Multigene phylogeny of the scyphozoan jellyfish family Pelagiidae reveals that the common U.S. Atlantic sea nettle comprises two distinct species (*Chrysaora quinquecirrha* and *C. chesapeakei*) (#17919)

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Multigene phylogeny of the scyphozoan jellyfish family Pelagiidae reveals that the common U.S. Atlantic sea nettle comprises two distinct species (*Chrysaora quinquecirrha* and *C. chesapeakei*)

Keith Martin Bayha $^{\text{Corresp.}\ 1,\,2}$, Allen G. Collins 3 , Patrick M. Gaffney 4

Background. Species of the scyphozoan family Pelagiidae (e.g. *Pelagia noctiluca*,

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Chrysaora quinquecirrha) are well-known for impacting fisheries, aquaculture and tourism, especially for the painful sting they can inflict on swimmers. However, historical taxonomic uncertainty at the genus (e.g. new genus Mawia) and species levels hinder studies of their biology and evolutionary adaptations that make them nuisance species, as well as the ability to understand and/or mitigate their ecological and economic impacts. **Methods**. We collected nuclear (28S rDNA) and mitochondrial (cytochrome c oxidase I [COI] and 16S rDNA) sequence data from individuals representing all four pelagiid genera, including eleven of thirteen currently recognized species of *Chrysaora*. To finely examine species boundaries in the U.S. Atlantic sea nettle Chrysaora quinquecirrha, specimens were included from its entire range along the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts, with representatives also examined morphologically (macromorphology and cnidome). **Results**. Phylogenetic analyses show that the genus *Chrysaora* is paraphyletic with respect to other pelagiid genera. In combined analyses, Mawia, sampled from the coast of Senegal, is most closely related to Sanderia malayensis, and Pelagia forms a close relationship to a clade of Pacific Chrysaora species (C. achlyos, C. colorata, C. fuscescens and C. melanaster). C. guinguecirrha is polyphyletic, with one clade occurring in the U.S. coastal Atlantic and another in U.S. Atlantic estuaries and Gulf of Mexico. These genetic differences are reflected in morphology, e.g., tentacle and lappet number, oral arm length and nematocyst dimensions. Caribbean sea nettles (Jamaica and Panama) are genetically similar to the U.S. Atlantic estuaries and Gulf of Mexico clade of C. quinquecirrha. **Discussion**. Our phylogenetic hypothesis for Pelagiidae contradicts current generic

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definitions, revealing major disagreements between DNA-based and morphology-based phylogenies. A paraphyletic *Chrysaora* raises systematic questions at the genus level for Pelagiidae; accepting the validity of the recently erected genus *Mawia*, as well as past genera, will require the creation of additional pelagiid genera. Historical review of the species-delineating genetic and morphological differences indicate that *Chrysaora* quinquecirrha Desor 1848 should be used for the U.S. Coastal Atlantic *Chrysaora* species, while the name *C. chesapeakei* Papenfuss 1936 should apply to the U.S. Atlantic estuarine and Gulf of Mexico *Chrysaora* species. We provide a detailed redescription, with designation of a neotype for *C. chesapeakei*, and clarify the description of *C. quinquecirrha*. Since Caribbean sea nettles are genetically similar to *C. chesapeakei*, we provisionally term them *Chrysaora* c.f. *chesapeakei*. The presence of *M. benovici* off the coast of western Africa provides a potential source region for jellyfish that were introduced into the Adriatic Sea in 2013.





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17	Short Title: U.S. Atlantic sea nettle is two species
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ABSTRACT

20	Background . Species of the scyphozoan family Pelagiidae (e.g. <i>Pelagia noctiluca</i> , <i>Chrysaora</i>
21	quinquecirrha) are well-known for impacting fisheries, aquaculture and tourism, especially for
22	the painful sting they can inflict on swimmers. However, historical taxonomic uncertainty at the
23	genus (e.g. new genus Mawia) and species levels hinder progress in understanding their biology,
24	and evolutionary adaptations that make them nuisance species, as well as our ability to
25	understand and/or mitigate their ecological and economic impacts.
26	Methods . We collected nuclear (28S rDNA) and mitochondrial (cytochrome c oxidase I [COI]
27	and 16S rDNA) sequence data from individuals representing all four pelagiid genera, including
28	eleven of thirteen currently recognized species of Chrysaora. To finely examine species
29	boundaries in the U.S. Atlantic sea nettle Chrysaora quinquecirrha, specimens were included
30	from its entire range along the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts, with representatives also
31	examined morphologically (macromorphology and cnidome).
32	Results . Phylogenetic analyses show that the genus <i>Chrysaora</i> is paraphyletic with respect to
33	other pelagiid genera. In combined analyses, Mawia, sampled from the coast of Senegal, is most
34	closely related to Sanderia malayensis, and Pelagia forms a close relationship to a clade of
35	Pacific Chrysaora species (C. achlyos, C. colorata, C. fuscescens and C. melanaster). C.
36	quinquecirrha is polyphyletic, with one clade occurring in the U.S. coastal Atlantic and another
37	in U.S. Atlantic estuaries and Gulf of Mexico. These genetic differences are reflected in
38	morphology, e.g., tentacle and lappet number, oral arm length and nematocyst dimensions.
39	Caribbean sea nettles (Jamaica and Panama) are genetically similar to the U.S. Atlantic estuaries
40	and Gulf of Mexico clade of C. quinquecirrha.



41	Discussion . Our phylogenetic hypothesis for Pelagiidae contradicts current generic definitions,
42	revealing major disagreements between DNA-based and morphology-based phylogenies. A
43	paraphyletic Chrysaora raises systematic questions at the genus level for Pelagiidae; accepting
44	the validity of the recently erected genus Mawia, as well as past genera, will require the creation
45	of additional pelagiid genera. Historical review of the species-delineating genetic and
46	morphological differences indicate that Chrysaora quinquecirrha Desor 1848 should be used for
47	the U.S. Coastal Atlantic <i>Chrysaora</i> species (U.S. Atlantic sea nettle), while the name <i>C</i> .
48	chesapeakei Papenfuss 1936 should apply to the U.S. Atlantic estuarine and Gulf of Mexico
49	Chrysaora species (U.S. Atlantic bay nettle). We provide a detailed redescription, with
50	designation of a neotype for <i>C. chesapeakei</i> , and clarify the description of <i>C. quinquecirrha</i> .
51	Since Caribbean <i>Chrysaora</i> are genetically similar to <i>C. chesapeakei</i> , we provisionally term
52	them Chrysaora c.f. chesapeakei. The presence of M. benovici off the coast of western Africa
53	provides a potential source region for jellyfish that were introduced into the Adriatic Sea in 2013



INTRODUCTION

Scyphozoan jellyfishes (Cnidaria, Class Scyphozoa), which include the conspicuous
moon, lion's mane and sea nettle jellyfishes, exhibit significant and widespread economic and
ecological impacts on a wide array of marine and estuarine communities. Jellyfish aggregations,
blooms and swarms damage economically important fisheries, close tourist beaches by stinging
swimmers, clog intakes of coastal power and desalination plants, invade ecosystems and can
affect oxygen levels when mass numbers of carcasses are deposited (Arai 1997; Purcell, Uye &
Lo 2007; Richardson et al. 2009; Bayha & Graham 2014; Qu et al. 2015). On the other hand,
jellyfish serve important roles as major prey items for some fish and sea turtles, in carbon
capture and advection to the Deep Ocean, as important microhabitat for fish, invertebrates and
symbiotic algae, and as economic resources for humans (as food and therapeutic compounds)
(Omori & Nakano 2001; Castro, Santiago & Santana-Ortega 2002; Arai 2005; Houghton et al.
2006; Lynam & Brierley 2007; Ohta et al. 2009; Lebrato et al. 2012; Briz et al. 2016). Recent
attention given to large medusae blooms has led to speculation that anthropogenic events are
driving global increases in jellyfish bloom magnitudes, though long term data sets are still
equivocal on this point (Richardson et al. 2009; Brotz & Pauly 2012; Condon et al. 2013).
Despite their importance, evolutionary and taxonomic relationships of even some of the
most recognizable scyphozoan species remain unsettled, which can impede our abilities to
effectively study, predict and mitigate the ecological and economic effects of these nuisance
species. Recent systematics studies have directly challenged taxonomic relationships at all levels
A mitogenomic analysis recently challenged the placement of the order Coronatae, such as
Periphylla, within Scyphozoa (Kayal et al. 2013) and the new family Drymonematidae was
created based on morphological, molecular and life history data (Bayha & Dawson 2010; Bayha



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et al. 2010). Studies employing molecular and/or morphological data have revealed novel species in multiple scyphozoan genera, including the moon jellyfish Aurelia (Dawson & Jacobs 2001; Schroth et al. 2002; Dawson 2003), the genus *Drymonema* (Bayha & Dawson 2010), the upside down jellyfish Cassiopea (Holland et al. 2004), and the lion's mane jellyfish Cyanea (Dawson 2005a; Kolbasova et al. 2015). Many of these studies have uncovered unrecognized jellyfish invasions and clarified evolutionary relationships in the group (from order to species level) vital to understanding their ecological and economic impacts, and elucidating the evolution of traits that permit these impacts. The scyphozoan family Pelagiidae (Gegenbauer, 1856), currently made up of four genera (*Pelagia, Chrysaora, Sanderia* and *Mawia*), contains some of the world's most notorious blooming jellyfish. The geographically widespread mauve stinger (*Pelagia noctiluca*) forms dense aggregations that heavily impact aquaculture, fisheries and tourism along the North Sea and Mediterranean Sea (Canepa et al. 2014). Recently, an introduced species found for the first time in the Mediterranean was described and assigned first to the genus *Pelagia* (Piraino et al. 2014), but later to the novel genus *Mawia*, based on molecular and morphological data (Avian et al. 2016). Blooms of the jellyfish *Chrysaora fulgida* (previously identified as *C. hysoscella*) have increased over past decades in the Northern Benguela current on the west coast of Africa, coinciding with decreased fish catches and general breakdown of beneficial trophic interactions as compared to nearby ecosystems not jellyfish-dominated (Lynam et al. 2006; Flynn et al. 2012; Roux et al. 2013). Likewise, blooms of very large *Chrysaora plocamia* medusae form off the coast of Peru, interfering with fisheries, aquaculture and power plants by clogging nets, seines and water intakes (Mianzan et al. 2014).



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A species of special note is the U.S. Atlantic sea nettle *Chrysaora quinquecirrha* (Desor 1848), one of the most recognizable, well-studied and ecologically important jellyfish along the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts (Mayer 1910; Hedgpeth 1954; Larson 1976). Because its predation pressure shows ecosystem-wide, controlling influence on zooplankton dynamics (Feigenbaum & Kelly 1984; Purcell 1992; Purcell & Decker 2005), C. quinquecirrha has been termed a keystone predator for the Chesapeake Bay ecosystem (Purcell & Decker 2005). The jellyfish negatively impacts economically important fisheries by feeding on eggs and larvae (Duffy, Epifanio & Fuiman 1997; Purcell 1997) and blooms impact tourism by stinging swimmers (Cargo & Schultz 1966; Schultz & Cargo 1969; Cargo & King 1990). As a result, a program was developed to predict both real-time occurrences of sea nettle blooms (Decker et al. 2007) and year-to-year bloom magnitudes using past data on environmental conditions (salinity, temperature, etc.) that favor jellyfish populations (Purcell et al. 1999; Purcell & Decker 2005). Generic definitions within what is currently accepted as Family Pelagiidae (Gegenbauer) 1856) have been historically vague and genera have traditionally been differentiated, to a great extent, on a single morphological character (tentacle number). The generic names *Pelagia* and Chrysaora were originated by Peron & Lesueur (1809), though both included species not recognized today as pelagiids. Gegenbauer (1856) was the first to create a higher taxon, the family Pelagiidae, including all pelagiids known at the time, but which also included some jellyfish currently classified as coronates. Noting differences based on tentacle number between Chrysaora and Pelagia, Agassiz (1862) erected a new genus, Dactylometra, within the family. Among other characters, Agassiz (1862) classified genera based on tentacle and lappet numbers: Pelagia (8 tentacles, 16 marginal lappets), Chrysaora (24 tentacles, 32 marginal lappets) and Dactylometra (40 tentacles, 48 marginal lappets). Kishinouye (1902) subsequently described the





122 genus Kuragea (56 tentacles, 64 marginal lappets) and Goette (1886) described Sanderia (16 123 tentacles, 32 lappets and 16 rhopalia). To the genus *Dactylometra*, Agassiz (1862) added 124 Pelagia quinquecirrha (Desor 1848) from Nantucket Bay (MA) and Chrysaora lactea 125 (Eschscholtz 1829) from Rio de Janiero, Based on established generic definitions, Piraino et al. 126 (2014) placed an undescribed, invasive Mediterranean pelagiid, *Pelagia benovici*, in the genus 127 Pelagia. However, Avian et al. (2016) created the novel genus Mawia for this new species 128 (Mawia benovici) based on fine-scale morphological characters (tentacle, gonad and basal pillar 129 morphology) and molecular differences from other pelagiid genera included in a lightly sampled 130 phylogenetic analysis of Pelagiidae. 131 Not long after Agassiz erected *Dactylometra*, *Dactylometra quinquecirrha* served to cast 132 doubt on pelagiid generic discrimination. Bigelow (1880) recognized that some brackish water 133 (e.g. Chesapeake Bay) D. quinquecirrha matured at 24 tentacles (a character of Chrysaora) 134 rather than 40 (a character of *Dactylometra*), something Mayer (1910), saw as the "*Chrysaora*" 135 stage in their development to the "Dactylometra" stage. Stiasny (1930) also cast doubt on the 136 ability to effectively differentiate *Chrysaora* and *Dactylometra*. As a result, Kramp (1955) 137 reasoned Dactylometra and Kuragea to be merely developmental stages and subsumed both 138 within the genus *Chrysaora* (Eschscholtz 1829), since it has taxonomic priority. Calder (1972) 139 determined that C. quinquecirrha went through stages of one to more than seven tentacles per 140 octant, often in the same geographic region, supporting the contentions of Mayer (1910) and 141 Kramp (1955). A morphology-based phylogeny of the Pelagiidae (Gershwin & Collins 2002) 142 indicated two groups coinciding with the previous genera Dactylometra and Chrysaora, but 143 noted that the weak phylogenetic support would make resurrecting the genus Dactylometra 144 premature. Another morphology-based phylogeny (Morandini & Marques 2010) found support



for a *Dactylometra* clade based on tentacle and lappet number, but noted that this would require many *Chrysaora* species to have their own genera. A robust phylogenetic hypothesis of relationships within Pelagiidae based on comprehensive taxon sampling is an important step toward removing taxonomic confusion at the genus and species-levels, including assessing the taxonomic status of the new genus *Mawia* (Avian et al. 2016) and clarifying taxonomic questions related to *C. quinquecirrha*.

In order to examine evolutionary relationships and taxonomic boundaries in the family Pelagiidae, with special focus on the genus *Chrysaora* and the species *C. quinquecirrha*, we collected nuclear (large subunit ribosomal rDNA) and mitochondrial (cytochrome c oxidase I and large subunit ribosomal rDNA) sequence data from individuals representing all four extant genera (*Chrysaora*, *Mawia*, *Pelagia* and *Sanderia*), including eleven currently recognized species of *Chrysaora* and one species each of *Mawia* (*M. benovici*), *Pelagia* (*Pelagia noctiluca*) and *Sanderia* (*S. malayensis*). To further examine the taxonomy of the U.S. Atlantic sea nettle *Chrysaora quinquecirrha*, specimens were included from its entire range along the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts (estuarine and coastal), taking care to sample all recognized morphotypes, with representatives also examined morphologically (macromorphology and cnidome).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample Collection

Specimens were collected in the field or at public aquaria husbandry facilities, either by the authors or others with extensive knowledge of Scyphozoa, in an effort to collect as many species of *Chrysaora* as possible, as well as representative species of *Pelagia* and *Sanderia*





(Table 1; Figure 1). (An unknown and unidentified pelagiid specimen was collected from Dakar) Senegal and was accompanied by a photograph that did not allow for specific identification. For *Chrysaora quinquecirrha*, samples were collected from 10 different sites along the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts (Table 1; Figure 2), covering both coastal and estuarine environments, with the intention of capturing as many structural and color morphotypes as possible (Figure 3). Both white (Table 1: NF1-NF3) and red-striped (Table 1: NF4-NF5) color morphs (Figure 3C, D) were collected from Norfolk, VA (NF). In all cases, a small piece of gonad, tentacle or oral arm tissue was excised and preserved in 80—99% ethanol or DMSO-NaCl solution (Dawson, Raskoff & Jacobs 1998). Where possible for some sites (Table S1), individuals were also preserved in 4% buffered formalin and seawater for later morphological analyses. Additional published pelagiid sequences were included in the final data set (Table 2).

DNA extraction, PCR amplification and DNA sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from preserved tissue samples by CTAB (cetyltrimethylammonium bromide) methods (Ausubel et al. 1989) and stored at -20°C. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications targeted three genetic regions: mitochondrial large subunit ribosomal DNA (*16S*) and cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (*COI*) and nuclear large subunit ribosomal DNA (*28S*) using primers shown in Table S2. We chose genetic regions that have been useful in examining species boundaries and/or examining genus and family level relationships in the Scyphozoa (Dawson & Jacobs 2001; Schroth et al. 2002; Holland et al. 2004; Dawson 2005a; Dawson, Gupta & England 2005; Bayha & Dawson 2010). Reaction conditions for *16S* consisted of one cycle of 94°C for 180 seconds (s), then 38 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 50°C for 60 s and 72°C for 75 s, followed by a final step of 72°C for 600 s and storage at 4°C.



Reaction conditions for *COI* consisted of one cycle of 94°C for 180 s, followed by two cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 46°C for 60 s and 72°C for 75 s, two cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 47°C for 60 s and 72°C for 75 s and 35 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 48°C for 60 s and 72°C for 75 s, followed by a final step of 72°C for 600 s and storage at 4°C. Lastly, reactions conditions for *28S* consisted of 94°C for 180 s, then 38 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 48°C for 60 s and 72°C for 90 s, followed by 72°C for 600s then storage at 4°C. Successful amplification was evaluated by running the PCR products on a 2% agarose gel. PCR amplicons were directly sequenced using a combination of sequencing primers (Table S2). DNA sequencing was performed by University of Washington High Throughput Genomics Unit (Seattle, WA) or Beckman-Coulter Genomics (Danvers, MA). Sequences were assembled using Lasergene SeqMan Pro v. 8.1.5 (DNAStar, Inc.) and then compared to the GENBANK nucleotide database using BLASTn or BLASTx (Altschul et al. 1997) to confirm identity of sequenced region and ensure no sequencing errors that affected amino acid reading frames (*COI*). All DNA sequences were submitted to NCBI Genbank (MF141552-MF141718; MF167556-MF167568).

Phylogenetic Reconstruction





For all analyses, *Cyanea capillata* was used as the outgroup because it was shown to be among those scyphozoans least diverged from Pelagiidae (Bayha et al. 2010). *COI* sequences were aligned using CLUSTALX v2.1 (Larkin et al. 2007) under default parameters, and checked by eye using their amino acid translations as a guide. *16S* and *28S* sequences were aligned using MAAFT v7.245 employing the E-INS-I strategy (Katoh & Standley 2013), since this strategy has been demonstrated to be effective for loci containing conserved motifs embedded within hypervariable regions (Katoh & Toh 2008). Hypervariable regions of questionable alignment





215 default parameters, except that gapped positions were set to half. 216 Phylogenetic analyses were run under Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian 217 Inference (BI) frameworks for COI, 16S, 28S and a combined dataset. Maximum Likelihood 218 phylogenetic trees were constructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010), employing the 219 best-fit substitution models assessed using jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012) under 220 Akaike (AIC) and Bayesian (BIC) Information Criteria, as well as Decision Theory 221 Performance-Based Selection (DT). For COI (TPMuf+I+G), 16S (TIM2+I+G), and combined 222 (GTR+I+G) datasets, selection criteria were unanimous, while BIC and DT chose TrNef+I+G for 223 28S. A 1000 bootstrap replicate analysis was performed in PhyML to obtain node support 224 values. Bayesian Inference (BI) of gene phylogenies was carried out using MrBayes v3.2.6 225 (Ronquist et al. 2012). The same model of nucleotide evolution (GTR+I+G, with gamma 226 distribution approximated by four discrete categories) was assumed for all analyses, since it is 227 not possible to implement the less complicated models used in the ML tree searches (in the cases 228 of 16S and COI). For each dataset, two independent MCMC runs were conducted until the 229 standard deviation of split frequencies decreased to less than 0.01 (16S: 6,481,000; COI: 230 19,608,000; 28S: 1,390,000; combined: 1,002,000) generations, sampling every 1,000. The 231 number of generations was determined by assessment of convergence using the minimum 232 Estimated Sample Size and Potential Scale Reduction Factor, as implemented in MrBayes. 233 Posterior probabilities were calculated using all trees other than the first 25%, which were 234 discarded as "burnin". All trees were visualized using Figtree v1.4.2 (Rambaut 2014) and 235 redrawn for presentation using Adobe Illustrator CC v19.1.0 (Adobe Systems, Inc.). Mean 236 interclade and intraclade, as well as minimum interclade sequence divergence values (Kimura 2-

were removed from the MAAFT alignments using GBlocks v0.91b (Castresana 2000) under



parameter) were determined using MEGAv7.0.14 (Kumar, Stecher & Tamura 2016) and nucleotide statistics calculated in Seaview v4.6 (Gouy, Guindon & Gascuel 2010).

Morphological Analysis of Chrysaora quinquecirrha

While our study did not include a family-wide morphological analysis, we did perform morphological analyses on jellyfish identified as *Chrysaora quinquecirrha* from the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts. We examined a total of 57 formalin-preserved samples we collected from Charlestown Pond (RI), Cape Henlopen (DE), Rehoboth Bay (DE), York River (VA), Charleston (SC) and Dauphin Island (AL) (Table S1). In addition, we examined a total of 63 individuals housed at the Smithsonian Institution National Museum of Natural History (NMNH) that were collected from the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts and identified as *Chrysaora quinquecirrha* or *Chrysaora* sp. (Table S1). We examined morphological characters (and their states) previously employed for Pelagiidae (Gershwin & Collins 2002) that pertained to the medusa stage, with the addition of maximum oral arm length (Table 3). In addition, a total of 35 individuals that were examined morphologically, but not included in the phylogenetic analyses, were assigned to molecular species/clades using mitochondrial *16S* sequence data collected using the established procedure described above (Table S1).

Cnidome of Chrysaora quinquecirrha

Lastly, we examined the cnidome of multiple specimens originally identified as Chrysaora quinquecirrha to determine if species could be delineated based on nematocyst measurements (of each type) and/or nematocyst diversity (counts of nematocyst types).

Nematocyst terminology followed convention used in previous studies (Weill 1934; Calder



260	1971; Calder 1974a; Ostman & Hydman 1997; Morandini & Marques 2010) in defining four
261	different nematocyst types: holotrichous A-isorhiza, holotrichous a-isorhiza, holotrichous O-
262	isorhiza and heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloid. In agreement with Morandini & Marques
263	(2010), we use the term heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloid, recognizing that there are likely at
264	least two nematocysts that cannot be effectively delineated based on basic light microscopy, as
265	shown in other previous work (Sutton & Burnett 1969).
266	In all cases, tentacle tissue was homogenized in distilled water in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge
267	tubes and nematocysts were examined using differential interference contrast microscopy (DIC).
268	A small piece of formalin-fixed tentacle tissue was homogenized in 100 uL of distilled water in a
269	1.5 uL tube using a plastic microcentrifuge pestle until little visible intact tissue remained. A
270	small drop was then placed on a slide under cover slip and examined at 60X in DIC using an
271	Olympus BX63 microscope, with photographs taken using an Olympus DP80 camera run by
272	CellSens Dimension 1.13 (Olympus Life Science, Inc.).
273	A total of 15 individuals were examined for nematocyst size measurements (Table S1). In
274	all cases, 10 samples of each nematocyst type were photographed and later measured using
275	CellSens Dimension 1.13 computer program for length and width. Linear Discrimination
276	Analysis (LDA) was used to determine whether species could be distinguished on the basis of
277	nematocyst measurements using the lda routine in the R package MASS (Venables & Ripley
278	2002).
279	A total of 10 individuals were examined for nematocyst diversity (Table S1). Since
280	initial estimates indicated that nematocyst diversity varied by tentacle region, nematocyst counts
281	were done from three tentacle regions for each individual: proximal (near the base of the
282	tentacle), medial (in the middle of the tentacle) and distal (at the end of the tentacle). For each



region, the first 200 nematocysts were photographed and categorized according to nematocyst type. Only lone nematocysts were enumerated, with any nematocysts still adhering to epithelial tissue ignored, since smaller nematocysts (e.g. a-isorhizas) could be obscured. In order to examine any differences in nematocyst diversity between different tentacle regions (distal, medial, proximal), a mosaic plot showing the relative proportions of nematocyst types in the various regions was made using the R package *vcd* version 1.4-3 (Meyer, Zeileis & Hornik 2016). In order to visualize differences in proportions of nematocyst types (four types, three regions) between the two species we conducted non-metric multidimensional scaling of the Euclidean distance matrix using the isoMDS routine in the R package MASS (Venables & Ripley 2002).

RESULTS

Sequence Data Characteristics and Phylogenetic Inference

The *COI* dataset consisted of 73 sequences, 59 of which are new. All sequences were 616 bp in length. The *16S* data set was made up of 67 sequences, including 60 new sequences and 7 published sequences. New complete sequences varied in length from 598 base pairs (bp) for *C. lactea* to 608 bp (*C. chinensis*). The MAAFT-aligned data set (included published sequences) was 628 bp, but the dataset was truncated to 582 bp (95.7%) after treatment with GBlocks. The *28S* dataset included 35 sequences, including 24 new sequences and 11 published sequences. New sequences ranged in size from 998 (*C. chinensis*) to 1018 bp (*C. africana*). The MAFFT alignment (which included published sequences) was 1027 bp, but the final data set was 1015 bp (98.8%) after removal of regions via GBlocks.



All phylogenetic analyses (COI, 16S, 28S and combined) revealed similar terminal
clades, but they differed in the resolution of relationships among them. The combined analysis
provided the best resolution (smallest proportion of polytomous nodes) and highest support
values for evolutionary relationships (Figures 4-7). In all analyses, <i>Chrysaora</i> is revealed as
paraphyletic with respect to species of Sanderia, Pelagia, and Mawia. In the combined analyses,
Mawia benovici is most closely related to Sanderia malayensis (Bayesian support 100 /
maximum likelihood support 100), with these two species forming a close relationship with C .
africana and C. pacifica in the combined (88/67) and 28S trees (100/61) (Figures 6-7). Except
for the COI tree, Pelagia noctiluca formed a close relationship with a clade of Pacific jellies (C.
achlyos, C. colorata, C. fuscescens and C. melanaster) with high support values (combined:
100/99; 16S: 100/92; 28S: 82/58) (Figures 5-7). For the combined analyses (100/100) and 28S
(100/100), a highly supported clade was composed of Atlantic species, including C .
quinquecirrha, C. lactea, C. plocamia, C. fulgida, C. hysoscella, C. chesapeakei [see Discussion]
and the Caribbean Chrysaora, while this clade was less supported for COI (100/61) and 16S
(75/60) (Figures 4-7). Chrysaora fulgida (NAM), C. plocamia (PMA) and C. hysoscella (IRE)
formed a closely related group in all analyses with high support values (combined: 100/100; 28S:
100/99; COI: 100/94; 16S: 100/83). For sequences taken from Piraino et al. (2014) only, nuclear
28S sequences for M. benovici from the Mediterranean (ADR) occurred in the distantly related
clade for P. noctiluca from the Atlantic (OVA), and a P. noctiluca from the Mediterranean
(TYR) occurred in the distantly related clade for <i>M. benovici</i> from the Mediterranean (ADR)
(Figure 6).
At the species level, our analyses highlighted multiple species boundaries, and showed
the samples identified as <i>C. quinquecirrha</i> to be polyphyletic. In all analyses, <i>C. quinquecirrha</i>



sequences fell into two distinct clades that were highly diverged (Figures 4-7; Tables S3-S5), with one clade (*C. chesapeakei* – see Discussion and Systematics) made up of animals from U.S. Atlantic estuaries and the Gulf of Mexico animals and another (*C. quinquecirrha* – see Discussion and Systematics) made up of U.S. coastal Atlantic animals. Caribbean *Chrysaora* (Jamaica and Panama) formed a clade closely related to *C. chesapeakei* in all analyses (Figures 4-7). Aquarium animals previously identified as *C. melanaster* (AQA) were genetically distinct from *C. melanaster* collected from the Bering Sea (BER) in all analyses where both were included (Figs 4-6) and formed a clade with *Chrysaora pacifica* collected from South Korea (KOR) and Japan (KYO) for *COI* and/or *16S*. While aquarium collected *C. chinensis* formed a highly-supported clade with field collected *C. chinensis* (MAL), analyses differed in where this species fell out in the trees (Figures 4-7). The unknown pelagiid collected from the western African coast (SEN) was nearly identical to the newly described *M. benovici* from the Mediterranean for *COI* (0.0-0.3% difference) and *28S* (0.0-0.2% difference) (Figures 4, 6).

Macromorphological and Nematocyst Analyses

A total of 120 medusae (57 field collected and 63 museum specimens) (Table S1) previously identified as *C. quinquecirrha* s.l. were observed for 20 quantitative and qualitative macromorphological characters either taken from Gershwin and Collins (2002) or new to this study (maximum oral arm length). Overall, three macromorphological characters differed significantly: tentacle number, lappet number and maximum oral arm length vs. bell diameter (Table 3). Animals collected from the estuarine Atlantic and all Gulf of Mexico sites (Table S1) had an average of 3.07 +/- 0.07 (95% CI) tentacles per octant, excluding two aberrant individuals (6 and 4.625-see Discussion) (Figure 8A; Table 3). In all instances when there were more than



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three tentacles per octant (excluding aberrant individuals above), the additional tentacle(s) occurred between the secondary tentacles and the rhopalia (i.e. 3-2-1-2-3 octant tentacle orientation) and were typically undeveloped, being of similar size to nearby lappets. Animals collected from coastal regions along the U.S. Atlantic (Table S1) had an average of 5.28 +/- 0.48 (95% CI) tentacles per octant (Figure 8A; Table 3). Animals collected from the estuarine Atlantic and all Gulf of Mexico sites (Table S1) had oral arms that were on average 3.01 +/- 0.39 (95% CI) times as long as the bell diameter (Figure 8B; Table 3). Animals collected from coastal regions of the U.S. Atlantic (Table S1) had oral arms that were on average 1.24 +/- 0.27 (95%) CI) times as long as bell diameter (Figure 8B; Table 3). Of the animals that were examined morphologically, a total of 38 individuals were also sequenced for 16S to see which Chrysaora clade they fell into (K2P sequence divergence <~1.5%). Medusae examined morphologically that fell into the C. chesapeakei phylogenetic clade had an average of 2.99 +/- 0.03 tentacles per octant and oral arms that were 2.80 +/- 0.78 (95% CI) times as long as bell diameter on average, while all those that fell in the C. quinquecirrha clade had an average of 5.63 + -0.78 tentacles per octant and oral arms that were on average 0.93 +/- 0.18 (95% CI) times as long as bell diameter on average (Figure 8A, 8B). We also studied the cnidome of medusae identified as C. quinquecirrha, examining the measurements of individual nematocyst types (Figure 8C, S1), as well as the representation of each type overall. Nematocyst measurements indicated significant grouping for holotrichous Aisorhizas, but not for other types. A-isorhiza measurements (Length vs. Width) showed two distinct groups, with one group containing only animals from U.S. Atlantic estuaries and the Gulf of Mexico and the other containing coastal Atlantic animals (Figure 8C). All sequenced

animals in the smaller group (coastal Atlantic) were genetically similar to C. quinquecirrha,



while all those sequenced from the larger group (estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico) were genetically similar to *C. chesapeakei* (Figure 8C). For animals identified as *C. chesapeakei* (based on habitat, macromorphology and/or genetics), LDA analysis indicated that individual A-isorhiza measurements correctly identified species 97.8% of the time (2.2% of the time, they were incorrectly identified at *C. quinquecirrha*), while they were correctly identified 100% of the time using the mean of 10 nematocyst measurements. For animals previously identified as *C. quinquecirrha* (based on habitat, macromorphology and/or genetics), LDA correctly identified them 100% of the time, whether one or 10 nematocysts were used. Figure S1 (a-c) shows measurement graphs for a-isorhiza, O-isorhiza and heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids, all of which indicate no significant groupings of measurements.

Nematocysts from proximal, medial and distal regions were typed and counted (200 total) for 10 individuals originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha*, chosen based on their previous molecular and macromorphological groupings (five from each group). All in all, heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids were most frequent (62.1±9.8% [95% CI]), followed by O-isorhizas (13.4±5.0% [95% CI]), a-isorhizas (12.4±2.8% [95% CI]) and A-isorhizas (12.2±3.7% [95% CI]). As pilot studies indicated, nematocyst type proportions were different for different tentacles regions. While A-isorhizas and a-isorhizas were consistent over the entire tentacle, O-isorhizas were overrepresented in proximal regions and heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids were overrepresented in the medial and distal regions (Figure S2A). Individuals varied considerably in proportions of nematocyst types (Figure S2B). Individuals collected from coastal Atlantic regions (circles) were generally clustered, including those genetically similar to *C. quinquecirrha*, while those from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico regions (squares) were much more dispersed, as were those genetically similar to *C. chesapeakei* (Figure S2B). LDA



was moderately effective in distinguishing species using overall nematocyst proportions (4 of 5 *C. quinquecirrha* and 3 of 5 *C. chesapeakei* correctly classified) and this was almost entirely due to different proportions of A-isorhiza nematocysts. A-isorhiza proportions were significantly different (t=3.623, p-value=0.0068), with *C. chesapeakei* individuals averaging 16.5±3.4% for A-isorhiza and *C quinquecirrha* cnidomes averaging 7.8±3.4%.

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DISCUSSION

Genus-level Systematic Inference

405 Our most robust phylogenetic hypothesis for Pelagiidae (Figure 7), based on the 406 combined data set, directly contradicts current generic definitions, as well as earlier 407 morphological-based phylogenies of the Pelagiidae. Both Gershwin & Collins (2002) and 408 Morandini & Marques (2010) considered *Chrysaora* to be reciprocally monophyletic with 409 respect to both Sanderia and Pelagia, with Sanderia in a basal position (Figure 9A, B). In 41 contrast, our analyses indicate that Chrysaora is paraphyletic with respect to Pelagia, Sanderia 411 and the newly erected Mawia (Figures 4-7, 9C). Mediterranean M. benovici is not in the 412 combined analysis, but our Senegal pelagiid (SEN) can be treated as M. benovici, based on COI 413 (Figure 4) and 28S (Figure 6) phylogenies (see below). Paraphyly of *Chrysaora* is not supported in morphological or genetic analyses in Avian et al. (2016) (Figure 9C, D), but this is almost 414 415 certainly a result of incomplete taxon sampling. For example, their analysis based on combined 416 morphological and genetic data only included C. hysoscella (Mediterranean), while the 28S 417 dataset included a subset of sequences published at the time, (C. hysoscella, C. lactea, and C. c.f. 418 chesapeakei [see below]), all of which occur in a single clade in our analysis (Figure 7, 10E). 419 Including fewer published sequences gave the appearance of *Chrysaora* monophyly, which may



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have facilitated the creation of Mawia. For instance, throughout Avian et al. (2016), Chrysaora is often used as a singular entity (i.e. monophyletic), such as an entire section that examines characters at the "genus level". This more readily allows for the conclusion of a novel genus Mawia, as it sidesteps the difficult taxonomic questions raised by a paraphyletic Chrysaora. That notwithstanding, in agreement with both Piraino et al. (2014) and Avian et al. (2016), our analyses show M. benovici to be a close relative of Sanderia malayensis (Figures 4-7). Given the stark morphological differences between Sanderia and Mawia (Piraino et al. 2014; Avian et al. 2016), this relationship is more than a bit surprising. Our working hypothesis for the relationships within Pelagiidae (Figure 7, 10), especially the paraphyletic *Chrysaora*, raises serious systematic questions for the genus level. To accept the validity of *Mawia*, as well as previously established *Pelagia* and *Sanderia*, each of which can be easily distinguished morphologically from those currently classified as *Chrysaora*, additional genera would have to be erected within Pelagiidae in order to maintain monophyly of these generic groupings. An initial question would be to which clade should the genus *Chrysaora* be limited. Because the type species of *Chrysaora* is *C. hysocella*, the genus would best be limited to the clade containing C. hysocella, C. fulgida, C. lactea, C. plocamia, C. quinquecirrha, and C. chesapeakei (see below). This then would leave three other lineages in need of new genera: 1) C. africana plus C. melanaster; 2) C. chinensis; and 3) C. achlyos, C. colorata and C. fuscescens. The latter grouping (C. achlyos, C. colorata and C. fuscescens) has a close relationship to *Pelagia noctiluca* (except for *COI*) and there is genetic support for generic designation. Unfortunately, we are currently aware of no clearly interpretable morphological characters that could be invoked to diagnose this clade, or other *Chrysaora* lineages, as has been the case in other studies seeking to reconcile jellyfish taxonomy based on morphology and molecular data



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(Dawson & Martin 2001; Dawson 2003; Bayha & Dawson 2010). Future study will benefit from more detailed morphological analyses to identify additional characters that could then be mapped onto molecular phylogenies (e.g. Figure 7), as well as greater taxonomic sampling (e.g. two additional *Chrysaora* species accepted and two declared *nomen dubium* in Morandini & Marques (2010), more geographic samples of *Pelagia* and *Sanderia*). Both would allow for better resolution to define genera and better explain their evolutionary relationships.

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Interspecific Evolutionary Relationships and Geographic Patterns

While our molecular phylogenies bear almost no resemblance to the morphology-based phylogenies within the currently defined genus *Chrysaora* (Gershwin & Collins 2002; Morandini & Margues 2010) (Figure 9), there are some relationships that occur in all phylogenies. All phylogenies agree on a close relationship between C. achlyos and C. colorata (Figure 9A, B, E). Our phylogeny is in general agreement with Morandini and Marques (2010) in delineating their basal 'Pacific' group (C. achlyos, C. colorata, C. fuscescens, C. melanaster and C. plocamia), except that our C. plocamia samples came from the Atlantic and occur in an 'Atlantic' group (Table 1; Figure 1). Morandini and Marques (2010) reasoned that this basal group may have provided ancient species that then invaded the Atlantic, splitting into various Atlantic groups. Our combined phylogeny (Figure 7) is in general agreement, with Pacific *Chrysaora* species generally occupying a more basal position in the tree compared to the Atlantic species. Major disagreements with Morandini & Marques (2010) include the placement of C. chinensis and C. pacifica (both Pacific jellies) as closely related to C. quinquecirrha and C. lactea, with the C. pacifica placement also a disagreement with Gershwin and Collins (2002). Likewise, the very close relationship among C. fulgida, C. hysoscella and C. plocamia was not found in any of the



morphological phylogenies (Figure 9), though *C. hysoscella* and *C. plocamia* were closely related in Gershwin and Collins (2002).

One item of note here is our use of aquarium samples, which may be problematic where they are not confirmed with field-collected specimens. Aquarium collected specimens of *C. pacifica* (originally *C. melanaster*- see below) and *C. chinensis* are genetically confirmed, based on published sequences from field-collected specimens of known geographical origin (Figures 4-5). In addition, our aquarium-collected *C. fuscescens* is identical to published *16S* sequence of field-collected animals from Vancouver Island, Canada (NCBI JX393256). However, *C. colorata*, *C. achlyos* and *S. malayensis* are represented only by aquarium specimens and, therefore, conclusions based on these sequences should be made with care. Future studies incorporating field-collected specimens are necessary for confirming or refuting relationships shown here.

Species-level Systematic Inference

Chrysaora quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei

The most striking conclusion revealed from this study is that *C. quinquecirrha*, one of the most studied and well-known U.S. Atlantic jellyfish, is made up of two distinct species, putting to rest taxonomic disagreements going back more than 100 years. This finding is supported by genetic (Figures 4-7), macromorphological (Figure 8A, 8B), and cnidome (Figure 8C) data. *C. quinquecirrha* occurred in two well-differentiated monophyletic groups, one containing all animals from estuarine Atlantic (RI, NJ, RB, NF, PAM, GA) and Gulf of Mexico (AL) regions and the other containing animals from coastal Atlantic regions (MA, CHP and OSC) (Figures 4-7). Average (COI: 13.1%; *16S*: 9.0%; *28S*: 2.5%) and minimum (COI: 12.1%; *16S*: 8.4%; *28S*:



489 2.4%; Table S3-S5) sequence divergences are well above what has been seen as delineating 490 species in Aurelia (Dawson & Jacobs 2001; Dawson, Gupta & England 2005), Cassiopea 491 (Holland et al. 2004), Cyanea (Dawson 2005a), and Drymonema (Bayha & Dawson 2010). More 492 convincing is the fact that C. fulgida from Namibia (NAM), C. plocamia from Argentina (ARG) 493 and C. hysoscella from Ireland (IRE) occur between these two species in all phylogenies 494 (Figures 4-7). Additionally, animals representing these genetic clades (estuarine U.S. 495 Atlantic/Gulf of Mexico and coastal Atlantic) were consistently differentiable based on tentacle 496 number (Figure 8A), oral arm length (Figure 8B) and holotrichous A-isorhiza measurements 497 (Figure 8C, 9). Two individuals (NMNH 33457a and NMNH 56703b) did not fit the typical 498 pattern for tentacle number (Figure 8A). However, both exhibited anomalous tentacle 499 morphologies (multiple tentacles emerging from within lappets instead of between lappets) and 500 had typical patterns for holotrichous A-isorhiza measurements (NMNH 33457a: 27.59 x 20.98 501 um; NMNH 56703b: 27.04 x 21.75 um; Figure 8C) and/or oral arm length (NMNH 33457a: 4.54 502 times bell diameter; NMNH 56703b: sample too degraded; Figure 8B). 503 It appears that Bigelow (1880) was correct about Chesapeake Bay Chrysaora maturing at 504 24 tentacles and representing a distinct taxon from *Dactylometra quinquecirrha*. Our data refute 505 the hypothesis that these individuals represent a growth stage toward the five-tentacled C. 506 quinquecirrha described from the coast (Mayer, 1910; Calder, 1972). However, an important 507 point is that it has been claimed that individuals only reach the "five-tentacled" stage after 130 mm (Agassiz & Mayer 1898; Mayer 1910), when small tentacles emerge between the secondary 508 509 tentacles and the rhopalia (Mayer, 1910 Plate 64), termed Stage 5 in Calder (1972). In our data 510 set, only a single individual larger than 130 mm was encountered and collected from the 511 estuarine Atlantic or Gulf of Mexico (Dauphin Island, AL) and it had exactly three tentacles per



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octant (Figure 8A). However, it is possible that within the estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, these *Chrysaora* may develop small tertiary tentacles at very large sizes, though they likely never develop fully, as was observed in some animals examined here. Furthermore, in one case, Calder (1972) may have collected *Chrysaora* from an area (Broadkill River, DE) that experiences both species, albeit at different times of the day, seemingly supporting the hypothesis of development stages. The mouth of the Broadkill River experiences tidal inflows capable of pulling coastal *Chrysaora* into the inlet during high tide and outflows capable of pulling estuarine *Chrysaora* from the intercoastal waterway during low tide (K.M. Bayha, pers. obs.). In any case, the growth of small tertiary tentacles in large estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Chrysaora, along with the dependence on a single morphological character (tentacle number), likely led to the historical taxonomic uncertainties we are clarifying here. Several lines of evidence support the U.S. Atlantic coastal *Chrysaora* group retaining the species name C. quinquecirrha and the estuarine Atlantic/Gulf of Mexico group requiring a different name. First, Pelagia quinquecirrha (=C. quinquecirrha) (Desor 1848) was described from a coastal zone region (Nantucket Harbor, MA) as having 40 tentacles and our coastal Atlantic animals were characterized by possessing 40 or more tentacles. Furthermore, one of our sampling sites and a museum specimen were from coastal waters (Buzzard's Bay, MA) near the C. quinquecirrha type locality. Assigning a species name to the U.S. Atlantic estuaries/Gulf of Mexico group is more problematic, owing to inconsistencies in Papenfuss (1936). Papenfuss (1936) compared two color morphs found within the Chesapeake Bay, a small, white morph (e.g. Figure 3D) and a larger red striped morph (e.g. Figure 3E), which she assumed to be Dactylometra (=Chrysaora) quinquecirrha. Papenfuss (1936) assigned the white morph to the new subspecies Dactylometra quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei, based on very small differences



in holotrichous a-isorhiza measurements, though without statistical support. However, for our
Norfolk (VA) samples, white (NF1-NF3) and red-striped (NF4-NF5) morphs occurred in the
same genetic clades for 16S and COI (Figures 4-5) and we found no overall pattern of
differentiation in our holotrichous a-isorhiza measurements (Figure S1A). Furthermore, for
holotrichous A-isorhiza measurements, both morphs from Papenfuss (1936) are consistent with
our U.S. Atlantic estuary/Gulf of Mexico group (Figure 8C). In summary, evidence from
nematocyst measurements (Figure 8C), locality (Chesapeake Bay) and phylogenetic data (Figure
4-5) support the U.S. Atlantic estuarine/Gulf of Mexico group and both morphs from Papenfuss
(1936) as representing the same species. Even though Papenfuss (1936) may have been mistaken
in describing D. quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei, that name is taxonomically available based on
Article 45.6.4 of the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (International Commission
on Zoological Nomenclature, 2015). As such, all animals from the U.S. Atlantic estuary/Gulf of
Mexico lineage should be assigned to the elevated species name Chrysaora chesapeakei
(Papenfuss, 1936). The placement of Gulf of Mexico medusae in C. chesapeakei differs from
Morandini & Marques (2010), who placed them in the species C. lactea, based on similarities in
octant tentacle orientation (2-3-1-3-2). However, our genetic data clearly separate these animals
from the distantly related <i>C. lactea</i> (Figure 4-7) and the number of tentacles (approximately 3)
found in the Gulf of Mexico animals observed here and in Morandini and Marques (2010)
(USNM 49733 and USNM 53826) make accurate determination of tertiary tentacle orientation
problematic.
In addition to their taxonomic value, it is possible that some of the morphological
characters that delineate C. quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei may be related to adaptations to
different predominant prey items, especially for feeding on the ctenophore <i>Mnemiopsis leidyi</i> . In





general, M. leidyi, which is a major prey item for Chrysaora (Feigenbaum & Kelly 1984),
exhibits an inshore, estuarine preference and a seasonal spread from estuarine to coastal waters
(Costello et al., 2012; Beulieu et al., 2013). As such, M. leidyi may be a more frequent prey item
for estuarine Atlantic <i>Chrysaora</i> than for coastal animals. Larger oral arms, as exhibited in <i>C</i> .
chesapeakei (Figure 8B), have been argued to be an adaptation for scyphozoans that feed on
gelatinous prey (Bayha and Dawson, 2010). In addition, the larger and more numerous A-
isorhiza nematocysts found in estuarine Chrysaora might be better suited to efficiently attaching
to and feeding on very soft-bodied organisms such as M. leidyi. Since different nematocyst types
are assumed to have different functions based on morphological and discharge characteristics
(Rifkin and Endean, 1983; Purcell, 1984; Heeger and Moller, 1987; Purcell and Mills, 1988;
Colin and Costello, 2007), it has been proposed that nematocyst diversity within an organism car
be correlated to dietary preferences, at least in a coarse sense (Purcell, 1984; Purcell and Mills,
1988; Carrette et al., 2002). In particular, isorhiza nematocysts, which typically serve to entangle
hard prey or penetrate soft tissue (Purcell and Mills, 1988; Colin and Costello, 2007), are likely
important for feeding on gelatinous prey, since they are the only types found in some jelly-
feeding medusae, such as hydrozoan narcomedusae (Purcell and Mills, 1988) and the
scyphozoan Drymonema larsoni (K.M. Bayha, pers. obs.). A-isorhizas are about twice as
numerous in C. chesapeakei as in C. quinquecirrha (16.5±3.4% vs. 7.8±3.4%) and are
significantly larger (Figure 8C) in C. chesapeakei. It is possible that the more numerous A-
isorhizas, possessing longer tubules, could penetrate farther into the extremely soft-bodied M .
leidyi, resulting in greater capture efficiency.



Chrysaora in the Caribbean

Chrysaora medusae collected from the Caribbean Sea are genetically very similar to Chrysaora chesapeakei. Chrysaora in the Caribbean have historically been included in the species C. lactea (Mayer 1910; Morandini & Marques 2010), C. quinquecirrha (Perry & Larson 2004) or Chrysaora sp. (Persad et al. 2003). Our Caribbean samples, limited only to Jamaica and the Bocas del Toro region of Panama, appear to be two lineages (both found in JAM) slightly diverged from each other (4.4-5.1% for COI) and from C. chesapeakei (6.2-7.7% for COI) from the US east coast estuaries and the Gulf of Mexico. These animals cannot be assigned to C. lactea (type locality=Rio de Janiero, Brazil), as was previously done by Mayer (1910) and Morandini and Marques (2010), since these animals are distantly related to C. lactea for most genetic regions examined (Figure 4-7). At present, it is unclear if the Caribbean forms represent distinct or incipient species and further study of them from across the region is necessary. For the time being, we advocate referring to Caribbean animals as Chrysaora c.f. chesapeakei ahead of a formal systematic redescription based on genetic and careful morphological examination.

Chrysaora melanaster and C. pacifica

Our phylogenetic data confirm the morphological conclusions in Morandini & Marques (2010) that Japanese *Chrysaora* historically identified as *C. melanaster*, and labeled as such in public aquaria worldwide for decades, are actually the distinct species *C. pacifica*. Kramp (1961) synonymized the Pacific *Chrysaora* species *C. melanaster* (Brandt 1835) and the Japanese jellyfish *C. pacifica* (Goette 1886) to *C. melanaster*. This identification convention made it into jellyfish identification books (e.g. Wrobel and Mills, 1998) and subsequently Japanese *Chrysaora* labeled as *C. melanaster* became a mainstay in early jellyfish exhibits, such as the



Monterey Bay Aquarium, and then in aquaria throughout the world (W. Patry, pers. comm.). Morandini & Marques (2010) separated *C. melanaster* and *C. pacifica* on morphological grounds (tentacle and lappet number) and deemed all aquarium specimens of Japanese origin to be *C. melanaster*, Our data (Figure 4-5) confirm this, as aquarium-collected jellyfish previously labeled *C. melanaster* (MBA) are distantly related to wild-caught *C. melanaster* (BER) from its type locality (Bering Sea), but are nearly genetically similar (sequence divergence: *COI*-0.5%; *16S*-0.6%) to wild-caught *Chrysaora* collected from the eastern Korean coast (KOR), where this jellyfish was recently redescribed as *C. pacifica* (Lee et al. 2016) and Kyoto, Japan (KYO), both near the type locality of Nagasaki, Japan (Goette 1886).

Chrysaora africana/fulgida

Our phylogenies support the resurrection of *Chrysaora* species along the southwestern coast of Africa. Three species of *Chrysaora* were previously identified from the southwestern coast of Africa: *Chrysaora hysoscella* (Kramp 1955), *C. fulgida* (Reynaud 1830) and *C. africana* (Vanhöffen 1902). However, Kramp (1961) deemed *C. africana* a variant of *C. fulgida*, and Morandini & Marques (2010) placed all of these sightings within the species *C. fulgida*. All phylogenies indicate two distantly related species of *Chrysaora* from Namibian waters (Figures 4-7), with those appearing superficially similar to *C. fulgida* (brown striped) or to *C. africana* (red tentacles) placed provisionally into these species. These designations are consistent with upcoming re-descriptions of *C. fulgida* and *C. africana* of S. Neethling (unpublished data) based on morphological and genetic analyses. *Chrysaora* has increased over recent years in this area, with concomitant ecological perturbations (Lynam et al. 2006; Flynn et al. 2012; Roux et al. 2013), underscoring the importance of correct species identification.





Mawia benovici

In addition to revealing higher level phylogenetic relationships, our data add to our
knowledge regarding the distribution of <i>M. benovici</i> , indicating a possible source region for the
introduced species. Piraino et al. (2014) hypothesized that Mawia benovici (then Pelagia
benovici), likely arrived into the Adriatic Sea via ballast water. Our data indicate that two small
pelagiid jellyfishes collected from the beach near Dakar, Senegal are M. benovici based on COI
and 28S phylogenies (Figure 4 and 6) (there are no published 16S sequences for M. benovici).
While this is not definitive evidence that Mediterranean M. benovici populations originated from
the western coast of Africa, it raises the possibility. While many West African species have
arrived in the Mediterranean through the Strait of Gibraltar or occasionally inhabit the western
Mediterranean (Gofas & Zenetos 2003; Antit, Gofas & Azzouna 2010), there are examples of
animals introduced via shipping or fishing practices from West Africa to the Mediterranean (Ben
Souissi et al. 2004; Antit, Gofas & Azzouna 2010; Luque et al. 2012; Zenetos et al. 2012). If M.
benovici did originate from the western coast of Africa, it is more likely that it was a result of
shipping or fishing practices, since there are no records of M. benovici between Gibraltar and the
Adriatic Sea to our knowledge.



645	(SYSTEMATICS)
646	Chrysaora quinquecirrha Desor, 1848
647	Figure 3A, 3B, 4-9, S1-S2.
648	
649	Pelagia quinquecirrha-Desor (1848): p. 76 (original description – Nantucket Sound, MA).
650	Dactylometra quinquecirrha: Agassiz (1862): 126, 166 [tentacle number]. Agassiz (1865):
651	48, 49 [tentacle number; Naushon, MA]. Fewkes (1881): 173, Pl. VIII Fig. 14 [tentacle number,
652	drawing]. Brooks (1882): 137 [tentacles, drawing in Mayer, 1910; southern variety outside
653	Beaufort Inlet]. Agassiz & Mayer (1898): 1-6, Plate I [tentacles, oral arms, drawing]. Fish
654	(1925): 128, 130 [Vineyard Sound, MA; Nonamesset, MA; Lackeys Bay, MA]. Mayer (1910):
655	585-588, Pl. 64A [tentacles, drawing].
656	Chrysaora quinquecirrha: Kramp (1961): 327-328 [description fits both C.
657	quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei]. Calder (1972): 40-43, Figs. 5-6 [mouth of Broadkill River,
658	DE]. Kraeuter & Setzler (1975): 69, Figs. 1-2 [offshore samples, Sea Buoy]. Calder (2009): 24-
659	28 [offshore animals collected on continental shelf possibly <i>C. quinquecirrha</i>].
660	
661	Diagnosis: Living medusae up to 40 cm (observed 59.0 - 176.0 mm) (Figures 3A, 3B); tentacles
662	typically 40 or more; 5.28 ± 0.45 (95% CI) tentacles/octant on average (Table 3; Figure 8A);
663	primary tentacle central, secondary and tertiary tentacles laterally (3-2-1-2-3); lappets rounded
664	typically 48 or more; 6.26 ± 0.46 lappets/octant on average; rhopalar lappets slightly larger than
665	tentacular lappets; can be differentiated from C. chesapeakei based on 1) smaller size of
666	holotrichous A-isorhiza nematocysts: average: $20.25~[\pm~0.38]~\mu m~x~11.27~[\pm~0.37]~\mu m$ (Table 3;





667 Figure 8C); 2) larger tentacle number (more than 5 per octant) and 3) typically shorter maximum 668 oral arm length (average: 1.24 ± 0.27 time bell diameter). 669 670 Material Examined: NMNH 24496 (n=1; Buzzard's Bay, MA), NMNH 53860 (n=1; 671 Assateague Island, VA), NMNH 53861 (n=1; Assateague Island, VA), NMNH 54511 (n=2; 672 Cape Henlopen, DE), NMNH 56702 (n=1; Cape Henlopen, DE), KMBCDE1-KMBCDE5 (n=5; 673 Cape Henlopen, DE). 674 675 **Description of holotype**: No holotype located, no neotype designated. 676 677 **Description of specimens**: Bell diameter up to approximately 40 cm (observed 59.0-176.0 mm), 678 almost hemispherical. Exumbrellar finely granulated with small, inconspicuous marks (papillae); 679 exumbrellar color varies from entirely transparent white to white with inconspicuous radial 680 markings. Tentacle number approximately 5 tentacles per octant, but can be more (average 5.28) 681 \pm 0.48) (Table 3; Figure 8A); primary tentacle central, secondary and tertiary tentacles laterally 682 (3-2-1-2-3) with additional tentacles originating toward the rhopalia; lappets rounded typically 683 48 or more (average 6.26 ± 0.46 per octant); Tentacle clefts of varied depth with primary clefts 684 deeper than secondary clefts. Radial and ring musculature not obvious. Brachial disc circular. 685 Pillars evident. No quadralinga. Subgenital ostia rounded, approximately 1/8 of bell diameter. 686 Oral arms v-shaped with frills emanating from tube-like structure; straight without spiral; curved, 687 frilled edges taper toward distal end of oral arms. Oral arms short, approximately the same length 688 as bell diameter (average 1.24 ± 0.27 times bell diameter). Oral arms typically transparent white. 689 4 semi-circular gonads, white, pinkish or slightly orange, well developed within pouch outlining



690	gastric filaments. 16 stomach pouches bounded by 16 septae. Septae bent at 45-degree angle					
691	distally towards the rhopalia terminating near tentacle in rhopalar lappet, resulting in tentacular					
692	pouches being somewhat larger than rhopalar pouches distally.					
693	Cnidome (tentacle). Average Dimensions (Length \pm 95% CI x Width \pm 95% CI)					
694	Holotrichous A-isorhizas: $20.15 \pm 0.33 \times 11.13 \pm 0.24 \mu m$;					
695	Holotrichous a-isorhizas: $8.27 \pm 0.49 \times 4.22 \pm 0.07 \mu m$;					
696	Holotrichous O-isorhizas: $21.63 \pm 0.39 \times 18.91 \pm 0.78 \mu m$;					
697	Heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids: $13.58 \pm 0.19 \times 8.09 \pm 0.09 \mu m$;					
698						
699	Type Locality: Nantucket Bay, Nantucket Island, Massachusetts, East Coast of USA.					
700						
701	Habitat: Medusae are found in open coastal waters on the US Atlantic coast.					
702						
703	Distribution: Western North Atlantic, east coast of the USA south of Cape Cod in coastal					
704	Atlantic waters at least as far south as Georgia/northern Florida.					
705						
706	DNA sequence : Mitochondrial <i>COI</i> and <i>16S</i> and Nuclear <i>28S</i> sequence data are available in					
707	NCBI GenBank under accession numbers MF141552-MF141556, MF141608, MF141613-					
708	MF141614, MF141628, MF141635, MF141642-MF141646, MF141688-MF141689, MF141697.					
709						
710	Phylogeny: C. quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei sequences form reciprocally monophyletic					
711	groups for 16S, COI, 28S and combined analyses (Figures 4-7). Minimum sequence divergences					
712	between C. quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei clades (COI: 12.1%, 16S: 8.4%, 28S: 2.4%) were					



713 much larger than the maximum within clades for C. quinquecirrha (COI: 0.2%, 16S: 0.1%, 28S: 714 0.0%) or C. chesapeakei (COI: 0.7%, 16S: 0.6%, 28S: 0.4%). C. quinquecirrha sequences did 715 not form monophyletic groups with any other species (Figures 4-7). 716 717 **Biological Data**: Although the name *Chrysaora quinquecirrha* applies to the US coastal Atlantic species, almost no ecological studies have been done on the coastal species, apart from (Kraeuter 718 719 & Setzler 1975), which found the largest C. quinquecirrha individual was found in a coastal area 720 about 90 km offshore in full seawater (Salinity >30). 721 722 **Notes:** Since this species retains the scientific name C. quinquecirrha, we advocate it retaining 723 the common name "U.S. Atlantic sea nettle", since it is also a coastal and open ocean species. 724 725 Chrysaora chesapeakei Papenfuss, 1936 Figures 3C, 3D, 3E, 4-9, S1-S2 726 727 728 Dactylometra quinquecirrha: (Bigelow 1880): 66 [white colored morph, Chesapeake Bay]. Brooks (1882): 137 [Chesapeake Bay –USA]. (Agassiz & Mayer 1898): 48-49 [upper 729 730 Narragansett Bay (RI)]. Mayer (1910): 585-588, Pl.63-64 [24 tentacle morph, white, red/brown 731 striped morph, Tampa Bay (FL), Hampton Roads (VA), St. Mary's (MD)]. Papenfuss (1936): 732 14-17, Figs. 7, 11, 16, 20 [lower Chesapeake Bay; red striped morph based on A-isorhiza 733 measurements]. Littleford & Truitt (1937): 91 [Chesapeake Bay]. Littleford (1939): 368-381, 734 Pls. I-III [Chesapeake Bay]. Hedgepeth (1954): 277-278 [Tampa Bay (FL), Gulf of Mexico]. 735 Dactylometra quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei: Papenfuss (1936): 14-17, Figs. 12, 21



736 [Chesapeake Bay; white colored morph based on A-isorhiza measurements]. 737 Chrysaora quinquecirrha: Kramp (1961): 327-328 [parts of description covers both C. 738 quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei]. Rice & Powell (1970): 180-186 [Chesapeake Bay]. Burke 739 (1976): 20, 22-28 [Mississippi Sound, Gulf of Mexico]. Calder (1971): 270-274 [Gloucester 740 Point (VA) – Chesapeake Bayl. Calder (1972): 40-43, Figs. 1-4 [Chesapeake Bayl. Pamlico 741 Sound, Gulf of Mexico]. Loeb (1972): 279-291 [Chesapeake Bay]. Loeb (1973): 144-147 742 [Chesapeake Bay]. Loeb & Blanquet (1973): 150-157 [Chesapeake Bay]. Calder (1974b): 326-333 [Chesapeake Bay]. Loeb (1974): 423-432 [Chesapeake Bay]. Blanquet & Wetzel (1975): 743 744 181-192 [Chesapeake Bay]. Cargo (1975): 145-154 [Chesapeake Bay]. Kraeuter & Setzler 745 (1975): 69, Figs. 1-2 [Doboy Sound (GA)]. Loeb & Gordon (1975): 37-41 [Chesapeake Bay]. 746 Lin & Zubkoff (1976): 37-41 [Chesapeake Bay]. Calder (1977): 13-19 [Gloucester Point, MD – 747 Chesapeake Bay]. Clifford & Cargo (1978): 58-60 [Patuxent River, MD – Chesapeake Bay]. Cargo (1979): 279-286 [Chesapeake Bay]. Cargo & Rabenold (1980): 20-26 [Patuxent River 748 749 (MD)]. Hutton et al. (1986): 154-155 [Chesapeake Bay]. Cargo & King (1990): 486-491 750 [Chesapeake Bay]. Purcell et al. (1991): 103-111 [Choptank River, MD – Chesapeake Bay]. 751 Nemazie, Purcell & Glibert (1993): 451-458 [Chesapeake Bay]. Purcell, White & Roman (1994): 752 263-278 [Chesapeake Bay]. Burnett et al. (1996): 1377-1383 [Chesapeake Bay]; Houck et al. 753 (1996): 771-778 [St. Margaret's, MD – Chesapeake Bay]. Olesen, Purcell & Stoecker (1996): 754 149-158 [Broad Creek (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Ford et al. (1997): 355-361 (Choptank River 755 (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Kreps, Purcell & Heidelberg (1997): 441-446 [Choptank River (MD) 756 - Chesapeake Bay]. Wright & Purcell (1997): 332-338 [Patuxent River (MD) - Chesapeake Bay]. Suchman & Sullivan (1998): 237-244 [Green Hill Pond (RI)]. Purcell, Malej & Benović 757 758 (1999): 241-263 [Chesapeake Bay]. Purcell et al. (1999): 187-196 [Choptank River (MD) –



759 Chesapeake Bayl, Bloom, Radwan & Burnett (2001): 75-90 [St. Mary's (MD) – Chesapeake 760 Bay]. Condon, Decker & Purcell (2001): 89-95 [Choptank River (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. 761 Graham (2001): 97-111 [Gulf of Mexico], Johnson, Perry & Burke (2001): 213-221 [Gulf of 762 Mexico]. Matanoski, Hood & Purcell (2001): 191-200 [Choptank River (MD) – Chesapeake 763 Bay]. Segura-Puertas, Suárez-Morales & Celis (2003): 9 [Gulf of Mexico]. Ishikawa et al. 764 (2004): 895-899 [Gibson Island (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Grove & Breitburg (2005): 185-198 765 [Patuxent River (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Purcell & Decker (2005): 376-385 [Chesapeake Bay]. Thuesen et al. (2005): 2475-2482 [Chesapeake Bay]. Breitburg & Fulford (2006): 776-784 766 767 [Solomon's Island [MD] – Chesapeake Bay]. Kimmel, Roman & Zhang (2006): 131-141 [mid to 768 upper Chesapeake Bay]. Decker et al. (2007): 99-113 [Chesapeake Bay]. Condon & Steinberg 769 (2008): 153-168 [York River (VA) – Chesapeake Bay]. Calder (2009): 24-28 [estuarine 770 animals]. Matanoski & Hood (2006): 595-608 [Choptank River (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. 771 Purcell (2007): 184, 190-192 [Chesapeake Bay]. Purcell (2009): 23-50 [Chesapeake Bay]. Duffy, 772 Epifanio & Fuiman (1997): 123-131 [Port Aransas (TX) – Gulf of Mexico]. Bayha & Graham 773 (2009): 217-228 [Rhode Island, New Jersey, Chesapeake Bay, Georgia, Alabama]. Sexton et al. 774 (2010): 125-133 [Choptank River (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Birsa, Verity & Lee (2010): 426-775 430 [Skidaway River (GA), Wassow Sound (GA)]. Condon, Steinberg & Bronk (2010): 153-170 776 [York River (VA) – Chesapeake Bay]. Condon et al. (2011): 10225-10230 [Chesapeake Bay]. 777 Frost et al. (2012): 247-256 [Steinhatchee River (FL) – Gulf of Mexico]. Duarte et al. (2012): 778 91-97 [St. Leonard's (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Kimmel, Boynton & Roman (2012): 76-85 779 [Solomon's Island (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Sexton (2012): 1-153 [Chesapeake Bay]. Brown et 780 al. (2013): 113-125 [Chesapeake Bay]. Robinson & Graham (2013): 235-253 [Gulf of Mexico]. 781 Breitburg & Burrell (2014): 183-200 [Patuxent River (MD) – Chesapeake Bay]. Kaneshiro-

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782 Pineiro & Kimmel (2015): 1965-1975 [Pamlico Sound (NC), Meredith, Gaynor & Bologna 783 (2016): 6248-6266 [Barnegat Bay (NJ)]. Tay & Hood (2017): 227-242 [Choptank River (MD), 784 Chesapeake Bay]. 785 786 **Diagnosis**: Living medusae up to 20 cm (observed 17.0-175.0 mm; average: 63.0 787 mm); Tentacles typically number 24 or 3 per octant (average 3.07±0.07); primary tentacle central 788 and secondary tentacles lateral (2-1-2); rarely, additional tentacles arise lateral to secondary 789 tentacles (3-2-1-2-3) and are typically undeveloped; marginal lappets rounded and typically 32 or 790 4 per octant (average 4.08 ± 0.06); rhopalar lappets are typically about the same size as 791 tentacular lappets; can be differentiated from C. quinquecirrha based on 1) larger size of 792 holotrichous A-isorhiza nematocysts: 26.21 ± 0.50] µm x 19.74 ± 0.55] µm; 2) smaller tentacle 793 number (\sim 3 tentacles per octant); and 3) larger maximum oral arm length (average: 3.00 ± 0.39 794 times bell diameter). 795 796 Material Examined. Neotype: - KMBGVA8 – (Gloucester Point, MD – 797 Chesapeake Bay). Other comparative specimens: NMNH 57925 (n=9; Orange Inlet, NC), 798 NMNH 56758 (n=5; Charlestown Pond, RI), NMNH 33456 (n=4; Plum Point, MD), NMNH 799 49733 (*n*=1; Alligator Harbor, FL), NMNH 53826 (*n*=2; Timbalier Bay, LA), NMNH 56703 800 (n=2; Chesapeake Bay 37.23 N 76.04 W), NMNH 56704 (n=4; Chesapeake Bay 37.23 N 76.04 801 W), NMNH 53870 (n=3; Beaufort, NC), NMNH 53828 (n=2; Drum Point, MD), NMNH 33458 802 (n=3; Plum Point, MD), NMNH 33457 (n=4; Plum Point, MD), NMNH 55621 (n=6; near 803 Chesapeake Beach, MD), NMNH 53867 (n=1; Arundel on the Bay, MD), NMNH 54404 (n=1; 804 Chesapeake Bay 37.23 N 76.04 W), NMNH 33121 (n=6; Arundel on the Bay, MD), NMNH



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805
      42155 (n=2; Louisiana, Gulf of Mexico), NMNH 54372 (n=1; Lake Pontchartrain, LA);
806
      (KMBCSC1-KMBCSC7 (n=7; Charleston Harbor, SC), KMBGVA1-KMBGVA12 (n=12;
807
      Gloucester Point, VA), KMBCRI1-KMBCRI14 (n=14; Charlestown Pond, RI), KMBRDE1-
808
      KMBRDE16 (n=16; Rehoboth Bay, DE), KMBDAL2-3 (n=3; Dauphin Island, AL).
809
810
      Description of neotype specimen: KMBGVA8. Bell diameter 110.4 mm, almost hemispherical.
811
      Exumbrella white/clear with granulated surface of small white marks. 8 rhopalia. No ocelli. Deep
812
      rhopalar clefts; deep sensory pits. Marginal lappets rounded, 32 total or 4 per octant made up of
813
      two rhopalar lappets and two tentacular lappets. Lappet size barely heterogeneous, with rhopalar
814
      lappets about the same width as tentacular lappets but longer. Tentacle number 24 or 3 per
815
      octant, with primary tentacle surrounded by two secondary tentacles (2-1-2), primary tentacle
816
      longer than secondary tentacles, up to 3-4 times bell diameter. Tentacles are white, slightly
      pinkish. Tentacle clefts of varied depth with primary clefts deeper than secondary clefts. Radial
817
818
      and ring musculature not obvious. Brachial disc circular. Pillars evident. No quadralinga.
819
      Subgenital ostia rounded, approximately 1/10 of bell diameter. Oral arms white, v-shaped with
820
      frills emanating from tube-like structure. Oral arms straight without spiral curved, frilled edges
821
      taper toward distal end of oral arms. Orals arms long, approximately 5 (4.98) times bell diameter.
822
      4 semi-circular gonads, white (a bit orange), well developed within pouch outlining gastric
823
      filaments. 16 stomach pouches bounded by 16 septae. Septae bent at 45-degree angle distally
824
      towards the rhopalia terminating near tentacle in rhopalar lappet, resulting in tentacular pouches
825
      being somewhat larger than rhopalar pouches distally.
826
      Cnidome (tentacle): Average dimensions (Length \pm 95% CI x Width \pm 95% CI)
827
              Holotrichous A-isorhizas: 25.66 \pm 0.83 \times 19.16 \pm 0.54 \mu m;
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828 Holotrichous a-isorhizas $7.77 \pm 0.20 \times 4.17 \pm 0.10 \mu m$; 829 Holotrichous O-isorhizas $22.02 \pm 0.30 \times 19.95 \pm 0.24 \mu m$; 830 Heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids $12.35 \pm 0.47 \, \mu m \times 8.55 \pm 0.55 \, \mu m$. 831 832 **Description of other specimens**: Bell diameter up to approximately 20 cm (observed 17.0-833 175.0 mm), almost hemispherical but flattened in small individuals. Exumbrellar finely 834 granulated with small, inconspicuous marks (papillae); exumbrellar color varies considerably, 835 varying from all white to a completely brown or red colored bell, to a bell with radial lines of 836 red/brown with a spot in the center of the bell. Radial lines may be relatively inconspicuous 837 without a noticeable spot in the center. Tentacles typically number 24 or 3 per octant (average 838 3.07 ± 0.07), with primary tentacle surrounded by two secondary tentacles (2-1-2), primary 839 tentacle longer than secondary tentacles, up to 3-4 times bell diameter. In some rare cases, small 840 tentacles may occur laterally to secondary tentacle, occurring between the secondary tentacle and 841 rhopalium. In almost all cases, this tentacle is similar in size to or smaller than the lappets 842 surrounding it. In very rare cases (twice observed), about 5 or more tentacles per octant have 843 been seen, though these medusae had aberrant tentacle patterns overall (e.g. more than one 844 tentacle emerging from same spot, tentacles emerging below lappet). Tentacles are white, 845 slightly pinkish. Marginal lappets rounded and typically 32 or 4 per octant (average 4.08 ± 0.06). 846 Tentacle clefts of varied depth with primary clefts deeper than secondary clefts, which are deeper 847 than rare tertiary clefts. Radial and ring musculature not obvious. Brachial disc circular. Pillars evident. No quadralinga. Subgenital ostia rounded, approximately 1/10 of bell diameter. Oral 848 849 arms v-shaped with frills emanating from tube-like structure; straight without spiral; curved, 850 frilled edges taper toward proximal end of oral arms. Oral arms long, approximately 3 times bell





851	diameter on average (as much as 5.6 times bell diameter). Oral arms vary in color, from				
852	transparent white, to red or brown colored tubule surrounded by pinkish frilled edges. 4 semi-				
853	circular gonads, white, pinkish or slightly orange, well developed within pouch outlining gastric				
854	filaments. 16 stomach pouches bounded by 16 septae. Septae bent at 45-degree angle distally				
855	towards the rhopalia terminating near tentacle in rhopalar lappet, resulting in tentacular pouches				
856	being somewhat larger than rhopalar pouches distally.				
857	Cnidome (tentacle). Average Dimensions (Length \pm 95% CI x Width \pm 95% CI)				
858	Holotrichous A-isorhizas: $26.21 \pm 0.50 \times 19.74 \pm 0.55 \mu m$;				
859	Holotrichous a-isorhizas: $7.88 \pm 0.13 \times 4.29 \pm 0.07 \mu m$;				
860	Holotrichous O-isorhizas: $23.10 \pm 0.43 \times 20.75 \pm 0.62 \mu m$;				
861	Heterotrichous microbasic rhopaloids: $12.73 \pm 0.22 \times 8.29 \pm 0.13 \mu m$;				
862					
863	Type Locality: Gloucester Point (VA), Chesapeake Bay, east coast of USA.				
864					
865	Habitat: Medusae are found in estuarine waters on the US Atlantic coast and estuarine and				
866	nearshore waters of the Gulf of Mexico.				
867					
868	Distribution: Western North Atlantic, east coast of the USA south of New England to				
869	the Gulf of Mexico, restricted to estuarine waters on the Atlantic coast, known to exist outside of				
870	estuaries in the Gulf of Mexico.				
871					
872	Remarks : Since <i>C. chesapeakei</i> is commonly found in estuarine waters, we advocate the				
873	common name "U.S. Atlantic bay nettle" to distinguish it from the "U.S. Atlantic sea nettle" (C.				





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quinquecirrha). The specific name chesapeakei originates from Dactylometra quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei of Papenfuss (1936). For Papenfuss (1936), it is clear that: 1) the manuscript likely compared nematocyst measurements between two color morphs of C. chesapeakei and did not include C. quinquecirrha s. str. (see Discussion; Figure 8C); and 2) differences invoked for holotrichous a-isorhizas are in question, since the nematocysts are small (~1.5 um), making identifying differences difficult even with more precise, modern instruments, and the data are not accompanied by any statistics or measurement error. Regardless, based on Article 35.6.4 of the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature 4th Edition (ICZN 1999), the specific name chesapeakei has taxonomic priority and C. chesapeakei applies to the Chesapeake Bay animals, as well as estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico animals that are genetically similar, and have similar macromorphological and cnidome characteristics (Figures 4-9). Papenfuss (1936) did not designate a type specimen for Dactylometra (=Chrysaora) quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei. We designate the specimen KMBGVA8 as a neotype specimen so that a physical specimen, along with preserved tissue for genetic analysis, will be available to objectively define C. chesapeakei [see Article 75 of the International Code for Zoological Nomenclature (ICZN 1999)], which will be necessary given the close genetic relationship between this species and specimens from the Caribbean (see below). Our neotype specimen originates from Gloucester Bay (VA), within the Chesapeake Bay, where Papenfuss (1936) hypothesized *Dactylometra* (=Chrysaora) quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei to be confined. **DNA sequence**: Mitochondrial *COI* and *16S* and Nuclear *28S* sequence data are available in

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DNA sequence: Mitochondrial *COI* and *16S* and Nuclear *28S* sequence data are available in GenBank under accession numbers MF141564-MF141587, MF141615-MF141617, MF141637-MF141639, MF141649-MF141669, MF141699-MF141718, MF167556-MF167568.



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Phylogeny: *C. chesapeakei* and *C. quinquecirrha* sequences form reciprocally monophyletic groups for *16S*, *COI*, *28S* and combined analyses (Figures 4-7). Minimum sequence divergences between *C. chesapeakei* and *C. quinquecirrha* clades (COI: 12.1%, *16S*: 8.4%, *28S*: 2.5%) were much larger than the maximum within clades for *C. quinquecirrha* (COI: 0.3%, *16S*: 0.1%, *28S*: 0.0%) or *C. chesapeakei* (COI: 2.2%, *16S*: 1.9%, *28S*: 0.7%). *C. chesapeakei* sequences do not form monophyletic groups with any other species (Figures 4-7).

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920	FIGURES				
921 922	Figure 1: World map showing collecting sites of animals sequenced for this study. Final				
923	species designations are employed. All aquarium samples (C. achlyos, C. chinensis, C. colorata,				
924	C. fuscescens and C. pacifica) originated from cultures at the Monterey Bay Aquarium, althoug				
925	some were obtained from the Aquarium of the Americas. Their locations on the map are based				
926	on original collection locations for the aquarium cultures (W. Patry, pers. comm.).				
927					
928	Figure 2: Collection locations of <i>Chrysaora quinquecirrha</i> s.l. medusae used in this study.				
929	Abbreviations all refer to Tables 1 and S1. Figures 2 (A-C) are enlargements of rectangular inset				
930	regions. The star at Nantucket harbor indicates the type locality of <i>C. quinquecirrha</i> (Desor,				
931	1848). Diamonds represent important museum collection sites (Table S1). Site RI is within the				
932	enclosed Charlestown Pond, RI (41.364.765 N, 71.628865 W). Site NJ is at Ocean Gate Yacht				
933	Club (39.930490 N, 74.140448 W) on Toms River, inside Barnegat Bay. Site RB was collected				
934	from inside Rehoboth Bay, DE (38.688091 N, 75.077114 W). All Chesapeake Bay samples (NF				
935	and Gloucester Point, VA) were taken from well within the Chesapeake Bay. Site PAM was				
936	collected from Englehard, NC (35.509102 N, 75.989712 W), well within Pamlico Sound. CST				
937	was taken from within Charleston Harbor (32.786995 N, 79.909297 W). Site GA was taken from				
938	Fancy Bluff Creek, upstream from Saint Simons Sound, GA (31.166291 N, 81.416032 W).				
939	Sample sites with individuals finally designated as <i>C. quinquecirrha</i> are in white and those with				
940	individuals finally designated as C. chesapeakei in black.				
941					
942	Figure 3: <u>Various morphs of C. quinquecirrha s.l.</u> A) Offshore South Carolina (OSC); B)				
943	Sample taken from offshore Georgia; C) Englehard, NC (PAM); D) White Chesapeake Bay color				





944	morph (Choptank River, MD); E) Red-striped Chesapeake Bay color morph (York River, VA).
945	Note that medusae from A-B have 5 tentacles per octant, while C-E appear have three tentacles
946	per octant. Medusae in 3A and 3C were included in this study's phylogenetic analyses. (3A:
947	OSC1; 3C: PAM1). A-B represent individuals finally designated as C. quinquecirrha; C-E
948	represent individuals finally designated as C. chesapeakei.
949	
950	Figure 4: Pelagiidae COI Phylogeny. Bayesian Inference (BI) COI tree reconstructed from
951	CLUSTAL alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence
952	evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥0.70 (presented as a
953	percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥50%.
954	ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the
955	TPM2uf+I+G model of sequence evolution (-lnl 5451.81154) as determined by jMODELTEST
956	v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012). Abbreviations refer to Tables 1-2. Specific identification to the right
957	of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified
958	as C. quinquecirrha. Norfolk (VA) individuals NF1-NF3 were identified as white Chesapeake
959	Bay color morph and individuals NF4-NF5 as red-striped Chesapeake Bay color morph (Figure
960	3D-E).
961	
962	Figure 5: Pelagiidae 16S Phylogeny. Bayesian Inference (BI) 16S tree reconstructed from
963	MAFFT alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence
964	evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥0.70 (presented as a
965	percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥50%.
966	ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the





967	TIM2+I+G model of sequence evolution (-lnl 3641.97519) as determined by jMODELTEST				
968	v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012). Gray arrows indicate nodes that are alternated in the ML tree.				
969	Abbreviations refer to Tables 1-2. Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final				
970	species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as C. quinquecirrha s.l.				
971	Norfolk (VA) individuals NF1-NF3 were identified as white morph and individuals NF4-NF5 as				
972	red-striped bell morphs (Figure 3D-E).				
973					
974	Figure 6: Pelagiidae 28S Phylogeny. Bayesian Inference (BI) 28S tree reconstructed from				
975	MAFFT alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence				
976	evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥0.70 (presented as a				
977	percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥50%.				
978	ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the				
979	TrNef+I+G model of sequence evolution (-lnl 3817.02691) as determined by jMODELTEST				
980	v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012). Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final species				
981	designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as C. quinquecirrha.				
982					
983	Figure 7: Pelagiidae Combined Phylogeny. Bayesian Inference (BI) tree of the combined dataset				
984	applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show				
985	bootstrap support if ≥0.70 (presented as a percentage), followed by bootstrap support from				
986	maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥50%. ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML				
987	v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution (-lnl				
988	11924.23655) as determined by jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012). Specific				





identification to the right of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha*.

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Figure 8: Morphological evidence separating *C. quinquecirrha* and *C. chesapeakei*. A) Tentacle counts. Graph represents tentacles per octant against bell diameter (mm) for field collected and museum specimens. Squares represent animals taken from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico regions (C. chesapeakei), while circles represent animals taken from coastal Atlantic regions (C. quinquecirrha). All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red, while those whose sequences matched the C. quinquecirrha clade appear in blue. B) Maximum oral arm measurements. Graph represents maximum oral arm length against bell diameter (mm) for field-collected and museum specimens. Squares represent animals taken from U.S. Atlantic estuaries and the Gulf of Mexico (C. chesapeakei), while circles represent animals taken from coastal Atlantic regions (C. quinquecirrha). Only animals with fully intact and extended oral arms were included. All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red, while those whose sequences matched the C. quinquecirrha clade appear in blue. C) Average size measurements for holotrichous A-isrohiza nematocysts (length vs. width), based on 10 nematocysts per. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals (2*standard error). Squares represent nematocysts from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico medusae (C. chesapeakei), while circles represent nematocysts from coastal Atlantic medusae (C. quinquecirrha). Photograph of an average sized A-isorhiza from C. quinquecirrha appears on the left and a photograph of an average size A-isorhiza from C. chesapeakei appears on the right. Scale bars=10 um. Photographs have been resized so that all error bars are the same size on the page to allow size comparisons. All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei





1012	clade appear in red, withe those whose sequences matched the C. quinquectrrna clade appear in
1013	blue. Triangles represent average values from Papenfuss (1936) for morphs identified as
1014	Dactylometra quinquecirrha (gray) or Dactylometra quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei (white).
1015	
1016	Figure 9: Pelagiidae Evolution. Cladograms showing genus-level relationships within the
1017	Pelagiidae family. Colors represent individual genera as shown. A) Gershwin and Collins (2002);
1018	B) Morandini and Marques (2010); C) Avian et al. (2016): DNA analysis based on nuclear 28S;
1019	D) Avian et al. (2016): morphological analyses only; E) This study: Combined DNA analysis
1020	using sequence data from COI, 16S and 28S. *In Avian et al. (2016), this sequence is marked as
1021	Chrysaora sp. AY920779. This sequence is included in our analysis and is part of the clade that
1022	we call <i>Chrysaora</i> c.f. <i>chesapeakei</i> . ^We include the 28S phylogeny from Avian et al. (2016)
1023	because it has more species than their combined analysis but their generic conclusions are
1024	identical. Note that all previous hypotheses include a monophyletic <i>Chrysaora</i> .
1025	
1026	Figure S1: <u>Tentacle Nematocyst Sizes</u> . Average size measurements based on 10 nematocysts per
1027	individual (length vs. width) for nematocysts: A) a-isorhizas; B) O-isorhizas; C) heterotrichous
1028	microbasic rhopaloids. Error bars represent standard deviation values. Squares represent
1029	nematocysts from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico medusae (C. chesapeakei), while circles
1030	represent nematocysts from coastal Atlantic medusae (C. quinquecirrha). All animals with 16S
1031	sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red, while those whose sequences
1032	matched the C. quinquecirrha clade appear in blue. Triangles represent average values from
1033	Papenfuss (1936) for morphs identified as Dactylometra quinquecirrha (gray) or Dactylometra
1034	quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei (white). Nematocyst examples are to the right of each graph. All





1035	nematocysts are of average size for the nematocyst type and species. Photographs have been
1036	resized so that all error bars are the same size on the page to allow size comparisons.
1037	
1038	Figure S2: Tentacle Nematocyst Diversity. A) Mosaic plot showing the relative proportions of
1039	nematocyst types in distal, medial and proximal tentacle regions. O-isorhiza and rhopaloid
1040	nematocysts vary markedly in abundance across regions. Plot drawn using R package vcd
1041	(Meyer, Zeileis & Hornik 2016). Proportions of nematocysts types vary significantly across
1042	tentacle regions; shading indicates significant departures from expected values (red = negative
1043	residuals, blue = positive residuals).
1044	B) Non-metric multidimensional scaling of similarities in overall (proximal, medial and distal
1045	regions) proportions of all four nematocyst types. Squares represent nematocysts from estuarine
1046	Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico medusae, while circles represent nematocysts from coastal Atlantic
1047	medusae. All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red,
1048	while those whose sequences matched the <i>C. quinquecirrha</i> clade appear in blue.
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Table 1(on next page)

Geographic source regions of samples used for molecular analyses in this study, identified by taxon (original, morphologically based identification) and molecular ID (identification after molecular analyses).

Table 1: Geographic source regions of samples used for molecular analyses in this study, identified by taxon (original, morphologically based identification) and molecular ID (identification after molecular analyses). For six individuals, 28S sequences from those individuals were published previously. For *S. malayensis*, 16S/COI and 28S sequences came from the same culture, but two different individuals. For some aquarium specimens, the geographic source region for the culture is known: *near Los Angeles, CA (USA); ^Northern Malaysia; *near Monterey Bay, CA (USA).

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Original ID	Final ID	Location	Code	COI	16S	28S
Chrysaora achlyos	C. achlyos	Monterey Bay Aquarium*	MBA	1	1	1
Chrysaora africana	C. africana	Coastal Namibia	NAM	2	2	2
Chrysaora chinensis	C. chinensis	Monterey Bay Aquarium^	MBA	2	2	2
Chrysaora colorata	C. colorata	Aquarium of the Americas ⁺	AQA	1	1	1
Chrysaora fulgida	C. fulgida	Coastal Namibia	NAM	5	5	2
Chrysaora fuscescens	C. fuscescens	Aquarium of the Americas ⁺	AQA	1	1	HM194868
Chrysaora hysoscella	C. hysoscella	Cork, Ireland	IRE	3	3	3
Chrysaora lactea	Chrysaora c.f. chesapeakei	Kingston, Jamaica	JAM	5	5	2
Chrysaora lactea	C. lactea	Rio de la Plata, Argentina	ARG	1	1	1
Chrysaora melanaster	C. melanaster	Bering Sea	BER	_	1	AY920780
Chrysaora melanaster	C. pacifica	Monterey Bay Aquarium	MBA	1	1	HM194864
Chrysaora plocamia	C. plocamia	Puerto Madryn, Argentina	PMA	2	2	2
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. quinquecirrha	Buzzard's Bay, MA (USA)	MA	1	1	1
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. quinquecirrha	Cape Henlopen, DE (USA)	CHP	3	3	2
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. quinquecirrha	Offshore South Carolina (USA)	OSC	2	2	1
		(32.60 N, 79.21 W)				
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Charlestown Pond, RI (USA)	RI	4	4	-
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Tom's River Harbor, NJ (USA)	NJ	3	3	1
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Rehoboth Bay, DE (USA)	RB	3	3	-
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Norfolk, VA (USA)	NF	5	5	-
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Pamlico Sound, NS (USA)	PAM	3	3	-
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	St. Simon's Island, GA (USA)	GA	3	3	1
Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei	Perdido Pass, AL (USA)	AL	3	3	1
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Offshore Virginia (USA) (37.81 N, 73.91 W)	OVA	1	1	HM194865
Sanderia malayensis	S. malayensis	Monterey Bay Aquarium	MBA	1	1	HM194861
Unknown Pelagiidae	M. benovici	Dakar, Senegal	SEN	2	2	1



Table 2(on next page)

Geographic source regions of previously published sequences used in in this study identified by taxon

Table 2: Geographic source regions of previously published sequences used in in this study identified by taxon (previous identification) and Molecular ID (identification after molecular analyses). *Sequences came from the same individual.

Table 2: Geographic source regions of previously published sequences used in in this study identified by taxon (previous identification) and Molecular ID (identification after molecular analyses). *Sequences came from the same individual.

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Original ID	Final ID	Location	Code	COI	16S	28S
Chrysaora melanaster	C. melanaster	Bering Sea	BER1	KJ026191	-	-
Chrysaora melanaster	C. melanaster	Bering Sea	BER2	KJ026212	-	-
Chrysaora melanaster	C. melanaster	Bering Sea	BER3	KJ026256	-	-
Chrysaora sp.	Chrysaora c.f. chesapeakei	Bocas del Toro, Panama	PAN	JN700941*	JN700941*	AY920779*
Chrysaora pacifica	Chrysaora pacifica	Kyoto, Japan	KYO	LC191577	-	-
Chrysaora	C. pacifica	Geoje-do, Korea	KOR	HQ0694730	HQ0694730	-
quinquecirrha		•				
Chrysaora sp.	Chrysaora sp. 1	Noosa Heads, Australia	AUS	DQ083524	-	-
Chrysaora sp.	C. chinensis	Malaysia	MAL1	-	JN184784	-
Chrysaora sp.	C. chinensis	Malaysia	MAL2	-	JN184785	-
Chrysaora sp.	C. chinensis	Malaysia	MAL3	-	JN184786	-
Pelagia benovici	P. benovici	Northern Adriatic Sea	ADR1	KJ573409	-	KJ573396
Pelagia benovici	P. benovici	Northern Adriatic Sea	ADR2	KJ573410	-	KJ573397
Pelagia benovici	P. benovici	Northern Adriatic Sea	ADR3	KJ573412	-	KJ573401
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Southern Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy	TYR	KJ573419	-	KJ573408
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Cape Town, South Africa	SA	JQ697961	-	-
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Dispensa Island, Costa Rica	CR1	JX235441	-	-
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Dispensa Island, Costa Rica	CR2	-	JX235404	-
Pelagia noctiluca	P. noctiluca	Dispensa Island, Costa Rica	CR3	-	JX235405	-
Pelagia c.f. panopyra	Pelagia c.f. panopyra	Papua, New Guinea	PNG	KJ573422	-	-



Table 3(on next page)

Morphological characters examined for this study

Table 3: Morphological characters examined for this study. Characters in bold are species diagnostic. All macromorphological characters and character states (except maximum oral arm length) are taken from Gershwin and Collins (2004). Cnidome terminology is taken from Morandini and Marques (2010), with average examples in Figure 8C, S1. *If two outlier specimens are included, the upper range is 6 tentacles/octant. ^Although maximum bell diameter for *C. quinquecirha* has been recorded as great as 40 mm (Gershwin and Collins, 2004; Morandini and Marques, 2010), no animals >20 mm were observed in this study.

- 1 Table 3: Morphological characters examined for this study. Characters in bold are species diagnostic. All
- 2 macromorpholgical characters and character states (except maximum oral arm length) are taken from
- 3 Gershwin and Collins (2004), Cnidome terminology is taken from Morandini and Marques (2010), with
- 4 average examples in Figure 8C, S1. *If two outlier specimens are included, the upper range is 6
- 5 tentacles/octant. ^Although maximum bell diameter for *C. quinquecirha* has been recorded as great as 40
- 6 mm (Gershwin and Collins, 2004; Morandini and Marques, 2010), no animals >20 mm were observed in
- 7 this study.

<u> </u>		
Character	Chrysaora quinquecirrha	C. chesapeakei
<u>Macromorphology</u>		
Bell Diameter (average/median)	114 mm (59-176 mm)	62.2 mm (17-175 mm)
Tentacles / octant (average \pm 95% CI)	5.28 ± 0.45	3.07 ± 0.07
Tentacles / octant (range)	4.5 - 6.75	2.75 - 3.43*
Lappets / octant (average $\pm 95\%$ CI)	6.26 ± 0.46	4.08 ± 0.06
Lappets / octant (range)	5.5 – 7.75	3.75 - 4.8
Maximum Oral Arm Length (average	$1.24 \pm 0.27 \text{ times BD}$	$3.00 \pm 0.39 \text{ times BD}$
± 95% CI)		
Maximum Oral Arm Length (range)	0.68 to 1.81 times BD	1.21 to 5.58 timed BD
Lappets in Size Classes	Yes, rhopalar lappets larger	No, lappets of similar size
Rhopalia Number	8	8
Rhopaliar Pits	deep	deep
Septa Shape	bent	bent
Septa Termination	near tentacle	near tentacle
Spiral Oral Arms?	No	No
Manubrium Length	elongated	elongated
Manubrium Mass	light	light
Warts/Papillae	inconspicuous	inconspicuous
Maximum Bell Diameter	< 20 cm^	< 20 cm^
Bell Mass	light	light
Dominant color	White, colorless	Variable, white, colorless or
		red/brown bell
Exumbrellar marks	Minor bell marks in some cases	Variable, red or brown star shape conspicuous in some cases,
Oral arm color	None	Variable, Oral arms can be
	1,0110	colored red/brown
Quadralinga	None	None
Gonads in Pouch?	Yes	Yes
Gonad Shape	Not finger-like	Not finger-like
C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C		
<u>Cnidome</u>		
A isorhiza - Length vs. Width (avg)	$20.25 \pm 0.38 \text{ x } 11.27 \pm 0.37 \mu\text{m}$	$26.21 \pm 0.50 \times 19.74 \pm 0.55 \mu m$
A isorhiza - Length vs. Width (range)	15.01–22.9 x 9.07–13.16 μm	20.54–33.79 x 15.03–29.77 µm
a isorhiza – Length vs. Width (avg)	$8.27 \pm 0.19 \text{ x } 4.22 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{m}$	$7.88 \pm 0.13 \text{ x } 4.29 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{m}$
a isorhiza – Length vs. Width (range)	6.56-9.77 x 3.65-4.95 μm	6.32-9.9 x 3.59-5.46 μm
O isorhiza – Length vs. Width (avg)	$21.64 \pm 0.38 \times 18.92 \pm 0.77 \mu\text{m}$	$23.10 \pm 0.43 \times 20.75 \pm 0.62 \mu\text{m}$
O isorhiza – Length vs. Width (range)	17.64-23.97 x 16.08-21.74 μm	17.88-27.51 x 16.07-24.75 μm
Birhopaloids – Length vs. Width (avg)	$13.58 \pm 0.19 \times 8.09 \pm 0.09 \mu\text{m}$	$12.73 \pm 0.22 \times 8.29 \pm 0.13 \mu m$
Birhopaloids – Length vs. Width (range)	12.31-14.86 x 6.96-8.90 µm	10.96-15.27 x 7.1-10.23 μm
1 5		· · · · · · · ·





Figure 1(on next page)

World map showing collecting sites of animals sequenced for this study

Figure 1: World map showing collecting sites of animals sequenced for this study . Final species designations are employed. All aquarium samples (*C. achlyos, C. chinensis, C. colorata, C. fuscescens* and *C. pacifica*) originated from cultures at the Monterey Bay Aquarium, although some were obtained from the Aquarium of the Americas. Their locations on the map are based on original collection locations for the aquarium cultures (W. Patry, pers. comm.).



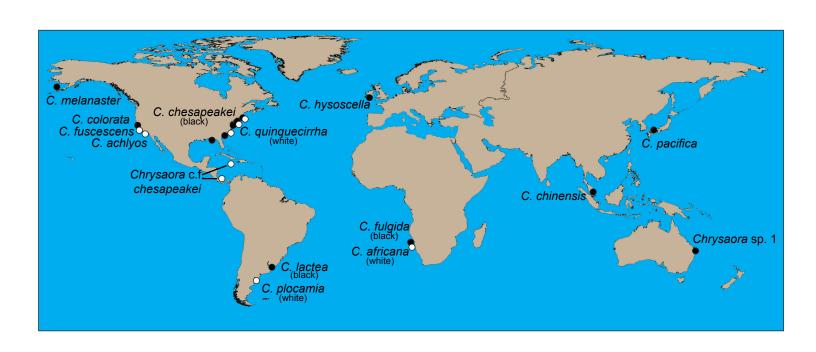




Figure 2(on next page)

Collection locations of Chrysaora quinquecirrha s.l. medusae

Figure 2: Collection locations of *Chrysaora quinquecirrha* s.l. medusae used in this study. Abbreviations all refer to Tables 1 and S1. Figures 2 (A-C) are enlargements of rectangular inset regions. The star at Nantucket harbor indicates the type locality of *C. quinquecirrha* (Desor, 1848). Diamonds represent important museum collection sites (Table S1). Site RI is within the enclosed Charlestown Pond, RI (41.364.765 N, 71.628865 W). Site NJ is at Ocean Gate Yacht Club (39.930490 N, 74.140448 W) on Toms River, inside Barnegat Bay. Site RB was collected from inside Rehoboth Bay, DE (38.688091 N, 75.077114 W). All Chesapeake Bay samples (NF and Gloucester Point, VA) were taken from well within the Chesapeake Bay. Site PAM was collected from Englehard, NC (35.509102 N, 75.989712 W), well within Pamlico Sound. CST was taken from within Charleston Harbor (32.786995 N, 79.909297 W). Site GA was taken from Fancy Bluff Creek, upstream from Saint Simons Sound, GA (31.166291 N, 81.416032 W). Sample sites with individuals finally designated as *C. quinquecirrha* are in white and those with individuals finally designated as *C. chesapeakei* in black.

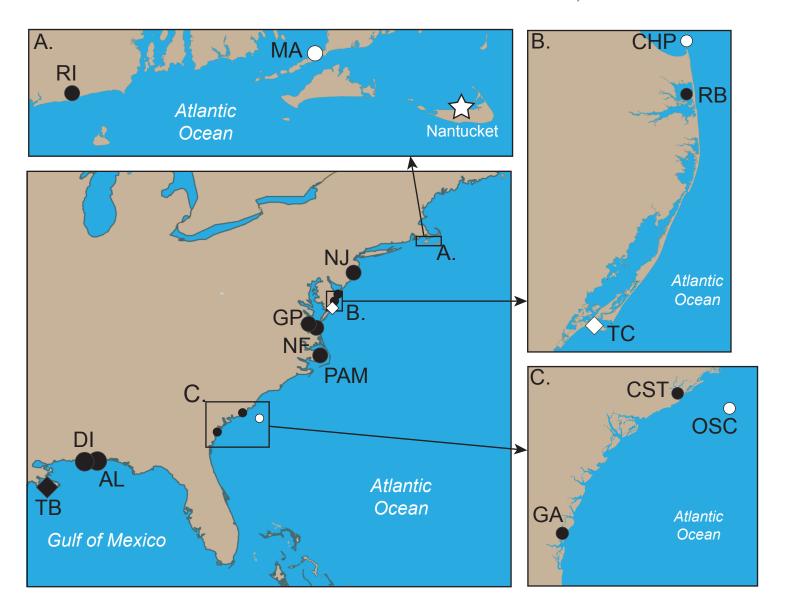


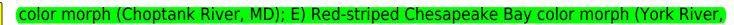


Figure 3(on next page)

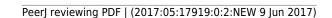
Various morphs of *C. quinquecirrha s.l.*

Figure 3: Various morphs of *C. quinquecirrha s.l.* A) Offshore South Carolina (OSC); B)

Sample taken from offshore Georgia; C) Englehard, NC (PAM); D) White Chesapeake Bay



VA). Note that medusae from A-B have 5 tentacles per octant, while C-E appear have three tentacles per octant. Medusae in 3A and 3C were included in this study's phylogenetic analyses. (3A: OSC1; 3C: PAM1). A-B represent individuals finally designated as *C. quinquecirrha*; C-E represent individuals finally designated as *C. chesapeakei*.



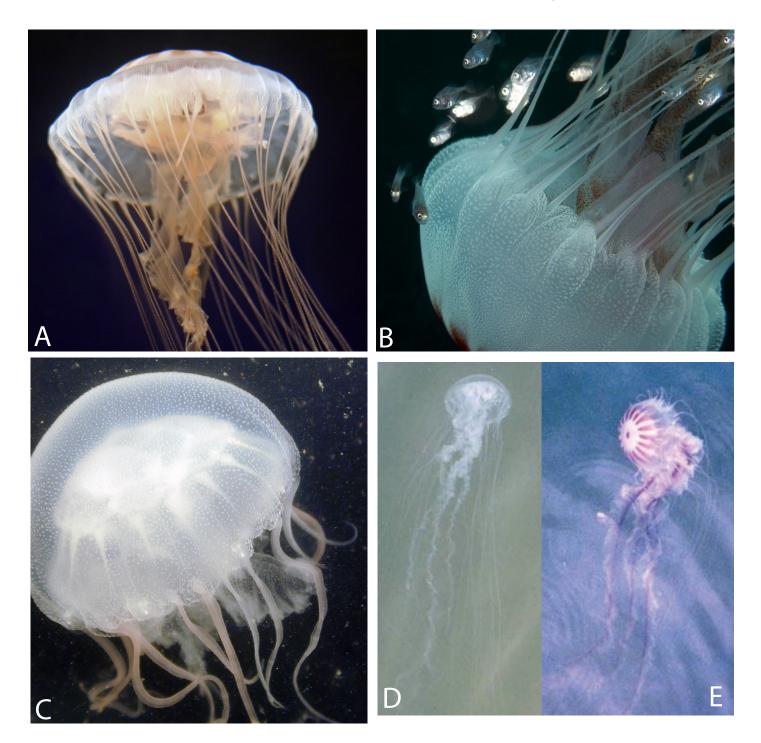




Figure 4(on next page)

Pelagiidae *COI* Phylogeny

Figure 4: Pelagiidae *COI* Phylogeny . Bayesian Inference (BI) *COI* tree reconstructed from CLUSTAL alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥ 0.70 (presented as a percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥ 50%. ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the TPM2uf+I+G model of sequence evolution (-InI 5451.81154) as determined by jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012) . Abbreviations refer to Tables 1-2. Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha*. Norfolk (VA) individuals NF1-NF3 were identified as white Chesapeake Bay color morph and individuals NF4-NF5 as red-striped Chesapeake Bay color morph (Figure 3D-E).

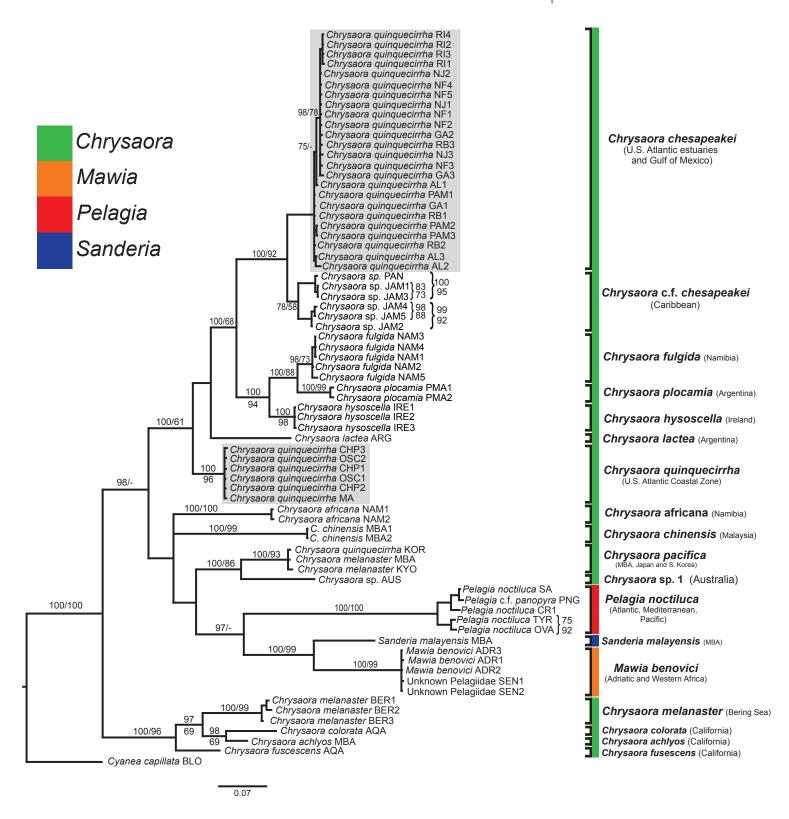




Figure 5(on next page)

Pelagiidae 16S Phylogeny

Figure 5: Pelagiidae *16S* Phylogeny . Bayesian Inference (BI) *16S* tree reconstructed from MAFFT alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥ 0.70 (presented as a percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if ≥ 50%. ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the TIM2+I+G model of sequence evolution (-InI 3641.97519) as determined by jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012) . Gray arrows indicate nodes that are alternated in the ML tree. Abbreviations refer to Tables 1-2. Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha* s.l. Norfolk (VA) individuals NF1-NF3 were identified as white morph and individuals NF4-NF5 as red-striped bell morphs (Figure 3D-E).

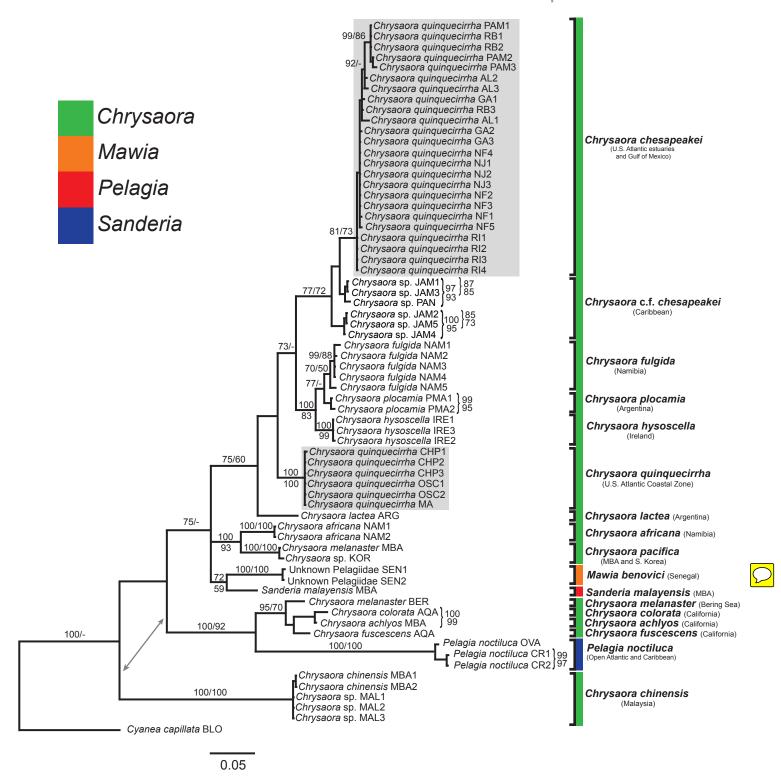




Figure 6(on next page)

Pelagiidae 285 Phylogeny

Figure 6: Pelagiidae *28S* Phylogeny . Bayesian Inference (BI) *28S* tree reconstructed from MAFFT alignment using Mr. Bayes v3.2.4 and applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if ≥ 0.70 (presented as a percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if $\geq 50\%$. ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the TrNef+I+G model of sequence evolution (-Inl 3817.02691) as determined by jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012) . Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha*.



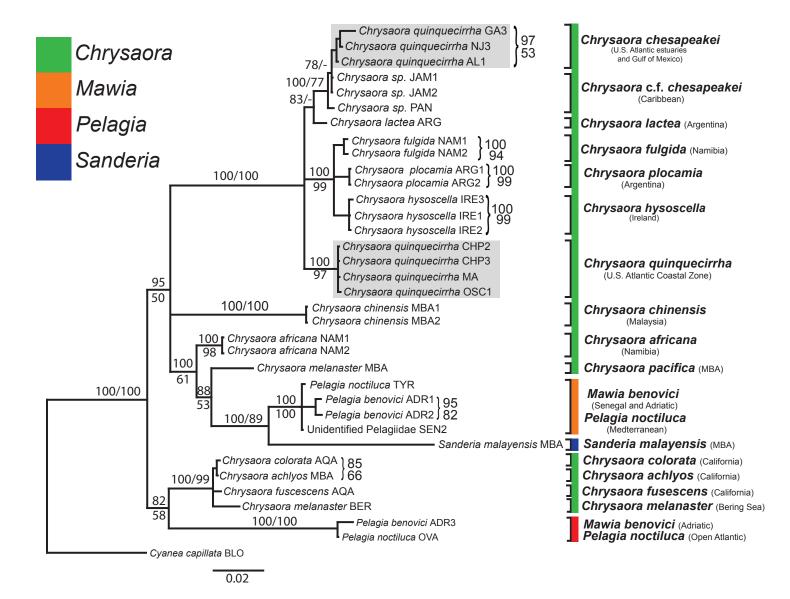




Figure 7(on next page)

Pelagiidae Combined Phylogeny

Figure 7: Pelagiidae Combined Phylogeny . Bayesian Inference (BI) tree of the combined dataset applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution. Numbers adjacent to branches show bootstrap support if \geq 0.70 (presented as a percentage), followed by bootstrap support from maximum likelihood (ML) analysis if \geq 50%. ML phylogeny was reconstructed using PhyML v3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010) applying the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution (-Inl 11924.23655) as determined by jMODELTEST v2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 2012) . Specific identification to the right of the tree indicates final species designations. Clades colored in gray were originally identified as *C. quinquecirrha*.



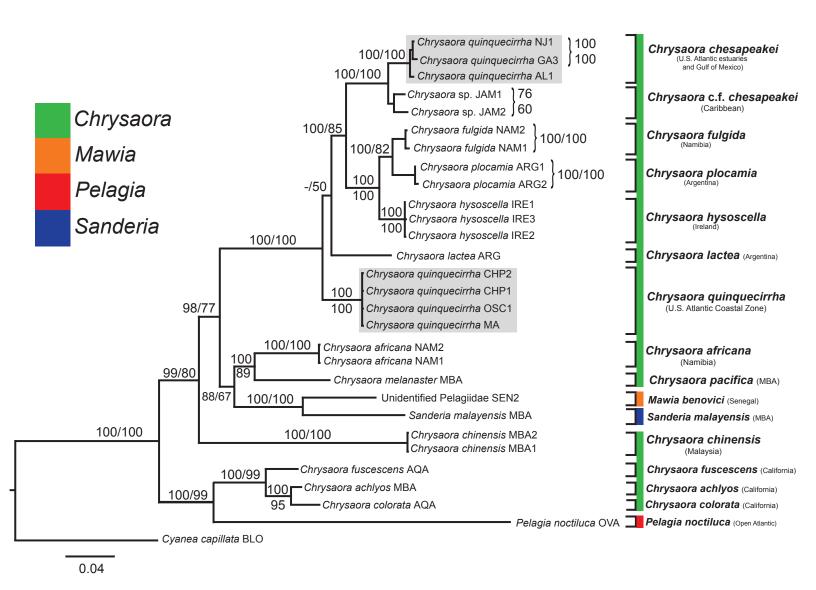




Figure 8(on next page)

Morphological evidence separating C. quinquecirrha and C. chesapeakei

Figure 8: Morphological evidence separating *C. quinquecirrha* and *C. chesapeakei* . A) Tentacle counts. Graph represents tentacles per octant against bell diameter (mm) for field collected and museum specimens. Squares represent animals taken from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico regions (C. chesapeakei), while circles represent animals taken from coastal Atlantic regions (C. quinquecirrha). All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red, while those whose sequences matched the C. quinquecirrha clade appear in blue. B) Maximum oral arm measurements. Graph represents maximum oral arm length against bell diameter (mm) for field-collected and museum specimens. Squares represent animals taken from U.S. Atlantic estuaries and the Gulf of Mexico (C. chesapeakei), while circles represent animals taken from coastal Atlantic regions (*C. quinquecirrha*). Only animals with fully intact and extended oral arms were included. All animals with 16S sequences matching the *C. chesapeakei* clade appear in red, while those whose sequences matched the C. quinquecirrha clade appear in blue. C) Average size measurements for holotrichous A-isrohiza nematocysts (length vs. width), based on 10 nematocysts per. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals (2*standard error). Squares represent nematocysts from estuarine Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico medusae (*C. chesapeakei*), while circles represent nematocysts from coastal Atlantic medusae (*C. quinquecirrha*). Photograph of an average sized A-isorhiza from C. quinquecirrha appears on the left and a photograph of an average size A-isorhiza from *C. chesapeakei* appears on the right. Scale bars=10 um. Photographs have been resized so that all error bars are the same size on the page to allow size comparisons. All animals with 16S sequences matching the C. chesapeakei clade appear in red, while those whose sequences matched the *C. quinquecirrha* clade appear in blue. Triangles represent average values from Papenfuss (1936) for morphs identified as Dactylometra quinquecirrha (gray) or Dactylometra quinquecirrha var. chesapeakei (white).



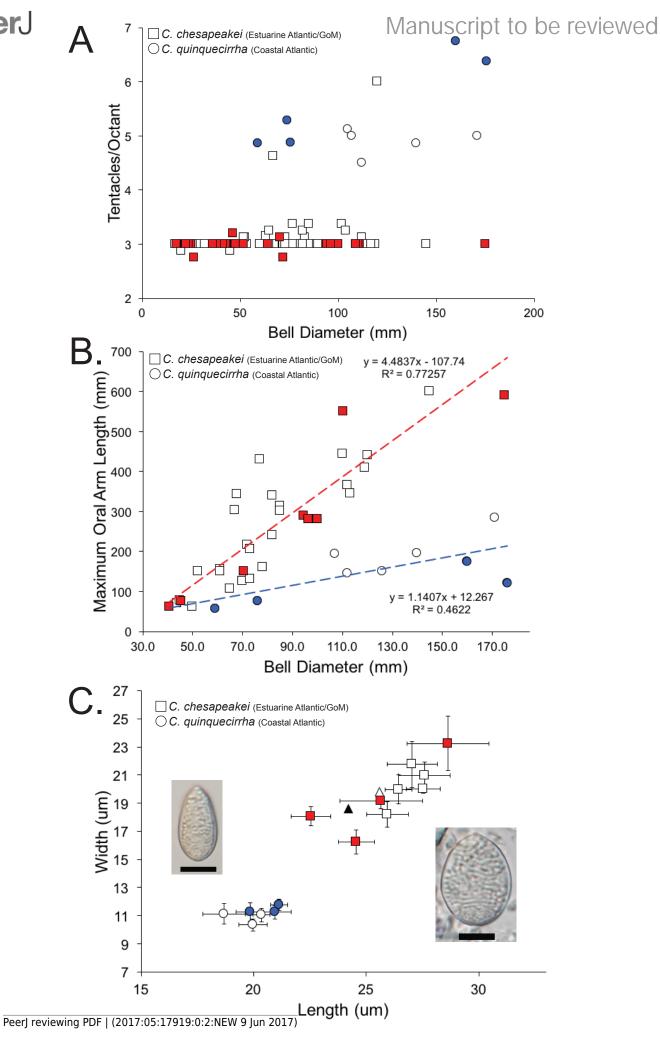
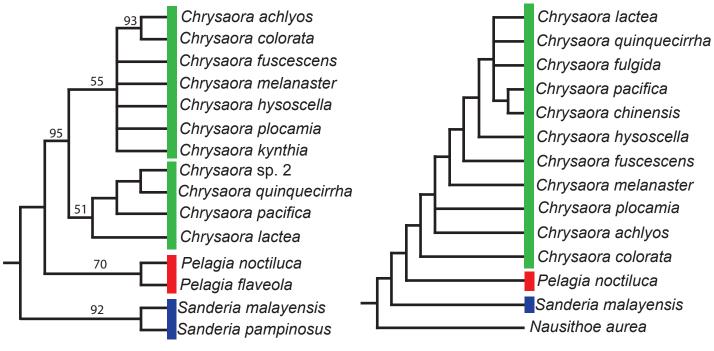




Figure 9(on next page)

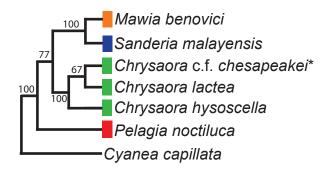
Pelagiidae Evolution

Figure 9: Pelagiidae Evolution . Cladograms showing genus-level relationships within the Pelagiidae family. Colors represent individual genera as shown. A) Gershwin and Collins (2002); B) Morandini and Marques (2010); C) Avian et al. (2016): DNA analysis based on nuclear *28S*; D) Avian et al. (2016): morphological analyses only; E) This study: Combined DNA analysis using sequence data from *COI*, *16S* and *28S*. *In Avian et al. (2016), this sequence is marked as *Chrysaora* sp. AY920779. This sequence is included in our analysis and is part of the clade that we call *Chrysaora* c.f. *chesapeakei*. ^We include the *28S* phylogeny from Avian et al. (2016) because it has more species than their combined analysis but their generic conclusions are identical. Note that all previous hypotheses include a monophyletic *Chrysaora*.

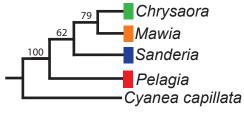


A. Gershwin and Collins, 2002

B. Morandini and Marques, 2010

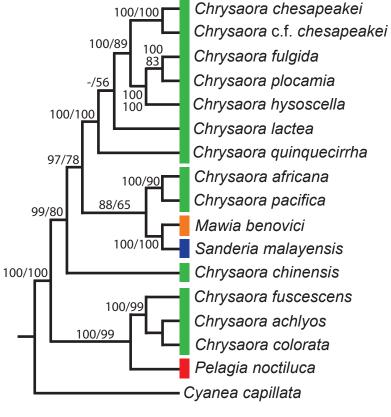


C. Avian et al., 2016 (28S DNA analysis^A)



D. Avian et al., 2016 (morphology)





E. This study (combined DNA analyses)