

1 **Seabird and sea duck mortalities were lower during the second**
2 **breeding season in eastern Canada following the introduction of**
3 **Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza A H5Nx viruses**

4 Tabatha L. Cormier¹, Tatsiana Barychka², Matthieu Beaumont³, Tori V. Burt⁴, Matthew D
5 English⁵, Jolene A. Giacinti², Jean-François Giroux^{6,7}, Magella Guillemette⁸, Kathryn E. Hargan⁹,
6 Megan Jones^{10,11}, Stéphane Lair¹², Andrew S. Lang⁹, Christine Lepage³, William A.
7 Montevecchi⁴, Ishraq Rahman⁹, Jean-François Rail³, Gregory J. Robertson¹³, Robert A.
8 Ronconi⁵, Yannick Seyer³, Liam U. Taylor¹⁴, Christopher R. E. Ward¹⁵, Jordan Wight⁹, Sabina I.
9 Wilhelm¹⁵, Stephanie Avery-Gomm²

10
11 **Affiliations:**

12 ¹Environment and Climate Change Canada, Canadian Wildlife Service, Sackville, New
13 Brunswick, Canada

14 ²Environment and Climate Change Canada, Wildlife and Landscape Science Directorate,
15 Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

16 ³Environment and Climate Change Canada, Canadian Wildlife Service, Québec, Quebec,
17 Canada

18 ⁴Memorial University of Newfoundland, Department of Psychology, St. John's, Newfoundland
19 and Labrador, Canada

20 ⁵Environment and Climate Change Canada, Canadian Wildlife Service, Dartmouth, Nova Scotia,
21 Canada

22 ⁶Université du Québec à Montréal, Département des Sciences Biologiques, Montréal, Quebec,
23 Canada

24 ⁷Société Duvetnor Ltée, Rivière-du-Loup, Quebec, Canada

25 ⁸Université du Québec à Rimouski, Département de Biologie, Chimie et Géographie, Rimouski,
26 Quebec, Canada

27 ⁹Memorial University of Newfoundland, Department of Biology, St. John's, Newfoundland and
28 Labrador, Canada

29 ¹⁰University of Prince Edward Island, Department of Pathology and Microbiology, Charlottetown,
30 Prince Edward Island, Canada

31 ¹¹Canadian Wildlife Health Cooperative, Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island, Canada

32 ¹²Université de Montréal, Faculté de médecine vétérinaire, Centre québécois sur la santé des
33 animaux sauvages, Montréal, Quebec, Canada

34 ¹³Environment and Climate Change Canada, Wildlife and Landscape Science Directorate,
35 Mount Pearl, Newfoundland and Labrador, Canada

36 ¹⁴Yale University, Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, New Haven, Connecticut,
37 Canada

38 ¹⁵Environment and Climate Change Canada, Canadian Wildlife Service, Mount Pearl,
39 Newfoundland and Labrador, Canada

40 **Key words (6):** HPAI, bird flu, wild bird, waterfowl, mass mortality, mortality assessment,
41 disease

42 **Corresponding author:** Stephanie Avery-Gomm stephanieavery-gomm@ec.gc.ca

43

44 **Data availability:** The complete mortality dataset (Data S1), the code to reproduce the double
45 count analysis, and colony survey information (Data S2, S3, S4) will be published upon
46 acceptance of the manuscript. The following DOI has been reserved for this purpose:
47 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25492693>.

48 **Summary**

49 H5N1 clade 2.3.4.4b viruses have caused significant mortality events in various wild bird
50 species across Europe, North America, South America, and Africa. In North America, the largest
51 impacts on wild birds have been in eastern Canada, where over 40,391 wild birds were reported
52 to have died from highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) between April and September 2022.
53 In the year following, we applied previously established methods to quantify total reported
54 mortality in eastern Canada for a full year October 2022, to September 2023. In this study, we
55 (i) document the spatial, temporal and taxonomic patterns of wild bird mortality in the 12 months
56 that followed the mass mortality event in the summer of 2022 and (ii) quantify the observed
57 differences in mortality across the breeding season (April to September) of 2022 and 2023. In
58 eastern Canada, there was high uncertainty about whether 2023 would bring another year of
59 devastating HPAI-linked mortalities. Mortalities in the breeding season were 93% lower in 2023
60 compared to 2022 but encompassed a more taxonomically diverse array of species. We found
61 that mortalities in the fall and winter (non-breeding season) were dominated by waterfowl, while
62 mortalities during the spring and summer (breeding season) were dominated by seabirds. Due
63 to a low prevalence of HPAI among the subset of tested birds, we refrained from broadly
64 attributing reported mortalities in 2023 to HPAI. However, our analysis did identify three notable
65 mortality events linked to HPAI, involving at least 1,646 Greater Snow Geese, 232 Canada
66 Geese, and 212 Northern Gannets.
67 This study emphasizes the ongoing need for H5NX surveillance and mortality assessments as
68 the patterns of mortality in wild populations continue to change.

69 **Introduction**

70 The impact of highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) clade 2.3.4.4b H5N1 viruses and their
71 derived reassortants (H5Nx) on both wild and domestic birds in recent years has been
72 unprecedented (Careen et al., 2024; Lane et al., 2023; Ramey et al., 2022). This virus has also been
73 responsible for disease and mortality events in an unprecedented number of wild bird species
74 worldwide (Avery-Gomm et al., 2024; Leguia et al., 2023; Molini et al., 2023; Rijks et al., 2022). Another
75 concerning development with this virus has been the positive detection in a wide variety of
76 marine mammals and terrestrial mesopredators (Alkie et al., 2023; Plaza et al., 2024).

77

78 In North America, the first confirmed case of HPAI clade 2.3.4.4b H5N1 in a wild bird was
79 detected in a Great Black-backed Gull (*Larus marinus*) in late 2021 in Newfoundland, Canada
80 (Caliendo et al., 2022). Since then, mass mortality events in seabirds (e.g., Pelecaniformes,
81 Suliformes, and Charadriiformes), sea ducks (e.g., American Common Eider; *Somateria
mollissima*), and geese (Anseriformes; waterfowl) have been documented (Avery-Gomm et al.,
82 2024; Giacinti et al., 2023). To date, the largest mortalities associated with HPAI in North America
83 have been in eastern Canada, where at least 40,391 wild birds died during the 2022 HPAI
84 outbreak between April and September 2022 (Avery-Gomm et al., 2024). The scale of mass
85 mortality that occurred among seabirds and sea ducks was unanticipated and coincided with
86 similar mass mortalities in Europe (European Food Safety Authority et al., 2022; Pearce-Higgins et al.,
87 2022).

88

89 The rapidly evolving nature of HPAI viruses has complicated response and monitoring efforts, as
90 its impacts are challenging to predict, prepare for, and manage (Ramey et al., 2022). In eastern
91 Canada, there was high uncertainty about whether 2023 would bring another year of devastating
92 HPAI-linked mortalities. In addition to increasing disease surveillance through Canada's

94 Interagency Surveillance Program for Avian Influenza Viruses in Wild Birds, Environment and
95 Climate Change Canada (ECCC), the federal wildlife agency responsible for the conservation
96 and management of migratory birds, opted to prepare for another significant mortality event in
97 eastern Canada.

98

99 Using methods developed from Avery-Gomm et al. (2024), to document mortality in the
100 spring/summer of 2022, we collated mortality reports across eastern Canada for 12 months
101 spanning October 2022 to September 2023. Unlike Avery-Gomm et al. (2024), who sought to
102 assess HPAI-linked mortality only, this study reports on complete mortality in wild birds
103 regardless of the cause of death and uses avian influenza virus (AIV) screening data when
104 available to draw inferences about the cause of death. The objectives of this study are to (i)
105 document the spatial, temporal and taxonomic patterns of wild bird mortality in the 12 months
106 that followed the spring/summer mass mortality events of 2022 described by Avery-Gomm et al.
107 (2024), and (ii) quantify the observed differences in mortality across the breeding seasons (i.e.,
108 April and September) of 2022 and 2023.

109

110 **Materials and Methods**

111 To the extent possible, the collation of mortality reports and data processing were aligned with
112 the methods of Avery-Gomm et al. (2024). Accordingly, we defined eastern Canada as the
113 provinces of Québec (QC), New Brunswick (NB), Nova Scotia (NS), Prince Edward Island (PE),
114 and Newfoundland and Labrador (NL). We defined spring/summer as April 1 – September 30,
115 which spans the breeding season for almost all birds in eastern Canada. To quantify the
116 differences in mortality across the breeding seasons across two years, we present data for i) the
117 spring/summer of 2022 (the period reported in Avery-Gomm et al. 2024) and ii) the
118 spring/summer of 2023. In addition, we report mortalities for the intervening period (October
119 2022 – March 2023), hereafter referred to as the fall/winter period. Deviations from the methods

120 described by Avery-Gomm et al. (2024) included an increased effort to survey beaches in the
121 spring/summer of 2023, the inclusion of the complete mortality dataset (i.e., not only HPAI-
122 linked mortality), and no effort to characterize the age classes of any species using photos
123 submitted to iNaturalist.

124

125 In the spring and summer of 2023, preparations involved allocating financial and human
126 resources to survey breeding colonies (aerial and on foot) for impacted populations of seabirds,
127 and to conduct beach surveys. The goal of the colony surveys was to assess the impact of the
128 2022 outbreak on breeding colonial seabirds and sea ducks and the goal of the beach surveys
129 was to improve the assessment of mortality events if one should occur by providing information
130 on the onset, duration, and scale of mortality, as well as improving access to fresh carcasses for
131 testing, necropsy, and early confirmation of HPAI.

132

133 ***Collation of wild bird mortality data***

134 For the first period (spring/summer 2022) the complete mortality dataset, which includes all
135 reported mortalities - not only those attributed to HPAI, was obtained from Avery-Gomm et al.
136 (2024). For the subsequent 12 months (October 2022 to September 2023), we requested and
137 collated the submission of mortality reports from the same data providers that contributed data
138 in the summer of 2022. This included provincial, federal, Indigenous, and municipal government
139 staff and databases, the Canadian Wildlife Health Cooperative (CWHC), NGOs, university
140 researchers, and two citizen science platforms (eBird and iNaturalist). The details on how data
141 from iNaturalist were obtained are available in the Supplementary material (Appendix S1).

142 Observations of wild bird mortalities on seabird and sea duck colonies, that were visited by
143 government biologists and university researchers, were obtained through direct solicitation.

144 Among the colonies visited were all six Northern Gannet (*Morus bassanus*) colonies, previously
145 impacted Common Eider colonies in the St. Lawrence Estuary and some Common Murre (*Uria*

146 *aalge*) and Herring Gull (*Larus argentatus*) colonies which were previously impacted (e.g. Taylor
147 et al. 2023). Dates and details regarding which colonies were visited in 2023 for Northern
148 Gannet, Common Eider, and Common Murres can be found in the online data repository (Data
149 S2, Data S3, and Data S4 respectively).

150
151 Mortalities reported by data providers were supplemented with an increased beach survey effort
152 during the spring/summer of 2023. From March 10 to November 3, 2023, 42 beaches across NB
153 (13), NS (13), PE (14), and the island of Newfoundland (NF; 2) were surveyed. Fifteen of the
154 beaches were selected because they had a high number of reported mortalities in the
155 spring/summer of 2022. These were surveyed at 7 to 14-day intervals whenever possible. Poor
156 weather or logistical issues (i.e., travel, staff availability) resulted in a maximum of 1 month
157 occurring between surveys for some beaches (Appendix S2; Table S1). Twenty-seven of the
158 beaches were surveyed on an ad hoc basis in response to public reports of mortality or to
159 increase coverage of the coastline surveyed and these were surveyed following the same
160 protocol, but at less regular intervals (i.e., 1-5 visits throughout the spring/summer).

161
162 Beach surveys followed standardized protocols (as described in Wilhelm et al. 2009, Lucas et al.
163 2012); they were conducted by walking along the lowest wrack line (i.e., the line of stranded
164 seaweed and debris closest to the water) while scanning side to side for the entire length of the
165 beach and returning along the next wrack line above. For wide beaches with many wrack lines,
166 surveyors walked in a zig-zag motion to increase the encounter rate of carcasses. Carcasses
167 that were identified as suitable for necropsy were collected following the HPAI beach survey
168 protocol (Appendix S2) and carcasses too decomposed for testing were flagged or disposed of
169 to avoid duplicate counting during the next survey. The site name, date, and start and end point
170 of each survey were recorded (Appendix S2; Table S1).

171

172 ***Data processing***

173 All reports of mortality, including mortalities observed on colonies and during beach surveys,
174 included the date, observer name and contact information, source, location (coordinates and/or
175 site name), species identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level, and number of mortalities
176 per species. When coordinates were unavailable or not provided in reports, georeferencing
177 based on site name was conducted manually using Google Earth Pro or automatically using the
178 geocode function in the R package ggmap (Kahle and Wickham, 2013). For observations that
179 could not be identified to the species level, less precise taxonomic assignments were used (e.g.,
180 unknown gull, unknown tern). All observations were assigned to one of the following species
181 groups: seabirds (includes American Common Eider), waterfowl, waders (e.g., herons, egrets,
182 cranes), shorebirds (e.g., sandpipers, plovers, avocets, oystercatchers, phalaropes), loons,
183 landbirds, raptors, or unknown.

184

185 ***Attributing causes of mortality***

186 We chose not to make broad assumptions about the cause of death within our study region
187 during our study period. Therefore, the complete mortality dataset presented in this paper
188 includes all reports of mortality regardless of cause of death, HPAI test results, or whether
189 species were presumed HPAI virus-positive by Avery-Gomm et al. (2024) in 2022, with birds of
190 unknown species also included. As part of Canada's Interagency Surveillance Program for
191 Avian Influenza Viruses in Wild Birds, a subsample of sick and dead wild birds was tested for
192 the HPAI virus. We only attribute HPAI as a cause of death under two instances: 1) sick and
193 dead birds that tested positive for HPAI, and 2) notable mortality events, which we define as a
194 cluster of ≥ 100 mortalities of a single species within a 4-week period in the same location (i.e.,
195 province), where the prevalence of HPAI among the subsample of tested birds was $>50\%$. For
196 notable mortality events that meet the 50% threshold, we attribute all of the mortalities in the

197 notable mortality event to HPAI. We report the sum of the total reported mortalities across all
198 notable mortality events that are attributable to HPAI, but this must be viewed as a very
199 conservative estimate of HPAI-linked mortality.

200

201 ***Double-count analysis***

202 Avery-Gomm et al. (2024) present a method for identifying instances within a dataset where
203 records of a particular species reported in close proximity and time might suggest that the
204 observation was reported more than once (i.e., double counts). This method was used to
205 conduct a double-count analysis on the complete mortality dataset (April 2022 to September
206 2023). Following Avery-Gomm et al. (2024), we present results which exclude the smaller of two
207 records that are identified as potential double counts because they belonged to the same
208 species and were observed within 1 km and 1 day of each other, unless they were reported by
209 the same person to the same source (Scenario B). Mortalities with less specific taxonomic
210 assignments were handled as described in Avery-Gomm et al., (2024). For example, similar-
211 looking gull species groups, that could be misidentified for one another were grouped with all
212 reports of unknown gulls and included in the double-count analysis as 'Gulls' (i.e., Gulls
213 represents white-headed gulls; Herring, Great Black-backed, Lesser Black-backed (*Larus*
214 *fuscus*), Ring-billed (*Larus delawarensis*), Iceland (*Larus glaucopterus*), Glaucous (*Larus*
215 *hyperboreus*), and unknown gulls). In the analysis, we also similarly defined Cormorants and
216 Terns following Avery-Gomm et al. (2024). Other reports of less specific taxonomic
217 assignments, that could not be grouped or considered interchangeable, were excluded from the
218 analysis. The excluded reports were added to the double-count corrected dataset post-analysis.

219

220 ***Species-specific mortality estimates and temporal comparisons***

221 For the 12 months following the mass mortality events of spring/summer 2022 (i.e., October
222 2022 to September 2023) we present spatial, temporal, and taxonomic patterns of reported wild

223 bird mortality using the complete mortality dataset with records identified as double counts
224 excluded. The summed mortality numbers presented are minimum estimates, as we did not
225 correct for birds that died that went unrecorded (e.g., areas not surveyed, birds not detected,
226 birds not reported, birds lost at sea). Observed differences in species-specific mortality between
227 the breeding seasons (e.g., April and September) of 2022 and 2023 are quantified using the
228 complete, double-count corrected mortality dataset.

229

230 **Results**

231 ***Wild bird mortalities from October 1, 2022, to September 30, 2023***

232 Through this mortality assessment, mortality reports were collated from four primary sources.
233 Direct reports made by ECCC staff contributed 30.5% of reported mortalities (28% of these
234 reports were documented during beach surveys). Provincial government reports contributed
235 24% of reported mortalities. As part of Canada's Interagency Surveillance Program for AI in
236 Wild Birds, the Canadian Wildlife Health Cooperative contributed reports of sick and dead birds
237 that accounted for 23% of the total reported mortalities. Data exported from iNaturalist and eBird
238 contributed 17% of the reported mortalities. University researchers who work closely with wild
239 bird populations and visit breeding colonies during the spring and summer contributed 4.5% of
240 the reported mortalities. Parks Canada contributed 0.2% of reported mortalities. NGOs (e.g.,
241 NatureNB, Birds Canada, The Rock Wildlife Rescue) and Indigenous government partners were
242 contacted in the region but very few had observations of mortality to report and cumulatively
243 contributed 0.8%.

244

245 In total, 7,314 wild bird mortalities were recorded in eastern Canada in the 12 months that
246 followed the mass mortality events described by Avery-Gomm et al., (2024). After the double
247 count analysis, we found that 6.8% of these mortalities were likely birds that were reported by
248 more than one observer, to more than one source, or both. Consequently, these redundant

249 reports were excluded, leading to 6,977 unique wild bird mortalities across the region. These
250 reports represent 199 species and 17 less precise taxonomic assignments. Among the
251 provinces, the highest number of mortalities were reported in QC (3,501) and NS (2,156),
252 followed by NL (569), PE (373), and NB (378).

253
254 The largest proportion of mortality for the entire annual cycle (October 2022 to September 2023)
255 occurred in waterfowl (2,439; 35.0%) and seabirds (2,208; 31.6%), with smaller numbers of
256 landbirds (1,351; 19.4%), raptors (775; 11.1%), waders (80; 1.1%), loons (71; 1.0%), shorebirds
257 (30; 0.4%), and unknown species (23; 0.4%). Over the entire period, six species made up 50%
258 of mortalities: Greater Snow Goose (*Anser caerulescens atlanticus*, 1701; 25%), American
259 Crow (*Corvus brachyrhynchos*, 508; 7%), Canada Goose (*Branta canadensis*, 497; 7%),
260 Northern Gannet, 368; 5%), Great Shearwater (*Ardenna gravis*, 288; 4%), and Herring Gull
261 (239; 3%). The majority of mortality reported in the fall/winter (October 2022 to March 2023) was
262 waterfowl (59% of 3,594), whereas mortality in the spring/summer (April to September 2023)
263 consisted mostly of seabirds (47% of 3,383). A comprehensive breakdown of each group,
264 species, and double-count corrected mortality can be found in Appendix S3.

265
266 **Notable mortality events**
267 Across the entire study period, there were five notable mortality events, as defined as ≥ 100
268 mortalities in a province within a month: three in fall/winter and two in spring/summer. Out of the
269 6,977 mortalities in our complete double count corrected dataset, we directly attribute 302
270 mortalities to HPAI based on positive test results. In total, 2,076 mortalities were attributed to
271 HPAI based on a high prevalence in the subsample of tested birds associated with those
272 notable mortality events (Figure 1).

273

274 The three notable mortality events in the fall/winter included Northern Gannet, Greater Snow
275 Goose, and Canada Goose (Figure 2A). In October 2022, a survey conducted in three study
276 plots on Bonaventure Island, a breeding colony in QC, reported at least 212 dead Northern
277 Gannets. These mortalities were associated with HPAI-linked mortality during the summer of
278 2022 at this location, which started in May 2022 and continued beyond the end of the study
279 period described by Avery-Gomm et al. (2024). The second notable mortality event occurred in
280 November 2022, involving 1,643 Greater Snow Geese in southern QC. A subset of Snow
281 Geese carcasses was collected (68), and HPAI was detected in 92%. The third notable mortality
282 event occurred on PE between late February and mid-March and involved 221 Canada Geese.
283 HPAI was also confirmed in a subset of carcasses that were tested from this event (73% of 30
284 collected). Over half (58%) of the mortalities during the fall/winter were associated with these
285 three mortality events (2,076 out of 3,594).

286
287 The two notable spring/summer mortality events involved Great Shearwater and Common
288 Murre (Figure 2B). In June and July 2023, highly emaciated Great Shearwaters washed ashore
289 along the southern coast of NS. For example, a beach survey conducted on Sable Island, NS in
290 July reported 132 dead Great Shearwater. Of those collected and sent for testing (7), none
291 tested positive for the HPAI virus. In August 2023, at least 100 Common Murre washed ashore
292 in Cape Freels, NL. Of the carcasses sent for testing (10), none tested positive for the HPAI
293 virus.

294
295 Interestingly, following a positive detection of HPAI in a dead Common Tern (*Sterna hirundo*) on
296 North Brother Island, NS in June, elevated levels of mortality were reported among tern chicks
297 (> 25), including Roseate Tern (*Sterna dougallii*), an endangered species under the Species at
298 Risk Act in Canada, that were also observed exhibiting neurological symptoms typical of HPAI.
299 A subset of tern chicks (11) was collected and sent for testing and necropsy but none tested

300 positive for HPAI. None of these mortalities were attributed to HPAI, other than the initial dead
301 adult Common Tern tested.

302

303 Noteworthy mortality levels were also observed in American Crows (508) and Gulls (557) but
304 were mostly reported as individual cases or in small numbers throughout the study period rather
305 than as a single event (Figure 2B). HPAI was detected in both groups, but prevalence was
306 relatively low (e.g., below the 50% threshold required to assume all mortalities were attributable
307 to HPAI) and varied between seasons. During the fall/winter, 210 American Crows were
308 reported (35% of 115 tested were positive) and during the spring/summer, an additional 298
309 American Crows were reported (11% of 98 tested were positive). During the fall/winter, 206
310 Gulls were reported (22% of 54 tested were positive). During the spring/summer of 2023, 434
311 Gulls were reported (19% of 66 tested were positive), including the only two HPAI virus
312 detections from seabird breeding colonies (1 adult Herring Gull on Country Island, NS and 1
313 adult Herring Gull on Gull Island, NL).

314

315 ***Interannual comparison of breeding season mortality***

316 In the spring/summer of 2022, 44,595 unique wild bird mortalities were reported in the complete
317 double-count corrected dataset. In the spring/summer of 2023, only 3,383 mortalities were
318 reported, representing a 93% reduction in mortalities from the previous year. We attribute only
319 61 mortalities to HPAI (i.e., only those birds that were positive) in the spring/summer of 2023,
320 compared to Avery-Gomm et al. (2024) who attributed 40,391 mortalities to HPAI during the
321 same period in 2022. However, it is important to note the different approaches in how mortality
322 was attributed, so these results should not be interpreted as a 99% reduction in HPAI among
323 wild birds across the two years.

324

325 In 2022, 44% of mortalities during that period were associated with seabird breeding colonies,
326 which was driven in large part by mass mortalities at four large Northern Gannet colonies in QC
327 and NL. Correspondingly, the majority of mortalities were reported in these two provinces
328 (19,158 and 16,661, respectively). In 2023, only a small percentage of mortalities were reported
329 in colonies (148; 4.3% of spring/summer reported mortalities). The largest proportion of
330 mortalities came from NS (1313; 39% of mortalities reported in 2023) closely followed by QC
331 (1228; 36%), and relatively few mortalities were reported in NL (409, 12%).

332

333 Compared to 2022, the reported mortalities during the spring/summer of 2023 encompassed a
334 more taxonomically diverse array of species. For instance, during this period in 2022, the
335 majority of mortalities were seabirds and sea ducks (92%) and mortality among other species
336 groups was limited. In stark contrast, although mortalities during the same period in 2023 were
337 still largely seabirds (47%), more mortalities were reported in landbirds, waders, and raptors
338 (Table 1).

339

340 In 2022, most mortalities were dominated by only two species: Northern Gannet (26,199) and
341 Common Murre (8,167), which constitute 77% of the overall reported mortality. In 2023, no
342 single species represented more than 10% of overall mortality (Appendix S3). The two species
343 with the highest number of mortalities in 2023 include the American Crow (9%) and Great
344 Shearwater (8%) followed by Northern Gannet, Herring Gull, unknown gulls, Canada Goose,
345 and Common Murre each representing between 4-5% of the overall mortality. The remaining
346 192 species each represent less than 4% of the total mortality.

347

348 Mortality among Northern Gannets and Common Murres in the breeding season of 2023 (156
349 and 145 respectively) was substantially lower than in 2022 (26,199 and 8,167 respectively).
350 Although there was no mass mortality of either species in 2023, HPAI was detected in 3

351 gannets in June (2 in NB, 1 in QC) and not detected in any Common Murres collected for
352 testing. In contrast, reported mortality for American Crows and Great Shearwaters was
353 significantly higher in 2023 (298 and 282 respectively) than it was in 2022 (99 and 34
354 respectively).

355

356 **Discussion**

357 In this study, we documented a substantial decline in reports of sick and dead birds in the 12
358 months that followed the largest HPAI-linked mortality event in North America (eastern Canada,
359 spring/summer 2022; Avery-Gomm et al. 2024). A third of these mortalities can be attributed to
360 HPAI, mostly associated with notable mortality events in late autumn and early spring involving
361 Greater Snow Goose and Canada Goose - waterfowl species that did not suffer large mortalities
362 during the 2022 breeding season in eastern Canada (Avery-Gomm et al., 2024). In the summer of
363 2023, we noted far fewer mortalities reported in Northern Gannet, Common Murre and Common
364 Eider, the three species most affected in the summer of 2022, a pattern that is consistent with
365 findings from the UK (Tremlett et al., 2024). Reported mortality was higher among landbirds,
366 raptors and waterfowl during 2023 than in 2022. Spatially, mortalities concentrated around the
367 St. Lawrence Estuary, and the coasts of NS and PE, with relatively few reports from elsewhere.

368
369 Assessing mortality based on collated reports from numerous sources, across a large study
370 area comes with a set of caveats and precautions to consider when interpreting the data. Many
371 of these are described in detail by Avery-Gomm et al. (2024), and equally apply to this study.
372 Namely, mortalities should be viewed as a conservative estimate of true mortality because it is
373 likely that many bird carcasses were not observed or reported, even in areas where survey
374 effort was intensive. We feel confident that no mass mortality events were overlooked by our
375 dataset, however, detection and reporting of mortality is likely to be lower in areas with lower

376 human population density and at sea. The scope of this study differs from Avery-Gomm et al.
377 (2024) in two key ways. First, we describe complete mortality rather than HPAI-linked mortality
378 in 2023 because the prevalence of HPAI among the subset of tested dead birds was low.
379 Although we attribute mortalities to HPAI if they were associated with a notable mortality event
380 in which >50% of sampled dead birds tested positive, this likely underestimates HPAI-linked
381 mortalities.

382

383 ***Mortality in fall/winter***

384 The largest notable HPAI-linked mortality events involved Greater Snow Goose (1,643) and Canada
385 Goose (232). Generally, avian influenza viruses are common in waterfowl species, and cases are
386 typically higher in the fall when large congregations of juveniles lacking immunity, mix with
387 mature adults before migration (Arsnoe et al., 2011; Groepper et al., 2014). These pre-migration
388 staging areas, combined with cooling temperatures in the fall (i.e., conditions favourable for the
389 virus, Webster et al. 1992) likely facilitated the spread of the HPAI virus among Snow Geese in
390 southern QC. The notable mortality event involving Canada Geese occurred later in the
391 fall/winter period (March 2023), and this time of year birds can be more susceptible to infection
392 due to colder winter temperatures, limited food availability, and generally lower body condition
393 (Moon et al., 2007; Van Gils et al., 2007; Wight et al., 2024). The third notable mortality event
394 involved at least 212 Northern Gannets reported on Bonaventure Island in October 2022. This
395 mortality reflects the continuation of an ongoing HPAI-linked mortality event described by Avery-
396 Gomm et al. (2024), which documented at least 3,611 mortalities between April 1 and
397 September 30, 2022. Across eastern Canada, an estimated 26,193 gannet mortalities were
398 reported over that period.

399

400 HPAI-linked mass mortality impacting wild bird populations is a very real concern that has been
401 highlighted at the highest levels (CMS FAO Co-convened Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and
402 Wild Birds, 2023). However, the significance of a mortality event depends on the ratio of
403 mortalities to the size of the impacted population and the trend of the impacted population.
404 Although Canada Goose populations are large globally (i.e., 7.6 million individuals; Partners in
405 Flight 2021), populations are highly structured and have different management plans. The North
406 Atlantic Population (NAP) breeds through Labrador, Québec, insular Newfoundland, and
407 western Greenland, with wintering areas occurring primarily in coastal areas of southern Atlantic
408 Canada and New England (Canadian Wildlife Service Waterfowl Committee, 2020; Mowbray et al.,
409 2020). Historically, wintering populations existed farther south along the United States coast into
410 the Carolinas but have since disappeared (Mowbray et al. 2020). Canada geese in the NAP
411 have been formally managed as a separate population by the USFWS and CWS since 1996,
412 with specific population and harvest management objectives (Atlantic Flyway Technical Section,
413 2008). The NAP of the Canada Goose has remained stable since 1990, estimated at
414 approximately 52,500 breeding pairs (Canadian Wildlife Service Waterfowl Committee, 2020), but
415 mixing with other Canada Goose populations during migration and harvest seasons makes it
416 difficult to manage. We speculate that based on the timing and location of the notable mortality
417 event (i.e., mid to late March in PE), most of the mortalities were likely NAP Canada geese.
418 However, the magnitude of this specific mortality event (221 individuals) is not enough to cause
419 management concerns.
420

421 In contrast to Canada Geese, all Snow Goose populations - which include the Lesser Snow
422 Goose (*Chen caerulescens caerulescens*) and the Greater Snow Goose - have increased
423 dramatically since the 1970s and 1930s, respectively, and are now considered overabundant
424 (Lefebvre et al., 2017). The large Greater Snow Goose population (estimated at 900,000 in 2015;

425 Lefebvre et al. 2017) means that our documented event involving 1,643 mortalities is not
426 concerning from a conservation perspective. However, it is worth noting that notable mortalities
427 in the hundreds or thousands have also been reported for Lesser Snow Geese in the Central
428 Flyway and Pacific Flyway (Giacinti et al., 2023). Given the apparent susceptibility of all
429 subspecies of Snow Geese to HPAI, efforts to collate mortality reports and disease surveillance
430 data may be warranted if repeated mortality events from HPAI occur seasonally.

431

432 ***Mortality in spring/summer 2023***

433 There were only two notable mortality events during the spring and summer of 2023, both
434 involving seabirds: Great Shearwater and Common Murre. None of the sampled birds of either
435 species tested positive for the HPAI virus. Mortality events (sometimes called wrecks) for
436 seabirds are not entirely uncommon. Past mortality events for seabirds, have been associated
437 with oil spills or chronic oil pollution (Camphuysen, 1998; Wiese & Ryan, 2003; Wilhelm et al., 2007),
438 bycatch in fishing gear (Davoren, 2007; Tasker et al., 2000) or starvation due to multiple factors
439 including reduced food availability (Jones et al., 2018), summer heat waves (Piatt et al., 2020) or
440 winter storms (Clairbaux et al., 2021; Diamond et al., 2020).

441

442 In 2022, Common Murre was the second most reported species and all mortalities were
443 attributed to HPAI based on positive subsampled test results (Avery-Gomm et al. 2024).
444 Therefore, it was unexpected when none of the birds tested from the notable mortality event in
445 August 2023 were positive for HPAI. Carcasses collected from the mortality event indicated that
446 the birds were in apparently good body condition and did not exhibit any signs of starvation or
447 oiling and that bycatch in fishing gear was likely the cause of death (Ward, C. pers. comm.). In
448 summer, inshore areas of eastern Newfoundland historically exhibit high rates of gillnet bycatch
449 in murres and shearwaters (Hedd et al., 2016). From a conservation perspective, Common Murre

450 populations in eastern Canada are large (estimated at 1.75 million breeding birds; Ainley et al.
451 2021). and the loss of 100 individuals of unknown age is not significant as a single event.
452 However, this species is clearly under multiple pressures and there are concerns over the
453 sustainability of these pressures, including a legal harvest (Cox et al., 2024).

454

455 None of the Great Shearwater mortalities in 2022 that were tested for HPAI were positive, and
456 this was the result again in 2023. The occurrence of a notable mortality event for Great
457 Shearwater is not entirely unexpected. Between 1993 and 2009, monthly beached bird surveys
458 on Sable Island, NS by the Sable Island Institute consistently reported Great Shearwater
459 carcasses mainly in June and July (1,304 carcasses total; Lucas et al. 2012) and low oiling rates
460 reported to eliminate the possibility for oil pollution as a cause of death (Lucas et al., 2012). Over
461 the same approximate period (1993-2013), at least twelve notable mortality events involving
462 emaciated Great Shearwater were reported on the US East Coast (4,961 carcasses total;
463 Haman et al. 2013, Robuck, A., pers comm).

464

465 Great Shearwaters are transequatorial migrants that travel from their breeding colonies in the
466 southern hemisphere to their non-breeding grounds in the waters off the eastern coast of the
467 United States and Canada where they forage during the summer months (Haman et al., 2013;
468 Ronconi et al., 2010). The poor condition of these birds may reflect the cumulative stresses of
469 evolving foraging conditions in their pre-migration staging areas off the coast of Argentina, a
470 long migration, and inclement weather events once they arrive at their northern foraging
471 grounds (Robuck, A., pers comm). In 2023, sea surface temperatures were among the highest
472 on record (Cheng et al., 2024) and rapid oceanographic changes directly influence the abundance
473 of forage fish and important prey species for marine top predators, like seabirds (Cairns, 1988;

474 Harding et al., 2007). These factors together likely have contributed to the wrecking event of this
475 long-distance migrant.

476

477 Despite not meeting our criteria for a notable mortality event, American Crow and Gulls (e.g.,
478 known species grouped with unidentified gulls) accounted for a high proportion of mortalities
479 over the entire period. This mortality is difficult to distinguish from background rates because no
480 historical mortality data in this manner exists. Crows and gulls are both scavengers, which is an
481 established route for HPAI infection (Nemeth et al., 2023; van den Brand et al., 2018). While
482 prevalence rates among crows collected for testing were high in the winter and mortality may
483 therefore be attributed to HPAI, it was low in the summer. Prevalence rates were also low
484 among gulls tested in both time periods.

485

486 Although gulls were among the breeding seabirds affected by HPAI in 2022 (Avery-Gomm et al.
487 2024), systematic daily monitoring on Kent Island, NB revealed order of magnitude lower
488 mortality in 2023 (8 deaths, this study) compared to 2022 (>66 deaths; Taylor et al. 2023).
489 Reduced mortality in the subsequent year may partially be a result of some degree of acquired
490 immunity from previous exposure to HPAIs, or previous exposure to viruses with lower
491 pathogenicity (e.g., H13 and H16; Huang et al. 2014, Benkaroun et al. 2016).

492

493 ***Interannual comparison between 2022 and 2023 spring/summer mortalities***

494 Mortalities in 2023 were represented by a more taxonomically diverse array of species than in
495 2022, which were dominated by seabirds and sea ducks. In 2023, we found that a larger
496 proportion of mortalities were reported in landbirds, waders, and raptors, although seabirds still
497 accounted for almost half of the reported mortalities. The most prominent contrast between
498 breeding seasons is the remarkable decline in reported mortalities, dropping from 40,911 in

499 2022 to 1,599 in 2023. Several factors could explain this decline, including acquired immunity
500 among seabird populations, genetic changes in circulating HPAI viruses, little to no presence of
501 HPAI on the landscape, or any combination of these factors.

502

503 Before the arrival of HPAI H5N1 clade 2.3.4.4b in late 2021, wild birds in Canada were naïve to
504 this particular clade of HPAIVs. Although some species (e.g., gulls, murres) may have had
505 some immunity from past infection with low pathogenic avian influenza viruses (LPAIVs) that
506 could have provided some protection against severe disease (Huang et al., 2013; Wille et al.,
507 2014), naivety to HPAI was the likely cause of mass mortality experienced in 2022. In 2023,
508 many wild bird populations across North America were no longer naïve to HPAI viruses. Those
509 that survived infection in 2022, particularly Northern Gannets, Common Murres and Common
510 Eiders, likely retained some level of immune protection in the year that followed (J. Provencher
511 and J. Giacinti, unpublished data) which we posit explains the lower reported mortalities.
512 Additionally, after more than a year of circulation across the continent, the ancestral virus
513 responsible for high rates of mortality in 2022 (e.g., wholly Eurasian strain), has given rise to
514 many reassortant HPAI viruses (Alkie et al. 2023, Giacinti et al. 2023, Signore et al. in prep). The
515 extensive circulation of these genetically distinct reassortants, along with pre-existing immunity
516 to HPAI, resulted in vastly different patterns of transmission, disease, and mortality than what
517 occurred in 2022. Questions about how long immunity acquired from infection with the wholly
518 Eurasian HPAI virus in 2022 will last and how this will protect seabirds and sea ducks in eastern
519 Canada against severe outcomes from reassortant HPAI viruses remain.

520

521 ***Role of Beached Bird Surveys in reporting mortalities***

522 Due to HPAI, mortalities may be elevated compared to background rates, even when no notable
523 mortality events occur. However, this is challenging to assess without historical baseline

524 mortality data across the region. Systematic Beached Bird Surveys (BBS) provide the most
525 robust way to assess long-term trends in seabird and sea duck mortalities (Lucas et al. 2012)
526 but require significant time and effort. Beached bird survey programs previously existed across
527 eastern Canada to diagnose, quantify, and audit the impacts of oil on seabirds, but have been
528 scaled back since oiling rates declined in the 2000s (Wilhelm et al. 2009). Future studies could
529 assess whether reported mortalities in the spring/summer of 2023 are above background rates,
530 using historical data from existing surveys in NL and NS.

531
532 Another advantage of BBS is that they can increase access to fresh carcasses for HPAI testing
533 and necropsies, and help detect the onset, duration and magnitude of mortality events, should
534 they occur. BBS were implemented in eastern Canada in 2023, as recommended in Avery-
535 Gomm et al., (2024), however no HPAI-linked mass mortality events occurred during this time.
536 Although BBS conducted in this study helped document almost a quarter of the mortalities
537 reported, very few of the birds reported on beaches were fresh enough for collection. Given the
538 unpredictable nature of mass mortality events, we suggest a balanced program that targets a
539 smaller number of beaches with high catchment rates for long-term monitoring to establish a
540 baseline for annual mortality, with the ability for response teams to implement additional surveys
541 during potential outbreak years.

542
543 **Conclusion**
544 Globally, tens of thousands of HPAI outbreak notifications involving wild birds have been
545 reported since 2021 (Wille & Waldenström, 2023), and many of these have been associated with
546 mass mortality events. In 2023, Eastern Canada did not experience mass mortality events on
547 the same scale as occurred in 2022, but experiences from abroad suggest this may have been
548 the exception rather than the rule. For example, mass mortality in seabirds has been reported in

549 the United Kingdom and Scotland in both 2022 and 2023 (Black-headed Gulls *Chroicocephalus*
550 *ridibundus*, Black-legged Kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla* and Sandwich *Thalasseus sandvicensis*,
551 Common, and Arctic Terns *Sterna paradisaea*; Tremlett et al. 2024). In North America, the
552 populations of many bird species are in decline (Rosenberg et al., 2019) and are under multiple
553 pressures from the cumulative effects of human activities and climate change (Bateman et al.,
554 2020; Phillips et al., 2023). Despite low mortalities in Canada in 2023, the H5Nx virus is a
555 significant concern at a continental and global scale, and “*understanding HPAI impacts requires*
556 *research and better data from outbreak situations, improved and standardized recording*
557 *systems for wildlife settings, greater virus phylogenetic analyses, good population monitoring*
558 *and research efforts*” (CMS FAO Co-convened Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds,
559 2023).
560

PREPRINT

561 **Acknowledgements:**

562 Most reported mortalities can be traced back to engaged members of the public, and we offer
563 our sincere thanks to all individuals who shared their observations. Numerous individuals and
564 organizations have been instrumental in completing this research, and their collective
565 contributions have played a pivotal role in shaping the research outcomes (Appendix S4).

566 Special thanks to Anna Robuck, Andrew Kennedy, Carina Gjerdrum, Catherine Soos, Georgia
567 Taylor, Gretchen McPhail, Heather Major, Mike Brown, Jennifer F. Provencher, Jennifer Rock,
568 Julie McKnight, Kate Bond, Mark Maddox, Meghan Baker, Raphaël A. Lavoie, Regina Wells,
569 Shawn R. Craik, Sydney Collins, Yohannes Berhanes, and Zoe Lucas. Funding for this research
570 was provided by Environment and Climate Change Canada's Science and Technology Division.

571 **Author contributions:**

572 **Tabatha L. Cormier:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology,
573 Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Tatsiana**
574 **Barychka:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing
575 - review & editing. **Matthieu Beaumont:** Data curation, Investigation, Methodology. **Tori V. Burt:**
576 Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Matthew D English:** Data curation, Investigation,
577 Methodology, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Jolene A. Giacinti:** Data curation, Investigation,
578 Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Jean-François Giroux:** Data curation, Investigation,
579 Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Magella Guillemette:** Investigation, Methodology, Resources,
580 Supervision. **Kathryn E. Hagan:** Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Megan Jones:**
581 Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Supervision. **Stéphane Lair:** Investigation, Methodology,
582 Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Andrew S. Lang:** Investigation, Methodology,
583 Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Christine Lepage:** Data curation, Investigation,
584 Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **William A. Montevecchi:** Investigation, Methodology,
585 Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Ishraq Rahman:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing

586 - review & editing. **Jean-François Rail**: Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Gregory J.**

587 **Robertson**: Writing - review & editing. **Robert A. Ronconi**: Conceptualization, Investigation,

588 Methodology, Resources, Writing - review & editing. **Yannick Seyer**: Data curation, Investigation,

589 Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Liam U. Taylor**: Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review &

590 editing. **Christopher R. E. Ward**: Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Jordan Wight**:

591 Investigation, Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Sabina I. Wilhelm**:

592 Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Stephanie Avery-Gomm**: Conceptualization,

593 Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing - original draft,

594 Writing - review & editing.

595

PREPRINT

596 **References**

597 Ainley, D. G., Nettleship, D. N., & Storey, A. E. (2021). Common Murre (*Uria aalge*), version 2.0.
598 In *Birds of the World* (S. M. Billerman, P. G. Rodewald, and B. K. Keeney, editors).
599 Cornell Lab of Ornithology. <https://doi.org/10.2173/bow.commur.02>

600 Alkie, T. N., Byrne, A. M. P., Jones, M. E. B., Mollett, B. C., Bourque, L., Lung, O., James, J.,
601 Yason, C., Banyard, A. C., Sullivan, D., Signore, A. V., Lang, A. S., Baker, M., Dawe, B.,
602 Brown, I. H., & Berhane, Y. (2023). Recurring Trans-Atlantic Incursion of Clade 2.3.4.4b
603 H5N1 Viruses by Long Distance Migratory Birds from Northern Europe to Canada in
604 2022/2023. *Viruses*, 15(9), 1836. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v15091836>

605 Arsnoe, D. M., Ip, H. S., & Owen, J. C. (2011). Influence of Body Condition on Influenza A Virus
606 Infection in Mallard Ducks: Experimental Infection Data. *PLoS ONE*, 6(8), e22633.
607 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0022633>

608 Atlantic Flyway Technical Section. (2008). *Management Plan for the North Atlantic Population of*
609 *Canada Geese*. Canada Goose Committee.

610 Avery-Gomm, S., Barychka, T., English, M., Ronconi, R., Wilhelm, S. I., Rail, J.-F., Cormier, T.,
611 Beaumont, M., Bowser, C., Burt, T. V., Collins, S., Duffy, S., Giacinti, J. A., Gilliland, S.,
612 Giroux, J.-F., Gjerdrum, C., Guillemette, M., Hargan, K. E., Jones, M., ... Wight, J.
613 (2024). *Wild bird mass mortalities in eastern Canada associated with the Highly*
614 *Pathogenic Avian Influenza A(H5N1) virus, 2022* (p. 2024.01.05.574233). bioRxiv.
615 <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.01.05.574233>

616 Bateman, B. L., Wilsey, C., Taylor, L., Wu, J., LeBaron, G. S., & Langham, G. (2020). North
617 American birds require mitigation and adaptation to reduce vulnerability to climate
618 change. *Conservation Science and Practice*, 2(8), e242.
619 <https://doi.org/10.1111/csp2.242>

620 Benkaroun, J., Shoham, D., Kroyer, A. N. K., Whitney, H., & Lang, A. S. (2016). Analysis of
621 influenza A viruses from gulls: An evaluation of inter-regional movements and
622 interactions with other avian and mammalian influenza A viruses. *Cogent Biology*, 2(1),
623 1234957. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23312025.2016.1234957>

624 Cairns, D. K. (1988). Seabirds as Indicators of Marine Food Supplies. *Biological Oceanography*,
625 5(4), 261–271.

626 Caliendo, V., Lewis, N. S., Pohlmann, A., Baillie, S. R., Banyard, A. C., Beer, M., Brown, I. H.,
627 Fouchier, R. A. M., Hansen, R. D. E., Lameris, T. K., Lang, A. S., Laurendeau, S., Lung,
628 O., Robertson, G., van der Jeugd, H., Alkie, T. N., Thorup, K., van Toor, M. L.,
629 Waldenström, J., Berhane, Y. (2022). Transatlantic spread of highly pathogenic avian
630 influenza H5N1 by wild birds from Europe to North America in 2021. *Scientific Reports*,
631 12(1), 11729. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-13447-z>

632 Camphuysen, C. J. (1998). Beached bird surveys indicate decline in chronic oil pollution in the
633 North Sea. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 36(7), 519–526. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(98\)80018-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-
634 326X(98)80018-0)

635 Canadian Wildlife Service Waterfowl Committee. (2020). *CWS Migratory Birds Regulation
636 Report*. [https://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2020/eccc/CW69-16-52-2019-
eng.pdf](https://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2020/eccc/CW69-16-52-2019-
637 eng.pdf)

638 Careen, N. G., Collins, S. M., D'Entremont, K. J. N., Wight, J., Rahman, I., Hargan, K. E., Lang,
639 A. S., & Montevercchi, W. (2024). Highly pathogenic avian influenza resulted in
640 unprecedented reproductive failure and movement behaviour by Northern Gannets.
641 *Marine Ornithology*, 52, 121–128.

642 Cheng, L., Abraham, J., Trenberth, K. E., Boyer, T., Mann, M. E., Zhu, J., Wang, F., Yu, F.,
643 Locarnini, R., Fasullo, J., Zheng, F., Li, Y., Zhang, B., Wan, L., Chen, X., Wang, D.,
644 Feng, L., Song, X., Liu, Y., ... Lu, Y. (2024). New Record Ocean Temperatures and
645 Related Climate Indicators in 2023. *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*.
646 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-024-3378-5>

647 Clairbaux, M., Mathewson, P., Porter, W., Fort, J., Strøm, H., Moe, B., Fauchald, P., Descamps,
648 S., Helgason, H. H., Bråthen, V. S., Merkel, B., Anker-Nilssen, T., Bringsvor, I. S.,
649 Chastel, O., Christensen-Dalsgaard, S., Danielsen, J., Daunt, F., Dehnhard, N., Erikstad,
650 K. E., ... Grémillet, D. (2021). North Atlantic winter cyclones starve seabirds. *Current
651 Biology*, 31(17), 3964-3971.e3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2021.06.059>

652 CMS FAO Co-convened Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds. (2023).
653 *Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds statement on H5N1 high
654 pathogenicity avian influenza in wild birds—Unprecedented conservation impacts and
655 urgent needs* (pp. 1–26).
656 https://www.cms.int/sites/default/files/publication/avian_influenza_2023_aug.pdf

657 Cox, A. R., Roy, C., Hanson, A., & Robertson, G. J. (2024). Canadian murre harvest
658 management in the face of uncertainty: A potential biological removal approach. *The
659 Journal of Wildlife Management*, 88(4), e22573. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jwmg.22573>

660 Davoren, G. K. (2007). Effects of Gill-Net Fishing on Marine Birds in a Biological Hotspot in the
661 Northwest Atlantic. *Conservation Biology*, 21(4), 1032–1045.
662 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2007.00694.x>

663 Diamond, A. W., Mcnair, D. B., Ellis, J. C., Rail, J.-F., Whidden, E. S., Kratter, A. W.,
664 Courchesne, S. J., Pokras, M. A., Wilhelm, S. I., Kress, S. W., Farnsworth, A., Iliff, M. J.,
665 Jennings, S. H., Brown, J. D., Ballard, J. R., Schweitzer, S. H., Okoniewski, J. C.,
666 Gallegos, J. B., & Stanton, J. D. (2020). Two Unprecedented Auk Wrecks in the
667 Northwest Atlantic in Winter 2012/13. *Marine Ornithology*, 48, 185–204.

668 European Food Safety Authority, European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control,
669 European Union Reference Laboratory for Avian Influenza, Adlhoch, C., Fusaro, A.,
670 Gonzales, J. L., Kuiken, T., Marangon, S., Niqueux, É., Staubach, C., Terregino, C.,
671 Guajardo, I. M., Chuzhakina, K., & Baldinelli, F. (2022). Avian influenza overview June –
672 September 2022. *EFSA Journal*, 20(10). <https://doi.org/10.2903/j.efsa.2022.7597>

673 Giacinti, J. A., Signore, A. V., Jones, M. E. B., Bourque, L., Lair, S., Jardine, C., Stevens, B.,
674 Bollinger, T., Goldsmith, D., British Columbia Wildlife AI Viral Surveillance Program (BC
675 WASPs), Pybus, M., Stasiak, I., Davis, R., Pople, N., Nituch, L., Brook, R. W., Ojkic, D.,
676 Massé, A., Dimitri-Masson, G., ... Soos, C. (2023). *Avian influenza viruses in wild birds
677 in Canada following incursions of highly pathogenic H5N1 virus from Eurasia in
678 2021/2022*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.11.23.565566>

679 Groepper, S. R., DeLiberto, T. J., Vrtiska, M. P., Pedersen, K., Swafford, S. R., & Hygnstrom, S.
680 E. (2014). Avian Influenza Virus Prevalence in Migratory Waterfowl in the United States,
681 2007–2009. *Avian Diseases*, 58(4), 531–540. <https://doi.org/10.1637/10849-042214->
682 Reg.1

683 Haman, K. H., Norton, T. M., Ronconi, R. A., Nemeth, N. M., Thomas, A. C., Courchesne, S. J.,
684 Segars, A., & Keel, M. K. (2013). Great Shearwater (*Puffinus gravis*) Mortality Events
685 Along the Eastern Coast of the United States. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*, 49(2), 235–
686 245. <https://doi.org/10.7589/2012-04-119>

687 Harding, A., Piatt, J., & Schmutz, J. (2007). Seabird behavior as an indicator of food supplies:
688 Sensitivity across the breeding season. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 352, 269–274.
689 <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps07072>

690 Hedd, A., Regular, P. M., Wilhelm, S. I., Rail, J., Drolet, B., Fowler, M., Pekarik, C., &
691 Robertson, G. J. (2016). Characterization of seabird bycatch in eastern Canadian
692 waters, 1998–2011, assessed from onboard fisheries observer data. *Aquatic
693 Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems*, 26(3), 530–548.
694 <https://doi.org/10.1002/aqc.2551>

695 Huang, Y., Wille, M., Benkaroun, J., Munro, H., Bond, A. L., Fifield, D. A., Robertson, G. J.,
696 Ojkic, D., Whitney, H., & Lang, A. S. (2014). Perpetuation and reassortment of gull
697 influenza A viruses in Atlantic North America. *Virology*, 456–457, 353–363.
698 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virol.2014.04.009>

699 Huang, Y., Wille, M., Dobbin, A., Robertson, G. J., Ryan, P., Ojkic, D., Whitney, H., & Lang, A.
700 S. (2013). A 4-year study of avian influenza virus prevalence and subtype diversity in
701 ducks of Newfoundland, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, 59(10), 701–708.
702 <https://doi.org/10.1139/cjm-2013-0507>

703 Jones, T., Parrish, J. K., Peterson, W. T., Bjorkstedt, E. P., Bond, N. A., Ballance, L. T., Bowes,
704 V., Hipfner, J. M., Burgess, H. K., Dolliver, J. E., Lindquist, K., Lindsey, J., Nevins, H. M.,
705 Robertson, R. R., Roletto, J., Wilson, L., Joyce, T., & Harvey, J. (2018). Massive
706 Mortality of a Planktivorous Seabird in Response to a Marine Heatwave. *Geophysical*
707 *Research Letters*, 45(7), 3193–3202. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076164>

708 Kahle, D. & Wickham, H. (2013). *ggmap: Spatial Visualization with ggplot2*. 5(1), 144–161.

709 Lane, J. V., Jeglinski, J. W. E., Avery-Gomm, S., Ballstaedt, E., Banyard, A. C., Barychka, T.,
710 Brown, I. H., Brugger, B., Burt, T. V., Careen, N., Castenschiold, J. H. F., Christensen-
711 Dalsgaard, S., Clifford, S., Collins, S. M., Cunningham, E., Danielsen, J., Daunt, F.,
712 D'entremont, K. J. N., Doiron, P., ... Votier, S. C. (2023). High pathogenicity avian
713 influenza (H5N1) in Northern Gannets (*Morus bassanus*): Global spread, clinical signs
714 and demographic consequences. *Ibis, Early View*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ibi.13275>

715 Lefebvre, J., Gauthier, G., Giroux, J.-F., Reed, A., Reed, E. T., & Bélanger, L. (2017). The
716 greater snow goose *Anser caerulescens atlanticus*: Managing an overabundant
717 population. *Ambio*, 46(S2), 262–274. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-016-0887-1>

718 Leguia, M., Garcia-Glaessner, A., Muñoz-Saavedra, B., Juarez, D., Barrera, P., Calvo-Mac, C.,
719 Jara, J., Silva, W., Ploog, K., Amaro, Lady, Colchao-Claux, P., Johnson, C. K., Uhart, M.
720 M., Nelson, M. I., & Lescano, J. (2023). Highly pathogenic avian influenza A (H5N1) in
721 marine mammals and seabirds in Peru. *Nature Communications*, 14(1), Article 1.
722 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-41182-0>

723 Lucas, Z., Horn, A., & Freedman, B. (2012). Beached Bird Surveys on Sable Island, Nova
724 Scotia, 1993–2009, Show a Decline in the Incidence of Oiling. *Proceedings of the Nova*
725 *Scotian Institute of Science*, 47, 91–129.

726 Molini, U., Yabe, J., Meki, I. K., Ouled Ahmed Ben Ali, H., Settypalli, T. B. K., Datta, S.,
727 Coetzee, L. M., Hamunyela, E., Khaiseb, S., Cattoli, G., Lamien, C. E., & Dundon, W. G.
728 (2023). Highly pathogenic avian influenza H5N1 virus outbreak among Cape cormorants
729 (Phalacrocorax capensis) in Namibia, 2022. *Emerging Microbes & Infections*, 12(1),
730 2167610. <https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2023.2167610>

731 Moon, J. A., Haukos, D. A., & Smith, L. M. (2007). Declining Body Condition of Northern Pintails
732 Wintering in the Playa Lakes Region. *The Journal of Wildlife Management*, 71(1), 218–
733 221. <https://doi.org/10.2193/2005-596>

734 Mowbray, T. B., Ely, C. R., Sedinger, J. S., & Trost, R. E. (2020). *Canada Goose (Branta*
735 *canadensis)*, version 1.0. In *Birds of the World* (P.G. Rodewald, Editor). Cornell Lab of
736 Ornithology. <https://doi.org/10.2173/bow.cangoo.01>

737 Nemeth, N. M., Ruder, M. G., Poulson, R. L., Sargent, R., Breeding, S., Evans, M. N.,
738 Zimmerman, J., Hardman, R., Cunningham, M., Gibbs, S., & Stallknecht, D. E. (2023).
739 Bald eagle mortality and nest failure due to clade 2.3.4.4 highly pathogenic H5N1
740 influenza a virus. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 191. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-27446-1](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-
741 27446-1)

742 Partners in Flight. (2021). *Avian Conservation Assessment Database, version 2021*. [dataset].
743 <http://pif.birdconservancy.org/ACAD>

744 Pearce-Higgins, J. W., Humphreys, E. M., Burton, N. H. K., Atkinson, P. W., Pollock, C.,
745 Johnston, D. T., O'Hanlon, N. J., Balmer, D. E., Frost, T. M., Harris, S. J., & Baker, H.
746 (2022). *Highly pathogenic avian influenza in wild birds in the United Kingdom in 2022: Impacts, planning for future outbreaks, and conservation and research priorities.*

748 Phillips, R. A., Fort, J., & Dias, M. P. (2023). Chapter 2—Conservation status and overview of
749 threats to seabirds. In L. Young & E. VanderWerf (Eds.), *Conservation of Marine Birds*
750 (pp. 33–56). Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-88539-3.00015-7>

751 Piatt, J. F., Parrish, J. K., Renner, H. M., Schoen, S. K., Jones, T. T., Arimitsu, M. L., Kuletz, K.
752 J., Bodenstein, B., García-Reyes, M., Duerr, R. S., Corcoran, R. M., Kaler, R. S. A.,
753 McChesney, G. J., Golightly, R. T., Coletti, H. A., Suryan, R. M., Burgess, H. K., Lindsey,
754 J., Lindquist, K., ... Sydeman, W. J. (2020). Extreme mortality and reproductive failure of
755 common murres resulting from the northeast Pacific marine heatwave of 2014–2016.
756 *PLoS ONE*, 15(1), e0226087. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0226087>

757 Plaza, P. I., Gamarra-Toledo, V., Euguí, J. R., & Lambertucci, S. A. (2024). Recent Changes in
758 Patterns of Mammal Infection with Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza A(H5N1) Virus
759 Worldwide—Volume 30, Number 3—March 2024—Emerging Infectious Diseases
760 journal—CDC. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 30(3), 444–452.
761 <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid3003.231098>

762 Ramey, A. M., Hill, N. J., DeLiberto, T. J., Gibbs, S. E. J., Camille Hopkins, M., Lang, A. S.,
763 Poulson, R. L., Prosser, D. J., Sleeman, J. M., Stallknecht, D. E., & Wan, X.-F. (2022).
764 Highly pathogenic avian influenza is an emerging disease threat to wild birds in North
765 America. *The Journal of Wildlife Management*, 86(2), e22171.
766 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jwmg.22171>

767 Rijks, J. M., Leopold, M. F., Kühn, S., In 't Veld, R., Schenk, F., Brenninkmeijer, A., Lilipaly, S.
768 J., Ballmann, M. Z., Kelder, L., de Jong, J. W., Courtens, W., Slaterus, R., Kleyheeg, E.,
769 Vreman, S., Kik, M. J. L., Gröne, A., Fouchier, R. A. M., Engelsma, M., de Jong, M. C.
770 M., ... Beerens, N. (2022). Mass Mortality Caused by Highly Pathogenic Influenza
771 A(H5N1) Virus in Sandwich Terns, the Netherlands, 2022. *Emerging Infectious
772 Diseases*, 28(12), 2538–2542. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2812.221292>

773 Ronconi, R., Koopman, H., McKinstry, C., Wong, S., & Westgate, A. (2010). Inter-annual
774 variability in diet of non-breeding pelagic seabirds *Puffinus* spp. at migratory staging
775 areas: Evidence from stable isotopes and fatty acids. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*,
776 419, 267–282. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps08860>

777 Rosenberg, K. V., Dokter, A. M., Blancher, P. J., Sauer, J. R., Smith, A. C., Smith, P. A.,
778 Stanton, J. C., Panjabi, A., Helft, L., Parr, M., & Marra, P. P. (2019). Decline of the North
779 American avifauna. *Science*, 366(6461), 120–124.
780 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaw1313>

781 Tasker, M., Camphuysen, C. J. (Kees), Cooper, J., Garthe, S., Monteverchi, W. A., & Blaber, S.
782 J. M. (2000). The impacts of fishing on marine birds. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*,
783 57(3), 531–547. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jmsc.2000.0714>

784 Taylor, L. U., Ronconi, R. A., Spina, H. A., Jones, M. E. B., Ogbunugafor, C. B., & Ayala, A. J.
785 (2023). Limited Outbreak of Highly Pathogenic Influenza A(H5N1) in Herring Gull
786 Colony, Canada, 2022. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 29(10).
787 <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2910.230536>

788 Tremlett, C. J., Morley, N., & Wilson, L. J. (2024). *UK seabird colony counts in 2023 following*
789 *the 2021-22 outbreak of Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza* (76; RSPB Research
790 Report). RSPB Centre for Conservation Science (RSPB). https://base-prod.rspb-prod.magnolia-platform.com/dam/jcr:7983cad1-03f7-4ab4-b22e-c56c9f02243b/RSPB%20HPAI%20seabird%20counts%20report_Feb24.pdf

793 van den Brand, J. M. A., Verhagen, J. H., Veldhuis Kroese, E. J. B., van de Bildt, M. W. G.,
794 Bodewes, R., Herfst, S., Richard, M., Lexmond, P., Bestebroer, T. M., Fouchier, R. A.
795 M., & Kuiken, T. (2018). Wild ducks excrete highly pathogenic avian influenza virus
796 H5N8 (2014–2015) without clinical or pathological evidence of disease. *Emerging*
797 *Microbes & Infections*, 7(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41426-018-0070-9>

798 Van Gils, J. A., Munster, V. J., Radersma, R., Liefhebber, D., Fouchier, R. A. M., & Klaassen, M.
799 (2007). Hampered Foraging and Migratory Performance in Swans Infected with Low-
800 Pathogenic Avian Influenza A Virus. *PLoS ONE*, 2(1), e184.
801 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0000184>

802 Webster, R. G., Bean, W. J., Gorman, O. T., Chambers, T. M., & Kawaoka, Y. (1992). Evolution
803 and ecology of influenza A viruses. *Microbiological Reviews*, 56(1), 152–179.
804 <https://doi.org/10.1128/mr.56.1.152-179.1992>

805 Wiese, F. K., & Ryan, P. C. (2003). The extent of chronic marine oil pollution in southeastern
806 Newfoundland waters assessed through beached bird surveys 1984–1999. *Marine*
807 *Pollution Bulletin*, 46(9), 1090–1101. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(03\)00250-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(03)00250-9)

808 Wight, J., Rahman, I., Wallace, H. L., Cunningham, J. T., Roul, S., Robertson, G. J., Russell, R.
809 S., Xu, W., Zhmendak, D., Alkie, T. N., Berhane, Y., Hargan, K. E., & Lang, A. S. (2024).
810 *Avian influenza virus circulation and immunity in a wild urban duck population prior to*
811 *and during a highly pathogenic H5N1 outbreak.*

812 <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.02.22.581693>

813 Wilhelm, S. I., Robertson, G. J., Ryan, P. C., Tobin, S. F., & Elliot, R. D. (2007). An integrated
814 approach to monitor year-round chronic oil pollution in southeastern Newfoundland
815 waters. *Proceedings: Papers*, 229.

816 Wilhelm, S. I., Robertson, G. J., Ryan, P. C., Tobin, S. F., & Elliot, R. D. (2009). Re-evaluating
817 the use of beached bird oiling rates to assess long-term trends in chronic oil pollution.
818 *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 58(2), 249–255.

819 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2008.09.018>

820 Wille, M., Huang, Y., Robertson, G. J., Ryan, P., Wilhelm, S. I., Fifield, D., Bond, A. L., Granter,
821 A., Munro, H., Buxton, R., Jones, I. L., Fitzsimmons, M. G., Burke, C., Tranquilla, L. M.,
822 Rector, M., Takahashi, L., Kouwenberg, A.-L., Storey, A., Walsh, C., ... Lang, A. S.
823 (2014). Evaluation of Seabirds in Newfoundland and Labrador, Canada, as Hosts of
824 Influenza A Viruses. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*, 50(1), 98–103.

825 <https://doi.org/10.7589/2012-10-247>

826 Wille, M., & Waldenström, J. (2023). Weathering the Storm of High Pathogenicity Avian
827 Influenza in Waterbirds. *Waterbirds*, 46(1), 100–109.
828 <https://doi.org/10.1675/063.046.0113>

829

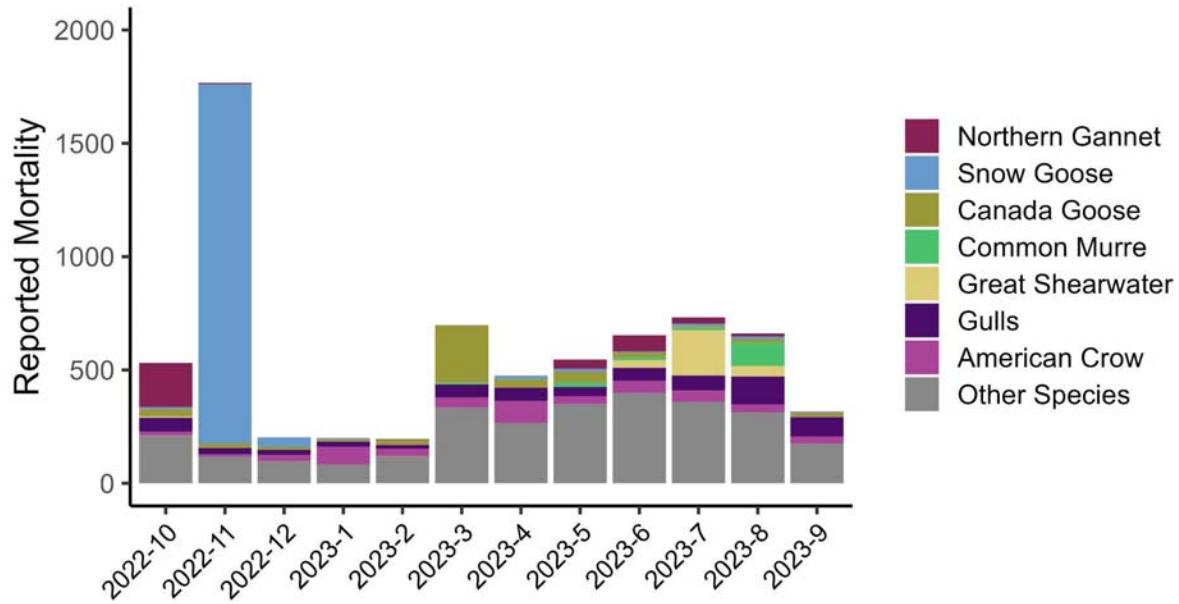
830

PREPRINT

831 **Table 1:** Interannual comparison of reported mortalities for each species group in the
832 spring/summer period (April 1 to September 30). Our complete mortality dataset, with double
833 counts removed, includes all reports of mortality regardless of the cause of death, HPAI test
834 results, or whether species were presumed positive by Avery-Gomm et al., (2024) in 2022.
835 Number of species included in each group is denoted in parentheses beside the totals.
836 American Common Eider are included in seabirds.
837

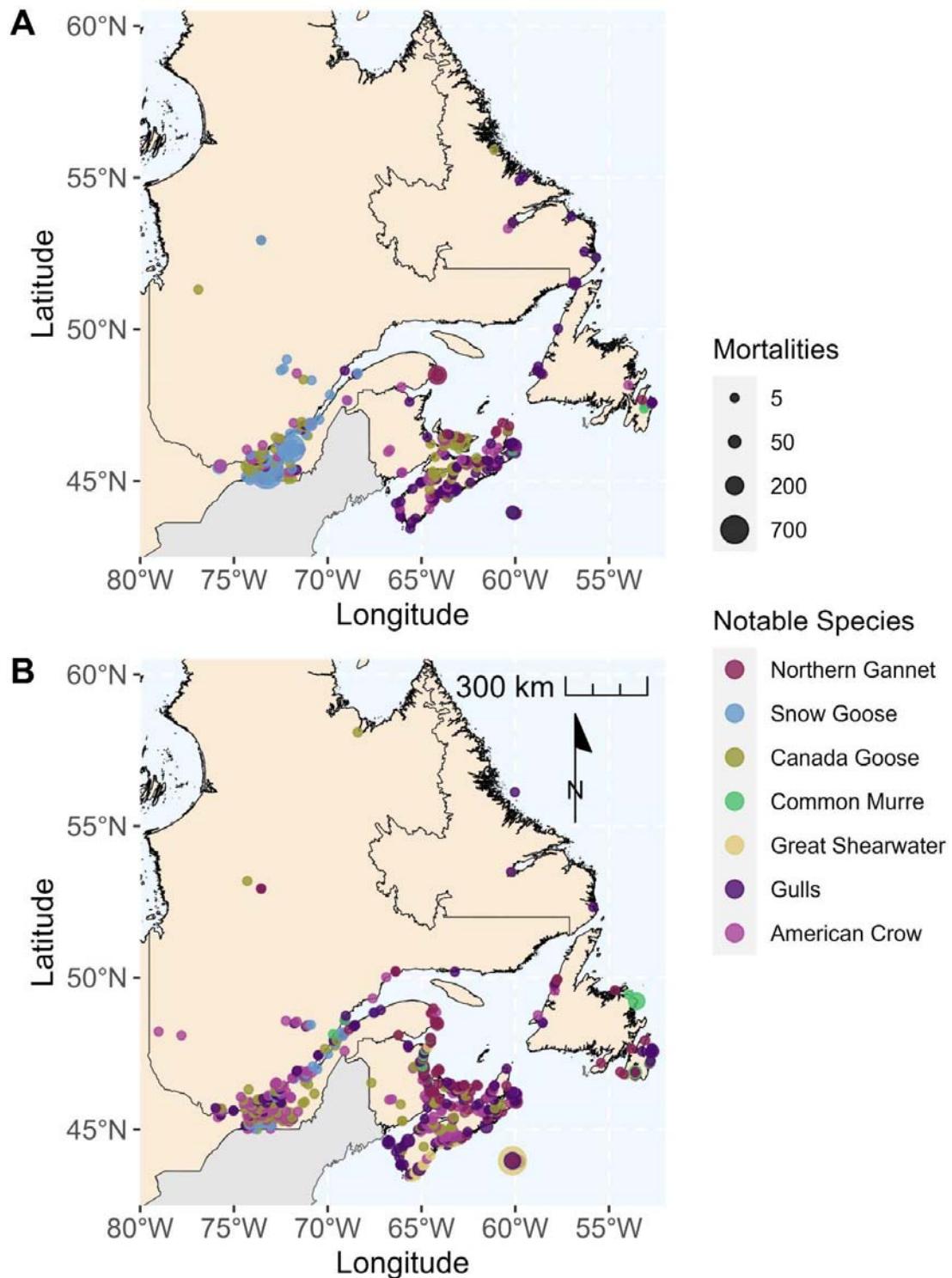
Group	2022		2023		Total Ratio of 2023 over 2022
	Total Birds (# of Species)	Percent of Total	Total Birds (# of Species)	Percent of Total	
Seabirds	40,911 (32)	91.74%	1,599 (35)	47.27%	0.04
Landbirds	441 (69)	0.99%	880 (92)	26.09%	2.0
Waterfowl	299 (21)	0.67%	324 (18)	9.61%	1.1
Raptors	108 (17)	0.24%	408 (24)	12.10%	3.8
Loons	39 (3)	0.09%	56 (3)	1.66%	1.4
Waders	23 (7)	0.05%	71 (6)	2.10%	3.1
Shorebirds	12 (8)	0.03%	24 (9)	0.71%	2.0
Unknown Bird	2,762	6.19%	21	0.62%	0.008
Total	44,595	-	3,383	-	0.07

838



839
840
841
842
843
844

Figure 1: The taxonomic and temporal patterns of reported wild bird mortalities in the 12 months that followed the spring/summer mass mortality events of 2022 described by Avery-Gomm et al. (2024) in eastern Canada. Species with noteworthy levels of mortality or notable mortality events (i.e., ≥ 150 reports across the entire period) are coloured by species. 'Other Species' represents the remaining 209 species reported throughout the entire study period.



845

846 **Figure 2:** Spatial, temporal, and taxonomic pattern of reported mortalities in the 12 months that
847 followed the spring/summer mass mortality events of 2022 described by Avery-Gomm et al.,
848 (2024) in eastern Canada during the (A) fall/winter period (October 2022 to March 2023) and (B)
849 spring/summer period (April 2023 to September 2023). Only species with notable mortality
850 events or noteworthy levels of mortality discussed in the text are shown.

