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## **$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and C:N ratios as nutrition indicators of zooxanthellate jellyfishes: insights from an experimental approach**

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### **Abstract :**

Some jellyfish host zooxanthellae in their tissues (mostly from the family Symbiodiniaceae; Dinophyceae) and supplement their heterotrophic nutrition with their symbiont's photosynthates. The mixotrophy of zooxanthellate jellyfishes (as holobionts) renders the study of their nutrition, growth, and population dynamics complicated. Here, we used an experimental approach to assess how carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) as well as the elemental composition (C:N ratios) of zooxanthellate jellyfishes are affected by variations in nutrition sources: i. e. predation (heterotrophic) versus photosynthesis (autotrophic). Our laboratory experiment, conducted on the zooxanthellate jellyfish *Cassiopea* sp. medusae (including symbionts) in the presence or absence of light and prey during 24 days, showed conclusive results. Presence of light decreased  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , increased  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C:N ratios, whereas presence of prey increased  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and decreased  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C:N ratios. The medusae incubated with both light and prey had intermediate  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C:N ratios. Variations in zooxanthellate jellyfishes' nutrition sources (autotrophy vs. heterotrophy) are thus reflected by their isotopic and elemental composition. By disentangling the effects of autotrophy and of heterotrophy on zooxanthellate jellyfish isotopic and elemental compositions, these results would help to interpret the values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and C:N ratios that can be observed on these organisms in fieldwork studies.

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## Highlights

► First experimental study on the effect of nutrition sources on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and C:N ratios in zooxanthellate jellyfishes. ►  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were higher in light. ►  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values were lower in light and higher with prey. ► C:N ratios were higher in light and lower with prey. ►  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and C:N ratios could be valuable indicators of the nutrition of zooxanthellate jellyfishes in the field.

**Keywords** : Stable isotopes, C:N ratios, Photosymbiosis, Mixotrophy, Scyphozoa, Zooxanthellae

## 31 1. Introduction

32 Jellyfishes are increasingly acknowledged as an important component of marine ecosystems. Population  
33 dynamics of the pelagic life stages are often characterized by important fluctuations with dramatic  
34 biomass increases followed by sudden collapses (Lucas and Dawson 2014, Pitt et al. 2014). These  
35 fluctuations can have important consequences for pelagic community dynamics and nutrient cycling (Pitt  
36 et al. 2009a), or for human activities (Purcell et al. 2007). One of the key factors controlling jellyfish  
37 population dynamics, is nutrition (e. g. Lucas and Dawson 2014, Pitt et al. 2014). One way to study  
38 jellyfish nutrition is to use their stable isotopes signatures (mainly  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , see Pitt et al. 2009b).  
39 Many recent studies have focused on jellyfish stable isotopes and have provided precisions of their diets  
40 as well as competition relationships (e. g. Fleming et al. 2015, Javidpour et al. 2016, Vansteenbrugge et  
41 al. 2016, D'Ambra et al. 2018, Milisenda et al. 2018). Most of these studies have strictly focused on  
42 heterotrophic jellyfishes. However, some jellyfishes are known to live in symbiosis with zooxanthellae.  
43 Comparatively, the zooxanthellate jellyfishes have received less interest (see however Freeman et al.  
44 2017, Zeman et al. 2018).

45 Zooxanthellate jellyfishes (mostly Rhizostomeae, Scyphozoa, see Djeghri et al. 2019) are characterized by  
46 their photosymbiotic relationship with zooxanthellae (generally from the family Symbiodiniaceae,  
47 Dinophyceae; LaJeunesse 2001, LaJeunesse et al. 2018). This symbiotic relationship is thought to be  
48 similar to the one well known in corals with the zooxanthellae providing their host with photosynthates  
49 while recycling the host's respiration and excretion products (see Davy et al. 2012). In such symbiosis,  
50 both carbon and nitrogen can be obtained via heterotrophy and autotrophy and are recycled between  
51 the host and its zooxanthellae. Carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) and nitrogen from host respiration and excretion  
52 are used and metabolized by the zooxanthellae. Simultaneously, complex molecules (including  
53 carbohydrates, lipids and amino acids) are transferred from one partner to the other (Davy et al. 2012).  
54 Zooxanthellate jellyfishes, as holobionts (host + symbionts), are thus mixotrophs, deriving their nutrition  
55 from both predation and zooxanthellae's photosynthesis (Kremer 2005, Welsh et al. 2009). Generally,  
56 the symbiosis provides most if not all of the carbon needed for respiration (Kremer et al. 1990, Kikinger  
57 1992, McCloskey et al. 1994, Verde and McCloskey 1998) while predation is still needed to meet nitrogen  
58 and phosphorus requirements (Kremer 2005, Welsh et al. 2009). However, the relative contribution to  
59 nutrition of the predation versus the photosynthesis might be variable across species, populations,  
60 environments, or during growth (see e. g. Sugiura 1969, McCloskey et al. 1994, Verde and McCloskey

61 1998, Bolton and Graham 2004, reviewed in Djeghri et al. 2019). Studies using stable isotopes, in this  
62 context might be valuable tools to understand these variations.

63 Numerous studies on other photosymbiotic cnidarians (mainly corals), have shown that variations of  
64 nutrition affect the isotopic and elemental composition (see e. g. Muscatine et al. 1989a, Muscatine and  
65 Kaplan 1994, Alamaru et al. 2009, Reynaud et al. 2009, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011, reviewed by Ferrier-  
66 Pagès and Leal 2018). Similar effects can be expected in zooxanthellate jellyfishes. To date, only few  
67 fieldwork studies have focused on the isotopic composition of zooxanthellate jellyfishes (see Freeman et  
68 al. 2017, Zeman et al. 2018). The conclusions of these studies have, however, been limited due to the  
69 lack of data on the interplay between autotrophy and heterotrophy of zooxanthellate jellyfishes as  
70 reflected in their isotopic and elemental composition (Zeman et al. 2018). To better understand this,  
71 controlled experiments are needed where the resources for heterotrophy (prey), and for autotrophy  
72 (light) can be manipulated and their effect on stable isotopes signatures and elemental composition can  
73 be assessed. In this study, we aim to provide experimental insights on how isotopic and elemental  
74 composition of zooxanthellate jellyfishes are affected by different food regimes, and, more specifically,  
75 by variations of the relative importance of autotrophy and heterotrophy. In order to achieve this, we  
76 assessed the changes in the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and C:N ratios in young specimens of zooxanthellate *Cassiopea*  
77 sp. medusae (Scyphozoa: Rhizostomeae) over a period of 24 days and in the presence or absence of prey  
78 and light.

79

## 80 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 81 *2.1. Experimental set-up*

82 Small specimens of *Cassiopea* sp. medusae (ca. 6 mm in bell diameter and 1 month old) were acquired  
83 from the Trocadéro Aquarium (Paris, France). In this aquarium, the medusae were kept at 25 °C with a  
84 daily light cycle, and were fed *Artemia* sp. nauplii twice a day. After their arrival to the laboratory the  
85 medusae were acclimatized to local heated (25-26 °C) filtered (1  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size) sea-water during one day.  
86 In the following day, five medusae were randomly sampled to represent the initial state and then, the  
87 experiment was set up. A total of 72 medusae specimens were individually placed in 75 ml glass flasks  
88 filled with 50 mL of filtered sea-water. The flasks were then randomly assigned to one of the four  
89 experimental treatments (18 medusae per treatment). The experimental treatments were as follows: (1)  
90 fed and in light, (2) fed and in the dark, (3) starved and in light, and (4) starved and in the dark. The goal

91 of these different treatments was to target respectively: mixotrophy, heterotrophy, and autotrophy, the  
92 fourth treatment being a control. The flasks containing the medusae were kept in water baths, which  
93 regulated a fixed temperature (25-26 °C). Two water baths were used, one for the medusae kept in light,  
94 and the other for the medusae kept in the dark. The temperature changed little during the experiment  
95 and between the two water baths ( $25.6 \pm 0.4$  °C and  $25.3 \pm 0.4$  °C respectively in the lighted and  
96 darkened water baths; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). The light was provided by a fluorescent lamp on a 12:12 hours  
97 day:night cycle at an intensity of ca.  $110 \mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ . Food consisted of 2 h of feeding *ad libitum*  
98 every two days on *Artemia* sp. young nauplii (< 24 h after hatching). The medusae full guts and numerous  
99 remaining prey in the flasks confirmed a proper *ad libitum* feeding. Every two days, and after the  
100 feeding, the incubation water of the medusae was entirely changed. During the latter process, the flasks  
101 were also washed to prevent fouling.

102 Every four days, and before the feeding (ensuring empty guts), three medusae were randomly sampled  
103 from each treatment. Thus the sampling occurred at the following days: 4, 8, 12, 16, 20 and 24; plus the  
104 initial state being represented by the five medusae sampled before setting the treatments.

105

## 106 2.2. Processing of medusae

107 Immediately after sampling, presence and physiological state of the symbionts were assessed. For this  
108 purpose, the medusae were put in the dark for at least 20 minutes allowing the opening of the  
109 photosystem reactive centers of zooxanthellae. The photosynthetic parameters of the zooxanthellae  
110 were assessed by pulse amplitude modulatory (PAM) fluorometry using the “OJIP protocol” of an  
111 AquaPen-C-AP-C100 (® Photon Systems Instruments, PSI, Brno, Czech Republic), at a 450 nm excitation  
112 wavelength. This protocol measures the fluorescence emitted after a flash of saturating light. This yields  
113 the estimation of several variables among which the maximum photosystem II quantum yield ( $F_v/F_m$ ),  
114 which is a proxy of the photosystem II efficiency. With  $F_m$  the maximum fluorescence under saturating  
115 light, and  $F_v = F_m - F_0$  with  $F_0$  the initial fluorescence (Strasser et al. 2000). The measures were performed  
116 on whole medusae specimens. Prior to the measurement, it was ensured that the medusae were settled  
117 at the cuvette bottom to insure proper exposition to the saturating flash. Additionally, along each  
118 medusae measure, a blank was realized by using the “OJIP protocol” on incubation water without  
119 medusae (75 blanks total).

120 Preparation for elemental and isotopic analysis started first by quickly rinsing the medusae in deionized  
121 water in order to remove the sea salt. The whole medusae were then placed in pre-weighted tin capsules  
122 (10.5 × 9 mm EMAL technology, United Kingdom) and oven-dried at 60 °C for ca. 48 h. After drying, the  
123 tin capsules containing the medusae were locked and weighted again to obtain the medusae dry mass,  
124 which varied between 0.2 and 3.2 mg ( $0.9 \pm 0.6$  mg; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). In the preparation procedure, the  
125 medusae were unpreserved before the isotopic analysis, following the recommendations of Fleming et  
126 al. (2011). Due to the small size of the medusae specimens, it was not possible in this experiment to  
127 follow the recommendations of MacKenzie et al. (2017) by dissecting, washing and rubbing the mesoglea  
128 before conservation. In addition, due to their small size, it was not possible to separate the animal tissue  
129 from the zooxanthellae. This would have resulted to acquiring an insufficient biomass for the isotopic  
130 analysis. Thus, the results presented here are measures on the holobiont (animal host + zooxanthellae).

131

### 132 *2.3. Processing of prey nauplii*

133 In order to assess the isotopic and elemental composition of the *Artemia* sp. nauplii given as food for the  
134 medusae, we sampled them two times during the experiment (at days 8 and 14) plus a sampling at day  
135 28, slightly after the end of the experiment (protocol unchanged). At each sampling, concentrated  
136 nauplii were divided in five aliquots, and oven-dried at 60 °C for ca. 48 h in clean glass flasks. The dried  
137 nauplii were then scratched from the flasks and ground into a powder. Finally, between 0.5 and 1.5 mg  
138 of the powder were inserted and locked in tin capsules (10.5 × 9 mm EMAL technology, United  
139 Kingdom).

140

### 141 *2.4. Elemental and stable isotopes composition*

142 The analyses of medusae and nauplii samples were performed using an Elemental analyzer (Thermo  
143 Scientific EA Flash 2000), coupled to a Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific DELTA V Plus) at the Stable  
144 Isotopes Laboratory of the “Pôle Spectrométrie Océan” (PSO-IUEM, Plouzané, France). The nitrogen and  
145 carbon mass of medusae samples ranged respectively from 15 to 109 µgN ( $35 \pm 22$  µgN; mean  $\pm$  s.d.) and  
146 from 60 to 543 µgC ( $175 \pm 120$  µgC; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). As the whole medusae were inserted in the tin  
147 capsules, these values are representative of their total weights. The nitrogen and carbon mass of nauplii  
148 samples ranged respectively from 40 to 105 µgN ( $64 \pm 18$  µgN; mean  $\pm$  s.d.) and from 200 to 522 µgC  
149 ( $326 \pm 90$  µgC; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). The samples were calibrated for mass bias using casein (IVA-33802155,

150 Analysentechnik, Germany) as the elemental standard (range: 5-108  $\mu\text{gN}$ ; 16-377  $\mu\text{gC}$ ). Some material-  
 151 rich samples were automatically diluted during the analysis process (Thermo Scientific ConFlo IV).

152 Stable isotopes values are expressed as permil (‰) using the  $\delta$  notation (normalized to Vienna Pee Dee  
 153 Belemnite and atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  for respectively carbon and nitrogen):

$$154 \quad \delta X = \left( \frac{X_{sample}^H / X_{sample}^L}{X_{std}^H / X_{std}^L} - 1 \right) \times 1000$$

155 With X the element measured,  $X^H$  the amount of the heavy isotope and  $X^L$  the amount of the light  
 156 isotope from the samples ( $X_{sample}$ ) and the standard ( $X_{std}$ ).

157 As some of our samples had a low (< 20  $\mu\text{gN}$ ) nitrogen mass, we analyzed five replicates of casein  
 158 standards with a low nitrogen mass ( $13.4 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{gN}$ ; mean  $\pm$  s.d.) to check whether this low mass have  
 159 led to uncertainties in our measures. We found only a low variability on the obtained  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  measures  
 160 (0.04 ‰ s.d., n=5) indicating that our measures were consistent even at low biomass levels.

161 Unless indicated otherwise, all C:N ratios are expressed by mass (following Ikeda 2014 and Molina-  
 162 Ramírez et al. 2015). As the C:N ratios of both the medusae and their prey were higher than 3.5, a  
 163 normalization of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for lipid content was advisable (Post et al. 2007). For the nauplii, we used the  
 164 general normalization for aquatic animals given by Post et al. (2007) and for the medusae, we used the  
 165 normalization specific to scyphozoans proposed by D'Ambra et al. (2014). For comparison, raw data is  
 166 still presented as supplementary material (see discussion).

167

## 168 *2.5. Statistics*

169 The data collected during the experiment (carbon masses,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , C:N ratios and  $F_v/F_m$ ) were  
 170 analyzed using linear mixed-effects models (LME) (e. g. Crawley 2012). The presence or absence of prey  
 171 and light were considered as fixed effects while time was considered as random effect. Model  
 172 assumptions (mean of residuals = 0, linearity and normality) were checked using model-checking plots. If  
 173 the model assumptions were not met, the data were log transformed. If the fixed effects affected  
 174 significantly the results (if p-value < 0.05), subsequent Tukey post-hoc tests were performed on least-  
 175 square means (i. e. means adjusted for the effect of time) to assess which combination of the fixed  
 176 effects (light and prey) led to different responses.



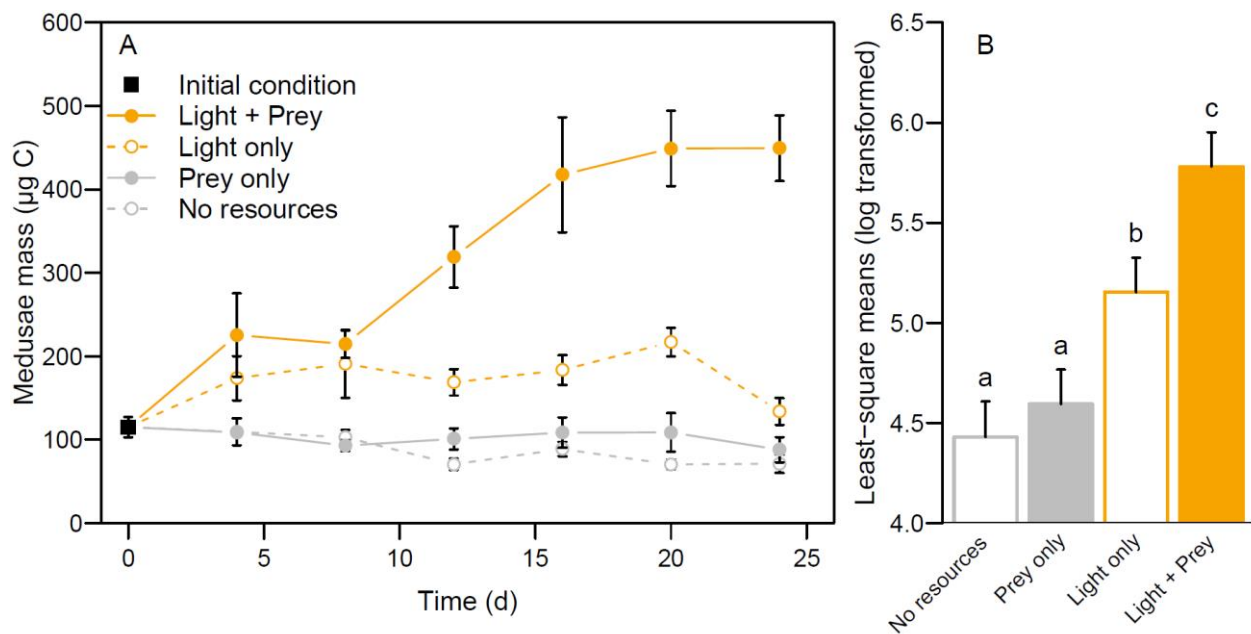
177 One-way ANOVAs were used to assess possible variations in prey  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and C:N ratios over time.  
 178 Normality and homoscedasticity assumptions were checked using the Shapiro-Wilk normality test and  
 179 Bartlett homogeneity of variance test (threshold:  $\alpha = 0.05$ ). If the assumptions were not met, the data  
 180 were Box-Cox transformed. All statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2017).

181

## 182 3. Results

### 183 3.1. Mass variation in medusae

184 The carbon mass of the medusae (Fig. 1) was significantly affected by light alone (LME, t-value = 7.5, p-  
 185 value < 0.001) and by the interaction between light and prey (LME, t-value = 3.4, p-value < 0.01). At the  
 186 beginning of the experiment, the carbon mass of *Cassiopea* sp. medusae was of  $115.1 \pm 27.0 \mu\text{g C}$  (mean  
 187  $\pm$  s.d.). Only the carbon mass of the medusae in the treatment with both light and prey did noticeably  
 188 increased, reaching  $449.3 \pm 68.2 \mu\text{g C}$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) at the end of the experiment. The carbon mass of the  
 189 medusae in the treatment with only light did not increased significantly reaching a carbon mass value of  
 190  $133.9 \pm 27.9 \mu\text{g C}$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) at the end of the experiment. The carbon mass values of the medusae in  
 191 the treatments with only prey or without resources tended to decrease, dropping to respectively  $88.0 \pm$   
 192  $26.1 \mu\text{g C}$  and  $71.1 \pm 15.7 \mu\text{g C}$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) at the end of the experiment. In the treatment without  
 193 resources, one medusae specimen died. Thus for this treatment, there remained two replicates instead  
 194 of three at day 24.



195

196 **Fig. 1.** (A) Changes in the *Cassiopea* sp. medusae carbon mass ( $\mu\text{g C}$ ) (means  $\pm$  s.e.m.) over the course of  
197 the experiment as a function of the experimental conditions. (B) Comparison of least-square means  
198 obtained from each treatment ( $\pm$  95 % C. I.). The letters (a, b, and c) indicate statistically different  
199 treatments (Tukey post hoc test, p-value  $<$  0.05).

200

### 201 3.2. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$

202 The medusae  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Fig. 2 A, B) were significantly affected by light (LME, t-value = 22.5, p-value  $<$   
203 0.001) and by the interaction of light and prey (LME, t-value = -6.2, p-value  $<$  0.001). At the beginning of  
204 the experiment  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the medusae were of  $-18.7 \pm 0.9$  ‰ (mean  $\pm$  s.d.). In the treatment with  
205 both light and prey the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the medusae increased quickly (in less than four days) reaching ca.  
206  $-15$  ‰. This trend was even more pronounced in the treatment with only light where the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  
207 the medusae reached ca.  $-13$  ‰. Conversely, in the treatments with only prey or without resources the  
208  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the medusae remained similar or decreased slightly throughout the experiment (generally  
209 comprised between  $-19$  ‰ and  $-21$  ‰). It should be noted that the distinction between the medusae  
210 from the treatments with light alone and with light and prey is not as distinct with data not normalized  
211 for lipids (Fig. S1).

212 The medusae  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values (Fig. 2 C, D) were significantly affected by both light (LME, t-value = -8.7, p-  
213 value  $<$  0.001) and prey (LME, t-value = 2.2, p-value  $<$  0.05), but not by their interaction. At the beginning  
214 of the experiment, the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of medusae was of  $8.9 \pm 1.1$  ‰ (mean  $\pm$  s.d.). These values decreased  
215 slightly in the treatment with light and prey reaching  $8.0 \pm 0.3$  ‰ (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) at the end of the  
216 experiment. The decrease was more pronounced in the treatment with light only which reached  $5.5 \pm$   
217  $0.4$  ‰ at the end of the experiment. Finally,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values did not change in the treatments with only prey  
218 or without resources (values at the end of the experiment of  $9.0 \pm 0.3$  ‰ and  $8.8 \pm 1.0$  ‰ respectively;  
219 mean  $\pm$  s.d.).

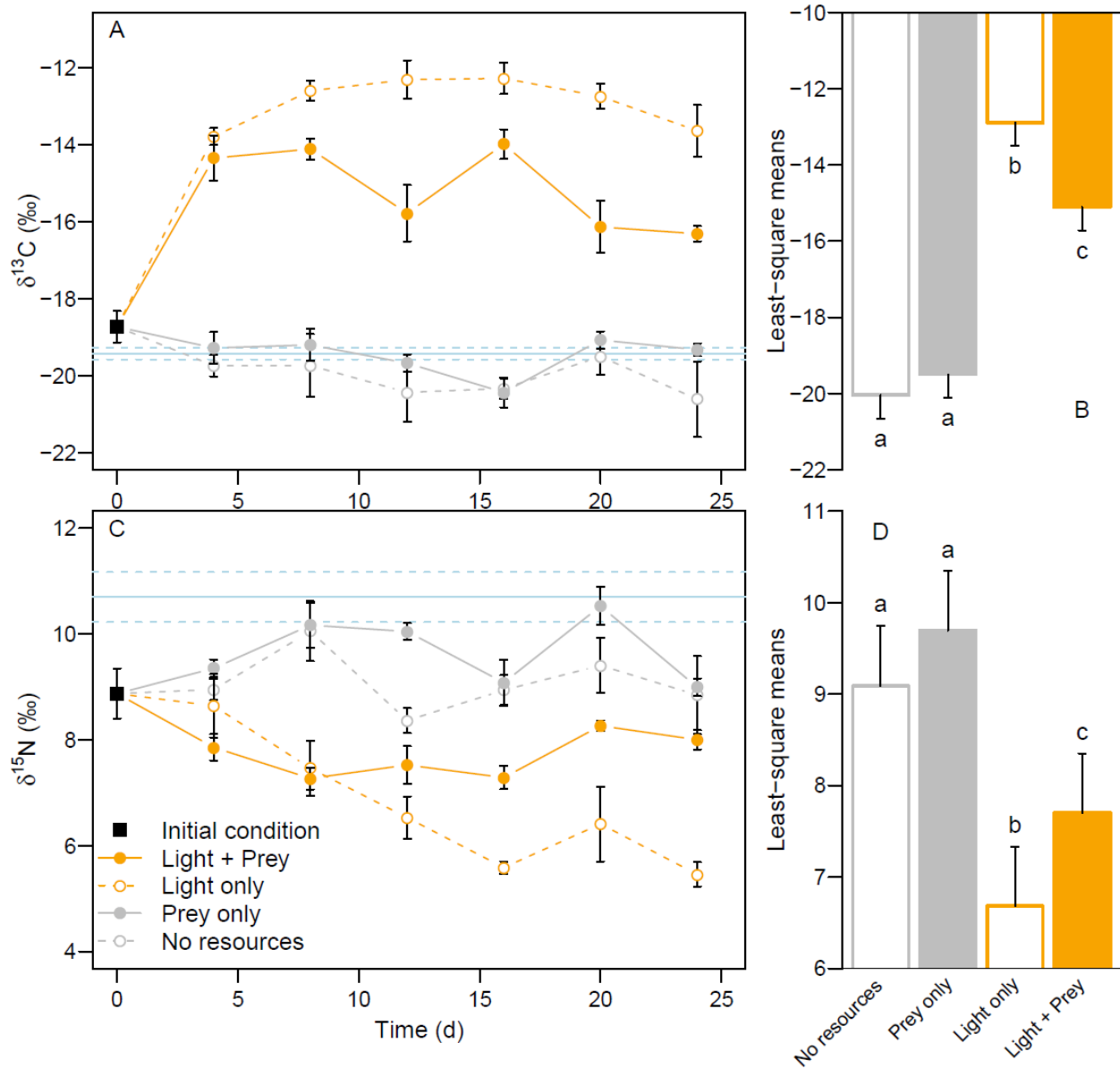
220

221 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  obtained in *Artemia* sp. nauplii prey did not vary significantly during the experiment  
222 (ANOVAs, p-values  $>$  0.05) averaging respectively  $-19.4 \pm 0.2$  ‰ and  $10.7 \pm 0.5$  ‰ (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) (Fig. 2 A,  
223 C).

224

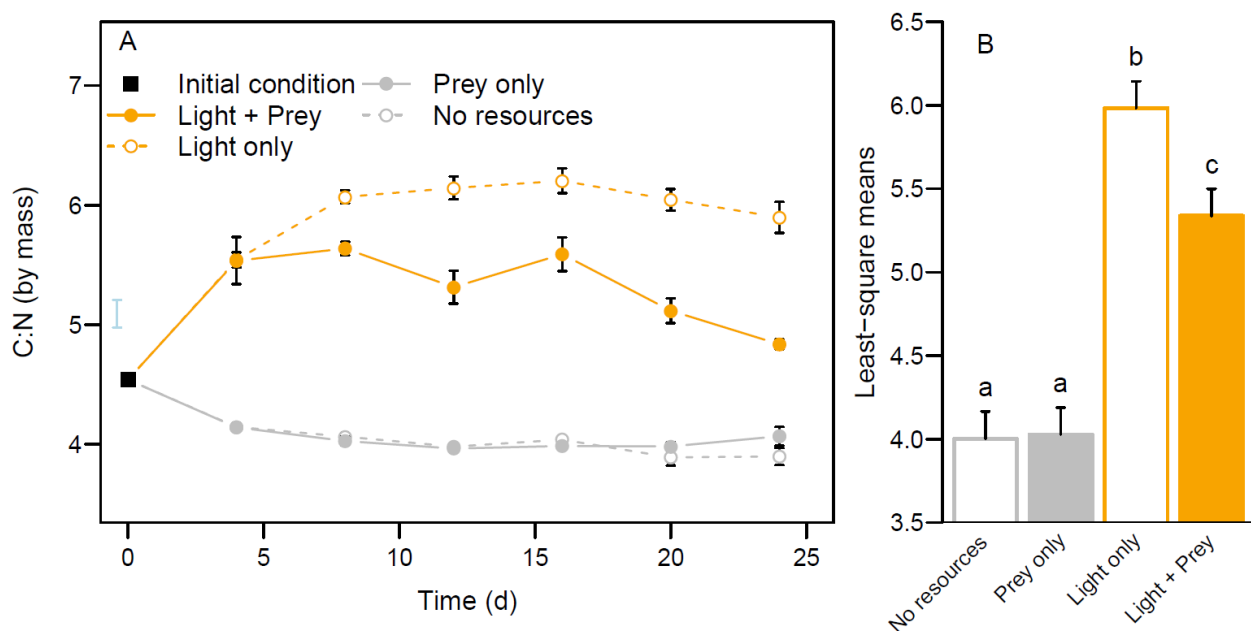
## 225 3.3. C:N ratios

226 The C:N ratios obtained in the medusae (Fig. 3) were significantly affected by light (LME, t-value = 27.5,  
 227 p-value < 0.001) and by the interaction of light and prey (LME, t-value = -6.6, p-value < 0.001). At the  
 228 beginning of the experiment, the C:N ratios of medusae were of  $4.5 \pm 0.1$ . These values increased in the  
 229 treatment with both light and prey ( $4.8 \pm 0.1$  at the end of experiment; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). A similar, but more  
 230 pronounced increased was seen in the C:N ratios of the medusae exposed to only light ( $5.9 \pm 0.2$  at the  
 231 end of experiment; mean  $\pm$  s.d.). By opposition, C:N ratios decreased slightly in the treatments with only  
 232 prey or without resources (respectively reaching  $4.1 \pm 0.1$  and  $3.9 \pm 0.1$  at the end of the experiment;  
 233 mean  $\pm$  s.d.).



235 **Fig. 2.** Changes in the *Cassiopea* sp. medusae  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (‰) (A) and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (‰) (C) (means  $\pm$  s.e.m.) over the  
 236 course of the experiment as a function of the experimental conditions. Solid and dashed blue lines  
 237 represent the mean  $\pm$  s.d. of the isotopic signatures of *Artemia* sp. nauplii used as prey in fed treatments.  
 238 (B and D) Comparison of least-square means obtained for each treatment ( $\pm$  95 % C. I.). The letters (a, b,  
 239 and c) indicate statistically different treatments (Tukey post hoc test, p-value < 0.05).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of have  
 240 been normalized for lipid content according to Post et al. (2007) for nauplii, and D'Ambra et al. (2014) for  
 241 *Cassiopea* sp. medusae.

242



243 **Fig. 3.** (A) Changes in the *Cassiopea* sp. medusae mass C:N ratios (means  $\pm$  s.e.m.) over the course of the  
 244 experiment as a function of the experimental conditions. The blue error bar indicate the range of C:N  
 245 ratios in nauplii prey measured in the course of the experiment (see text). (B) Comparison of the least-  
 246 square means obtained for each treatment ( $\pm$  95 % C. I.). The letters (a, b, and c) indicate statistically  
 247 different treatments (Tukey post hoc test, p-value < 0.05).  
 248

249

250 The C:N ratios obtained in *Artemia* sp. nauplii did vary significantly during the experiment (ANOVA, F =  
 251 25.9, p-value < 0.001). However, these variations were of small amplitudes (minimum: 4.97, maximum:  
 252 5.20) compared to the variations observed in *Cassiopea* sp. medusae following the different experimental  
 253 treatments (Fig. 3 A). Therefore, these small variations of the C:N ratios of the prey are unlikely to have

254 significantly affected the outcome of the experiment. Throughout the experiment, C:N ratios in *Artemia*  
255 sp. nauplii averaged  $5.1 \pm 0.1$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.).

256

### 257 3.4. PAM parameters of zooxanthellae

258 The blanks always yielded low values of  $F_0$  ( $90 \pm 9$ ; mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) as compared to the  $F_0$  values of the  
259 medusae ( $5270 \pm 630$ ; mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.). This equates to a signal-to-noise ratio of ca. 60, which is sufficient  
260 to have a reliable estimate of photosynthetic activity. Two outliers were removed from the medusae's  
261 PAM data ( $F_v/F_m$  below 0.4, similar to a blank, most likely due to a lack of exposition of the medusae to  
262 the saturating flash). With the exception of this two outliers, the  $F_v/F_m$  of medusae remained very stable  
263 in all conditions and during the whole experiment averaging an overall value of  $0.70 \pm 0.06$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.;  
264 Fig. S2). The LME models did not indicate any effect of presence or absence of prey and light on the  
265 zooxanthellae  $F_v/F_m$ . Independently of this lack of effect of the experimental treatments on PAM  
266 parameters (discussed in Supplementary Material 2), high  $F_0$  values as compared to the blanks  
267 demonstrate the presence of zooxanthellae in the *Cassiopea* sp. medusae in all treatments and during  
268 the whole experiment.

269

## 270 4. Discussion

271

### 272 4.1. Isotopic composition

273 In this study, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values obtained in the medusae were the highest in the treatment with light only,  
274 lowest in the treatments with only prey and without resources, and intermediate in the treatment with  
275 both prey and light (Fig. 2A, B). Similar effects of heterotrophic feeding on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values have been  
276 reported for corals (e. g. Reynaud et al. 2002, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011). As in this study, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the  
277 predator tended towards the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the prey when fed. However, some caution should be taken when  
278 interpreting the results of this study concerning the effects of heterotrophic feeding on zooxanthellate  
279 jellyfish's  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Indeed, it is unsure that the lipid normalization used here can be applied to a  
280 photosymbiotic holobiont as it has been derived from the heterotrophic *Aurelia* sp. (D'Ambra et al.  
281 2014). Without this normalization, the effect of heterotrophic feeding on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is less clear (Fig. S1). Thus,  
282 albeit an effect of heterotrophic feeding on zooxanthellate jellyfishes'  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is likely, our results should be

283 taken with caution regarding this point. In contrast, light had a clear positive effect on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  
284 zooxanthellate jellyfishes whether the normalization for lipid content is made or not (Fig. 2A, B; Fig. S1).  
285 These conclusions are consistent with the previous findings on corals (e. g. Muscatine et al. 1989a, Swart  
286 et al. 2005, Alamaru et al. 2009, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011).

287 In the experiment,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values were the lowest in the medusae exposed to only light, compared to the  
288 other treatments (Fig. 2C, D). This is different from what is known in tropical scleractinian corals in which  
289 photosynthesis tend to increase, or have little effect on  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  rather than decrease it, like seen here (see  
290 Muscatine and Kaplan 1994, Alamaru et al. 2009, Reynaud et al. 2009). Our results are more comparable  
291 to what is observed in more heterotrophic temperate corals (Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011). The treatment  
292 with no resources and the treatment with only prey presented the same  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (Fig. 2C, D). However, the  
293 effect of predation is clear as the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in the treatment with prey and light were intermediate  
294 between those of the treatment with only light, and the treatment with only prey (Fig. 2C, D). The  
295 similitude between the treatment without resources and the treatment with only prey would thus be  
296 explained by the initial condition (i. e. at day 0, medusae already had high  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ). Thus, overall, predation  
297 would have led to higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of medusae (Fig. 2C, D). Interestingly however, the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in medusae  
298 were never higher than those obtained on prey (Fig. 2C), which suggests that no measurable  
299 fractionation occurred between the holobiont and their prey. This is most likely due to high recycling of  
300 nitrogen between the host and its symbionts (see also Reynaud et al. 2009).

301

302 These patterns seen in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  can be explained through two main processes affecting stable  
303 isotopes signatures in photosymbiotic organisms (reviewed in Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018):

304         The first process is the mixing of carbon or nitrogen coming from two contrasted sources;  
305 autotrophic uptake of dissolved inorganic nutrients, on one hand, and heterotrophic predation—mainly  
306 on zooplankton—on the other hand (Reynaud et al. 2002, Alamaru et al. 2009, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011,  
307 Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018). The uptake of dissolved inorganic carbon by zooxanthellae generally leads  
308 to higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (typically -10 ‰ to -14 ‰) than those of typical oceanic particulate organic matter  
309 and plankton (ca. -20 ‰; Muscatine et al. 1989a, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011, Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018).  
310 Thus,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values obtained through zooxanthellae's autotrophy would be higher than those obtained  
311 through predation on zooplankton (Fig. 4A). For nitrogen, the pattern is reversed; zooxanthellae take up  
312 dissolved inorganic nitrogen with a low  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value (ca. 5 ‰ Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018) while predation  
313 leads the uptake of nitrogen with higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values due to fractionation through the food web (Post

314 2002, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011, Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018, Fig. 4B). For both carbon and nitrogen, the  
315 isotopic signature of the two sources (inorganic nutrient uptake, and predation) is then exchanged and  
316 recycled between the zooxanthellae and the host (e. g. Reynaud et al. 2009).

317 The second process involves the depletion of *in-hospite* nutrient pools due to photosynthesis.  
318 Zooxanthellae tend to take up preferentially inorganic nutrients with light isotopes resulting in  
319 fractionation (Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018). However, at high photosynthesis rates, the host's pool of  
320 inorganic nutrients can get depleted. Thus, to meet their photosynthetic requirements, zooxanthellae  
321 take up more heavy isotopes, reducing fractionation ("depletion-diffusion hypothesis", see Muscatine et  
322 al. 1989a, Fig. 4A and B). This results in a tendency for isotopic signature to correlate with  
323 photosynthesis levels. The higher the photosynthesis, the higher the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Muscatine et al. 1989a, Swart  
324 et al. 2005, Alamaru et al. 2009) or the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values (Muscatine and Kaplan 1994, Baker et al. 2011;  
325 reviewed in Ferrier-Pagès and Leal 2018).

326 It is important to notice that these two processes—mixing of the heterotrophic and autotrophic sources,  
327 and reduced fractionation at high photosynthesis levels—would have similar consequences on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , but  
328 not on  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . For  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , a predominantly autotrophic nutrition would imply a decreased fractionation *in-*  
329 *hospite* due to high photosynthesis and a predominant uptake of dissolved inorganic nutrients. Both of  
330 these processes result in high  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (and *vice-versa* for a predominantly heterotrophic nutrition, Fig. 4A).  
331 By opposition, for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , reduced fractionation due to high photosynthesis levels would result in high  
332  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , but high uptake of dissolved inorganic nutrients would result in low  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (and *vice-versa* for a  
333 predominantly heterotrophic nutrition, Fig. 4B). Thus, to understand how  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  would react to change in  
334 holobiont nutrition, it is important to know which of the above-mentioned processes controls its  
335 dynamics.

336

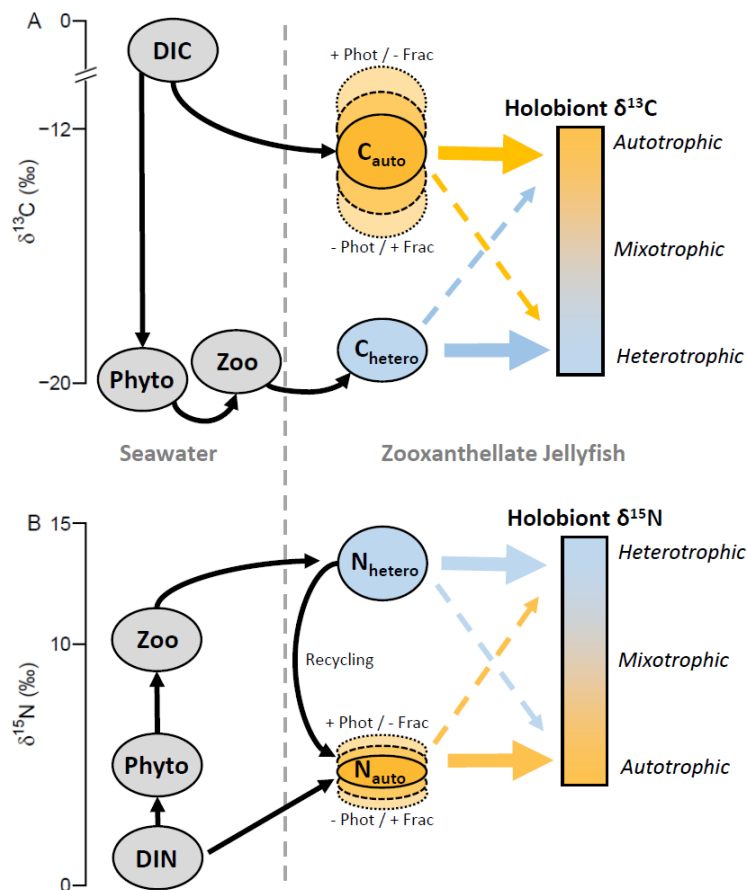
337

338 In the context of this study, the increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  due to light, could be explained by both increased  
339 uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  and reduced fractionation at higher photosynthesis (and conversely in the dark, Fig. 4A).  
340 The results obtain on  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in this study, suggest that, in zooxanthellate jellyfishes, of the two  
341 processes above-mentioned—mixing of autotrophic and heterotrophic sources, and reduced  
342 fractionation at high photosynthesis—the former is the dominant one (Fig. 4B). Hence, in zooxanthellate  
343 jellyfishes, a predominantly autotrophic nutrition would imply that most nitrogen comes from the

344 fixation of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (see e. g. Muscatine and Marian 1982, Wilkerson and Kremer  
 345 1992, Freeman et al. 2016), and would result in low  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . On the contrary, a predominantly  
 346 heterotrophic nutrition would imply that more nitrogen comes from predation (mainly on zooplankton)  
 347 resulting in a comparatively higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Thus, values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  can be considered as a good indicator of  
 348 the relative importance of autotrophy and heterotrophy in zooxanthellate jellyfishes.

349

350



351

352 **Fig. 4.** Conceptual diagram illustrating how  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (A) and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (B) are affected by the relative importance  
 353 of heterotrophic (blue circles and arrows,  $C_{\text{hetero}}$  and  $N_{\text{hetero}}$ ) and autotrophic (orange circles and arrows,  
 354  $C_{\text{auto}}$  and  $N_{\text{auto}}$ ) nutrition pathways in zooxanthellate jellyfishes. DIC = dissolved inorganic carbon, DIN =  
 355 dissolved inorganic nitrogen, Phyto = phytoplankton, Zoo = zooplankton, Phot = photosynthesis, Frac =  
 356 fractionation (more photosynthesis tend to decrease fractionation, this effect, in zooxanthellate



357 jellyfishes, is unlikely to be significant for nitrogen, see text). Values on the axes are provided for  
358 illustrative purpose only. See also Ferrier-Pagès and Leal (2018).

359

#### 360 4.2. C:N ratios

361 In our experiment, light increased C:N ratios of the *Cassiopea* sp. holobionts whereas prey generally  
362 decreased it, with intermediate C:N ratios in the treatment with both light and prey (Fig. 3A, B). As with  
363  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , C:N ratios of the treatment with no resources and with prey only were similar. This similarity may  
364 be again explained by the initial condition. Another potential explanation would be that starved  
365 zooxanthellate jellyfishes use first reserves accumulated by photosynthesis (generally carbon rich, e. g.  
366 Muller-Parker et al. 1996). Such preferential degradation would make their C:N ratios decrease and get  
367 similar to the ones typically reported for non-zooxanthellate jellyfishes (Ikeda 2014, Molina-Ramírez et  
368 al. 2015). Independently of the treatment with no resources, our results suggest that predation would  
369 tend to decrease C:N ratios (Fig. 3A, B). Such a decrease of C:N ratios due to predation have already  
370 been reported for the zooxanthellae of a sea anemone (Cook et al. 1988). However, other studies have  
371 pointed out that a similar decrease of C:N ratios can also be due to an enrichment by dissolved inorganic  
372 nitrogen (e. g. Muscatine et al. 1989b, Belda et al. 1993). As zooxanthellate jellyfishes are able to take up  
373 dissolved inorganic nutrients via their symbionts (see e. g. Muscatine and Marian 1982, Wilkerson and  
374 Kremer 1992, Pitt et al. 2005, Welsh et al. 2009, Freeman et al. 2016, see Pitt et al. 2009a for a review), it  
375 is likely that their C:N ratios would react to nutrient enrichment too. This suggests that C:N ratios of  
376 zooxanthellate jellyfishes might be impacted by nitrogen availability (either as prey or as dissolved  
377 inorganic nitrogen).

378

#### 379 4.3. Remarks on tissue turnover

380 One of the advantages of the study of the elemental and isotopic composition over e.g. gut content  
381 analyses, is that it provides a more time-integrated information (Pitt et al. 2009b). The time frame  
382 represented by isotopic composition is, however, dependent on tissue turnover which can be variable as  
383 function of, e. g. taxonomy, organ, body size, or temperature (Thomas and Crowther 2015, Vander  
384 Zanden et al. 2015). In another scyphozoan jellyfish, *Aurelia* sp., the isotopic half-life was determined to  
385 be ca. 10 days for both carbon and nitrogen (D'Ambra et al. 2014). In the present experiment, changes of  
386  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C:N ratios occurred very fast (within the first four days, Figs. 2A, 3). This was apparently less

387 true for the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values which may have experienced slower changes (Fig. 2B). These fast changes may  
388 have several explanations: First, the medusae used here were of small size and, additionally, some of  
389 them grew (Fig. 1, see also Supplementary Material 2) which can explain the fast changes (Fry and Arnold  
390 1982, Thomas and Crowther 2015, Vander Zanden et al. 2015). In its natural environment, *Cassiopea* sp.  
391 can grow up to ca. 20-25 cm in bell diameter (see e. g. Morandini et al. 2017). It is unlikely that such large  
392 specimens would display such fast change in composition. Another aspect that could explain the fast  
393 change in elemental and isotopic composition observed here, is that *Cassiopea* sp. is zooxanthellate. The  
394 zooxanthellae are also likely to impact residence time of elements within the holobiont, possibly  
395 differently for nitrogen and carbon, due to recycling (Reynaud et al. 2009).

396

#### 397 4.4. Implications for fieldwork studies

398 One of the challenges to understand the nutrition of zooxanthellate jellyfishes in their natural  
399 environments relates to their mixotrophy. As zooxanthellate jellyfishes obtain their nutrition from  
400 predation and photosynthesis (Kremer 2005, Welsh et al. 2009), both processes must be investigated.  
401 Ideally, predation, photosynthesis, respiration, nutrient uptake and excretion have all to be measured  
402 which may represent an intensive amount of work rarely carried out in its entirety (see however, Kremer  
403 et al. 1990, Kremer 2005). Studies of stable isotopes and elemental composition are comparatively easier  
404 and have the advantage of providing more time-integrated information (Pitt et al. 2009b). The findings of  
405 this study provide baseline information on how C:N ratios,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  can be interpreted in fieldwork  
406 studies focusing on the nutrition sources of zooxanthellate jellyfishes.

407 To summarize, our results suggest that both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  vary with the relative balance of autotrophy  
408 vs. heterotrophy (although, the effect of heterotrophy on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is less well supported by our results). It  
409 would be expected that, if dominantly heterotrophic, zooxanthellate jellyfishes would have  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values  
410 close to those of their prey (see e. g. Zeman et al. 2018). By opposition, if dominantly autotrophic,  
411 zooxanthellate jellyfishes would have  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values close (or lower) than those of primary producers (see  
412 e. g. Freeman et al. 2017). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values would display opposite trends. Finally, C:N ratios may be  
413 indicators of the efficiency of nitrogen supplies. Future fieldwork studies would be able to build on these  
414 results to better characterize zooxanthellate jellyfishes' nutrition.

415

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420

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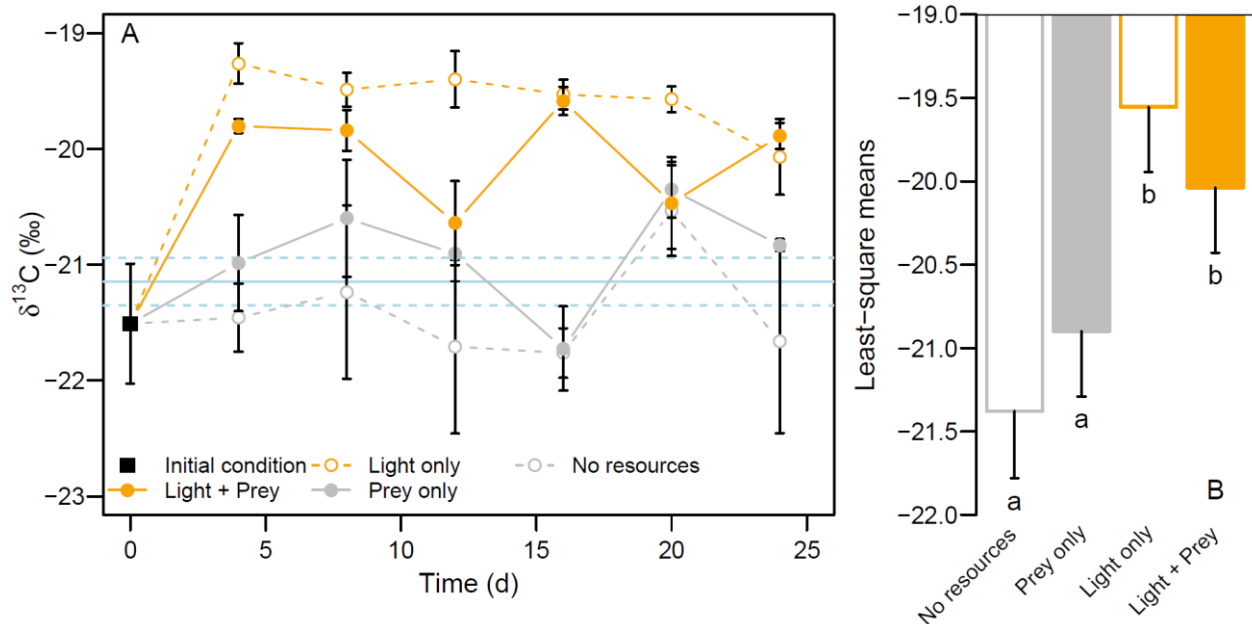
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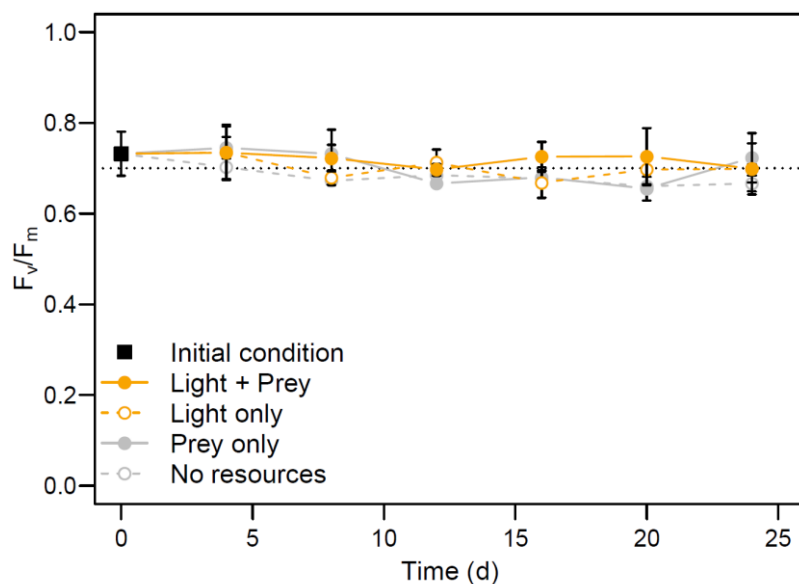
570 **Supplementary Material 1: Raw  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$** 

571  
 572 **Fig. S1.** (A) Changes in the *Cassiopea* sp. medusae  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (‰) without normalization for lipids (means  $\pm$   
 573 s.e.m.) over the course of the experiment as a function of the experimental conditions. Solid and dashed  
 574 blue lines represent the mean  $\pm$  s.d. of the isotopic signatures of *Artemia* sp. nauplii used as prey in fed  
 575 treatments. (B) Comparison of least-square means obtained for each treatment ( $\pm$  95 % C. I.). The letters  
 576 (a and b) indicate statistically different treatments (Tukey post hoc test,  $p$ -value < 0.05).

577  
 578 **Supplementary Material 2: Notes on growth of medusae and PAM parameters**  
 579 Medusae grew only in the treatment with both light and prey (i. e. increase in carbon mass of the  
 580 holobiont, Fig. 1 in main text; and increase in medusae bell diameter from ca. 6 mm to 8-10 mm, data  
 581 not shown). The absence of carbon mass increase (Fig. 1 in main text) in the other treatments confirmed  
 582 previous findings stipulating that both predation and zooxanthellae's photosynthates are necessary for  
 583 some zooxanthellate jellyfishes (Kremer 2005, Welsh et al. 2009). The  $F_v/F_m$  ratio can be used as a proxy  
 584 of photosynthetic organism's performance (e. g. Strasser et al. 2000, Long et al. 2018), and was  
 585 constantly high (0.70, higher or equal to values typically reported for coral zooxanthellae: e. g. Iglesias-  
 586 Prieto et al. 2004, Roth et al. 2012) in our experiment, independently of treatments (Fig. S2). The  
 587 absence of decreasing  $F_v/F_m$  ratio in the treatments kept in the dark, suggests that zooxanthellae within  
 588 their *Cassiopea* sp. host stayed photochemically competent for several days without light. We  
 589 hypothesize that, in such conditions, as their nutrition can only be provided by the host (e. g. in the form  
 590 of fatty acids; Imbs et al. 2014), zooxanthellae were heterotrophic (see Steen 1986, Jeong et al. 2012).



591



592

593 **Fig. S2.**  $F_v/F_m$  ratios of the whole *Cassiopea* sp. medusae (including symbionts) over the course of the  
 594 experiment and as a function of the experimental treatments (means  $\pm$  s.e.m.). The dotted line  
 595 represents the mean of all points.

596

597 **References**

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