21%). Other large sources of emissions are non-ferrous
424 metals production (15%) and cement production (11%) (Steenhuisen and Wilson 2019). Thus,
425 in recent decades, global efforts to reduce anthropogenic Hg emissions and associated risks to
426 ecosystems and human health were set up (such as the Minamata Convention on Mercury, Selin
427 et al. 2018). However, emissions from anthropogenic sources are approximately 2220 metric
428 tons per year, which includes re-emitted Hg (Steenhuisen and Wilson 2019). Therefore,
429 numerous studies around the world have focused on this toxic TE and particularly on its
430 temporal trends in biota. In this study, we observed contrasted trends for dolphins and porpoises
431 from the two MUs studied. Dolphins showed an increasing and significant trend of Hg

432 concentrations with time, NS porpoises also exhibited an increasing but non statistically
433 significant trend while CIS porpoises revealed a stable trend. Additionally, and as expected,
434 age was an important variable for all Hg models. In fact, while the influence of age (or size, as
435 a proxy of age) on Hg concentrations is variable according to the species (and probably related
436 to individual Hg exposure through diet), it remains a major factor driving Hg bioaccumulation.
437 Mercury strongly binds with protein sulfhydryl groups (-SH) once incorporated in organisms,
438 and its elimination or excretion is very slow over time (sometimes equal to zero like in the
439 muscle tissues) due to this affinity (Wang and Wong 2003, Maulvault et al. 2016). Therefore,
440 Hg bioaccumulate with size or age in marine organisms (e.g. [Monteiro et al. 1991](#), [Cossa et al.](#)
441 [2009](#), [Chouvelon et al. 2014](#)) and must be considered as confounders in models to correctly
442 interpret concentrations and trends. Another important factor linked to Hg marine
443 biogeochemical cycling and its chemical properties is the habitat of species. The concentrations
444 of dissolved methylmercury (Me-Hg, the most common form of organic mercury in the
445 environment) in ambient waters of cetacean habitats may differ. As an example, mesopelagic
446 species seem to be more exposed to dissolved Me-Hg in the deep-pelagic layers (e.g. [Cossa et](#)
447 [al. 2009](#), [Heimbürger et al. 2010](#)) reflecting in consequence higher Hg concentrations than
448 epipelagic species ([Monteiro et al. 1996](#), [Choy et al. 2009](#), [Chouvelon et al. 2012](#)). In this sense,
449 the best models for dolphins and NS porpoises included $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values as an important factor
450 affecting Hg trends. Both models revealed an increasing trend of Hg concentrations, suggesting
451 a change in prey contamination and likely related to a higher Hg exposure due to changes on
452 the prey ingested or in the feeding areas.

453 Then, our results agreed with what is observed worldwide for Hg temporal trends, that is
454 different trends depending on species, latitudes and oceans. Thereby, in Arctic biota, several
455 studies also revealed contrasted trends for Hg concentrations. Therefore, [Aubail et al. \(2010\)](#)
456 observed a reduction on Hg concentrations of Svalbard polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*) from

457 1964 to 2000. The authors related this result to a reduction in environmental Hg exposure in
458 absence of trends in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values that could support the hypothesis of a temporal
459 variation in feeding or foraging habitats. In contrast, Riget et al. (2011) based on 83 different
460 time series from terrestrial, freshwater and marine species indeed revealed an average Hg level
461 change between -8.6% to +10% per year across time series, depending on species and study
462 site. Likewise, in the past century there is a lack of significant and consistent increase of Hg
463 levels in seabird species from the Southern Ocean (Thompson et al. 1993, Becker et al. 2002,
464 Scheifler et al. 2005, Carravieri et al. 2013). This probably suggest that Hg transfer to Southern
465 Ocean predators has relatively remained constant, being in accordance with the characteristic
466 lower anthropogenic emissions and deposition rates of the Southern Hemisphere when
467 compared to the Northern one (e.g. Futsaeter and Wilson 2013). Nevertheless, an increase in
468 Hg concentrations have been detected in subantarctic species by Carravieri et al. (2013).
469 Authors suggested that this increase may be indicative of recent changes in Hg emission and/or
470 deposition patterns, linked to the development of Asian and Southern Hemisphere countries, as
471 shown by increased Hg deposition in peat cores and lake sediments in the Southern Hemisphere
472 (e.g. Hermanns and Biester 2013). In temperate regions, fewer studies focused on Hg temporal
473 trends compared to high latitudes, and results are even less clear. As an example, the moss
474 European survey presented above revealed a significant variability between countries. In
475 general, Hg concentrations did not vary across Europe between 1995 and 2000 (Harmens et al.
476 2008), either between 2000 and 2005 (Harmens et al. 2010), however a reduction of Hg
477 concentrations was observed between 2005 and 2010 for most of the countries included in this
478 survey (Harmens et al. 2013). Concerning cetacean species, a previous study conducted on
479 harbour porpoise from Japan waters showed constant concentrations since 1985 to 2010
480 (Yasuda et al. 2012). In the Mediterranean Sea, however, decreasing concentrations were
481 observed in liver samples of striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleolaba*) stranded between 1990

482 and 2015, suggesting that measures to reduce Hg emissions in Western European countries
483 have been effective to reduce Mediterranean pollution to Hg (Borrell et al. 2014, Martínez-
484 López et al. 2019a). Later, an overview conducted on more than 101 technical reports and peer-
485 reviewed articles published between 1972 and 2016 considering 284 total Hg measurements in
486 the liver (e.g. main storage tissue) of 43 cetacean species, revealed that no apparent change was
487 detected in reported concentrations between 1975 and 2010 (Kershaw and Hall 2019).

488 In summary, this literature review suggests that Hg concentrations may vary depending on the
489 food webs, species, habitat and the region studied.

490 *Cadmium*

491 Concerns about the public health effects of Cd concentrations have increased over time, and
492 with the introduction of new technologies, the use of Cd has generally decreased apart from its
493 use in batteries of nickel–cadmium and in Cd telluride solar panels (Cullen and Maldonado
494 2013). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that environmental Cd exposure of the general
495 population has decreased. Cadmium temporal trends we found for porpoises from the NS were
496 in accordance with this expected decrease. On the contrary, CIS porpoises showed a stable
497 trend, while common dolphins revealed a significantly increase with a probability of 1 to have
498 a positive trend. As for the other TEs considered, diet is the main source of Cd exposure in
499 cetaceans, which implies that these different trends observed in porpoises and dolphins may be
500 related to both a lower contamination of the environment and/or to changes in their diet
501 preferences. In fact, cephalopods have been shown to be an important vector of Cd to marine
502 top predators in the North-East Atlantic, and especially in high latitude areas (Bustamante et al.
503 1998). It was also shown that oceanic cephalopods in particular (mainly Cranchids and
504 Histiotethids) constitute a major source of Cd for common dolphins, representing a Cd intake
505 12 times higher in oceanic common dolphins compared to neritic ones (Lahaye et al. 2005).
506 The increase in Cd concentrations observed in dolphins may thus reflect a change in Cd

507 exposition through diet. In fact, the best model for this element in dolphins highlighted $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
508 values as the variable that most affected the Cd temporal trend, suggesting that dolphins
509 changed their consumption feeding on Cd-enriched prey species and/or species at different
510 trophic level.

511 Compared to Hg, fewer studies have focused on the temporal evolution of Cd concentrations
512 over the last decades. However, most of them are consistent with decreasing trends, regardless
513 of the geographical areas and species considered. The European moss survey corroborates this
514 trend, associating it with a slowdown of Cd atmospheric emissions since 1980, due to
515 international regulations and the implementation of efficient capture and recycling initiatives
516 in point sources (Cullen and Maldonado, 2013). Other European studies on terrestrial birds have
517 also shown decreasing concentrations of Cd. Bustnes et al. (2013) found a decreasing trend in
518 tawny owl feathers (*Strix aluco*) from 1986 to 2005 in Central Norway, possibly because of
519 lower atmospheric deposition of Cd. Recently, Manzano et al. (2021) also revealed a decline of
520 Cd concentrations in kestrel (*Falco tinnunculus*) feathers in the southwest of Spain from 1966
521 to 2016. In arctic areas, Outridge et al. (1997) also observed decreasing Cd concentrations from
522 pre-industrial to modern times, through the analyses of Cd in the tooth cementum of walrus
523 (*Odobenus rosmarus*) collected in eastern Arctic Canada (Outridge et al. 1997). They
524 concluded that probably the current Cd levels result exclusively from natural sources.
525 Furthermore, Cd concentrations in Greenland ice and snow cores suggested stable Cd levels
526 from 7760 BP to 1850, after which a sevenfold increase was observed up to 1960–1970,
527 followed by a twofold decrease until 1992 (Candelone et al. 1996).

528 The increasing trend observed for Cd concentrations in dolphins is in opposition with the
529 majority trend observed on the literature, which rather confirms an effect of dietary changes
530 and/or feeding areas for common dolphins.

531

532 *Detoxification processes*

533 The long-term exposure of cetaceans to toxic TEs has enabled them to develop mechanisms to
534 limit their potential toxic effects. The demethylation of MeHg and protection through Se
535 sequestration have been proven as Hg detoxification mechanisms in cetaceans, which may
536 explain the very high concentrations measured in tissues of some species with no apparent acute
537 or long-term toxicity (Wagemann et al. 1998, Caurant et al. 1996). An animal with a liver molar
538 excess of Se (Se:Hg > 1) can be considered at lower risk of Hg toxicity, whereas an animal with
539 a molar excess of Hg (Se:Hg < 1) is at a greater risk of Hg toxicity. Therefore, the Se:Hg molar
540 ratio is of importance when aiming to determine the impact of the contaminant load at an
541 individual or even population level. While both species showed average Se:Hg ratios > 1 (2.4
542 ± 1.3 , 2.8 ± 1.3 and 3.8 ± 3.7 for harbour porpoises and common dolphins, respectively), 9 adult
543 common dolphins stranded between 2001 and 2005 exhibited Se:Hg ratios < 1. In view of the
544 raw data, these ratios are a consequence of the high Hg concentrations found in these individuals
545 rather than a deficiency of Se, which suggests a potential risk of Hg toxicity for these
546 individuals.

547 The models applied to the Se:Hg molar ratio of both species revealed an increase of these ratios
548 over time for CIS porpoises and dolphins, which in turn showed an increase of Hg
549 concentrations with years. Moreover, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values affected these models. This suggests a
550 constant exposure to Se through the prey consumed, or at least the homeostasis at the same
551 level, and a probable effect of the trophic level of prey on dolphin Se composition. Lastly, all
552 the best Se:Hg models had age as an important co-variable. In fact, mature animals demethylate
553 MeHg from their diet more efficiently than young animals and in the case of high Hg exposure,
554 a close to 1:1 molar ratio of Se:Hg is maintained in adult animals (e.g. Koeman et al. 1975,
555 Martoja and Berry 1980, Itano et al. 1984, Cuvin-Aralar and Furness 1991, Caurant et al. 1996,
556 Nigro and Leonzio 1996, Yang et al. 2007, Martínez-López et al. 2019b). Thus, the elevated

557 effect of age it is not surprising. Therefore, to reply to our initial question and in light of the
558 stable or increasing temporal trends of Se:Hg ratios observed, the MeHg detoxification process
559 seem to be still efficient for the two cetacean species and MUs considered.

560

561 **Conclusion**

562 The accumulation of TEs, from natural and anthropogenic sources, in the tissues of marine
563 species together with the potential for indirect effects and synergism with other contaminants,
564 underline the importance of monitoring TEs in the environment to better understand their
565 potential health effects, and how this lead to a risk at the population level. To this aim,
566 investigating temporal trends is an adequate way to evaluate the evolution of the presence of
567 TEs in the environment and/or their transfer to biota over time, and the election of an
568 appropriate bioindicator organism is then essential. In this study, we expected two potential
569 scenarios for toxic TE trends, and we observed both. Lead showed the same trend over time for
570 both species, with few effects of extrinsic factors. This finding was in high accordance with
571 literature and Pb restriction emissions at the end of 1990s, reflecting trends on the global marine
572 Pb contamination and the relevance of the use of these two species as bio-monitoring species.
573 In opposition, different temporal trends for Hg and Cd concentrations were observed for both
574 species and porpoise MUs, with an effect of intrinsic variables but also of extrinsic factors such
575 as habitats and prey consumed. Broadly, these results reflect the complexity to properly assess
576 the contamination exposure of biota without monitoring changes in prey or foraging area
577 preferences, and highlight the necessity and the gain of using different species to monitor
578 changes in marine environments, each of them informing on the contamination of its own
579 ecological niche. Here, common dolphins were thought to reflect a more pelagic and widely
580 spatial exposure, while harbour porpoises rather reflected a finer spatial scale and probably
581 more benthic exposure (CIS and NS).

582 Lastly, the Se:Hg molar ratios of both species and their evolution over time suggested a low
583 risk for Hg toxicity. Nevertheless, continue monitoring toxic TEs it remains important together
584 with measuring in tandem Se and Hg concentrations in order to develop a more accurate
585 indicator of what these concentrations mean in terms of compromising cetacean health.
586

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598

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