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Authors contributions

JBB Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing original draft, review & editing, Visualization. **BX** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **AD** Methodology, Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **AP** Investigation. **EM** Investigation. **FLF** Supervision. **RC** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

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2 summer larvae of *Palaemon serratus*

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10

11 Abstract

In a seasonal environment, variation in larval phenotype and developmental plasticity allow 12 13 crustacean larvae to maximise survival by lengthening or shortening their development. The 14 aim of this study is to investigate the effects of temperature, laying season and their interaction on larval developmental pathways (larval instars and larval stages). We monitored the different 15 16 larval stages and calculated the number of larval instars reached during the development of 17 winter and summer larvae of *Palaemon serratus* incubated at 12, 16 or 20°C. We observed a great variability in the larval development (6 to 13 larval instars and 6 to 11 larval stages). A 18 higher temperature decreases the development time and the number of larval instars. At a given 19 20 temperature, the development time of winter and summer larvae was not different. Two larval 21 stages were considered supernumerary (zoea 4 and 6), as they were more frequent at low 22 temperatures. At higher temperatures, some larvae started to develop pleopods as early as the 23 third instar, larval stage which had never been described (named here zoea 3'). This 24 phenomenon was more common in winter larvae than in summer larvae. These results provide new insights into the expression of developmental plasticity in decapod larvae. 25

- 26 Key words: Larval ecology, Plasticity, Developmental pathways, Larval instars, Larval
- 27 stages, *Palaemon serratus*.

ournal Prevence

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Ecological Developmental Biology (Eco-Devo) approaches focus on the interactions between 30 organisms and their environment, and their ability to optimise their growth and development 31 (Gilbert, 2001). For Eco-Devo studies, marine decapod crustaceans represent interesting 32 biological models because their complex life cycle is generally biphasic (for a review see Anger 33 2006), divided between a pelagic larval phase and a benthic adult life. Given the seasonal or spatial variability of the pelagic environment (*e.g.* food availability and quality, temperature), 34 35 decapods may therefore exhibit a high degree of developmental plasticity (*i.e.* the capacity of a genotype to produce alternative developmental pathways; West-Eberhard 2003), allowing their 36 37 larvae to cope with variable or even sub-optimal conditions (Anger, 2001). Several authors have 38 studied the effects of environmental parameters on the larval development of marine decapods. 39 Among abiotic parameters, temperature affects intermoult time, growth rate and number of larval moults achieved (Linck 1995, read in Giménez 2006; O'Connor et al. 2007; Oliphant et 40 41 al. 2013). The amount of food ingested by the larvae determines the number of larval moult 42 cycles and the rate of morphogenesis between them (Anger, 1987; González-Ortegón and 43 Giménez, 2014). Thence, prolonged development has frequently been observed under poor 44 zootechnical conditions (Críales and Anger, 1986; Giménez and Anger, 2003; González-Ortegón et al., 2013; González-Ortegón and Giménez, 2014; Knowlton, 1974; Oliphant et al., 45 46 2013; Ostrensky et al., 1997). Conversely, abbreviated developments have been encountered 47 under optimal conditions such as the thermal preference (Críales and Anger, 1986; Oliphant et 48 al., 2013; Oliphant and Thatje, 2013). It is these different plastic responses to environmental 49 conditions that lead to different developmental pathways (Críales and Anger, 1986).

In other way, few authors have studied the interactions of environmental conditions and the
offspring phenotype on the developmental plasticity of decapods (Linck 1995, read in Giménez
2006; Hancock 1998; Oliphant & Thatje 2013; González-Ortegón & Giménez 2014; Oliphant

et al. 2014). The larval size is highly correlated with the nutritional reserves transferred per egg 53 54 by the females during oogenesis (Giménez and Anger, 2001; Giménez and Torres, 2002; 55 Hancock, 1998; Moland et al., 2010). This increases their fitness by allowing them to better 56 resist starvation and achieve a shorter development (Giménez et al., 2004; Giménez and Anger, 57 2003; González-Ortegón and Giménez, 2014; Hancock, 1998; Oliphant et al., 2014; Oliphant 58 and Thatje, 2013). The larval phenotype is therefore determined by maternal investment, in line 59 with environmental variations. The largest larvae correspond to the most difficult 60 environmental conditions, such as the beginning of the season (González-Ortegón et al., 2018; 61 Paschke, 1998; Paschke et al., 2004; Urzúa and Anger, 2013). Thus, decapods living in 62 seasonally variable environments and reproducing several times during the year show a 63 seasonal pattern in the "fertility x offspring size trade-off" (Bas et al., 2007; Boddeke, 1982; Vázquez et al., 2013). The developmental pathways of the larvae of these species should be 64 65 seasonally different, linked to the difference in larval size between the seasons.

The larval developmental pathway is therefore the result of the interaction between larval 66 67 genotype, environmental conditions during development and the environment or phenotype of 68 the mother (*i.e.* maternal effects, Marshall et al., 2008). In order to study the developmental 69 plasticity response to this interaction, it is necessary to define the developmental pathways 70 taken. Decapod larvae develop through a succession of moults with morphological, ecological 71 and behavioural changes, which are generally called "Larval Stages" (Anger, 2001). However, 72 in caridean shrimps that develop anamorphically in particular (*i.e.* through a gradual pattern of development, Møller et al. 2020), the degree of morphological changes between moults is 73 74 variable (Anger, 2001; for a review see Quinn, 2016). Additional larval stages may be 75 "intercalated" into the developmental sequence, often called "supernumerary stages", 76 displaying intermediate morphology (Knowlton, 1974; Little, 1969). Each larval stage can also 77 be "repeated", without showing any significant change (Rothlisberg, 1980; Walsh, 1993;

Wehrtmann and Albornoz, 1998). We thus explain that the larvae of a species do not necessarily
develop through a fixed number of moults. Therefore, the neutral term "Larval Instar" is
preferred to refer to the successive moult cycles during larval development, without describing
them (Martin et al., 2014; Phillips and Sastry, 1980).

82 It seems necessary to describe the number of larval instars reached and the different successive 83 larval stages to accurately characterise the larval developmental pathway. Some authors have 84 study the developmental plasticity of caridean shrimp larvae in response to environmental 85 factors by focusing on larval stages, larval instars or both. Hancock (1998) described the larval 86 stages of Paratya australiensis encountered during development at 2 temperatures. Oliphant et 87 al. (2014) counted the number of larval instars achieved by Palaemonetes varians in relation to 88 food availability. González-Ortegón and Giménez (2014) carried out the same type of 89 experiment on *P. serratus* larvae adding the effects of temperature and salinity. Oliphant *et al.* 90 (2013) monitored both the larval stages and larval instars of P. varians during development at 91 3 temperatures. Críales and Anger (1986) described the developmental pathways (larval stages 92 and instars) of Crangon crangon and C. allmanni according to rearing temperature. Linck 93 (1995, read in Giménez, 2006) is the only author to have studied the effects of the interaction between temperature and laying season on larval development pathways (C. crangon). 94

95 To investigate the effects of the interaction between temperature and seasonal variations in 96 larval size on the variability of larval developmental pathways, we chose to work with the 97 caridean shrimp, Palaemon serratus (Pennant, 1777). This species is abundant in European 98 coastal environments and has a life span of 3 to 5 years (Campillo, 1979). Its reproductive cycle 99 consists of two annual clutches (commonly called "winter laying" and "summer laying"), 100 characterised by larger eggs, and thus larvae, in the first clutch (Campillo, 1979; González-101 Ortegón et al., 2018). This species is known to carry out larval development with a variable 102 number of instars; mostly 6 to 9 but ranging from 6 to 22 in the laboratory (Campillo, 1979;

103 Fincham and Figueras, 1986; Kelly et al., 2012; Reeve, 1969a). This developmental plasticity 104 is mainly temperature-mediated, with the larvae of this species performing fewer instars in 105 warm water than in cold water (González-Ortegón and Giménez, 2014). However, variations 106 in developmental pathways due to temperature-mediated plasticity have not been investigated 107 in *P. serratus* (larval stages and instars). The effects of seasonal variation in the size of the 108 larvae of this species on their development have also not been studied, although this should also 109 influence their developmental pathways (González-Ortegón et al., 2018). We hypothesise the 110 following two scenarios. Large winter larvae develop faster than small summer larvae at the 111 same temperature, completing fewer larval instars. Furthermore, the interaction between 112 temperature and laying season has synergistic effects on developmental pathways. To test these 113 hypotheses, we monitor the different stages and calculate the number of instars reached during 114 the development of larvae from winter and summer females of P. serratus incubated at 3 115 temperatures, 12, 16 and 20°C.

116

117

2. Material and methods

118 2.1 Collection and maintenance of females

119 To study the larval development of the winter and summer laying, ovigerous P. serratus 120 females (6 per seasons; Fig.1) were respectively sampled between 29/04/2021 and 12/05/2021, 121 and between 23/06/2021 and 28/06/2021 by hand-netting on Saint-Jouin-Bruneval foreshore 122 (Seine-Maritime, France). Only the specimens carrying eggs at the end of development were 123 selected for the study. The length of the cephalothorax was constant for both seasons, measured 124 respectively 40.8 mm (\pm 1) for winter females and 39.8 mm (\pm 1.1) for summer females, in 125 mean (\pm S.E.). The shrimps were transferred to the laboratory of the University of Le Havre 126 (Seine-Maritime, France), and then maintained under photoperiod 12: 12 (L: D) in 100 L tank

temperature-controlled at 16°C, filled with filtered aerated natural seawater at 30 ppt (\pm 4) of salinity (Fig. 1). Seawater was renewed by half 3 times per week to avoid nitrate increase. Each specimen was isolated in wire baskets covered with fine mesh and fed individually twice a week *ad libitum* with pieces of squid. Larval hatching was checked daily.

131

132 2.2 Larval maintenance

The objective was to incubate larvae from 12 clutches (6 winter and 6 summer) at three 133 134 temperature treatments of 12, 16 and 20°C, as shown in Figure 1. On hatching, actively 135 swimming larvae were separated from females using a pipette. The rostro-telson length of 30 136 newly hatched larvae from each clutch was measured (Campillo, 1979). For each clutch, 3 137 groups of 104 larvae were distributed in three conical vessels, with filtered seawater at 30 ppt 138 of salinity (± 4) , at a density of 100 larvae per L (Reeve, 1969b; Torres et al., 2021). The water 139 was initially at the same temperature as for the maintenance of the females, and then the conical 140 vessels were distributed to 3 incubators (temperature $\pm 0.3^{\circ}$ C, regulated by a TK700 cooling 141 unit by TECO), with photoperiod 12: 12 (L: D) and constant thin aeration. This resulted in a 142 gradual change which allowed time for the larvae to acclimate to the new temperatures 143 (Richard, 1978). Larvae were fed daily with freshly-hatched Artemia sp. nauplii at a density of 144 10 nauplii per mL (Reeve, 1969b). The water was changed (100 %), and larval mortality and 145 development, assessed by identification of stages (see section 2.4), were monitored 3 times a 146 week. During development, the oxygen saturation was 103 % (\pm 4), the pH was 8 (\pm 0.1) and the ammonium concentration was 1 mg per L (\pm 0.3), in mean (\pm S.E.). On moulting to the 147 148 juvenile stage, shrimps were removed.

150 2.3 Intermoult time and number of instars

151 As several successive stages can occur without morphological change, it is necessary to 152 determine the number of larval instars. Because the larvae are mass-reared, the larval average 153 intermoult time cannot be individually measured and then need to be calculated. The average 154 intermoult time of *P. serratus* larvae is known to be constant in good zootechnical conditions 155 (González-Ortegón and Giménez, 2014; Reeve, 1969a). We compiled data on the duration of 156 larval development of *P. serratus* under controlled temperature conditions available in the 157 literature. We did not use data concerning larvae exposed to other stresses (salinity, 158 contaminant, ...). This allows the construction of a function expressing the theoretical 159 intermoult time of larval as a function of temperature. For each juvenile obtained in the 160 experiment, its number of instars realised is estimated by dividing its developmental time by 161 the corresponding theoretical intermoult time.

162

163 2.4 Identification of larval stages

The different larval stages are identified using morphological criteria. In the larvae of European 164 165 palaemonidae, the morphological criteria corresponding to the rostrum, caudal region and 166 pleopods are commonly used to identify the different larval stages (Fincham and Figueras, 167 1986). Fincham and Figueras (1986) described 9 larval stages for P. serratus, while Campillo 168 (1979) described 6. Description and terminology for the naming of larval stages differ between 169 these authors, but it is possible to do correspondences and characterise 10 different larval stages 170 (Table 1; according to Duflot et al., unpublished). According to these authors, these larval stages 171 are potentially all observable, but are not obligatory stages through which each larvae must pass 172 to develop. On the recent recommendations of Møller et al. (2020) regarding the terminology 173 of caridean shrimp larvae, we call these stages zoea 1 to zoea 10 in chronological order of 174 morphogenesis.

175

- 176 Table 1: Correspondences between the nomenclatures of the larval stages of *Palaemon serratus*
- 177 described Campillo (1979), Fincham & Figueras (1986) and us; according to Duflot et al.,
- 178 unpublished. The morphological criteria used in this study are outlined.

Authors					Z	loea					Juvenile
Campillo (1979)	1	2	3		4			5	6		
Fincham and Figueras (1986)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		9	
Correspondences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Morphological criteria	Sessile eyes	Pedunculated eyes, 1 rostral spine	2 rostral spines	3 rostral spines, telson trapezoidal shape, no pleopod buds	3 rostral spines, telson trapezoidal shape, little pleopod buds	Telson rectangular shape, little pleopod buds	Telson rectangular shape, rudimentary pleopod buds	Rudimentary biramous pleopods	Well-developed pleopods, endopod of antenna 2 not longer than exopod by more than 2 segments	3 rostral curved spines, endopod of antenna 2 longer than exopod (\geq 2 segments)	Toothed rostrum (> 6 dorsal teeth)

181 2.5 Statistical analysis

Statistical procedures were implemented with R software (R Core Team, 2020). The 182 183 relationship between larval intermoult time and temperature (Fig. 3; Eq. 1) was obtained using 184 the *nls* function. The difference in larval size between winter and summer laying was tested 185 using a nonparametric Wilcoxon Rank Sum test. To test the effects of temperature and laying 186 season on the rate of larval metamorphosis and the development time of the metamorphosed 187 larvae, we used mixed-effects models to consider the fact that for each of the seasons, the larvae 188 used in the different temperatures came from the same females. For the rate of larval 189 metamorphosis, we fitted generalised linear mixed-effects model with a logit link function and 190 a binomial error distribution (glmer function of the package lme4) and performed deviance 191 analysis procedure including interaction terms (using the package *car*). For the development 192 time of the metamorphosed larvae, we fitted linear mixed-effects model (using the function 193 *lmer* of the package *lme4*) and performed deviance analysis procedure including interaction 194 terms (using the package *car*).

195

3. Results

197 *3.1 Zootechnical performances during larval development.*

198 The average total length of hatching larvae was significantly higher in winter $(3.68 \pm 0.07 \text{ mm})$,

199 than in summer $(3.18 \pm 0.05 \text{ mm})$ in mean \pm S.E. (Wilcoxon Rank Sum test; p < 0.05).

While all females produced juveniles at 16 and 20°C, only 5 winter and 3 summer females produced juveniles at 12°C. At 12°C, only 18 of the 624 winter larvae and 5 of the 624 summer larvae metamorphosed (Fig. 2a). At 16 and 20°C respectively, 30 % (\pm 5) and 41 % (\pm 7) of the winter larvae metamorphosed, compared to 43 % (\pm 7) and 55 % (\pm 7) of the summer larvae, in mean (\pm S.E.). The rate of larval metamorphosis varied significantly with temperature and

laying season without interaction of these two factors (Deviance analysis, interaction term: Chisq = 3.18, p = 0.07; temperature: Chisq = 16.19, $p < 10^{-5}$; season: Chisq = 26.6, $p < 10^{-7}$; n = 6 per temperature and season).

The metamorphoses took place between days 65 and 111 at 12°C, between days 30 and 56 at 16°C and between days 19 and 42 at 20°C (Fig. 2b). The development time of the metamorphosed larvae varied significantly between the three incubation temperatures, but neither as a function of the laying season nor as a result of the interaction of these two factors (Deviance analysis, interaction term: *Chisq* = 0.76, *p* = 0.4; temperature: *Chisq* = 138.73, $p < 10^{-16}$; season: *Chisq* = 0.62, *p* = 0.43; n = 6 per temperature and season).

214

215 *3.2 Number of instars achieved by larvae.*

The compilation of literature data on the larval development of *P. serratus* under controlled temperature conditions allows us to construct a function expressing the theoretical larval intermoult time *versus* temperature (Fig. 3; Eq. 1):

219
$$LIT = 147.96 e^{(-0.25 \ temp)} + 2.45$$
 Eq. 1

220 where *LIT* is the theoretical larval intermoult time and temp the incubation temperature.

This function allows us to calculate the theoretical intermoult times at 12°C (9.8 days), 16°C (5.2 days) and 20°C (3.4 days) as well as the number of instars achieved by each juvenile obtained in this experiment. In all experimental conditions, the larvae that metamorphosed did so after 6 to 13 larval instars (Fig. 4). Only about 3.7 % of them developed for more than 9 instars, and about 1 % for 6 instars. While about 33 and 45 % of the larvae performed 7 instars at 16 and 20°C, about 43 and 31 % of them performed 8 instars. At 20°C, larvae metamorphosing after 7 instars represented about 40 % of the total in winter and 50 % in

summer. At 16°C, 3 larvae metamorphosed after 6 instars in summer, while none did so in
winter.

230

231 *3.3 Succession of larval stages.*

232 Figures 5 to 7 show the number of individuals observed for each larval stage during 233 development, separating the larvae by clutch and incubation temperature. With the exception 234 of the first few days of development, the larvae from the same clutch incubated at the same 235 temperature showed a diversity of larval stages, highlighting different developmental pathways 236 within the same clutch. This diversity increased during development, so that the time of 237 observation of a larval stage within the clutch also increased during monitoring. Regardless of 238 the experimental conditions and the rate of metamorphosis, larval mortality is constant 239 throughout development. Only the larvae of the females 2, 4 and 9 at 12°C experienced more 240 than 50 % mortality from the zoea 1 stage (Fig. 5).

All 10 larval stages described were observed at each temperature. However, we observed differences in the proportions of the different larval stages. At 12, 16 and 20°C, respectively, at least 15.3, 5.9 and 0.4 % of the larvae passed through the zoea 4 stage, and at least 9.1, 0.6 and 0.3 % of the larvae passed through the zoea 6 stage.

Furthermore, during the monitoring of the larval stages presented here, we frequently observed larvae with 2 rostral spines (criteria for zoea 3) and pleopod buds (criteria for zoea 5). This larval stage seems to take place instead of the zoea 3 stage, so we called it zoea 3'. This never described larval stage was not observed at 12°C. At 16 and 20°C, respectively, at least 58.1 and 67.8 % of the winter larvae passed through the zoea 3' stage, compared to at least 20.8 and 19.9 % of summer larvae.

4. Discussion

Regardless of the incubation temperature and the laying season from which the larvae hatched, we observed a great variability in the larval development of *P. serratus* (6 to 13 larval instars and 6 to 11 larval stages). The different developmental pathways observed underline the developmental plasticity of this species.

257 In contrast to several authors studying the number of larval instars of decapods during 258 development (Reeve, 1969a; Dalley, 1980; Linck, 1995, read in Giménez, 2006), we did not 259 rear the larvae individually. This choice was made in view of the survival rates of *P. serratus* 260 larvae in the laboratory available in the literature. While González-Ortegón and Giménez 261 (2014) and Lassus and Maggi (1980) achieved respectively 40 and 45-70% metamorphosis when rearing larvae individually, Campillo (1979) and Reeve (1969b) achieved respectively 76 262 and over 90% metamorphosis with mass-rearing. Furthermore, Reeve (1969a) observed longer 263 264 larval development with lower survival when rearing P. serratus individually than when mass-265 rearing.

We calculated the number of instars made by the larvae from their average intermoult time 266 267 according to bibliographic data. Intermoult times obtained for the same temperature may vary 268 slightly between the 6 sources used (Fig. 3). This can be explained by the differences in 269 experimental protocol and by maternal effects. The limited information available on this second 270 factor complicates discussions on this subject. The females used in these 6 experiments came 271 from populations in Ireland, Wales, Brittany and the Mediterranean (the latter being 272 phylogenetically distant from the Atlantic populations; Weiss et al., 2018). Only González-273 Ortegón and Giménez (2014) specify the period of collection of females (autumn) as well as 274 their size (between 17 and 24 mm from the postorbital margin to the end of carapace, between 275 18 and 22 mm in our study). According to Reeve (1969a) and González-Ortegón and Giménez 276 (2014), the intermoult time of *P. serratus* is constant during larval development under good

zootechnical conditions. Nevertheless, these authors reared the larvae of this species between
18 and 24°C. It is possible that the intermoult time of *P. serratus* larvae increases as
development proceeds at lower temperatures, as reported by Kelly et al. (2012) and Lassus and
Maggi (1980) between 10 and 13°C. However, the few individuals that metamorphosed at 12°C
leads us to put the interpretation of the number of instars carried out at this temperature into
perspective.

283

284 4.1 Temperature-mediated developmental plasticity

285 The larval development of *P. serratus* is temperature-driven. Here, metamorphosis rates were 286 temperature dependent (about 2, 36 and 49 % at 12, 16 and 20°C respectively). Campillo (1979) 287 experienced the highest rates of metamorphosis (85 %) by incubating P. serratus larvae from 288 Roscoff (France) at 27°C, a temperature above the local maximum. Other authors who studied the larval development of *P. serratus* at temperatures between 10 and 13°C observed a mortality 289 290 of all individuals between the third and fourth larval instar (Kelly et al., 2012; Lassus and Maggi, 1980; Yagi and Ceccaldi, 1985). We also observed very low survival rates at 12°C, but 291 292 we managed to get some individuals to metamorphosis (< 2%) after 7-13 instars. We chose to 293 incubate larvae at 12°C because this is the temperature of the sea water in the Bay of Seine 294 (Normandy) at the beginning of May (Claquin et al., 2018), the date at which the larvae from 295 the winter spawning are released by females of the same size as those used for this study 296 (personal observations). Mortality at 12°C was constant during development in the laboratory. 297 At this temperature, only the larvae from 3 of the 12 females suffered mortality rates above 298 50 % by the end of the first instar. The mortality rate of the larvae was approximately 52 % 299 after 30 days of incubation, when most of them were in their fourth instar. The thermal optimum 300 of crustacean larvae experiences an ontogenic shift (Sastry and McCarthy, 1973). These 301 variations between larval stages are due to temperature-induced changes in metabolic rates

302 (Small et al., 2015). During the month of May, the temperature of the sea water in the Bay of
303 Seine increases by approximately 3°C (Claquin et al., 2018). A constant temperature of 12°C
304 in the laboratory negatively affects the survival rates of *P. serratus* larvae. These effects
305 probably increase during ontogeny.

306 In addition to decreasing survival, colder water increases the duration of development. First of 307 all, as we know from the literature, the intermoult time increases as the temperature decreases 308 following a negative exponential relationship (Fig. 2). Secondly, larvae tend to go through a 309 greater number of instars in colder waters (Fig. 4). Although the duration of development is 310 variable between individuals incubated at the same temperature, this is not so with the value of 311 the average duration per family (Fig. S1, Supplement). The plastic response to temperature 312 therefore appears to be the same for larvae produced by different females. However, differences 313 in survival rates appear between larvae of different families (Fig. S1, Supplement).

314 Concerning the larval stages, zoea 4 and zoea 6 are more frequent in colder water (Fig. 5 to 7). 315 These larval stages can be interpreted as supernumerary, or intercalated, stages occurring under 316 unfavourable conditions such as low temperature. This would explain why Campillo (1979) did 317 not describe them at 27°C (Table 1). Conversely, at 16 and 20°C, many larvae with zoea 3 318 criteria (2 rostral spines) and zoea 5 criteria (pleopod buds) were observed (about 39 and 44 % 319 at 16 and 20°C respectively). This never described stage, which we have called zoea 3', seems 320 to replace the zoea 3 stage. This larval stage can be interpreted as a sign of abbreviated 321 development, occurring under favourable conditions. Caridean shrimps have anamorphic 322 development, with gradual morphogenesis. Several authors attempt to define and differentiate 323 terminologies such as repeated instars, supernumerary and intermediate stages. These terms are 324 the result of the conservative belief in immutable development in decapod crustaceans (Sandifer 325 and Smith, 1979). The study of the anamorphic development of caridean shrimps allows us to 326 consider this belief as a zombie idea. The multiple examples of developmental plasticity

327 observed in species from different groups of decapods support this view (for a review see328 Quinn, 2016).

329 As stated in the introduction, this temperature-mediated developmental plasticity has already 330 been demonstrated in caridean shrimps. The larvae follow shorter developmental pathways in 331 temperatures closer to their thermal optimum (Críales and Anger, 1986; Linck, 1995, read in 332 Giménez, 2006; Oliphant et al., 2013). Generally, at a given temperature, the more instars the 333 larvae develop through, the larger the juveniles. This trend has been demonstrated in the larvae 334 of several decapods including Chasmagnathus granulata (Giménez and Torres, 2002) and 335 P. varians (Oliphant et al., 2013). Therefore, it would be interesting to compare the 336 consequences of temperature-mediated developmental plasticity of P. serratus larvae on the 337 phenotype of juveniles.

338 These differences in survival between thermal conditions can also be explained by differences 339 in nutritional requirements. Crustacean larvae require long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids 340 (PUFAs) for development, such as eicosapentaenoic acid, or EPA, and docosahexaenoic acid, 341 or DHA (Anger, 1998; Bergé and Barnathan, 2005). These are generally synthesised by 342 phytoplankton and transferred into the food chain (Lubzens et al., 1995). PUFAs, DHA in 343 particular, maintain membrane integrity and viscosity (Estévez and Kanazawa, 1996; Los and 344 Murata, 2004; Pagliarani et al., 1986), especially in cold waters (Harwood, 1988; Munro and 345 Thomas, 2004). Like many authors, we fed P. serratus larvae with artemia nauplii (Campillo, 346 1979; Reeve, 1969b; Wickins, 1972; Yúfera and Rodríguez, 1985). Although these are 347 traditionally used to feed decapod larvae, they are known to be deficient in PUFAs (Narciso 348 and Morais, 2001; Navarro et al., 1999). These deficiencies may explain the very low survival 349 of *P. serratus* larvae in cold water observed here and by the authors mentioned in the paragraph 350 above. PUFAs also influence growth, stress and disease resistance in decapods (Anger, 1998; 351 Kanazawa et al., 1985; Mourente and Rodríguez, 1997). It would be interesting to study the

effects of the interaction between temperature and diet quality on the developmental plasticityof *P. serratus*.

354

355 4.2 Developmental plasticity induced by laying season and its interaction with temperature

356 The newly hatched larvae used in this study were larger in winter than in summer. These results are consistent with González-Ortegón et al. (2018) who observed difference in P. serratus 357 358 larval biomass between laying seasons. Because of this difference in phenotype, we 359 hypothesised that *P. serratus* larvae from winter females would develop faster than those from 360 summer females. These effects were not significant in our data analyses. At a given 361 temperature, summer larvae even appeared to perform fewer larval instars than winter larvae. 362 These results are in contradiction with those obtained on another caridean shrimp species 363 (Linck, 1995, read in Giménez, 2006). The author incubated larvae of C. crangon, from large winter eggs and small summer eggs, at two relatively cold and warm temperatures (12 and 364 365 18°C). Regardless of the temperature, summer larvae metamorphosed after a greater number of 366 larval instars than winter larvae. We need to further investigate the effects of the interaction 367 between the laying season and environmental conditions on the developmental plasticity of 368 P. serratus.

The winter larvae were larger than the summer ones. Few authors have studied the effects of larval size or larval biomass on developmental plasticity of decapod larvae. The number of larval instars made by larvae decreases with increasing larval size or larval biomass in *C. crangon* (Paschke et al., 2004), *C. granulata* (Giménez et al., 2004), *Homarus gammarus* (Moland et al., 2010), *P. varians* (Oliphant et al., 2014; Oliphant and Thatje, 2013) and *P. australiensis* (Hancock, 1998), a phenomenon that is accentuated under adverse conditions. Although they highlighted the decrease in the number of larval instars with increasing initial

larval biomass in *P. serratus* larvae under starvation conditions, González-Ortegón & Giménez
(2014) did not confirm this trend under favourable feeding conditions. This result is consistent
with those presented here.

379 Although the development time of the larvae in the two laying seasons did not differ, at 16 and 380 20°C, the zoea 3' stage was observed more often in winter larvae than in summer larvae (Fig. 5 381 to 7). The morphogenesis of the winter larvae (pleopod buds) was earlier than that of the 382 summer larvae, at least in the early larval stages. The winter larvae may have received more 383 available energy resources (transmitted by the mother) than summer larvae and used them 384 during these early instars. This phenomenon may have been favoured by the choice of females 385 used. The cephalothorax of the winter females measured on average about 40 mm. These would 386 be more than two years old, which corresponds to less than 2 % of the female population of 387 P. serratus (Campillo, 1979). The limited information available on the size of the females and 388 the date of their sampling in previous publications does not allow comparison of our results. 389 The lack of description of the zoea 3' stage in previous studies can be explained by the choice of females used. We need to investigate the effects of female age on maternal investment and 390 391 developmental plasticity in *P. serratus*.

392 When they hatch, decapod larvae have visible vitelline reserves in the cephalothorax in the form 393 of yolk droplets (Anger, 1996; Oliphant and Thatje, 2014). These can be used to cope with 394 starvation conditions during the first larval instars (Anger, 1995a, 1995b; Thessalou-Legaki et 395 al., 1999), e.g. when larvae are exported from a brackish environment to the marine 396 environment (Anger and Hayd, 2009; Oliphant and Thatje, 2014). Such yolk droplets are 397 observed in hatched larvae of *P. serratus* (personal observation). Narciso and Morais (2001) 398 measured a decrease in fatty acid content during the first 48 hours of development of P. serratus 399 larvae under starvation conditions. Their results and ours seem to confirm the use of vitelline 400 reserves during the first larval instars in *P. serratus*. Future analyses to compare the quantity

401 and quality of resources allocated per offspring, called POI (*i.e.* per offspring investment;
402 Oliphant, 2014), as a result of the laying season and their effects on larval development will
403 provide a better understanding of the developmental plasticity in *P. serratus* larvae.

404 In P. serratus, winter larvae are larger than summer larvae. We expected that this phenotypic 405 difference would allow winter larvae to develop faster than summer larvae at the same 406 temperature. Although we did not observe this result, we did observe earlier morphogenesis in 407 winter larvae at the warmest temperatures. As explained in the previous paragraphs (see section 408 4.2), we believe that this phenomenon is related to the amount of energy allocated per offspring. 409 This pattern of maternal investment buffers winter larvae from variable early season conditions 410 (low temperature, Torres et al., 2020; less abundant planktonic food resources, Paschke et al., 411 2004). Furthermore, the negative effects of food limitation on larval survival are exacerbated 412 by unfavourable temperatures (Torres and Giménez, 2020). The few months separating the 413 hatching of the larvae from the two laying periods of P. serratus result in two cohorts of 414 juveniles (Campillo, 1979). As these cohorts share the same habitats, they compete for 415 resources or even cannibalise (Moksnes et al., 1998). The shift in the recruitment periods of 416 these two cohorts results in a difference in the size of the individuals (P. serratus juveniles of 417 0.5g which double or triple their weight in 2 months depending on their sex at temperatures 418 between 18 and 29°C; Rodriguez, 1981). These traits probably favour juveniles from winter 419 laying over those from summer laying in years when early season conditions are favourable 420 (Temming et al., 2017). The population structure and dynamics of P. serratus should be studied 421 to assess the settlement success of winter and summer cohort. This would facilitate 422 understanding the effects of juvenile recruitment phenology on their interactions.

424 Conclusion

Although larval development of *P. serratus* is plastic in response to temperature, the interaction
between temperature and laying season does not seem to influence its developmental pathways
as expected. As the development of some groups of decapods is gradual, understanding their
developmental pathways will require consideration of the number of instars and the succession
of larval stages.

430

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436

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449

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470 experiments and modelling.

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472 **5. References**

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706 Figure captions

Figure 1: Experimental design to study the effects of temperature and laying season on larval developmental pathways in *Palaemon serratus*. For the 12 females (6 per season), the larvae are distibuted into conical vessels in 3 water baths following the illustrated example of the larvae of females 1 and 7. The illustrations of the females are modified from the one available on the Muséum-Aquarium de Nancy website by Marion Arbona.

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Figure 2: (a) Metamorphosis rate (%) and (b) development time (days) of *Palaemon serratus*larvae having reached metamorphosis. The ± S.E. correspond to the deviation of the mean of
each family from the overall mean. Larvae are grouped by laying season and incubation
temperature; W12: Winter 12°C, S12: Summer 12°C, W16: Winter 16°C, S16: Summer 16°C,
W20: Winter 20°C and S20: Summer 20°C (n = 104 larvae per female).

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Figure 3: Theoretical larval intermoult time of *Palaemon serratus versus* rearing temperature,
based on data from bibliography (Reeve, 1969a, squares; Campillo, 1979, filled circles; Lassus
& Maggi, 1980, cross; Yagi & Ceccaldi, 1985, stars; Kelly *et al.*, 2012, filled squares;
González-Ortegón & Giménez, 2014, filled triangle).

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Figure 4: The relative frequency (%) of the total number of larval instars reached by metamorphosed *Palaemon serratus* larvae. Larvae are grouped by laying season and incubation temperature; W12: Winter 12°C (n = 18), S12: Summer 12°C (n = 5), W16: Winter 16°C (n = 186), S16: Summer 16°C (n = 257), W20: Winter 20°C (n = 271) and S20: Summer 20°C (n = 350). Figure 5: Number of *Palaemon serratus* larvae observed for each larval stage during their development at 12°C. Larvae are grouped by clutch; 1 to 6: winter females, 7 to 12: summer females (n = 104 larvae per female). Juveniles are removed at metamorphosis and their cumulative numbers are shown in black on the graph. Observations stop when there are no more larvae.

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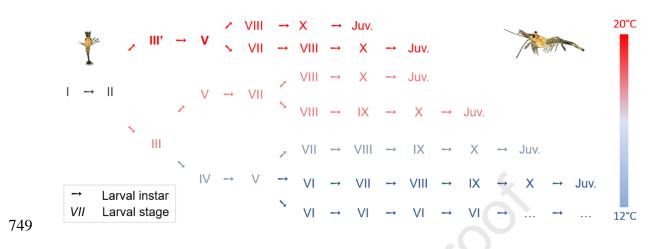
Figure 6: Number of *Palaemon serratus* larvae observed for each larval stage during their development at 16° C. Larvae are grouped by clutch; 1 to 6: winter females, 7 to 12: summer females (n = 104 larvae per female). Juveniles are removed at metamorphosis and their cumulative numbers are shown in black on the graph. Observations stop when there are no more larvae.

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Figure 7: Number of *Palaemon serratus* larvae observed for each larval stage during their development at 20°C. Larvae are grouped by clutch; 1 to 6: winter females, 7 to 12: summer females (n = 104 larvae per female). Juveniles are removed at metamorphosis and their cumulative numbers are shown in black on the graph. Observations stop when there are no more larvae.

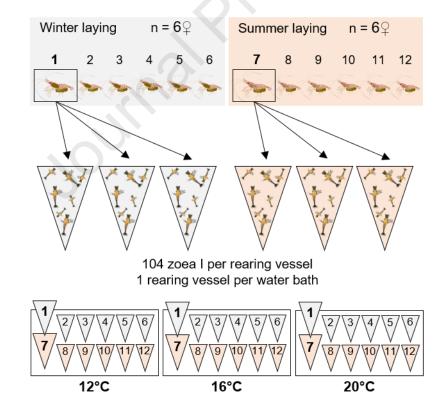
748 Graphical abstract

Most frequent developmental pathways in relation to temperature with winter and summer larvae



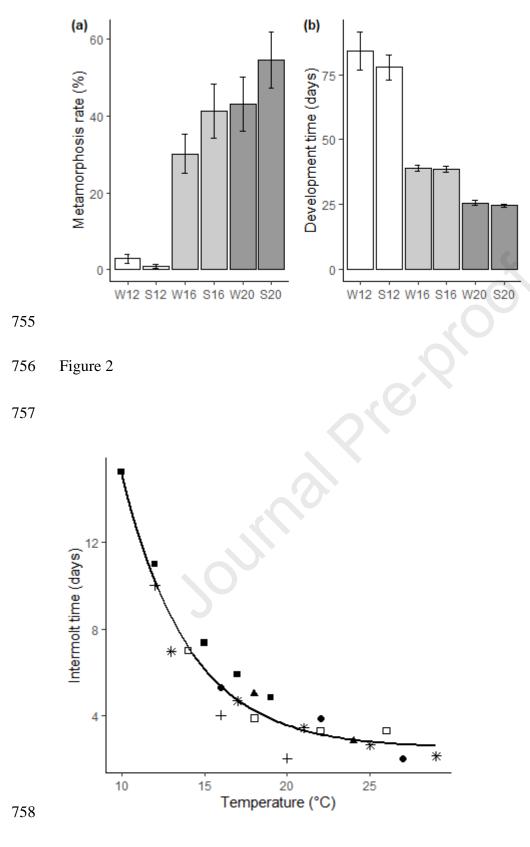
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751 Figures

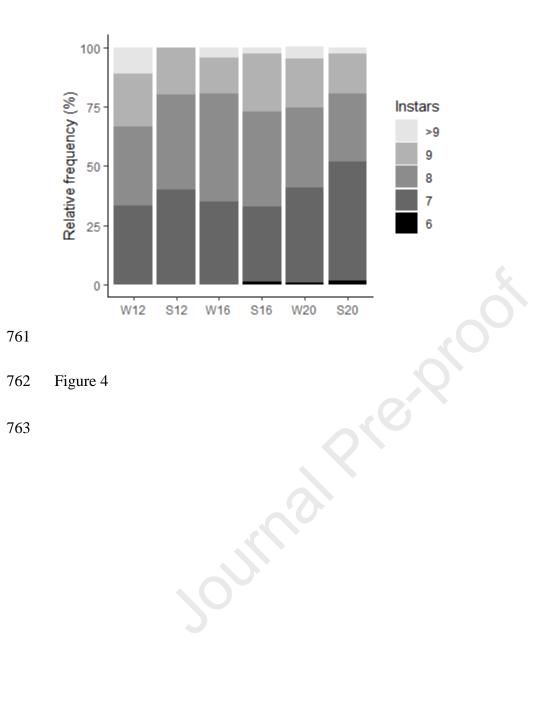


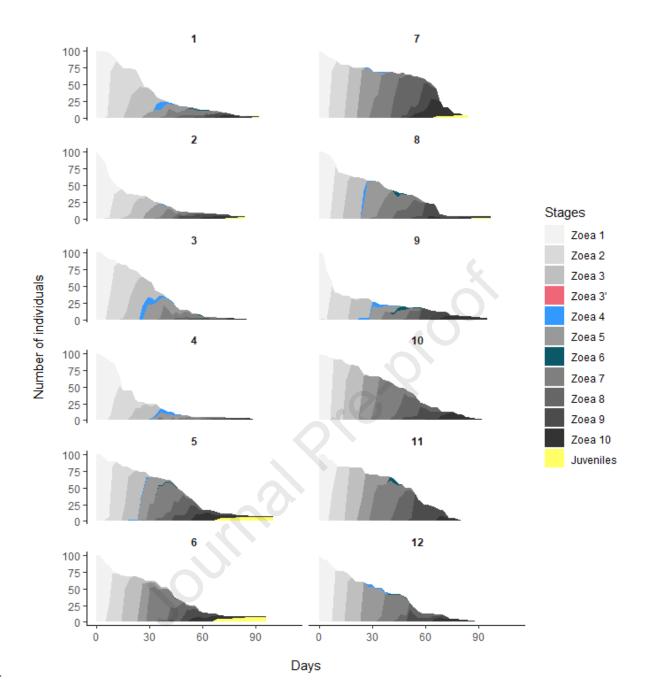
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753 Figure 1

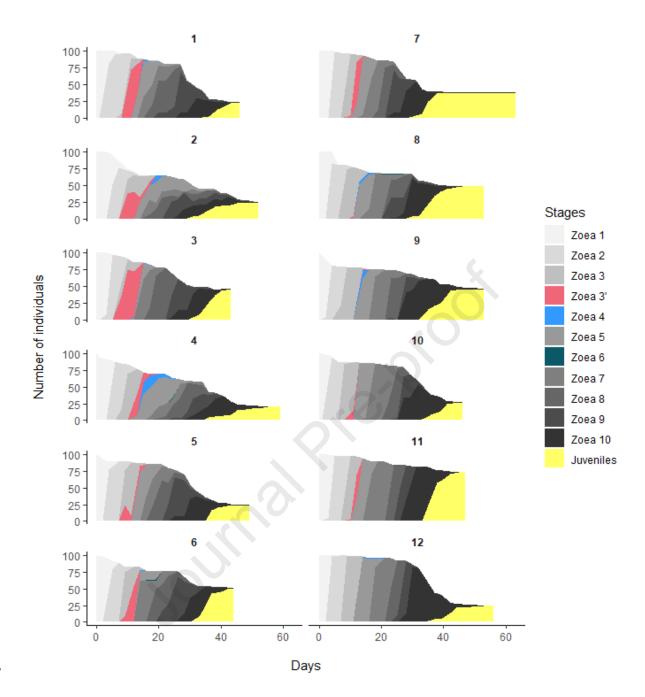


759 Figure 3

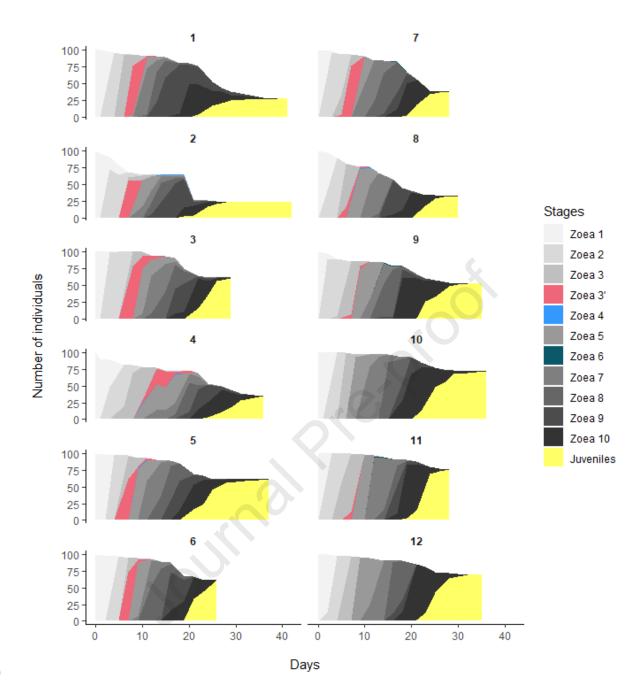




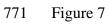
765 Figure 5



768 Figure 6







Highlights

- Larval development was plastic in terms of instars and stages. •
- Higher temperature decreased the development time and the number of instars. •
- The seasonal phenotype had no effect on the development time. •
- Supernumerary stages were observed at low temperatures. •
- Early morphogenesis was observed at high temperatures. •

Declaration of competing interest

None.

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