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Nitrogen and carbon isotope values of individual amino acids: a tool to study foraging ecology of penguins in the Southern Ocean

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Running header: Compound-specific isotope analysis and penguin isotopic niches

Keywords: $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$, compound-specific, isotopic niche, trophic level
ABSTRACT

We determined the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values of individual amino acids (AAs) isolated from chick blood of four penguin species that forage in different oceanic regions (from the subtropics of the Indian Ocean to Antarctica) to test if (1) the $\delta^{15}N$ values of phenylalanine ($\delta^{15}N_{\text{phe}}$) revealed different foraging areas among the species, (2) the difference between glutamic acid and phenylalanine $\delta^{15}N$ values ($\Delta \delta^{15}N_{\text{glu-phe}}$) accurately predicted trophic levels (TL), and (3) the $\delta^{13}C$ value of AAs could resolve species foraging locations, as bulk $\delta^{13}C$ values did. The $\delta^{13}C$ values of all AAs decreased with latitude, were positively correlated with bulk $\delta^{13}C$ data, and therefore, tracked the isotopic baseline. However, we were not able to discern additional ecological information from these $\delta^{13}C$ values. In contrast, the $\delta^{15}N$ analysis of individual AAs in blood distinguished the isotopic value of the nitrogen at the base of the food web from the trophic level of the consumer, providing new insight for the study of the trophic ecology of seabirds. The difference in the bulk $\delta^{15}N$ values of northern and southern rockhopper penguins was due to both a difference in their foraging location ($\neq \delta^{15}N_{\text{phe}}$) and their trophic levels ($\neq \Delta \delta^{15}N_{\text{glu-phe}}$). The $\delta^{15}N_{\text{phe}}$ values of king and Adélie penguins were higher than those from rockhoppers and we hypothesize that this difference reflects foraging on mesopelagic prey and in the highly productive Antarctic shelf waters respectively. The $\Delta \delta^{15}N_{\text{glu-phe}}$ accurately reflected relative penguin’s TL but further work is required to determine the trophic enrichment factors for compound-specific isotope analysis.
Determining dietary preference together with foraging habitat of marine predators is challenging because of the extent of their pelagic environment and their long-distant movements. Traditionally, the diet of predators has been determined by stomach content, bulk stable isotope, and fatty acid analyses (Hyslop 1980; Michener & Schell 1994; Iverson et al. 2004). Foraging habitat can be investigated with tagging technologies (Wienecke et al. 2000, Charrassin & Bost 2001, Bost et al., 1997) or by linking a predator’s stable isotope compositions to the isotope values of the local environment (Lee et al. 2005; Wallace et al. 2006; Cherel et al. 2006, 2007). The δ^{13}C and δ^{15}N values of phytoplankton at the base of marine food webs can vary greatly due to different factors including phytoplankton community composition, nutrient utilization, differences in nutrient sources (e.g., denitrification vs. N₂ fixation) and the subsequent biological transformations of these nutrients (Altabet 2001; Sigman and Casciotti 2001; Karsh et al. 2003; Montoya 2007; Tamelander et al. 2009). The resulting spatial gradients in phytoplankton or zooplankton δ^{13}C and δ^{15}N values (e.g., inshore/offshore, pelagic/benthic, latitudinal) have been shown to propagate up to consumers and have served as proxies for foraging habitat (Best and Schell 1996). For example, bulk δ^{13}C values have been used to determine the foraging habitats of cetaceans and seabirds (Best & Schell 1996; Cherel et al. 2006, 2007; Quillfeldt et al. 2005) and bulk δ^{15}N analyses have been used to delineate temporal changes in the foraging regions of marine mammals (e.g., Burton & Koch 1999; Newsome et al. 2007). However, only a few of these studies directly compare the baseline and predator isotope values (Lee et al. 2005). Instead, the spatial variation in the isotopic baseline is inferred by knowledge of the local oceanography and from previous studies that measured proxies for the isotopic baseline (e.g., POM, zooplankton, etc.) (Cherel & Hobson 2007; Ménard et al. 2007). A spatial knowledge
of baseline isotope variations and an understanding of the physiology and ecology of the marine predator are required for robust interpretation of the bulk $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values of predators. However, characterizing the isotopic baseline at the scale of ocean basins is logistically challenging (Jennings & Warr 2003) and speculative for historical periods when archived specimens are examined.

Recent evidence suggests that compound-specific isotopic analyses (CSIA) of individual amino acids isolated from marine consumers could distinguish the isotopic value of the nitrogen at the base of the food web from the trophic level of the consumer (McClelland & Montoya 2002; Popp et al. 2007; Hannides et al. 2009). Results of the laboratory experiments of McClelland and Montoya (2002) showed that the $\delta^{15}N$ value of “trophic” AAs (e.g., glutamic acid) can be enriched by as much as ~7‰ in the marine rotifer Brachionus plicatilis relative to the $\delta^{15}N$ value in the alga Tetraselmis suecica, whereas other “source” AAs (e.g., phenylalanine) are little affected by trophic status and retain the $\delta^{15}N$ values of the phytoplankton at the base of this food web. The implication of these results are that both trophic level and the nitrogen isotopic baseline where predators foraged can be determined by analyzing the $\delta^{15}N$ values of individual amino acids isolated from a predator’s tissue (see also Schmidt et al. 2003; Hannides et al. 2009). However to date, CSIA of individual AAs has been mainly applied to low trophic levels (McClelland & Montoya 2002; Schmidt et al. 2004; Hannides et al. 2009), with only one vertebrate predator study (tuna, Popp et al. 2007), and no work has yet been conducted on birds or mammals. Carbon CSIA on individual AAs has mainly focused on the metabolic pathways of animals (e.g., O’Brien et al. 2005) but the results of Fantle et al. (1999) on blue crabs suggested that the $\delta^{13}C$ values of individual amino acids (both essential and non essential AAs) could complement bulk results to decipher a consumer’s food sources.
In this paper, we analyzed the $\delta^{15}$N and $\delta^{13}$C values of individual amino acids isolated from chick blood of four Southern Ocean penguin species: the northern rockhopper (NRP, *Eudyptes chrysolophus moseleyi*), southern rockhopper (SRP, *Eudyptes chrysolophus chrysolophus*), king (KP, *Aptenodytes patagonicus*) and Adélie (AP, *Pygoscelis adeliae*) penguins. These Southern Ocean penguins could be ideal species to test the efficacy of amino acid $\delta^{15}$N and $\delta^{13}$C analyses to determine the ecological niches of seabirds as their food habits and foraging habitats are well documented and diverse (details in Cherel & Hobson, 2007).

Both bulk stable isotope and stomach content analyses showed different foraging strategies among these species (e.g., fish vs. crustaceans, see Table 1). Furthermore, their foraging habitats differ (see Table 1 and related references) and their breeding colonies are located at sites encompassing a large latitudinal range, from the subtropical Amsterdam Island north of the Subtropical Front, the Crozet Island in the Polar Frontal Zone to Adélie Island, Antarctica (Table 1). These regions exhibit different oceanographic characteristics (temperature, chlorophyll $a$ concentrations, sea ice extent) that could lead to spatial variations in the carbon and nitrogen isotopic compositions at the base of the food web (Fig 1; Altabet & François 1994; Trull & Armand 2001). In the southwest Indian Ocean, the $\delta^{13}$C and $\delta^{15}$N values of particulate organic matter show an abrupt decrease between 40 and 45°S (François et al. 1993; Altabet & François 1994) leading to a north-south gradient across the subtropical frontal zone. This latitudinal gradient can however be complicated by inshore-off shore productivity gradients (Cherel and Hobson, 2007), the influence of blooms and nutrient utilization (Karsh et al. 2003; Tamelander et al. 2009), the mixing of water masses across the frontal zone, and the contribution of sea ice phytoplankton to the food web (Hobson et al. 1995; Gibson et al. 1999; Norkko et al. 2007).

The present study is the first to analyze carbon and nitrogen isotopes of individual amino acids in seabirds, and also the first to analyze amino acids isolated from whole blood. It
should be noted that adult penguins can segregate their diet from the food they feed their chicks (Cherel 2008). This study is limited to the chicks’ diet and the adults’ foraging areas when they feed their chicks, but does not relate to the adult’s diet. Based on our current knowledge on this species, three predictions were tested:

1. Northern rockhopper penguin chicks (NRP) have $\delta^{15}$N values 2.4‰ higher than those of Southern Rockhopper penguin chicks (SRP, Cherel & Hobson 2007). As NRP forage in the Subtropical Zone where $\delta^{15}$N values of particulate organic matter (POM) are higher than at latitudes North of the front (Altabet & François 1994), we expect this bulk isotopic difference to be mainly due to isotopic baseline differences. Since phenylalanine (phe) is a source amino acid and should reflect the isotopic baseline, the $\delta^{15}$N_{phe} values in the blood of NRP should be higher compared to SRP that forage within the Polar Frontal Zone (Cherel & Hobson 2007).

2. King penguins feed heavily upon fish relative to SRP, NRP and AP, which mainly prey upon crustaceans. Thus KP should have the highest trophic level (Cherel et al. 2007, 2008) and we therefore predict KP to have the greatest difference between source and trophic amino acid $\delta^{15}$N values.

3. High-latitude oceanic ecosystems (without considering onshore-offshore gradients) typically have much lower POM $\delta^{13}$C values than subtropical regions (François et al. 1993; Goericke & Fry 1994) and reflect the $\delta^{13}$C values of phytoplankton (Popp et al. 1999). The bulk $\delta^{13}$C values of these penguins decreased with increasing latitude, which was attributed to the difference in the $\delta^{13}$C values of the baseline in their respective foraging areas (Cherel & Hobson, 2007). If some AAs provide information about the carbon source incorporated in food webs, the $\delta^{13}$C values of these AAs should also track spatial variations in the $\delta^{13}$C values and we expect the $\delta^{13}$C value of some specific AAs to decrease with increasing latitude, similar to the bulk $\delta^{13}$C values.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample collection

A detailed description of breeding colony sites, collection methods and bulk isotope analyses for these penguin samples can be found in Cherel & Hobson (2007) and in Table 1. We present here only a brief description of the methods used to collect blood samples from penguin chicks. Four different species of penguins were sampled from 3 different breeding areas during the austral summer 2001-2002 (Fig. 1). Northern and southern rockhopper penguins were collected from Amsterdam and Crozet Islands, respectively. King penguins were also collected from Crozet Islands, while Adélie penguins were collected at Pointe Géologie Archipelago, Adélie Island, Antarctica. Chicks were sampled at the end of the chick-rearing period when the majority of growth has already occurred to minimize any growth effect on blood δ\textsuperscript{15}N values (Sears et al. 2009). During this period, food is only provided by the adults and, therefore, the isotopic values of chick blood will reflect their diet and the foraging locations of adults. Chicks were selected at random from each site and whole blood was collected via venipuncture, stored in 70% ethanol and then at -20°C until analysis. Storage in 70% ethanol does not alter the bulk δ\textsuperscript{15}N values of blood (Hobson et al. 1997; Bugoni et al. 2008) while some studies reported a slight increase on bulk δ\textsuperscript{13}C values of blood. Lipids were not removed from these samples as it has been show that its low lipid content does not necessitate lipid extraction (Cherel et al. 2005).

Sample preparation for compound-specific nitrogen isotope analysis

Prior to compound-specific stable isotope analysis (CSIA), ethanol was evaporated and the whole blood samples were freeze-dried. Blood samples from three chicks from each species were selected for CSIA. Preparation of blood samples for CSIA followed previous
protocols for muscle samples (e.g., Popp et al. 2007; Hannides et al. 2009). Only an overview
of the CSIA method is presented here and we refer the reader to Popp et al. (2007) and
Hannides et al. (2009) for specific details on the methods and materials. To hydrolyzed
samples, 4-6 mg of dried (whole) blood were transferred to high-temperature reaction vials,
~1 mL 6N HCl added, heated to 150°C for 70 minutes, and cooled. These hydrolysates were
evaporated and the residue redissolved in 1 mL 0.01N HCl and the solution filtered (0.2 µm).
The solution was further purified using the cation-exchange method of Metges et al. (1996).
Prior to the derivatization, samples were re-acidified.

Amino acid derivatization included esterification of the carboxyl terminus followed by
trifluoracetylation of the amine group. Samples were esterified using 4:1 isopropanol:acetyl
chloride and by heating at 110°C for 60 min. Samples were dried and acylated by the addition
of 3:1 methylene chloride: trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA) and heating at 100°C for 15
minutes. The derivatized samples were further purified using the method of Ueda et al.
(1989). Finally, to insure complete derivatization of the samples, the TFAA acylation step
was repeated. The resulting TFA derivatives were stored in 3:1 methylene
chloride: trifluoroacetic anhydride at 4°C.

**Compound-specific δ^{15}N Stable Isotope Analyses**

The δ^{15}N values of individual amino acids were analyzed by isotope ratio monitoring
gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (irmGCMS) using a ThermoFinnigan Delta-Plus XP
mass spectrometer interfaced to a Trace GC gas chromatograph through a GC-C III
combustion furnace (980°C), reduction furnace (680°C), and liquid nitrogen cold trap. L-2-
amino adipic acid (AAA), for which the δ^{15}N value was known, was co-injected as an internal
reference. Samples (1-3 µl), plus the AAA reference, were injected (split/splitless, 5:1 split
ratio) onto a 50 m HP Ultra-2 column (0.32 mm i.d., 0.5 µm film thickness) at an injector
temperature of 180°C and a constant helium flow rate of 2 mL min\(^{-1}\). The column oven was initially held at 50°C for 2 min, ramped to 190°C at 8°C min\(^{-1}\) and then to 280°C at 10°C min\(^{-1}\), and finally held at 280°C for 10 min. The irm-GCMS method allowed isotopic determination of alanine, glycine, leucine, isoleucine, proline, aspartic acid, glutamic acid, phenylalanine, and histidine. Samples were analyzed at least in triplicate and the measured isotopic ratios were normalized to the \(\delta^{15}N\) value of the aminoadipic acid reference peak in each chromatogram. Reproducibility associated with these isotopic measurements averaged 0.8‰ and ranged from 0.1 to 1.8‰. All \(\delta^{15}N\) values are reported relative to AIR.

**Sample preparation for compound-specific carbon isotope analysis**

For \(\delta^{13}C\) measurements on individual total hydrolyzable amino acids (THAA), 2.3 to 7.5 mg of freeze-dried blood was homogenized and hydrolyzed at 110°C in 1 mL 6M HCl in screw-cap vials with a N\(_2\) headspace. After addition of an internal standard (Norleucine), the hydrolysate was evaporated under a gentle N\(_2\) flow at 60°C. The dried THAA extracts were redissolved in MQ water and stored frozen (-20°C). Prior to analyses on the HPLC-IRMS, samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min.

**Compound-specific \(\delta^{13}C\) Stable Isotope Analyses**

The \(\delta^{13}C\) values of specific amino acids were analyzed using a modified HPLC-IRMS method, based on the protocol suggested by McCullagh et al. (2006). A Surveyor HPLC was coupled to a Finnigan Delta V IRMS via the LC Isolink interface (Thermo Electron, Bremen). Amino acid separation was performed using a Primesep A column (3.2 X 250 mm, particle size 5 \(\mu\)m, pore size 100Å, Sielc Technologies, Prospect Heights, IL, USA) by applying a gradient program with two mobile phases (100% H\(_2\)O (Milli-Q) and 0.2 % (v/v) H\(_2\)SO\(_4\), respectively), supplied by a pump with high precision proportioning valves to control mobile
phase composition. Pure H₂O was used for the first 22 min, after which the mobile phase was
switched to linearly increase to 100% 0.2% H₂SO₄ after 75 min. The mobile phase then
remained at 0.2% H₂SO₄ for 40 min and switched back to 100% H₂O until the end of the run
(138 min). All mobile phase and reagent solutions were ultrasonically degassed under reduced
pressure prior to use, and stock solutions were continuously purged with He during analysis.
The column flow rate was kept stable at 500 μL min⁻¹ at 22°C. All samples were analyzed
with 10 μL partial loop injections using a 50 μL injection loop.

Separated amino acids eluting from the HPLC are oxidized online with a mixture of
0.67 M sodium peroxidisulfate (Merck, Darmstadt) and 1.5 M phosphoric acid (Fluka Sigma
Aldrich, Buchs) at 99.9°C. The flow of both reagents is kept at 30 μL min⁻¹. The resulting
CO₂ is extracted from the liquid in a phase separator with a 1 mL He flow (see Krummen et
al. 2004). The He containing the CO₂ from the individual amino acids is dried over a Nafion
tube and subsequently transferred to the IRMS through an open split.

To calibrate δ¹³C values of amino acids, a mixture of individual amino acid laboratory
reference compounds was used. The δ¹³C values of these compounds were determined
independently with an EA-IRMS using IAEA-CH-6 and an internal laboratory reference
compound (Schimmelmann acetanilide). The δ¹³C value of each of these compounds was
previously calibrated using NBS-19 and L-SVEC on the VPDB scale where NBS-19 and L-
SVEC are defined as exactly +1.95 and -46.6‰, respectively (Coplen et al., 2006). Individual
AA calibration was required because the offset in δ¹³C values between measurements made
on the HPLC-IRMS and those obtained on the EA-IRMS were different for some amino acids
(corrections ranged between -3.8 ‰ for glycine and +5.7 ‰ for threonine). Repeated analyses
of glycine over a range of concentrations (200-1000 ng C) showed excellent reproducibility,
with the δ¹³C value averaging -39.8 ± 0.15‰ (n=15).
The Primsep A column is a mixed-mode column, with negatively charged functional
groups due to the embedded anionic ion-pairing reagent. Amino acids with more than one
charge state within the pH range (e.g., aspartic acid and glutamic acid) have retention times
that shift in function of the mobile phase pH, which can result in co-elution of amino acid
peaks. In the analytical conditions used here, glutamic acid, cysteine and serine showed co-
elution, as well as, isoleucine, norleucine and leucine and were therefore not considered in
this study. Six amino acids were analyzed for both $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (alanine, aspartic
acid, histidine, glycine, phenylalanine and proline).

Statistical modeling of AA $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values

Statistical analyses must account for the different sources of variation induced by the
sampling strategy, and for the small number of samples analyzed. First, blood samples were
collected from several individuals per species (two or three individuals selected at random).
Secondly, several replicates were performed on each blood sample (at least three replicates,
but some amino acid isotope data were removed because of peak co-elution). Simple averages
cannot account for the within-individual variability and for the between-individual variability.
On the contrary, linear mixed-effects models (LME model; Pinheiro & Bates 2000) are well
suited to deal with unbalanced sampling schemes and they allow different sources of variation
to be included. In our case, we coped with replicates per blood sample, and with several
individuals per species. Therefore, LME models were fitted to the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of individual
amino acids, and data were grouped by individual (measurement replicates) and by species.
The individual effect was treated as random variations around a population mean. The species
effects represent average characteristics of the populations of the four penguin species (i.e.,
the fixed effect in LME terms). These models allowed us to predict population values of AA
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for each penguin species. These predicted values were then used as the best estimates as
they account for the different sources of variation. Parameter estimation used the maximum
likelihood method and all computations and tests were performed in S-Plus.

**Comparison of source AA δ¹⁵N values and trophic level estimates.**

These LME models were applied to predict population values of δ¹⁵N_{glu} and δ¹⁵N_{phe}
for each species. Indeed, following Schmidt et al. (2004), we assumed (i) that phenylalanine
does not fractionate between trophic levels (i.e., a source amino acid), (ii) that glutamic acid
demonstrates a step-wise trophic enrichment (i.e., a trophic amino acid) from one trophic
level to the next above the primary producers, and (iii) therefore that Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe} = δ¹⁵N_{glu} −
δ¹⁵N_{phe} can be considered as an index of trophic level for each penguin species. We then
computed Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe} for each replicate and modeled these data with an extra LME model.
Finally, population predicted values of Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe} from the LME model were used to
compare the relative trophic levels of each penguin species.

In addition, a trophic level (TL) for each penguin species can be estimated from the
equation of Hannides et al. (2009):

\[
TL_{penguin} = \left[ \frac{(Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe})_{penguin} - (Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe})_{phytoplankton}}{TEF} \right] + 1 \tag{1},
\]

where TEF is the trophic enrichment factor that results from a shift in one trophic level.

Equation 1 has three unknown variables: \( TL_{penguin} \), \( (Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe})_{phytoplankton} \), and \( TEF \). The
trophic enrichment factor has been determined directly and indirectly to be ~7‰ for samples
of fish and crustaceans muscle tissue and whole organisms (McClelland and Montoya 2002;
Schmidt et al. 2004; Popp et al. 2007). In addition, \( (Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe})_{phytoplankton} \) was set to 4‰, i.e.
the value obtained by McClelland and Montoya (2002) in their lab cultures of the marine alga
*Tetraselmis suecica*. Although the TEF and \( Δδ¹⁵N_{glu-phe} \) values for phytoplankton have not yet
been rigorously tested, they have produced reasonable TL estimates for marine zooplankton (Hannides et al. 2009), krill (Schmidt et al. 2004), and yellowfin tuna (Popp et al. 2007).

RESULTS

Patterns in $\delta^{15}N$ Amino acid values

Bulk $\delta^{15}N$ values ranged 3.7‰ among all the penguin blood samples (Table 2; Cherel and Hobson 2007). The $\delta^{15}N$ values of amino acids (AAs) isolated from penguin chick's blood ranged from -0.2 to +26.0‰ (Table 2; Fig. 2). The trophic AAs (glutamic acid, alanine, aspartic acid, isoleucine, leucine and proline; mean: 17.9 ± 3.0‰) were enriched in $^{15}N$ relative to the source AAs (glycine, phenylalanine and histidine; mean: 5.1 ± 3.5‰) (Table 2). Aspartic acid (asp) (mean: 14.7 ± 2.1‰) showed the least $^{15}N$ enrichment of the trophic AAs. Among the source AAs, glycine (gly) (mean: 9.2 ± 2.8‰) was enriched in $^{15}N$ relative to phenylalanine (phe) (mean: 2.5 ± 1.2‰) and $\delta^{15}N_{gly}$ values did not reflect the species-specific patterns observed in $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$ values (Table 2; Fig. 2). Except for gly and asp, the patterns observed in amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ values of penguin chicks followed previous CSIA trends in trophic and source AAs measured in marine invertebrates and fish (McClelland & Montoya 2002; Schmidt et al. 2004; Popp et al. 2007; Hannides et al. 2009).

The linear mixed-effects models fitted to the $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$ and to the $\delta^{15}N_{glu}$ data indicated that the species effect was significant ($p=0.022$ and $p=0.002$, respectively). The $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$ and $\delta^{15}N_{glu}$ differed then by penguin species (Table 2). Adélie penguins (AP) had the highest LME estimated $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$ values (3.5±0.3‰), whereas southern rockhopper penguins had the lowest LME estimated values (1.1±0.5‰). Fig. 3 displays the LME values with their standard errors (SE) for the four species. Northern rockhopper penguins had LME predicted $\delta^{15}N_{phe}$
values (2.1±0.5‰) higher than SRP (1.1±0.5‰) while king penguins (KP) had moderate δ¹⁵N_phe values (2.6±0.5‰).

**Trophic level of Southern Ocean penguins**

Table 4 displays the LME estimates for the index of trophic level Δδ¹⁵N_ glu-phe for the four species. The species effect was significant (p = 0.018). Among penguin species, KP had the highest index of trophic level (Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe = 17.2‰, Table 3), and SRP had the lowest (Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe = 14.1‰). Estimates for NRP and AP were close, with a slightly higher Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe for NRP (15.5 vs 15.0‰).

Using Eq. 1 with a TEF of 7‰ and a Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe in phytoplankton of 4‰, provided consistent underestimates of TL (2.6, 2.4, 2.9 and 2.6 for NRP, SRP, KP and AP respectively) relative to independent TL estimates based on bulk stable isotope analyses for three of the four species (4.0, 4.5 and 3.9 for SRP, KP and AP, respectively; see Table 4, Cherel et al. 2008). To match these TL, a TEF for penguin chick’s blood was calculated. This TEF estimation is based on the model estimated differences (Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe, see Table 4) and a Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe of 4‰ for phytoplankton (McClelland & Montoya 2002). Given these assumptions (these will be addressed in the Discussion), the new TEF would be 3.4, 3.8 and 3.8‰ for SRP, KP and AP respectively (3.6‰ on average), which is less than the 7‰ cited in previous studies.

**Patterns in δ¹³C Amino acid values**

While bulk δ¹³C values ranged 5.5‰ among the penguin samples (see Table 1 and 3), the δ¹³C values of AAs isolated from penguin chick's blood ranged from -5.0 to -34.0‰ (Table 3; Fig. 2, 4). There was no clear pattern of ¹³C enrichment related to essential (arginine, histidine, lysine, phenylalanine, threonine) and non-essential essential AAs
(alanine, aspartic acid, glycine, and proline) (Table 3; Fig. 2). Instead, there were three
general $\delta^{13}C$ groups of amino acids, where 2 of the 3 groups included both essential and non-
essential essential AAs: (1) a group of AAs with high $^{13}C$ enrichment (threonine, glycine, and
histidine, mean: $-9.9 \pm 2.3\%$), (2) an intermediate group of AAs with $\delta^{13}C$ values similar to
bulk $\delta^{13}C$ values (proline, alanine, phenylalanine, aspartic acid, and lysine, mean: $-22.2 \pm
4.3\%$), and (3) a final group of only essential AAs that were very depleted in $^{13}C$ (arginine,
mean: $-31.3 \pm 1.6\%$). The bimodal pattern observed in the $\delta^{15}N$ values of source and trophic
AAs was not seen in the $\delta^{13}C$ values. Instead, the $\delta^{13}C$ values of all AAs decreased with
increasing latitude, which mirrored the bulk carbon isotope trend (Fig. 4a). A covariance
analysis showed that a model with separate slopes for bulk and all the AAs was justified
compared to a model with parallel regressions ($p = 0.006$). Slopes varied between $-0.10 \pm
0.03$ (lys) and $-0.26 \pm 0.03$ (pro) with one group of four AAs having parallel slopes with bulk
(phe, his, arg and gly, Fig. 4a). In addition, the links between the $\delta^{13}C$ values of all AAs and
bulk were investigated with an extra covariance analysis: the model with separate slopes was
significant ($p = 0.002$; Fig 4b). Slopes varied between $0.52 \pm 0.18$ (thr) and $1.51 \pm 0.18$ (pro).
For six AAs (pro, ala, gly, arg, lys and phe) the correlation between bulk and AA-specific
$\delta^{13}C$ was highly significant ($R^2 > 0.8$ and $p < 0.01$), but there are clearly different patterns in
the slope of the relationship (Fig. 4b). Looking at those AAs where there is a good correlation
between bulk and AA-specific $\delta^{13}C$: for all non-essential AAs but asp, the slope is $>1$, i.e. the
range in $\delta^{13}C$-AAs is higher than in the bulk. In contrast, for all the essential ones the slope is
$< 1$. From all AAs that have good correlation with both bulk and latitude, phenylalanine has
the closest values to the bulk.
DISCUSSION

Penguin δ\(^{15}\)N values and foraging habitat (hypothesis 1)

Small but significant differences were found in δ\(^{15}\)N\(_{\text{phe}}\) values among penguin species (maximum range 3‰). These results suggest then that phenylalanine δ\(^{15}\)N values can be used as a source AAs to study the foraging habitat of penguins. Northern Rockhopper penguins’ δ\(^{15}\)N\(_{\text{phe}}\) values were higher – even if the difference is relatively small - than SRP δ\(^{15}\)N\(_{\text{phe}}\) values (2.1±0.5‰ vs. 1.1±0.5‰), which confirms the hypothesis of Cherel & Hobson (2007) that the observed difference in their bulk δ\(^{15}\)N value (2.4‰) relates in part to differences in the isotopic baseline of their foraging regions. The nitrogen isotopic composition of particulate matter is higher in the Subtropical Frontal Zone north of 40-45°S where NRP forage (Table 1, Tremblay et al. 2003) than at latitudes south of 45°S in the Southwest Indian Ocean (from 5 to -2‰, see Altabet & François 1994), i.e., where southern rockhopper penguins forage close to Crozet Island (Table 1). These north-south δ\(^{15}\)N gradients have also been found in modern sediments collected from the NE Indian Ocean, which demonstrates that these spatial gradients can be robust in the Southern Ocean (Altabet & François 1994).

The highest δ\(^{15}\)N\(_{\text{phe}}\) values were observed for king and Adélie penguins that forage at the highest latitudes in the Southern Ocean. Previous tagging and observational data suggests that these penguins forage at the Polar Front (~50°S) and over the Antarctic shelf (~66°S), respectively (Wienecke et al. 2000; Charrassin & Bost 2001). Both of these oceanic regions are south of the Subtropical Front where one would have expected low baseline δ\(^{15}\)N values (~1 to -2‰; Altabet & François 1994; Lourey et al. 2003). However, several factors can lead to elevated δ\(^{15}\)N and δ\(^{13}\)C values at the base of the food web. The elevated δ\(^{15}\)N\(_{\text{phe}}\) values observed in these penguins could be explained by different processes: a) a local increase in the δ\(^{15}\)N value of the isotopic baseline (neritic vs. oceanic waters, high nutrient utilization by
phytoplankton, or sea ice influence) or b) a difference in the vertical foraging habitat, with
penguins foraging on a greater proportion of mesopelagic prey that have elevated $\delta^{15}$N values.
A local region can have high baseline $\delta^{15}$N value because of extensive NO$_3^{-}$ utilization after a
large phytoplankton bloom (Tamelander et al. 2009). From Fig. 1, high chlorophyll a
concentrations are located near Crozet Island and Adélie Land. However, the waters close to
Crozet Islands are deep and well-mixed and the injection of new NO$_3^{-}$ to the surface waters
will not produce high POM $\delta^{15}$N values because the NO$_3^{-}$ pool size is already large. On the
other hand, over the Antarctic shelf, the water column is stratified, and nitrogen delivery to
the surface waters, and the subsequent uptake by phytoplankton will lead to high $\delta^{15}$N values
of the POM. Trull et al. (2008) showed a 2‰ increase in the $\delta^{15}$N values of POM on
Kerguelen plateau relative to $\delta^{15}$N values of POM collected off the plateau. The higher $\delta^{15}$N
values of POM were attributed to an increase in the uptake of NO$_3^{-}$ by phytoplankton on the
Kerguelen plateau. Neritic waters found above plateaus or coastal shelves can then have
higher $\delta^{15}$N values at the base of the food web compared to offshore oceanic regions.
Accordingly, the isotopic baseline of the waters directly surrounding the Antarctic shelf may
be higher than offshore waters. Adélie penguins forage within 50 km of their Antarctic
colonies (Cherel et al. 2008). Therefore, the relatively high $\delta^{15}$N$_{phe}$ values observed in Adélie
penguins could reflect their neritic foraging behavior in waters above the Antarctic shelf.
Finally, the high $\delta^{15}$N values of Adélie penguins could be explained by feeding in a food web
supported in part by sea ice phytoplankton, which has been shown to have elevated $\delta^{13}$C and
$\delta^{15}$N values (Hobson et al., 1995; Norkko et al. 2007).

The high $\delta^{15}$N$_{phe}$ values of king penguins that forage in the polar front could be
explained by the relative importance of mesopelagic prey in their diet (prey leaving around
300-500m). Previous studies have suggested there is a positive depth gradient in the $\delta^{15}$N
value of particulate nitrogen in the open ocean (Saino & Hattori 1980, 1987; Dore et al. 2002,
Trull et al. (2008). Saino & Hattori (1980) found an overall increase of 9‰ in POM δ¹⁵N between 0 and 1000m in the NE Indian Ocean and Trull et al. (2008) found +0.5‰ with depth on Kerguelen plateau up to 140m. If this nitrogen is incorporated and conserved in the foodweb, then prey that forage at depth (below 100-200m) should have higher δ¹⁵N values that similar prey in the surface waters (Rau et al. 1989; Graham et al. 2007). Mintenbeck et al. (2007) showed a significant increase in the δ¹⁵N values of benthic suspension feeders with water depth on the Weddell Sea shelf (up to 1000 m). Thus, if predators forage on a greater proportion of mesopelagic prey, their δ¹⁵Nphe values would be higher than those of consumers feeding in the same region, but on a more epipelagic resource. King penguins make deep dives to forage, regularly exceeding 150 m depth (Kooyman et al. 1992), and feeding almost exclusively on mesopelagic fish of the family Myctophidae, while other penguins (including AP, NRP, SRP) dive to shallower depths and mainly prey upon crustaceans (Cherel et al. 1993, 2007, Rodary et al. 2000; Tremblay & Cherel 2003, Cherel 2008).

The δ¹⁵Nphe values of SRP and NRP suggest that they do not forage in the same oceanic regions and that the difference in their bulk δ¹⁵N values is due in part to baseline differences. These results also revealed that northern rockhoppers, king and Adélie penguins have close δ¹⁵N values, which would have remained unclear without knowledge on their ecology and feeding behavior (i.e., inshore vs. offshore feeding, deep feeding). Phenylalanine can then be used as a source AA that records baseline δ¹⁵N variations in penguins, but we recommend analyzing a larger number of individuals and interpreting the δ¹⁵Nphe data with additional ecological information on the studied species.

Penguin δ¹⁵N values and trophic levels (hypothesis 2)

Results of previous stomach content and bulk stable isotope analyses suggest that king penguins have a higher trophic level than southern rockhoppers and Adelie penguins (Cherel
et al. 2008). The compound-specific isotope data supports these observations, as the
difference between the δ¹⁵N values of trophic (glutamic acid) and source (phenylalanine)
amino acids was greatest in king penguins (17.2‰, Table 4). If bulk isotope δ¹⁵N values
(Table 1) are interpreted only in the context of variations in trophic ecology, NRP (9.2‰) was
at a lower trophic level than AP (10.1‰), and SRP (6.8‰) was at the lowest TL. The amino
acid δ¹⁵N data however indicated that NRP had a higher Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe value, or trophic level,
than both SRP (15.5 vs. 14.1‰) and AP (15.5 vs. 15.0‰). These conclusions are consistent
with stomach content analysis, which indicate that NRP fed on squids and crustaceans,
whereas, SRP and AP forage mostly on crustaceans (Table 1). The bulk δ¹⁵N difference
(2.4‰) between NRP and SRP is therefore not only due to baseline difference as discussed
previously, but also to a difference in their trophic level.

Our study thus suggests that the δ¹⁵N analyses of individual amino acids, such as
 glutamic acid and phenylalanine, can provide an opportunity to distinguish the relative
influence of baseline variations and trophic level on the bulk δ¹⁵N values of penguins.
However, using equation 1 and a trophic enrichment factor of 7‰ (cf. McClelland &
Montoya 2002), the trophic level of penguin chicks ranged from 2.6 to 2.9. A trophic level
lower than 3 is not possible for these penguins as they are strictly carnivorous ( Cherel et al.
1993, 2008). For example, king penguin is a myctophid-eater, and myctophids forage mainly
on meso- and macrozooplankton, including some herbivorous, omnivorous and even
carnivorous species. Consequently, a TL of king penguins cannot be lower than 4. To match
the expected TLs for penguins, and considering that the 4‰ phytoplankton Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe is
correct, a new TEF of 3.6‰ (see results) has to be used. Assuming this TEF_blood of 3.6‰ and
a value of 4‰ for the Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe value for phytoplankton, this study produced the first
estimate of TL for Northern Rockhopper penguin chicks (4.2) and we find a TL for SRP, KP
and AP to be 3.8, 4.6 and 4.0 respectively. However, the Δδ¹⁵N_glu-phe value for phytoplankton
is not well constrained, and it could also explain why the results from equation 1 consistently
under-estimated the TL for these penguins. Although our dataset suggests that the 7‰ trophic
enrichment factor is not correct for blood tissue collected from penguins, uncertainty still
exists in this emerging ecological method (e.g., TL estimates from Cherel et al. 2008, Δδ_{15N}\text{glu-phe} value for phytoplankton) and trophic enrichment factors should be determined
with experimental work conducted on a diverse assemblage of consumers.

To conclude, the δ^{15}N values of glutamic acid and phenylalanine in penguin blood
(Δδ^{15}N_{glu-phe}) successfully estimated the relative trophic level of the different species of
penguins. However before absolute TLs can be calculated, controlled experiments should be
performed on seabirds and their diet to better constrain the TEF\text{blood} and the Δδ^{15}N_{glu-phe} value
for phytoplankton.

Penguin δ^{13}C values and foraging habitat (hypothesis 3)

Variations in bulk δ^{13}C values have been interpreted as differences in the foraging
habitats of the four penguin species and to corresponding spatial differences in the δ^{13}C values
at the base of the food web (Cherel & Hobson 2007). Strong spatial gradients have been
observed in the Southern Ocean, with a ~9‰ decrease in the δ^{13}C values of POM from low to
high latitudes (François et al. 1993; Popp et al. 1999; Trull et al. 2001). The laboratory and
field results of Fantle et al. (1999) showed that the essential amino acids (E AAs) valine,
leucine and phenylalanine did not exhibit significant $^{13}$C enrichment from the diet and had
lower δ^{13}C values than the non-essential amino acids (NE AAs). Based upon these
observations we predicted that essential AAs would mirror the latitudinal bulk isotopic trends
exhibited in Southern Ocean phytoplankton, i.e., the δ^{13}C values of E AAs in penguins that
forage in lower latitudes would be higher than those that forage at higher latitudes.
The δ¹³C values of 6 AAs (phe, lys, arg, gly, pro, ala) had very good correlation with bulk δ¹³C values (R² > 0.8) and decreased with increasing latitude, suggesting that these AAs track δ¹³C baseline variations. In contrast to what has been found in blue crabs (Fantle et al. 1999), the δ¹³C values of E AAs do not segregate relative to NE AAs in penguin’s blood.

Both E AAs and NE AAs had higher δ¹³C values than bulk δ¹³C values. Interestingly, all E AAs exhibited lower slopes relative to bulk δ¹³C values meaning that the range of variation in these specific AAs δ¹³C values was lower relative to bulk δ¹³C values, while NE AAs (except for aspartic acid) had higher ranges. We are unable to interpret this pattern with our current understanding of carbon isotope fractionation of specific amino acids in seabirds. As such, applying carbon CSIA to determine the foraging ecology and location of marine consumers is not straightforward, and may not even be applicable. Without baseline or prey δ¹³C data, it is not possible to determine if some E AAs fractionate or not relative to their diet. In an experimental study conducted on fish, McCullagh et al. (2008) also found that there was no clear pattern in ¹³C fractionation relative to essentiality of AAs. Instead these authors found that only phenylalanine showed no isotopic difference between the δ¹³C value of the consumer and its diet. In our study, phenylalanine had δ¹³C values close to the bulk values for all penguin species, which suggest that it may be the most appropriate amino acid to track changes in the baseline δ¹³C values and determine a marine consumer’s foraging habitat. If one specific AA had to be chosen for simultaneous C and N isotope analysis, we propose phenylalanine which has the closest values relative to bulk, and is also a source AA for nitrogen.

CONCLUSION
Few studies have been conducted on carbon and nitrogen isotope analyses of individual amino acids, and none of them examined seabirds. This study shows for the first time that the $\delta^{15}$N values of individual amino acids, such as glutamic acid as a trophic AA and phenylalanine as a source AA, can be used to study the foraging ecology of penguins. These results further support the use of compound-specific $\delta^{15}$N isotope analysis to determine the foraging areas and trophic levels of marine consumers, from primary consumers to top predators. Previous analyses however focused on muscle and whole body while this study examined blood. Our results suggest that blood can be used to estimate relative trophic levels, but that the trophic enrichment factor reported in previous studies (i.e., 7‰) might not be appropriate to calculate absolute TL in penguins, and, in general, seabirds. Controlled experiments are therefore needed to better constrain the $\text{TEF}_{\text{blood}}$ value for penguins. The $\delta^{13}$C values of 6 individual AAs tracked $\delta^{13}$C isotopic baseline but without additional CSIA data on the diet or base of the food web, we were unable to further interpret the $\delta^{13}$C values of specific amino acids isolated from penguin blood. Our study however suggests that glutamic acid ($\delta^{15}$N) and phenylalanine (for both $\delta^{15}$N and $\delta^{13}$C) could be key individual amino acids to study the foraging habitat and behavior of marine consumers.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank T. Rust and C. Hannides for their help in $\delta^{15}$N analyses and J. Middelburg, and B. Veuger for having made possible $\delta^{13}$C analyses on the penguin samples. We also greatly thank S. Sokolov for providing Indian Ocean fronts’ positions and Chl a data from Fig. 1, and M. Patriat and P. Lopez for map and figure processing. This work was supported financially by the Program REMIGE – ANR Biodiversité 2005-011 and partially by the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research for carbon analyses.


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Table 1. Foraging characteristics and blood $\delta^{13}$C and $\delta^{15}$N values of penguin species during the chick-rearing period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Locations</th>
<th>Foraging areas</th>
<th>Foraging range (km)</th>
<th>Chick diet</th>
<th>$\delta^{13}$C (‰)*</th>
<th>$\delta^{15}$N (‰)*</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern rockhopper penguin</td>
<td>Amsterdam (37.8°S)</td>
<td>Subtropical Zone</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
<td>Squid &amp; crustaceans</td>
<td>-19.5 ± 0.3 (n=10)</td>
<td>9.2 ± 0.3 (n=10)</td>
<td>Tremblay &amp; Cherel (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern rockhopper penguin</td>
<td>Crozet (46.42°S)</td>
<td>Polar Frontal Zone</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
<td>Crustaceans</td>
<td>-21.2 ± 0.1 (n=10)</td>
<td>6.8 ± 0.3 (n=10)</td>
<td>Tremblay &amp; Cherel (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King penguin</td>
<td>Crozet (46.42°S)</td>
<td>Polar Front (50°S)</td>
<td>340-450</td>
<td>Pelagic fish</td>
<td>-22.6 ± 0.1 (n=10)</td>
<td>10.3 ± 0.2 (n=10)</td>
<td>Cherel et al. (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adélie penguin</td>
<td>Adélie Land (66.7°S)</td>
<td>Antarctic Zone</td>
<td>&lt; 50</td>
<td>Crustaceans (fish)</td>
<td>-24.8 ± 0.5 (n=9)</td>
<td>10.1 ± 0.8 (n=9)</td>
<td>Wienecke et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Bulk values of whole blood of penguin chicks during the austral summer 2001-2002 from Cherel and Hobson (2007).
Table 2. δ¹⁵N values of the bulk sample and isolated amino acids (AAs) of blood collected from penguin chicks from the southern Indian Ocean. Source AAs are indicated by bold print. nc means not considered because of peak co-elution. LME estimate for each species (mean ± SE) were calculated with linear mixed-effect models that accounted for the heterogeneity of the data set (see methods).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amino acid δ¹⁵N values</th>
<th>Bulk δ¹⁵N</th>
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<th>gly</th>
<th>leu</th>
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<th>pro</th>
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### King Penguin (KP). 50.0ºS

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### Adélie Penguin (AP). 66.7ºS

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Table 3. $\delta^{13}$C values of the bulk sample and isolated amino acids (AAs) of blood collected from penguin chicks from the southern Indian Ocean.

Normal font indicates essential AAs and bold print indicates non-essential AAs. nc means not considered because of peak co-elution.

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Table 4. Trophic positions estimates from the literature (na for non available), linear mixed-effect model predictions of $\delta^{15}N_{\text{glu}} - \delta^{15}N_{\text{phe}}$ for the three penguin species, and estimated TEF between source and trophic transfer amino acids for penguin chick’s blood using Equation 1 (see material & methods for more details).

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<th>Species</th>
<th>Trophic position*</th>
<th>Predicted $\delta^{15}N_{\text{glu}} - \delta^{15}N_{\text{phe}}$ (%o)</th>
<th>Estimated TEF (%o)</th>
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*From Cherel et al. (2008)
Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** Sampling locations of the four penguin species in the Southern Indian Ocean (●): Northern rockhopper penguin (NRP), Southern rockhopper penguin (SRP), King penguin (KP) and Adélie penguin (AP). Mean chlorophyll distribution averaged over the period from October 1997 to October 2002 (mg m\(^{-3}\)) in the Southern Ocean overlaid with the Southern Ocean fronts are also indicated. Mean front positions are mapped using SSH (adopted from [Sokolov and Rintoul, 2007; 2009]). The STF position (light brown line) is based on temperature criterion as in [Sokolov and Rintoul, 2002]. The STF is mapped using WOCE global hydrographic climatology [Gouretski and Koltermann, 2004]. The 2000 m bathymetric contour is indicated by light blue line.

**Fig. 2.** Stable isotope values (\(\delta^{15}N\) to the left and \(\delta^{13}C\) to the right, ‰) of bulk and individual amino acids of the four penguin species: ○. Northern rockhopper penguin (NRP); ● Southern rockhopper penguin (SRP); △ King penguin (KP) and □ Adélie penguin(AP). Nb: for nitrogen, mean values are predicted values (see Table 2).

**Fig. 3.** Variations of \(\delta^{15}N\) values for bulk (■, mean ± SD), phenylalanine (△, Phe) and glutamic acid (Δ, Glu) (predicted values ± SE, see methods) with latitude for four penguin species: Northern rockhopper penguin (NRP), southern rockhopper penguin (SRP), king penguin (KP) and Adélie penguin (AP).

**Fig. 4.** Variations of bulk and amino acid (AA) \(\delta^{13}C\) values with latitude (a) and of AA \(\delta^{13}C\) values with bulk (b) for four penguin species: Northern rockhopper penguin (NRP), southern rockhopper penguin (SRP), king penguin (KP) and Adélie penguin (AP).
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Fig. 3. Variations of δ¹⁵N values for bulk (□, mean ± SD), phenylalanine (Δ, Phe) and glutamic acid (△, Glu) (predicted values ± SE, see methods) with latitude for four penguin species: Northern rockhopper penguin (NRP), southern rockhopper penguin (SRP), king penguin (KP) and Adélie penguin (AP).
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