

1 Organic carbon source variability in Arctic bivalves as deduced from the compound specific  
2 carbon isotopic composition of amino acids

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24

25

26 Abstract

27 In this study we used compound-specific carbon isotope analysis of amino acids ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$ ) to  
28 determine organic carbon sources utilized by the dominant benthic bivalve species collected  
29 along a latitudinal gradient in the northern Bering and Chukchi Seas, specifically at productivity  
30 hotspots identified within the Distributed Biological Observatory (DBO) program, and over  
31 Hanna Shoal in the northern Chukchi Sea. The recent shift to earlier sea-ice melt is one of the  
32 climate change consequences influencing Pacific Arctic ecosystems, which we integrate within  
33 our observations. Our goals included investigating the utilization of organic matter (OM)  
34 resources by several dominant Arctic bivalves and their trophic elasticity to changes in primary  
35 productivity patterns following changes in the onset of the annual productive season. Based upon  
36  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns observed, these species utilized different carbon sources along the latitudinal  
37 gradient, including a strong input of bacterially reworked material and microalgae, mainly in  
38 particulate organic matter mixtures. Species type and the sampling location both played roles in  
39  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  variability, suggesting the influence of local production and decomposition processes.  
40 *Macoma calcareo* and *Ennucula tenuis* were shown to utilize organic matter of different quality,  
41 suggesting they may switch their feeding preferences to more detrital sources on a seasonal basis,  
42 but this was also affected by geographical location. These observations may have important  
43 implications for the benthic populations as microbial reworking of organic material is expected to  
44 increase with climate warming and likely shifts in food web structure.

45

46 Key words: Food source, Pacific Arctic, Sea-ice retreat, Benthos, Stable isotopes, Amino acids,  
47 Fingerprinting

48

49 1. Introduction

50

51 Over the last several decades seasonal Arctic sea-ice cover has been decreasing at rates that  
52 are historically unprecedented (IPCC, 2019; Meier, 2017; Polyakov, et al., 2012). The sea-ice  
53 cover reduction is accompanied by a reduction in sea-ice thickness and a shift from multi-year to  
54 largely seasonal sea-ice cover (Comiso, 2012; Kwok and Rothrock, 2009; Parkinson and Comiso,  
55 2013; Serreze and Meier, 2019). This trend is particularly prominent in the northern Bering and  
56 Chukchi Seas where rapid changes in seasonal sea-ice cover patterns and persistence are  
57 observed (Frey, et al., 2014, 2015, 2018; Walsh, et al., 2016; Grebmeier et al., 2018).  
58 Accelerating sea-ice cover reductions in this region are further amplified by increased heat fluxes  
59 into the Arctic Ocean through Bering Strait (Woodgate, et al., 2010; 2012; Woodgate, 2018) and  
60 summertime warming anomalies (Steele, et al., 2008; Timmermans and Proshutinsky, 2015;  
61 Timmermans, et al., 2018). This ‘new normal’ that is associated with an increase in seasonal  
62 seawater temperature introduces important concerns about its influence on ecological processes  
63 and potential cascading effects through food webs in the Pacific Arctic (Moore and Stabeno,  
64 2015).

65 Changing seasonal sea-ice conditions and seawater temperatures strongly influence  
66 primary production (PP) regimes in the Arctic, and thus food webs, energy transfer through food  
67 webs and marine ecosystems (Grebmeier, 2012; Kędra, et al., 2015; Moran, et al., 2005). On  
68 shallow Arctic shelves, benthic communities are rich and diverse, and benthic food webs play an  
69 important role in overall system production, turnover rates and remineralization (Grebmeier; et  
70 al., 2015a; Iken, et al., 2010). Predicted changes in PP in shelf ecosystems will impact pelagic-  
71 benthic coupling processes, benthic food webs, and whole ecosystem functioning (Moran, et al.,  
72 2005; Grebmeier, et al., 2018). The extended phytoplankton growth season and sea-ice melt

73 result in increase in net PP of open water phytoplankton (Ardyna and Arrigo, 2020; Arrigo and  
74 van Dijken, 2011, 2015; Arrigo, et al., 2014; Assmy, et al., 2017; Mundy, et al., 2014) and  
75 decrease of sea-ice algae contribution to PP, both important potential food sources for benthic  
76 populations. Longer open water period result in more time for microbial and zooplankton  
77 processing of water column material. In Arctic sediments, organic matter (OM) from freshly  
78 deposited microalgae (phytoplankton and/or sea-ice algae) can be rapidly converted into bacterial  
79 biomass (Sun, et al., 2009) forming another potential food source for benthic organisms, in the  
80 form of degraded microalgae, microbe-derived OM, and/or the microbes themselves (Lovvorn, et  
81 al., 2005; McTigue and Dunton, 2014; McTigue, et al., 2015). Changes in timing and quality of  
82 the bloom, and therefore in the export fluxes of OM to the sea floor, and changes in the microbial  
83 reworking rate of this OM may affect benthic species composition, abundances and functioning  
84 (Ambrose and Renaud, 1997; Morata, et al., 2015; 2020). Trophic relationships in Arctic food  
85 webs have received significant scientific attention in the northern Bering (e.g. Lovvorn, et al.,  
86 2005; North, et al., 2014) and Chukchi seas (e.g. Feder, et al., 2011; Iken, et al., 2010; North, et  
87 al., 2014; Rowe, et al., 2019; Tu, et al., 2015). However, understanding trophic relationships in  
88 food webs with multiple organic carbon sources (e.g. sea-ice algae, phytoplankton, bacteria),  
89 where bacterially reworked OM is common (Kędra et al., 2019; Lovvorn, et al., 2005; North, et  
90 al., 2014), remains a continuing challenge in ecological studies.

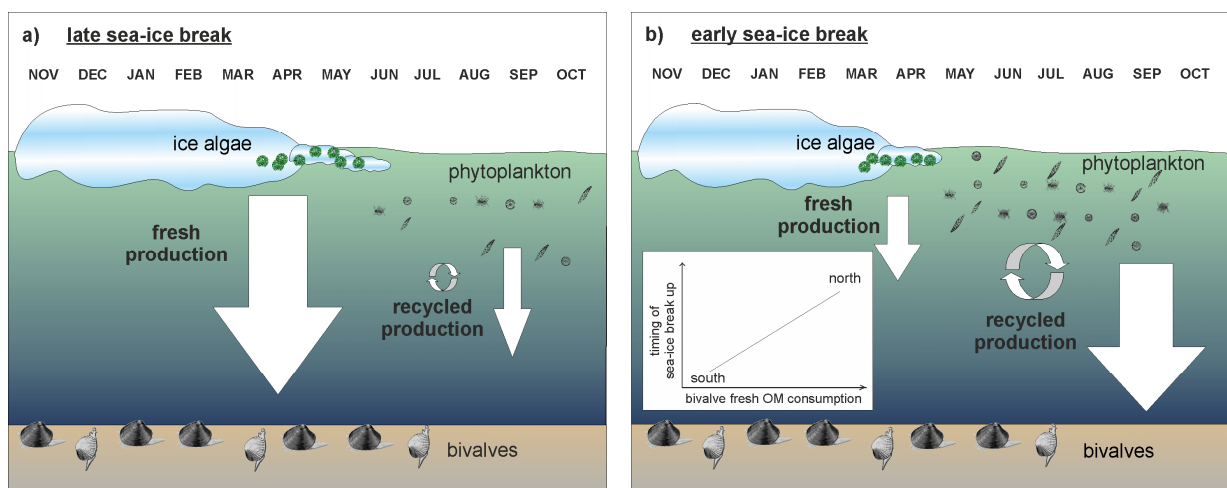
91 Commonly used methods to assess marine food web structure in the Arctic involve the  
92 use of lipids and fatty acids, including compound specific  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (e.g. Koch, et al., 2020;  
93 Kohlbach, et al., 2019; McGovern, et al., 2018; Mohan, et al., 2016; Schollmeier, et al., 2018;  
94 Sun, et al., 2009), and the use of naturally occurring stable isotope ratios of nitrogen  
95 ( $^{14}\text{N}/^{15}\text{N}$ , expressed as  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) and carbon ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ , expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Bulk}}$ ) to distinguish trophic

96 levels and food sources (e.g. Divine, et al., 2017; Feder, et al., 2011; Iken, et al., 2010, 2005;  
97 Kędra, et al., 2012). However, the combined effects of multiple sources and isotopic fractionation  
98 can make interpretation challenging (Post, 2002). In recent years, the growing use of gas  
99 chromatographic separation approaches that are linked to isotope ratio mass spectrometry has  
100 facilitated more rapid and efficient analysis of the stable isotope composition of amino acids  
101 (AAs). Naturally occurring  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of individual AAs ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$ ) can be directly linked to the  
102 biosynthetic origin of material supporting animal food webs (Larsen, et al., 2009, 2013, 2015).  
103 Primary producers and bacteria can synthesize essential AAs *de novo*; however, most animals  
104 cannot synthesize essential AAs at a rate sufficient for adequate growth (Reeds, 2000), and  
105 therefore must incorporate them directly from their diet (McMahon, et al., 2010, 2016). Essential  
106 AAs (Lys – lysine, Phe – phenylalanine, Thr – threonine, Ile – isoleucine, Leu – leucine, Val –  
107 valine, Met – methionine) show negligible heavy isotope enrichment at each succeeding trophic  
108 level, and can act as ‘fingerprints’ of producer source in consumers (Larsen, et al., 2009). For  
109 example, Larsen, et al. (2012) showed that the relationships among the essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values  
110 can be used to differentiate between marine and terrestrial sources of OM and to estimate the  
111 contributions of various carbon sources to particulate organic matter (POM) and to detrital food  
112 webs. By comparison, for non-essential AAs (Gly – glycine, Ser – serine, Tyr – tyrosine, Ala –  
113 alanine, Asp – aspartic acid, Glu – glutamic acid, Pro – proline) the difference in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for  
114 consumers relative to primary producers is highly variable (McMahon, et al., 2013). Taken  
115 together, the compound specific approach can therefore provide potentially additional insights  
116 over  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Bulk}}$  analysis of OM for PP source detection (Chikaraishi, et al., 2009, 2014; Larsen, et  
117 al., 2015, 2013, 2012; McClelland and Montoya, 2002; McMahon, et al., 2016, 2010; Nielsen, et  
118 al., 2015). This technique may be particularly useful in Arctic marine ecosystems, where OM  
119 available for organisms at the sea floor and in sediments contains a mixture of AAs derived from

120 variety of original autotrophic sources and those that have been subjected to diagenetic alteration  
121 including heterotrophic bacterial degradation and/or *de novo* synthesis (McCarthy, et al., 2007).  
122 The compound-specific isotope analyses of amino acids (CSIA-AA) methodology, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$   
123 values in particular, has recently been applied in controlled feeding experiments on fish and  
124 penguins (McMahon, et al., 2010, 2015; Rogers, et al., 2019), in laboratory cultures (Larsen, et  
125 al., 2009, 2013, 2015), and in natural spatially and temporally variable environments with various  
126 animals including turtles, penguins, reef and riverine fish, and Atlantic walrus (e.g. Arthur, et  
127 al., 2014; Lorrain, et al., 2009; Sabadel, et al., 2016; 2020; Yurkowski, et al., 2020). Marine  
128 benthic studies have been less prominent but have included work on corals, mussels and kelps  
129 (Elliot Smith et al., 2018; McMahon, et al., 2016, 2018; Rowe et al., 2019; Schiff, et al., 2014;  
130 Vokhshoori, et al., 2014).

131         The main objective of our study was to investigate the utilization of OM resources by  
132 common bivalve species as focal species through use of CSIA-AA and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns on the  
133 Pacific Arctic shelf. Several studied bivalve species are dominant (in terms of biomass) among  
134 benthic species in the region, but individually have different feeding behaviors. These bivalves  
135 are also important food items for higher trophic level marine animals (e.g. spectacled eiders  
136 (*Somateria fischeri*), Pacific walrus (*Odobenus rosmarus divergens*) and bearded seals  
137 (*Erignathus barbatus*)), and their populations have been responding to changes in the OM  
138 distribution patterns in recent years (e.g. Grebmeier, 2012; Grebmeier et al., 2015a; b; 2018).  
139 Sampling station locations within the Distributed Biological Observatory (Moore and Grebmeier,  
140 2018) were chosen to reflect possible differences in food sources along the latitudinal gradient.  
141 We hypothesized that bivalves collected in July in the more northern areas, where sea-ice  
142 persisted longer (i.e. the southern Chukchi Sea (DBO3), north-eastern Chukchi Sea (DBO4), in  
143 Barrow Canyon (DBO5), and Hanna Shoal (HS)) would have a higher traceable ice algal isotopic

144 signature in their tissues than specimens collected in the northern Bering Sea where sea-ice  
 145 retreats earlier in the year (i.e. south of the St. Lawrence Island (DBO1) and in the Chirikov  
 146 Basin (DBO2)) (Fig. 1, 2). This variability is a consequence of the rapid deposition of sea ice-  
 147 derived organic carbon after sea-ice break up (Ambrose, et al., 2001; Cooper, et al., 2005; Roca-  
 148 Martí et al., 2016). This event occurs 6 to 8 weeks later at DBO4 and DBO5 compared to DBO1  
 149 (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a). Thus, in the Chukchi Sea, the more northern location, ice algal  
 150 production is expected to be available to the benthos by June (DBO3) and June/July (DBO4,  
 151 DBO5, HS). By comparison, ice algal production descends to the benthos in April/May in the  
 152 more southern locations in the northern Bering Sea (DBO1 and DBO2) (Grebmeier and Cooper,  
 153 2016). Therefore, we hypothesized that the relative importance of microalgal (water column)  
 154 derived AAs in the diet of the studied bivalves increases from south to north while the degree of  
 155 bacterial reworking decreases northwards. This would reflect the time that had passed after the  
 156 break-up of sea-ice and the annual peak flux of algae to the benthos at that time as well as the  
 157 overall persistence of sea-ice free waters (Fig. 1, 2).



158  
 159 Fig. 1. Conceptual diagram showing two scenarios: a) when late sea-ice breakup occurs, fresh  
 160 sea-ice production is exported to depth, with water column production only partly recycled in the

161 water column before reaching the benthos (northern areas of this study); and b) when sea-ice  
162 breaks up earlier in the year, with less of the fresh production reaching the sea floor, more  
163 recycled organic matter occurs in the open water period and descends to the benthos (southern  
164 areas of this study). The insert shows the relation between bivalves' fresh organic matter  
165 consumption and the timing of sea ice break-up.

166

## 167 2. Material and Methods

168

### 169 2.1. Study area

170

171 The northern Bering and Chukchi Seas are very productive shallow shelf systems  
172 influenced by Pacific water masses (e.g. Grebmeier, et al., 2006), and are the focus of the DBO  
173 that is documenting ecosystem responses to changing sea-ice cover, warmer water temperatures,  
174 and other physical changes. The DBO was established as a change detection array for the  
175 identification and consistent seasonal and interannual monitoring of biophysical responses to the  
176 on-going climate related changes in the Pacific Arctic Region (Moore and Grebmeier, 2018).  
177 Each DBO area was previously identified as biologically important with high levels of benthic  
178 macrofaunal biomass and/or biodiversity, and these locations have been characterized as “hot  
179 spots” with enhanced deposition of OM to the benthos (Grebmeier, 2012; Grebmeier, et al., 2010,  
180 2015a, b).

181 The seasonal sea-ice cover in this region usually reaches a maximum in March and a  
182 minimum in September and persists longer at higher latitudes (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a; Fig. 2).  
183 However, recent climate warming affects sea-ice formation and persistence (Frey, et al., 2014.,  
184 2015, 2018). An assessment of sea-ice trends from 1979 through 2014 in the Chukchi Sea



185 showed that sea-ice retreats to the northern shelf break (150 m contour) in summer occurred 0.7  
186 days earlier per year (Serreze, et al., 2016). Extreme changes in ice pack thickness have occurred  
187 in September, with thinning equivalent to 51 cm decade<sup>-1</sup> in the Chukchi Sea, leading to  
188 projections that the Pacific Arctic Region is moving towards an entirely first year ice pack (Frey,  
189 et al., 2014). Surface-intensified, nutrient-poor, warm and fresher (<31.8) Alaska Coastal Water  
190 flowing along the Alaskan coast, nutrient-rich and more saline (>32.5) Anadyr Water near the  
191 Siberian coast and moderately warm, intermediate saline (31.8–32.5) Bering Shelf Water are the  
192 main water masses in the region (Grebmeier, et al., 2006; Weingartner, et al., 2005; Woodgate, et  
193 al., 2005a, b). These water masses redistribute nutrients and algal production, organic carbon, and  
194 zooplankton from the Bering slope and the central Bering shelf into the northern Bering and  
195 Chukchi seas and thus strongly influence the intensity of local primary and secondary production  
196 (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a; Lowry, et al., 2015; Walsh, et al., 1989; Weingartner, et al., 2005;  
197 Woodgate, et al., 2012). PP is estimated to reach up to 570 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Springer, et al., 1996)  
198 with higher values (maximum up to 840 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the southern Chukchi Sea (Springer and  
199 McRoy, 1993). However, over recent years a decline in PP has been reported in the northern  
200 Bering Sea (Lee, et al., 2012). In contrast, increases in PP have been observed in the Chukchi Sea  
201 southern coastal waters (Hirawake, et al., 2012; Petrenko, et al., 2013), including over Hanna  
202 Shoal, a shallow water feature, likely influenced by the earlier timing of sea-ice retreat (Hill, et  
203 al., 2018).

204         The total organic carbon (TOC) content in the surface sediments is high in deposition  
205 areas and is positively correlated with silt and clay content (Grebmeier and Cooper, 1995, 2014).  
206 Offshore sediments are dominated by muds and muddy sands, finer silts and clays occur on the  
207 slope while gravel, pebbles, rocks and sand dominate close to St. Lawrence Island, in nearshore  
208 regions of the Chirikov Basin, Bering Strait, and near the Alaskan coast (Fig. 2; Grebmeier and

209 Cooper, 2014; Grebmeier, et al., 2006; Pisareva, et al., 2015). Tight pelagic-benthic coupling  
210 results in high benthic biomass (from  $440 \pm 231$  g wet weight  $m^{-2}$  in DBO1, the most southern  
211 DBO transect, to  $887 \pm 778$  g wet weight  $m^{-2}$  in DBO3 (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a) and  $\sim 2800$  g wet  
212 weight  $m^{-2}$  in DBO5 (most northern DBO transect sampled; Grebmeier, et al., 2006). Each of the  
213 DBO transect grids (see Fig. 2 for locations) are to different extents foraging areas for benthic  
214 feeding marine mammals like gray whales or walruses, and sea birds such as spectacled eiders  
215 (Grebmeier, 2012; Grebmeier and Barry, 2007; Grebmeier, et al., 2006; Sheffield and Grebmeier,  
216 2009; Moore and Kuletz 2018).

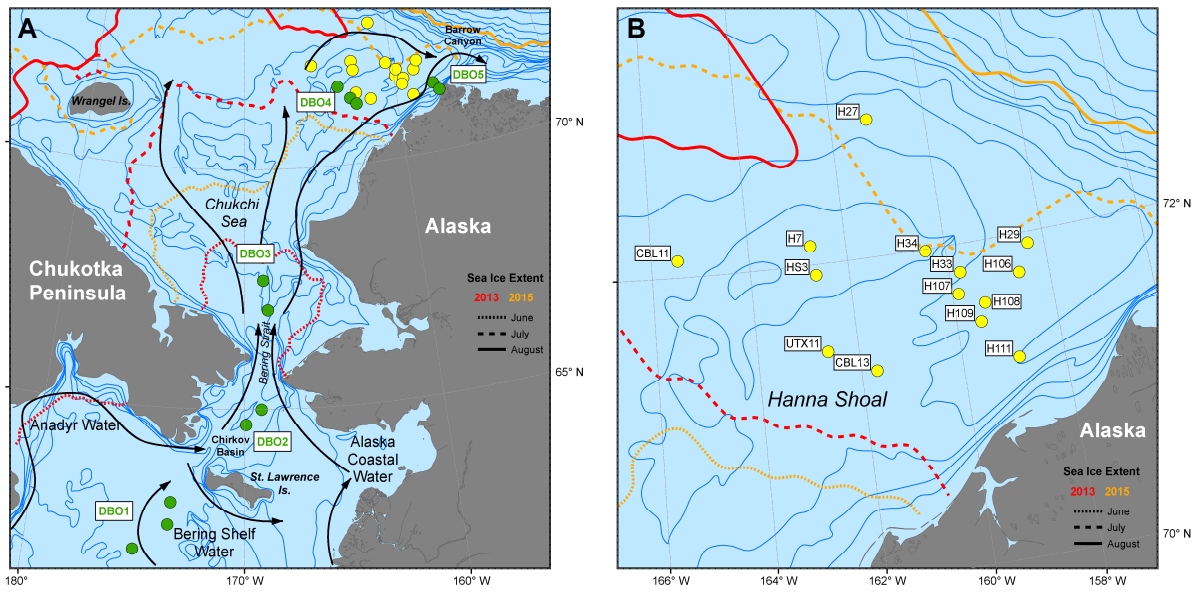
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## 218 2.2. *Sampling*

219

220 For sampling locations, we used the DBO station grid that extends from the northern  
221 Bering Sea south of St. Lawrence Island to Barrow Canyon in the northern Chukchi Sea, and,  
222 additionally, the Hanna Shoal area in the northeast Chukchi Sea (Fig. 2). Bivalve samples were  
223 collected during the cruise of Canadian Coast Guard Ship (CCGS) Sir Wilfrid Laurier in July  
224 2015 (SWL2015) at the five DBO sites (Fig. 2, Table 1) that experience different physical forcing  
225 and a gradient of seasonal sea-ice cover duration, increasing from south to north. Additional  
226 samples were collected in the northeastern Chukchi Sea during a US Coast Guard Cutter  
227 (USCGC) Healy (HLY1301) cruise in July/August 2013 as part of the Chukchi Sea Offshore  
228 Monitoring in Drilling Area (COMIDA) program, at 14 sampling stations across the Chukchi  
229 shelf, extending from the undersea Barrow Canyon feature and including the shallow water area  
230 at Hanna Shoal (Fig. 2, Table 1).

231



232  
 233 **Fig. 2.** Location of sampling sites: A - in yellow – stations sampled in 2013 during HLY1301  
 234 cruise in the northern Chukchi Sea; in green – stations sampled in 2015 during SWL15 cruise  
 235 (DBO1 – St. Lawrence Island Polynya, DBO2 – Chirikov Basin, DBO3 - southern Chukchi Sea,  
 236 DBO4 – northern Chukchi Sea, DBO5 – Barrow Canyon, Hanna Shoal - northeast corner). The  
 237 black lines and arrows indicate the general flow of the water mass and associated current. B –  
 238 Larger scale map of station locations sampled in the Hanna Shoal region. The sea-ice extent  
 239 contour lines for June-July-August in 2013 and 2015 are denoted by red (2013) and orange lines  
 240 (2015; sea ice extent from Fetterer, et al., 2017).

241  
 242 The bivalve samples were collected using a 0.1 m<sup>2</sup> Van Veen grab from sediments that  
 243 were washed over a 1 mm sieve. Bivalves were sorted from the sieve, kept cool at ambient  
 244 temperatures for 24 hours in clean sea water to allow gut clearance, and identified under a  
 245 stereomicroscope on board. In the case of larger organisms we collected animal's foot while in  
 246 case of smaller organisms we collected all soft tissue but tried to avoid guts. For Hanna Shoal, in  
 247 addition to benthic samples, pelagic POM samples, representing a mixture of PP including

248 phytoplankton, detritus, and other particles were collected with a 20  $\mu\text{m}$  mesh and filtered onto  
 249 25mm Whatman GF/F filters that had been pre-combusted at 450°C for 24 h to remove trace  
 250 organic material. Similarly, OM recovered from melted sea-ice (IPOM), collected at station H33  
 251 (71° 41.466 N, 159° 46.329 W) on 10 August 2013, was filtered from the melted sea-ice water  
 252 (sea-ice cores were thawed in the dark at 4°C). All samples were frozen and shipped to the  
 253 Chesapeake Biological Laboratory (CBL) in Solomons, Maryland, USA where they were stored  
 254 in a -20°C freezer prior to processing for compound-specific stable isotope analyses. Bivalves  
 255 selected for the CSIA-AA included seven dominant bivalve species occurring along the  
 256 latitudinal gradient in the Bering and Chukchi Seas and two species in the Hanna Shoal (Table 2).  
 257

258 **Table 1.** Location and basic environmental data for sampling stations.

Cruise	Station group	Latitude [°N]	Longitude [°W]	Depth [m]	Sediment type	T [°C]	S	Sed Chl <i>a</i> [mg m <sup>-2</sup> ]	TOC [%]	C/N	Sed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
SWL15	DBO1	62.01–	173.46 –	66-76	Sandy muds	-1.1	31.7	12.1	1.0 -	6.1	-21.7 -
		63.03	175.06			-	-	-	1.5	-	-21.4
					-0.7	32.2	26.4		6.5		
	DBO2	64.7	169.92	48	Sands	3.1	32.7	29.5	0.3	5.8	-20.8
	DBO3	67.05 -	168.73 -	46 -	Sands, muds	3.4 -	32.3	17.3	0.6 -	6.2	-21.5 -
67.67		168.96	51	4.7		-	-	0.9	-	-21.2	
						32.8	20.0		6.3		
DBO4	71.23 -	162.65 -	37 -	Muds, sandy muds	-1.5 -	32.3	7.0	0.01	4.4	-25.4 -	
	71.62	163.79	47		- 1.3	-	-	-	-	-22.4	
						32.8	18.0	1.0	11.7		
	DBO5	71.25	157.49	47	Sands, gravel	-0.5	32.4	24.6	0.6	7.1	-22.6
		71.41	157.16	125		-1.7	32.4	3.9	1.3	8.0	-23.6
HLY1301	Hanna Shoal	71.2 –	158.8 –	38 -	Muds, sandy muds, sands and gravel	-1.72	32.6	3.3	0.46	6.28	-24.24 -
		72.8	165.5	109		-	-	-	-	-	- 21.9
						-1.55	33.2	17.3	1.48	7.59	

259

260

261           Surface sediments were collected out of a small door at the top of the van Veen grab prior  
262 to opening it and subsamples were collected for sediment chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*), total organic  
263 carbon, grain size, and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the bulk organic content of the surface sediments.  
264 Sediment chl *a* was measured shipboard using methods described in Cooper, et al. (2002). Other  
265 surface sediment subsamples were stored frozen and returned to CBL for analytical processing  
266 using standard grain size, total organic carbon and stable carbon isotope methods as described  
267 elsewhere (e.g. Grebmeier, et al. 2015b; Cooper and Grebmeier, 2018). Results for these  
268 sediment parameters are provided in those publications. Samples were also assayed for bulk  
269 carbon isotope composition, as well as TOC and C/N weight/weight ratios, using standard  
270 methods that involved organic tissue combustion in an elemental analyzer coupled to stable  
271 isotope mass spectrometer.

272

### 273           2.3. *Compound-specific stable isotope analysis*

274

275           Sample preparation generally followed standard methods (Macko and Uhle, 1997; Silber,  
276 et al., 1991). Approximately 5-10 mg animal tissues and up to 20 mg of POM samples were  
277 homogenized, weighed (dry weight), and acid hydrolyzed in 0.5 mL of 6N HCl in vials flushed  
278 with nitrogen gas at 110°C for 20 hours to extract AAs from proteinaceous components. The  
279 remaining acid was evaporated at 55°C under a N<sub>2</sub> stream and the residue was then re-dissolved  
280 by adding 1 mL of 0.01N HCl and purified by cation ion exchange. The dried residue was re-  
281 dissolved by adding 0.5 mL of 0.2N HCl to each vial. In an ice bath, 2.5 mL of a chilled 4:1  
282 isopropanol and acetyl chloride mixture was added, the vials were flushed with N<sub>2</sub> and then

283 heated at 110°C for 1 hour. After heating, samples were cooled to room temperature and dried  
284 under a stream of N<sub>2</sub> at 60°C. The residue was re-dissolved in 0.6 mL HPLC grade methylene  
285 chloride and dried under a stream of N<sub>2</sub> at room temperature. Subsequently, each vial with a  
286 sample was filled with an additional 1.5 mL of methylene chloride, followed by the addition of  
287 0.5 mL of trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA). The vials were flushed with N<sub>2</sub> and heated at 110°C  
288 for 15 minutes, and then cooled to room temperature. The derivatized product was dried at room  
289 temperature under a stream of N<sub>2</sub>. The vials were filled again with 0.6 mL of methylene chloride  
290 and dried under a stream of N<sub>2</sub>, and this rinse was repeated twice to remove any remaining  
291 reactants. The final product was dissolved in 1 mL methylene chloride and stored in the freezer (-  
292 20°C).

293 Derivatized AAs standards and samples were analyzed using a Thermo Trace Ultra gas  
294 chromatograph interfaced with a Thermo Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer (GC-  
295 IRMS). For each sample one mL of derivatized product was equally divided into two parts, one  
296 for carbon isotope analysis and the other for nitrogen isotope analysis (Kędra, et al., 2019). For  
297 carbon isotope analysis, a 0.5 mL aliquot of the product was diluted by adding 1 mL of  
298 methylene chloride. A 2 µL AA solution was injected onto a BPX5 capillary column (60m ×  
299 0.32mm × 1.0µm film thickness; SGE Analytical Services, Austin, Texas, USA) at an injection  
300 temperature of 180°C using a split/splitless injector (in splitless mode) with a constant helium  
301 flow rate of 2.0 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The column was held at an initial temperature of 75°C for 2 min;  
302 ramped up to 90°C at 4°C min<sup>-1</sup>, held for 4 min; ramped to 185°C at 4°C min<sup>-1</sup>, held for 5 min;  
303 ramped to 250°C at 10°C min<sup>-1</sup>, held for 2 min; and finally ramped to 300°C at 20°C min<sup>-1</sup>, and  
304 held for 8 min.

305 The separated AAs were combusted in a GC Isolink at 980 °C, which converts AAs to  
306 CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, and passed through a Thermo Conflo IV continuous flow interface, with the isotope  
307 composition of the individual AAs measured on the isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Twelve to  
308 thirteen individual AAs identified had sufficient baseline separation to permit identification.  
309 CSIA-AA samples were analyzed along with AA standards of known isotopic composition (Gly,  
310 Phe and Val; source: Indiana University; <http://pages.iu.edu/~aschimme/compounds.html>) that  
311 were derivatized in batches with the samples. Individual samples were analyzed three times and  
312 the mean analytical error for all derivatized amino acids was ±0.5‰.

313

#### 314 *2.4. Standardization and corrections for derivatization*

315

316 A correction is necessary post-analysis to the stable carbon isotope composition of the  
317 individual  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values because of contributions of carbon in the reagents used during  
318 processing and the size of the correction is dependent upon the structure of each AA. The  
319 correction that is applied for the carbon atoms added during derivatization and the kinetic  
320 fractionations associated with esterification and alkylation (Silfer et al. 1991) uses a linear  
321 regression approach (Docherty et al. 2001; Howland et al. 2003), that regresses the known  
322 isotopic composition of the AA standards (using the standards from Indiana University) as  
323 measured following direct combustion by elemental analyzer and without derivatization to the  
324 isotopic composition following derivatization:

$$325 \quad p\delta^{13}C_{der} = m\delta^{13}C_{AA} + n\delta^{13}C_{rea}$$

$$326 \quad p = m + n$$

327 
$$\theta = \frac{m}{p}$$

328 
$$\delta^{13}C_{der} = \theta\delta^{13}C_{AA} + (1 - \theta)\delta^{13}C_{rea}$$

329

330  $\delta^{13}C_{der}$ ,  $\delta^{13}C_{AA}$ ,  $\delta^{13}C_{rea}$  refer to the carbon isotopic composition of the derivatized product,  
 331 underivatized AA and derivatizing reagents, respectively. The variables p, m, and n refer to the  
 332 number of carbon atoms in a molecule of a derivatized product, the number of carbon atoms  
 333 originating from underivatized AA molecules and that added from derivatizing reagents,  
 334 respectively.  $\theta$  refers to the ratio of the number of carbon atoms in each molecule originating  
 335 from underivatized AA to the total number of carbon atoms in each molecule of the derivatized  
 336 product, which vary in different AAs. For all AAs, the relationship between the carbon isotope  
 337 compositions of original AAs and their derivative product is:

338 
$$\delta^{13}C_{der} = \theta\delta^{13}C_{AA} + (1 - \theta)\delta^{13}C_{rea}$$

339 which can be rewritten as:

340 
$$\frac{1}{1 - \theta}\delta^{13}C_{der} = \frac{\theta}{1 - \theta}\delta^{13}C_{AA} + \delta^{13}C_{rea}$$

341 meaning that the measured carbon isotopic values of derivatized product and the known isotopic  
 342 values of standards obtained from Indiana University are fitted to a linear regression model of the  
 343 form:

344 
$$Y = aX + b, \text{ where}$$

345 
$$Y = \frac{1}{1 - \theta}\delta^{13}C_{der}; X = \frac{\theta}{1 - \theta}\delta^{13}C_{AA}; a \approx 1; b = \delta^{13}C_{rea} + b_0 \text{ (} b_0 \text{ is the term of error)}$$



346

$$Y = 0.9951X - 27.388$$

347 Based upon the linear regression model obtained,  $Y = 0.9951X - 27.388$  ( $r^2 = 0.99$ ), as  
348 well as  $\theta$  calculated for each AA ( $\theta = m/p$ ), we then calculated the carbon isotopic values of the  
349 original AAs ( $\delta^{13}C_{AA}$ ) based on the measured carbon isotopic values of the derivatized AAs  
350 ( $\delta^{13}C_{der}$ ):

$$351 \quad \frac{1}{1-\theta} \delta^{13}C_{der} = a \frac{\theta}{1-\theta} \delta^{13}C_{AA} + b$$

$$352 \quad \delta^{13}C_{AA} = \frac{1-\theta}{a\theta} \left( \frac{1}{1-\theta} \delta^{13}C_{der} - b \right)$$

$$353 \quad a = 0.9951; b = -27.388$$

354

## 355 *2.5. Data analysis*

356

357 Carbon isotopic composition of individual AAs ( $\delta^{13}C_{AA}$ ) are given as means with  
358 standard deviations where replicates were available. We compared CSIA-AA patterns in different  
359 samples by normalizing the data to the average of essential AAs  $\delta^{13}C$  (normalized  $\delta^{13}C_{AA} =$   
360 measured  $\delta^{13}C_{AA}$ -essential AAs  $\delta^{13}C_{Avg}$ ). This normalization approach allows direct assessment  
361 of biosynthetic signatures by removing any variability associated with changes in baseline  $\delta^{13}C$   
362 between samples (Vokhshoori, et al., 2014). We used an AA isotope fingerprinting approach  
363 (Larsen, et al., 2009, 2013) to identify the probable composition of carbon sources fueling  
364 benthic bivalve production in Hanna Shoal and the DBO sites. We performed linear discriminant  
365 function analysis (LDA) to identify patterns of essential AAs that are best suited to separate  
366 bacteria, microalgae, and terrestrial plants using literature data from Larsen, et al. (2013) as a

367 training set. We selected bacteria, microalgae, and terrestrial plants as potential carbon sources,  
368 as they have been identified as carbon sources contributing significantly to *Macoma* spp . and  
369 *Astarte* spp. in Hanna Shoal (Rowe, et al., 2019). The choice of these three potential sources is  
370 also supported by knowledge of the marine ecosystems and benthic feeding behavior: microalgae  
371 (phytoplankton, sea-ice algae) and bacteria (bacterially reworked OM, detritus) are commonly  
372 used by benthic species (e.g. Lovvorn et al., 2005, North et al., 2014). Since the location of  
373 sampling sites is not far from land we also decided to take into account terrestrial OM as  
374 potential food source (as also accounted for by Iken et al., 2010, McTigue et al., 2015). We used  
375 a predictive function to assign all IPOM, POM, and bivalve samples to one of the three carbon  
376 sources. The function assigns each sample to the nearest carbon source centroid weighted by the  
377 proportion of variance explained by each axis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). To quantify the  
378 relative contribution of the different carbon sources to IPOM, POM, and bivalves, we analyzed  
379 normalized essential AA data using the MixSIAR framework (Stock and Semmens, 2016) with  
380 Sampling location and Species identity as fixed effects. In recent years, MixSIAR has become  
381 one of the major tools to analyze biotracer (i.e. stable isotopes, fatty acids) data, as it allows for  
382 the use of any number of biotracers. Furthermore, it uses a Bayesian Mixing model to analyze the  
383 biotracer data, which is particularly beneficial in ecology as it incorporates parameter (source and  
384 consumer) variability in the estimated source proportions (Parnell et al. 2010). We followed the  
385 approach of Larsen, et al. (2013), Elliott Smith, et al. (2018), and Rowe, et al. (2019) and  
386 assumed no fractionation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in essential AA and accordingly all discrimination factors in the  
387 mixing model were set to 0. The same literature data as in the LDA were used as sources in the  
388 mixing model (expressed as mean and sd), which was run on the “very long” setting (i.e., chain  
389 length = 1,000,000; burn = 500,000; thin = 500; chains = 3) with an uninformative prior.  
390 Gelman-Rubin diagnostics and Geweke diagnostics were used to verify that the model had

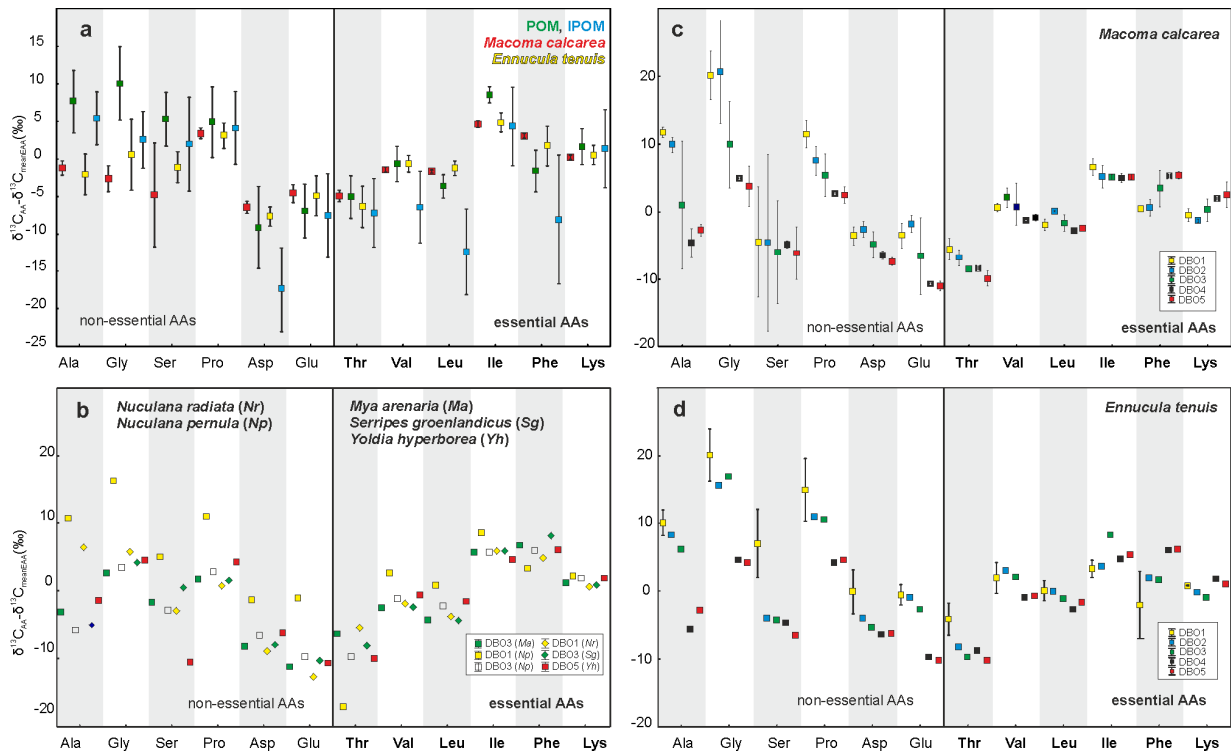
391 converged. Furthermore, posterior distributions of the three chains were visually compared with  
392 each other to ensure that all chains produced almost identical results (Silberberger, et al., 2021).  
393 Since normalized Phe values of our samples behaved differently in relation to carbon sources  
394 compared to all other essential AAs, LDA and MixSIAR analysis were performed twice: (i) on  
395 the full normalized EAA data and (ii) with Phe excluded. LDA and Bayesian mixing model were  
396 performed in R, version 3.5.1 (R Development Core Team, 2018). No test to identify significant  
397 differences between sampling locations and species was conducted due to insufficient number of  
398 replicates.

399

### 400 3. Results

401

402 We quantified  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of 7 non-essential AAs (Ala, Gly, Ser, Pro, Asp, Glu, Tyr) and 6  
403 essential AAs (Thr, Val, Leu, Iso, Phe, Lys) for 8 samples of POM, 3 samples of IPOM, and 21  
404 samples of two bivalve species: *Macoma calcarea* (Gmelin, 1791) and *Ennucula tenuis*  
405 (Montagu, 1808) collected over the Hanna Shoal area. One additional essential AA (Met) was  
406 measured for 25 samples of 7 bivalve species collected along the DBO hot spot sites in the  
407 northern Bering and Chukchi Seas (Table 2, Fig. 3). We excluded Tyr and Met from the  
408 statistical analysis due to limited and missing measurements.



409

410 **Fig. 3.** Normalized  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{meanEAA}}$ ) of individual AAs of: a - pelagic particulate  
 411 organic matter (POM) and melted sea-ice OM (IPOM), and bivalve species: *Macoma calcaria*  
 412 and *Ennucula tenuis* collected around Hanna Shoal in the northern Chukchi Sea, and select  
 413 bivalve species: b - *Nuculana radiata* (*Nr*), *N. pernula* (*Np*), *Mya arenaria* (*Ma*), *Serripes*  
 414 *groenlandicus* (*Sg*), *Yoldia hyperborea* (*Yh*), c - *Macoma calcaria*, d - *Ennucula tenuis*, collected  
 415 in the northern Bering and Chukchi Seas along DBO sites. Individual values in case of single  
 416 measurements or means are presented with standard errors. Ala – alanine, Gly – glycine, Ser –  
 417 serine, Pro – proline, Asp – aspartic acid, Glu – glutamic acid, **Thr** – threonine, **Val** – valine,  
 418 **Leu** – leucine, **Ile** – isoleucine, **Phe** – phenylalanine, **Lys** – lysine. **Essential AAs** are indicated  
 419 by **bold print**.

420

421 **Table 2.**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Bulk}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values of selected food sources and selected bivalve species collected the northern Bering and Chukchi  
422 Seas (DBO – SWL15 cruise, and Hanna Shoal (HS) – HLY1301 cruise). POM – Particulate Organic Matter collected from the water  
423 column (phytoplankton), IPOM – and melted sea-ice Organic Matter. **Phe** – phenylalanine, **Thr** – threonine, **Ile** – isoleucine, **Leu** –  
424 leucine, **Val** – valine, **Lys** – lysine, Asp – aspartic acid, Glu – glutamic acid, Pro – proline, Ala – alanine, Ser – serine, Gly – glycine,  
425 Tyr – tyrosine. **Essential AAs** are indicated by **bold** print.

Taxon/ Station	No of samples	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Bulk}}$	Essential $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$							Non-essential $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$						
			<b>Phe</b>	<b>Thr</b>	<b>Ile</b>	<b>Leu</b>	<b>Val</b>	<b>Lys</b>	<b>Met</b>	Asp	Glu	Pro	Ala	Ser	Gly	Tyr
<b>POM</b>																
HS	8		<b>-31.1</b> $\pm 4.1$	<b>-34.6</b> $\pm 2.8$	<b>-21.0</b> $\pm 2.2$	<b>-33.1</b> $\pm 2.6$	<b>-30.2</b> $\pm 2.8$	<b>-27.8</b> $\pm 2.5$		-38.6 $\pm 5.9$	-36.4 $\pm 3.7$	-24.6 $\pm 4.1$	-21.9 $\pm 3.6$	-24.2 $\pm 3.7$	-19.5 $\pm 5.1$	-19.2 $\pm 2.0$
<b>IPOM</b>																
HS	3		<b>-35.1</b> $\pm 5.5$	<b>-34.2</b> $\pm 1.7$	<b>-22.7</b> $\pm 2.0$	<b>-39.4</b> $\pm 2.6$	<b>-33.5</b> $\pm 1.6$	<b>-25.6</b> $\pm 2.1$		-44.5 $\pm 2.4$	-34.6 $\pm 2.6$	-22.9 $\pm 2.1$	-19.6 $\pm 1.1$	-25.1 $\pm 3.8$	-24.5 $\pm 0.7$	-17.0 $\pm 3.7$
<b>Suspension feeders</b>																
<i>Mya arenaria</i>																
DBO3	1	-17.8	<b>-12.6</b>	<b>-25.7</b>	<b>-13.6</b>	<b>-23.7</b>	<b>-21.9</b>	<b>-18.2</b>	<b>-14.9</b>	-27.5	-30.5	-17.6	-22.6	-21.1	-16.8	-28.7
<i>Serripes groenlandicus</i>																
DBO3	1	-17.3	<b>-10.1</b>	<b>-27.1</b>	<b>-13.2</b>	<b>-23.5</b>	<b>-21.5</b>	<b>-18.2</b>	<b>-14.7</b>	-27.1	-29.4	-17.5	-24.1	-18.6	-14.9	-29.8
<b>Surface deposit feeders</b>																
<i>Macoma calcarea</i>																
DBO1	4	-20.3 $\pm$ 1.9	<b>-28.0</b> $\pm 0.2$	<b>-34.1</b> $\pm 1.5$	<b>-21.9</b> $\pm 1.4$	<b>-30.4</b> $\pm 0.9$	<b>-27.9</b> $\pm 0.8$	<b>-29.0</b> $\pm 0.9$	<b>-16.5</b> $\pm 1.6$	-32.1 $\pm 1.5$	-32.1 $\pm 1.8$	-17.1 $\pm 1.8$	-16.8 $\pm 1.0$	-33.0 $\pm 7.6$	-8.4 $\pm 3.5$	
DBO2	2	-17.0 $\pm$ 0.3	<b>-23.4</b> $\pm 2.1$	<b>-30.8</b> $\pm 0.4$	<b>-18.8</b> $\pm 0.1$	<b>-23.9</b> $\pm 1.1$	<b>-21.9</b> $\pm 2.2$	<b>-25.3</b> $\pm 1.4$	<b>-11.4</b> $\pm 0.9$	-26.6 $\pm 2.0$	-25.7 $\pm 2.1$	-16.5 $\pm 0.3$	-14.1 $\pm 0.4$	-28.6 $\pm 8.0$	-3.4 $\pm 4.2$	
DBO3	2	-17.2 $\pm$ 0.5	<b>-17.7</b> $\pm 4.7$	<b>-29.6</b> $\pm 2.5$	<b>-16.0</b> $\pm 3.1$	<b>-22.7</b> $\pm 1.9$	<b>-19.9</b> $\pm 0.6$	<b>-20.8</b> $\pm 4.0$	<b>-11.7</b> $\pm 1.1$	-26.0 $\pm 1.4$	-27.7 $\pm 1.3$	-15.7 $\pm 0.6$	-20.2 $\pm 3.9$	-27.1 $\pm 8.2$	-11.2 $\pm 1.7$	
DBO4	2	-20.6 $\pm$ 2.1	<b>-13.9</b> $\pm 0.1$	<b>-27.5</b> $\pm 0.7$	<b>-14.1</b> $\pm 0.1$	<b>-21.9</b> $\pm 0.6$	<b>-20.4</b> $\pm 0.4$	<b>-17.2</b> $\pm 0.6$	<b>-14.0</b> $\pm 0.3$	-25.6 $\pm 0.0$	-29.9 $\pm 0.5$	-16.5 $\pm 0.5$	-23.8 $\pm 1.9$	-24.0 $\pm 0.0$	-14.2 $\pm 0.5$	-27.3 $\pm 1.8$

DBO5	2	-21.1 ± 1.3	<b>-14.3</b> ± <b>0.1</b>	<b>-29.6</b> ± <b>0.5</b>	<b>-14.6</b> ± <b>0.0</b>	<b>-22.2</b> ± <b>0.1</b>	<b>-20.6</b> ± <b>0.7</b>	<b>-17.2</b> ± <b>1.6</b>	<b>-14.4</b> ± <b>1.0</b>	-27.1 ± 0.1	-30.7 ± 0.2	-17.2 ± 0.6	-22.4 ± 0.9	-25.8 ± 3.1	-15.9 ± 2.4	-27.3 ± 1.2
Hanna Shoal	11		<b>-18.4</b> ± <b>0.6</b>	<b>-26.4</b> ± <b>1.5</b>	<b>-16.9</b> ± <b>0.7</b>	<b>-23.2</b> ± <b>0.7</b>	<b>-22.9</b> ± <b>0.8</b>	<b>-21.3</b> ± <b>0.8</b>		-28.0 ± 1.5	-26.1 ± 1.7	-18.1 ± 1.0	-22.7 ± 1.5	-26.3 ± 7.2	-24.1 ± 2.4	-15.3 ± 0.9
<i>Yoldia hyperborea</i>																
DBO1	1	-18.6	<b>-14.2</b>	<b>-30.3</b>	<b>-15.6</b>	<b>-21.9</b>	<b>-20.9</b>	<b>-18.4</b>	<b>-14.0</b>	-26.4	-30.9	-16.0	-21.8	-30.8	-15.8	-26.3
<i>Subsurface deposit feeders</i>																
<i>Ennucula tenuis</i>																
DBO1	3	-18.8 ± 0.5	<b>-28.5</b> ± <b>4.5</b>	<b>-30.6</b> ± <b>2.0</b>	<b>-23.1</b> ± <b>2.1</b>	<b>-26.3</b> ± <b>1.3</b>	<b>-24.5</b> ± <b>2.0</b>	<b>-25.6</b> ± <b>1.3</b>	<b>-12.2</b> ± <b>1.2</b>	-26.5 ± 2.9	-27.0 ± 1.0	-11.5 ± 2.8	-16.4 ± 0.5	-19.4 ± 3.5	-6.3 ± 1.8	
DBO2	1	-18.4	<b>-22.6</b>	<b>-32.8</b>	<b>-20.9</b>	<b>-24.6</b>	<b>-21.6</b>	<b>-24.8</b>	<b>-10.8</b>	-28.5	-25.5	-13.6	-16.3	-28.6	-8.9	
DBO3	1	-17.8	<b>-21.2</b>	<b>-32.6</b>	<b>-14.7</b>	<b>-24.0</b>	<b>-20.8</b>	<b>-23.9</b>	<b>-10.0</b>	-28.2	-25.6	-12.4	-16.7	-27.2	-6.0	
DBO4	1	-21.0	<b>-12.7</b>	<b>-27.4</b>	<b>-14.0</b>	<b>-21.5</b>	<b>-19.6</b>	<b>-16.9</b>	<b>-12.7</b>	-25.1	-28.3	-14.5	-24.2	-23.4	-14.1	-28.0
DBO5	1		<b>-14.3</b>	<b>-30.7</b>	<b>-15.1</b>	<b>-22.1</b>	<b>-21.1</b>	<b>-19.4</b>	<b>-13.9</b>	-26.7	-30.6	-15.9	-23.3	-27.0	-16.3	-27.6
HS	10		<b>-20.9</b> ± <b>3.2</b>	<b>-29.0</b> ± <b>2.8</b>	<b>-17.8</b> ± <b>0.9</b>	<b>-23.9</b> ± <b>1.0</b>	<b>-23.3</b> ± <b>0.8</b>	<b>-22.1</b> ± <b>1.1</b>		-30.3 ± 1.3	-27.5 ± 3.2	-19.5 ± 1.8	-24.7 ± 2.5	-23.7 ± 2.3	-22.1 ± 4.2	-16.0 ± 0.5
<i>Nuculana pernula</i>																
DBO1	1	-21.4	<b>-24.2</b>	<b>-44.6</b>	<b>-18.9</b>	<b>-26.7</b>	<b>-24.8</b>	<b>-25.2</b>	<b>-14.1</b>	-28.8	-28.5	-16.5	-16.7	-22.5	-11.1	
DBO3	1	-17.9	<b>-13.3</b>	<b>-29.1</b>	<b>-13.6</b>	<b>-21.5</b>	<b>-20.4</b>	<b>-17.5</b>	<b>-12.9</b>	-25.8	-29.0	-16.5	-25.2	-22.2	-15.9	-28.1
<i>Nuculana radiata</i>																
DBO1	1	-18.5	<b>-14.3</b>	<b>-24.5</b>	<b>-13.2</b>	<b>-23.0</b>	<b>-21.0</b>	<b>-18.4</b>	<b>-14.5</b>	-28.0	-31.8	-18.4	-12.6	-22.1	-13.3	-30.7

426

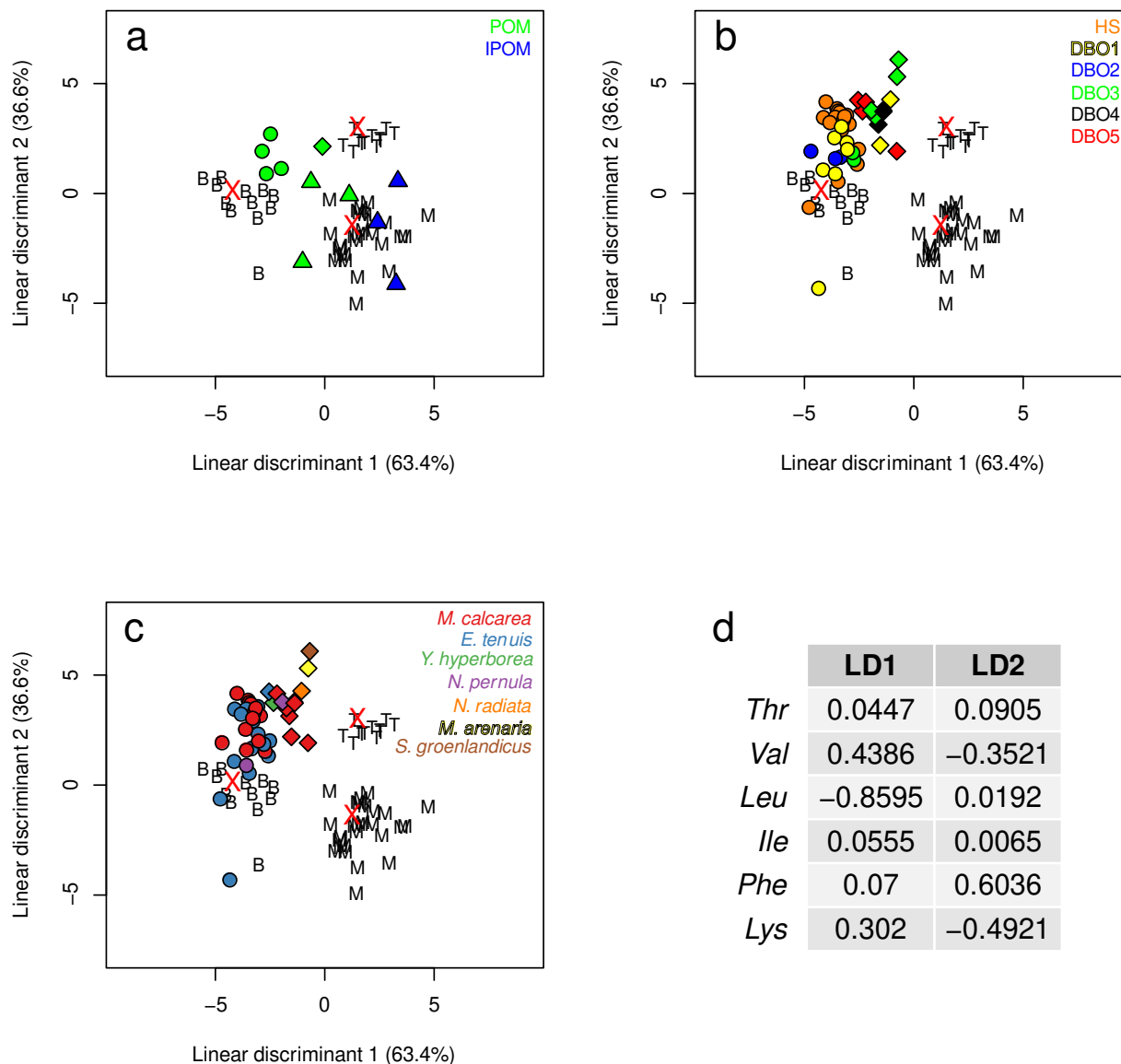
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428

429

430 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values from POM samples and samples derived from organic materials in  
431 melted sea-ice (IPOM) displayed consistent patterns over the Hanna Shoal area: the non-essential  
432 AAs - Glu and Asp, as well as the essential AAs – Val, Leu, Thr, Phe, were typically more  
433 depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  than the other AAs (Fig. 3, Table 2). The essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values derived from  
434 IPOM were similar to POM, except for Leu, which was more depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  than the values  
435 observed in POM. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values in *M. calcareea* tissue were more depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  at four  
436 locations near 71°N 161°W (Hanna Shoal stations H34, H33, H106 and H107) and one other  
437 location to the north (H27). Bivalves collected at other nearby stations gradually became  
438 relatively enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$  to the west and east. Bivalves collected at the DBO sites had generally  
439 lower non-essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values to the south (Fig. 3, Table 2).

440



441

442 **Fig. 4.** Results of the Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) based on relationships among  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$

443 values of all essential AAs. The LDA plot with bacterial (B), microalgal (M), and terrestrial plant

444 (T) training data using Larsen, et al. (2013) are shown together with a) IPOM and POM samples,

445 b) bivalve samples according to sampling location, and c) bivalve species identity. The red X

446 indicate group centroids. IPOM, POM, and bivalve samples that were classified as having

447 bacteria, microalgae, or terrestrial organic carbon origin are depicted as circle, triangle, or

448 diamond, respectively. d) LDA coefficients of all included essential AAs are given in the table.



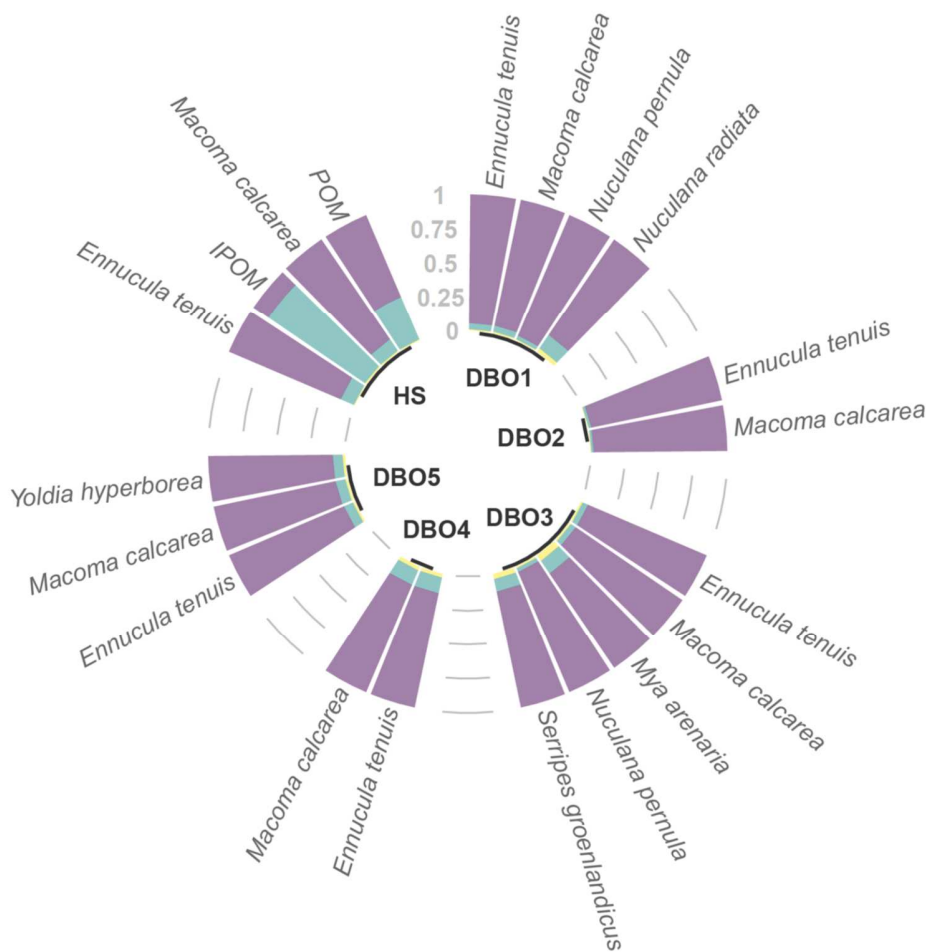
449

450           The LDA classified all IPOM samples as microalgae, while most POM samples clustered  
451 between the three carbon sources (Fig. 4). All bivalve samples from DBO4 and DBO5 together  
452 with 4 samples from DBO3 and 2 samples from DBO1 were assigned to terrestrial OM as carbon  
453 source, while the remaining bivalves were assigned to bacteria. The MixSIAR mixing model  
454 supported the LDA result of IPOM samples being composed mainly of microalgae (85.6%, Fig.  
455 5). Furthermore, it supported a strong reworking of POM samples that contained only 34.1%  
456 microalgae. In contrast to the LDA results, the MixSIAR model did not identify any importance  
457 for terrestrial plants as a source for POM or ultimately bivalves (Fig. 5). According to the model,  
458 most bivalves relied almost exclusively on bacteria-mediated OM. However, *Nuculana radiata*  
459 from DBO1 as well as *Mya arenaria* and *Serripes groenlandicus* from DBO3 were identified as  
460 having a higher reliance on microalgae than other samples from these stations. Furthermore, the  
461 contribution of microalgae to bivalve diet was slightly higher at the northern sampling stations:  
462 DBO4, DBO5, and Hanna Shoal. Overall, MixSIAR results differed strongly from the LDA  
463 results, especially for samples with a low contribution of microalgae (Fig. 4, 5).

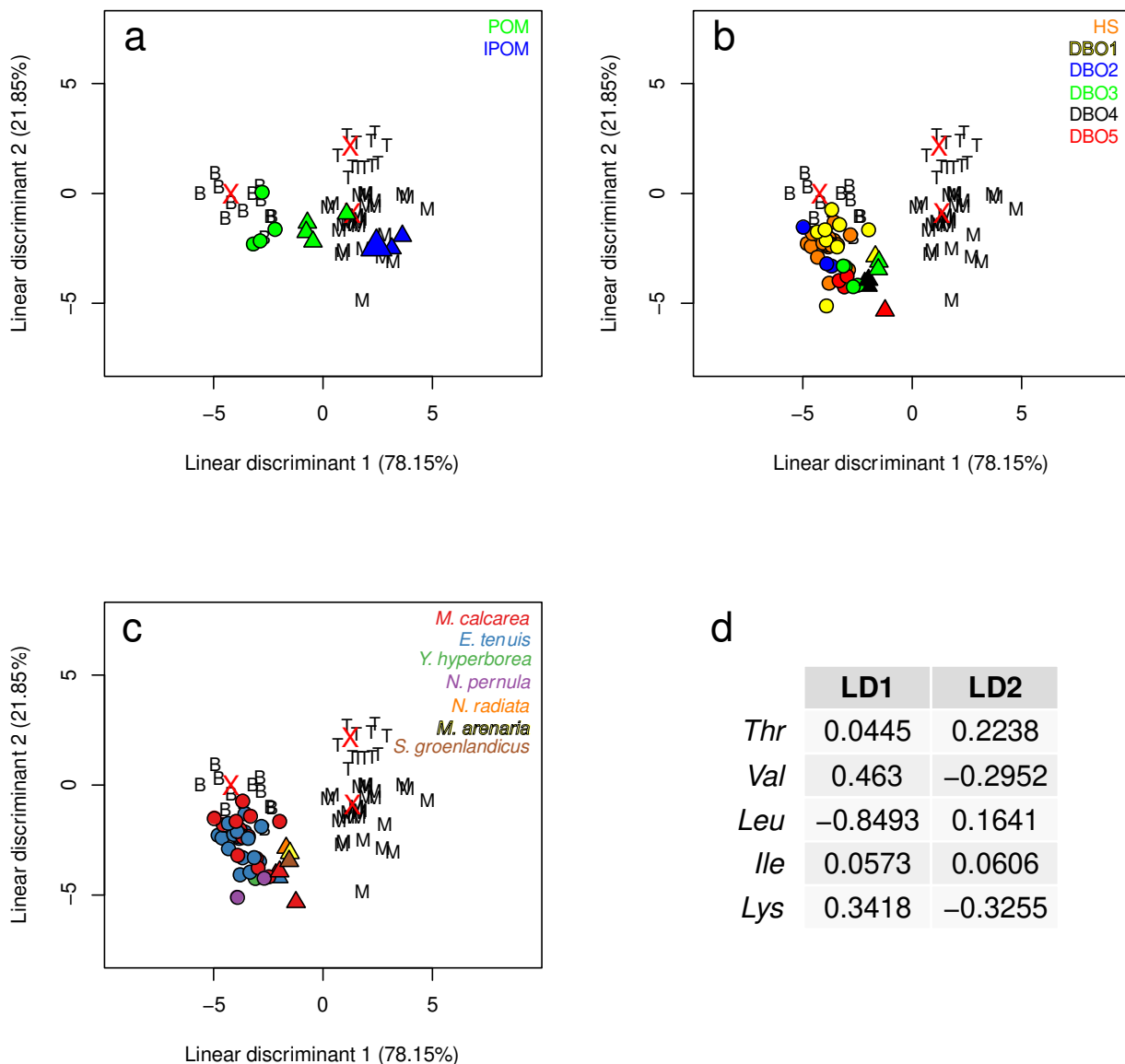
464           We identified this discrepancy between LDA and MixSIAR results as being related to the  
465 use of Phe in the analysis. While all other AAs followed a gradient from IPOM to POM to  
466 bivalves that was aligned with the gradient from microalgae to bacteria, the same gradient for Phe  
467 was aligned with a gradient from microalgae to terrestrial plants. Since Phe had a strong  
468 influence on LD2 (Fig. 4), this resulted in the classification of samples as using terrestrial plant  
469 organic carbon. When Phe was excluded from the LDA and mixing model (Fig. 6, 7), the  
470 observed patterns in both analyses resembled the patterns described for the MixSIAR results of  
471 the full essential AA data set (Fig. 5). However, the removal of Phe from the mixing model

472 increased the overall importance of microalgae for all samples (Fig. 7). With Phe removed from  
 473 the analysis, LDA and MixSIAR results agreed well (Fig. 6, 7), identifying the northern stations  
 474 (DBO4 and DBO5), *N. radiata* (DBO1), *M. arenaria* (DBO3), and *S. groenlandicus* (DBO3) as  
 475 most reliant on microalgae. Bacterially reworked material remains the most important OM source  
 476 for all studied bivalves.

477



478  
 479 **Fig. 5.** Results of the Bayesian mixing model (MixSIAR). The relative reliance on terrestrial  
 480 plants (yellow), microalgae (green), and bacteria (purple) are indicated for each sample type per  
 481 sampling region. Note: Bars for terrestrial plants are only marginally visible due to their low  
 482 contribution



483

484 **Fig. 6.** Results of the Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) based on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values of essential

485 AAs with Phe excluded. The LDA plot with bacterial (B), microalgal (M), and terrestrial plant

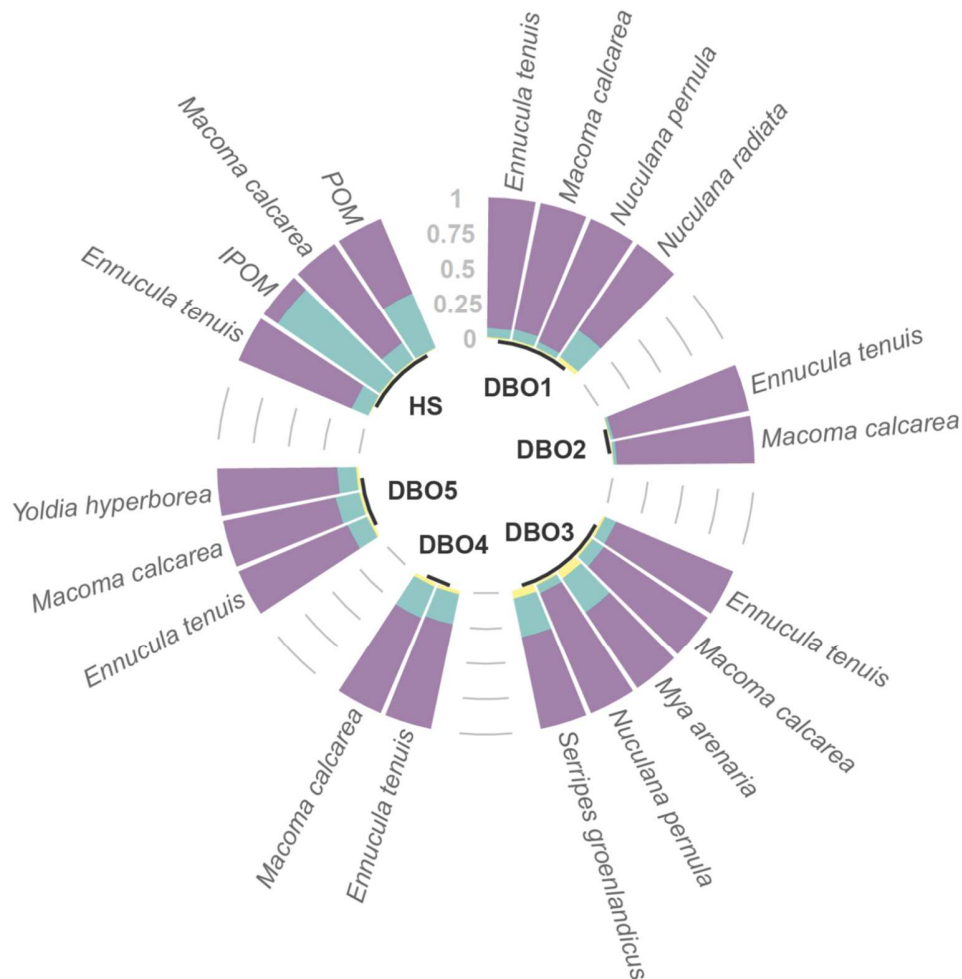
486 (T) training data according to Larsen, et al. (2013) are shown together with a) IPOM and POM

487 samples, b) bivalve samples according to sampling location, and c) bivalve species identity. Red

488 X's indicate group centroids. IPOM, POM, and bivalve samples that were classified as having

489 bacteria, microalgae, or terrestrial organic carbon origins are depicted as circle, triangle, or

490 diamond, respectively. d) LDA coefficients of all included essential AAs are given in the table.



492

493 **Fig. 7.** Results of the Bayesian mixing model (MixSIAR) with Phe excluded from the normalized  
 494 essential AAs. The relative reliance on terrestrial plants (yellow), microalgae (green), and  
 495 bacteria (purple) are indicated for each sample type per sampling region. Note: Bars for terrestrial  
 496 plants are hardly visible due to their low contribution.

497

#### 498 4. Discussion

499 We showed, through the use of CSIA-AA and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns, that the relative importance of  
 500 fresh PP (microalgae) increased with the increasing latitude and sea-ice persistence for two

501 common Pacific shelf bivalve species, *M. calcarea* and *E. tenuis*. This pattern is likely a  
502 consequence of higher input of fresh PP (from sea-ice) to the bottom communities in the most  
503 northern locations, where sea-ice breaks up later during the year. Specimens collected in the more  
504 southern areas, where sea-ice retreats earlier in the year, mainly relied on bacterially reworked  
505 OM. This largely confirmed our initial hypothesis (Fig. 1) that the water column production and  
506 water column processing, as well as sediment processing of OM, increase in prominence where  
507 sea-ice persistence declines. This pattern, with some exceptions, was largely followed by other  
508 bivalves collected during this study, particularly by deposit feeders.

509

#### 510 *4.1. Food sources and their spatial variability*

511

512 The two main potential food sources were sampled over Hanna Shoal: pelagic POM and  
513 material derived from the sea-ice (IPOM). Although there was a large spatial variability in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$   
514 values for pelagic POM over Hanna Shoal the majority of these samples seem to be mixtures of  
515 phytoplankton, bacteria, and bacterially reworked microalgal organic carbon. The LDA and  
516 mixing model results (Phe excluded) pointed to marine and bacterial sources as the main  
517 composition of both POM and IPOM, while terrestrial plants did not contribute significantly  
518 (<1%). Furthermore, the mixing model showed that IPOM mainly consisted of microalgae while  
519 POM consisted of mixture of microalgae (42%) and bacteria (57%). It is likely that, due to the  
520 timing of the sampling (late summer) the POM collected represented to large extent degraded  
521 OM including also zooplankton fecal pellets and bacteria. The material collected from the sea-ice  
522 seems to be less degraded with a much smaller fraction (12%) of bacteria and the dominance of  
523 microalgae (87%), presumably sympagic taxa. Since we do not have essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values for

524 sea-ice specific microalgae to incorporate into the model, nor did we collect *in situ* pelagic  
525 phytoplankton species, we cannot determine the exact composition of those two food sources.

526         The particulate organic carbon export fluxes in the northern Bering and Chukchi Seas are  
527 mostly composed of freshly produced labile material (Lalande, et al., 2007; 2020), including  
528 phytoplankton and sea-ice algae in the spring, which rapidly arrives to the sea floor and later  
529 becomes available to the benthic communities in the form of phytodetritus (Fig. 1; Cooper, et al.,  
530 2005; Roca-Martí et al., 2016). Phytoplankton and bacteria are among the primary carbon sources  
531 for benthic fauna in the Chukchi Sea (McTigue and Dunton, 2014) although sea-ice algae – when  
532 available - are also commonly used by benthic fauna (Koch, et al., 2020). Detritus represents an  
533 important carbon pool in marine sediments, but during decomposition, microbial processing of  
534 OM causes carbon isotope variation that remains challenging to characterize (Larsen, et al., 2015;  
535 McCarthy, et al., 2004). Microbial reworking of fresh OM, sinking particles and microbial  
536 processes in the sediments provide for the contribution of new AAs via microbial *de novo*  
537 synthesis (including substantial changes in the isotopic composition of AAs). This is an important  
538 and seasonally variable process affecting OM composition in aquatic ecosystems (Larsen, et al.,  
539 2013, 2015; Ziegler and Fogel, 2003). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of essential AAs in different marine  
540 source end members vary significantly (Larsen, et al., 2013; McMahan, et al., 2016) and are  
541 reflected in the essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values of consumers. Since plants, algae and bacteria are able to  
542 synthesize essential AAs *de novo*, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of consumers' essential AAs must represent  
543 the isotopic fingerprint of primary producers at the base of the food web (Larsen, et al., 2013;  
544 McMahan, et al., 2010). Thus, essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values of detritivores would differ from the  
545 patterns of organisms feeding directly on fresh phytoplankton or ice algae. In this study we  
546 sampled suspension and deposit feeders and we expected that their essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns  
547 should follow a mixed food source pattern, including microalgae (phytoplankton and/or ice

548 algae), or bacteria via detrital processes, or mixtures (POM, IPOM). Our observations of the  
549 essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns are consistent with these mixed food sources, with most of the sampled  
550 bivalves showing significant reliance on bacterially modified detritus with a general decreasing  
551 trend northwards, and secondary use of microalgae that was the highest in suspension feeding *M.*  
552 *arenaria* and *S. groenlandicus*.

553 The carbon fingerprinting results are also consistent with the patterns observed in the  
554 values of essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$ , particularly for Ile, Val and Leu, which are specifically associated  
555 with bacterial resynthesis of AAs in OM (Keil and Fogel, 2001, McCarthy, et al., 2007). Both Ile  
556 and Val synthesized by bacteria are more depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  than when synthesized by plants  
557 (McCarthy, et al., 2007) and conversely Leu becomes relatively more enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$  (Larsen, et  
558 al. 2009). In our study, more negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values for Ile and Val, and less negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$   
559 values for Leu occurred in all sampled bivalves – both of these trends are consistent with  
560 bacterial reworking of utilized OM. High reliance on reworked OM was also shown by Kędra et  
561 al. (2019) with use of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{AA}}$  values and the degradation  $\Sigma V$  parameter (McCarthy et al., 2007)  
562 which had higher values in the deposition areas (DBO1, 3 and 4) in comparison to areas with  
563 high currents and potentially higher abundance of fresh OM (DBO2, 5). High contributions of  
564 phytoplankton and bacteria were also found with the fingerprinting method for two bivalve taxa:  
565 *Astarte* spp. and *Macoma* spp. in Hanna Shoal (Rowe et al., 2019).

566 In addition to the two main OM sources, terrestrial OM was identified as a small and in  
567 most respects a negligible source for the bivalve species found in all sampling sites. The highest,  
568 but still very small contribution, was found for suspension feeders in DBO3 area, which is a  
569 deposition zone with muddy sediments and a high level of OM deposition (Grebmeier and  
570 Cooper, 2014). As the suspension feeding mechanism of *Serripes* spp. and *Mya* spp. is not highly

571 selective it is possible that some terrestrial OM can be ingested on regular basis but does not  
572 become a dominant source.

573

#### 574 4.2. Species-specific and latitudinal $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$ patterns

575

576 In addition to our results that suggest that the sampled bivalve species in the Pacific Arctic  
577 primarily utilize a mixture of microalgae (phytoplankton, sea-ice algae) and bacteria, largely in  
578 the form of detritus and reworked phytoplankton material, additional analysis can be directed  
579 towards sampling locations, and to less extent, among species. The LDA and mixing model  
580 results showed that essential  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns in organisms were in part differentiated by feeding  
581 behavior, and utilization of various sources of OM that depended on the location. Therefore,  
582 location, and thus the environmental conditions influencing local production and decomposition  
583 processes, also seem to be important factors shaping the utilization of food resources.

584 Different use of resources in the St. Lawrence Island Polynya (DBO1) and southern Chukchi  
585 Sea (DBO3) may have consequences for ecosystem functioning. *Nuculana radiata*, a subsurface  
586 deposit feeder, is the main food item for the spectacled eiders in the DBO1 northern Bering Sea  
587 area (Lovvorn, et al., 2003; Richman and Lovvorn, 2003; Cooper, et al., 2013). It has been slowly  
588 replaced by other clams recently, especially by another subsurface deposit feeding clam, *E.*  
589 *tenuis*, that is not normally consumed by diving seabirds (Lovvorn, et al. 2005; Goethel, et al.,  
590 2019; Grebmeier, et al., 2015a, b; 2018). Large sized *S. groenlandicus* becomes an important  
591 food item for walrus in the Chukchi Sea (Sheffield and Grebmeier, 2009). The population of  
592 this high respiration rate species has been increasing over the last decade in the southern Chukchi  
593 Sea, up until 2018, when the population crashed due to anoxia, presumably a result of high  
594 organic matter export (J. Grebmeier, unpublished data). A recent study by Koch et al. (2020)



595 conducted in the same area with use of highly branched isoprenoid biomarkers also showed that  
596 deposit feeding *Macoma* and *Ennucula* spp. incorporated higher levels of sea-ice algae in their  
597 diet while the diet of suspension feeders like *Mya* and *Serripes* spp. depended only upon small  
598 proportions of sea-ice algae. Although this remains speculative at this point due to sampling in  
599 only one season, our results (e.g. DBO1, 3 in Fig. 6) suggest that increased availability of fresh  
600 microalgal food to the benthos over the year could be responsible for the recently observed  
601 changes in benthic community patterns. *S. groenlandicus* as a suspension feeder and species  
602 relying on microalgae for more than 25% of its diet (as does *M. arenaria*) can directly benefit  
603 from these changes. *N. radiata*, on the other hand, appears to be the only one of the sampled  
604 deposit feeders in the northern Bering Sea (DBO1) that utilizes both microalgae and bacteria  
605 (microbially degraded OM), which may be related to its dependence on early season PP and  
606 export to the benthos that is subsequently limited in summer due to strong stratification. This  
607 results in the species using more microbially degraded OM as the season progresses. Along with  
608 increasing sea-water temperatures and decreasing sea-ice cover (Frey, et al., 2018; Grebmeier, et  
609 al., 2018), an earlier onset of PP (Hill, et al., 2018) and increased phytoplankton PP is observed in  
610 the northern portion of DBO1 and DBO3 (Goethel, et al., 2019; Grebmeier, et al., 2018).  
611 Suspension feeders may directly benefit from the new conditions, although with variable impacts  
612 over the season. *N. radiata*, on the other hand, may not benefit as it seems to rely on recycled OM  
613 with bacterial components (compared to *Serripes*) and despite increased PP in the area, the  
614 availability of fresh microalgae may not increase over the long term. The reason is that microbial  
615 reworking is expected to increase along with the temperature increase and shifts in the food webs  
616 (e.g. Kędra, et al., 2015), and have direct impacts on the different bivalve species populations in  
617 the area.

618 We expected that the fresher and less altered organic carbon would be utilized in the northerly  
619 sites, where, due to the bloom timing, fresher OM with possible input of ice algae should be  
620 available, while in the southern locations (DBO1-2) we expected utilization of more reworked  
621 OM with a larger input of bacterial production (Fig. 1). Our results for *M. calcarea* and *E. tenuis*,  
622 the two species collected over the whole study area, showed that this latitudinal pattern was  
623 confirmed, with some exceptions and was largely followed by other species sampled in the study.  
624 This may indicate that the food (carbon) source utilized changes depending on what is available  
625 in the ecosystem. The results of the LDA and Bayesian isotopic mixing approach strongly  
626 indicate that the importance of detritus (bacteria) decreased in the diet of *M. calcarea* and *E.*  
627 *tenuis* at more northerly latitudes, with the exception of Hanna Shoal, where there were local  
628 variations, and DBO2, where almost no microalgae were utilized. This pattern was followed by  
629 other sampled species with the exception of *N. radiata* at DBO1 and suspension feeders at  
630 DBO3, which all had higher contributions of microalgae than other species.

631 This location separation between southern (DBO 1 and 2, with small microalgae contribution)  
632 and northern locations (DBO4 and 5, with higher microalgae contribution) for *M. calcarea* and *E.*  
633 *tenuis*, suggests that different environmental conditions influence utilization of food sources in  
634 DBO1-2 and DBO4-5. The DBO1 area is the most southern location in our study, meaning that  
635 the spring bloom occurred here the earliest and more time has passed by the time of sampling  
636 since the fresh OM input reached the sea floor. This could lead to a greater degree of microbial  
637 degradation, at least relative to other DBO sites. North, et al. (2014) concluded that fresh  
638 microalgae contribution to the diet of deposit feeders in the St. Lawrence Island Polynya (DBO1)  
639 is small. They suggested that benthic species in DBO1 primarily depend upon heterotrophic  
640 microbes, microbial products, and reworked phytodetritus that form a longer-term sediment food  
641 bank. This conclusion is also reflected by our findings where, as indicated by LDA and the

642 mixing model, microalgae contributed only a small amount to the bivalve diet (except *N.*  
643 *radiata*). The reliance on bacterially reworked OM was even higher for DBO2, despite the fact  
644 that the Chirikov Basin is characterized by high currents and higher inputs of fresh PP may be  
645 expected (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a; Pisareva, et al., 2015). Similarly, higher reliance on  
646 bacterially reworked OM was observed at Hanna Shoal (in comparison to DBO 4 and 5), which,  
647 although the most northern location, was sampled later in the year (August). However, as both *M.*  
648 *calcareo* and *E. tenuis* are deposit feeders it is likely that they were mainly utilizing deposited  
649 sedimentary OM, and thus already highly reworked by bacteria, and in that case, they did not  
650 have access to fresh suspended OM.

651       Interestingly, in the DBO3 area, where PP is very high, currents slow down and phytodetritus  
652 is exported rapidly to the benthos (Grebmeier, et al., 2015a) deposit feeding bivalves displayed  
653 similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns as further south while suspension feeders showed a higher proportion of  
654 microalgae contributions (Table 2; Fig. 6). The fingerprinting approach showed that surface  
655 deposit (*M. calcareo*) and subsurface deposit feeders (*E. tenuis*, *N. pernula*) utilized bacterial  
656 (detrital) and microalgae in similar proportions while suspension feeders (*M. arenaria*, *S.*  
657 *groenlandicus*) used more fresh OM, but nevertheless bacteria dominated in the diet. Although  
658 more data are needed for conclusive determinations, these results suggest that the high fresh  
659 phytoplankton biomass in the water column was only partially available for the suspension and  
660 surface deposit feeding bivalves, which instead used more reworked detritus material and most  
661 likely advective, more reworked carbon from the south than *in situ* new PP.

662

663       4.3. Conclusions: CSIA-AA analysis challenges

664

665 It is well documented that the stable isotope analysis of bulk organic materials is suitable to  
666 detect longer-term (weeks to months) diet (e.g. Hobson and Welch, 1992; Layman, et al., 2012).  
667 Studies conducted on deep-sea corals integrating information over the long (years) scales (Schiff,  
668 et al., 2014; McMahon, et al., 2018) confirm that the fingerprinting method and use of AAs can be  
669 applied successfully. However, for CSIA-AA analysis to be most useful, the turnover time of  
670 AAs is crucial to correctly assess food sources of benthic fauna. Studies on AA turnover remain  
671 scarce, although some recent work has documented very long turnover times, up to thousands of  
672 years, in deep marine sediments due to low metabolic rates of organisms and bacteria (Lomstein,  
673 et al., 2012; Braun, et al., 2017; Møller, et al., 2018). Studies conducted in more productive  
674 shallow sediments, however, suggest that AA turnover time is more likely in the range of weeks  
675 to one year (Lomstein, et al., 1989; Arndt, et al., 2013), depending on the specific synthetic  
676 pathways of the particular AA, the life stage of the organism and the organisms itself (O'Brien, et  
677 al., 2002; Arndt, et al., 2013). Some AAs have very fast turnover times, especially non-essential  
678 AAs, while others remain unchanged much longer. Also, the turnover time can change seasonally  
679 and is faster during the winter in bivalves from temperate areas (Hawkins, 1985; 1991). However,  
680 the essential AAs can be re-used by temperate marine mussels, which facilitates their longer  
681 turnover time (Hawkins, 1991). This may present a challenge for highly seasonal ecosystems at  
682 high latitudes. For example, if turnover times of essential AAs in the studied bivalves greatly  
683 exceeded the period of PP, the fingerprinting technique used will not be able to fully identify a  
684 clear preference for fresh PP, even if a bivalve fed exclusively on fresh OM while it was  
685 available. It is therefore difficult to conclude if a mixed diet (e.g. *S. groenlandicus* at DBO3)  
686 indicates an overall mixed diet over a longer period or a complete dietary switch during a short  
687 food pulse of fresh PP. The time between the arrival of spring bloom production to the sea floor,  
688 and our sampling might be too short an interval for the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  data to be sensitive to it although

689 our results do not suggest that. Studies on AA turnover times are critical to correctly assess the  
690 time between the changes in the diet and changes in the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  value of different AAs, as well  
691 changes to the AAs through space and time, particularly in the marine sediments. This issue is  
692 particularly crucial for studies in highly seasonal ecosystems.

693 Overall, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  patterns were shown to be a useful technique for food source  
694 determination. Compared to bulk data analysis CSIA-AA allows for the inclusion of more  
695 potential carbon sources and is not affected by the variable trophic fraction (depending on source,  
696 consumer species, trophic level). However, there are still some challenges. Chemical signatures  
697 of essential and non-essential AAs have been reported to be highly conservative among broad  
698 taxonomic groups and not to vary significantly by location (Larsen, et al 2009, 2013, 2015).  
699 Larsen, et al., (2013) showed that individual AAs  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  patterns have a large potential to  
700 distinguish between organic carbon derived from algae, seagrass, terrestrial plants, bacteria and  
701 fungi, and later, that sedimentary diagenesis may lead to an increased contribution of bacterial  
702 sources over time (Larsen, et al., 2015). However, most prior studies were undertaken as  
703 controlled feeding experiments or cultures, which simplifies many challenges that occur in the  
704 natural environment. That is particularly true for the ecosystems where multiple food sources are  
705 present and species are able to feed on OM that can be a mixture of many primary producers and,  
706 in addition, is often highly reworked by microbial activity. If the mixture of ice algal,  
707 phytoplankton and bacterial production, in the form of detritus both in the sediment and as  
708 resuspended material, is the main food source, the identification of a specific food source is  
709 challenging and requires additional information on source  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  (Rowe et al., 2019). The  
710 application of CSIA-AA for carbon isotopes is not always straightforward, and without baseline  
711 and prey data, the determination of whether essential AAs are isotopically fractionated or not  
712 relative to their diet may not always be possible. Expanding the existing data base (Larsen, et al.,

713 2013) of source  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  is important, particularly from natural ecosystems (Whiteman, et al.,  
714 2019) and with marine microalgae including both phytoplankton and sea-ice algae. More  
715 information on marine fungi and bacteria is also needed as some decomposers (fungi and  
716 bacteria) included in the Larsen, et al. (2013) source data are of terrestrial origin. Further,  
717 combining  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  CSIA-AA with analysis of other biomarkers, such as highly-branched  
718 isoprenoids (e.g. Koch, et al., 2020) might be helpful in investigating differences among  
719 bacterially re-worked OM, phytoplankton and ice algae.

720 We have presented one of the first  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  CSIA-AA analysis for benthic fauna and potential  
721 food sources for dominant bivalve species on the Pacific Arctic shelf. Patterns of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$  values  
722 in this study revealed useful information for assessing animal feeding behavior, OM sources use  
723 and thus, ecosystem functioning, even if not all of the patterns were clear and unambiguous. Our  
724 data indicated that bivalves fed mainly on a mixture of bacteria and microalgae in different  
725 proportions depending upon species identity and, to less extend, sampled locations, largely  
726 following our initial hypothesis that the share of fresh PP in bivalves' diet will increase as a  
727 northward gradient. We recommend further studies on the application of CSIA-AA, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{AA}}$   
728 determinations in seasonal marine environments and where animal diets are known to consist of  
729 mixed sources.

730

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732

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743

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