Developmental trade-offs in Subantarctic meroplankton communities and the enigma of low decapod diversity in high southern latitudes

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ABSTRACT: Developmental modes, occurrence and distribution patterns of invertebrate larvae were studied in the Subantarctic Magellan region of South America on the basis of guantitative plankton hauls obtained during the 'Victor Hensen' campaign in November 1994. The meroplankton community was found to be numerically dominated by decapod crustacean larvae (47%), followed by polychaetes (20%), echinoderms (16%), cirripedes (8%) and molluscs (7%). A rich decapod community was detected, with 2 thalassinid, 5 brachyuran, 4 anomuran, 6 caridean, 1 astacid and 1 palinurid species/morphotypes identified. Cluster analyses clearly distinguished deep-water stations (250 to 400 m) south of the Straits of Magellan from shallow-water stations (30 to 100 m) in the Beagle Channel, where meroplankton was dominated by decapod larvae (>90%). Three main larval developmental modes, characterised by morphogenesis, mode of larval nutrition and site of larval development, were observed in Magellan decapods: (1) Extended, planktotrophic development of planktonic larvae; (2) abbreviated, planktotrophic development of planktonic larvae; and (3) abbreviated, endotrophic (lecithotrophic) development of demersally living larvae. Several caridean shrimps with abbreviated larval development, which have congeners in the Antarctic, suggest a strong synchronisation between abbreviated planktotrophic larval development and short periods of primary production. This seems to be an essential factor in early life history adaptation for the colonisation of the Antarctic environment. The impoverished Antarctic decapod fauna, with only a few representatives of caridean shrimp species left, may be related to the lack in flexibility of reptant decapods in distributing energy resources between adults and their offspring, which would allow abbreviated planktotrophic larval development.

KEY WORDS: Decapoda · Reproductive strategies · Southern Ocean · Abbreviated larval development · Magellan region · Antarctic

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INTRODUCTION

The Southern Ocean decapod fauna still provides one of the most conspicuous unsolved mysteries in marine biodiversity research, with an Antarctic decapod fauna of only about a dozen caridean shrimp representatives compared with more than 120 benthic and pelagic decapod species in the circumpolar antiboreal environment north of the Antarctic Convergence (Gorny 1999). Apart from a few species of lithodid crabs in the deeper waters off the Antarctic continental shelf (Macpherson 1988, Klages et al. 1995, Arana & Retamal 2000), caridean shrimps represent the only decapod infraorder which endures the high Antarctic regime of very low temperatures combined with a marked seasonality of primary production (Clarke 1988).

The absence of reptant decapods, in particular brachyuran crabs, from polar environments of both hemispheres was recently discussed to be predominantly due to physiological constraints, i.e. the failure of adults to control high Mg²⁺ concentrations in their haemolymph, which in combination with low tempera-

tures, leads to a paralysing condition affecting all kinds of behaviour (Frederich et al. 2001). However, this explanation of physiological constraints on ecological demands alone cannot explain the observed decapod biodiversity patterns, since at least lithodid (anomuran) crabs have been shown to respond to physiological constraints in the cold by life history adaptation of both adults and larvae (see Anger et al. 2003, Lovrich et al. 2003, Thatje et al. 2003). In an attempt to elucidate the reason for the impoverished decapod fauna in high latitudes, we revisited Thorson's old ecological concept (Thorson 1936, 1950), which, in summary, argues that the mismatch between a marked seasonality of primary production (i.e. food availability) and prolonged larval developmental times due to low temperatures at high latitudes, should strongly select against planktotrophic larval development (see Mileikowsky 1971, who created the term 'Thorson's rule', Clarke 1988, Pearse et al. 1991, Arntz & Gili 2001).

In this study, we present information on developmental trade-offs in early life history of benthic decapod crustaceans from the Magellan region and the position of decapod larvae within the Subantarctic meroplankton community. This information is augmented by literature data, including findings on early life history adaptation of Antarctic shrimps to a cold and seasonally food-limited environment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling and sample treatment. Quantitative meroplankton samples were obtained during the Joint Chilean-German-Italian Magellan 'Victor Hensen'

Campaign to the channel and fjord system of the cold-temperate Subantarctic Magellan region (Fig. 1) from 12 to 24 November 1994 (see also Arntz & Gorny 1996, Defren-Jansen et al. 1999). Zooplankton samples were obtained using a multiple openingclosing net of 300 µm mesh size. Daytime vertical hauls were conducted from the seafloor or 400 m maximum wire length to the surface, covering standard depth intervals (see Figs. 6 & 7). Zooplankton samples were directly preserved in 4% boraxbuffered formaldehyde seawater solution, and later in the laboratory split into two. Assuming 100% filtering efficiency of the multinet for meroplankton, the filtered volume was calculated by multiplying the vertical distance of the tow by the mouth area of the net (0.25 m^2) .

Species identification and larval developmental mode. The meroplankton fraction was sorted only from one part of the sample, and identified to the most resolved taxonomic level possible. Special focus was given to species determination of decapod crustacean larvae as well as their developmental stages (for literature used for larval identification see Table 2). To detect relevant developmental patterns in decapod larvae, we distinguished 3 larval developmental modes, characterised as follows (for review see Williamson 1982, Anger 2001):

(1) Morphogenesis

- Extended larval development—number of instars typical of the family/genus.
- Abbreviated larval development—comprises a considerable reduction in larval instars compared with typical trait of family/genus representatives from lower latitudes and/or intraspecific changes with latitude/temperature regime.
- (2) Mode of larval nutrition
- Planktotrophic larval development—most of the larval development requires actively feeding planktonic larvae. This may include partial utilisation of energy reserves of maternal origin in an early stage of development.
- Lecithotrophic larval development complete endotrophic larval development (complete lecithotrophy) with planktonically and/or demersally living larvae.
 (3) Site of larval development
- Planktonic larval development—larval development is spent mostly in the water column.
- Demersal larval development larval development is predominantly epibenthic.

Cluster analyses. We used the software package PRIMER (Plymouth Routines in Multivariate Ecological Research) developed at Plymouth Marine Laboratory,



Fig. 1. Meroplankton sampling locations (black dots/station numbers) during the Joint Chilean-German-Italian Magellan 'Victor Hensen' Campaign to the Magellan region (South America) in November 1994

Species/group Stage Station (Sampling depth, m) 1313 1309 1297 1288 1238 1222 1212 1211 1196 1185 1202 1281 12.54 1244 1265 (340)(250)(380)(400)(340)(400)(270)(30)(100)(30)(50)(50)(100)(100)(30)1240 24 Bryozoa Cyphonautes 227 310 44 47 55 7 13 5 4 4 _ Cirripedia Nauplius 458 75 298 1291 2020 64 2445 27 108 480 10 468 16 53 202 25 50 Gastropoda Veliger 268 1262 100 42 18 20 244 120 35 28 28 133 Bivalvia Veliger 376 13 1055 2113 24 3 4 7 5 4 Polychaeta Larvae 5489 1110 5093 2793 1267 298 613 120 372 193 5 248 67 65 416 Ophiopluteus Ophiuroidea 702 65 755 1060 529 56 1370 93 58 Juvenile _ 751 610 564 25 84 135 8 Asteroidea Brachiolaria _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Echinoidea Echinopluteus 3051 625 2413 853 451 129 1210 12 36 Decapoda Thalassinidea Notiax sp. (?) Zoea 1 30 1440 9224 20 35 30 6424 3756 240 Zoea 2 127 3076 520 1808 13 _ _ Upogebia sp. Decapodid 7 8 Brachvura Pinnotheridae Early zoea 4 2 _ 3 100 36 Libidoclaea granaria Zoea 1 7 _ 150 27 82 128 80 Eurypodius latreillei Early zoea 69 255231 3107 304 35 504 184 _ _ Adv. zoea 76 148 188 598 120 44 90 1100 68 40 15 68 24 Peltarion spinosulum 133 147 Zoea 1 13 13 4 5 4 _ _ Zoea 2 7 8 33 7 Halicarcinus planatus Zoea 1 36 53 5 8 12 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Zoea 2 4 Anomura Pagurus spp. Zoea 1 11 _ 160 12 20 25 20 Δ 72 _ _ _ _ 11 100 Zoea 2 247 16 60 12 20 7 67 13 76 33 35 Zoea 3 240 50 20 8 _ _ Zoea 4 11 28 25 213 293 52 20 90 100 152 16 20 _ _ Megalopa 13 33 147 20 13 10 20 36 28 47 _ _ Parapagurus Early zoea _ _ _ _ 5 20 4 _ _ _ dimorphus (?) 8 Adv. zoea Munida spp. Zoea 1 11 10 647 344 20 30 96 76 7 5 Zoea 2 _ 320 892 7 20 4044 7 2 7 Zoea 3 173 8 40 5 65 4 _ 147 70 132 20 35 260 13 10 13 Zoea 4 _ _ _ _ Megalopa 80 7 Caridea Betaeus truncatus Zoea 1 7 Eualus dozei Zoea 1 7 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ 10 Campylonotus vagans Zoea 1 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Zoea 2 10 8 Decapodid 40 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ C. semistriatus 22 Decapodid 7 Nauticaris magellanica Zoea 1 31 3 12 5 28 _ _ 13 Zoea 2 _ _ _ _ 16 _ Δ _ 7 _ _ _ _ Zoea 3 4 _ Zoea 4 4 10 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Zoea 5 4 _ _ _ _ Decapodid 11 22 _ _ 4 _ 22 8 12 5 32 Austropandalus grayi Zoea 1 4 16 _ _ _ _ _ _ 22 7 Zoea 2 22 4 8 16 _ 7 89 7 8 Zoea 3 _ _ _ _ _ _ 4 _ _ 7 Zoea 4 38 311 11 _ 13 _ 4 _ _ _ _ _ 7 60 Zoea 5 122 4 _ _ Decapodid 3 111 13 10 4 _ _ _ Astacidea 8 22 Thymops birsteini Decapodid 13 _ _ _ _ Palinura Stereomastis (suhmi?) Early zoea 22 7 8 _ _ _ Adv. zoea 22 10 _ Sum 11455 2424 11283 13075 4729 928 6195 8610 15224 1196 665 525 9108 6532 796

Table 1. Station means (ind. m^{-3}) of meroplankton taxa found in the channel and fjord system of the Subantarctic Magellan region during the Joint Chilean-German-Italian 'Victor Hensen' Campaign in November 1994 (adv. = advanced). (?) Species identification not certain

UK. The hierarchical agglomerate cluster method (Clarke & Gorley 2001) was applied on the basis of abundance means per station to differentiate meroplankton communities utilising the Bray-Curtis similarity index. Data were previously $\log(x+1)$ transformed to remove the bias of highly abundant taxa.

RESULTS

Meroplankton composition and distribution pattern

The average spring meroplankton community found in the Magellan region is characterised by highly variable abundances (Table 1) and an overwhelming amount of crustaceans, namely decapod and cirripede larvae, contributing 47 and 8% to overall abundance means, respectively (Table 1, Fig. 2A). Polychaete



Decapod infraorder

Fig. 2. Relative abundance of meroplankton fractions found in the channel and fjord system of the Magellan region in November 1994. Given on the basis of (A) major taxonomic groups and (B) decapod infraorder



Fig. 3. Cluster dendrogramm (Bray-Curtis similarity) showing classification of meroplankton stations on the basis of abundance means

larvae ran second (20%) followed by echinoderms (16%); molluscs and bryozoans had much lower fractions (Fig. 2A). Within the decapod fraction, thalassinid larvae were found to be most abundant (62%), followed by brachyurans (20%) and anomurans (15%)(Fig. 2B). Caridean shrimp larvae, Astacidea and Palinura were of minor importance (Fig 2B). Also, in terms of species/morphotype richness, decapods were the dominant group within the meroplankton, with 2 thalassinid, 1 astacid, 1 palinurid, 5 brachyuran, 4 anomuran and 6 caridean species distinguished (the 2 pagurid species Pagurus forceps and P. comptus are combined as Pagurus spp., due to the lack of knowledge of the complete larval development in P. forceps; S. Thatje & G. Lovrich unpubl. data). Species determination of all other groups was complicated by the lack of adequate taxonomic keys, and therefore species richness must be considered as a minimum estimate on the basis of distinguished morphotypes: 3 bivalve, 2 gastropod, 2 to 4 ophiuroid, 1 echinoid, 1 cirripede and 1 bryozoan morphotypes were found. Polychaetes were more diverse, but remain to be further taxonomically identified. However, in relation to abundance, spionid larvae were the most dominant taxon (>60%).

Cluster analyses of the meroplankton composition revealed 2 groupings at the 55% similarity level (Fig. 3). Group 1 comprises shallow-water stations with depths varying from 30 to 100 m (Table 1) at the eastern entrance of the Beagle Channel, including Stn 1202 off Isla Wollaston (Fig. 1, Stns 1185 to 1244). Group 2 combines 7 deep-water stations on a transect from the Straits of Magellan south to the Beagle Channel, with depths varying from 250 to 400 m (Figs. 1 & 3, Table 1).

Shallow-water stations are overwhelmingly dominated by decapods (91%, Fig. 4C) of which thalassinid larvae are most important (68%, Fig. 4D), followed by brachyuran (16%) and anomuran larvae (15%). Polychaete, cirripede and gastropod larvae contribute with only 4, 3 and 2%, respectively (Fig. 4C). Deep-water stations showed a more heterogeneous meroplankton composition (Fig. 4A), with polychaetes contributing 33%, followed by echinoderms (27%), cirripedes (13%), decapods (12%), bivalves (7%), gastropods (4%) and bryozoans (4%). The generally less important decapod fraction is dominated by brachyuran crab larvae (61%), carideans (24%) and anomurans (12%, Fig. 4B).

The meroplankton composition on a transect of deepwater station from the Straits of Magellan southward to the Beagle Channel differed totally from that of shallowwater stations (Figs. 1 & 5). Here, polychaetes and echi-

Deep-water stations

noderms were the dominant taxa. Only Stns 1281 and 1254 showed a percentage of cirripede larvae untypical of deep-water stations, although they were very similar in their taxonomic composition, despite the lack of echinoderms, to Stn 1222 from the eastern entrance of the Beagle Channel. The numerical dominance of decapod larvae at the shallow-water stations is correlated with a mass-occurrence of thalassinid larvae at almost all stations (Fig. 5A,B). At shallow-water stations, in contrast to deep-water stations, anomuran larvae were proportionally dominant over brachyuran larvae (Fig. 5B).

Vertical distribution of larvae

At some stations with a strong thermocline, a concentration of meroplanktonic larvae was found (Stns 1254, 1281, 1288, Fig. 6). This holds true especially for cirripede nauplii and echinoderm larvae (Fig. 6), which were concentrated in the thermocline.



Shallow-water stations

Decapod infraorder

Fig. 4. Relative abundance of meroplankton fractions found in the channel and fjord system of the Magellan region in November 1994. Comparison of deep-water station means (A,B) with that of shallow-water stations. Given on the basis of (A,C) major taxonomic groups, (B,D) decapod infraorder



Fig. 5. Relative abundance of meroplankton fractions found at each station sampled in the Magellan region in November 1994. Given on the basis of (A) major taxonomic groups, (B) decapod infraorder



Abundance (ind. m⁻³)

Fig. 6. Vertical distribution of echinoderm and cirripede larvae at Stn 1281. Dotted line = thermocline (at 70 to 80 m water depth, see Antezana et al. 1996)

Decapod larvae presented a distinct distribution: thalassinid larvae (Notiax sp.) were found in conspicuous numbers demersally just above the seafloor (Fig. 7), especially in an advanced stage of larval development. The brachyuran Eurypodius latreillei and the caridean Austropandalus gravi were found in high abundances at Stn 1288, which presented a strong thermocline (Fig. 7, see also Antezana et al. 1996). All larval stages of these 2 species were found below the thermocline, but only in the case of A. gravi did their distribution extend to the seafloor (Fig. 7). A very similar pattern to E. latreillei was found for larvae of Munida spp. and Notiax spp. (Fig. 7) at Stn 1238. Data on temperature and salinity are not available from this station, and therefore it is not known whether a well-developed thermocline was present there.

Developmental modes in decapod larvae

Three basic criteria of (1) morphogenesis, (2) mode of larval nutrition and (3) site of larval development were applied to characterise developmental modes in decapod larvae (cf. 'Materials and methods'). Independent of decapod infraorder, 3 basic larval developmental patterns were detected for the Magellan and south-western Atlantic decapod fauna (Table 2).

- Extended, planktotrophic development of planktonic larvae
- Abbreviated, planktotrophic development of planktonic larvae
- Abbreviated, lecithotrophic development of demersally living larvae.



Fig. 7. Vertical distribution of selected decapod taxa from different sampling stations; *Notiax* sp. (Stn 1238), *Munida* spp. (Stn 1238), *Eurypodius latreillei* (Stn 1288), *Austropandalus grayi* (Stn 1288). Dotted line = thermocline (at 80 to 90 m water depth, see Antezana et al. 1996)

Table 2. Selected decapod taxa from the Magellan region and the southwestern Atlantic Ocean with partially or completely known mode of larval development. Biogeographical information was obtained from Gorny (1999). (?) Uncertain information

Species/Group	Duration Extend- Abbre-		Nutri Plankto-	tion Lecitho-	Hab Plank-	itat Demer-	Source
	ed	viated	trophic	trophic	tonic	sal	
Caridea							
Campylonotus vagans Bate, 1888		х	x		х		28, 30
Campylonotus semistriatus Bate, 1888		x	x		х		28
Chorismus antarcticus (Pfeffer, 1887)		x	x		х		6, 19
Chorismus tuberculatus Bate, 1888		х	х		х		26
Betaeus truncatus Dana, 1852	Ş		х		х		1, 29
Eualus dozei (A. Milne Edwards, 1891)	Ş						1
Nauticaris magellanica A. Milne Edwards, 1891		х	х		х		1, 27, 33, 34
Austropandalus grayi (Cunningham, 1871)	х		х		х		25
D-lin							
Stereomastis (suhmi Bate, 1878, ?)						x	21
Anomura							
Munida subrugosa Henderson, 1847	x		x		x		17, 22, 32, 35, 36
Munida gregaria (Fabricius, 1793)	x		x		x		17. 32. 35. 36
Lithodes santolla (Molina, 1782)		x		x		x	7. 9. 16. 18. 19
Paralomis granulosa (Jaguinot, 1847)		x		x		x	7, 8, 10, 16, 20
Pagurus comptus White 1847	x		x		x		17 23 24 31
Pagurus forceps H Milne Edwards 1836	x		x		x		17 23 24 31
Parapagurus (dimorphus Smith ?)	А		A		A	v	3 21
r urupugurus (unitorpirus binitii, +)						A	0, 21
Brachyura							
<i>Eurypodius latreillei</i> Guérin, 1828		x	х		х		2, 4, 11, 17
Libidoclaea granaria (H. Mil. Edw. & Lucas, 184	l2) x		х		х		4, 12, 17
Halicarcinus planatus (Fabricius, 1775)	х		х		х		5, 17
Peltarion spinosulum (White, 1843)	х		х		х		14, 17
<i>Pinnixia</i> sp.	Ş		х		х		13, 17
Cancer edwardsi Bell, 1835	х		х		х		15
Astacidea							
Thymons hirsteini (Zarenkov & Semenov 1972)						S	21
inymops susterni (Zarenkov a Semenov, 1072)						•	21
Thalassinidea							
Notiax sp. (?)						х	21
Sources							
(1) Albornoz & Webrtmann (1997)	(13) Gui	tiorroz-Mai	tinoz (1971)	(25) T	hatio & B	acardit (2000a)
(2) Bacardit (1085b)	(13) Guidentez-Martinez (1371)				(26) That 8 Bacardit $(2000h)$		
(2) $Pacardit (1905)$	(15) Ouintana (1983)				(20) That is & Bacardit $(2000c)$		
(3) Bacardit (1905d)	(16) Kattnor of al. (2003)				(28) That is at al (2001)		
(4) Bacdialit & Vela (1960) $(5) Bacchi et al. (1060)$	(10) Kauner et al. (2003) (17) Lourish (1000)				(20) Thatic & Bacardit (2001)		
(5) Boschi et al. (1909)	(17) LOVII(11999) $(19) I ourish of al. (2002)$				(20) That α bacdiult (2001) (30) That α & Lowish (2002)		
(6) Bruns (1992) (7) Galaxies at al. (2002a)	(10) LOVIICII et di. (2003) (10) Mal anablia at al. (2001)				(30) I lidije α LOVIICII (2003) (21) Thatia 8 Lorrich (correct)		
(7) Calcagno et al. $(2003a)$	(13) MCLaughlin et al. (2001) (20) Mal aughlin et al. (2002)				(31) That $e \propto \text{Lovrich}(\text{unpubl.})$		
(8) Calcagno et al. $(2003b)$	(20) Michaugillin et al. (2003)				(32) Vera & Bacardit (1986)		
(9) Campodonico (1971)	(21) Present study (20) Palacete (1072)				(33) Wehrtmann & Albornoz (1998)		
(10) Campodonico & Guzman (1972)	(22) Roberts (1973)				(34) Wehrtmann & Kattner (1998)		
(11) Campodonico & Guzman (1981)	(23) Scelzo & Boschi (1969)				(35) Williams (1973)		
(12) Fagetti (1969)	(24) Sce	lzo (1976)			(36) W	'illiams (1	1980)

Brachyuran crabs seem to follow a general pattern of extended larval development, whereas caridean shrimp genera (*Chorismus, Campylonotus*, Table 2), which also have Antarctic representatives, follow an abbreviated larval development. Complete endotrophy in abbreviated larval development has so far only been recorded in lithodid crabs from the study area (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Sampling method and identification of decapod larvae

Among several key ecological problems in high latitude marine larval biology is the general lack of early life history studies in marine invertebrates (but see Pearse et al. 1991). This deficiency affects many aspects of ecological work and the development of ecological concepts, and only allows for broad generalisations as to larval developmental modes in the present study (Table 2). Sampling of meroplankton communities with a plankton net of 300 µm mesh size underestimated the true amount of invertebrate larvae. This should have affected meroplankton composition in particular, and especially smaller larval types, such as molluscs and echinderms, should be underrepresented. This should reduce the real decapod larval dominance to some extent. However, invertebrate larvae tend to be larger in cold temperate and polar regions (Thorson 1936, Mileikowsky 1971, Pearse et al. 1991), and this holds especially true for decapod larvae (Thatje & Bacardit 2000b,c, Thatje et al. 2001). The smallest decapod larvae known from the Beagle Channel is that of Betaeus truncatus (the Zoea I instar has an average total length of about 3.5 mm, see Thatje & Bacardit 2001), which was found in low abundance in our samples, and this species is gener-

ally known to occur in minor abundances within the

benthic community (Pérez-Barros et al. in press). All decapods which spend the greater part of their larval development in the plankton were considered planktotrophic, assuming that active feeding is necessary at least during part of the larval development, although development might be temporarily food independent, relying on high initial/maternal energy sources (for a review see Anger 2001). Since endotrophic larval development in benthic decapods tends to avoid pelagic phases (Anger et al. 2003, Lovrich et al. 2003) and complete lecithotrophic larval development is scarcely reported in marine carideans, we believe our generalisation in larval developmental modes to be a useful tool in describing decapod reproductive patterns. The definition of 'abbreviated' larval development in reptants is easy to apply, since most representatives (especially brachyuran crabs) usually develop through 4 to 6 zoeal stages and 1 megalopa stage (Williamson 1982, Anger 2001). A great variation in larval developmental pathways and larval instars has been described for caridean shrimps. We considered caridean larval developments as abbreviated when passing through 4 or less zoeal stages only, i.e. as in the genera Campylonotus (Thatje et al. in press) and Chorismus (Bruns 1992, Thatje & Bacardit 2000b). However, it has to be considered that this is a rather arbitrary definition of abbreviated development in carideans, which is only based on the number of instars, but does not take larval developmental times into account. The larval development of Nauticaris magellanica was also considered abbreviated (Table 2), as it was found to be reduced with increasing latitude (5 to 6 zoeal stages found in the present study area

compared with 9 to 11 stages in central southern Chile, Wehrtmann & Albornoz 1998, Thatje & Bacardit 2000c).

Occurrence and distribution of invertebrate larvae

The difference in faunal composition between deepand shallow-water stations (cf. Fig. 5) is due to the dominance of decapod crustaceans in the semienclosed hydrographic environment of the Beagle Channel, which is known for its richness in decapods (Gorny 1999, Pérez-Barros et al. unpubl.). Species richness in Subantarctic meroplankton is low and dominated in terms of abundance and diversity by decapod crustaceans with clear seasonal reproduction mainly taking place in spring (Lovrich 1999). It is not certain whether the high proportion of thalassinid larvae found in the Beagle Channel is due to the local distribution of the few species of this infraorder known from the area (see Thatje 2000, Thatje & Gerdes 2000), or to a direct coupling with larval release at the Beagle Channel stations. However, thalassinid shrimps depend on muddy to sandy sediments, which are abundant in the Beagle Channel, but coarser and more heterogeneous sediments are known on the station transect northward to the Straits of Magellan (Fig. 1) (Brambati et al. 1991). Decapod larval development seems to take place mainly in the midwater masses below the thermocline (if developed), where plankton particles are enriched, and consequently food availability is high. However, further studies are needed to define whether larvae show a vertical migration tendency, which may affect this distribution pattern. Decapod species that develop through demersally occurring larvae only, which are mostly of abbreviated and food-independent development as in lithodid crabs (McLaughlin et al. 2001, Calcagno et al. 2003a, Kattner et al. 2003), are rarely found in plankton hauls (Lovrich 1999).

The phylogenetic constraint of being tied to planktotrophic larval developments

The reason why caridean shrimps are successful in Antarctic waters has been assigned to their ability to down-regulate high Mg²⁺ concentrations in the haemolymph (Frederich et al. 2001); a mechanism which functions insufficiently in reptants. Despite this physiological ability to maintain activity levels in the cold (which remains scarcely studied in larvae), carideans show a great flexibility in larval developmental pathways at lower latitudes. This flexibility increases with the number of larval instars, and enhances larval dispersal and survival (Anger 2001). The requirements for exogenous energy from food allowing for developmental flexibility and extended modes of larval development should be high, as metabolic costs for additional moults as well as energy losses with cast exuviae imply a high degree of dependence on plankton productivity (Wehrtmann 1991, Anger 2001). Nevertheless, the flexibility in larval developmental pathways also allowed carideans to evolve energy saving strategies when low temperatures and limited food availability selected for abbreviated and partially endotrophic modes of larval development. This has been hypothesised as a latitudinal pattern in reproductive traits in carideans such as an increase, from the equator towards the poles, in egg size, in initial energy reserves of eggs and larvae, and in larval size, coinciding with a reduction in fecundity and in the age at first maturity (Arntz et al. 1992, Thatje et al. in press a,b). The need for such energy saving strategies under conditions of low temperatures and a seasonally limited primary production in high latitudes has suppressed the extent and flexibility of developmental pathways in caridean larvae. For instance, strongly abbreviated larval developments passing invariably through only 2 or 4 larval instars in the sub- and high Antarctic genera Campylonotus and Chorismus, respectively (Table 2) (Bruns 1992, Thatje & Bacardit 2000b, Thatje et al. in press a), combined with high larval resistance to starvation, especially in the Zoea 1 instar (Thatje et al. in press a,b), allow for an enhanced synchronisation with short and pulsed periods of primary production, and simultaneously reduce the degree of larval dependence on planktonic food sources (Clarke 1988, Anger et al. 2003). Similar early life history adaptations are known also from the Antarctic crangonid Notocrangon antarcticus (Bruns 1992). In the high Antarctic Weddell Sea, carideans are able to spawn only every second year (Arntz et al. 1992, Gorny et al. 1992, Gorny & George 1997), suggesting a lack of sufficient energy supply to female reproduction, due to short periods of primary production during summer, which may be insufficient for the level of somatic growth allowing for an annual reproductive cycle (Clarke 1982). In polar environments, the mismatch between energy availability and high costs for female energy investment into large embryos might thus have selected against complete lecithotrophy in caridean larval development. On the other hand, complete endotrophic larval development of pelagic larvae is rare in marine caridean shrimps (although frequently recorded in shrimps from limnic systems, especially Palaemonidae, cf. Magalhães 1988, Odinetz Collart & Magalhães 1994), which may indicate a phylogenetic constraint for the evolution of lecithotrophic developments in the sea. One known exception, which should be mentioned here, is the Subarctic *Sclerocrangon boreas*, which has a direct and abbreviated (lecithotrophic) development of benthic larvae, including a high degree of parental care (Makarov 1968, Miglavs 1992).

In general, brachyuran crabs have an extended planktotrophic mode of larval development. Cases of an abbreviated development or flexibility in the number of instars have usually been observed under conditions of physiological stress (Anger 2001) and as special adaptations to breeding in land-locked limnic or terrestrial habitats (Montú et al. 1990, Anger & Schuh 1992, Anger 2001). An abbreviated larval development in some endemic terrestrial grapsoid crabs from Jamaica, for instance, has been shown to be a recent evolutionary adaptation to semi-terrestrial or terrestrial life (Schubart et al. 1998), which evolved only about 4 million years ago (for a discussion see Anger 2001). Resistance of brachyuran larvae to starvation is generally low, and examples of larval exposure to low temperatures have indicated that the use of energy sources is hampered by metabolic disturbance below critical temperatures (Anger et al. 1981, Pörtner 2002). The inability of most reptant decapods to suppress the number of larval stages should therefore have selected against their occurrence in high latitudes when the Antarctic region began to become cooler (Clarke 1990). However, one family of anomuran crabs, the lithodid crabs, which in evolutionary terms evolved quite recently, developed complete endotrophic larval development of demersal larvae. They evolved from hermit crab ancestors (Cunningham et al. 1992, this phylogenetic relation is the subject of recent controversial discussion, see also McLaughlin & Lemaitre 2000), and were recorded for the first time between 13 to 25 million years ago, when other much older brachyuran and anomuran taxa (hermit crabs evolved more than 150 million years ago, Cunningham et al. 1992 and references therein) were already extinct in high southern latitudes due to Antarctic cooling (Zinsmeister & Feldmann 1984, Feldmann & Tshudy 1989). Lithodid crabs from the Magellan region (Paralomis granulosa, Lithodes santolla) developed special adaptations in life history, such as prolonged brooding of egg masses and, most importantly, complete lecithotrophy in larval development, which allowed for adaptation to ecological and physiological constraints in high latitudes (Frederich et al. 2001, Anger et al. 2003, Lovrich et al. 2003, Thatje et al. 2003). This evolutionarily young taxon of anomuran crabs, which is represented by several species in high latitudes of both hemispheres and also appears to be a common deepsea representative (Anger et al. 2003 and references therein), is obviously about to release itself from the apparent phylogenetic constraints that have prevented reptants from conquering the polar marine realm as a life habitat (Macpherson 1988, Klages et al. 1995, Arana & Retamal 2000). We suggest a similar recent evolutionary trait to be responsible for abbreviated larval developments in spider crabs (Majidae), which are already present in both the Subarctic (e.g. *Hyas araneus*, Dyer 1985) and the Subantarctic (*Eurypodius latreillei*). *Eurypodius latreillei* Guerin, which at present is the southernmost known spider crab in the southern hemisphere, was recently confirmed to occur in waters off South Georgia (Romero et al. 2003). The Majidae are suggested as further possible recolonisers of the Polar marine realm.

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