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Calibrating amino acid **δ** ¹³C and **δ** ¹⁵N offsets between polyp and protein skeleton to develop proteinaceous deep-sea corals as paleoceanographic archives.

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Calibrating amino acid **δ** ¹³C and **δ** ¹⁵N offsets between polyp and protein skeleton to develop proteinaceous deep-sea corals as paleoceanographic archives.

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ABSTRACT

 Compound-specific stable isotopes of amino acids (CSI-AA) from proteinaceous deep-sea coral skeletons has the potential to improve paleoreconstructions of plankton community composition, and our understanding of the trophic dynamics and biogeochemical cycling of sinking organic matter in the Ocean. However, the assumption that the molecular isotopic values preserved in protein skeletal material reflect those of the living coral polyps has never been directly investigated in proteinaceous deep-sea corals. We examined CSI-AA from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea corals from three oceanographically distinct regions of the North Pacific: *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska, *Isidella* from the Central California Margin, and *Kulamanamana* from the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. We found minimal offsets in the $\delta^{13}C$ 34 values of both essential and non-essential AAs, and in the $\delta^{15}N$ values of source AAs, between 35 paired samples of polyp tissue and protein skeleton. Using an essential AA δ^{13} C fingerprinting approach, we show that estimates of the relative contribution of eukaryotic microalgae and prokaryotic cyanobacteria to the sinking organic matter supporting deep-sea corals are the same 38 when calculated from polyp tissue or recently deposited skeletal tissue. The $\delta^{15}N$ values of trophic AAs in skeletal tissue, on the other hand, were consistently 3-4‰ lower than polyp tissue for all three genera. We hypothesize that this offset reflects a partitioning of nitrogen flux through isotopic branch points in the synthesis of polyp (fast turnover tissue) and skeleton (slow, unidirectional incorporation). This offset indicates an underestimation, albeit correctable, of approximately half a trophic position from gorgonin protein-based deep-sea coral skeleton. Together, our observations open the door for applying many of the rapidly evolving CSI-AA based tools developed for metabolically active tissues in modern systems to archival coral tissues in a paleoceanographic context.

1. INTRODUCTION

 A diverse array of analytical tools is used to examine ocean ecosystem and biogeochemistry cycling responses to changing climatic conditions (Gordon and Morel 1983; Henderson 2002; Rothwell and Rack 2006; Katz et al. 2010). However, there is a critical gap in resolution between short-term, high-resolution instrumental records, such as remote satellite sensing, and most long-term, paleoceanographic sediment records. The geochemical composition of well preserved, accretionary biogenic tissues (hereafter bioarchives) has the potential to close this gap, shedding light on the structure and function of past ocean ecosystems and their responses to changing climatic and oceanographic conditions on the scale of decades to millennia (Druffel 1997; Barker et al. 2005; Ehrlich 2010; Robinson et al. 2014).

 Deep-sea (azooxanthellate) corals were discovered over two hundred years ago (Roberts and Hirshfield 2004), yet their potential as bioarchives of past ocean conditions is just starting to be fully appreciated (Robinson et al. 2014). They are found on hard substrates in every ocean from near the surface to over 6000 m water depth (Cairns 2007). They provide a direct link to surface ocean processes by feeding opportunistically on recently exported surface-derived, sinking particulate organic matter (POM) akin to a "living sediment trap" (Ribes et al. 1999; Orejas et al. 2003; Roark et al. 2009). In the case of proteinaceous deep-sea corals, their skeletons are made of an extremely durable, cross-linked, fibrillar protein that is among the most diagenetically resistant proteinaceous materials known (Goldberg 1974; Ehrlich 2010; Strzepek et al. 2014). Proteinaceous skeletons are deposited in growth layers that are not metabolically reworked post-deposition (Roark et al. 2009; Sherwood and Edinger 2009), and many species can live for hundreds to thousands of years (Roark et al. 2006, 2009; Guilderson et al. 2013). As such, proteinaceous deep-sea corals can be long-term (millennial), high-resolution (annual to decadal) bioarchives of past ocean conditions.

 Much of the recent proxy development work with proteinaceous deep-sea corals has focused on stable isotope analysis (SIA) of total ("bulk") skeletal material, as a proxy for changes in surface ocean conditions (e.g., Heikoop et al. 2002; Sherwood et al. 2005, 2009; Williams et al. 2007; Hill et al. 2014). A main challenge to interpreting bulk stable isotope data in a paleo-context is determining whether changes in bulk stable isotope values are due to 1) 76 changes in baseline dissolved inorganic carbon $(^{13}$ DIC) or 15 NO₃ values, 2) changes in plankton community composition, 3) changes in trophic dynamics of organic matter exported from the surface ocean (export production) or corals themselves, 4) changes in microbial reworking of sinking organic matter, or some combination of all of these factors (Wakeham and Lee 1989; Meyers 1994; Lehmann et al. 2002; Post 2002). Compound-specific stable isotopes of individual amino acids (CSI-AA) offer a powerful suite of new tools to begin teasing apart these confounding variables (reviewed in Ohkouchi et al. 2017).

 The potential of CSI-AA in paleoceanographic studies lies in the differential fractionation 84 of individual AAs between diet and consumer. With respect to $\delta^{13}C$, there is a high degree of metabolic diversity in essential AA synthesis pathways among distinct lineages of primary 86 producers (Hayes 2001; Scott et al. 2006), which leads to unique essential AA δ¹³C "fingerprints" of primary producers (Larsen et al. 2009, 2013; McMahon et al. 2011, 2015a, 2016). While the phylogenetic specificity of this approach is still coarse and will inherently be limited by the underlying diversity in central metabolism pathways among primary producers, our ability to identify primary producers at finer taxonomic scales using CSI-AA is improving (e.g., Larsen et al. 2009, 2013; McMahon et al. 2015a). These isotopic fingerprints are passed on to upper trophic level consumers, virtually unmodified, because animals acquire essential AAs directly from their diet (Reeds 2000) with little to no isotopic fractionation between diet and consumer (Hare et al. 1991; Howland et al. 2003; McMahon et al. 2010). As a result, essential 95 AA δ^{13} C fingerprinting tools are now rapidly developing, with the ultimate goal of quantifying the primary producer sources in food webs (e.g., Arthur et al. 2014; Nielsen and Winder 2015; McMahon et al. 2016).

98 With respect to $\delta^{15}N$, individual AAs are commonly divided into trophic and source AAs (after Popp et al. 2007) based on their relative ¹⁵N fractionation with trophic transfer (Δ^{15} N_{C-D}) (reviewed in McMahon and McCarthy 2016; Ohkouchi et al. 2017). Source AAs (e.g., phenylalanine: Phe) exhibit minimal nitrogen isotope fractionation during trophic transfer 102 (McClelland and Montoya 2002; Chikaraishi et al. 2009; McMahon et al. 2015b). Thus $\delta^{15}N_{\text{Phe}}$ has commonly been used as a proxy for the sources and cycling of nitrogen at the base of food 104 webs $(\delta^{15}N_{\text{baseline}})$ (Décima et al. 2013; Sherwood et al. 2014; Vokhshoori and McCarthy 2014; Lorrain et al. 2015). Trophic AAs (e.g., glutamic acid: Glu), on the other hand, undergo significant nitrogen isotope fractionation during transamination/deamination (McClelland and Montoya 2002; Chikaraishi et al. 2009). When utilized together, the CSI-AA approach provides 108 a metric of trophic position that is internally indexed to the $\delta^{15}N_{\text{baseline}}$ (Chikaraishi et al. 2007; 109 Chikaraishi et al. 2009). It is important to note that the processes for AA $\delta^{15}N$ fractionation (degree of transamination/deamination; Braun et al. 2014) are largely independent from the 111 processes for AA δ^{13} C fractionation (ability to synthesize carbon side chains; Hayes 2001), providing complementary but distinct insight into the processing of organic matter.

 In recent years, CSI-AA has increasingly been applied to proteinaceous deep-sea corals, 114 with both AA $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ analyses used to understand shifting current systems on the Atlantic margin (Sherwood et al. 2011), changes in plankton community composition and nitrogen fixation in the central Pacific (Sherwood et al., 2014; McMahon et al., 2015a), effects of long- term land use change on Gulf of Mexico N cycling (Prouty et al., 2014), and stability of mesophotic primary productivity in the western Pacific warm pool (Williams et al. 2016). However, a fundamental assumption for all such CSI-AA applications is that individual AA stable isotope values of bioarchival skeleton material reflect the same AA isotope values in the metabolically active polyp tissue at the time of deposition. While AA stable isotope values have been well studied in metabolically active consumer tissues (reviewed in McMahon and McCarthy 2016), these structural proteins typically have very different AA compositions and turnover rates (Ehrlich 2010), which could potentially lead to differences in fractionation processes (e.g., Schmidt et al. 2004; Chikaraishi et al. 2014; Hebert et al. 2016). To our 126 knowledge, this underlying question of AA δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N preservation in structural tissues of deep-sea corals has never been directly evaluated.

 Here we present the first quantitative examination of individual AA stable isotope values 129 (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) in paired coral polyp tissue and recently deposited protein skeleton for three genera of deep-sea proteinaceous coral from three oceanographically distinct regions of the North Pacific (Fig. 1; Appendix A): Red Tree Coral *Primnoa pacifica* (Family: Primnoidae) from the Gulf of Alaska, Bamboo Coral *Isidella sp*. (Family: Isididae) from the California Current System, and Hawaiian Gold Coral *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (Family: Parazoanthidae) from the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (NPSG), hereafter referred to as *Primnoa, Isidella,* and *Kulamanamana*, respectively. We tested the hypothesis that there would be no differences in 136 individual AA $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values between polyp tissue and recent skeletal material. We then tested whether metabolically active polyp tissue and proteinaceous skeleton produced the same results for two commonly used CSI-AA proxy approaches. First, we compared plankton

 rapid nutrient drawdown by summer phytoplankton blooms as the summer progresses and upwelling stops (Wu et al. 1997).

2.1.2 Bamboo coral: *Isidella*

 Isidella sp. (Gray 1857) is an octocoral of the family Isididae that forms a skeleton of high magnesium calcite internodes several centimeters long interspersed by proteinaceous gorgonin organic nodes (4-25 mm long) (Fig. A.1). These coral grow in candelabra-like shapes to heights greater than 2 m (Fig. A.1). They are slow growing (radial growth rates of 50-150 µm yr^{-1} , with lifespans reaching several hundred years (Thresher et al., 2004; Roark et al. 2005).

 Here, five live specimens of the genus *Isidella* were collected in 1125-1250 m water depth from the California Margin (Sur Ridge) offshore of central California using the Monterey Bay Area Research Institute (MBARI) ROV Doc Ricketts in the summer of 2014 (Fig. 1; Table A.1). The California Margin is one of the most productive zones of the World Ocean, with strong seasonal coastal upwelling from April through early winter (Strub et al. 1987; Garcia-Reyes and Largier 2012) generating a nutrient-rich environment supporting substantial productivity (Bruland et al. 2001). Sur Ridge in the Central California Margin is a high nutrient and low chlorophyll (HNLC) zone (Hutchins and Bruland 1998; Walker and McCarthy 2012). The 179 southward-flowing California Current bathes this region with NO₃ of oceanic origin, while the northward-flowing California Undercurrent and the weaker nearshore Davidson Current entrain 15 N-enriched NO₃ associated with enhanced denitrification from the high productivity, low oxygen Eastern Tropical North Pacific (Altabet et al. 1999; Voss et al. 2001; Collins et al. 2003).

2.1.3 Hawaiian Gold Coral: *Kulamanamana*

 Kulamanamana haumeaae (Sinniger et al. 2013) is a parasitic zoantharian of the family Parazoanthidae that secretes a scleroprotein skeleton that covers and eventually extends beyond its host coral colony. This coral forms a sea fan shape with heights of several meters (Parrish 2015; Fig. A.1). It is a very long-lived, slow growing coral, with lifespans of thousands of years 189 and radial growth rates of $25-100 \mu m yr^{-1}$ (Roark et al. 2006, 2009; Guilderson et al. 2013).

 Here, three live *Kulamanamana* colonies were collected in 350-410 m water depth from the seamounts in the Hawaiian archipelago using the HURL/NOAA Pisces V submersible in the summer of 2004 and 2007 (Fig. 1; Table A.1) (Guilderson et al. 2013). The NPSG is 193 characterized by exceedingly low dissolved nutrients $(<10$ nmol NO₃ in the mixed layer) and is dominated by small cell prokaryotic cyanobacterial production (Karl et al. 2001). The nitrogen balance and controls on new production in this system are not strictly limited by available fixed nitrogen (Eppley et al. 1977), and there is significant nitrogen fixation with characteristically low $197 \delta^{15}$ N values (Karl et al. 2008; Church et al. 2009).

2.2 Sample preparation and analysis

2.2.1 Sample Preparation

 All coral colonies were rinsed with saltwater followed by distilled water and air-dried prior to being transferred to onshore laboratories. Encrusted polyp tissue was then peeled as a single mass from the skeleton of each coral colony with forceps and dried again at 50°C for 24 hrs. After drying, the polyp tissue was homogenized, reflecting a colony wide composite sample. Deep-sea coral polyp tissues are very lipid rich (Hamoutene et al. 2008), and therefore polyp tissue samples were lipid extracted three times following the conventional methanol/chloroform protocol of Bligh and Dyer (1959) prior to analysis of CSI-AA to improve chromatography. The proteinaceous nodes of *Isidella* were separated from the carbonate internodes with a scalpel according to Schiff et al. (2014). Both *Primnoa* and *Kulamanamana* skeletons were sectioned at the base and polished according to Sherwood et al. (2014). The outermost edge of the protein skeleton (~200 µm radial depth, 5-7 mm band parallel to the growth axis) from all three coral genera was sampled with a computerized Merchantek micromill. Skeleton samples were individually acid washed in 1 N HCl in glass vials for four hours, rinsed three times in Milli-Q water, and dried over night at 50°C to remove calcium carbonate prior to analysis of CSI-AA to improve chromatography.

2.2.2 Stable isotope analysis

218 Bulk δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values and elemental ratios for coral skeleton material as well as coral polyp material before and after lipid extraction (Appendix B; Table B1) were conducted at University of California, Santa Cruz using standard protocols of the Stable Isotope Laboratory (http://emerald.ucsc.edu/~silab/). Isotope values were corrected using an internal laboratory acetanilide standard, and in turn referenced to international IAEA standards. More detailed descriptions of coral tissue bulk analyses and data interpretation are given in Appendix B. CSI-AA was conducted on polyp tissue and proteinaceous skeleton using 3 mg for δ¹³C 225 and 6 mg for $\delta^{15}N$. Samples were acid hydrolyzed in 1 ml of 6 N HCl at 110°C for 20 hrs to isolate the total free AAs and then evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of ultra-high 227 purity N₂. All samples were redissolved in $0.01N$ HCl and passed through 0.45 μ m Millipore glass-fiber filters followed by rinses with additional 0.01N HCl. Samples were then passed through individual cation exchange columns (Dowex 50WX* 400 ion exchange resin), rinsed with 0.01 N HCl, and eluted into muffled glassware with 2 N ammonia hydroxide. Dried samples

were derivatized by esterification with acidified iso-propanol followed by acylation with

trifluoroacetic anhydride (Silfer et al*.* 1991). Derivatized samples were extracted with P-buffer

233 (KH₂PO₄ + Na₂HPO₄ in Milli-Q water, pH 7) and chloroform three times with centrifugation

(600 g) and organic phase extraction between each round (Ueda et al 1989). Samples were

235 evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of ultra-high purity N_2 prior to neutralization with 2

N HCl at 110°C for 5 min. Dried samples were acylated once again and then brought up in ethyl

acetate for CSI-AA analysis.

238 For AA δ^{13} C analyses, the derivatized AAs were injected in split mode at 250 $^{\circ}$ C and 239 separated on a DB-5 column (50 m x 0.5 mm inner diameter; 0.25 um film thickness; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California, USA) in a Thermo Trace Ultra gas chromatograph (GC) at the University of California, Santa Cruz. The separated AA peaks were analyzed on a 242 Finnegan MAT Delta^{Plus} XL isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) interfaced to the GC 243 through a GC-C III combustion furnace (960°C) and reduction furnace (630°C). For AA $\delta^{15}N$ 244 analyses, the derivatized AAs were injected in splitless mode at 250 °C and separated on a BPX5 column (60 m x 0.32 mm inner diameter, 1.0 µm film thickness; SGE Analytical Science, Austin, Texas, USA) in the same CG-C-IRMS interfaced through a combustion furnace (980°C), 247 reduction furnace $(650^{\circ}C)$, and a liquid nitrogen trap.

 For carbon, we assigned glutamic acid (Glu), aspartic acid (Asp), alanine (Ala), proline (Pro), glycine (Gly), and serine (Ser) as non-essential AAs, and threonine (Thr), leucine (Leu), isoleucine (Ile), valine (Val), and phenylalanine (Phe) as essential AAs (Reeds 2000). For nitrogen, we assigned Glu, Asp, Ala, Leu, Ile, Pro, Val as trophic AAs, and Phe, Methionine (Met), and Lysine (Lys) as source AAs (Popp et al. 2007). Gly, Ser, and Thr were kept as separate groups given the lack of consensus on degree of trophic fractionation between diet and

 consumer (reviewed in McMahon and McCarthy 2016). It should be noted that acid hydrolysis converts glutamine (Gln) and aspartamine (Asn) into Glu and Asp, respectively, due to cleavage 256 of the terminal amine group, resulting in the measurement of combined $G\ln + Glu$ (referred to hereby as Glu), and Asn +Asp (referred to hereby as Asp).

258 Standardization of runs was achieved using intermittent pulses of a $CO₂$ or $N₂$ reference 259 gas of known isotopic value and internal nor-Leucine standards. All CSI-AA samples were 260 analyzed in triplicate along with AA standards of known isotopic composition (Sigma-Aldrich 261 Co.). The variability reported for $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ value of each AA measured (Table C.1-C.4) 262 therefore represents the analytical variation for $n = 3$ replicate GC-C-IRMS measurements. The 263 long-term reproducibility of stable isotope values in a laboratory algal standard provides an 264 estimate of full protocol reproducibility (replicate hydrolysis, wet chemistry, and analysis): $\delta^{13}C$ $265 = \pm 0.7\%$ and $\delta^{15}N = \pm 0.3\%$ (calculated as the long-term SD across >100 separate full analyses, 266 averaged across all individual AAs).

267

268 **2.3 Data analysis**

269 We used principal component analysis to visualize multivariate patterns in the $\delta^{13}C$ 270 values of individual AAs (Ala, Asp, Gly, Glu, Ile, Leu, Phe, Pro, Ser, Thr, Val) in polyp tissue 271 and skeleton of the three deep-sea coral genera (Appendix C, Table C.5). Individual AA stable 272 isotope offsets were calculated as the difference in isotope value (δ^{13} C or δ^{15} N) between paired 273 polyp and skeleton samples for each individual from the three genera of deep-sea coral. We used 274 separate one-sample t-tests to determine if individual AA δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N offsets between polyp 275 and skeleton were significantly different from zero ($\alpha = 0.05$). For all statistical analyses n = 5 276 individuals for *Primnoa* and *Isidella* and n = 3 individuals for *Kulamamanama*. All data conformed to the assumptions of their respective statistical tests.

 We used an AA isotope fingerprinting approach to examine the composition of primary producers fueling export production to deep-sea corals in each of the three study regions: Gulf of Alaska (*Primnoa*), Central California Margin (*Isidella*), and NPSG (*Kulamanamana*) (sensu McMahon et al. 2015a; see Appendix C for details). Briefly, we calculated the relative contribution of key plankton end members (eukaryotic microalgae, prokaryotic cyanobacteria, and heterotrophic bacteria) contributing carbon to each coral colony via export production in a fully Bayesian stable isotope mixing framework (Parnell et al. 2010; Ward et al. 2010) within the Stable Isotope Analysis in R (SIAR) package (R Core team 2013). We used published essential 286 AA δ^{13} C data (Thr, Ile, Val, Phe, and Leu) from eukaryotic microalgae, cyanobacteria, and heterotrophic bacteria (Larsen et al. 2009, 2013; Lehman 2009) as the source data set for the 288 mixing model (Table C.6). We used normalized essential AA δ^{13} C values of end members and 289 coral tissues (polyp and skeleton) to facilitate comparisons of the AA δ^{13} C fingerprints across different regions and growing conditions (see Appendix C for justification). To do this, we 291 subtracted the mean of all five essential AA δ^{13} C values from each individual essential AA δ^{13} C value for each sample (senus Larsen et al. 2015). In SIAR, we ran 500,000 iterations with an initial discard of the first 50,000 iterations as burn-in. We used separate One-Way Analyses of 294 Variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post-hoc tests (α = 0.05) to look for differences in relative contribution of each end member among the three coral genera. We used separate one-sample t-tests to see if the differences in the relative contribution of potential end members calculated from coral polyp tissue vs. skeleton were significantly 298 different from 0 (α = 0.05).

299 We examined the differences in mean trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ offsets (calculated as the mean

 δ^{15} N offset between polyp and skeleton averaged across all trophic AAs for each coral) among 301 the three genera of coral using a One-Way ANVOA and Tukey's HSD post-hoc test (α = 0.05). 302 We calculated separate TP_{CSI-AA} values of deep-sea corals based on the AA $\delta^{15}N$ values from 303 polyp tissue and skeleton using the single TDF_{Glu-Phe} approach of Chikaraishi et al. (2009):

$$
304 \tTP_{CSI-AA-single\, TDF} = 1 + \left[\frac{\delta^{15} N_{Glu} - \delta^{15} N_{Phe} - \beta}{TDF_{Glu-Phe}} \right]
$$

305 (1)

306 where $\delta^{15}N_{\text{Glu}}$ and $\delta^{15}N_{\text{Phe}}$ represent the stable nitrogen isotope values of coral Glu and Phe, 307 respectively, β represents the difference in $\delta^{15}N$ between Glu and Phe of primary producers 308 (3.4‰ for aquatic cyanobacteria and algae [McClelland & Montoya, 2002; Chikaraishi et al. 309 2010]), and TDFGlu-Phe is the literature value of 7.6‰ (Chikaraishi et al. 2009). We then used 310 separate one-sample t-tests to see if the differences in TP_{CSI-AA} offsets calculated from coral 311 polyp tissue vs. skeleton were significantly different from 0 (α = 0.05). All statistics were 312 performed in R version 3.0.2 using RStudio interface version 0.98.501 (R Core team 2013).

313

314 **3. RESULTS**

315 **3.1 Bulk elemental and isotopic composition**

316 Detailed analysis of bulk isotopic and elemental composition for coral skeleton and 317 polyp material is given in Appendix B. The δ^{13} C values for coral skeleton material (-15.9 \pm 0.9 318 % %) was \sim 3.5% more enriched than lipid-intact polyp material (-19.4 \pm 1.0 %), though both 319 tissues had consistent δ^{13} C values across all three genera examined (Table B.1). The δ^{13} C values 320 of lipid extracted polyp material (-15.5 \pm 0.7 ‰) were 4‰ lower than lipid-intact polyps and 321 very similar to corresponding skeleton material (mean offset $-0.4 \pm 0.5\%$) (Table B.1). Lipid

322 extraction also altered polyp tissue C/N ratios. Lipid-extracted polyp tissues had much lower C/N

- 323 ratios (3.1 \pm 0.3) than lipid-intact polyps (4.8 \pm 0.7) and were very similar to coral proteinaceous
- 324 skeleton (2.9 \pm 0.3). Much like δ^{13} C values, C/N ratios were consistent across all three genera
- 325 examined. In contrast, the $\delta^{15}N$ values were more variable among the three genera for both
- 326 skeleton (mean 13.8 ± 1.0 for *Primnoa*; 16.0 ± 0.7 for *Isadella*, and 10.3 ± 0.3 for
- 327 *Kulamanamana*) and lipid-intact polyp tissue (mean 11.2 ± 0.4 for *Primnoa*; 14.8 ± 0.6 for
- 328 *Isadella*, and 8.3 ± 0.3 for *Kulamanamana*) (Table B.1). On average, coral polyp tissue was 1.9 ± 1.5
- 329 0.8‰ more enriched than coral skeleton (Table B.1).
- 330 3.2 Amino acid carbon isotopes

331 Individual AA δ^{13} C values differed significantly among the three coral genera (Fig. 2), 332 with *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska and *Isidella* from the Sur Ridge generally having more 333 positive AA δ^{13} C values than *Kulamanamana* from the NPSG. Given the substantially larger 334 differences in individual AA δ^{13} C values among different coral genera compared to among 335 individuals within a genus, all three corals were separated in multivariate space based on 336 principal component analysis of all eleven AA δ^{13} C values (Fig. 3, Table C.5).

There was little to no variation in individual AA δ^{13} C values between skeleton and polyp 338 tissue within an individual: mean δ^{13} C offset was -0.2 \pm 0.4‰ for *Primnoa*, 0.0 \pm 0.2‰ for 339 *Isidella* and 0.2 ± 0.6‰ for *Kulamamana* (calculated as the average offset for all AAs analyzed, 340 averaged across all individuals within a genus; Fig. 4). No individual AA δ^{13} C offsets between 341 skeleton and polyp tissue were greater than 1‰, and only the non-essential AA Pro in *Primnoa* 342 had a δ^{13} C offset that was significantly different from 0‰ (-1.0 \pm 0.7‰; Table 1). As a result, 343 the skeleton and polyp tissue from a single genus always clustered together in multivariate space 344 (Fig. 3, Table C.5).

 Using an AA isotope fingerprinting approach in a Bayesian stable isotope mixing model, we compared estimates of the relative contribution of eukaryotic microalgae and prokaryotic cyanobacteria to corals calculated from both tissues. The relative contribution results were very similar whether we used the coral polyp tissue or the proteinaceous skeleton (Fig. 5). The mean 349 absolute value difference in relative contribution calculated from polyp vs. skeleton was $6 \pm 3\%$ 350 for *Primnoa*, $4 \pm 2\%$ for *Isidella*, and $5 \pm 2\%$ for *Kulamanamana* (calculated as the absolute value of the difference in relative contribution for each end member between polyp tissue and skeleton, averaged across all three end members for all individuals within a coral genera). This 4 to 6% variability between tissue types was within the variance in model output after 500,000 354 iterations of the SIAR mixing model $(8 \pm 1\%)$.

 We did find significant differences in the relative contribution of cyanobacteria-derived 356 carbon (One-way ANOVA, $F_{2,10} = 235.5$, $p = 3.9e^{-9}$) and eukaryotic microalgae-derived carbon 357 (One-way ANOVA, $F_{2,10} = 410.5$, $p = 2.5e^{-10}$) among the three corals (calculated from polyp tissue, but the results were the same for skeleton). Both *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska (77 ± 2%) and *Isidella* from the Central California Margin (68 ± 4%) relied heavily on export production fueled by eukaryotic microalgae (Tukey's HSD, p < 0.05) (Fig. 5). Conversely, *Kulamanamana* from the NPSG received relatively little input from eukaryotic microalgae (9 ± 362 5%) (Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.05$), instead receiving the majority of its carbon from cyanobacteria-363 fixed carbon (74 \pm 1%) (Tukey's HSD, p < 0.05) (Fig. 5). All three corals showed a small and 364 relatively consistent contribution of carbon from heterotrophic bacteria ($12 \pm 4\%$ averaged across all three genera) (Fig. 5).

367 3. 3 Amino acid nitrogen isotopes

368 As with carbon, individual AA $\delta^{15}N$ values differed significantly among the three coral 369 genera (Fig. 6), with *Isidella* from the California Margin having the highest AA $\delta^{15}N$ values and 370 *Kulamanamana* from the NPSG having the lowest AA δ^{15} N values. The trophic AAs were more 371 positive than the source AAs, and Thr had the characteristically most negative $\delta^{15}N$ values. δ^{15} N values did not differ significantly between coral skeleton and polyp tissue for any of 373 the measurable source AAs: Phe (mean offset across all three genera = $-0.1 \pm 0.1\%$), Lys (0.3 \pm

374 0.1‰), and Met (0.1‰; however, Met was only present in sufficient quantity for analysis in *375 Primnoa*) (Fig. 7; Table 1). However, the mean offset in trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ values between 376 skeleton and polyp were significantly greater than 0‰ for all three genera: *Primnoa* = -2.8 \pm 377 0.2‰ (one sample t-test, $t_4 = -32.4$, $p = 5.4e^{-6}$), *Isidella* = $-3.5 \pm 0.4%$ (one sample t-test, $t_4 = -3.5$ 378 22.0, $p = 2.5e^{-5}$), and *Kulamanamana* = -3.2 \pm 0.1‰ (one sample t-test, t₂ = -56.8, $p = 3.1e^{-4}$) 379 (averaged across all trophic AAs within an individual and then averaged across all individuals 380 within a genus) (Fig. 7). In particular, the mean offset for the canonical trophic AA Glu was 381 remarkably consistent across all three coral genera: *Primnoa* = -3.4 \pm 0.5‰, *Isidella* = -3.4 \pm 382 0.5‰, and *Kulamanamana* = -3.4 ± 0.2 ‰ (averaged across individuals within a genus) (Fig. 7, 383 Table 1). Thr $\delta^{15}N$ values were consistently offset between skeleton and polyp tissue for all three 384 genera (mean offset across all three genera = $2.8 \pm 0.6\%$), but in the opposite direction as the 385 trophic AAs (Fig. 7, Table 1). Gly and Ser had variable $\delta^{15}N$ offsets among the three genera 386 though they were always closer to 0‰ than the trophic AAs and Thr (Fig. 7, Table 1).

387 All three coral genera had similar TP_{CSI-AA} values when calculated from polyp tissue: 388 *Primnoa* = 2.4 \pm 0.2, *Isidella* = 2.4 \pm 0.1, and *Kulamanamana* = 2.6 \pm 0.1 (averaged across 389 individuals within a genus). However, given the large -3.4‰ offset in $\delta^{15}N$ value of Glu between 390 skeleton and polyp tissue, coincident with no appreciable offset in Phe $\delta^{15}N$ value, TP_{CSI-AA} 391 estimates were nearly half a trophic level lower when calculated from skeleton AA $\delta^{15}N$ data, 392 compared to estimates from polyp data. The mean TP_{CSI-AA} offsets between skeleton and polyp 393 were also very similar among genera: for $Primnoa = -0.4 \pm 0.1$ (one sample t-test, $t_4 = -15.7$, p = 394 9.5e⁻⁵), *Isidella* = -0.4 \pm 0.1 (one sample t-test, t₄ = -14.1, p = 1.5e⁻⁴), and *Kulamanamana* = -0.5 395 ± 0.1 (one sample t-test, t₂ = -11.1, p = 0.008).

396

397 **4. DISCUSSION**

Overall, the AA δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N offsets between coral polyp tissue and skeleton were consistent across three proteinaceous deep-sea coral genera. We found minimal offsets in the δ^{13} C values of both essential and non-essential AAs, as well as the δ^{15} N values of source AAs 401 between polyp tissue and protein skeleton. However, the $\delta^{15}N$ values of trophic AAs in skeletal material were consistently 3-4‰ less than polyp tissue for all three genera. These observations 403 suggest that these patterns of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ offset between coral polyp tissue and proteinaceous skeleton are likely robust for gorgonin-based proteinaceous corals, linked to fundamental aspects of central metabolism and tissue synthesis. Our observations open the door for applying many of the rapidly evolving CSI-AA based tools developed for metabolically active tissues in modern systems to archival coral tissues in a paleoceanographic context.

408

409 **4.1 Carbon isotopes**

410 Amino acid carbon isotope fingerprinting has the potential to be used to reconstruct the 411 main sources of primary production fueling consumers (e.g., Larsen et al. 2013; Arthur et al. 2014; McMahon et al. 2016). However, to apply this technique to paleoarchives, the δ^{13} C values 413 of individual AAs in archival structural tissues, such as proteinaceous skeletons, must accurately 414 reflect the δ^{13} C values of those same AAs in the metabolically active tissue. Our data showed 415 only small, non-systematic offsets in AA δ^{13} C values between coral polyp tissue and 416 proteinaceous skeleton. This observation indicates that deep-sea corals do not exhibit 417 substantially different carbon isotope fractionation of AAs during the synthesis of metabolically 418 active tissues and structural proteins from a shared dietary amino acid pool. As a result, we 419 conclude that information obtained from the δ^{13} C values of AAs in a proteinaceous coral 420 skeleton reflects the same information that would be obtained from the metabolically active 421 tissue. While the average offset in AA δ^{13} C value between tissues (averaged across all AAs) was 422 close to 0‰, there was notable variation about that mean δ^{13} C offset of individual AAs (typically 423 < 1‰) (Table 1). This variability likely reflects a combination of analytical uncertainty, small 424 offsets in the temporal window represented by the different integration times of polyp and 425 skeleton tissues, and potentially small differences in isotope fractionation during metabolism. 426 However, as noted in Section 2.2.2, our best estimate of the full intra-sample variability for 427 average δ^{13} C AA measurements using this protocol is \pm 0.7‰. As such, differences in AA δ^{13} C 428 values among samples likely cannot be reliably interpreted near or less than 0.7‰.

429 To our knowledge, there is only one prior study comparing $AA \delta^{13}C$ values in paired 430 metabolically active and bioarchival structural tissues (McMahon et al. 2011). In that study, 431 McMahon et al. (2011) found minimal offsets in AA δ^{13} C values between fish muscle and the 432 protein in biomineralized otoliths, which they similarly attributed to utilization of a shared amino 433 acid pool for biosynthesis of both tissue types. Taken together, our data suggest that the AA $\delta^{13}C$ 434 values preserved in biomineralized tissues provide a faithful record of the AA δ^{13} C values of

 metabolically active tissues across phylogenetically distant consumer taxa. However, it is important to remember that given the differences in incorporation rates between coral polyps (relatively fast) and proteinaceous skeleton (skeleton), corals that experience strong seasonal changes in food source (sinking POM) could exhibit offsets in the geochemical signals recorded in these two tissues.

 One promising paleo-application for proteinaceous coral skeletons is using essential 441 amino acid δ^{13} C values within Bayesian mixing models to reconstruct past changes in algal community composition supporting export production (e.g., Schiff et al. 2014; McMahon et al. 2015a). The central observation for our study's main question was that both living tissue (polyp) and coral skeleton give identical (within error) estimates of different sources using this technique 445 (Fig. 5). This supports our original hypothesis that δ^{13} C AA fingerprinting approaches applied to coral skeletons produce the same result as if those analyses were conducted on metabolically active tissue integrating over the same time period.

 While not the main focus of our study, our mixing model results of relative contribution of prokaryotic cyanobacteria and eukaryotic microalgae fueling export production were consistent with expectations based on phytoplankton community composition in the three oceanographically distinct regions (Fig. 5). For example, both *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska 452 and *Isidella* from the California Margin (77 \pm 2% and 68 \pm 4% respectively) relied heavily on export production fueled by eukaryotic microalgae, as expected for these regions with strong seasonal upwelling dominated by large eukaryotic phytoplankton (Chavez et al. 1991; Lehman 1996; Odate 1996; Strom et al. 2006). Conversely, *Kulamanamana* received the majority of their 456 essential AAs from cyanobacteria-fixed carbon $(74 \pm 1\%)$, consistent with the cyanobacteria-dominated plankton composition of the oligotrophic NPSG euphotic zone (Karl et al. 2001). Our Bayesian mixing model results suggest that very little of the exported POM fed upon by any of these proteinaceous deep-sea corals was derived from heterotrophic bacteria, consistent with past estimates of direct heterotrophic bacterial contribution to sinking POM (Fuhrman 1992; Azam et al. 1994; Wakeham 1995). Caution must be taken when interpreting small differences (<10%) in 462 relative contribution of end members, given the observed variability in AA δ^{13} C offset between polyp and skeleton (Table 1), variability in the molecular isotopic training set (Table C.6), and 464 variance in the mixing output $(\pm 8\%)$. As such, the fact that the relative contribution results were consistent between polyp tissue and protein skeleton within estimates of uncertainty supports our hypothesis that the proteinaceous skeletons of deep-sea corals faithfully records the same geochemical signals as metabolically active tissue over the same integration time.

4.2 Nitrogen isotopes

470 *4.2.1 Source AA* $\delta^{15}N$ as a proxy for $\delta^{15}N_{baseline}$

471 As we hypothesized, we found no significant offsets in source AA $\delta^{15}N$ values between proteinaceous skeleton and polyp tissue for any of the coral genera in this study (Table 1). Since 473 source AA $\delta^{15}N$ values provide a robust proxy for $\delta^{15}N_{\text{baseline}}$ (reviewed in McMahon and 474 McCarthy 2016), these results provide strong validation for using source AA $\delta^{15}N$ values in proteinaceous coral records to infer past changes in the sources and cycling of nitrogen fueling export production (e.g. Sherwood et al. 2011, 2014). For instance, we found significant 477 differences in the δ^{15} N_{Phe} values among the three coral genera from oceanographically distinct regions (Fig. 6), which were generally consistent with oceanographic regime. *Kulamanamana* 479 corals from the NPSG had the lowest source AA δ^{15} N values (2.6 \pm 0.2‰), consistent with the 480 expected strong influence of ¹⁵N-deplete nitrogen fixation in this region (Sherwood et al. 2014). 481 Conversely, *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska ($\delta^{15}N_{\text{Phe}} = 7.3 \pm 0.6\%$) and *Isidella* from the 482 California Margin ($\delta^{15}N_{\text{Phe}} = 10.0 \pm 0.6\%$) had more enriched $\delta^{15}N_{\text{Phe}}$ values, again consistent 483 with the 15 N-enriched nitrate supporting these coastal eutrophic upwelling systems (Wu et al. 484 1997; Altabet et al. 1999; Voss et al. 2001; Collins et al. 2003). *Isidella*, in particular, had the 485 highest source AA $\delta^{15}N$ values among the specimens. This likely reflects upwelling of ¹⁵N-486 enriched nitrate transported from regions of strong denitrification in the Eastern Tropical North 487 Pacific via the California Undercurrent (Vokhshoori and McCarthy 2014; Ruiz-Cooley et al., 488 2014).

- 489
- 490 *4.2.2 Trophic AAs and TPCSI-AA*

491 Being able to estimate accurate TP_{CSI-AA} values in bioarchives is central to many CSI-AA 492 paleoceanographic applications. TP_{CSI-AA} has been developed in coral records and sediments as a 493 new proxy for tracking the trophic structure of planktonic ecosystems, which is likely tightly 494 linked to overall nitrogen supply and nitricline depth (e.g., Sherwood et al. 2014; Batista et al. 495 2014). Measuring TP_{CSI-AA} in a paleorecord is also critical to determine the degree to which 496 shifts in $\delta^{15}N$ values of exported POM over time are driven by shifts in planktonic ecosystem 497 structure or "baseline" changes in the sources and cycling of nitrogen at the base of the food web 498 (e.g. Batista et al., 2014).

499 We found a mean 3 to 4‰ offset in trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ values between skeleton and polyp 500 tissue (Fig. 7), which was in direct contrast to both our hypothesis and the widespread 501 assumption of consistent trophic fractionation of AAs among tissues (McMahon and McCarthy 2016). Given the minimal offset in source AA $\delta^{15}N$ values between tissues, the estimated trophic 503 position (TP_{CSI-AA}) of proteinaceous deep-sea coral from skeleton was approximately half a 504 trophic level lower than when TP_{CSI-AA} was calculated from corresponding polyp tissue. The 505 specific TP_{CSI-AA} values calculated from coral skeleton using eq. 1 (mean 2.0 ± 0.1 across all 506 three genera) also appear to be low based on expectations of POM feeding proteinaceous deep-507 sea corals. Direct TP_{CSI-AA} estimates from sinking POM, for example, have generally indicated 508 average TP values near 1.5 (e.g., McCarthy et al. 2007; Batista et al. 2014), leading to a general 509 expectation that coral TP_{CSI-AA} values should be near 2.5.

510 Our data indicate that a new correction factor (∂) is required for TP_{CSI-AA} reconstructions 511 from proteinaceous deep-sea coral skeletons, reflecting the observed offset in trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ 512 values between proteinaceous skeleton and polyp tissue. We propose a new TP_{CSI-AA} equation for 513 use with proteinaceous deep-sea coral skeletons:

$$
514 \tTP_{CSI-AA-Skeleton} = 1 + \left[\frac{(\delta^{15}N_{Glu} + \partial) - \delta^{15}N_{Phe} - \beta}{TDF_{Glu-Phe}} \right]
$$
(2)

515 which is modified from eq. 1 by the addition of a correction factor (∂) . For deep-sea corals with 516 gorgonin protein (e.g. *Primnoa, Isidella, Kulamanamana*), we found a remarkably consistent ∂ 517 for Glu of 3.4 \pm 0.1‰, which when applied to skeleton Glu $\delta^{15}N$ values in eq. 2, produced far 518 more realistic TP_{CSI-AA} estimates (2.5 \pm 0.1). This means that prior TP_{CSI-AA} values from deep-sea 519 proteinaceous corals have likely been universally underestimated, however, it is important to 520 note that comparisons of relative TP_{CSI-AA} estimates using the same tissue type would not be 521 affected by this correction factor.

522

523 4.2.3 Potential mechanisms for trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ offsets

524 Our data bring up an important underlying mechanistic question: what is driving the 525 consistent 3 to 4‰ offset in trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ values between proteinaceous coral skeleton and 526 metabolically active polyp tissue? The fact that we only observed $\delta^{15}N$ offsets for trophic AAs, but not source AAs (Fig. 7) suggests that the underlying mechanism is related to differential deamination/transamination during protein synthesis of these tissues. While confirming any 529 specific mechanism is beyond the scope of our data, the $15N$ -depletetion of trophic AAs in protein skeleton relative to metabolically active polyp tissue is most likely related to nitrogen flux from central Glutamine/Glutamate pool (in our protocols measured as Glu) during tissue synthesis.

 The isotopic discrimination of AA nitrogen during metabolism is dependent on not only the number and isotope effect of individual enzymatic reactions, but also on the turnover rate and associated relative flux of nitrogen through those pathways (Fig. C.1; e.g., Handley and Raven 1992; Webb et al. 1998; Hayes 2001; Germain et al., 2013; Ohkouchi et al. 2015). For example, rapid protein turnover in metabolically active tissues results in successive rounds of enzymatic 538 isotope discrimination, leading to higher tissue $\delta^{15}N$ values than in slow turnover tissues (Waterlow 1981; Hobson et al. 1993, 1996; Schwamborn et al. 2002; Schmidt 2004). Therefore, we hypothesize that the high protein turnover and enhanced nitrogen flux in the metabolically 541 active polyp tissue is likely linked to its ${}^{15}N$ -enrichment of trophic AAs compared to the slow growing, non-turnover proteinaceous skeleton (Hawkins 1985; Houlihan 1991; Conceição 1997). Because the exact biochemical pathways and associated isotope effects for the synthesis of polyp tissue and skeleton AAs are not known, we cannot evaluate any more specific mechanistic hypothesis. However, we suggest that understanding the relative nitrogen fluxes between the static (accretionary) skeleton and the rapidly cycling polyp tissues, which continually exchanges AA nitrogen with the central nitrogen pool, represents the most promising framework for future research.

Interestingly, Thr also showed a consistent δ^{15} N offset between skeleton and polyp tissue of a similar magnitude, but in the opposite direction, as the trophic AAs (Fig. 7). While the underlying metabolic processes leading to Thr nitrogen isotope fractionation remain unclear, multiple studies have noted a strong negative relationship between Thr and trophic AA nitrogen isotope fractionation during trophic transfer (Bradley et al. 2015; McMahon et al. 2015b; Nielsen et al. 2015; Mompeán et al. 2016). The consistent offset we observe does appear to be linked to 555 coral metabolism, and so its ecological implications for the use of $\delta^{15}N_{\text{Thr}}$ values may be a valuable topic for further study.

 Finally, we note that a temporal mismatch in the trophic structure of sinking POM reflected in the short-term polyp tissue and longer-term skeleton (as has been suggested in the literature for isotopic mismatches in bulk tissue e.g., Tieszen et al. 1983) cannot reasonably 560 explain the observed offsets in trophic AA $\delta^{15}N$ values. The AA $\delta^{15}N$ values of metabolically active polyp tissue and archival protein skeleton should inherently reflect different temporal integration windows, given the different incorporation rates of these tissues. However, it seems extraordinarily unlikely that all corals in our study experienced the exact same shifts in trophic position, both in magnitude and direction, despite being collected from very distinct oceanographic regions (*Kulamanamana* from the NPSG, *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska, and *Isidella* from the California Margin) spanning a decade of time (*Kulamanamana* in 2004 and 2007, *Primnoa* in 2010 and 2013, and *Isidella* in 2014).

5. CONCLUSIONS

570 We found that the δ^{13} C values of AAs as well as the δ^{15} N values of source AAs preserved in the proteinaceous skeletons of deep-sea gorgonin corals largely reflect the values recorded in the metabolically active polyp tissue. However, we did observe an unexpected but remarkably 573 consistent $\delta^{15}N$ offset between trophic AAs in proteinaceous skeleton and metabolically active polyp tissue, which must be accounted for via a correction factor (∂) when calculating coral 575 TP_{CSI-AA} from proteinaceous skeletons. Future work will determine if the ∂ calculated in this study applies to other proteinaceous structural tissues, such as chitonous *Antipathes* and *Leiopathes* deep-sea corals, mollusk shells, and foraminifera tests, all of which can also provide valuable high temporal resolution archives of past ocean conditions (Serban et al. 1988; Katz et al. 2010; Prouty et al. 2014). Our results open the doors for applying many of the rapidly evolving CSI-AA-based tools developed for metabolically active tissues in modern systems to archival tissues in a paleoceanographic context.

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975 **TABLES**

976 Table 1. Mean (‰ ± SD) offset (skeleton minus polyp tissue) of individual amino acid $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values for three genera of 977 proteinaceous deep-sea coral. One sample t-tests determined if mean offsets were significantly different from 0% (t statistic $\lceil df = 4 \rceil$ 978 for *Primnoa* and *Isidella*, df = 2 for *Kulamanamana*]^{ns} $p > 0.05$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$). Amino acid names are in 979 conventional three-letter abbreviation format. Essential and non-essential amino acids designated with E and N , respectively; trophic 980 and source amino acids designated with T and S , respectively; amino acids with poorly characterized fractionation during trophic 981 transfer designated with $\frac{1}{2}$ na = not analyzed.

| | Primnoa pacifica | | Isidella sp. | | Kulamanamana haumeaae | |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| | $\delta^{13}C$ (%o) | $\delta^{15}N(%)$ | $\delta^{13}C$ (%0) | $\delta^{15}N($ %0) | $\delta^{13}C$ (%) | $\delta^{15}N(%)$ |
| $Ala^{N,T}$ | -0.1 ± 0.8 (-0.13^{ns}) | $-3.1 \pm 0.5 (-15.42***)$ | -0.2 ± 0.8 (-0.49 ^{ns}) | $-3.8 \pm 0.7 (-12.90***)$ | -0.9 ± 0.5 (-2.90 ^{ns}) | -3.4 ± 0.4 ($-13.78**$) |
| $Asp^{N,T}$ | -0.1 ± 0.5 (-0.59^{ns}) | -3.2 ± 0.3 ($-20.53***$) | -0.2 ± 0.8 (-0.70 ^{ns}) | -3.8 ± 0.6 ($-15.28***$) | 0.8 ± 0.6 (2.21 ^{ms}) | -3.1 ± 0.3 (-21.03 **) |
| $Glu^{N,T}$ | -0.3 ± 0.6 (-1.10^{ns}) | -3.4 ± 0.5 ($-16.26***$) | -0.2 ± 0.5 (-0.90 ^{ns}) | -3.4 ± 0.5 ($-15.50***$) | 0.7 ± 0.5 (2.16 ^{ns}) | -3.4 ± 0.2 (-37.02 ***) |
| $\text{Gly}^{\text{N},?}$ | -0.3 ± 0.4 (-1.56^{ns}) | 0.7 ± 0.3 (5.35 ^{ms}) | 0.2 ± 0.5 (1.10 ^{ns}) | 1.3 ± 0.3 (9.79***) | 0.9 ± 0.5 (3.41 ^{ms}) | 0.8 ± 0.3 (4.79*) |
| $Ile^{E,T}$ | 0.1 ± 0.6 (0.39 ^{ns}) | -2.3 ± 0.3 (-15.02 ***) | 0.2 ± 0.8 (0.59 ^{ns}) | -3.6 ± 0.4 ($-21.26***$) | 0.2 ± 0.2 (2.05 ^{ns}) | -3.3 ± 0.3 ($-16.70**$) |
| $Leu^{E,T}$ | 0.3 ± 0.6 (1.06 ^{ns}) | -2.9 ± 0.6 ($-11.39***$) | -0.2 ± 0.3 (-1.84 ^{ns}) | $-3.8 \pm 0.7 (-12.26***)$ | -0.3 ± 0.5 (-1.08 ^{ns}) | -3.4 ± 0.2 ($-26.40**$) |
| $Lys^{E,S}$ | na | 0.3 ± 0.6 (1.05 ^{ms}) | na | 0.3 ± 0.4 (1.89 ^{ms}) | na | 0.2 ± 0.2 (1.77 ^{ns}) |
| Met ^{E,S} | na | 0.1 ± 0.6 (0.54 ^{ns}) | na | na | na | na |
| $Phe^{E,S}$ | -0.2 ± 0.6 (-0.90 ^{ns}) | -0.1 ± 0.3 (-0.42 ^{ns}) | 0.2 ± 0.5 (0.72 ^{ns}) | -0.2 ± 0.2 (-2.36 ^{ns}) | 0.5 ± 0.8 (1.05 ^{ms}) | -0.0 ± 0.4 (0.16 ^{ns}) |
| $Pro^{N,T}$ | -1.0 ± 0.7 (-3.03 *) | -2.9 ± 0.5 ($-13.89***$) | -0.0 ± 0.5 (0.08 ^{ns}) | -3.9 ± 0.2 (-37.02 ***) | 0.3 ± 1.2 (0.47 ^{ms}) | -3.3 ± 0.3 (-20.09**) |
| $\text{Ser}^{\text{N},?}$ | -0.0 ± 0.8 (0.02 ^{ns}) | 0.4 ± 0.7 (1.39^{ns}) | -0.0 ± 0.7 (-0.13 ^{ms}) | 0.7 ± 0.3 (4.62**) | 0.6 ± 1.0 (1.02 ^{ns}) | 0.3 ± 0.4 (1.33 ^{ns}) |
| Thr ^{E, ?} | $-0.5 \pm 0.7 (-1.65^{ns})$ | 3.4 ± 0.5 (16.72***) | 0.3 ± 0.4 (1.97 ^{ns}) | 2.5 ± 0.6 (9.83***) | 0.6 ± 0.3 (2.85 ^{ns}) | 2.4 ± 0.3 (15.33**) |
| Val ^{E,T} | 0.2 ± 0.6 (0.63 ^{ms}) | -1.9 ± 0.4 ($-10.45***$) | 0.2 ± 0.4 (0.87 ^{ns}) | -2.2 ± 0.7 ($-7.13**$) | -0.8 ± 0.9 (-1.64 ^{ms}) | -2.3 ± 0.3 ($-14.53**$) |

FIGURE CAPTIONS

 Figure 1. Collection sites and deep-sea coral genera. Collection information for three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral, *Primnoa pacifica* (square symbols, n = 5) from the coastal region of the Gulf of Alaska, *Isidella sp.* (triangle symbols, n = 5) from Sur Ridge in the Central California Margin, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (circle symbols, n = 3) from the Hawaiian Archipelago in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. Color contours reflect remote sensing- derived chlorophyll a concentrations for the North Pacific from SeaWiFS seasonal climatology for the boreal spring 1998-2010 (image courtesy of Norman Kuring of the Ocean Biology Processing Group NASA/GSFC). Inset photos show the living coral structure and proteinaceous skeleton cross sections (enlarged Fig. A.1): A) *Primnoa* colony (Photo credit: Ocean Networks Canada), B) *Primnoa* cross-section (B. Williams Lab), C) *Isidella* colony (NOAA Office of Ocean Exploration), D) *Isidella* cross-section (M. McCarthy Lab), E) *Kulamanamana* colony (Sinniger et al. 2013), F) *Kulamanama* cross-section (Sherwood et al. 2014).

997 Figure 2. Coral amino acid δ^{13} C values. Mean individual amino acid δ^{13} C values (‰ \pm SD) in polyp tissue (filled symbols) and proteinaceous skeleton (open symbols) from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica* (cyan squares, n = 5), *Isidella sp.* (magenta triangles, n = 5), and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (green circles, n = 3).

1001 Figure 3. Principal component analysis of eleven coral amino acid δ^{13} C values from polyp tissues (filled symbols) and proteinaceous skeleton (open symbols) of three genera of deep-sea corals: *Primnoa pacifica* (n = 5 individual colonies) from the Gulf of Alaska, *Isidella sp.* (n = 5 individual colonies) from the Central California Margin, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (n = 3 individual colonies) from the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. Variance of principal components is in parentheses on each axis (Table C.5). Loadings of the eleven amino acids (conventional 1007 three-letter abbreviation format) are shown as arrows from the center (Table C.5).

1008 Figure 4. Coral amino acid δ^{13} C offsets between tissues. Mean (‰ \pm SD) individual amino acid

 δ^{13} C offset (proteinaceous skeleton minus polyp tissue) from three genera of proteinaceous deep-

- sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica* (cyan squares, n = 5), *Isidella sp.* (magenta triangles, n = 5), and
- *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (green circles, n = 3).

1012 Figure 5. Comparison of amino acid δ^{13} C fingerprinting estimates of exported plankton composition. Relative contribution of carbon from prokaryotic cyanobacteria (dark blue), eukaryotic microalgae (green), and heterotrophic bacteria (black) to three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica* (n = 5), *Isidella sp.* (n = 5), and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (n = 3) as calculated from polyp tissue (filled bars) and proteinaceous skeleton (open bars). Relative contributions were calculated using an amino acid fingerprinting approach in a 1018 fully Bayesian stable isotope mixing model framework using the normalized $\delta^{13}C$ values of five essential amino acids (Thr, Ile, Val, Phe, Leu) from published plankton end-members and deep-sea coral tissues.

1021 Figure 6. Coral amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ values. Mean individual amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ values (‰ \pm SD) in polyp tissue (filled symbols) and proteinaceous skeleton (open symbols) from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica* (cyan squares, n = 5), *Isidella sp.* (magenta triangles, n = 5), and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (green circles, n = 3).

1025 Figure 7. Coral amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ offsets between tissues. Mean (‰ \pm SD) individual amino acid $1026 \delta^{15}$ N offset (proteinaceous skeleton minus polyp tissue) from three genera of proteinaceous deep- sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica* (cyan squares, n = 5), *Isidella sp.* (magenta triangles, n = 5), and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (green circles, n = 3).

1031 *Figure 1.*

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- 1059 *Figure 3.*
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24 **APPENDIX A**

- 25 Table A.1. Collection information for three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral, *Primnoa*
- 26 *pacifica* (n = 5) from the Gulf of Alaska (GOA), *Isidella sp.* (n = 5) from the Central California
- 27 Margin, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae* (n = 3) from the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (NPSG)
- 28 (Fig. 1). The dash (-) symbol indicates an unknown depth for GB2, which was collected
- 29 opportunistically.

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Primnoa pacifica from the Gulf of Alaska

Isidella sp. from the Central California Margin

Kulamanamana haumeaae from the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre

41 Figure A.1. Deep-sea corals. Photos of deep-sea coral colonies and proteinaceous skeletons for 42 three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral, *Primnoa pacifica* from the coastal region of the 43 Gulf of Alaska, *Isidella sp.* from Sur Ridge in the Central California Margin, and 44 *Kulamanamana haumeaae* from the Hawaiian Archipelago in the North Pacific Subtropical 45 Gyre. A) *Primnoa* colony (Photo credit: Ocean Networks Canada), B) *Primnoa* cross-section (B. 46 Williams Lab), C) *Isidella* colony (NOAA Office of Ocean Exploration), D) *Isidella* colony 47 branching pattern (Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute), E) *Isidella* proteinaceous 48 skeleton cross-section (M. McCarthy Lab), F) *Kulamanamana* colony (Sinniger et al. 2013), G) 49 *Kulamanama* proteinaceous skeleton cross-section (Sherwood et al. 2014).

APPENDIX B

 Much of the recent proxy development work with proteinaceous deep-sea corals has focused on stable isotope analysis (SIA) of total ("bulk") skeletal material, as a proxy for changes in surface ocean conditions (e.g., Heikoop et al. 2002; Sherwood et al. 2005, 2009; 54 Williams et al. 2007; Hill et al. 2014). We conducted bulk δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N analyses on all paired polyp tissue and proteinaceous skeleton samples from the three genera of deep-sea corals. For 56 bulk δ^{13} C analyses of skeleton, a subset of each skeleton sample was individually acid washed in 1 N HCl in glass vials for four hours, rinsed three times in Milli-Q water, and dried over night at 58 50°C to remove calcium carbonate and isolate the organic fraction of the skeleton. Bulk $\delta^{15}N$ analyses were conducted on non-acidified skeleton samples. Deep-sea coral polyp tissues are very lipid rich (Hamoutene et al. 2008), and therefore a subset of each polyp sample was lipid extracted three times following the conventional methanol/chloroform protocol of Bligh and 62 Dyer (1959) prior to δ^{13} C analysis. Bulk δ^{15} N analyses were conducted on non-lipid extracted polyp samples.

64 Bulk stable carbon (δ^{13} C) and stable nitrogen (δ^{15} N) isotopes were measured on a 0.3 mg aliquot of each sample using a Carlo Erba 1108 elemental analyzer interfaced to a Thermo Finnegan Delta Plus XP isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) at the Stable Isotope Lab, University of California, Santa Cruz. Raw isotope values were corrected for instrument drift and linearity effects, calibrated against the in house isotopic reference materials of the Stable Isotope Laboratory (http://emerald.ucsc.edu/~silab/), and reported in per mil (‰) relative to Vienna PeeDee Belemnite and air for carbon and nitrogen, respectively. Reproducibility of two lab standards was 0.05‰ and 0.15‰ for carbon and nitrogen isotopes, respectively. Bulk tissue and 72 individual AA stable isotope offsets were calculated as the difference in isotope value (δ^{13} C or δ^{15} N) between paired polyp and skeleton samples for each specimen within each genus of deep-sea coral.

 Carbon isotopes have long been used to infer sources of primary producers contributing 76 to food web architecture (Wada et al. 1991; Boecklen et al. 2011). Bulk δ^{13} C were generally more positive in *Primnoa* from the Gulf of Alaska and *Isidella* from the Sur Ridge than *Kulamanamana* from the NPSG (Table B.1). However, interpreting past changes in primary producer composition from these bulk carbon isotope values is challenging (Schiff et al. 2014; McMahon et al. 2015a). For example, we found large differences in the bulk δ^{13} C values (mean 81 offset = $3.5 \pm 0.5\%$ averaged across all three species) and C/N ratio (mean offset = 1.9 ± 0.7) between lipid-intact coral polyp tissue and recently deposited protein skeleton within single 83 colonies. These offsets were far greater than the differences in δ^{13} C value (1-2‰ for a given tissue) among different genera of corals collected from vastly different oceanographic regimes (Table B.1). This intra-colony offset likely reflects differences in macromolecular tissue composition (lipid, AA, carbonate) rather than environmental drivers. Once lipids were removed 87 from the polyp tissue, there was only a small difference in bulk δ^{13} C value (mean offset = -0.4 \pm 88 0.1‰ averaged across all three species) and C/N ratio (mean offset = 0.2 ± 0.3) between proteinaceous skeleton and polyp tissue for all species. However, even after bulk lipid extraction of polyp tissue and decalcification of skeleton material, the remaining confounding influences of 91 primary producer source and trophic dynamics make interpreting bulk δ^{13} C variability among specimens very challenging.

 Stable nitrogen isotopes of consumers reflect both the source of nitrogen at the base of the food web and the number of trophic transfers between that base and the consumer (Boecklen 95 et al. 2011). While these factors may explain the significant differences in bulk tissue $\delta^{15}N$

119 *Table B.1.*

120 Bulk $\delta^{13}C$ (‰) in proteinaceous skeleton (acidified), polyp tissue with and without lipids intact, and the offset in $\delta^{13}C$ value between

121 skeleton and polyp from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral: *Primnoa pacifica*, *Isidella sp.*, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae*.

122 Bulk $\delta^{15}N$ (‰) in proteinaceous skeleton (non-acidified), polyp tissue (lipids intact), and the offset in $\delta^{15}N$ value between skeleton and

123 polyp from the same corals. C/N ratios of coral skeleton, and polyps and without lipids intact.

127 *Table B.1 cont.*

APPENDIX C

129 We used principal component analysis to visualize multivariate patterns in the $\delta^{13}C$ values of individual AAs (Ala, Asp, Gly, Glu, Ile, Leu, Phe, Pro, Ser, Thr, Val; Table C.5) in polyp tissue and skeleton of the three deep-sea coral genera (Fig. 3). The first two principal 132 components explained 90.3% of the total variation in the model (PC1 = 64.8% , PC2 = 25.5%) 133 (Table C.5). The skeleton and polyp tissue AA δ^{13} C values from a single genus always clustered together in multivariate space, and all three corals were well separated in multivariate space (Fig. 3). Along the first principal component, the essential AAs Ile (-0.37), Phe (-0.37), Thr (-0.37), Leu (0.36), and Val (-0.35) were the most powerful separators (Table B.1). Along the second principal component, the non-essential AAs Ser (-0.53), Glu (-0.51), Ala (-0.45), Asp (-0.36), and Gly (-0.32) showed the greatest separation power (Table C.5).

 We used an AA isotope fingerprinting approach to examine the composition of primary producers fueling export production to deep-sea corals in each of the three study regions: Gulf of Alaska (*Primnoa*), Central California Margin (*Isidella*), and NPSG (*Kulamanamana*) (sensu McMahon et al. 2015a). We characterized unique AA isotope fingerprints for three source end- members, eukaryotic microalgae, prokaryotic cyanobacteria, and heterotrophic bacteria, that are key contributors to the plankton communities of the North Pacific Ocean (Chavez et al. 1991; Odate 1996; Karl et al. 2001). The source end-members were based on a subset of molecular- isotopic training data sets from Lehman (2009) (culture conditions presented in McCarthy et al. 2013) and Larsen et al. (2009; 2013) (Table C.6). We focused our fingerprinting analyses on five essential AAs (threonine, valine,

149 isoleucine, phenylalanine, and leucine). The essential AA δ^{13} C values represent the sum of the

isotopic fractionations associated with individual biosynthetic pathways and associated branch

151 points for each EAA (Hayes 2001; Scott et al. 2006), generating AA δ^{13} C fingerprints of the 152 primary producer sources that made those AAs (Larsen et al. 2009; 2013). In order to compare 153 the essential AA δ^{13} C fingerprints of our three source end-member groups and corals across 154 different regions and time periods, we examined essential AA δ^{13} C values normalized to the 155 mean of all five essential AAs for each sample. To do this, we subtracted the mean of all five 156 essential AA δ^{13} C values from each individual essential AA δ^{13} C value for each sample (senus 157 Larsen et al. 2015). All three source end-members have very distinct essential AA $\delta^{13}C$ 158 fingerprints, with within-group variability far smaller than among group variability despite 159 samples coming from laboratory and field collections across a range of environmental gradients. 160 There is strong experimental and field-based evidence that primary producer essential 161 AA δ^{13} C fingerprints are faithful and robust across large environmental gradients in growing 162 conditions and carbon sources that can affect bulk δ^{13} C values (Larsen et al. 2013, 2015). This is 163 because the underlying biochemical mechanisms generating unique internally normalized 164 essential AA δ^{13} C fingerprints are driven by major evolutionary diversity in the central synthesis 165 and metabolism of AAs. For example, Larsen et al. (2013) examined the extent to which 166 normalized essential AA δ^{13} C fingerprints were affected by environmental conditions by looking 167 at seagrass (*Posidonia oceanica*) and giant kelp communities (*Macrocystis pyrifera*) across a 168 variety of oceanographic and growth conditions (see Larsen et al. 2013 Table S1 for details). For 169 both species, the range in bulk δ^{13} C values was five- to ten-times greater (2.6‰ and 5.2‰, 170 respectively) than it was for normalized essential AA δ^{13} C values (0.4‰ to 0.6‰, respectively). 171 By normalizing the individual essential AA δ^{13} C values to the mean, Larsen et al. (2013) showed 172 that natural variability in δ^{13} C values of individual amino acids is effectively removed, creating 173 diagnostic fingerprints that were independent of environmental conditions.

197 Table C.1. Mean individual amino acid $\delta^{13}C$ values (‰ \pm SD) in proteinaceous skeleton from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea

198 coral: *Primnoa pacifica*, *Isidella sp.*, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae*. SD reflects the analytical variability for each amino acid

199 calculated from triplicate analyses of each derivatized sample.

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206 Table C.1 cont.

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- 215 Table C.2. Mean individual amino acid $\delta^{13}C$ values (‰ \pm SD) in polyp tissue from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral:
- 216 *Primnoa pacifica*, *Isidella sp.*, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae*. SD reflects the analytical variability for each amino acid calculated

217 from triplicate analyses of each derivatized sample.

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233 Table C.3. Mean individual amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ values (‰ \pm SD) in proteinaceous skeleton from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea

234 coral: *Primnoa pacifica*, *Isidella sp.*, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae*. SD reflects the analytical variability for each amino acid

235 calculated from triplicate analyses of each derivatized sample. na = not analyzed

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242 Table C.3 cont.

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- 251 Table C.4. Mean individual amino acid $\delta^{15}N$ values (% \pm SD) in polyp tissue from three genera of proteinaceous deep-sea coral:
- 252 *Primnoa pacifica*, *Isidella sp.*, and *Kulamanamana haumeaae*. SD reflects the analytical variability for each amino acid calculated

253 from triplicate analyses of each derivatized sample.

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279 Table C.6. Normalized essential amino acid δ^{13} C values of source end-members. Normalized δ^{13} C values of source end-members 280 (mean of five essential amino acid δ¹³C values subtracted from individual essential amino acid δ¹³C values for each sample) used as 281 the molecular-isotopic training data set in the mixing model of relative contribution of primary producers to deep sea corals 282 (superscript reference: a) Larsen et al. 2009; b) Lehman 2009, c) Larsen et al. 2013). The three source end-members (cyanobacteria,

283 eukaryotic microalgae, and heterotrophic bacteria) were analyzed in triplicate (mean $\%$ \pm SD).

| Group | Latin name | Phylogeny | threonine | isoleucine | valine | phenylalanine | leucine |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Cyanobacteria ^c | Anabaena cylindrica | Cyanobacterium | 12.7 ± 1.0 | 1.3 ± 0.1 | -1.9 ± 0.2 | -7.4 ± 0.1 | -4.7 ± 0.3 |
| Cyanobacteria ^c | Nostoc muscorum | Cyanobacterium | 11.5 ± 0.1 | 1.6 ± 0.1 | -2.6 ± 0.1 | -6.4 ± 0.2 | -4.2 ± 0.0 |
| Cyanobacteria ^b | Cyanothece sp | Cyanobacterium | 11.0 ± 0.2 | 3.7 ± 0.1 | -2.6 ± 0.2 | -59 ± 0.3 | -6.4 ± 0.2 |
| Cyanobacteria ^b | Trichodesmium sp. | Cyanobacterium | 11.9 ± 0.1 | 2.1 ± 0.2 | -2.4 ± 0.2 | -6.4 ± 0.2 | -5.0 ± 0.1 |
| Cyanobacteria ^b | Prochlorococcus sp. | Cyanobacterium | 17.3 ± 0.3 | -0.3 ± 0.1 | -2.8 ± 0.1 | -7.2 ± 0.1 | -6.9 ± 0.2 |
| Cyanobacteria ^b | Synechococcus sp. | Cyanobacterium | 16.5 ± 0.2 | 0.7 ± 0.1 | -1.4 ± 0.2 | -8.9 ± 0.2 | -6.8 ± 0.1 |
| Cyanobacteria ^c | Merismopedia punctata | Cyanobacterium | 17.9 ± 0.6 | -1.5 ± 0.0 | -1.4 ± 0.1 | -6.5 ± 0.1 | -8.6 ± 0.0 |
| Euk microalgae ^c | Dunaliella sp. | Chlorophyte | 9.8 ± 0.5 | 0.7 ± 1.3 | -2.7 ± 0.5 | -0.4 ± 0.1 | -7.2 ± 0.3 |
| Euk microalgae ^c | Prasinocladus marinus | Chlorophyte | 13.2 ± 0.8 | 0.1 ± 0.5 | -5.2 ± 0.1 | -0.1 ± 0.0 | -7.9 ± 0.1 |
| Euk microalgae ^c | Melosira varians | Diatom | 9.1 ± 0.9 | -0.4 ± 0.1 | -3.6 ± 0.2 | 1.1 ± 0.2 | -6.0 ± 0.0 |
| Euk microalgae ^c | Emiliana huxleyi | Haptophyte | 10.4 ± 0.1 | 1.2 ± 0.6 | -5.4 ± 0.0 | 1.6 ± 0.0 | -7.7 ± 0.0 |
| Euk microalgae ^c | Isochrysis galbana | Haptophyte | 12.2 ± 0.2 | 2.8 ± 0.1 | -5.7 ± 0.1 | 1.2 ± 0.0 | -10.3 ± 0.1 |
| Het bacteria ^a | Rhodococcus spp. | Actinobacteria | 5.3 ± 0.1 | -1.2 ± 0.1 | -0.7 ± 0.2 | -3.1 ± 0.1 | -0.1 ± 0.2 |
| Het bacteria ^a | Actinobacteria | Actinobacteria | 5.9 ± 0.4 | -1.5 ± 0.2 | -1.3 ± 0.1 | -3.0 ± 0.1 | 0.0 ± 0.2 |
| Het bacteria ^a | Burkholderia xenovorans | Betaprotobacteria | 4.6 ± 0.8 | 0.2 ± 0.2 | -1.6 ± 0.1 | -4.6 ± 0.0 | 1.5 ± 0.1 |
| Het bacteria ^a | Escherichia coli | Gammaproteobacteria | 1.8 ± 0.5 | 1.0 ± 0.3 | -0.1 ± 0.2 | -2.0 ± 0.3 | -0.5 ± 0.2 |

 Figure C.1. A general schematic of a network of reactions leading to deep-sea coral polyp tissue and proteinaceous skeleton synthesis (after Hayes 2001). Node A represents the external dietary amino acid pool, node B represents the internal central amino acid pool from which tissues are synthesized, node C represents the metabolically active coral polyp tissue, and node D represents 289 the proteinaceous skeleton. Isotopic compositions of these pools are indicated by δ (‰) with 290 corresponding letter subscripts. Kinetic isotope reactions are designated by numbers with the δ , ϕ, and ε symbols with numerical subscripts indicating the isotopic compositions of the nitrogen being transmitted by a reaction, the flux of nitrogen being transmitted (moles/time), and the isotope effect (‰) associated with the reaction, respectively. The flux of AAs between the central AA pool and polyp tissues is represented as a bidirectional process for this metabolically active tissue. Conversely, the flux of AAs from the central AA pool into accretionary skeleton is represented as a unidirectional process, as the proteinaceous skeleton is metabolically inert post- deposition. Both the polyp and skeleton protein are likely synthesized from a shared central AA pool, which contains a mix of dietary AAs and AAs remobilized from reworked polyp tissue that has already undergone trophic enrichment. As a result, the higher flux of AA N into polyp tissue may mean that polyp tissue is getting a higher flux of trophic-enriched AAs through this bidirectional linkage with the central AA pool than skeleton material.