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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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Seasonal variation of gelatinous plankton consumption by fish in the South-western Atlantic Ocean: a question of strategy*

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ABSTRACT

Gelatinous plankton is an important food resource for several species of fishes in the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean. Some fish depend heavily on these organisms and are specialized to feed on ctenophores, salps and medusae, while others only consume gelatinous plankton occasionally. We hypothesize that consumption of gelatinous plankton by fishes represents an alternative food resource when primary prey are not available during cold periods in the study area. To determine seasonal variations of gelatinous plankton consumption by fishes, data samples were grouped into cold and warm periods. A total of 64,567 stomachs belonging to 106 species of fish were analysed, of which 32,943 (51%) contained food items. Of those containing food items, 2719 (8.2%), from 38 fish species, contained gelatinous items. Fourteen species ingested gelatinous in warm period, nine in cold period, and 15 in both periods. The proportion of stomachs with gelatinous was significantly greater during the cold period. Ctenophores were the most predominant prey in both periods, followed by salps and medusae. Consumption of ctenophores, salps and medusae was unevenly distributed within the area during the different periods. Classification methods (group average sorting utilizing Bray–Curtis similarity measures based on log $(X + 1)$) identified eight areas of consumption. SIMPER (similarity percentages) analyses revealed that nine fish species contributed most to gelatinous plankton consumption. The seasonal and spatial variation of gelatinous consumption by fish would be related to the availability of food in each period. Strategies of gelatinous consumption, including survival, feeding opportunities and prey specialization, are discussed.

Introduction

It is well known that gelatinous organisms such as ctenophores, salps and medusae play an important role as prey for a wide variety of organisms, mostly fish (Arai [2005](#page-12-0); Marques et al. [2016](#page-13-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0) and information therein). These soft-bodied organisms have the ability to form large aggregations (Graham et al. [2001](#page-13-0)), which may negatively impact tourism, health, aquaculture and fisheries (Ivanov et al. [2000](#page-13-0); Mianzan et al. [2000](#page-13-0), [2005](#page-13-0); Doyle et al. [2008\)](#page-12-0). According to Arai ([1997](#page-12-0)), only fish present in sufficient numbers may have a significant impact on the populations of gelatinous zooplankton. Also, Harbison ([1993](#page-13-0)) and Marques et al. ([2016](#page-13-0)) suggest that certain medusophagous fish (e.g. Suborder Stromateoidei) potentially contribute to the direct control of these organisms in some ecosystems through top-down regulations of

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gelatinous biomass. In this context, knowing which are the potential predator fish and when they consume this kind of gelatinous prey, provides valuable information about the dynamics of this highly productive and important ecosystem and facilitates the planning, assessment and management of fisheries (Mills [1995](#page-13-0); Boero et al. [2008](#page-12-0); Pauly et al. [2009](#page-13-0); Condon et al. [2012](#page-12-0); Mianzan et al. [2012](#page-13-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017\)](#page-12-0). In recent studies, Diaz Briz et al. ([2017](#page-12-0)) quantified the consumption of three gelatinous groups (ctenophores, salps and medusae) by almost 50 fish species and determined the different areas of plankton consumption in temperate waters of Southwestern Atlantic Ocean.

The information collected from the analysis of the stomach contents of fish would allow us to evaluate temporal and spatial changes in abundance and

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distributions of gelatinous organisms because changes in prey composition of opportunistic fish provide information about the population dynamics of gelatinous organisms (Link and Ford [2006\)](#page-13-0). Belleggia et al. ([2012](#page-12-0)) found that the trophic level of spiny dogfish (Squalus acanthias Linnaeus, 1758) decreased from 1990 to 2000 in the ecosystem of the Argentine sea (South Atlantic). These authors suggested that overfishing of their principal prey (Argentine hake and other demersal fish) led to an increase in consumption of Illex argentinus Castellanos, 1960 squid and ctenophores during that decade.

In spite of the importance of this kind of work, studies that analyse the seasonal variation of fish consumption on gelatinous zooplankton are very scarce. Mianzan et al. [\(1996\)](#page-13-0) and Arkhipkin and Laptikhovsky ([2013](#page-12-0)) only quantified the seasonality of ctenophores consumption by some fishes in three areas of the south-western Atlantic Ocean (Río de la Plata, Peninsula Valdes and Falkland Islands).

The reasons why fish species incorporate gelatinous organisms as food are not clearly understood, but according to Mianzan et al. [\(2001](#page-13-0)), this behaviour may occur when the main prey are not available, which implies an adaptive food web. However, considering the large number of fish species that consume gelatinous items in the area (see Diaz Briz et al. [2017\)](#page-12-0) it is possible that other strategies of consumption should also be considered. Some fish species depend heavily on gelatinous prey as a source of food, while others consume this type of prey only occasionally in accordance with availability of these gelatinous species in space and time (see Marques et al. [2016](#page-13-0) and Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0) and all references cited therein). Therefore, to test the hypothesis that the consumption of gelatinous items by fish varies seasonally, stomach contents of several fish species were analysed from an extensive geographical area of the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean (33°–55° S), in the cold and warm period. Primary objectives of the study were to assess (1) seasonal trends in fish predator-gelatinous prey relationships, and (2) identify the areas where fishes consume gelatinous organisms during different seasons.

Material and methods

Study area and data collection

The study area comprised the Argentina Continental Shelf and southern of Uruguay (33°–55° S; [Figure 1\)](#page-3-0) which basically corresponds to the Subtropical (northern) and Subantarctic (southern) Biogeographical Region (Balech and Ehrlich [2008\)](#page-12-0). This area is characterized by the presence of two large water masses: a sub-Antarctic mass of cold temperate waters, the Falkland (Malvinas) Current and a sub-tropical mass of warm waters, the Brazil Current (see Guerrero and Piola [1997\)](#page-13-0). The area presents different marine frontal zones, (see Acha et al. [2004](#page-12-0); Sabatini et al. [2004](#page-13-0); Mianzan and Acha [2008\)](#page-13-0).

The data of the fish stomach contents were collected between 1986 and 2000 on the Argentinean Continental Shelf (33°–55° S; [Table I\)](#page-4-0) by the Instituto Nacional de Investigación y Desarrollo Pesquero (INIDEP). This information comes from 33 research cruises performed by the Research Vessels 'Capitan Oca Balda' and 'Dr Eduardo Holmberg' of INIDEP. Overall, 1109 sample sites were analysed ([Table I](#page-4-0)). The sampling procedure was designed to acquire data on abundance, age structure and life history of fish species of commercial value from the Argentinean Continental Shelf. Fishing was conducted throughout the day, at 3–4 knots for 30 minutes in each sampling site, using a bottom trawl Engel type of 200 mm mesh in the wing and 103 mm in the cod end, 4 m vertical opening and 15 m horizontal aperture. The fish species were removed from the net and immediately sampled. The detail of non-gelatinous and gelatinous items was extracted from each specimen of examined fish species. The gelatinous items considered were ctenophores, salps and medusae.

Data analysis

The data set of the three gelatinous (ctenophores, salps and medusae) and non-gelatinous prey-items were of presence/absence type. Stomachs with prey items were taken to be full, while those without were deemed to be empty.

The overall total number of empty and filled stomachs with contents, the total number of stomachs with non-gelatinous and gelatinous items, as well as the total number of stomachs with discriminated gelatinous items in ctenophores, salps and medusas were calculated as frequency of occurrence over the total analysed stomachs with contents (% F) per each fish species, respectively:

- a- Fc(xi)=Nsc(xi)/Nts(xi)*100
- b- Fg(xi)=Nsg(xi)/Nts(xi)*100
- c- Fct/s/m(xi)=Ns-ct/s/m(xi)/Nts(xi)*100

Fc = Frequency of stomachs with no gelatinous contents

Fg = Frequency of stomachs with gelatinous contents

Figure 1. Study area: The colourful areas represent the Argentina and Uruguay frontal zones. Isobaths of 50, 100, 200 and 1000 m are remark.

Fct,s,m = Frequency of ctenophores, salps and medusae

Nsc = Total number of stomachs with no gelatinous contents

Nsg = Total number of stomachs with gelatinous organisms

Ns-ct/s/m = Total number of stomachs with ctenophores, salps or medusae

Nts = Total number of analysed stomachs with contents

 (x_i) = a given fish species

To determine seasonal variations of gelatinous plankton consumption by fish, data samples were grouped in cold (samples from 15 April to 14 September) and warm periods (samples from 15 October until 14 March). The samples collected between 15 March and 14 April as well as between 15 September and 14 October ($N = 75$ samples) were not considered in this analysis since these are considered transitional months ([Table I\)](#page-4-0).

The overall number of stomachs with gelatinous prey, as well as the overall number of each gelatinous item (ctenophores, salps and medusae) per fish species were calculated as frequency of occurrence (see above) in relation to the total number of stomachs with contents during each period. The overall number of stomachs with no gelatinous contents was calculated the same way. Differences between both

periods were evaluated by means of X^2 test and residual analysis (Zar [1999\)](#page-13-0).

To determine the main areas of gelatinous consumption by fishes during cold and warm periods, the area was divided into 119 one-degree grid squares. For each square the frequency of stomachs with ctenophores, salps and medusae for each fish species and period was calculated. For this analysis, a single species that consumed more than one gelatinous item was considered separately for each period and item consumed (e.g. Squalus acanthias with ctenophores (during the warm period); S. acanthias with salps (warm period); S. acanthias with medusae (warm period); S. acanthias with ctenophores (cold period); S. acanthias with salps (cold period) and S. acanthias with medusae (cold period) and so on). The square without species $(n = 25 \text{ squares})$ as well as those fish species present in only one square were excluded from the analysis $(n = 41)$. The final matrix consisted of 93 squares and 41 fish species. Classification methods (group average sorting of the Bray–Curtis similarity measures based on log $(X + 1)$ transformed data) were carried out using the PRIMER 6 software package (Clarke and Warwick [2001\)](#page-12-0) to determine locations where consumption occurred. This logarithmic transformation was used to balance the contribution of rare and common species in the analysis, and thus any dominant effect of extreme or anomalous samples was removed. A similarity profile analysis (SIMPROF) was used to test whether the groups obtained by the cluster analysis were significantly different. This method of data analysis employs null hypothesis testing to detect structure in ecological communities. A similarity profile is constructed from a set of species abundance, frequencies and composition data by first creating a similarity matrix using an ecologically appropriate resemblance measure (e.g. the Bray-Curtis metric). The value of SIMPROF is realized when it is used to objectively identify the members of 'real' groups present in the results returned from a classical hierarchical agglomerative clustering method (Clarke et al. [2008](#page-12-0)). A SIMPER analysis (similarity percentages) was used to determine the fish species that contributed most to (dis)similarities among and within groups in each period (Clarke and Warwick [2001\)](#page-12-0).

Results

Of a total 1109 sample sites analysed, 405 (36.5%) presented fish with any gelatinous items in their stomach contents (see [Table I\)](#page-4-0). A total of 64,567 stomachs belonging to 106 species of fish were quantified, of which 31,624 (49%) were empty and 32,943 (51%) had food items. Out of these stomachs with contents, 2719 (8.2%) belonging to 38 fish species contained gelatinous items of which 14 species eat in the warm period, nine in the cold period and 15 in both periods (see Table II).

The proportion of fish stomachs with gelatinous and without gelatinous items varied significantly between the two periods. The proportion of stomachs with gelatinous items was greater during the cold period (11.8% in the cold period vs. 8.4% in the warm period), while the proportion of stomachs with no gelatinous items was lower in this period (87.9% in the cold period vs.

Table II. List of fish species that consume gelatinous organisms. In white species that consume during both periods, in red only those that consume in warm season and in blue only those consume in cold period. Ni (%) = number of stomachs with each gelatinous prey and its corresponding percentage value.

			Warm			Cold				
						Total number of stomachs with:				
Fish species	Contents	Gelatinous Ni (%)	Ctenophores Ni (%)	Salps Ni (%)	Medusae Ni (%)	Contents	Gelatinous Ni (%)	Ctenophore s Ni (%)	Salps Ni (%)	Medusae Ni (%)
Bathyraja sp.	144	1(0.69)	1(100)	$\pmb{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	152	1(0.65)	1(100)	$\pmb{0}$	$\pmb{0}$
Conger orbignianus	44	3(6.82)	2(66.67)	1(33.33)	θ	165	31 (18.79)	13 (41.94)	17 (54.83)	1(3.22)
Helicolenus lahillei	31	24 (77.4)	14 (58.33)	10 (41.67)	$\bf{0}$	310	98 (31.61)	89 (90.82)	12 (12.24)	θ
Macruronus magellanicus	1,806	46 (2.55)	20 (43.48)	26(56.52)	$\bf{0}$	1,139	113 (9.92)	48 (42.48)	65 (57.52)	
Merluccius hubbsi	7,050	83 (1.18)	7(8.43)	74 (89.16)	3(3.61)	5,182	28 (0.54)	6(21.43)	22 (78.57)	
Micromesistius australis	218	9(4.13)	9(100)	$\bf{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	182	17 (9.34)	$\pmb{0}$	17 (100)	
Micropogonias furnieri	400	13(3.25)	13 (100)	θ	θ	72	1(1.38)	1(100)	$\bf{0}$	
Nemadactylus bergi	37	2(5.41)	2(100)	$\bf{0}$	θ	397	8(2.01)	6(75)	θ	2(25)
Parona signata	106	21(19.8)	$\pmb{0}$	$\bf{0}$	21 (100)	34	6(17.65)	6(100)	θ	θ
Patagonotothen ramsayi	979	126 (12.9)	86 (68.25)	39 (30.95)	2(1.59)	358	61 (17.04)	5(8.19)	40 (65.57)	18 (29.51)
Seriolella porosa	184	95 (51.6)	94 (98.95)	$\bf{0}$	1(1.05)	27	26 (96.3)	26(100)	θ	
Squalus acanthias	1,023	304 (29.7)	264 (86.84)	11(3.61)	30 (9.87)	2,286	966 (42.26)	810 (83.85)	61(6.31)	122(12.63)
Squalus sp.	84	3(3.6)	3(100)	$\pmb{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	70	3(4.28)	2(66.67)	1(33.33)	0
Stromateus brasiliensis	437	430 (98.4)	417 (96.98)	11(2.55)	2(0.47)	64	64 (100)	37 (57.81)	$\bf{0}$	27(42.19)
Zearaja chilensis	138	2(1.45)	1(50)	1(50)	$\pmb{0}$	631	5(0.79)	4(80)	$\bf{0}$	1(20)
Bathyraja albomaculata	134	2(1.5)	1(50)	1(50)	$\boldsymbol{0}$	141	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	θ
Centrolophus niger	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	2(100)	2(100)	θ	θ	θ	θ	θ	θ	
Dipturus trachyderma	$\overline{2}$	1(50)	\bullet	$\overline{0}$	1(100)	$\bf{0}$	θ	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	
Icichthys australis	$\mathbf{1}$	1(100)	1(100)	θ	$\bf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	θ	Ω	Ω	
Iluocoetes <i>fimbriatus</i>	46	1(2.17)	$\bf{0}$	1(100)	$\mathbf{0}$	62	Ω	Ω	θ	
Macrourus carinatus	39	8(20.5)	$\bf{0}$	8 (100)	$\bf{0}$	6	θ	θ	θ	
Peprilus paru	$\mathbf{1}$	1(100)	1(100)	$\pmb{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	θ	
Psammobatis sp.	192	1(0.52)	$\bf{0}$	1(100)	$\mathbf{0}$	156	θ	θ	θ	
Salilota australis	180	2(1.11)	2(100)	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	71	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	
Schedophilus sp.	$\overline{2}$	2(100)	2(100)	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	θ	
Schroederichthys bivius	353	10(2.83)	$\bf{0}$	9(90)	1(10)	176	θ	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	
Squalus mitsukuri i	304	38(12.5)	38 (100)	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	
Sympterygia bonapartii	234	2(0.85)	$\bf{0}$	2(100)	$\bf{0}$	207	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	$\mathbf{0}$
Trachurus lathami	23	1(4.35)	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	1(100)	15	$\pmb{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$
Bathyraja macloviana	54	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	75	1(1.33)	1(100)	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\pmb{0}$
Cottoperca gobio	206	θ	θ	θ	θ	21	1(4.76)	θ	θ	1(100)
Dissostichus eleginoides	90	θ	θ	θ	$\boldsymbol{0}$	118	8(6.78)	$\bf{0}$	8(100)	$\bf{0}$
Macrourus holotrachys	$\bf{0}$	Ω	θ	θ	θ	49	40 (81.63)	$\bf{0}$	38 (95)	4(10)
Mullus argentinae	$\bf{0}$	θ	θ	θ	$\bf{0}$	59	3(5.08)	3(100)	$\bf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$
Scomber japonicus	45	θ	θ	θ	θ	26	1(3.84)	$\bf{0}$	1(100)	$\mathbf{0}$
Pagrus pagrus	6	θ	θ	θ	θ	38	1(2.63)	$\bf{0}$	$\overline{0}$	1(100)
Squatina argentina	127	θ	$\bf{0}$	θ	$\bf{0}$	163	1(0.61)	1(100)	θ	θ
Trichiurus lepturus	$\pmb{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	$\pmb{0}$	149	1(0.67)	1(100)	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$
Totals	14.722	1.234(8.4)	980	195	62	12.601	1.485(11.8)	1.060	282	177

Items	Warm $(\%)$	Cold $(\%)$	Totals
Ctenophores	980 (6.66)	1,060(8.41)	2,040(7.47)
Salps	195(1.32)	282(2.24)	477 (1.74)
Medusae	62(0.42)	177(1.40)	239(0.87)
other items (no gelatinous)	13,485 (91.60)	11,082 (87.95)	24,567 (89.91)
Totals	14,722	12,601	27,323

Table III. Total number of stomachs with the three gelatinous items discriminated in ctenophores, salps, medusae and others content (non gelatinous) used for X^2 analysis with its frequency (%) by corresponding period.

91.6% in the warm period, see [Table II\)](#page-5-0) $(X^2 = 87,351)$; $P < .001$).

The same analysis was performed to establish stomachs containing different proportions of ctenophores, salps and medusae. The three items were also consumed in greater quantities during the cold rather than the warm period (8.4% vs. 6.6% for ctenophores; 2.2% vs. 1.3% for salps and 1.4% vs. 0.4% for medusae, respectively) $(X^2 = 145.6181, (P < .001)$ (see Table III). In both periods, ctenophores were the most frequent prey in gut contents of the fish species analysed, followed by salps and medusae (see [Table II](#page-5-0))

Seasonal and spatial variation of consumption

The consumption of ctenophores, salps and medusae was unevenly distributed within the study area in the different periods. According to the cluster analysis, a total of eight groups (consumption areas $= G1 - G8$) were identified, which represented a 100% ($N = 93$) of squares analysed ([Figure 2\)](#page-7-0). The SIMPER analysis (Parameters Resemblance: S17 Bray Curtis similarity and cut off for low contributions: 90.0%) indicated nine fish species contributed most to the consumption of each gelatinous item in each area and period. contributed to the consumption of each gelatinous item in each area and period.

In general terms, in the areas G1, G3 and G4 the consumption of gelatinous items by fish occurred only in the cold period (see [Figures 2](#page-7-0) and [3\)](#page-8-0): Group 1 (24.39% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), grouped 11 squares located on the south slope in Patagonia (51°–55° S). Four fish species consumed gelatinous items in this area, but only Patagonotothen ramsayi (Regan, 1913) and Macruronus magellanicus Lönnberg, 1907 contributed significantly to the salps consumption with values of 59.05% and 15.65%, respectively.

Group 3 (66.44% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), concentrated four squares corresponding to the Buenos Aires Coast (38°S) and San Jorge Gulf (45°–46° S). Only two fish species were represented, Stromateus brasiliensis Fowler, 1906 and Seriolella porosa Guichenot, 1848, with values of 46.23% and 45.37% for ctenophores, respectively.

Group 4 (66.37% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), grouped 20 squares located on the centre and southern part of the Argentina continental shelf (39°– 53° S). In this area the fish species that most contributed was Squalus acanthias with value of 98.89% for the ctenophores item.

On the contrary, the consumption by fish in the areas G2 and G8 occurred in the warm period (see [Figures 2](#page-7-0) and [3\)](#page-8-0):

Group 2 (50.11% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), consisted of 37 squares, located in the estuarine zone of Rio de la Plata (35°–36° S), in the tidal front zone of Peninsula Valdes (43°–44° S) and in the centre and southern continental shelf (38°–40° and 55°–53° S). In this area, two fish species dominated ctenophore consumption, S. brasiliensis with a value of 82.87% and S. acanthias with 8.81%.

Group 8 (18.70% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), consisted of nine squares, one located in the coast of Buenos Aires (37° S) and the remaining in the southern platform (46–50° S). Four species were represented in this area, with P. ramsayi and Merluccius hubbsi Marini, 1933 being the species that most contributed to gelatinous consumption with values of 38.37% for ctenophores and 35% for salps, respectively.

Finally, in the areas G5, G6 and G7 the consumption of gelatinous items by fish occurred in both periods (cold and warm) (see [Figures 2](#page-7-0) and [3\)](#page-8-0).

Group 5 (51.55% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), brought together a total of three squares located in the north of Argentina continental shelf and frontal slope zone (37°–38° S). In this area five species were

Figure 2. (a) Dendrogram obtained from cluster analysis calculated in each period with the proportions of stomachs with ctenophores, salps and medusae per quadrant for each species of fish predator. Each colour represents each of the eight areas of consumption obtained with its corresponding latitude and longitude points; (b) Results of SIMPER analysis of eight groups, for each area, in each period, all the fish species that most contributed in the consumption of each gelatinous item and their corresponding values in % are given.

Figure 3. Map of the eight groups of quadrants (areas of consumption) obtained from the cluster analysis. The species of fish that contributed most for each gelatinous prey and their values of contribution in % per area are indicated.

represented; however, S. acanthias and Helicolenus lahillei Norman, 1937 (with values of 26.34% and 21.51%) contributed more in the cold period while P. ramsayi (with a value of 8.90%) in the warm period, all of them preying over the ctenophores item.

Group 6 (66.97% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), concentrated a total of six squares, situated in the Uruguay continental shelf and north frontal slope zone (34°–35° S) and in the centre of Patagonia (45°– 47° S). In this area, only S. acanthias contributed mainly in the consumption of ctenophores with values of 84.23% in the warm period and 15.77% in the cold period.

Group 7 (53.34% internal similarity SIMPER analysis), grouped a total of three squares in the north of Argentina continental shelf and frontal slope zone (36°-37° S). In this area, seven species were represented; however, only S. acanthias (with a value of 31.67% for the ctenophores item) and H. lahillei (with a value of 9.59% for the salps item) were the species that contributed more to the consumption in the warm period. In the cold period, S. acanthias contributed to the consumption of ctenophores and salps with a value of 20.05% and 10.49%, respectively.

Discussion

Consumption of gelatinous prey by fishes was found to be slightly greater during the cold period than in the warm period in the South Atlantic Ocean, despite the fact that gelatinous organisms are more abundant in the warm season (Mianzan and Guerrero [2000](#page-13-0)). Primary production in the temperate Southwest Atlantic varies through the year. During winter, phytoplankton production is poor due to the low solar radiation. In spring, high concentrations of nutrients (such as nitrogen, phosphorus, silicon and certain other elements such as iron, copper and zinc) mix from bottom to the upper layers, and increased light levels promote the explosive growth of phytoplankton (see Mianzan and Acha [2008](#page-13-0), and all references cited therein). Phytoplankton blooms rapidly deplete the nutrients, and an accompanying decline takes place in the ecosystem. Likewise, zooplankton populations, low in winter, expand rapidly and accelerate the reduction of phytoplankton concentrations at the end of spring and during summer. In temperate seas of the study area, phytoplankton attains a second peak in autumn after zooplankton numbers have declined and seasonal winds produce mixture. A new zooplankton peak is then initiated while the light and temperature are still adequate (Mianzan and Acha [2008\)](#page-13-0).

The gelatinous organisms also have seasonal rhythms and are more abundant during the warm period than during the cold period (Mianzan and Sabatini [1985](#page-13-0); Mianzan et al. [1996](#page-13-0); Mianzan and Guerrero [2000](#page-13-0); Mianzan and Acha [2008](#page-13-0)). Both phytoplankton and herbivorous zooplankton (e.g. copepods) are the energy supply for gelatinous plankton. Therefore, the peak of ctenophores, salps and medusae follow the seasonal cycles of herbivorous zooplankton and phytoplankton (Boero et al. [2008\)](#page-12-0).

Even though the population density of ctenophores, salps and medusae decreases during the cold period, these do not disappear completely from the environment because their pulses are often much longer than the other organisms that constitute the zooplankton (Boero et al. [2008\)](#page-12-0). Conversely, the other organisms (no gelatinous) – such as copepods, hyperiid amphipods (e.g. Themisto gaudichaudii Guérin, 1825), euphausiids (e.g. Euphausia lucens Hansen, 1905), squids (e.g. Illex, Doryteuthis gahi d'Orbigny, 1835) and the anchovy (Engraulis anchoita Hubbs and Marini, 1935) – which support the most of fish stocks in the area (Perez Seijas et al. [1987;](#page-13-0) Brunetti and Ivanovic [1992](#page-12-0); Sanchez and Prenski [1996;](#page-13-0) Garcia de la Rosa and Sánchez [1997](#page-12-0); Brunetti et al. [1998;](#page-12-0) Brunetti [1999](#page-12-0); Sabatini and Alvarez Colombo [2001](#page-13-0); Marí and Sánchez [2002;](#page-13-0) Hansen [2004;](#page-13-0) Sanchez and Marí [2005](#page-13-0); Padovani et al. [2012\)](#page-13-0), decrease significantly in late fall and winter.

Our finding showed that the total proportion of stomachs with gelatinous organisms, as well as the proportion per discriminate gelatinous item was higher in the cold period than in the warm period. Conversely, the proportion of stomachs with no gelatinous prey was significantly lower during the cold period. Although the percent of stomachs (11.8%) with gelatinous prey was the highest during the cold period, we should not assume that it is a consequence of the greater abundance of gelatinous zooplankton during this period. Probably, it is due to the seasonal decline in the non-gelatinous preys that typically constitute the diets of these fish during warm periods. In this context, we assume that many fish use the gelatinous organisms as survival food when their favoured prey items are scarce (Kashkina [1986;](#page-13-0) Mianzan et al. [1996](#page-13-0), [1997](#page-13-0), [2001\)](#page-13-0).

Eight areas of consumption (G1-G8) were determined in Argentina and Uruguay continental shelves. Almost all were coincident with some frontal zones of the Argentina Sea (see Mianzan and Acha [2008;](#page-13-0) Diaz Briz et al. [2017\)](#page-12-0). These frontal areas play a key role in the trophic interactions between gelatinous organisms and fish. They provide the ideal environment favouring concentration of both prey and predators. Also, ctenophores, salps and medusae are very abundant and present all year long in these frontal zones (Mianzan and Guerrero [2000](#page-13-0); Costello and Mianzan [2003](#page-12-0); Mianzan and Acha [2008](#page-13-0)). In these areas, nine fish species (S. acanthias, S. brasiliensis, S. porosa, H. lahillei, Macrourus holotrachys Günther, 1878, P. ramsayi, M. hubbsi, M. magellanicus and Schroederichthys bivius (Müller and Henle 1838)) were the ones that contributed the most to the consumption of gelatinous plankton.

Of those species, some species consumed gelatinous zooplankton only during the cold or warm periods and other species consumed during both periods. This seasonal and spatial variation of gelatinous consumption by fish would be a consequence of prey availability during each period.

Several strategies were utilized by fish species preying on gelatinous organisms, including basic survival, opportunism, and food specialization (see Haedrich [1967;](#page-13-0) Fitch and Brownell [1971](#page-12-0); Macpherson [1983](#page-13-0); Kashkina [1986](#page-13-0); Angelescu [1982a](#page-12-0); Harbison [1993;](#page-13-0) Mianzan et al. [1996,](#page-13-0) [1997,](#page-13-0) [2001;](#page-13-0) Cardona et al. [2012](#page-12-0); Marques et al. [2016](#page-13-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0) among other and [Figure 4\)](#page-10-0).

Those species that consume gelatinous organisms only during the cold period as well as those that consume these organisms throughout the year although mostly in the cold period when the energetically preferred food is absent they could consume them as a survival food strategy (see Angelescu [1982b;](#page-12-0) Kashkina [1986](#page-13-0); Harbison [1993](#page-13-0); Mianzan et al. [1996,](#page-13-0) [1997](#page-13-0), [2001,](#page-13-0) [Table III](#page-6-0) and [Figures 3](#page-8-0) and [4\)](#page-10-0). In the first group stand out Bathyraja macloviana (Norman, 1937), Cottoperca gobio (Günther, 1861), Dissostichus eleginoides Smitt, 1898, M. holotrachys, Mullus argentinae Hubbs and Marini, 1933, Scomber japonicas Houttuyn, 1782, Pagrus pagrus (Linnaeus, 1758), Squatina argentina Marini, 1930 and Trichiurus lepturus Linnaeus, 1758. During the warm season these fish species prey on a wide range of non-gelatinous items but not over gelatinous (see Cousseau and Perrota [2000](#page-12-0)).

The species of the second group such as Conger orbignyanus Valenciennes, 1837, H. lahillei, P. ramsayi, M. magellanicus, Micromesistius australis Norman, 1937, S. acanthias and Squalus sp. increases the consumption of gelatinous during the cold period, but gelatinous plankton are part of the diet all year long. The best example of this strategy is represented by the diet of S. acanthias. Although this species consumes gelatinous organisms in both periods of the

Figure 4. Food strategy (Survival, Opportunistic and specialists) proposed in this study.

year, the consumption is most common during the cold period, since availability of their main prey – such as squid, Argentina hake and anchovy – decreases significantly during this period (Garcia de la Rosa and Sánchez [1997;](#page-12-0) Cousseau and Perrota [2000](#page-12-0)). Therefore, all of the survival strategist species, in the absence of their main food, would consume gelatinous organisms that remain available during unfavourable cold periods.

Contrary, the species that only consume during the warm period and those which consume throughout the year but they do primarily during the warm period could consume as opportunistic strategy (see Cardona et al. [2012;](#page-12-0) Marques et al. [2016](#page-13-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0), [Table III](#page-6-0) and [Figures 3](#page-8-0) and 4). The first group consists of: Bathyraja albomaculata (Norman, 1937), Dipturus trachyderma (Krefft and Stehmann, 1975), lluocoetes fimbriatus Jenyns, 1842, Macrourus carinatus (Günther, 1878), Psammobatis sp., Salilota australis, S. bivius, Squalus mitsukurii Jordan and Snyder, 1903, Sympterygia bonapartii Müller and Henle, 1841 and Trachurus lathami. Species in the second group were: Bathyraja sp., M. hubbsi, Micropogonias furnieri (Desmarest, 1823), Nemadactylus bergi Norman, 1937, Parona signata (Jenyns, 1841) and Zearaja chilensis (Guichenot, 1848). During the warm period, all of these fish species take advantage of high ctenophores, salps and medusae densities in the area (see Mianzan and Guerrero [2000](#page-13-0); Alvarez Colombo et al. [2003](#page-12-0); Costello and Mianzan [2003](#page-12-0)).

Finally, the species of fish such as S. brasiliensis, S. porosa, Centrolophus niger (Gmelin, 1789), Icichthys australis (Haedrich, 1966), Peprilus paru (Linnaeus, 1758) and Schedophilus sp., cannot be adequately described as survival or opportunity strategists because these fish, commonly known as *iellyfish* eaters, feed exclusively on gelatinous organisms regardless of the season or location. Therefore, they are specialists (see Haedrich [1967](#page-13-0); Fitch and Brownell [1971](#page-12-0); Macpherson [1983](#page-13-0); Harbison [1993](#page-13-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0), [Table III](#page-6-0) and [Figures 3](#page-8-0) and [4](#page-10-0)). For example, S. brasiliensis, consistently had high proportions of stomachs with gelatinous organisms in the warm period (97%) when this fish species reaches its maximum abundance on the continental shelf (spawning season), as well as in the cold period (100%) when their abundance decreases markedly in the area due to their migration to deeper waters of the continental shelf (Fitch and Brownell [1971\)](#page-12-0)

The three gelatinous items considered in this study constitute an important part of the diet of many fish. Ctenophores are the most frequent prey. These results are consistent with those of several other studies reporting that these gelatinous organisms are the most frequently consumed item by these fish (Arai [1988](#page-12-0); Mianzan et al. [1996](#page-13-0); Arai et al. [2003;](#page-12-0) Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0)). Salps are less common than ctenophores but they are an important item for several fish (Mianzan et al. [1996](#page-13-0), [1997](#page-13-0), [2001](#page-13-0); Daponte et al. [2011](#page-12-0); Diaz Briz et al. [2017](#page-12-0)). Finally, the medusae should be analysed individually. Our results indicate that they had the lowest number of predators and were the less frequently consumed gelatinous group. However, this fact may be due to an underestimation of these organisms during the sampling. Most of the works that reported consumption of medusae by fish cited mainly the scyphomedusae as prey-items (see Arai [1988,](#page-12-0) [2005;](#page-12-0) Ates [1988](#page-12-0); Purcell and Arai [2001](#page-13-0)). These large medusae, with thick mesoglea, strong oral arms and rhopalium (balance organ situated in the margin of the bell), resist digestion and are relatively easy to identify in the gut contents of predators. Nevertheless, small-sized hydromedusae are easily digestible and difficult to detect in gut contents of fish. These medusae do not have large structures for macroscopic identification; therefore, they are less likely to be detected in fish gut contents. Arai ([1988](#page-12-0)) suggested that a possible solution to this dilemma would be to make a squash or crushed preparation of the gelatinous mucus present in the fresh gut contents of a fish in

order to evaluate the presence of nematocysts (structures characteristic of medusae that resist digestion. Although this approach might permit identification of higher medusa taxonomic levels in fish guts, it is unlikely to identify individual medusa species due to the widespread occurrence of similar nematocysts between a numbers of hydromedusa species. However, by combining the type of nematocyst present in the stomachs of fish with the diversity, abundance and cnidae of hydromedusae in certain areas, we could infer which hydromedusae species could be consumed. Thus, Diaz Briz et al. [2015](#page-12-0) detected nematocyst of hydromedusae in gut contents of S. brasiliensis, a fish known to consume ctenophores only.

Another important factor to be considered is hydromedusae seasonality. Unlike scyphomedusae that often survive for long periods in the water column (from months to over a year, see Mianzan and Cornelius [1999](#page-13-0)), hydromedusae typically have a short life and a marked seasonal regime characterized by high abundances during the warm period (Genzano, Mianzan, and Bouillon [2008](#page-12-0)). This group tends to disappear from the water column for long periods of time, being represented in their benthic or resistance forms (Genzano, Mianzan, Diaz-Briz, et al. [2008](#page-12-0); Jaubet and Genzano [2011](#page-13-0)). Thus, predation on hydromedusae may be restricted to a short period of time during the year.

Future studies about life cycles, seasonality and distribution of hydromedusa populations as well as traditional analysis of fish stomach contents, stable isotopes and fat acids should be implemented to achieve a better understanding of the role that gelatinous organisms have in local pelagic food webs.

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