

1 Diet composition affects the rate and N:P ratio of fish excretion

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13

14 **SUMMARY**

- 15 1. Nutrient recycling by fish can be an important part of nutrient cycles in both freshwater  
16 and marine ecosystems. As a result, understanding the mechanisms that influence  
17 excretion elemental ratios of fish is of great importance to a complete understanding of  
18 aquatic nutrient cycles. As fish consume a wide range of diets that differ in elemental  
19 composition, stoichiometric theory can inform predictions about dietary effects on  
20 excretion ratios.
- 21 2. We conducted a meta-analysis to test the effects of diet elemental composition on  
22 consumption and nutrient excretion by fish. We examined the relationship between  
23 consumption rate and diet N:P across all laboratory studies and calculated effect sizes for  
24 each excretion metric to test for significant effects.
- 25 3. Consumption rate of N, but not P, was significantly negatively affected by diet N:P.  
26 Effect sizes of diet elemental composition on consumption-specific excretion N, P and  
27 N:P in laboratory studies were all significantly different from 0, but effect size for raw  
28 excretion N:P was not significantly different from zero in laboratory or field surveys.
- 29 4. Our results highlight the importance of having a mechanistic understanding of the drivers  
30 of consumer excretion rates and ratios. We suggest that more research is needed on how  
31 consumption and assimilation efficiency vary with N:P and in natural ecosystems in order  
32 to further understand mechanistic processes in consumer-driven nutrient recycling.

## 34 **Introduction**

35 Consumers can play an essential role in nutrient cycles in marine and freshwater  
36 ecosystems by controlling the storage and fluxes of key nutrients such as nitrogen (N) and  
37 phosphorus (P) (Kitchell *et al.*, 1979; Elser *et al.*, 1988; Vanni, 2002; McIntyre *et al.*, 2007;  
38 Allgeier, Yeager & Layman, 2013). Through the excretion of dissolved inorganic nutrients,  
39 consumers can supply significant amounts of limiting nutrients to primary producers and  
40 decomposers (McIntyre *et al.*, 2008; Small *et al.*, 2011). While a considerable body of literature  
41 has developed around investigations of the importance of consumers to nutrient cycles in aquatic  
42 ecosystems, a mechanistic understanding of what influences rates and elemental ratios of  
43 nutrients excreted by consumers has lagged behind. Consumers can create biogeochemical  
44 hotspots simply by achieving locally high biomass (McIntyre *et al.*, 2008; Atkinson *et al.*, 2013;  
45 Capps & Flecker, 2013a), but the digestion, metabolism, storage and retention of consumed  
46 nutrients in consumer bodies, in combination with overall biomass, control the role individual  
47 species play in altering ecosystem function (Vanni *et al.*, 2002; Small *et al.*, 2011; Capps &  
48 Flecker, 2013b; Vanni, Boros & McIntyre, 2013). As a result, both the elemental composition of  
49 an organism and its diet should impact the rates and ratio at which it excretes nutrients (Sterners,  
50 1990; Elser & Urabe, 1999; Sterners & Elser, 2002). While the effect of organismal elemental  
51 composition on nutrient recycling by aquatic vertebrates has been investigated (e.g., Vanni *et al.*,  
52 2002; Hood, Vanni & Flecker, 2005), empirical studies of the impacts of diet elemental  
53 composition on excretion ratios have provided mixed results. The positive relationship between  
54 diet N:P and excreted N:P predicted by Sterners (1990) has been found in *Daphnia*, crayfish and  
55 mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdi*) (He & Wang, 2008; McManamay *et al.*, 2011), but no significant  
56 relationship has been found for a number of other species of fish and invertebrates (Schindler &

57 Eby, 1997; Verant *et al.*, 2007; McManamay *et al.*, 2011; Taylor *et al.*, 2012). We investigate the  
58 impacts of diet on consumer excretion ratios in fish, a group of consumers that is both abundant  
59 in aquatic ecosystems and exhibits a great diversity of dietary strategies over which to examine  
60 excretion responses.

61 Fish are both abundant and diverse in many aquatic ecosystems, and as a result they have  
62 been frequently identified as the most important nutrient recyclers or retainers in a diverse range  
63 of aquatic systems (e.g., McIntyre *et al.*, 2007; Small *et al.*, 2011; Allgeier *et al.*, 2013; Capps &  
64 Flecker, 2013b). Fish are diverse taxonomically as well as functionally, with known diets  
65 ranging widely in elemental composition from plant and algal detritus to invertebrates and other  
66 vertebrates (González-Bergonzoni *et al.*, 2012). While some fish species are highly specialized  
67 to feed on specific foods, many fish are omnivorous to some degree and thus may consume diets  
68 that vary widely in quality over time or ontogeny (e.g., Grimm, 1988; Pilati & Vanni, 2007;  
69 González-Bergonzoni *et al.*, 2012). Diets that are animal-based are generally relatively higher in  
70 P content than plant- or algae-based diets (e.g., Green, Hardy & Brannon, 2002), thus the  
71 impacts of animal- vs. plant- or algae-based diets on organismal physiology are informed by the  
72 mass balance of multiple chemical elements and energy in ecological systems employed by  
73 ecological stoichiometry (Sterner & Elser, 2002). Following a mass balance model of fish  
74 growth assuming no difference in growth rate between diets, the difference between the amount  
75 of a given nutrient in the diet and that used by the consumer will equal the total released, which  
76 includes both nutrients excreted as dissolved inorganic and organic molecules and those egested  
77 as particulate waste (Kitchell *et al.*, 1974; Sterner, 1990; Schindler & Eby, 1997; Fig. 1).  
78 Therefore, fish excretion ratios should be proportional to diet elemental composition across a  
79 gradient of food elemental ratios unless fish differentially assimilate N and P (Sterner, 1990;

80 Schindler & Eby, 1997; Sterner & Elser, 2002). However, if fish differentially excrete and egest  
81 waste products, these ratios may not be directly proportional. Such a scenario arises when  
82 assimilation efficiency changes with diets of varying composition.

83 To assess how diet composition affects fish excretion ratios, direct manipulations of  
84 organismal diets in a controlled setting are required. Here we review the literature for studies in  
85 which multiple diets were fed to fish in a controlled setting and consumption rates and excretion  
86 rates and/or ratios were measured. Specifically, we draw on the field of experimental aquaculture  
87 research which represents a rich source of data on physiological responses of consumers to  
88 differing diets, the value of which is only beginning to be recognized by ecologists (Boersma &  
89 Elser, 2006; Benstead *et al.*, in press). We employ a meta-analysis using standardized effect sizes  
90 to quantify how both consumption and composition of diet may affect excretion ratio in fish.  
91 Finally, we discuss the implications of the results from controlled settings to nutrient recycling in  
92 natural ecosystems.

### 93 **Methods**

94 We used a meta-analytic approach to determine if fish consumption rates and nutrient  
95 excretion ratios are influenced by the N and P composition of their diet. We used the ISI Web of  
96 Science database to search the peer-reviewed literature for studies of fish where diet was directly  
97 manipulated and a dissolved excretion response was measured. While faecal egestion is  
98 undoubtedly important in the N and P budgets of organisms (Fig. 1; Halvorson *et al.*, 2015), we  
99 focus on dissolved excretion because it is in this form that excreted nutrients can have significant  
100 immediate impacts at the ecosystem scale (e.g., Kitchell *et al.*, 1979; McIntyre *et al.*, 2008;  
101 Small *et al.*, 2011). We included studies that measured mass-specific excretion as a rate and

102 those that reported it only as a loading per unit of fish biomass. We performed this search using  
103 the terms *fish*, *diet* and *excretion*. Our search included articles published between 1970 and 2013.  
104 This search initially returned >600 articles, which were cursorily examined by title to determine  
105 whether they were likely relevant to the meta-analysis; for example, articles discussing only  
106 modeled excretion and growth or the use of fishmeal as a feed for other animals were  
107 disregarded. We identified 74 articles that appeared to be relevant by suggesting some type of  
108 study of fish N and P excretion among different diets which were then searched in greater detail  
109 to determine whether they met our criteria of inclusion. Studies included in the meta-analysis  
110 were those that were conducted on fish from a single population, included multiple diets that  
111 were directly manipulated or measured over natural gradients, measured N and P composition  
112 and fish consumption rates of those diets and measured N and/or P excretion in some form. In  
113 the few instances where our search returned multiple studies of a single species by the same  
114 research group, we selected only one of them with a random number generator to avoid violating  
115 test assumptions of independence. We categorized studies as those with direct diet manipulations  
116 in laboratory settings and those that measured natural variation diets in field settings and also  
117 noted whether dietary P was manipulated by varying the level of organic or inorganic P. We  
118 found no studies that conducted diet manipulation experiments in a natural setting.

119 As raw excretion rates may be influenced by differences in diet elemental composition  
120 and changes in consumption rate caused by diet differences, we used linear models of mass-  
121 specific consumption rate ( $\text{g} * \text{g fish}^{-1} * \text{day}^{-1}$ ) of N, P and total food consumption predicted by  
122 diet N:P to calculate and test for significance of effect sizes. From these models, we calculated  
123 effect size as the Pearson correlation coefficient  $r$ , which we transformed to Z-scores using the  
124 Fisher transformation (Rosenthal & DiMatteo, 2001). Then, we tested whether mean effect sizes

125 differed from 0 using *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections to adjust  $\alpha$  when performing multiple  
126 comparisons with the same dependent variable (Rice, 1989; Rosenthal & DiMatteo, 2001). We  
127 then calculated consumption-specific excretion measurements for each study by dividing N, P  
128 and N:P excreted by the mass-specific consumption rate when feeding on a given diet and used  
129 the above methods to calculate effect sizes for both consumption-specific and raw N, P and N:P  
130 excreted as a response to diet N:P in diet manipulation studies. Field surveys did not measure  
131 consumption rates and some did not report N and P excretion data individually, thus we could  
132 not calculate consumption-specific and single nutrient excretion effect sizes for those studies.

133         To assess whether effect sizes may have been influenced by other factors aside from diet  
134 composition, we tested study heterogeneity in the effect size measures. First, we used Cochran's  
135 *Q* to test for significance of study heterogeneity for each effect size measure. Cochran's *Q*  
136 follows a  $\chi^2$  distribution and is a widely used and relatively conservative test of study  
137 heterogeneity in meta-analyses (Takkouche, Cadarso-Suarez & Spiegelman, 1999). For those  
138 effect sizes with significant heterogeneity, we fit linear regression models for each effect size  
139 measurement as a response to difference in N:P between the diet end-members, average water  
140 temperature during the experimental period, initial fish mass and experimental duration  
141 (Rosenthal & DiMatteo, 2001). Our sample size was not sufficient to estimate the interaction  
142 terms between all of these variables thus we examined only main effects. We assessed  
143 homoscedasticity and normality of residuals visually for each model with a plot of model  
144 residuals vs. fitted values and a normal probability plot, respectively. We could not construct  
145 linear regression models for field studies due to a lack of data presented in those manuscripts and  
146 small sample size. All analyses were conducted in the software R v2.15 (R Core Team, 2013).

## 147 **Results**

148           Of the 74 candidate papers identified as possibly relevant, we found 19 independent  
149 studies that met our criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis (Table 1). Of these, two studies  
150 featured only two experimental diets; these studies were excluded from the meta-analysis  
151 because effect sizes could not be calculated from two data points. Of the remaining 17 studies,  
152 15 were diet manipulation experiments conducted in controlled laboratory facilities and two were  
153 field surveys conducted over natural gradients of diet elemental composition. Of the diet  
154 manipulations, 12 studies manipulated the levels of animal vs. plant-based protein while three  
155 studies directly manipulated dietary P content by adding phosphate salts to the same base diet;  
156 however these three studies did not measure N excretion. The majority of laboratory studies fed  
157 fish to apparent satiation, although several fed fish at specific levels based on fish body mass  
158 (Ballestrazzi *et al.*, 1994; Green *et al.*, 2002; Sumagaysay-Chavoso, 2003; Yang *et al.*, 2011).  
159 The laboratory studies included involved 10 fish species in seven families while the field studies  
160 included involved seven fish species in seven families (Table 1). Resource N:P ratios (by mass)  
161 ranged from 2.5 to 56 in laboratory studies (mean=8.2, SD=8.3) and from 2.4 to 174 in field  
162 studies (mean=44.7, SD=42.4). All field studies measured excretion N:P, but only 12 of 15  
163 laboratory studies presented N excretion data that allowed us to calculate N:P ratios of excretion.  
164 Additionally, all laboratory studies measured average initial fish mass, the average water  
165 temperature and the length of the experimental period between when the diet switch began and  
166 when excretion was measured.

167           We first examined whether consumption rates differed with diet composition. Total mass-  
168 specific consumption was not significantly affected by diet N:P (two-tailed *t*-test,  $t=-1.796$ ,  $v=11$ ,  
169  $P=0.10$ ). Mass-specific consumption rate of N was also unaffected by diet N:P (two-tailed *t*-test,



170  $t=-0.270$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.480$ ) across studies but mass-specific P consumption rate significantly  
171 decreased with increasing diet N:P (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=-3.650$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.004$ ) (Fig. 2).

172 Diet effects on excretion ratios were similar for laboratory and field studies; however we  
173 had fewer results for field studies due to the lack of consumption and separated N and P  
174 excretion data. For diet manipulation studies, effect size of diet N:P was significantly below 0 for  
175 P excretion (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=-2.606$ ,  $v=14$ ,  $P=0.021$ ), and positive, but not significantly  
176 different from 0 for N excretion (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=1.381$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.195$ ) (Fig. 3). However,  
177 effect sizes for consumption-specific excretion of both P (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=-2.244$ ,  $v=14$ ,  
178  $P=0.042$ ) and N (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=2.915$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.014$ ) were significantly different from 0  
179 (Fig. 3). Mean effect size of diet elemental composition on excretion N:P was not significantly  
180 different from 0 in diet manipulation studies (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=2.00$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.071$ ) nor field  
181 surveys (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=-0.002$ ,  $v=6$ ,  $P=0.999$ ), but was significantly different from 0 when  
182 corrected for consumption in diet manipulations (two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t=2.42$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.034$ ) (Fig.  
183 4). Of all excretion response effect sizes in diet manipulation studies, only raw P excretion  
184 exhibited significant heterogeneity ( $Q=23.82$ ,  $v=11$ ,  $P=0.014$ ). However, this heterogeneity was  
185 not significantly related to temperature, body mass, experimental duration or the difference in  
186 diet elemental composition ( $P>0.35$  for all slopes). Additionally, there was significant  
187 heterogeneity in the response of N:P excretion in field studies ( $Q=12.83$ ,  $v=6$ ,  $P=0.046$ ), but we  
188 could not further explore any potential sources of this heterogeneity with the data available.

## 189 **Discussion**

190 In this study we synthesize a variety of empirical studies to show that diet can influence  
191 the ratio of dissolved nutrients excreted by aquatic consumers and suggest mechanisms by which

192 it may do so. We found that dietary composition can have significant impacts on fish excretion  
193 ratios in controlled aquaculture settings. In particular, fish feeding on low N:P diets with higher  
194 amounts of animal protein excreted at a lower N:P ratio when accounting for the amount  
195 consumed (Fig. 4). While these effects were strong in laboratory studies, other sources of  
196 variation must be examined to improve our mechanistic understanding of consumer-driven  
197 nutrient recycling in the field.

198         The mass-balance used in ecological stoichiometry (Sterner & Elser, 2002) provides a  
199 simple framework for making predictions about organismal growth and nutrient recycling (Elser  
200 *et al.*, 1988; Sterner, 1990; Elser & Urabe, 1999; Elser, Hayakawa & Urabe, 2001). In a mass-  
201 balance model of organismal growth, an animal should excrete and/or egest the excess nutrients  
202 consumed beyond what is needed for somatic growth and reproduction (Kitchell *et al.*, 1974;  
203 Sterner & Elser 2002; Fig. 1). As animals often exhibit strong stoichiometric homeostasis, their  
204 body elemental composition should not change substantially with diet; therefore excess  
205 consumed nutrients should be excreted or egested (Sterner & Elser, 2002). Some recent studies  
206 have suggested fish can be stoichiometrically flexible in some cases (McManamay *et al.*, 2011;  
207 El-Sabaawi *et al.*, 2012a,b; Benstead *et al.*, in press), thus offering a potential explanation for the  
208 lack of strong correspondence of diet to excretion ratios in prior field studies (Schindler & Eby,  
209 1997; McManamay *et al.*, 2011). However, in finding that consumption-specific excretion of N  
210 and N:P increases and P decreases with increasing diet N:P, our results support the predictions of  
211 stoichiometric theory. By accounting for consumption rates, we have gained new insights into  
212 how diet affects excretion ratios, insights that we could not from field studies for which  
213 consumption is extremely challenging to measure.

214 Our results highlight the importance of consumption to excretion ratios. Most  
215 importantly, we found that while fish excretion rate of N did not significantly differ with diet  
216 composition, the excretion rate of N per gram of food consumed did (Fig. 3). In contrast,  
217 excretion of P significantly decreased with increasing dietary N:P both independent of  
218 consumption and per gram consumed (Fig. 3). This result could stem from fish eating less total  
219 food when feeding on high N:P diets and/or the fact that those diets had less P. The fact that  
220 mass-specific P consumption declined with increasing diet N:P is likely a consequence of most  
221 studies manipulating diet N:P primarily by manipulating P rather than N contents. As dietary P  
222 contents of fish can vary substantially through space and time (e.g., Mehner *et al.*, 1998;  
223 Zandonà *et al.*, 2011), this mechanism certainly impacts fish excretion ratios in natural settings.  
224 Further, mass-specific consumption rates tended to decline with increasing dietary N:P ( $P=0.10$ ),  
225 thus this mechanism may be important in some, but not all situations. If fish consume less  
226 material when feeding on high N:P foods, and they also excrete more N and less P per gram of  
227 diet consumed, then the ratio of N:P excreted will be altered through both direct and  
228 consumptive effects of diet stoichiometry. However, the underlying fact that both N and P  
229 excretion per gram consumed differed with diet N:P ratio is itself an interesting result that merits  
230 further examination.

231 In many of these studies, and often in natural systems, shifts in diet elemental  
232 composition co-occur with differences in the abundance of animal, plants or algae in the diet. In  
233 systems where consumers are largely consuming entirely one group of diet items, such as  
234 zooplankton feeding on phytoplankton, dietary N:P alone should largely determine how diet  
235 impacts excretion ratios (e.g., Sterner, 1990). However, when animals consume diets with co-  
236 varying elemental composition and protein sources, these confounding sources of variation can

237 produce differing effects on excretion ratios. Differences in the biochemical form of nutrients  
238 present could alter assimilation efficiency, which could in turn lead to differential egestion and  
239 excretion of individual nutrients. Although previous researchers have assumed constant  
240 assimilation efficiencies across diets in fish, this assumption is unrealistic for fish that consume  
241 diets consisting of multiple food types (Lall, 1991). Since excess undigested nutrients should be  
242 egested as particulate waste products (Wotton & Malmqvist, 2001; Halvorson *et al.*, 2015),  
243 concurrent changes in digestibility with diet N:P could confound effects of diet on dissolved  
244 excretion rates. For example, variation in protein digestibility among plant- or algae-based and  
245 animal-based diet items could lead to differences in the amount of N egested as opposed to  
246 excreted without substantially affecting the amount of P egested or excreted (Robbins *et al.*,  
247 2005). However, P digestibility often differs between plants, algae and animals because plants  
248 often contain large amounts of P in phytate or phytic acid, which is difficult for many fish to  
249 digest (Lall, 1991). In our study a large number of plant-based diets were treated with phytase to  
250 increase P digestibility, thus we expected effects of P digestibility to be lower in magnitude than  
251 those of N digestibility. However, this digestibility difference is likely important to consumers in  
252 natural settings where fish cannot easily digest phytic acid. Our results support this prediction, as  
253 consumption-specific excretion rates of both N and P differed with diet N:P (Fig. 3), suggesting  
254 that N and P assimilation efficiency differed when feeding on high N:P plant-based diets vs. low  
255 N:P fishmeal-based diets. If the proportion and elemental ratios of material egested and excreted  
256 differ as a function of diet elemental composition and/or protein source, no strong relationship  
257 between diet elemental composition and excretion ratios may be observed (McManamay *et al.*,  
258 2011). As a result, our results support the idea that factors other than diet N:P such as protein

259 digestibility, phytate contents and consumption rates must be taken into account when assessing  
260 the impacts of diet on consumer excretion ratios.

261         In spite of the considerable interest in excretion ratios such as N:P due to the importance  
262 of stoichiometric ratios of nutrients supplied to primary producers (e.g., Elser *et al.*, 1988;  
263 Sterner, Elser & Hessen, 1992), studies of excretion ratios are complicated by the fact that  
264 physiological regulation of N and P is largely controlled separately in fish. The majority of P  
265 consumed by fish and other vertebrates is used for bone mineralization (Lall, 1991; Hendrixson  
266 *et al.*, 2007; Huitema *et al.*, 2012), yet a large amount of N consumed is used for the synthesis of  
267 protein (Sterner & Elser, 2002). However, stoichiometric theory offers a link between these  
268 disparate physiological pathways. Since fish are generally stoichiometrically homeostatic over an  
269 individual life stage (Sterner & Elser, 2002), those excess nutrients not assimilated must be  
270 excreted and/or egested. Therefore, the ratio of what is consumed to what is needed by a fish can  
271 still be used to predict excretion ratios even if the individual pathways of those elements within  
272 the organism are not tightly connected. Another potential factor that may confound dietary  
273 effects on excretion is that excretion rates of N and P scale differently with body mass (Torres &  
274 Vanni, 2007). If consumers grow at different rates when feeding on diets of differing elemental  
275 composition, differences in body mass alone could account for differences in excretion ratios  
276 (Villéger *et al.*, 2012a,b). We were unable to correct for the different allometries of N and P  
277 excretion because the units in which excretion was reported varied between studies, but all  
278 studies reported excretion as some function of fish mass. We believe that our conclusions are  
279 robust to the lack of an allometric correction in our analyses since specific growth rate was not  
280 significantly affected by diet N:P in the studies analyzed. However, P-limitation of growth in fish  
281 is possible at ecologically relevant dietary P levels (Hood *et al.*, 2005; Benstead *et al.*, in press),

282 thus we do believe that organismal growth and size differences caused by feeding on different  
283 diets could lead to differences in excretion ratios in natural settings.

284         Physiological responses to differing diets that are not accounted for in field studies of diet  
285 effects on excretion ratios may explain the difficulty of translating laboratory results into field  
286 settings. While heterogeneity in the only effect size measured in field studies, excretion N:P, was  
287 significantly greater than 0, only one of the six effect size measurements, raw P excretion,  
288 exhibited significant heterogeneity in laboratory studies. One source of this discrepancy may be  
289 the lack of correspondence between measured resources and actual fish diets. There are  
290 considerable difficulties associated with measuring the true elemental composition of the diet  
291 consumed and assimilated in the field. If the resources sampled by the researchers do not  
292 specifically match what the fish are consuming and assimilating, conclusions about the effect of  
293 diet on excretion ratios may be invalid (Hood *et al.*, 2005). This may be particularly true of  
294 omnivorous fish, which may consume different proportions of animals, plants and algae at  
295 different sites or times of the year (e.g., Grimm, 1988). Further, local selection pressures such as  
296 the degree of predation can lead to differences in fish dietary habits and life history traits  
297 between sites (Zandonà *et al.*, 2011; El-Sabaawi *et al.*, 2012a). While differences between fish in  
298 each treatment were controlled for in aquaculture studies by selecting all fish from one  
299 population, such as a single hatchery source and keeping all fish under the same conditions aside  
300 from the diet they were fed, field studies often compare individuals from separate populations.

301         Evolutionary differences between populations in the field studies may also represent a  
302 covariate that cannot be separated from diet differences, thus complicating interpretation. That is,  
303 comparisons of diet differences of a given species between sites, e.g., different streams or lakes,  
304 represent populations of that species that likely experience at least some degree of genetic

305 separation. Therefore, differences in genotypes between populations cannot be ruled out as a  
306 confounding variable in these studies. While stoichiometric theory predicts that individuals of a  
307 given animal species and life history stage should have a given C:N:P stoichiometric  
308 composition (Sterner & Elser, 2002), this does not apply across organisms with differing  
309 genotypes. Indeed, P homeostasis is known to be genetically controlled in developing fish  
310 (Huitema *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, differential selection pressures between populations may  
311 affect a fish's response to diet quality. Differences in selection pressures such as temperature,  
312 salinity, resource quality and predation pressure also drive evolution of organismal traits and life  
313 histories that can affect body elemental composition (e.g., Zandonà *et al.*, 2011; El-Sabaawi *et*  
314 *al.*, 2012a,b; Liess *et al.*, 2013). Since interpopulation differences may be a source of  
315 unmeasured variance in studies across natural gradients, linking evolutionary divergence to  
316 consumer-driven nutrient recycling represents a promising area of future research.

317         Since Vanni (2002) reviewed the importance of nutrient recycling by consumers in  
318 freshwater ecosystems, we have gained a greater appreciation for the role animals play in the  
319 way nutrients cycle through ecosystems. Indeed, many studies have investigated how important  
320 the transportation and transformation of nutrients by consumers can be to ecosystem function  
321 (McIntyre *et al.*, 2007; Layman *et al.*, 2011; Small *et al.*, 2011; Atkinson *et al.*, 2013). However,  
322 more work is needed to improve our understanding of the mechanisms that influence consumer  
323 excretion rates and ratios. Our results suggest that diet is one of these mechanisms, but relatively  
324 few studies have examined the effects of diet composition on consumer-driven nutrient recycling  
325 in the field (McManamay *et al.*, 2011). We show that dietary N:P can affect excretion ratios  
326 across several fish species when correcting for consumption (Fig. 4). As raw N excretion was not  
327 significantly affected by dietary N:P (Fig. 3), we hypothesize that differences in protein

328 digestibility can weaken the relationship between dietary N:P and excreted N:P for consumers  
329 that feed on both animal and plant or algal material. While the application of stoichiometric  
330 theory provides a promising framework through which to investigate consumer impacts on  
331 ecosystem function, effective testing of stoichiometric theory may require that future work  
332 examining dietary effects on excretion rates and ratios should consider not only dietary N:P but  
333 specifically the forms in which these nutrients are present in the diet, how much is consumed and  
334 how efficiently consumers assimilate dietary elements. Additionally, it is worth investigating  
335 whether evolutionary differences between populations impact intraspecific consumer nutrient  
336 recycling rates. While our study suggests that dietary composition can play a significant role in  
337 altering excretion rates and ratios, more careful tests of this effect in the field across a range of  
338 diets are needed before the impact of resource quality changes on consumer-driven nutrient  
339 recycling and its importance to ecosystem function can be fully understood and integrated into  
340 conceptual and theoretical frameworks.

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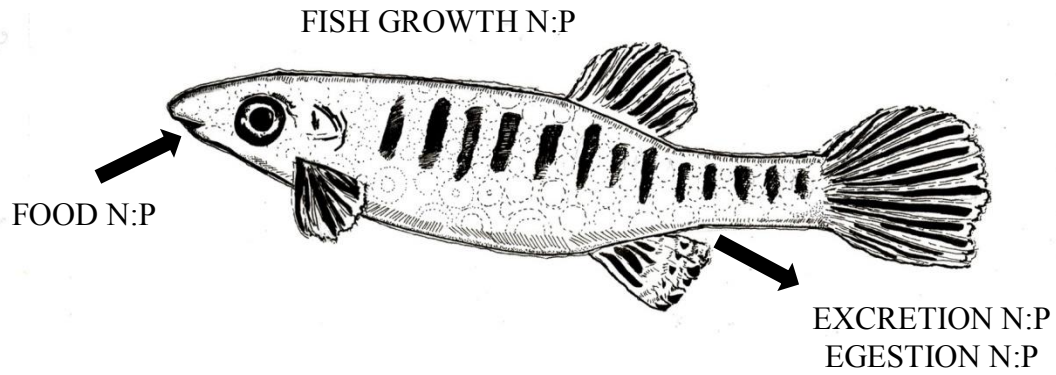
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577 Table 1. Species and family identities of fish in studies included in the meta-analysis. Reference  
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 579 *et al.*, 2002; (4) Kaushik *et al.*, 2004; (5) Ballestrazzi *et al.*, 1994; (6) Tantikitti, Sangpong &  
 580 Chiavareesajja, 2005; (7) Yang *et al.*, 2009; (8) Green, Hardy & Brannon, 2002; (9) Bureau &  
 581 Cho, 1999; (10) Rodehutschord, Gregus, & Pfeffer, 2000; (11) Hossain *et al.*, 2007; (12) Sarker,  
 582 Satoh & Kiron, 2007; (13) Storebakken, Shearer & Roem, 1998; (14) Sarker *et al.*, 2011; (15)  
 583 Dias *et al.*, 2009; (16) Small *et al.*, 2011; (17) McManamay *et al.*, 2011.

Species	Family	Reference(s)
<b>Diet Manipulations</b>		
<i>Catla catla</i>	Cyprinidae	1
<i>Chanos chanos</i>	Chanidae	2
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Cyprinidae	3
<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	Moronidae	4,5
<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Latidae	6
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Salmonidae	7,8,9,10
<i>Pagrus major</i>	Sparidae	11,12
<i>Salmo salar</i>	Salmonidae	13
<i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	Carangidae	14
<i>Sparus aurata</i>	Sparidae	15
<b>Field Studies</b>		
<i>Alfaro cultratus</i>	Poeciliidae	16
<i>Astatheros alfari</i>	Cichlidae	16
<i>Astyanax aeneus</i>	Characidae	16
<i>Atherinella hubbsi</i>	Atherinopsidae	16
<i>Chrosomus erythrogaster</i>	Cyprinidae	17
<i>Cottus bairdi</i>	Cottidae	17
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Salmonidae	17

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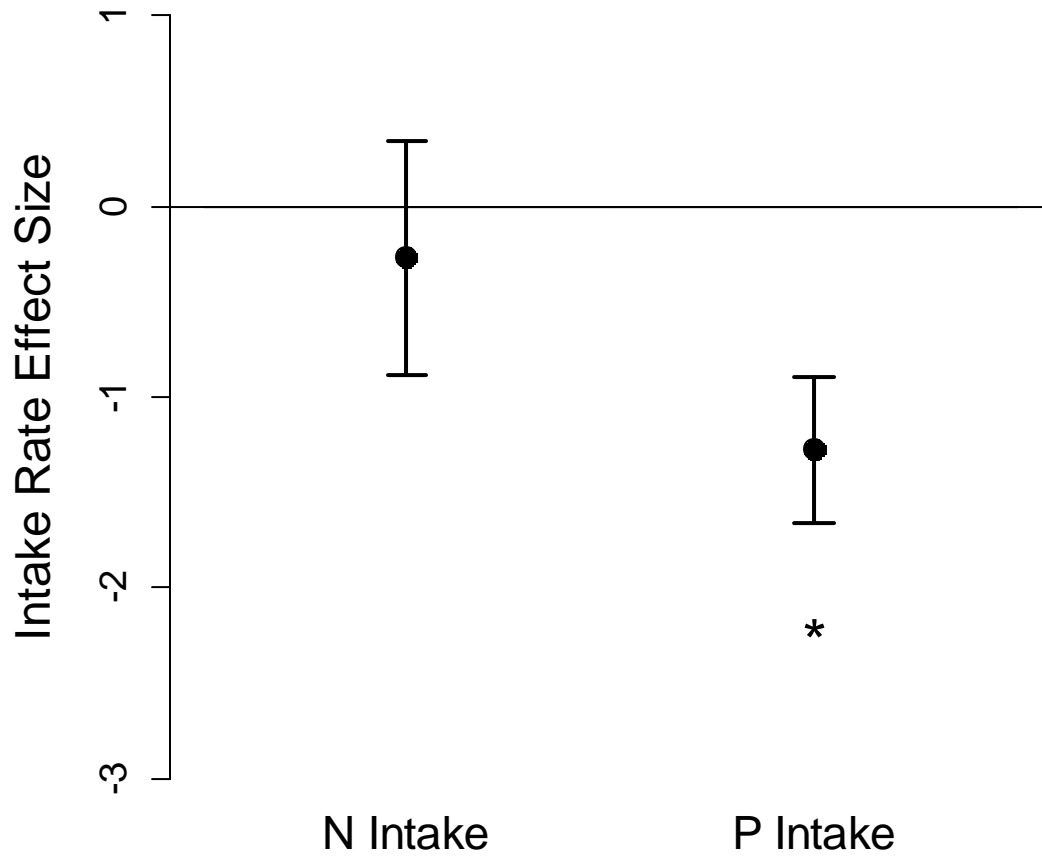
$$\text{EXCRETION N} = \text{FOOD N} - (\text{FISH GROWTH N} + \text{EGESTION N})$$

$$\text{EXCRETION P} = \text{FOOD P} - (\text{FISH GROWTH P} + \text{EGESTION P})$$

586

587 Fig. 1 Mass balance model of N and P budgets for a fish. Our model represents a conceptual  
 588 simplification of the major nutrient fluxes in consumers (Kitchell *et al.*, 1974; Sterner, 1990).

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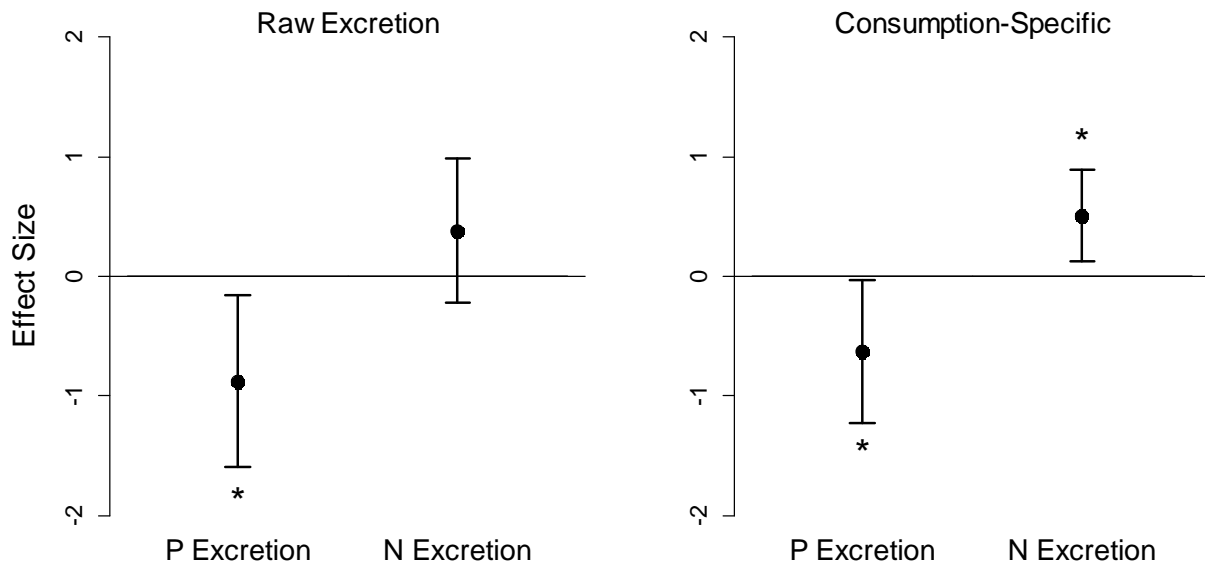


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591 Fig. 2 Effect size of diet N:P on intake ( $\text{g} \cdot \text{g fish}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ ) of N and P in diet manipulation  
 592 studies. Effect size,  $\eta^2$ , was measured as the treatment sum-of-squares divided by total sum-of-  
 593 squares from a linear model then transformed into a Z score for ease of analysis. Bars with \*  
 594 indicates effect size significantly different from zero based on a two-tailed *t*-test. Column lengths  
 595 indicate mean effect sizes and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

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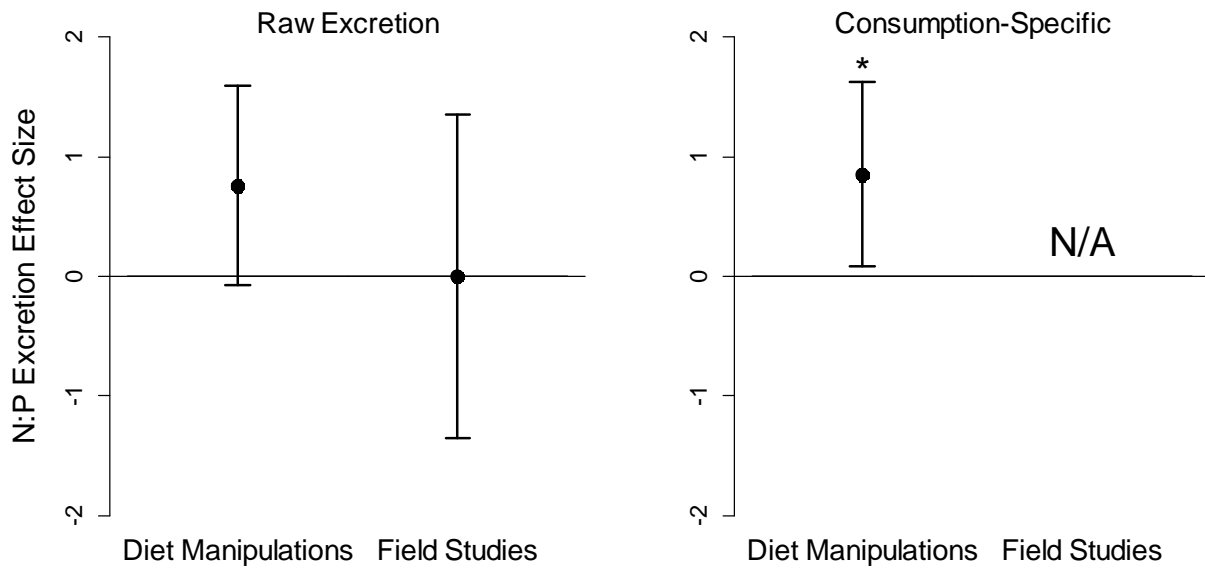
597

598 Fig. 3 Effect size of diet N:P on raw and consumption-specific N and P excretion in diet  
 599 manipulation studies. Effect size,  $\eta^2$ , was measured as the treatment sum-of-squares divided by  
 600 total sum-of-squares from a linear model then transformed into a Z score for ease of analysis.  
 601 Consumption-specific excretion was calculated as the excretion measure presented in the study  
 602 divided by mass-specific consumption rate. Points with \* indicates effect size significantly  
 603 different from zero based on a two-tailed *t*-test. Points indicate mean effect sizes and error bars  
 604 represent 95% confidence intervals.

605

606

607



608  
 609 Fig. 4 Mean  $\pm$  95% confidence interval of effect size of diet N:P on excretion N:P. Effect size,  
 610  $\eta^2$ , was measured as the treatment sum-of-squares divided by total sum-of-squares from a linear  
 611 model then transformed into a Z score for ease of analysis. Consumption-specific effect sizes are  
 612 missing in field studies because those studies did not measure consumption rate. Points with \*  
 613 indicates effect size significantly different from zero based on a two-tailed *t*-test. Points indicate  
 614 mean effect sizes and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

615