Undetected blooms in Prince William Sound: 1 using multiple techniques to elucidate the base of the 2 summer food web 3 4 Allison S. McInnes^{1,4*}, Clifton C. Nunnally^{1,3}, Gilbert T. Rowe^{1,2}, 5 Randall W. Davis², Antonietta Quigg^{1,2} 6 7 8 9 ¹Department of Oceanography, Texas A&M University, 3146 TAMU, College Station, Texas 10 11 77843, USA ²Department of Marine Biology Texas A&M University at Galveston, 200 Seawolf Parkway, 12 Galveston, Texas, 77553, USA 13 ³ Present address: Department of Oceanography, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822, 14 15 **USA** ⁴ Previous address: University of Western Australia, Oceans Institute (M470), Crawley, WA, 16 17 6009, Australia 18 19 * Author for correspondence: Email: allison.mcinnes@uts.edu.au; Tel: +61 0449 060 545; 20 Faculty of Science, PO Box 123 Broadway, NSW 2007, Australia 21 22 Key Words: Prince William Sound, Noctiluca sp., HPLC, bloom, phytoplankton, food web

Abstract

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Prince William Sound supports many commercially and culturally important species. The phytoplankton community dynamics which support and sustain the high biomass and diversity of this ecosystem are largely unknown. The aim of this study was to describe the phytoplankton community composition during the summer, the time at which this system supports many additional migrants and commercially important fisheries. Phytoplankton community composition (pigments), dissolved nutrients, secchi depth, total and particulate organic carbon and nitrogen, and export to deep water were measured during the summers of 2008-2010. In addition, natural abundance stable isotopes (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of particulate organic matter (POM) and faunal samples were measured in 2010. Analysis of the phytoplankton community composition using multivariate statistics showed that changes over the summer were driven by changes in proportion of the dominant groups: diatoms, dinoflagellates, cyanobacteria, cryptophytes, chlorophytes and prasinophytes. These changes were driven by changes in nutrients including an organic nitrogen source, phosphate, and silica and correspond to shifts in particulate concentrations. A consistent pattern was observed each year: a large *Noctiluca* sp. bloom in June concurrent with low nutrients, low diversity, and high POC concentrations was followed by a shift in the phytoplankton community to a more diverse smaller size class community in July and equilibrating in August. This annual summer bloom could be an important contributor to the energy and nutrient inputs at the base of the regional marine food web.

Introduction

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Prince William Sound (PWS), Alaska, has many commercially important fisheries (including five species of salmon, Pacific halibut, Pacific cod and many shellfish species), abundant marine mammal populations (including humpback, sei, fin, minke, and killer whales, sea otters, harbor seals, and Steller sea lions), and a high diversity of birds (220 species); (Alaska Department of Fish and Game). The biological base supporting these populations is not completely understood. While it has been well documented that fisheries yields are tied to primary productivity on regional and global scales (Chassot et al. 2010; Ware and Thomson 2005; Chassot et al. 2007), few studies have looked at the phytoplankton dynamics in this region. Nutrient and plankton dynamics are tightly coupled to the physical conditions in PWS (Eslinger et al. 2001; Childers 2005; Quigg et al. 2013), which is downwelling dominated (Childers 2005). The system is well mixed in the fall and winter, replenishing the surface water with nutrients. The water column begins to stratify in the spring from inflow of freshwater and surface warming. Short, intense spring blooms occur during calmer spring seasons, while stormier years lead to increased mixing and delayed stratification, resulting in a longer, less intense bloom, with the majority of the primary production transferred up the food chain (Eslinger et al. 2001). Phytoplankton biomass in Simpson Bay, one of the fjords on the southeastern side of PWS, ranges from 0.5-12 µg L⁻¹ during the summer and is co-limited by N and P or N and Si (Quigg et al. 2013). While understanding of the autotrophic group dynamic as a whole is imperative, phytoplankton communities are composed of a wide range of functional groups and size classes; the composition of which is determined by bottom-up (nutrient availability and light) and top-down (grazing pressures) controls. Because phytoplankton range over 10 orders of magnitude in volume (Irwin et al. 2006) the composition of this dynamic group at the base of the food web determines the quantity energy flow within the ecosystem. Beyond the amount of production available to a system, phytoplankton (through community composition) determine: length of food web, transfer efficiency, and interconnectivity/resilience (Finkel 2007). There exists a strong relationship between taxonomic class of phytoplankton and size (Irwin et al. 2006). Taxonomic groups can be identified by their accessory pigment composition (Table 1; Jeffrey et al. 1997). This has been used as a mechanism for understanding of the phytoplankton community composition and ecology through analysis of marker pigments (e.g., Aiken et al. 2009; Dorado et al. 2012).

This study investigated the summer phytoplankton community composition and production in an effort to understand the base of the food web which supports the high biological productivity in this system beyond the spring bloom. We hypothesized that more production occurs more in this region than is estimated using chlorophyll a alone. We determined the variability in the phytoplankton community (using 17 pigments as biomarkers), dissolved nutrients, secchi depth, total and particulate organic carbon and nitrogen (POC/N), and export (total particulate reaching 20 m and 40 m) in the summers of 2008-2010, plus particulate organic matter (POM) and faunal samples for stable isotope (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) analysis in 2010. By using a multifaceted approach we were able to detect increases in biomass that were previously missed using chlorophyll a measurements alone. Methods Study Area Simpson Bay is a shallow fjord in eastern PWS that consists of three distinct basins (Fig. 1) based on geomorphology and freshwater inflows (Noll et al. 2009). North Bay is 4 km long by 0.70-1.3 km wide with a maximum depth of 85 m. The hydrography of North Bay is substantially influenced by freshwater inflows (watershed: basin surface area ratio of 20:1). West Bay is the largest (4 km long by 2 km wide) as well as the shallowest (25-55 m) of the three subbay systems. West Bay exchanges directly with PWS and has the smallest input of freshwater (from shoreline creeks) with a watershed/basin surface area ratio of 1:1. East Bay also exchanges directly with PWS; it is 4 km long and 2 km wide at the head, narrowing to 1 km wide at the mouth and has a watershed/basin surface area ratio of 7:1. Differences in watershed/basin surface area ratios directly impact freshwater input, sediment load, and organic matter input. This system was highly stratified during the study period with a chlorophyll fluorescence maximum at ~10 m (Quigg et al. 2013). Sampling in 2008 & 2009 Sampling was designed to elucidate variability in phytoplankton community composition during June, July and August between the three sub-bays of Simpson's Bay. Water samples were collected at the surface and 10 m at nine stations (3 in each sub-bay for a total of 6 samples from each sub-bay for each month; Fig. 1). Samples were processed for chlorophyll (chl) a, pigment

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106 analysis, dissolved nutrients, particulate organic carbon (POC), particulate organic nitrogen 107 (PON), particulate carbon (PC), and particulate nitrogen (PN). Samples were collected for 108 microscopic identification of the dominant phytoplankton using a (64 µm mesh plankton net 109 towed through the water for 5 min while at each station). 110 111 **Export** 112 Sediment traps (1 m tall, 8 cm center diameter with a honeycomb baffle at the top to reduce loss 113 from resuspension) were suspended 20 m and 40 m below the surface. Traps were deployed once 114 each month (one set in each bay) for 48 hrs (Fig. 1). After recovery, material in the traps was 115 allowed to settle for 4-6 hrs before the top water was poured off (via a hole in the trap) leaving 116 the concentrated sample (1.5 L) in the bottom. Samples were filtered for chl a, pigments, and 117 POC, PON, PC and PN. Hereafter we refer to the average amount of material collected in 118 sediment traps divided by area of trap opening and the number of days deployed as export. 119 120 Sampling in 2010 121 The 2010 summer sampling sought to begin elucidating pathways of carbon through the lower 122 portions of the food web in Simpson Bay. Water samples were collected before, during and after 123 the annual summer *Noctiluca* sp. bloom and analyzed for pigment composition, chl a, stable isotopes (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) and dissolved nutrients. Size fractionated plankton samples were 124 125 collected using a 64 µm plankton net and then fractioned using a 118 µm sieve. Material 126 remaining on the sieve were transferred/filtered onto 25 mm precombusted (500°C, 5 hrs) 127 Whatman GF/F (> 118µm sample). Material which passed through the sieve was transferred onto 128 a separate 25 mm precombusted Whatman GF/F (< 118µm sample). 129 Muscle tissue from butter clams (Saxidomus giganteus), Pacific blue mussels (Mytilus 130 trossolus), juvenile herring (Clupea pallasii), and herring roe were collected for stable isotope $(\delta^{13}C \text{ and } \delta^{15}N)$ analyses, rinsed with filtered sea water (< 0.7 μm) and then frozen. Clams were 131 132 collected from mean tide line < 25 cm deep while mussels were collected from rockweed (Fucus 133 gardneri) in the intertidal zone. Herring muscle tissue was collected from beached fish, which

were then filleted, rinsed with filtered sea water and frozen. Herring roe attached to eel grass in

the subtidal zone was removed and placed on 118 µm sieve and rinsed with filtered sea water.

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136 All samples were stored frozen in the field until transported to the lab where they were stored at -137 80°C until analysis. 138 139 Particulate Carbon and Nitrogen Analyses 140 Samples for particulate organic C and N were collected on filters (13mm Gelman filters, 141 precombusted at 600 °C for 4 hrs) using gentle vacuum filtration then frozen prior to analysis on 142 a Perkin-Elmer 2400 CHNS analyzer. Filters were dried for 24 hrs at 60 °C, then acidified by 143 placing samples in a desiccator with 8N HCl for 24 hrs, and subsequently dried for another 24 144 hrs. Dried, acidified samples were weighed (accuracy to 0.01 mg), packed in tin capsules, and 145 run. Calibration curves were prepared prior to starting a batch of samples, and an acetanilide 146 standard (C 71.09%, N 10.36%) was run after every 10 samples to monitor machine drift 147 (StdDev_C <1.5%, StdDev_N <0.25). 148 149 Pigment Analysis using High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) 150 HPLC was performed using protocol outlined by Pinckney et al. 1998, except that pigments were 151 extracted using 90% Acetone (500µl) at -20 °C for 18-20 h. Prior to solvent extraction, filters 152 were lyophilized (-50 °C, 0.57 mbar, 12h; Labconco FreeZone 2.5). Synthetic carotenoid β-apo-153 8'-carotenal was added (Sigma, cat. No. 10810; 50 µl) as an internal standard. After extraction 154 the sample was filtered through a 0.45 µl PTFE filter (Gelman Acrodisc) to remove particulates. 155 Prior to analysis, an ion-pairing solution (1.00 M ammonium acetate) was added to the sample 156 vial in a ratio of 4 parts extract to 1 part ammonium acetate. Two different reverse-phase HPLC 157 C₁₈ columns were connected in series. A single monomeric guard column (Rainin Microsorb, 158 0.46 x 1.5 cm, 3 µm packing) was followed by a momomeric reverse-phase C₁₈ column (Varian 159 Microsorb-MV 100 – 3, 0.46x10 cm, 3 μm packing) and a polymeric reverse-phase C₁₈ column 160 (Vydac 201TP54, 0.46 x 25cm, 5 µm packing). 161 Photopigment peaks were quantified at 440 nm (Jeffrey et al. 1997) and identified based 162 on retention time and spectral matches with pigment spectra obtained from liquid standards 163 (DHI, Hørsholm, Denmark). Peak areas were quantified using Shimadzu Client/Server 7.2.1 SP1 software. A total of 17 pigments were identified in each sample: chl c_3 , chl c_1 and c_2 , peridinin, 164

fucoxanthin, 19'-hexanoloxyfucoxanthin, neoxanthin, violaxanthin, diadinoxanthin, alloxanthin,

diatoxanthin, lutein, zeaxanthin, chl b, β , β -carotene, prasinoxanthin, and chl a. Because chl c_1

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167 and c_2 , cannot be separated with our HPLC method, the two pigments were counted together as 168 one pigment in our analysis. 169 170 **Dissolved Nutrients** 171 Filtrate from pigment analysis samples was used to rinse the filter tower twice prior to collection 172 of samples for nutrient analysis. Filtrate was collected in acid-washed 60 ml Nalgene bottles and frozen. Dissolved inorganic nutrients (SiO₃, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, and PO₄³⁻) were analyzed by the 173 174 Geochemical and Environmental Research Group at Texas A&M University, College Station. 175 Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) concentrations were calculated as the sum of NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, 176 and NO₂. 177 178 Stable Isotopes 179 All faunal and size fractioned POM samples were dried at 60 °C, coarsely ground and split. Half of each sample was ground to a fine powder using a mortar and pestle for δ^{15} N analysis. The 180 181 other half of the sample was processed using a Dionex accelerated solvent extractor (ASE) to 182 remove lipids (Barrow et al. 2008) then acidified in 8N HCl fumes for >7 days to remove 183 calcium carbonate (Armitage and Fourqurean 2009). Acidified samples were dried again at 60 184 °C, then weighed and packaged into tin boats with the optimal N load of 50 µg. Samples were 185 analyzed at the University of California (Davis) Stable Isotope Facility. 186 187 **Statistics** 188 Community compositional changes were evaluated using pigment data obtained from HPLC 189 analyses. Pigment data were divided by chl a from the same station (standardization to 190 maximum) and then divided by the sum of all accessory pigments from the same station 191 (standardize to total); the resultant values are equal to the fraction of each accessory pigment in 192 relation to chl a (Dorado et al. 2012). Using PRIMER 6 and PERMANOVA + software (Clarke 193 and Gorley 2006) a resemblance matrix of normalized pigment concentrations was calculated 194 using the Euclidian distances index. Visualization of the differences between samples was 195 achieved using principal coordinates analysis (PCO; Anderson et al. 2008). Determination of the 196 primary accessory pigments responsible for the observed variation was achieved using vector 197 overlays of pigment variables. Only vectors who's length is greater than 0.6 (Spearman

correlation) were included; the length and direction of the vectors is representative of strength and sign of the relationship between that pigment and the PCO axes. Mean values of the 5 pigments (alloxanthin, zeaxanthin, chl b, fucoxanthin, and chl c_1 and c_2) showing significant correlation for each bay for each month were calculated; differences of the values from the "global" mean (average of all pigment values for all samples) were also calculated in order to explore the quantitative and qualitative differences on a spatial and temporal basis.

PERMANOVA (Type III, permutation of residuals under a reduced model, 999 permutations) analyses were run using (Bray –Curtis resemblance calculation) to determine statistical spatial and temporal differences in the overall community composition by bay and across months. Subsequent pairwise PERMANOVA tests (Type III, permutation of residuals under a reduced model, 999 number of permutations) using a priori groups of "Bays" and "Months" were performed to understand the temporal and spatial variations which were similar/different.

In situ environmental data were transformed by $\log (x+1)$. These data were analyzed using Euclidian Distances. A sub set of the data where all pigment and environmental factors were measured for all bays and all months (June, July, and August 2008) were selected in order to evaluate the drivers in the community composition. Non-metric Multi-Dimensional scaling (NMDS; stress = 0.06; Clarke 1993) was used to visualize the separation in the phytoplankton community (using normalized pigment concentrations – Euclidean distance resemblance matrix); the resultant pattern for the subset of the data is similar to that observed for the overall data set. Normalized environmental parameters were overlain as vectors (Spearman correlation ≥ 0.5).

SPSS (version 16.0) was used to perform standard statistical analyses. Export and stable isotopes data were analyzed for normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic; none were normally distributed (alpha < 0.05). Kruskal-Wallis H tests were performed throughout. If data were significantly different then Mann-Whitney U tests were performed on variables (consecutive months for export, size classes or station for stable isotopes) to determine statistical similarities (using a Bonferroni correction, alpha=0.017) to minimize Type 1 error.

Results

- 226 Phytoplankton Variability
- 227 The primary determinant of community variability within this data set was "month" (Pseudo-F =
- 228 20.118, p=0.001; Fig. 2) and separates along the primary axis of the PCO (53.9% of the

variability). "Bay" was also significant (Pseudo-F = 5.0422, p = 0.001) as was the interaction between the two parameters (Pseudo-F = 2.1826, p=0.004) (Fig. 2). The five most significant (PCO, spearman correlation ≥ 0.6) pigments in driving these separations are alloxanthin, zeaxanthin, chl b, fucoxanthin, and chl c_1 and c_2 . These pigments have been used as biomarkers or proxies for phytoplankton taxonomic groups (Table 1). Alloxanthin is used for cryptophytes, zeaxanthin for cyanobacteria, chl b for chlorophytes and prasinophytes, and fucoxanthin for diatoms (see Jeffrey et al. 1997; Aiken et al. 2009, Dorado et al. 2012). The only pigments that have not been previously used in this capacity are the chl c_1 and c_2 pigments, because chl c is present in all chromophytic algae (Falkowski and Raven 2007). In this study, this pigment set will be used as indicative of dinoflagellate biomass. The rationale is that the only group that does not have both chl c_1 and c_2 as well as fucoxanthin are the dinoflagellates and cryptophytes. The cryptophytes in this case are already indicated by alloxanthin which does not vary on the same axis as chl c_1 and c_2 (see Fig. 2). Further, fucoxanthin does not co-vary with chl c_1 and c_2 , the only way for this to occur is if the primary contributor of that pigment does not also have fucoxanthin, leaving only the dinoflagellates (Table 1). It is important to note that the use of chl c_1 and c_2 , as an indicator of dinoflagellate biomass, may not work in all cases and may not represent the entire dinoflagellate community (Zapata et al. 2012), in fact, the fucoxanthin that we state is an indicator of diatom biomass may be from the dinoflagellate community. Using the above 5 indicator pigments, further probing into the differences in community is possible. Individual pigments did not differ significantly between bays. However, significant differences were observed in the overall community composition between months (Table 2).

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Closer inspection of these indicator pigments, separated by month and bay, shows variation of component groups of phytoplankton through the summer (Fig. 3), offering insight into the community changes occurring in Simpsons Bay. Elevated concentrations of fucoxanthin and chl c_1 and c_2 relative to other pigments suggested there was a phytoplankton bloom in East and West Bay portions of Simpsons Bay each year. In June, fucoxanthin (biomarker for diatom biomass) was 2x higher than in either July or August except for North bay which had concentrations similar to the values for July and August (Fig. 3). Similarly chl c_1 and c_2 (biomarker for dinoflagellates) were 2x higher in June than in any other month in all bays (only marginally higher in North Bay) (Fig. 3). The other pigment groups which are biomarkers of the smaller size classes of phytoplankton (cryptophytes, cyanobacteria, chlorophytes and

prasinophytes) had concentrations which were at or below average (Fig 3 right column). Microscopic evaluation of the plankton (Supp. Fig. 1) in the region in June showed the heterotrophic dinoflagellate *Noctiluca* sp. dominating samples. In July, all of the trends reversed—dinoflagellates accounted for the minority of the population while cryptophytes, chlorophytes and prasinophytes contributed more to the community composition. August represents the lowest concentration of phytoplankton (lowest pigment concentrations). Diatoms and dinoflagellates were again below average in their contribution to the community composition. Cyanobacteria, Cryptophytes, chlorophytes and prasinophytes were all very close to the global mean (the mean of all measurements of that particular pigment made during this study), indicating an equilibration of the community composition. The data presented reveals a clear bloom of *Noctiluca* sp. each June, followed by a "bust" in July and then return to a mixed assemblage in the phytoplankton community in August. Nutrient concentrations of $\leq 1 \mu mol \ l^{-1} DIN \ and \leq 0.2 \mu mol \ l^{-1} P_i$ are indicative of oligotrophic waters while nutrient ratios of DIN: P_i < 10 and DIN: P_i > 30 can be used to indicate N versus P_i limitation, respectively (Dortch and Whitledge 1992; Sylvan et al. 2006; Quigg et al. 2011). For the period of this study, DIN was generally $< 5 \mu mol \ l^{-1}$ (DIN mean $2.23 = \mu \text{mol } 1^{-1}$; range $0.12-8.97 \mu \text{mol } 1^{-1}$) in surface waters, with occasional values up to 9 μ mol l⁻¹. P_i was more variable but remained < 1.1 μ mol l⁻¹ at nearly all the stations (mean = 0.39) umol 1⁻¹; range 0 to 1.1 umol 1⁻¹. The combination of low DIN and relatively high P_i resulted in the low DIN: P_i ratios (mean = 7.63 µmol I^{-1} ; range 0.36 to 49.95 µmol I^{-1}), suggesting N limitation of the phytoplankton community in this system each year, particularly in June. Of the environmental parameters measured all months from all depths, the only significant (NMDS, Spearman correlation ≥ 0.5) correlates were POC, PON, PN, urea, NO₂, PO₄, and SiO₃ (Fig. 4). There was a reduction in dissolved SiO₃ in June, likely due to the increased abundance of diatoms (2x greater than in either July or August) utilizing this nutrient.

indicative of the increase in plankton biomass concurrent with a change in community
composition consisting of more dinoflagellates. As the study area is primarily nitrogen limited,
the positive correlation between urea and June is suggestive of an organic source of nitrogen

POC and PON were positively correlated with June (green groups Fig 4); this increase is

driving the increase in phytoplankton biomass.

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291 Water column (0-10m) 292 The highest POC and PON concentrations where measured in June each year, corresponding to 293 the Noctiluca sp. bloom (Fig. 4, 5a). The increase in POC did not directly correlate with 294 autotrophic biomass (chl a, Fig. 5b). Chl a:POC ratios increased through each summer due to the 295 decrease in POC concentrations (Fig. 5b). The low chl a:POC ratios each June were consistent 296 with a heterotrophic bloom. Therefore, the effect of the bloom on the phytoplankton community 297 is clearer when parameters are compared directly with POC (Fig. 5). The increase in water 298 column POC and PON was not equal as demonstrated by the slope < 1 in Fig. 5a; there was a 299 greater increase in POC than PON. POC:PON demonstrate the qualitative changes in the 300 particulate matter through the summer. June and July were not significantly different. POC:PON 301 in August was significantly different from June but not July, demonstrating a slow decline in the 302 C content of the particulate material. The Shannon Diversity Index decreased with increasing 303 POC (Fig. 5c). Samples collected with the highest POC concentrations also represented those 304 with the lowest diversity. As the summer progressed POC decreased and diversity increased. 305 306 Export from surface waters (0-10m) to sediment traps (20-40m) 307 Sediment traps were deployed in June to August in 2008were the most descriptive of the 308 monthly variability of C and N export. Exported POC_{Trap} in June was significantly greater 309 (p<0.001), nearly 2-4 times, than in either July or August (Table 3). Exported PON_{Trap} was also 310 greater in June than July or August, though not significantly (Table 3). These trends paralleled 311 those observed in the water column described above. Qualitatively POC_{WC}:PON_{WC} (ratio of 312 POC:PON measured in the water column at 0 and 10m) measured immediately prior to 313 deploying sediment traps was 13.97 compared to 13.88 POC_{Trap}:PON_{Trap} (median ratio measured 314 in traps at 20 m and 40 m) in June (Table 3). In July the ratio did not change significantly in the 315 water column or in the export. However, in August the POC_{wc}:PON_{wc} decreased to 8.99. POC_{Trap}:PON_{Trap} also decreased but not at the same magnitude. Though none of these changes 316 317 are significant the rank (Mann-Whitney U test) is informative of the qualitative changes that 318 occur between the water column and trap through the summer. In June the POC_{WC}:PON_{WC}> 319 POC_{Trap}:PON_{Trap} (Rank 13.08 to 10.75 respectively). This relationship continued through July 320 (20.38 to 19.05) but switched in August (6.78 to 8.80) suggesting there was elevated N recycling 321 in the water column or excess C exported.

Food Web

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Natural abundance stable isotope values for POM collected in July 2010 were not significantly

different spatially (δ^{13} p = 0.496, n = 10; δ^{15} N p = 0.169, n = 10) or by size fraction (δ^{13} p =

326 0.602, n = 10; δ^{15} N p = 0.602, n = 10) (median = MD δ^{13} C = -19.58 %; MD δ^{15} N = 7.83 %)

327 (Fig. 6; Table 4). The isotopic signature of herring (δ^{13} C -17.53 ‰, δ^{15} N 13.55 ‰) was

approximately two trophic levels above that of the POM (difference is 2.06 % δ^{13} C and 5.79 %

 δ^{15} N) (Fig. 6). Values for *Noctiluca* sp. were δ^{13} C -17.70 % and δ^{15} N 5.74 %, demonstrating a

shift of inputs to the food web (higher δ^{13} C and lower δ^{15} N than the POM collected prior to the

spawn/bloom; Fig. 6). Mussels and clams collected after the *Noctiluca* sp. bloom have C values

 $(\delta^{13}\text{C} - 17.73 \text{ }\%)$ similar to those of *Noctiluca* sp., and enriched N values $(\delta^{15}\text{N} 8.29 \text{ }\%)$ common

to the trophic difference.

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Discussion

Heterotrophic dinoflagellates are an integral part of marine food webs (Hansen 1991, Sherr and Sherr 2002, Jeong et al. 2010). Often they are found in bloom concentrations following blooms of other phototrophic phytoplankton (Sherr and Sherr 2007), however, they have been shown to feed on a variety of prey and prey sizes (Hansen 1991, Sherr and Sherr 2002, Jeong et al. 2010). A bloom of the athecate, heterotrophic dinoflagellate *Noctiluca* sp. occurred in June of 2008-2010 in the East and West Bay portions of Simpson Bay, PWS, in response to an organic nitrogen increase. A dominance of dinoflagellates is recorded in June of each year, microscopic evaluation of plankton samples show *Noctiluca* sp. vastly out numbering other identifiable phytoplankton (Supp Fig. 1). This dominance of dinoflagellates is also represented in the pigment data (Fig. 2). Further the highest measured POC and PON concentrations were measured in June (Fig. 4) corresponding to the time of the largest concentrations of accessory pigments (Fig. 3) suggesting a large bloom. However, there is no corresponding increase in chl a (Fig. 5b). The lack of a peak in chl a during the June bloom (Fig. 5b) is consistent with heterotrophic dinoflagellate bloom rather than an autotrophic algal bloom like those typically observed early in April in this region (Eslinger et al. 2001). The disconnect between the chl a and POC in our study points to a dominance of a phytoplankton with either low chl a concentrations, or a species which is facultatively heterotrophic, such as the dinoflagellate

Noctiluca sp., which can use other dissolved/particulate organics for nutrition. By utilizing multiple approaches to elucidate the dynamics of the phytoplankton community we were able to clearly discern a consistent June phytoplankton bloom that has historically been unidentified. The mechanism controlling this bloom differs from the spring bloom described by Eslinger et al. (2001). Where the duration, intensity and transfer of the spring bloom rely on the frequency of storms, this summer bloom is driven by an allochtnonous source of nutrients. It may be possible that the Dinoflagellate bloom is a successional change from the spring bloom (dinoflagellates follow diatoms, Tiselius and Kuylenstierna 1996) however the three years that were studied had spring and summer wind speeds at or below the three year's previous (Supp. Fig. 2). Thus the spring bloom in the years of this study would have been shorter in duration than the previous 3 years and likely not windier than "normal" and the succession would have occurred May or early July at the latest.

The June bloom of *Noctiluca* sp. dissipates by July and is replaced by smaller phytoplankton (cyanobacteria, cryptophytes, chlorophytes and prasinophytes) better able to cope with lower concentrations of nutrients. The biomass of cyanobacteria, cryptophytes, chlorophytes and prasinophytes remains above the average for this region during the summer months but is less than the biomass observed in June. Pigment concentrations are lowest in August, but hover around the mean. This may be indicative of a normalization of the phytoplankton community biomass and composition. The pattern in biomass in Simpsons Bay is indicative of a bloom followed by a shift in community composition and returning to equilibrium in August. This pattern is also indicative of a pulse of nutrients to the system (boom, bust, then return to equilibrium). Pulse responses are greatest for the trophic level directly supplied the nutrient and may be missed in upper trophic levels (Chaloner 2007; Anderson et al. 2008; Yang et al. 2008; Weber and Brown 2013), demonstrating the importance of understanding the phytoplankton community dynamics in this region. Further, the group that responded, the dinoflagellates, is one of the highest in nutritional quality to their consumers (Clocern and Dufford 2005). This shift to larger plankton likely triggers a response in larger consumers, reducing trophic transfers (and therefore losses of energy) to fishes and other consumers.

The impacts of this annual bloom in June are reflected in the export of particulate organic matter from the surface, particularly in June 2008. Two-to-three times more POC was measured in the sediment traps (20 m and 40 m) in June than either July or August (Table 3). Most of the

carbon exported in June was organic and likely from the bloom observed during this period. Qualitatively, the POC:PON ratios measured in the water column and in the sediment traps decreased through the summer. POC:PON ratios measured in water column (WC) relative to those measured in the traps (Trap) for June were nearly equal, indicating rapid export. Measured export was lowest in July; also, both WC and Trap ratios decreased indicating relatively less C export or increased N export. Notably, in August the ratio of POC:PON in the water column versus trap switched with a higher ratio measured in the trap, indicating a relative decrease in the amount of N reaching the traps and a relative increase in the water column, pointing to a recycling of N in the system. Thus, the nutrients in the system during the *Noctiluca* sp. bloom may still be an important source of nutrients for the food web of Simpson Bay for as long as two months.

In addition, stable isotopes of particulate organic matter, and faunal samples collected in this system showed that the bloom was accompanied by shifts in the sources of carbon and the composition of the phytoplankton community (Fig. 6). This shift from -19.59 ‰ (POM) to -17.70 ‰ (*Noctiluca* sp.) is indicative of a shift to more marine source of carbon (Fry 2006). Correspondingly, the shift in $\delta^{15}N$ from 7.76 ‰ to 5.74 ‰ suggests there was also a change to a marine source of nitrogen. Similar decreases in $\delta^{15}N$ values have been documented between neritic and oceanic POM (Dorado et al. 2012). The shift to a lower trophic level (depleted $\delta^{15}N$ values in *Noctiluca* sp.) is particularly interesting as *Noctiluca* sp. are known facultative heterotrophs and they appear at a lower trophic status than the POM. This may be indicative of the *Noctiluca* sp. feeding on heterotrophic bacterial biomass.

Ecosystems that receive natural resource subsidies often exhibit elevated biomass (Polis 1997); these resource pulses have legacy effects which can persist from months to years after the initial pulse (Yang et al. 2008). Thus, resource pulses may be an important contributing factor to sustained abundance and diversity of this ecosystem. Traditionally, allochthonous nutrient subsidies were thought to travel unidirectionally from upstream rivers to marine environments (Leroux and Loreau 2008) via runoff and/or fluvial systems. However, many studies have shown allochthonous subsides in the reverse direction - from open ocean to coastal systems (Helfield and Naiman 2001; Varpe et al. 2005; Leroux and Loreau 2008; Petticrew et al. 2011). The effect of these pulses relates to the amount of nutrient input relative to the area, and the permeability of the ecosystem subsidized (Polis et al. 1997). For example, many salmon in small streams have a

large effect that spreads into the riparian forests that surround these streams (Helfield and Naiman 2001; Chaloner et al. 2002; Hicks et al. 2005; Chaloner et al. 2007). Additionally, ecosystems with large areas, with less defined boundaries, have also been shown to benefit from seemingly small pulsed subsidies (eg. coral reef spawn Wild et al. 2008; Eyre et al. 2008; Guld et al. 2008).

Many resource subsidies have been identified in the PWS system. In particular, spawning salmon contribute to stream, river, and surrounding forest ecosystem productivity (Bilby et al. 1996; Wipfli et al. 1998; Hicks et al. 2005; Reisinger et al. 2013) as well as the Pacific herring. In addition, many vertebrate species, including the resident sea otter population in Simpson Bay (Lee et al. 2009) have been documented utilizing this ephemeral resource. More than 30 bird species have also been documented as predators of spawning herring and herring eggs (Roper et al. 1999; Willson and Womble 2006). Consumers which are capable of rapid growth and are the direct beneficiaries of the pulse-supplied nutrients will show the most rapid and the greatest numerical response, whereas those with slower growth rates and more trophic steps away from the level of the pulse will show smaller changes with increased time lag (Chaloner 2007; Anderson et al. 2008; Yang et al. 2008; Weber and Brown 2013), making identification and quantification of pulse impacts difficult. While many studies have been conducted on the ecosystem of this region, a paucity of literature is available on phytoplankton community and dynamics, which may be the immediate beneficiaries of many of these subsidies, and show the largest and most rapid responses (Yang et al. 2010).

We have described a bloom of dinoflagellates occurring regularly in June which is likely resultant from a pulse of marine derived nutrients (coinciding with other observations of fauna consuming of herring roe). Previous studies have shown these pulses to be important to higher trophic organisms in other ecosystems (Roper et al. 1999; Willson and Womble 2006). Schools of adult Pacific herring migrate into PWS in mid-spring (Norcross et al. 2001) and spawn in large aggregations along the coast. A spawning event generally lasts 5-21 days, and the eggs hatch 22-24 days later (Norcross et al. 2001). In 2007, an aggregation of sea otters in Simpson Bay was observed consuming herring roe on kelp between 11 June – 3 July (Lee et al. 2009), confirming an additional, apparently small, summer spawning event in the study area (as eggs hatch within 1.5-3 weeks (Wilson and Womble 2006). While the summer spawn of herring is smaller than the spring event, it may still contribute substantial amounts of nutrients to the bays

where it occurs (including Simpson Bay), as was observed in the current study. The pulse of nutrients alleviates the nitrogen limitation of primary productivity typically observed in fjords in PWS in the summer (Eslinger et al. 2001; Quigg et al. 2013). This study demonstrates that resource pulses can stimulate the system at trophic levels above and below the level of input. Further research is required to explicitly define the source and quantify the energy and nutrient input to Simpson Bay and PWS. These previously overlooked blooms (likely the result marine derived nutrient pulses) may be an important contributing factor to the sustained abundance of this ecosystem.

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Group	Size	Pigments	Size Class
Bacillariophyta	2-200 μm up to 4 mm	chlorophyll a , c_2 , β , β -carotene, <u>fucoxanthin</u> , diatoxanthin, diadinoxanthin, chlorophyll c_1 or c_3	Nano-Micro
Dinophyta	2-200 μm up to 2 mm	chlorophyll a , c_2 , β , β -carotene, peridinin , dinoxanthin , diadinoxanthin, peridinin	Nano-Micro
Prymnesiophyceae	5-20 μm	chlorophyll a , c_1 or c_2 , phytylated chlorophyll c-like pigment, β , β -carotene, 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin and/or 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, and diadinoxanthin and diatoxanthin	Nano
Chrysophyceae	2-3 μm coccoid, 10-100 μm silicoflagellates	chlorophyll a , c_1 , c_2 , fucoxanthin, 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin and diadinoxanthin, violaxanthin	Nano-Micro
Cryptophyta	6-20 μm	Chlorophyll a and b , β , ϵ -carotene, alloxanthin , monadoxanthin	Nano
Raphidophyceae	30-100 μm	chlorophyll a , c_1 , c_2 , fucoxanthin, β , β -carotene, violaxanthin	Micro
Chlorophyceae Prasinophyceae	1-40 μm	Chlorophyll a and b , β,ε - and/or β,β -carotene, lutein , violaxanthin, zeaxanthin, neoxanthin (prasinophytes = prasinoxanthin)	Pico-Micro
Euglenophyta	15-50 μm	Chlorophyll a and b , β , β -carotene, diadinoxanthin, zeaxanthin, neoxanthin	Nano-Meso
Cyanophyta	1 μm to 2 mm colonies	chlorophyll a , β , β -carotene, <u>zeaxanthin</u> , allophycocyanin-B, C-phycoerythrin, R-phycoerythrin, phycoerythrocyanin	Pico
Prochlorophyta	0.5 μm, <1 mm (filaments), 10-25 μm (endosymbionts)	divinyl chlorophyll a , divinyl chlorophyll b , MgDVP, β , ϵ -carotene, zeaxanthin (unicells)	Pico

Table 2 Results of PERMANOVA showing temporal and spatial differences in normalized pigment concentrations (Wisconsin double standardization) measured in Simpson's Bay 2008-2010. P-F is the pseudo-F statistic, p is the p-value, perm is the number of unique values of the test statistic calculated for each combination. Bold values indicate significant differences between factors.

-	P-F	p	perm	P-F	p	perm	P-F	p	perm
	North			West			East		
Jun vs Jul	1.9718	0.008	999	5.7099	0.001	999	6.5049	0.001	999
Jul vs Aug	0.806	0.614	997	1.3511	0.101	998	2.941	0.001	998
Jun vs Aug	1.3505	0.124	999	4.139	0.001	998	2.7732	0.001	999
	June			July			Aug		
N vs W	2.645	0.001	998	1.1065	0.305	998	1.0919	0.359	998
N vs E	3.091	0.001	999	1.2817	0.182	998	1.4126	0.099	998
W vs E	2.176	0.016	998	0.3695	0.946	999	1.4758	0.084	999

Table 3 Median (MD) water column and export values for POC and PON measured throughout the three summers with standard deviation in parenthesis. Numbers in parenthesis are number of samples contributing to median value and were used for Mann-Whitney U tests. Bold values are significant with a Bonferroni correction of alpha 0.017. Sediment trap values are from 2008 only. Water column POC and PON values are median values from 0 and 10 m for both the East and West arms of Simpson Bay. Export values are median values from traps at 20 m and 40 m.

	Ju	Ju	ıly		August				
2008	MD	p	U	MD	p	U	MD	p	U
water column (μmol l ⁻¹)									
POC	57.89 (16.24)	0.000	0.0	15.11 (4.35)	0.001	11.0	28.14 (8.55)	0.003	4.0
PON	3.33 (1.70)	0.000	18.0	0.80 (0.91)	0.000	8.0	3.15 (1.46)	0.512	29.0
POC:PON	13.97 (6.69)	0.670	103.5	13.99 (7.78)	0.025	22.0	8.99 (1.76)	0.001	0.0
export (mg m ⁻² d ⁻¹)									
POC	5.18 (2.41)	0.011	9.0	2.47 (1.18)	0.025	12.0	1.46 (0.74)	0.004	0.0
PON	0.50 (0.19)	0.039	14.0	0.18 (0.13)	0.241	23.5	0.14 (0.10)	0.016	3.0
POC:PON	13.88 (4.24)	0.841	31.0	13.41 (7.67)	0.391	20.0	11.66 (2.36)	0.170	7.5

Table 4 Natural abundance C and N stable isotope values for key organisms in the Simpson Bay system measured during this study and compared with previously measured values. Values are averages where more than one sample was collected and the values in parentheses are the range. * indicates values reported for *Neocalanus* spp. (primary consumer) similar trophic relationship to the *Noctiluca* sp. reported in this study. Genera of filter feeders examined by Powers et al. (2005) were *Mytilus trossulus* and *Mya arenaria*. † indicates estimated value for Pacific herring consuming only prey from PWS and bays – measured values show usage of Gulf of Alaska food sources as well and range from -20.5 to -18.5.

PO	M	Noct	iluca	Herrin	ıg/Roe	Muscles	s/Clams	Reference
C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	
-19.59 (0.90)	7.76 (2.05)	-17.70	5.74	17.64 (0.21)	13.61 (0.12)	-17.73 (0.01)	8.29 (0.56)	This study
-19 to -24	4 to 8							Fry 2006
		-17.2 to - 17.5 GOA* -18.5 to - 19.8 PWS*	8.4 to 9.5 GOA* 9.5 to 8.8 PWS*					Kline Jr. 2009
		-20.8*	8.4*	-22.6 (±0.67)	12.7 (±0.24)			Kline Jr. 1999
				-19 to -	, ,			Kline Jr. and
				17^{\dagger}				Campbell, 2010
				-17.5	13.5			Hobson et al. 1994
						-16.85, -16.94	9.43, 9.59	Powers et al. 2005

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Fig. 1. Map of study area with station locations. Insert of location within Prince William Sound and the state of Alaska. Locations of all sampling stations throughout the three summers are shown by numbers 1-9. Sub-bay divisions determined by watershed to basin surface area ratio are also marked on the map.

Fig. 2. Ordination of principal coordinates analysis (PCO) of standardized (wisconsin double standardization) pigment data, demonstrating 81% of the variability in the pigment data. Bray Curtis similarity, with overlay of significant pigment concentrations (Spearman correlation =>0.65). Shades of yellow and green represent June samples, orange and red hues represent July, blue symbols represent August. Shapes represent the different bays North Bay (triangles), West Bay (squares), East Bay (circles).

Figure 3: Mean diagnostic pigment (alloxanthin, zeaxanthin, chl b, fucoxanthin, and chl c_1 and c_2) concentrations (left column) for June (green), July (red), August (blue) separated by bays (different hues: lightest = North Bay, middle = West Bay, darkest = East Bay); whiskers represent the 95% confidence interval. Mean difference from the summer mean of each of the diagnostic pigments (right column).

Fig. 4. Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling ordination of standardized pigment values using Euclidian distance based resemblance matrix. Symbols are the same as Figure 2. Vector overlay of significant (Spearman Correlation \geq 0.5) environmental variables.

Fig. 5. Community indicators measured in surface (0 and 10m) waters during the summers of 2008-2010. The POC:PON ratio (a) decreased through the summer The POC:chl *a* ratio (b) also decreased through the summer, indicating a switch from a more heterotrophic community to a more autotrophic community. The Shannon diversity index versus POC (c) reveals lowest diversity indices correspond to the highest POC concentrations, capturing the bloom of *Noctiluca* sp. observed during the summer in PWS. Open symbols represent surface samples (0 m), closed symbols represent samples collected at 10 m; diamonds = June, triangles = July, circles = August.

Fig. 6. Property property plot of natural abundance stable isotopes collected during this study combined with values from Kline Jr. (1999) for Amphipods, Decapods, Euphausiids, *E. elongata*, and *Neocalanus* spp..











