Seasonal variability in stable isotopes of estuarine consumers under different freshwater flow regimes

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ABSTRACT: Freshwater inflow from riverine sources is essential for estuarine productivity. However, human alterations to freshwater flow have resulted in modifications to the seasonal complexities of estuarine communities. To quantify changes in energy transfer at the trophic guild and consumer levels that result from anthropogenic-altered flow, we evaluated seasonal trends over a 1 yr period in stable isotopes of carbon (δ^{13} C), nitrogen (δ^{15} N) and sulfur (δ^{34} S) in nekton species sampled from 2 subtropical tidal rivers, one that is relatively natural and one that experiences requlated flow discharges that result in autumnal high-flow events. Primary and secondary consummers in the flow-altered estuary exhibited a significant depletion in 13 C and enrichment in 15 N (~2% in both isotopes respectively) with the onset of the wet season, while the stable isotope values of high trophic level species (i.e. ≥ tertiary consumers) remained relatively consistent, trends were not apparent in the natural estuary. These isotopic trends were evident in both benthic and pelagic consumers, suggesting a food web-wide influence of altered flow on nutrient dynamics. Although the relative trophic structure, based on δ^{15} N, was consistent across seasons and among estuaries, the $\delta^{34}S$ values were less seasonally variable in the flow-altered estuary and were indicative of more terrestrial/freshwater-influenced values compared to the natural estuary, suggesting a lengthened influence of high flow. Although limited in temporal scope, our results indicate a noteworthy difference in seasonal isotope dynamics of lower trophic level consumers in a flow-altered estuarine food web. The importance of this effect on ecosystem function warrants further attention.

KEY WORDS: Disturbance · Benthic · Pelagic · Resource use · Stable isotopes · Trophic guilds

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INTRODUCTION

Hydrological connectivity, or the water-mediated transfer of matter, energy and/or organisms within or between elements of the hydrological cycle, is considered to be the most influential factor driving aquatic ecosystem dynamics (Pringle 2001). Anthropogenic alterations to this connectivity, in the form of dams and diversions, have resulted in habitat fragmentation and degradation as well as modifications to river flow (Nilsson et al. 2005, Lotze et al. 2006). Modifications to river flow, primarily driven by appropriation of freshwater for human use, is considered the most pervasive and deleterious effect on rivers (Kingsford 2011). As few estuarine systems worldwide remain unaffected by upstream manipulation of their freshwater inflow (Dynesius & Nilsson 1994), these modifications to rivers can have major implications for individual species and thus the structure of downstream estuarine and coastal marine communities (Edeline et al. 2005, Serrano et al. 2010).

The contribution of freshwater to downstream habitats is regarded as a critical landscape process in riverine systems (Sklar & Browder 1998), regulating the physical, chemical and biological properties of terrestrial, lacustrine, and marine environments (Paerl et al. 2010, Rush et al. 2010). Within estuaries, freshwater inflow from riverine sources seasonally provides nutrients, sediment and organic matter essential for primary and secondary production (Mallin et al. 1993, Drinkwater & Frank 1994, Chanton & Lewis 2002). Life history strategies (e.g. breeding, spawning and recruitment) of estuarine species are commonly synchronized with particular flow patterns (Bunn & Arthington 2002, Rehage & Trexler 2006) and variable salinity tolerances can produce communities segregated along salinity gradients (Rakocinski et al. 1992, Gelwick et al. 2001, Montagna et al. 2002, Akin et al. 2003).

Alterations to hydrology are known to result in community changes to estuarine systems, such as the composition and abundances of nekton species (e.g. Greenwood et al. 2006, 2007, Baptista et al. 2010). However, it is less well known how these alterations lead to changes in nutrient and energy transfers through estuarine communities. Response to altered flow patterns is, however, anticipated to be most evident among lower trophic level species (i.e. primary and secondary consumers). This prediction is based on primary and secondary consumers having limited mobility yet which are capable of assimilating variable mixtures of locally-based organic matter sources (Deegan & Garritt 1997, Wainright et al. 2000, Hsieh et al. 2002) that often coincide with changes in physiochemical processes (McLeod & Wing 2008). This has broad implications for individual species and the overall stability of the entire community.

Here we examined the seasonal variability (i.e. transition from dry to wet season) over one annual cycle in the flow of energy to nekton consumers in the Charlotte Harbor Estuary, southwest Florida. We compared trends in stable isotopes of carbon (δ^{13} C), nitrogen (δ^{15} N) and sulfur (δ^{34} S) between estuaries of 2 tidal rivers; one that has undergone major human development and experiences an altered-flow re-

gime, and one that is relatively natural. Shifts in isotopic values of estuarine species have been observed to occur with high flows, particularly those associated with heavy rains and monsoons (Wai et al. 2008, Abrantes & Sheaves 2010). In both river systems, a significant proportion of annual riverine flow (~60%) is concentrated in the wet season (i.e. June to September), typical of the majority of rivers in southwest Florida (Kelly & Gore 2008). A fundamental premise of our analysis, however, was that the wet season in the modified river is exaggerated by anthropogenicaltered flow when compared to the natural system. Our objectives were to (1) compare the seasonal change in estuarine nekton trophic relationships and (2) compare the relative nutrient sources of consumer species and trophic guilds, sampled from a flowaltered and a more natural system. We expected that species sampled following the dry season would be enriched in ¹³C and ³⁴S relative to those sampled following the wet season, reflecting a polyhaline estuarine status (i.e. tidally influenced) in both estuaries. In contrast, with the exaggerated wet season in the altered system, consumers were expected to exhibit significantly depleted ¹³C and ³⁴S values, reflective of an oligohaline estuarine status (i.e. terrestrial/freshwater influenced; Chanton & Lewis 2002, Atwood et al. 2012).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study sites

The Caloosahatchee River, located on the southwest coast of Florida (26° 30' N, 81° 54' W), is a major tributary of Charlotte Harbor, Florida, USA (Fig. 1). The Caloosahatchee River watershed drains an area of approximately 4550 km². Prior to the artificial connection to Lake Okeechobee, the Caloosahatchee River was a smaller, meandering river originating at the west end of Lake Flirt and extending to Beautiful Island in Ft. Myers (Flaig & Capece 1998). Intensive agriculture became the major land use in the watershed with the construction of extensive drainage projects in the 1880s; additional channelization and dam construction have occurred at Moore Haven, Ortona and Franklin Lock and Dam (Flaig & Capece 1998). The Caloosahatchee River currently extends about 68 km from Lake Okeechobee to Franklin Lock. This final downstream structure defines the beginning of the Caloosahatchee Estuary and extends for approximately 42 km to San Carlos Bay. These modifications to the



Fig. 1. Study area showing locations of the Caloosahatchee and Myakka Rivers on the southwestern coast of Florida. Insets show sampling locations (water quality and consumer species; ●: spring, ■: autumn) within the estuarine portion of the rivers

hydrology of the Caloosahatchee River in combination with land-use development (e.g. Ft. Myers) have resulted in large-scale alterations in the estuary. The salinity gradient of the Caloosahatchee estuary cycles annually; during the winter and spring months (dry season) the estuary ranges from mesohaline (salinity ranging from 5 to 18‰) to polyhaline (salinity range of 18 to 30‰), while during the summer and autumn months (wet season) the estuary can become exclusively oligohaline (salinity range 0 to 5‰), with minimal tidal influence (Doering & Chamberlain 1998, Flaig & Capece 1998). This distinct transition between dry and wet seasons largely results from high anthropogenic discharge (Fig. 2) and can be rapid, often occurring in less than a week. After discharge decreases, the river returns to a mesohaline gradient.

The Myakka River (82° 12′ W, 26° 57′ N), draining into the northern portion of Charlotte Harbor, was selected as a control site for comparison with the Caloosahatchee River (Fig. 1). The Myakka River was chosen for several reasons: (1) it is proximately located (<100 km) to the Caloosahatchee River, and is characterized by a similar species assemblage and (2) in contrast to the Caloosahatchee River, it experiences relatively natural flow periods (see Fig. 2 of annual discharge profiles), and its shoreline areas have been subjected to relatively minor anthropogenic modification. Further, although, much of the shoreline habitat of the Caloosahatchee estuary has largely been altered by urbanization, as evidenced by extensive shoreline modifications, the upper reaches and some downstream areas are composed of similar ecological communities, including saltmarsh and mangrove species (e.g. red mangrove Rhizophora mangle, black mangrove Avicennia germinans, saltmarsh cordgrass Spartina alterniflora and black needlerush Juncus roemerianus). Palmer et al. (2011) and Vinagre et al. (2011) conducted comparisons of community and food web structure of proximate estuaries in the Gulf of Mexico and Tagus Estuary, respectively, citing similar species composition among the 2 study systems. In this context, the Myakka estuary provides a reference by which a comparison of food web dynamics to the Caloosahatchee estuary can be made.



Fig. 2. Mean daily river discharge recorded in the Caloosahatchee (black line) and in the Myakka (gray line) from 2006 to 2010. River discharge data were obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey for the Myakka River near Sarasota (Station 02298830; http://water.usgs.gov/data) and from the South Florida Water Management District for the Caloosahatchee River at the Cape Coral Bridge (Station CCORAL; http://my.sfwmd.gov)

Sample collection

Samples were collected in 2008 following the dry (May and June) and wet (September and October) seasons that occur in the Myakka and Caloosahatchee estuaries. In an effort to sample a broad range of nekton species (see Table 1 for a complete list of species sampled), shallow water (<10 m) longlines (800 m), seines (21.3 m with 3.2 mm stretch mesh, center bag), and trawls (6.1 m with 38 mm stretch mesh, 3.2 mm stretch mesh liner) were used for all collections. Longlines were set for periods from 30 min to 2 h, with most set for approximately 1.5 h. The trawl was towed for 5 to 7 min at 0.6 m s^{-1} , providing a tow length of ~180 m. Trawl width averaged ~4 m, providing an approximate area of 720 m² sampled by a typical tow. The seine was deployed from a boat in a shallow arc parallel to shore and hauled directly along the shoreline. The 2 ends of the seine were pulled together, sampling an area of $\sim 68 \text{ m}^2$.

During each sampling event, environmental parameters—including temperature (°C), salinity (ppt) and dissolved oxygen (mg l^{-1})—were recorded from depths ranging from 0.5 to 2.5 m using an YSI water quality meter (see Table A1 in Appendix 1). Upon collection, all fishes and macro-invertebrates were measured; standard length for fishes, carapace width for crabs and disc width for stingrays (to the nearest mm). White muscle tissue was excised from the dorsal area anterior to the first dorsal fin from all fishes and from the dorsal surface from stingrays. Oysters and crabs were dissected prior to drying and only muscle tissue was retained for stable isotope analyses. Muscle tissue samples were stored on ice in the field and then stored frozen upon return to the laboratory (-20°C).

Stable isotope analysis

Muscle tissues were sub-sampled (~1.0 g), freeze-dried for 48 h, and homogenized in a SPEX CertiPrep 8000-D ball milling unit (SPEX Certi-Prep). Lipids are depleted in ¹³C relative to other major tissue components (i.e. proteins and carbohydrates, De-Niro & Epstein 1977) and their presence in muscle tissue samples can negatively skew observed δ^{13} C values

(Post et al. 2007). To standardize δ^{13} C values within and among species, lipids were removed from all samples prior to isotopic analysis using a modified method outlined by Bligh & Dyer (1959): twice vortexing the pulverized tissue in 5 ml of 2:1 chloroform: methanol solution for 24 h and decanting the solvent through filter paper to isolate the lipid-free sample.

Relative abundances of nitrogen ($^{15}N/^{14}N$) and carbon ($^{13}C/^{12}C$) isotopes were determined on ~0.5 mg sub-samples sealed in tin capsules on a Thermo Finnigan Delta^{Plus} mass-spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan) coupled with an elemental analyzer (Costech) at the Great Lakes Institute for Environmental Research. Relative abundances of sulfur ($^{34}S/^{32}S$) were determined on ~2 mg and ~ 6 mg sub-samples sealed in tin capsules on an Isochrom Continuous Flow IRMS (GV Instruments/Micromass) coupled with an elemental analyzer (Costech), at the Environmental Isotope Laboratory, University of Waterloo and by a Thermo-Electron Delta^{Plus} Advantage IRMS at the Colorado Plateau Stable Isotope Laboratory, Northern Arizona University, respectively.

Stable isotope results are expressed in standard delta notation (δ), defined as parts per thousand as follows: $\delta = [(R_{sample}/R_{standard}) - 1] \times 10^3$ (Peterson & Fry 1987), where R is the ratio of heavy to light iso-

Table 1. Trophic guilds^a and resource use categories^b based on dietary sources compiled from published literature, for consumer species sampled from the Caloosahatchee and Myakka estuaries

Species	Resource use	Predominant prey items ^c	Reference		
Primary consumers					
Crassostrea virginica, Eastern oyster	Pelagic	Plankton, Diatoms	Riera & Richard (1996)		
Mugil cephalus, striped mullet	Benthic	Detritus, Microalgae	Platell et al. (2006)		
Secondary consumers					
<i>Callinectes sapidus</i> , blue crab	Benthic	Crustaceans, Mollusca, Detritus, Algae	Laughlin (1982)		
Trinectes maculatus, hogchoker	Benthic	Annelids, Arthropods	Derrick & Kennedy (1997)		
Eucinostomus harengulus, tidewater mojarra	Benthic	Crustaceans, Polychaetes, Mollusca	Ley et al. (1994)		
Eugerres plumieri, striped mojarra	Benthic	Crustaceans, Mollusca, Detritus	Austin & Austin (1971)		
Lagodon rhomboides, pinfish	Benthic	Mollusca, Crustaceans, Polychaetes, Algae	Motta et al. (1995)		
Dasyatis sabina, Atlantic stingray	Benthic	Crustaceans, Polychaetes, Ophiuroidea	Cook (1994)		
Chaetodipterus faber, Atlantic spadefish	Pelagic	Hydrozoa, Anthozoa	Hayse (1990)		
Menticirrhus americanus, Southern kingfish	Benthic	Polychaetes, Molluscs, Penaeids	Woodland et al. (2011)		
Tertiary consumers					
Ariopsis felis, hardhead catfish	Benthic	Decapoda, Amphipoda, Small teleosts	Yáñez-Arancibia & Lara-Domínguez (1988)		
<i>Lutjanus griseus</i> , grey snapper	Benthic	Teleosts (Engraulidae), Amphipoda, Decapoda	Harrigan et al. (1989)		
Cynoscion arenarius, sand seatrout	Pelagic	Teleosts (Engraulidae), Penaeids	Sheridan et al. (1984)		
Bagre marinus, gafftopsail catfish	Benthic	Brachyura, Stomatopoda, Small teleosts	Yáñez-Arancibia & Lara-Domínguez (1988)		
Piscivore					
Carcharhinus leucas, bull shark	Benthic	Teleosts (Ariidae), Elasmobranchs (Dasyatidae)	Cortés (1999), J.A. Olin (unpub. data)		
^a Trophic guilds defined as: primary consumer	, diet com	oosed largely of algae and detritus (>	70%); secondary consumer.		

diet composed primarily of invertebrate species; tertiary consumer, diet composed of both fishes and invertebrates; piscivore, diet composed primarily of fishes (>80%)

^bResource use groups defined as dominant feeding type: benthic versus pelagic

^cOnly the most frequently observed diet items are provided for each species. Predominant prey items for *Carcharhinus leucas* presented here represent juvenile individuals

topes in the sample and standard. The standard reference material was atmospheric nitrogen for N₂, Pee Dee Belemnite carbonate for CO₂, and Canyon Diablo Troilite for SO₄. The analytical precision based on the standard deviation of 2 standards (NIST 8414 and internal fish muscle lab standard; n = 76) for δ^{15} N were 0.10% and 0.21% and for δ^{13} C were 0.06% and 0.09%, respectively, and based on 3 sulfide standards (NBS-123, EII-40 and EIL-43) for δ^{34} S was 0.3%. Analytical accuracy based on the analysis of NIST standards [sucrose (NIST 8542); ammonium sulfate (NIST 8547)] and bovine liver and muscle (n = 3 for each) performed with muscle tissue sample, was within 0.07% for δ^{15} N, 0.01% for δ^{13} C, and 0.5% for δ^{34} S, of certified values.

Data analysis

To examine the effect of estuary, season and their interaction on isotope values of the food web, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was applied to stable isotope values of the Myakka (11 consumer species) and the Caloosahatchee (12 consumer species) food webs. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then used to specify significant differences found in MANOVA to δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, and δ^{34} S. To examine which species were influenced by season (dry versus wet) within each estuary, Welch's paired *t*-tests were used on the δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C and δ^{34} S data of each species where sufficient data were available (n \geq 3; Table 2). To further differentiate the food web response to season, all

Table 2. Length and stable isotope values (n = number of individuals sampled; mean \pm SE) of species collected from the Myakka and Caloosahatchee estuaries following the 2008 dry and wet seasons. Length indicates standard length for fishes, disc width for stingrays and carapace width for crabs (all measured in cm)

Species		— Myakka	a ———				Caloosahato	hee ——	
Season	n Length (cm)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	δ ³⁴ S (‰)	n	Length (cm)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	δ ³⁴ S (‰)
Invertebra	ates								
Crassostre	ea virginica, Easte	ern oyster							
Dry					3		-23.5 ± 0.3	4.9 ± 0.2	13.7 ± 0.1
Wet					3		-23.0 ± 0.6	6.6 ± 0.4	11.1 ± 0.5
Callinecte	<i>s sapidus,</i> blue ci	rab	0.5 . 0.0	10.5 0.0	0	10.0 17	00.0.0.0	0.000	44.0
Dry Wot	9 12.2 \pm 1.0 6 15.2 \pm 0.2	-22.7 ± 0.3	8.5 ± 0.0 10.4 ± 1.1	12.5 ± 0.6	3	19.0 ± 1.7	-20.6 ± 0.3	9.3 ± 0.3	14.0 ± 0.8 12.6 ± 0.2
wei	$0 13.3 \pm 0.3$	-16.0 ± 0.3	10.4 ± 1.1	9.9 ± 1.0	0	9.0 ± 0.1	-23.0 ± 0.7	10.7 ± 0.4	12.0 ± 0.3
Fishes									
Mugil cep	halus, striped mu	ıllet							
Dry	1 19.0	-14.6	5.7	5.2	4	22.9 ± 0.4	-14.7 ± 1.1	7.8 ± 0.4	8.6 ± 0.9
Wet	$3 29.4 \pm 3.2$	-20.7 ± 0.3	8.4 ± 0.3	12.4 ± 0.6	6	19.1 ± 7.5	-22.7 ± 1.8	9.4 ± 0.2	9.7 ± 1.1
Trinectes	<i>maculatus</i> , hogch	oker							
Dry	$3 7.9 \pm 0.7$	-21.0 ± 1.9	9.6 ± 0.3	7.2 ± 0.6					
Wet	$3 6.9 \pm 0.8$	-22.4 ± 0.3	11.0 ± 0.5	9.7 ± 1.2					
Eucinosto	mus harengulus,	tidewater mo	jarra		-				
Dry					5	10.4 ± 0.4	-15.2 ± 0.5	9.4 ± 0.1	8.8 ± 1.3
wei					10	5.4 ± 0.4	-23.5 ± 1.1	10.5 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.4
Eugerres	<i>plumieri</i> , striped	mojarra	100.06	106 0 5	5	155,17	017 15	100.04	09.16
Wet	$3 9.3 \pm 0.8$ 17 46 ± 0.5	-22.6 ± 0.3 -22.5 ± 0.5	10.0 ± 0.0 9.0 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.3 95 ± 0.3	10	13.3 ± 1.7 12.7 ± 1.3	-21.7 ± 1.3 -20.5 ± 1.8	10.9 ± 0.4 10.3 ± 0.4	9.0 ± 1.0 8.6 + 1.5
Lagodon r	homboidos ninfi	22.0 ± 0.0	5.0 ± 0.1	5.0 ± 0.0	10	12.7 ± 1.0	20.0 ± 1.0	10.0 ± 0.4	0.0 ± 1.0
Drv	$10 96 \pm 04$	-21.8 ± 0.5	96+02	13.5 ± 0.3	4	93+06	-166 ± 0.3	97+06	117 + 09
Wet	$5 11.2 \pm 0.9$	-21.7 ± 0.6	10.0 ± 0.2	12.9 ± 0.5	5	12.0 ± 1.9	-19.7 ± 0.8	11.2 ± 0.3	12.3 ± 0.8
Dasvatis s	<i>abina.</i> Atlantic st	ingrav							
Dry	· · · , · · · · · ·	S^{-1}			3	23.5 ± 1.7	-14.9 ± 0.2	9.9 ± 0.1	8.2 ± 1.8
Wet					7	13.4 ± 0.3	-19.5 ± 0.6	12.1 ± 0.4	10.8 ± 0.9
Chaetodip	oterus faber, Atlaı	ntic spadefish	L						
Dry	$4 10.5 \pm 2.8$	-21.3 ± 0.6	11.3 ± 0.2	11.8 ± 0.5	4	12.1 ± 1.2	-19.4 ± 0.6	11.6 ± 0.4	13.2 ± 0.3
Wet	$3 14.0 \pm 3.8$	-22.4 ± 0.9	11.1 ± 0.2	12.3 ± 0.9	8	17.9 ± 0.9	-20.0 ± 0.6	10.1 ± 0.7	10.7 ± 1.0
Menticirrh	hus americanus, S	Southern king	ſfish						
Dry	$3 19.7 \pm 0.4$	-23.3 ± 0.4	11.0 ± 0.4	11.6 ± 0.2					
Wet	5 22.6 \pm 0.2	-21.8 ± 0.2	9.9 ± 0.1	12.1 ± 0.1					
Ariopsis fe	elis, hardhead cat	fish			_				
Dry	$10 29.7 \pm 1.5$	-21.4 ± 0.5	11.0 ± 0.3	12.7 ± 0.6	6	30.4 ± 0.8	-20.4 ± 0.7	11.3 ± 0.4	12.6 ± 0.5
wet	$8 17.4 \pm 4.9$	-21.2 ± 0.4	10.7 ± 0.3	10.7 ± 0.6	24	23.5 ± 1.8	-21.2 ± 0.4	12.2 ± 0.3	12.6 ± 0.5
Lutjanus g	<i>griseus</i> , grey snap	oper			5	16.0 + 1.2	145.07	116 0 0	100 0 5
Dry Wot					с С	10.2 ± 1.3 12.1 ± 1.1	-14.5 ± 0.7 -16.1 ± 0.5	11.0 ± 0.2 11.8 ± 0.2	10.9 ± 0.5 13.9 ± 0.5
Currocaior	aronarius cand	controut			0	12.1 ± 1.1	10.1 ± 0.0	11.0 ± 0.2	10.0 ± 0.0
Drv	3 178 + 13	-23.9 ± 0.2	124 + 01	13.0 ± 0.4					
Wet	$5 27.6 \pm 4.4$	-21.7 ± 0.2	10.4 ± 0.1	12.0 ± 0.1					
Bagre mai	<i>rinus</i> , gafftopsail	catfish							
Dry	$6 42.2 \pm 3.8$	-18.9 ± 0.5	12.1 ± 0.1	13.6 ± 0.2	6	40.6 ± 1.8	-19.4 ± 0.6	12.9 ± 0.4	12.9 ± 0.5
Wet	11 36.4 ± 3.2	-19.4 ± 0.3	11.6 ± 0.2	12.2 ± 0.4	7	24.4 ± 4.6	-20.8 ± 0.5	12.8 ± 0.5	12.9 ± 0.7
Carcharhi	<i>nus leucas</i> , bull s	hark ^a							
Dry	$3 102.5 \pm 3.0$	-17.8 ± 0.4	12.6 ± 0.3	11.0 ± 0.6	3	94.3 ± 2.9	-16.6 ± 0.3	12.6 ± 0.2	11.6 ± 1.1
Wet	3 91.6 ± 13.8	-18.5 ± 0.7	12.7 ± 0.2	12.0 ± 0.1	3	102.1 ± 12.6	-17.4 ± 0.5	13.4 ± 0.5	13.3 ± 1.0
^a Bull shar	ks <i>Carcharhinus</i>	<i>leucas</i> measu	uring ≥75 cm	n (ca. ≥1 yr o	ld) wer	e included in	this study to	eliminate ar	ıy potential

maternal isotopic influence (Olin et al. 2011)

species were (1) assigned to one of 4 groups termed 'trophic guilds' (see below) and (2) to one of 2 groups termed 'resource use categories' representing either pelagic or benthic feeders. All assignments were based on dietary data from the literature (see Table 1 for designation). Trophic guilds were defined as: (1) primary consumer, diet composed largely of algae and detritus (>70%), (2) secondary consumer, diet composed primarily of invertebrate species, (3) tertiary consumer, diet composed of both fishes and invertebrates and (4) piscivore, diet composed primarily of fishes (>80%). Resource use categories were defined by predominant feeding type based on dietary data as follows: (1) pelagic or (2) benthic (sensu Chanton & Lewis 2002). To examine the influence of season, resource use and their interaction on the defined trophic guilds, a 2-factor ANOVA was applied to the $\delta^{15}N,\,\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{34}S$ data of the secondary and tertiary consumers in the Myakka estuary, and the primary and secondary consumers in the Caloosahatchee estuary, as those trophic guilds included both pelagic and benthic feeders. Prior to all analyses an examination of probability plots and box plots showed data to be generally described by normally distributed errors. All analyses were conducted in R 2.13.0 (R Development Core Team 2011) with a criterion for significance of p < 0.05 used for all statistical tests.

RESULTS

The results of the MANOVA revealed significant effects of estuary and of the estuary × season interaction on the stable isotope values of the food web (Pillai Trace: $F_{1,257} = 6.765$, $p > 0.0001; F_{1,257} = 3.333, p = 0.020;$ Table 3). Results of ANOVA revealed that the estuary and estuary × season interaction differed in both their mean δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values, with the Myakka food web having lower $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values than the Caloosahatchee food web (Table 3, Fig. 3A,B,D,E). For the Myakka food web, a similar range in stable isotope values of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ were observed across all species in the dry and wet seasons: absolute range: -14.6 to -25.1 vs. -14.1 to -25.9 and 5.7 to 13.3 vs. 6.5 to 13.1, respectively (Fig. 3A,B). Wet season stable isotope values for the Caloosahatchee food web were more depleted in ¹³C, absolute range: -12.4 to -27.2 vs. -14.3 to -29.1 and enriched in ¹⁵N (4.5 to 14.1 vs. 6.1 to 14.4), by ~2‰ in both instances, relative to the dry season stable isotope values (Fig. 3D,E). Results of ANOVA for δ^{34} S were significant for estuary × season interaction (Table 3), with the Myakka having higher mean δ^{34} S values relative to the Caloosahatchee food web (Fig. 3C,F). The range in δ^{34} S values in the Myakka food web, declined by ~2‰ between dry and wet seasons (5.2 to 14.8 vs. 7.3 to 14.7, respectively) (Fig. 3C). The range in δ^{34} S values observed between seasons in the Caloosahatchee food web were comparable (dry: -0.3 to 15.0 vs. wet: 1.4 to 16.4) (Fig. 3F).

In the Myakka food web, species exhibited a mixed response to the onset of the wet season, but overall significant shifts in isotope values were observed in fewer species than in the Caloosa-hatchee (Fig. 3A–C; Table A2 in Appendix 1). These differences were principally driven by tertiary consumers. No overall trend of depletion or enrichment was identified for ¹³C (Fig. 3A) or ¹⁵N (Fig. 3B) between seasons. However significant depletion in ³⁴S was identified in the tertiary consumers *Ariopsis felis, Bagre marinus* and *Cynoscion arenarius* in the wet season (Fig. 3C).

Table 3. MANOVA and ANOVA results of stable isotopes values ($\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$
and $\delta^{34}S$) among the Myakka and Caloosahatchee estuaries and between the
2008 wet and dry seasons (statistical significance in bold)

MANOVA (δ^{13} C,	$\delta^{15}N,\delta^{34}S)$	df	Pillai	F	р
Estuary		1	0.074	6.765	0.000
Season		1	0.015	1.287	0.279
Estuary:season		1	0.038	3.333	0.020
Residuals		257			
ANOVA (δ^{13} C)	df	SS	MS	F	р
Estuary	1	85.930	85.930	10.126	0.002
Season	1	19.730	19.731	2.325	0.129
Estuary:season	1	38.360	38.362	4.520	0.034
Residuals	257	2181.030	8.487		
ANOVA (δ^{15} N)					
Estuary	1	19.830	19.828	6.275	0.013
Season	1	2.020	2.025	0.641	0.424
Estuary:season	1	9.660	9.663	3.057	0.042
Residuals	257	812.050	3.160		
ANOVA (δ^{34} S)					
Estuary	1	19.000	18.998	2.273	0.133
Season	1	1.450	1.448	0.173	0.678
Estuary:season	1	57.920	57.921	6.929	0.009
Residuals	257	2148.430	8.360		





In contrast to the Myakka estuary, changes to the species level δ^{15} N-, δ^{13} C- and δ^{34} S-season relationships in the Caloosahatchee estuary were predominantly driven by primary and secondary consumers (Table A2 in Appendix 1). Species whose $\delta^{13}C$ values varied significantly between season were all depleted in ¹³C following the wet season (Fig. 3D). For species that did not exhibit a significant shift in $\delta^{13}C_{1}$, a declining trend in $\delta^{13}C$ values with the wet season was observed, with the exception of Crassostrea virginica and Eugerres plumieri (Fig. 3D). The $\delta^{15}N$ values of the majority of primary and secondary consumers were significantly enriched in ¹⁵N following altered-high flow (i.e. Fig. 3E). The δ^{15} N values of the primary consumers C. virginica and Mugil cephalus significantly increased by approximately 2‰ and 1.5‰, respectively, between seasons (Fig. 3E). Unlike the Myakka food web, the δ^{34} S values of tertiary consumers of the Caloosahatchee food web did not show an overall change, although Lutjanus griseus exhibited enrichment in ³⁴S, whereas 3 primary and secondary consumers, C. virginica, Eucinostomus harengulus and Chaetodipterus faber, exhibited significant depletion in ³⁴S following the wet season (Fig. 3F).

When considering the relationships between season (dry versus wet) and resource use (benthic vs. pelagic) of species assigned to particular trophic quilds in the Myakka food web, significant differences in $\delta^{34}S$ between seasons were identified for both secondary and tertiary consumers (Table 4). The $\delta^{15}N$ values varied significantly with resource use category in the secondary consumers, and with the interaction in tertiary consumers and the $\delta^{13}C$ values varied significantly with resource use in the tertiary consumers (Table 4). Together the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ results identify that benthic and pelagic species derive their energy from different components of the food web. In contrast, in the Caloosahatchee food web, the $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values varied significantly with season, resource use category and in the case of δ^{13} C the interaction for primary consumers (i.e. Crassostrea virginica and Mugil cephalus; Table 4), indicating that altered-high flow affects both pelagic and benthic components of the food web. For $\delta^{13}C$, this was driven by the depletion observed in M. ce*phalus*, whereas for $\delta^{15}N$, both primary consumers M. cephalus and C. virginica showed enriched values of ~1.5% in the wet season. However, no season or resource use effects on $\delta^{13}C$ or $\delta^{15}N$ were observed in secondary consumers. Statistically significant dif-

	df	δ ¹³ C (‰)				$-\delta^{15}N$	(‰) —		δ ³⁴ S (‰)				
		SS	MS	F	р	SS	MS	F	р	SS	MS	F	р
MYAKKA													
Secondary consumer													
Season	1	2.991	2.991	0.761	0.386	0.468	0.468	0.287	0.594	38.165	38.165	11.196	0.001
Resource use	1	0.192	0.192	0.049	0.826	18.077	18.077	11.057	0.001	2.474	2.474	0.726	0.397
Season × resource use	1	4.615	4.615	1.174	0.283	0.327	0.327	0.200	0.656	7.583	7.583	2.224	0.141
Error	65	255.565	3.932			106.271	1.635			221.583	3.409		
Tertiary consumer													
Season	1	1.138	1.138	0.448	0.507	2.77	2.770	3.550	0.066	14.587	14.587	7.061	0.011
Resource use	1	43.605	43.605	17.158	0.000	0.761	0.762	0.976	0.328	0.907	0.907	0.439	0.511
Season × resource use	1	6.355	6.355	2.501	0.121	5.791	5.791	7.424	0.009	0.008	0.008	0.004	0.949
Error	45	114.361	2.541			35.104	0.780			92.961	2.066		
CALOOSAHATCHEE													
Primary consumer													
Season	1	75.478	75.478	8.039	0.015	14.489	14.489	35.825	0.000	1.380	1.380	0.357	0.561
Resource use	1	65.588	65.588	6.986	0.021	30.319	30.319	74.965	0.000	36.192	36.192	9.373	0.010
Season × resource use	1	65.534	65.534	6.980	0.022	0.039	0.039	0.098	0.760	12.620	12.620	3.268	0.096
Error	12	112.670	9.389			4.853	0.404			46.337	3.861		
Secondary consumer													
Season	1	10.651	10.651	0.703	0.405	1.194	1.194	0.652	0.423	27.475	27.475	1.642	0.206
Resource use	1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.987	0.063	0.063	0.034	0.854	75.010	75.010	4.481	0.039
Season × resource use	1	7.918	7.918	0.523	0.473	4.856	4.856	2.650	0.109	51.259	51.259	3.062	0.086
Error	56	848.330	15.149			102.618	1.832			920.590	16.738		

Table 4. Results of 2-way ANOVAs used to test the effect of (1) season (dry versus wet) and (2) resource use category within estuary (benthic versus pelagic) on δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, and δ^{34} S values of species within the designated trophic guilds (statistical significance in **bold**)

ferences in $\delta^{34}S$ were identified between benthic and pelagic species in both the primary and secondary consumer trophic guilds (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

Alterations that have been made to the Caloosahatchee River subject this system to extreme fluctuations in the volume and duration of freshwater inflow. Our seasonal comparison of trophic relationships of nekton assemblages in 2 subtropical tidal rivers that experience different seasonal flow dynamics, demonstrate patterns of isotopic change that are more evident in a flow-altered system relative to a more natural system. Although the study was only conducted over a 1 yr period and is therefore not replicated, the clear changes in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N would suggest that anthropogenic altered flow does influence this estuarine community, and is consistent with other studies that ecological processes (i.e. species abundance and diversity) are modified in altered flow systems (Sheaves et al. 2007).

In the Myakka estuary, where the hydrology is more natural, there were no clear seasonal isotopic patterns, with the exception of more estuarine $\delta^{34}S$ values of tertiary consumers in the wet season. In the Caloosahatchee estuary, the results revealed a dichotomous response by estuarine species to seasonal flow dynamics. Specifically, a distinct shift to lower $\delta^{13}C$ and higher $\delta^{15}N$ values was exhibited. This pattern was largely driven by primary and secondary consumers, i.e. was not evident among higher trophic level species but was observed in both pelagic and benthic components of this nekton community. The δ^{34} S values were less seasonally variable in the modified estuary and, in general, represented a more terrestrial/freshwater influenced value compared to the natural estuary - which may suggest that flow dynamics have a prolonged effect. Although the relative trophic structure, based on $\delta^{15}N$, was consistent across seasons and among estuaries, differences in the isotopic response of conspecifics to the wet season, specifically evident in δ^{13} C, support the assertion that altered freshwater flow dynamics affect nutrient sources available to consumers (Wai et al. 2008, Abrantes & Sheaves 2010). Future work focused on continued monitoring of the seasonal dynamics in these estuarine systems is necessary to determine if this pattern is replicated over several years.

Consistent with observations of seasonal differences in basal productivity in hydrological-altered estuaries (Kaldy et al. 2005), nekton species in the Caloosahatchee estuary exhibited significant changes in δ^{13} C between seasons, a result not observed in conspecifics from the Myakka estuary. In general, carbon sourced from plants that use the C₄ photosynthetic process, are enriched in $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ ($\delta^{13}\mathrm{C}$ of C_4 plants, -6 to -19‰; Table 5) relative to carbon sourced from C_3 plants and terrestrial sources ($\delta^{13}C$ of C₃ plants, -24 to -30%; Table 5) (Moncreiff & Sullivan 2001, Winemiller et al. 2007). Marine plankton (-22‰, Chanton & Lewis 1999) also tends to be more enriched than riverine plankton (-28‰, Chanton & Lewis 1999). The observed trends were consistent with our expectations of assimilation by the estuarine species of a ¹³C-depleted source following the compounded wet season. This trend was not evident in the Myakka estuary, as few species exhibited a shift in their $\delta^{13}C$ values with season. In fact, the majority of species that did exhibit a significant shift became enriched in ¹³C with the onset of the wet season, a result opposite to that expected and observed in the Caloosahatchee estuary. The significant δ^{13} C variation in the Caloosahatchee estuary may be attributed to 2 effects: the increasing influence of terrestrial organic matter with high flow and/or the increasing influence of ¹³C-depleted dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) sourcing phytoplankton in waters with decreasing salinity (Chanton & Lewis 2002). Sampling these and other production sources over multiple annual seasonal cycles in these systems would be necessary to quantify the specific resource driving this trend.

The mean $\delta^{15}N$ value of the food web increased significantly following the wet season in the Caloosahatchee estuary. This increase was largely driven by the primary and secondary consumers. This trend was not apparent in the Myakka estuary, and the difference between systems is unlikely due to variation in body size (Olin et al. 2012). In addition, it is unlikely that prey resources shifted significantly with the wet season, as neither density nor species richness of consumers changed between seasons in the Caloosahatchee estuary (J. Olin unpubl. data). Rather, these differences likely reflected high nutrient loads to the Caloosahatchee River from considerable urban and agricultural runoff (Flaig & Capece 1998), which has been observed in many other estuarine systems that have demonstrated a strong link between urban or agricultural lands and elevated δ^{15} N values in aquatic species (McClelland & Valiela 1998, Winemiller et al. 2011). Although variable levels of enrichment in ¹⁵N were observed throughout the community the increase in $\delta^{15}N$ values between seasons is consistent with the decrease in values of

Table 5. Isotopic values of potential organic matter sources compiled from published studies conducted in the Gulf of Mexico. Data are ranges of values from the referenced studies. Study areas: Apalachicola Bay, Florida (Chanton & Lewis 1999, 2002, Wilson et al. 2009); Shark River Estuary, Florida (Fry & Smith 2002); Mobile Bay, Alabama (Goecker et al. 2009); Horn Island, Mississippi (Moncreiff & Sullivan 2001); Mad Island Marsh Estuary, Texas (Winemiller et al. 2007)

Source	$\delta^{13}C$	$\delta^{34}S$	Reference
Detritus			
Detritus (e.g. mixed terrestrial and macroalgae)	-26.8 to -26.6	-0.4 to -4.9	Goecker et al. (2009)
Detritus (e.g. terrestrial)	-28.2	2.9	Wilson et al. (2009)
Plankton			
Phytoplankton	-21.8 to -20.0	15.4	Winemiller et al. (2007), Moncreiff & Sullivan (2001)
Zooplankton	-24.8 to -20.7	14.7	Winemiller et al. (2007), Wilson et al. (2009)
Plankton mixed (e.g. river)	-27.0 to -28.3	-3.6 to 4.3	Chanton & Lewis (1999)
Plankton mixed (e.g. marine)	-22.2 to -22.5	17.4 to 18.1	Chanton & Lewis (1999)
Vegetation			
Upland vegetation	-30.0 to -26.0	-1.0 to 4.0	Chanton & Lewis (2002)
C ₃ marsh vegetation (e.g. Juncus sp.)	-24.0 to -28.0	-3.0 to 18.0	Chanton & Lewis (2002), Moncreiff & Sullivan (2001)
C ₄ vegetation (e.g. <i>Spartina</i> sp.)	-12.8 to -14.6	-2.3 to 2.6	Chanton & Lewis (2002)
Mangrove mixed (e.g. river)	-28.4 to -29.4	11.2 to 16.3	Fry & Smith (2002)
Algae			
Macroalgae (e.g. <i>Vallisneria,</i> <i>Cladophora, Ulva</i> sp.)	-16.8 to -22.4	2.3 to 18.2	Goecker et al. (2009), Winemiller et al. (2007), Chanton & Lewis (2002)
Seagrass (e.g. Halodule wrightii)	-9.0 to -14.5	-2.6 to 11.5	Chanton & Lewis (2002), Wilson et al. (2009)
Epiphytic algae	-17.5	18.2	Moncreiff & Sullivan (2001)

 δ^{13} C, providing support to a significant influence of the high flow on nutrient sources. However, as with the trend observed in δ^{13} C, measuring isotopic values of species and production sources in these communities in successive annual cycles would be necessary to confirm that these trends result from altered flow dynamics.

The absence of significant ³⁴S depletion in the wet season across the Caloosahatchee consumers was unexpected given that the trend was observed in the Myakka estuary and in other estuarine systems (Chanton & Lewis 2002). However, the majority of primary and secondary consumers sampled during the wet season in the Caloosahatchee estuary were depleted in ³⁴S relative to those sampled during the dry season. Moreover 2 species that generally feed on pelagic resources, Crassostrea virginica and Chaetodipterus faber, did show significant depletion in ³⁴S following high flow, suggestive of sulfate contributions from a freshwater source (Fry & Chumchal 2011); a result similarly observed in a number of benthic consumers. These sulfur results suggest that high flow influence nutrient sources in the Caloosahatchee River and the lower observed δ^{34} S values relative to the Myakka River could indicate that altered flow may influence available nutrient sources for a longer period of time.

The magnitude of response of the upper trophic level consumers to altered flow in the Caloosahatchee estuary based on stable isotopes was less relative to the lower trophic level consumers. One explanation is that these upper trophic level consumers, which are generally more mobile, migrated out of the Caloosahatchee estuary during high flow and continued to feed on resources with similar isotope values. However, this seems unlikely given the species considered were sampled within the estuary during both collection periods and a number of studies have demonstrated that estuarine consumer species exhibit site fidelity and their tissues reflect the organic matter close to the areas they inhabit (Deegan & Garritt 1997, Guest & Connolly 2004). Rather, the absence of significant changes in the isotopic values in the upper trophic levels of the Caloosahatchee estuary may indicate that the duration of high freshwater flow was too short to elicit a shift in the isotope values of these larger bodied species. This delay could result from (1) slower muscle tissue turnover rates in higher trophic level and larger species (Logan & Lutcavage 2010) and/or (2) a lag associated with movement of different isotopic values through the food web (e.g. Guelinckx et al. 2007, Jennings et al. 2008). This has consequences for using stable isotopes to assess trophic ecology of species that have

isotope turnover times in sampled tissues that are longer than disturbance events (i.e. events that alter isotope values at the base of the food web). Sampling of high turnover tissues, for example blood plasma (Hobson & Clark 1992) or the use of alternative chemical tracers such as fatty acids, could aid in clarifying this in higher trophic level species.

As the stable isotope values of muscle tissue reflect diet assimilated over a specific time period, minimal change in $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ of the higher trophic level species residing in the Caloosahatchee estuary through both seasons indicated that the body composition of these animals reflect resources assimilated during both hydrologic regimes. It is important to note that if this disturbance event was of longer duration or occurred more frequently, for example as predicted by global climate change models (Pearlstine et al. 2010), then this alteration of the salinity gradient may have more serious consequences — particularly with respect to the physiological and dietary requirements of these species (e.g. maintaining osmotic balance; Nordlie 2006). For example, Jack et al. (2009) demonstrated an alteration to the diet of the red rock lobster Jasus edwardsii to a less preferable species as a consequence of prolonged low salinity. To advance our understanding of the species- and food web-level effects observed in this study, future studies should focus on determining seasonal trends in primary production and organic matter sources as well as monitoring trophic structure of food webs that experience varying flow management strategies.

CONCLUSIONS

Establishment of freshwater inflow criteria is becoming increasingly important (e.g. Arthington et al. 2006). Development of these criteria however is dependent on understanding the response of communities to altered freshwater flow regimes. Direct conclusions regarding the effect of altered freshwater flow dynamics on the nekton community of the Caloosahatchee estuary are difficult to state given the temporal period of this study. But the clear seasonal shifts in isotopic values between systems, predominantly driven by the lower trophic level species, would indicate that altered freshwater flow does affect available production resources to consumers. Shifts in resource use by primary and secondary consumers with flow are supported by previous studies in modified systems (Jack et al. 2009, McLeod et al. 2010), further corroborating our results. However, repetitive long-term sampling is

required. Alteration to riverine flow indeed has implications for trophic interactions of estuarine species and, as presented here, the flow of energy to higher trophic levels through the food web. Whether this is advantageous (e.g. nutrients for production) or deleterious (e.g. mortality) for estuarine species requires further research. It is important to note that direct comparisons of these patterns to other estuarine systems warrants caution given differences in the magnitude of anthropogenic modification, the available production resources and species composition across even seemingly similar estuaries (Sheaves et al. 2007). Thus, the seasonal patterns identified in this study should be considered only in a broad sense. Regardless, changes to natural flow regimes that modify the duration and intensity of freshwater flow may hold significant consequences for the productivity of estuarine communities.

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Appendix 1

Table A1. Environmental parameters (salinity, temperature and dissolved oxygen [DO]) measured from each sampling event in the Caloosahatchee and Myakka estuaries following the dry (May and June) and wet (August and September) seasons of 2008. Data are mean ± SE

	———— Caloosa	ihatchee ———	Myał	ska ———
	Dry (n = 23)	Wet (n = 36)	Dry (n = 29)	Wet (n = 30)
Salinity (ppt)	27.5 ± 7.4	3.9 ± 2.9	24.1 ± 1.2	10.0 ± 1.6
Temperature (°C)	28.9 ± 1.5	28.6 ± 1.5	29.0 ± 0.3	28.4 ± 0.2
DO (mg l ⁻¹)	6.3 ± 0.9	5.33 ± 0.2	5.7 ± 0.1	6.4 ± 0.2

Table A2. Welch's paired *t*-test results (*t*-value and p-value) comparing δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and δ^{34} S values among consumer species sampled following the dry and wet seasons in the Caloosahatchee and Myakka estuaries (statistical significance in **bold**)

Species	Caloosahatchee ———						Mvakka						
	δ ¹³ C (‰)		δ^{15} N	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)		δ ³⁴ S (‰)		δ ¹³ C (‰)		δ ¹⁵ N (‰)		δ ³⁴ S (‰)	
Primary consumers													
<i>Crassostrea virginica,</i> Eastern oyster	0.574	0.609	4.078	0.024	-4.985	0.034							
Mugil cephalus, striped mullet	-3.849	0.005	3.223	0.026	0.799	0.447							
Secondary consumers													
<i>Callinectes sapidus</i> , blue crab	-4.033	0.005	2.509	0.043	-0.865	0.437	3.426	0.010	1.552	0.158	-4.458	0.002	
Trinectes maculatus, hogchoker	-0.369	0.739	0.118	0.915	1.904	0.161							
Eucinostomus harengulus, tidewater mojarra	3.774	0.002	-3.611	0.003	6.152	0.000							
Eugerres plumieri, striped mojarra	0.531	0.605	-1.085	0.301	-0.541	0.599	0.162	0.873	0.432	0.682	-0.523	0.610	
Lagodon rhomboides, pinfish	-3.417	0.029	4.419	0.021	0.513	0.626	0.159	0.877	1.734	0.112	-1.103	0.309	
Dasyatis sabina, Atlantic stingray	-7.180	0.000	5.229	0.001	1.311	0.346							
Chaetodipterus faber, Atlantic spadefish	-1.367	0.259	2.521	0.040	3.245	0.007	-1.073	0.352 -	-0.506	0.637	0.511	0.645	
Menticirrhus americanus, Southern kingfish	3.552	0.037	-5.039	0.010	1.106	0.370							
Tertiary consumers													
Ariopsis felis, hardhead catfish	-1.002	0.341	1.953	0.076	0.026	0.979	0.379	0.710	-0.650	0.525	-2.566	0.021	
<i>Lutjanus griseus</i> , grey snapper	-1.959	0.098	0.564	0.594	5.138	0.002							
Cynoscion arenarius, sand seatrout	3.267	0.006	-2.596	0.043	-3.229	0.038							
Bagre marinus, gafftopsail catfish	-1.866	0.090	-0.121	0.906	0.115	0.911	-0.852	0.415	-1.957	0.081	-3.066	0.008	
Piscivore	1 367	0.250	2 001	0 1 / 0	1 685	0 181	0.860	0.446	0.200	0 782	1 561	0.246	
Carcinarininus ieucas, bull slidik	-1.307	0.239	2.001	0.149	1.000	0.101	-0.009	0.440	0.299	0.702	1.301	0.240	

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