



## HUMAN IMPACTS ON AQUATIC ECOSYSTEMS FROM THE LENS OF ECOLOGICAL STOICHIOMETRY

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**Abstract:** Aquatic ecosystems are under different anthropogenic pressures, such as climate change, eutrophication, chemical pollution, overfishing, and introducing exotic species. Human activities have accelerated biogeochemical cycles forcing organisms and ecosystems to adapt. Most ecological stoichiometry studies are focused on carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and their relative proportions. Still, the possibilities for investigations using other elements to better understand the impacts of human pressures on aquatic ecosystems are vast. Therefore, here we explore how different anthropogenic activities influence ecosystem balance in terms of nutrient composition and stoichiometry. We conclude that human interventions have affected the functioning of aquatic ecosystems in terms of energy flow due to stoichiometric imbalances. We also conclude that the interplay between macro and micronutrient stoichiometry might raise important axioms to predict and understand human impacts on the functioning of aquatic ecosystems.

**Keywords:** biogeochemical cycles; elements; nutrient stoichiometry; pollution.

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### INTRODUCTION

Ecological stoichiometry (ES) focuses on ecosystem functioning targeting nutrients ratios and how they mediate the relationships between consumers (biological requirements) and resources (availability) (Sterner & Elser 2002). Alfred Redfield was one of the first researchers

to make the connection among organisms, the quality and ratios of resources, and the ecosystem functioning (Redfield 1934, 1958). This was achieved by establishing the classic and conservative “Redfield ratio”, which is the relative abundance of carbon (C) to nitrogen (N) and to phosphorus (P) (*i.e.*, C: N: P of 106: 16: 1 in planktonic organisms of the ocean) (Redfield

1934, 1958). One of the key points from Redfield's work was to highlight that planktonic organisms are essentially able to manipulate the marine environment to reflect their biomass composition (Redfield 1934, 1958). The relative uniformity of biomass composition that Redfield highlighted and the long residence time of water in the ocean leads to a feedback mechanism whereby the carbon and nutrient pools reflect the elemental composition of the plankton (Redfield 1934, 1958). However, these feedbacks work much less efficiently in freshwater systems that can have residence times on the order of weeks to decades rather than hundreds of years to millennia (They *et al.* 2017). Consequently, these systems can have greater stoichiometric imbalances, especially when short residence time is coupled with ecological stressors (Welti *et al.* 2017). Imbalances in C: P and N: P ratios can occur among different trophic levels or among organisms and the environment (Sternner *et al.* 1998, Sternner & Elser 2002), which has significant ecological consequences for population dynamics, nutrient cycling and, finally, for ecosystem metabolism (Elser & Urabe 1999, Sternner & Elser 2002).

One of the axioms of the ES is to examine relationships between the chemical composition of organisms and their resources (Sternner & Elser 2002). For instance, homeostatic organisms have the ability to keep their chemical composition relatively uniform, despite changes in the environment or resource, while non-homeostatic organisms have their chemical composition varying with the resource composition (Kooijman 1995). It is also common to observe different degrees of homeostasis among organisms (Godwin & Cotner 2015).

Anthropogenic activities have accelerated biogeochemical cycles and increased aquatic pollution worldwide (Quadra *et al.* 2019). Pollution can be understood as a manifestation of a stoichiometric imbalance. For instance, the nutrient concentrations and ratios of N: P, C: N, and C: P have been changing due to eutrophication, driven primarily by agriculture, untreated sewage, and human population growth, with important implications for aquatic metabolism and biological interactions (Dodds & Cole 2007, Welti *et al.* 2017).

Most ecological stoichiometry studies are

currently related to C, N, and P, but organisms typically require more than 20 elements, and much less is known about these other elements such as zinc (Zn), iron (Fe), and copper (Cu) (Jeyasingh *et al.* 2017). Very similar to N and P, a low relative abundance of trace elements may also represent changes in ecosystem function. For example, in the Southern Ocean, where N and P are found in excess in relation to the needs of plankton, Fe limits primary production (Behrenfeld & Kolber 1999). Unlike N and P, trace elements are much less prevalent in biomass, and excess concentrations may be toxic. For instance, several marine cyanobacteria species had reduced reproduction due to high Cu and cadmium (Cd) concentrations (Brand *et al.* 1986; and for a more recent review see Sunda 2012). Thus, trace elements toxicity is a reflection of a stoichiometric imbalance (Bradshaw *et al.* 2012). The excess of N and P in aquatic ecosystems usually boost microbial community growth rate and respiration (Del Giorgio & Cole 1998), while high concentrations of trace elements may result in toxicity (Kolarova & Napiórkowski 2021). Recently, anthropogenic activities have been increasing the concentration of several trace elements in surface waters, bringing up consequences for ecosystem services, such as carbon sequestration, nutrient recycling, self-purification, and supporting biodiversity (Gerbersdorf *et al.* 2011, Chen *et al.* 2015, Schuler & Relyea 2018).

Even though it was recently shown that ES is a powerful tool to look at ecosystem functioning (Welti *et al.* 2017), there are not many studies addressing the effects of human interventions on aquatic ecosystems referring to ES theories. Therefore, our objective is to discuss how human activities may trigger stoichiometric changes in aquatic ecosystems using the following anthropogenic pressures as case studies: climate change, cultural eutrophication, aquaculture, invasive species, and overfishing. Furthermore, considering that anthropogenic interventions potentially affect organism growth rates and nutritional composition, we discussed consequences for energy flow and energy pyramids in aquatic ecosystems and how ES can help predict environmental changes caused by anthropogenic influences.

## CLIMATIC EVENTS AND STOICHIOMETRY

In the last century, the intense human fossil fuel burning has been causing the atmospheric accumulation of greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), leading to changes in the planetary climatic patterns. Climate models have systematically shown temperature increase as a major climatic response in the Brazilian territory and biomes (Marengo *et al.* 2010, 2020) with great consequences to hydrology (Brito *et al.* 2018) and biogeochemical cycling in inland waters (Roland *et al.* 2012). For instance, temperature increase may change organisms' growth rates and affect their chemical composition (*i.e.*, stoichiometric imbalance) and, consequently, can affect ecosystem functions as primary production or decomposition (Cotner 2019).

Climate change is affecting ecosystem stoichiometry and ecological processes in several ways. Recently, it has been shown that increased N, P, and CO<sub>2</sub> availability may 'dilute' micronutrients in crops with important implications for human health (Medek *et al.* 2017; Myers *et al.* 2014). Increasing CO<sub>2</sub>, as well as N and P (from cultural eutrophication, another global environmental issue discussed below) concentrations, may have a similar effect in aquatic ecosystems (Cotner 2019), a phenomenon referred to as 'environmental obesity'; *i.e.*, higher proportions of C fixed by primary producers (*i.e.*, higher C:nutrient ratios) due to the higher atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with consequences to nutrient recycling and energy flow through the aquatic food web (Van Der Walls *et al.* 2010; Cotner 2019). Moreover, increasing temperatures can directly affect aquatic metabolism (Brown *et al.* 2004) by altering growth rates. For instance, increasing temperatures resulted in increased bacterial biomass and higher C: P and N: P ratios (Phillips *et al.* 2017). Therefore, higher temperatures may lead to P deficit in organism biomass resulting in energy flow changes due to stoichiometric imbalance between resources and predators, such as zooplankton grazing high C: P biomass phytoplankton (as in the plankton paradox energy; Sterner *et al.* 1998). Moreover, increasing temperature and N and P availability may affect

heterotrophic bacteria respiration (Scofield *et al.* 2015, Berggren *et al.* 2010), increasing CO<sub>2</sub> and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions from freshwaters (Marotta *et al.* 2014, Lienggaard *et al.* 2013).

As an indirect consequence of climate change, hydrological and rainfall patterns will also be altered, and these changes were predicted to drastically affect ecological processes such as nutrient cycling, energy flow, and spatial ecological gradients in inland waters (Roland *et al.* 2012). The reduction of the annual precipitation in the Brazilian semi-arid, for example, has caused drastic changes in water volume and resuspension of sediments, reducing light availability to primary producers but also increasing P concentrations in the water column during droughts (Costa *et al.* 2019). On the one hand, these frequent and prolonged droughts can shift the phytoplankton community to the dominance of mixotrophic organisms and affect the trophic chain energy flow (Costa *et al.* 2019). On the other hand, it can also affect seston and bacterial stoichiometry by increasing water residence time in aquatic ecosystems (They *et al.* 2017). With prolonged water residence time, bacterial and seston increased their nutritional quality by reducing C: P ratios, affecting nutrient cycling, such as the increase in C mineralization rates (They *et al.* 2017).

## CULTURAL EUTROPHICATION

The load of nutrient-rich anthropic effluents, such as those from domestic, agriculture, and aquaculture activities, have resulted in higher concentrations of N and P in freshwater ecosystems (Glibert 2012, Quadra *et al.* 2019). How water resources rich in N and P affect the stoichiometry of organisms is still unknown and deserves more attention in future work (Sardans *et al.* 2012, Sitters *et al.* 2015). When N and P occur in high concentrations and out of stoichiometric balance with other nutrients, they favor the rapid proliferation of fast-growing microorganisms. The Growth Rate Hypothesis connects the nutritional needs of organisms to elementary disproportion represented in nucleic acids, which are central for growth (Elser *et al.* 2000). Fast-growing organisms require large amounts of N and mainly P, resulting in low N: P, C: N and C: P ratios, which supports the high protein synthesis rates necessary for rapid

growth (Elser *et al.* 1996, 2000, Sterner & Elser 2002). Fast-growing organisms are usually connected to ecological imbalances such as harmful algae that have the ability to cause severe damage to the ecosystems functioning and biodiversity (Glibert & Burkholder 2011).

Sewage effluents can be a key source of N and P to aquatic ecosystems (Jarvie *et al.* 2006, Xu *et al.* 2008, McCrackin *et al.* 2013), increasing growth rates of both autotrophs and heterotrophs and selecting fast-growing P-rich species (according to the growth rate hypothesis; Smith *et al.* 1999, Sterner & Elser 2002, Smith & Schindler 2009, Welti *et al.* 2017). At the beginning of the eutrophication process, the primary producers grow quickly and facilitate the growth of the higher trophic levels; however, changes in the biological and/or physicochemical conditions, such as higher relative accumulation of P than N, can alter ecosystem behavior (Vinçon-Leite & Casenave 2019). For instance, the dominance of non-edible cyanobacteria, such as *Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii*, could shift zooplankton community composition and, perhaps, drastically affect the energy flow through the aquatic food web in eutrophic ecosystems (Neumann-Leitão *et al.* 2018, Rangel *et al.* 2020). Additionally, increased availability of N and P can stimulate both autotrophic and heterotrophic metabolism affecting CO<sub>2</sub> formation and consumption rates in freshwaters, such as in humic and clearwater coastal tropical lagoons (Peixoto *et al.* 2013), which may represent positive feedback to climate changes in those ecosystems (Scofield *et al.* 2015).

An under-appreciated aspect of eutrophication is the effect of N and P imbalances on other biogeochemical cycles. Noteworthy, relieving N and P limitations could potentially increase recycling rates of all elements, including non-limiting ones. Unlike Redfield's ocean C:N:P rate, where the microbiota regulates elemental cycling due to internal processing and long residence times, externally supplied N and P may disrupt the close coupling between these elements and others, such as C, Fe, and Zn. Presumably, this would lead to increased retention of these elements, but it is likely complicated by temporal and spatial complexities (Yang *et al.* 2020). For example, increased demand for micronutrients with N and P enrichment could potentially be offset by

changes in the water column or sediment redox potential (Cotner *et al.* 1990, Burgin *et al.* 2011), which may happen due to extreme droughts or precipitation, acidification, quality and quantity of organic matter shifts, effluents inputs to aquatic ecosystems, among others (Riedel *et al.* 2013). Nonetheless, changes in nutrient availability are likely to affect ecosystem processes that become more or less favorable with N and P addition. For example, N and P addition facilitate algal growth (Cotner & Wetzel 1992) but negatively affects nitrification and denitrification depending on Fe and Mn availability (Browning *et al.* 2021). While ecologists examined competition between organisms with similar metabolic strategies such as photo-synthesizers or aerobic heterotrophs, studies addressing how micronutrient limitation affects metabolism and processes with ecosystem-scale implications, such as competition between N-fixers and denitrifiers for Fe, are still needed. The implications of these dynamics are important not only for a given freshwater system but also for downstream environments such as the ocean (Maranger *et al.* 2018).

Noteworthy, anthropogenic effluents are a complex mixture that contributes not only to N and P addition but also trace elements to the environment (Quadra *et al.* 2019). Hence, it could be expected that these other elements would interact with high N and P concentrations and could also express other important, but still unrevealed, features in ES. For instance, Karimi & Folt (2006) showed that the variation of C: N: P ratios were lower among benthic macroinvertebrates, while non-essential metals (lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), and cadmium (Cd)) presented a higher variation among the same groups (Karimi & Folt 2006). Furthermore, it was found that the green algae presented similarities in their composition of Fe, Cu, and Zn, while the red algae presented similarities in their composition of Cd, cobalt (Co), and manganese (Mn) (Quigg *et al.* 2003). The authors attributed these differences to environmental pressures on photosynthetic devices once trace elements may substitute each other depending on environmental concentrations. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that different evolutionary mechanisms may have selected macronutrients and trace elements stoichiometry in marine



eucaryotic phytoplankton since the Proterozoic era (Quigg *et al.* 2003).

Thus, including micronutrients stoichiometry, such as trace elements, in the ES approaches may bring new insights into the role of organisms in ecosystem functioning. For example, Fe plays a key role in photosynthesis and phytoplankton growth and has the potential to increase N<sub>2</sub> fixation by phytoplankton (Martin & Fitzwater 1988, Martin *et al.* 1990a, 1990b, 1991, Mills *et al.* 2004, Somes *et al.* 2010). Moreover, Fe availability affects bacterial growth efficiency (Tortell *et al.* 1996). Other trace elements are also crucial for ecosystem functioning; *e.g.*, in the absence of oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), microorganisms tend to use nickel (Ni) in the production of urease to obtain N (Price & Morel 1991). When Cu is limited, N<sub>2</sub>O accumulates due to denitrifying microorganisms' growth reduction. Many enzymes that participate in the phytoplankton respiration process (Mechanism of Carbon Concentration) need Zn, and other groups need Co or Cd (Lane & Morel 2000). Therefore, it is possible to observe the fundamental role of trace elements in regulating C and N cycles and in the production of gases in aquatic ecosystems (Granger & Ward 2003). We reinforce that the other elements (other than C, N, and P) may improve ES ability to predict ecosystem functioning (Jeyasingh *et al.* 2017). It could be possible to draw new functional axioms as the growth rate hypothesis and better predict how human activities can affect aquatic ecosystem functioning by combining trace elements with the well-known macronutrient stoichiometry.

## STOICHIOMETRY AND AQUACULTURE

Aquaculture is growing worldwide because it enables the production of high-quality animal protein for society (FAO, 2020). However, it usually discharges organic matter and nutrient-rich effluents in aquatic ecosystems without previous treatment, contributing to cultural eutrophication (Páez-Osuna 2001, Gesteira & Paiva 2003, Boyd 2003). The Biofloc technology (BFT) was developed based on stoichiometric manipulations of cultivation water to improve shrimp production and reduce the need for water exchange (Emerenciano *et al.* 2013). Basically, C-rich fertilization strategies (*e.g.*, by addition

of molasses, sugar, or vegetable bran), stimulate autotrophic and heterotrophic microbial communities to form biological aggregates (bioflocs) that oxidize (for less toxic compounds for animals, such as nitrate) and assimilate (converting into microbial biomass) the ammonia produced by the feed addition and by the animal's excretion, providing adequate water quality (Avnimelech 2012, Romano *et al.* 2018, Samocha, 2019). High nutrient availability and temperature can affect microbial growth rates in shrimp ponds that use the BFT, increasing P concentration and reducing C: P and N: P ratios (Pimentel *et al.* 2020). Thus, besides BFT has become an important alternative food source to shrimp growth, it has also become an environmentally friendly alternative for reducing nutrient-rich water disposal (Emerenciano *et al.* 2013, Rajkumar *et al.* 2016, Samocha 2019). Therefore, ES knowledge has been opening large avenues to improve the operation of intensive shrimp farming systems and minimize or avoid eutrophication.

## INVASIVE SPECIES

Invasive species are considered a huge threat to biodiversity, affecting not only biological communities but also the economy and human health (Gallardo *et al.* 2016, Pimentel *et al.* 2001, Walsh *et al.* 2016). The introduction of new species has the potential to alter biogeochemical cycles and affect stoichiometry (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). For example, Nile tilapia (*e.g.*, *Oreochromis niloticus*) was introduced globally in inland waters for aquaculture purposes (Vicente & Fonseca-Alves 2013), which may significantly affect energy flow through the trophic chain. Although tilapias' role in trophic interactions is not straightforward due to their omnivorous habit, their excretion may have important consequences to N and P stoichiometry (Attayde *et al.* 2007). A study showed that phytoplankton P limitation was reduced in a lake with an invasive omnivorous fish species (*Astyanax bimaculatus*), showing higher chlorophyll-a concentrations than neighboring environments without the invasive fish. The P limitation of the phytoplankton was alleviated due to the high P content present in the fish excretion (Nobre *et al.* 2019). Another study performed in a tropical reservoir also showed that Nile tilapia

increased N and P availability via excretion and promoted algae growth (Figueredo & Giani 2005). After a massive fish kill of two invasive tilapia species from a Brazilian reservoir, researchers found an improvement in water quality, with a decreased chlorophyll-a and P concentrations (Starling *et al.* 2002).

### OVERFISHING

Whether for consumption or ornamental purposes, overfishing is a big threat to aquatic ecosystems (Arthington *et al.* 2016). Fishing is undoubtedly important at different scales, but the natural stocks are not being able to reestablish, and overfishing together with other stressors threatening freshwater and marine ecosystems (Jackson *et al.* 2001, Möllmann & Diekmann 2012). Overfishing influences the stoichiometry of aquatic ecosystems when it acts synergistically with other stressors such as eutrophication or changes in water temperature (Moy & Christie 2012). Zaneveld *et al.* (2016) showed that overfishing in nutrient-polluted environments might alter the stoichiometry of reef regions in the ocean, increasing coral-algal competition and, consequently, reducing coral recruitment, growth, and survival, through several mechanisms, including coral microbiome disruption. As mentioned in previous sections, the misbalance in N and P may lead to algae growth and dominance of some phytoplankton species. Moreover, removing predatory phytoplankton species can also boost this algal growth. Overfishing oysters to the level of extinction in the ecosystem is an example of how eliminating organisms that exercise top-down control can affect the stoichiometric balance of the environment (Ibrahim *et al.* 2018). Bivalve populations that feed on phytoplankton limit the blooms, preventing eutrophication (Officer *et al.* 1982). A classic example of how overfishing can impact inland waters is the Laurentian Great Lakes (North America), which has experienced nutritional imbalances and invasion of non-native species since the beginning of overfishing records (Smith 1968). It is expected that the biodiversity decreases even more over time, as well as the size of the organisms and chemical composition, in which both can influence the energy flow throughout trophic levels.

### CONCEPTUAL MODELS: ENERGY PYRAMIDS IN AQUATIC ECOSYSTEMS

Charles Elton elaborated the trophic pyramid in 1927 to describe the trophic efficiency and energy loss at each trophic interaction, afterward demonstrated in 1942 by Raymond Lindeman in the “Trophic-dynamic aspect of ecology” paper (see Elton 2001, Lindeman 1942). Lindeman has also discussed different trophic efficiencies among different environments. In fact, freshwater ecosystems have higher trophic efficiency than most terrestrial ecosystems, with lower energy loss through trophic levels. This higher efficiency is achieved due to differences in the stoichiometric balance of C to nutrient ratio between primary producers and herbivores, with terrestrial primary producers showing higher C: nutrient ratios in biomass than aquatic primary producers (Del Giorgio *et al.* 1998, Sterner *et al.* 1998, Sterner & Elser 2002). Furthermore, the life cycle of aquatic organisms is generally shorter, making nutrient cycling faster. In this way, the classical theoretical energy pyramid of a given freshwater ecosystem that undergoes different anthropogenic pressures may be altered with consequences to the energy flow, matter cycling, and functioning (see Dudgeon *et al.* 2006). For instance, as mentioned before, at the beginning of the eutrophication process, the primary producers overgrow and, consequently, the following trophic levels also grow since the amount of energy available is larger. The introduction of new species also affects the ecosystem pyramid. For example, introducing a top predator fish in the third trophic level would increase the consumption of the second trophic level and allow the growth of the first trophic level. When overfishing occurs on the third, the second trophic level may gain in biomass, accumulating energy and increasing consumption of the first trophic level.

### CONCLUSION

Human interventions may lead to stoichiometric imbalances in aquatic ecosystems with implications for ecosystems functioning. Ecological stoichiometric alterations are also related or reflected in energy flow and trophic alterations. Multielement stoichiometry approach,

beyond C, N, and P, is important because while C, N, and P are probably with the most increased availability (Falkowski *et al.* 2000), it is likely to be driving major changes in the cycling of other elements. The intensification of unrestrained human activities such as the increase in land use and occupation in an unsustainable manner and the discharge of not-properly treated effluents (from industrial, agricultural, and urban areas) can lead to environmental imbalances at elementary levels, changing natural biogeochemical processes. This may have consequences not only to global climate but also impacts aquatic ecosystem functioning.

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