

Review

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Filling a gap: predators becoming prey. A revision of teuthivorous Mediterranean predators

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Abstract

A review was carried out of studies on the diet of various Mediterranean teuthivorous predators (marine mammals, chondrichthyans, osteichthyans, seabirds, turtles, crustaceans, and cephalopods) and their cephalopod prey. Data extracted from the literature were analysed using multivariate statistical techniques. Three distinct groups of predators were identified according to the cephalopod species consumed. The most common prey of the predators are the ‘unidentified Cephalopoda’, followed by the sepiolid *Heteroteuthis dispar* and the ommastrephid squid *Illex coindetii*. The most important cephalopod predators are the striped dolphin, *Stenella coeruleoalba*, the chondrichthyans *Scyliorhinus canicula* and *Galeus melastomus*, the swordfish *Xiphias gladius*, and the ommastrephid squid *Todarodes sagittatus*. The dietary preferences of the different teutophages, their geographical distribution and some ecological implications are discussed.

Introduction

Cephalopod prey play a crucial role in many trophic webs and is consumed in tonnes (Clarke, 1996) despite the fact that cephalopods are much less diverse than finfish and crustaceans. It should be noted that there are about 70 species of cephalopods in the Mediterranean (of which 57 are autochthonous and 13 are suspected to be non-indigenous; Bello *et al.*, 2020) compared with 650 species of finfish and 2251 of crustaceans (Coll *et al.*, 2010). This may indicate the abundance and high biodiversity of cephalopod communities, as in other North-eastern Atlantic places (Bay of Biscay, North Sea, or Irish Sea; Lordan *et al.*, 1996; Oesterwind *et al.*, 2010; Velasco *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, some large predators became specialised in a strictly or predominantly teuthivorous or teuthofagous diet, such as the cosmopolitan Risso’s dolphin, *Grampus griseus* (G. Cuvier, 1812) (Hartman, 2018; Luna *et al.*, 2022). Both oceanic and demersal cephalopods are widely preyed upon in all oceans, although the former appear to attain a biomass-wise predominant role in marine food webs with respect to the latter (Clarke, 1996). From this standpoint, oceanic ones can be considered ubiquitous prey items (Boyle and Rodhouse, 2005).

Cephalopods play a key role in the world’s marine ecosystems (Boyle and Rodhouse, 2005). Large cephalopods (*Taningia danae* Joubin, 1931, *Nototeuthis dimegacotyle* Nesis & Nikitina, 1986 – Navarro *et al.*, 2013 – and *Gonatus* J. E. Gray, 1849 in Arctic waters – Golikov *et al.*, 2022, 2018) have isotopic values that are similar to those of sperm whales or some dolphins in the same oceanic area (Das *et al.*, 2003, 2000), acting as top predators in some systems, preying on large fishes and other cephalopods. They are important consumers (Clarke, 1996), and oceanic squids in particular are valuable prey items for many top marine predators such as large bony fishes, sharks, marine mammals, and seabirds (Clarke, 1996; Croxall, Prince and Clarke, 1996; Klages and Clarke, 1996; Smale and Clarke, 1996). Octopuses, however, are voracious mesopredators that play a key role in coastal marine food webs, thanks to their ability to adapt well to a dynamic, constantly changing environment with an abundance of prey types (Lankow, 2022). In addition, cephalopods are fast-growing animals that optimise their food intake energy-wise and, in turn, act as efficient energy transmitters in food webs from bottom feeders to large predators (Amaratunga, 1983).

The examination of cephalopods ingested by predators provides information not only about the predators themselves (e.g., biology, biomass, population composition, size-frequency), but also about their feeding habits (Villanueva *et al.*, 2017), habitats and ecological niches (Roscian *et al.*, 2022), and their phylogenetic and ecological drivers (Sánchez-Márquez *et al.*, 2022). Currently, dietary studies, combined with stable isotope techniques, allow the trophic position of specimens to be inferred, opening up a wide range of new possibilities in ecological, biogeographical, fisheries and environmental studies (Xavier *et al.*, 2022).

The purpose of this paper is to review the available information on the dietary preferences and feeding behaviour of teuthivorous predators in the Mediterranean Sea. We present this

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article at a regional rather than a global level for one main reason: historically, in the Mediterranean important studies on the diet of different predators have been carried out. Besides, a global approach would obviously be extremely difficult to accomplish. This work opens a window on a very important aspect, not only in terms of knowledge of the relationships in the ecological web between predators and prey cephalopods, but also in filling a gap that fisheries data cannot provide, data that can be used in the management of marine resources. They also provide information on the feeding strategies and behaviour of many species, highlighting where possible the presence of alien species. We focus on the Mediterranean as a case study, approached from a selection of Mediterranean teuthivorous predators, because the world literature on cephalopods as predators and prey is quite extensive.

Materials and methods

The literature relating to the diet of marine predators in the entire Mediterranean Sea was reviewed. We have tried to include as many studies as possible on the diets of these Mediterranean teutophagous species. The specific criterion used for the bibliographic searches is to find out which teuthivorous predators are present in the Mediterranean and what prey species they eat. The keywords used were 'diet', 'feeding', 'teutophagous predators', 'teuthivorous predators', 'teuthivores predators', 'cephalopods diet', 'cephalopods feeding', 'Mediterranean', and the names (scientific and common) of the different predators (Supplementary Table S1). The following search engines, bibliographic repositories, and platforms were used to search specific databases: PROA (ICM-CSIC), University of Vigo's Interlibrary Loan Service, Google Academic and Web of Science. The search was conducted in 2024, in several languages (English, Italian, Spanish and French). Due to the paucity of data in the articles on this topic, none were excluded from the results. There is therefore a significant collection of articles here, many of which are not indexed in electronic bibliographic search engines. We want to provide an outlet for these articles so that the information they contain, which is very valuable for dietary studies, is captured. Many of the papers reviewed do not have standardised data because they are old or grey literature, and some of them do not follow standards in data collection. Older publications do not have all the information needed for this type of work. For example, some of them lack biomass, so in some cases they only have frequency data (Bello, 1985; Bingel and Avsar, 1988; Würtz and Palumbo, 1985). So, to make this information available at a glance, we have focused on the most important predators in terms of abundance in the area, number of studies focusing on them and type of feeding habits, giving priority to predators that are considered to be mainly teuthivorous. All available data were extracted from them to carry out the analyses. Of these papers, 120 were found to relate to cephalopod predators (Supplementary material).

Statistical techniques were used to investigate trends in the diet of these predators. A matrix of the presence and absence of cephalopod predators and their prey was constructed. Neither the percentage of occurrence nor the biomass (in terms of number and/or weight of prey) of ingested cephalopods was reported, as such data are only partially available and, in many cases, difficult to compare. We used PRIMER statistical software to perform multivariate analyses on prey species data (Clarke and Warwick, 1994). Cluster analysis was performed on the presence/absence data using the normalised Euclidean distance index, and dendrograms were constructed using the group-average clustering method. The resulting similarity matrices were then used to perform non-metric

multidimensional scaling (nMDS). To make the results clearer, only predators with more than 12 different cephalopod prey items in their stomachs were included in this latter analysis.

To confirm the literature findings, the distribution of prey and predators was compared to see if the identified cephalopods had the same distribution as the identified teuthivorous predators (see Table 1 and Supplementary Table S1). Only species distributions are shown, as there may be different distribution patterns within the same family or genus, which would add uncertainty to the discussion of these results. Species distributions have been extracted from WoRMS Editorial Board (2025), except in certain specified cases as for the distribution of bony fishes, where the work of Hureau and Monod (1979) has been followed, or for cephalopods, where FAO volumes have generally been followed (Jereb and Roper, 2005, 2010; Jereb *et al.*, 2016 (see Table 1). Information on the feeding behaviour of selected predators throughout the Mediterranean, inferred from their prey cephalopods, is also reported in the discussion (e.g., Bello, 1994; Bello and Biagi, 1995; among others).

Results

In the Mediterranean Sea, eight marine mammals, two turtles, 23 chondrichthyans, two birds, 26 bony fishes, nine cephalopods and three crustaceans have been reported as consumers of cephalopods (Figure 1). This does not mean that there are no other cephalopod predators, just that they are not yet known or studied. The results show the most important teuthivorous only in terms of prey variety (i.e., not in terms of quantity). For the same reason, it is not possible to determine which is the most abundant prey in terms of quantity, but only in terms of frequency of occurrence. According to the literature consulted, at least 46 different cephalopod species have been identified among the remains recovered from the digestive tracts of predators. Other remains could only be assigned to taxa above the species level, i.e., seven to the genus level, seven to the family level and two to the order level; some others could only be assigned to the class Cephalopoda (Table 1).

The results of the cluster analysis and the nMDS (Figure 2) do not show the occurrence of defined groups of predator species, except for the separation of *Stenella coeruleoalba* (Meyen, 1833), *G. griseus* and *Xiphias gladius* Linnaeus, 1758 with respect to the other species. In the case of nMDS, in addition to the three species mentioned above, a group of species slightly separated from the main cluster is observed. The nMDS (Figure 3) allows three groups of large cephalopod predators to be distinguished. One is clearly formed by the largest cephalopod consumers, in terms of diversity of consumed prey: *S. coeruleoalba*, *G. griseus* and *X. gladius*. Of the 65 prey items identified, *S. coeruleoalba* consumed 68.9% of the total number of possible prey items, and *G. griseus* and *X. gladius* 62.3%. The next group is made up of *Scyliorhinus canicula* (Linnaeus, 1758) (which consumed 44.3% of the possible prey items), *Galeus melastomus* Rafinesque, 1810 (37.7%) and *Thunnus alalunga* (Bonnaterre, 1788) (32.8%). The third group is formed by *Thunnus thynnus* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Tursiops truncatus* (Montagu, 1821) (both consumed 26.2%), *Coryphaena hippurus* Linnaeus, 1758 (24.6%), *Etmopterus spinax* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Todarodes sagittatus* (Lamarck, 1798) (both with 23.0%), followed by *Squalus blainville* (Risso, 1827), *Lophius budegassa* Spinola, 1807 and *Conger conger* (Linnaeus, 1758), which consumed 19.7% of the total documented prey species.

When analysing prey cephalopods, Table 1 shows that *Heteroteuthis dispar* (Rüppell, 1844) and *Illex coindetii* (Vérany,

Table 1. Cephalopods identified in the predators' stomachs in the literature (see Supplementary Table S1)

Prey species	Distribution	Predator species
<i>Abralia veranyi</i>	Atl, Med	<i>Grampus griseus</i> , <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Galeus melastomus</i> , <i>Etmopterus spinax</i> , <i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i> , <i>Squalus blainville</i> , <i>Conger conger</i> , <i>Lepidopus caudatus</i> , <i>Xiphias gladius</i>
<i>Abraliopsis morisii</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Alloteuthis media</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>Mustelus mustelus</i> , <i>Raja clavata</i> , <i>Merluccius merluccius</i> , <i>Phycis blennoides</i> , <i>Lophius budegassa</i> , <i>Trisopterus capellanus</i> , <i>Pagellus erythrinus</i> , <i>Todarodes sagittatus</i> , <i>Eledone cirrhosa</i>
<i>Alloteuthis subulata</i>	NE Atl, Med	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Thunnus alalunga</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i>
<i>Ancistroteichus alessandrinii</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> , <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>Thunnus thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>Tetrapturus belone</i>
<i>Ancistroteuthis lichtensteinii</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>Coryphaena hippurus</i> , <i>Micromesistius poutassou</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i> , <i>Lophius piscatorius</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Argonauta argo</i>	Atl, Med, Ind, Pac	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i>
<i>Bathypolypus sponsalis</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>Monachus monachus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>L. piscatorius</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Brachioleuthis riisei</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Pinnoctopus macropus</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>Careta caretta</i> , <i>Muraena helena</i>
Cephalopoda spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>Delphinus delphis</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>Centroscyllium coelelepis</i> , <i>Mustelus punctulatus</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>Raja polystigma</i> , <i>Dasyatis pastinaca</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>P. erythrinus</i> , <i>Pagrus pagrus</i> , <i>Lepidion lepidion</i> , <i>Alepocephalus rostratus</i> , <i>Trachinus draco</i> , <i>Lagocephalus scellarus</i> , <i>Alloteuthis media</i> , <i>Loligo vulgaris</i> , <i>Loligo forbesii</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>Illex coindetii</i> , <i>Octopus vulgaris</i> , <i>Octopus saluti</i> , <i>E. cirrhosa</i> , <i>Eledone moschata</i> , <i>Bathypolypus sponsalis</i> , <i>Aristaeomorpha foliacea</i>
Chiroteuthidae spp.^a		<i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>Dalatias licha</i>
<i>Chiroteuthis veranii</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i>
<i>Chtenopteryx sicula</i>	Atl, Med	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>E. spinax</i>
Cranchiidae spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Cranchia scabra</i>	Circumglobal	<i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Eledone cirrhosa</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>M. monachus</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>Scyliorhinus stellaris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>E. cirrhosa</i>
<i>Eledone moschata</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>M. monachus</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>M. punctulatus</i> , <i>Lamna nasus</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>O. vulgaris</i> , <i>E. moschata</i>
Enoploteuthidae spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i>
<i>Galiteuthis armata</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Heteroteuthis dispar</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>Prionace glauca</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>C. coelelepis</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>Raja asterias</i> , <i>Raja montagui</i> , <i>Leucoraja circularis</i> , <i>Chimaera monstrosa</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>Mora moro</i> , <i>Helicolenus dactylopterus</i> , <i>P. erythrinus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>Geryon longipes</i>
<i>Histioteuthis bonnellii</i>	Atl, Med, Ind, Pac	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Histioteuthis reversa</i>	Atl, Med,	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>A. foliacea</i>
Histioteuthis spp.		<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>Globicephala melas</i> , <i>D. delphis</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>C. coelelepis</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i>
<i>Illex coindetii</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>M. punctulatus</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>D. pastinaca</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>M. poutassou</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>I. coindetii</i>
<i>Loligo forbesii</i>	NE Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>I. coindetii</i>
Loligo spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>D. delphis</i> , <i>M. monachus</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>Saurida undosquamis</i> , <i>Lagocephalus scellarus</i> , <i>L. vulgaris</i>

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Prey species	Distribution	Predator species
<i>Loligo vulgaris</i>	E Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>M. punctulatus</i> , <i>M. mustelus</i> , <i>Carcharhinus plumbeus</i> , <i>L. nasus</i> , <i>Pteroplatytrygon violacea</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>M. poutassou</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>P. erythrinus</i> , <i>Lagocephalus scellarus</i> , <i>L. vulgaris</i> , <i>O. vulgaris</i>
<i>Mastigoteuthis</i> spp. ?		<i>G. griseus</i>
<i>Megalocranchia</i> sp.		<i>G. griseus</i>
<i>Neorossia caroli</i>	Atl, Med	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>I. coindetii</i>
Octopodidae spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>D. delphis</i> , <i>Larus audouinii</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>Phycis phycis</i> , <i>A. foliacea</i>
<i>Octopoteuthis sicula</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Octopus salutii</i>	NE Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>S. blainville</i>
<i>Octopus vulgaris sensu stricto</i>	NE Atl, Med ^b	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>M. monachus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>C. plumbeus</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>M. helena</i> , <i>P. pagrus</i> , <i>Lagocephalus scellarus</i> , <i>O. vulgaris</i>
<i>Ocythoe tuberculata</i>	Atl, Med, Ind, Pac	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i>
Oegopsida spp.		<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>L. audouinii</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>C. coelolepis</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>L. vulgaris</i> , <i>L. forbesii</i> , <i>A. foliacea</i> , <i>Aristeus antennatus</i>
<i>Ommastrephes caroli</i>	N Atl, Med ^b	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>G. melas</i> , <i>D. delphis</i> , <i>C. coelolepis</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i>
Ommastrephidae spp.		<i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>A. foliacea</i>
Onychoteuthidae spp.		<i>G. melas</i> , <i>D. delphis</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i>
<i>Onychoteuthis banksii</i>	Atl, Med ^b	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>P. macrocephalus</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Pteroctopus tetracirrhus</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>O. salutii</i>
<i>Pterygioteuthis giardi</i>	Atl	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i>
<i>Pyroteuthis margaritifera</i>	Atl, Med, Ind, Pac	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Rhombosiepien elegans</i>	Atl, Med	<i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>Raja miraletus</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i>
<i>Rhombosiepien orbignyanum</i>	Atl, Med	<i>Larus audouinii</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i>
<i>Rondeletiola minor</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Rossia macrosoma</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i>
<i>Scaevurgus unicirrhus</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i>
<i>Sepia officinalis</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>M. monachus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>M. punctulatus</i> , <i>M. mustelus</i> , <i>L. nasus</i> , <i>P. violacea</i> , <i>Torpedo torpedo</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>M. helena</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>P. erythrinus</i> , <i>Lagocephalus scleratus</i> , <i>O. vulgaris</i>
Sepiidae spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>L. audouinii</i> , <i>C. caretta</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>C. plumbeus</i> , <i>Myliobatis aquila</i> , <i>P. violacea</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>S. undosquamis</i> , <i>L. scleratus</i> , <i>L. vulgaris</i>
<i>Sepietta oweniana</i>	N Atl, Med	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>L. vulgaris</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>E. moschata</i>
<i>Sepietta</i> spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>R. miraletus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>Gnathopis mystax</i>
<i>Sepiola intermedia</i>	Med	<i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Sepiola robusta</i>	Med	<i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Sepiola</i> spp.		<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>M. punctulatus</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>R. miraletus</i> , <i>D. pastinaca</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>M. poutassou</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i> , <i>T. capelanus</i> , <i>P. erythrinus</i> , <i>E. cirrhosa</i>
Sepiolidae spp.		<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>R. clavata</i> , <i>R. miraletus</i> , <i>D. pastinaca</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>O. vulgaris</i>
<i>Sepioteuthis lessoniana</i>	Ind-Pac, Med ^b	<i>Lagocephalus scellarus</i>
Taoniinae spp.		<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>A. foliacea</i>

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Prey species	Distribution	Predator species
<i>Taonius pavo</i>	Atl, Med	<i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Teuthowenia megalops</i>	N Atl, Med ^b	<i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>X. gladius</i>
<i>Thysanoteuthis rhombus</i>	Atl, Med	<i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i>
<i>Todarodes sagittatus</i>	Atl, Med	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>Z. cavirostris</i> , <i>P. glauca</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>S. stellaris</i> , <i>G. melastomus</i> , <i>E. spinax</i> , <i>C. coelelepis</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>D. pastinaca</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. alalunga</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i> , <i>M. merluccius</i> , <i>Ophichthus rufus</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>I. coindetii</i>
<i>Todaropsis eblanae</i>	Atl, Med, Ind	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>S. coeruleoalba</i> , <i>T. truncatus</i> , <i>S. canicula</i> , <i>C. coelelepis</i> , <i>S. blainville</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>L. budegassa</i> , <i>T. sagittatus</i> , <i>I. coindetii</i>
<i>Tremoctopus violaceus</i>	Atl, Med, Ind, Pac	<i>G. griseus</i> , <i>X. gladius</i> , <i>T. thynnus</i> , <i>T. belone</i> , <i>C. hippurus</i>

For the prey species distribution, some abbreviations have been used. Atl: Atlantic, Med: Mediterranean, N Atl: North Atlantic, NE Atl: North-east Atlantic, S Afr: South Africa, Ind: Indian, Pac: Pacific.

^aSince the only chiroteuthid species known to live in the Mediterranean is *Chiroteuthis veranii*, records of Chiroteuthidae spp. most likely refer to this species. Colour code: **osteichthyans** (black), **chondrichthyans** (blue), **marine mammals** (green), **seabirds** (orange), **turtles** (brown), **crustaceans** (red) and **cephalopods** (purple).

^bDistribution extracted from FAO volumes (Jereb and Roper, 2005, 2010; Jereb et al., 2016). For *Teuthowenia megalops*, from Sánchez, 1985; Santos et al., 2001; Bello et al., 2020; for *Sepioteuthis lessoniana* from Salman (2002); for *Octopus vulgaris* sensu stricto, from Amor et al. (2017); for *Loligo forbesii* from Riad (2020); for *Ommastrephes caroli*, from Fernández-Álvarez et al. (2020); for *Eledone moschata*, from Luna et al. (2021); for *Ctenopteryx sicula* from Fernández-Álvarez et al. (2023); for *Thysanoteuthis rhombus* from Deville et al. (2024); for *Ancistrocheirus alexandrinii* from Arnold et al. (2025).

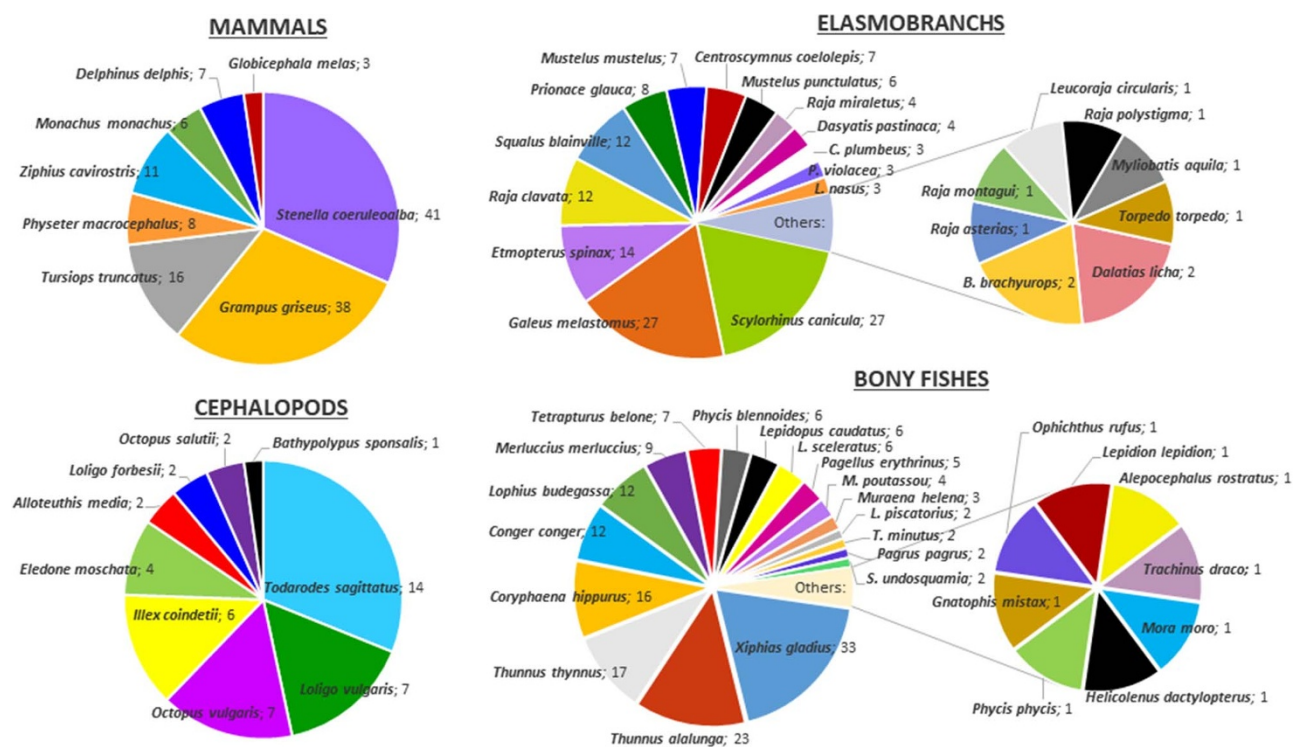


Figure 1. Pie diagram of the different groups of cephalopod predators, showing the number of prey species of each of them.

1839) are the most frequent prey of different predators (23 and 21, respectively). *Todarodes sagittatus* is also very frequent (found in 20 predators). The large occurrence of 'unidentified Cephalopoda', the category with the highest frequency of occurrence as prey species for so many different predators (32), is largely due to the fact that in many cases, cephalopod remains from the predators' stomach contents are represented only by fragments of beaks or eye lenses, preventing any identification below the class level. This category is not directly comparable with the individual species listed in Table 1, as it most likely includes several species.

Comparing the distribution of prey and predators reveals that of the 73 predators studied, 39.7% have a global or wide distribution. It is the case of the seven cetaceans *Delphinus delphis* Linnaeus, 1758, *Globicephala melas* (Traill, 1809), *G. griseus*, *Physeter macrocephalus* Linnaeus, 1758, *T. truncatus*, *S. coeruleoalba* and *Ziphius cavirostris* Cuvier, 1823 (Boldrocchi et al., 2024; WoRMS Editorial Board, 2025); six chondrichthyans *Lamna nasus* (Bonnaterre, 1788), *Prionace glauca* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Pteroplatytrygon violacea* (Bonaparte, 1832), *Carcharhinus plumbeus* (Nardo, 1827), *Centroscyrmus coelelepis* Barbosa du Bocage and de Brito Capello, 1864 and *Dalatias licha* (formerly *Scymnorhinus licha*

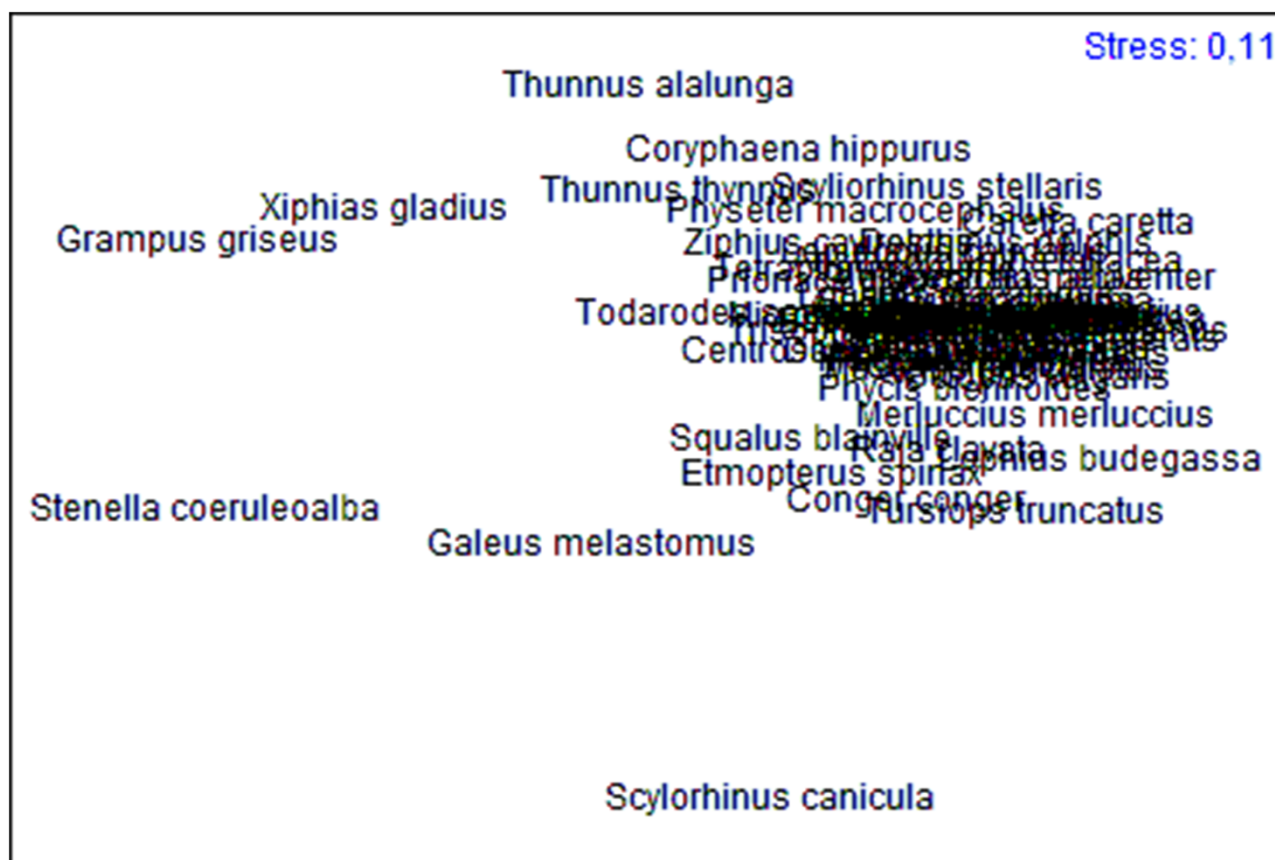


Figure 2. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) representation of cephalopod predators in the Mediterranean Sea.

[Bonnaterre, 1788]); three osteichthyans, *C. hippurus*, *T. alalunga*, *T. thynnus* and *X. gladius*; the giant red shrimp (*Aristaeomorpha foliacea* (Risso, 1827)); and the sea turtles *Dermochelys coriacea* (Vandelli, 1761) and *Caretta caretta* (Linnaeus, 1758).

53,4% of the predators have an Atlantic distribution, including the Mediterranean Sea. This is the case of the crustaceans *Aristeus antennatus* (Risso, 1816) and *Geryon longipes* A. Milne-Edwards, 1882, the chondrichthyans *S. blainville* (although this species appears to be a species complex; Ebert and Stehman, 2013), and *G. melastomus*, or the osteichthyans *Helicolenus dactylopterus* (Delaroche, 1809), *Merluccius merluccius* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Micromesistius poutassou* (Risso, 1827), *Mora moro* (Risso, 1810), the monk seal (*Monachus monachus* [Hermann, 1779]), the common eagle ray (*Myliobatis Aquila* [Linnaeus, 1758]), *Dasyatis pastinaca* (Linnaeus, 1758) and most cephalopod predators (*Alloteuthis media* [Linnaeus, 1758]), *Bathypolypus sponsalis* (Fischer and Fischer, 1892), *I. coindetii*, *Loligo vulgaris* (Lamarck, 1798), *Octopus salutii* (Vérany, 1839), *Octopus vulgaris* sensu stricto (Cuvier, 1797), and *T. sagittatus*. There are three endemic Mediterranean predators (4.1% of species: *Raja polystigma* [Regan, 1923], *Tetrapturus belone* [Rafinesque, 1810], and *Trisopterus capelanus* [Lacépède, 1800]; WoRMS Editorial Board, 2025). Two are invasive Lessepsian species and one anti-Lessepsian species. The Lessepsian species, one of which is *Lagocephalus sceleratus* (Gmelin, 1789), occurs in the western Pacific and Indian Oceans (from where it entered the Mediterranean through the Suez Canal). Another one is *Saurida undosquamis* (Richardson, 1848), which Inoue and Nakabo (2006) consider to be a group of species. One

of these must have been introduced into the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, as it has been found on the coasts of Israel and Turkey (Bilecenoğlu et al., 2014). The anti-Lessepsian species is *Muraena helena* Linnaeus, 1758, expanded from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian Ocean.

Discussion

The overall faunal picture provided by cephalopod predators is quite different from that provided by fisheries. Small-sized species such as *H. dispar*, which rarely appear in trawl catches, are abundant in the diet of teuthivorous predators (P.S. pers. obs.). Likewise, deep-sea pelagic species such as *Histioteuthis* spp. appear to be common prey for large predators (Clarke, 1996) (see Table 1).

Currently, researchers conducting studies on the diet of teuthivorous are finding gaps in knowledge that have already been studied and cannot be found on the internet. As researchers in this field, we know how valuable it is to find a paper with the information you need (species present in the diet of a particular predator, or a morphometric equation for a particular species), in addition to the time it can save. The study of predators' diets using a purely morphological approach, i.e., identification of gut contents based on visual assessment, is generally rejected by researchers because it is time-consuming and requires high taxonomic skills. As a result, the number of researchers working in this area, which provides very valuable biological and ecological information, is decreasing. This purpose will be fulfilled by examining the prey cephalopods

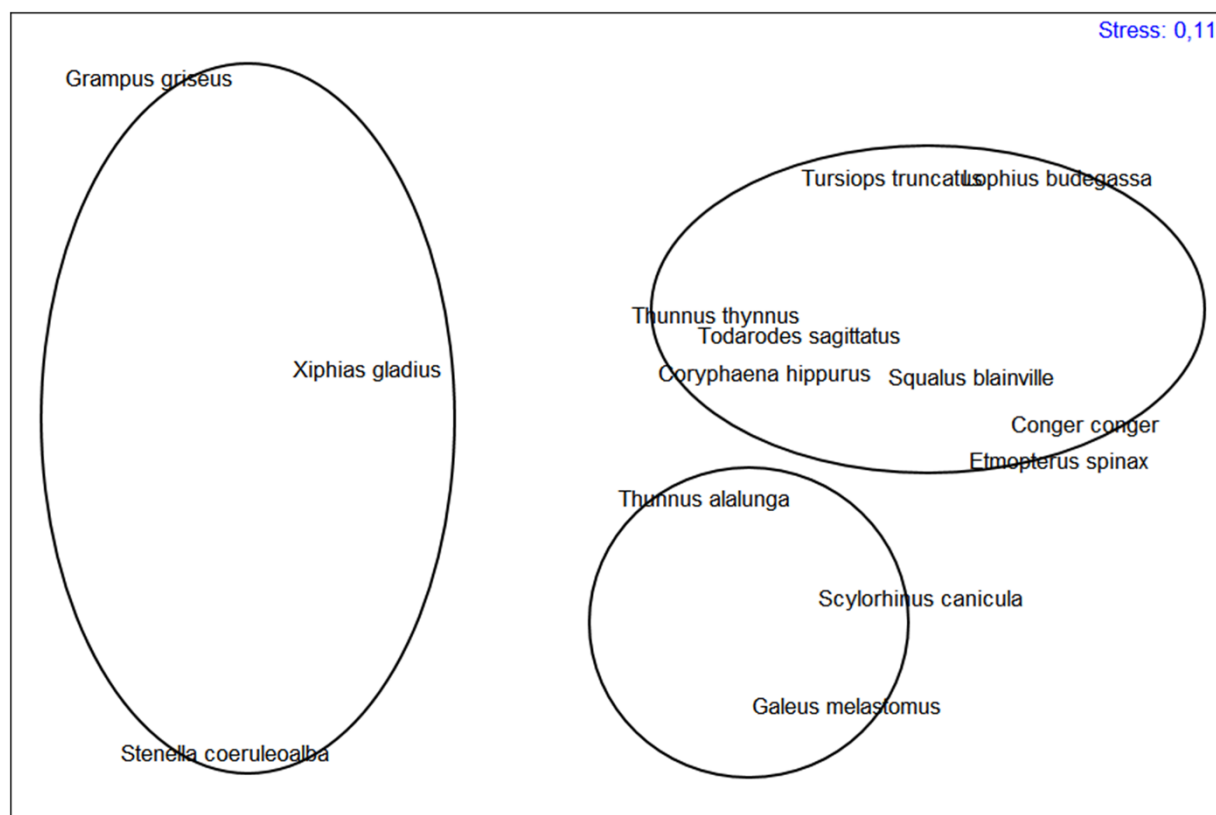


Figure 3. nMDS representation of the three assemblages identified among the principal cephalopod predators.

for seabirds, fish, marine mammals and other predators. This compilation can be very useful for future authors studying trophic relationships, especially due to the difficulty of finding some of the papers reviewed.

Of the 70 cephalopod species reported in the Mediterranean by Bello *et al.* (2020), only 48 have been identified in the digestive tract of predators. For instance, 11 Sepiolida have not been reported in their stomachs, eight of them belonging to the genus *Sepiolo* Leach, 1817, two to the genus *Sepietta* Naef, 1912 and the species *Stoloteuthis cthulhui* Fernández-Álvarez *et al.* (2021) (to the establishment of this new species, all previous records of *S. leucoptera* in the Mediterranean would correspond to *S. cthulhui* [Fernández-Álvarez *et al.*, 2021]). Some of them are possibly included in the category 'Sepiolidae'.

Several species considered to be non-indigenous species (NIS) have been recorded in the Mediterranean Sea, some of them coming from the Atlantic Ocean via the Strait of Gibraltar and others from the Red Sea via the Suez Canal (Bello *et al.*, 2020). There are several plausible hypotheses as to why these species are present in the Mediterranean, and these hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. 1) Given the short time that has elapsed since the introduction of most of them, their populations are still rather small, which may explain why only one of them, *Taonius pavo* (Lesueur, 1821), has been reported in very few predators' gastric remains, i.e., *G. griseus* (Luna *et al.*, 2022) and a juvenile *X. gladius* (Fernández-Corredor *et al.*, 2023). Of particular relevance is *Sepioteuthis lessoniana* R. P. Lesson, 1831, which has been reported in the stomach contents of *L. sceleratus*, both species being Lessepsian migrants (Gomes *et al.*, 2025). In this regard, Clarke (1980) cautioned against inferring geographic distributions of prey species based on their occurrence

in the stomach contents of predators capable of swimming long distances in short periods of time. This is the case with sperm whales, which can reach places far from their feeding grounds in a matter of days. Their stomachs could therefore contain beaks of squid that do not live in the area where the prey died. This could be the case for predators with a global distribution (such as *D. delphis*, *P. glauca*, or *T. alalunga*) or with a wide distribution (such as *C. plumbeus*, *T. thynnus*, or *C. caretta*). This point has already been widely discussed. There is no doubt that species with this type of distribution raise doubts ('Is this species from the Pacific or the Mediterranean?'), but the valuable information provided by the collection of beaks of different predators cannot be ignored. In this sense, the works that relate the erosion of the beaks to the time that the beaks remain in the stomach can be useful in determining the rate of digestion (Van Heezik and Seddon, 1989; Xavier *et al.*, 2007, 2022), as well as the works on the erosion of the tips of the beaks during the feeding process (Perales-Raya *et al.*, 2020). There is a lack of studies in this direction, and they would be very useful in determining the time the beaks spend in the stomach. It would be possible to deduce whether the prey was recently ingested or not. The mobility of the predator is also important, since a species with a limited distribution, such as a shrimp, is not the same as a species with a wide range of movements, such as a cetacean. Relevant here is the work of Whitehead *et al.* (2003), who analysed the differences in niche breadth of some cetaceans, pointing out that some prey species may be less likely to accumulate in the stomach, and that the prey of the prey may be inadvertently included in the diet (Clarke, 1980; Clarke *et al.*, 1988). 2) It is possible that the NIS has been overestimated. These species may have been present in the Mediterranean earlier than reported, but they would not have

been found in this area until recently. This could reflect a sampling bias. For example, this could be because a species' sampling area was not sampled, or not sampled at sufficient depth in the case of deep-sea species (Zaragoza et al., 2015, who found a clear difference in the species composition of shallow-water and deeper-water cephalopod paralarvae in the Balearic Mediterranean). There are many other possible causes, such as sudden demographic explosions of rare species considered NIS in the area (finding unexploited or underexploited ecological niches, or the absence of predators). However, this would mean that they would be found in abundance in surveys during the bloom (e.g., blue crab in many Mediterranean locations; Marchessaux et al., 2023). 3) Species rarely caught in Atlantic waters (e.g., *Cranchia scabra* Leach, 1817, *T. pavo*, *Megalocranchia* spp., *Teuthowenia megalops* (Prosch, 1849), *Cycloteuthis sirventi* Joubin, 1919, *T. danae*) could just be scarce, with the added difficulty of sampling bias (Bello, 2003; Quetglas et al., 2013; Escáñez Pérez and Perales-Raya, 2017). Bottom trawling is simply not an effective sampling tool for some species. For example, the oceanic flying squid (*Ommastrephes caroli* (Furtado, 1887)) is difficult to obtain, despite probably reaching enormous biomasses in the Mediterranean Sea, as it is almost absent from most trawls. Fernández-Álvarez et al. (2020) argue that this is a direct consequence of this genus' oceanic lifestyle, coupled with the absence of directed fisheries in most of its range, which makes its collection in some localities a chance phenomenon. For the endemic Mediterranean predators (*R. polystigma*, *T. belone* and *T. capelanus*), there is no doubt that the prey were ingested within the distribution range of the predator. And it could be the same for all the species with an Atlantic-Mediterranean distribution. However, only in the case of Mediterranean endemic predators it is possible to establish the Mediterranean origin of the prey.

Some Mediterranean cephalopod predators can be considered true teuthivorous, while others are opportunistic, occasional predators of cephalopods. For example, *S. coeruleoalba* is by far the most frequent cetacean in the western Mediterranean. Its strandings along the Catalan coast account for more than 60% of the total of those that occur along the coasts of the north-western Mediterranean (Duguy et al., 1988). Its diet, based on fish, cephalopods and crustaceans, has been compared between the western (Alessandri et al., 2001; Aznar et al., 2017; Blanco et al., 1995; Pedà et al., 2015; Würtz and Marrale, 1993) and eastern Mediterranean (Bello, 1992b, 1993; Dede et al., 2016; Meissner et al., 2012; Öztürk et al., 2007; Pulcini et al., 1992; Saavedra et al., 2022) (Supplementary material). Based on the available collected data, the preferred cephalopod prey of striped dolphins may be *Onychoteuthis banksii* (Leach, 1817) (family Onychoteuthidae), which was present in the majority of the stomachs of these Mediterranean cetaceans (Table 1 and Supplementary material). Other important prey for this dolphin appear to be Ommastrephidae spp. (Alessandri et al., 2001; Bello, 1992b, 1993; Blanco et al., 1995; Pulcini et al., 1992; Würtz and Marrale, 1993) which were identified in almost half of the stomachs analysed by Saavedra et al. (2022). However, this family was not reported by either Öztürk et al. (2007) or Dede et al. (2016). Aznar et al. (2017) detected a remarkable relative decrease of oceanic cephalopods and a significant increase of the lower shelf Ommastrephidae, i.e., *I. coindetii*, during 1990–2012 in the western Mediterranean. According to these authors, there seems to be a shift in the diets of teuthivorous over time: the habitat shift towards the increase of some neritic prey species was most likely related to the decline of top demersal predators (Aznar et al., 2017). The possibility that Ommastrephidae had benefited from climate change is pointed out

by some authors (Coll et al., 2013; Pardo et al., 2025). *Illex coindetii* was found in the stomach of several striped dolphins in the Mediterranean (Alessandri et al., 2001; Pedà et al., 2015; Pulcini et al., 1992; Würtz and Marrale, 1993).

Striped dolphins also prey on other oceanic cephalopod families such as Brachioteuthidae, Chiroteuthidae, Enoploteuthidae and Histioteuthidae, or neritic species such as *Alloteuthis* spp. and sepiolids (Table 1 and Supplementary material). Dede et al. (2016) found *Chiroteuthis veranii* (Férussac, 1834), *Abralia veranyi* (Rüppell, 1844), *Histioteuthis bonnellii* (Férussac, 1835) and *H. dispar* as species with more than 50% occurrence, apart from other pelagic and mesopelagic luminous cephalopods. They also found *Pterygioteuthis giardi* Fischer, 1896 and *Chtenopteryx sicula* (Vérany, 1851) for the first time in the stomach contents of Mediterranean striped dolphins. Meissner et al. (2012) found that changes in the isotopic composition of Mediterranean *S. coeruleoalba* may be due to dolphin migrations away from coastal feeding grounds, some of which may be driven by migration within the Mediterranean basin, explaining the predation of these dolphins on oceanic species. Pedà et al. (2015) suggested a possible partitioning of cephalopod resources among the Mediterranean predatory cetaceans, which was also proposed by Dede et al. (2016). This partitioning may be due to the regional oceanographic and geological differences between the two Mediterranean basins (Cavazza and Wezel, 2003; Moranta et al., 2008), which have been colonised by cephalopod species with partly different life histories.

Grampus griseus is a cosmopolitan dolphin which, according to the studies of its stomach contents, is an obligate teuthivorous predator. In fact, except in a few very rare cases, the remains recovered from its stomach consist exclusively of cephalopods, both oceanic and demersal (Luna et al., 2022). This suggests that *G. griseus* feeds both in the water column and near the bottom, both inshore and offshore. In terms of bottom-dwelling cephalopods, the prey list includes both relatively shallow-water octopods (e.g., *Eledone moschata* [Lamarck, 1798]) and deep-water ones (i.e., *Pteroctopus tetracirrhus* [Delle Chiaje, 1830] and *B. sponsalis*). For the oceanic species, it is more difficult to establish the depth at which they are captured by Risso's dolphins because of their diel vertical migration. However, some species inhabit mainly deep-water layers, such as *Octopoteuthis sicula* Rüppell, 1844 and *H. bonnellii*, while others, such as *I. coindetii* and *Tremoctopus violaceus* delle Chiaje, 1830, live in shallower layers (Luna et al., 2022; Figure 2).

In particular, Bello (1992a), based on the high proportion of bioluminescent prey cephalopods (86%) he found in a stranded Risso's dolphin, hypothesised that this cetacean could detect the light emitted by these cephalopods, even though they use bioluminescence to conceal themselves through a counter-illumination mechanism. In this regard, Luna et al. (2022) reported in their review that *G. griseus* feeds primarily on histioteuthids, which are known to be bioluminescent, in addition to several other bioluminescent cephalopods. This hypothesis is also indirectly supported by the fact that *G. griseus* is a powerful swimmer, capable of pursuing and catching any Mediterranean cephalopod, with a preference for muscular species with high energy content (see comments on the swordfish below); therefore, the high proportion of light-emitting squids in its diet could be explained by their better visibility in the darkness of deep water. This hypothesis could also explain the high proportion of bioluminescent cephalopod prey found in *S. coeruleoalba* in the eastern Mediterranean, 100% in Dede et al. (2016).

The dietary spectrum of the swordfish *X. gladius* indicates that it preys on a wide range of prey sizes. Its stomach contents include remains of both large-sized, prey-cephalopods, i.e., *T. sagittatus* (which constitutes the bulk of its diet), and small-sized ones, i.e., *H. dispar* (Bello, 1991). (Note that we describe these species as large or small regardless of the size of the prey in each individual stomach – even a *T. sagittatus* is small in its juvenile stage. In many of the papers reviewed, there is no indication of the individual prey size). Moreover, the swordfish prefer muscular, swift squids (preferentially Ommastrephidae; Bello, 1991; Carmona-Antoñanzas *et al.*, 2016; Romeo *et al.*, 2012), whose flesh has a comparatively high energy content compared to the ammonia-rich flesh of Histiotethidae (Clarke *et al.*, 1979). On the contrary, Histiotethidae species represent a staple food for a variety of oceanic predators in the Mediterranean. Therefore, it seems that the swordfish is not selective on the prey-item size, but rather on the type of prey, in terms of energetic content. As for the preferred depth of predation, the swordfish seems to feed in the upper layers of the water, at least at night (Bello, 1991), mainly on aggregating cephalopods. In fact, its high locomotor performance – including parameters such as speed (up to 130 km/h), acceleration, quick start and manoeuvrability (Lee *et al.*, 2009), which is also based on the presence of red muscles in its body and a heating system for the eyes and brain (Abid and Idrissi, 2006) – allows the swordfish to attack and subdue any Mediterranean oceanic cephalopod species. The most striking predatory feature of the swordfish is the use of its sword to kill or injure its prey, as documented by certain remains of histiotethids found in fish (Bello, 1994). This peculiar predatory behaviour was later confirmed by direct underwater observation of a swordfish attacking a squid (probably an ommastrephid) in mid-water off the NW Atlantic coast (pers. comm. by Verena Tunnicliffe to G.B., supported by underwater film clip, during the *World Congress of Malacology*, Ponta Delgada, Azores, July 2013). Finally, it is worth noting that oceanic cephalopods, i.e., fast-growing animals, represent a major food source for the swordfish, a fast-growing fish (Tserpes and Tsimenides, 1995), thus contributing to an efficient transfer of energy in the food web, in which the swordfish is an apex consumer (Amaratunga, 1983; Bello, 1991).

The small spotted catshark *S. canicula* is a demersal species, found on the continental shelf and at depths of between 20 and 400 m, being more abundant between 150 and 300 m. It is a mesopredator (Navarro *et al.*, 2016) with a preference for osteichthyans, crustaceans, cephalopods and other marine molluscs (Supplementary material). It is a generalist predator (Kousteni *et al.*, 2018; Macpherson, 1977) that preys on both demersal and semi-pelagic cephalopod species (Kabasakal, 2002), with prey size and depth having a significant effect on the diet of this catshark (Valls *et al.*, 2011) (Table 1). Partial dietetic differences have been found by different authors (compare the results in Bello 1997; Kabasakal 2002; Keller *et al.*, 2017; Kousteni *et al.*, 2018; Valls *et al.*, 2011), which might be due to geographical differences in teuthofaunal composition, different life stages/depths (according to D'Onghia *et al.* (1995); Massutí and Moranta (2003), *S. canicula* juveniles and adult Mediterranean populations live on different bathymetric strata), as well as it could reflect different taxonomic expertise in identifying beaks. However, *S. canicula* consumes cephalopods at almost all stages of its growth (Cihangir *et al.*, 1997; Macpherson, 1977), and *I. coindetii* and *H. dispar* appear to predominate in its feeding spectrum; both species are known to have regular contact with the bottom (Vecchione and Roper, 1991). Therefore, these pelagic cephalopods may become available

to sharks as they approach the bottom during the vertical diel movements (Kabasakal, 2002; Orsi-Relini and Würtz, 1975). It is possible that, as suggested by Orsi-Relini and Würtz (1975), for *G. melastomus*, it may detect cephalopods by their light emission. *Scyllorhinus canicula* also moves away from the bottom and reaches bioluminescent prey (i.e., most cephalopod species in its diet) in mid-water, but not far from the bottom. Furthermore, it is not certain that the sharks catch demersal sepiolids (i.e., Rossiinae and Sepiolinae) on the bottom, as these supposedly benthic squids are actually capable of leaving the bottom and swimming several tens of metres upwards (Bello and Biagi, 1995).

The blackmouth catshark *G. melastomus* is a small catshark, the deepest living one in the Mediterranean. Its prey-cephalopod spectrum overlaps to some extent with that of *E. spinax*, both in terms of habitat and body size (Fanelli *et al.*, 2009). The cephalopod remains in this fish belong to both demersal and oceanic species; thus it feeds both in the water column and near the bottom. Its preferred prey-cephalopods are small-sized ones, mainly Sepiolidae, but juveniles of large-sized species also contribute to its diet (Fanelli *et al.*, 2009). The cephalopod prey size correlates with the size of *G. melastomus*. Moreover, in those cases where the remains consisted of bitten off pieces, they always came from the posterior part of the body (either the arms or the arm crown or the arm crown + head; unlike the velvet belly, see below). These results show that *G. melastomus* pursues prey items that can be ingested whole, although in many cases it only succeeds in biting off the trailing portion of the prey (Bello, 1997). In summary, the hypothesis of a solitary prey pursuit behaviour is robustly supported.

In contrast to *G. melastomus*, the deep demersal small-sized velvet belly, *E. spinax* – although like *G. melastomus* it preys on both demersal and oceanic prey – is capable of attacking comparatively large prey, possibly carrying out group predation (Bello, 1997). This small shark shows a higher preference for cephalopod prey on slope bottoms around the Balearic Islands (Valls *et al.*, 2011).

In general, ontogenetic shifts in diet are common in sharks, which may be attributed to increased predator size and appear to be adaptations to the higher metabolic requirements of larger individuals switching to larger prey types (Carlson *et al.*, 2004; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Macpherson, 1986). The decrease in cephalopod abundance as the catshark *G. melastomus* increases in size indicates an ontogenetic shift in diet in favour of bony fishes. In addition, the differences observed in the condition of the beaks retained in the stomach contents of *S. canicula* and *S. blainville*, and in the variation in prey species diversity according to the size of the predators, may imply differences in their foraging tactics (prey hunting vs. bottom scavenging), habitats and stomach evacuation frequency (Kousteni *et al.*, 2018).

Moreover, the existence of different feeding spectra in different demersal chondrichthyan species underlines the existence of a trophic partitioning by depth in the Mediterranean Sea (Carrassón *et al.*, 1992; Macpherson, 1977), but also by the feeding behaviour. Cephalopods from the stomachs of circalittoral specimens of *Raja clavata* Linnaeus, 1758 and *S. canicula* are typically caught on the circalittoral grounds and differ from cephalopods of *G. melastomus* and *E. spinax* caught on the upper slope (Bello, 1997). This is in line with the possible partitioning of cephalopod resources among Mediterranean cetaceans of Pedà *et al.* (2015) and Dede *et al.* (2016).

The albacore, *T. alalunga*, is a very active medium-sized tuna that migrates in the Mediterranean Sea, appearing in areas of the eastern Mediterranean in autumn-winter. It has been

described as an opportunistic predator that feeds on available prey species depending on both the season and the geographical area (Consoli *et al.*, 2008; Goñi *et al.*, 2011). Its predator activity is mainly directed towards diel migrating mesopelagic and, secondarily, epipelagic items. As for cephalopods in particular, they were mainly preyed upon during the evening/night when they migrate towards the upper water layers (Consoli *et al.*, 2008). In terms of prey size, no shift with predator size was observed (Consoli *et al.*, 2008). According to Bello (1991), albacore feed mainly, if not exclusively, on small-sized cephalopods: both small species (e.g., *H. dispar*) and early subadults of large species (e.g., *T. sagittatus*). This may also be inferred indirectly from data from other studies: e.g., Consoli *et al.* (2008) refer to *Paralepis* spp. as the main prey, with a maximum size of about 12 cm; Goñi *et al.* (2011) reported both small bony fishes and krill. It can therefore be concluded that *T. alalunga* is a relatively 'microphagous' predator. Finally, at least in some areas, such as the southern Adriatic Sea (eastern Mediterranean), schooling albacore represent an important mortality factor for juvenile squids (estimated prey in one autumn/winter season = 1.3 million *T. sagittatus* juveniles and 1 million *H. bonnellii* juveniles [Bello, 1991]), as well as 4 million other small-sized oceanic cephalopods.

The common dolphinfish, *C. hippurus*, is a cosmopolitan fish species found in tropical and subtropical seas, often associated with floating debris. Since early history, this species has been an important food source for people living around the Mediterranean. In this area, it is seasonal and is exploited by traditional fisheries in Malta, Tunisia, Sicily and Mallorca using attracting devices and purse nets (Massuti and Morales-Nin, 1995). Despite the local importance of *C. hippurus* in the Mediterranean, its feeding habits have been scarcely studied in this area (Benseddik *et al.*, 2015; Massuti *et al.*, 1998).

There are three species that can be considered Lessepsian or anti-Lessepsian. It is the case of two Lessepsian species, the invasive Teleostei *L. sceleratus* and *S. undosquamis*, which entered the Mediterranean Sea through the Suez Canal; and *M. helena*, an anti-Lessepsian species expanded from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian ocean.

Among the cephalopods, *T. sagittatus* is the largest consumer of cephalopods and is also one of the most common prey species, consumed by 20 different predators (Table 1 and Supplementary material). Here is a clear example of a predator becoming prey, or vice versa, demonstrating the complex interactions that occur in food chains. *Heteroteuthis dispar* also occurs in the diet of many predators (23 of them) (Table 1 and Supplementary material), and despite its small body size, it seems to play an important role in Mediterranean food webs (Bello, 1999). According to Kousteni *et al.* (2018), *H. dispar* seems to be quite abundant on the upper slope of the Mediterranean Sea, as it is one of the most frequently found cephalopods in the diet of demersal chondrichthyans (Bello, 1997; Lefkaditou, 2007), large pelagic fishes (Bello, 1991, 1999; Salman and Karakulak, 2009) and dolphins (Orsi-Relini and Garibaldi, 2005; Orsi-Relini *et al.*, 1997), as well as in the catches of experimental mesopelagic trawls and macroplankton devices (Lefkaditou *et al.*, 1999; Roper, 1974). The presence of *H. dispar* in the stomach contents of predators coming from different depth zones corresponds to its high tendency for vertical migration (Roper, 1974). However, we must not forget the possibility of doubt raised by Clarke (1980) on the assertion of the geographical distribution of predators that can move rapidly away from their feeding grounds.

Fisheries data on abundance and biomass have not been used for comparison with the data extracted from the literature because it is very difficult to extract them from existing and reviewed articles. Often, these articles barely have a taxonomic list of cephalopod prey extracted from the stomachs of predators. It would be a phenomenal task for teuthologists to try to extrapolate (sizes, weights, abundances, biomasses, inter- and intraspecific interactions) all the valuable data buried in these papers, due to how difficult it is to extract this information and standardise it for comparison.

To conclude, as stated above, the analysis of studies on the role of cephalopods as prey species in Mediterranean food webs shows a very different picture from that derived from fisheries research, which is not surprising since many predators are efficient collectors of apparently rare species, as already pointed out by Clarke since 1977 (Clarke, 1977; see also Bello, 1996). Therefore, the present review contributes to the definition of the overall Mediterranean teuthofaunal situation (e.g., Kabasakal, 2002) on how the stomach content analysis of some chondrichthyans may give a good indication of the marine fauna in a specific area, both from an ecological and biogeographical standpoints; the utmost role of cephalopods in food webs, both demersal and pelagic, both in shallow and in deep waters; and also specific information on the behaviour and the habits of some teuthivorous predators.

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Compliance with ethical standards. We did not require animal ethics approval for this research because we did not use animal samples, but only literature data. This manuscript complies with the Ethical Rules applicable to this journal.

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