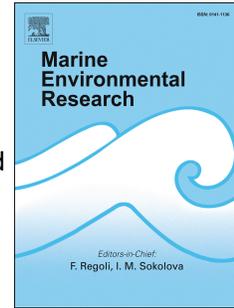


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Consumption of particulate wastes derived from cage fish farming by aggregated wild fish. An experimental approach

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1 **Consumption of particulate wastes derived from cage fish farming by aggregated wild fish.**

2 **An experimental approach.**

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10 **Keywords:** aquaculture; biofiltration; cage fish farming; digestibility; environmental impact;  
11 mitigation; waste consumption; wild fish.

12 **Abstract**

13 Particulate wastes derived from cage fish farming are a trophic resource used by wild fish. This  
14 study assesses waste consumption by wild fish and the impact on the final balance of wastes.  
15 Consumption was determined according to the difference between the particulate matter  
16 exiting the cages and that reaching 5m away at three different depths, in the presence and  
17 absence of wild fish. Wild fish around the experimental cages were counted during feeding and  
18 non-feeding periods. A weighted abundance of 1057 fish 1000 m<sup>-3</sup> consumed 17.75% of the  
19 particulate wastes exiting the cages, on average. Consumption was higher below the cages,  
20 where waste outflow was greater. However, waste removal by wild fish was noteworthy along  
21 the shallow and deep sides of the cages. Wild fish diminished the net particulate wastes by  
22 about 14%, transforming them into more easily dispersible and less harmful wastes. This study  
23 demonstrates the mitigating potential of wild fish in reducing environmental impact.

24 **1. Introduction**

25 The most important environmental effects of cage fish farming are related to the discharge of  
26 dissolved and particulate organic matter deriving from fish metabolism and feeding (Read and  
27 Fernandes, 2003). Dissolved waste boosts primary production around the farms (Dalsgaard  
28 and Krause-Jensen, 2006); however, in well fluxed areas this effluent does not constitute a  
29 threat to the environment because dissolved nutrients are rapidly diffused and assimilated  
30 (Pitta et al., 2009, 2005, 1998). In contrast, particulate wastes –such as faeces and wasted  
31 feed– settle on the seabed in the vicinity of the farms (Holmer et al., 2007; Pusceddu et al.,  
32 2007), misbalancing the benthic environment once assimilative capacity is exceeded (Hargrave  
33 et al., 2008, 1997). This input of trophic resources also stimulates biological activity in  
34 proximity to the cage facilities, and a number of organisms with different trophic strategies  
35 aggregate in and around them, consuming the wastes. Particular examples are biofouling  
36 communities attached to the structures (Gonzalez-Silvera et al., 2015), and wild fish in the  
37 water column (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2015). The biofiltering potential of fouling has been  
38 exploited with the aim of removing wastes by deploying pelagic (Cook et al., 2006; Lojen et al.,  
39 2005) and benthic (Aguado-Giménez et al., 2011; Angel et al., 2002; Gao et al., 2008) biofilters  
40 around cage farms. Similarly, integrated multitrophic aquaculture (IMTA) is developing on the  
41 same basis (Soto, 2009). Nevertheless, both biofiltering and IMTA waste removal effectiveness  
42 is poor when applied close to intensive cage fish farming, (Buschmann et al., 2001; Cranford et  
43 al., 2013; DFO, 2013) particularly in Mediterranean open-sea conditions (Aguado-Giménez et  
44 al., 2014).

45 Another natural compartment which works as biofilter of particulate wastes derived from fish  
46 farming is the aggregated wild fish assemblage it attracts. A profuse gathering of wild fish  
47 forms around most cage fish farms around the world (Carss, 1990; Dempster et al., 2004, 2002;  
48 Oakes and Pondella, 2009; Özgül and Angel, 2013; Sudirman et al., 2009). Some studies report  
49 up to tens of tons of wild fish assembled near cage farms (Dempster et al., 2004; Fernandez-  
50 Jover et al., 2008; Sanchez-Jerez et al., 2011). In some cases, the biomass of wild fish exceeds  
51 that of the fish being reared (Sudirman et al., 2009). Planktophagous wild fish aggregate close  
52 to the cage nets (Bacher et al., 2012; Dempster et al., 2010) where they feed mainly on the  
53 excess food delivered to the caged fish (Dempster et al., 2009; Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008;  
54 Damian Fernandez-Jover et al., 2007). Interaction of cage fish farming and wild fish is well-  
55 known and some authors attribute them the ability to diminish the environmental impact  
56 derived from particulate wastes (Dempster et al., 2009, 2005; Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008;

57 Katz et al., 2002). However, processing of pelleted feed by wild fish aggregated around cage  
58 fish farms has not been properly evaluated. Hence, the biofiltering role of wild fish should be  
59 assessed because of its potential positive effects, rather than other mitigation tools.

60 The contribution of wild fish to the recycling of particulate wastes derived from cage fish  
61 farming is of concern in the context of an ecosystem approach to aquaculture (Angel and  
62 Freeman, 2009). Some estimative approaches have been based on wild fish stomach content  
63 (Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008), or under experimental conditions but far from real present-day  
64 intensive farming requirements (Felsing et al., 2005; Vita et al., 2004). We hypothesise that  
65 ichthyofauna may influence fish-farming derived particulate waste dynamics by reducing the  
66 organic discharge through feeding, largely uneaten feed, changing the physicochemical  
67 characteristics of the wastes and enhancing dispersibility. It is thus interesting to estimate the  
68 contribution of wild fish to the removal of particulate wastes flowing out of culture cages, in  
69 order to ascertain the net nutrient balance of the interaction between wild fish and reared  
70 fish. The aim of the study was therefore to experimentally assess the ability of the wild fish  
71 assemblage to remove particulate wastes under intensive cage-farming conditions. Also,  
72 particulate waste output balance including the effect of wild fish on the recycling of wastes is  
73 modelled for the main nutrients (nitrogen, carbon and phosphorus; Wu, 1995) involved in  
74 marine food webs.

## 75 **2. Materials and methods**

### 76 **2.1. Contribution of wild fish to the removal of particulate wastes**

#### 77 **2.1.1. Sampling particulate wastes**

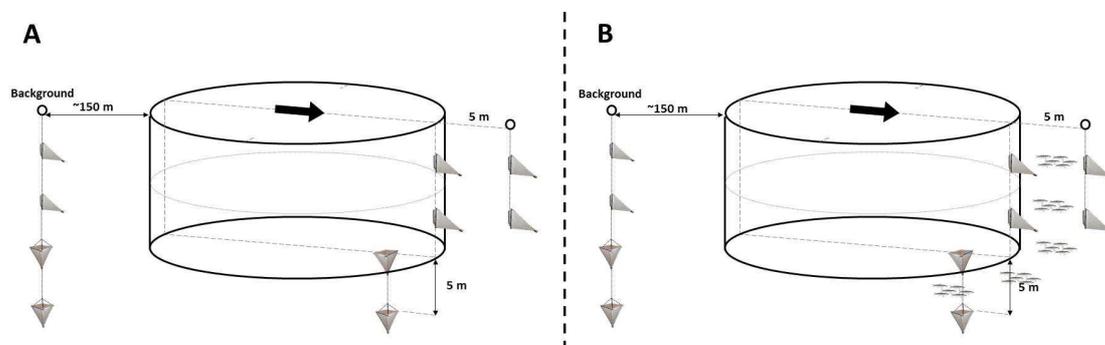
78 Knowing the amount of particulate wastes exiting the cages, our experimental approach to  
79 estimating the consumption of particulate wastes by wild fish is based on the diffusion of solid  
80 wastes in the vicinity of the cages, in the absence and presence of wild fish. To do this, we  
81 used passive waste samplers (PWSs, as shown in Ballester-Moltó et al., 2017) as a tool to trap  
82 particulate wastes flowing out of the cages and also in the water column where wild fish are  
83 usually consuming them. PWSs were directly attached to the cage net so that the particulate  
84 waste outflow was fully intercepted by the trap while excluding wild fish. PWSs were made in  
85 two shapes, depending on which part of the cage they were to be placed: PWSs attached  
86 vertically to the bottom of the cage were symmetrical funnel-shaped (PWS<sub>v</sub>, in Ballester-Moltó  
87 et al., 2017), and those tied horizontally to the cage sides were sloped to avoid sample

88 deposition on PWS walls, while facilitating the flux of particulate matter to the sample  
 89 container (PWS<sub>s</sub>, in Ballester-Moltó et al., 2017).

90

### 91 2.1.2. Experimental setup and calculations

92 The experimental setup (Figure 1) consisted of three PWSs tied to the cage net at three  
 93 different depths: one PWS<sub>b</sub> attached to the cage bottom vertically, and two PWS<sub>s</sub> tethered to  
 94 the sidewalls netting horizontally. The height of the net sides is divided into two halves, and  
 95 one PWS<sub>s</sub> is located in the middle of each half. Most potential waste-consuming wild fish  
 96 aggregated around fish-farm cages move within the first metres close to the cage nets  
 97 (Dempster et al., 2005). Then at a distance of 5 m away from the cage net, the same PWS  
 98 configuration was deployed, with the homologous PWS<sub>s</sub> suspended in the water column from  
 99 two buoys, and the equivalent PWS<sub>b</sub> hanging from the bottom net. To exclude fish from the  
 100 sample retained in the containers of these PWS<sub>s</sub>, a 2 cm mesh plastic net was placed at the  
 101 final section of the funnel. There was therefore a corridor where wild fish move around the  
 102 cages between the tied and hanging PWSs. Additionally, to measure the background  
 103 particulate matter, two PWS<sub>s</sub>s and two PWS<sub>b</sub>s were suspended in the water column from two  
 104 buoys, following the same setup as the PWSs fastened to the cage. In order to maximise the  
 105 sample volume and the sensitivity of the assays, all PWSs faced towards the mainstream. For  
 106 this, current direction was verified visually before installing the PWSs, and a current meter  
 107 (Nortek AquaDopp) remained moored at -6 m depth to record current direction and speed  
 108 (sampling frequency: 15 minutes) throughout the trials duration. Both background PWSs and  
 109 current meter were attached to the signalling perimeter buoy of the farm lease 150 m  
 110 upstream, away from the cages.



111

112 Figure 1: Scheme of the experimental setup. Arrangement of Passive Waste Samplers attached  
 113 to the cage and in the water column. A) Trials in the absence of wild fish. B) Trials in the  
 114 presence of wild fish.

115

116 This experimental setup was deployed in two Mediterranean gilthead seabream (*Sparus*  
 117 *aurata*) cage fish farms during the summer of 2015. The first one is sited 3.2 km off the coast  
 118 of El Campello (Alicante, SE Spain). This farm was selected because it aggregates a profuse  
 119 assemblage of wild fish close to the facilities, including several pelagic species consuming  
 120 wasted feed (Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008). Trials carried out at this farm are used to  
 121 determine the amount of particulate wastes reaching 5 m away from the cages at three  
 122 different cage strata in the presence of wild fish. The second farm is located 5.5 km off the  
 123 coast of San Pedro del Pinatar (Murcia, SE Spain). This farm was selected due to the absence of  
 124 planktophagous wild fish around it (see below). Trials carried out at this farm were used to  
 125 determine the natural dispersal of particulate wastes from the cages up to 5 m away at three  
 126 different cage strata. At both farms, the cages selected to carry out the assays were always in  
 127 the outermost part of the farm, faced to the main current and with no cages interrupting the  
 128 stream, minimising the amount of solid wastes from other cages reaching the PWSs. The  
 129 contribution of wild fish to the consumption of particulate wastes was estimated at the three  
 130 cage strata, based on the difference between the two trials, after subtracting the respective  
 131 backgrounds. There were selected only those trials from both fish farms in which the final  
 132 resulting current direction vector did not deviate more than 45° from the initial orientation of  
 133 the PWSs, and mean current intensity was similar in the direction at which PWSs were  
 134 deployed (Table 1).

135 Table 1: Current direction prevalence and speed in the direction PWSs were faced in both  
 136 experiments in the absence and presence of wild fish.

	Day	Current direction prevalence (%)	Speed ( $\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ )
Absence of wild fish			
Trial 1	1	40.43	$0.087 \pm 0.009$
	2	37.50	$0.067 \pm 0.008$
Trial 2	1	47.92	$0.086 \pm 0.006$
	2	39.58	$0.086 \pm 0.008$
Presence of wild fish			
Trial 3	1	31.82	$0.070 \pm 0.011$
	2	35.42	$0.075 \pm 0.008$
Trial 4	1	35.61	$0.077 \pm 0.007$

	2	43.75	0.086 ± 0.008
Trial 5	1	45.01	0.087 ± 0.007
	2	41.67	0.088 ± 0.010

137

138 Trials at both farms were carried out on two consecutive days. The first day, early in the  
 139 morning, scuba divers assembled the PWSs facing the mainstream (as explained above). After  
 140 24 h, sample containers were replaced by empty ones, and after 48 h the containers were  
 141 finally removed and the setup was disassembled. Samples were cool transported (4 °C) to the  
 142 laboratory, rinsed with distilled water while being sieved (500 µm) to remove any debris,  
 143 washed with 0.5 M ammonium formate solution to eliminate marine salt (Albentosa et al.,  
 144 1996), then centrifuged (5000 rpm at 4 °C for 12 minutes; (Bureau and Cho, 1999) to remove  
 145 the supernatant. The resulting sample was dried in an oven (105 ± 1 °C up to constant weight,  
 146 about 24 hours). After this, samples were weighed and particulate matter flux (PMF) flowing  
 147 out through each depth was expressed as g (dry matter) · m<sup>-2</sup> · d<sup>-1</sup> after subtracting the  
 148 corresponding background. PMF at each depth 5 m away from the cages is expressed as a  
 149 percentage with respect to the PMF flowing out the cages at each depth. To obtain the  
 150 removal of particulate wastes by wild fish at each depth, the mean percentage of PMF  
 151 reaching 5 m away from the cages in the absence of wild fish was subtracted from the  
 152 percentage of PMF reaching 5 m away in the presence of wild fish.

### 153 **2.1.3. Visual wild fish counts during the trials**

154 Abundance estimates of aggregated wild fish during trials is necessary in order to attribute the  
 155 wastes consumed to a particular fish assemblage. For that, abundance of potential fish  
 156 consumers of particulate wastes issuing from the cages during trials was estimated through  
 157 underwater visual counts. Censuses were carried out always by the same experienced scuba  
 158 diver. Each census consisted of 5 min timed counts along a vertical transect from surface to 5  
 159 m below the bottom of the cages of those planktophagous fish swimming within a sampling  
 160 volume of approximately 1000 m<sup>3</sup> (5 m length: from the suspended PWS to the cage; 10 m  
 161 width: 5 m on each side of the diver; 20 m depth), during feeding and non-feeding periods (n =  
 162 4). Daily mean abundance of wild fish was weighted according to the relative duration of  
 163 feeding (1/24 h) and non-feeding (23/24 h) periods.

## 164 **2.2. Processing of wasted feed by wild fish**

### 165 **2.2.1. Digestibility of pelleted feed by wild fish**

166 Considering that wild fish mostly exploit the excess feed emanating from the cages, since the  
 167 nutritional value of faeces from cultured fish is insignificant for omnivorous wild fish (Israel et  
 168 al. 2014), we first needed to know how wild fish process the wasted feed. For that, we  
 169 performed digestibility assays with some of the most representative wild fish species  
 170 aggregated around aquaculture cages in the western Mediterranean: *Mugil cephalus*, *Boops*  
 171 *boops*, *Oblada melanura* and *Trachinotus ovatus*. Wild fish were hooked around El Campello  
 172 fish farm and transported to our experimental facilities. Firstly, fish species were separately  
 173 stocked in 2000 l tanks (open sea water system) until their adaptation to captivity was  
 174 perceptible, approximately after two months. Digestibility assays were carried out in 600 l  
 175 troncoconical tanks with a purge system for faeces collection. Tanks were connected to a  
 176 recirculating system with biological and mechanical filtration. 20 % of the water volume was  
 177 renewed daily. Dissolved oxygen was always above 90 % saturation. Water temperature was  
 178 set at  $21 \pm 1$  °C by using a thermal water conditioning unit, and the photoperiod was 12:12  
 179 light:dark.

180 Three batches of each fish species were fed with a standard conventional gilthead seabream  
 181 aquafeed. Stocking and experimental conditions, and feed composition are shown in Tables 2  
 182 and 3. To minimise stress through handling, they were weighed only when the assays finished.  
 183 The experimental procedure is described in Ballester-Moltó et al. (2016a). Faeces collection  
 184 length was extended until the minimum volume of faeces needed for analyses was reached  
 185 (Table 3). Faeces obtained daily from each batch were pooled, homogenised and freeze-dried  
 186 (Heto, PowerDry LL3000). Total nitrogen (TN) and carbon (TC) content was determined with an  
 187 elemental autoanalyser (LECO 932), and total phosphorus (TP) content was analysed  
 188 spectrophotometrically (AOAC, 1997a), in both *aquafeed* and wild fish faeces. Crude fibre  
 189 content (Fibertec System 1020 HE; AOAC, 1997b) was used as internal inert marker (Krontveit  
 190 et al., 2014) for digestibility calculations.

191 Table 2: Experimental conditions for digestibility assays with wild fish.

	Number of fish per batch ( $\pm$ sem)	Days	Pellet size (mm)	Fish weight (g) $\pm$ sem	Fish density ( $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ ) $\pm$ sem
<i>Boops boops</i>	79.00 $\pm$ 3.21	11	1.9	12.37 $\pm$ 1.13	1.63 $\pm$ 0.65
<i>Mugilidae</i>	49.33 $\pm$ 0.33	11	4	69.29 $\pm$ 0.83	5.70 $\pm$ 0.06
<i>Trachinotus ovatus</i>	27.33 $\pm$ 0.33	17	4	66.95 $\pm$ 2.94	3.05 $\pm$ 0.10
<i>Oblada melanura</i>	5.00 $\pm$ 0.00	21	6	393.60 $\pm$ 32.60	3.28 $\pm$ 0.26

192

193

194 Table 3: Approximate composition of *aquafeed* used in the digestibility assays with wild fish.

	Diets		
	1.9	4	6
Pellet size (mm)	1.9	4	6
Crude protein (%)	49.00	46.00	44.00
Crude lipids (%)	16.50	19.00	20.00
Ash (%)	7.20	5.60	5.70
Crude fibre (%)	2.10	3.40	4.50
Moisture (%)	9.08	8.37	7.65

195

196 An Apparent Digestibility Coefficient (ADC) was calculated for TN, TC and TP ( $ADC_{N-C-P}$ ) for each  
 197 wild fish species, according to the equation of Maynard & Loosli (1969), and dry matter  
 198 digestibility ( $ADC_{dm}$ ) was calculated as a ratio between the inert marker content in diet and  
 199 faeces (Fernández et al., 2007), as follows:

200  $ADC_{dm-N-C-P} (\%) = 100 - [100 \cdot \% M_{diet} / \% M_{faeces}] \cdot (\% N_{faeces} / \% N_{diet})$ , and

201  $ADC_{dm} (\%) = 100 - [100 \cdot \% M_{diet} / \% M_{faeces}]$ ,

202 where M is the inert marker and N is the nutrient (TN, TC or TP).

203 **2.2.2. Modelling the transformation of cage-derived wasted feed due to consumption by**  
 204 **wild fish**

205 A simulation was performed to estimate the dry matter (dm), TN, TC and TP particulate wastes  
 206 generated by the gilthead seabream under culture, considering both the absence and presence  
 207 of a wild fish assemblage aggregated around the cages. Simulation was based on the rearing  
 208 conditions during the trials with wild fish, as shown in Table 4. The different fractions of  
 209 particulate wastes must be estimated, i.e. wasted feed and faeces. Because of deficiencies  
 210 during feed delivery, a fraction of the feed supplied is unused ( $F_u$ ) by rearing fish. This fraction  
 211 is very difficult to know, since it strongly depends on particular feeding operation conditions  
 212 (Chamberlain and Stucchi, 2007). Normally, it is assumed that 3 % of the feed supplied ( $F_s$ ) is  
 213 wasted (Cromey et al., 2002), and we used this value for simulations. Furthermore, gilthead  
 214 seabream wastes a considerable amount of feed in the form of pellet fragments as a  
 215 consequence of its chewing behaviour (Andrew et al., 2003). Conversely, the fraction of feed  
 216 lost by chewing (LbC) can be estimated as a function of feed pellet size ( $P_s$ ) and fish weight  
 217 ( $F_w$ ), as follows (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2016b):

218  $LbC (\%) = -3.9074 + 1.3869 \cdot P_s + 0.0029 \cdot P_s \cdot F_w$ .

219 Knowing  $F_s$  during the trials (Table 4), both fractions of wasted feed,  $F_u$  and LbC, are estimated  
 220 using the suggestions of the above authors. On the other hand, in agreement with Kanyilmaz  
 221 et al. (2015), the amount of faeces (F) and its nutrient content are estimated using the diet  
 222 composition data and digestibility values shown in Table 5 (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2016a), as  
 223 follows:

$$224 F_{dm-N-C-P} = \text{Supplied feed} \cdot (100 - ADC_{dm-N-C-P} (\%) / 100).$$

225 In this way, the amount of waste in different fractions (F,  $F_u$  and LbC) and its nutrient content is  
 226 estimated for each day of experimentation for each separate cage. Next, assuming that wild  
 227 fish will consume wasted feed ( $F_u$  and LbC) only (Israel et al., 2014), and using their mean  
 228 waste consumption (as explained in section 2.1.2.), then F production by wild fish is estimated  
 229 from the digestibility values obtained in section 2.2.1, as explained above.

230 Table 4: Rearing conditions in the cages where trials were developed.

	Number of fish	Cage diameter (m)	Depth of cage side (m)	Fish weight (g)	Pellet size (mm)	Moisture (%)	Feed supplied (kg wet weight)	
							Day 1	Day 2
Absence of wild fish								
Trial 1	584,000	30.0	10.0	126	4	8.5	1250	1250
Trial 2	623,000	30.0	10.0	13	1.9	9.1	375	375
Presence of wild fish								
Trial 3	94,000	15.5	15.0	270	4.5	8.3	225	225
Trial 4	94,000	15.5	13.5	142	4	8.6	150	150
Trial 5	91,000	15.5	13.0	113	3	8.7	112	50

231

232 Table 5: Dry matter, TN, TC and TP content (% dry weight) in gilthead seabream *aquafed* and  
 233 their corresponding digestibility coefficients (ADC; %  $\pm$  standard error), as used for particulate  
 234 waste output estimates of reared fish (data from Ballester-Moltó et al., 2016a).

	Dry matter	TN	TC	TP
Feed content (% of d.m.)	100 $\pm$ 0.0	8.7 $\pm$ 0.1	50.3 $\pm$ 0.1	0.8 $\pm$ 0.0
ADC (%)	84.4 $\pm$ 0.0	96.0 $\pm$ 0.3	88.7 $\pm$ 0.3	71.5 $\pm$ 1.5

235

### 236 3. Results

#### 237 3.1. Wild fish abundance around experimental cages

238 At the San Pedro del Pinatar farm, abundance of potential particulate-waste consuming wild  
 239 fish around the experimental cages was always zero. Only a few solitary fish predators were  
 240 observed, such as *Thunnus thynnus*, *Lichia amia*, *Dasyatis pastinaca*, *Pteromylaeus bovinus* and  
 241 *Seriola dumerilli*, regardless of feeding events. Conversely, abundance of wild planktophagous  
 242 fish around experimental cages at El Campello farm was noteworthy:  $2137 \pm 160$  and  $1010 \pm$   
 243  $130$  individuals per  $1000 \text{ m}^3$  on average were counted around experimental fish cages during  
 244 feeding and non-feeding times. The most abundant wild fish species were *Sardinella aurita* (37  
 245 %), *Caranx rhonchus* (25 %), *Oblada melanura* (25 %), *Trachurus sp.* (6 %), *Sardinella*  
 246 *maderensis* (3 %) and *Trachinotus ovatus* (3%). Other potential particulate-waste consumers,  
 247 with abundances below 1 %, were *Mugil cephalus*, *Sarpa salpa*, *Diplodus vulgaris*, *Diplodus*  
 248 *sargus*, *Diplodus puntazzo* and *Spondylisoma cantharus*. At this farm, predator wild fish  
 249 (*Seriola dumerilii*, *Sphyræna sphyræna*, *Pomatomus saltatrix* and *Dentex dentex*) were also  
 250 observed but not included in the analyses. Weighted daily mean wild fish abundance was  $1057$   
 251  $\pm 203$  individuals.

### 252 3.2. Wild fish contribution to the removal of particulate wastes

253 Once the PMF background was subtracted, the proportion of particulate wastes reaching 5 m  
 254 away relative to the total particulate wastes flowing out the cages (Table 6) was higher in the  
 255 absence than presence of wild fish. Also, in both cases, this proportion increased with depth.  
 256 Accordingly, particulate waste consumption by wild fish also increases from the upper cage  
 257 sides to the bottom. The mean contribution of wild fish to the removal of particulate wastes  
 258 was about 18 % of the total particulate wastes exiting the cages.

259 Table 6: Contribution to the removal of particulate wastes at different cage strata by  
 260 planktophagous wild fish, as estimated from the balance of particulate matter collected in  
 261 PWS fastened to the cage net and 5 m away.

Depth	Without fish (No-Fi)	With fish (Fi)	Wild fish removal
Upper sidewall	$17.17 \pm 5.14 \%$	$8.90 \pm 2.41 \%$	$8.27 \pm 1.79 \%$
Lower sidewall	$30.62 \pm 6.75 \%$	$11.07 \pm 0.43 \%$	$19.55 \pm 2.54 \%$
Bottom	$40.37 \pm 16.32 \%$	$14.93 \pm 1.59 \%$	$25.43 \pm 1.78 \%$
		Mean	$17.75 \pm 2.04 \%$

262

### 263 3.2. Transformation of cage-derived wasted feed after consumption by wild fish

#### 264 3.2.1. Digestibility trials with wild fish

265 The widest variability in digestibility was observed for TP, ranging between 34.67 % for *B.*  
 266 *boops* and 79.29 % for *O. melanura* (Table 7). TN, TC and dm digestibility were very similar  
 267 between species, ranging between 95.19 % for *Mugilidae* and 97.06 % for *O. melanura* for TN,  
 268 between 87.03 % for *O. melanura* and 89.03 % for *T. ovatus* for TC, and between 79.51 % for *B.*  
 269 *boops* and 82.78 % for *O. melanura* for dm. To simulate the wastes processing by wild fish,  
 270 mean digestibility values were used.

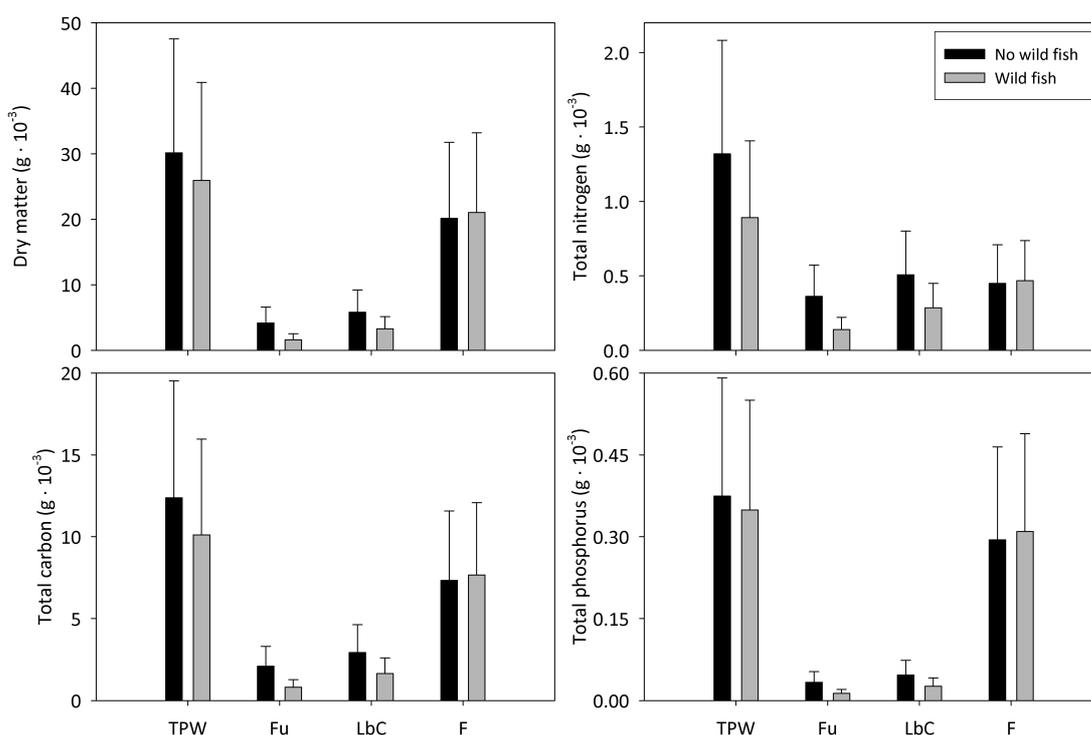
271 Table 8: Apparent digestibility coefficients (mean %  $\pm$  standard error) of dry matter ( $ADC_{dm}$ )  
 272 total nitrogen ( $ADC_N$ ), carbon ( $ADC_C$ ) and phosphorus ( $ADC_P$ ) in wild fish fed with seabream  
 273 *aquafeed*.

	<i>Boops boops</i>	<i>Mugilidae</i>	<i>Trachinotus ovatus</i>	<i>Oblada melanura</i>	Mean
$ADC_{dm}$	79.51 $\pm$ 1.18	82.59 $\pm$ 0.64	82.51 $\pm$ 0.37	82.78 $\pm$ 0.37	<b>81.84 <math>\pm</math> 0.85</b>
$ADC_N$	96.84 $\pm$ 0.41	95.19 $\pm$ 0.54	95.71 $\pm$ 0.26	97.06 $\pm$ 0.28	<b>96.20 <math>\pm</math> 0.45</b>
$ADC_C$	88.17 $\pm$ 0.29	88.22 $\pm$ 0.19	89.03 $\pm$ 0.38	87.03 $\pm$ 0.29	<b>88.11 <math>\pm</math> 0.41</b>
$ADC_P$	34.67 $\pm$ 0.29	66.57 $\pm$ 0.60	76.32 $\pm$ 0.64	79.29 $\pm$ 0.88	<b>64.21 <math>\pm</math> 10.21</b>

274

### 275 3.2.2. Processing of wasted feed by wild fish

276 As stated above, wild fish aggregated around the experimental farm reduced by 17.75 % the  
 277 particulate wastes exiting the cages. Balancing this consumption in terms of dm TPW, it  
 278 diminished by 13.98 % in the presence of wild fish. Likewise, particulate TPW of TN, TC and TP  
 279 wastes decreased by 34.42 %, 18.23 % and 6.85 %, respectively.  $F_u$  and LbC fractions for dm  
 280 and all nutrients also fell by 61.36 % and 41.89 %, respectively. Conversely, dm, TN, TC and TP  
 281 of the F fraction increased by 4.31 %, 3.79 %, 4.18 % and 4.95 %, respectively (Figure 2).



282

283 Figure 2: Daily estimates of dry matter, total nitrogen, carbon and phosphorus particulate  
 284 wastes in their different fractions: TPW: total particulate wastes; F<sub>u</sub>: uneaten feed; LbC: feed  
 285 lost by chewing; F: faeces (TPW = F<sub>u</sub> + LbC + F).

286

#### 287 4. Discussion

288 This study shows that the consumption of particulate wastes derived from fish farming by wild  
 289 fish was substantial: 17.75 % on average of the solid wastes generated under the experimental  
 290 conditions were removed by aggregated planktophilous wild fish. This contribution varies  
 291 with depth, so it takes place more markedly around those parts of the cages where wastes  
 292 flow more intensely, i.e., at the deepest parts of the cages. Digestibility of *aquafed* by wild  
 293 fish was very similar to that of reared fish (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2016a). Wild fish diminished  
 294 total particulate wastes including both F<sub>u</sub> and Lbc fractions, while the F fraction increased, as a  
 295 result of the consumption and assimilation of wasted feed. TN and TC in F<sub>u</sub> and Lbc fractions  
 296 decreased more markedly than TP wastes due to their higher digestibility. Therefore, wild fish  
 297 aggregated around cage farms act as a natural biofilter diminishing substantially the organic  
 298 load produced by fish being reared. However, the magnitude of this effect is influenced by wild  
 299 fish abundance and their trophic level.

300 Mediterranean fish farms show a wide spatial and temporal variability with regard to wild fish  
301 assemblages aggregated around them (Dempster et al., 2002; Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008;  
302 Segvić-Bubić et al., 2011; Valle et al., 2007). Among them, there are some farms with a high  
303 abundance of planktophagous fish, and others with only small groups or lone predatory fish.  
304 Furthermore, some fish farms are home to profuse wild fish assemblages throughout the year  
305 (Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008), while in others the abundance decreases markedly during the  
306 coldest months (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2015). On the other hand, some farms aggregate wild  
307 fish close to the cages either on the surface or mid-water, while in others this occurs near the  
308 seabed below the cages (Dempster et al., 2005). Spatial variability has been attributed to  
309 coastal geomorphology, seabed topography, distance from the coast, and habitat diversity in  
310 the vicinity of the farms (Dempster et al., 2005), while temporal variability seems to be related  
311 to seasonal conditions and fish phenology (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2015). Additionally,  
312 aggregated wild fish adapt their attendance at the host farm to feeding times (Bacher et al.,  
313 2015; Ballester-Moltó et al., 2015). Availability of trophic resources to wild fish around the  
314 farms is also highly variable, since it strongly depends on farming intensity and feeding  
315 practices (Chamberlain and Stucchi, 2007). Consequently, the extent of the wild fish  
316 contribution to removing uneaten feed cannot be generalised and needs to be evaluated on a  
317 case by case basis. With regard to temporal variability, Ballester-Moltó et al. (2015) postulated  
318 that consumption of wastes by aggregated wild fish during the cold season may be reduced  
319 due to their lower intake.

320 The contribution of wild fish to the removal of solid wastes derived from cage fish farming has  
321 been investigated previously by other authors. Vita et al. (2004) estimated wild fish are able to  
322 withdraw about 80 % of the particulate organic matter leaving the cages, and Felsing et al.  
323 (2005) 40–60 %. These results are notably higher than the average 17.75 % obtained in the  
324 present study. Despite their approaches not being truly comparable to ours, we consider that  
325 their results overestimate wastes removal. Both authors mentioned above did not take into  
326 account waste outflow and removal by wild fish along the cage sides, which can be substantial.  
327 Such high contributions also assume a large amount of faeces were consumed by wild fish,  
328 which is improbable according to Israel et al. (2014). Nevertheless, differences between the  
329 above values and ours could also be due to the huge variability between farming and  
330 environmental conditions. In our study, solid waste removal by wild fish was higher close to  
331 the bottom of the cages (25.43 %). Notwithstanding, near the surface (8.27 %) and along the  
332 cage sidewalls (19.55 %) it was also noteworthy. A spatial segregation of wild fish around the  
333 cages occurs depending on their feeding strategy. In the Mediterranean, wild fish assemblages

334 around cage fish farms are dominated by one or a few gregarious species (Dempster et al.,  
335 2005, 2002). *Sardinella aurita*, *Caranx rhonchus* and *Oblada melanura* accounted for 87 % of  
336 wild fish abundance at El Campello farm, with abundances of 920 individuals per 1000 m<sup>3</sup> on  
337 average throughout the day concentrated in the water column around the deepest part of the  
338 cages, just where most particulate waste exits the cages (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2017). Other  
339 fish species with the same trophic strategy, such as *Trachurus mediterraneus*, *Sardinella*  
340 *maderensis* and *Trachinotus ovatus*, were found to coexist within the dominant fish shoal  
341 foraging on the same resources. Small scattered groups of dominant and scarce species also  
342 feed at other cage strata but to a lesser extent. Less abundant fish with different feeding  
343 behaviour such as *Mugilidae*, are found at the surface next to the cages sucking the oil and  
344 dust emanating from the wasted feed, in agreement with Dempster et al. (2005).

345 Faeces are the main fraction of solid wastes produced throughout the fish farming process  
346 (Bureau and Hua, 2010), however their nutritional value is very low (Bailey and Robertson,  
347 1982; Israel et al., 2014). This waste is exceptionally ingested by wild fish, and in such a case by  
348 low trophic level species, mainly herbivores (Robertson, 1982). During our visual counts most  
349 planktophagous wild fish rejected faeces, and rarely some outlying *Clupeids* (*Sardinella aurita*  
350 and *S. maderensis*) fed on it. The high nutritional value of wasted feed make wild fish prefer it  
351 against faeces. Fernandez-Jover et al. (2008) showed that 67–90 % of the stomach contents of  
352 aggregated wild fish were pellets, so wasted feed represents the main trophic subsidy from the  
353 farms for those fish. These authors estimated that 0.3–10 % of the supplied feed is consumed  
354 by wild fish, which is more consistent with our results. Simulations revealed that a  
355 considerable proportion of particulate wastes (about 5 g per fish and day, a credible feeding  
356 rate equivalent to 2.59 % of the supplied feed, and to 86 % of the F<sub>u</sub> fraction (3 %) considered  
357 in the simulations) was removed by wild fish. Digestibility assays showed that wild fish use  
358 *aquafeed* similarly to reared fish (Ballester-Moltó et al., 2016a). Once the consumption of  
359 wasted feed and the production of faeces by wild fish is balanced, a reduction of about 14 % in  
360 the particulate organic load is obtained. This reduction was important in terms of TC (18.23 %)  
361 and TN (34.42 %), and to a lesser extent for TP (6.85 %), as a result of its poorer digestibility.  
362 Additionally, faeces are easier to mineralise by bacteria whilst sinking and once settled on the  
363 seabed (Doglioli et al., 2004; D. Fernandez-Jover et al., 2007; Magill et al., 2006; Piedecausa et  
364 al., 2009).

365 Hence, wild fish transform a considerable portion of wasted feed, the most refractory fraction  
366 of the waste, into faeces and dissolved excreted products, a more labile and less detrimental

367 waste which can be more easily transported away from the farming area by currents, and also  
368 through fish movement in and out of the farm (Chen et al., 2003; Fernandez-Jover et al., 2007;  
369 Fernandez-Jover et al., 2008). We demonstrate here that wild fish have a major potential for  
370 mitigating environmental impact deriving from the organic enrichment caused by fish farming.  
371 Integrated multitrophic aquaculture has been proposed as an alternative to reduce the organic  
372 discharge from finfish aquaculture, particularly by culturing bivalve molluscs to reduce  
373 suspended particulate wastes (Troell et al., 2003). An arbitrary value of particle capture  
374 efficiency to describe the capacity of waste recycling is 50 % (Cranford et al., 2013). These  
375 authors remark that mussels are able to remove only 0.9 % to 3.5 % of particles, depending on  
376 the current speed. This illustrates their limited biofiltering efficiency, considerably lower than  
377 the capacity of wild fish shown in our study. The role of wild fish should be considered in  
378 environmental impact assessments. However, in accordance with Dempster et al. (2005),  
379 spatio-temporal variability of assemblages and differences in feeding practices between farms  
380 make it impossible to predict nutrient dispersal by wild fish prior to knowing the assemblage  
381 structure.

382 Fish species at different trophic levels use excess feed either as a direct trophic resource or  
383 indirectly via predation on aggregated prey, and this influence of excess feed on wild fish has  
384 been detected in fish captured by local fisheries. Artisanal fishers capture farm-influenced fish  
385 at a scale of tens of km from the farm, and therefore, additionally to the biofilter effects of  
386 wild fish, there is an indirect exportation of the lost feed into fisheries via wild fish (Izquierdo-  
387 Gómez et al., 2014). In any case and in agreement with Dempster et al. (2002), aggregated wild  
388 fish around farms should be protected from exploitation by local fisheries because they  
389 provide a useful 'ecosystem service' to farmers by reducing the impact of lost feed on the  
390 benthos.

391

392

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**Highlights:**

Consumption by wild fish of particulate wastes derived from fish farming is assessed

Experimental and modelling methods were coupled to estimate waste consumption

Wild fish consumed a relevant amount of wasted feed

Wild fish provide an ecosystem service to farmers by reducing environmental impact

Waste removal is difficult to predict due to assemblage spatio-temporal variability

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT