

1 Temporal trends of persistent organic pollutants in
2 Barents Sea polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*) in
3 relation to changes in feeding habits and body
4 condition

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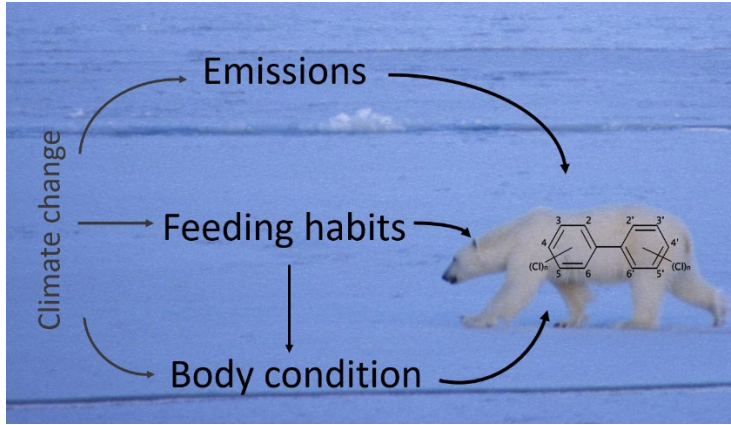
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19 ABSTRACT

20 Temporal trends of persistent organic pollutants (POPs: PCBs, OH-PCBs, *p,p'*-DDE, HCB, β -
21 HCH, oxychlordan, BDE-47 and 153) in relation to changes in feeding habits and body condition
22 in adult female polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*) from the Barents Sea subpopulation were examined
23 over 20 years (1997-2017). All 306 samples were collected in the spring (April). Both stable
24 isotope values of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) from red blood cells declined over time, with
25 a steeper trend for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between 2012 and 2017, indicating a decreasing intake of marine and high
26 trophic level prey items. Body condition, based on morphometric measurements, had a non-
27 significant decreasing tendency between 1997 and 2005, and increased significantly between 2005
28 and 2017. Plasma concentrations of BDE-153 and β -HCH did not significantly change over time,
29 whereas concentrations of $\Sigma_4\text{PCB}$, $\Sigma_5\text{OH-PCB}$, BDE-47 and oxychlordan declined linearly.
30 Concentrations of *p,p'*-DDE and HCB, however, declined until 2012 and 2009, respectively, and
31 increased thereafter. Changes in feeding habits and body condition did not significantly affect POP
32 trends. The study indicates that changes in diet and body condition were not the primary driver of
33 POPs in polar bears, but were controlled in large part by primary and/or secondary emissions of
34 POPs.

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Although the Arctic is barely industrialized and inhabited by less than one percent of the world's
37 population,¹ its wildlife is exposed to high levels of long-range transported environmental
38 contaminants. Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are the dominant contaminants in the Arctic,
39 and have chemical and biological properties that may affect wildlife and human health. However,
40 few studies have the opportunity to examine longer-term trends in apex species that may reflect
41 the cumulative biogeochemistry of POPs in the Arctic.

42 POPs are relatively resistant to degradation^{2,3} and reach the Arctic from distant sites of production
43 and use via air and ocean currents as well as river outflows.⁴ Owing to their lipophilic character
44 POPs accumulate in biota and biomagnify through the food web, leading to high concentrations in
45 apex species such as polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*).⁵⁻⁸ Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and
46 organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) are quantitatively the most abundant compounds in polar bear
47 adipose tissue, whereas polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) are found at lower
48 concentrations.^{9, 10} Among lipophilic POPs and their metabolites, hydroxylated (OH-) PCBs
49 dominate in the blood circulation.^{9,10} OH-PCBs in polar bears originate from biotransformation of
50 accumulated PCBs rather than from dietary bioaccumulation.¹¹ POPs have also been associated
51 with adverse effects on wildlife^{12, 13} and humans.^{14, 15} In polar bears, these effects include for
52 example alterations of the thyroid and steroid hormone systems, vitamin A levels, the immune
53 system, lipid metabolism, and bone density.¹⁶⁻²⁶

54 PCBs and OCPs were first regulated in the 1970s by national bans,²⁷ followed by international
55 regulations by the United Nations Environment Program's Stockholm Convention on restriction
56 or elimination of POPs, which entered into force in 2004. Owing to these regulations, most POP

57 concentrations in the Arctic have declined since the 1990s in both the air and biota.^{27, 28} However,
58 more recently, some POP concentrations have levelled off or increased.²⁹⁻³¹

59 Contaminant levels in biota are affected by different biological and chemical factors, in addition
60 to the emission history.³² For instance, female polar bears transfer contaminants to their offspring
61 through lactation,^{33, 34} and thus adult female contaminant body burdens are lower than in males,³⁵
62 vary more seasonally, and accumulate less with age.³⁶ Seasonal variations in food availability and
63 consequently body condition³⁷ also affect contaminant concentration in polar bears, because
64 plasma levels of lipophilic contaminants tend to be more concentrated in lean compared to fat
65 animals.^{9, 38, 39}

66 Polar bears from the Barents Sea are among the most polluted polar bear subpopulations within
67 the Arctic.⁴⁰⁻⁴² Contaminants are transported to the Barents Sea area by atmospheric and oceanic
68 currents from North America and Europe,^{43, 44} and river outflows from Russia.⁴⁵ Additionally, the
69 decline of Arctic sea ice is most distinct in this area.⁴⁶ The melting sea ice might lead to secondary
70 emissions of POPs,⁴⁷ as well as to ecological alterations in Arctic marine food webs.⁴⁸⁻⁵¹

71 Polar bears feed mostly on ringed seals (*Pusa hispida*), and to a lesser extent on bearded
72 (*Erignathus barbatus*) and harp seals (*Pagophilus groenlandicus*).⁵²⁻⁵⁴ However, polar bears are
73 opportunistic and will also prey or scavenge on other marine and terrestrial species like narwhal
74 (*Monodon monoceros*), belugas (*Delphinapterus leucas*), bowhead whales (*Balaena mysticetus*),
75 walrus (*Odobenus rosmarus*), reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus*), and seabirds.^{53, 55-58} Dietary changes
76 associated with climate driven loss of sea ice have been related to the contaminant burden in some
77 polar bear populations.⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ Body condition is associated with changes in the concentrations of
78 lipophilic POPs in Barents Sea polar bears at a seasonal and spatial scale,^{9, 62} and therefore, long-
79 term changes in body condition are also likely to affect trends of lipophilic POPs in polar bears.

80 There is a lack of knowledge on temporal trends of POPs in polar bears from the Barents Sea.
81 Henriksen et al.³⁸ reported declining concentrations CB-153 in polar bears sampled during the
82 1990s, whereas Derocher et al.⁶³ reported variable changes in POP concentrations between 1967
83 and 1993-94, and Bytingsvik et al.⁶⁴ documented declining PCB concentrations between 1998 and
84 2008. It was hypothesised that both emission patterns and changes in feeding habits and body
85 condition, possibly related to climate change, affect temporal trends of lipophilic POPs in Barents
86 Sea polar bears over the last two decades. To explore this hypothesis, plasma samples from Barents
87 Sea polar bears from 1997 until 2017 were examined and analysed for several PCBs and OH-
88 PCBs, OCPs and PBDEs, and stable isotope values of carbon and nitrogen ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) were
89 analysed in red blood cells to determine diet trends, representing carbon source (marine vs.
90 terrestrial) and trophic level, respectively. Non-diet-adjusted contaminant trends were then
91 compared to trends adjusted for diet and body condition in order to examine if and how climate-
92 associated diet changes have affected contaminant levels in Svalbard polar bears from 2000 to
93 2017.

94 MATERIALS AND METHODS

95 *Field Sampling*

96 Adult female polar bears were opportunistically captured each year between 25th March and 5th
97 May in the Barents Sea area during 1997-2017 as part of a yearly monitoring program run by the
98 Norwegian Polar Institute. The 306 samples were taken from 185 individuals, of which 54 were
99 recaptured 2 to 8 times. The bears were immobilized with tiletamine and zolazepam hydrochloride
100 (Zoletil Forte Vet®; Virbac, France) by remote injection from a helicopter. The blood samples
101 were stored in the cold and dark in heparinized tubes until centrifuged (3500 rpm, 10 min, within
102 10 h). Both red blood cell and plasma samples were stored at -20 °C until contaminant and stable

103 isotope analysis. A vestigial premolar tooth was taken for age estimation,⁶⁵ except for bears earlier
104 captured and juveniles. Polar bears in this study were not weighed before 2005, thus the mass of
105 all individuals was estimated based on body length and axillary girth (within 8% of scale mass⁶⁶)
106 to avoid overestimation for a part of the individuals. The body condition index (BCI) was
107 determined based on estimated body mass and length accordingly: $BCI = (\ln(\text{body mass}) - 3.07 \cdot$
108 $\ln(\text{length}) + 10.76) \div (0.17 + 0.009 \cdot \ln(\text{length}))$.⁶⁷

109 The female polar bears were either captured alone, or with cub(s) of the year (COY) or with one
110 year old offspring (yearling, YRL). Additional information of the biology of the bears used in this
111 study can be found in Table S1 of the supplementary information. All of the described procedures
112 were approved by the National Animal Research Authority (NARA), Norway.

113 *Proxies for feeding habits*

114 As proxies for feeding habits stable isotope values of carbon and nitrogen ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$,
115 respectively) were determined in red blood cells (n = 289, 2000-2017). In polar bear red blood
116 cells, estimated half-lives of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are 1-2 and 3-4 months, respectively⁶⁸ and thus
117 represented carbon and nitrogen sources that could stem from the previous late winter diet or from
118 earlier accumulated fat in bears that were fasting. Analytical procedures were previously
119 described,^{59, 62} and the quality assurance is summarized in Table S2.

120 *Chemical Analysis of POPs*

121 POP concentrations were determined from polar bear blood plasma (n = 306, 1997-2017). The
122 matrix was chosen for its availability. The following contaminants were analysed (* refers to:
123 detected in > 70% of the samples and included in the statistical analyses): PCBs (CB- 28, 52, 101,
124 118*, 138*, 153*, 180*); OH-PCBs (4'-OH-CB-106, 4-OH-CB-107*, 4'-OH-CB-108, 3-OH-CB-

125 118, 4'-OH-CB-130, 3'-OH-CB-138*, 4-OH-CB-146*, 4'-OH-CB-159*, 4'-OH-CB-172, 3'-OH-
126 CB-180, 4-OH-CB-187*); OCPs (dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene (*p,p'*-DDE)*, (HCB)*,
127 hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH; α , β *, γ - isomers), oxychlordan*, trans-nonachlor, toxaphene);
128 and PBDEs (BDE-47*, 153*). All the analyses were conducted at the Laboratory of Environmental
129 Toxicology at The Norwegian University of Life Sciences in Oslo (NMBU), which is accredited
130 for analysis of specific POPs in biological materials of animal origin according to the requirements
131 of NS-EN ISO/IEC 17025 (Test 137, International Electrotechnical Commission, 2005). The
132 extraction methods used were as previously described⁶⁹ and later modified,⁷⁰ and Gabrielsen et
133 al.⁷¹ described the method for the extraction of OH-metabolites. The extraction method is based
134 on liquid/liquid extraction, and the contaminants were quantified using high resolution gas
135 chromatography (GC, Table S3 for GC equipment). The lipid content of the samples was
136 determined gravimetrically. To ensure quality control, samples of blind, spiked recovery, blanks,
137 in-house controls, certified European reference materials and the AMAP Ring Test⁷² were
138 analysed with the polar bear samples.

139 Some of the data used in this study was used for other studies with different focus and the quality
140 assurance details are available,^{9, 64, 73, 74} and summarized in Table S3 in the SI. The recovery of
141 spiked reference samples was relatively consistent for all samples except β -HCH (58-122%; Table
142 S3), thus β -HCH concentrations were corrected for this variation.

143 *Data Analysis*

144 The statistical analysis was conducted using the program R version 3.4.2. Individual PCB
145 congeners correlated well (r : 0.63-0.87, $p \leq 0.0001$), except for PCB-118 ($r < 0.1$, $p > 0.1$), and
146 were summed based on their chemical structural similarity. The same was applied for OH-PCBs,
147 which all correlated significantly (r : 0.21-0.66, $p < 0.002$). Although BDE-47 and BDE-153 have

148 a similar structure and correlated significantly ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.0001$), they were not summed due
149 to their different emission histories.^{75, 76} Lipophilic compounds (PCBs, OCPs and PBDEs) were
150 lipid-normalized prior statistical analysis (ng/g lw), while concentrations of OH-PCBs were
151 analysed in wet weight basis. All POPs were ln-transformed to approximate a normal distribution.
152 Concentrations below the limit of detection (LOD) were assigned 0.5*LOD (10.8% of *p,p'*-DDE,
153 5.2% of BDE-153, and 3.9% of 3'-OH-CB-138).

154 Temporal changes in contaminant concentration, feeding habits ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and BCI were
155 investigated using generalized additive mixed models (GAMM; R-package *mgcv*,⁷⁷ level of
156 smoothing (k) = 9, except for β -HCH: $k = 4$). Models for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ had only year as non-linear term,
157 while the model for BCI and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ additionally included breeding status (solitary females, females
158 with COY, and females with YRL) as fixed factor.^{9, 62} As partial residual plots from the GAMMs
159 suggested non-linear trends over time, possible break points for the trends were determined using
160 model selection on maximum likelihood fitted linear mixed models (LMER, package *lme4*⁷⁸) with
161 a list of eight candidate models, including models with years from 2005-2012 as potential break
162 points and one model without breakpoint (Table S4). The period 2005-2012 for potential break
163 points was chosen to avoid temporal trends < 5 years. The break point was chosen according to
164 the model with the lowest Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; R-package *MuMIn*⁷⁹), unless the
165 simplest model (*i.e.* no break point) was within the selection of models with $\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$ (Table
166 S4).⁸⁰ To quantify the yearly changes, the dataset was divided into two according to the selected
167 break point, unless the most parsimonious model was the one with no break point. Estimates for
168 the yearly changes were derived from linear mixed models for each data subset (LMER, package
169 *lme4*⁷⁸). For assessment of their significance 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were used. Polar bear

170 ID was included as a random factor in all statistical analyses to account for the recaptured
171 individuals.

172 GAMMs were then used to analyse the effect of year, feeding habits ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), body
173 condition (BCI), age, and breeding status on POP concentrations in polar bears. Nine candidate
174 models were defined, with year as non-linear term, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in red blood cells, BCI,
175 breeding status and age as fixed predictor variables (Table S5). Highly correlated predictor
176 variables (*i.e.* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, $r = 0.85$, $p < 0.002$) were not included in the same models.⁸¹ BCI,
177 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were standardized (mean = 0, standard deviation = 1) to facilitate the comparison
178 between effect sizes. Model averaging based on AIC was used to make inference from all candidate
179 models and predictor variables. The models were ranked according to AIC (Table S5), which was
180 then used to calculate AIC weight ($e^{(0.5(\text{AIC}_{\text{min}} - \text{AIC}_i))}$; relative likelihood divided by the sum of all
181 likelihoods). To make inference from all candidate models, AIC weights were further used to
182 calculate model averaged estimates for all predictor variables,⁸⁰ and 95% CIs were used to
183 determine whether the parameters were significantly different from 0 at the 5% confidence level.

184 Plots of the highest ranked GAMMs (with the lowest AICs) were used to depict temporal trends
185 of POP concentrations in polar bear plasma. The plots from the highest ranked GAMMs illustrate
186 trends adjusted for their respective most influential predictor variable(s) and thus reflect temporal
187 trends of POP concentrations that polar bears were exposed to. The plots from the adjusted models
188 were then visually compared to plots from models with only year as a predictor variable, which
189 reflect temporal trends of POP concentration measured in polar bear plasma. Break points for the
190 POP trends as well as quantification of yearly changes were determined as described above for
191 diet parameters and BCI. However, as POP concentrations were ln-transformed, the annual
192 changes (%) in the median concentration were calculated using the following formula: $100 * (e$

193 estimate for year – 1). Covariates for adjusted trends in LMERs were included according to the highest
194 ranked GAMMs. Polar bear ID was included as a random factor for all analyses with contaminants
195 as response variables. Throughout the analyses, diagnostic plots were used to assess whether the
196 distribution of the model residuals met the model assumptions, *i.e.* constant variation of residuals
197 (Figure S1). Residual plots revealed two outliers for oxychlordanes models. After exclusion of the
198 two outliers with oxychlordanes below LOD, estimates for breeding status (with COY vs. solitary)
199 and age changed from non-significant (95% CI -0.15, 0.25 and -0.034, 0.0024, respectively) to
200 significant (Table 2). However, the estimates are likely more robust without the outliers.

201 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

202 *POP concentrations*

203 Fifteen compounds were analysed and detected in ≥ 70 % of the samples and are summarized in
204 Table 1, additional concentrations are given in Table S7. CB-153 had the highest concentrations
205 (mean ranging from 789-3446 ng/g lipid weight) in polar bear plasma, followed by CB-180 (471-
206 1798 ng/g) and oxychlordanes (256-1513 ng/g; Table 1 and Table S7). The other contaminants
207 followed in decreasing order: \sum_5 OH-PCBs > HCB > *p,p'*-DDE and β -HCH > BDE-47 > BDE-153
208 (Table 1). This is in accordance with earlier studies on polar bears from the Barents Sea and other
209 areas such as Alaska and eastern Greenland.^{16, 82, 83}

210 *Trends of biological variables*

211 Ratios for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ decreased over the study, which is in accordance with Routti et al.⁵⁹ in a
212 study from 2000-2014 including trends of stable isotope ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) partly based on the
213 same polar bears. Average values for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ decreased in total by 0.85‰ units from 2000 to 2012
214 (95% CIs: -1.2, -0.5). Between 2012 and 2017, average values for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ decreased an additional

215 1.12 ‰ (95% CIs: -1.51, -0.5). The yearly decline was thus steeper during the latter (0.28‰) than
216 during the former period (0.08‰). The “Suess effect”, *e.g.* the gradual decrease of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the
217 atmosphere due to combustion of fossil fuels, has likely very little influence on the observed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
218 decrease in polar bears. Instead, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ decrease in polar bears was found to be over four times
219 higher than the changes attributed to the Suess effect.⁸⁴ As carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) indicate sources
220 of primary productivity,⁸⁵ *e.g.* marine vs. terrestrial, our results suggest a growing proportion of
221 terrestrial food items in polar bear diet over the study, especially after 2012.

222 Average values for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ decreased linearly in total by -0.98 ‰ from 2000 to 2017 (95% CIs: -
223 1.48, -0.49; change per year: 0.061‰; Figure 1). The decline in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ which fractionates and
224 changes predictably between trophic levels⁸⁵ and thus reflects trophic position, indicates a shift of
225 polar bear diet towards a lower trophic level. This is in accordance with the trend for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, as
226 terrestrial Arctic food chains are shorter than Arctic marine food chains and thereby a shift towards
227 a terrestrial diet would mean a shift towards lower trophic levels.⁶ As previously suggested, the
228 change in polar bear diet is likely linked to the sea ice decline in the Barents Sea.⁵⁹ The number of
229 days per year with optimal habitat for polar bears has decreased over time in the Barents Sea area,
230 as has the spatial overlap of polar bears and ringed seals in summer and autumn.^{86, 87} A shift
231 towards a less marine and lower trophic level diet linked to sea ice extend has also been reported
232 at a spatial scale for Barents Sea polar bears.^{62, 73} However, a clear conclusion about a shift in diet
233 cannot be drawn, as the depletion of stable isotope ratios could also be related to changes at the
234 base of the food web,^{88, 89} or, possibly, changes in length of the fasting period.⁹⁰

235 Average BCI values (corrected for breeding status) had an estimated decreasing tendency with
236 confidence intervals slightly crossing 0 from 1997 until 2005 (-0.03 BCI scale units/year; 95%
237 CIs: -0.09, 0.03; Figure 1) and increased significantly thereafter (0.02 BCI scale units/year; 95%

238 CIs: 0.003, 0.04). The decreasing tendency in BCI between 1997 and 2005 translates to a loss of
239 1.3 kg/year (95% CIs: -3.52, 1.01 kg) for a bear with average body condition and length, whereas
240 the increase in BCI since 2005 translates to a gain of 0.84 kg/year (95 % CIs: 0.12 kg, 1.56 kg).
241 The declining tendency in BCI between 1997 and 2005 is in accordance with the results reported
242 in a study on female polar bears from the Southern Hudson Bay subpopulation, where a significant
243 decrease in body condition of 1.3 kg/year between 1984 and 2009 was reported.⁹¹ Decline in
244 available sea ice habitat has been related to decrease in body condition in the Southern Beaufort
245 Sea subpopulation,^{92,93} whereas a 44 days increase in the number of days with reduced sea ice was
246 not associated to any changes in body condition in polar bears from the Chukchi Sea
247 subpopulation.⁹⁴ Unexpectedly, body condition of female polar bears from the Barents Sea has
248 increased after 2005, although sea ice has retreated by ~ 50% since the late 1990s in the area,⁹⁵
249 and the length of the ice-free season has increased by over 20 weeks between 1979 and 2013.⁴⁶
250 These changes are also accompanied by winter sea ice retreat that is especially pronounced in the
251 Barents Sea compared to other Arctic areas.⁹⁶ Despite the declining sea ice in the Barents Sea,
252 polar bears are likely not lacking food as long as sea ice is present during their peak feeding period.
253 Polar bears feed extensively from April to June when ringed seals have pups and are particularly
254 vulnerable to predation, whereas the predation rate during the rest of the year is likely low.^{97, 98}
255 The decline of sea ice in the Barents Sea has led to high densities of ringed seals in spring in areas
256 where sea ice is present.⁹⁹ Furthermore, due to a lack of snow, some pups are born on open ice,
257 making them vulnerable to predation.⁹⁹ Telemetry studies suggest that ringed seals and polar bears
258 used the same areas close to the coast of Svalbard and still have a high degree of spatial overlap
259 during spring despite changing sea ice conditions.⁸⁷

260 *Relationships between biological variables and POP concentrations*

261 All the highest ranked statistical models (GAMMs) included diet proxies ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ or $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), and BCI
262 or breeding status as predictors (Table S5). Model averaged estimates showed that concentration
263 of nearly all contaminants increased with trophic level and increasing proportion of carbon from
264 marine sources (Table 2). Furthermore, concentrations of all compounds except *p,p'*-DDE were
265 higher in lean compared to fatter individuals (Table 2). These findings are consistent with studies
266 on Barents Sea polar bears (using some of the same females as in this study), which focused on
267 seasonal and spatial differences of POPs.^{9, 73} Body condition index had a slightly higher impact on
268 POP concentrations than diet, except for HCB, BDE-47 and $\Sigma_5\text{OH-PCBs}$, where carbon source or
269 trophic level influenced concentrations more than BCI (Table 2). Concentrations of $\Sigma_4\text{PCB}$, BDE-
270 153 and $\Sigma_5\text{OH-PCB}$ were higher in females with COYs compared to solitary females, whereas
271 contaminant concentrations were similar in females with yearlings compared to solitary females
272 (Table 2). After giving birth, female polar bears nurse their cubs in the den for more than two
273 months entirely relying on their body fat.^{100, 101} This leads to weight loss (-0.36 BCI units, CIs: -
274 0.49, -0.23 for females with COYs compared to solitary females) and to higher contaminant
275 concentrations as bears deplete their energy stores, however, nursing females also transfer a part
276 of the lipophilic contaminant burden to their offspring via the lipid enriched (about 20-45%^{102, 103})
277 milk.³⁴ After a year, the nursing females increase their body condition, and the lipophilic
278 compounds become less concentrated (Table 2; ³⁴).

279 *Temporal trends of POPs*

280 Levels of $\Sigma_4\text{PCB}$ and $\Sigma_5\text{OH-PCBs}$ in polar bear plasma (not adjusted for biological variables)
281 declined from 1997 to 2017 by 5 and 6% per year, respectively (see Figure 2 for LMER trend
282 estimates and 95% CIs). As OH-PCBs originate by a large degree from biotransformation of PCBs

283 in polar bears,¹¹ their trends are expected to follow the PCB trend. PCB concentrations have
284 declined since the early 1990s as shown for CB-153, which declined in plasma samples from
285 Barents Sea polar bears from 1990 to 1998.³⁸ When the trend of $\sum_4\text{PCB}$ was corrected for carbon
286 source and BCI, the declining trend tended to level off (Figure 2), whereas the adjustments did not
287 change the trend for $\sum_5\text{OH-PCB}$. However, break point analyses did not suggest any significant
288 change in the $\sum_4\text{PCB}$ trend (Table S6). PCB and OH-PCB concentrations in Arctic foxes (*Vulpes*
289 *lagopus*) from Svalbard also declined from 1997 to 2013.^{104, 105} About half of 347 analysed PCB
290 trends declined in the Arctic biota, whereas the remaining time series showed no trend or the trend
291 was non-linear.^{31, 28} However, PCB concentrations in East Greenland polar bears were found to
292 increase by 31% between 2008 and 2013.¹⁰⁶ In air, the decline of PCB at three Arctic stations
293 including Svalbard, slowed down in recent years.³⁰ PCB concentrations generally display a less
294 pronounced decline after 2000 in both biotic and abiotic matrices.^{30, 31} This might be due to
295 climate-change driven secondary emissions,^{50, 107} while ongoing emission from inadvertent
296 production or poorly disposed PCB containing products can also not be excluded.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰

297 The four OCPs analysed had different temporal trend patterns. Model (GAMM) results indicated
298 that concentrations of *p,p'*-DDE declined by 6% per year before 2012, and increased thereafter by
299 21% per year until 2017 (Figure 2). The decline was slightly steeper when the trend was corrected
300 for its best model covariates (Figure 2), however with widely overlapping 95% CIs. The decline
301 of *p,p'*-DDE is consistent with studies on Arctic foxes from Svalbard sampled between 1997-
302 2012.¹⁰⁴ Also, ΣDDT concentrations declined in East Greenland polar bears between 1983 and
303 2008 and increased thereafter until 2011.¹⁰⁶ Most time series in Arctic biota starting before 2000
304 reported declining trends or no trend for *p,p'*-DDE.^{28, 31} Although it was suggested that *p,p'*-DDE
305 concentrations in air are more regulated by transport from direct sources than by secondary

306 emissions, the increase of *p,p'*-DDE from 2012 to 2017 might possibly be related to *e.g.* boreal
307 forest fires that released previously stored DDE.¹¹¹

308 Concentrations of HCB declined by 6% per year before 2009, and increased thereafter by 8% per
309 year until 2017 in the present study (Figure 2). Correcting the trend for its best model covariates
310 (Figure 2) moderately affected it, however with widely overlapping 95% CIs. The decline of HCB
311 concentrations is not consistent with studies on Arctic foxes from Svalbard, as concentrations in
312 the Arctic fox food web were stable from 1997-2012.¹⁰⁴ However, non-linear trends were not
313 investigated in the Arctic fox study. HCB increased over the last decade in air samples from
314 Svalbard and Iceland, as well as in black guillemot (*Cepphus grylle*) eggs and male polar bears
315 from East Greenland.^{29, 30} HCB has a long atmospheric lifetime and high vapour pressure,¹¹¹⁻¹¹³
316 however, its atmospheric concentrations correlated only weakly or not at all with ambient
317 temperature and sea ice cover at several Arctic stations.^{111, 114} The weak correlation of HCB with
318 ambient temperature and sea ice cover suggests that HCB concentrations in air are more influenced
319 by primary than secondary emissions. HCB is still emitted, as it can be formed as a by-product
320 under the production of chlorinated chemicals and incomplete combustion processes.^{111, 115}
321 Although Bossi et al.¹¹¹ argued that HCB concentrations are primarily driven by primary
322 emissions, it is likely that the increasing trend after 2009 observed in the present study is also
323 affected by secondary emission, *i.e.* re-emission from the retreat of sea ice and increased
324 volatilization by increasing atmospheric temperatures.

325 Concentrations of β -HCH were stable over the study period, also when corrected for trophic level
326 and BCI. Similarly, β -HCH concentrations in Arctic foxes were stable during 1997-2013 in
327 Svalbard.¹⁰⁴ More than half of the temporal trend studies including β -HCH showed non-significant
328 or non-linear trends in biota, additionally, both increasing and decreasing trends were found.^{28, 31}

329 For instance, β -HCH concentrations decreased in East Greenland polar bears between 1983 and
330 2006¹⁰⁶ and in belugas from the Eastern Beaufort Sea between 2005 and 2015,¹¹⁶ and increased
331 later in the East Greenland polar bear subpopulation between 2006 and 2013.¹⁰⁶ The dominant
332 transport pathway of β -HCH to the Arctic operates via the ocean,¹¹⁷ which could have led to
333 continuous re-emissions from melting ice into the ocean.^{118, 119} The high loss of sea ice in the
334 Barents Sea^{95, 96} could explain the relatively stable levels of β -HCH in the present study.

335 Concentrations of oxychlordanes declined non-linearly by 7% per year over the study (Figure 2).
336 LMERs did not suggest a significant break point (see Table S6) and correcting for trophic level
337 and BCI affected the trend moderately (Figure 2). The decline of oxychlordanes is consistent with
338 trends in Arctic foxes from Svalbard.¹⁰⁴ However, about two thirds of the 20 time series of
339 oxychlordanes reported for Arctic biota showed no trends or non-linear trends, and about one third
340 non-linearly decreasing trends in Arctic biota.^{28, 31}

341 BDE-47 decreased by 3% per year, and correcting the trend for trophic level and breeding status
342 did not significantly affect it. Interestingly, about 30 % of BDE-47 trend studies reviewed by Riget
343 et al.³¹ in Arctic wildlife reported increasing trends, and only about 10% reported declining trends.
344 BDE-47 is quantitatively the major component in commercial penta-BDE, which has been the
345 most used commercial PBDE mixture.^{75, 76} The decline of BDE-47 is consistent with the regulation
346 of the penta-BDE mixture, which started in the early 2000s by the European Union and the U.S.,^{120,}
347 ¹²¹ and even earlier on a national level.¹²² Tetra- and penta-BDE were added to the Stockholm
348 Convention in 2009.^{75, 76}

349 BDE-153 concentrations, in contrast, remained stable over the study in the polar bear plasma,
350 while BDE-153 concentrations adjusted for the variation in trophic level and body condition
351 increased by about 3% per year. Dietz et al.¹²³ reported an increasing trend of BDE-153

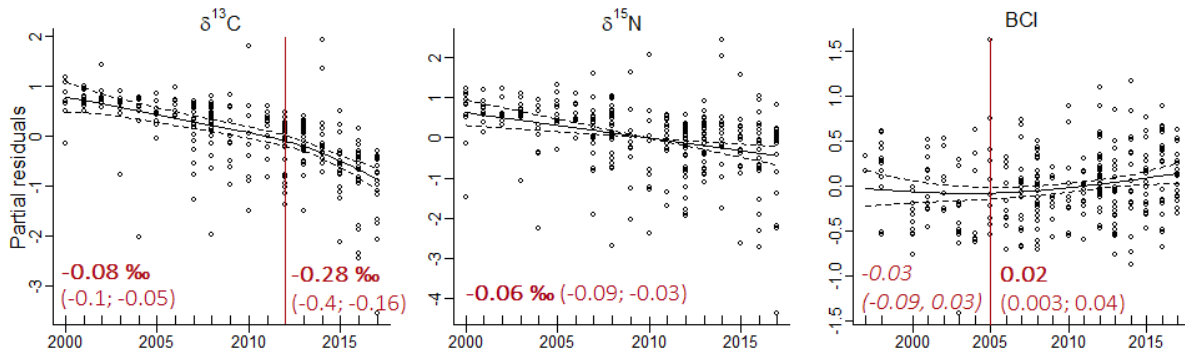
352 concentrations in East Greenland polar bears between 1983 and 2010. BDE-153 is only contained
353 in commercial PBDE mixtures as a minor component, but its presence in the environment can also
354 result from debromination of BDE-209.^{124, 125} The commercial deca-BDE mixture contains about
355 98% of BDE-209 and was produced at much higher quantities than the penta- and octa-BDE
356 mixtures, and predominately used in the Americas and Asia.¹²⁶ The commercial deca-BDE mixture
357 was added to the Stockholm Convention in 2017.¹²⁷

358 Temporal trends of PBDEs in Arctic biota vary spatially. Houde et al.¹²⁸ reported increasing trends
359 of PBDEs in Canadian ringed seals before 2008, and a decline thereafter. Concentrations of
360 summed PBDEs in East Greenland polar bears and Canadian belugas were stable between 1991-
361 2007 and 1997-2013, respectively.^{129, 130} Dietz et al.¹²³ reported increasing trends of summed
362 PBDEs in East Greenland polar bears between 1983 and 2010. The discrepancy between studies
363 on PBDE time trends may be related to the spatial variation in production and use. For instance,
364 the majority (> 97%) of the world's total penta-BDE was used in North America, where it also
365 was used longer than in Europe.⁷⁵

366 In conclusion, POP concentrations in Svalbard polar bears have generally been declining from
367 1997 until 2017. However, concentrations of *p,p'*-DDE and HCB increased during the second half
368 of the present study, while BDE-153 increased slightly over the study (the latter only when
369 adjusted for the variation in trophic level and BCI). The increases may be related to climate-change
370 driven secondary emissions,^{50, 107} and/or potential ongoing primary emission or application.^{108, 109,}
371 ¹³¹ The shift in diet towards lower trophic level and less marine food items did not significantly
372 affect contaminant trends in the present study, yet this could be expected if the diet shift of polar
373 bears becomes more distinct. Contaminant trends might become more difficult to predict in the
374 context of ongoing climate change, as impacts are expected to be far-reaching in respect to ecology

375 (e.g. changes in food webs or migration patterns), biology (e.g. changes in body condition or
376 reproduction), or the distribution in abiotic compartments (e.g. contaminant pathways, distribution
377 or storage).

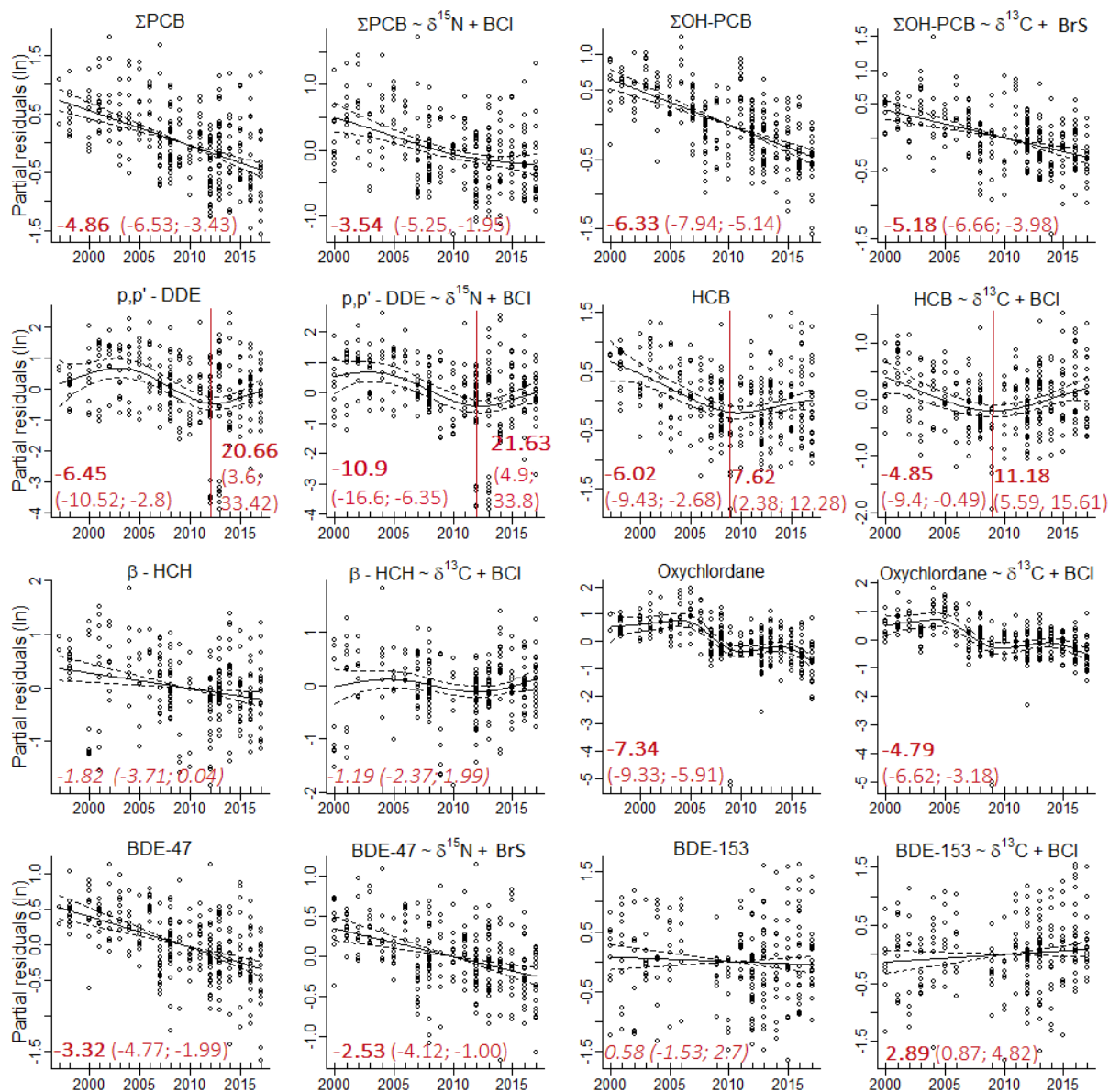
378



379

380 **Figure 1.** Trends of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and body condition (BCI) of Barents Sea polar bears from 1997/
 381 2000 until 2017. Ratios for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ represent carbon source (high values: marine diet, low
 382 values: terrestrial diet), and trophic level, respectively, in polar bear winter diet. Ratios for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
 383 were significantly influenced by breeding status and therefore corrected for it.⁶² BCI indicates the
 384 “fatness” of the bears (corrected for breeding status; arbitrary scale without units). The Y-axis of
 385 all plots show partials residuals (the actual values for stable isotope ratios and BCI can be found
 386 in the SI, Table S1). Trends are shown in ‰ for diet proxies and as scale units for BCI for the
 387 given time period, with 95% CI (derived from lme), and indicate change per year. Trends in italics
 388 are not significant.

389



390
 391 **Figure 2.** Temporal trends of Σ 4PCB, Σ 5OH-PCBs OCPs, and PBDEs in adult female polar bears
 392 from The Barents Sea area, 1997(2000)-2017. Left column: non adjusted trends; right column:
 393 adjusted for biological variables (BCI: body condition index; BrS: breeding status). The trend
 394 estimates (% change per year) are derived from linear mixed models (lmer) and given with 95%
 395 confidence intervals. The y-axes show partial residuals of the highest ranked GAMM (Table S5),

396 *i.e.* the effects of year have been controlled for the variables included in the highest ranked model
397 for the given compound. Trends in bold are significant, trends in italics are not.

398

399 **Table 1.** Median, minimum and maximum concentrations contaminants in plasma samples of
 400 female polar bears collected in the Barents Sea area between 1997 and 2017. All compounds are
 401 expressed in ng/g lipid weight except for Σ_5 OH-PCB (ng/g wet weight). No samples were taken in
 402 1999. n.a.: not analysed. Σ_4 PCB: CB-118, 138, 153, 180; Σ_5 OH-PCB: 4-OH-CB-107, 3'-OH-CB-
 403 138, 4-OH-CB-146, 4'-OH-CB-159, 4-OH-CB-187.

Year	n	Lipid %	Σ_4 PCB	Σ_5 OH-PCB	<i>p,p'</i> -DDE	HCB	β -HCH	OxyCHL	BDE-47	BDE-153
1997	2	0.9	5661	n.a.	42	203	42	1087	17	n.a.
		0.7; 1.1	3082; 8240		40; 45	201;	35; 49	727; 1447	14; 20	
1998	13	1.1	3208	n.a.	24	168	28	740	20	n.a.
		0.9; 1.3	2315; 10188		7; 44	62; 283	18; 45	545; 1589	11; 49	
2000	10	1.1	3746	156	24	104	4	977	18	3.82
		0.6; 1.4	1736; 11199	35; 251	6; 226	36; 346	2; 61	447; 1775	3.10; 42	0.66; 7.68
2001	11	1	5066	151	83	258	23	858	21	4.11
		0.6; 1.6	2700; 14453	96; 210	5; 119	128;	2; 86	503; 3468	8.78; 28	0.74; 10
2002	9	1	5422	113	79	92	21	1259	17	3.65
		0.7; 1.5	2274; 22175	66; 230	8; 143	40; 460	12; 56	716; 3039	8.03; 44	0.71; 12
2003	11	1.3	3333	151	35	84	n.a.	689	21	2.48
		1; 1.6	1654; 5930	90; 289	8; 127	28; 292		345; 1034	14; 33	2.01; 8.65
2004	10	1	4185	143	58	126	24	1198	16	3.13
		0.5; 1.6	1500; 14461	40; 213	6; 287	44; 219	10; 136	458; 3879	6.77; 37	0.59; 9.85
2005	10	1.2	3948	113	59	114	15	1513	13	3.78
		0.7; 1.4	2101; 14166	84; 198	5; 130	35; 301	3; 51	343; 3621	6.25; 26	0.81; 8.58
2006	10	1.1	4564	196	52	111	30	1307	28	5.30
		0.8; 1.3	2141; 9267	73; 524	8; 257	18; 233	11; 53	250; 2726	19; 42	0.88; 10
2007	19	1.5	1778	105	22	78	21	405	7.41	n.a.
		0.8; 2.1	914; 21535	34; 192	4; 130	24; 229	7; 51	207; 1710	3.67; 18	
2008	31	1.3	1887	73	21	73	14	514	11	n.a.
		0.8; 1.6	743; 9003	15; 130	4; 228	33; 339	6; 42	172; 2155	1.30; 34	
2009	10	1.2	2059	71	20	37	3	295	13	2.59
		0.8; 1.7	1060; 6760	27; 141	5; 134	15; 109	2; 38	1; 956	6.47; 57	0.85; 7.06
2010	10	1.2	1924	64	7	56	13	432	9.11	1.82
		0.8; 1.5	777; 2855	26; 141	4; 74	27; 204	3; 30	245; 794	6.32; 21	0.63; 3.12
2011	13	1.3	3461	159	20	123	n.a.	385	16	4.20
		0.9; 1.6	1539; 7978	63; 290	7; 263	46; 324		282; 1552	6.73; 25	2.05; 11
2012	33	1.2	1426	74	14	59	18	351	10	2.19
		0.8; 1.7	513; 3910	29; 149	0; 103	21; 206	4; 40	21; 953	2.73; 51	0.56; 9.09
2013	29	1.2	2239	66	25	111	26	467	12	3.91
		0.8; 2	930; 12068	32; 262	0; 182	31; 603	11; 95	172; 1859	2.74; 31	0.56; 20
2014	16	1.2	2296	51	6	90	22	477	8.90	2.37
		0.5; 1.6	603; 12087	10; 171	4; 474	21; 219	3; 91	101; 1232	1.25; 29	0.62; 18
2015	17	1.3	2410	63	20	104	15	461	10	3.03
		0.9; 1.5	871; 9208	12; 178	5; 80	24; 566	6; 54	173; 960	2.18; 55	0.33; 17
2016	23	1.2	1394	45	17	87	13	313	8.03	3.68
		0.8; 1.6	558; 12772	24; 184	1; 153	29; 352	4; 53	90; 1195	2.57; 29	0.74; 21
2017	19	1.3	1508	46	16	69	14	256	8.23	2.71
		1.1; 1.3	310; 9512	6; 147	0; 85	19; 294	4; 75	42; 1394	1.24; 22	0.73; 13

404 **Table 2.** GAMM-derived model-averaged estimates with 95 % confidence intervals (in brackets)
 405 explaining the ln-transformed concentrations of POPs (ng/g lipid weight, and ln/g wet weight for
 406 Σ_5 OH-PCBs) in female polar bears from the Barents Sea, Norway, by feeding habits ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
 407 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), body condition index (BCI), and breeding status (YRL: with yearlings, COY: with cubs of
 408 the year). Age was also included in the models (years; range: 7-19). Values for diet proxies and
 409 BCI have been standardized to attain comparability. Σ_4 PCB: CB-118, 138, 153, 180; Σ_5 OH-PCB:
 410 4-OH-CB-107, 3'-OH-CB-138, 4-OH-CB-146, 4'-OH-CB-159, 4-OH-CB-187.

response	(intercept)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ red blood cells	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ red blood cells	BCI	breeding status: YRL	breeding status: COY	age
ln(Σ_4 PCB)	7.82 (7.74, 7.91)	0.11 (0.03, 0.19)	0.12 (0.03, 0.20)	-0.3 (-0.37, -0.22)	-0.25 (-0.47, -0.03)	0.24 (0.07, 0.41)	-0.02 (-0.04, -0.003)
ln(Σ_5 OH-PCB)	4.29 (4.20, 4.37)	0.20 (0.13, 0.26)	0.24 (0.17, 0.31)	-0.04 (-0.10, 0.02)	-0.01 (-0.15, 0.17)	0.31 (0.19, 0.43)	0.00 (-0.02, 0.01)
ln(<i>p,p'</i> -DDE)	2.36 (-2.11, 6.82)	0.16 (-0.01, 0.33)	0.11 (-0.08, 0.29)	0.29 (0.08, 0.38)	-0.01 (-0.44, 0.42)	-0.56 (-0.89, -0.22)	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.03)
ln(HCB)	4.56 (4.31, 4.81)	0.08 (-0.01, 0.16)	0.14 (0.05, 0.24)	-0.09 (-0.16, -0.009)	-0.15 (-0.37, 0.07)	0.07 (-0.1, 0.24)	-0.02 (-0.03, -0.002)
ln(β -HCH)	3.17 (3.06, 3.3)	0.15 (0.05, 0.25)	0.13 (-0.02, 0.24)	-0.28 (-0.38, -0.19)	-0.40 (-0.68, -0.12)	0.1 (-0.12, 0.31)	-0.03 (-0.05, -0.01)
ln(OxyCHL)	6.18 (6.08, 6.28)	0.12 (0.03, 0.22)	0.11 (-0.001, 0.21)	-0.25 (-0.3, -0.16)	-0.32 (-0.58, -0.06)	0.05 (-0.15, 0.25)	-0.02 (-0.03, 0.002)
ln(BDE-47)	0.36 (-2.19, 2.91)	0.2 (0.12, 0.27)	0.19 (0.11, 0.27)	-0.09 (-0.15, 0.02)	-0.07 (-0.26, 0.11)	0.13 (-0.01, 0.27)	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.004)
ln(BDE-153)	1.1 (0.99, 1.19)	0.11 (0.009, 0.21)	0.1 (-0.03, 0.18)	-0.34 (-0.4, -0.25)	-0.17 (-0.45, 0.11)	0.41 (0.19, 0.62)	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.007)

411

412

413 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

414 **Supporting Information.**

415 The following files are available free of charge. Biological information on the study animals,
416 details on quality assurance for stable isotope and chemical analyses, LMER model selection
417 tables for breakpoints of temporal trends, GAMM selection explaining POP concentration,
418 concentrations of single PCB and OH-PCB congeners, and diagnostic residual plots of GAMMs
419 explaining POP concentrations (PDF).

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423 **Author Contributions**

424 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval
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442

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