Identification of *Cassiopea* sp. in Lake Macquarie, Australia and revision of the taxonomic status of *Cassiopea maremetens* Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010 (Cnidaria: Scyphozoa: Cassiopeidae) (#113132)

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Identification of *Cassiopea* sp. in Lake Macquarie, Australia and revision of the taxonomic status of *Cassiopea* maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010 (Cnidaria: Scyphozoa: Cassiopeidae)

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Scyphozoans of the genus Cassiopea are notable for their unusual benthic habit of lying upside-down with their exumbrella resting on the substrate and oral arms facing upwards, resulting in their common name "upside-down jellyfish". Cassiopea includes species that are model examples of invasives that have been historically confused because of taxonomic ambiguity. These can have significant economic and environmental consequences as their blooms are known to impact fisheries, tourism, and trophic structures. Cassiopea medusae were first reported in temperate Lake Macquarie, New South Wales, Australia in 2017, though historically these jellyfish have a more northern tropical distribution in eastern Australia. Owing to the invasive nature of Cassiopea and their potential impacts, correct species identification is crucial for future management. To address this knowledge gap, this study used genetic comparison through the COI barcoding gene and morphometric analysis, together with revision of type and topotype material of Cassiopea maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010, an incompletely known nominal species from eastern Australia, to investigate the identity of Cassiopea occurring in Lake Macquarie. The morphometric analysis was also used to identify key features that distinguish the Lake Macquarie species from a second species, designated Cassiopea sp.3, that is also expanding its range south in eastern Australia and which may be sympatric in some areas. The results of this study show the species occurring in Lake Macquarie is Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892, originally described from Jamaica and subsequently widely reported from the Western Atlantic and the Indo-West Pacific. Additionally, we demonstrate that *Cassiopea maremetens*, described in 2010 from southern Queensland, Australia, is a junior synonym of *C. xamachana*. Morphological

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characters that can be most readily used to distinguish mature specimens of *C. xamachana* from *C.* sp.3, which has an overlapping distribution on the Australian east coast, are: 1) the number of large appendages on the oral disc, which is much higher in *Cassiopea* sp.3 (at least 1 but up to 14) versus a maximum of two in *C. xamachana*; 2) the oral arm branching pattern, which is usually alternating for *C. xamachana*, but a combination of alternating, bifurcating and pinnate for *Cassiopea* sp.3; 3) the length of the large appendage on the oral arm, which is proportionally longer relative to the bell diameter in *C. xamachana*.



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Abstract

Scyphozoans of the genus Cassiopea are notable for their unusual benthic habit of lying upside-down with their exumbrella resting on the substrate and oral arms facing upwards, resulting in their common name "upside-down jellyfish". Cassiopea includes species that are model examples of invasives that have been historically confused because of taxonomic ambiguity. These can have significant economic and environmental consequences as their blooms are known to impact fisheries, tourism, and trophic structures. Cassiopea medusae were first reported in temperate Lake Macquarie, New South Wales, Australia in 2017, though historically these jellyfish have a more northern tropical distribution in eastern Australia. Owing to the invasive nature of Cassiopea and their potential impacts, correct species identification is crucial for future management. To address this knowledge gap, this study used genetic comparison through the COI barcoding gene and morphometric analysis, together with revision of type and topotype material of Cassiopea maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010, an incompletely known nominal species from eastern Australia, to investigate the identity of Cassiopea occurring in Lake Macquarie. The morphometric analysis was also used to identify key features that distinguish the Lake Macquarie species from a second species, designated Cassiopea sp.3, that is also expanding its range south in eastern Australia and which may be sympatric in some areas. The results of this study show the species occurring in Lake Macquarie is Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892, originally described from Jamaica and subsequently



widely reported from the Western Atlantic and the Indo-West Pacific. Additionally, we demonstrate that *Cassiopea maremetens*, described in 2010 from southern Queensland, Australia, is a junior synonym of *C. xamachana*. Morphological characters that can be most readily used to distinguish mature specimens of *C. xamachana* from *C.* sp.3, which has an overlapping distribution on the Australian east coast, are: 1) the number of large appendages on the oral disc, which is much higher in *Cassiopea* sp.3 (at least 1 but up to 14) versus a maximum of two in *C. xamachana*; 2) the oral arm branching pattern, which is usually alternating for *C. xamachana*, but a combination of alternating, bifurcating and pinnate for *Cassiopea* sp.3; 3) the length of the large appendage on the oral arm, which is proportionally longer relative to the bell diameter in *C. xamachana*.

Introduction

Upside-down jellyfish (*Cassiopea* spp.) are unusual scyphozoans because they spend the majority of the medusa phase of their lifecycle in a sedentary state, resting on the benthos, with the bell facing downwards, and the oral arms extended above (Ohdera et al., 2018). *Cassiopea* occurs world-wide in tropical to sub-tropical regions, in shallow and protected habitats, such as coral reefs, mangrove forests or seagrass beds (Ohdera et al., 2018). Some species of *Cassiopea*, however, are considered to be globally invasive with a number of range expansions into novel environments (Bolton & Graham, 2006; Holland et al., 2004; Keable & Ahyong, 2016; Rowe et



56 al., 2022b). This can occur localised dispersal, or through direct anthropogenic interventions including shipping traffic, ballast water, or release through the aquarium trade (Bolton & 57 Graham, 2006; Graham & Bayha, 2008). Characteristics considered important in their success as 58 59 invaders include tolerance of a broad range of environmental parameters, high reproductive rate 60 and the ability to reproduce both sexually and asexually (Holland et al., 2004; Keable & Ahyong, 2016; Maggio et al., 2019; Morandini et al., 2016; Schiariti et al., 2014). Additionally, Cassiopea 61 can have reproductive blooms in high densities (Morandini et al., 2017; Stoner et al., 2014) and 62 under increasingly favourable environmental conditions associated with climate change, these 63 64 blooms may occur more frequently (Brotz & Pauly, 2016; Ohdera et al., 2018; Richardson et al., 65 2009; Rowe et al., 2022a). Cassiopea is the only genus in the family Cassiopeidae. The most recent synopses of the 66 genus recognise 12 valid species (Collins, Jarms & Morandini, 2022; Jarms et al., 2019): 1, C. 67 andromeda (Forskål, 1775); 2, C. culionensis Light, 1914; 3, C. depressa Haeckel, 1880; 4, C. 68 frondosa (Pallas ,1774); 5, C. maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010; 6, C. mayeri 69 70 Gamero-Mora, Collins, Boco, Geson III & Morandini, 2022; 7, C. medusa Light, 1914; 8, C. mertensi (Brandt, 1838); 9, C. ndrosia Agassiz & Mayer, 1899; 10, C. ornata Haeckel, 1880; 11, 71 C. vanderhorsti Stiasny, 1924; and 12, C. xamachana Bigelow, 1892. However, species of the 72 genus can be extremely difficult to distinguish based on morphological characters alone because 73 of their conservative morphology, with few reliable morphological taxonomic characters 74



75 (Gamero-Mora et al., 2022; Holland et al., 2004). Such a situation is commonplace in scyphozoan systematics, which has traditionally based descriptions on morphological characters 76 that may have high plasticity (Arai et al., 2017; Gohar & Eisawy, 1960; Holland et al., 2004). 77 78 This is especially the case for *Cassiopea*, where analysis based solely on morphological 79 characters is challenging because a number of features vary between different habitats and stages of growth (Hopf & Kingsford, 2013; Maggio et al., 2019). As a result, it has been suggested that 80 an integrative approach, using both morphological and genetic data will provide more reliable 81 taxonomic separation (Arai et al., 2017; Dawson, 2003; Holland et al., 2004; Maggio et al., 82 83 2019). 84 Molecular study has often revealed unrecognised species in many marine taxa, suggesting 85 that marine biodiversity is higher than previously thought, and speciation is more frequent than 86 originally recognised (Dawson & Jacobs, 2001; Knowlton, 2000). For example, the scyphozoan, Aurelia aurita (Linnaeus, 1758), long thought to be a single widespread species based on 87 88 morphology has been revealed, based on molecular data, to be a complex of at least 10 species 89 (Dawson & Jacobs, 2001; Lawley et al., 2021). One of the first molecular studies of Cassiopea 90 focussed on Hawaiian fauna (Holland et al., (2004), and tentatively concluded that there were six species including: 1) C. frondosa, which originates from the western Atlantic and at that time 91 considered by Holland et al., (2004) to be the only morphologically well characterised species; 2) 92 C. andromeda, initially reported from the Red Sea and subsequently the Western Atlantic; 3) C. 93



94 ornata, reported from Indonesia, Palau and Fiji; and 4–6) species that were not associated with named species based on their morphological characters. Subsequently, genetic analysis has been 95 used as a tool for identifying species of Cassiopea, such as C. andromeda in shrimp farms in 96 Brazil (Thé et al., 2020) and from Italy (Maggio et al., 2019), respectively. Additionally, utilising 97 genetic techniques, new species have been identified, including two different lineages from Palau 98 (Cassiopea sp.5 and sp.6, Arai et al., 2017), which were not sequenced by Holland et al. (2004). 99 A recent synoptic phylogenetic study of *Cassiopea* (Gamero-Mora et al., 2020) recognised at 100 least 17 species of which only six can be aligned with formal names, the most recently described 101 102 being C. mayeri and C. culionensis (Gamero-Mora et al., 2022; Gamero-Mora et al., 2020). 103 There are still at least six named species, whose identity is ambiguous, indicating significant 104 revision of the genus is required (Gamero-Mora et al., 2022; Gamero-Mora et al., 2020). 105 In Australia, Cassiopea has typically been recorded from sub-tropical and tropical latitudes, occurring north of 27°58'S on the east coast and 16°08'S on the west coast, with the 106 107 exception of an apparently introduced population established near a warm water outlet from a 108 power station at Angas Inlet, Adelaide, South Australia (approximately 34°48'S, 138°32'E, 109 Keable & Ahyong, 2016; Southcott, 1982, Figure 1). To date, four named species of Cassiopea (C. andromeda, C. maremetens, C. ndrosia, C. ornata) and two undescribed species have been 110 reported from Australia (Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010; Keable & Ahyong, 2016). Cassiopea 111 maremetens, however, is the only species described from Australia (type locality: Pelican 112



113	Waters, Queensland, 26°49'42"S, 153°06'48"E); other Australian species were described from
114	elsewhere. To date no genetic data for <i>C. maremetens</i> have been available but it morphologically
115	closely resembles C. andromeda and C. ndrosia (Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010; Keable &
116	Ahyong, 2016).
117	Keable & Ahyong (2016) reported a southward range expansion of two species of
118	Cassiopea on the east Australian coast into New South Wales, identifying C. cf. maremetens in
119	Wallis Lake (32°11'45"S, 152°29'56"E) and <i>C. ndrosia</i> in Lake Illawarra (34°31'36"S,
120	150°51'53"E). A further southern population of <i>Cassiopea</i> was discovered in 2017 in Lake
121	Macquarie (33°04'00"S, 151°32'42"E), approximately mid-way between Lake Illawarra and
122	Wallis Lake (Rowe et al., 2022b, Figure 1). This raises questions about which species occurs in
123	Lake Macquarie and from where it may have originated. This is especially important because of
124	the invasive potential of Cassiopea and its environmental impacts.
125	This study aims to determine the identity of the species of Cassiopea occurring in Lake
126	Macquarie using molecular and morphological data, and to re-assess the taxonomic status of <i>C</i> .
127	maremetens in relation to Cassiopea from New South Wales.
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129	Methods
130	Taxon Sampling



131	Specimens were collected under NSW Department of Primary Industries permit FP23/41
132	from four localities on five occasions in Lake Macquarie, New South Wales, Australia: Lake
133	Petite, 33°7'3"S, 151°32'6"E, on 4 June 2017, 9 February 2018, and 9 May 2019; Kilaben Creek,
134	33°1'43"S, 151°35'1"E, on 9 May 2019; Karignan Creek, 33°10'32"S, 151°34'0"E, on 15 May
135	2018 and 6 May 2019; and Mannering Bay, 33°9'28"S, 151°31'41"E, on 7 May 2019; and
136	Myuna Bay, 33°03'59"S, 151°32'43"E, on 2 December 2019 (Figure 1).
137	Additionally, specimens for comparative analysis were collected in Wallis Lake
138	(32°11'58"S, 152°30'39"E) on 18 September 2014, 28 April 2015, 8 April 2016, and 10 May
139	2019, Port Hacking (34°04'51"S, 151°08'01"E) on 31 May 2021, and Lake Illawarra (34° 31'
140	36" S, 150° 51' 52"E) on 1 June 2021. Specimens from southeastern Queensland were collected
141	from Coombabah Creek (27°54'26"S, 153°22'57"E) on 8 March 2021, and Pelican Waters
142	(26°50'01"S, 153°06'44"E), the type locality of <i>C. maremetens</i> , on 10 March 2021.
143	Specimens were collected using hand-nets, either from a paddling vessel or by wading
144	into the water. For further details see the Taxonomy section and Supplementary Files Tables S1-
145	S3.
146	Tissue samples from each specimen were dissected from the gonads and tip of one of the
147	oral arms; these were fixed and preserved in 95% ethanol. The remainder of the specimen was
148	fixed in 10% formalin mixed with seawater to maintain the morphological characteristics. All



149	New South Wales specimens are deposited in the collections of the Australian Museum, Sydney
150	(AM).
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152	Additional Genetic and Morphological Samples
153	Additional tissue samples were sequenced from specimens made available by the
154	Queensland Museum, Brisbane (QM), South Australian Museum, Adelaide (SAM), and
155	ReefHQ, Townsville (S1). Additionally, available genetic sequences of Cassiopea from
156	Australian and overseas localities were downloaded from GenBank, including two scyphozoan
157	outgroups, Catostylus mosaicus and Aurelia aurita, following Holland et al. (2004) (S1 and S2).
158	Collections preserved at the AM, QM and SAM were examined for morphological
159	comparison (S3). Due to uncertainty regarding many characters of <i>C. maremetens</i> , this included
160	type material from QM to redescribe the species (see Taxonomy section).
161	Genetic Analysis
162	DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing
163	DNA was extracted from gonad or oral arm tissue using an Isolate II Genomic DNA Kit
164	following manufacturer's instructions. An approximately 500-bp fragment of the mitochondrial
165	gene cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) was sequenced with the primers Lobo Forward
166	(KBTCHACAAAYCAYAARGAYATHGG) and Lobo Reverse
167	(TAAACYTCWGGRTGWCCRAARAAYCA) (Lobo et al. 2013). Polymerase chain reactions



(PCRs) were performed in a total volume of 20 μl with Invitrogen 10× PCR buffer (2 μl), both 168 169 primers (0.4 µl each), Invitrogen MgCl₂ (1.5 µl), dNTPs (1.5 µl), Invitrogen Taq DNA Polymerase (0.1 μl), Milli-Q H₂O (13.1 μl) and the sample (1 μl). Reaction conditions for COI 170 were as follows: 94°C for 3 minutes; 40 cycles: at 94°C (30s), 52°C (30s) and 72°C (60s) a final 171 extension at 72°C (5 minutes). PCR products were assessed using agarose gel electrophoresis 172 173 stained with GelRed (Biotium), with the inclusion of a 1000 bp DNA ladder (ThermoFischer). PCR products were sent to Macrogen (Macrogen Inc. Seoul, Republic of Korea) for sequencing. 174 175 Molecular data analysis A total of 38 COI sequences were obtained from various populations of *Cassiopea* from 176 around Australia for this study (S1). The sequences were viewed and edited using Geneious 177 178 (V.2020.0.5) and matched against other sequences in the GenBank database using the BLAST search. All of the mitochondrial COI sequences from populations in Australia obtained in this 179 study and from GenBank were aligned using MEGA10: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics 180 Analysis version 10 (MEGA) (Stecher, Tamura, & Kumar, 2020) using the MUSCLE algorithm 181 (total of 48 sequences, S1). MEGA was then used to compute pairwise distances between 182 183 sequences using Kimura 2-parameter model (K2P), followed by the construction of a Maximum 184 Likelihood (ML) tree using Tamura 3-parameter, which was selected as a result of the lowest BIC value when comparing models in MEGA. Bootstrap values were calculated using 1,000 185



pseudoreplicates implemented in MEGA. Analyses were rooted to *Catostylus mosaicus* and *Aurelia aurita* (see Australian results).

This method was repeated using a sequence from each locality in Australia, compared to populations worldwide, including two sequences originating from Israel and Singapore, respectively, sequenced in this study, and *Cassiopea* CO1 sequences available on GenBank (total of 97 sequences, S2, see Global results).

Additionally, a species delimitation analysis was completed using Bayesian implementation (bPTP) of the Poisson tree process model to infer putative species boundaries on a phylogenetic input tree (Zhang et al., 2013). The input tree used in the bPTP analysis was the resulting trees from both the regional and global analysis. The bPTP was run as a rooted tree with 100,000 generations, 10% burn-in and outgroups were removed.

Morphological Analysis

Results from the molecular analysis were used to inform specimen sampling for morphometric analysis. A suite of morphological traits were identified and measured following those examined by Ohdera et al. (2018); Morandini et al. (2017); Mayer (1910); Kramp (1961); Hummelinck (1968); Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie (2010); Keable & Ahyong (2016); Jarms et al. (2019). Morphological observations (Figure 2) were made using a magnification lamp and dissecting microscope. In most cases the exumbrella diameter was measured across the widest point to the nearest millimetre and used to compare size ratios of different features between



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specimens. However, some specimens have a brittle exumbrella that would not fully open, in which case their condition noted. Exumbrella diameter, overall height and oral disc height were measured with the oral arms of the specimen lying on top of their exumbrella and with the aboral surface of the exumbrella oriented in the ventral position as when the specimen is naturally at rest on the substrate when encountered in the field (i.e., the typical 'upside-down' position). Overall height was measured from the base of the exumbrella to the top of the oral disc. Oral disc height was measured from the intersection of oral disc with the bell to the top of the oral disc. The number of rhopalia and lappets, and the number of lappets per paramere were counted, and their shape noted (i.e., round or flat edge, each lappet distinct with grooves between them or connected with a smooth edge, short or long). While the shape and colour of large appendages have been found uninformative in identifying Cassiopea species in other analyses (Gamero-Mora et al., 2020), it was observed that their position and size consistently differed between populations occurring in this study on the east coast of Australia. Therefore, the number and shape of large appendages along the oral arms and on the oral disc were recorded. We also measured the length of largest appendage on the oral arm and oral disc from the base to the tip, as well as the width at the midlength. Additionally, the specimen was inverted so that the dorsal surface of the exumbrella was exposed, and the exumbrella was folded back so the oral arms were visible, allowing the length of the oral arms to be recorded from the proximal base at the oral disc to the distal tip of the main trunk. The main oral arm trunk and lateral oral arm



224 branching patterns were also recorded as this is considered to be useful in diagnosing species of Cassiopea (Gamero-Mora et al., 2020), with three different patterns observed in this study: 1, 225 alternating — the lateral branches switch sides and are separated along the main oral arm trunk; 226 2, pinnate — the lateral branches are arranged on either side of the main oral arm trunk in pairs 227 opposite each other; 3, bifurcating — the main trunk of the oral arm is divided into two 228 subequally broad distal branches (in this case the distance from the oral disc to the proximal base 229 of the bifurcation, and also whether each branch was equal in length, was recorded). 230 231 Standardisation of body size 232 To ensure that all count data were not skewed by body size, a regression was completed for 233 each continuous variable against exumbrella diameter to determine if there was a positive 234 relationship. If a significant relationship was detected, the variable was divided by the exumbrella diameter for each individual. If a significant relationship was still detected, the z-235 score (Curtis et al., 2016) was calculated for each individual using the following formula: 236

$$Z = \frac{x - mean}{standard\ deviation}$$

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- Where x is the continuous variable for a specimen and after which, all data was standardised.
- 239 *Morphometric analysis*
- To determine if there was any clustering separating putative species based on morphological characters, and if this differed between populations, a non-metric multidimensional scaling



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(nMDS) was constructed based on a Bray-Curtis similarity matrix using both the continuous data that was standardised for bell diameter, and categorical variables. This was completed using both the 'vegan' package and 'ggplot2' in R (v2021.09.01). To test for morphological differences a one-way permutation multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was completed, with putative species as the fixed factor (3-levels: presumptive C. xamachana, Cassiopea sp.3, Cassiopea sp.2, as listed in Supplementary Table S3). Additionally, a Ward hierarchical clustering (Cluster) analysis was undertaken to determine morphological similarities between individual samples. Any morphological differences between populations within species for putative C. xamachana and Cassiopea sp.3 were tested using one-way PERMANOVAs with the location of the populations as a fixed factor (3-levels for each species). If there was a significant difference between groups of specimens a cluster analysis was completed to determine how individuals clustered across populations and in which localities these are morphologically similar. To establish which features distinguish putative species, a similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER) was applied using the 'vegan' package, and the six most influential features were

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Results

Genetic Analysis

identified. All statistical analyses were completed in R (v2021.09.01).



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Australian results

The ML tree (Figure 3) based on COI of *Cassiopea* from all sampled localities in Lake 262 Macquarie, Wallis Lake, Pelican Waters, Gold Coast and Moreton Bay formed a strongly 263 supported clade (bootstrap support 100%); all were genetically identical (K2P \pm S.E.: 0.00 \pm 264 0.00, Table S4) suggesting they represent a single species, distinct from those of Lake Illawarra 265 (mean between populations K2P \pm S.E.: 0.318 \pm 0.00), Port Hacking (0.318 \pm 0.00), Coombabah 266 Creek (0.324 \pm 0.00), and the Northern Territory (0.32 \pm 0.00), which were closely related to 267 each other (mean within species K2P \pm S.E.: 0.021 \pm 0.00). Additionally, the Lake Macquarie 268 specimens differed from those from South Australia (0.078 \pm 0.00), Lizard Island (0.294 \pm 0.00), 269 and Port Douglas (0.273 \pm 0.00). The bTP analysis for species delimitation estimate the presence 270 271 of 6 to 36 species with a mean of 21.64. Five species are recognised herein, including Cassiopea from Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican Waters as one species, those from Lake 272 Alexander, Lake Illawarra, Port Hacking and Coombabah Creek as a second species, and each of 273 the populations from Angas Inlet, Port Douglas and Lizard Island, as separate species (see 274 Discussion section and Figure 1). 275 276 Global results The global ML tree (Figure 4) recovered the Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican 277

The global ML tree (Figure 4) recovered the Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican Waters specimens in the same clade and genetically invariant, with low divergence from populations in Hawaii, Brazil, Panama and the Florida Keys (mean within species $K2P \pm S.E.$:



0.016 ± 0.00, Table S5), previously identified as *Cassiopea xamachana* (Holland et al., 2004; Gamero-Mora et al., 2019; Stampar et al., 2021, S2, see Discussion). The low COI divergence suggests that these populations from different localities all represent the same widespread species. Additionally, specimens from Lake Illawarra, Coombabah Creek, Port Hacking and the Northern Territory (herein referred to as *Cassiopea* sp.3) form a separate clade and are closely related to another species from Japan, Hawaii and Papua New Guinea (Figure 4, Table S5). The bTP analysis for species delimitation indicates an estimated 16 to 38 species with a mean of 25.13.

Morphometric Analysis

The nMDS ordination of the specimens of *Cassiopea* examined is illustrated in Figure 5. The stress level associated with this two-dimensional plot was 0.176, demonstrating that there were some morphological characters distinguishing the species (Dexter et al. 2018). The nMDS ordination plot formed clearly separated groups based on morphological dissimilarities (Figure 5). The PERMANOVA confirmed that there are significant morphological differences between species ($R^2 = 0.395$, pseudo-F = 30.089 p < 0.01). Additionally, with the exception of three *Cassiopea* sp.3 specimens (AM G.20076 from Port Hacking, G.20060 from Coombabah Creek and AM G.18075 from Lake Illawarra) and two *Cassiopea* sp.2 specimens (AM G.17387 and AM G.17370) from Papua New Guinea, the cluster analysis confirmed these results (Figure 6), and grouped specimens into two morphological groups, with material corresponding to putative



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Cassiopea sp.3 and Cassiopea sp.2 in the first cluster and presumptive C. xamachana in the second. The PERMANOVA between Australian populations of Cassiopea from Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican waters indicates there are morphological differences between locations ($R^2 = 0.077$, pseudo-F = 2.587, p < 0.05). The follow-up cluster analysis (Figure 7A) indicated no C. xamachana location clusters driving this significance with the two significant clusters containing specimens from all three locations. However, morphological differences were detected between populations of Cassiopea sp.3 from Lake Illawarra, Coombabah Creek, Port Hacking, and Lake Alexander ($R^2 = 0.498$, pseudo-F = 6.605, p < 0.4980.001). Additionally, the follow up cluster analysis (Figure 7B) confirmed clear morphological clusters between locations of Cassiopea sp.2, including cluster 1 containing specimens from the Port Hacking, cluster 2 from Coombabah Creek with two specimens from the Port Hacking, cluster 3 from Northern Territory, with one specimen from Lake Illawarra, and cluster 4 containing specimens from Lake Illawarra. SIMPER indicated the three most informative features contributing to separation of putative C. xamachana and Cassiopea sp.3 according to their cumulative contribution are: the number of large appendages on the oral disc; oral arm branching pattern; and length of large

putative *C. xamachana* and *Cassiopea* sp.3 according to their cumulative contribution are: the number of large appendages on the oral disc; oral arm branching pattern; and length of large appendages on the oral arm (Table 1, Figures 6–8). Branching pattern is also a distinguishing feature between *C. xamachana* and *Cassiopea* sp.2, as well as between *Cassiopea* sp.2 and *Cassiopea* sp.3, along with number of ring canals and large appendage distribution (Table 1).



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The features that were considered as less useful when distinguishing between taxa include the shape of the subgenital pit, the number of ring canals, and the shape of the oral arm.

Discussion

Although the genus *Cassiopea* is easily recognised, the species have had a confused taxonomic history owing to subtle morphological distinctions and general morphological conservatism in the genus (Holland et al., 2004; Hopf & Kingsford, 2013; Maggio et al., 2019; Ohdera et al., 2018). This has resulted in a need for molecular data combined with morphology to identify species of *Cassiopea* in new locations (Holland et al., 2004; Maggio et al., 2019; Ohdera et al., 2018). Additionally, some species of *Cassiopea* are invasive, with new distribution records around the world, and so correctly identifying the species of Cassiopea is crucial to track and manage their spread (Holland et al., 2004; Keable & Ahyong, 2016; Maggio et al., 2019; Morandini et al., 2017; Ohdera et al., 2018; Thé et al., 2020). Sequences of Cassiopea from eastern Australia (Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican Waters) group with, and are indistinguishable at species level from, those from Hawaii, Brazil, Palau, Panama, Florida Keys and an additional locality in the Northwest Pacific Ocean (Figure 4). Terminals within this clade are referable to C. xamachana based on genetic comparisons, morphology, and redescription of material that is to be designated as the neotype of the species (Gamero-Mora et al., 2019; Gamero-Mora et al., 2020; Stampar et al., 2020). However, Cassiopea occurring in Lake Macquarie and Wallis Lake, namely C. xamachana, are



also genetically indistinguishable from those from Pelican Waters. This result is particularly significant because Pelican Waters is the type locality of *C. maremetens* (Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010). Morphological congruence was also found between specimens from Lake Macquarie and Pelican Waters, including the holotype of *C. maremetens*. This is the first time that specimens morphologically corresponding to *C. maremetens* from the type locality of the species have been evaluated based on genetic data.

This indicates that *C. maremetens* is conspecific with *C. xamachana*, with the latter having nomenclatural priority as the older name. This was confirmed by morphological revision of type material of *C. maremetens* and comparison with additional specimens including topotypes (see Taxonomy and Morphometric Analysis sections). As such, we formally synonymise *C. maremetens* with *C. xamachana*, below. Additionally, material from Panama in this clade previously identified by Daglio & Dawson (2017) as *C. frondosa* appears to be a misidentification and is actually *C. xamachana*. Conversely, a specimen from the same study identified as *C. xamachana* and also from Panama was placed here in the *C. frondosa* clade (Daglio & Dawson, 2017), and is apparently *C. frondosa* based on the identity assigned in other studies to the material in this clade.

Cassiopea xamachana was first described by Bigelow (1892) from the Caribbean Sea and has subsequently been reported from a wide variety of locations (see Remarks in Taxonomy section). This species and has been taxonomically confused with *C. andromeda* (type locality:



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Red Sea), both of these species apparently overlap in distribution in Florida with a third species, C. frondosa (type locality: Caribbean Sea, Muffett & Miglietta, 2023). Our study supports those of Gamero Mora et al. (2020) and Muffett & Miglietta (2023) in recognising C. xamachana is more closely related to C. andromeda (type locality: Red Sea) with a mean pairwise divergence of 7.2%, than to its Caribbean congener, C. frondosa (mean pairwise divergence: 19%). Some studies suggest that C. xamachana and C. andromeda might be conspecific given their morphological and genetic similarities (Arai et al., 2017; Gamero-Mora et al., 2020; Jarms et al., 2019), but Gamero-Mora et al. (2022) treated these as separate species because of significant divergence and monophyly on the basis of 28S ribosomal sequences; this was supported by Muffett & Miglietta (2023). Like C. xamachana, C. andromeda has subsequently been reported from the tropical and subtropical western Atlantic, Mediterranean Sea, the Indo-Pacific (including Australia, Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010, this study) and recently, the eastern Atlantic (Gueroun et al. 2024). For these two species, geography should not be used for species identification given that both can be sympatric in parts of their range as result of both natural and artificial processes, and the additional possibility that other species may be present (Fitt et al., 2021; Muffett & Miglietta, 2023). Specimens of a second species occurring in eastern Australia analysed here from Lake Illawarra, New South Wales, and Coombabah Creek, Queensland, are found to be closely related

to specimens from Japan (Abboud, Daglio & Dawson, 2018), Papua New Guinea and Hawaii



(Holland et al., 2004), reported as *Cassiopea* sp.3 by Holland et al. (2004). While there is some genetic variation between Australian populations, including Lake Alexander, NT, and those from overseas (mean pairwise divergence: 6.7%), they are here considered a single species due to the pairwise divergence being lower than the minimum between closely related species recognised by Gamero-Mora et al. (2022) (i.e. ~7.7% between *C. xamachana* and *C. andromeda*).

Additionally, while Keable & Ahyong (2016) identified the population in Lake Illawarra as *C. ndrosia*, based on morphology and previous records using this name, the morphological features of these populations require comparison with those from the type locality of *C. ndrosia*, Suva Harbour, Fiji.

Morphometric analysis detected significant morphological differences between the two species occurring on the east coast of Australia and also *Cassiopea* sp.2 from Papua New Guinea. These consistent differences corroborate their previous treatment as separate species (Chiaverano, Bayha & Graham, 2016; Holland et al., 2004; Lessios, 2008), which is also indicated by the genetic analysis in this study. Three main features significant in the morphometric separation of *C. xamachana* and *Cassiopea* sp.3 are: 1) the number of large appendages on the oral disc, which is much higher in *Cassiopea* sp.3 (at least 1 but up to 14 in medusae > 10 cm), with *C. xamachana* having a maximum of two large appendages; 2) the oral arm branching pattern, which is usually alternating for *C. xamachana*, but a combination of alternating, bifurcating and pinnate for *Cassiopea* sp.3; 3) the length of the large appendage on



the oral arm (average of 2.6 cm, which is 0.2 bell diameter, compared to 1.4 cm for *Cassiopea* sp.3, which is 0.12 bell diameter).

The large appendages in *Cassiopea* are shown here to be useful and reliable character to separate some species, and they are believed to have two main functions. First, they provide additional surface area for zooxanthellae, and second, they contain nematocysts in clusters known as cassisomes, which are used for feeding to capture prey or released in defence (Ames et al., 2020; Larson, 1997; Stampar et al., 2020). Historically, clear and consistent information about large appendages has not been included in descriptions of *Cassiopea*, and as a result there is no standardised terminology, leading to taxonomic confusion (Gamero-Mora et al., 2020). Whereas, the present study recorded variations in size, colour, and shape of large appendages within species, their distribution and the location of the longest large appendage proved particularly useful for comparing Australian populations of *C. xamachana* and *Cassiopea* sp.3.

The characters that we identify as consistent across *C. xamachana* populations along the east coast of Australia are also consistent with the original description of specimens from Jamaica, Caribbean Sea, by Bigelow (1892) and the revision of this species by Gamero-Mora et al., (2020), respectively. These features include generally five lappets per paramere; ribbon shaped large appendages located along the oral arms, and one on the bifurcation of each branch. However, Bigelow (1892) and Gamero-Mora et al., (2020) record 5-13 large appendages on the oral disc, which is far more than we found in Australian specimens. Conversely, Gamero-Mora



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et al., (2020) also record variations between populations of C. xamachana, noting that the Atlantic Mexican population only has one appendage located on the oral disc if present at all, which is consistent with the Australian material observed here. Additionally, characters highlighted in the original description of C. maremetens by Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie (2010) (see Taxonomy section) and comparison with other species by Gamero-Mora et al. (2020) are consistent with the distinguishing features identified in this study, including five lappets per paramere, up to two large appendages on the oral disc, and a leaf shaped large appendage on the bifurcation of the oral arm. While Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie (2010) also recorded the absence of large appendages on some of the paratypes of C. maremetens, those specimens are not from the type locality, but from localities within Moreton Bay and without molecular data, and so were not examined in this study. As a result, molecular comparisons of specimens from these localities need to be made with known C. xamachana and Cassiopea sp.3 populations to confirm the identification of these paratypes. Keable & Ahyong (2016) identified the species occurring in Lake Illawarra as C. ndrosia,

Keable & Ahyong (2016) identified the species occurring in Lake Illawarra as *C. ndrosia*, in comparison with the taxonomic revision by Gamero-Mora et al. (2020) and the specimens in this study assigned to *Cassiopea* sp.3, some of the features are consistent with this identification as *C. ndrosia*. This includes the range in numbers of rhopalia (14-23) and the presence of large appendages on the oral disc which are conversely absent from the oral arms. Despite morphological similarities between *Cassiopea* sp.3 and the description of *C. ndrosia* by Gamero-



432	Mora et al. (2020), a molecular clade has not yet been recognised containing material definitively
433	identified as C. ndrosia. Therefore, both genetic and morphological comparisons need to be
434	made between Cassiopea sp.3 from Australia, Japan, Hawaii, Papua New Guinea, and specimens
435	from the type locality of <i>C. ndrosia</i> , Suva Harbour, Fiji, before a positive match for <i>Cassiopea</i>
436	sp.3 can be made with an available taxonomic name.
437	Although further revisionary study of Cassiopea occurring in Australia is needed,
438	recognition of the presence of <i>C. xamachana</i> in Australia provided by the data presented here is
439	significant given the attention this species has received at other localities as an invasive species.
440	As a potentially new arrival, rather than a native species increasing its range, the expanding
441	distribution records within Australia are of greater importance than previously recognised.
442	Additionally, further study to determine vectors by which this species may be being translocated
443	and other factors driving range expansions would be beneficial.
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445	Taxonomy
446	Order RHIZOSTOMEAE Cuvier, 1817
447	CASSIOPEIDAE Tilesius, 1831
448	Cassiopea Péron & Lesueur, 1810
449	Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892
450	Fig 10–11.



451	Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892. 212–221.—Bigelow, 1893. 301.—Bigelow, 1900. 191,
452	figs A–L, pl. 31–38. —Mayer, 1910: 499–735, pl. 56–76.— Kramp, 1961.—
453	Hummelinck, 1968: 1–57. —Holland et al., 2004: 1119.—Morandini et al., 2017: 321. —
454	Ohdera et al., 2018: 1.— Gamero-Mora et al., 2019: 1.—Jarms & Morandini, 2019: 504.
455	Cassiopea maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010: 91, fig. 6C-F.—Templeman &
456	Kingsford, 2015:1–8. —Epstein et al. 2016: 340–346.—James & Morandini, 2019: 492.
457	—Gamero-Mora, et al., 2020: 113, fig 43—Rowen et al., 2017:143–148.—McKenzie et
458	al., 2020:1–7.—Templeman et al., 2021:1. [New synonymy]
459	Cassiopea cf. maremetens. — Keable & Ahyong, 2016: 26, figs 2E–H, 3C–D, 4D–F.
460	Cassiopea sp. —Rowe et al., 2022a: 2.—Rowe et al., 2022b: 1.
461	Cassiopea medusa. — Durieux et al., 2023: 9 [not C. medusa Light, 1914, erroneous citation of
462	Rowe et al. (2022a) who indicate Cassiopea medusae, i.e. medusae of Cassiopea sp.,
463	subsequently identified here as <i>C. xamachana</i>].
464	?Cassiopea andromeda. — Stephensen, 1962: 94 [doubtfully C. andromeda Forsskål, 1775].
465	
466	Type material of <i>C. maremetens</i> examined. <u>Holotype:</u> QM G.326486, female (17.5 cm
467	diameter), off Lamerough Canal, Lake Magellan, Pelican Waters, Queensland, Australia,
468	26°49'47"S, 153°6'36"E, D. Potter and G. Cranitch, 24 May 2007. Paratypes: QM G.6645, 8
469	specimens (9.8, 10, 10.9, 10.3, 11, 11.5, 11.5, 11.5 cm), Mud Island, Moreton Bay, Queensland,



- 470 Australia, 27°19'47"S, 153°15'0"E, C. Wallace, 4 August 1972. QM G.327932, 2 females (8.8,
- 471 17.2 cm), off Lamerough Canal, Lake Magellan, Pelican Waters, Queensland, Australia,
- 472 26°49'47"S, 153°6'36"E, D. Potter and G. Cranitch, 24 May 2007. QM G.327969, 2 females
- 473 (11.9, 14.5 cm), estuary on NW side of Bentick Island, Queensland, Australia, 17°3'35"S,
- 474 139°29'24"E, P. Davie, 20 November 2002.
- 475 Additional material examined (all from Australia). Pelican Waters, Queensland: AM
- 476 G.20068-20069, 2 females (15.5, 16.1 cm), 26°50'01"S, 153°06'44"E, C.E. Rowe, 10 March
- 477 2021. Gold Coast, Queensland: QM G.339123–339125, 3 specimens (5.9, 7.7, 12.1 cm), 28°3'S,
- 478 153°24'26"E, M. Ekins and I. Jamieson, 8 August 2019. QM G.339126–339130, 5 females (6.7,
- 479 7.2, 8, 10.3, 17.3 cm), 28°10'S, 153°24'37"E, M. Ekins and I. Jamieson, 8 August 2019.
- 480 SeaWorld Culture, Queensland: AM G.18699–18701, 3 specimens (6.1, 6.5, 10.4 cm), most
- probably originating from a small inlet on southern end of South Stradbroke Island, Gold Coast
- Council Region, 25°55'3"S, 153°25'15"E, 22 January 2019. Wallis Lake, New South Wales:
- 483 AM G.18137–18139, 13 specimens (6.4, 7.7, 7.7, 9.2, 10.4, 10.9, 11.2, 11.3, 12.1, 12.7 cm),
- in channel splitting Godwin Island approximately one-third distance from southern shore,
- 485 32°11'45"S, 152°29'55"E, R. Pearce, 15 August 2014. AM G.18143–18156, 12 specimens (2.9,
- 486 3.6, 4.4, 5.2, 5.6, 7.2, 8.4, 8.8, 8.8, 9.4, 9.6, 9.7, 10.7 cm), behind Smugglers Cove Caravan Park,
- 487 Pipers Creek, "The Keys", 32°12'0"S, 152°30'39"E, R. Pearce, 18 September 2014. AM
- 488 G.18181–18183, 4 specimens, inlet on south-east side of Mather Island, 32°11'26"S,



- 489 152°29'36"E, S.J. Keable and A.D. Hegedus, 28 April 2015. AM G.18184, 1 specimen, Pipers
- 490 Creek within Smugglers Cove Caravan Park, 32°11'58"S, 152°30'39"E, S.J. Keable and A.
- 491 Murray, 30 April 2015. AM G.18736–18755, 20 females (8.9, 11, 12, 12.5, 12.8, 13.1, 13.3, 15,
- 492 15.1, 15.1, 16.7, 17.3, 18.7, 19.1, 19.4, 19.4, 20.8, 20.9, 22.3, 24,cm), Pipers Creek within
- 493 Smugglers Cove Caravan Park, 32°11'58"S, 152°30'39"E, S.J. Keable and C.E. Rowe, 10 May
- 494 2019. Lake Macquarie, New South Wales: AM G.18362–18365, 12 specimens (7.1, 10, 12.6,
- 495 13.1, 13.3, 13.4, 16.7, 17, 17.4, 17.5, 19.6, 19.7 cm), Lake Petite, 33°06'59"S, 151°32'04"E, S.J.
- 496 Keable, D.J. Keable, S. Jones, D. Jones, and E.M. Keable, 4 June 2017. AM G.18428, 1
- 497 specimen (13.4 cm), Lake Petite, 33°07'00"S, 151°31'58"E, S.J. Keable and A. Hay, 9 February
- 498 2018. AM G.18528, 1 specimen (6.1 cm), Karignan Creek, 33°10'36"S, 151°34'03"E, C.E.
- 499 Rowe and S.J. Keable, 16 May 2018. AM G.18711–18712, 2 specimens (11.9, 12.4 cm),
- 500 Mannering Bay, 33°09'28"S, 151°31'41"E, C.E. Rowe and S.J. Keable, 7 March 2019. AM
- 501 G.18716–18723, 8 females (10.3, 14.3, 12, 15.5, 16.4, 17, 19.6, 20 cm), Karignan Creek,
- 33°10'32"S, 151°34'00"E, S.J. Keable and C.E. Rowe, 6 May 2019. AM G.18724–18728, 5
- 503 females (11.3, 12, 12.2, 12.9, 14.4 cm), creek north of Kilaben Creek, 33°01'43"S, 151°35'01"E,
- 504 S.J. Keable and C.E. Rowe, 9 May 2019. AM G.18729–18735, 7 females (14.2, 16.1, 17.2, 19.2,
- 505 19.7, 19.8, 20.9 cm), Lake Petite, 33°07'03"S, 151°32'06"E, S.J. Keable and C.E. Rowe, 9 May
- 506 2019.



507 Comparative material examined. Cassiopea sp.3: Northern Territory, Australia: AM G.17363 and G.17374, 3 specimens (6.3, 6.8, 6.8 cm), Lake Alexander, Darwin, 12°24'S, 130°49'E, M. 508 Dawson, 15 November 2003. Queensland, Australia: AM G.20057–20061, 5 females (14.9, 15.4, 509 510 16.2, 16.3, 18.2 cm), Kangaroo Avenue, Coombabah Creek, Gold Coast, 27°05'26"S, 511 153°22'57"E, C.E. Rowe and J. Lawley, 8 March 2021. AM G.20064–20067, 4 specimens (2.3, 512 5.1, 9.9, 10.7 cm), SeaWorld culture originating from Coombabah Creek and South Stradbroke 513 Island, Gold Coast Region, 25°55'3"S, 153°25'15"E, 9 March 2021. AM G.13568, 3 specimens (10.1, 12.2, 13.3 cm), off Hayman Island, Whitsunday Passage, 20°03'S, 148°53'E, JA. McNeill, 514 17 April 1934 (material referred to by Stiasny (1931) and Keable & Ahyong (2016) as C. 515 516 ndrosia). New South Wales, Australia: AM G.18075, 1 specimen (9.2 cm), canal through jetties by the lake at Windang Road, Lake Illawarra, 34°31'36"S, 150°51'52"E, M. Cameron, 8 May 517 2013 (material referred to by Keable & Ahyong (2016) as C. ndrosia). AM G.20077, 11 518 specimens (3, 4.2, 5.4, 6.9, 7.2, 7.3, 8.2, 9.8, 10.5, 10.8, 15.1 cm), canal through jetties by the 519 lake at Windang Road, Lake Illawarra 34°31'36"S, 150°51'52"E, S.J. Keable and C.E. Rowe, 1 520 521 June 2021. AM G.20076, 2 specimens (12.7, 12.8 cm), channel between rocky shore and sand spit, north east of entrance to Cabbage Tree Basin, Port Hacking 34°04'44"S, 151°07'58"E, S.J. 522 Keable and C.E. Rowe, 31 May 2021. 523 524 Cassiopea sp.2: Papua New Guinea: AM G.17370 and G.17385, 6 specimens (4.6, 7.3, 7.7 8.9, 9,10.5 cm), outer slope, west side of Mascot Channel mouth, 2°40'04"S, 150°25'58"E, 525



526 P.L. Colin, 3 July 2003. AM G.17387, 1 specimen (5.2 cm), atoll ~70 nautical miles south-southeast of Manus Island, Sherburne Reef, 3°19'59"S, 148°01'03"E, D. de Mara, 20 June 2002. 527 Queensland, Australia: AM G.18344, 1 specimen (6.3 cm), north east coast, Lizard Island, 528 14°40'01"S, 145°27'37"E, A. Hoggett, 21 February 2016. 529 530 Cassiopea andromeda: South Australia: SAM H3568, H3577-78 and H3581, 4 specimens (6.2, 6.2, 7.9, 9.7 cm), boat ramp, Garden Island Yacht Club, Garden Island, Angas 531 Inlet, 34°48'11"S, 138°31'55"E, M. Bossley and A. Crowther, 4 May 2022. 532 533 **Description.** (Where variation occurs, value for holotype of *C. maremetans* given in brackets). Exumbrella: marginal outline circular; aboral surface mostly flat with small concavity; maximum 534 diameter 24 cm, mean 11.5 cm (holotype: 17 cm); height 0.2–2.7 cm (0.4 cm), mean 0.9 cm. 535 Colour pattern brown, yellow, green (greenish yellow). Markings include small white spots 536 around bell margin, triangle facing towards each ocellus on live specimens (markings lost in 537 preservation). Rhopalia 13–23 (19), mean 15, located in incised notches; ocelli present. 538 Marginal lappets 32–120 (104), mean 83 depending on the condition of the specimen, with 3–7 539 per paramere (4–6), not always distinct, distal edge with rounded low lobes; 1–5 (3) velar 540 541 lappets located between 2 ocular lappets. Ring canals 1 in total, raised. Oral disc 0.2–2 cm height, with a mean of 0.94 cm, 0.5–8.2 cm width, and with a mean 542 543 of 3.88 cm, typically 1.6-5.4 × the bell diameter, with a mean of 0.4 × bell diameter. Subgenital



pit circular or rhomboid, 0.1–0.9 cm width, with 0.65 cm mean, 0.09–0.58 × oral disc height, 544 with 0.3 mean. Large appendages present on specimens > 8 cm; 1 or 2 in centre of oral disc (1), 545 fusiform, 0.7-3.4 cm in length (2.5 cm), averaging 1.3 cm, $0.17-0.67 \times \text{oral disc width}$, but 546 typically $0.25 \times$ oral disc width, width of large appendage ranges from 0.06 to $0.4 \times$ length of 547 548 large appendage (0.4), typically 0.27 length of large appendage. Oral arms: 7–10 (8), usually 8 (except AM G.18733, G.18728, QM G.327932, G.6645, 549 G.32769). 0.9–14.5 cm in length (\sim 12.3) with mean of 6.38 cm, 0.75 to 1.54 × bell radius (1.5 × 550 551 bell radius) with mean 1.2 × bell radius, extending radially beyond bell margin, cylindrical in shape. Lateral branches 3–7 per oral arm (4 or 5), cylindrical; alternating branching pattern; 552 secondary lateral branches with alternating branching pattern of equal strength. Trunk of oral 553 554 arm ending in unequal bifurcation. Small appendages numerous, flat, fusiform, transparent, distributed evenly along oral surface of oral arm and lateral branches. *Large appendages* present; 555 largest located at bifurcation of oral arm, 0.2-5 cm in length (1.7 cm) with mean of 2.50 cm, 556 $0.07-0.63 \times \text{oral arm length with mean } 0.3 \times \text{oral arm length, and width } 0.05-0.36 \times \text{length, but}$ 557 typically 0.22 length. Number of large appendages on oral arm varying with size, with 2 large 558 appendages near distal bifurcation in smaller specimens (e.g., AM G.18754 (11 cm), G.18744 559 (12.8 cm), G.18723 (12 cm)) and up to 17 evenly distributed along the oral arm in larger 560 561 specimens (e.g., AM G.18365 (17 cm) and G.18362 (19.7 cm), holotype QM G.326486 with 2, 1



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located at distal bifurcation and other half way along oral arm, but this may be an artefact of damage, see Remarks), always present at distal bifurcation, fusiform.

Gonads: Always visible, cruciform, as mature gonads indicating sex, but definition varying with size and condition of preserved specimen; developed in specimens $> \sim 10$ cm in diameter.

Remarks

The diagnostic characters of Australian specimens, including the type material of C. maremeters and additional material from the type locality, are indistinguishable from those of C. xamachana from the western Atlantic (Bigelow, 1892). These include the number of lappets per paramere (4–6) and their indistinct, rounded shape; the alternating lateral branches along the oral arm, which end with an unequal bifurcation; and the longest large appendage located at the bifurcation in the oral arm, with the number of large appendages on the oral arm increasing with size (1-17), with maximum 2 located at the centre of the oral disc. These features are consistent across all specimens examined from Wallis Lake, Lake Macquarie and Pelican Waters, which are also genetically invariant in COI. Additionally, the morphometric analysis supports these as consistent features distinguishing C. xamachana from Cassiopea sp.3. As such, C. maremetans and C. xamachana are indistinguishable and we recognise the former as a junior synonym of the latter.

Variation in Australian *C. xamachana*:



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No significant morphological differences were detected between *C. xamachana* occurring along the east coast of Australia. However, small variations were evident, such as the number of lappets per paramere (within and between specimens), the number of oral arms and lateral branches, and, in the larger specimens, whether one or two large appendages are present in the centre of the oral disc.

Our examination found some morphological differences between specimens studied and the original description of C. maremetens by Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie (2010). For example, the original diagnosis and the holotype description indicate absence of ocelli, but these were found to be present in the holotype, additional material examined in this study and specimens examined by Keable & Ahyong (2016) from Wallis Lake. Additionally, the original diagnosis recorded one large appendage at the base of the oral arm pairs, and one at the distal bifurcation of each arm. Although the location of the large appendage in the holotype is consistent with our observations, other specimens we examined had a much higher number of large appendages on the oral arms, with up to 17 recorded on larger specimens. However, we note that the holotype is in relatively fragile condition, so some large appendages may have been damaged or lost. Additionally, the original description is based on specimens from multiple locations in the Moreton Bay region, including the paratypes QM G.327969 from Bentick Island, and QM G.6445 from Mud Island. These specimens are also in poor condition so many characters cannot be accurately assessed, but we were still able to observe numerous large appendages around the



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oral disc. This is a feature of *Cassiopea* sp.3, which also occurs in the Moreton Bay region.

Therefore, the paratype series of *C. maremetens* may also include misidentified specimens of *Cassiopea* sp.3. As a result, these localities should be resampled so morphology and genetic information can be used to confirm the identification of these specimens.

Comparison of Australian and overseas *C. xamachana*:

Cassiopea xamachana was first described from Kingston Harbour, Jamaica (Bigelow, 1892), and has since been reported widely around the world, most commonly in the Western Atlantic from Florida (Verde & McCloskey, 1998) south to Brazil (Gamero-Mora et al., 2019), as well as several Indo-West Pacific localities including Hawaii (Holland et al., 2004) and Palau (Arai et al., 2017; Jarms et al., 2019). The species was re-described by Gamero-Mora et al. (2020), who set forth plans to designate a neotype from Fort Jefferson, Dry Tortugas, Florida Keys, Florida, USA, as the original type material is lost. Both the original description and redescription note that the characteristic features of this species include: 5 lappets per paramere, which are obtuse and separated by grooves in the bell margin; there are usually 16 rhopalia; 4 pairs of oral arms that contain 10–15 lateral branches that are alternating and contain additional secondary branches; and large appendages located in the axil of each oral arm, whose length can be up to one-fourth the bell diameter. Additionally, they record that the centre of the oral disc contains 5–13 of the large appendages, but in the prospective neotype, they are also scattered along the oral arms. The number and location of the large appendages on the oral arms of the



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prospective neotype, and the number of lappets and rhopalia are consistent with distinguishing features identified in *C. maremetens*. These similarities, combined with our wider genetic and morphometric analysis of Australian material corroborate the conclusion that *C. maremetens* is conspecific with *C. xamachana*.

It has been reported that there are morphological variations, even in clonal populations of Cassiopea (Hummelinck, 1968; Mayer, 1910; Morandini et al., 2017; Stampar et al., 2020). Therefore, some morphological variation among other populations of *C. xamachana* can be expected, especially given the wide distribution of the species. This includes the absence of grooves occurring between the lappets, which in the Australian specimens are rounded and connected. Additionally, the original description of *C. xamachana* indicates that the specimens have 5–13 large appendages on the oral disc, but the Australian specimens have a maximum of two. However, Gamero-Mora et al. (2020) concluded that there are morphological differences in the Mexican population of C. xamachana, noting specimens had 6–10 oral arms, that were up to 1.6 × the bell radius, and the number of large appendages range from zero to 25 and are either on the distal part or scattered over the oral arms, with at least one located on the oral disc, which resembles the condition of specimens from Wallis Lake, Lake Macquarie and Pelican Waters, Australia.

Comparison of C. xamachana to other species of Cassiopea in Australia:



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The identification of *C. ndrosia* reported by Stiasny (1931) and Keable & Ahyong (2016) needs to be examined more closely to confirm their identification with sequences matched to morphology (see Discussion). Therefore, in this study, specimens have been designated Cassiopea sp.3 according to previous placement of molecular sequences (Holland et al. 2004). Key distinguishing features that separate C. xamachana from Cassiopea sp.3 include fewer large appendages on the oral disc (1 or 2 compared to ~6), the location of the large appendages (oral arms compared to oral disc), length of the large appendage on the oral arm (usually 0.2 the bell diameter compared to 1.2), oral arm length (usually 0.57 the bell diameter compared to 0.67), lappets per paramere (usually 5 compared to 4), and the location of the large appendages on the oral arm (evenly distributed and always at the bifurcation, compared to sometimes at the bifurcation, but often absent). Further comparisons need to be made with the South Australian population in the vicinity of Angas Inlet. Although Southcott (1982) reported Angas Inlet specimens as C. ndrosia, our results identified C. andromeda, which is closely related to C. xamachana and morphologically similar, including sharing these features: a large appendage on the fork of the oral arms; 1–2 central large appendages on the oral disc; and an alternating oral arm branching pattern. However, the specimens are juvenile (<10 cm), so many of the other key characters useful to distinguish species of Cassiopea were not fully developed. Given Southcott's (1982)



identification of material from Angas Inlet as *C. ndrosia*, the potential presence of another species, formerly or currently in the area, needs to be considered.

Conclusion

We are able to confirm that the species of *Cassiopea* occurring in Lake Macquarie,

Wallis Lake and Pelican Waters (type locality of *C. maremetens*) is genetically and

morphologically referable to *C. xamachana*. We provide a detailed description of Australian *C. xamachana*, including a comparison with the type and topotypic material of *C. maremetens*,

synonymised herein. Additionally, we provide evidence that a second species, *C.* sp.3, is

expanding its range south along the east coast of Australia and identify the morphological

features that distinguish it from *C. xamachana*. As the two species continue to expand their range southwards in eastern Australia, which is expected under climate change scenarios (Rowe et al.,

2022a), these diagnostic features will facilitate their identification, especially in monitoring and management of their invasion front.

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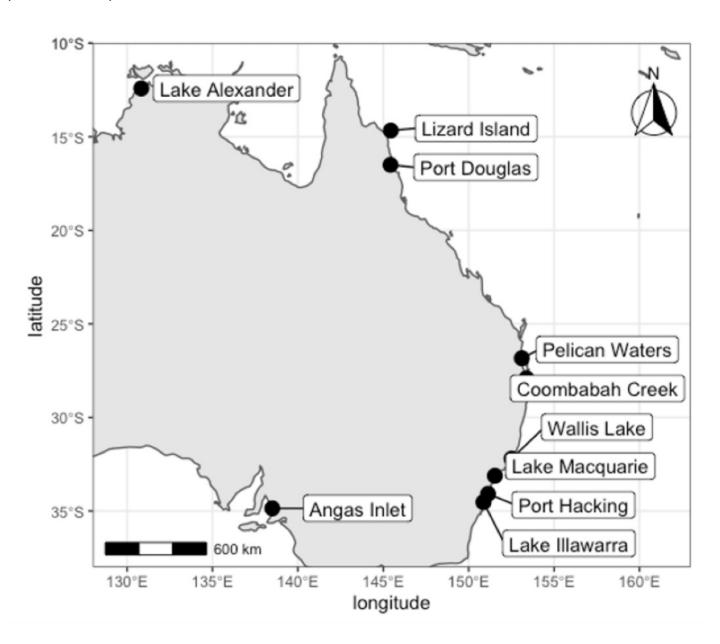


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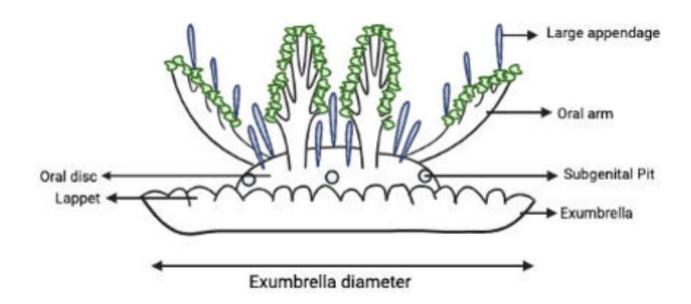
Localities for Cassiopea compared in this study.

Specimens sourced from the field and from museum collections. Map created in R (v2021.09.01).



Schematic diagram of *Cassiopea* indicating key morphological features examined.

Created with BioRender.com.

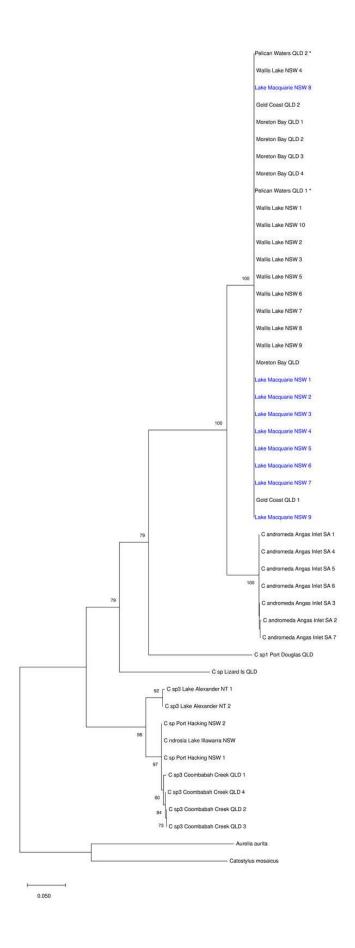




Maximum likelihood tree of Australian Cassiopea based on COI gene .

Bootstrap values (1000 pseudoreplicates) displayed at each node and scale bar indicates length of each branch. Blue indicates sequences from Lake Macquarie specimens. * material from the type locality of *Cassiopea maremetans* Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010.



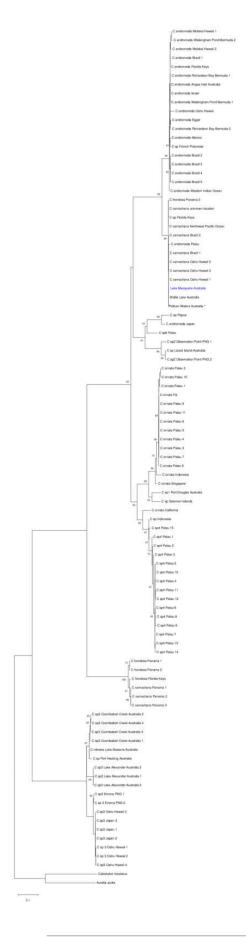




Global phylogeny of Cassiopea based on COI gene.

Bootstrap values (maximum likelihood, 1000 reiterations) displayed at each node and scale bar indicated branch length. Blue indicates Lake Macquarie specimen sequences. *material from the type locality of *Cassiopea maremetans* Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010.

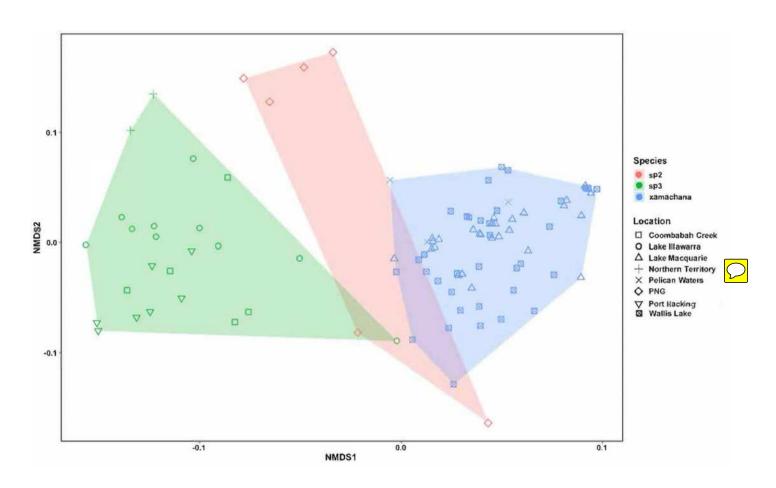






NMDS plot indicating the clustering between the morphological characters across specimens.

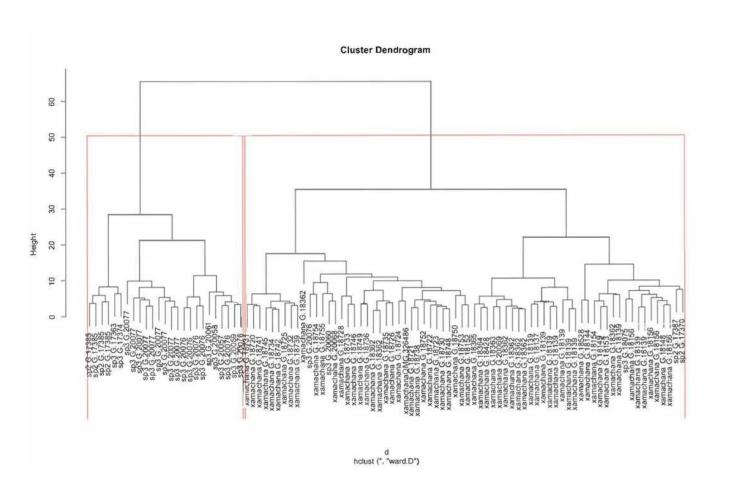
Material examined includes putative *Cassiopea* sp.3 from Coombabah Creek, Lake Illawarra, Port Hacking and Lake Alexander, *Cassiopea* sp.2 from PNG and *Cassiopea xamachana* Bigelow, 1892 from Lake Macquarie, Wallis Lake and Pelican Waters. Stress level of NMDS is 0.176.





Cluster dendogram of all specimens of Cassiopea examined.

Red lines indicate morphologically homogeneous clusters detected by Ward Hierarchical Clustering and the k-means of the specimens. Labels indicate species and their registration number. All specimens from the AM, except for the Holotype (QM G.326486).

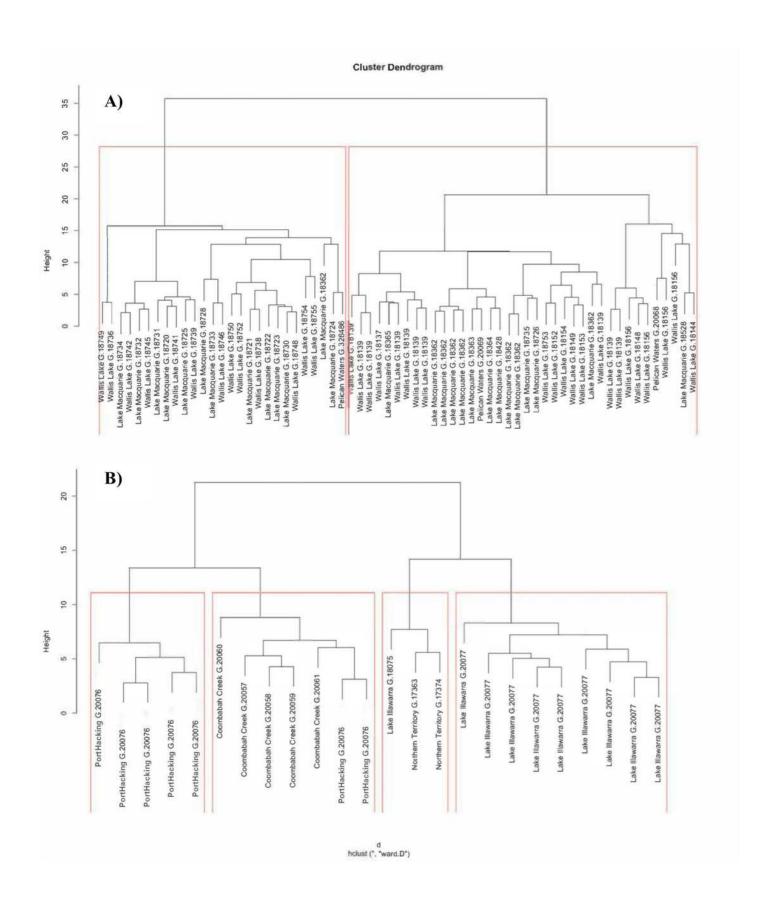




Cluster dendograms of the putative populations of Cassiopea.

A) ClusterCassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892. B) Cassiopea sp.3. Red lines indicate morphologically homogeneous clusters detected by Ward Hierarchical Clustering and the kmeans of the specimens. Labels indicate the population and their AM registration number.

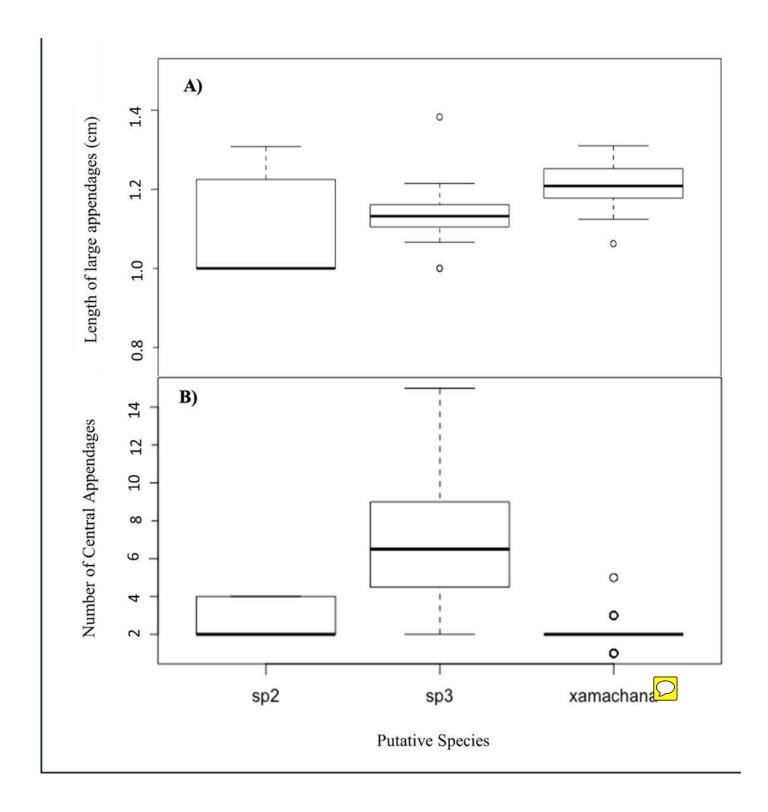




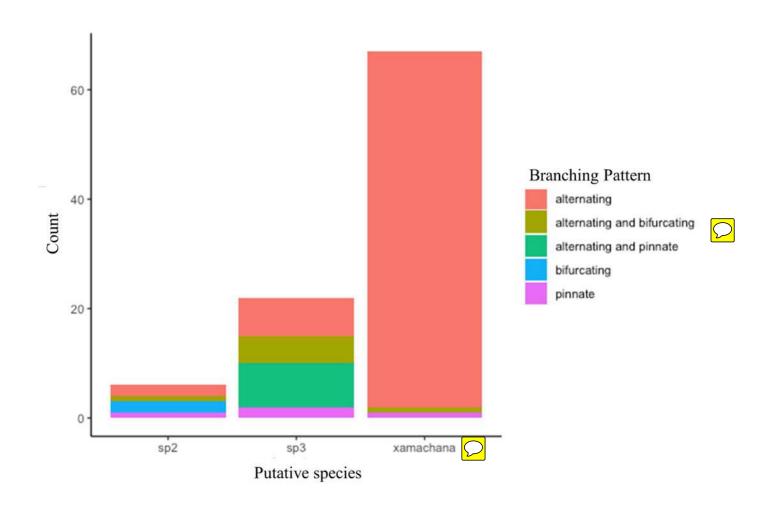


Number and relative length of large appendages on sampled specimens of Cassiopea.

A) Number of large appendages on oral disc between. B) Length (cm) of large appendages on oral arm divided by bell diameter (cm).



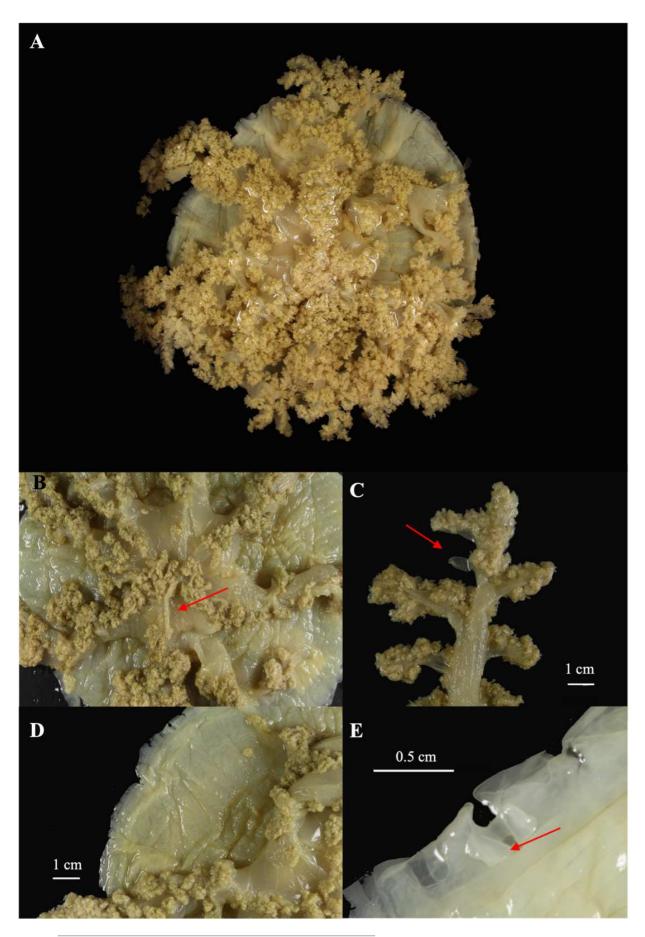
Branching pattern of lateral branches along oral arm among sampled specimens of *Cassiopea*.





Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892 (holotype of Cassiopea maremetens Gershwin, Zeidler & Davie, 2010), QM-G326486, 17.5 cm diameter).

A) aboral view of preserved medusa. B) aboral view of oral disc, red arrow points to large oral appendage located in the centre of the disc. C) oral view of branching pattern on oral arm, red arrow point to large oral appendage. D) aboral view of the detail of the number and shape of lappets in a paramere. E) arrow pointing to rhopalium, aboral view.

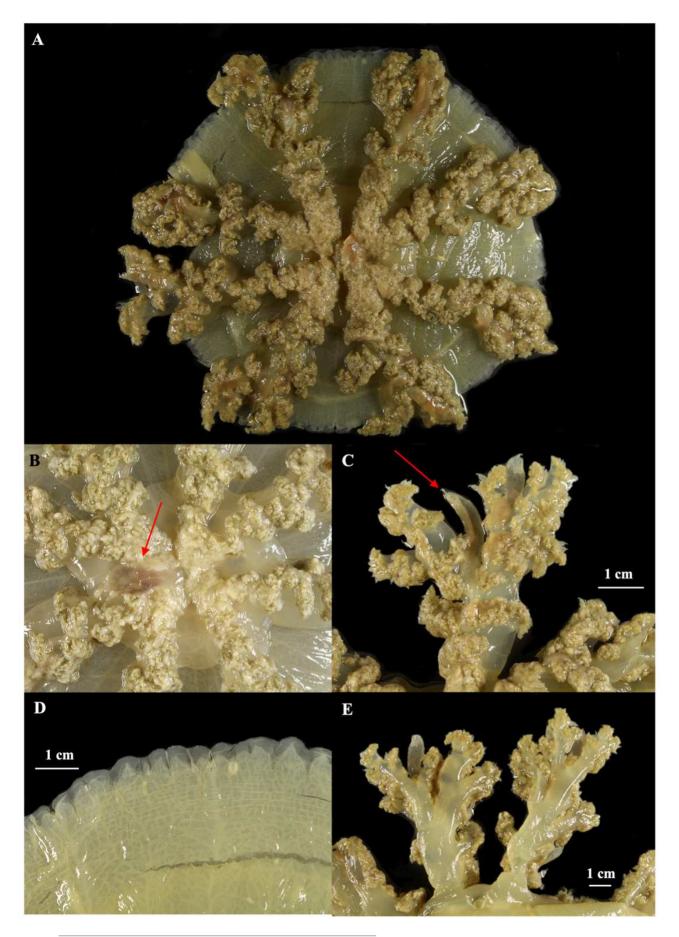


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Cassiopea xamachana Bigelow, 1892, Lake Macquarie, New South Wales, AM-G18732, 19.7 cm diameter, female.

A) aboral view of preserved medusa. B) red arrow points to large oral appendage located in the centre of the oral disc, aboral view. C) branching pattern on oral arm, red arrow points to large oral appendage, oral view. D) number and shape of marginal lappets. E) branching pattern of the oral arm and subgenital pit, oral view.



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Table 1(on next page)

SIMPER results showing top three cumulative contributions of morphological characters that distinguish specimens.

Average is the contribution to dissimilarity, Standard deviation of dissimilarity, and Cumulative Sum ordered cumulative contribution.



Figure	Cumulative	Standard	Average	Morphological Feature	Comparison of
	Sum	Deviation			putative species
8A	0.06399	0.0054158	0.0070329	Number of large appendages on	C. xamachana –
				oral disc	C. sp.3
9	0.12380	0.0053396	0.0065736	Oral arm branching pattern	
8B	0.17726	0.0036507	0.0058753	Length of large appendages on	
				oral arm	
	0.08762	0.012637	0.0109182	Ring canal presence	C. xamachana –
	0.16601	0.006158	0.0097679	Distribution of large appendages	C. sp.2
				on oral arm	
9	0.23918	0.006856	0.0091168	Oral arm branching pattern	
	0.09511	0.012803	0.011149	Ring canal presence	C. sp.3 – C. sp.2
	0.16960	0.005651	0.008733	Distribution of large appendages	
				on oral arm	
9	0.23534	0.005118	0.007707	Oral arm branching pattern	
	0.23918 0.09511 0.16960	0.006856 0.012803 0.005651	0.0091168 0.011149 0.008733	on oral arm Oral arm branching pattern Ring canal presence Distribution of large appendages on oral arm	