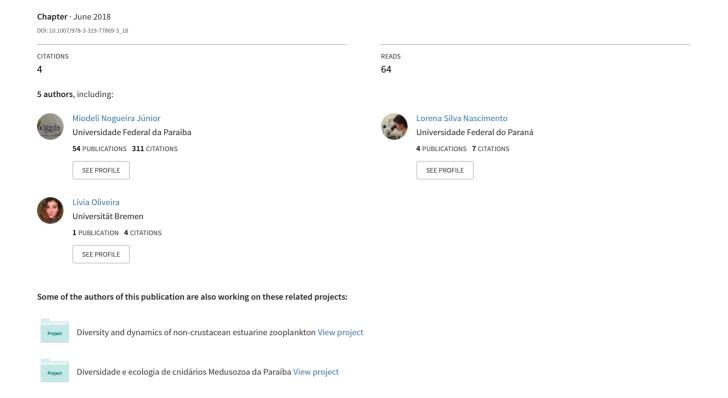
Diversity, Species Composition and Assemblage Dynamics of Estuarine Gelatinous and Semi-Gelatinous Zooplankton from Brazil



Diversity, Species Composition and Assemblage Dynamics of Estuarine Gelatinous and Semi-Gelatinous Zooplankton from Brazil



Miodeli Nogueira Jr., Lorena Silva do Nascimento, Pedro Vieira Maciel, Sebastião Tilbert, and Lívia Dias Oliveira

Abstract The literature on gelatinous (Cnidaria, Ctenophora, Tunicata) and semi-gelatinous (Chaetognatha) zooplankton from 32 Brazilian estuaries is reviewed. Altogether 104 species have been recorded, 70 cnidarians, 2 ctenophores, 14 chaetognaths, 13 appendicularians and 5 thaliaceans. All groups are understudied with only few detailed data available. Most of these gelatinous and semi-gelatinous taxa are typically oceanic, and thus the low diversity in estuarine systems was expected and is not probable to increase much with increasing sampling effort. Contrary, the meroplanktonic hydromedusae from the orders Anthoathecata and Leptothecata are diversified in estuarine ecosystems and the respectively 29 and 19 species currently reported from Brazilian estuaries are an underestimation and certainly will increase considerably with increased sampling effort. The best-studied taxa are the chaetognaths, followed by appendicularians, and very little is known about the other taxa, particularly concerning ctenophores and thaliaceans. We summarize the main tendencies of each taxon regarding diversity, abundance, temporal and spatial variations, species composition, and the most abundant species. In addition, we also provide general guidelines for future research on gelatinous and semigelatinous zooplankton taxa from Brazilian estuaries.

Keywords Cnidaria · Ctenophora · Chaetognatha · Tunicata · Brazilian estuaries

M. Nogueira Jr. (⊠) · P. V. Maciel · L. D. Oliveira Departamento de Sistemática e Ecologia, Universidade Federal da Paraíba. João Pessoa, PB. Brazil

L. S. do Nascimento

Centro de Estudos do Mar, Universidade Federal do Paraná, Paraná, Brazil

S. Tilbert

Departamento de Sistemática e Ecologia, Universidade Federal da Paraíba, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Laboratório de Meiofauna, Centro de Educação e Saúde, Universidade Federal de Campina Grande, Cuité, PB, Brazil

1 Introduction

Zooplankton is highly diversified and a paramount component of aquatic ecosystems mainly due to their trophic role as link between the primary producers and higher trophic levels. Thus, understanding the factors influencing its abundance, biomass, assemblage composition and dynamics is fundamental to the general comprehension of the functioning of these ecosystems (e.g., Boltovskoy 1999). Many zooplankton taxa, not directly related phylogenetically, have aqueous tissues in different degrees, such as cnidarians, ctenophores, polychaetes, chaetognaths and tunicates, in addition to the larvae of other groups such as echinoderms (Hamner et al. 1975; Larson 1986). These watery tissues are an evolutive convergence with advantages such as:

- (i). Higher sizes may be achieved with relatively little carbon investments and consequently the metabolism can be relatively low (Larson 1986; Acuña et al. 2011).
- (ii). Rapid individual and population growth and production (Paffenhöfer and Lee 1987; Hopcroft and Roff 1998; Acuña et al. 2011).
- (iii). Larger sizes increase the possibility of encounters as well as the size range of a possible prey and, in addition, reduce the chances of predation by smaller organisms (Larson 1986; Arai 1997; Kremer 2002).
- (iv). Greater corporal plasticity, allowing them to grow, shrink, and grow again depending on the environmental conditions and food availability (Arai 1997).
- (v). They are frequently transparent and invisible to visual predators which is a way to hide in the tridimensional and relatively homogeneous pelagic habitat (Hamner et al. 1975; Johnsen 2001).
- (vi). Large amount of water in the tissues results in a better buoyancy (Larson 1986).

Thus, among the many functional zooplankton classifications, such as according to the life-cycle strategy or to the body size, the relative amount of water in the tissues can be used to classify zooplankton taxa as gelatinous, semi-gelatinous, or non-gelatinous organisms (Larson 1986).

These watery organisms are often understudied, in part due to their body fragility that frequently hinders their sampling and preservation in conditions to allow accurate taxonomic classification and sometimes even to enumerate them (Hamner et al. 1975; Esnal and Daponte 1999a, b; Mianzan 1999). However, they represent an important fraction of the marine zooplankton biodiversity and may reach high densities, typically having an important ecological role in the pelagic realm and energy flow (Boltovskoy 1999). Both carnivores (mainly cnidarians, ctenophores, and chaetognaths) and herbivores (mainly tunicates) commonly have high feeding rates, with crucial role as consumers in the pelagic domain. It is not uncommon for gelatinous and semi-gelatinous zooplankton to negatively affect populations of other organisms, including those with commercial value, either through direct predation or competition for food (Mills 1995; Kremer

2002). In this way, it can usually be expected that these organisms are relevant to the diversity, dynamics, and community structuring of the pelagic ecosystems and also affect several human activities at the sea such as tourism and fisheries (e.g., Nagata et al. 2009).

Estuaries can generally be defined as coastal water bodies, usually semi-enclosed, which are permanently or intermittently connected to the sea and where marine and freshwater from continental runoff interact (Potter et al. 2010; Whitfield and Elliot 2011). These ecosystems have high ecological, economic and cultural importance. Their biological productivity is typically very high, harboring an abundant, diversified and characteristic biota which includes many important fishing resources (Daily et al. 1997; Lana et al. 2001; Cremer et al. 2006). Additionally, human occupation for habitation commercial and recreational purposes is historic and massive nearby estuaries worldwide, posing a great threat to these environments.

Since estuaries are transitional ecosystems, spatial gradients are typical particularly regarding the salinity (Potter et al. 2010; Whitfield and Elliot 2011). Physical conditions of an estuary are vital in determining its biological components such as primary production, biomass, diversity, trophic pathways and species composition. This may be particularly true for zooplankton assemblages which are under direct influence of the hydrography and are commonly sensitive to changes in the physical structure of the water column. Features such as salinity, tides, temperature, rainfall and continental runoff are typically the most important ones. These parameters change horizontally and/or vertically mainly influenced by the mixing, circulation and stratification processes of the estuarine systems (Daily et al. 1997), as well as seasonally, when it is mostly controlled by local rainfall regime and general latitudinal climatic patterns.

The Brazilian coast is enormous with over 8,000 km spanning from the tropics (~2°N) to almost temperate areas (~33.7°S) and embraces countless estuarine/ brackish-water ecosystems, most of them with high ecological, economic, cultural importance and under high human pressure (e.g., Lana et al. 2001; Cremer et al. 2006; Mahiques et al. 2013). Gelatinous and semi-gelatinous zooplankton taxa are primarily marine. Yet, representatives of all major groups can be found inside estuaries where they may reach high abundances, biomass, and/or production rates and have a significant role in the trophic chains (Dagg et al. 1996; Dagg and Brown 2005; Sato et al. 2008; Spinelli et al. 2009; Marques et al. 2017). Most of the (few) information available on these estuarine gelatinous and semi-gelatinous zooplankton taxa from Brazil is superficial and scattered through general zooplankton publications. In this study, we made an effort to summarize all the available data on gelatinous (cnidarians, ctenophores, and tunicates) and semi-gelatinous (chaetognaths) zooplankton from Brazilian estuaries, focusing on species composition, diversity, abundance and assemblage structure trends. We were able to gather data for at least one major gelatinous/semi-gelatinous taxon from 32 estuaries (Fig. 1, Table 1), spanning a wide latitudinal range (0–32°S). Not all estuaries and/or taxa are known at the same depth, but we tried to include all information available and summarize the general tendencies of each taxon.

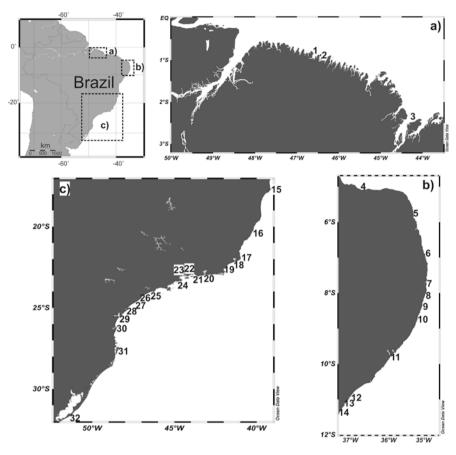


Fig. 1 Map of the Brazilian coast showing the location of the estuaries considered in the present review (1-32). For codes of the numbers and data sources, please see Table 1

2 Cnidaria

There are quite few studies dealing with estuarine planktonic cnidarians from Brazil (e.g., Navas-Pereira 1980; Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Mesquita et al. 2006). A total of 70 species have been recorded (Table 2); most of them are meroplanktonic hydromedusae, particularly those from the orders Anthoathecata (29 spp.) and Leptothecata (19 spp.) which commonly are highly diversified in shallow coastal waters. This number is probably underestimated considering that most Brazilian estuaries have not been studied adequately or at all, along with the inability to properly identify down to species level the medusae of some genera such as *Clytia* and *Obelia*; at least three different medusa species of the former have been reported from Brazilian estuaries (Mesquita et al. 2006; Nogueira Júnior 2012, Table 2); however we pulled all together as *Clytia* spp. since we cannot exactly determine which species each

Table 1 Summary of the Brazilian estuaries included in this study showing their minimum and maximum recorded temperature (Temp, in $^{\circ}$ C) and salinity (Sal), data availability for each taxa (Cnid, Cnidaria; Cten, Ctenophora; Chae, Chaetognatha; Tun, Tunicata) along with the source of the information. N°, number of the estuary in the Fig. 1; nda, no data available

Estuary	N°	Cnid	Cten	Chae	Tun	Temp	Sal	Data source
Taperaçu River (0°45'S/46°44'W)	1			X	X	25.9–30.1	9.1–40	Costa et al. (2008)
Caeté River (0°55'S/45°36'W)	2	X		X	X	25.7–28.3	0–37	Krumme and Liang (2004), Mesquita et al. (2006)
São Marcos Bay (2°32'S/44°36'W)	3			X	X	22.7–28.9	16.4–24.1	Bonecker and Dias (2009)
Conceição and Casqueira Rivers (5°06'S/36°35'W)	4			X	X	27.5–31	31–43.5	Sankarankutty et al. (1997)
Potengi River (5°45'S/35°12'W)	5			X	X	25.5–30	26.8–37.5	Sankarankutty et al. (1979, 1995, 1996), Esnal et al. (1985)
Paraíba River (6°58'S/34°51'W)	6	X	X	X	X	25–30	2.5–36.8	Singarajah (1978), MNJ unpublished
Santa Cruz Channel and Itamaracá estuarine system (7°42'S/34°54'W)	7			X	X	25–31	17.4–35.5	Porto Neto et al. (1999), Silva et al. (2003), Freire et al. (2014)
Capibaribe and Jiquiá Rivers (8°05'S/34°51'W)	8	X				26.8–29.5	2.2–36	Freire et al. (2014)
Barra das Jangadas estuarine system (8°14'S/34°56'W)	9	X		X	X	25.2–29.6	0.3–33.4	Paranaguá (1963), Cavalcanti et al. (2008)
Suape Bay (8°22'S/35°05'W)	10	X		X	X	23.4–33	0.05–36	Neumann-Leitão and Matsumura- Tundisi (1998), Silva et al. (2004)
Mundaú/Manguaba estuarine system (9°35'S/35°42'W)	11			X		23–29	0.13–37	Magalhães et al. (1996)
Sergipe River (10°8'S/37°2'W)	12	X		X	X	23–29.9	8.6–32.6	Araújo et al. (2008), Freire et al. (2014)

 Table 1 (continued)

Estuary	N°	Cnid	Cten	Chae	Tun	Temp	Sal	Data source
Tabatinga River (11°32'S/37°29'W)	13	X		X		24.5–30	5.9–26.3	Marcolin (2008), Marcolin et al. (2010)
Itapicuru River (11°47'S/37°30'W)	14	X		X	X	25–31	8.6–36.3	Marcolin (2008), Marcolin et al. (2010)
Caravelas River (17°44'S/39°04'W)	15				X	nda	nda	Carvalho and Bonecker (2010)
Vitória Bay estuarine system (20°18'S/40°20'W)	16			X	X	21–28	12–38	Loureiro Fernandes et al. (2005), Sterza and Loureiro Fernandes (2006)
Macaé River (22°22'S/41°46'W)	17				X	23–24.5	18.5–22.5	Carvalho et al. (2016)
Imboassica Lagoon (22°24'S/44°42'W)	18				X	18.1–31.1	0–34	Branco et al. (2007)
São João River (22°36'S/41°59'W)	19				X	22.5–26	21–23.5	Carvalho et al. (2016)
Guanabara Bay (22°45'S/43°08'W)	20			X		22–26	12–31.2	Marazzo and Nogueira (1996), Mendes et al. (2012)
Sepetiba Bay (22°55'S/43°40'W)	21	X		X	X	20–29.9	0.003- 33.9	Navas-Pereira (1980), Coelho- Botelho et al. (1999)
Bracuí River (22°57'S/44°23'W)	22				X	21–29	20–28.5	Carvalho et al. (2016)
Ribeira Bay (22°59'S/44°25'W)	23			X	X	21–36.4	29–36	Dias and Bonecker (2008)
Perequê-Açu River (23°12'S/44°42'W)	24				X	21.5–30	17.5–22	Carvalho et al. (2016)
Santos estuarine system (23°50'S/46°25'W)	25	X		X		19.2–32.5	4.2–35.8	Pereira (2011), Nogueira Júnior and Silva Nascimento (2018), MNJ unpublished

Una do Prelado River (24°S/47°03'W)	26	X		X	X	20–31	0-34.4	Lansac-Tôha and Lima (1993)
Guaraú River (24°22'S/7°06'W)	27			X	X	17–29	0.5–35.4	Lopes (1994)
Cananéia estuarine system (25°S/47°46'W)	28	X	X	X	X	18.6–32.6	4.5–33	Vannucci (1954, 1956, 1957), Teixeira et al. (1965), Morandini (2003), Liang et al. (2003), Bardi and Marques (2009), Bardi (2011), Martinez et al. (2015), Nogueira Júnior and Silva Nascimento (2018), MNJ unpublished
Paranaguá estuarine system (25.5°S/48°17'W)	29	X	X	X	X	16.9–30.5	0–34	Montú and Cordeiro (1988), Lopes et al. (1998), Nogueira Júnior and Oliveira (2006), Bardi and Marques (2009), Bardi (2011), Miyashita et al. (2012), Haddad et al. (2014), Nascimento (2016), Nogueira Júnior and Silva Nascimento (2018), L.K. Miyashita, personal communication, MNJ unpublished
Babitonga estuarine system (26.2°S/48.6°W)	30	X	X	X	X	19.2–27	10.1–33.6	Bardi and Marques (2009), Oliveira (2007), Bardi (2011), Nogueira Júnior (2012), Nogueira Júnior et al. (2015b,), Nogueira Júnior and Silva Nascimento (2018), MNJ unpublished
North and South Bays (27°30'S/48°32'W)	31	X	X	X	X	17.5–28	29.3–37.8	Resgalla (2001), Nogueira Júnior et al. (2010), MNJ unpublished
Patos lagoon (31°50'S/52°2'W)	32	X		X		8.4–31	0–35	Montú (1980), Teixeira-Amaral et al. (2017)

Table 2 List of gelatinous and semi-gelatinous estuarine zooplankton species recorded from Brazil. N = 104 spp. See Table 1 and Fig. 1 to see data source, estuary codes and locations. To avoid artificial inflation of the number of species due to taxonomic problems, only unique morphotypes were considered in the total species count. The interrogation indicates doubtful taxa, probably misidentifications which were disregarded from the total species count (see text)

Taxa	Estuary	Taxa	Estuary
Phylum Cnidaria		Order Narcomedusae	
Class Hydrozoa		Family Cuninidae	
Actinula larvae	25, 28–30	Cunina octonaria McCrady, 1859	21, 25, 28–30
Subclass Hydroidolina		Family Solmarisidae	
Order Anthoathecata		Solmaris sp.	28, 29
Suborder Filifera		Order Trachymedusae	
Family Bougainvilliidae		Family Geryoniidae	
Bougainvillia muscus Allman, 1863	12–14, 21, 25, 28, 29	Liriope tetraphylla Chamysso and Eyesenhardt, 1821	1, 12–14, 21, 25, 28–32
Bougainvillia pagesi Nogueira et al. 2013	30	Geryonia proboscidalis Forskål, 1775	29
Bougainvillia frondosa Mayer, 1900	29	Family Rhopalonematidae	
Bougainvillia carolinensis McCady, 1859	25, 29–30	Aglaura hemistoma Péron and Lesueur, 1810	28, 29
Family Hydractiniidae		?Aglantha sp.?	29
Cnidostoma fallax Vanhöffen, 1911	25, 28–30, 32	Crossota sp.	1
Hydractinia sp.	30	Rhopalonema velatum Gegenbaur, 1857	21
Podocoryna loyola Haddad, Bettim and Miglieta, 2014	25, 28–30	Class Scyphozoa	
Podocoryna sp.	26	Subclass Discomedusae	
Family Oceaniidae		Order Semaeostomeae	
Turritopsis nutricula McCrady, 1857	25, 28–30	Family Pelagiidae	
Family Pandeidae		Chrysaora lactea Eschscholtz, 1829	6, 25, 28–31
Amphinema australis Mayer, 1900	21	Family Ulmaridae	
Amphinema dinema Perón and Lesueur, 1810	28–30	Aurelia sp.	28, 31
Amphinema sp.	1, 25	Order Rhizostomeae	
Family Proboscidactylidae		Family Lychnorhizidae	
Proboscidactyla ornata McCrady, 1859	28–30	Lychnorhiza lucerna Haeckel, 1880	6, 25, 28–31
Family Protiaridae		Family Rhizostomatidae	
Halitiara formosa Fewkes, 1882	30	?Rhizostoma pulmo (Macri, 1778)?	6
Protiara sp.	30	Family Mastigiidae	

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Taxa	Estuary	Taxa	Estuary
Family Rathkeidae	J	Phyllorhiza punctata	28–31
		Lendenfeld, 1884	
Podocorynoides minima Trinci, 1903	21, 28, 30	Family Stomolophidae	
Lizzia blondina Forbes, 1848	28, 29	Stomolophus meleagris Agassiz, 1862	28, 29
Suborder Capitata		Class Cubozoa	
Family Calycopsidae		Order Carybdeida	
Heterotiara sp.	1	Family Tamoyidae	
Family Corymorphidae		Tamoya haplonema Müller, 1859	28, 31
Corymorpha gracilis Brooks, 1883	21, 28–30	Order Chirodropida	
Corymorpha forbesii Mayer, 1894	21, 25, 28–30	Family Chiropsalmidae	
Corymorpha januarii Steenstrup, 1854	25, 29, 30	Chiropsalmus quadrumanus Müller, 1859	28–31
Family Corynidae		Phylum Ctenophora	
Stauridiosarsia reesi Vannucci, 1956	25, 28–30	Class Nuda	
Coryne eximia Allman, 1859	25, 28, 29	Order Beroida	
Sarsia sp.1	1	Family Beroidae	
Sarsia sp.2	1	Beroe ovata Bruguière, 1789	6, 25, 28–31
Family Halimedusidae		Class Tentaculata	
Tiaricodon sp.**	28	Order Cydippida	
Family Moerisiidae		Family Pleurobrachiidae	
Moerisia inkermanica Paltschikowa–Ostroumova, 1925	9, 28, 29, 30	?Pleurobrachia sp.?	6
Family Tubulariidae		Order Lobata	
Ectopleura dumortieri van Beneden, 1844	21, 25, 28–30	Family Bolinopsidae	
Capitata incertae sedis		Mnemiopsis leidyi A. Agassiz, 1865	6, 25, 28–31
Paulinum sp.	30	Phylum Chaetognatha	
Family Zancleopsidae		Class Sagittoidea	
Zancleopsis dichotoma Mayer, 1900	21	Order Aphragmophora	
Zanclea costata Gegenbaur, 1857	29	Family Sagittidae	
Order Leptothecata		Caecosagitta macrocephala Fowler, 1904	6, 23
Family Aequoreidae		Decipisagitta decipiens Fowler, 1905	16, 23

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Taxa	Estuary	Taxa	Estuary
Rhacostoma atlanticum L. Agassiz, 1851	30, 31	Ferosagitta hispida Conant, 1895	3, 16, 20, 21, 2 25, 28, 31
Aequorea sp.	31	Flaccisagitta enflata Grassi, 1881	5, 6, 11–14, 16 21, 23, 25, 28–32
Family Blackfordiidae		Flaccisagitta hexaptera d'Orbigny, 1836	23
<i>Blackfordia virginica</i> Mayer, 1910	7–9, 25, 28–30	<i>Mesosagitta minima</i> Grassi, 1881	16, 23
Family Cirrholovenidae		Parasagitta friderici Ritter–Záhony, 1911	1, 2, 7, 9, 16, 2 21, 23, 25–32
Cirrholovenia tetranema Kramp, 1959	28–30	Parasagitta tenuis Conant, 1896	3–5, 7, 9, 10, 12–14, 21, 28–31
Family Eirenidae		Sagitta helenae Ritter– Záhony, 1911	5
Eirene sp.	28, 30	Sagitta bipunctata Quoy and Gaimard, 1827	6, 23
Eutima mira McCrady, 1859	25, 28–30	Serratosagitta serratodentata Krohn, 1853	6, 23
Eutima sp.	12	Family Krohnittidae	
Helgicirrha sp.	25, 28–30	Krohnitta pacifica Aida, 1897	23, 28
Family Laodiceidae		Krohnitta subtilis Grassi, 1881	6, 23
Laodicea minuscula Vannucci, 1957	25, 28–30	Family Pterosagittidae	
Family Lovenellidae		Pterosagitta draco Krohn, 1853	23
Eucheilota duodecimalis A. Agassiz, 1862	21, 25, 28–30	Phylum Chordata	
Eucheilota maculata Hartlaub, 1894	25, 28–30	Subphylum Tunicata	
Eucheilota paradoxica Mayer, 1900	21, 25, 28–30	Class Appendicularia	
Family Malagazziidae		Order Copelata	
<i>Malagazzia carolinae</i> Mayer, 1900	21, 25, 28–30	Family Oikopleuridae	
Malagazzia sp.	1	Oikopleura (Coecaria) cornutogastra Aida, 1907	23
Octophialucium haeckeli Vannucci and Moreira, 1966	30	Oikopleura (Coecaria) fusiformis Fol, 1872	15, 16, 21, 22
?Octophialucium funerarium (Quoy and Gaimard, 1827)?	6	Oikopleura (Coecaria) gracilis Lohmann, 1896	21, 23
Family Tiaropsidae	1	Oikopleura (Coecaria) intermedia Lohmann, 1896	21

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Taxa	Estuary	Taxa	Estuary
Tiaropsidium sp.	1	Oikopleura (Coecaria) longicauda Vogt, 1854	7, 9, 10, 12, 15–19, 22, 23, 25, 28–30
Suborder Proboscoida		Oikopleura (Vexillaria) albicans Leuckart, 1853	21
Family Campanulariidae		Oikopleura (Vexillaria) cophocerca Gegenbaur, 1855	15, 23
Obelia spp.	10, 21, 25, 26, 28–30	Oikopleura (Vexillaria) dioica Fol, 1872	1–4, 7, 10, 12, 13, 15–17, 19, 21–31
<i>Clytia hemisphaerica</i> Linnaeus, 1767	21	Oikopleura (Vexillaria) parva Lohmann, 1896	31
Clytia spp. (1–3 spp. on each location)	1, 21, 25, 28–30	Oikopleura (Vexillaria) rufescens Fol, 1872	3, 7, 10, 15, 16, 23
Order Siphonophora		Oikopleura spp.	13, 14, 31
Suborder Calycophora		Family Fritillariidae	
Family Abylidae		Appendicularia sicula Fol, 1874	28
Abylopsis tetragona Otto, 1823	29, 30	Fritillaria haplostoma Fol, 1872	17, 23
Family Diphyidae		Fritillaria tenella Lohmman, 1896	23
Diphyes bojani Eschscholtz, 1825	30	Fritillaria spp.	10, 25, 29
Lensia sp.	10	Class Thaliacea	
Muggiaea kochii Will, 1844	28-30	Order Doliolida	
Suborder Physonectae		Family Doliolidae	
Family Agalmatidae		Dolioletta gegenbauri Uljanin, 1884	23, 28
<i>Nanomia bijuga</i> delle Chiaje, 1844	25, 28–30	Doliolina sp.	6
Subclass Trachylina		Doliolum nationalis Borgert, 1893	3, 23, 28, 30
Order Limnomedusae		Doliolum sp.	12
Family Olindiasidae		Order Salpida	
Gossea brachymera Bigelow, 1909	29, 30	Family Salpidae	
Family Olindiidae		Salpa sp.	6
Aglauropsis kawari Moreira and Yamashita, 1972	25, 29, 30	<i>Thalia democratica</i> Forskål, 1775	12, 23, 25, 28–31
Olindias sambaquiensis Müller, 1861	25, 28–31		

record refers to; three species of *Obelia* polyps have been recorded from coastal Brazilian waters (Oliveira et al. 2016) and probably medusae of all of them can be found inside estuaries. Also, the distribution of these studies is highly uneven through the Brazilian coast. Except for Paranaguá (1963) and Mesquita et al. (2006), and from general zooplankton studies which mention a few cnidarian species (e.g., Singarajah 1978; Araújo et al. 2008; Marcolin 2008; Marcolin et al. 2010), studies are concentrated at South Brazilian Bight (~23–28°S) subtropical estuaries (e.g., Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Navas-Pereira 1980; see Table 1), reflecting the proximity of historically consolidated research groups studying cnidarians (Haddad and Marques 2009).

The records of Octophialucium funerarium (as Octocanna funeraria) and Rhizostoma pulmo from the Paraíba River estuary (Singarajah 1978) were considered doubtful since the former species has no other record from the South Atlantic (Bouillon 1999) and R. pulmo has only been found at the African coast (Mianzan and Cornelius 1999). We suspect that the record of R. pulmo is a misidentification with Lychnorhiza lucerna, which is relatively similar and known to commonly occur throughout the Brazilian coast (Oliveira et al. 2016) including inside the Paraíba estuary (MNJ personal observations). The record of Aglantha sp. from Paranaguá (Montú and Cordeiro 1988) also is considered doubtful, probably a misidentification with Aglaura hemistoma (see Nagata et al. 2014a). These doubtful records were retained in the species list (marked with an interrogation) but were not included in the total species count. The records of Dipurena sp. from Santos (Pereira 2011), Paranaguá and Babitonga (Bardi 2011) were considered as Stauridiosarsia reesi. The genus Dipurena is no longer accepted with the species being moved either to Slabberia or Stauridiosarsia (Schuchert 2011). S. reesi is common and the unique species of these genera reported (Table 2) from these fairly well-studied subtropical estuaries (Vannucci 1956; Nogueira Júnior 2012; Martinez et al. 2015; MNJ unpublished).

Among the few relatively well-known Brazilian estuaries regarding species composition, 36 hydromedusae species have been recorded at Babitonga (Nogueira Júnior 2012) and 34 at Paranaguá (Nascimento 2016) and Cananéia (Martinez et al. 2015). These values are typically higher than the adjacent shelf (16–27 spp., Vannucci 1957, 1963; Nagata et al. 2014a), highlighting the high estuarine hydromedusae diversity and the necessity of thorough sampling and analysis of other Brazilian estuaries, particularly those from tropical latitudes which are less studied and potentially harbor high diversity. Lower number of hydromedusae species recorded from some estuaries (e.g., Navas-Pereira 1980; Mesquita et al. 2006; Marcolin et al. 2010; Bardi 2011, Table 2) is not conclusive due to the small sampling and/or analysis effort (only aliquots analyzed and/or from a reduced number of samples), particularly considering that most species are not common. For instance, in tens of thousands of individuals analyzed from hundreds of samples, 17 and 18 species were represented by <10 individuals at Paranaguá and Babitonga bays, respectively (Nogueira Júnior 2012; Nascimento 2016). This number of rare species alone is larger than the 12-15 total hydromedusae species recorded by Navas-Pereira (1980) and Mesquita et al. (2006), highlighting the need of comprehensive efforts to fully depict the estuarine planktonic cnidarian diversity.

Holoplanktonic cnidarians are considerably less diversified on Brazilian estuaries and 12 species have been reported thus far, 5 trachymedusae, 5 siphonophores, and 2 narcomedusae (Table 2). This relatively low species richness is a regular feature, since these holoplanktonic cnidarians are typically oceanic and more common, abundant and diversified in offshore open waters (Bouillon 1999; Pugh 1999; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014). This may be particularly true for the South Brazilian Bight estuaries since the continental shelf in this region is large, reaching up to 200 km wide, which may be difficult for these oceanic species to reach coastal waters. Yet, species such as *Abylopsis tetragona* and *Diphyes bojani*, more typical from mid- to outer shelf on this area (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014, 2015a), may occasionally enter estuaries (Table 2) in low abundances. The short shelf from the Northeastern Brazil may allow species with more oceanic affinities reach the coast and even penetrate estuaries occasionally, such as the occurrence of the siphonophore *Lensia* sp. at Suape (Neumann-Leitão and Matsumura-Tundisi 1998).

There are few quantitative data available. Higher hydromedusae densities (Fig. 2a) were reported from Sepetiba and Paranaguá (early 2010s) and considerably lower at Cananéia (<15 ind. m⁻³, Bardi 2011). The seasonality and succession of planktonic cnidarian assemblages from Brazilian estuaries apparently are less predictable (Nagata et al. 2014b) than in high-latitude estuaries (e.g., Zamponi and Genzano 1994; Ballard and Myers 2000; Primo et al. 2012) and temporal variations seem to differ between years (Fig. 2a, b), species and populations (see below). At Sepetiba, high hydromedusae densities (80–90 ind. m⁻³) occur throughout most of the year (Fig. 2a), while at Paranaguá peaks were observed during spring or summer, with high abundance differences between the early 1980s and early 2010s (Fig. 2a, b). Spring/summer peaks, associated with the dry season and higher salinities, have also been observed for the tropical Caeté estuary (Mesquita et al. 2006). Abundance peaks at Babitonga and Potengi were reported during spring, averaging ~15 ind. m⁻³ on both, while at Cananéia hydromedusae typically peak during winter (Fig. 2b), but in 2007 summer peaks were recorded (Bardi 2011). Such longer temporal variations may be associated with large-scale climatic events in some cases, as already observed for these organisms in other estuaries worldwide (e.g., Purcell 2005; Primo et al. 2012); however it is not known their effects in the community on Brazilian estuaries.

The holoplanktonic *Liriope tetraphylla* is ubiquitous, occurring in nearly all the few estuaries with available data, typically being the most common and abundant species from subtropical Brazilian estuaries reaching up to 117 ind. m⁻³ (Teixeira et al. 1965; Navas-Pereira 1980; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b). Its direct holoplanktonic development, lacking a hydroid stage (Russell 1953), associated with its high adaptability to environmental variables and ability to take advantage of food available, results in fast population responses (Purcell 2005; Yilmaz 2015) and is probably the reason why this species is so ubiquitous in these estuaries. These medusae may have a variable seasonal pattern; at Babitonga and Paranaguá, higher abundances have been reported during spring, when young medusae predominated followed by the dominance of adults during summer (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Pukanski 2011; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b). However, winter

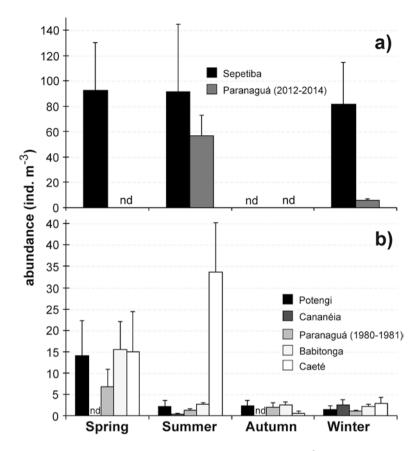


Fig. 2 Mean seasonal variation of hydromedusae abundance (ind. m⁻³) from different Brazilian estuaries. (a) Sepetiba (data from Navas–Pereira 1980) and Paranaguá (2012–2014, data from Nascimento 2016), (b) Potengi (data from Sankarankutty et al. 1995), Cananéia (data from Bardi 2011), Paranaguá (1980–1981, data from Montú and Cordeiro 1988), Babitonga (data from Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b), and Caeté (data from Mesquita et al. 2006) estuaries. The bars indicate the standard error. nd, no available data

peaks from these estuaries have also been reported (Bardi 2011), similar to the observed for Sepetiba (Navas-Pereira 1980). In the tropical Caeté estuary (Mesquita et al. 2006), *L. tetraphylla* peaked during summer but reached considerably lower densities (<4 ind. m⁻³) and ranked in fifth, with hydromedusae abundance being dominated by *Clytia* spp. (up to ~32 ind. m⁻³) and *Sarsia* spp. (up to ~15 ind. m⁻³).

Other abundant and/or frequent hydromedusae from Brazilian estuaries are the meroplanktonic *Clytia* spp., *Obelia* spp., *Bougainvillia* spp., *Corymorpha gracilis*, *Blackfordia virginica*, *Malagazzia carolinae*, *Podocoryna loyola* and *Cnidostoma fallax* (Navas-Pereira 1980; Mesquita et al. 2006; Bardi 2011; Nogueira Júnior 2012; Martinez et al. 2015; Nascimento 2016; Teixeira-Amaral et al. 2017; Nogueira

Júnior and Silva Nascimento 2018). Polyps from *Clytia, Obelia, P. loyola*, and *B. muscus* are frequently captured in these estuaries (Bardi 2011; Haddad et al. 2014; Oliveira et al. 2016; Bettim and Haddad 2017); however polyps from *C. gracilis, B. virginica, M. carolinae* and *C. fallax* have never been found. *Blackfordia virginica* polyps are probably very difficult to find in the field, probably due to its short benthic life and very small size (Moore 1987; Mills and Rees 2000), while polyps of the other three species have not been described yet and perhaps are also small and/or cryptic or short-lived. The presence and abundance of these meroplanktonic medusae is largely controlled by factors affecting polyp growth and medusae production (e.g., Boero et al. 2008) and may occur in seasonal pulses, as the summer peak of *C. fallax* (Nascimento 2016; Teixeira-Amaral et al. 2017), *P. loyola, T. nutricula* and *B. virginica* or late autumn peak of *Corymorpha gracilis* and *Proboscidactyla ornata* (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b). The factors controlling such peaks have not been evaluated, and differences between the estuaries and different years are expected (see below).

With a few exceptions, only scant punctual nonquantitative records are available for Scyphomedusae. The most common and abundant species are *Chrysaora lactea* and *Lychnorhiza lucerna* which are known to typically occur year-round on subtropical estuaries, reaching densities of up to ~60 and ~40 ind. ha⁻, respectively, at Babitonga bay (MNJ, unpublished). Both medusa species usually are less abundant during summer; *L. lucerna* abundance typically peaks during spring, reaching higher biomass during winter when most medusae are large, while *C. lactea* may peak during spring or autumn (Morandini 2003; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2010; Nogueira Júnior and Souza-Conceição 2010).

Phyllorhiza punctata is a typical estuarine species (e.g., Rippingale and Kelly 1995) widely distributed on Brazilian coastal and estuarine waters (Oliveira et al. 2016). This medusa has intermittent periods of abundant occurrence, such as those observed between the mid-1950s and early 1960s and between the 1990s and early 2000s, followed by disappearance few years later on both periods (Silveira and Cornelius 2000; Haddad and Nogueira Júnior 2006; Nagata et al. 2013). Since P. punctata has a well-documented history of invasions (e.g., González-Duarte et al. 2016), it is not clear whether these fluctuations are (ir)regular populational variations or recurrent invasions (Nagata et al. 2013). When present, P. punctata medusa has a well-marked seasonal cycle on subtropical estuaries, growing from late spring/ early summer reaching larger sizes in late summer or early autumn, later becoming senescent and disappearing from the water column (Haddad and Nogueira Júnior 2006). Populations of Stomolophus meleagris may be in decline since large quantities of this medusa have been recorded in the 1950s from Cananéia, Paranaguá, and Guaratuba estuaries (Vannucci 1954; Prof. Dr. Jayme de Loyola-e-Silva 2005 personal communication), while in more recent evaluations only a few specimens have rarely been found (Morandini 2003; Nogueira Júnior and Haddad 2006).

There is no detailed information regarding the Cubomedusae, but both species are not common, and only a few individuals have been occasionally recorded inside subtropical estuaries (Morandini 2003; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2010; Nogueira Júnior 2012). These species are typical from the open shallow waters where *Chiropsalmus*

quadrumanus may reach high concentrations and *Tamoya haplonema*, though not abundant, is commonly found (Nogueira Júnior and Haddad 2008). Both are known stingers that often cause accidents in fishermen and bathers.

Muggiaea kochii is typically the most common and abundant siphonophore, reaching densities of up to 5 col. m⁻³ and found in salinities down to 21 (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b; Nascimento 2016). This is considered one of the few typical neritic siphonophores (Mackie et al. 1987; Pugh 1999), being common and abundant over the shallow shelf mostly under influence of the Coastal Water (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014; Nogueira Júnior and Brandini, this volume). Although not particularly abundant, the frequent presence of the physonect Nanomia bijuga is noteworthy both inside estuaries such as Babitonga, Paranaguá, Cananéia, and Santos Bays (Table 2) in salinities down to 11.5 (MNJ unpublished observations) and over the shelf more than a 100 km offshore in salinities >36 (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014, 2015a), suggesting a large habitat plasticity of this species.

Exotic species in Brazilian estuaries are all meroplanktonic; between them, *P. punctata* (see above) and *Blackfordia virginica* are the best known. The latter is known to have established populations in some estuaries of tropical (Freire et al. 2014) and subtropical Brazil (Nogueira Júnior and Oliveira 2006; Bardi and Marques 2009; Nogueira Júnior 2012). Although recurrently found, it is not abundant being mainly found during summer, reaching densities up to 1.2 ind. m⁻³ at Babitonga and commonly lower (<1 ind. m⁻³) in other estuaries (Nogueira Júnior and Oliveira 2006; Bardi and Marques 2009; Nascimento 2016). *Blackfordia virginica* can tolerate a wide salinity range (2–35, Moore 1987), being more frequent and abundant in inner and intermediate estuarine portions (Pukanski 2011; Nascimento 2016) in brackish water with intermediate salinities (~20–30) both on Brazilian (e.g., Bardi 2011) estuaries and elsewhere (e.g., Genzano et al. 2006; Chícharo et al. 2009; Marques et al. 2017). Moreover, polyps are known to recruit in salinities between 15 and 22 (Wintzer et al. 2011) and medusae production seems to be stimulated under low salinity conditions (Moore 1987).

The hydromedusae *Moerisia inkermanica* (Paranaguá 1963; Nogueira Júnior and Oliveira 2006), *Podocoryna loyola* (Haddad et al. 2014), and more recently *Cnidostoma fallax* (Nascimento 2016) have also been appointed as probably nonindigenous species. In spite of local studies since the 1980s, *P. loyola* hydroids were detected in 2007 growing on artificial substrata, and subsequently both polyps and medusae have been recurrently found on Brazilian subtropical estuaries (Nogueira Júnior 2012; Haddad et al. 2014; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2015b; Bettim and Haddad 2017), suggesting it has been introduced. *Cnidostoma fallax* has only recently been detected in Brazilian estuaries, but it seems widespread between ~24 and 34°S, occasionally dominating estuarine assemblages with recorded abundances up to 11,369 and 3,542 ind. m⁻³ at Patos Lagoon (Teixeira-Amaral et al. 2017) and Paranaguá Bay (Nascimento 2016), respectively. Considering the absence of *C. fallax* in the previous studies on these estuaries (Montú 1980; Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Lopes et al. 1998; Bardi 2011), it seems that this medusa appeared recently.

Although the species richness tends to be highest in portions of high and more stable salinity, most of these estuarine medusae species are euryhaline, occurring in a wide salinity range (Navas-Pereira 1980; Mesquita et al. 2006; Bardi 2011; Nogueira Júnior 2012; Nascimento 2016), with few species being considered exclusively estuarine or oceanic. Exceptions are Halitiara formosa and Moerisia inkermanica which occurred only in salinities <20 and are typically brackish-freshwater species, the latter commonly occurring in salinities down to 0 (Nogueira Júnior and Oliveira 2006; Bardi 2011). On the other hand, Bougainvillia frondosa, Amphinema australis, Protiara sp., Rhopalonema velatum, Clytia hemisphaerica, Aglauropsis kawari, and Aglaura hemistoma were only captured in salinities >30, and most of them are more common in shelf waters (Vannucci 1957, 1963; Nagata et al. 2014b), corroborating the hypothesis that they are nonresident species that can enter the estuary under specific conditions. Rhopalonema velatum and Aglaura hemistoma, for instance, are typical from the Tropical Water (Vannucci 1957, 1963, Navas-Pereira 1973; Nogueira Júnior and Brandini this volume) and reported inside estuaries only during winter (Navas-Pereira 1980; Bardi 2011; Nascimento 2016). The typical conditions for this season at these subtropical latitudes, such as low precipitation rates, high salinities, and frequent incidence of south winds favor their higher abundance in the inner shelf (Nagata et al. 2014b) and occasional entries into estuaries.

Some frequent euryhaline species are *Obelia* spp., *P. ornata*, and *L. tetraphylla*, the three occurring in lower salinities down to 10 and higher up to 37 for the latter species and to 34 for the two others (Bardi 2011; Nogueira Júnior 2012). Obelia spp. and P. ornata were very tolerant to diluted seawater in laboratory (Moreira 1978), showing decrease of the swimming movement only at salinity 20; at 15 they moved only after mechanical stimulation, and at salinity 10 the movements of the medusae stopped completely, but some of them were able to recover when placed again in appropriated conditions (Moreira 1978). In contrast, L. tetraphylla did not tolerate very low salinities, surviving well only in salinities above 20 (Moreira 1978). Obelia spp. have established populations in Brazilian estuaries, commonly occurring in all estuarine portions but often being more abundant in salinities >20 (Nascimento 2016). In the adjacent shelf, medusae from Obelia are also common and abundant, mostly associated with the Coastal Water (Nagata et al. 2014b; Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014). Proboscydactila ornata is a shelf water mass indicator (Vannucci 1957), occurring in the shelf more than 150 km far from the coast (Nogueira Júnior et al. 2014), although it is also found in coastal waters after strong winds or vertical mixing (Vannucci 1963), only occurring in outer portions of the estuary (Nascimento 2016). Similarly, L. tetraphylla is typically most abundant in intermediate and outer sectors with higher marine influences, being less abundant in inner portions (Pukanski 2011; Nascimento 2016).

3 Ctenophora

The study of the ctenophores is challenging mostly due to their large fragility and consequent difficulties for identification and quantification (Mianzan 1999). Nondestructive specific sampling techniques are highly recommended, but not

always possible to perform. Consequently, ctenophores are commonly understudied worldwide, which is particularly true for Brazilian waters where less than ten studies dealing with the phylum have been published (Oliveira et al. 2007, 2016). Regarding estuarine ecosystems, there are few scattered records of *Mnemiopsis leidyi* and *Beroe ovata* from tropical (~7°S, Singarajah 1978) and subtropical latitudes (~23–26°S, e.g., Montú and Cordeiro 1988, see Tables 1 and 2). Yet, these two species are expected to dwell in the majority, if not all, Brazilian estuarine environments, considering both their wide distribution on southwestern Atlantic (0–>40°S) and the wide environmental conditions they can withstand (Mianzan 1999; Costello et al. 2012). *Pleurobrachia* sp. has been recorded exclusively in the tropical Paraíba river estuary (Singarajah 1978), what may be a misidentification since in the southwestern Atlantic this genus is only known to occur in temperate Argentina (37–47°S, Mianzan 1999; Oliveira et al. 2016). Moreover, larvae of lobate ctenophores (e.g., *M. leidyi*) are morphologically similar to the adults of the cydippids as *Pleurobrachia* sp. (Oliveira et al. 2007), particularly for non-experts on the phylum.

Distributional and quantitative ecological data are almost completely nonexistent for Brazilian ctenophores whether they are estuarine or not. Summer densities between <1 and 14 ind. 10 m⁻³ were reported for *M. leidyi* at different subtropical estuaries (25–26°S, Oliveira 2007). Between November 2007 and August 2008 at Babitonga, *M. leidyi* peaked during early summer (January) and winter (August), with average densities in the main channel around 1.1–1.2 ind. 10 m⁻³ in both seasons; its biomass (wet weight), on the other hand, was considerably higher during winter (mean ~11 g 10 m⁻³) than summer (mean ~0.4 g 10 m⁻³) due to differences in the population structure, dominated by small juveniles during summer and larger individuals during winter (MNJ unpublished data). Detailed studies on Brazilian estuarine ctenophores such as population dynamics and biological parameters such as growth, reproduction and predation rates, including their relationship with the environment and other organisms, are lacking and strongly encouraged.

4 Chaetognatha

Only a few studies provide detailed quantitative accounts on Brazilian estuarine chaetognaths (Magalhães et al. 1996; Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Liang et al. 2003; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005; Mendes et al. 2012), apart from studies that dealt with the entire zooplankton community and presented brief additional information on the group (e.g., Krumme and Liang 2004; Araújo et al. 2008). Altogether, 14 chaetognath species have been recorded from Brazilian estuaries (Table 2), which represents 56% of the 25 species recorded from the whole Brazilian coast (Bonecker et al. 2017). This is a relatively high value, considering that most chaetognaths are regarded as typically oceanic and not expected to dwell in brackish waters (see below).

Species richness did not have any latitudinal tendency (Fig. 3a). This is not surprising considering chaetognath diversity remains relatively constant between 40°N

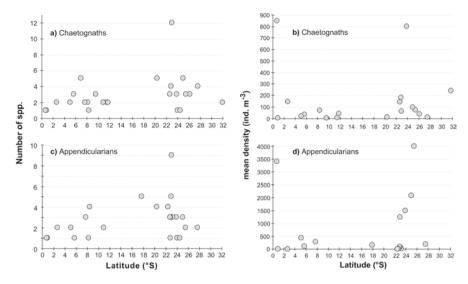


Fig. 3 Latitudinal trends of Brazilian estuarine chaetognath (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) and appendicularian (\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d}) species richness (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}) and mean density (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}) . See Table 1 for data sources

and 40°S in the Atlantic (Macpherson 2002). Moreover, even though up to 12 species have been recorded in a single estuary (Dias and Bonecker 2008), 79% of the estuaries harbor ≤ 3 species (Fig. 3a). However, it is important to emphasize that most, if not all, of the Brazilian estuaries, with a single chaetognath species recorded, have not been comprehensively studied and the records are from studies that focused mostly on crustaceans and analyzed only small aliquots of the samples (Lansac-Tôha and Lima 1993; Lopes 1994; Neumann-Leitão and Matsumura-Tundisi 1998; Cavalcanti et al. 2008; Costa et al. 2008). Hence, these studies may have missed scarce species. Furthermore, taxonomic confusion with the two Parasagitta species may also have occurred (see below). In any case, this low species richness is in general accordance with what is normally found at different tropical or subtropical brackish-water ecosystems worldwide, such as those from India (Srinivasan 1971, 1980), Pacific side of Costa Rica (Hossfeld 1996), Mexican Caribbean (Hernández et al. 2005), or subtropical China (Du et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2013). This reflects both the low diversity and the typical oceanic affinities of the phylum, with only a few species able to tolerate lower and variable salinities of estuaries (Srinivasan 1971, 1980; Boltovskoy 1975; Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991; Hossfeld 1996; Hernandéz et al. 2005). The relatively high diversity reported from the Ribeira Bay (12 spp., Dias and Bonecker 2008, Table 2, Fig. 3a) is an exception, probably related to the high openness and sea influence on this ecosystem where salinities are always >29 (Dias and Bonecker 2008). Most of these species are typical from outer shelf and oceanic waters (Liang 2002; Liang and Vega-Pérez 2001, 2002; Souza et al. 2014) and thus are not expected in most of the other less saline estuaries.

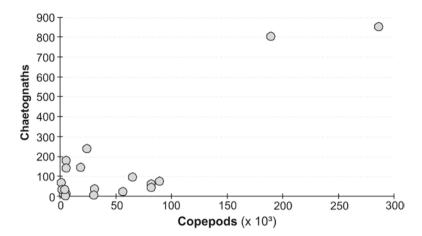


Fig. 4 Scatterplot between mean chaetognath and maximum copepod abundances (ind. m⁻³) from 19 Brazilian estuaries (see Table 1 for data source). Whenever possible, data was taken from the same study or year for both chaetognaths and copepods. Both variables have a significant positive correlation (Pearson, r = 0.85, n = 19, p < 0.05)

Chaetognath densities from different Brazilian estuaries vary a lot, without any clear latitudinal trend (Fig. 3b). In most ecosystems, maximum and mean densities are lower than 800 and 200 ind. m⁻³ respectively (Fig. 3b). The lowest densities are from Mundaú-Manguaba, with chaetognath triennial mean of 0.75 ind. m⁻³ and maximum values of ~5 ind. m⁻³ (Magalhães et al. 1996). Highest abundances were reported from Taperaçu and Santos estuaries with maximum chaetognath densities between 5,200 and 5,750 ind. m⁻³ and mean densities between 800 and 850 ind. m⁻³ (Fig. 3b, Costa et al. 2008; Pereira 2011). Due to data scarcity, it is difficult to determine the factors controlling such huge density differences, in some cases in ecosystems close to each other (see Fig. 3b), but food availability certainly plays an important role.

Copepods, typically the main prey item of chaetognaths (Vega-Pérez and Liang 1992; Liang and Vega-Pérez 1995; Sato et al. 2011), have very high abundances (maximum densities >190,000 ind. m⁻³, Costa et al. 2008; Pereira 2011) in the two estuarine systems with higher chaetognath abundances (Taperacu and Santos). On the other hand, in most of the estuaries with lower chaetognath abundances such as Caeté, Potengi, Itamaracá, Suape, Vitória and Sepetiba, copepod densities are also considerably lower, rarely exceeding 5,000 ind. m⁻³ (Sankarankutty et al. 1979, 1995; Navas-Pereira 1980; Neuman-Leitão and Matsumura-Tundisi 1998; Silva et al. 2003, 2004, Krumme and Liang 2004; Sterza and Loureiro Fernandes 2006). Indeed, mean and maximum chaetognath densities have a relatively high positive (r = 0.85 and 0.83, respectively) and significant (p < 0.05) correlation to maximum copepod abundance (Fig. 4). Yet, this trend must be seen with caution considering that the two ecosystems with very high abundances of both chaetognaths and copepods may bias the analysis and the tendency is not always valid. For instance, Tabatinga and Casqueira and Conceição estuaries sustain mid-to-high copepod densities (up to 30,000 and 56,000 ind. m⁻³, respectively) and relatively low chaetognath abundance levels (Sankarankutty et al. 1997; Marcolin 2008; Marcolin et al. 2010), suggesting that other factors are also important. Geomorphology of the estuary (e.g., degree of openness, depth), physical and biological characteristics (salinity variations, tidal circulation, temperature, quality of food, parasites, abundance of predators, etc.), and the intricate interactions between all of these factors have been shown to be important (Srinivasan 1971, 1980; Mulkana and McIlwain 1973; Grant 1977; Nair and Sankarankutty 1988; Hossfeld 1996; Tse et al. 2008), but data is mostly missing from Brazilian estuaries.

Parasagitta friderici, Flaccisagitta enflata and Parasagitta tenuis are the most common and widespread chaetognaths, reported between 60 and 64% of the 25 Brazilian estuaries with data available (Table 2, Fig. 5a). In addition, these species are also the most abundant ones; most sites are dominated by P. friderici and/or P. tenuis and a few by F. enflata (Fig. 6a). The two Parasagitta species have a wide distribution (Srinivasan 1971, 1980; Mclelland 1980, 1989; Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991) on coastal tropical to mid-temperate east Pacific and east and west Atlantic coasts, including the Mediterranean (P. friderici) or Indian estuaries and coastal open waters (P. tenuis). They are among the few chaetognath species restricted to and abundant at coastal waters (Srinivasan 1971, 1980; Boltovskov 1975; Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991; Hossfeld 1996; Casanova 1999), including brackish-water ecosystems. Indeed, they have been commonly found in salinities <15 (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Magalhães et al. 1996; Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005) and even in salinities <5 for P. friderici (Montú 1980; Liang et al. 2003), supporting the hypothesis that they are well-adapted to the brackishwater condition of estuaries maintaining permanent populations in many of them.

It is noteworthy that most estuaries in latitudes $<11.5^{\circ}$ S are dominated by P. tenuis, while most of those in latitudes >22°S are dominated by P. friderici (Fig. 6a). Exceptions are Paranaguá and Taperaçu and Caeté estuaries; in the former, both species are nearly equivalent in abundance (Miyashita et al. 2012; L.K. Miyashita personal communication), but P. friderici may dominate in some years (Lopes et al. 1998). Concerning the two latter estuaries, only P. friderici has been recorded (Fig. 6a, Table 2, Krumme and Liang 2004; Costa et al. 2008). It is difficult to determine the factors leading to such latitudinal shift, but a taxonomic caution is necessary here. These two species are morphologically very similar and their validity has been greatly discussed even with the proposition for their synonymization in the past (e.g., Pierce 1951; Furnestin 1957; Almeida-Prado 1961; Boltovskoy 1981). Currently, there is a relatively long-lasting consensus that both are valid separated species (e.g., Mclelland 1980, 1989; Casanova 1999; Thuesen 2009). Yet, in some of the Brazilian studies, both species were explicitly considered synonyms (Coelho-Botelho et al. 1999; Resgalla 2010), probably following the identification guide of Boltovskoy (1981). This may have been the case of other studies that did not disclose this particular piece of information. Therefore, this latitudinal shift may be an artifact of taxonomic problems. Detailed taxonomic studies, including morphological and molecular analyses from as many estuaries as possible, are recommended to test the validity of this latitudinal dominance shift from P. tenuis in tropical (~2-12°S) to P. friderici in subtropical (22–32°S) Brazilian estuaries (Fig. 6a).

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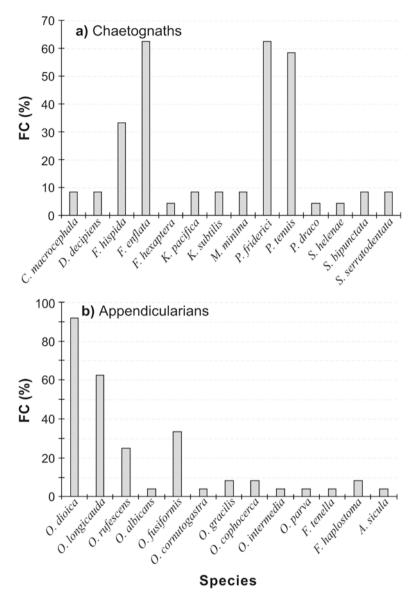


Fig. 5 Relative (%) number of Brazilian estuaries each chaetognath (a) and appendicularian (b) species have been recorded. 100% = 25 estuaries for chaetognaths and 24 for appendicularians

Flaccisagitta enflata is distributed worldwide between ca. 40°N and 40°S including both coastal and oceanic waters. It usually is considered as a typical oceanic epipelagic species (Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991; Casanova 1999), more associated with shelf and offshore warm Tropical Water off Brazil (Souza et al. 2014;

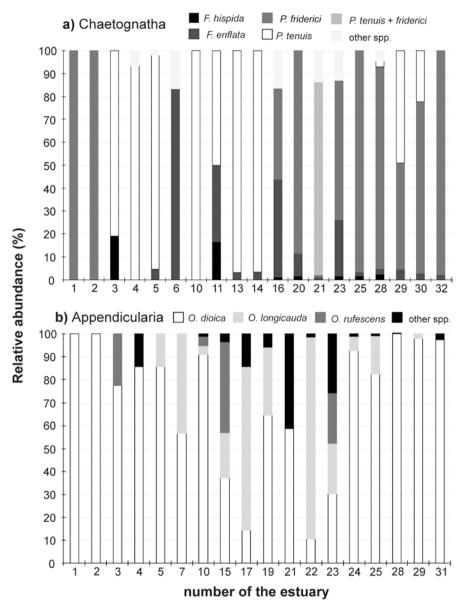


Fig. 6 Relative abundance (% of ind. m⁻³) of the dominant chaetognath (**a**) and appendicularian (**b**) species from different Brazilian estuaries. Numbers of the estuaries correspond to the numbers of Fig. 1 and Table 1. See the latter for data source. Coelho-Botelho et al. (1999) considered *P. friderici* as a junior synonym of *P. tenuis*, and thus it is not possible to know the contribution of each species

Nogueira Júnior and Brandini this volume). Nevertheless, *F. enflata* has frequently been reported from Brazilian brackish waters (Figs. 5a, 6a) and also from many brackish-water ecosystems worldwide (Srinivasan 1971, 1980; Mulkana and McIlwain 1973; Grant 1977; Hernandez et al. 2005; Du et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2013). It is the dominant species from Paraíba and Vitória estuaries, typically associated with the outer sectors and higher salinities (Singarajah 1978; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005).

Beyond these three abovementioned species, *Ferosagitta hispida* has been reported in ~36% of the Brazilian estuaries (Fig. 5a), usually in low densities (Fig. 6a). It is probably not resident from most of these estuaries but rather transported from open marine waters (Coelho-Botelho et al. 1999; Liang et al. 2003; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005; Pereira 2011). Yet, at São Marcos Bay (2.7°S) *F. hispida* reaches relatively high densities (up to ~89 ind. m⁻³, averaging 22 ± 34 ind. m⁻³) and can be found throughout the estuary (Bonecker and Dias 2009), representing ca. 20% of total chaetognath abundance (Fig. 6a) which seems in accordance with its tropical affinities (Casanova 1999). It is endemic from brackish, neritic, and oceanic Atlantic warm waters (Reeve 1970; Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991; Casanova 1999).

All the other 10 chaetognath species have been reported only from 1–2 sites each (<9%, Fig. 5a, Table 2), sporadically found near the mouth of the estuary in low abundances (<1 ind. m⁻³, e.g., Singarajah 1978; Coelho-Botelho et al. 1999; Liang et al. 2003; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005). These data indicate that they probably do not sustain permanent estuarine populations. Indeed, all these species typically have oceanic affinities (Pierrot-Bults and Nair 1991; Liang and Vega-Pérez 2001, 2002; Souza et al. 2014) and their occasional occurrence inside estuaries is probably related to tidal- and/or wind-driven transport from adjacent shelf (Nair and Sankarankutty 1988; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005).

Data on temporal dynamics of estuarine Brazilian chaetognaths is lacking for most ecosystems. The few available ones suggest that there is no clear general seasonal trend neither for total chaetognaths nor for dominant species, greatly varying between different environments and/or species. Seasonal variations were small or absent in some of the low-latitude (<7°S) estuaries, such as P. friderici from Taperaçu (Costa et al. 2008), F. enflata from Paraíba river (Singarajah 1978), and P. tenuis from Casqueira and Conceição rivers (Sankarankutty et al. 1997). Although, a slight peak in December was noticeable at the innermost stations but not in the others in the latter case (Sankarankutty et al. 1997). Parasagitta tenuis populations from other tropical estuaries may vary seasonally such as winter and/or summer peaks at Potengi estuary (Nair and Sankarankutty 1988; Sankaranutty et al. 1995, 1996), higher abundance during rainy (August) and dry (December) seasons at Tabatinga and Itapicurú rivers, respectively (Marcolin 2008), and October/ November peaks at Mundaú-Manguaba (Magalhães et al. 1996). This latter ecosystem was sampled through three consecutive years and in spite of great interannual abundance variations, the seasonal trend was analogous (Magalhães et al. 1996).

All information from higher latitudes (20–32°S) indicate seasonal variations, more commonly with densities peaking between spring and/or summer such as reported for Patos Lagoon (Montú 1980), Paranaguá (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Miyashita et al. 2012; Salvador and Bersano 2017), Cananéia (Liang et al. 2003)

and Santos bays (Pereira 2011). Some minor variations have also been reported, such as a winter smaller peak in Paranaguá (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Miyashita et al. 2012). While abundance peaks of both *P. friderici* and *F. enflata* are common during spring and/or summer in the outer sector of Guanabara Bay, in the innermost areas, they peak during winter because of the low salinities during summer associated with higher rainfall (Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Mendes et al. 2012). At Vitória Bay, differently, higher abundances for both *P. friderici* and *F. enflata* have been reported during winter and spring, with considerably lower densities during summer (Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005).

Biomass and production of Brazilian estuarine chaetognaths have not been evaluated in details, with the exception of *P. friderici* populations from Cananéia, where mean annual biomass is ca. 30 mg DW m⁻³, reaching daily means of up to 57 mg DW m⁻³ during summer, and mean annual production is of ~1 mg C m⁻³ d⁻ reaching up to ~4.5 mg C m⁻³ d⁻ (Liang et al. 2003). The few available data on reproductive dynamics show that all *P. friderici* developmental stages occur through the year at Guanabara and Cananéia, with dominance of adults and increased reproduction during spring followed by a recruitment peak mostly in summer (Mendes et al. 2012) or juvenile dominance throughout the year with three apparent annual cohorts (Liang et al. 2003) respectively. Three annual spawning peaks (May, September and December) have also been recorded for *P. tenuis* in the Potengi estuary, where juveniles and developing individuals can be found through the year and mature ones occur sporadically, mostly during winter (Nair and Sankarankutty 1988).

Apart from seasonal dynamics, small-scale temporal variations (e.g., lunar, nictemeral, tidal cycles) may be large (Sankarankutty et al. 1979; Liang et al. 2003; Mendes et al. 2012) and particularly important considering the high level of these short-scale variations in the estuarine physical environment, mainly controlled by the tidal patterns and ultimately by the salinity. In general, higher species richness and densities of chaetognaths have been found more typically during high tide (Sankarankutty et al. 1979; Nair and Sankarankutty 1988; Loureiro-Fernandes et al. 2005; Marcolin 2008) tending to positively correlate with tidal height (Liang et al. 2003). However, greater densities of *P. friderici* have been reported during ebb at Itapicurú estuary (Marcolin 2008).

Neither vertical nor horizontal distribution of Brazilian estuarine chaetognaths has been evaluated in details thus far, but the few data available indicate that abundance tend to be higher closer to the estuary mouth (Montú 1980; Pekala 1980; Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Sankarankutty et al. 1997; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005), a pattern similar to other estuaries elsewhere (e.g., Grant 1977; Srinivasan 1980), probably associated with higher sea influence. Still, *P. friderici* is highly resistant to low salinities (see above) and commonly found in the inner portions, being probably a permanent resident in estuaries (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Loureiro Fernandes et al. 2005). In addition, wind patterns (e.g., Hernández et al. 2005) along with tidal cycles can be particularly important in the horizontal distribution of estuarine chaetognaths probably increasing their extent (as well as abundance; see above) during flood and decreasing in the ebb, which obviously will also be influenced by the geomorphology of the estuary and the flow of the tidal current. Interactions between spatial and seasonal factors in the abun-

dances may occur (Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Sankarankutty et al. 1997; Miyashita et al. 2012), resulting in different seasonal cycles for different parts of the estuary; for instance, as commented above, at Guanabara outer sector chaetognaths peak during summer and/or winter, but in the innermost areas, peaks have been recorded only during winter, apparently constrained by low salinities during summer (Marazzo and Nogueira 1996; Mendes et al. 2012).

5 Appendicularia

Similar to the previous taxa, information on Brazilian estuarine appendicularians is derived mostly from general zooplankton studies which provide variable and usually superficial information about the group (e.g., Bonecker and Dias 2009; Miyashita et al. 2012; Salvador and Bersano 2017). A total of 13 appendicularian species have been recorded from Brazilian estuaries (Table 2), which represents 37% of the 35 species recorded from Brazil (Rocha et al. 2017). Similar to the chaetognaths, no latitudinal trend in the appendicularian species richness can be noticed (Fig. 3c), which is in accordance with the relatively constant species richness of the group in the Atlantic Ocean between $\sim 40^{\circ}$ N and 40° S (Macpherson 2002).

Appendicularian species richness from Brazilian brackish-water environments is usually low (Fig. 3c). Up to 9 species have been recorded from a single estuary, but 75% of them harbor 1–3 species (Fig. 3c), which is in general accordance to other estuaries worldwide (Brunetti et al. 1990; Spinelli et al. 2009; Du et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2013). Although deep temperate estuaries such as Toyama Bay, Japan, may harbor considerably higher number of species including the presence of many oceanic epipelagic and deepwater species (Tomita et al. 2003). Similar to the chaetognaths, most of the Brazilian estuaries with a single species recorded have not been comprehensively studied, and the records are derived from studies focusing on crustaceans that analyzed only small aliquots of the samples (e.g., Lopes 1994; Cavalcanti et al. 2008; Costa et al. 2008) and that may have missed rarer species. In any case, the class Appendicularia is not particularly diversified (Esnal 1999; Rocha et al. 2017), and, in parallel to the observed for chaetognaths, highest species richness at Ribeira Bay probably reflects the higher openness and sea influence on this ecosystem (see above).

No latitudinal pattern has been observed for appendicularian densities (Fig. 3d). In most estuaries from Brazil, maximum and mean densities are lower than 1,000 and 280 ind. m⁻³, respectively. The lowest densities are from São Marcos Bay, never exceeding 1 ind. m⁻³, yet these estimates were made from a single sampling campaign (Bonecker and Dias 2009) and probably have missed the full extent of local abundance variability. Low appendicularian densities have also been reported from Caeté (mean of 0.65 and up to 4.5 ind. m⁻³, Krumme and Liang 2004) and from Perequê-Açu, Sepetiba, Macaé, São João, and Itapicuru (mean densities between 5 and 20 ind. m⁻³, Fig. 3d). Highest densities have been reported from Cananéia, Santos, Ribeira and Taperaçu, with mean densities between 1190 and 3400 ind. m⁻³ (Fig. 3d) and maximum between ~13,000 and 31,550 ind. m⁻³.

Oikopleura dioica and Oikopleura longicauda are the most common species, respectively, reported from 91.7 and 66.7% of the 24 estuaries considered for the group (Fig. 5b, Table 2). These two species also are by far the most abundant appendicularian, particularly the former which represent ≥70% of total appendicularian abundance in ~60% of the estuaries (Fig. 6b). The latter species represented around 80 and 90% of all appendicularians at Macaé and Bracuí rivers, respectively, and 43% at Itamaracá (Fig. 6b). This is similar to the observed elsewhere in the world where O. dioica and/or O. longicauda are common and typically the dominant appendicularian species in brackish-water ecosystems from temperate (Brunetti et al. 1990 Spinelli et al. 2009), subtropical (Du et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2013) and tropical areas (Hopcroft and Roff 1998; Hoover et al. 2006). Both O. dioica and O. longicauda are abundant and widely distributed throughout South Atlantic up to ~55 and 60°S, respectively (Esnal 1999). Both species have coastal affinities, but while the latter is neritic and oceanic (Esnal and Castro 1977), commonly being the dominant species at the inner shelf off Brazil (Tundisi 1970; Miyashita and Lopes 2011), O. dioica is more neritic/estuarine being usually the most abundant appendicularian in brackish-water ecosystems (Figs. 5b, 6b). Along Brazil, O. dioica is commonly found in salinities <20 (e.g., Lopes et al. 1998; Miyashita et al. 2012; Bonecker and Dias 2009) and occasionally even in salinities down to nearly zero (Coelho-Botelho et al. 1999), being rarely found in offshore waters under oceanic influence (Tundisi 1970; Esnal and Castro 1977).

Apart from these two abovementioned appendicularians, Oikopleura fusiformis has been found in 33% of the estuaries and Oikopleura rufescens in 25% (Fig. 5b). The last one contributed up to ca. 40% (Fig. 6b) to the total appendicularian abundance at Caravelas (mean of 26 and up to 242 ind. m⁻³, Carvalho and Bonecker 2010) and around 20% at São Marcos and Ribeira Bays, reaching densities up to 1,990 ind. m⁻³ in the latter (Dias and Bonecker 2008; Bonecker and Dias 2009, Fig. 6b). Oikopleura fusiformis also can reach relatively high densities at Ribeira Bay (up to 849 ind. m⁻³, Dias and Bonecker 2008); however its relative contribution to total appendicularian abundances is typically low (<5%), and low densities (mean < 1 ind. m⁻³) have been reported from all other estuaries this species has been recorded (Coelho-Botelho et al. 1999; Carvalho and Bonecker 2010; Carvalho et al. 2016). All the other nine appendicularian species have been reported only from 1–2 estuaries (<9%, Fig. 5b, Table 2), in lower abundances in the outer sectors, probably not maintaining permanent populations. These species typically have more oceanic affinities and are more common and abundant on salinities >35 (Tundisi 1970; Miyashita and Lopes 2011; Carvalho et al. 2016). Their eventual presence in estuaries probably is resultant of advective processes transporting them from the adjacent shelf.

With a few exceptions (e.g., Esnal et al. 1985), temporal dynamics of appendicularians from Brazilian estuaries have not been evaluated in details. The few data available suggest different patterns for different ecosystems and/or species. At Taperaçu, the unique available data very close to the Equator, *O. dioica* remain in similarly high densities (~3,000–3,800 ind. m⁻³) both in the dry and rainy seasons (Costa et al. 2008). Southward (~5–11°S), at Casqueira and Conceição (Sankarankutty et al. 1997), Potengi (Esnal et al. 1985), and Tabatinga (Marcolin 2008), appendicular-

ians, mostly O. dioica, tend to be more abundant between September and March, corresponding to the summer-dry season. Yet, variations also occur such as (i) a smaller winter peak of O. dioica at Casqueira and Conceição (Sankarankutty et al. 1997) and Potengi (Esnal et al. 1985), depending on the tide and/or the location within the estuary, (ii) O. longicauda peaking in the rainy season and no clear seasonal pattern for O. dioica at Itamaracá (Porto Neto et al. 1999), and (iii) Oikopleura spp. more abundant in the beginning of the rainy season at Itapicuru (Marcolin 2008). Further south at Caravelas, the dominant species O. dioica and O. rufescens also tended to peak during the dry season, which in this region correspond to the months between May and October; however the very high standard deviations observed (Carvalho and Bonecker 2010) clearly indicate a high variability between different sampling campaigns. Data from subtropical latitudes such as Santos (Pereira 2011), Guaraú (Lopes 1994), Paranaguá (Montú and Cordeiro 1988; Miyashita et al. 2012; Salvador and Bersano 2017) and Babitonga (MNJ unpublished) suggest higher appendicularian abundances typically during spring and/or summer, occasionally with a second smaller peak during winter.

Larger scales of temporal variability have not been addressed in details, but data from Salvador and Bersano (2017) suggest abundance variations of 1.5 to 2 times between 2 consecutive years at Paranaguá. Small-scale temporal variations have also not been evaluated in details, except for the Potengi estuary, where *O. dioica* reaches highest abundances during low tide, particularly at night, and *O. longicauda* only appear during high tide (Esnal et al. 1985), supporting the estuarine affinities of the former species.

Biomass and secondary production of Brazilian estuarine appendicularians have not been evaluated at all but probably are significative considering the high abundances they may attain in some of these ecosystems (Fig. 3d) and the typical high production rates of appendicularians from warm waters (Hopcroft and Roff 1998). For instance, estimates from subtropical Brazilian shallow shelf indicate appendicularian secondary production represents 77% that of the copepods (Miyashita and Lopes 2011). Regarding population dynamics, the only data available is from Potengi, with the presence of both mature and juvenile *O. dioica* throughout the year, indicating a continuous reproductive period, but with mature individuals attaining smaller sizes during winter (Esnal et al. 1985). It is interesting to note a consistent nictemeral pattern throughout the year, with mature individuals predominating at night, being nearly absent during day, and juveniles dominating during day and representing only around 10% of the nighttime population (Esnal et al. 1985).

6 Thaliacea

Studies reporting thaliaceans from Brazilian estuaries are quite few and five species have been recorded thus far (Table 2), apart from some unidentified records (e.g., Sterza and Loureiro Fernandes 2006; Araújo et al. 2008). Although local studies on the group are quite scant, this low diversity is not expected to increase considerably, since thaliaceans are not particularly species-rich. There are only 81 species

currently recognized as valid worldwide (Purushothaman et al. 2017) and most of them are typical from outer shelf and oceanic areas, not tolerating brackish estuarine waters (Esnal and Daponte 1999a, b). *Doliolum nationalis*, *Dolioletta gegenbauri*, and *Thalia democratica* are among the few thaliaceans that thrive in coastal waters (e.g., Paffenhöfer and Lee 1987; Paffenhöfer et al. 1995; Menard et al. 1997; Nakamura 1998) and also are the most commonly reported from Brazilian estuaries. Aside from salinity variations, coastal and estuarine waters are particularly problematic for salps considering their filters clog under high concentrations of particulate organic matter (Bone 1998; Esnal and Daponte 1999a) which is common of estuarine high productive waters.

The salp *T. democratica* and the doliolids *D. gegenbauri* and *D. nationalis* are common and abundant in open coastal and offshore waters throughout most of the Brazilian coast (Tavares 1967; Esnal and Daponte 1999a, b; Nogueira Júnior and Brandini this volume) and also in many regions of the world (Purushothaman et al. 2017), mostly in open waters. Their presence inside Brazilian estuaries is quite occasional (Pereira 2011; Nogueira Júnior 2012), suggesting they do not maintain resident populations but are rather transported from adjacent shelf waters. Truly, they are mostly associated with the outer sectors of the estuaries where salinities are generally higher, but *T. democratica* and *D. nationalis* have occasionally been found in salinities down to ~21 and 26, respectively (Nogueira Júnior 2012; MNJ unpublished).

While both doliolid species have always been found in very low numbers, *T. democratica*, though not frequent, usually found in <15% of the samples, may represent a considerable fraction of the gelatinous zooplankton assemblage (Nogueira Júnior 2012; Martinez et al. 2015), reaching densities of up to 600 and 3,330 ind. 10 m⁻³ at Babitonga and Cananéia estuaries respectively (MNJ unpublished). Such high concentrations are probably related with high rates of asexual reproduction (aggregate zooids asexually produced normally dominate these estuarine aggregations), along with its capacity to tolerate broad changes in environmental conditions (Bone 1998; Gibbons 1997; Esnal and Daponte 1999a). Their spatial and temporal dynamics have not been explored but are probably related to local wind and tide patterns along with geomorphological aspects, such as the degree of openness of the estuary. The fate of these estuarine aggregations justifies detailed investigation, to test whether these populations do not persist inside the estuaries because they perish (and then sink and enrich the estuarine benthos) or because they are transported back to open waters during ebb.

7 Conclusions

A total of 104 gelatinous and semi-gelatinous zooplankton species have been recorded from Brazilian estuaries, 70 cnidarians, 2 ctenophores, 14 chaetognaths, 13 appendicularians and 5 thaliaceans (Table 2). All major taxa are understudied, and detailed taxonomic and/or quantitative information is not available for most of the numerous Brazilian estuarine ecosystems. Despite this, the number of

siphonophores, ctenophores, chaetognaths, appendicularians, and thaliaceans species from Brazilian estuaries is not expected to increase considerably with increasing sampling effort since most of these taxa are not particularly speciesrich and typically have oceanic affinities, with only a few species occurring in estuarine ecosystems. The same is not true for meroplanktonic hydrozoans, particularly those from the orders Anthoathecata and Leptothecata which are diversified in coastal environments with several species tolerating lower and variable salinities of estuaries, representing ~28 and 18%, respectively, of all species recorded here, and whose diversity is probably underestimated due to the lack of data and thus probably will increase considerably with increasing sampling effort, particularly from the less studied tropical estuaries.

For all higher taxa, higher abundances and diversity tend to occur in the outer sectors of the estuaries, because of the higher marine influence and sporadic occurrence of nonresident species, transported by tidal and/or wind processes from the adjacent shelf to inside the estuaries. Density peaks are more common between spring and summer, especially for estuaries from subtropical latitudes (20–32°S), probably due to the nutrient enrichment associated with higher rainfall in these seasons at those latitudes. However, a great variation has been reported from different years, locations, and/or species, which seems to be more related to specific environmental preferences, tolerances, and favorable conditions for their occurrence within estuaries. In lower latitudes (0 to ~11°S), patterns are even more variable, with absence of seasonal variations or peaks in the rainy or dry seasons, but they were less studied. Larger-scale temporal variations, such as interannual and interdecadal changes, have not been explored in details yet, although preliminary data (Nascimento 2016; Salvador and Bersano 2017; Teixeira-Amaral et al. 2017) suggest they may be large. Similarly, small-scale temporal analyses also have been only superficially evaluated. Most typically, chaetograths tend to increase abundance with the high tide, while the unique available data for appendicularians indicate the opposite. There is no such data for the other gelatinous taxa.

Among cnidarians, the most abundant and ubiquitous species are the holoplanktonic L. tetraphylla and the meroplanktonic Clytia spp. and Obelia spp. along with P. loyola and C. fallax on subtropical estuaries which are considerably best studied. The Scyphomedusae C. lactea and L. lucerna also are common throughout Brazilian estuaries and may attain high biomass, but quantitative studies are lacking. Nearly nothing is known on ctenophores, but both M. leidyi and B. ovata are probably widespread and resident from most, if not all, Brazilian estuaries. No latitudinal trend was found for species richness or abundance neither for chaetognaths nor appendicularians, with most estuaries harboring between one and three species of each taxa. Parasagitta friderici and Parasagitta tenuis are the most widespread and abundant chaetognaths, and an apparent latitudinal shift in their dominance must be carefully tested since it may be resultant from taxonomic problems. Oikopleura dioica and Oikopleura longicauda are the most ubiquitous appendicularians, particularly the former species reported from >90% of the estuaries and most commonly being the dominant species. Thaliaceans have only a few scattered records and probably do not maintain permanent populations inside these estuaries, being transported from the adjacent shelf. Yet, *Thalia democratica* may reach dense aggregations apparently associated with high rates of asexual reproduction.

Basically, any future research on estuarine gelatinous and semi-gelatinous zoo-plankton from Brazil would be welcome. Species composition is the best-known aspect, but efforts are still necessary, particularly regarding the cnidarians, which are more species-rich, and tropical estuaries which have been less studied and potentially are highly diversified. Abundance data and its temporal variations in many different scales (e.g., tidal, nictemeral, seasonal, interannual, etc.), along with environmental data and prey and/or predator levels, are mostly available for a few subtropical estuaries. Long-term monitoring programs may be particularly interesting considering the presence of exotic species, some of them apparently well-established, in order to track possible changes in abundances and/or species composition and predict their effects on the ecosystem. Studies on any biological parameter (i.e., reproduction, population dynamics, life cycle, secondary production, feeding rates, trophic interactions, etc.) with rare exceptions are missing and should also be emphasized in the future, particularly associating field data with laboratory experiments.

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