

1 Predicting rates of consumer-mediated nutrient cycling by a diverse herbivore assemblage

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Herbivores mediate the abundances of primary producers both from the top-down, by
16 consuming them, and from the bottom-up, by recycling nutrients. Whereas the top-down effects
17 of herbivores on algae in marine ecosystems are well-documented, less is known about their
18 roles as mediators of local-scale nutrient availability. We conducted a series of surveys and
19 measurements of tide pools and the grazers in those pools between October of 2016 and June of
20 2017 at an intertidal site on the coast of Southern California, USA (33° 35' 16.3" N, 117° 52' 1.5"
21 W). We surveyed grazer abundances in the field, measured biomass of representatives from four
22 different grazer groups (littorine snails, limpets, chitons, and turban snails), measured
23 ammonium excretion rates, and quantified ammonium accumulation rates in tide pools at our
24 study site. We found that different grazer groups were characterized by different per-biomass
25 ammonium excretion rates. Some grazer groups – turban snails and chitons – contributed more
26 ammonium than predicted by their biomass, whereas other grazer groups – littorine snails and
27 limpets – contributed less ammonium than predicted by biomass. Because of these differences
28 between grazer groups, ammonium accumulation rates in tide pools at our study site were
29 effectively predicted based on the ammonium excretion rates of the different grazer groups.
30 However, ammonium accumulation rates were not related to total herbivore biomass. Our results
31 highlight the importance of grazer identity – and particularly the role of species such as turban
32 snails that contribute disproportionately to nutrient recycling – in understanding the contributions
33 of grazers as mediators of bottom-up processes in marine systems.

34

35 Key words: ammonium; bottom-up; diversity; grazer; herbivore; nitrogen; rocky intertidal

36

37 **Introduction**

38 Despite decades of work documenting the roles of marine herbivores in mediating the
39 diversity and abundance of primary producers (e.g., Kitching and Ebling 1961; Lubchenco 1978;
40 Nielsen 2001; Williams et al. 2013), previous work in benthic marine systems has often ignored
41 the fact that herbivores not only consume algae, they also affect nutrient availability. Herbivores
42 therefore affect primary producers not only from the top-down, via consumption, but also from
43 the bottom-up, by excreting inorganic nutrients as waste products. For example, marine
44 invertebrate herbivores excrete ammonium (Carpenter 1986; Taylor and Rees 1998; Bracken et
45 al. 2014), thereby enhancing nutrient availability, algal growth (Bracken et al. 2014) and
46 productivity (Carpenter 1986). Nitrogen is an important limiting nutrient in coastal marine
47 systems (Ryther and Dunstan 1971; Corwith and Wheeler 2002), so predicting rates of
48 consumer-mediated nitrogen recycling is essential to understanding nutrient availability and
49 limitation in marine ecosystems.

50 However, most marine systems are characterized by diverse consumer assemblages,
51 which makes predictions of those consumers' roles as mediators of nutrient availability
52 potentially difficult (Burkepile et al. 2013; Layman et al. 2013). For example, Taylor and Rees
53 (1998) found that ammonium excretion rates of a diverse assemblage of mobile epifauna in
54 seaweed beds are nonlinearly related to invertebrate body mass, suggesting that mass- or taxon-
55 specific ammonium excretion rates are necessary in order to predict the contribution of a diverse
56 invertebrate assemblage to nutrient availability. Furthermore, McIntyre et al. (2008) quantified
57 ammonium excretion rates of 47 co-occurring species of freshwater fish and found that even
58 after accounting for body mass, there were significant differences between species' ammonium
59 excretion rates.

60 We took a similar approach to understanding the role of herbivores as mediators of local-
61 scale nutrient availability in a rocky intertidal ecosystem. Recent work has highlighted the
62 importance of local-scale consumer-mediated nutrient loading in mediating the diversity (e.g.,
63 Bracken and Nielsen 2004) and growth (e.g., Bracken 2004; Pfister 2007; Aquilino et al. 2009)
64 of algae on rocky shores, but much of that work has focused either on a single consumer species
65 (e.g., the snail *Littorina littorea*; Bracken et al. 2014) or on consumers that do not actually eat the
66 algae that benefit from the nutrients that they excrete (e.g., the mussel *Mytilus californianus*;
67 Bracken 2004; Bracken and Nielsen 2004; Pfister 2007; Aquilino et al. 2009). Given the high
68 diversity of herbivores in many rocky shore systems (Nielsen 2001; O'Connor et al. 2015), there
69 is a clear need to evaluate the collective role of these consumers as not only top-down consumers
70 of algae but also as bottom-up facilitators.

71 We addressed this knowledge gap by using a combination of field surveys, measurements
72 of biomass and ammonium excretion of different herbivore species, and measurements of
73 ammonium accumulation rates in tide pools to evaluate the role of a diverse herbivore
74 assemblage in mediating nutrient availability on a Southern California rocky shore. Local-scale
75 nutrient inputs are likely to be especially important in this system, as ambient inorganic nitrogen
76 concentrations in the adjacent nearshore ocean are generally low (< 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and have been
77 declining for the past several years (Martiny et al. 2016). Based on previous work, we
78 hypothesized that different grazer groups would be characterized by different ammonium
79 excretion rates. We therefore predicted that the rate of ammonium accumulation in the field
80 would be better predicted based on the ammonium excretion rates of the component species and
81 not by the total biomass of herbivores in the tide pools.

82

83 **Materials and Methods**84 *Study location and species*

85 Surveys, field measurements, and collections were conducted in a set of natural tide pools
86 in a rocky reef at Corona del Mar State Beach on the coast of Southern California, USA ($33^{\circ} 35'$
87 $16.3''$ N, $117^{\circ} 52' 1.5''$ W). All research was conducted between October of 2016 and June of
88 2017 under California Department of Fish and Wildlife Scientific Collecting Permit SCP-13405.
89 The rocky substratum at the site is composed of sedimentary Monterey formation intertidal reefs.
90 Volumes of the tide pools in this study averaged $X \pm SE = 22.6 \pm 3.6$ L, $n = 18$, and bottom
91 surface areas averaged 0.46 ± 0.05 m².

92 These tide pools were very high on the shore; tidal elevations, determined using a self-
93 leveling laser level (CST/berger, Watseka, Illinois, USA), averaged $X \pm SE = 1.58 \pm 0.04$ m
94 above the local tidal datum at mean lower-low water. Based on predicted tide heights at the
95 entrance to Newport Bay (Flater 1998), 1.1 km from our study site, these tide pools were only
96 submerged for 5.8% of the time over the year immediately preceding our measurements. In the
97 absence of waves, based on these predictions, tide pools were submerged only during the highest
98 tides of each month, and they were often isolated for several days at a time during neap tides.
99 The median isolation time for these pools in the absence of wave splash was 23.0 h, but waves
100 reduced the typical duration of pool emersion (M. Bracken, *personal observation*). Thus, given a
101 wave swell height of 0.5 m, which is not unusual at our study location (O'Reilly et al. 2016), tide
102 pools would be either washed over or covered for 32.6% of the time, with a median isolation
103 time of 8.3 h.

104 Despite their elevation on the shore, these pools were characterized by a diverse
105 invertebrate assemblage primarily composed of herbivorous gastropods. These included littorine

106 snails (*Littorina scutulata* [Gould 1849] and *Littorina plena* [Gould 1849]), limpets (*Lottia*
107 *limatula* [Carpenter 1864], *L. scabra* [Gould 1846], and *L. strigatella* [Carpenter 1864]), chitons
108 (*Cyanoplax hartwegii* [Carpenter 1855] and *Nuttalina californica* [Reeve 1847]), and turban
109 snails (*Tegula funebralis* [A. Adams 1854] and *T. gallina* [Forbes 1850]). Collectively, these
110 grazing mollusks represented the vast majority of invertebrates in the tide pools, though pools
111 also contained occasional mussels (e.g., *Brachidontes adamsianus* [Dunker 1856] and *Mytilus*
112 *californianus* [Conrad 1837]), hermit crabs (e.g., *Pagurus samuelis* [Stimpson 1857]), and sea
113 anemones (*Anthopleura* spp.). None of these invertebrates were abundant enough, relative to the
114 grazers, to appreciably modify nutrient availability. Other, smaller invertebrates, such as
115 copepods and amphipods, were rare to absent in the pools. Macroalgae were also virtually
116 absent from the tide pools, and the grazers primarily consumed periphyton.

117

118 *Grazer abundances and attributes*

119 We surveyed grazer abundances in 18 tide pools by spreading a flexible mesh net across
120 the bottom of each pool (Foulweather Trawl Supply, Newport, Oregon, USA; Bracken and
121 Nielsen 2004). The net was composed of 10 cm × 10 cm squares and facilitated both counting of
122 grazers and measurement of tide pool surface area. Grazer abundances were divided by the
123 volume of each tide pool (i.e., ind L⁻¹), as we were interested in the potential for grazers to
124 mediate the concentration (μmol L⁻¹) of ammonium in the pools.

125 We collected 10 representative individuals each of *Littorina scutulata/plena* (these
126 species are not differentiable in the field), *Lottia limatula*, *Lottia scabra*, *Lottia strigatella*,
127 *Cyanoplax hartwegii*, *Nuttalina californica*, *Tegula funebralis*, and *Tegula gallina* from the tide
128 pools. Samples were representative of the size range of each taxon present in the tide pools. We

129 dried individuals to constant mass at 60 °C, weighed them, combusted them for 4 h in a muffle
 130 furnace at 450 °C, and weighed them again to calculate mean ash-free dry mass values for each
 131 species. These were then averaged to calculate mean values (mg ind⁻¹) for each grazer group:
 132 littorine snails, limpets, chitons, and turban snails.

133 Ammonium excretion rates of members of each grazer group were evaluated in
 134 microcosms containing 200 mL of saltwater (salinity of 35; Instant Ocean® Sea Salt, Blacksburg,
 135 Virginia, USA). Each microcosm contained a travertine tile that approximated the sedimentary
 136 Monterey formation rocks at our study site. Water in the microcosms was not stirred or aerated
 137 in order to simulate a still-water tide pool environment. Temperatures were maintained at 20 °C
 138 to ensure constant conditions across experimental trials that were representative of field
 139 conditions. Grazers were collected from the field immediately prior to experimental
 140 measurements of ammonium accumulation. We made sure that the individuals collected were
 141 representative of the size range present in the tide pools. A consistent biomass of grazers (X ± SE
 142 = 0.91 ± 0.01 g) was added to each microcosm at the beginning of each experimental trial.
 143 Because members of the different grazer groups were characterized by different individual
 144 masses (Table 1), maintaining a constant mass across grazer groups necessitated different

Table 1. Biomass (ash-free dry mass) and ammonium (NH₄⁺) excretion rates of tide pool herbivores. Values are X ± SE.

Grazer group	Biomass	NH ₄ ⁺ excretion	
	(mg ind ⁻¹)	(μmol h ⁻¹ ind ⁻¹)	(μmol h ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)
Littorine snails	6.8 ± 0.5	0.021 ± 0.004	3.1 ± 0.6
Limpets	20.6 ± 1.8	0.046 ± 0.015	2.2 ± 0.7
Chitons	58.3 ± 11.1	0.357 ± 0.359	6.1 ± 1.0
Turban snails	183.8 ± 11.6	1.751 ± 0.353	9.5 ± 1.9

145 numbers of individuals for each group in each microcosm: 135 littorine snails, 45 limpets, 15
146 chitons, or 5 turban snails. During trials, microcosms were covered with flexible windowscreen
147 mesh secured by a rubber band to prevent escapes and limit external sources of potential
148 ammonium contamination.

149 Microcosm trials were run for ~19 h, which was between the median isolation time of
150 field tide pools in the absence of wave splash (23.0 h) and after accounting for a 0.5 m swell
151 height (8.3 h). Initial water samples ($n = 2$) were taken from each microcosm prior to adding the
152 grazers, and a second set of samples was taken at the end of the trial. The ammonium
153 concentration in the water samples was analyzed using the phenolhypochlorite method
154 (Solórzano 1969) on a UV-1800 benchtop spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Carlsbad, California,
155 USA). Ammonium accumulation rates were calculated on both a per-individual ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ ind}^{-1}$)
156 and per-biomass ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$) basis based on the change in ammonium concentrations over
157 time. Ammonium accumulation rates were measured in $n = 8$ microcosms for each grazer group,
158 split into two trials of $n = 4$ replicate microcosms each. Changes in ammonium concentrations in
159 an equivalent number of control microcosms without grazers were minimal and were accounted
160 for when calculating ammonium accumulation rates. Initial ammonium concentrations averaged
161 $X \pm \text{SE} = 0.9 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$.

162 Assessing changes in ammonium concentrations using only two points assumes a linear
163 relationship between ammonium accumulation and time. To verify this assumption, we
164 conducted a second set of trials where we collected water samples over time (0.00, 0.25, 0.50,
165 1.00, 2.00, 4.00, 6.00, and 22.75 h) instead of only at the beginning and end of trials. We
166 conducted these trials for littorine snails and turban snails because they are the most abundant
167 grazer groups in the tide pools, collectively composing > 90% of grazer biomass in the field. We

168 compared linear and saturating (Michaelis-Menten) fits to the relationship between ammonium
169 concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and time (h) using the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AIC_c;
170 Burnham and Anderson 2002) and found that a linear relationship always provided a better fit to
171 the data.

172

173 *Relative contributions to ammonium accumulation and biomass*

174 Relative contributions of different grazer groups to ammonium accumulation rates and
175 biomass were calculated based on the per-individual rates of ammonium excretion ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$
176 ind^{-1} , Table 1), the average biomass of each individual (mg ind^{-1} , Table 1), and the total number
177 of individuals of each grazer group in each of tide pools ($n = 18$) at Corona del Mar State Beach.
178 We estimated the total ammonium accumulation rate in each tide pool by multiplying the
179 abundance of each grazer in that pool by the measured ammonium excretion rate for that grazer
180 group. These values were then summed across the four grazer groups. The relative contribution
181 of each grazer group to the total ammonium accumulation rate was then calculated as a
182 percentage of the total. Similarly, we estimated the total biomass of grazers in each tide pool by
183 multiplying the average biomass of the members of each grazer group by the number of
184 individuals of that grazer group quantified in our field surveys. The relative contribution of each
185 grazer group to total biomass was then calculated as a percentage of that total. We calculated the
186 difference between each grazer group's contribution to excretion and its contribution to biomass
187 by subtracting, for each tide pool, the percentage contribution to biomass from the contribution
188 to excretion.

189

190 *Predicting the contribution of a diverse grazer assemblage to ammonium accumulation*

191 We quantified ammonium accumulation rates in tide pools ($n = 5$) at Corona del Mar
192 State Beach over a single day-time low tide. We deliberately chose a subset of pools that were
193 fully submerged during high tide and then isolated by the receding tide in the morning. Waves
194 were relatively large that day, so pools were only completely isolated from the ocean for ~6 h
195 before they were splashed again by the combination of waves and the incoming tide. We
196 collected water samples from each pool every hour while the pools were isolated and used the
197 slope of the relationship between ammonium concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and time (h) to calculate
198 the observed rate of ammonium accumulation ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). We also counted and identified all
199 grazers in those pools on that day.

200 We compared ammonium accumulation rates measured in the field with predictions
201 based on (1) the total estimated biomass of grazers in each pool or (2) the ammonium
202 accumulation rate in the pool predicted based on the measured ammonium excretion rates of
203 each grazer group. Total estimated biomass was calculated by multiplying the average biomass
204 of the members of each grazer group (Table 1) by the number of individuals of that grazer group
205 quantified in our field surveys on that day. The predicted ammonium accumulation rate was
206 estimated by multiplying the average ammonium excretion rate of the members of each grazer
207 group ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ ind}^{-1}$, Table 1) by the number of individuals of that grazer group quantified in
208 our field surveys.

209

210 *Statistical analyses*

211 Data were primarily analyzed using general linear models (PROC GLM) and t tests in
212 SAS v. 9.4 (SAS Institute 2012), including regression and ANOVA, after verifying that the data
213 met the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances. Analyses included evaluations

214 of mean individual mass as a function of grazer group (littorine snails, limpets, chitons, and
215 turban snails) and ammonium excretion rates (both per-individual and per-biomass) as a function
216 of trial (as a blocking factor) and grazer group. Relative contributions of each grazer group to
217 biomass versus ammonium accumulation were assessed for each grazer group by subtracting, for
218 each tide pool, the calculated % contribution to biomass from the % contribution to excretion.
219 Averages for the $n = 18$ tide pools were then compared to zero using one-sample t tests. The
220 metabolic scaling relationship between biomass (mg ind⁻¹) and ammonium excretion rate (μmol
221 h⁻¹ ind⁻¹) was evaluated by taking the logarithm (\log_{10}) of the mean biomass and excretion rate of
222 each herbivore group, then quantifying the relationship between them using a general linear
223 model (i.e., $\log_{10}[\text{excretion}] = a \cdot \log_{10}[\text{biomass}] + b$; Glazier 2005). Of particular interest was the
224 slope of this relationship (a), which corresponds to the scaling exponent. Observed rates of
225 ammonium accumulation in the field were evaluated as either a function of (1) predicted
226 ammonium accumulation rates based on measured excretion rates of the different grazer groups
227 or (2) estimated total grazer biomass. These relationships were evaluated using general linear
228 models.

229

230 **Results**

231 *Grazer abundances and attributes*

232 Littorine snails were by far the most numerically abundant grazers in tide pools at Corona
233 del Mar State Beach (Fig. 1A); the number of *Littorina scutulata/plena* individuals per volume
234 was two orders of magnitude higher than the number of any other grazer group, and they were
235 the most abundant grazer in 17 of the 18 tide pools. However, littorines were also the smallest of
236 the grazers, with average masses 1-2 orders of magnitude lower than the other grazer groups

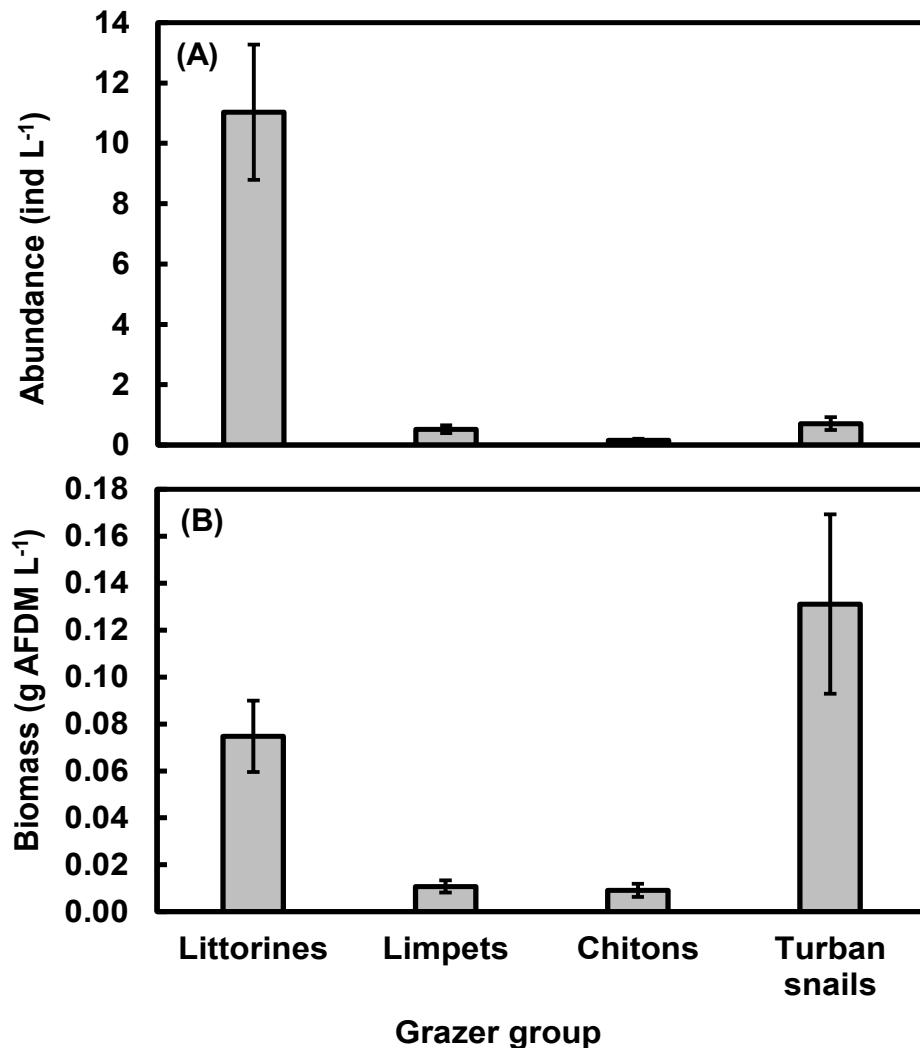


Figure 1. Abundance and biomass estimates of tide pool herbivores. (A) Littorine snails (*Littorina scutulata/plena*) were by far the most numerically abundant herbivores in the tide pools (ind L⁻¹). (B) Turban snails (*Tegula* spp.) were the herbivores with the highest total biomass in the tide pools (g ash-free dry mass [AFDM] L⁻¹), followed by littorine snails, limpets (*Lottia* spp.), and chitons (*Nuttallina fluxa* and *Cyanoplax hartwegii*). Note that counts of different herbivore species in tide pools were non-independent of each other, so statistical comparisons were not made for abundance or biomass. In both panels, values are X ± SE.

237 (Table 1). Grazer groups, thus, differed substantially in mass (ANOVA, $F(3,56) = 149.97, P <$
 238 0.001). Turban snails were the heaviest grazers, followed by chitons, limpets, and littorines,
 239 though littorine and limpet masses were statistically indistinguishable (Tukey test, $P > 0.05$).
 240 Thus, despite their relatively low abundances, the majority of the biomass in tide pools was
 241 composed of turban snails, followed by littorines, limpets, and chitons (Fig. 1B).

242 The different grazer groups also differed substantially with respect to their ammonium
 243 excretion rates on both a per-individual basis (ANOVA, $F (3,27) = 21.3, P < 0.001$; Table 1) and
 244 a per-biomass basis (ANOVA, $F (3,27) = 7.6, P < 0.001$; Table 1, Fig. 2). Turban snails excreted
 245 the most ammonium, both per-individual and per-biomass, excreting at rates 3-4 times higher
 246 than those of littorine snails and limpets (Table 1).

247

248 *Relative contributions to ammonium accumulation and biomass*

249 Relative contributions of different grazer groups to ammonium accumulation rates and
 250 biomass were expressed as average percentage contributions of each group to the total biomass
 251 and the total ammonium accumulation in the tide pools. Turban snails made the greatest
 252 contribution to total ammonium excretion rates, followed by littorine snails, chitons, and limpets
 253 (Fig. 3A). In contrast, littorines made the greatest contribution to biomass, followed by turban
 254 snails, limpets, and chitons (Fig. 3A).

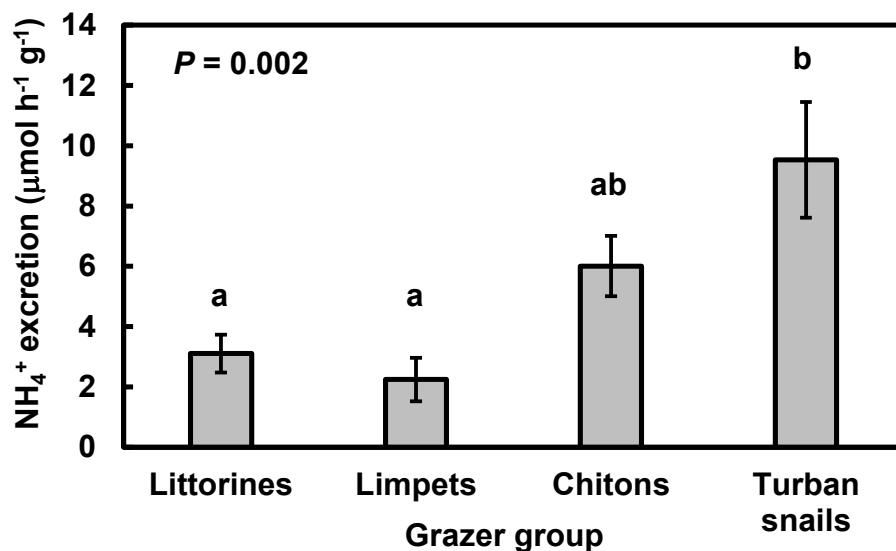


Figure 2. Ammonium (NH₄⁺) excretion rates of tide pool herbivores. Per-biomass ammonium excretion rates (μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹) differed substantially between different herbivore groups ($P = 0.002$). Letters indicate statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) after Tukey correction for multiple comparisons. Values are $X \pm SE$.

255 Two grazer groups, turban snails (one-sample t test, $t_{17} = 5.2, P < 0.001$) and chitons
 256 (one-sample t test, $t_{17} = 3.0, P = 0.008$), were predicted – based on laboratory excretion
 257 measurements and abundances in tide pools – to make greater contributions to ammonium

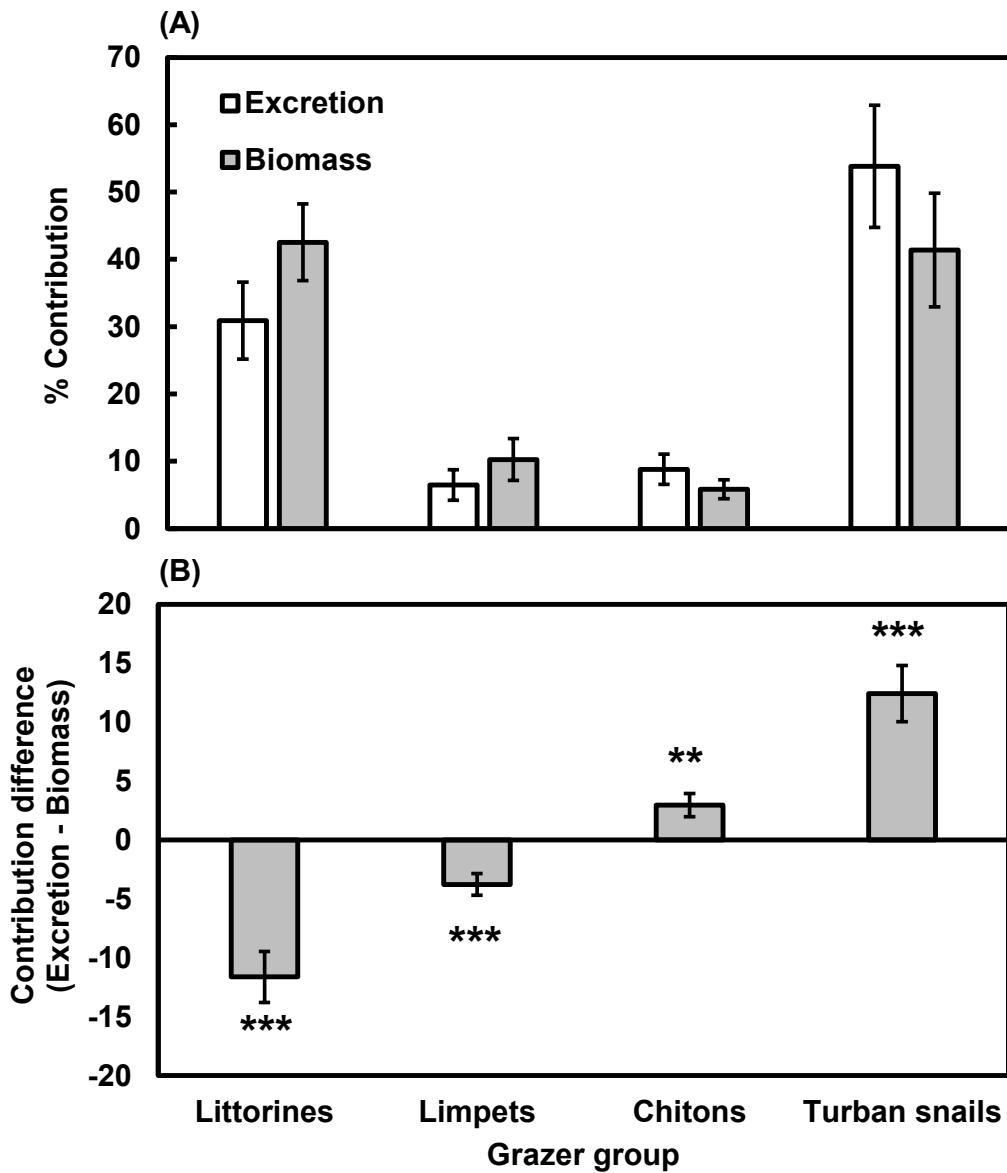


Figure 3. Estimated contributions of different herbivores to ammonium excretion rates and total herbivore biomass. (A) Percent contributions of each grazer group to the estimated total excretion rate and biomass in 18 tide pools on a California rocky shore. (B) Differences (excretion minus biomass) between grazer group contributions to excretion and biomass. A positive value (> 0) indicates that a group's predicted contribution to excretion exceeds its contribution to biomass, whereas a negative value (< 0) indicates that a group's predicted contribution to excretion is less than its contribution to biomass. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences from zero: $P < 0.001$ (***) and $P < 0.01$ (**). In both panels, values are $X \pm SE$.

258 accumulation rates in tide pools than predicted based on their biomass (Fig. 3B). In contrast, the
 259 other two groups, littorines (one-sample t test, $t_{17} = 5.4, P < 0.001$) and limpets (one-sample t
 260 test, $t_{17} = 4.1, P < 0.001$), were predicted to make lesser contributions to ammonium
 261 accumulation than predicted based on biomass (Fig. 3B).

262 We evaluated the relationship between individual grazers' excretion rates ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ ind}^{-1}$)
 263 and biomasses (mg ind^{-1}) on a log-log plot (Fig. 4). This transformation linearized the curvilinear
 264 relationship between the variables and provided insights into the nature of the scaling
 265 relationship. Excretion increased with biomass ($r^2 = 0.97$) with a scaling exponent (the slope of
 266 the relationship) of 1.40.

267

268 *Predicting the contribution of a diverse grazer assemblage to ammonium accumulation*

269 We quantified rates of ammonium accumulation over time in $n = 5$ tide pools at Corona
 270 del Mar State Beach (Fig. 5). Ammonium accumulated at a rate of $X \pm \text{SE} = 0.16 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{mol}$

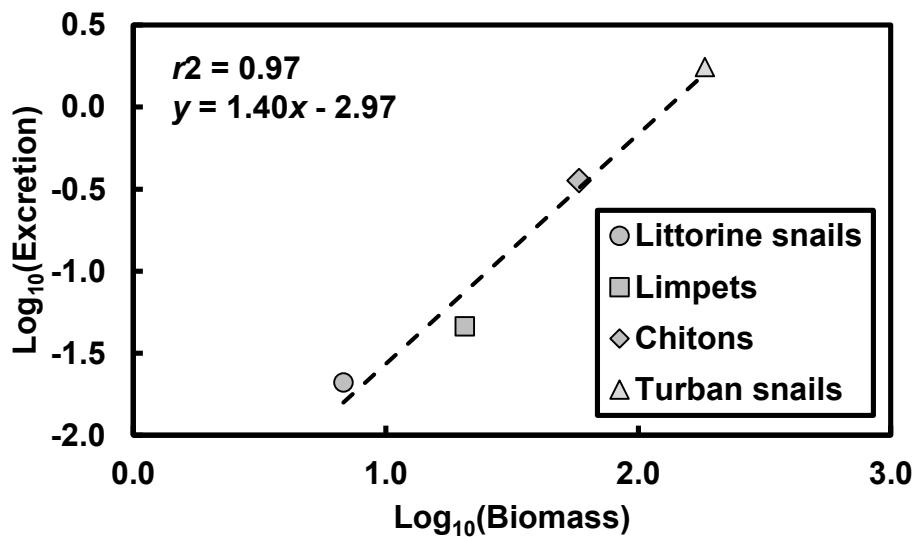


Figure 4. Log-log plot of biomass vs. excretion rates of individual herbivores. Excretion rates (originally measured in $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ ind}^{-1}$) were linearly related to biomass (originally measured in $\text{mg ash-free dry mass ind}^{-1}$) when both variables are plotted on logarithmic scales. The slope of this relationship (1.40) represents the scaling relationship in the power curve.

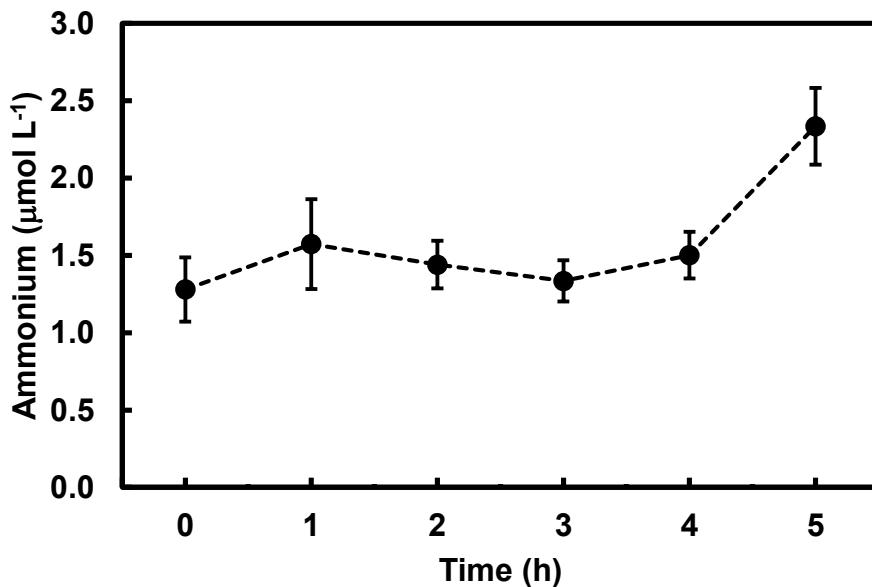


Figure 5. Ammonium concentrations in tide pools. Ammonium ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) accumulated in pools after they were isolated by the receding tide. Values are $\bar{X} \pm \text{SE}$ of samples taken from $n = 5$ tide pools at Corona del Mar State Beach.

271 $\text{L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (one-sample t test, $t4 = 14.6, P < 0.001$). Five hours after pools were isolated, average
 272 ammonium concentrations in the pools were higher than the concentration in the adjacent ocean
 273 (one-sample t test, $t4 = 5.4, P = 0.006$). The rate of ammonium accumulation in those tide pools
 274 was predicted more effectively by incorporating the excretion rates of the different grazer groups
 275 (Fig. 6A; Linear regression, $r^2 = 0.81, F_{1,3} = 13.1, P = 0.036$) than by the total estimated
 276 biomass of the grazers present in the tide pools (Fig. 6B; Linear regression, $r^2 = 0.42, F_{1,3} = 2.2,$
 277 $P = 0.236$). Note, however, that even when rates of ammonium accumulation were linearly
 278 related to rates predicted based on ammonium excretion by the component species (i.e., Fig. 6A),
 279 accumulation rates were substantially lower than predicted based on excretion rates. If
 280 ammonium accumulation rates matched predicted rates, they would fall on the dashed line in Fig.
 281 6A. Instead, measured accumulation rates were < 30% of predicted rates.

282 In these tide pools, littorines composed $X \pm \text{SE} = 68 \pm 14\%$ of the biomass but
 283 contributed only $55 \pm 19\%$ of the ammonium accumulation. In contrast, turban snails composed
 284 only $31 \pm 14\%$ of the biomass but contributed $45 \pm 19\%$ of the ammonium.

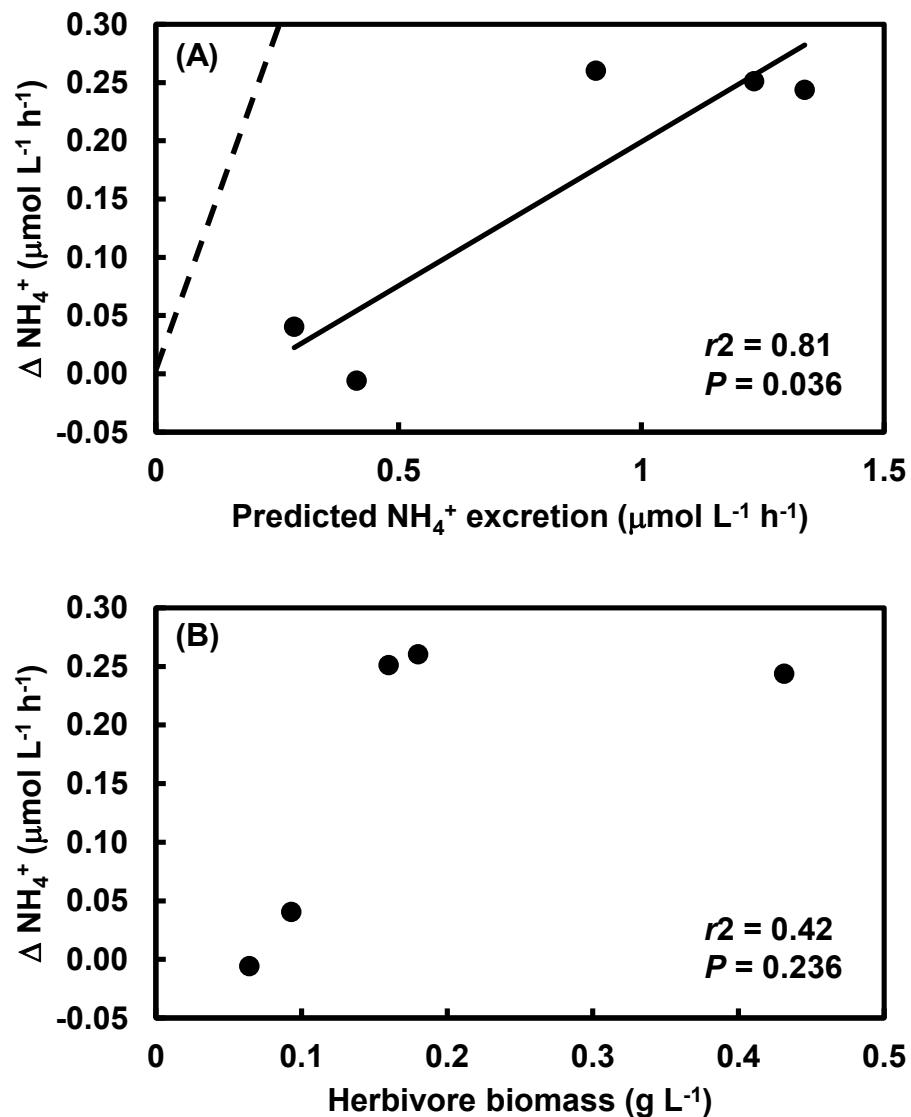


Figure 6. Measured rates of ammonium (NH_4^+) accumulation as functions of predicted ammonium excretion rates and estimated total herbivore biomass. (A) Rates of NH_4^+ accumulation ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) in $n = 5$ tide pools were strongly correlated to excretion rates estimated using measured rates of the grazer groups in each tide pool ($r^2 = 0.81$, $P = 0.036$). The dashed line indicates the rate of ammonium accumulation predicted by laboratory excretion rates. (B) Measured NH_4^+ accumulation rates were not correlated to estimates of total herbivore biomass in the pools ($r^2 = 0.42$, $P = 0.236$).

285

286 **Discussion**

287 Different grazer groups were characterized by different per-biomass ammonium
288 excretion rates. Some groups (i.e., turban snails, chitons) contributed more to ammonium
289 accumulation than predicted based on biomass, whereas others (i.e., littorine snails, limpets)
290 contributed less to ammonium excretion than predicted by their biomass. These differences are
291 supported by the scaling relationship between ammonium excretion ($\log_{10}[\text{excretion}]$) and
292 biomass ($\log_{10}[\text{biomass}]$). The scaling exponent of 1.40 is higher than the typical value of ~ 0.75
293 (i.e., the $\frac{3}{4}$ power law; Glazier 2005). In general, mass-specific metabolic rates tend to decline as
294 individual body mass increases (i.e., scaling exponents < 1). However, values > 1 are not
295 uncommon, and scaling exponents > 2 have been reported for invertebrates (Glazier 2005).
296 These “positively allometric” relationships occur when larger organisms have higher mass-
297 specific metabolic rates. This is the pattern we observed here, where the largest grazers (*Tegula*
298 spp.) were also characterized by the highest excretion rates. One grazer group, the limpets,
299 deviated from the regression line on the log-log plot, with lower values than the other three
300 groups. This reflects limpets’ lower contribution to ammonium accumulation rates – relative to
301 the other grazer groups – than expected based on biomass. Note also that our comparisons were
302 made across species, whereas most comparisons are based on scaling relationships calculated
303 within species (Glazier 2005). For example, Carey et al. (2013) suggested that differences in the
304 scaling exponents of six chiton species were related to differences in activity, metabolism, and
305 habitat. Temperature can also modify scaling exponents (Glazier 2005), though our
306 measurements of excretion were all measured at a constant, field-relevant temperature.

307 Measured rates of ammonium accumulation in tide pools on the shore were therefore
308 better predicted based on the ammonium excretion rates of the component grazer groups than by
309 their estimated total biomass. These results support our hypothesis that different grazer groups
310 would be characterized by different ammonium excretion rates (e.g., Bray et al. 1988) and align
311 well with previous findings, especially from freshwater systems, that taxon-specific ammonium
312 excretion rates are necessary in order to predict spatial variation in nutrient cycling (McIntyre et
313 al. 2008).

314 However, observed rates of ammonium accumulation were < 30% of predicted rates. This
315 discrepancy between observed and predicted rates of ammonium accumulation may be explained
316 by uptake of ammonium by periphyton in the tide pools. Despite the apparent lack of primary
317 producers in these tide pools – there are few to no macroalgae in them – the pools are highly
318 productive; rates of net primary production ($\text{mg O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) are equivalent to those that we have
319 measured in macroalgae-dominated pools (M. Bracken and G. Bernatchez, *unpublished data*).
320 The periphyton in the pools are likely taking up substantial quantities of excreted ammonium, as
321 has been observed in other intertidal systems (Longphuirt et al. 2009). We have observed
322 appreciable differences between ammonium fluxes in the dark (accumulation) and light (uptake)
323 in these tide pools, further supporting the role of periphyton in mediating ammonium availability
324 (M. Bracken and G. Bernatchez, *unpublished data*). Subsequent work could include
325 experimental ammonium additions to tide pools with and without grazers to evaluate whether
326 uptake by periphyton can account for the difference between observed and predicted rates of
327 ammonium accumulation.

328 What mechanisms could potentially underlie the observed differences between species
329 with respect to ammonium excretion rates? One possibility is dietary specificity. However, little

330 is known about the diets of these co-occurring herbivores. All of the grazer groups consume
331 diatoms (Castenholz 1961; Best 1964; Nicotri 1977; LaScala-Gruenewald et al. 2016), but the
332 identities of the resources available (likely a diverse mixture of benthic microalgae,
333 cyanobacteria, and macroalgal sporelings [LaScala-Gruenewald et al. 2016]) remain unknown at
334 our study site. Furthermore, there is little evidence for resource partitioning among co-occurring
335 molluscan grazers (Nicotri 1977; Hawkins et al. 1989; LaScala-Gruenewald et al. 2016). Thus,
336 underlying mechanisms for differences in per-biomass nutrient recycling rates, which include not
337 only diet but also organismal physiology, remain unknown.

338 Regardless of the underlying mechanism, it is clear that some species contribute more
339 than others to ammonium accumulation rates in tide pools, and the loss of these species may
340 have disproportionate effects on nutrient availability. McIntyre et al. (2007) describe how
341 consumer extinctions can influence nutrient cycling and highlight the fact that the loss of certain
342 vulnerable species (e.g., those targeted by humans) may have particularly large effects on
343 nutrient availability. Populations of large, conspicuous gastropods such as turban snails have
344 declined in Southern California due to human impacts (Murray et al. 1999). We demonstrated
345 that turban snails contributed substantially more ammonium than predicted based on their
346 biomass. Thus, whereas turban snails represented less than a third of the total herbivore biomass
347 in the tide pools where we measured ammonium accumulation rates, they contributed nearly half
348 of the ammonium.

349 More generally, we found that different functional groups of grazers differ with respect to
350 their effects on an important biogeochemical processes. Understanding the roles of species in
351 ecosystems (Lawton 1994) is essential for predicting rates of nutrient cycling and other
352 biogeochemical rates (Naeem 2002). Intertidal grazers play an essential role in marine

353 ecosystems by converting organic nitrogen in the algae that they eat into inorganic nitrogen that
354 can be readily taken up and assimilated by primary producers (Giannotti and McGlathery 2001;
355 Bracken et al. 2014). And – given differences between grazer species in their ammonium
356 excretion rates – a diverse grazer assemblage (e.g., one that contains groups such as turban snails
357 and chitons characterized by higher rates of per-biomass nitrogen excretion) may be more
358 effective at recycling nutrients.

359 Our study also adds another dimension to the body of research that links trophic
360 complexity, biodiversity, and ecosystem functioning. Many studies in marine systems have
361 demonstrated that more diverse grazer assemblages are more effective at controlling algal
362 biomass (Duffy et al. 2003, 2015; Matthiessen et al. 2007; Eklöf et al. 2012). If those grazers
363 also contribute nutrients – and especially if grazer diversity affects not only top-down control but
364 bottom-up facilitation by grazers – then a mechanistic understanding of the effects of grazer
365 diversity on primary producers requires partitioning grazers' consumptive and facilitative effects
366 (Bracken et al. 2014).

367 One important caveat regarding our work is that our measurements and surveys were
368 conducted in tide pools, which are isolated at low tide, allowing ammonium to accumulate
369 (Bracken and Nielsen 2004). Tide pools are functionally field mesocosms – they contain most
370 species present on local rocky shores and are amenable to measuring nutrient excretion and
371 uptake rates and conducting experimental manipulations (Nielsen 2001; Bracken and Nielsen
372 2004; Pfister 2007) – but they are also hydrodynamically different from wave-swept shores and
373 nearshore systems, where excreted nitrogen is likely to be advected away. Macroalgae were also
374 virtually absent from these tide pools due to a combination of grazing activity and environmental
375 stress. The microalgal biofilms in the pools likely assimilated much of the ammonium from the

376 water column – observed rates of ammonium accumulation were < 30% of the predicted rates –
377 but the simplicity of the system probably enhanced our ability to link observed and predicted
378 rates of ammonium accumulation. However, consumer-mediated nutrient inputs are important
379 even in subtidal and wave-exposed intertidal habitats (Taylor and Rees 1998; Aquilino et al.
380 2009), suggesting that our findings are relevant to a broader suite of marine systems.

381 In conclusion, we have shown that grazers are important local-scale contributors of
382 nitrogen to intertidal habitats. Thus, in addition to their traditional top-down role, grazers play
383 potentially important roles in nutrient cycling. Because different groups in diverse grazer
384 assemblages are characterized by different rates of per-biomass ammonium excretion, predicting
385 rates of grazer-mediated ammonium accumulation requires measurement of the ammonium
386 excretion rates of each grazer group. However, once these data are incorporated, ammonium
387 accumulation rates in the field can be effectively predicted. Understanding the roles of
388 consumers in ecosystems – including not only consumption but also facilitation – is essential for
389 understanding marine biodiversity and ecosystem functioning.

390

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400

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407

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