

A peer-reviewed version of this preprint was published in PeerJ on 21 July 2015.

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Fleming NEC, Harrod C, Newton J, Houghton JDR. 2015. Not all jellyfish are equal: isotopic evidence for inter- and intraspecific variation in jellyfish trophic ecology. PeerJ 3:e1110
<https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1110>

Not all jellyfish are equal: isotopic evidence for inter- and intraspecific variation in jellyfish trophic ecology

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Jellyfish are highly topical within studies of pelagic food-webs and there is a growing realisation that their role is more complex than once thought. Efforts being made to include jellyfish within fisheries and ecosystem models are an important step forward, but our present understanding of their underlying trophic ecology can lead to their oversimplification in these models. Gelatinous zooplankton represent a polyphyletic assemblage spanning >1,400 species that inhabit coastal seas to the deep-ocean and employ a wide variety of foraging strategies. Despite this diversity, many contemporary modelling approaches include jellyfish as a single functional group feeding at one or two trophic levels at most. Recent reviews have drawn attention to this issue and highlighted the need for improved communication between biologists and theoreticians if this problem is to be overcome. We used stable isotopes to investigate the trophic ecology of three co-occurring scyphozoan jellyfish species (*Aurelia aurita*, *Cyanea lamarckii* and *C. capillata*) within a temperate, coastal food-web in the NE Atlantic. Using information on individual size, time of year and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotope values we examined: (1) whether all jellyfish could be considered as a single functional group, or showed distinct inter-specific differences in trophic ecology; (2) Were size-based shifts in trophic position, found previously in *A. aurita*, a common trait across species?; (3) When considered collectively, did the trophic position of three sympatric species remain constant over time? Differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (trophic position) were evident between all three species, with size-based and temporal shifts in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ apparent in *A. aurita* and *C. capillata*. The isotopic niche width for all species combined increased throughout the season, reflecting temporal shifts in trophic position and seasonal succession in these gelatinous species. Taken together, these findings support previous assertions that jellyfish require more robust inclusion in marine fisheries or ecosystem models.

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19 Introduction

20

21 Jellyfish (here considered as Phylum Cnidaria; Class Scyphozoa) are a conspicuous, yet long-
22 overlooked component of pelagic marine systems. In recent years the notion of gelatinous species as
23 merely carbon sinks, or trophic dead ends has become largely obsolete (Arai 2005; Hansson &
24 Norrman 1995; Sweetman et al. 2014). Besides obligate predators of jellyfish such as leatherback
25 turtles (*Dermochelys coriacea*; see also Houghton et al. 2006), Arai (2005) drew attention to a wide
26 range of opportunistic carnivores such as molluscs, arthropods, reptiles and birds that feed upon gelata
27 episodically and recently opportunist scavenging has been observed in the deep-sea (Sweetman et al.
28 2014). From a perspective of top-down control, it is also known that the collective prey-consumption
29 rates of gelatinous aggregations can be so high that predation can directly or indirectly control the
30 population size of other zooplanktonic organisms including larval fish (Nielsen et al. 1997; Purcell
31 1992). Moreover, evidence of sized-based shifts in the moon jellyfish *Aurelia aurita* (Linnaeus, 1758)
32 (Fleming et al. 2011; Graham & Kroutil 2001) and suggest that jellyfish could themselves exhibit size-
33 associated shifts in trophic ecology, e.g. similar to those shown by fishes (Graham et al. 2007).

34

35 Prompted by a growing body of evidence, Pauly *et al.* (2009) stressed that gelatinous taxa require more
36 robust inclusion in marine fisheries or ecosystem models. At present, such species are typically
37 considered as a single functional group or an 'average' group of animals, feeding on the same prey
38 throughout their life history (Boero et al. 2008; Pauly et al. 2009). Indeed, out of 100 models
39 considered, only 23 % incorporated jellyfish as a distinct functional group (normally feeding at a single
40 trophic level) and only 4 % of models considered them in any greater detail (e.g. feeding at two trophic
41 levels) (Pauly et al. 2009; Ruzicka et al. 2012). Consequently, seasonal or ontogenetic shifts in diet
42 (Fleming et al. 2011), intra-specific differences in prey types (Fancett 1988; Graham & Kroutil 2001)

43 and intra-guild predation (Bayha et al. 2012; Robison 2004; Titelman et al. 2007) are sometimes over-
44 simplified or disregarded entirely. Pauly et al. (2009) and Doyle et al. (2014) make a number of
45 suggestions for researchers working with gelatinous species on how to generate data that are useful to
46 theoreticians. These studies highlight the fact that the ecological-modelling community cannot be
47 expected to consider jellyfish in adequate detail if the required data are not provided by other
48 researchers (Doyle et al. 2014). This is a valid point, but until recently many questions surrounding the
49 trophodynamics of gelatinous species appeared intractable given the spatial and temporal variability of
50 aggregations (Doyle et al. 2007; Houghton et al. 2007), the broad-scale over which they can occur
51 (Doyle et al. 2008) and methodological limitations (Purcell 1992).

52
53 Within this broad context, the aim of this study was to examine trophic variation in three sympatric
54 jellyfish species (*Aurelia aurita* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Cyanea lamarckii* (Péron & Lesueur, 1810) and *C.*
55 *capillata* (Linnaeus, 1758)) in a temperate coastal marine system. Strangford Lough in Northern
56 Ireland was identified as an ideal study system as it supports an annual succession of gelatinous
57 zooplankton species from early May to late August (Fleming et al. 2013). We used stable isotopes
58 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) to consider size-based and temporal shifts in the trophic ecology of the three jellyfish
59 species, both individually and collectively as a dominant large gelatinous zooplankton community.
60 Such isotopic approaches have been used widely to examine the trophic ecology of marine and
61 estuarine systems (Peterson & Fry 1987) in general, and are gathering momentum for the study of
62 gelatinous species (Kogovšek et al. 2014; Nagata et al. 2015; Pitt et al. 2008). To provide data that
63 might aid the further inclusion of jellyfish into ecosystem models, our analyses were aligned to
64 examine three specific questions: (1) Could all jellyfish be considered as a single functional group or
65 was there evidence for distinct inter-specific differences in trophic ecology? (2) Were size-based shifts
66 in trophic ecology found previously in *A. aurita* a common trait across species? and (3) When

67 considered collectively, did the trophic position and isotopic niche of three sympatric species remain
68 constant over time?

69

70

71 **MATERIALS & METHODS**

72 **Collection and processing**

73 Strangford Lough (54° 28' 20.98"N 5° 35' 10.60"W) in County Down, Northern Ireland is a large,
74 semi-enclosed coastal embayment (150 km²) that flows into the northern Irish Sea (see Maloy et al.
75 2013 for a description). Three scyphozoan jellyfish species are persistently present in the lough but
76 their relative abundance varies over time. In May, the community is dominated by *Aurelia aurita*, with
77 an increase in *Cyanea lamarekii* in early June and *Cyanea capillata* in July (Fleming et al. 2014). All
78 three species disappear from the water column in the same order from late July onwards (Fleming et al.
79 2013; 2014). Jellyfish medusae were sampled monthly from Strangford Lough (May 2010 to
80 September 2010). All jellyfish were collected near the surface from a small boat using a dip net (mesh
81 size 1 mm) for smaller jellyfish and a larger net (5 mm mesh size) for larger individuals. Sampling was
82 conducted in a non-random manner, as our aim was to collect sufficient individuals to allow for
83 balanced statistical comparisons (e.g. across months). Unfortunately, owing to temporal variation in the
84 abundance of the different species, and often challenging weather conditions, it was not possible to
85 ensure a balanced number of samples per species. Filter-feeding bivalves (*Mytilus* spp.) and grazing
86 gastropods (*Littorina saxatilis* (Olivi)) were sampled over the study period from intertidal areas
87 adjacent to the jellyfish sampling sites over the same period (Woodland et al. 2012) to provide a
88 measure of isotopic baselines of the pelagic (bivalve) and benthic (gastropods) primary production
89 pathways (Mallela & Harrod 2008; Post 2002).

90

91 Laboratory and SIA analysis

92 All jellyfish samples were collected and processed immediately to prevent potentially marked
93 preservation effects (Fleming et al. 2011). Scyphozoan jellyfish (*A. aurita*, *C. lamarckii* and *C.*
94 *capillata*) were weighed and measured (wet mass: ± 1 g; bell diameter: ± 1 cm). Jellyfish medusae were
95 rinsed thoroughly in filtered seawater, after which bell (mesoglea) tissues were separated and dried at
96 60°C in a drying oven following Fleming et al. (2011). Samples were weighed into tin cups prior to
97 stable isotope analysis. Previous preliminary analyses revealed that optimal sample mass for mass
98 spectrometry varied between taxa *i.e.* *A. aurita* ≈ 12 mg; *C. lamarckii* ≈ 2.4 mg, *C. capillata* ≈ 5.1 mg
99 and other taxa ≈ 0.8 mg). Samples were analysed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and C:N at the East Kilbride Node of
100 the Natural Environment Research Council Life Sciences Mass Spectrometry Facility via continuous
101 flow isotope ratio mass spectrometry using an ECS 4010 elemental analyser (Costech, Milan, Italy)
102 interfaced with a Delta XP mass spectrometer (Thermo Electron, Bremen, Germany). The standard
103 deviation of multiple analyses of an internal gelatine standard was ~ 0.1 ‰ for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

104

105 Statistical analysis

106 Prior to analysis the bell mass, diameter and stable isotope data were $\log_{10}$ -transformed to improve
107 normality and reduce heteroscedasticity ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data were $\log_{10}+40$ transformed due to their negative
108 values). We used various statistical approaches to characterise and compare the trophic ecology of the
109 different jellyfish species. To examine whether bell $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values differed by species or sample
110 month, we used permutational ($n_{\text{permutations}} = 9,999$) multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA)
111 in PRIMER 6.1.12 (Clarke & Gorley 2006; Clarke & Warwick 2001) to examine variation in the
112 location of centroids of $\log_{10}$ -transformed $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data, based on a Euclidean similarity matrix
113 (Anderson 2001; Anderson et al. 2008). Here, it is assumed that where $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ centroids overlap (*i.e.*
114 are not significantly different), then trophic ecology is similar *e.g.* between species or survey month.

115 As some small ($n \leq 3$) sample sizes were recorded for each species across the different survey months
116 (*C. capillata* in May; *A. aurita* and *C. lamarckii* in August), it was not possible to make a balanced
117 two-way analysis for the entire study period and interaction terms were not included in the analysis. A
118 full two way PERMANOVA examining isotopic variation associated with Species and Month (and the
119 Species x Month interaction) was only conducted for June and July.

120
121 A two way PERMANOVA was used to examine how variation in baseline $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ associated with the
122 pelagic and benthic pathways varied over time. We compared $\log_{10}$ -transformed $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data from filter
123 feeding bivalves (pelagic) and grazing gastropods (benthic), with the factors Functional Group and
124 Month. We also examined the associated interaction between these two factors.

125
126 Normal linear least-squares regression was used to examine how $\log_{10}$ transformed stable isotope
127 values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data were $\log_{10}+40$ transformed) varied with individual size (shell wet mass and diameter).

128
129 In stable isotope studies, consumer trophic position is typically estimated from $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data, which are
130 corrected for baseline variation and trophic fractionation (Post 2002). Although we had reliable data on
131 pelagic and benthic $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ baselines (see above), jellyfish trophic enrichment factors (TEFs) are
132 unknown. D'Ambra et al (2014) recently provided TEFS for *A. aurita* in what represents the only
133 experimental estimate of jellyfish trophic fractionation in the literature. The mean $\pm$ SD TEFS
134 estimated for *A. aurita* ($\Delta^{13}\text{C} = 4.3 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{15}\text{N} = 0.1 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$) are unusual and contrast with the
135 average TEFS more commonly seen in the literature (e.g. Post (2002): $\Delta^{13}\text{C} = 0.4 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{15}\text{N} = 3.4$
136 $\pm 1\text{‰}$; McCutchan et al. (2003) ($\Delta^{13}\text{C} = 0.5 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$, $\Delta^{15}\text{N} = 2.3 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$). As use of the jellyfish
137 specific TEFS provided by D'Ambra (2014) resulted in unfeasibly high trophic positions for the

138 jellyfish species, including *A. aurita*, we did not make direct estimates of trophic position, but provide
139 indirect estimates by presenting $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data.

140

141 As jellyfish are often considered as a single functional group, we examined how an indicator of
142 community level trophic position varied across the survey period at the level of the whole community
143 level, by pooling $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data from all three jellyfish species and conducting a univariate PERMANOVA
144 with month as a fixed independent factor, both for individual species and for the dominant gelatinous
145 zooplankton community as a whole (species pooled).

146

147 We used the SIBER procedure (Stable Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R) within the R package SIAR
148 (Jackson et al. 2011) to examine variation in jellyfish isotopic niche space. This approach relies on the
149 concept that that multiple stable isotope ratios measured from consumers represents niche dimensions,
150 e.g. variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reflects use of different energy sources, or habitats, while $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ can provide
151 information on the trophic level at which a consumer feeds (Peterson & Fry 1987). This so called
152 ‘isotopic niche’ or ‘ δ -space’ (Newsome et al. 2007) is thought to reflect the trophic niche of groups of
153 consumers (Bearhop et al. 2004; Layman et al. 2007), where more isotopic variation reflects a larger
154 consumer isotopic niche, assuming that spatial or temporal variation in baseline isotopic values is
155 considered. Here we use Bayesian Standard Area Ellipses (SEA_B), as the use of Bayesian inference
156 allows the incorporation of uncertainty such as small sample sizes (Jackson et al. 2011). This iterative
157 approach uses Monte Carlo Markov-Chain simulation to construct ellipses characterising isotopic
158 variation that provide a robust indicator of isotopic niche width. Here, we used this technique to
159 characterise temporal variation in the trophic niche of the three jellyfish species, as well as overlap
160 between species. We also examined temporal variation in SEA_B values calculated for the jellyfish
161 community as a whole (i.e. all three species of jellyfish combined). In order to examine the differences

162 in isotopic niche area (SEA_B) between different consumer groups, we calculated probabilities from
163 posterior distributions (based on 100,000 draws) of the parameters of model M given the prior data D
164 ($\Pr(M|D)$). These maximum likelihood comparisons provide direct probabilities of differences rather
165 than the traditional frequentist test of a null-hypothesis. In order to differentiate these comparisons,
166 maximum-likelihood probabilities are reported here as percentages.

167

168 Statistical analyses were conducted using routines in PRIMER-E 6 (Clarke & Gorley 2006) and
169 SYSTAT 13.1 (SYSTAT Software Inc 2009). SIBER analyses (Jackson et al. 2011) were conducted
170 using SIAR (Parnell et al. 2010) in R version 3.1.2 (R Development Core Team 2014).

171

172 RESULTS

173 Inter-specific variation

174 Three species of scyphozoan jellyfish were collected from Strangford Lough Between May and August
175 2010. A total of 122 medusae were collected from the surface of the water column comprising *Aurelia*
176 *aurita* ($n = 43$), *Cyanea lamarckii* ($n = 36$) and *C. capillata* ($n = 43$). Data collected across the entire
177 study for the three jellyfish species (Fig. 1) showed considerable intraspecific variation and apparent
178 isotopic overlap between the species. However, when $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data for individual species were
179 compared over time, distinct differences appeared (Table 1; Fig. 2). A full two-way PERMANOVA
180 comparing the influence of survey month and species was only possible for all three species in the
181 months of June and July when medusae of all species were present. The analysis of $\log_{10}$ -transformed
182 data revealed that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ centroid location varied significantly between the three jellyfish species
183 (Pseudo- $F_{2,71} = 5.01$, $P = 0.006$) and survey month (Pseudo- $F_{1,71} = 5.1$, $P = 0.02$). However, there was
184 no interaction between species and survey month ($F_{2,71} = 0.25$, $P = 0.82$) indicating that temporal shifts
185 in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotope values were similar across the three scyphozoan species in June and July. Pairwise
186 comparisons showed that *A. aurita* were isotopically distinct from both *Cyanea* species in June (*C.*
187 *lamarckii* $P \leq 0.0043$; *C. capillata* $P = 0.02$), and *C. lamarckii* in July ($P = 0.03$). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
188 centroids of the two *Cyanea* species overlapped during these months (June: $P = 0.89$; July: $P = 0.43$).

189
190 Next, we considered inter-specific differences in isotopic niche width over time (Fig. 3). Between
191 species comparisons (data pooled from all months) showed that *C. capillata* had the largest mean (95
192 % credibility limits) isotopic niche width of 6.9 (4.95 - 9.03) ‰^2 , compared to *A. aurita* (4.94 (3.55 -
193 6.46) ‰^2) or *C. lamarckii* (5.49 (3.84 - 7.32) ‰^2). Maximum-likelihood pairwise comparisons
194 indicated a borderline ($P = 94\%$) probability that across the entire study the isotopic niche width of *C.*
195 *capillata* was larger than that of *A. aurita*. There was no statistical support ($P = 85\%$) for differences

196 between *C. capillata*, and its congeneric *C. lamarckii* over the same period. There was a 67 %
197 probability of differences in isotopic niche width size between *A. aurita* and *C. lamarckii*.

198

199 **Intra-specific variation**

200 Both *A. aurita* and *C. capillata* showed positive linear relationships (Table 2: Fig. 4) between log₁₀-
201 transformed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and wet mass (*A. aurita* $F_{1,41} = 26.9$, $R^2 = 0.40$, $P < 0.001$; *C. capillata* $F_{1,41} = 16.1$,
202 $R^2 = 0.28$, $P < 0.001$) and bell diameter (*A. aurita* $F_{1,41} = 26.3$, $R^2 = 0.39$, $P < 0.001$; *C. capillata* $F_{1,41} =$
203 19.1 , $R^2 = 0.32$, $P < 0.001$), indicating a shift in dietary source with size in these species. However,
204 there was no evidence for any such relationship in *C. lamarckii* for wet mass ($F_{1,35} = 0.71$, $R^2 = 0.02$, P
205 $= 0.405$) or bell diameter ($F_{1,35} = 0.85$, $R^2 = 0.02$, $P = 0.363$), indicating that individuals of all sizes
206 assimilated carbon from a similar range of sources. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increased with size (Fig. 4 & Table 2) in both
207 *A. aurita* (log₁₀-transformed wet mass $F_{1,41} = 48.8$, $R^2 = 0.54$, $P < 0.001$; bell diameter $F_{1,41} = 46.2$, R^2
208 $= 0.53$, $P < 0.001$) and *C. capillata* (wet mass $F_{1,41} = 22.1$, $R^2 = 0.35$, $P < 0.001$; bell diameter $F_{1,41} =$
209 22.0 , $R^2 = 0.34$, $P < 0.001$). In all cases, the slope of the log₁₀-log₁₀ relationship was < 1 (Table 2). As
210 in the case of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, *C. lamarckii* showed no evidence of any size-based shift in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (wet mass = $F_{1,35} =$
211 1.50 , $R^2 = 0.04$, $P = 0.229$; bell diameter $F_{1,35} = 2.4$, $R^2 = 0.06$, $P = 0.131$).

212

213 Although individual *A. aurita* were captured in each of the survey months (Fig. 2), sufficient samples
214 for analysis were not recorded in August ($n = 2$), and statistical comparisons here are limited to the
215 period May-July (See Table 1 for sample sizes). During this period, the location of *A. aurita* $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
216 centroids varied significantly (One way PERMANOVA Pseudo- $F_{2,38} = 15.19$, $P = 0.0001$), indicating
217 that *A. aurita* underwent an isotopic shift over the study period. Pairwise tests showed that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
218 centroids shifted between May and both June ($t = 4.49$, $P = 0.0002$) and July ($t = 4.77$, $P = 0.0001$).
219 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values overlapped in June and July ($t = 1.6$, $P = 0.12$). The difference between May and the

220 other months reflected enrichment in ^{13}C and ^{15}N (to a lesser degree than for *C*) from May to the later
221 months. Sample sizes in *C. lamarckii* were relatively low throughout the study, with large numbers
222 only being encountered in June (Table 1).

223

224 *C. lamarckii* showed significant temporal shifts in the location of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ centroids (May – July:
225 Pseudo- $F_{2,31} = 15.46$, $P = 0.0001$). Pairwise tests revealed that centroids differed between May and both
226 June ($t = 5.15$, $P = 0.0002$) and July ($t = 6.58$, $P = 0.001$), but overlapped between June and July ($t =$
227 0.63 , $P = 0.56$). Isotopically, *C. lamarckii* became increasingly ^{13}C and ^{15}N enriched over the survey
228 period (Fig. 2, Table 1).

229

230 Only two *C. capillata* were available for analysis in May, but in the following months, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
231 centroids for this species changed significantly (June-August: Pseudo- $F_{2,38} = 4.44$, $P = 0.008$). Pairwise
232 tests indicated that this shift was relatively gradual, with isotopic overlap in June and July ($t = 1.87$, $P =$
233 0.06) and July-August ($t = 1.22$, $P = 0.22$). Isotopic differences were most marked at the extremes of
234 the collection period: June – August ($t = 2.79$, $P = 0.003$).

235

236 Bayesian estimates of isotopic niche width (SEA_B) showed significant variation within species during
237 the study period (Table 3 & Fig. 3). Pairwise comparisons showed that *A. aurita* mean isotopic niche
238 width was lower in May relative to other months (Table 3, Fig. 3), with a 95 % probability of a
239 difference with June and a 98 % probability of a difference with July. The isotopic niche width of *C.*
240 *lamarckii* was reduced in May relative to June (probability = 99 %) and July (96 %), there were no
241 obvious differences in isotopic niche width in *C. lamarckii* in June and July ($P = 46$ %). *C. capillata*
242 was not recorded in sufficient numbers in May to allow analyses, but showed a generally similar
243 isotopic niche width through the June - August period (P range 50 – 60 %).

244

245 **Variation at a whole community level**

246 Baseline $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values recorded from filter feeding and grazing molluscs were consistent across the
247 study period (PERMANOVA on log10-transformed $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data; Month: Pseudo- $F_{2,108} = 0.48$, $P =$
248 0.725), but differed between the two functional groups (Pseudo- $F_{1,108} = 59.57$, $P = 0.0001$) with benthic
249 grazers (mean $\pm$ SD $\delta^{15}\text{N} = 11.2 \pm 1.08$, $n = 58$) being ^{15}N enriched by 1.5 ‰ relative to filter feeding
250 bivalves (bivalve = 9.7 ± 0.7 , $n = 56$). However, the lack of an interaction between the two factors
251 (Month x Functional Group: Pseudo- $F_{2,108} = 0.087$, $P = 0.91$) indicated that the difference between the
252 two functional groups remained constant over time.

253

254 As $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ baselines were consistent over time, we were able to use $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as an indirect indicator of
255 changes in whole community trophic position over time. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for the GZ community varied
256 over the study period (One way PERMANOVA Pseudo- $F_{3,119} = 36.9$, $P = 0.0001$; Fig. 2), and showed
257 relative increases in trophic position over time. Pairwise tests showed May was lower than all other
258 months (June, $t = 6.2$, $P = 0.0001$; July, $t = 10.6$, $P = 0.0001$; August, $t = 13.3$, $P = 0.0001$). June $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
259 values were higher than May, but lower than subsequent months (May, $t = 6.2$, $P = 0.0001$; July, $t =$
260 3.1 , $P = 0.0027$; August, $t = 4.4$, $P = 0.002$). There was no measurable difference in whole community
261 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in July and August ($t = 1.9$, $P = 0.07$; Fig. 2).

262

263 We also examined temporal variation in the isotopic niche width by pooling values from the three
264 jellyfish species (See all GZ values in Fig. 3). Mean (95 % credibility limits) jellyfish isotopic niche
265 width in May was lower than in June, July or August ($P = 100\%$ in all cases). However, isotopic niche
266 for the combined jellyfish species began to change in position and width as the season progressed with
267 an increase in isotopic niche (‰^2 95% credibility limits) from May = 2.05 (1.31 – 2.89) to Aug = 5.72

268 (3.49 – 8.3), suggesting a broader trophic niche in the latter months and was similar in the following
269 months (P July > June = 54 %; P August > June = 76 %; P August > July = 70 %).

270

271

272 **Discussion**

273 Pauly et al. (2009) described jellyfish as arguably the most important predators in the sea. There is little
274 ambiguity in this statement which, in part, prompted the present study. Rational thought regarding
275 jellyfish ecology is very much needed if we are to avoid the trap of viewing such species as merely
276 unnatural and unwanted constituents of our oceans (Doyle et al. 2014). There is no doubt that the
277 potential expansion of jellyfish in highly depleted oceans is a matter of grave concern (Lynam et al.
278 2006; Purcell et al. 2007), but we must also acknowledge that this threat is often driven by our own
279 actions e.g. overfishing, eutrophication and translocation (Arai 2001; Graham & Bayha 2007; Hay
280 2006), or climatic oscillations (Condon et al. 2013) rather than the species in question. Tackling such
281 issues requires an underlying knowledge of how jellyfish function within marine systems, so that long-
282 standing trends in populations and communities can be teased apart from shifts in ecosystem structure.
283 Stable isotope analysis offers a powerful biochemical approach to the estimation of trophic and dietary
284 composition of individuals through to communities (Bearhop et al. 2004; Bolnick et al. 2011; Bolnick
285 et al. 2003) and the results presented here support the idea that jellyfish play a more complex trophic
286 role than once envisaged.

288 **Inter-specific differences in trophic position**

289 Distinct isotopic differences were evident between all three jellyfish species (*A. aurita*, *C. lamarckii*
290 and *C. capillata*) with variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and niche width inferring differences in their
291 capacity to capture and ingest a range of prey items (Figs 2 & 3). Typically, scyphozoan jellyfish
292 encounter rather than detect and pursue prey and use both 'passive ambush feeding' and 'feeding
293 current feeding' with direct interception and filtering through tentacles being used in both cases
294 (Kjørboe 2011). Feeding currents are generated by pulsation of the bell which varies in shape and size
295 between species; with slower velocities normally associated with smaller individuals (Costello & Colin

1994; 1995; Kiørboe 2011). Depending on the escape velocities of putative prey, differences in feeding current velocity between different jellyfish species might lead to different prey being captured and ingested; although further work is required to link trophic position with morphological characteristics in an empirical manner.

300

The total complement of nematocysts or ‘cnidome’ (Peach & Pitt 2005) also plays a part in prey capture (Costello et al. 2008), and this ‘cnidome’ varies with the individual and species. *A. aurita* have a reduced cnidome (Shostak 1995) and a much reduced capture surface (short tentacles) which may account again for the low trophic position and narrowest niche width of this species in the present study. By comparison, the congeners *C. lamarckii* and *C. capillata* have similarities in both nematocyst complement (Ostman & Hydman 1997; Shostak 1995) and morphology (Holst & Laakmann 2013), yet differed here with regard to their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and niche widths. While both *Cyanea* species conform to the same body plan, there is a large disparity in the maximum size, and therefore capture surface that can be attained by the two species. More specifically, *C. lamarckii* rarely exceeds 20 cm (max. 30 cm; Russell 1970), whereas *C. capillata* has been observed as large as 85 cm (max. 90 cm in British waters; Russell 1970) in this system (Fleming pers. obs.). There are also size related differences in toxicity; although *C. lamarckii* is as venomous as *C. capillata* (Helmholz et al. 2007), as both species increase in size so too do the size of their nematocysts (Ostman & Hydman 1997), these differences may account for the higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and broader niche width observed in *C. capillata*.

316

The isotopic variation found between three co-occurring species in this study suggests niche partitioning and represents a host of differences in morphology, bell pulsation strength, prey capture techniques and nematocyst composition that enable differential prey capture (Bayha & Dawson 2010;

320 Costello & Colin 1994; Peach & Pitt 2005). Taking into account such isotopic variation between three
321 co-occurring species in a single system, caution must clearly be taken to avoid over-simplification of
322 jellyfish in ecosystem models. In a broader context, as gelatinous zooplankton span >1,400 species,
323 occupying habitats ranging from the deep ocean through to shallow water near-shore environments, the
324 inclusion of an 'average' jellyfish in such models is likely to underestimate the collective impact in
325 terms of energy flow or consumption of prey (Pauly et al. 2009).

326

327 **Intra-specific differences in trophic ecology**

328 *A. aurita* and *C. capillata* shifted their use of both energy source and trophic position ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$)
329 with increasing body size, independent of time (Fig. 4). This suggests different sized jellyfish medusae,
330 present in the water column at the same time and with access to the same prey field, feed at different
331 positions in the food chain (Fleming et al. 2011; Graham & Kroutil 2001). The simultaneous presence
332 of different sized medusae appears to be a consistent trait across a range of species at temperate
333 latitudes (Houghton et al. 2007) suggesting that jellyfish reproductive cohorts are often poorly defined
334 with a marked overlap within given seasons. The third jellyfish species examined, *C. lamarckii*, did not
335 exhibit a size-based shift in trophic position with increasing body size. This most likely reflects the
336 comparatively narrow size range of the medusae sampled (3.5 - 20 cm), with the species rarely
337 exceeding a bell diameter of 30 cm (Russell 1970). By comparison, *C. capillata* medusae spanned a far
338 broader size range (6 - 85 cm) allowing size related shifts in diet to be more easily identified. These
339 findings suggest that body size in jellyfish may, to some extent, underpin their capacity to feed at
340 multiple trophic levels through ontogeny. There are some clear exceptions to this rule e.g. small
341 gelatinous species (<12 cm bell diameter) such as box jellyfish *Chironex fleckeri* and *Carukia barnesi*
342 have extraordinarily powerful stings that enable them to capture relatively large prey such as larval and
343 small fishes (Carrette et al. 2002; Kintner et al. 2005; Underwood & Seymour 2007).

344

345 **The trophic position of the jellyfish community over time**

346 When considered as a whole, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of the scyphozoan jellyfish community in Strangford
347 Lough increased as the season progressed (Fig. 2). Given that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ baselines were constant across the
348 study period, this indicates that trophic position increased over time. In terms of isotopic niche width
349 there was an interesting dissimilarity between the start of the season (May) and the following months
350 (June, July and August) suggesting a shift to a broader dietary niche in the latter months (Fig. 3). This
351 increased resource utilisation is consistent with previous studies that suggested jellyfish dietary niches
352 are extremely broad, with species operating as generalists (Dawson & Martin 2001; Ishii & Båmstedt
353 1998; Schneider & Behrends 1998) feeding opportunistically across a range of plankton (Båmstedt et
354 al. 1997; Titelman et al. 2007). Therefore, our data suggest that a different and possibly constrained
355 resource pool is being exploited at the beginning of the 'jellyfish season'. The sequential change in
356 species composition seen in Strangford Lough could, in part, be the result of intra-guild predation
357 (Bayha et al. 2012; Robison 2004; Titelman et al. 2007) which may contribute to the observed
358 broadening in isotopic niche. Additionally, the collective increase in trophic position over time may
359 reflect species succession in the lough with a general shift from an *A. aurita* dominated system in
360 May through to a *C. capillata* dominated system in August (Fleming et al. 2014). Most likely our
361 results reflect interplay of these two scenarios but highlight the problems associated with assuming that
362 different jellyfish species occupy a single trophic position or ecological niche (Boero et al. 2008; Pauly
363 et al. 2009). Interspecific and temporal variation in jellyfish isotopes values can be put into deeper
364 ecological context through the use of models to estimate trophic position (Post 2002) and consumption
365 patterns (Parnell et al. 2010). However, the use of these for jellyfish both require reliable estimates of
366 trophic enrichment factors. We welcome the recent TEF estimates made by D'Ambra et al. (2014) for
367 *Aurelia* sp., however, we found that the use of their TEFS resulted in unfeasibly high trophic positions

368 for the *Aurelia* and other jellyfish in our system. For example, using Post's (2002) basic model for
369 trophic position resulted in a mean jellyfish trophic position of 17, with the baseline provided by our
370 mean *Mytilus* $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. As such, estimates of trophic level and consumption (e.g. mixing models)
371 by jellyfish made using tools requiring accurate TEFS remain problematic. We therefore call for more
372 experimental work to characterise jellyfish TEFs.

373

374 **Conclusions**

375 Size-based shifts in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were evident in two of the three jellyfish species examined
376 here, leading to an inference that variation body size in some way drives variation in the trophic ecology
377 of a particular species. When considered over time, distinct differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were
378 found within and between species, with evidence of niche segregation between the two *Cyanea*
379 species. Niche width for all species combined increased considerably throughout the season, reflective
380 of a possible interplay of intra-guild predation and species succession reflecting temporal shifts in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
381 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and the seasonal succession in gelatinous species.

382

383 Taken together, these lines of evidence reinforce the idea that scyphozoan jellyfish require more
384 elegant inclusion in ecosystem or fisheries-based models. The salient point here is that jellyfish should
385 not be averaged or defined as a single amorphous group with little reference to temporal and allometric
386 shifts in individual species or gelatinous communities alike.

388 **Acknowledgements**

389

390 We are grateful to Phillip Johnston from Queen's University, Belfast Marine Laboratory (QUML) for
391 boat support and sample collection. Thanks also go to Eoin Bleakney, Claire Armstrong, Debbie Baird-
392 Bower and Natalie McCullagh for help with sample processing.

393

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556

557
558 Figure captions
559

560 Figure 1: Variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ shown in three species of jellyfish over the whole study period.
561 (See Table 1 for summary statistics).

562
563 Figure 2: Box-whisker plots showing variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (upper panel) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (lower panel) in the
564 three jellyfish species, and within the dominant GZ community (GZ; all three species combined) over
565 the study period. See Table 1 for sample sizes and other summary statistics. NB: Baseline $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
566 remained constant over this period, indicating that the increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values reflected a shift in
567 trophic position rather than seasonal shifts at the base of the foodweb. Boxes show inter-quartile range,
568 and the bold horizontal bar indicates the median value. Whiskers reflect values 1.5 x the interquartile
569 range.

570
571 Figure 3: Variation in isotopic niche width (SEAB) between species (A. a = *A. aurita*; C. l = *C.*
572 *lamarckii*; C. c = *C. capillata*)) and within the dominant GZ community (GZ; all three species
573 combined) sampled over the survey period. Boxes represent the 50, 75 and 95 % Bayesian credibility
574 intervals estimated from 100,000 draws. Samples marked with *included less than 10 individuals (see
575 Parnell et al. 2010). See Table 3 for statistical comparisons.
576

577 Figure 4: Variation in bell $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (A & B) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (C & D) with bell diameter (A & C) and wet mass (B
578 & D). Note use of logarithmic scale on x-axes.

579
580

Table 1(on next page)

Summary statistics

Table 1: Summary statistics for bell stable isotope and C:N ratios.

Species	<i>n</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($\pm$ SD) ‰	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($\pm$ SD) ‰	C:N ($\pm$ SD)
<i>Aurelia aurita</i> May	16	-20.3 (0.5)	8.5 (1.1)	3.8 (0.1)
<i>Aurelia aurita</i> June	18	-18.2 (0.5)	10.3 (1.5)	3.5 (0.4)
<i>Aurelia aurita</i> July	9	-18.1 (0.7)	11.5 (1.5)	3.5 (0.4)
<i>Aurelia aurita</i> August	2	-17.3 (0.1)	11.8 (1.7)	3.7 (0.1)
Overall mean <i>A. aurita</i>	43	-19.0 (1.2)	9.7 (1.6)	3.6 (0.2)
<i>Cyanea lamarckii</i> May	7	-21.4 (0.2)	8.6 (0.6)	3.9 (0.1)
<i>Cyanea lamarckii</i> June	21	-19.5 (0.7)	11.5 (1.5)	3.7 (0.4)
<i>Cyanea lamarckii</i> July	5	-19.4 (0.8)	12.1 (1.3)	3.7 (0.3)
<i>Cyanea lamarckii</i> Aug	3	-19.2 (0.8)	11.5 (0.8)	3.7 (0.2)
Overall mean <i>C. lamarckii</i>	36	-19.8 (1.0)	11.0 (1.8)	3.7 (0.3)
<i>Cyanea capillata</i> May	2	-21.4 (0.1)	7.7 (0.1)	3.8 (0.1)
<i>Cyanea capillata</i> June	13	-19.5 (1.2)	11.0 (2.1)	3.6 (0.4)
<i>Cyanea capillata</i> July	14	-19.4 (1.1)	12.8 (1.3)	3.6 (0.2)
<i>Cyanea capillata</i> Aug	16	-18.7 (1.6)	13.3 (1.1)	3.5 (0.3)
Overall mean <i>C. capillata</i>	43	-19.7 (1.3)	12.4 (1.8)	3.6 (0.1)

Table 2 (on next page)

Summary statistics for least squares regressions

Table 2: Summary statistics for least squares regressions examining relationships between individual jellyfish size and bell stable isotope ratios (mass, length and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data $\log_{10}$ transformed, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data $\log_{10}+40$ transformed). NB: in all cases slopes were significantly different from 1.

2

Species	Isotope	Comparison	Intercept ($\pm$ SE)	Slope ($\pm$ SE)	R^2	F	P
<i>A. aurita</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.1 to -17.2 ‰)	Bell diameter (6 to 36 cm)	1.224 (0.019)	0.079 (0.015)	0.39	$F_{1,41} = 26.3$	< 0.001
<i>A. aurita</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (6.7 to 14.8 ‰)	Bell diameter (6 to 36 cm)	0.609 (0.056)	0.305 (0.045)	0.53	$F_{1,41} = 46.2$	< 0.001
<i>A. aurita</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.1 to -17.2 ‰)	Wet mass (12 – 1 702 g)	1.256 (0.013)	0.029 (0.006)	0.40	$F_{1,41} = 26.9$	< 0.001
<i>A. aurita</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (6.7 to 14.8 ‰)	Wet mass (12 – 1 702 g)	0.730 (0.038)	0.111 (0.016)	0.54	$F_{1,41} = 48.8$	< 0.001
<i>C. lamarckii</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.6 to -18.5 ‰)	Bell diameter (4 to 20 cm)	1.287 (0.019)	0.018 (0.019)	0.02	$F_{1,35} = 0.85$	$= 0.363$
<i>C. lamarckii</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (7.7 to 15.8 ‰)	Bell diameter (4 to 20 cm)	0.939 (0.067)	0.103 (0.066)	0.06	$F_{1,35} = 2.4$	$= 0.131$
<i>C. lamarckii</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.6 to -18.5 ‰)	Wet mass (3 to 493 g)	1.293 (0.013)	0.006 (0.007)	0.02	$F_{1,35} = 0.71$	$= 0.405$
<i>C. lamarckii</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (7.7 to 15.8 ‰)	Wet mass (3 to 493 g)	0.985 (0.047)	0.030 (0.025)	0.04	$F_{1,35} = 1.50$	$= 0.229$
<i>C. capillata</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.8 to -17.2 ‰)	Bell diameter (6 to 85 cm)	1.233 (0.020)	0.062 (0.014)	0.32	$F_{1,41} = 19.1$	< 0.001
<i>C. capillata</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (7.6 to 16.1 ‰)	Bell diameter (6 to 85 cm)	0.876 (0.046)	0.157 (0.034)	0.34	$F_{1,41} = 22.0$	< 0.001
<i>C. capillata</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-21.8 to -17.2 ‰)	Wet mass (19 to 23 680 g)	1.259 (0.015)	0.020 (0.005)	0.28	$F_{1,41} = 16.1$	< 0.001
<i>C. capillata</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (7.6 to 16.1 ‰)	Wet mass (19 to 23 680 g)	0.931 (0.035)	0.055 (0.012)	0.35	$F_{1,41} = 22.1$	< 0.001

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Table 3 (on next page)

Bayesian comparisons of isotopic niche width (SEAB) between different jellyfish species and survey months

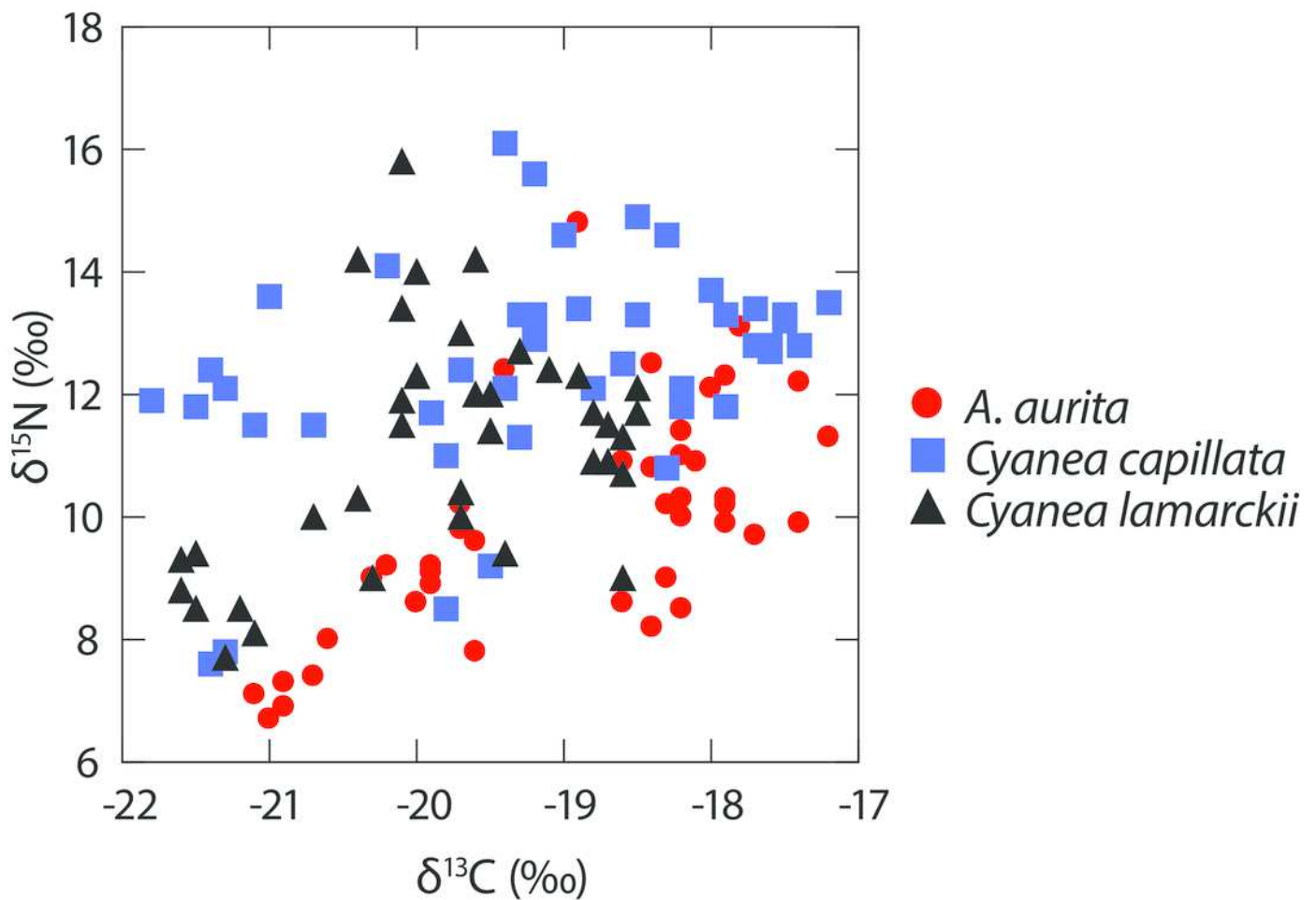
Table 3: Table showing results of Bayesian comparisons of isotopic niche width (SEAB) between different jellyfish species and survey months. Probabilities (based on 100,000 draws) that isotopic niche area in Group A is larger than the comparative value in Group B ($A > B$) are shown. Species codes: A. *a* = *A. aurita*; C. *l* = *C. lamarckii*; C. *c* = *C. capillata*. Groups marked with * reflect samples sizes < 10 .

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Group		Group A								
		<i>A. a</i>	<i>A.a</i>	<i>A. a</i>	<i>C. l</i>	<i>C. l</i>	<i>C. l</i>	<i>C. c</i>	<i>C. c</i>	<i>C. c</i>
		May	June	July*	May*	June	July*	June	July	August
Group B	<i>A. a</i> May	—	0.951	0.980	0.388	0.996	0.969	0.998	0.999	0.999
	<i>A. a</i> June		—	0.756	0.062	0.855	0.728	0.927	0.938	0.969
	<i>A. a</i> July*			—	0.029	0.540	0.496	0.697	0.703	0.775
	<i>C. l</i> May*				—	0.988	0.964	0.993	0.994	0.997
	<i>C. l</i> June					—	0.460	0.713	0.722	0.821
	<i>C. l</i> July*						—	0.683	0.688	0.754
	<i>C. c</i> June							—	0.497	0.596
	<i>C. c</i> July								—	0.609
	<i>C. c</i> August									—

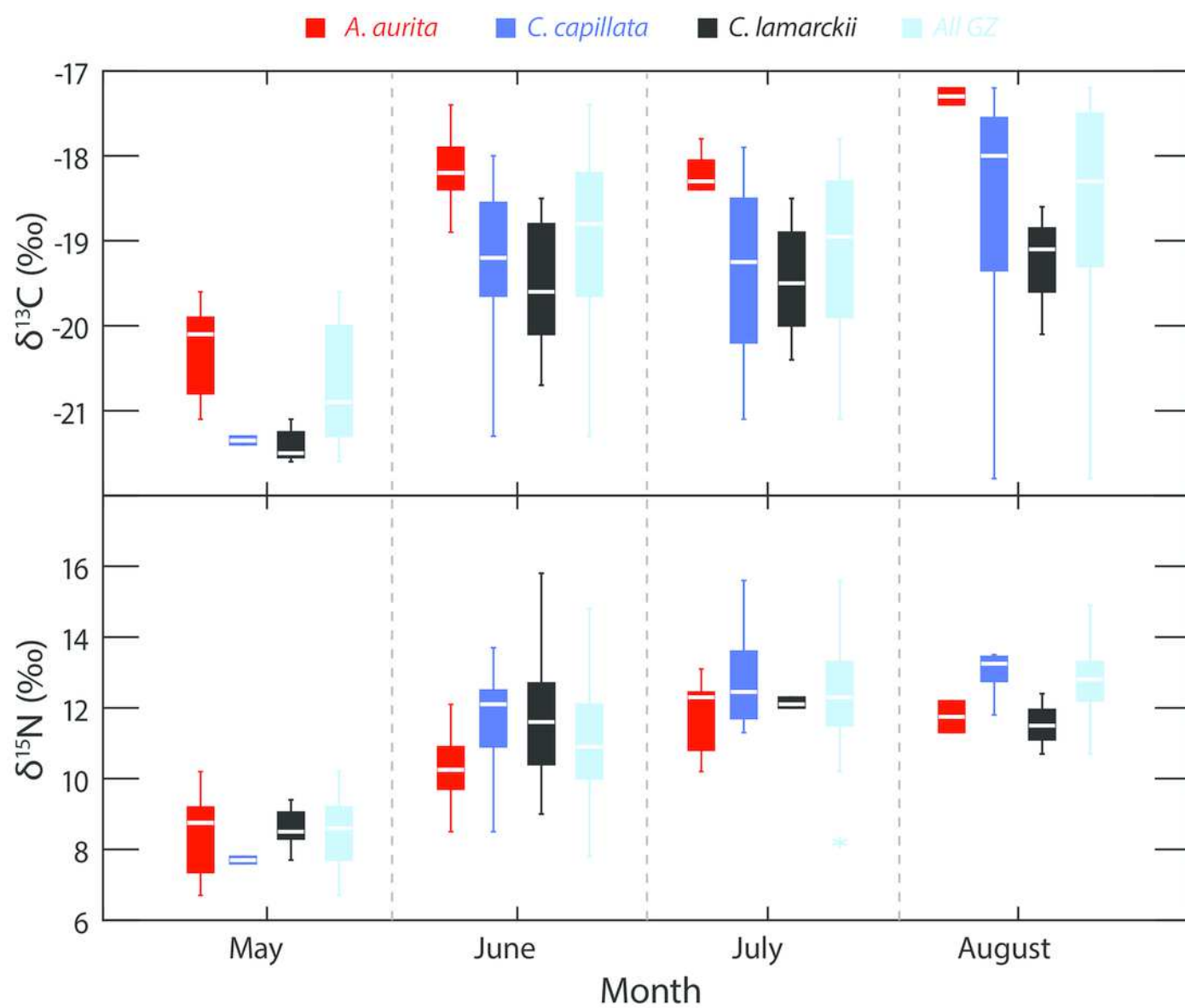
Isotopic variation in 3 species of co-occurring jellyfish

Figure 1: Variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ shown in three species of jellyfish over the whole study period. (See Table 1 for summary statistics).



Temporal variation in jellyfish $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$

Figure 2: Box-whisker plots showing variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (upper panel) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (lower panel) in the three jellyfish species, and within the dominant gelatinous zooplankton community (GZ; all three species combined) over the study period. See Table 1 for sample sizes and other summary statistics. NB: Baseline $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values remained constant over this period, indicating that the increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values reflected a shift in trophic position rather than seasonal shifts at the base of the food web. Boxes show inter-quartile range, and the bold horizontal bar indicates the median value. Whiskers reflect values 1.5 x the interquartile range.



Variation in isotopic niche width (SEA_b) between species

Figure 3: Variation in isotopic niche width (SEA_b) between species ($A. a = A. aurita$; $C. l = C. lamarckii$; $C. c = C. capillata$) and within the dominant gelatinous zooplankton community (GZ; all three species combined) sampled over the survey period. Boxes represent the 50, 75 and 95 % Bayesian credibility intervals estimated from 100,000 draws. Samples marked with *included less than 10 individuals (see Parnell et al. 2010). See Table 3 for statistical comparisons.

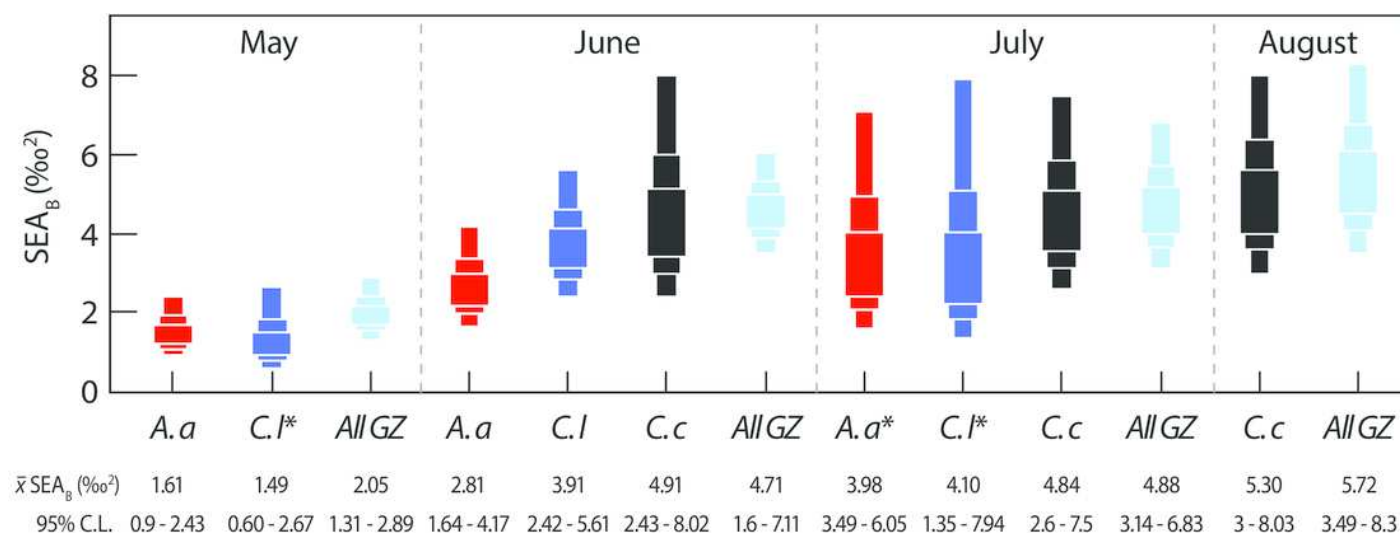


Figure showing isotopic variation with size

Figure 4: Variation in bell $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (A & B) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (C & D) with bell diameter (A & C) and wet mass (B & D). Note use of logarithmic scale on x-axes.

