

Cascading effects of the ctenophore *Mnemiopsis leidyi* on the planktonic food web in a nutrient-limited estuarine system

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ABSTRACT: Increasing biomasses of gelatinous zooplankton presumably have major implications for the structure and function of marine food webs at large; however, current data on lower trophic levels are scarce, as most studies have focused on the immediate effects on zooplankton and fish larvae only. We examined the short-term impact of larvae and adults of the invasive ctenophore *Mnemiopsis leidyi* on a summer planktonic food web in the estuarine southern Baltic Sea, with special emphasis on the microbial loop. Grazing by *M. leidyi* reduced the mesozooplankton biomass, followed by increased dinoflagellate biomass in treatments with *M. leidyi*. While chlorophyll *a* increased most in the treatments with *M. leidyi*, small phytoplankton and ciliates decreased in all treatments. *M. leidyi* had a slight effect on bacterial abundance, but not on bacterial production, ectoenzymatic activities, or community composition. Undetectable levels of phosphate and a gradual accumulation of dissolved organic carbon during the experiment suggested a malfunctioning microbial loop scenario. The experiment shows that direct and indirect short-term effects of *M. leidyi* on the estuarine food web are limited to higher trophic levels and indicates that top-down and bottom-up consequences of *M. leidyi* expansions on the microbial loop will likely depend on local nutrient conditions.

KEY WORDS: Bacterioplankton · Nanoflagellates · Microbial loop · Trophic levels · Ciliates · Baltic Sea

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INTRODUCTION

Episodic occurrences of jellyfish (cnidarian and ctenophore) blooms occur worldwide, with direct consequences for fisheries and coastal industry (Shiganova 1998, Mills 2001, Oguz et al. 2008, Rich-

ardson et al. 2009, Acuña et al. 2011). Changes in trophic structure from dominance of fish to jellyfish may have large effects on the biogeochemical cycling of carbon and nutrients (Pitt et al. 2009). For instance, grazing by jellyfish on zooplankton may regulate biomass and structure in the planktonic food

web at large (Stibor et al. 2004, Turk et al. 2008). Also, jellyfish may stimulate bacterioplankton growth by direct release of nutrients from tissue, mucus secretion, excretion, and sloppy feeding (Nemazie et al. 1993, Hansson & Norrman 1995, Riemann et al. 2006, Titelman et al. 2006, Turk et al. 2008, Pitt et al. 2009, Condon et al. 2011). Hence, through both top-down and bottom-up effects, jellyfish may have pronounced consequences for planktonic food web structure and ecosystem function.

The lobate ctenophore *Mnemiopsis leidyi* is native to estuaries of the Atlantic coast of North and South America (Kremer 1994) but has been accidentally introduced to regions such as the Black and Caspian Seas (Finenko et al. 2006), the Mediterranean Sea (Shiganova et al. 2001), and more recently to the North Sea and the southern part of the Baltic Sea (Janas & Zgrundo 2007, Riisgard et al. 2007, Tendal et al. 2007, Javidpour et al. 2009). The *M. leidyi* invasion of the Black Sea had deleterious consequences for mesozooplankton populations, and also coincided with the collapse of major fisheries (Oguz et al. 2008, Roohi et al. 2010). The ecological consequences of its proliferation in other marine areas are therefore a matter of concern (Shiganova et al. 2001, Jaspers et al. 2011).

Feeding mechanics of *Mnemiopsis leidyi* develop with ontogeny. While newly hatched tentaculate larvae capture nano- or microplankton such as flagellates and ciliates on their tentacles (Sullivan & Gifford 2004, 2007), larger larvae can also feed on larger prey such as mesozooplankton (Stanlaw et al. 1981). Adult *M. leidyi* entrain both microzooplankton (Stoecker et al. 1987), mesozooplankton, and fish larvae in a feeding current (Purcell et al. 2001, Colin et al. 2010), while *M. leidyi* larvae seem to have a larger proportion of microzooplankton in their diet compared to the lobates (Rapoza et al. 2005). The effective feeding (Colin et al. 2010) and wide environmental tolerance (Purcell et al. 2001) allows *M. leidyi* to survive in different habitats and to affect multiple food web levels directly or through trophic cascades. Its predation on fish larvae (Govoni & Olney 1991, Cowan & Houde 1993, Jaspers et al. 2011) and mesozooplankton (Kremer 1979, Purcell & Decker 2005) has received ample attention. For instance, summer blooms of *M. leidyi* can reduce copepod populations to low biomass in estuaries along the US east coast (Sullivan et al. 2001, Costello et al. 2006, Condon & Steinberg 2008).

Despite extensive documentation of the high predatory impact of *Mnemiopsis leidyi*, information on propagation of grazing effects or associated bottom-up effects is scarce. Grazing by other jellyfish may initiate changes in plankton communities cascading

down to the lower trophic levels (Granéli & Turner 2002, Stibor et al. 2004, Pitt et al. 2007). However, experiments of the conceivably complex consequences of top-down and bottom-up drivers associated with presence and activity of *M. leidyi* is currently lacking, in particular relative to dynamics at the lower trophic levels. Large effects, also at the bacterial level, would be anticipated since bacteria may utilize dissolved organic matter released from jellyfish tissue (Hansson & Norrman 1995, Titelman et al. 2006, Condon et al. 2011), thereby affecting food web structure and nutrient cycling (Condon et al. 2011). In this experimental mesocosm study, we examined short-term effects of larvae and adults of *M. leidyi* on a temperate estuarine plankton food web.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Food web effects of *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (adults and larvae) were examined in water obtained from the estuarine southern Baltic Sea amended with cultivated *M. leidyi*. The experimental tanks were not supplemented with nutrients in order to examine food web responses under the conditions prevailing *in situ* at this time of the year.

Mnemiopsis leidyi maintenance

In November 2008, adult *M. leidyi* were collected from surface waters of the Gullmarsfjorden on the Swedish west coast (58° 81' 50" N, 11° 82' 70" E). In the laboratory, continuous cultures of the ctenophores were maintained in 50 l containers (16°C, salinity 32) and fed cultivated copepods (*Acartia tonsa*) and locally collected zooplankton. Specimens were gradually acclimatized to the Baltic Sea salinity of 6.9 over a period of 2 wk prior to the experiment.

Mesocosm set-up

The experiment was carried out indoors from 19 to 26 August 2009. The setup consisted of 3 treatments, each with 4 replicates: a control without *Mnemiopsis leidyi* and 2 treatments amended with larvae (median size 1.5 mm) or adults (15 ± 2 mm oral-aboral length, mean \pm SD), corresponding to 50 g wet weight m^{-3} (calculated from the linear relationship between log oral-aboral length [L_{OA} , mm] and log wet weight [WW, g]: $\text{Log WW} = 1.86 \text{ Log } L_{OA} - 1.84$; $R^2 = 0.91$, $p < 0.001$, L. Friis-Møller unpublished).

15 ml polypropylene tube and frozen. Samples were analyzed with a Bran & Luebbe TRAACS 800 autoanalyzer using standard seawater methods (Grasshoff et al. 1983).

Triplicate samples for DOC and POC (~60 ml) were taken at every sampling during the period of the experiment. Water was filtered through a 25 mm pre-combusted Whatman GF/F filter (450°C, 5 h), the first 20 ml of filtrate were discarded, and the next 12 ml were acidified with 120 µl 2 M HCl, and analyzed for DOC as described by Kragh & Søndergaard (2004) using a Shimadzu TOC-V. The calibration consisted of a 3-point curve ($r^2 > 0.999$), and at least 3 injections with a maximum of 5 were made for each sample. Each sample run included standard and blank samples interspersed throughout the sample run. Deep-ocean and blank samples provided by J. Sharp (University of Delaware, US) served as quality controls. For POC analysis, the GF/F filters were dried at 40°C and stored in a desiccator at room temperature until analysis. Prior to measurement, the filters were exposed to HCl fumes for 4 h in a desiccator. The filters were analyzed by high-temperature combustion using a system made up of a Struers Carbolite Furnace set at 600°C, an ADC-225-Mk3 NDIR analyzer, and a Picotech ADC-20 datalogger.

Chlorophyll a

Duplicate samples (300 to 500 ml) were filtered onto 47 mm GF/F filters and frozen. Chlorophyll a (chl a) was extracted in ethanol (Jespersen & Christoffersen 1987) and measured on a Turner design 10-AU fluorometer (excitation 340 to 500 nm band pass; emission >665 nm cut-off) calibrated with a standard chl a solution (Sigma).

Enumeration of heterotrophic nanoflagellates (HNF), microzooplankton, and phytoplankton

For the enumeration of HNF, 40 ml samples were fixed with 0.2 µm-filtered glutaraldehyde (1.2% final concentration) and stored at 4°C. A subsample of 5 ml was stained with proflavine, filtered onto 0.2 µm polycarbonate filters (Kuuppo-Leinikki & Kuosa 1989), and ≥50 microscopy fields were counted from each filter using epifluorescence microscopy (Leica Aristoplan) at 1000× magnification. The carbon contents of small, medium, and large flagellates (averages, based on most common shapes: 5, 32, and 135 µm³, H. Kuosa unpublished) were calcu-

lated according to Menden-Deuer & Lessard (2000). For microzooplankton and phytoplankton, 300 ml samples were fixed with acid Lugol's solution (1% final concentration) and subsequently settled in 50 ml chambers for 24 h (Utermöhl 1958). The cells were counted under an inverted light microscope (Leica DMIL) at 100 to 400 × magnification. Large cells were counted from the whole settling chamber area, while small cells were counted from 200 fields of vision. Geometric formulae were used to estimate cell volumes (Edler 1979), which were converted to biomass using 0.19 pg C µm⁻³ (Putt & Stoecker 1989).

Zooplankton

An extra tank with experimental water was filled at the same time as the 12 mesocosms. Water from this tank was used to quantify zooplankters <90 µm at the beginning of the experiment (data were included in the initial zooplankton biomass). At the termination of the experiment, the entire tank volumes were filtered through a 45 µm mesh and the zooplankton preserved in formaldehyde (2% final concentration). Zooplankton were identified and measured at 40× magnification under a stereomicroscope. Lengths of zooplankton were converted to biomass using regressions for copepods (Berggreen et al. 1988, Hay et al. 1991) or cladocerans (Kankaala & Johansson 1986).

Bacterial abundance and production

Samples (1.5 ml) were fixed with electron microscopy grade glutaraldehyde (Sigma; 1% final concentration), frozen in liquid N₂, and stored at -80°C. Samples were stained with SYTO 13 (Molecular Probes) and counted on a FASCalibur flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson; Gasol & del Giorgio 2000) using 1.0 µm green fluorescent polymer microspheres (Duke Scientific Corporation) as internal standard in each sample. Fluorescent beads (True counts, Becton Dickinson) were used to calibrate the flow rate. Bacterial production was measured by [³H]-thymidine incorporation (Fuhrman & Azam 1982) as modified for microcentrifugation by Smith & Azam (1992). Triplicate 1.7 ml aliquots were incubated with [methyl-³H]-thymidine (25 nM final concentration, Amersham) in sterile 2.0 ml capacity polypropylene tubes for ca. 1 h at *in situ* temperature. Samples with 5% trichloroacetic acid added prior to the addition of

isotope served as blanks. Thymidine incorporation was converted to carbon production using 1.4×10^{18} cells mole⁻¹ thymidine incorporated (average calculated from published Baltic Sea data, SE = 0.1×10^{18} cells mole⁻¹ thymidine, n = 73; Helsinki Commission [HELCOM] guidelines). Saturation curves were made beforehand. Cell-specific growth rates were calculated assuming exponential growth and a carbon to cell ratio of 51 fg carbon cell⁻¹ (determined by Zweifel et al. 1993 for P-limited bacteria in the Baltic Sea).

Ectoenzymatic activities

Triplicate 192 µl samples were incubated in microplates (Nunc) with fluorogenic substrates (methylumbelliferyl [MUF] and amino-methylcoumarin [AMC] derivatives, Sigma) to determine potential hydrolysis rates. The substrates used (and enzymes assayed) were L-leucine-AMC (aminopeptidase) and MUF β-D-glucoside (glucosidase). Substrate hydrolysis rates were measured in a plate reader (FluoStar, BMG Labtech) calibrated with standard solutions of MUF and AMC (Sigma) and potential activities at 200 µM substrate concentration were measured. Saturation curves were made beforehand.

Bacterial community composition

Water (~1 l) was filtered onto a 0.2 µm, 47 mm Supor filter (Pall) and frozen at -80°C in 1 ml sucrose lysis buffer (20% sucrose, 50 mM EDTA, 50 mM TrisHCl, pH = 8). DNA was extracted using an enzyme/phenol-chloroform protocol (Boström et al. 2004) and quantified using PicoGreen (Molecular Probes). Bacterial 16S rRNA genes were PCR amplified using puReTaq Ready-To-Go PCR beads (GE Healthcare), 1.5 ng DNA µl⁻¹, and primers GC341F (Muyzer et al. 1993) and 907R (Muyzer & Smalla 1998) as previously described (Riemann et al. 2006). PCR products were analyzed by denaturing gel gradient electrophoresis (DGGE) as in Riemann et al. (2006). DGGE profiles were made for samples obtained from all tanks at t_0 , t_{72} , and t_{168} .

Statistical analysis

Several parameters were sampled daily (e.g. chl *a*, bacterial production and abundance), while most microscopy-based samples were taken only at the

beginning and end of the experiment. To avoid the pitfalls of temporal pseudo-replication (Hurlbert 1984), as well as making the analyses more easily comparable across parameters, we used the differences between start and end values for each tank as dependent variables for all parameters, and analyzed the responses to treatment level by 1-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs). An advantage of this approach is that it is quite easy to perform power analysis (i.e. assess the probability of not making a Type 2 error) in addition to standard significance tests based on the estimated probability of making a Type 1 error. Tukey HSD post hoc tests were used to identify significant differences between treatment levels for parameters where the 1-way ANOVA had a significance probability <0.05. Statistical analyses were done using the R statistical computing environment (www.r-project.org).

Power analysis

Since all response parameters were analyzed by 1-way ANOVAs on the changes from beginning to end of the experiment, all *F*-tests will have the same number of degrees of freedom (2 and 9). This makes it easy to compute the statistical power of these tests from percentiles of the cumulative non-central *F*-distribution with the appropriate degrees of freedom. The power of a statistical test expresses the probability of detecting a true difference between treatments (i.e. not making a Type 2 error), while keeping the Type 1 error probability (i.e. concluding there was a true difference when it actually was just due to random noise) at a fixed level - the customary 0.05 in our case. The chosen design in our experiment (3 treatments with 4 replicates each) will have a power of 0.56 if the variance between treatments is equal to the within-treatment variance, and will increase to 0.86 if the variance between treatments is twice as high as within treatments. In order to have a power of 80%, which is often considered a good balance between the risks of Type 1 and 2 errors, the between-treatment variance needs to be at least 1.71 times higher than the within-treatment variance. This translates to the between-treatment standard deviation needing to be at least 31% higher than the within-treatment standard deviation ($\sqrt{1.71} = 1.31$). It can be shown that this also implies that our design should have 80% probability of detecting a situation where at least 1 treatment differs from the control by more than $\sqrt{3 \times 1.71} = 2.26$ times the within-treatment standard deviation.

RESULTS

Mnemiopsis leidyi specimens appeared healthy throughout the experiment. Adults had visibly full guts most of the time and were swimming from the bottom to the surface of the tanks several times per day. Larvae grew during the experiment from ~1.5 mm to ~3.0 mm median length.

Environmental parameters

Nutrient concentrations were low throughout the experiment, with phosphate and nitrite being undetectable at all times (detection limits of 0.01 and 0.05 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, respectively). Ammonium and nitrate were <0.31 and <0.12 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, respectively, while silica was always >3.63 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ (data not shown). The N:P ratio, based on inorganic nutrients, was >27 throughout the experiment. DOC increased between t_{12} and t_{72} (338 to 364 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) and then

remained stable, with no differences between treatments at the end of the experiment ($F_{2,9} = 0.405$, $p = 0.68$; Figs. 1A & 2A). Generally, chl *a* initially decreased from 2.0 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ to 1.4 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ at t_{72} , after which it increased again (Figs. 1B & 2B). At the end of the experiment, chl *a* differed between treatments ($F_{2,9} = 12.598$, $p = 0.0025$), with the larvae and adult treatments behaving similarly ($p = 0.77$), both with higher values than in the controls ($p = 0.0031$ and $p = 0.0084$, respectively). POC concentrations fluctuated between 332 and 510 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ without differences between treatments ($F_{2,9} = 2.7819$, $p = 0.11$; Fig. 2C).

Mesozooplankton composition and biomass

Initially, the cladoceran *Bosmina longispina* represented 95% of the mesozooplankton biomass (Fig. 3). A few *Acartia tonsa* copepodites and nauplii were also observed. At the end of the experiment, differences between treatments were evident for *B. longispina* ($F_{2,9} = 14.675$, $p = 0.0015$) and copepodites ($F_{2,9} = 41.901$, $p = 0.000028$), where biomasses of both *B. longispina* and copepodites had decreased in the larval and adult treatments compared to their biomasses in the controls ($p < 0.00001$ for the respective comparisons).

Phytoplankton composition and biomass

Detailed taxonomic and functional identifications and quantifications, based on morphology and divisions into size classes, did not reveal any significant differences between treatments (data not shown), and phytoplankton were therefore pooled in coarse taxonomic groups. Phytoflagellates, dinoflagellates, euglenids, and cryptophytes dominated the phytoplankton community, while cyanobacteria and diatoms were rare. The dinoflagellates, of which 68% were <20 μm , generally increased in biomass with differences between treatments ($F_{2,9} = 19.947$, $p = 0.00049$; Figs. 2D & 4A). The largest increase occurred in the larval treatment reaching a level of 1.77 $\mu\text{mol C l}^{-1}$, followed by the adult and control treatments ($p < 0.05$ for all respective comparisons). In contrast, there were no significant treatment effects on euglenids and cryptophytes ($F_{2,9} = 1.783$, $p = 0.22$), which generally decreased (Figs. 2E & 4B), which almost doubled during the experiment (Figs. 2F & 4C).

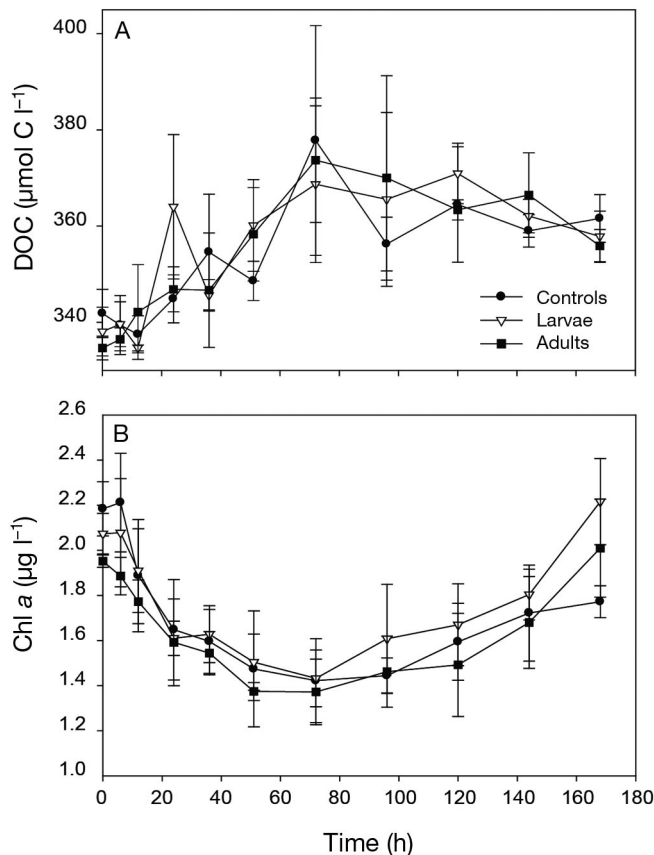


Fig. 1. Concentration of (A) dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and (B) chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) as a function of time. Means \pm SD for 4 replicates

Protozoans

Identification of the ciliates at the genus level did not reveal any differences between treatments (data not shown). Small cells $<30\ \mu\text{m}$ (especially *Lohmaniella oviformis*) dominated the ciliates. Ciliate biomass almost doubled during the first 51 h to $0.96\ \mu\text{mol C l}^{-1}$ and then decreased to low levels (Fig. 4D). In contrast, the biomass of HNF increased in all treatments (Fig. 4E). There were no significant treatment

effects on either ciliates ($F_{2,9} = 1.1961$, $p = 0.3462$; Fig. 2G) or HNF ($F_{2,9} = 3.821$, $p = 0.063$; Fig. 2H).

Bacterial abundance, activity, and community composition

Although the development of bacterial abundance differed between treatments ($F_{2,9} = 4.8494$, $p = 0.037$), with the larval treatment being lower, the differences

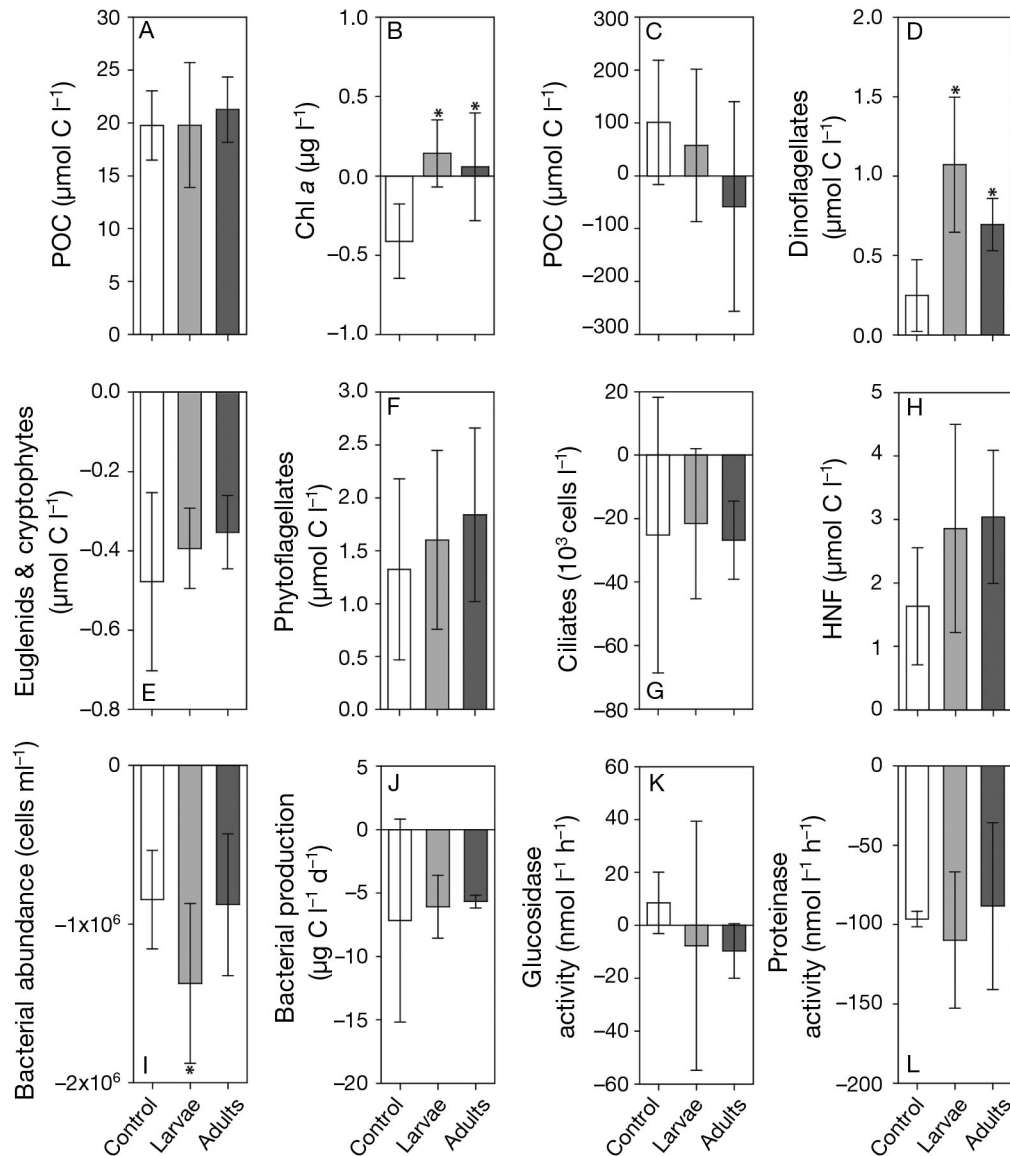


Fig. 2. Changes in tested variables from the start to the end of the experiment for (A) dissolved organic carbon (DOC), (B) chlorophyll a (chl a), (C) particulate organic carbon (POC), (D) dinoflagellates, (E) euglenids and cryptophytes, (F) phytoflagellates, (G) ciliates, (H) heterotrophic nanoflagellates (HNF), (I) bacterial abundance, (J) bacterial production, (K) glucosidase activity, and (L) proteinase activity. Mean \pm 95% confidence limits of the change from t_0 to t_{168} in each of the 4 replicates of each treatment. *: significant difference to the control

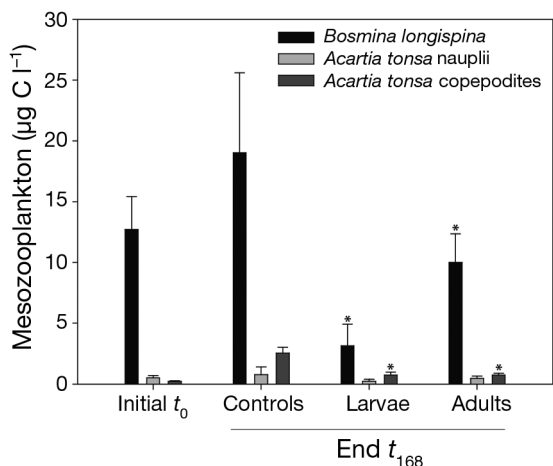


Fig. 3. Mesozooplankton biomass in the control and 2 treatments at the start (t_0) and at the end of the experiment (t_{168}). Mean \pm SD, $n = 8$ for t_0 and $n = 4$ for t_{168} . *: significant differences to the control

were small ($p = 0.051$ versus the control, and $p = 0.069$ versus adults; Fig. 2I). No treatment effect was evident for bacterial production ($F_{2,9} = 0.2594$, $p = 0.78$; Fig. 2J), glucosidase ($F_{2,9} = 1.2245$, $p = 0.34$; Fig. 2K), or proteinase ($F_{2,9} = 0.7657$, $p = 0.49$; Fig. 2L) activities. Similarly, analysis of bacterial community composition by DGGE showed no differences between treatments or changes in composition during the course of the experiment (Fig. 5E). The bacterial abundance increased from 4.6×10^6 cells ml^{-1} at t_0 until t_{140} and then dropped towards the end of the experiment (3.6×10^6 cells ml^{-1} ; Fig. 5A). Similarly, bacterial production increased until t_{72} ($23.3 \mu\text{g C l}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) and then decreased towards the end (Fig. 5B). Overall, the bacterial assemblage grew slowly with average biomass-specific growth rates of $\leq 0.07 \text{ d}^{-1}$ and no differences between treatments (data not shown). Glucosidase and proteinase activities oscillated throughout the experiment with no obvious

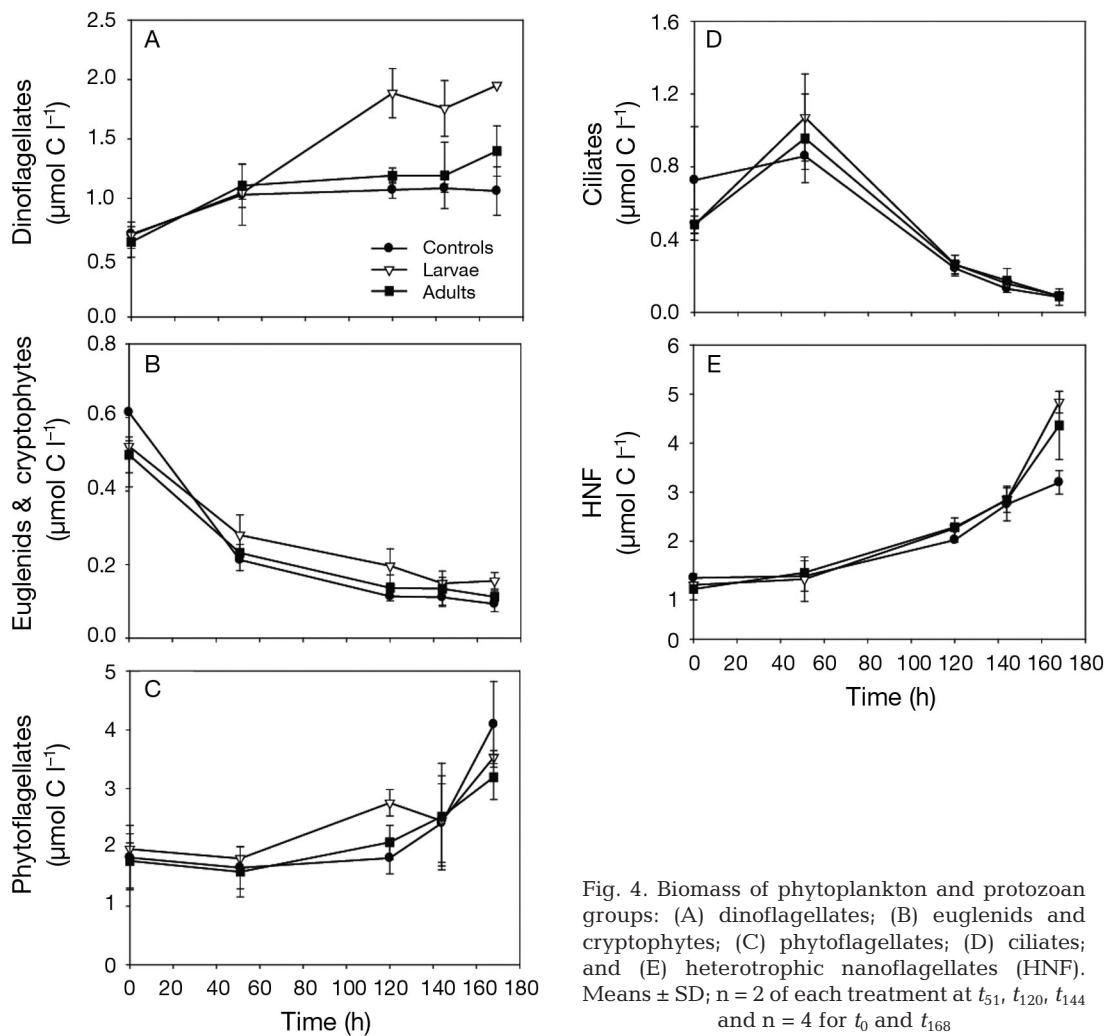


Fig. 4. Biomass of phytoplankton and protozoan groups: (A) dinoflagellates; (B) euglenids and cryptophytes; (C) phytoflagellates; (D) ciliates; and (E) heterotrophic nanoflagellates (HNF). Means \pm SD; $n = 2$ of each treatment at t_{51} , t_{120} , t_{144} and $n = 4$ for t_0 and t_{168}

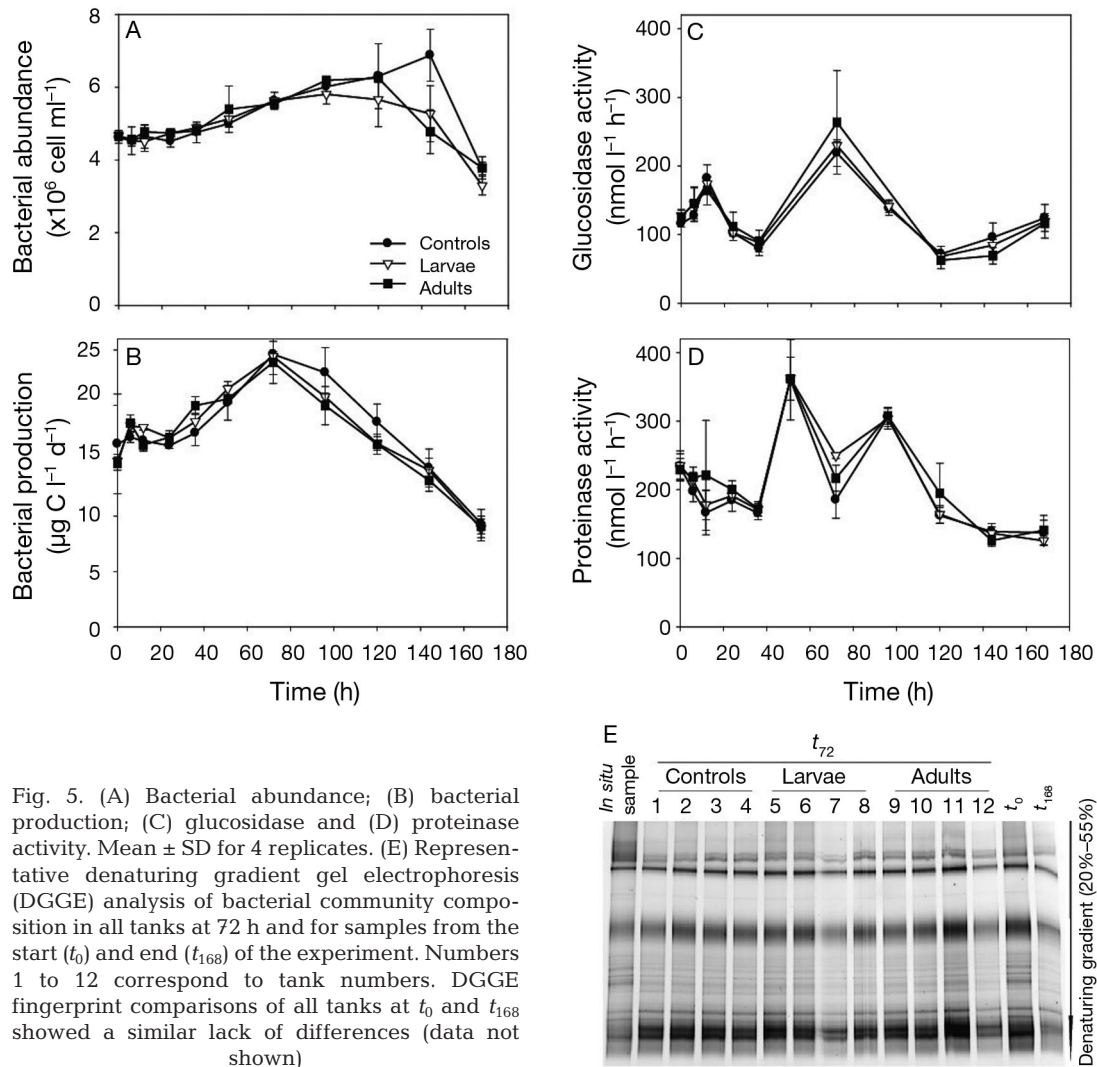


Fig. 5. (A) Bacterial abundance; (B) bacterial production; (C) glucosidase and (D) proteinase activity. Mean \pm SD for 4 replicates. (E) Representative denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis of bacterial community composition in all tanks at 72 h and for samples from the start (t_0) and end (t_{168}) of the experiment. Numbers 1 to 12 correspond to tank numbers. DGGE fingerprint comparisons of all tanks at t_0 and t_{168} showed a similar lack of differences (data not shown)

trends, and showed no differences between treatments (Fig. 5C,D).

DISCUSSION

Blooms of gelatinous plankton may have consequences for marine planktonic food web dynamics (Mills 2001, Acuña et al. 2011). Particularly, in estuaries, seasonal mass occurrences and the associated decimation of mesozooplankton stocks (Sullivan et al. 2001, Costello et al. 2006) may have detrimental implications for fish recruitment (Oguz et al. 2008). Nevertheless, effects of jellyfish on the lower trophic levels have received limited attention (but see Hansson & Norrman 1995, Riemann et al. 2006, Titelman et al. 2006, Turk et al. 2008, Pitt et al. 2009, Condon et al. 2011). In our experiment, the short-term grazing

effects of *Mnemiopsis leidyi* in a nutrient-deprived estuarine environment were limited to the higher trophic levels (mesozooplankton and dinoflagellates), as well as an effect on chl *a*, while bottom-up effects on the microbial levels of the planktonic food web were lacking. These observations indicate that timing, magnitude, and characteristics of food web consequences associated with *M. leidyi* in estuarine environments are linked to local nutrient conditions.

Given the potential of other jellyfish to induce trophic cascades (Stibor et al. 2004, Pitt et al. 2007), and the high predatory capacity of *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (Colin et al. 2010), we anticipated effects on various trophic levels in our experiment. While grazing by both larvae and adults reduced the mesozooplankton, no direct grazing effects were evident on dinoflagellates, ciliates, phytoplankton, or HNF. This is surprising because all life stages of *M. leidyi* prey

on protists, and larvae in particular are omnivorous (Purcell et al. 2001). Nevertheless, the released grazing pressure by the mesozooplankton generated cascade effects towards the end of the experiment, evident as elevated biomass of dinoflagellates and chl *a* in the adult and larval treatments.

Prey- or size-selective grazing of both *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (Sullivan & Gifford 2004, 2007) and *Bosmina longispina* (Bleiwas & Stokes 1985), in conjunction with nutrient limitation, could potentially contribute to the observed pattern. Whereas changed copepod biomass often elicits strong cascades due to their high and size-selective grazing (Zöllner et al. 2003, 2009), cascading effects elicited by cladocerans are often dampened or delayed (Sommer & Stibor 2002, Zöllner et al. 2003, 2009), likely due to their more unselective grazing (Sommer & Sommer 2006). At the beginning of the experiment, *B. longispina*, which is common in the southern Baltic Sea at this time of year (Hernroth & Ackefors 1979, Vuorinen et al. 1998), accounted for >98% of the mesozooplankton biomass. Although *B. longispina* filters particles <19 µm (Burns 1968, Ross & Munawar 1981), it can selectively grasp larger prey (Bleiwas & Stokes 1985). The released grazing pressure by *B. longispina* in the *M. leidyi* treatments may explain the increases in chl *a* and in dinoflagellates towards the end of the experiment. Moreover, the predominance of a cladoceran *per se* may have dampened the short-term trophic cascade. In lake mesocosms, the effects of copepod grazing were immediate, whereas for cladocerans, with >10-fold higher biomass than in our experiment, only a slight effect on ciliates was detected after 9 d while an overall predation effect took 15 d (Zöllner et al. 2003).

In summer and fall, when jellyfish often abound in temperate estuaries (e.g. Purcell et al. 2001), these systems are usually characterized by stratified or relatively nutrient-poor conditions in the upper water mass leading to a dominance of small phytoflagellates (Cushing 1989, Fisher et al. 1999). In the southern Baltic Sea, phosphorus (P) availability typically limits plankton growth in late summer (Grönlund et al. 1996, Nausch et al. 2004, Moisaner et al. 2007), which was consistent with the high N:P ratios throughout the experiment (P was never detectable). We speculate that P limitation constrained cascading effects caused by *Mnemiopsis leidyi* grazing on mesozooplankton; only slightly elevated levels of chl *a* in the treatment with *M. leidyi* were observed. Probably, the increased biomass of dinoflagellates upon relief from mesozooplankton grazing was facilitated by their mixotrophic lifestyle. The idea of nutrient availability constraining cascading effects of

jellyfish is consistent with results from a mesocosm experiment in a coastal lagoon (Pitt et al. 2007).

Grazing-related processes and jellyfish tissue release ammonia and DOC (Nemazie et al. 1993, Hansson & Norrman 1995, Nagata 2000, Pitt et al. 2009, Condon et al. 2011). We therefore anticipated a strong bottom-up effect in the *Mnemiopsis leidyi* treatments. Surprisingly, DOC concentration was similar in all treatments, as were bacterial abundance, activity, and community composition. DOC released from *M. leidyi* has been shown to be metabolized quickly by bacterioplankton (Condon et al. 2011). However, based on published release rates from *M. leidyi* tissue (Condon et al. 2011), the DOC release from the *M. leidyi* in our experiment was trivial ($-0.02 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$; data not shown). Whereas bacterial production increased with the DOC level between t_{24} and t_{72} , reflecting bacterial utilization and food web production of DOC, respectively, the similarity between treatments indicates that predatory processes in the controls generated DOC at a magnitude similar to that related to *M. leidyi* activity. This idea is also supported by the finding of no differences in ectoenzymatic activities between treatments.

The gradual accumulation of DOC during the experiment may partly reflect that bacterial DOC utilization was nutrient limited (Zweifel et al. 1993, 1995), which is consistent with the undetectable P levels and the low bacterial biomass-specific growth rates of $\leq 0.07 \text{d}^{-1}$ (data not shown). Also, the decreasing bacterial abundance and production in conjunction with the increased flagellate abundance towards the end of the experiment correspond to a 'malfunctioning microbial loop' scenario where mineral nutrients in combination with food web mechanisms control bacterial carbon consumption (Thingstad et al. 1997). Under richer nutrient regimes, bacterioplankton composition may change in response to trophic cascades (Zöllner et al. 2003, 2009) and to DOC released from *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (Condon et al. 2011). However, compositional changes appear delayed relative to changes in bacterial activity and abundance (Zöllner et al. 2003). Thus, in our experiment, the slow bacterial growth likely explains the minor temporal compositional shift and the lack of differences in bacterial community composition between treatments.

Our study demonstrates that a *Mnemiopsis leidyi* biomass comparable to that of the southern Baltic Sea ($\sim 38 \text{ g WW m}^{-3}$; Kube et al. 2007), but much lower than *M. leidyi* biomasses in the south-western Baltic Sea (up to $\sim 600 \text{ g WW m}^{-3}$; Javidpour et al. 2009) or

in US estuaries (~150 to 188 g WW m⁻³; Kremer & Nixon 1976, Condon & Steinberg 2008), affects the higher trophic level of the food web. While *M. leidyi* almost depleted mesozooplankton populations, the low P conditions prevailing in the southern Baltic Sea in late summer limited trophic cascades beyond the phytoplankton level, as well as bottom-up responses, at least in a short-time perspective. Hence, the magnitude and characteristics of food web consequences driven by the presence and activity of *M. leidyi* appear tightly linked to the prevailing nutrient regime.

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