

1 **A SIX-YEAR SURVEY OF PLASTIC INGESTION BY AQUATIC BIRDS IN SOUTHERN**  
2 **PORTUGAL**

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Anthropogenic litter in the environment is pervasive globally. Of particular concern are plastics  
21 because of their ubiquity, longevity in the environment and lethal effects. Plastics affect  
22 organisms at most levels of biological organization but, even in well studied animals like birds,  
23 we have limited insight into species-specific vulnerability or temporal trends of ingestion. We  
24 examined stomach contents of four aquatic bird species over more than six years in southern  
25 Portugal. Of the 462 individuals analysed, 22.7% had ingested anthropogenic litter,  
26 predominantly plastics, most of which were clear or white in colour. The White Stork, *Ciconia*  
27 *ciconia*, exhibited the highest frequency of occurrence of anthropogenic litter (61.1%) and of  
28 plastics specifically (55.6%), while the Yellow-legged Gull, *Larus michahellis*, had the lowest  
29 (13.4% for both anthropogenic litter and plastics). Similar frequencies of occurrence were  
30 found for the Northern Gannet, *Morus bassanus* (22% and 20.3%) and the Lesser Black-  
31 backed Gull, *Larus fuscus* (21.4% and 20.8%). The composition of the plastic ingested varied  
32 throughout the study period for each species, but with no clear temporal pattern. Our results  
33 revealed the ubiquity and frequency of occurrence of plastic ingestion as well as clear  
34 differences among species, providing a basis for long-term monitoring of litter ingestion.

35 **Keywords:** multispecies, plastic debris, environmental monitoring, temporal trend, coastal  
36 lagoon

37

## 38 **INTRODUCTION**

39 Over the last 70 years, the abundance of anthropogenic litter, in particular that made of plastic,  
40 has increased exponentially and has rapidly emerged as a global threat to biodiversity (Lau et  
41 al., 2020). The rapid increase and significant accumulation of plastics has been particularly  
42 pronounced in marine habitats (Haward, 2018). Over recent years, scientific literature has  
43 highlighted the ubiquitous nature of plastic pollution from coastlines to the open ocean, and  
44 from the sea surface to the seafloor (Almroth and Eggert, 2019). Beyond the aesthetic effects  
45 of plastic litter, mounting evidence shows that the range of taxa affected by this long-lasting  
46 material and the potentially harmful consequences have escalated (Jâms et al., 2020).

47 Aquatic birds are especially susceptible to the pervasive and increasing presence of plastic  
48 materials in the environment because of their high trophic level and extensive foraging ranges  
49 (Avery-Gomm et al., 2012). Some of the earliest indications of plastic pollution in marine  
50 organisms were plastic caps, toys and bags ingested by Laysan albatrosses in the 1960s  
51 (Kenyon and Kridler, 1969). Since then, the number of studies stressing the wide range of  
52 deleterious effects of plastic pollution on aquatic birds has increased enormously (Battisti et  
53 al., 2019). The number of avian species negatively affected by anthropogenic waste is  
54 projected to grow as more species are investigated; predictably, by 2050, 99% of all seabirds  
55 species might have ingested plastic (Wilcox et al., 2015).

56 Anthropogenic pollution has a wide range of negative effects on aquatic birds, mainly through  
57 ingestion and entanglement (e.g. Gall and Thompson, 2015; O'Hanlon et al., 2017;  
58 Provencher et al., 2017). Entanglement is mostly passive, when individuals become trapped  
59 in litter such as fishing nets or plastic bags, but entanglement can also occur when individuals  
60 became trapped in anthropogenic items that they collect purposely, for example, to construct  
61 their nests ( Ryan, 2018; Lopes et al., 2020). Ingestion can occur inadvertently, while foraging  
62 on other prey items, or deliberately when anthropogenic materials resemble natural food items  
63 (Cadée, 2002; Wilcox et al., 2015, Lopes et al. 2021). Litter kept within the gut can have direct  
64 effects such as dietary dilution causing impaired feeding and growth (Ryan, 1988), and

65 physical damage as internal wounds and ulcers, and gastrointestinal obstruction (Puskic et  
66 al., 2020). Further, a growing body of evidence shows that birds carrying plastics in their  
67 stomachs are exposed to potential toxicological effects arising from leaching of contaminants  
68 that were either added during plastic production (e.g. flame retardant chemicals) or absorbed  
69 by the plastic's surface from the surrounding environment (Roman et al., 2019; Guo et al.,  
70 2020; Tamara et al. 2020).

71

72 Litter ingested by birds does not necessarily mirror the abundance of plastic waste or  
73 anthropogenic material in the environment. However, plastic waste is a reliable proxy for  
74 spatial and temporal trends in the abundance and typology of plastic litter in the environment  
75 (e.g., Van Franeker et al., 2011; Van Franeker and Law, 2015). For instance, the Northern  
76 Fulmar *Fulmarus glacialis*, a procellariiform seabird distributed across the North Atlantic and  
77 Pacific Ocean (Mallory et al., 2006), is used by both OSPAR (Oslo/Paris Convention for the  
78 Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic) and the European MSFD  
79 (Marine Strategy Framework Directive) to monitor spatio-temporal fluctuations of plastic waste  
80 in the North Sea (OSPAR Commission, 2008). The identification and monitoring of such  
81 sentinel species is important to the investigation of plastic pollution (Mallory et al., 2006;  
82 Provencher et al., 2009; Van Franeker et al., 2011; Avery-Gomm et al., 2012), but narrows  
83 the focus. The monitoring of multiple species, including non-indicator species, provides a  
84 broader understanding of the ubiquity of plastic ingestion and the factors that render different  
85 species more or less vulnerable to its ill effects. This allows the recognition of how vulnerability  
86 is influenced by the qualities of the many types of plastics (e.g. their colour), as well as the  
87 characteristics of the monitored species as temporal trends of plastic ingestion differ vastly  
88 among species and plastic typologies (Van Franeker et al., 2011). For instance, surface-  
89 feeding seabirds tend to ingest more plastic than pursuit-diving birds because the majority of  
90 plastics float and accumulate at the surface (O'Hanlon et al., 2017; Poon et al., 2017). Over  
91 the last few years, several multi-species investigations have been crucial to acquire a wide-

92 ranging picture of marine ecosystem health and have highlighted the value of using multiple  
93 species in monitoring programmes (e.g. Acampora et al., 2016).

94

95 Southern Portugal is characterized by several coastal lagoons, some of which are areas of  
96 high wildlife diversity and act as key migration stopover and breeding sites for over 100 bird  
97 species. Recently, baseline assessments of the frequency of occurrence of plastic litter and  
98 its effects on multiple species of aquatic birds in southern Portugal have shown that the  
99 abundance and types of ingested litter vary considerably among species (Nicastro et al., 2018;  
100 Basto et al., 2019). Here, we used data from these baseline studies in combination with more  
101 recent data from individuals which entered a wildlife recovery centre (RIAS) to assess  
102 temporal changes in litter ingestion by multiple species of aquatic birds in southern Portugal.  
103 Specifically, we examined the ingestion of litter by White Stork *Ciconia ciconia*, Lesser Black-  
104 backed *Larus fuscus* and Yellow-legged Gulls *Larus michahellis* and Northern Gannet *Morus*  
105 *bassanus* over a period of nearly 7 years (2014 to mid 2020). Importantly, all birds considered  
106 in this study are from the recovery centre RIAS, thus minimising the biases that often occur  
107 when comparing plastic ingestion by rescued birds and conspecifics from the wild (Provencher  
108 et al. 2019).

109 With plastic pollution increasing visibility, we expected rising frequency of plastic ingestion  
110 over the 7 years period. Further, because the species targeted in this study vary greatly in  
111 their foraging range and diet, we hypothesised pronounced interspecific differences in plastic  
112 ingestion. Specifically, because plastic contamination is expected to be higher in offshore  
113 waters compared to nearshore waters (Avery-Gomm et al. 2013 and references therein), we  
114 hypothesised that plastic ingestion would be higher in species that mainly forage offshore than  
115 in species that are predominantly reliant on coastal habitats for food.

116

## 117 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### 118 **Ethic statement**

119 Animals that reached the center had diseases or were injured. Birds were dead on arrival or  
120 euthanised after 24 hours when they showed no signs of recovery. No animals were  
121 euthanised for the benefit of the project. All applicable institutional, national and international  
122 guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed. Animal manipulation in the RIAS  
123 was performed by suitably qualified professionals, according to the directive 86/609/EEC. All  
124 experimental assays, with or without the use of animals were performed under Government  
125 Veterinary Service (Direcao Geral de Veterinaria/DGV).

## 126 **Study species**

127 The White Stork (*Ciconia ciconia*) is globally rated as a species of least concern (IUCN, 2018);  
128 its distributional range spans across Europe, the Middle East, North and South Africa (Cramp  
129 and Simmons, 1977). In Europe, two populations occur with distinct migratory routes and  
130 wintering areas. The occidental population mainly migrates over the Strait of Gibraltar, while  
131 the oriental population mainly crosses over the Bosphorus and Israel (Araújo et al., 1998). In  
132 Portugal, most of the population breeds in the south (Araújo et al., 1998). The White Stork  
133 primarily feeds on insects, larvae, amphibian, reptiles, small mammals, annelids and aquatic  
134 organisms (Cheriak et al., 2014; Tsachalidis & Goutner, 2002; Vrezec, 2009).

135 The Lesser Black-backed Gull (*Larus fuscus*) is classified as a less vulnerable species,  
136 however, a population reduction over the years has been observed (IUCN, 2018). It is a  
137 palearctic bird but is mostly distributed in the United Kingdom (Hagemeijer et al., 1997). In the  
138 Iberian Peninsula, this species is commonly found on the Berlengas Archipelago, on the  
139 Pessegueiro Island and in the Ria Formosa coastal lagoon. In Portugal, it nests in estuaries  
140 and coastal lagoons, and it is frequently seen on Portugal's coasts during winter. This species  
141 mainly feeds on insects, fish and human rubbish (Coulson & Coulson, 2010; Gyimesi et al.,  
142 2016; Schwemmer & Garthe, 2005; "Aves — ICNF," 2020)).

143 The Yellow-legged Gull (*Larus michahellis*) is listed as a species of least concern (IUCN,  
144 2018); its distribution includes the Macaronesia Islands and Northwest Africa through the  
145 Mediterranean. It is a migratory species, but some populations are defined as partially  
146 migratory. The European population is estimated to be high and expanding in France and the

147 Iberian Peninsula. The species inhabits coastal as well as inland areas. The yellow-legged  
148 gull feeds on fish, insects, molluscs, small mammals and dump rubbish (“Aves — ICNF”, 2020;  
149 Calado et al. 2021).

150 The Northern Gannet (*Morus bassanus*) is a marine bird recorded as a less vulnerable species  
151 (IUCN, 2018). It is widely distributed in northern and western Europe, on the east coast of the  
152 USA and Canada and is moderately abundant over the Mediterranean area and north-west  
153 Africa. During the non-breeding phase, it disperses extensively to the south. The coast of  
154 mainland Portugal is used by this species as a feeding ground and wintering area (Ramírez  
155 et al., 2008). The Northern Gannet is a piscivore, preying on pelagic fish.

### 156 **Study area**

157 The study was carried out in the south of Portugal around the lagoon system of Ria Formosa,  
158 which has recently been declared Ria Formosa Natural Park (PNRF; Amaral, 2009). The Ria  
159 Formosa system comprises a total area of about 18400 ha, of which about 3600 ha are  
160 permanently submerged. It incorporates a wide range of habitats, including marshes,  
161 sandbanks and mudflats, dunes, salt flats, lagoons and areas of diverse vegetation. The  
162 system is known for its high diversity of Avifauna (Amaral, 2009) with over one hundred  
163 species, mainly in the orders Gaviiformes, Podicipediformes, Anseriformes, Gruiformes and  
164 Charadriiformes (Farinha and Costa, 1999). These wetlands act as overwintering zones for  
165 northern species, and the southerly migration routes of many birds pass over this lagoon.

### 166 **Procedure**

167 Data collected for this study (n = 117 individual birds) were integrated with data from Nicastro  
168 et al. (2018; n = 153) and Basto et al. (2019; n = 192). Samples from these previous studies  
169 were from the same region and treated using the same procedures, described below. The  
170 combined dataset comprised 462 dissected individuals collected over six and a half years  
171 (June 2014 to May 2020) and comprised of selected aquatic and marine birds that had been  
172 brought to the wildlife recovery center RIAS, situated in Olhão, southern Portugal. Sampling  
173 was based on volunteers and therefore was irregular over time and species. The 462

174 individuals comprised 53 White Stork (*C. ciconia*), 154 Lesser Black-backed (*L. fuscus*) and  
175 196 Yellow-legged Gull (*L. michahellis*) and 59 Northern Gannet (*M. bassanus*).

176 Necropsies were done immediately after death or samples were frozen at -20°C for later  
177 dissections and followed the Van Franeker dissection method (Provencher et al., 2019). For  
178 all samples, the gastrointestinal tract (GIT) was complete upon examination. Specifically, we  
179 assessed plastic retention within the gizzard and proventriculus. Both compartments were  
180 flushed with water while manipulating the GIT to ensure that all cracks and crevices were  
181 carefully washed; this approach is key to assess the presence of any embedded litter in the  
182 wall or lining of the GIT (Seif et al. 2018). If available, data on age class (New-Born, Juvenile,  
183 Sub-Adult or Adult), gender, body condition and cause of death were registered for each  
184 individual. Age and gender were determined by the stage of the sexual organs, the body  
185 condition (0 to 4) was defined by using pre-determined dimensions (Pinilla, 2000). The  
186 stomach contents were sieved through a 1mm mesh. Inorganic particles were collected and  
187 air-dried for two to three days in Petri dishes.

188 Inorganic particles were counted individually and weighed to the nearest 0.0001g (Sartorius  
189 Advantage AW-224 scale). These items were classified as litter and further divided into non-  
190 plastic items and all plastics. All plastics was further classified into the categories, industrial  
191 plastics, or user plastics. Items classified as user plastics were additionally placed in  
192 subcategories based on type of plastics or colour. Types of plastics were sheetlike, fragment,  
193 threadlike, foamed, others (Van Franeker et al., 2011) while colours were white/clear, grey-  
194 silver, black, blue-purple, green, orange-brown, red-pink and yellow (Provencher et al., 2017).

## 195 **Data Analysis**

196 To avoid unbalanced sampling, years were grouped in three-year intervals (2014-2015, 2016-  
197 2017 and 2018-2020). Additionally, since only three birds ingested industrial plastics, this  
198 category was not included in the analyses to avoid highly zero-inflated data.

199 Initially, data on user plastic ingested were analysed for the effect of species and year interval  
200 in a two-way ANOVA. However, the assumption for homogeneity of variances (Levene's test)  
201 were not fulfilled for either total counts or mass of ingested plastics, even after transformation

202 (Sqrt or Log10). Thus, each species was analysed separately using a 1-way ANOVA with Year  
203 Interval as fixed factor (3 levels, 2014-2015, 2016-2017 and 2018-2020) and counts or mass  
204 as the dependent variable.

205 Additionally, data were tested for differences in patterns of plastic ingestion among Year  
206 Intervals. To do so, three datasets were used: (1) one with plastic counts for each category  
207 (i.e., sheetlike, fragment, threadlike, foamed, others), (2) one with plastic mass for each  
208 category, and (3) one with plastic counts for each colour category (white/clear, grey-silver,  
209 black, blue-purple, green, orange-brown, red-pink and yellow).

210 For each dataset, a two-way multivariate PERMANOVA test was performed with Year  
211 Intervals (3 levels; 2014-2015, 2016-2017 and 2018-2020) and species (4 levels) as fixed  
212 factors and either counts (for datasets (1) and (3)) or mass (for dataset (2)) as the dependent  
213 variable. Each analysis was run with 9999 permutations and using Bray–Curtis dissimilarity  
214 matrices with a dummy variable of 1 (Clarke et al., 2006) for square-root transformed  
215 multivariate measures. The Monte Carlo P-values (p(MC)) were preferred over the  
216 permutation P-values (Anderson, 2006).

217 When main effects were significant, pairwise tests were performed (Monte Carlo) and  
218 permutational analysis of multivariate dispersions test for heterogeneity (PERMDISP) was run  
219 to evaluate the variability among years, based on the distances to centroids (Anderson, 2006).

220 In addition, the SIMPER procedure (Clarke, 1993) was used to identify the percentage  
221 contribution (%) that each variable made to the between-years Bray-Curtis dissimilarities and  
222 was run with a cut of 50%. All multivariate analyses were performed using PRIMER 6.1.15  
223 and PERMANOVA+ 1.0.5 software (PRIMER-E Ltd, 2012).

224 To visually represent each dataset, a two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling  
225 (nMDS) was performed highlighting the two main factors in the PERMANOVA analyses (Year,  
226 Species).

227

## 228 **RESULTS**

229 Of the 462 individuals, 105 ingested litter (i.e., non-plastics and all plastics; 22.73%). Of these  
230 100 (21.65%) ingested plastics, making all plastics the dominant ingested material (Figure 1).  
231 Among the birds ingesting plastics (all plastics), industrial plastics (as opposed to user  
232 plastics) were ingested by only three individuals in the 2016-2017 period, having ingested 90,  
233 1 or 2 pellets (Table 1) and thus this category was removed from the multivariate analyses to  
234 avoid highly zero-inflated data.

235 No species showed significant temporal changes in ingestion of user plastics, i.e., no  
236 significant effects of Year Interval (*L. fuscus*: counts  $F(2,151)=0.33$ ,  $p = 0.721$ ; mass  
237  $F(2,151)=0.26$ ,  $p = 0.772$ ; *L. michahellis*: counts  $F(2,151)=0.65$ ,  $p = 0.521$ , mass  
238  $F(2,191)=0.108$ ,  $p = 0.898$ ; *C. ciconia*: counts:  $F(2, 51)=1.704$ ,  $p = 0.192$ ; mass:  $F(2, 51)=0.82$ ,  
239  $p = 0.445$ ; *M. bassanus*: counts:  $F(2, 56)=0.78$ ,  $p = 0.462$ ; mass:  $F(2, 56)=0.43$ ,  $p = 0.655$ ;  
240 Figure 2g,h).

241  
242 The pattern in the counts of ingested user plastics changed among Year Intervals  
243 (PERMANOVA, Year Interval,  $p(\text{MC}) = 0.001$ ) and differed among species (PERMANOVA,  
244 Species,  $p(\text{MC}) = 0.001$ ; Figure 3). In particular, the period 2014-2015 was significantly  
245 different from the other time frames (pair wise tests,  $p<0.05$ ) while the pattern of ingestion by  
246 *C. ciconia* significantly differed from that of the other species. However, the dispersion of the  
247 datapoints within the term species was not homogenous (PERMDISP,  $p = 0.001$ ) which might  
248 have inflated the effect of species.

249 The plastic category fragments contributed most to the differences observed between 2014-  
250 2015 and 2016-2017 (SIMPER: 38.4%) and between 2014-2015 and 2019-2020 (SIMPER:  
251 29.5%) followed by sheetlike (SIMPER: 30.4%) and other (SIMPER: 24.4%) respectively. The  
252 categories other and threadlike contributed equally (SIMPER: 27.9% and 27.8 respectively)  
253 to the dissimilarities between 2016-2017 and 2018-2020.

254  
255 The pattern in the mass of ingested user plastics changed throughout the years but not in the  
256 same way for all species (PERMANOVA, Species x Year Interval,  $p = 0.001$ ; Figure 4).

257 However, the dispersion of the datapoints within the term Species and within the term Year  
258 Interval was not homogenous (PERMDISP,  $p = 0.001$  for both) which may have inflated the  
259 significant effects. This is probably the case for the effect of Year Interval, as no significant  
260 differences were further detected for the term Species x Year Interval for pairs of the levels of  
261 the factor Year Interval (pair-wise;  $p > 0.075$ ). However, pair-wise testing further confirmed a  
262 species effect, with plastic ingestion patterns for *C. ciconia* differing significantly from each of  
263 the other species (pair-wise;  $p(\text{MC}) < 0.01$  for all) for every year interval.  
264 Other and fragments contributed the most to the differences observed between *C. ciconia* and  
265 *L. fuscus* (SIMPER: 46.9 and 32.37% respectively), *L. michahellis* (47.2 and 36% respectively)  
266 and *M. bassanus* (43.6 and 26.2% respectively).

267

## 268 **DISCUSSION**

269 All four aquatic bird species reported here ingested anthropogenic litter, with plastic as the  
270 dominant material. Interestingly, contrary to our initial expectations and despite marked  
271 temporal fluctuations in the percentage of individuals ingesting litter, none of the species  
272 showed significant temporal trends through the study period. Similarly, despite the counts and  
273 the mass of some specific types of plastics ingested changing significantly among years, no  
274 significant trends of increasing or decreasing frequency of plastic ingestion were observed  
275 during our study.

276 Importantly, all the birds used in this study were either dead when they were admitted to the  
277 recovery facility or died during their stay. While the use of birds from rescue centres is an  
278 extremely valuable and widely used approach to investigate plastic ingestion, it is also critical  
279 to note that such samples may or may not be representative of the population and, thus, may  
280 affect how the data should be interpreted. In particular, the assessment of plastic ingestion  
281 may be biased in stranded birds or those for which the cause of death is unknown, as litter  
282 may have caused the death of the animal (Auman et al. 1998) or the poor health condition  
283 that eventually led to its admission to a rescue facility. Indeed, there is evidence that in some  
284 species, the plastic burdens differ significantly between beached individuals and those that

285 died in good conditions, such as drowning in fishing nets or colliding with ship cables  
286 (Rodríguez et al. 2018).

287 Although numerous studies have reported anthropogenic litter ingestion in birds, temporal  
288 comparisons remain relatively scarce and have provided contrasting patterns depending on  
289 the region and the species assessed. For instance, results from a 14 year (1975-1989) survey  
290 of plastic ingestion by northwestern Atlantic seabirds showed a significant increase in  
291 Procellariiform species (Moser and Lee, 1992). In contrast, the evaluation of ingestion of  
292 plastic marine debris by Common and Thick-billed Murres in the northwestern Atlantic from  
293 1985 to 2012 did not show a significant change in the frequency of ingestion among species  
294 or periods (Bond et al., 2013). More recent studies, looking at species-specific and temporal  
295 differences in plastic ingestion over ten years (2008 and 2018) by four seabird species in the  
296 Canadian Arctic, found that the number and mass of plastic ingested by fulmars (*Fulmarus*  
297 *glacialis*) decreased but the frequency of occurrence of plastic ingestion did not change (Baak  
298 et al., 2020). Despite non-significant temporal tendencies, we observed pronounced  
299 interspecies differences in plastic ingestion, confirming previous studies showing that the  
300 propensity of a species to ingest plastic often varies according to foraging behaviour, foraging  
301 range, morphology or diet (e.g. Moser and Lee, 1992; Richardson et al., 2013; Bond et al.,  
302 2014; Poon et al., 2017;). Moreover, for all the species and throughout most of the period  
303 targeted in our study, inter-individual variability was large, possibly triggered by the numerous  
304 factors affecting ingestion.

305 In general, because litter occurs at higher densities in offshore waters, seabirds that feed  
306 farther offshore are expected to be more prone to plastic ingestion than inshore species  
307 (Richardson et al., 2013). However, our initial hypothesis was not supported; the White Stork  
308 *Ciconia ciconia*, which generally feeds inland or in coastal shallow waters, displayed  
309 consistently higher proportions of individuals ingesting plastic than the other three species.  
310 Our samples of *C. ciconia* showed proportions of anthropogenic litter (plastic and non-plastic)  
311 ingestion comparable to values reported in other studies in Spain (e.g. Peris, 2003). However,

312 when considering percentages of plastic ingestion alone, our values were markedly higher  
313 than those of Spanish storks (14%; Peris, 2003). Such marked differences are most likely due  
314 to distinct feeding grounds. Specifically, all samples used in Peris (2003) came from the  
315 Spanish provinces of Avila, Salamanca and Zamora (41° 30'- 40° 50' N/6°15'-5°20' W),  
316 situated inland on the west-central northern plateau. This plateau lies between 800- 1000  
317 metres above sea level and it is largely devoted to cereal croplands, open grasslands, and  
318 wooded pasturelands. Critically, the area has a widespread supply of waste dumps that are  
319 exploited by storks throughout the year. Our study area, the Ria Formosa Natural Park,  
320 sustains a variety of diverse habitats, including sand dunes, saltmarshes, and foundation  
321 species such as seagrasses, and is used for various human activities. Recent studies show  
322 that the Ria Formosa Natural Park is experiencing increasing contamination by anthropogenic  
323 litter largely made up of plastics and construction materials and mainly triggered by local  
324 activities, such as tourism and fishery, as well as shipping and industry (Velez et al., 2019,  
325 2020). Mounting evidence shows that the Ciconiidae are increasingly reliant on environments  
326 linked to human activities for food. While we cannot establish if the majority of ingested litter  
327 found in the stomachs of storks derived from human-related environments, an increasing  
328 number of studies have stressed the growing use of agricultural areas and landfill sites by  
329 European white storks with substantial behavioural and fitness alterations (Gilbert et al.,  
330 2016). For example, rubbish dumps provide nearly 70% of food for Spanish storks, the  
331 continuous availability of foraging resources at landfills compensating for seasonal declines in  
332 natural food accessibility (Tortosa et al., 2002). As a consequence, significant improvement in  
333 breeding success has been reported, largely due to reduced mortality in first-year birds  
334 (Gilbert et al., 2016). Similarly, recent studies investigating *C. ciconia* breeding colonies that  
335 exploit landfill sites in northern Algeria, have described increases in egg volume and hatching  
336 mass (Djerdali et al., 2016). The year-round availability of abundant food from rubbish dumps  
337 has also modified the migratory strategies of white storks, eventually aiding the establishment  
338 of overwintering populations in a formerly migratory species (Blanco, 1996; Tortosa et al.,  
339 2002). Most significantly, changes in population demography have also been highlighted; over

340 the three decades, the breeding population of *C. ciconia* has increased significantly in Iberia  
341 (Rosa et al., 2009).

342 Several gull species are also particularly prone to litter ingestion (Lopes et al. 2021). In addition  
343 to foraging in marine habitats, they exploit land-based sites including general public litter,  
344 harbours and landfills and dumps in the proximity of the coast (Belant et al., 1998; Duhem et  
345 al., 2003; Lindborg et al., 2012; Seif et al., 2018). In fact, it has been shown that some gulls  
346 may specialise on landfills totally abandoning marine habitats for feeding (Weiser and Powell,  
347 2011; Bond, 2016). Despite the increasing dependence on human-related environments, the  
348 Lesser Black-backed Gull *Larus fuscus* and the Yellow-legged Gull *Larus michahellis* samples  
349 assessed in our study showed consistently lower proportions of ingestion than storks which  
350 also significantly rely on land-fills for feeding. Furthermore, the two seagull species showed  
351 pronounced differences in the percentages of individuals ingesting litter, with *L. fuscus* having  
352 a noticeably higher proportions for both plastic and non-plastic items.

353 Previous studies along the shores of Ireland, found that all *L. fuscus* ingested plastic  
354 (Acampora et al., 2016, though only two samples were investigated). Other *Larus spp.*  
355 assessed by Acampora et al. (2016) exhibited comparable percentages of individuals  
356 ingesting litter, ranging from 22% to 32%. Previous assessments of plastic debris ingestion  
357 in the Yellow-legged Gull along Mediterranean shores (Codina-García et al., 2013) found  
358 percentages of ingestion nearly three times as high as those in our Portuguese samples.

359 For the Northern Gannet *Morus bassanus* the proportion of individuals ingesting  
360 anthropogenic litter was markedly lower than in *C. ciconia*. Previous assessments of plastic  
361 ingestion in the Northern Gannet from Portugal reported a relatively low proportion (4.8%;  
362 Basto et al. 2019). However, our results highlight percentages of ingestion comparable to  
363 those of Suliformes from Ireland (26.7%; Acampora et al., 2016) and similar to the 23.9%  
364 reported for Pelecaniformes by Kühn et al., 2015, and higher than values for Northern Gannet  
365 in the Mediterranean (13%; Codina-García et al., 2013). The discrepancy is probably due to

366 the increase in sample size in this study (n= 59) compared to the previous assessment which  
367 was based on data from just 8 individuals (Basto et al. 2019).

368 The retention times of anthropogenic litter in a bird's digestive tract may also be a key  
369 determinant of both marked interspecific differences and spatio-temporal variations within the  
370 same species. For example, gulls regurgitate significant amounts of the debris ingested, so  
371 that retention times are likely to be markedly shorter than for other species that accumulate  
372 litter in the gut and the stomach contents of gulls will represent only a snapshot of ingestion.  
373 As for gulls, abundant evidence shows that storks are also able to regurgitate, either to deliver  
374 food onto the bottom of the nest or to expel non-edible items initially mistakenly identified as  
375 food (e.g., Sazima et al. 2015; Henry et al. 2011; Kwieciński et al. 2006). However, because  
376 retention time is also affected by qualities of the litter itself such as the morphology and  
377 material/polymer type of ingested items, storks may not be able to regurgitate as efficiently as  
378 gulls. Several studies have provided evidence of massive ingestion of elongated soft plastics  
379 (i.e., silicon rubber bands and elastics) by storks, presumably because their colour and shape  
380 mimic prey such as Lumbricidae (e.g., Sazima et al. 2015; Henry et al. 2011). Although  
381 receiving little attention, retention time of different types of plastic may be a crucial variable  
382 when assessing plastic ingestion in marine wildlife. In fact, there is evidence that microplastics  
383 have significantly shorter retention times than larger pieces, that must be broken down before  
384 being expelled (Bergmann et al., 2015) and that softer plastics such as latex balloon  
385 fragments, bags and foam can remain in the guts of marine animals for several months  
386 (Roman et al., 2019).

387 Supporting previous studies, we found high frequency of occurrence of User plastics ingestion.  
388 This may reflect the ease with which such material enters the environment often directly from  
389 landfills (UNEP, 2016). Currently, one-third of plastic litter produced in Portugal ends into open  
390 landfills (PlasticsEurope, 2020). With a program that started in 2016, the European Union  
391 Land fill Directive (1993/31/EC) is aiming to progressively reduce the volume of municipal  
392 waste entering landfills, through the closing of open-air landfills or their replacement by  
393 covered waste management facilities. Although it is likely that the European Union Land fill

394 Directive will have important benefits for aquatic birds in Portugal, no signs of this transition  
395 have yet been observed (PlasticsEurope, 2017, 2020).

396 As global plastic contamination continues to rise and the incidence of anthropogenic litter,  
397 particularly plastics, in seabirds continues to increase, studies such as ours are fundamental  
398 to evaluating the functionality of management and conservation actions. Such data are key  
399 for larger syntheses aimed at assessing current differences among areas and changes  
400 through time, particularly for Portuguese and southern Europe monitoring programs for which  
401 information is scarce or non-existent.

402

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405

#### 406 **CONFLICTS OF INTERESTS**

407 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

408

#### 409 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

410 The data that support this study will be shared upon reasonable request to the corresponding  
411 author.

412

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417

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## 660 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

661 **Figure 1.** Proportion (%) of (A) White Stork *Ciconia ciconia* (n = 52); (B) Northern Gannet  
662 *Morus bassanus* (n = 56); (C) Lesser Black-backed Gull *Larus fuscus* (n =143); (D) Yellow-  
663 legged Gull *Larus michahellis* (n = 181) which ingested anthropogenic litter (total plastic and  
664 non-plastic items).

665 **Figure 2.** Mean (+SD) individual plastic ingested by White Stork *Ciconia ciconia* in (A) counts  
666 and (B) mass; Northern Gannet *Morus bassanus* (C) counts and (D) mass; Lesser Black-  
667 backed Gulls *Larus fuscus* in (E) counts and (F) mass; Yellow-legged Gull *Larus michahellis*  
668 in (G) counts and (H) mass.

669 **Figure 3.** Two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) for ingested plastic  
670 counts with data grouped by (A) species or (B) year interval. PERMANOVA main results: The

671 pattern of ingestion by *C. ciconia* significantly differed from that of the other species while the  
 672 period 2014-2015 was significantly different from the other time frames.

673 **Figure 4.** Two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) for ingested plastic  
 674 mass when data grouped by (A) species or (B) year interval. PERMANOVA main results: the  
 675 pattern of ingestion by *C. ciconia* significantly differed from that of the other species.

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677 Table 1. Frequency of occurrence of plastics (95% confidence intervals – CI), number and  
 678 mass of plastics ingested by White Stork *Ciconia ciconia* (n = 110).

	Frequency of plastic occurrence (%FO) (95% CI)	Number of plastic items			Mass of plastic items		
		Mean (n; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range	Mean (g; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range
All plastics	44.54 (1.839, 2.561)	2.2 (110; ± 1.931; ± 0.276)	2	1-12	2.1 (102.847; ± 3.84; ± 0.549)	0.29	0.0008-18.16
Industrial		0	0	0	0	0	0
User	29.1 (1.434, 1.966)	1.7 (54; ± 0.998; ± 0.176)	1	1-4	0.462 (14.769; ± 1.423; ± 0.251)	0.04	0.0008-8.0738
Sheetlike	8.18 (1.232, 2.968)	2.1 (19; ± 1.189; ± 0.217)	0	1-4	0.055 (0.491; ± 0.055; ± 0.01)	0	0.0022-0.2885
Threadlike	5.45 (0.238, 2.762)	1.5 (9; ± 0.712; ± 0.132)	0	1-3	1.828 (10.965; ± 1.53; ± 0.289)	0	0.2458-8.0738
Foam		0	0	0	0	0	0
Fragments	15.45 (0.758, 2.242)	1.5 (26; ± 0.9979; ± 0.176)	1	1-4	0.195 (3.312; ± 0.23; ± 0.04)	0	0.0008-0.9474
Other	15.45 (2.609, 3.971)	3.29 (56; ± 2.6; ± 0.504)	0	1-12	5.181 (88.079; ± 4.669; ± 0.899)	0.63	0.0723-18.16

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686 Table 2. Frequency of occurrence of plastics (95% confidence intervals – CI), number and  
687 mass of plastic ingested by Northern Gannet *Morus bassanus* (n = 137).

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	Frequency of plastic occurrence (%FO) (95% CI)	Number of plastic items			Mass of plastic items		
		Mean (n; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range	Mean (g; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range
All plastics	9.49 (5.39, 16.61)	11 (137; ± 33.495; ± 9.29)	1	1-122	0.413 (4.125; ± 0.981; ± 0.193)	0.012	0.002-3.82
Industrial		0	0	0	0	0	0
User	7.3 (6.51, 19.49)	13 (133; ± 38.198; ± 12.079)	1	1-122	0.57 (3.989; ± 1.342; ± 0.448)	00.01	0.0017-3.82
Sheetlike		0	0	0	0	0	0
Threadlike	5.84 (-22.21, 24.21)	1 (8; ± 0.467; ± 0.14)	1	1-1	0.783 (3.913; ± 0.899; ± 0.212)	0	0.0017-3.8201
Foam	0.73	122	0	0	0.0085	0	0
Fragments	0.73	3	0	0	0.0676	0	0
Other	2.19 (-31.82, 33.82)	1 (4; ± 0.816; ± 0.333)	0	1-2	0.045 (0.136; ± 0.899; ± 0.212)	0	0.0157-0.1011

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696 Table 3. Frequency of occurrence of plastics (95% confidence intervals – CI), number and  
 697 mass of plastic ingested by Lesser Black-backed Gull *Larus fuscus* (n=175).

	Frequency of plastic occurrence (%FO) (95% CI)	Number of plastic items			Mass of plastic items		
		Mean (n; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range	Mean (g; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range
All plastics	24.57 (2.01, 5.99)	4 (175; ± 13.454; ± 1.987)	1	1-90	0.118 (4.849; ± 0.631; ± 0.05)	0	0.0001-4.052
Industrial	1.71 (20.61, 41.39)	31 (93; ± 51.1; ± 29.5)	2	1-90	1.37 (4.111; ± 0.954; ± 0.225)	0	0.018-4.052
User	18.86 (1.45, 2.55)	2 (70; ± 2.333; ± 0.386)	1	1-14	0.019 (0.593; ± 0.052; ± 0.004)	0	0.0001-0.2793
Sheetlike	6.86 (-4.715, 7.715)	1.5 (18; ± 0.87; ± 0.164)	0	1-3	0.018 (0.195; ± 0.009; ± 0.001)	0	0.0004-0.1054
Threadlike	4 (-6.3807, 9.5207)	1.57 (11; ± 0.82; ± 0.152)	0	1-3	0.004 (0.03; ± 2.646; ± 0.461)	0	0.0001-0.0111
Foam	2.29 (-7.32, 11.32)	2 (8; ± 1.342; ± 0.359)	0	1-5	0.003 (0.014; ± 2.646; ± 0.461)	0	0.0012-0.0077
Fragments	5.71 (2.397, 4.203)	3.3 (33; ± 2.646; ± 0.461)	0	1-14	0.039 (0.353; ± 0.023; ± 0.002)	0	0.0027-0.2793
Other	4 (-5.752, 9.4722)	1.86 (12; ± 1.552; ± 0.461)	0	1-6	0.02 (0.145; ± 0.009; ± 0.001)	0	0.0004-0.0527

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704 Table 4. based on plastic categories. Frequency of occurrence of plastics (95% confidence  
 705 intervals – CI), counts and mass by Yellow-legged Gull *Larus michahellis* (n=70).

	Frequency of plastic occurrence (%FO) (95% CI)	Number of plastic items			Mass of plastic items		
		Mean (n; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range	Mean (g; ± sd; ± se)	Median	Range
All plastics	44.29 (1.5644, 2.2156)	1,89 (70; ± 1.3901; ± 0.1265)	1	1-6	0.026 (0.7411; ± 0.456; ± 0.004)	0	0.0001-0.163
Industrial	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
User	40.00 (1.6288, 2.3112)	1.97 (67; ± 1.425; ± 0.131)	1	1-6	0.02 (0.529; ± 0.575; ± 0.041)	0	0.0001-0.163
Sheetlike	11.43 (1.37, 2.63)	2 (19; ± 1.227; ± 0.289)	0	1-5	0.021 (0.186; ± 0.013; ± 0.001)	0	0.0001-0.163
Threadlike	8.57 (1.14, 2.86)	2 (10; ± 0.984; ± 0.232)	0	1-3	0.0436 (0.174; ± 0.796; ± 0.04)	0.0048	0.0016-0.163
Foam	4.29 (0.78, 3.22)	2 (5; ± 0.951; ± 0.36)	0	1-2	0.0037 (0.0074; ± 0.002; ± 0.001)	0	0.0029-0.0045
Fragments	15.71 (1.826, 2.894)	2.357 (33; ± 1.565; ± 0.35)	0	1-6	0.013 (0.162; ± 0.013; ± 0.018)	0	0.0001-0.0448
Other	4.29 (-0.57, 2.57)	1 (3; ± 0.535; ± 0.202)	0	1	0.071 (0.212; ± 0.018; ± 0.002)	0	0.017-0.118

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