Another cryptic invasion? The highly toxic clinging jellyfish Gonionemus sp. 1 (Hydrozoa, Limnomedusae) on the Swedish west coast 2 3 Björn Källström^{1,2,3*}, Annette Frese Govindarajan^{4*}, Erik Selander¹, Carina Östman⁵, Thomas G. 4 Dahlgren^{1,2,6} 6 ¹ Department of Marine Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Göteborg, Sweden 7 ² GGBC Gothenburg Global Biodiversity Centre, Göteborg, Sweden 8 ³ Gothenburg Marine Biological Laboratory, Göteborg, Sweden 9 ⁴ Biology Department, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, 10 11 ⁵ Evolutionary Biology Center, EBC, Department of Organismal Biology, University of Uppsala, 12 13 ⁶ NORCE Norwegian Research Centre, Bergen, Norway 14 15 16 *Corresponding authors 17 18 Björn Källström 19 Sven Källfelts gata 47, 426 71 Västra Frölunda, Sweden Email address: bjorn.kallstrom@gmbl.se 20 21 Annette Frese Govindarajan

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Abstract

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The clinging jellyfish Gonionemus sp. is a small hydromedusa species known historically from the Swedish west coast but not reported in recent times. This species is thought to be native to the northwest Pacific where it is notorious for causing severe stings in humans and is considered invasive or cryptogenic elsewhere. This year, unlike in the past, severe stings in swimmers making contact with Gonionemus sp. medusae occurred in Swedish waters from a sheltered eelgrass bed in the inner Skagerrak archipelago. To the best of our knowledge, this is only the second sting record of Gonionemus sp. from the Northeast Atlantic - with the first record occurring off the Belgian coast in the 1970s. Stinging Gonionemus sp. medusae have also been recently reported from the northwestern Atlantic coast, where, like on the Swedish coast, stings were not reported in the past. We analyzed sea surface temperature data from the past 30 years and show that 2018 had an exceptionally cold spring followed by an exceptionally hot summer. It is suggested that the 2018 temperature anomalies contributed to the Swedish outbreak. An analysis of mitochondrial COI sequences showed that Swedish medusae belong to the same clade as those from toxic populations in the Sea of Japan and northwest Atlantic. Gonionemus sp. is particularly prone to human - mediated dispersal and we suggest that it is possible that this year's outbreak is the result of anthropogenic factors either through a climate-driven northward range shift or an introduction via shipping activity. We examined medusa growth rates and details of medusa morphology including nematocysts. Two types of penetrating nematocysts: euryteles and b-mastigophores were observed, suggesting that Gonionemus sp. medusae are able to feed on hard-bodied organisms like copepods and cladocerans. Given the now-regular

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occurrence and regional spread of Gonionemus sp. in the northwest Atlantic, it seems likely that

- 46 outbreaks in Sweden will continue. More information on its life cycle, dispersal mechanisms,
- 47 and ecology are thus desirable.

Introduction

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There is increasing concern over the highly toxic cryptogenic clinging jellyfish Gonionemus sp. (Hydrozoa, Limnomedusae) due to outbreaks in scattered temperate coastal areas worldwide, where the jellyfish are either previously unrecorded, or where they have not been observed for decades (Rodriguez et al., 2014; Govindarajan & Carman, 2016; Gaynor et al., 2016; Govindarajan et al., 2017; Marchessaux et al., 2017). These hydromedusae can have a potent sting that causes severe pain and other symptoms to humans (Pigulevsky & Michaleff, 1969; Otsuru et al., 1974; Yakovlev & Vaskovsky, 1993; Govindarajan & Carman, 2016; Marchessaux et al., 2017). As well, they can be lethal to their predators (Carman et al., 2017). It appears likely that the current *Gonionemus* outbreaks are facilitated by anthropogenic transport (citations). The adult Gonionemus medusae which reach approximately 3 cm in diameter, have adhesive structures positioned towards the distal ends of their tentacles (citations), which they use to cling to the eelgrass such as Zostera marina (citations). Thus while the medusa occasionally swim out of the eelgrass meadows, natural or anthropogenic medusa dispersal, while possible, may not be the primary mechanism for its spread. Gonionemus sp. has a complex life history that includes minute benthic asexual stages (Perkins, 1902; Kakinuma, 1971; Uchida, 1976) that may be amenable to human-mediated transport on ship hulls (Tambs-Lyche, 1964), shellfish (Edwards, 1977), and debris (Choong et al., 2018). An understanding of the dispersal history and spread of clinging jellyfish has been hampered by a complex taxonomic history. The name Gonionemus vertens Agassiz, 1862 has been used recently to refer to "clinging jellyfish" from throughout the northern hemisphere but was originally described from material collected in Puget Sound, the North East Pacific

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(citations). In the Atlantic the clinging jellyfish were originally described as Gonionemus

murbachii Mayer, 1901, and were considered distinct from *G. vertens* (citations). They were later synonymised (Kramp, 1959) and the Atlantic populations were hypothesized to have been founded by anthropogenic introductions from the Pacific (Tambs-Lyche, 1964; Edwards, 1977; Bakker, 1980), although this was not accepted by all. Based on consistent morphological characters, some authors either maintained the *murbachii* name (Rottini, 1979) or considered the two forms to be subspecies (Naumov, 1960). Govindarajan et al. (2017) found that differences in mitochondrial COI sequences were also consistent with the *vertens* - *murbachii* forms; but noted that these differences do not correspond to the Atlantic - Pacific division suggested by Naumov (1960). Owing to their episodic nature and the lack of continuity in observations of late 19th and early 20th century *G. murbachii* and contemporary populations in the *G. murbachii* type locality, Govindarajan et al. (2017) conservatively referred to the more toxic, putative *murbachii* lineage as *Gonionemus* sp. until the taxonomy can be further clarified.

Gonionemus sp. has been previously reported from Scandinavian and North Sea waters (reviewed in Bakker, 1980; Wolff, 2005), but we are not aware of any stings associated with past observations. Here, using morphological and molecular evidence, we document blooms of the highly toxic lineage Gonionemus sp. in the summer of 2018 associated with a sheltered eelgrass (Zostera marina) bed on the Swedish west coast. We report the first case of a Gonionemus sp. envenomation in Scandinavian waters and discuss the possible origins of these apparently new and highly toxic Gonionemus sp. populations. We also suggest that warmer than average sea surface temperatures may have contributed to the 2018 Gonionemus sp. outbreaks.

Materials and Methods

Sample collection and field observations

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95 The first reports of an unknown stinging medusae came from swimmers through media on 27th July 2018 (SVT, 2018). Several swimmers had been stung at Knuten on the northeastern 96 97 (leeward) side of the island Tjörn (58.0782°N; 11.7065°E, Fig. 1). On two occasions, the 2nd and 18th of August, we sampled medusae by snorkeling in the eelgrass bed with a small hand 98 99 held net (120x150 mm, mesh size?, JBL GmbH & CO, Neuhofen Germany). Medusae were 100 transported live in aerated tanks to the laboratory for analysis and maintained on a diet of 101 copepods and frozen Artemia larvae. Samples were preserved in 96% ethanol for DNA analysis. 102 103 Medusa size and nematocyst identifications 104 The diameter of the Gonionemus medusae was measured by imaging the uncontracted medusae 105 when resting on the bottom of a white plastic box with 50 mm of natural sea water using a DSLR 106 camera (Nikon D7100, Nikon Corporation, Japan). A plastic millimeter ruler in the box was used 107 for reference to measure the bell diameter in Image J (Schneider et al., 2012). Some of the 108 Gonionemus medusae and their nematocysts were examined and photographed with a Leitz 109 DMRBE stereomicroscope and with a Leica MZI6A light microscope (LM) (company and 110 country) equipped with interference-contrast optics, 100x/1.30 PL, fluotar objectives. Both 111 microscopes were connected to the digital photo equipment Leica application suite, version 3.8 112 (LAS V3.8). Measurements on different medusa structures were made in the stereomicroscope, and measurements on the nematocysts were made from the light microscope. All pictures and 113 114 measurements are from living hydromedusae.

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The nematocysts were identified by size, structure and shape of their undischarged and

nematocyst nomenclature of Östman (2000, and references therein) was used.

discharged capsule and shaft, and on the spine-pattern of the shaft. The classification system and

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118 119 Temperature record 120 Sea surface temperature data was downloaded from the Swedish repository for environmental monitoring data (SMHI, 2018). The closest monitoring station with sufficient resolution and duration was "Åstol", 23 km from the collection site (57.922°N; 11.590°E, Fig. 1). Sea surface 122 temperature from 1986 to 2018 was binned into monthly averages. The monthly mean 123 124 temperatures for 2018 were graphically superimposed to identify anomalies. 125 126 Phylogeographic analysis 127 Molecular procedures and analyses were conducted at the Woods Hole Oceanographic 128 Institution (Woods Hole, MA, USA) except where indicated. Genomic DNA was extracted from 129 15 preserved hydromedusae collected from the leeward side of Tjörn Island, Skåpesund (Fig. 1) 130 using DNeEasy Blood & Tissue? Extraction Kkits (Qiagen, Germany?) according to the manufacturer's protocol. A ~650 base pair portion of the mitochondrial COI gene was amplified 132 and sequenced using primers from Folmer et al. (1994) using the approach described in 133 Govindarajan et al. (2017). PCR conditions were 3 minutes at 95°C; 35 cycles of 95°C 30s; 48°C 134 30s, 72°C 1 min; and 5 minutes at 72°C. PCR products were visualized on a 1% agarose gel 135 stained with GelRed, purified with QIAinquick PCR Ppurification Kkits (Qiagen, Germany?) 136 according to the manufacturer's protocol, and quantified using a Nano \underline{D} drop 2000 137 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, US). Purified products were sequenced in both 138 directions (Eurofins, https://www.eurofins.com/). An additional specimen was amplified using a 139 similar protocol in Sweden and sent for sequencing using the GATC LightRun Barcode service 140 (www.eurofinsgenomics.eu). Sequence chromatograms were evaluated and assembled using

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Geneious version 9.0.5 (https://www.geneious.com/). Assembled sequences were aligned with sequences representing the 7 haplotypes in Govindarajan et al. (2017; Table 1). Representatives of additional haplotypes from Gonionemus sp. sequences that were deposited on GenBbank after Govindarajan et al. (2017) were identified in a preliminary alignment, and were then added to the alignment dataset with the Swedish sequences. Alignments were conducted using ClustalW (Larkin et al., 2007) in the Geneious platform with default parameters. The alignments were confirmed by eye and the ends were trimmed to 501 base pairs to standardize sequence length and facilitate a direct comparison with the analysis conducted by Govindarajan et al. (2017) and the new GenBbank sequences that were also that length. Neighbor-joining trees based on Kimura 2-parameter distances (to be consistent with previous analyses; Zheng et al., 2014; Govindarajan et al., 2017) were constructed the PAUP* 4 (Swofford, 2003) accessed through Geneious.

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Results

brown gonads.

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Sample collection and field observations

Medusae were collected at two occasions from the Skåpesund location (Fig. 1) and identified morphologically as Gonionemus sp. (Fig. 2). Medusae possessed adhesive pads characteristic of the genus Gonionemus located towards the distal ends of their tentacles (Fig. 2-3, more detailed morphology in Supplementary Figs 1-6), which allow them to "cling" to the eelgrass. Similar to Gonionemus sp. from the Northwest Atlantic, Northwest Pacific, and the Sea of Japan (Govindarajan et al., 2017), medusae were relatively flat and had relatively thin, dull orange -

One of us (BK) was stung several times while skin diving on the first sampling date. The stings left red marks at the site of contact and produced marked pain for several hours and

feelings of unease throughout the first night afterwards. As reported elsewhere (e.g. Pigulevsky & Michaleff, 1969) stinging sensations where felt throughout the night even at places on the body where no direct contact had occurred. Local newspapers also reported stings in other swimmers, with similar outcomes and in a few cases the victims had strong reactions that demanded medical attention (Aftonbladet, 2018). Medusa size distributions Commented [R17]: Not enough sampling data to estimate of growth rate. It needs data from start of medusa appearance to disappear of ones. The Gonionemus sp. population showed slight growth over the 16-day period between sampling dates (p < 0.001, Fig. 2). At the initial time point, the mean diameter was 9.8 ± 2.7 mm. Sixteen days later, at the second time point, the mean size was 11 ± 1.8 mm suggesting an average growth rate of 0.08 mm per day. Detailed medusa and nematocyst morphology Gonionemus sp. possesses a well-developed transparent velum (inward projecting rim of tissue; Figs. 3A-3D). Four narrow radial canals form a noticeable cross centrally inside the dorsal bell Commented [R18]: Subumbrella cavity (Figs. 3B, 3C). The stomach with connecting manubrium (tube-like projection with the mouth) is centrally attached to the cross-region of the radial-canals (Figs. 3B-3D). The gonads are arranged along most of the length of the radial canals (Figs. 3A-3B, 3D). Mature female gonads are light yellow-brown; each gonad is folded into 6-8 broad bulbs (Fig. 3A). The male gonads are darker brownish-red and each folded into 9-13 smaller bulbs (Figs. 3B, 3D). Around 45 - 58 slender tentacles are attached to the ventral side of the bell rim close to the Commented [R19]: subumbrella ring canal, which surrounds the bell close to the velum (Figs. 3A-3G). Contracted tentacles are stubby (Fig. 3D) and are less than half the length of extended tentacles (Figs. 3F, 3G). Close to

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or at a short distance from the tentacle tip, a small bending is present on each tentacle, caused by the presence of an adhesive pad (Figs. 3D, 3F, 3G). The adhesive pad is located to one side of the tentacle and causes the tentacle to bend, thus pointing outwards (Figs. 3A, 3G, detailed view in Fig. 4B). The gracile tentacles are in their mid-region black colored along most of their length (Figs. 4A-C) and are armed with ring-shaped nematocyst batteries. Batteries with closely packed nematocysts form rings around the tentacle (Fig. 4A). Small patches of nematocysts are scattered between the nematocyst rings, most clearly visible on the black pigmented mid-streak of a tentacle (Figs. 4A, 4B). Two nematocyst types, microbasic euryteles and microbasic b-mastigophores, are present in the nematocyst batteries around the tentacles (Figs. 4D-4K). The euryteles are larger and by far the more abundant. Some small microbasic b-mastigophores were loosely scattered among the euryteles. The capsules of both euryteles and the b-mastigophores are broad, rounded basally and slightly narrower apically (Fig. 4E). The inverted eurytele shaft is broad, rod-shaped with pointed apical tip. The pattern of the shaft is caused by its long, inverted spines, all pointing towards the apical capsule opening with its lid. The inverted tubule makes slightly oblique coils to the long capsule axis and almost fills the whole capsule, except for its basal end. The narrow shaft of the small microbasic b-mastigophore was slightly bent, following the convex capsule side (Figs. 4E-4K). Discharged eurytele shaft was broad, rod-shaped with distal swelling armed with long spines (Figs. 4H, 4I, inset). The prominent rounded lid at apical capsule, and the difference of the diameter of shaft and distal tubule were obvious (Figs. 4I, 4J). On discharged microbasic b-mastigophores no clear spine-pattern on the narrow shaft and no obvious difference

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between the diameter of distal tubule and shaft tubules were visible (Figs. 4I, 4K).

210 Additional morphological details are presented in Supplementary Figures 1-6. 211 212 **Temperature** 213 The 2018 spring and summer temperatures in Åstol were anomalous relative to the previous 28 214 years (Fig. 5). The spring temperatures were approximately 2°C cooler than during 1986-2018; 215 while the summer temperatures were approximately 3°C warmer than 1986-2018. 216 217 Phylogeographic analysis 218 DNA Sequences were obtained for 16 Swedish Gonionemus sp. medusae and submitted to 219 GenBbank (accession numbers MK158929-MK158944). These 16 sequences comprised three 220 haplotypes. Nine medusae possessed one haplotype, 6 medusae possessed a second haplotype, 221 and a single medusa possessed a third haplotype. The Swedish sequences were aligned with representatives of each of the *Gonionemus* sp. haplotypes described in Govindarajan et al. (2017) 222 Commented [R20]: 2012? 223 and additional haplotypes found in subsequently available GenBbank sequences. These newer 224 GenBbank sequences included one representative from New Jersey on the USA mid-Atlantic 225 coast (accession number KY451454; Gaynor et al., 2016) and 104 sequences from three Chinese locations (accession numbers MH020640 - MH020743; Liu & Dong, unpublished). 226 227 An initial alignment and neighbor-joining tree of the new Chinese sequences from 228 GenBbank showed that they comprised 9 haplotypes (Fig. 6). Haplotypes were labeled by 229 number following Govindarajan et al. (2017) and new haplotypes were given new numbers. Of Commented [R21]: 2012? 230 the 9 haplotypes, one matched Haplotype 9, one matched Haplotype 4, and 7 were unique for 231 Sweden. One sequence representing each of the 7 unique haplotypes were selected for the

analysis with the Swedish unique sequences. The single New Jersey sequence matched one of the Swedish haplotypes, as described below.

A neighbor-joining tree of the Swedish sequences and the unique COI haplotypes was generated (Fig. 6). We found that the most abundant Swedish haplotype (found in 9 out of 16 specimens) exactly matched Haplotype 4 from Govindarajan et al. (2017) that was possessed by medusae from the Northwest Atlantic (from the states of Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire along the northeastern USA coast) and the Northwest Pacific (including the highly toxic Vladivostok-area populations from the Sea of Japan). The second Swedish haplotype, termed "Haplotype 9" here and found in 6 out of 16 specimens, matched the haplotype from New Jersey.

Discussion

We documented a bloom of the highly toxic clinging jellyfish *Gonionemus* sp. associated with severe stings to humans on the Swedish west coast. To our knowledge, this is the first record of clinging jellyfish envenomations to humans from this region. The symptoms reported by one of the authors (BK) are consistent with those described from the Northwest Atlantic and Sea of Japan (citations).

Clinging jellyfish have been previously reported from European Atlantic, North Sea, and Mediterranean coasts, as well as the northwestern Atlantic, the northwestern Pacific and Sea of Japan (citations). The records of clinging jellyfish in Europe are sporadic. In Atlantic coastal waters, observations date back to the early 1900s (Bakker, 1980), and in the Mediterranean possibly back to the 1870s (as *Cosmotira salinarium*; Duplessis, 1879). *Gonionemus* sp. has also been reported from several aquaria with Atlantic and Mediterranean source water (reviewed in

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Edwards, 1976 and Bakker, 1980). However, in contrast to western Pacific and Sea of Japan populations, where there is a long record of severe stings, stings to humans have not been reported to our knowledge from European populations until 2016 (from the French Mediterranean coast; Marchessaux et al. 2017).

The history of clinging jellyfish in European Atlantic waters is comparable to that along the Northwest Atlantic US coast and may similarly indicate a new, cryptic invasion of a more toxic form. Both regions have a history of episodic clinging jellyfish sightings, but no record of stings until recently. However, the existence of multiple species and highly episodic life cycle make drawing conclusions difficult. Our genetic analysis confirmed our morphological identification, placing the Swedish form into the *Gonionemus* sp. clade that includes with the highly toxic phenotype. Our morphological observations are consistent with historical European observations of the apparently less toxic form (*Gonionemus murbachii*), but it seems likely that toxicity varies within the *Gonionemus* sp. clade (Govindarajan et al., 2017) so this discrepancy does not rule out a new introduction.

Additional sampling and analysis of nuclear markers will be required to fully solve the *Gonionemus* "zoogeographic puzzle". However, our COI data provide several new insights. One of the three Swedish haplotypes (Haplotype 4 in Fig. 6) is also found in the northern Northwest Atlantic and the western Pacific/Sea of Japan regions which contain highly toxic individuals, and may indicate a common origin. Another of our haplotypes (Haplotype 9 in Fig. 6) has also been reported from New Jersey, USA, which is in the mid - Northwest Atlantic region. *Gonionemus* sp. was first reported in New Jersey in 2016 (Gaynor et al., 2016). Our analysis could indicate an independent origin of the New Jersey population relative to the northern Northwest Atlantic

populations. Our third haplotype (Haplotype 8 in Fig. 6), found in only one individual, was unique.

Interestingly, our haplotype tree also shows that the Pacific region contains the greatest number of haplotypes (10) but only one of these (Haplotype 4) is found outside of the region. This result is consistent with a scenario where a subset of the ostensibly native Pacific diversity inoculated other regions. However, the observation of several haplotypes in Sweden and elsewhere that have not yet been found in the Pacific, in combination with the historical record of sightings from these same regions, suggests that we cannot rule out that the Northwestern Atlantic and Mediterranean regions contain native diversity, either instead of or in addition to introduced lineages.

There are ample pathways and opportunities for *Gonionemus* sp. to be introduced to the Swedish coast. The life cycle of *Gonionemus* sp. includes minute polyp and cyst stages (Perkins, 1902; Kakinuma, 1971; Uchida, 1976) that could have easily arrived unnoticed. In a genetic survey of epifauna, *Gonionemus* sp. was recently identified from the North American Pacific coast on tsunami debris originating from Japan (Choong et al., 2018). This suggests that polyp, frustule, and or cyst stages are capable of long-distance transport on anthropogenic surfaces.

There are two larger international harbors near our study site *Gonionemus* sp., Wallhamn and Stenungsund (Fig. 1); thus, it is quite possible that a highly toxic lineage arrived via one of these stages on ship hulls most likely as polyps. Furthermore, there are many records of *Gonionemus* sp. occurring in public aquaria, where they presumably establish from polyp stages accompanying materials brought to the aquaria (Tambs-Lyche, 1964).

Another factor that may have played a role in the 2018 Swedish clinging jellyfish outbreak is temperature. Water temperature is a critical factor initiating seasonal hydrozoan

polyp activity (Calder, 1990). The year of the outbreak (2018) was exceptional in that it had both an approximately two degrees colder than average spring and a two degrees warmer than average summer. Either or both of these anomalies could have facilitated the *Gonionemus* sp. outbreak. *Gonionemus* sp. medusae are produced by polyps, which may arise from frustules or cysts (Perkins, 1903; Uchida, 1976). It is not known what environmental factors or the time scales on which they operate trigger these resting stages to become active. Both temperature and salinity have been implicated in affecting Russian Sea of Japan populations (Yakovlev & Vaskovsky, 1993).

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It seems probable that, similar to the US Atlantic coast, *Gonionemus* sp. will spread to new sites along the North Sea coast and potentially pose hazards to both humans and ecosystems. Regular monitoring and surveys will be crucial for providing warnings to protect bathers and others from potentially harmful interactions. Our growth rate data showed a ~12% increase in size over 16 days. Temperature and food availability are likely factors affecting growth rate and should be explored.

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More information is also needed to understand the impact of *Gonionemus* sp. in eelgrass communities, but the morphological features we observed provide some insight into their ecological roles. *Gonionemus* sp. medusae spend much of their time "clinging" to eelgrass with their adhesive pads. Free (unattached) tentacles are often extended into the ambient current. This pattern of passive drifting of tentacles is typically seen in hydromedusae that are ambush predators (Madin, 1988; Colin et al., 2003). Tethering to the seagrass will also increase encounter rate with prey if there is a current passing the tethered medusa. The nematocyst types we observed, euryteles and microbasic b-mastigophores, and their arrangement in raised clusters on the tentacles suggest that *Gonionemus* sp. feeds on hard-body prey such as crustaceans

(Purcell & Mills, 1988). This is consistent with reports that *Gonionemus* sp. medusae feed on small zooplankton such as copepods (Mills, 1983 (for *G. vertens*)) and observations in laboratory cultures that they feed on copepods and *Artemia* nauplii (AFG, CÖ, pers. obs.).

Intriguingly, *Gonionemus* sp. may mediate the interactions of other species and cause mortality in non-prey organisms. For example, along the Northwest Atlantic coast in Massachusetts, Carman et al. (2017) found that *Gonionemus* sp. was consumed by a native spider crab but not by the invasive green crab. The authors also found that *Gonionemus* ingestion resulted in crab death when large numbers of jellyfish were consumed. Thus, *Gonionemus* sp. may potentially impact native ecosystems via differential predation by a native species (spider crabs) that may lead to a decline of that species, while avoidance of *Gonionemus* by a destructive invasive species could potentially facilitate its dominance.

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441 Figure legends Figure 1. Map of the study area indicating new records of Gonionemus sp. 442 Red dots are records associated with stings. Historical records of Gonionemus sp., which are not 443 associated with stings, indicated by blue dots. The blow up shows the area on the Swedish coast 444 445 where stinging Gonionemus were found during 2018. Near the location where they were found 446 are two international harbors, shown as black filled triangles. The sea surface temperature 447 monitoring station in Åstol is indicated by a star. 448 449 Figure 2. Size distribution of Gonionemus on August 2 and August 18. Size increase by 1.2 mm overt the 16 days, corresponding to a growth rate of 0.08 mm d-1 450 451 (p<0.05). Each histogram contains the bell diameters of 120 individuals. 452 453 Figure 3. Macromorphology of medusae and tentacles. 454 Medusae in dorsal (A-C), lateral (D,E) and ventral view (F,G), showing gonads, radial-canals, Commented [R26]: apical Commented [R27]: oral 455 ring-canal, bell-rim flaps, statocysts, manubrium, tentacles with nematocyst batteries and adhesive pads, tentacle base tentacle with tentacle-canal and yellow streak, and velum. 456 457 Abbreviations: arrows, point at adhesive pads; brf, bell-rim flap; gd, developing gonad; gf, Commented [R28]: velum? 458 female gonad; m, manubrium; rac, radial-canal; ric ring-canal; s, statocyst; sto, stomach; stoa, Commented [R29]: Italic 459 stomach attachment; t, tentacle; tb, tentacle base; tc, tentacle-canal; v, velum; ys, yellow streak. Commented [R30]: Not indicate in Fig,3. 460 Figure 4. Micromorphology of tentacles and nematocysts. 461 462 (A-C) Tentacle parts with nematocyst batteries and adhesive pads. Note dark pigmented mid-line 463 in tentacles, yellow-reddish pigments in batteries and around adhesive pad. (Inset B) LM.

Euryteles, note shaft and tubule. (D-K) LMs. Tentacle nematocysts. Undischarged and discharged microbasic euryteles and small microbasic b-mastigophores. Note shaft, tubule, lid and apical capsule opening (*). (E) Microbasic eurytele with broad, rod-shaped shaft, pointed apically and microbasic b-mastigophore with slightly bent, narrow shaft, following the convex capsule side. (F,G) Microbasic b-mastigophores. Note shaft and tubule pattern. (H-J, inset) Discharged microbasic euryteles. Note broad shaft with spined distal swelling, rounded lid, difference in diameter of shaft and distal tubule. (J) Note spine pattern on distal tubule. (I,K) Microbasic b-mastigophores. Narrow shaft with unclear spine-pattern. Abbreviations: *, marks apical capsule opening; ap, adhesive pad; b, b-mast, microbasic b-mastigophore; dt, distal tubule; eu, eurytele; l, lid; nb, nematocyst battery; sh, shaft; sp, spines; tu, tubule. Figure 5. Temperature data from Åstol, adjacent to the locations where Gonionemus sp. was found in 2018. The black line shows the monthly mean temperature ± standard deviations (shaded area) from 2000 - 2018. The red line with open circles shows the monthly mean temperature during 2018. Figure 6. Neighbor-joining tree of COI haplotypes based on Kimura 2-parameter **distances.** Haplotype numbering for haplotypes 1 - 7 corresponds to those in Govindarajan et al. (2017). Haplotypes 8 - 16 are newly presented here based on Swedish specimens and GenBbank Commented [R31]: 2012?

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(Table 1).