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**Title:** Stable isotope signatures in historic harbor seal bone link food web-assimilated carbon and nitrogen resources to a century of environmental change

**Running Title:** *(42 of 45 characters with spaces)* Changing food web-assimilated resources

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**Abstract** (300 of 300 words)

Anthropogenic climate change will impact nutrient cycles, primary production, and ecosystem structure in the world's oceans, although considerable uncertainty exists regarding the magnitude and spatial variability of these changes. Understanding how regional-scale ocean conditions control nutrient availability and ultimately nutrient assimilation into food webs will inform how marine resources will change in response to climate. To evaluate how ocean conditions influence the assimilation of nitrogen and carbon into coastal marine food webs, we applied a novel dimension reduction analysis to a century of newly acquired molecular isotope data derived from historic harbor seal bone specimens. By measuring bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of source amino acids of these top predators from 1928-2014, we derive indices of primary

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30 production and nitrogen resources that are assimilated into food webs. We determined coastal  
31 food webs responded to climate regimes, coastal upwelling, and freshwater discharge, yet the  
32 strength of responses to individual drivers varied across the northeast Pacific. Indices of primary  
33 production and nitrogen availability in the Gulf of Alaska were dependent on regional climate  
34 indices (i.e., North Pacific Gyre Oscillation) and upwelling. In contrast, the coastal Washington  
35 and Salish Sea food webs were associated with local indices of freshwater discharge. For some  
36 regions (eastern Bering Sea, northern Gulf of Alaska) food web assimilated production was  
37 coupled with nitrogen sources, however other regions demonstrated no production-nitrogen  
38 coupling (Salish Sea). Temporal patterns of environmental indices and isotopic data from  
39 Washington state varied about the long-term mean with no directional trend. Data from the Gulf  
40 of Alaska, however, showed below average harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and above average ocean  
41 conditions since 1975, indicating a change in primary production in recent decades. Altogether,  
42 these findings demonstrate stable isotope data can provide useful indices of nitrogen resources  
43 and phytoplankton dynamics specific to what is assimilated by food webs.

#### 44 **Keywords (8 of 8)**

45 climate change, amino acid, compound-specific stable isotope analysis, northeast Pacific Ocean,  
46 harbor seals, primary production, Gulf of Alaska

#### 47 **Introduction**

48 Changing ocean conditions are reshaping the structure and function of marine food webs  
49 on regional scales. Ocean temperature (Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno 2010), oxygen availability  
50 (Brietbrg et al. 2018), and climatic regimes such as El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO)  
51 (Vecchi and Wittenberg 2010) alter nutrient availability and cycling, and thus, the ecological  
52 structure of marine systems. Projected global redistribution of nutrients suggests net primary  
53 production in the ocean is likely to change both spatially and temporally. Yet, substantial  
54 uncertainty remains, with predictions suggesting both increases and decreases in global net  
55 primary productivity of up to 20% by 2100 (Bopp et al. 2013; Kwiatkowski et al. 2017, Gregg et  
56 al. 2003). An important contributor to this uncertainty is regional variability in phytoplankton  
57 response to ocean conditions and how that variability will impact other trophic levels and  
58 dependent fisheries (Moore et al. 2018, Brander 2010). Ocean conditions (i.e., sea surface  
59 temperature, freshwater discharge, wind, and ice cover) have been associated with abundance  
60 and recruitment of many fish species in the Northeast Pacific (Cunningham et al. 2018, Puerta et

61 al. 2019, Stachura et al. 2014). Nonetheless, these studies rarely include indicators of nutrient  
62 availability or primary production linking the ecosystem response to its environment.  
63 Understanding how regional and local scale physical drivers control nutrient availability and  
64 ultimately nutrient assimilation into food webs will be important for predicting the future  
65 availability of marine resources.

66 A strong empirical understanding of food web response to changing ocean conditions and  
67 nutrient constraints requires time series data that span multiple climate regimes to decouple  
68 natural variability with long-term anthropogenic changes. Currently, quantitative methods are  
69 also limited in their ability to scale primary production trends to ecosystem-level responses  
70 (Bonan and Doney 2018). Stable isotope measures of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  ( $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ ) of individual amino acids is  
71 an emerging tool for reconstructing trends in nitrogen sources from historic specimens  
72 (McMahon et al. 2019, Sherwood et al. 2011, Sherwood et al. 2014, Whitney et al. 2019). The  
73  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  signature at the base of the food web is primarily controlled by utilization and the isotopic  
74 signatures of different nitrogen sources, particularly urea, nitrate, and ammonium, by primary  
75 producers (Graham et al. 2010, Ohkouchi et al. 2017). Measurements of bulk  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values from  
76 consumers can be difficult to attribute to changes at the base of the food web because trophic  
77 level shifts also effect the isotopic composition of bulk nitrogen (Fry 2006). Amino acid specific  
78  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  data addresses this challenge, as amino acids exhibit two distinct patterns in isotopic  
79 enrichment: trophic amino acids (i.e., glutamic acid, alanine, proline) become enriched in  $^{15}\text{N}$   
80 with each trophic transfer and source amino acids (i.e., phenylalanine, lysine, methionine) show  
81 minimal change and thus are reflective of the base of the food web (McClelland and Montoya  
82 2002, Chikaraishi et al. 2009, Ohkouchi et al. 2017).

83 Similar to the nitrogen stable isotope composition of amino acids as a proxy for nitrogen  
84 sources, carbon isotopic composition has emerged as a useful tool for assessing historic changes  
85 in phytoplankton (McMahon et al. 2015, Larson et al. 2013, Lorrain et al. 2019). However,  
86 cellular growth rates, phytoplankton community composition, the isotopic composition of carbon  
87 in  $\text{CO}_2$ , and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration all affect the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) values of phytoplankton in tandem  
88 (Lorrain et al. 2019, Montoya 2007, Burkhardt et al. 1999). The relative effects of these factors  
89 remain difficult to discern from carbon isotope data alone. Nonetheless, carbon stable isotope  
90 data is highly correlated with copepod biomass in the northeast Pacific and thus can be a useful  
91 combined index of ocean productivity (Espinasse et al. 2020). While both source amino acid

92  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values can be influenced by a number of biogeochemical and physiological  
93 processes (Figure 1), they are useful indicators of nitrogen utilization (source amino acid  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ )  
94 and phytoplankton dynamics (bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), despite the difficulty in identifying specific  
95 mechanisms of fractionation.

96 Here we use source amino acid  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of consumer bone collagen as  
97 indicators of change in food web-assimilated nitrogen (nitrogen utilization and isotopic  
98 composition at the base of the food web) and food web-assimilated production (phytoplankton  
99 composition,  $[\text{CO}_2]$ , cellular growth, and physiology). These definitions assume major changes  
100 in nitrogen utilization and phytoplankton dynamics are recorded in the stable isotope  
101 composition of nitrogen and carbon in phytoplankton (McMahon et al. 2019, Sherwood et. al.  
102 2011, de la Vega 2020, Ohkouchi et al. 2017), scaled to the spatial and temporal resource use of  
103 consumers, and conserved with minimal trophic fractionation (Chikaraishi et al. 2009). Bulk  
104  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of source amino acids such as phenylalanine ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ) from long-lived,  
105 generalist consumers provide ecosystem-level information of carbon and nitrogen dynamics that  
106 are integrated over space, time, and multiple energy pathways in the food web (McCann et al.  
107 2005; Rooney et al. 2006, de la Vega et al. 2020). As a result, these data sources are more  
108 relevant to questions of food web responses to large-scale environmental forcing than discrete  
109 measurements of inorganic nutrients or phytoplankton. Ultimately these data can be used to  
110 understand how ecosystems have responded to environmental variability in the past and glean  
111 insights into food web responses to oceanic conditions in the future.

112 Harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*) are a particularly well-suited predator to understand food  
113 web shifts through time because of their primarily piscivorous diet, generalist foraging strategies,  
114 high site fidelity, and frequent occurrence in museum specimen collections. Adult harbor seals  
115 typically forage 5 - 10 km from haul out sites and at depths < 200 m (Lowry et al. 2001) and are  
116 opportunistic feeders (Lance et al. 2012). Therefore, the nitrogen and carbon stable isotope  
117 composition of harbor seals offer a robust representation of the isotopic composition of carbon  
118 and nitrogen assimilated into coastal food webs. Harbor seal specific trophic enrichment factors  
119 for nitrogen have been quantified in controlled feeding studies, confirming minimal trophic  
120 enrichment for phenylalanine between seals and their prey (Germain et al. 2014).  
121 Environmentally induced shifts in foraging patterns, specifically nearshore verse offshore  
122 feeding, has the potential to affect the carbon isotope composition in harbor seal tissues (Figure

123 1). We assume these behavioral effects are minimal on annual time scales compared to changes  
124 in the carbon and nitrogen isotope composition at the base of the food web given their restricted  
125 foraging ranges.

126 We aim to identify how archived  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values vary regionally across the  
127 northeast Pacific on ecologically relevant scales (integrated annually and regionally) and through  
128 time using museum harbor seal specimens from 1928-2014 (Figure 2). Additionally, we  
129 characterize abiotic factors that influence harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values to identify  
130 ocean conditions important for food web assimilation of nitrogen and carbon. The effect of  
131 regional ocean condition on the stable isotope signature of source amino acids limits the  
132 application of short-term datasets for productivity studies, as short-term environmental  
133 perturbations are difficult to decouple from longer term trends such as climate regimes  
134 (Vokhshoori and McCarthy 2014). We therefore identify long-term environmental drivers that  
135 are important for interpreting reconstructed isotope data.

## 136 **Materials and Methods**

### 137 *Sample Collection and Analysis*

138 Harbor seal bone samples were obtained from specimens curated at the Burke Museum  
139 (University of Washington), the Slater Museum (University of Puget Sound), the Museum of the  
140 North (University of Alaska Fairbanks), the Royal British Columbia Museum, the Smithsonian  
141 Institute, and the National Marine Mammal Laboratory (NOAA) (*SI2, Table S1*). Specimens  
142 were either treated by maceration in warm water or cleaned by beetles and soaked in a dilute  
143 ammonia solution then stored in acid free boxes. Adult specimens were sampled from three  
144 regions: eastern Bering Sea, the Gulf of Alaska, and Washington state, which also included 18  
145 specimens from the southern British Columbia coast (Figure 2). We further stratified samples  
146 from the Gulf of Alaska into two subregions (northern and southeast) and Washington state into  
147 two subregions (coastal and Salish Sea) for a total of five subregions. Sampling prioritized long-  
148 term temporal coverage, specifically focusing on climate regimes shifts (i.e., PDO).  
149 Additionally, samples with sex and size metadata were prioritized, although it was not available  
150 for most specimens. Metadata was accessed through VertNet using catalogue numbers and  
151 institution codes (<http://www.vertnet.org/index.html>).

152 Bone samples were decalcified with the resulting collagen acid hydrolyzed, derivatized,  
153 and analyzed for compound-specific nitrogen stable isotope analysis (CSSIA) of 11 individual

154 amino acids, including one source amino acid, phenylalanine (phe). Of the 11 amino acids,  
155 phenylalanine was the only discernable source amino acid and phenylalanine is the only amino  
156 acid data are reported in this manuscript (*Appendix SI*). CSSIA samples were analyzed by GC-  
157 C-irMS at the University of Washington Facility for Compound-Specific Stable Isotope Analysis  
158 of Environmental Samples using a Thermo Scientific Trace GC + GC IsoLink coupled to a Delta  
159 V irMS following the procedures developed by Chikaraishi et al. (2007) and protocols by Rachel  
160 Jeffrey's lab at University of Liverpool UK (full analytical details are provided in *Appendix I*).  
161 Individual collagen samples were analyzed in triplicate along with a mixed amino acid standard  
162 of known isotopic composition (Sigma-Aldrich Co.) (mean precision of analytical standard for  
163 phenylalanine = 0.3‰). Internal and external standards were used and data processing included a  
164 drift correction. A total of 215 specimens were sampled from the time period of 1928-2014 for  
165 CSSIA, making this the largest CSSIA dataset of a mammal to date. Decalcified collagen of 190  
166 specimens was analyzed for bulk  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  and bulk  $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$  at the University of Washington's  
167 IsoLab using a Costech Elemental Analyzer, ConFlo III, MAT253 for continuous flow-based  
168 measurements.  $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  are reported in standard delta notation:

169 1.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (‰ vs. air) =  $\left( \frac{(^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{Sample}}}{(^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{Air}}} - 1 \right) * 1000$

170 2.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (‰ vs. VPBD) =  $\left( \frac{(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{Sample}}}{(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{VPBD}}} - 1 \right) * 1000$

171 Internal laboratory standards (Bristol Bay salmon and glutamic acid) were interspersed with  
172 samples for a two-point calibration and blank correction (mean standard precision 0.09‰ for  
173  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and 0.04‰ for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ). A linear drift correction was also applied using IsoDat software. The  
174 collagen C:N ratio was used to verify the integrity of collagen for stable isotope analysis  
175 following specimen treatment and storage (van Klinken 1999).

176 The isotopic composition of marine dissolved organic carbon has been steadily depleted  
177 in  $^{13}\text{C}$  over the past 100 years due to increases in anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  in the atmosphere (referred  
178 to as the Oceanic Suess Effect) (Quay et al. 1992).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data were therefore corrected for the  
179 Suess Effect using the following equation (Misarti et al. 2009):

180 3. Suess Effect Correction Factor =  $d * e^{0.027 * (t - 1850)}$

181 Where  $d$  is the maximum annual rate of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  decrease specific to the North Pacific (-0.014  
182 derived from Quay et al. 1992)  $t$  is the year represented by the year of specimen collection with a

183 one-year lag. The Seuss effect varies regionally (Tagliabue and Bopp 2008) and we applied a  
184 northeast Pacific parameterization (Misarti et al. 2009).

185 Standard linear models were used to identify whether size (standard length, cm), sex, and  
186 subregion of the harbor seals sampled were related to isotopic composition and to test whether  
187 these parameters needed to be standardized in environmental models.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
188 were modelled independently as univariate continuous response variables using the following  
189 equation:

$$4. y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta \mathbf{X}_i, \sigma_y^2)$$

191 where  $y$  is the mean triplicate value for each individual  $i$  for either  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  or  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.  $\mathbf{X}$   
192 represents the matrix of predictors (sex, length, subregion),  $\alpha$  is a scalar and  $\beta$  is a vector of  
193 coefficients for the predictors. Length ( $n = 116$ ) was modelled as a continuous variable and was  
194 natural log transformed; subregion and sex ( $n = 190$ ) were modelled as factors. Individual  
195 models were used to test whether a predictor was significant as opposed to a multivariate  
196 framework because, 1) sample sizes for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  ( $n = 215$ ) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $n = 190$ ) data varied, and 2)  
197 predictor metadata was incomplete for specimens. A pairwise t-test using the Bonferroni  
198 correction and non-pooled standard deviation was also used to compare differences in mean  
199 isotope signature between subregions and sex (Figure 3, *Tables S3 & S4*).

200 To understand the extent of coupling between indices of food web assimilated production  
201 and nitrogen resources, a linear model representing the basin wide relationship was fit to  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
202 and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values as continuous variables assuming normal errors. To understand spatial  
203 variation in this relationship, a hierarchical model was fit to the same dataset with varying slope  
204 and varying intercept based on subregion as a random effect. This model took the following  
205 form:

$$5. y_i \sim N(\alpha_{j[i]} + \beta_{j[i]} \mathbf{x}_i, \sigma_y^2)$$

207 Where  $y$  represents  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values as a continuous variable and  $x$  represents  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values as a  
208 continuous variable and  $j$  represents the group level predictor, subregion.  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are each  
209 vectors of coefficients that vary by subregion.

#### 210 *Quantifying effects of ocean condition on food web isotope indices*

211 Linear models were used to identify environmental drivers of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values  
212 using a suite of environmental indices as covariates. A total of 42 environmental time series were  
213 compiled as potential predictor variables (*Table S1*) based on previous evidence for food web

214 importance in the northeast Pacific (sensu, Stachura et al. 2014, Di Lorenzo et al. 2008). Each  
215 environmental time series was standardized around a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 and  
216 discharge data was also natural log transformed. We divided these environmental covariates *a*  
217 *priori* into four main mechanistic properties based on the expected effect on nutrient assimilation  
218 into the food web: climate regime, freshwater discharge, circulation (wind and upwelling), and  
219 sea surface temperature (Figure 1). Given the three regions in our analysis, each of these  
220 hypotheses were also divided according to our regional geographic breaks (eastern Bering Sea,  
221 Gulf of Alaska, and Washington). To reduce collinearity between environmental time series and  
222 reduce the total number of candidate models, a subset of 7 environmental times series were  
223 selected for each region based on the temporal overlap with stable isotope data. Each subset  
224 contained at least one time series for each of the four mechanistic properties and all possible  
225 combinations of predictors were tested (*Table S2*). While reduction of the number of times series  
226 provides analytical benefits, it comes at the cost of potentially conservative estimates of which  
227 covariates are important, meaning important components of ocean condition to the food webs  
228 may be missed.

229  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were independently considered as response variables to evaluate  
230 relationships between predictors (environmental indices and location) and stable isotope data  
231 using equation 4 where  $X$  is a matrix of predictors using the 7 standardized environmental time  
232 series (continuous) and subregion (factor) as covariates. We treated carbon and nitrogen isotopes  
233 as response variables separately in linear models, rather than in a combined multivariate model  
234 due to differences in sample size and differences in the strength of correlation between for  
235  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for each subregion. Time series data prior to 1950 and after 2014 was  
236 excluded from this analysis as data for some covariates did not extend beyond 1950. Candidate  
237 models ( $n = 53$ ) were compared using Akaike Information Criteria with a small sample size  
238 correction ( $\text{AIC}_c$ , Akaike 1973) and included all combinations of the environmental indices. In  
239 addition, a subregion factor was included with two levels for Washington (Salish Sea and coastal  
240 Washington) and the Gulf of Alaska (southcentral and southeast) and a null model (intercept  
241 only) was also tested. Tissue turnover time of bone collagen has not been measured in mammals  
242 of this size to our knowledge but is approximately 173 days for birds (Hobson and Clark 1992).  
243 Thus, a lag of one year was applied to the stable isotope datasets to account for the timing of  
244 tissue turnover in bone collagen (additional lags were also considered, see *Appendix S2*). For



245 each model with relatively high support ( $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ ) the  $AIC_c$  weight and the coefficient for each  
246 covariate is reported (Figure 3). To confirm collinearity was not problematic in the candidate  
247 models that included more than one environmental covariate, matrix scatterplots and variance  
248 inflation factors (vif) were used from the car package (Fox and Weisberg 2019) in R (R  
249 Development Core Team, 2020).

### 250 *Gaussian Process Dynamic Factor Analysis (GPDFA)*

251 To further understand how the environment,  $\delta^{13}C$ , and  $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$  values covary through time  
252 in the Northeast Pacific, we developed a novel extension of conventional Dynamic Factor  
253 Analysis (DFA). DFA is a dimension reduction technique that identifies common processes  
254 underlying a set of multivariate time series. This technique has been applied to multivariate time  
255 series problems in fisheries and ecology to identify patterns of oceanographic variability that  
256 drive Pacific salmon stocks (Stachura et al. 2014, Jorgenson et al. 2016, Ohlberger et al. 2016).

257 DFA models identify common trends across multiple time series ("latent trends") and  
258 estimates the importance of that trend for each individual time series as a coefficient ("factor  
259 loading"). The two equations describing DFA take on the following form:

260 6.  $\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{v}_t$ , where  $\mathbf{v}_t \sim \text{MVN}(0, \mathbf{R})$

261 7.  $\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{w}_t$ , where  $\mathbf{w}_t \sim \text{MVN}(0, \mathbf{I})$

262 The observed data  $\mathbf{y}_t$  are modeled as combinations of latent trends  $\mathbf{x}_t$  at time  $t$  (the dimensions of  
263  $\mathbf{x}_t$  matching the number of trends which are also referred to as states) and factor loadings ( $\mathbf{Z}$ ) (a  
264 coefficient for each time series for each trend) at time  $t$ , which are modeled as a random walk  
265 (Zuur et al. 2003). In addition there is an optional random observation error ( $\mathbf{v}_t$ ) and process error  
266 ( $\mathbf{w}_t$ ) which are multivariate normal

267 Our extension of DFA adopts an alternative model of the latent trends, modeling them  
268 with Gaussian Processes rather than random walks (*Appendix 3*). With conventional DFA using  
269 an autoregressive model, long gaps in time series data result in large, overestimations of the  
270 variance of the latent trends. Gaussian Processes model time series as a multivariate normal  
271 distribution, with estimated mean vector  $\mathbf{u}$  and covariance matrix  $\mathbf{\Sigma}$  (Munch et al. 2018). To  
272 constrain the number of estimated parameters, elements of  $\mathbf{\Sigma}$  were modeled with a Gaussian or  
273 squared covariance exponential function such that  $\Sigma_{i,j} = \sigma^2 \exp(- (t_i - t_j)^2 / \theta)$ . In this  
274 parameterization,  $\sigma^2$  controls the variability of the stochastic process,  $\theta$  controls the rate of decay

275 in correlation between time steps, and  $t_i$  and  $t_j$  are the time variables (e.g. years) for locations  $i$   
276 and  $j$ .

277 We considered models with 1- 4 underlying trends. Each trend was modelled separately  
278 (different means) but models with multiple trends to have a shared covariance matrix amongst  
279 trends. The GPDFFA approach was applied to time series from each region and the best model  
280 was selected using leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOIC) from the loo package in R (Vehtari  
281 et al. 2017). The choice of knots affects the degree of smoothness, with more knots creating  
282 more smooth functions. We tested several different numbers of knots and found results to be  
283 qualitatively similar. Similar to the previous analysis, time series data prior to 1948 for  
284 Washington state and prior to 1940 and after 2008 for the Gulf of Alaska was excluded from this  
285 analysis. We fit GPDFFA to data from each region including all of the initial 42 identified  
286 environmental time series for that region (*Table S1*),  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, with location as a  
287 factor. We implemented GPDFFA using the Stan language (Stan Development Team 2019,  
288 Carpenter et al. 2017), and R (R Core Development Team 2019, version 3.6.2) via R package  
289 rstan (Stan Development Team 2019, version 2.21.2). Code to implement GPDFFA is available  
290 here: <https://github.com/mfeddern/CSIA-AA/blob/master/SourceData/Src/Analysis/gpdfa.stan>

## 291 Results

292  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values did not vary by sex ( $p > 0.05$ , Figure 3) or size for the  
293 individuals sampled ( $p > 0.05$ ; *Figure S2*). Spatial variation in harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
294 values were observed on subregional scales.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values were similar for harbor seals in the  
295 northern Gulf of Alaska ( $11.9 \pm 2.9$ , mean  $\pm$  1SD), southeast Gulf of Alaska ( $10.8 \pm 1.7$ ), and  
296 coastal Washington ( $11.3 \pm 1.9$ ). The eastern Bering Sea had significantly higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values  
297 compared to other subregions ( $15.2 \pm 1.8$ ) followed by the Salish Sea ( $12.2 \pm 2.3$ ) which had  
298 similar  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values compared to the northern Gulf of Alaska (Figure 3, *Table S3*).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
299 varied by subregion ( $p < 0.05$ ) with the exception of the Gulf of Alaska, where the northern (-  
300  $14.6 \pm 0.9$ ) and southeast ( $-14.4 \pm 1.1$ ) subregions were not significantly different, and the  
301 eastern Bering Sea ( $-13.4 \pm 0.9$ ) and coastal Washington ( $-13.6 \pm 0.9$ ) were not significantly  
302 different (Figure 3, *Table S4*). The variation between subregions appeared to follow a latitudinal  
303 gradient, where harbor seal mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were most enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$  in the Salish Sea ( $-12.2$   
304  $\pm 1.5$ ), became more depleted from coastal Washington and into the Gulf of Alaska (Table 1).

305 The relationship between harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values also varied on subregional  
306 scales. There was positive linear association between harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the  
307 combined northeast Pacific basin and Bering Sea model with a slope of 0.12 (Figure 4A). For the  
308 hierarchical subregion model, the eastern Bering Sea and coastal Washington demonstrated  
309 similar relationship, with slopes of 0.08 (95% CI [0.05, 0.11]) and 0.07 (95% CI [0.05, 0.09])  
310 respectively. Similarly, harbor seals in both Gulf of Alaska subregions demonstrated comparable  
311 coupling of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , with slopes of 0.13 (95% CI [0.11, 0.14]) for the northern  
312 subregion and 0.12 (95% CI [0.10, 0.14]) for the southeastern subregion. Salish Sea harbor seals  
313 had a distinct relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values relative to other subregions with a  
314 slope of only 0.02 that was not significantly different from 0 (95% CI [0.0, 0.04]) (Figure 4B).

315 For both  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values there was substantial support for models including  
316 environmental indices rather than null or subregion only models. The relationship between  
317 environmental indices and harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values in the northeast Pacific varied on  
318 regional scales. For Washington, the best model to predict harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values included  
319 Columbia River discharge in high flow months, summer upwelling, and subregion. There was  
320 substantial model uncertainty for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values in the Washington region, however 90% of  
321 model weight supported the inclusion of Columbia River discharge (Figure 5A). The model for  
322 harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with the most support indicated a positive association between PDO,  
323 spring upwelling, and freshwater discharge in the Washington region (Figure 5B). In the Gulf of  
324 Alaska, the summer upwelling model had the most support as a predictor of harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$   
325 values with some model support for inclusion of the NPGO (North Pacific Gyre Oscillation),  
326 although the coefficients for this covariate did not differ substantially from 0 (Figure 5C). The  
327 best model for harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for the Gulf of Alaska included subregion, PDO (Pacific  
328 Decadal Oscillation), and NPGO (Figure 5D). In contrast to Washington, the Gulf of Alaska  
329 models supported a negative association between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and PDO. The null model for  
330  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values in the eastern Bering Sea had the most support (Figure 5E). Lack of model support  
331 for environmental covariates in the eastern Bering Sea may have been a result of the small  
332 sample size in the region. Cross-shelf wind was included as a predictor in the best model (Figure  
333 5F) for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the eastern Bering Sea and was supported by 76% of the model weight.

334 PDO and Kuskokwim river discharge during high flow months were found to be highly  
335 collinear (VIF > 10) and PDO was omitted from the candidate model set for the eastern Bering

336 Sea analysis. All other models containing multiple environmental predictors with relative support  
337 had variance inflation factors of less than 2 indicating only moderate collinearity across  
338 covariates. Model residuals for the best models did not show trends through time (*Figure S7*).  
339 This indicates that there were no trends associated with other potential ecosystem changes, such  
340 as harbor seal foraging strategy for example, after accounting for ocean condition. Model results  
341 did not change when using  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data that were not corrected for the regional Seuss Effect.

342 The GPDFA analysis showed temporal synchronies and shared trends across  
343 environmental conditions and stable isotope values in the northeast Pacific. In the Gulf of  
344 Alaska, the data supported three latent trends (*Figure 6*). Both  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values had the  
345 highest loadings for trend 1, which showed an increase starting in 1965 until 1980 followed by  
346 the trend oscillating at approximately 25% above the long-term average. The harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$   
347 values for the southeast subregion, harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, and spring upwelling had negative  
348 loadings on trend 1; loadings of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values were generally weaker relative to loadings of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
349 values. For the other two trends (2-3), loadings were clustered by environmental driver category.  
350 Latent trend 2 oscillated around the long-term average and was uninformative. Trend 3 was  
351 below average starting in 1985 with strong loadings for climate time series, spring and summer  
352 upwelling, and discharge in high flow months (*Figure 6*). Annual discharge, autumn upwelling,  
353 Oceanic Niño Index and Northern Oscillation Index did not demonstrate strong loadings for any  
354 trend. In Washington, there was support for two latent trends. Latent trend 1 shows a rapid  
355 increase in the 1940's to 25% above the long-term mean then a gradual decline until 1986 to  
356 approximately 40% below the long-term mean, with values below the mean starting in 1977  
357 (*Figure 7*). Trend loadings for harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were stronger for coastal seals  
358 and trend 1 had stronger loadings for freshwater discharge than trend 2. Trend 2 had strong  
359 loadings for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for both Salish Sea and coastal Washington harbor seals.  
360 Trend 2 oscillated above and below the long-term mean and had large loadings for sea surface  
361 temperature, summer upwelling, Fraser River discharge and climate indices (*Figure 7*).

## 362 **Discussion**

363 We analyzed bone collagen  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from harbor seal museum  
364 specimens collected between 1928 and 2014 as indices of change in food web assimilated  
365 nitrogen and carbon. Based on previous research (i.e., Graham et al. 2010, Sherwood et al. 2014,  
366 de la Vega et al. 2019, Lorrain et al. 2019, de la Vega et al. 2020), we interpret  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and bulk

367  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values as primarily representing nitrogen and carbon resource utilization, and growth and  
368 community composition of primary producers at the base of the food web. Our data show the  
369 relationship between indices of primary production and nitrogen resources assimilated into food  
370 webs varies regionally across the northeast Pacific. By pairing these data with environmental  
371 time series data, we provide new insights into large scale environmental forcing that impacts the  
372 base of the food web and is transferred to higher trophic levels. Specifically, oceanic conditions  
373 associated with climate regimes and upwelling explain significant temporal variation in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$   
374 and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of coastal predators in northeast Pacific (Figure 5; *Figure S7*). This analysis  
375 demonstrates  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values are useful indicators of resources assimilated by  
376 coastal food webs.

### 377 *Spatial variation in stable isotope indices*

378 The geographically widespread association between harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
379 indicates food web assimilated primary production is coupled with nitrogen resources in most  
380 regions of the northeast Pacific, with the Salish Sea as a notable exception (Figure 4). Short-term  
381 studies in coastal Washington showed phytoplankton respond considerably to nitrogen inputs  
382 and are frequently nitrogen limited (Dortch and Postel 1989, Kudela and Peterson 2009).  
383 Similarly, short term studies of the inner Gulf of Alaska shelf demonstrated primary production  
384 is generally nitrogen limited, and size, growth rates, and community composition are all tightly  
385 coupled with nutrient availability (Strom et al 2006). A significant relationship between bulk  
386  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values was also observed in the tissues of some gorgonian corals over the same  
387 time period in coastal Gulf of Alaska (Williams et al. 2007). Given the evidence of nitrogen  
388 limitations and its relationship with phytoplankton growth and community composition in these  
389 coastal environments, the association between  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values could be the result of  
390 nitrogen limiting growth at the base of the food web. Alternatively, the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  coupling  
391 could be driven by covariance with an untested environmental variable that impacts most of the  
392 northeast Pacific but not the Salish Sea.

393 The coastal Washington and the Salish Sea food webs assimilate different nitrogen and  
394 carbon sources (Figure 5A & B). Salish Sea harbor seals have higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
395 compared to individuals on the outer coast, which is likely due to significant contributions of  
396 intertidal producers and the legacy of anthropogenic N in the Salish Sea food web. Intertidal  
397 macrophytes (seagrass and algae) have similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ( $\sim -10\text{‰}$ ) compared to harbor seals in

398 the Salish Sea, while other potential sources are much lower (i.e., marine derived sources ~ -  
399 20‰, terrestrial derived sources ~ -30‰) (Conway-Cranos et al. 2015, Howe and Simenstad  
400 2015). Incorporation of intertidal producers into the Salish Sea food web explains the difference  
401 in carbon stable isotope signatures between Salish Sea and coastal Washington harbor seals  
402 (~1.4‰, Figure 5A). However, it does not explain the higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values (Figure 5B, Table 1).  
403 Surface nitrate was observed to be 8‰ – 12‰ off the coast of Washington in spring 1993 (Wu et  
404 al. 1997) which was exceeded by harbor seals in both coastal Washington and the Salish Sea  
405 (Table 1). It is likely anthropogenically derived nitrogen sources contribute to the higher  
406 observed  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values both directly and indirectly, particularly in the Salish Sea where harbor  
407 seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values were up to 2.4‰ higher than coastal Washington seals. Wastewater treatment  
408 facilities and agriculture runoff contribute substantial amounts (~32%) of nitrogen in the Salish  
409 Sea (Mohamedali et al. 2011) and are enriched in  $^{15}\text{N}$ . In recent decades, Salish Sea waters have  
410 also been characterized by low dissolved oxygen and hypoxic events (PSEMP 2019) from  
411 human derived nitrogen loading. Anoxic conditions are conducive to denitrification, another  
412 potential indirect source of  $^{15}\text{N}$  from human activities in the region.

#### 413 *Ocean condition and stable isotope indices*

414 Washington state food webs exhibit environmentally induced changes in assimilated  
415 primary production and nitrogen sources. The isotope-ocean condition relationship in the region  
416 can be explained by introduction of terrestrial derived nutrients and climatically induced changes  
417 in phytoplankton community structure observed in previous studies (Du et al. 2015, Du and  
418 Peterson 2014, Kudela et al. 2008). For example, the PDO has been associated with  
419 phytoplankton community shifts between dinoflagellates and diatoms in the northern California  
420 Current (Du et al. 2015). Similarly, the phytoplankton community composition is distinct in the  
421 early (spring) upwelling season compared to the late (summer) upwelling season (Du and  
422 Peterson 2014). This could explain the inversely related associations between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and  
423 summer and spring upwelling (Figure 5B). Shifts in phytoplankton community structure are  
424 therefore a mechanism to explain the relationship between harbor seal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and ocean  
425 condition. In addition, freshwater discharge explains 16% of variation observed in both  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$   
426 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in Washington. The Columbia River Plume introduces terrestrial derived  
427 nutrients, including nitrogen, and has been associated with increased primary production and fish  
428 production (Kudela et al. 2008, Ware and Thomson 2005). The covariation between  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ,

429  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , and discharge indicates isotopically distinct nitrogen resources introduced by freshwater  
430 discharge alters primary production which is then assimilated into the Washington food web, and  
431 ultimately harbor seals.

432 In the eastern Bering Sea, our results suggest ice-born algae and  $^{15}\text{N}$  enriched nitrogen  
433 from the inner shelf are important for supporting the coastal food web. Recent evidence supports  
434 that consumer  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values reflect nitrate  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in the arctic (de la Vega et al. 2020).  
435 However, our  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values from harbor seals of the eastern Bering Sea were high relative to  
436 previous studies of summer nitrate (5 to 9‰, Lehmann et al. 2005) and plankton nitrogen isotope  
437 signatures (6-12‰, Smith et al. 2002) from the outer and mid Bering Sea shelf. Morales et al.  
438 (2014) subsequently found the stable isotope composition of nitrogen in diatoms ranged from 5-  
439 21‰ in late winter and early spring. These values also increased in association to sea ice with a  
440 positive shoreward gradient (Morales et al. 2014). The range of sea-ice algae  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values  
441 observed by Morales et al. (2014) are consistent with our observed  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values in harbor seals  
442 (Table 1). Furthermore, the harbor seals in this study were located near the inner shelf in an area  
443 that has been partially covered by sea ice from January to May during the past century (Stabeno  
444 et al. 2007). Together this indicates ice algae as a significant contributor to the coastal food web.  
445 The disconnect between the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of offshore nitrate (Lehmann et al. 2005) and harbor  
446 seals also highlights the problem in assuming spatially and temporally discrete nitrate or  
447 phytoplankton measurements are representative of resources utilized by, and assimilated into,  
448 coastal food webs. Consumer  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  measurements by their nature represent the N assimilated  
449 into the food web and integrated over relatively long time scales, while discrete measurements of  
450 nitrate may be spatially or temporally biased.

451 A short term (1998-2011) study of abiotic drivers in the Gulf of Alaska found  
452 chlorophyll-a anomalies were positive when downwelling favorable winds were low and had a  
453 negative relationship with sea level (Waite and Mueter 2013). Similarly, Espinasse et al. (2020)  
454 found chlorophyll-a, SST, and sea level anomalies were the best predictors of carbon and  
455 nitrogen isotope data for secondary consumers over the past two decades. Our results agree with  
456 these studies as NPGO (an index of sea level) is negatively associated with both harbor seal  
457  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  (Figure 5C) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Figure 5D) in the Gulf of Alaska. Similarly, summer  
458 upwelling is positively associated with our  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values (Figure 5C). Based on our results,  
459 these environmentally induced changes represent long-term ecosystem dynamics that extend

460 beyond merely the base of the food web and ultimately impact resources assimilated by top  
461 predators. In addition, regional climate indices characterize nutrient and primary production  
462 assimilated annually into the food web better than sea surface temperature data alone. It is  
463 possible that other untested abiotic factors such as cross-shelf exchanges via eddy propagation or  
464 local wind stress (Waite and Mueter 2013) may be important to food web assimilated nitrogen  
465 and primary production in the Gulf of Alaska. Regardless, local variability in upwelling and  
466 basin scale indices of sea surface height and temperature (i.e., NPGO) ultimately determine  
467 resource assimilation in Gulf of Alaska food web in which harbor seals forage.

468 By comparing consumer stable isotope values against environmental covariates across  
469 multiple sub basins we show environmental forcing on coastal food webs is regionally distinct.  
470 For example, climate indices (i.e., PDO) in the Gulf of Alaska were inversely associated with  
471 food web-assimilated primary production (Figure 5D, Figure 6 Trend 1-2) and positively  
472 associated in Washington (Figure 5B, Figure 7 Trends 1-2). This agrees with previous studies  
473 where the Pacific Decadal Oscillation has been associated with alternating salmon production in  
474 the northeast Pacific (Mantua et al. 1997, Mantua and Hare 2002). In cool phase years (i.e.,  
475 1947-1977), Washington stocks experience above average production and Alaska stocks  
476 experience below average production. Our results show that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for Washington and  
477 Gulf of Alaska also indicate alternating primary production between the two regions in  
478 association with PDO. Surprisingly,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values are higher in cool phase years for the Gulf of  
479 Alaska (Figure 5D) and lower in cool phase years for Washington (Figure 5B). This suggests  
480 there is lower phytoplankton growth in Washington and higher in Gulf of Alaska in cool phase  
481 years. This is contrary to results of previous studies, assuming 1) higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values represent  
482 higher growth rates and 2) PDO is inhibiting growth at the base of the food web and indirectly  
483 constraining higher trophic levels such as salmon (Mantua et al. 1997, Mantua and Hare 2002). It  
484 is likely the relationship between PDO, salmon production, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of harbor seals is  
485 instead caused by phytoplankton community structure constraining higher trophic levels rather  
486 than growth.

487 Common temporal trends in harbor seal stable isotopes and ocean condition empirically  
488 derived from the GPDFA analysis (Figures 6 & 7) show changes in biogeochemical cycling and  
489 food web-assimilated production in recent decades that are associated with climatic variables.  
490 Since 1975, shared trends in environmental time series and stable isotope data in the Gulf of



491 Alaska are above average for temperature, discharge, and NPGO and below average for  
492 assimilated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (as indicated by its negative loadings; Figure 6). Trends 2 and 3 in the  
493 Gulf of Alaska (Figure 6) show a distinct change in environmental indices starting in 1988.  
494 Loadings on these trends were higher for environmental indices than stable isotope data,  
495 suggesting a decoupling of environment-food web relationship in the region starting around  
496 1988, which has also been observed between climate regimes and fish species (Litzow et al.  
497 2020). This environmental-food web decoupling was not observed in Washington (Figure 7) in  
498 our study or others (Litzow 2020).

#### 499 *Using stable isotopes as food web indicators*

500 Previous research has shown lower trophic levels are sensitive to environmental variation  
501 in bottom-up drivers of productivity (sensu, Ware and Thompson 2005, Frank et al. 2015,  
502 Jennings and Brander 2010), but few studies have demonstrated how the impact of these changes  
503 span entire food webs on long time scales. By applying CSSIA to museum specimens of a  
504 generalist predators, we provide a novel piece of the ecological puzzle not previously available.  
505 First, these data provide a measure of changing nitrogen resources and phytoplankton dynamics  
506 that are spatially and temporally integrated for food web resource assimilation, rather than  
507 measuring the availability of inorganic nutrients or lower trophic level biomass and assuming an  
508 associated food web response. Dominant species of marine zooplankton exhibit selective  
509 foraging, particularly when resources are highly available (Meunier et al. 2015, Bi and Sommer  
510 2020, Jungbluth et al. 2017, Boersma et al. 2015) thus discrete measures of resources are not  
511 necessarily representative of what is utilized by the food web. Second, studies directly measuring  
512 primary production are often temporally limited to short time scales and recent decades. CSSIA  
513 of historic specimens allows for retrospective analyses that span long time scales (Mathews and  
514 Ferguson 2014, McMahon et al. 2015, McMahon et al. 2019, Sherwood et al. 2011) and thus  
515 identify long-term environmental forcing on food webs.

516 Despite these benefits, CSSIA (and stable isotope analysis data more generally) is limited  
517 in its ability to discern different mechanistic processes for isotopic enrichment in observational  
518 studies. Multiple mechanisms of fractionation often operate in tandem (Figure 1) and can be both  
519 additive and subtractive. For example, both the isotopic composition of dissolved inorganic  
520 nitrogen sources (primarily  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , but also urea and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) and the relative uptake of these  
521 sources impact the isotopic composition of nitrogen in primary producers (Graham et al. 2010,

522 Ohkouchi et al. 2017). As a result, these data on their own are limited in their ability to track  
523 exact mechanisms of fractionation and specific biogeochemical changes through time or space.  
524 Regardless, stable isotope signatures of nitrogen from source amino acids and bulk carbon can be  
525 used to trace variations in nitrogen sources at the base of the food web (i.e., Sherwood et al.  
526 2014, de la Vega et al. 2020) and changes in phytoplankton dynamics (i.e., production; de la  
527 Vega et al. 2019, Lorrain et al. 2019) broadly. In addition, CSSIA of carbon is also emerging as  
528 reliable proxy for phytoplankton community composition (McMahon et al. 2015, Larsen et al.  
529 2013). We also assume a constant and small trophic enrichment factor for both bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
530  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values. While trophic enrichment in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  values is minimal (Hobson et al.  
531 1996, Bocherens and Drucker 2003, Germain et al. 2013, Ohkouchi et al. 2017), and thus  
532 unlikely to impact overall correlations between datasets, it can produce enriched absolute isotope  
533 values and increased variation between observations (Nielsen et al. 2015), which was not  
534 accounted for in this study. Nonetheless, ours is among a number of supporting studies that show  
535 food webs are impacted by changing environmental conditions in the northeast Pacific  
536 (Cunningham et al. 2018, Puerta et al. 2019, Stachura et al. 2014).

537 Climate change will alter nutrient distributions and primary production throughout the  
538 worlds' oceans (Marinov et al. 2010, Kwiatkowski et al. 2017). Based on analysis of historical  
539 patterns of consumer isotopic variation with environmental forcing, we anticipate there will be  
540 region-specific spatial variability in how primary production and its dependent food webs  
541 respond to environmental change throughout the northeast Pacific over the next century. As  
542 environmental conditions (i.e., sea surface temperature, discharge, anthropogenic nitrogen)  
543 continue to change, so will resources available to and assimilated by food webs. Given both  
544 resource availability and community composition of resources impact the function and stability  
545 of food webs (Narwani and Mazumder 2012) it is likely that ecosystem interactions will change  
546 in response to environmentally induced shifts in resources. Understanding dynamics influencing  
547 food web responses to their environment is important, as it provides information useful for  
548 predicting climate change impacts to aquatic resources and the communities and economies that  
549 depend on them.

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568 **Tables**

569 **Table 1:** Range of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values observed in harbor seals for each of the five northeast  
 570 Pacific subregions.

	$\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
Coastal WA	6.0 – 15.8	-15.6 – -11.8
Salish Sea	5.9 – 18.2	-16.6 – -6.8
Northern Gulf of Alaska	6.2 – 21.5	-16.7 – -12.5
Southeast Gulf of Alaska	8.0 – 15.2	-17.3 – -12.1
Eastern Bering Sea	12.4 – 18.9	-15.0 – -12.1

571

572

573 **Figures**

574 **Figure 1:** Mechanisms of environmentally induced changes in resources (A-D) assimilated into  
 575 stable isotope ratios of primary producers (1-2), which are conserved when assimilated into  
 576 higher trophic levels in the food web (3).

577

578 **Figure 2:** Spatial and temporal distributions of northeast Pacific harbor seal specimens by  
 579 subregion analyzed for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values. Subplot colors correspond to map locations  
 580 and x-axis (years) is the same for each subplot.

581

582 **Figure 3:** Variability in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values based on sub region and sex. \* denotes a  
 583 significant difference in isotopic signature between males and females for that region (colors  
 584 correspond to Figure 2).

585

586 **Figure 4:** Relationship between nitrogen sources ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ) and primary production ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ )  
 587 assimilated into the food web for **A.** a single linear model for the combined data across the  
 588 northeast Pacific and eastern Bering Sea and **B.** a mixed effects model with random slope and  
 589 intercept by sub region (colors correspond to Figure 2).

590

591 **Figure 5:** Coefficients of environmental covariates for models with relative support ( $\Delta\text{AIC}_c < 2$ )  
 592 for harbor seal  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in three regions of the northeast Pacific: Washington,

593 Gulf of Alaska, and the eastern Bering Sea. Color indicates model support based on AIC<sub>c</sub> weight,  
 594 points are the coefficient estimates for each environmental covariate included in an individual  
 595 model, and bars show two standard deviations from the coefficient estimate.

596  
 597 **Figure 6:** Common trends in environmental condition and food web assimilated stable isotope  
 598 values for the regional Gulf of Alaska gaussian-dynamic factor analysis model. The solid lines  
 599 represent the modelled trends, where 0 is the long-term average and 1 and -1 represent the  
 600 maximum and minimum possible values respectively; the dash line is the 90% credible interval.  
 601 Factor loadings can be interpreted as coefficients, representing the strength of association  
 602 between the modelled trend and each observed environmental time series (colors represent *a*  
 603 *priori* driver category). Values close to 0 mean the observed time series did not correlate to the  
 604 corresponding trend, while values close to 1 show the observed time series closely matched the  
 605 modelled trend. Negative loadings indicate an inverse relationship between the observed time  
 606 series and modelled trend. Stable isotope times series are modelled separately for the northern  
 607 (N.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ; N.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and southeast (S.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ; S.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) subregions.

608  
 609 **Figure 7:** Common trends in environmental condition and food web assimilated stable isotope  
 610 values for the regional Washington gaussian-dynamic factor analysis model. Stable isotope times  
 611 series are modelled separately for the coastal (C.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ; C.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and Salish Sea (S.S.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Phe}}$ ;  
 612 S.S.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) subregions. See Figure 6 caption for further interpretation.

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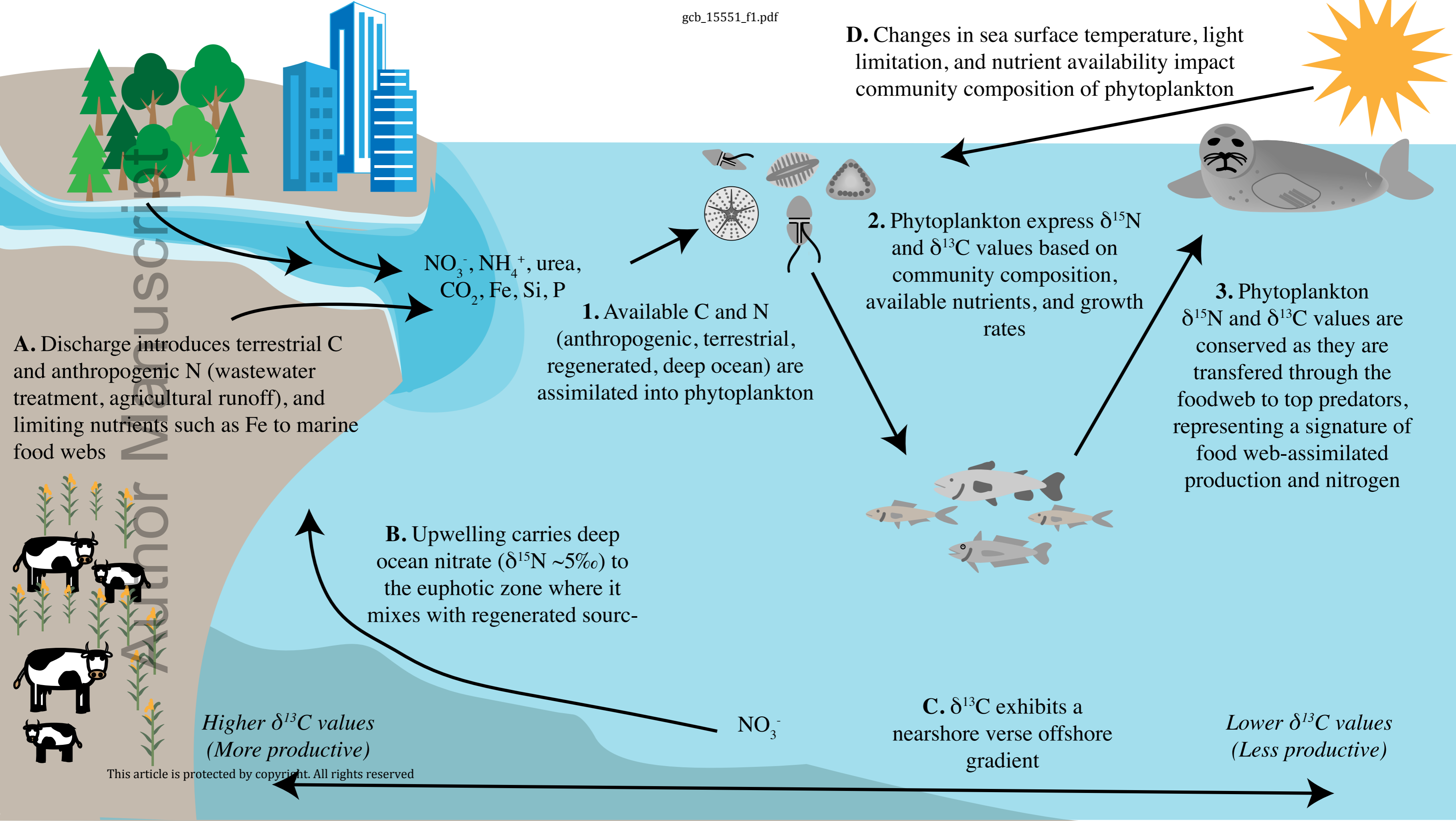
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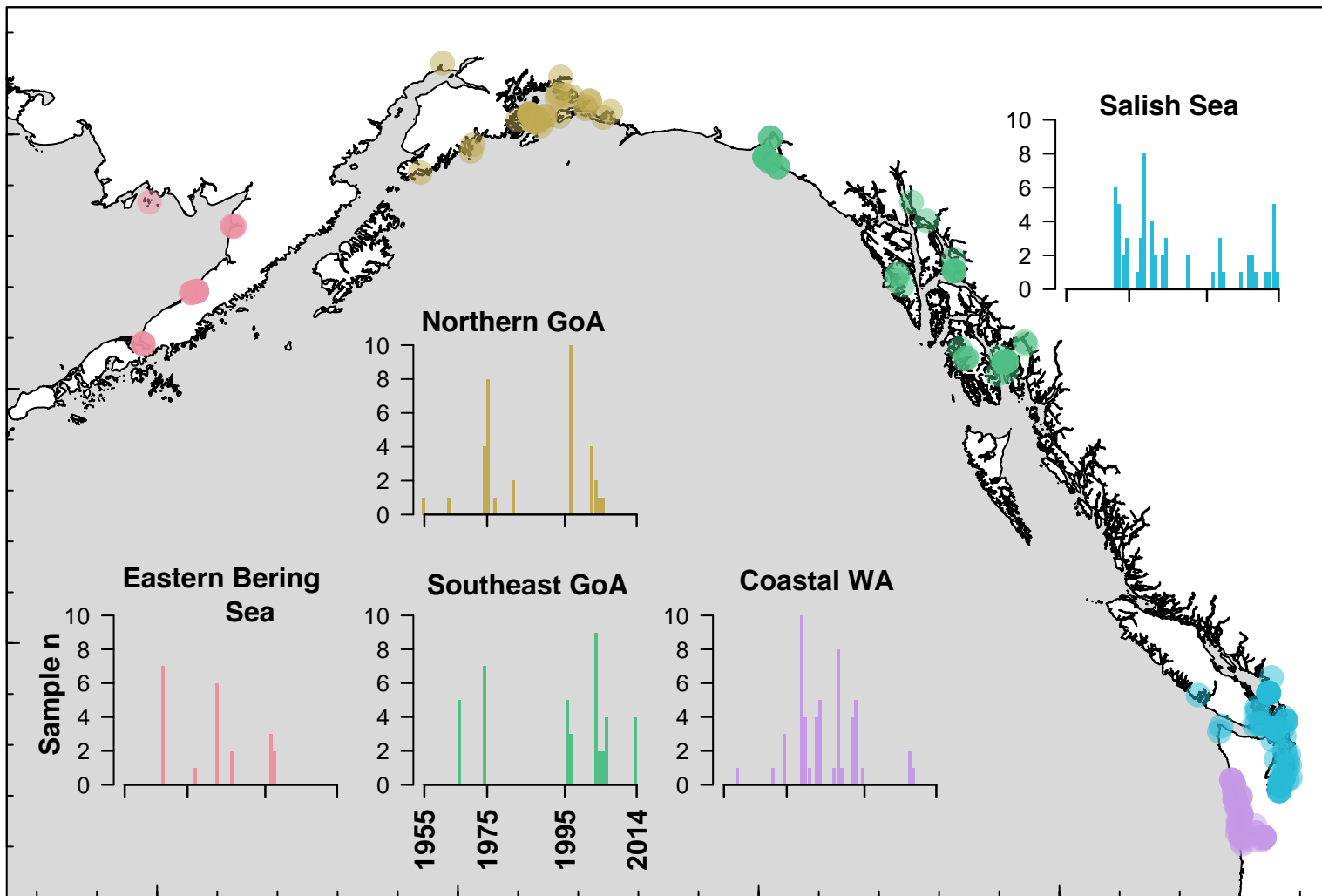
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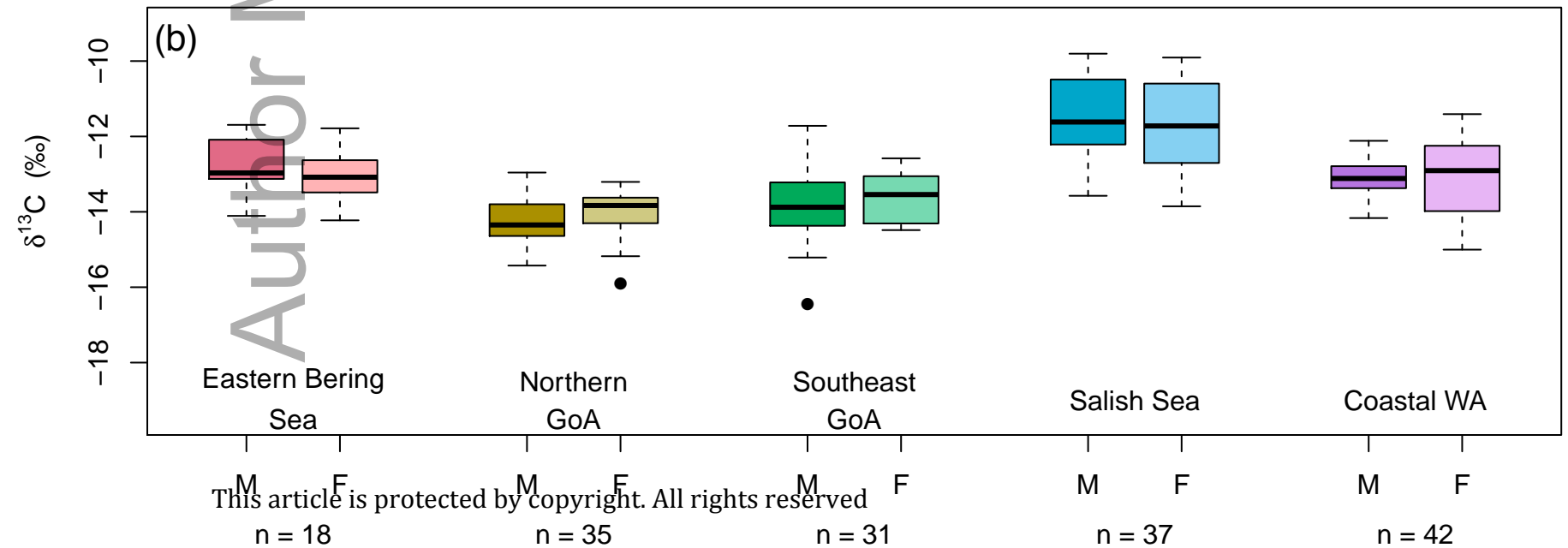
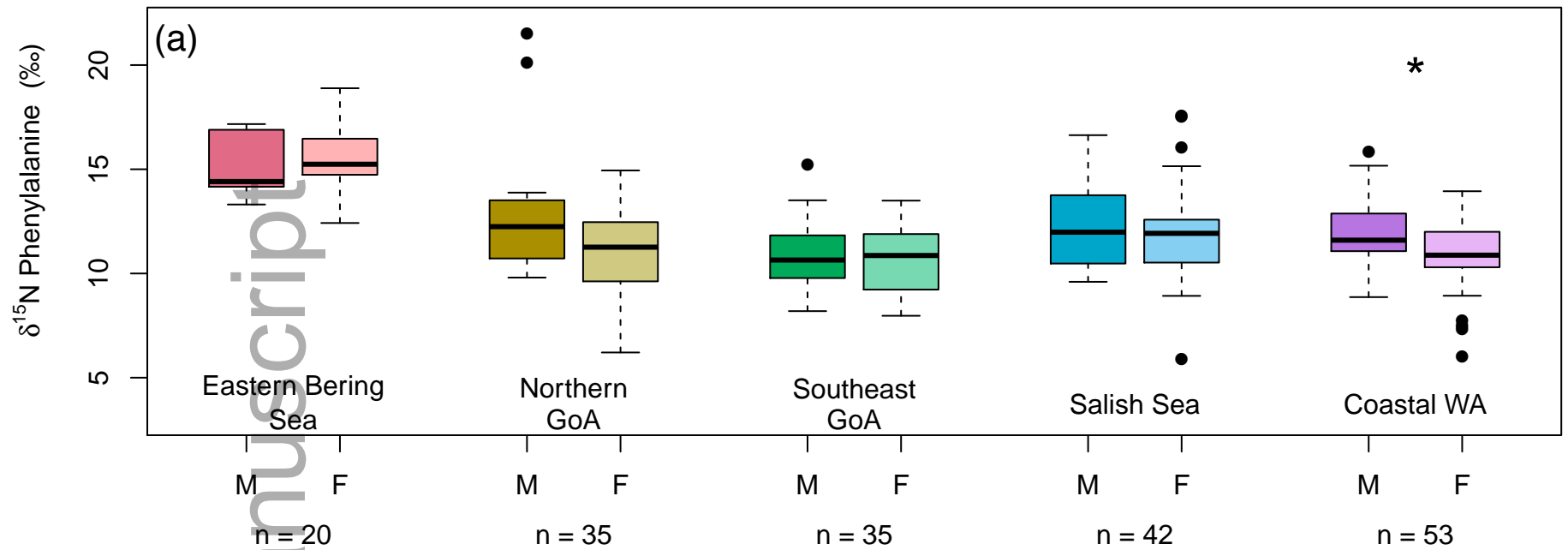
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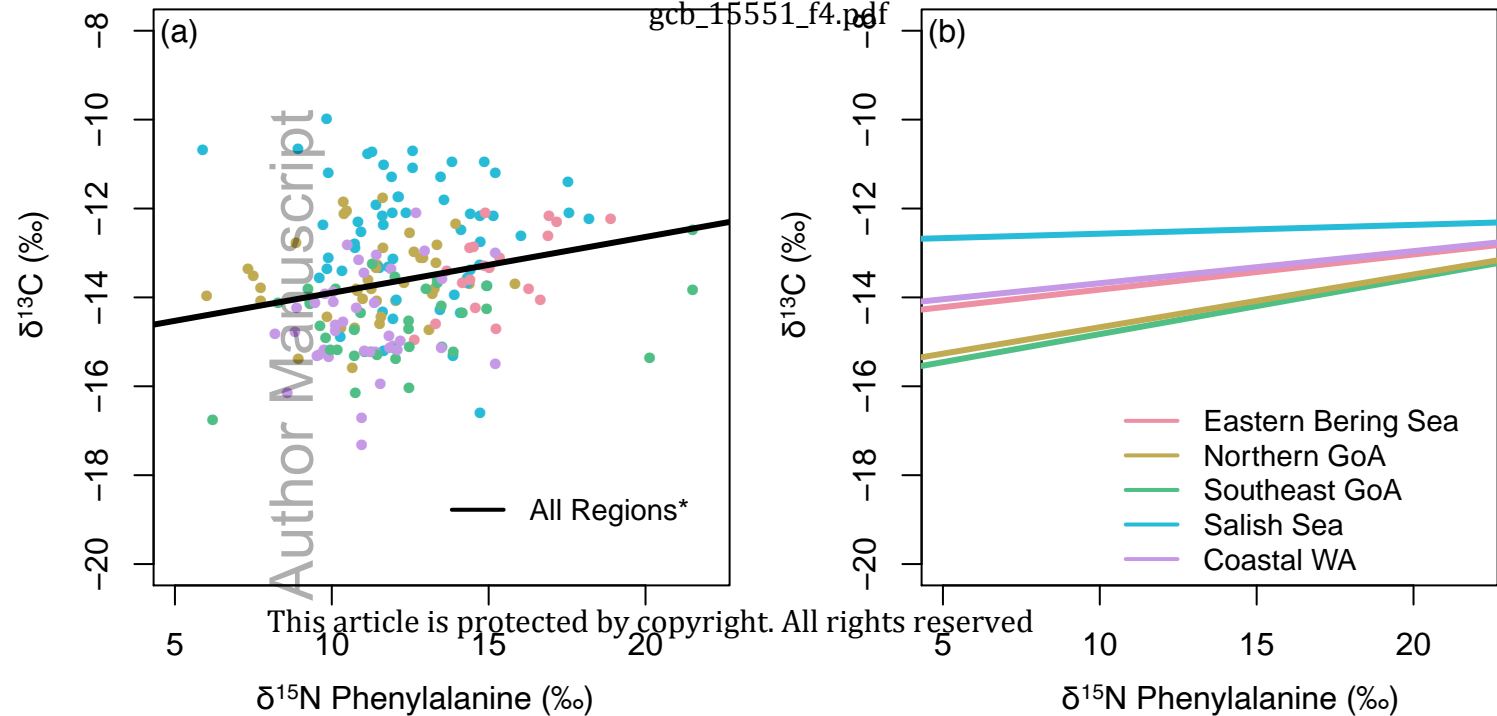
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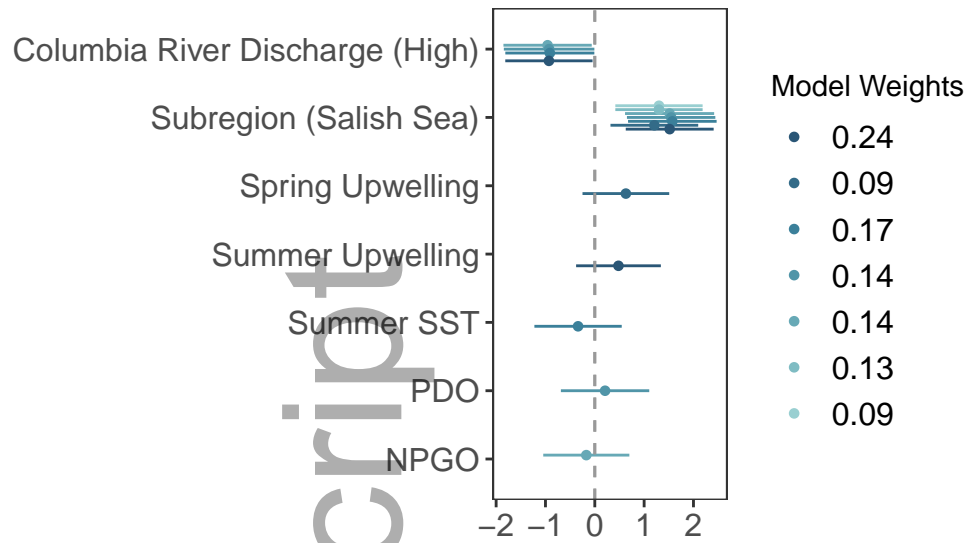




(a)

 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  Phenylalanine

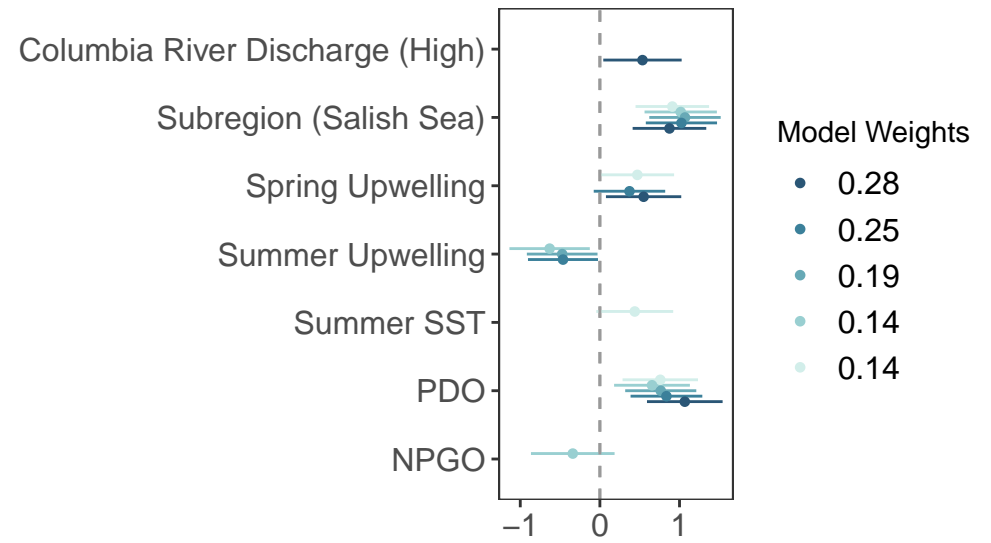
Washington (n=105)



(b)

 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ 

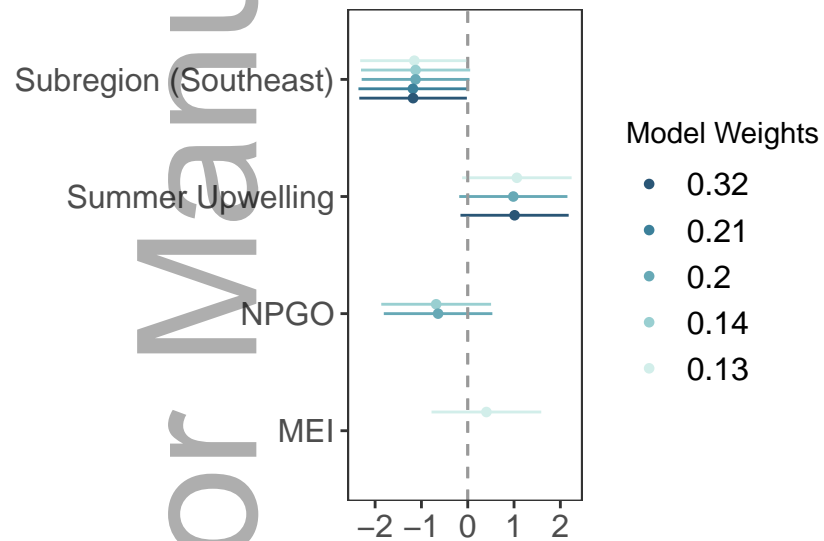
Washington (n=124)



(c)

 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  Phenylalanine

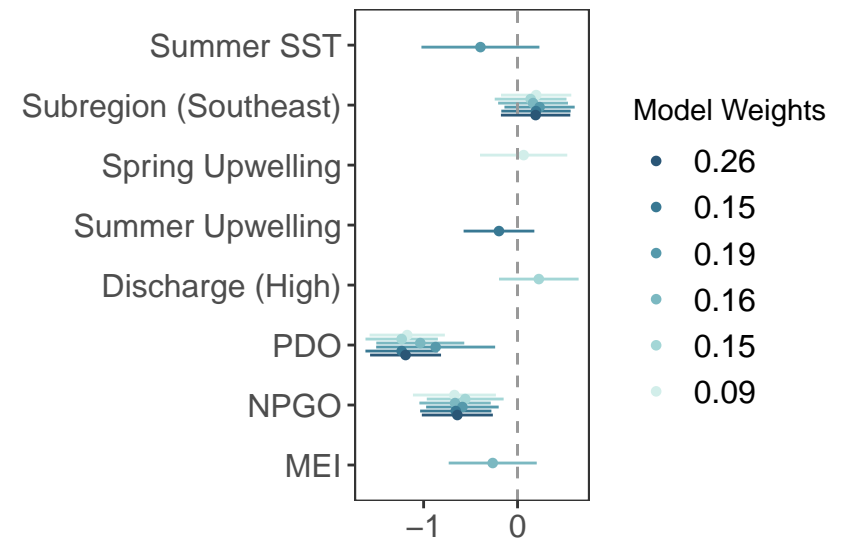
Gulf of Alaska (n=76)



(d)

 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ 

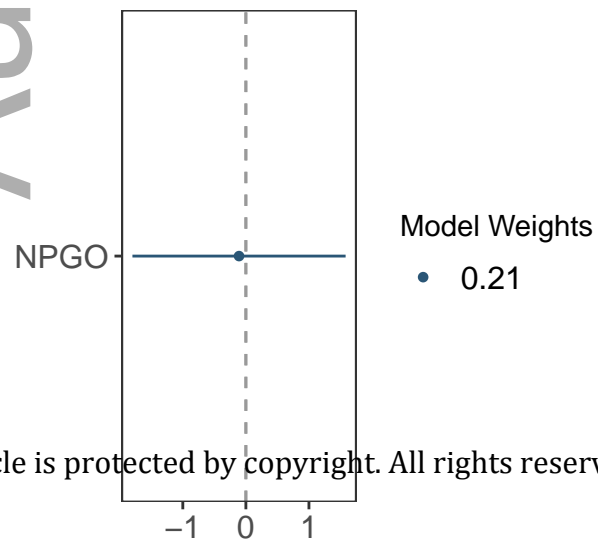
Gulf of Alaska (n=76)



(e)

 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  Phenylalanine

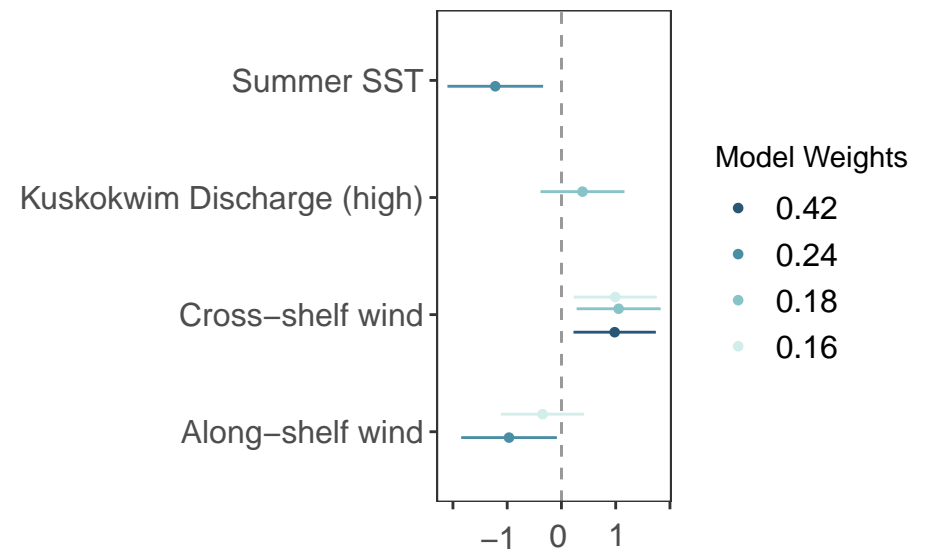
Eastern Bering Sea (n=19)

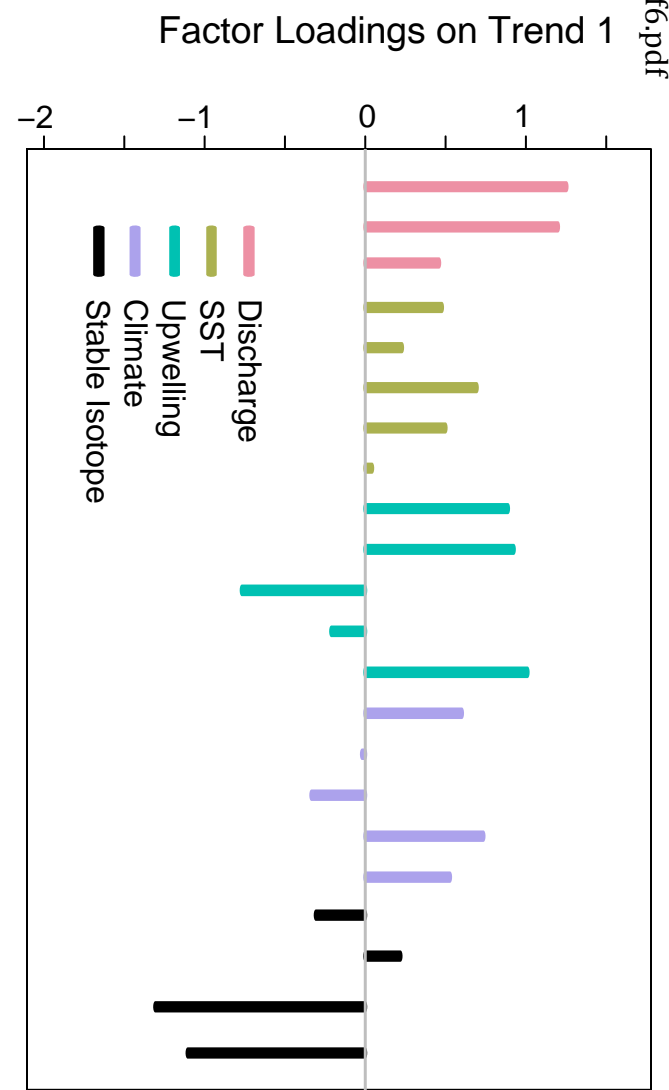
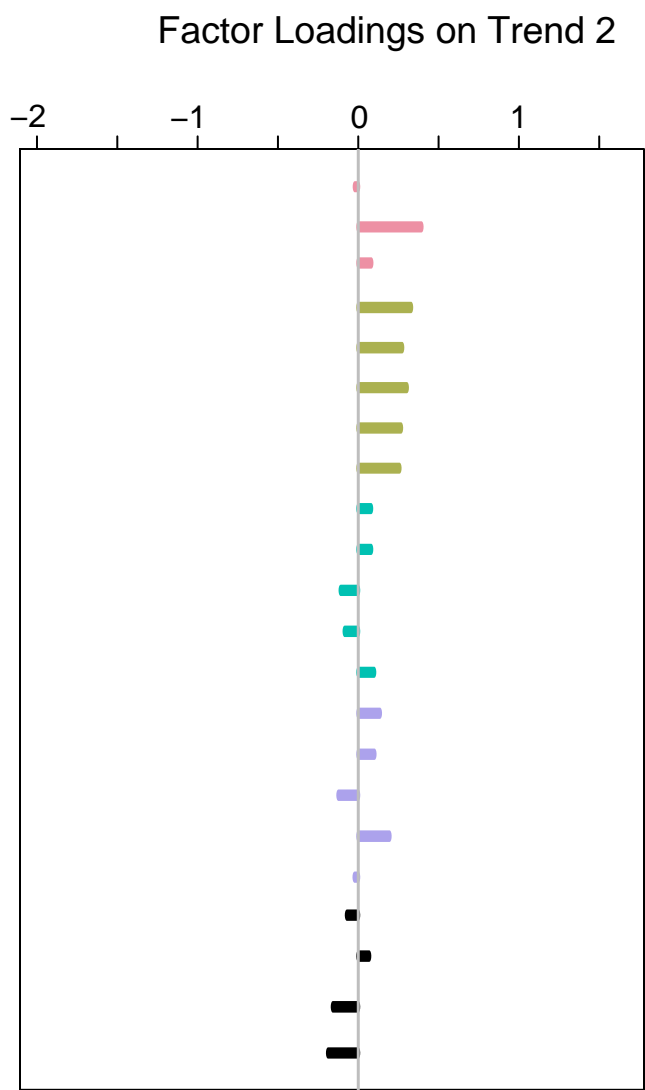
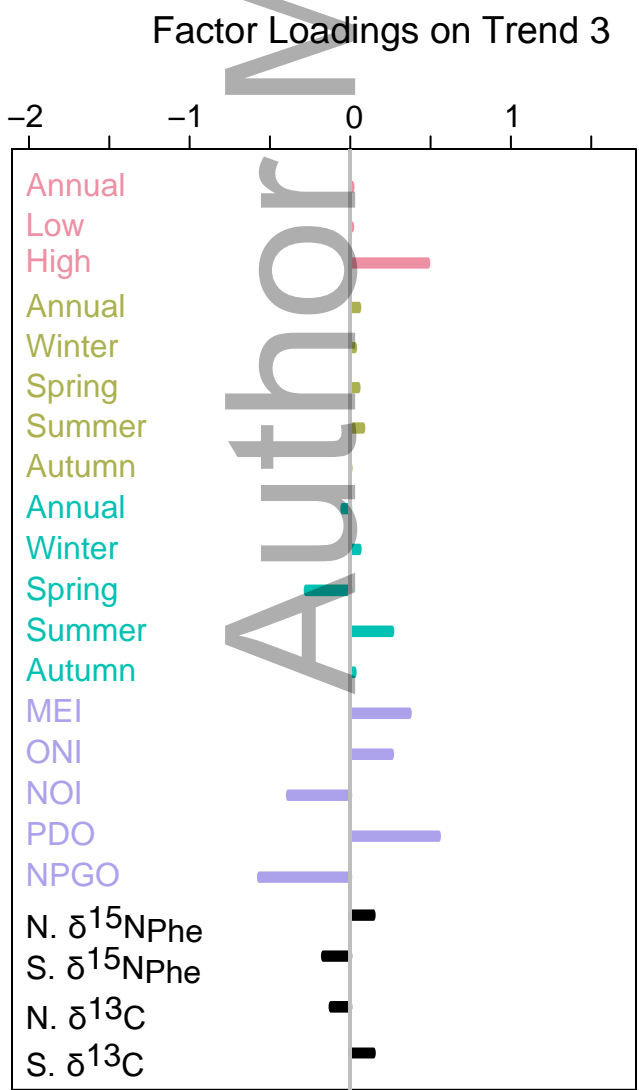
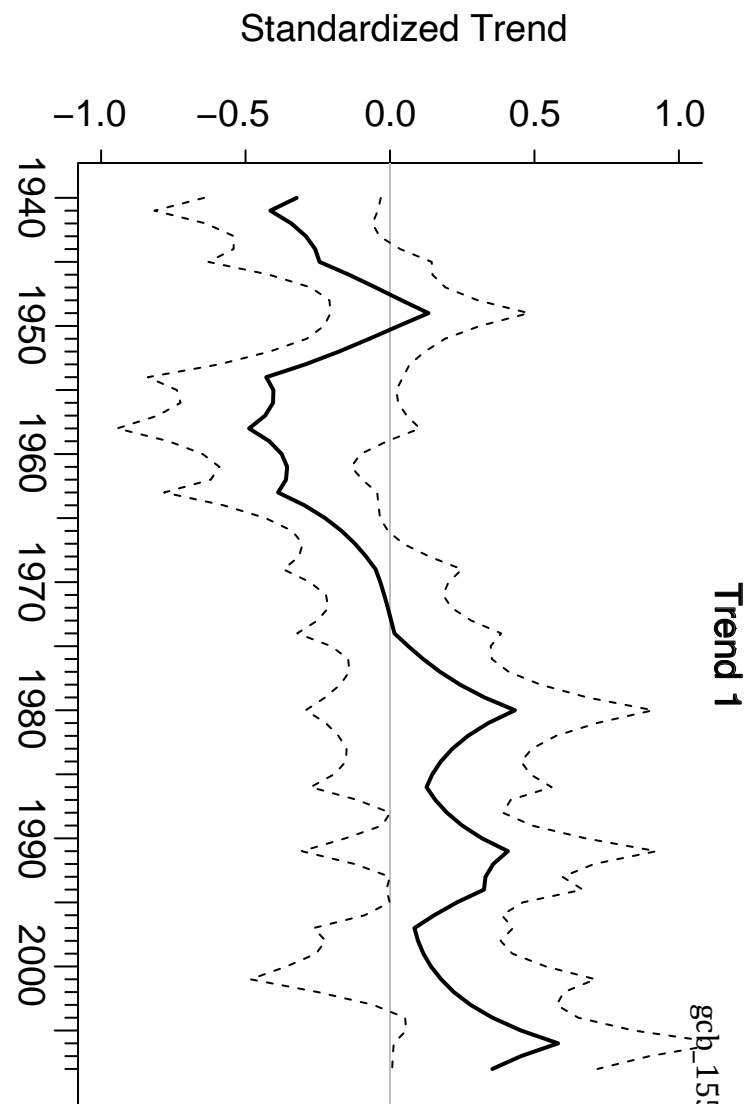
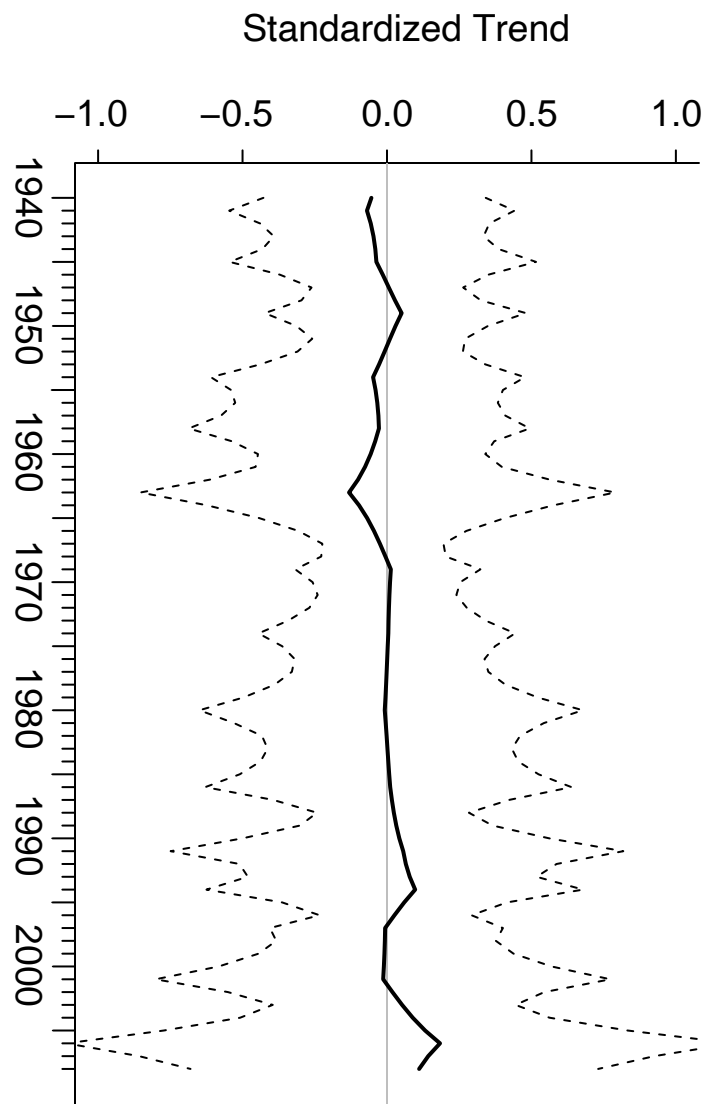
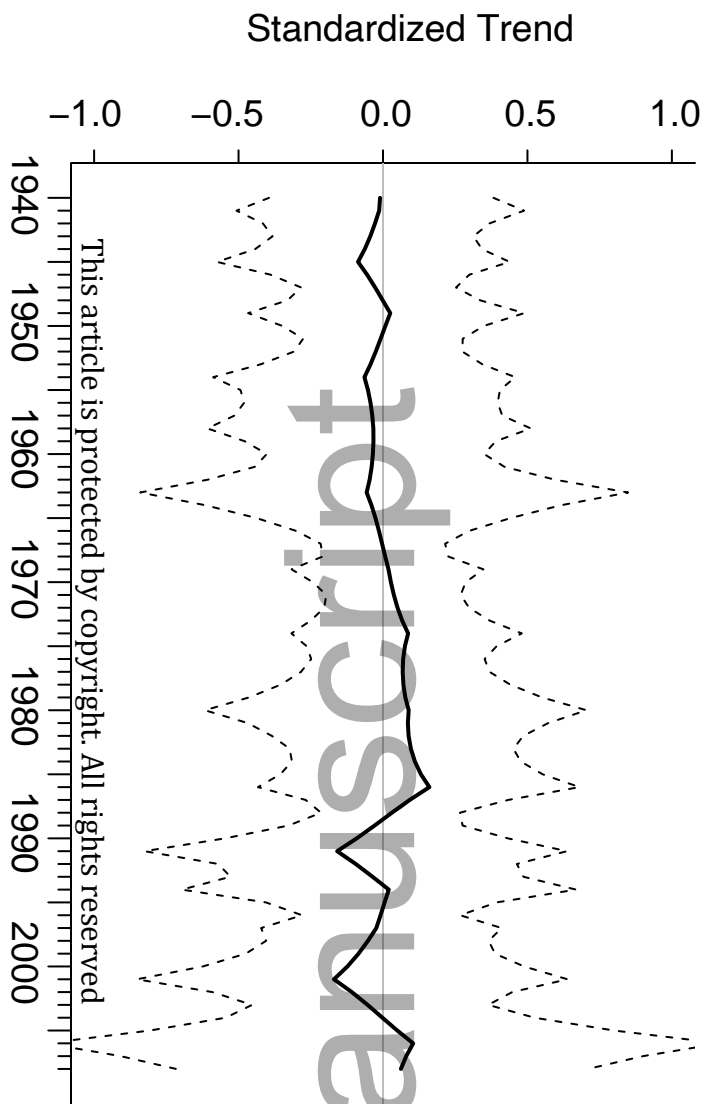


(f)

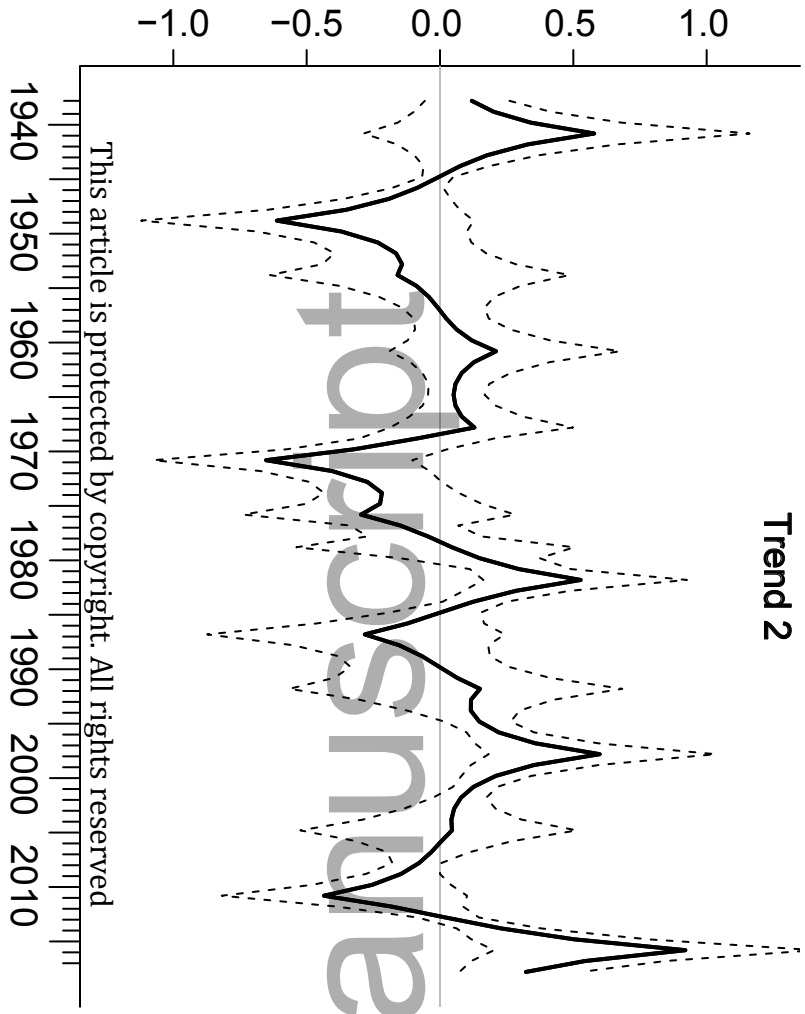
 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ 

Eastern Bering Sea (n=21)

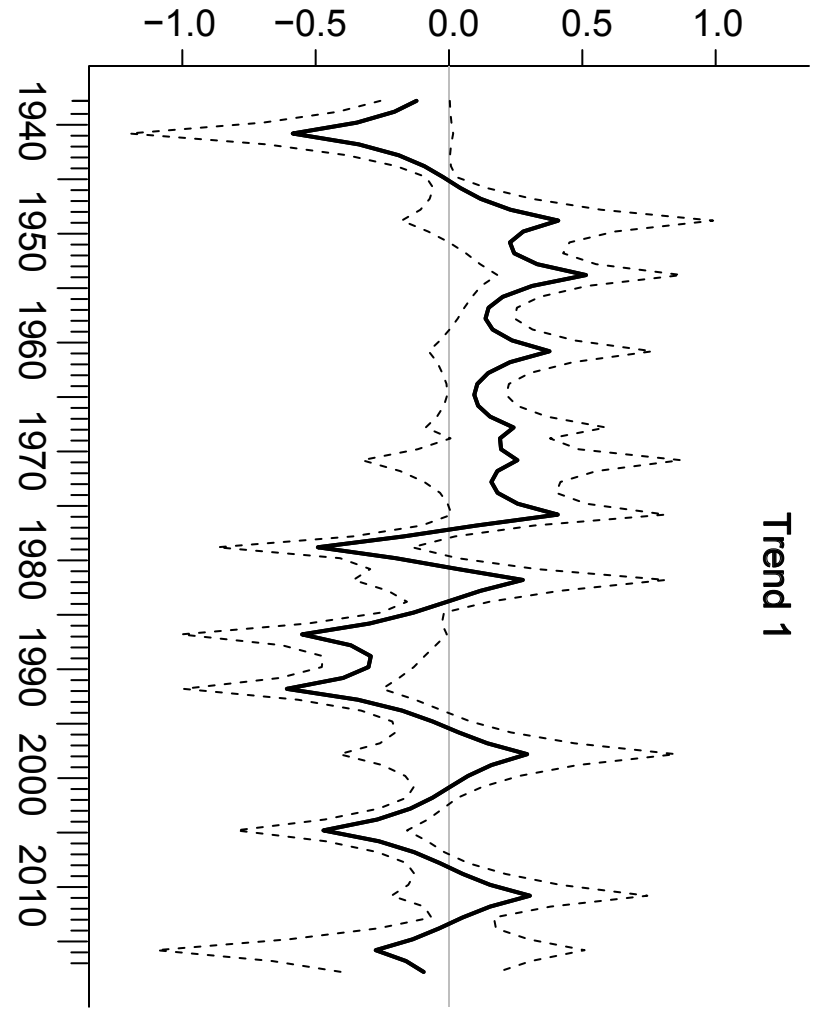




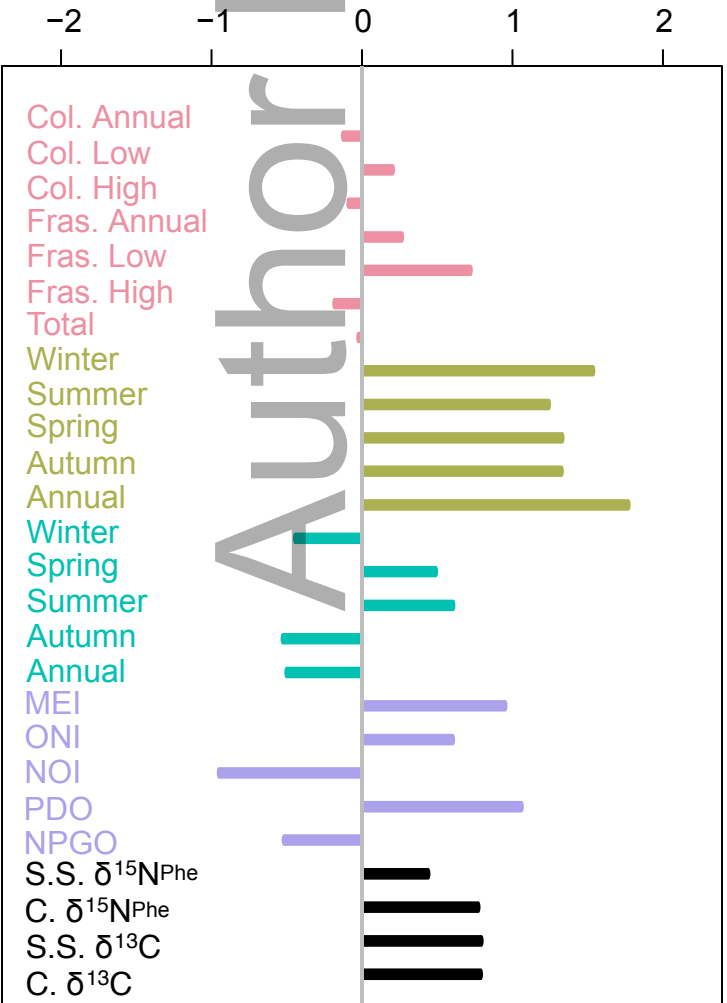
Standardized Trend



Standardized Trend



Factor Loadings on Trend 2



Factor Loadings on Trend 1

