1 Biogeography of seabirds within a high-latitude ecosystem: use of a data-

2 assimilative ocean model to assess impacts of mesoscale oceanography

- Jarrod A. Santora¹, Lisa B. Eisner², Kathy J. Kuletz³, Carol Ladd⁴, Martin Renner⁵, George L. Hunt,
 Jr⁶
- ¹University of California Santa Cruz, Department of Applied Mathematics and Statistics, Center
 for Stock Assessment Research, Santa Cruz, CA, 95060
- ⁷ ²Alaska Fisheries Science Center, NOAA, 7600 Sand Point Way NE, Seattle, WA, 98115 USA
- 8 ³U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Anchorage, AK, 99503 USA
- ⁹ ⁴NOAA, Pacific Marine Environmental Laboratory, 7600 Sand Point Way NE, Seattle, WA 98115
- ⁵Tern Again Consulting, 811 Ocean Drive Loop, Homer, AK 99603 USA
- ⁶School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle WA 98195 USA
- 12 Email: jsantora@ucsc.edu
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24 **Abstract:** We assessed the biogeography of seabirds within the Bering Sea Large Marine Ecosystem (LME), a highly productive and extensive continental shelf system that supports 25 important fishing grounds. Our objective was to investigate how physical ocean conditions 26 27 impact distribution of seabirds along latitudinal gradients. We tested the hypothesis that seabird biogeographic patterns reflect differences in ocean conditions relating to the boundary 28 between northern and southern shelf ecosystems. We used a grid-based approach to develop 29 30 spatial means (1975-2014) of summertime seabird species' abundance, species' richness, and a 31 multivariate seabird assemblage index to examine species composition. Seabird indices were linked to ocean conditions derived from a data-assimilative oceanographic model to quantify 32 33 relationships between physics (e.g., temperature, salinity, and current velocity), bathymetry 34 and seabirds along latitudinal gradients. Species assemblages reflected two main sources of variation, a mode for elevated richness and abundance, and a mode related to partitioning of 35 36 inner/middle shelf species from outer shelf-slope species. Overall, species richness and 37 abundance increased markedly at higher latitudes. We found that latitudinal changes in species assemblages, richness and abundance indicates a major shift around 59–60°N within inner and 38 middle shelf regions, but not in the outer shelf. Within the middle shelf, latitudinal shifts in 39 40 seabird assemblages strongly related to hydrographic structure, as opposed to the inner and 41 outer shelf waters. As expected, elevated species richness and abundance was associated with major breeding colonies and within important coastal foraging areas. Our study also indicates 42 that seabird observations supported the conclusion that the oceanographic model captured 43 mesoscale variability of ocean conditions important for understanding seabird distributions and 44 represents an important step for evaluating modeling and empirical studies. Biogeographic 45 assessments of LMEs that integrate top predator distributions resolve critical habitat 46 requirements and will benefit assessment of climate change impacts (e.g., sea-ice loss) 47 48 predicted to affect high-latitude marine ecosystems.

Key words: Bering Sea; biodiversity; macroecology; large marine ecosystem; species richness;
 structural realism

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52 **1.0 Introduction**

Macroecology provides a framework for assessing relationships between marine organisms and 53 54 ocean-climate conditions to understand the biogeography of Large Marine Ecosystems (LMEs; 55 Sherman 1991). As global climate change is predicted to impact marine biodiversity patterns and food web interactions in LMEs (Willig et al., 2003; Tittensor et al., 2011), investigating the 56 57 biogeography of potential indicator species and how they reflect latitudinal gradients in the 58 physical and biological components of the coastal ocean will improve our ability to predict 59 future range shifts of species and key ecosystem services (e.g., fisheries; Meuter and Litzow, 60 2008). This is especially important in high-latitude, sea-ice-dominated ecosystems, where 61 conditions are predicted to change rapidly, thereby possibly denying presently resident species of habitat qualities essential for survival (Arrigo et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012). However, to 62 63 reveal key processes underlying the spatial organization of LMEs, macroecological investigations 64 require large, long-term data sets of species distributions and climatic conditions. Upper trophic 65 level predators (i.e. seabirds and marine mammals) integrate the influences of hydrography and 66 lower trophic levels (i.e., zooplankton and fish) via changes in their distribution, abundance or 67 species composition.

68 Large data sets of seabird species' distribution and abundance patterns are available for assessing seabird biogeography in the eastern Bering Sea (e.g., Renner et al., 2013; Hunt et al., 69 70 2014). Living at the interface between land, sea and air, seabirds are highly mobile and 71 conspicuous in marine ecosystems, and may be useful indicators of ocean-climate conditions 72 and fishery resources (Piatt et al., 2007). In this study, we investigated the biogeography of 73 seabird species' abundance, richness, and assemblages using a 40-year dataset of pelagic 74 seabird distribution and abundance. We assessed the co-occurrence of seabird assemblages and hydrographic features of the eastern Bering Sea and tested hypotheses about the 75 differences in seabird responses to hydrographic clines vs. fonts. Through this approach, we 76 77 also assessed the utility of seabirds as indicators of the macroecology of a high-latitude LME, 78 the eastern Bering Sea shelf region.

79 The eastern Bering Sea shelf ecosystem is a vast and highly productive ecosystem that sustains a diverse array of micronekton, fish, shellfish, seabirds and marine mammals (Piatt and 80 Springer, 2003), and is one of the most important fishing grounds in the world (Mueter and 81 82 Litzow, 2008; Baker and Hollowed, 2014). Stretching from the Alaska Peninsula to Bering Strait (Fig.1), the Bering Sea represents a 1200 km gradient of sub-Arctic to Arctic environmental 83 conditions within a 600K km² continental shelf that is 500 km wide (Stabeno et al., 1995; Piatt 84 and Springer, 2007; Danielson et al., 2011). Biological productivity and its fate in this marine 85 86 ecosystem are strongly influenced by the latitudinal extent, concentration, and timing of retreat of seasonal sea-ice cover (Stabeno et al., 2012). Substantial environmental gradients in ocean 87 88 conditions and bathymetry exist in both the cross-shelf and along-shelf directions, and interact 89 to influence the structure of benthic, mid-water and surface biological communities (Coachman 1986; Danielson et al., 2014; Stabeno et al., 2016; Sigler et al., 2011, 2017). Environmental 90 91 gradients in the cross-shelf direction are similar to many continental shelf ecosystems (Levin and Dayton, 2009), with well-mixed coastal waters inshore, stratified waters offshore, and a 92 hydrographic front marking the boundary between oceanic and shelf waters (Schumacher et 93 al., 1986; Kachel et al., 2002; Ladd and Stabeno, 2012). The spatial structure of the 94 95 southeastern Bering Sea shelf ecosystem is organized according to hydrographic conditions 96 related to the bathymetry of the inner (<50 m), middle (50-100 m) and outer shelf regions (100-200 m), each separated by fronts (Coachman 1986), along with centers of rich biological 97 productivity associated with sub-marine canyon systems and islands (Hunt et al., 2008). In the 98 99 southeastern Bring Sea, the southern extent of cold bottom temperatures (i.e., cold pool) within the middle shelf is a defining characteristic of the ecosystem's biogeography and impacts 100 regional fisheries (Meuter and Litzow, 2008; Baker and Hollowed, 2014). 101

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At about 59 - 60 degrees north, there is a transition between the northern (Arctic) and southern
(sub-Arctic) shelf ecosystems (Sigler et al., 2011; Stabeno et al. 2012). The hydrographic
differences north and south of this transition zone are influenced by winter sea ice conditions
(e.g., approximate location of the maximum sea ice extent in March), and persist throughout
the summer (Danielson et al., 2011a, b). North of the transition zone, there are major

108 differences in the hydrography of the inner (< 40-50 m) and middle (50-100 m) shelf regions 109 compared to the southeastern shelf (Ladd and Stabeno, 2012). In winter the inner and middle 110 shelf regions are well mixed from the Alaska Peninsula to Bering Strait (Stabeno et al., 2012). In 111 summer in the southeastern Bering Sea (south of the transition zone), the inner shelf remains well mixed due to the interaction of wind and tidal mixing (Danielson et al., 2014), while, the 112 middle shelf is stratified by solar heating (Ladd and Stabeno, 2012). The pycnocline of the 113 summer southern middle shelf is thin and subsurface blooms are uncommon (Stabeno et al., 114 2012). In contrast, north of the transition zone, summer stratification occurs in both the middle 115 shelf and the inner shelf regions (Ladd and Stabeno, 2012). This northern stratification is based 116 117 on both temperature and salinity with summer heating, sea-ice formation and melting, and 118 river input all playing a role (Danielson et al. 2011; Stabeno et al., 2012; Ladd and Stabeno, 119 2012). On the northern middle shelf, the pycnocline is thicker and subsurface phytoplankton 120 blooms are common (Stabeno et al., 2012). There is growing evidence that food webs of the 121 middle shelf differ north and south of this zonal boundary (Aydin and Meuter, 2007; Sigler et al., 2011) and that they support different communities of zooplankton, groundfish, seabirds and 122 123 marine mammals (Piatt and Springer, 2003; Sigler et al., 2011; Baker and Hollowed, 2014; 124 Eisner et al., 2014). In contrast to the sluggish flow of the inner and middle shelf regions, along 125 the shelf edge and over much of the outer shelf, northward flowing waters can carry abundant large crustacean zooplankton from the southern shelf-slope and basin northward through 126 127 Anadyr Strait into the western Chirikov Basin and Bering Strait (Springer et al., 1996). These northward flowing waters transport nutrients and phytoplankton as well as zooplankton, and 128 129 support a rich fauna of seabird planktivores in the central and western Chirikov Basin and Chukchi Sea (Piatt and Springer, 2003; Sigler et al., 2017). Because of this continuous northward 130 flow, there is no abrupt shift in either the physical or biological oceanography of the outer and 131 132 shelf-slope regions until one reaches St. Lawrence Island and the input of Anadyr Water (Springer et al., 1996; Piatt and Springer, 2003; Eisner et al., 2014). 133

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135 Our overarching objective was to assess how physical ocean conditions impact the

136 biogeography of seabird species' abundance, richness, and assemblages, along latitudinal

137 gradients within the inner, middle and outer shelf regions of the eastern Bering Sea shelf. Specifically, we tested the hypothesis that seabird biogeographic patterns reflect differences 138 139 relating to the boundary $(59 - 60 \,^{\circ}\text{N})$ between northern and southern shelf ecosystems. We 140 predicted that there would be significant changes in the seabird fauna where the hydrographic structure of the inner and middle shelf regions change, but in the outer shelf, where there is 141 only a gradual, clinal shift with increasing latitude, the seabird fauna would show no abrupt 142 shifts south of the input of Anadyr Water. To test our hypothesis, we used data from the North 143 Pacific Pelagic Seabird Database (NPPSD) to develop spatial climatologies (1975-2014) of 144 summertime pelagic seabird biogeography patterns within the eastern Bering Sea shelf LME. 145 146 We evaluated relationships between seabird distributions and the physical environment using a 147 data-assimilative oceanographic model to assess the role of ocean conditions on seabird biogeography. In doing so, we also assessed the utility of seabird observations for evaluating 148 the structural realism of the oceanographic model (Santora et al., 2013; Schroeder et al., 2014), 149 150 thereby providing insight on how seabirds may inform the efficacy of physical models to identify the mesoscale ecosystem oceanography of upper trophic level species in an LME. We 151 discuss the implications of our results for applying seabird biogeography and oceanographic 152 153 models to understand the zonal boundaries of shelf ecosystems and the potential impacts of 154 climate change.

155 **2.0 Methods**

156 **2.1 Synthesis of seabird assemblages**

157 The geographic scope and scale of our biogeographic assessment of seabird assemblages 158 focused on climatological summer spatial distribution patterns, covering the geographic domain shown in Figs. 1-2. The study domain was bounded to the east, shoreward to the 10 m isobath, 159 160 to the west by the 1500 m isobath, south to the Alaska Peninsula and north to Bering Strait. 161 Seabird distributions were derived from the NPPSD (U.S. Geological Survey, Drew et al., 2015) and the data used herein are reviewed in Renner et al., (2013, 2016) and Hunt et al., (2014). 162 163 Although the data set provided a long-time series, there were limited data available across the 164 entire study domain to assess seasonal and long-term changes (Hunt et al., 2014). Therefore,

this study focused on the macro perspective of seabird biogeographic patterns based onclimatological spatial averages.

As in previous studies of seabird species assemblages and distribution patterns in the Bering 167 Sea (Sigler et al., 2011; Renner et al., 2013; Hunt et al., 2014; Kuletz et al., 2014), we established 168 a grid of cells 50x50 km based on the extent and continuity of the seabird surveys contained 169 within the NPPSD to summarize survey effort (# 3 km transect segments). First, survey data 170 were extracted from 1975-2014 for the months of May through September. To estimate 171 172 comparable long-term spatial means of seabird species richness (mean number of all species observed; n=67 taxa) and abundance per grid cell, we applied an effort cutoff (cells had to have 173 174 >50 3-km transect segments; Fig. 1). Due to the inconsistency in species identification of Ardenna spp. shearwaters across years, shearwater observations (primarily short-tailed 175 shearwaters) were pooled into a 'dark shearwater' category (as per Renner et al., 2016). We 176 177 also included a *Brachyramphus* murrelet species group to avoid difficulties regarding species identification in this genus. For consistency over the large temporal scope of this study, we 178 179 excluded all other un-identified taxa from our total taxa list (n=67 taxa), but included sea ducks, 180 loons and grebes. The latter species may not forage in the study area, but are important 181 migratory species during summer and early fall (Hunt et al., 2014). Second, we determined a 182 subset of species with occurrences in greater than 10% of grid cells (i.e., removed rare or less 183 frequently sighted species), resulting in a group of 34 species to assess biogeographic patterns 184 of seabird assemblages. These species represent a variety of life histories and have different 185 feeding, breeding and migratory behaviors. Regarding feeding behavior, this group of seabirds 186 is generally categorized as pursuit-diving (e.g., alcids and cormornats) and surface feeders (e.g., 187 albatrosses, gulls and storm-petrels), or a combination of both feeding types (e.g., 188 shearwaters). See Hunt et al. 2014 and Renner et al. 2016 for a further description of the feeding behavior and occurrence of seabirds derived from the NPPSD. 189

We predicted that a spatial analysis of the most frequently encountered and abundant species would show the following major sources of spatial variation: (a) locations characterized by high species abundance (and species richness) associated with known breeding islands (Renner et al., 2013) and key abundance hotspots (e.g., Unimak Pass and submarine canyons; Ladd et al.,
2005), (b) an east – west division partitioning species with affinities for the outer shelf-slope
and those with inshore shelf preferences (Hunt et al., 2014), and c) a north-south division in the
middle shelf that reflected the abrupt shift in the physical environment at about 60° N (Sigler et
al., 2011), but no such division in the outer shelf.

The spatial mean of species relative abundance (n=34 taxa) per grid cell (over 40 years) was 198 transformed (In+1) and inputted into a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to assess coherence 199 200 among species. Determined by eigenvalues (e.g., >3) and percent variance explained, the major PC axes (i.e., PC1 and PC2) were then mapped onto grid cells to provide a spatially-explicit 201 202 multivariate species assemblage index, enabling further evaluation of the latitudinal variability 203 of species assemblages and the location of distinct biogeographic zonal boundaries. Moreover, to assess their coherence with the leading modes derived from the PCA and to determine 204 205 potential geographic indicator species, a randomization test was used to evaluate the 206 correlation between species abundance and PC loadings. To complement the PCA and to 207 visualize seabird species assemblages, we calculated a similarity matrix (based on species 208 abundance per grid cell) for a cluster analysis to derive a dendrogram to visualize species 209 assemblages. The resulting seabird species assemblage index (index by PC1 and PC2) was then 210 compared to climatological physical oceanographic conditions to assess biogeographic patterns 211 on the eastern Bering Sea shelf.

212 2.2 Oceanographic conditions

213 Bathymetry data were derived from the GEBCO satellite altimetry data product 214 (https://www.bodc.ac.uk/data/online_delivery/gebco/), which was specifically designed for the Bering Sea (AlaskaREgionBathymetricDEMv1.04, provided by the Alaska Ocean Observing 215 216 System). We calculated the slope of sea depth (In of percent rise) as an index of the 217 heterogeneity of bathymetry. Since our objective was to assess regional drivers of the 218 climatological biogeography of seabird assemblages, we used the results of a data assimilative model of climatological ocean conditions (Panteleev et al., 2011). The model was tuned to 219 220 climatological ocean conditions for the Bering Sea using observational data such as

hydrographic casts, moorings and drifter buoys; the model has an 18 km resolution, and
assimilated observations from 1932-2004 (see Panteleev et al., 2011 for a review of the model;
<u>http://beringsea.eol.ucar.edu/models/panteleev-approach.html</u>). Specifically, we extracted the
modeled summertime climatology data on sea surface height (SSH; cm), and current velocities
(cm s⁻¹) at 7.5 m, and temperature (°C) and salinity averaged over 10-35 m. Bathymetric and
oceanographic model output was spatially averaged onto the seabird grid cells for geospatial
modeling (Figs. 1-2).

228 Depth integration ranges were chosen to reflect generalized mesoscale ocean conditions for surface-feeding and pursuit-diving seabirds (Schneider et al., 1987; Schneider 1990; Russell et 229 230 al., 1999; Jahncke et al., 2008) and to delineate frontal boundaries between the inner, middle 231 and outer shelf (Coachman 1986). Furthermore, the bathymetric and hydrographic variables were selected to characterize the ecosystem oceanography for assessing seabird biogeographic 232 233 hotspot concentration patterns (Santora et al., 2017a, b), which often interact to influence the 234 mesoscale spatial organization of seabird abundance and biodiversity hotspots at sea (Piatt et 235 al., 2006; Hyrenbach et al., 2007, Renner et al., 2013, Santora et al. 2017a, b). We did not 236 consider evaluating relationships between seabird distribution patterns with satellite remotely-237 sensed conditions (e.g., Chlorophyll-a) because we were interested in assessing ocean 238 conditions from particular water-column depths. Further, evaluation of seabird biogeographic 239 patterns with modeled ocean conditions provided an independent assessment of model 240 performance and may advance the discipline of ecosystem oceanography (Cury et al., 2008).

241 **2.3 Geospatial models**

To test our hypothesis that the along-shelf latitudinal variability of seabird species richness,
total abundance, and species assemblages reflects the zonal boundary at approximately 59 – 60
°N for the inner and middle shelf areas, but not for the outer shelf, we extracted geographic
slices of grid cells containing seabird indices (e.g., species richness, total abundance and
principal components, PC1 and PC2) and oceanographic conditions (contingent with isobaths
selections) within the inner, middle and outer shelf regions (Coachman 1986; see Fig.1 for the
boundaries of geographic slices). The inner shelf geographic slice was selected based on

249 centering grid cells inshore of the 50 m isobath, ranging from the inner coastal waters of the 250 Alaskan Peninsula to the Bering Strait (n=79 cells). The waters to the east of Unimak Pass along 251 the 50 m isobath ('Slime Bank') were excluded from this analysis. The geographic slice for the 252 middle shelf was selected from grid cells seaward of the 50 m to the 100 m isobath (n=117 cells), and the outer shelf and shelf-slope from 100 m to 1500 m depth (n=74 cells). Our 253 reasoning behind examining the along-shelf variability of the inner and middle shelf is that they 254 255 are separated by hydrographic fronts occurring in proximity to the 50 and 100 m isobaths, and the inner shelf during summer is well mixed and weakly stratified, compared to the strongly 256 stratified middle shelf (e.g., warm wind-mixed surface and cooler bottom temperature) 257 258 (Coachman 1986). Furthermore, these cross-shelf gradients also display latitudinal variability 259 owing to circulation of water and the position of hydrographic fronts in the northern middle shelf (Stabeno et al., 2012). 260

261 We used Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) to investigate the along-shelf variability of the 262 seabird species richness, total seabird abundance and species assemblage index (PC1 and PC2), 263 per grid cell within the inner, middle and outer shelf regions (Fig. 1) relative to latitude, 264 bathymetric slope, temperature, salinity, SSH, and current speed. Due to collinearity issues that 265 may impact model fitting, the variable 'distance to land' (Fig. 2) was omitted from models 266 because it was highly correlated (e.g., r>0.8) with other physical oceanographic variables. 267 Furthermore, we examined the relationship among other physical variables within each shelf 268 region and determined that SSH was highly correlated (r>0.7) with some variables (e.g., salinity) 269 within the inner and outer shelf regions. Therefore, it was removed from those models to avoid 270 overfitting (Zuur et al. 2009). However, SSH was included in the middle shelf models because it 271 was not correlated with other model variables. No other significant correlations were detected 272 among environmental variables.

The GAM (e.g., for middle shelf) was specified as Seabird Variable = s(latitude) + s(slope) + s(temperature) + s(salinity) + s(SSH) + s(current speed); where s is a smooth regression spline.GAMs for seabird species richness and total abundance were specified with a quasi-Poisson distribution and a log-link function, whereas the seabird assemblage index (PC1 and PC2) was 277 specified as a Gaussian distribution and identity link function (Wood 2011). GAMs were 278 implemented using the macv package in the R statistical program (R Development Core Team, 279 2016) using generalized cross-validation to estimate smoothness parameters (Zuur et al. 2009). Adjusted pseudo R^2 and percent deviance explained were used to evaluate model performance. 280 The effect of each covariate included in each GAM was plotted to inspect visually the 281 282 functional form and assess potential biogeographic breaks in seabirds assemblage indices, 283 species richness and abundance relative to latitude, and to determine specific range values 284 associated with changes in environmental variables within each shelf region (Dormann et al., 285 2007; Zuur et al., 2009).

286 **3.0 Results**

287 3.1 Biogeography of seabird assemblages

288 Maps of the climatological spatial means of total seabird abundance and species richness. 289 showed that mean seabird abundance and species richness were elevated near island breeding 290 colonies (e.g., Pribilof Islands, St. Matthew and St. Lawrence Islands) and along the Alaska 291 Peninsula (Fig. 3a-b). Additional high abundance and richness areas were associated with 292 Unimak Pass and along the shelf-slope in association with Bering, Pribilof and Zhemchug 293 submarine canyons (Figs. 1 and 3). Total seabird abundance was also high within the southeast 294 Bering Sea shelf, in association with the inner and middle shelf regions. North of the Pribilof 295 Islands, between Nunivak and St. Matthew Islands, there was an area of relatively low total seabird abundance and species richness that extended to the waters south and east of St. 296 297 Lawrence Island. To the north of St. Lawrence Island within the Anadyr Water, total seabird 298 abundance and richness was high from the southern Chirikov Basin to the Bering Strait (Fig. 3a-299 b).

The PCA applied to the abundance of 34 taxa partitioned the variance of species associations, resolving two principal components, explaining 11.3% and 10.4% (Eigenvalues >3) of the total variance, respectively (Table S.1; Fig. 4a-b, Fig. S.1). Similarly, the cluster analysis of species abundance complemented the biogeographic breaks informed by the PCA (Fig. S.1) and provided additional detail on associations among specific species (Fig. 4c). The first principal 305 component ('seabird PC1') indicated locations of high species' richness and total seabird abundance (Figs. 3 and 4a), highlighting locations associated with seabird colonies at the 306 307 Pribilof, St. Matthew, and Nunivak islands, as well as waters north of St. Lawrence Island within 308 the Chirikov Basin associated with the Anadyr Water (Figs. 1 and 4a). Species whose abundance 309 is positively correlated (p<0.05) and are associated with PC1 (Table S.1, Fig. S.1)) are black-310 legged kittiwake (*Rissa tridactyla*), common murre (*Uria aalge*), crested auklet (*Aethia* cristatella), herring gull (Larus argentatua), horned puffin (Fratercula corniculata), Kittlitz's 311 murrlet (Brachyramphus brevirostris), parakeet auklet (Aethia psittacula), pelagic cormorant 312 (Phalacrocorax pelagicus), pigeon guillemot (Cepphus columbia), red phalarope (Phalaropus 313 fulicarius), red-faced cormorant (Phalacrocorax urile), red-legged kittiwake (Rissa brevirostris), 314 315 red-necked phalarope (Phalaropus), thick-billed murre (Uria lomvia), and tufted puffin 316 (Fractercula cirrhata).

317 The second component ('seabird PC2') indicated a geographic break in seabird assemblages that separated the inner and middle shelf from the outer shelf-slope area (e.g., species with 318 319 either on-shore/offshore affinity; Table S.1, Fig. 4b-c, Fig. S.1). For PC2, positive values indicate 320 increased abundance of inner and middle shelf species (i.e., shoreward species), while negative 321 values are associated with increased abundance of outer shelf and shelf-slope species. Inner 322 and middle shelf indicator species associated with PC2 are arctic tern (Sterna paradisaea), 323 black-legged kittiwake, ancient (Synthliboramphus antiquus), Kittlitz's, marbled (B. marmoratus) 324 and murrelet spp. (Brachyramphus spp.), Cassin's auklet (Ptychororamphu aleuticus), common 325 murre, glaucous winged-gull (Larus glaucescens), Pacific loon (Gavia pacifica), Sabine's gull 326 (Xema sabini), and shearwater (Ardrena spp.). Outer shelf and slope indicator species are fork-327 tailed storm petrel (Oceanodroma furcata), Laysan albatross (Phoebastria immutabilis), least 328 auklet (Aethia pusilla), northern fulmar (Fulmarus glacialis), red-legged kittiwake and thickbilled murre. Within PC2, there was an apparent north-south geographic break in shoreward 329 species assemblages around 59 – 60° N from Nunivak Island extending west-northwest towards 330 St. Matthews Island. 331

332 **3.2** Latitudinal variability of seabird biogeographic patterns

333 We found oceanographic conditions and latitudinal variability were important for explaining the biogeographic patterns of seabird species richness, species assemblages and total abundance 334 (Table 1a-c). Overall, all seabird variables revealed a strong response to increasing latitude 335 336 within the inner and middle shelf, indicating potential biogeographic zonal boundaries in avifauna (Fig. 5-6). Along the inner shelf, the multivariate seabird assemblage indices (seabird 337 338 PC1 and PC2) displayed contrasting functional relationships relative to latitude, with seabird 339 PC1 (i.e., variance associated with increased abundance and richness associated with islands) increased in magnitude abruptly around 63° N, near St. Lawrence Island and where Anadyr 340 water dominates, while PC2 (i.e., variance associated with shoreward species) displayed a 341 342 decrease in response to latitude between ~59° and 61°N (Fig. 5a-b). Within the middle shelf (50-100 m isobaths), both seabird PC1 and PC2 displayed abrupt increases around 59 – 60° N, 343 344 and this change is partly attributable to the location of St. Matthew Island (Figs. 4 and 5c-d). In 345 the outer shelf, we found no effect of latitude for either the seabird assemblage index (P1 and 346 P2) or total seabird abundance (Table 1c).

347 The GAM analysis showed that species richness within the inner shelf increased around 63° N 348 (near St. Lawrence Island), while species richness within the middle shelf increased around 59– 349 60° N (south of St. Matthew Island) (Fig. 6a, c). However, in the outer shelf, species richness 350 declined with increasing latitude and displayed a geographic break around 59° N in the outer 351 shelf, possibly associated with Zemchug Canyon (Fig.6e). There was a decline in total seabird abundance around 59° N and an increase around 63° N within the inner shelf. In contrast, total 352 seabird abundance within the middle shelf displayed a steep decline with increasing latitude, 353 with a leveling off occurring around 58° N (Fig. 6b, d). 354

355 **3.3 Environmental determinants of seabird biogeographic patterns**

Along the inner shelf, seabird PC1 was positively and linearly related to current speed and
displayed a positive asymptotic relationship with bottom slope (Table 1a; Fig. 7a, Fig. S.2).
Species richness within waters < 50 m deep was related to current speed owing to increased
current speed and richness at higher latitudes associated with the productive waters of the

Anadyr Current and Bering Strait regions (Figs. 1, and S.2). There were no significant
 relationships between seabird PC2 and environmental variables within the inner shelf.

Overall, our models indicate there were more significant relationships between seabirds and 362 environmental variables within the middle shelf compared to the inner and outer shelf regions 363 (Table 1a-c), which may be attributed to more complex physical ocean conditions within the 364 highly stratified waters of the middle shelf. Bathymetric slope, temperature, salinity, current 365 speed and SSH were important for relating changes in seabird variables relative to 366 367 environmental gradients within the middle shelf (Figs 7-8 and Figs. S.2-4). Seabird PC1 displayed a peak at moderate levels of slope, while PC2 and total abundance were linearly 368 369 related to slope within the middle shelf (Fig. 7a-b). Seabird PC1 was negatively related to 370 current speed (Fig. S.2). Seabird PC1, PC2 and species richness were positively and linearly related to temperature (averaged over 10-35 m), while total abundance was non-linearly 371 372 related to temperature, with a sensitivity to temperatures around 5.5° C within the middle shelf (Figs. 2d, 8a-b). In the middle shelf, seabird PC1, species richness, and total abundance were 373 374 strongly related to salinity (averaged over 10-35 m), with sensitivity around 31.4 to 31.8 (PSU) (Fig. 2e, Fig. S.3). Further, seabird PC1, species richness and total abundance were non-linearly 375 related to SSH, indicating a strong effect for SSH values of 16 to 18 cm (Fig. S.4). 376

In the outer shelf, seabird PC1 was negatively related to temperature (Figs. 8). Seabird PC2,
which relates to abundance of outer shelf species (e.g., fork-tailed storm-petrel and Laysan
albatross), was positively related to temperature, with a strong response to temperatures
greater than 7.0° C (Fig. 8). PC1 was also associated with bottom slope (Fig. 7), especially within
steep regions of the outer shelf. Species richness in the outer shelf was negatively and linearly
related to temperature and current speed, and positively associated with higher values of
salinity (Table 1c; Figs. 7-8 and Fig. S.3).

384 **4.0 Discussion**

Biogeographic assessments of high-latitude marine systems are critical for understanding the structure and function of ecosystems and evaluating future climate change impacts on the 387 distributions of species. In particular, quantifying latitudinal gradients of species diversity and composition along with environmental drivers is important for assessing the spatial 388 389 organization of marine ecosystems. In this paper, we used the output of a data-assimilative 390 oceanographic model to determine the relationships between seabird distribution and abundance and oceanographic variables descriptive of the Bering Sea LME. We found evidence 391 supporting our hypothesis regarding a change in seabird species assemblages, richness and 392 abundance that indicates a major shift around latitude 59 – 60° N within both the inner and 393 394 middle shelf regions, but not in the outer shelf regions. Further, our biogeographic assessment indicated two major macro-scale (1000s km) sources of variation for seabird assemblages 395 396 within Bering Sea LME: (a) areas of high species richness and abundance associated with 397 breeding colonies and feeding hotspots, and (b) partitions reflecting both north-south (separated at ~60°N) and east-west divisions of species abundance associated with the inner 398 399 and middle shelf regions from those in the outer shelf and shelf-slope regions. The latter 400 partition suggests that seabird assemblages are strongly related to the physical and biological structure of the Bering Sea shelf, which is organized by bathymetry (e.g., bottom slope), water 401 column structure (e.g., stratification and mixing) and location of frontal zones, all of which 402 403 interact to generate seabird foraging habitats (Hunt et al., 2014; Renner et al., 2016). Our 404 results on seabird biogeography support previous biogeographic assessments of fish and shellfish that also found evidence for the separation of northern and southern shelf ecosystems 405 406 (Meuter and Litzow, 2008; Sigler et al., 2011; Baker and Hollowed, 2014) and changes 407 associated with sub-Arctic to Arctic ecosystems (Sigler et al., 2017).

408 Our synthesis is dependent on at least two important caveats. First, due to data limitations at 409 the scale of the study area, we were unable to examine temporal variability of seabird 410 distributions to assess the presence of trends, cycles (e.g., seasonality and inter-decadal variability), or long-term range shifts for species richness and abundance. It would be useful for 411 412 future efforts to examine subsets of the data set to assess temporal patterns. For example, in 413 the southeast Bering Sea, where surveys were more frequent, Renner et al. (2016) demonstrated that the cross-shelf distribution of seabirds is altered by timing of sea ice retreat 414 415 in spring and the summer abundance of zooplankton and forage fish. Furthermore, Suryan et

416 al., (2016) indicated that spatial relationships among seabirds and forage species (e.g., 417 zooplankton and forage fish) are also seasonally-dependent on seabird migration patterns and prey availability. Examination of these effects on seabirds in the along-shelf direction is of 418 419 interest because seabird response may differ between the northern and southern shelf as a 420 result of differences in hydrography (Stabeno et al., 2012). Second, we did not explicitly assess physical ocean processes within ecoregions that may offer a mechanistic explanation of the 421 422 observed differences in seabird assemblages that we found. Important physical processes may 423 include sub-mesoscale variability of currents and frontal development (i.e., indicators of retention and advective processes) which are known influences on productivity hotspots 424 425 (Santora et al., 2017b), and associated with islands or submarine canyon systems in the Bering 426 Sea (Moore et al., 2002; Sigler et al., 2017).

427 **4.1** Northern and southern biogeographic regions

428 Seabird biogeography in the Bering Sea LME reflects oceanographic conditions along both 429 cross-shelf and along-shelf gradients. Our study corroborates the results of others that identified three biogeographic regions: the area associated with the Chirikov Basin and Bering 430 431 Strait, and a partition between the northern and southern shelf areas, with a major geographic shift around 59 – 60° N in both the inner and middle shelf regions (Piatt and Springer, 2003; 432 Sigler et al., 2011). The latitudinal increase in species richness and abundance (i.e., PC1) at the 433 434 northern extent of the inner shelf region $(63 - 64^{\circ} \text{ N})$ is related to the swift, turbulent, and 435 productive Anadyr Water west of St. Lawrence Island and extends into Bering Strait, and represents a region of enhanced eddy activity and concentration of biological productivity (Piatt 436 437 and Springer, 2003; Grebmeier et al., 2006). As a result, the shallow shelf region north and west of St. Lawrence Island contains dense concentrations of crustacean zooplankton (e.g., 438 439 copepods and euphausiids), and supports ~ 5 million seabirds during summer, most of which are planktivorous auklets, whose breeding colonies are located on the north shore of St. 440 Lawrence Island and on King Island (Springer at al., 1987, 1989; Elphic and Hunt, 1993; Russell 441 442 et al., 1999; Piatt and Springer, 2003).

443 The Alaska Coastal Current, which enters the Bering Sea through Unimak and Samalga Passes, flows eastward along the Alaska Peninsula and northward within the inner and middle shelf 444 regions (Schumacher et al., 1982; Stabeno et al., 2002; Ladd et al., 2005). Freshwater input 445 446 from rivers also interacts with the Alaska Coastal Current to influence the position of 447 hydrographic fronts between the inner shelf and the middle shelf (Danielson et al., 2014). The waters of the inner shelf (<40 m) north of 60°N are stratified in summer due to brine rejection 448 449 in winter, which creates a cold dense bottom layer, and ice melting in spring that creates a 450 buoyant surface layer (Eisner et al., 2014). Moreover, stratification in the inner shelf in the north is likely due to higher freshwater input and weaker tides than farther south (Ladd and 451 452 Stabeno, 2012). South of 60 °N, the waters of the inner shelf are well mixed by a combination 453 of tidal stirring at the bottom and wind mixing at the surface (Danielson et al. 2011b, 2014). Collectively, these hydrography patterns influence the cross-shelf and along-shelf distribution 454 455 and abundance of forage fish and piscivorous seabird species within the inner shelf (Schneider 456 et al., 1987; Parker-Setter et al., 2013; Hunt et al., 2014; Renner et al., 2016). Our seabird assemblage index, PC2 (abundance of shoreward species) indicates a distinct grouping of high 457 458 values within Bristol Bay that extends north to Nunivak Island, and then declines abruptly with 459 increasing latitude (i.e., north-south boundary). Presumably, the decline in the seabird 460 assemblage index is in part due to lack of breeding colonies along the mainland coast. The seabird fauna of the inner shelf is mostly composed of sub-surface (diving) seabirds, including 461 alcids and large concentrations of shearwaters (Schneider et al., 1986; Hunt et al., 2014; Suryan 462 et al., 2016) that depend on variety of crustacean zooplankton and forage fish species (Eisner et 463 464 al., 2014, 2015).

Within the middle shelf, we also detected shifts in seabird assemblages, and richness at 59 –
60° N and a shift in total seabird abundance at 59° N. Forage fish and mesozooplankton
communities also display a biogeographic shift at this latitude (Eisner et al., 2015). Both seabird
assemblage indices (PC1 and PC2) and species richness increased at this boundary, indicating a
positive change in species richness and assemblage of middle shelf species with increasing
latitude. This shift is attributed to the presence of St. Matthew Island, which is located within
the middle shelf just north of 60° N, and contains many species of breeding seabirds (Piatt and

472 Springer, 2007). However, total seabird abundance within the middle shelf displayed a decline
473 around 59° N, and we attribute this to a decrease in shearwater abundance, the most abundant
474 species in the southern shelf region (Hunt et al., 2014; Suryan et al., 2016).

Owing to the oceanographic complexity (e.g., more mixing, frontal development) of the middle 475 shelf and greater cross-shelf area, we found a higher number of significant relationships 476 477 between seabirds and environmental variables. Increases in total seabird abundance and seabird PC1 and PC2 coincided with areas with the steepest bottom slope, highest 478 479 temperatures and lowest salinity values. Part of this variability is attributable to increased 480 species richness and abundance associated with island locations in the middle shelf (e.g., 481 Pribilof and St. Matthews Islands), which are also regions of elevated Chl-a concentration (Eisner et al., 2016). However, most of the variability is related to the position of hydrographic 482 fronts that separate the 3 shelf regions, which are effective in concentrating zooplankton, 483 484 forage fish and seabirds (Schneider et al., 1987; Jahncke et al., 2008; Hunt et al., 2008; Eisner et al., 2014). Seabird species assemblages also changed from the inner shelf to the middle and 485 486 outer shelf, with an increase in the abundance of surface foragers (i.e., storm-petrels and 487 albatrosses) farther offshore (Sigler et al., 2011; Hunt et al., 2014; Kuletz et al., 2014).

In the outer shelf, we found species richness declined with increasing latitude and that there 488 were no abrupt changes of seabird assemblage indices. In the region around 59° N at the 489 490 northern edge of Zemchug Canyon, there was an area of increased abundance. As other studies 491 have noted (Piatt and Springer, 2003), there was an increase in species richness and abundance in the northern outer shelf where these waters converge with the Anadyr current and move 492 eastward onto the middle and inner shelf. Aside from bottom slope and temperature, our 493 models found fewer environmental relationships with seabird variables in the outer shelf 494 495 compared to the middle shelf. This could be attributed to the more homogenous physical conditions in the alongshore direction of the outer shelf (Springer et al., 1996; Danielson et al., 496 497 2011a), at least from the perspective of the physical variables we investigated. Mesoscale 498 processes, such as eddy recirculation associated with the interaction of currents and the 499 location of submarine canyon systems, were more important for understanding the regional

variability of seabird assemblage and abundance patterns within the outer shelf (Sigler et al.,
2011; Renner et al., 2013, Kuletz et al., 2014, Paredes et al., 2014).

502 **4.2 Seabirds as indicators of modeled ocean conditions**

503 To best of our knowledge, our study is the first to investigate environmental drivers of seabird 504 biogeography within an LME using a data-assimilative ocean model. Evaluating structural 505 realism of ocean-ecosystem models by comparing independent observations that were not 506 incorporated in the model may illuminate whether a model successfully captures important 507 meso-scale ocean processes (e.g., eddies and frontal development) that influence the spatial organization of biological communities (Cury et al. 2008). Due to their relative ease in 508 509 monitoring, seabird distribution and abundance at sea are useful for evaluating the structural 510 realism of ocean-ecosystem models (Santora et al., 2013) and provide independent 511 observations for assessing model performance. For these reasons, our synthesis of seabird 512 biogeography used climatological oceanographic conditions from a data-assimilative model specifically tuned for the Bering Sea LME. We found that seabird assemblages, and species 513 richness and abundance were significantly related to variability in modeled ocean conditions, 514 especially along latitudinal gradients. In particular, our empirical models determined that 515 516 seabird distributions were sensitive to spatial variability in modeled estimates of sub-surface temperature, salinity, and current speed, which indicates that the ocean model captures meso-517 518 to macro-scale variability of ocean conditions in the Bering Sea important for seabirds. 519 Evaluation of other Bering Sea regional ocean models with observed biological time series also indicate models capture important modes of physical and biological variability (Danielson et al., 520 521 2011a). Data-assimilative oceanographic models enable assessment of ocean conditions throughout the water column and backwards through time to assess phenology and pre-522 523 conditioning effects on marine biological patterns (Schroeder et al. 2014). Therefore, relating seabird distributions and other biological observations to oceanographic model output can be a 524 powerful tool for exploring biogeographic patterns and will also benefit the assessment and 525 526 development of ocean-ecosystem models to assure they capture ecologically relevant scales of 527 marine ecosystems.

528 4.3 Climate and ecosystem implications

Biogeographic assessments of LMEs that integrate top predator distributions help resolve basic 529 habitat requirements of top predators, and will benefit conservation planning, and assessment 530 of climate change impacts (Tittensor et al., 2011; Sydeman et al., 2016). Our seabird 531 biogeographic assessment provides critical information on how the Bering Sea LME is spatially 532 organized according to along-shore variation in species richness, total abundance and species 533 assemblages. Our results supports previous work on the classification of ecoregions of the 534 535 Bering Sea LME (Piatt and Springer, 2007; Sigler et al., 2011), and provides evidence that seabird biogeography patterns clearly indicate a partitioning of the LME into northern and 536 537 southern zones. This information will be useful for developing or revising Bering Sea ecosystem 538 models that integrate ocean climate conditions, forage species and top predators to evaluate 539 climate change and human-related stressors.

540 It is well known that basin-scale ocean climate conditions in the North Pacific and Arctic Oceans impact the development of sea ice and timing of sea ice retreat in the Bering Sea (Arrigo et al., 541 2008; Meuter and Litzow, 2008; Overland et al., 2012). As a result of this climate variability, the 542 southeastern Bering Sea shelf ecosystem has recently been characterized as having stanzas of 543 warm and cool sea temperature, with impacts on the distribution and abundance of key forage 544 species and top predators (Eisner et al., 2015; Andrews et al., 2016; Renner et al., 2016). Future 545 546 global warming scenarios in the Bering Sea predict possible reductions in sea ice duration and 547 extent (Wang et al. 2012). Changes in the biogeography of the Bering Sea are already apparent. Decreasing sea ice impacts the range of Arctic and sub-Arctic species, and variability in the 548 catch of some commercially-fished species is increasing (Meuter and Litzow, 2008), and the 549 550 extent of the Bering Sea cold pool influenced the southern range Arctic species (Stevenson and 551 Lauth, 2012; Baker and Hollowed, 2014). However, it's unclear whether this will impact the zonal boundaries of northern and southern shelf communities of zooplankton, fish and 552 553 seabirds, because the cold pool may act as a barrier for the range expansion of some Arctic and 554 sub-Arctic species (Meuter and Litzow, 2008; Baker and Hollowed, 2014; Sigler et al., 2017). Our study indicates that species richness increases with latitude (i.e., closer to the Arctic) and is 555

556 highest in proximity to island breeding colony locations. It is unlikely that most resident 557 breeding species (e.g., murres) will undergo distribution shifts due to lack of suitable breeding 558 habitat. However, migratory species (e.g., shearwaters) may be more adept at shifting their 559 distributions as they are not tied to breeding colonies and may be more flexible to track seasonal foraging hotspots throughout the Bering Sea (Hunt et al. 2017). Although our 560 synthesis did not incorporate temporal change (e.g., seasonal and interannual), the seabird 561 562 biogeographic patterns quantified here provide a promising starting point for exploring how 563 species assemblages and zonal boundaries may shift as a result of climate change projections. For example, simulations of the effect of climate change on the ecoregions of Bering Sea could 564 565 be compared to seabird observations to evaluate the sensitivity of seabird richness and 566 abundance hotspots to different climate change projections (Wang et al., 2012). Comparing the velocity of climate change within and across LMEs (Burrows et al., 2011) may also prove useful 567 for understanding how seabird distributions may undergo range shifts. 568

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Table 1a-c: Generalized additive model results for assessing the spatial organizations of seabird assemblage indices (PC1 and PC2),

species richness and total seabird abundance within (a) inner (<50m), (b) middles (50-100m), and (c) outer shelf regions (100-200m);

808 SSH is sea-surface height, Edf is estimated degrees of freedom, Res.df is residual degrees of freedom, % Dev. is percent deviance

809 explained, GCV is generalized cross-validation score.

810 (a) Inner shelf

	Latitude		Temperature		Salinity		Curren	t Speed	Slope		% Dev.,
Seabird Variable	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	r ² , GCV
	5.06	7.69	1.00	0.59	1.00	0.31	7.52	14.67	3.82	4.44	90.4,
PC1	6.14	<0.0001	1.00	0.44	1.00	0.58	8.31	<0.0001	4.76	0.002	0.87, 1.22
	8.28	3.75	3.90	1.09	2.05	0.65	1.00	0.22	1.00	0.0009	65.6,
PC2	8.83	<0.0001	4.93	0.37	2.57	0.55	1.00	0.64	1.00	0.92	0.56, 3.34
	8.41	8.41	1.00	1.94	1.00	0.833	5.35	3.61	4.90	1.86	75.3,
Species Richness	8.83	<0.0001	1.00	0.17	1.00	0.36	6.33	0.003	5.96	0.10	0.69, 0.16
	5.58	2.90	2.58	1.14	1.00	0.74	2.12	0.80	1.00	0.18	56.5,
Total Abundance	6.67	0.01	3.27	0.34	1.00	0.39	2.58	0.47	1.00	0.67	0.34, 17.82

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(b) Middle shelf 816

	Latitude		Temperature		Salinity		Current Speed		SSH		Slope		% Dev.,
Seabird Variable	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	r ² , GCV
	6.06	5.63	4.59	7.32	6.95	4.59	1.12	7.66	6.31	6.41	6.51	3.23	69.8,
PC1	7.28	<0.0001	5.65	<0.0001	8.02	<0.0001	1.22	0.01	7.48	<0.0001	7.59	<0.0001	0.59, 3.12
	6.22	5.93	1.9	3.29	6.31	1.51	1.00	2.1	1.6	1.95	2.12	2.81	74.6,
PC2	7.39	<0.0001	2.39	0.03	7.49	0.16	1.00	0.15	1.99	0.15	2.69	0.04	0.70 <i>,</i> 0.22
	7.6	11.25	1.00	18.95	7.23	3.82	1.93	1.52	4.91	6.57	2.14	1.32	77.2,
Species Richness	8.5	<0.0001	1.00	<0.0001	8.23	<0.0001	2.43	0.21	6.13	<0.0001	2.72	0.26	0.70 <i>,</i> 0.13
Total Abundance	6.38	4.51	6.17	4.37	8.1	6.42	1.00	3.66	8.66	5.68	1.00	4.79	79, 0.73,
Total Abundance	7.57	<0.0001	7.33	<0.0001	8.76	<0.0001	1.00	0.05	8.95	<0.0001	1.00	0.03	7.97

(c) Outer shelf

	Latitude		Temperature		Salinity		Curren	t Speed	Slope		% Dev.,
Seabird Variable	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf., Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	Edf. <i>,</i> Res.df	F, p	r ² , GCV
	3.49	0.63	2.51	4.70	1.00	3.31	1.03	1.86	1.00	2.38	41.0,
PC1	4.43	0.65	3.17	0.003	1.00	0.07	1.06	0.17	1.00	0.12	0.34, 0.29
	4.69	1.95	7.07	2.27	4.28	2.52	3.81	1.66	6.00	5.11	70.5,
PC2	5.78	0.08	8.08	0.03	5.25	0.03	4.67	0.15	7.07	<0.001	0.58, 0.31
	2.87	10.62	3.21	4.44	2.47	3.89	1.00	4.07	4.43	1.14	57.4,
Species Richness	3.65	<0.0001	9.98	0.002	3.09	0.01	1.00	0.04	5.43	0.34	0.49, 0.11
	4.22	1.61	1.46	0.89	7.02	2.24	1.00	0.01	1.00	1.60	40.4,
Total Abundance	5.25	0.16	1.78	0.39	8.09	0.03	1.00	0.90	1.00	0.21	28.7, 6.19

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818 Figures:

Figure 1: Eastern Bering Sea shelf study domain, extent of the seabird grid (50x50 km) and 819 summarized survey effort (# 3km survey segments); a cut off of 50 segments was applied (UTM 820 2 map projection). Empty cells are effort <50. AS is Anadyr Strait, BB is Bristol Bay, BC is Bering 821 Canyon, BS is Bering Strait, CN is Cape Newenham, NC is Navarin Canyon, NI is Nunivak 822 823 Island, NS is Norton Sound, PC is Pribilof Canyon, PeC is Pervenets Canyon, PI is Pribilof Islands, SB is Slime Bank region, SL is St. Lawrence Island, SM is St. Matthews Island, SP is Samalga Pass, 824 825 UP is Unimak Pass, ZC is Zhemchug Canyon. Depth contours correspond to the 50 m (black), 100 m (light blue) and 200 m (red) isobaths. Black-dashed line is the approximate position of the 50 826 827 m isobaths, yellow-dashed line is approximate position of the 100 m isobaths, which partitions 828 the shelf into inner, middle and outer regions.

829 Figure 2: Eastern Bering Sea shelf study domain. Examples of environmental variables 830 (displayed as heat maps) that are linked to the seabird grid (50x50 km) for assessing 831 macroecology of seabird biogeography: (a) distance to land (km), (b) ocean temperature averaged over 10-35m (°C), (c) salinity averaged over 10-35m, (d) bathymetric slope (In of 832 percent rise), (e) current speed (cm s⁻¹) at 7.5 m, and (f) sea-surface height (cm). Distance to 833 land illustrates the presence of important seabird breeding islands in the Bering Sea: Pribilof 834 Islands, St. Matthews Islands, St. Lawrence Islands. Data from b-f are derived from a 835 836 climatological data assimilated model of ocean conditions during summertime (Panteleev et al. 837 2011). Empty grid cells indicate locations with low seabird survey effort (see Fig. 1 for 838 geographic details).

Figure 3: Spatial mean of (a) species richness and (b) total seabird abundance; averaged over
1975-2014, May-September. Gird cells are 50x50 km; UTM Zone 2 projection. See Fig. 1 for
geographic details.

Figure 4: Results of PCA for assessing seabird species assemblages and dominant modes of
variation. PC loadings are mapped onto the grid as an index of seabird assemblages: (a) PC1,
increased species abundance and richness associated with islands and the Anadyr Current
(increase of PC1 indicates more species and/or higher abundances), and (b) PC2, a division

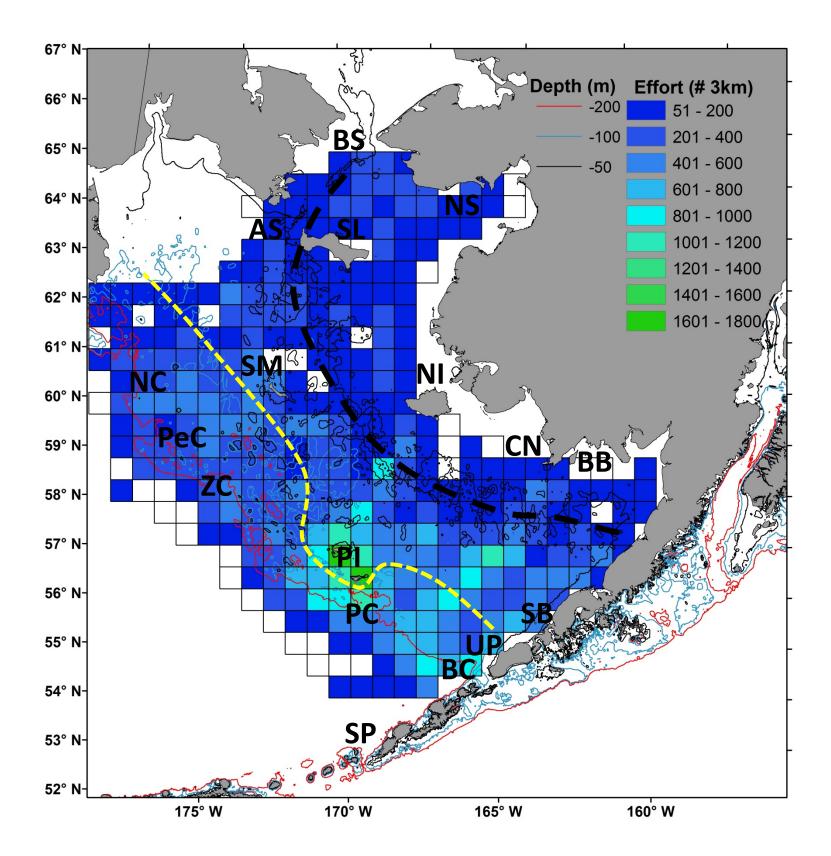
between the inner and middle shelf (positive values indicate high abundance of shoreward
species) and the outer shelf-slope (negative values indicate higher abundance of offshore
species). PC2 also indicates a change in seabird assemblages regarding a north – south division
partitioning southern and northern shelf ecosystems of the eastern Bering Sea. (c) Cluster
analysis of seabird assemblages indicates the grouping of species most likely to occur in similar
abundance in geographic space. See Table S.1 and Fig. S.1 for additional details.

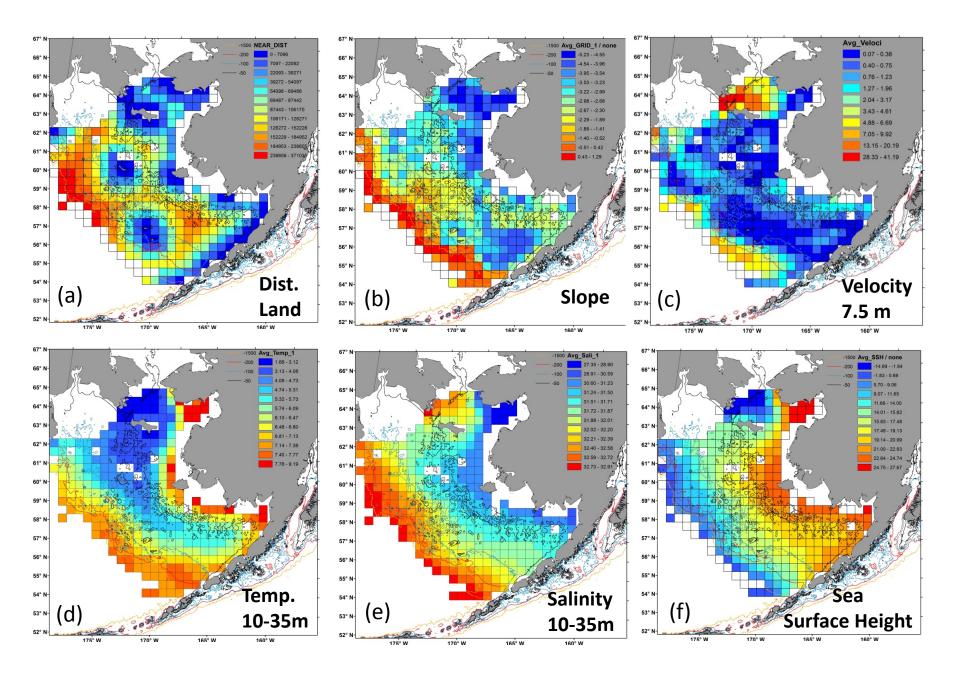
Figure 5: Results of GAMs for assessing the response of seabird assemblage index (PC1 and
PC2) to latitude along the (a-b) inner shelf (depth ≤ 50 m isobath), and (c-d) middle shelf
regions (50-100 m depth). Shaded areas are the 95% confidence intervals and tick marks on the
x-axis indicate data availability.

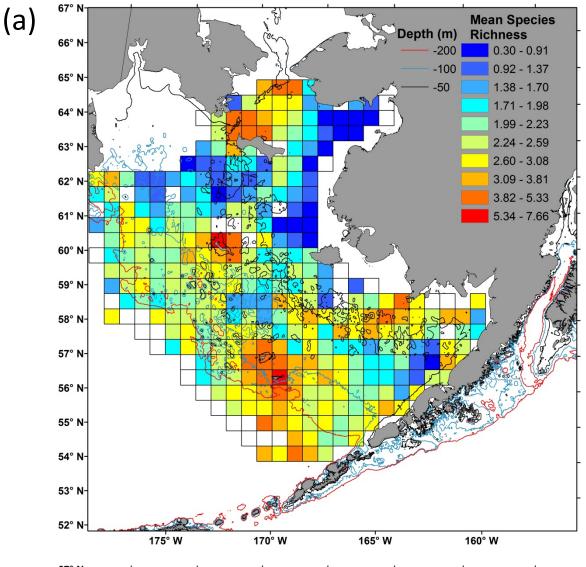
Figure 6: Results of GAMs for assessing the response of the seabird species richness and
abundance to increasing latitude along the (a-b) inner shelf (depth ≤50 m), and (c-d) middle
shelf (50-100 m depth), and (e) richness in the outer shelf. Shaded areas are the 95%
confidence intervals and tick marks on the x-axis indicate data availability.

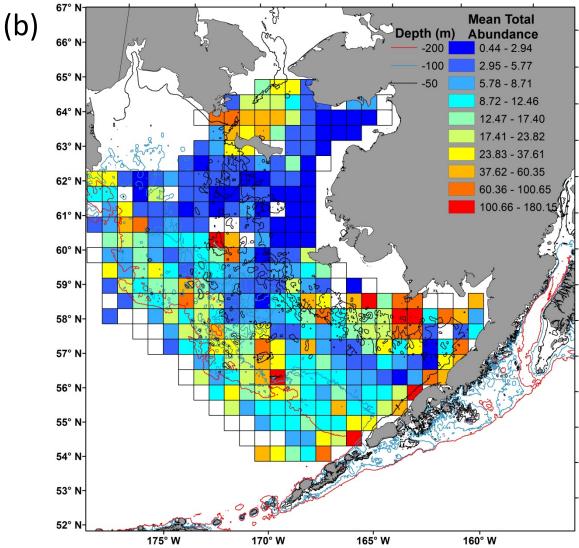
Figure 7: Results of GAMs for assessing the response of the seabirds to bathymetric slope: (a)
seabird assemblage index (PC1) within the inner shelf, (b-d) seabird PC1, PC2 and total seabird
abundance within the middle shelf (50-100 m depth), (e) seabird PC2 within the outer shelf.
Shaded areas are the 95% confidence intervals and tick marks on the x-axis indicate data
availability.

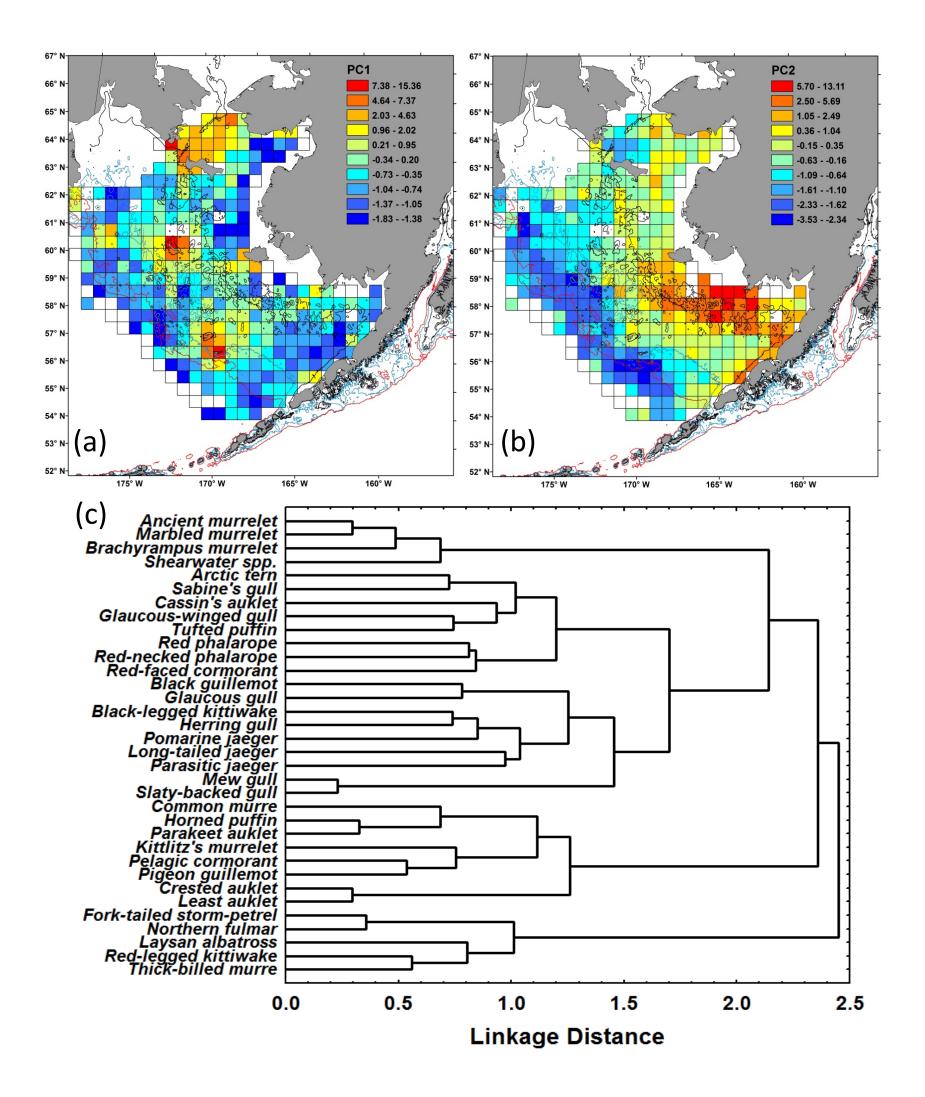
Figure 8: Results of GAMs for assessing the response of the seabirds to average sea
temperature over 10-35m within the middle shelf (50-100 m depth): (a-b) seabird assemblage
index (PC1 and PC2), (c) species richness, (d) total seabird abundance; and outer shelf (e) PC1,
(f) seabird PC2 and (g) species richness. Shaded areas are the 95% confidence intervals and tick
marks on the x-axis indicate data availability.

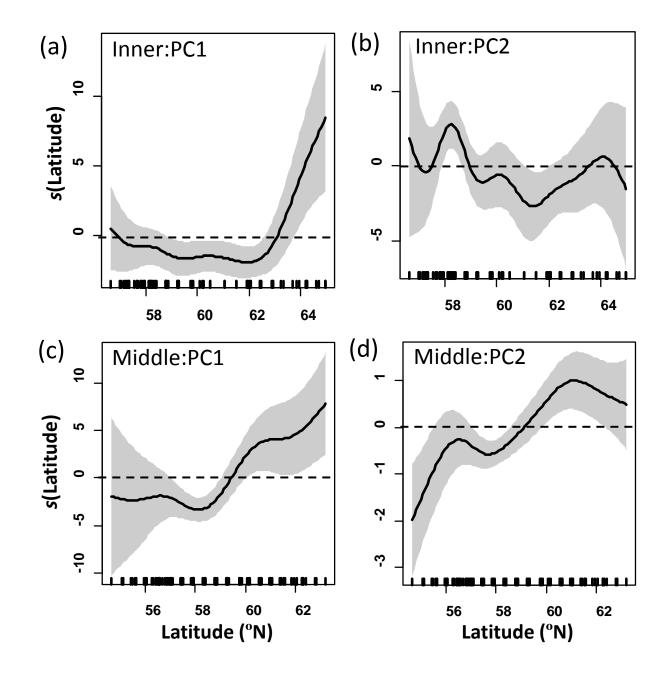


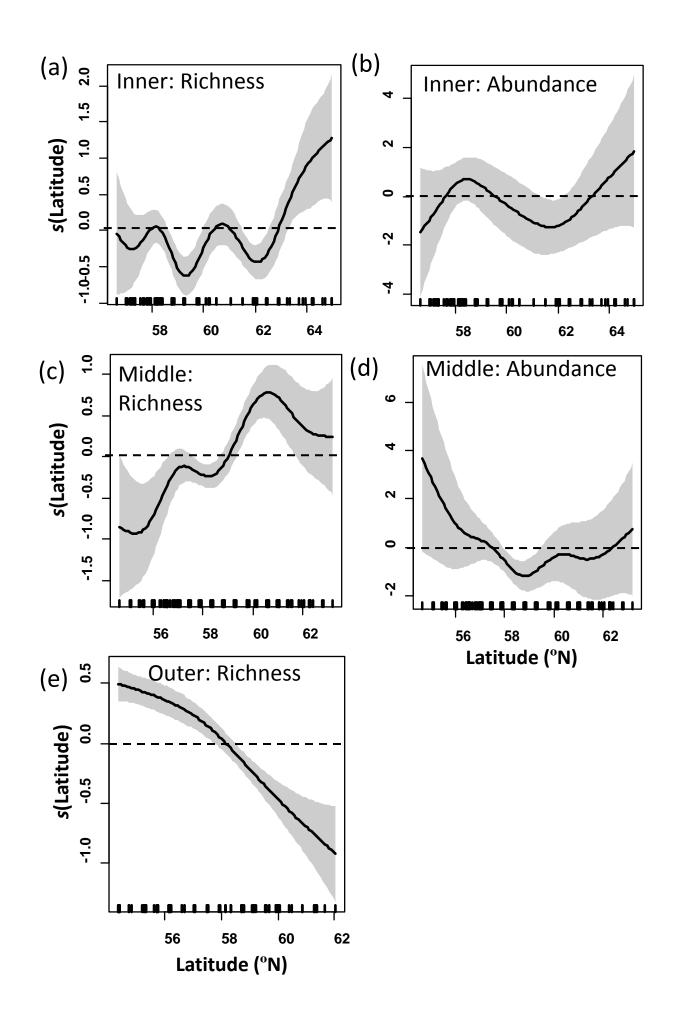


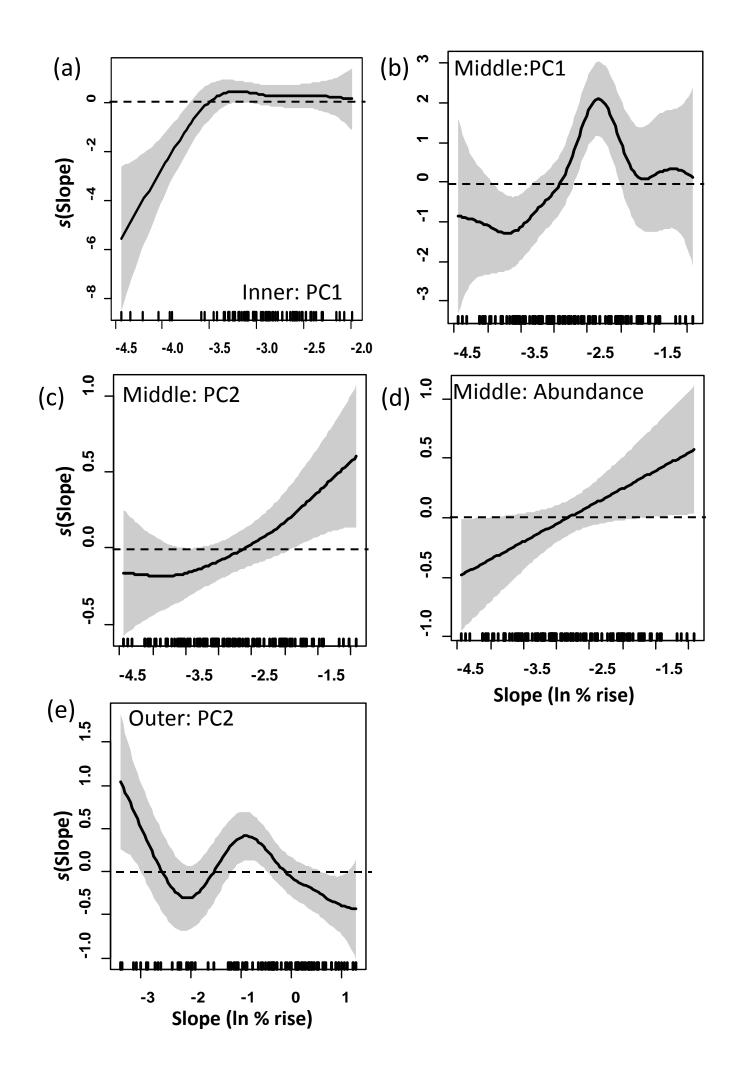












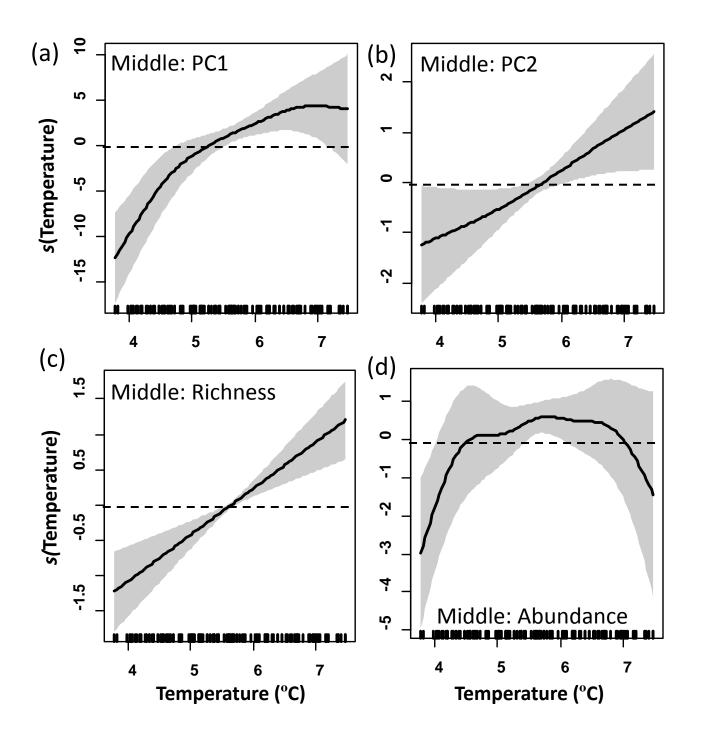


FIGURE 8 cont'd

