



Energetics and development modes of Asteroidea (Echinodermata) from the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean including Burdwood Bank/MPA Namuncurá

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Abstract

Reproduction is a highly expensive process that during gonadal development requires an important supply of nutrients. The allocation of energy can vary throughout the reproductive cycle, between sexes and development modes. During research cruise aboard the RV Puerto Deseado in April 2016, we collected fifteen species of sea stars from the southernmost region of Argentina. The main purposes of the present study were threefold: first, to revise and report novel information on the reproductive strategies and energetic density (ED) of body components from the asteroids of the southwestern Atlantic Ocean including Burdwood Bank/MPA Namuncurá; second, to compare the ED of these body components across species with contrasting reproductive strategies; third, to provide a tool to estimate the ED from dry mass of organs of the sea star species examined. Ovaries of *Diplopteraster verrucosus* (a brooder with a nidamental chamber) revealed a significantly greater ED than did the testes (29.81 ± 1.38 and 17.76 ± 1.59 , respectively). In *Glabraster antarctica* (a broadcaster with yolky eggs and facultative planktotrophic larvae), the gonads had EDs of 25.78 ± 3.16 and 19.21 ± 0.52 (females and males, respectively). While in *Peribolaster folliculatus* (a broadcaster with eggs with low yolk content and inferred planktotrophic larvae) there was no significant difference in the ED values between sexes (females: 22.79 ± 1.10 and males: 20.46 ± 1.05). For the pyloric caeca, ED values did not reveal any difference between sexes, although in *P. folliculatus*, the ED was significantly higher than that for *D. verrucosus* and *G. antarctica* (25.90 ± 1.00 , 23.03 ± 0.34 , and 22.66 ± 0.65 , respectively). The body wall had higher ED values in *D. verrucosus* and *P. folliculatus* than that for all the sea star species analyzed (46.48 ± 1.63 , 51.17 ± 1.34 , respectively). Higher ED values in the ovaries could be related to the nutrition of offspring, while differences found in the body wall may reflect the skeletal structure of this body component. This research provides basic information for understanding the differences on energetic allocation when contrasting development modes are considered.

Keywords Energetics · Development mode · Sea stars · Burdwood Bank/MPA namuncurá · Tierra del fuego

Introduction

Sea stars represent a diverse group of benthic invertebrates, with a long paleontological history (Blake 2000; Sutton et al. 2005; Stilwell and Long 2011; Jagt et al. 2014). The Asteroidea have successfully colonized all depths of the world's oceans (Broyer and Koubbi 2014), and have numerous feeding (Jangoux 1982) and reproduction strategies (MacBride 1920; Bosch and Pearse 1990; Pearse et al. 1991; Byrne 2005). Moreover, can serve as top predators playing an important role in structuring benthic communities (Paine 1969; McClintock 1994).

Sea stars exhibit a spectrum of developmental types which includes pelagic or non-pelagic embryos and larvae, and planktotrophic (particulate feeding) or lecithotrophic

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(non-feeding) modes of nutrition (Mileikovsky 1971; Chia 1974; Bosch and Pearse 1990). The larval development of echinoderms can be classified into general categories on the basis of mode of nutrition and habitat (Chia 1974; McEdward and Miner 2001). Larvae may be planktotrophic (feeding on particulate material and nearly always pelagic) or lecithotrophic (non-feeding) (Bosh 1989; McEdward and Miner 2001). In this scenario, lecithotrophic larvae can be pelagic, demersal, or brooded. Many species of sea stars that inhabit high southern latitudes present parental care (Pearse et al. 1991; McEdward 1995; Bosch and Slattery 1999; Fraysse et al. 2018), where embryos are retained at different areas of the female, such as on the aboral surface among spines, over the mouth, inside an aboral nidamental chamber, in the cardiac stomach, or even within the ovaries (intraovarian brooding) (Thomson 1876; Studer 1885; Lieberkind 1920; Himmelman et al. 1982; Chia and Walker 1991; Byrne 1996, 2005; Pérez et al. 2015).

Studies of the energetics of echinoderm body components are of comparative interest, because the distribution and allocation of energy within and between body components of animals can provide important information on their functional roles and relative importance to the survival of the organism (Calow 1984; Lawrence 1987a). Among the Asterozoa, body compartments can be divided into three functional categories: the body wall, which is traditionally considered to serve a structural or protective function, the pyloric caeca, which are nutrient storage organs, and the gonads, the reproductive organs (Hyman 1955; Giese 1966). Both food availability and the biochemical and nutritional composition of the diet may have consequences in patterns of energy allocation to these body components (McClintock et al. 1990, 1995). For example, in high-latitude marine ecosystems, pronounced seasonal fluctuations occur in food availability (Clarke 1987; Almandoz et al. 2011) and in many cases individuals accumulate exceptionally large amounts of energy-rich lipids during spring (Pérez et al. 2008) and summer (McClintock and Pearse 1987) to be utilized during the winter. Use of energy models has grown increasingly since the early fifties (Fernández et al. 2009) since they enabled simplification of the technique, substituting time-consuming proximal analysis or calorimetry for an easier calculation, which is faster and requires no specialized equipment other than an oven. A useful tool for further studies in sea stars from the southwestern Atlantic Ocean, may arise from the relationship between energy density (ED) and dry mass of the body components. Gonadal development in the Asterozoa is closely related with nutrient input (Lawrence 1987b) and ingested energy must be partitioned to growth and maintenance (Lucas 1996). This allocation may fluctuate between sexes and during reproductive cycle (Lawrence and McClintock 1994). Reproductive effort in sea stars can vary with the mode of development. For instance, in

species with development modes that imply a planktotrophic stage, reproductive investment is usually equal between the sexes (Raymond et al. 2007; Pérez et al. 2010, 2017), while in species that brood, males may invest more energy in gamete production than females, whereas the latter may face costs associated with incubating embryos (Raymond et al. 2004; Gillespie and McClintock 2007; Pérez et al. 2015). As pyloric caeca serve as nutrient reserve organs (Lawrence 1987c), it is not surprising that many asteroids show an inverse relationship in seasonal gonadal and pyloric caeca indices due to the transference of energy and nutrients to developing gonads (Chia and Walker 1991).

The southern Patagonian Shelf (extending from approximately 47° S to Cape Horn, 55°S) encompasses a vital marine ecosystem that remains largely unexplored (Sabatini et al. 2004), and includes the Marine Protected Area Namuncurá (MPAN). The circulation over the southern Patagonian shelf is influenced by two branches of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. There is a direct inflow of cold Antarctic waters to the south (mainly through the Strait of Lemaire, between Tierra del Fuego and Isla de los Estados) and the Malvinas Current flows over the continental shelf, to the east (Sabatini et al. 2004). The latter transports cold, nutrient-rich sub-Antarctic water, corresponding to the subpolar oceanographic system (Falabella 2017). The MPAN shares asteroid species not only with Tierra del Fuego Province (nine species) (Fraysse et al. 2018), but also with Antarctica such as *Acodontaster elongatus*, *Anasterias pedicellaris*, *Bathybiaster loripes*, *Henricia studeri*, *Peribolaster folliculatus*, and *Pteraster stellifer*. The Malvinas Current might thus facilitate the dispersion of asteroid larvae toward the Burdwood Bank plateau, as most of the species shared between the MPAN and Antarctica possess pelagic planktotrophic or lecithotrophic larvae (Fraysse et al. 2018).

The purposes of the present study were threefold: first, to revise and report novel information on the development modes and energetic density of body components from the asteroids of the southwestern Atlantic Ocean; second, to compare the energetic density of these body components across species with contrasting development modes (*Diplopteraster verrucosus*, *Glabraster antarctica*, *Peribolaster folliculatus*, and *Anasterias pedicellaris*); third, to provide a tool to estimate the energetic density from dry mass of organs of the sea star species examined.

Materials and methods

During research cruise aboard the RV Puerto Deseado (Scientific cruise BBB-ABR16) in April 2016, different species of sea stars were collected from the southernmost region of Argentina. The sampling spanned a region 53° 55.9' S to 55° 2.21' S latitude to 67° 51.8' W to 58° 21.61' W longitude

(Fig. 1) that included the Tierra del Fuego Province and the Marine Protected Area Namuncurá (MPAN). The MPAN was established in 2013 on the Burdwood Bank (BB) plateau, and is located about 200 km south of the Malvinas Islands and 150 km east from Isla de los Estados. Benthic habitats of the BB seabed had accumulations of sand, gravel, and shell, with depths between 50 and 200 m and abrupt slopes that exceeded 3000 m depth delimited the bank (Piola and Gordon 1989; Schejter et al. 2016). Sampling was carried out using a bottom otter trawl (total length = 6 m, headrope and footrope = 6 m, wing mesh 25 mm, cod-end mesh = 10 mm, otter board surface = 0.25 m², otter board weight = 12 kg, horizontal opening = 1.8 m, vertical opening = 0.60 m) and a Rauschert dredge to complement species caught in the trawls with species that live buried in the sediment. Seventeen stations were sampled at different depths (ranging from 92 to 203 m) and with different benthos characteristics (i.e., rock, sand, and gravel).

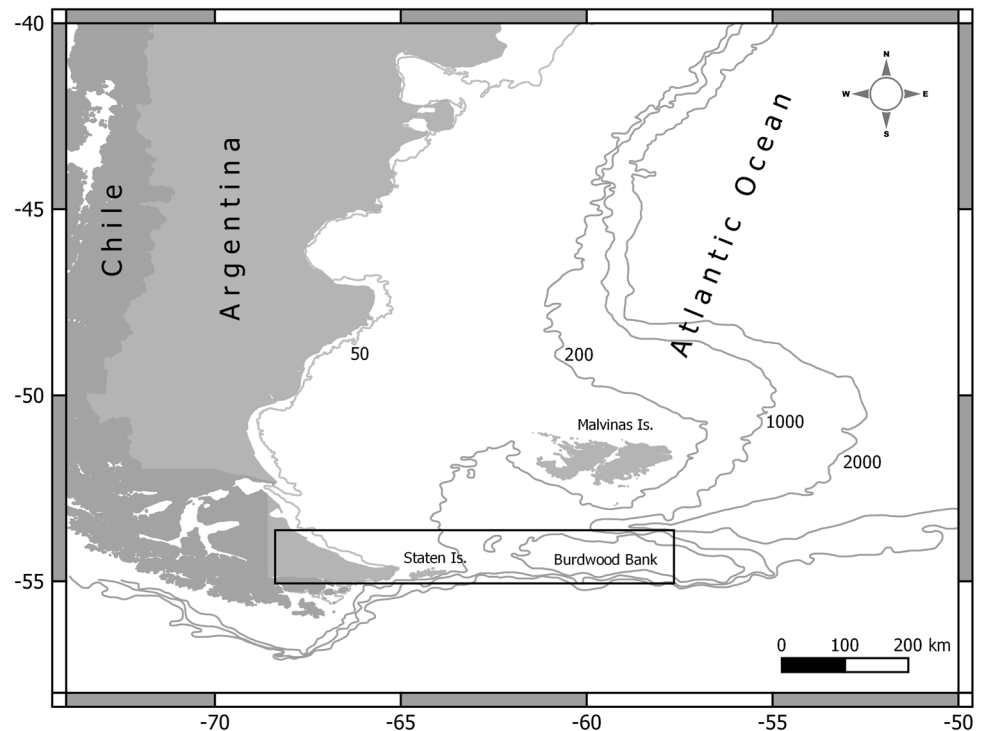
All collected individuals were photographed and then dissected so as to obtain samples to study and evaluate the different modes of development and the energetics of the various body components. Individuals' already dissected bodies were then preserved in formaldehyde (10%) for identification to the lowest taxonomic level possible. Initial taxonomic determinations were performed based on Sladen (1889), Koehler (1913), Verrill (1914), Fisher (1940), Bernasconi (1970), Tablado (1982), Clark and Downey (1992), Stampanato and Jangoux (1993), Janosik and Halanych (2010), Mah et al. (2014), and Arntz and Rauschert (2015).

Taxonomic identifications were then matched against the Register of Antarctic Marine Species (Clarke and Johnston 2003; De Broyer et al. 2018), the World Register of Marine Species (Horton et al. 2018), De Broyer and Danis (2010), OBIS (2018), and the World Asteroidea database (Mah 2018) to remove synonymies.

Development mode and energy indexes

The developmental mode of each species was determined using bibliographic information from MacBride (1920), Lieberkind (1926), Fisher (1940), Hyman (1955), Bernasconi (1970), Bosch (1989), Bosch and Pearse (1990), Pearse et al. (1991), and Pearse and Bosch (1994). For the species in which no information was found in the literature, macroscopic and microscopic observations were made, including recording the presence of embryos, and histological analyses of the gonads including measuring the maximum sizes of oocytes. We ensure to consider mature gonads observing the degree of packaging of the oocytes and noticing the acidophilic cytoplasm. The ovaries of mature females contain large mature ova with acidophilic cytoplasm, densely packed into the lumen, and small number of previtellogenic oocytes located along the acinus wall (Pérez et al. 2010). Histological analysis was carried out on one gonad from each individual that was immersed in Bouin's fixative for 12 h before dehydration in a graded ethanol series. Tissue was embedded in paraffin (Paraplast®) and 5–7 µm sections were cut and stained

Fig. 1 Map showing the location of the sampling area on April 2016. The 50-m, 200-m, 1000-m, 2000-m isobaths, and the scale bar are included. For the detailed position of the seventeen sample sites see Fraysse et al. (2018)



with hematoxylin–eosin (Pérez et al. 2010). Histological slides from 193 individuals of different species were examined microscopically. Sections were imaged with a digital camera attached to an Olympus BX40 microscope and analyzed using Micrometrics SE Premium 4 software.

For calorimetric determinations, sub-samples of body components (gonads, pyloric caeca and body wall) were stored at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until processing. Each component was weighted to determine the wet mass and then dried in a drying oven at $60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until attaining constant dry mass. Dry material of each sample was then pulverized using a mortar and pestle, and pellets (0.02–0.2 g) were made with a Parr 2812 press. Energetic density (ED) was determined by complete combustion of each pellet in a semi-micro calorimeter (Parr 1425) following the methodology of Lucas (1996) with the modifications made by Pérez et al. (2008) and Boy et al. (2009). Data were converted to kilojoules per g dry mass of ash-free material (energetic density, ED, kJ g^{-1} AFDM). Periodic calibrations were made with benzoic acid. Inorganic matter (IM) was calculated as the percentage of residuals (ashes) after the combustion.

Energetics of sea stars with contrasting development modes

To compare the energetic density (ED) of gonads and pyloric caeca of species with different developmental modes, three species with sufficient sample sizes were selected: *Diplopteraster verrucosus* (brooders with incubation in nidamental chamber; Bernasconi 1970), *Glabraster antarctica* (broadcaster with eggs with low yolk content and facultative planktotrophic larvae; Bosch 1989; Moore et al. 2018), and *Peribolaster folliculatus* (broadcasters with presumptive planktotrophic larvae; present paper). In the particular case of the body wall, *Anasterias pedicellaris* (brooders with oral incubation) was added to the ED comparisons to facilitate a better understanding of the relation between development mode and the energetics of this body component. Finally, the relationships between ED and dry mass (DM) of each body component were analyzed.

ED estimations

Regression analyses were performed to study the relationship between ED (kJ g^{-1} AFDM) and DM (%) of the body components from all the species analyzed. An overall analysis was performed first for each body component, and then each species were studied. Those species where the regression was found significant are reported separately.

Statistical analyses

Two-way ANOVAs were performed to analyze the effect of sex and developmental mode on the ED of the different body components followed by Tukey comparisons. In all cases, the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances were tested using Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Levene test, respectively. When necessary, logarithmic transformations were applied (Sokal and Rohlf 1995) and non-parametric statistical method was used (Mann Whitney). The relationship between ED (kJ g^{-1}) and DM (%) of gonad, pyloric caeca, and body wall for the species of the asteroids was determined using linear regression analysis. All analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 6.0, Statistica 10 and QGIS 2.18.3.

Results

The fifteen species of sea stars collected from the southwestern Atlantic Ocean are shown in Table 1.

Development mode and energy indexes

Taxonomy, development mode, values of wet mass, energetic density (ED), and inorganic matter (IM) for each body component for each species of sea star are summarized in Table 1.

Regarding the species with development modes not identified through the literature, macroscopic and microscopic observations were performed. Histological slides of gonads (108 females, 81 males) of different species were examined. In both *Anasterias pedicellaris* (Fig. 2a) and *Lysasterias* sp., brooded embryos were found being held over the oral opening of adult females, while histological sections of the gonads of presumptive mature (non-brooding) females revealed few numbers of large densely packed acidophilic oocytes with a maximum diameter of 2.44 mm. Histological sections of gonads of *Henricia obesa* (Fig. 2b) and *Henricia studeri* females similarly revealed few numbers of large densely packed acidophilic oocytes with a maximum diameter of 1.03 mm along with numerous smaller previtellogenic oocytes. In *Peribolaster folliculatus* (Fig. 2c), histological sections of the ovaries revealed a large number of small oocytes with a maximum diameter of 0.18 mm.

ED values of the species examined for the ovaries varied from 22.56 to 29.81 kJ g^{-1} , with a mean value of 25.56 kJ g^{-1} (Table 1) with *A. pedicellaris* having the lowest and *Diplopteraster verrucosus* the highest ED. The mean ED of male gonads (testes) was lower than that found in females (21.11 kJ g^{-1}). Testes of *D. verrucosus* had the lowest ED (17.76 kJ g^{-1}) and *C. lurida* had the highest (24.86 kJ g^{-1}). The mean ED for the pyloric caeca of the species

Table 1 Taxonomy, developmental mode, wet mass (%), energetic density (ED, kJ g⁻¹ AFDM), and inorganic matter (IM, %) of gonad, pyloric caeca, and body wall of different species of asteroids from the studied area

Family	Species	Development mode	Wet mass (%)	ED (kJ g ⁻¹) AFDM	IM (%)
Asteroidea	<i>Anasterias pedicellaris</i>	Brooders (oi) with lecithotrophic embryos*			
		Gonad (females)	92.37 (1)	22.56 ± 4.75 (2)	10.46 (1)
		Gonad (males)	–	19.29 ± 4.53 (2)	21.12 (1)
		Pyloric caeca	–	20.24 ± 3.44 (4)	–
		Body wall	–	2.97 ± 0.19 (10)	63.54 ± 2.06 (10)
	<i>Cryptasterias turqueti</i>	Brooders (oi) with lecithotrophic embryos ^a			
		Gonad (females)	76.63 ± 2.39 (6)	–	–
		Pyloric caeca	69.21 (1)	25.97 (1)	3.96 (1)
		Body wall	–	3.96 ± 0.22 (9)	53.68 ± 2.70 (9)
	<i>Diplasterias brandti</i>	Brooders (oi) with lecithotrophic embryos ^a			
		Gonad (females)	85.62 ± 0.89 (2)	–	–
		Gonad (males)	87.19 ± 3.36 (3)	23.02 (1)	–
		Pyloric caeca	81.08 ± 3.28 (5)	25.92 ± 0.85 (2)	2.23 ± 0.36 (2)
		Body wall	64.25 ± 0.87 (4)	3.68 ± 0.43 (8)	60.23 ± 3.56 (8)
	<i>Lysasterias</i> sp.	Brooders (oi) with lecithotrophic embryos*			
	Body wall	–	1.88 (1)	77.14 (1)	
Stichasteridae	<i>Cosmasterias lurida</i>	Broadcasters with planktotrophic larvae ^b			
		Gonad (females)	87.72 ± 1.06 (3)	23.98 ± 2.35 (5)	6.93 ± 0.76 (4)
		Gonad (males)	91.77 ± 0.67 (2)	24.86 ± 1.56 (3)	4.66 (1)
		Pyloric caeca	74.61 ± 1.08 (5)	26.12 ± 0.69 (7)	3.25 ± 0.94 (5)
	Body wall	65.29 ± 0.34 (5)	3.56 ± 0.28 (8)	59.33 ± 2.15 (5)	
Echinasteridae	<i>Henricia obesa</i>	Broadcasters with yolky eggs*			
		Gonad (females)	68.07 ± 0.85 (2)	28.65 ± 3.10 (4)	4.71 ± 1.12 (2)
		Gonad (males)	82.83 ± 0.79 (4)	23.19 ± 0.99 (3)	–
		Pyloric caeca	81.61 ± 2.71 (4)	22.92 ± 1.55 (4)	0.88 (1)
		Body wall	61.88 ± 1.41 (4)	5.40 ± 0.28 (6)	49.23 ± 7.58 (2)
	<i>Henricia studeri</i>	Broadcasters with yolky eggs*			
		Gonad (females)	85.14 ± 7.56 (2)	25.38 ± 1.88 (2)	9.76 (1)
		Gonad (males)	79.06 (1)	–	–
Pyloric caeca		76.60 ± 1.18 (3)	22.76 ± 1.46 (4)	6.80 ± 1.24 (2)	
	Body wall	66.82 ± 1.01 (3)	5.60 ± 0.40 (5)	60.76 (1)	
Goniasteridae	<i>Ceramaster patagonicus</i>	Broadcasters with lecithotrophic larvae ^c			
		Gonad (females)	86.40 (1)	–	–
		Gonad (males)	60.58 (1)	–	–
		Pyloric caeca	–	21.73 (1)	6.25 (1)
		Body wall	–	2.87 ± 0.28 (4)	68.71 ± 2.28 (4)
		<i>Hippasterias falklandica</i>			
	Pyloric caeca	–	21.18 ± 1.88 (2)	2.89 (1)	
	Body wall	–	5.41 ± 0.71 (8)	48.09 ± 2.96 (4)	
Odontasteridae	<i>Acodontaster elongatus</i>	Broadcasters with lecithotrophic larvae ^c			
		Gonad (females)	81.51 (1)	–	–
		Body wall	–	4.09 (1)	54.30 (1)
	<i>Diplodontias singularis</i>	Broadcasters with planktotrophic larvae ^d			
		Body wall	–	2.09 (1)	58.30 (1)
	<i>Odontaster penicillatus</i>	Broadcasters with planktotrophic larvae ^d			
	Pyloric caeca	82.16 ± 1.48 (2)	21.84 ± 1.22 (2)	22.01 (1)	
	Body wall	62.19 ± 7.05 (2)	3.40 ± 0.62 (4)	57.68 ± 3.25 (2)	

Table 1 (continued)

Family	Species	Development mode	Wet mass (%)	ED (kJ g ⁻¹)	AFDM	IM (%)
Poraniidae	<i>Glabraster antarctica</i>	Broadcasters with yolky eggs and facultative planktotrophic larvae ^{c,e}				
	Gonad (females)		85.32 ± 1.88 (6)	25.78 ± 3.16 (6)	4.45 ± 1.41 (4)	
	Gonad (males)		86.10 ± 0.83 (7)	19.21 ± 0.52 (3)	11.76 (1)	
	Pyloric caeca		83.80 ± 1.17 (7)	22.66 ± 0.65 (17)	4.90 ± 1.15 (9)	
	Body wall		71.69 ± 1.13 (7)	3.67 ± 0.11 (20)	57.12 ± 1.51 (21)	
Pterasteridae	<i>Diplopteraster verrucosus</i>	Brooders (nc) ^e with lecithotrophic embryos [*]				
	Gonad (females)		83.42 ± 1.80 (10)	29.81 ± 1.38 (12)	6.47 ± 1.51 (9)	
	Gonad (males)		85.13 ± 1.63 (3)	17.76 ± 1.59 (5)	10.26 ± 0.92 (4)	
	Pyloric caeca		87.33 ± 0.95 (13)	23.03 ± 0.34 (16)	4.27 ± 0.54 (16)	
	Body wall		81.12 ± 0.81 (8)	6.12 ± 0.33 (16)	46.48 ± 1.63 (16)	
Korethrasteridae	<i>Peribolaster folliculatus</i>	Broadcasters with eggs with low yolk content [*]				
	Gonad (females)		87.46 ± 2.32 (5)	22.79 ± 1.10 (10)	7.28 ± 1.39 (10)	
	Gonad (males)		87.49 ± 0.68 (6)	20.46 ± 1.05 (5)	9.82 ± 0.81 (4)	
	Pyloric caeca		86.00 ± 1.30 (12)	25.90 ± 1.00 (17)	5.02 ± 0.63 (15)	
	Body wall		78.95 ± 0.90 (12)	5.50 ± 0.26 (17)	51.17 ± 1.34 (17)	

MEAN ± SEM. Sample size between parentheses. References: *oi* oral incubation; *nc* nidamental chamber

^aHyman (1955)

^bPastor de Ward et al. (2007)

^cBosch (1989)

^dBernasconi (1962)

^eMoore et al. (2018)

^fFisher (1940)

^{*}Fig. 2, present paper

examined was 23.36 kJ g⁻¹ (20.24–26.12 kJ g⁻¹), while the mean ED of the body wall was much lower [4.01 kJ g⁻¹ (1.88–6.12 kJ g⁻¹), being consistent with its high inorganic material (IM) content (77.14 and 46.48, respectively). The mean IM of female gonads was 7.15%, being *Glabraster antarctica* the lowest (4.45%) and *Anasterias pedicellaris* the highest (10.46%). The mean IM for the male gonads was slightly higher (11.53%), with *Cosmasterias lurida* the lowest (4.66%), while *A. pedicellaris* had the highest with an extreme value of 21.12%. IM of the pyloric caeca ranged widely from 0.88% (*Henricia obesa*) to 22.01% (*Odontaster penicillatus*), with a mean IM value of 5.68%. The mean value for the IM of the body wall was 57.72%.

Energetics of sea stars with contrasting development modes

The ED values for gonads showed no significant differences among different developmental modes (One-way ANOVA, $F_{2,37} = 1.537$, $p = 0.2285$) (Fig. 3a). Female ED was higher than for males in *D. verrucosus* (brooder with nidamental chamber) (t test, $t_{16} = 4.198$, $p = 0.0007$) and *G. antarctica* (broadcaster with yolky eggs and facultative planktotrophic larvae) (Mann–Whitney, $p = 0.0357$).

However, *Peribolaster folliculatus* (broadcaster with presumptive planktotrophic larvae) gonads showed no differences between sexes (t test, $t_{12} = 1.617$, $p = 0.1318$).

For the ED of the pyloric caeca (Fig. 3b), there were no significant differences in the interaction between sexes and development modes (two-way ANOVA, $F_{2,39} = 0.2626$, $p = 0.7704$) nor between sexes (two-way ANOVA, $F_{1,39} = 0.0061$, $p = 0.9379$). On the other hand, *P. folliculatus* showed higher values of ED (Turkey's comparison test) than did *D. verrucosus* and *G. antarctica* (two-way ANOVA, $F_{2,39} = 14.14$, $p < 0.0001$).

For the ED of the body wall (Fig. 3c), the interaction between sexes and species was not significant (two-way ANOVA, $F_{3,55} = 1.539$, $p = 0.2146$), nor were there differences in ED between sexes (two-way ANOVA, $F_{1,55} = 0.044$, $p = 0.8347$). However, body wall ED was significantly different among species (two-way ANOVA, $F_{3,55} = 27.77$, $p < 0.0001$), being higher for *D. verrucosus* and *P. folliculatus* than other species (Turkey's comparison test).

ED estimations

There were significant general linear relationships detected for the sea star species examined between ED (kJ g⁻¹) and

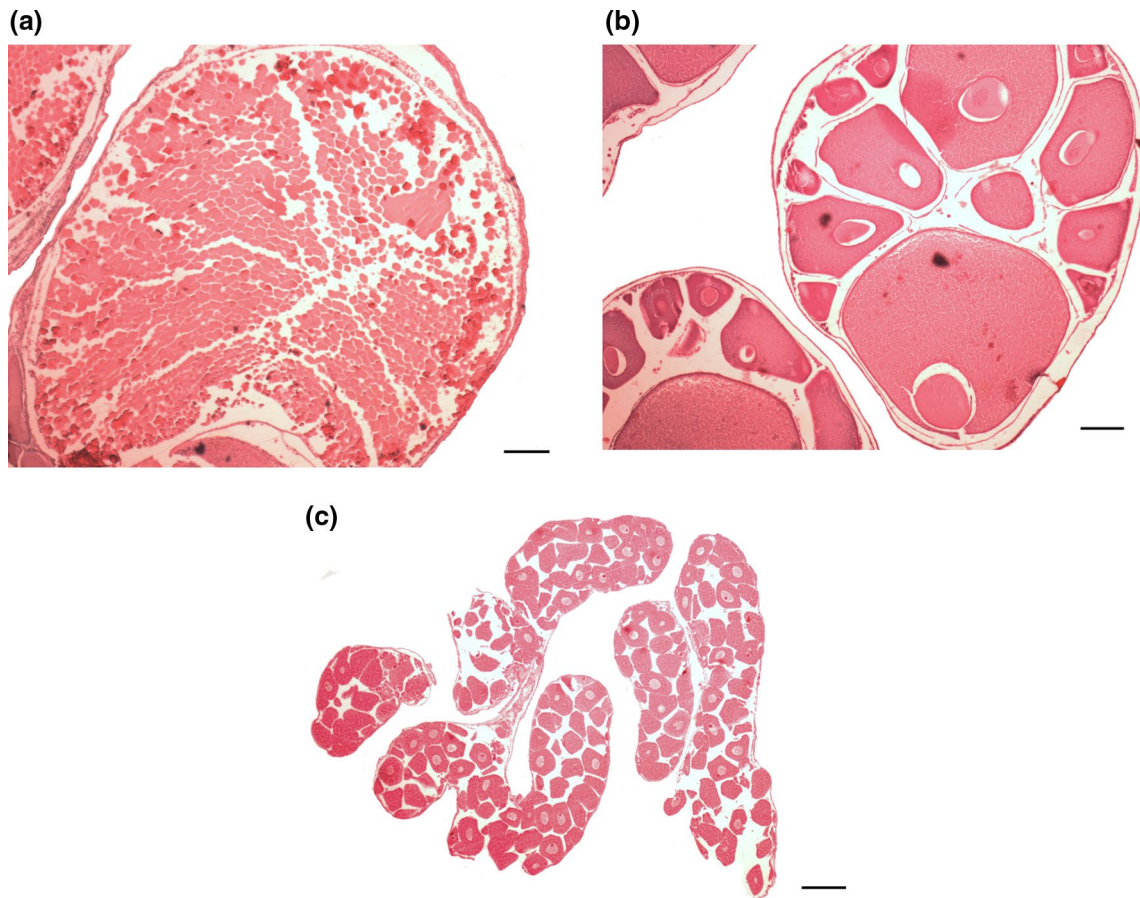


Fig. 2 Histological sections of the gonads of **a** *Anasterias pedicellaris*, **b** *Henricia obesa*, and **c** *Peribolaster folliculatus*. Scale bar 200 μ m

dry mass (DM, %) among the different body components: gonad: $ED = 8.35 + 0.97 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.47$ ($F_{1,16} = 14.21$, $p = 0.0017$); pyloric caeca: $ED = 17.65 + 0.37 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.25$ ($F_{1,19} = 6.32$, $p = 0.0211$); and body wall: $ED = 7.99 - 0.12 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.33$ ($F_{1,32} = 15.59$, $p = 0.0004$) (Fig. 4a, b, c). Moreover, for individual species this relationship was significantly linear: *D. verrucosus* pyloric caeca, $ED = 16.11 + 0.52 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.57$ ($F_{1,5} = 6.742$, $p = 0.0485$, $n = 7$); *P. folliculatus* pyloric caeca, $ED = 7.55 + 1.16 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.66$ ($F_{1,4} = 7.735$, $p = 0.0498$, $n = 6$) and body wall, $ED = 1.62 + 0.17 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.38$ ($F_{1,9} = 5.488$, $p = 0.0438$, $n = 11$); *G. antarctica* pyloric caeca, $ED = 34.08 - 0.86 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.91$ ($F_{1,2} = 19.25$, $p = 0.0482$, $n = 4$); *D. brandti* body wall, $ED = 23.64 - 0.57 * DM$, $R^2 = 0.99$ ($F_{1,1} = 5017$, $p = 0.0090$, $n = 3$).

Discussion

The present study provides basic knowledge about the development modes of five species of sea stars to the best of the authors' knowledge are not described. In *Anasterias*

pedicellaris and *Lysasterias sp.*, our observation of broods being held against the adult female mouth indicates that this species has a mode of development involving oral incubation. Moreover, the histological sections of the gonads of presumptive mature females of *A. pedicellaris* (Fig. 2a) revealed few, large densely packed oocytes with a maximum diameter of 2.44 mm, similar to other known brooders such as *Diplasterias brucei* (2.80 mm diameter oocyte) (Bosch and Pearse 1990). While, in *Henricia obesa* and *H. studeri*, the presence of few, large densely packed lecithotrophic eggs with a maximum diameter of 1.03 mm along with numerous smaller previtellogenic oocytes suggests a lecithotrophic larva (Fig. 2b). This oocyte size is similar to other known broadcasting species with non-feeding yolkly larvae [i.e., *Bathybiaster loripes* (0.95 mm) and *Psilaster charchoti* (0.93 mm), Bosch and Pearse 1990]. With respect to *Peribolaster folliculatus*, we propose a mode of development involving a planktotrophic larva. This is supported by histological evidence of ovaries with large number of very small mature oocytes (maximum diameter 0.18 mm) that will presumably be broadcasted and once fecundated develop into planktotrophic larvae (Fig. 2c). Assuming

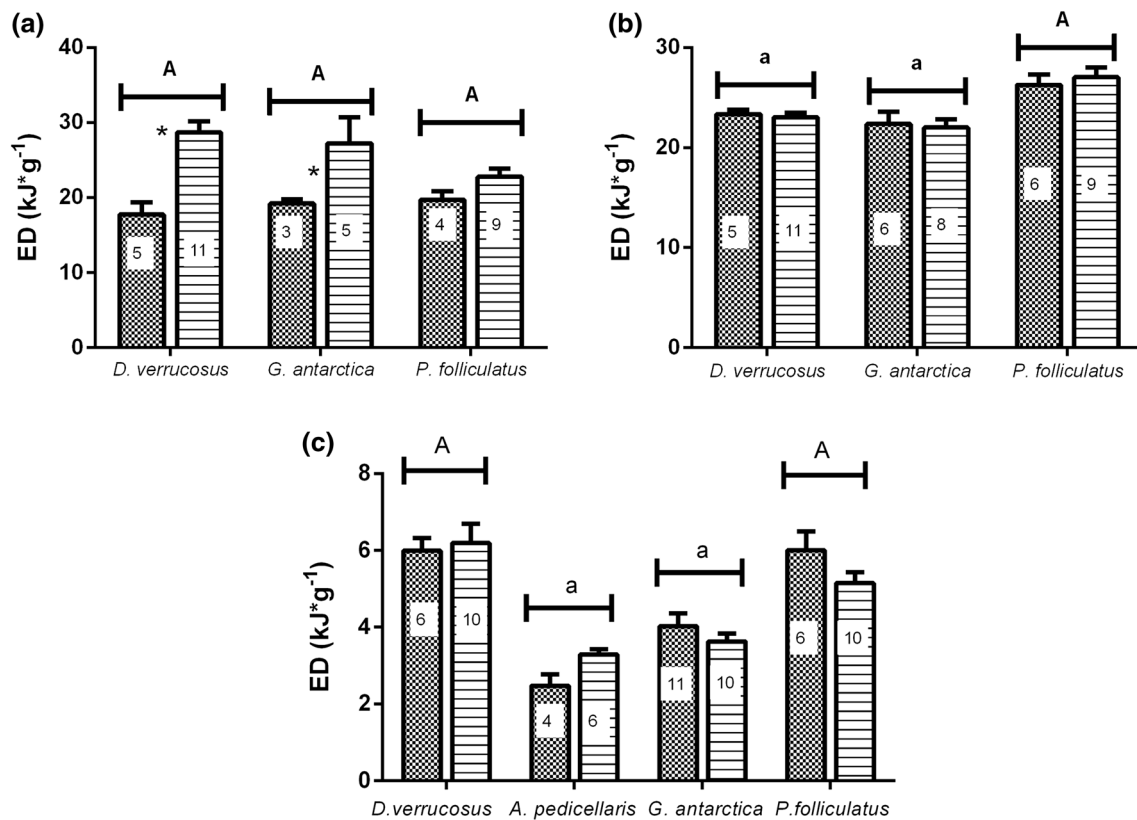


Fig. 3 Energetic density (ED, kJ g⁻¹ AFDM) of **a** Gonad, **b** Pyloric caeca, and **c** Body wall of different development modes in asteroids: *Diplopteraster verrucosus* (brooders with incubation in nidamental chamber; nc), *Anasterias pedicellaris* (brooders with oral incubation; oi), *Glabraster antarctica* (broadcasters with yolky eggs and facultative planktotrophic larvae), and *Peribolaster folliculatus* (broadcasters with presumptive planktotrophic larvae). MEAN ± SEM, sample size on the bars. Color references: checkered, males; lined, females. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are indicated by the same capital and small letter (species) and by an asterisk (sex)

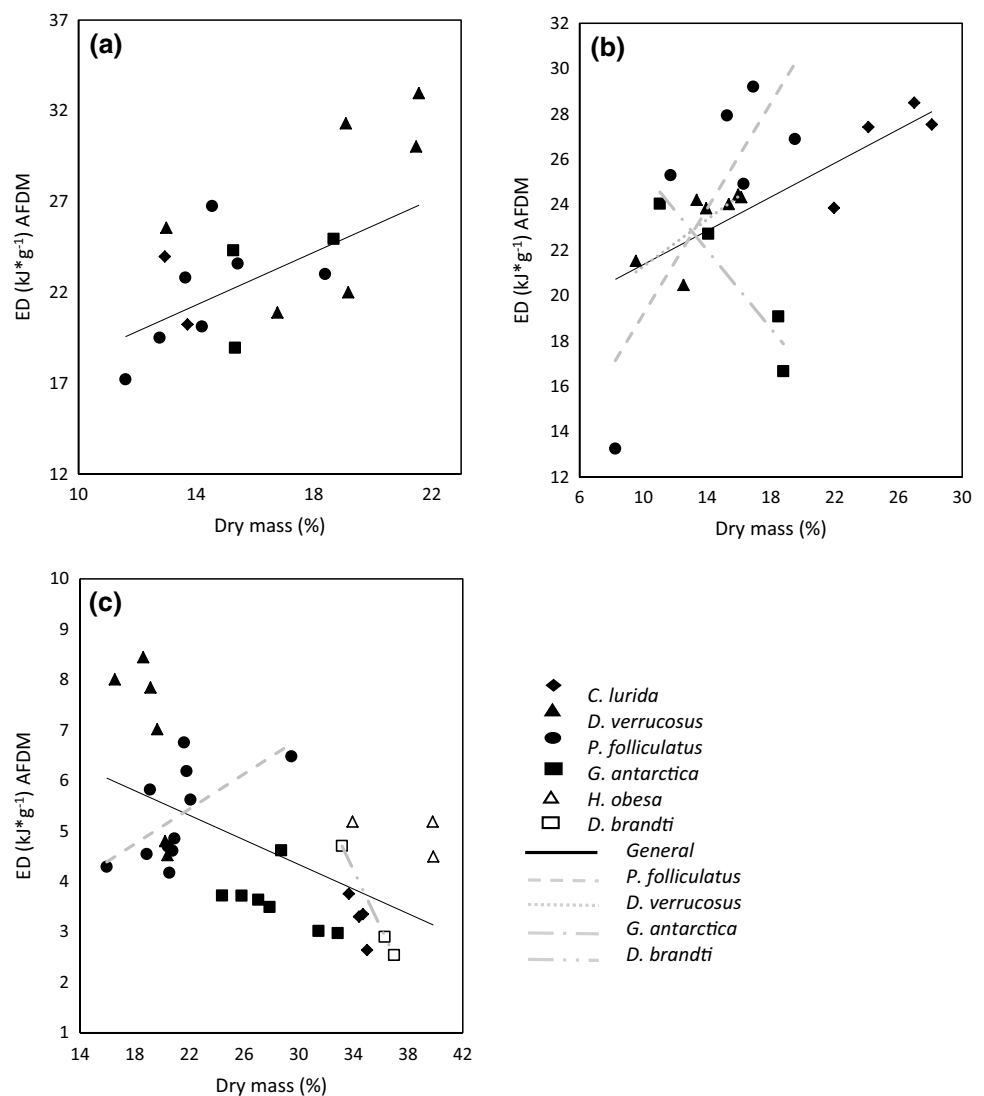
individuals were sexually mature when sampled, the maximum diameter of oocytes in *P. folliculatus* is similar to that described for other broadcasting sea stars with feeding larvae [i.e., *Odontaster validus* (0.17 mm), *Odontaster meridionalis* (0.19 mm) (Bosch and Pearse 1990), and *Cosmasterias lurida* (0.12 mm) (Cossi et al. 2015)].

The high incidence of brooding asteroid species (50%) found in the NMPA (Frayssé et al. 2018) is in concordance with Pearse et al. (2009) who postulated that the occurrence of many species with non-pelagic development may be a consequence of isolation after vicariant events that led to their proliferation, rather than specific adaptations to conditions in polar seas.

Evidence of a high energy investment of females on reproduction was seen in the species we examined that brood or produce yolky eggs (*D. verrucosus* and *G. antarctica*, respectively) given the higher ED values of gonads in females than in males (Fig. 3a). Greater energy allocation to ovaries could be related to providing sufficient nutrition to the brood. Some of the essential nutrients required by the broods to develop fully are supplied to the egg during

vitellogenesis (McClary and Mladenov 1990). Since brooding and lecithotrophic development eliminates a feeding stage and shortens the time larvae spend in the plankton, a high lipid content in lecithotrophic eggs is crucial in providing energy for the production of large-sized individuals at metamorphosis (McClintock and Pearse 1987). Furthermore, a lengthy development period and energy utilization during brooding could compromise the reserves available to the juveniles (Pearse et al. 1991). The lecithotrophic developmental strategy implies a trade-off between the quantity and quality of offspring as brooding involves a high energetic cost and the production of large, slow-developing, nutrient-rich eggs, which often comes at the cost of reduced fecundity (Thatje et al. 2018). The low inorganic matter (IM) values in gonads and pyloric caeca (Table 1), (i.e., low content of ash) is in concordance with their suggested role as energy storage organs in echinoderms (McClintock and Pearse 1987; Pérez et al. 2017). The difference obtained in the percentages of IM of ovaries and testes (Table 1) can be attributed to a larger amount of reserve compounds (organic matter) in females than in males.

Fig. 4 Linear relationship (lines) between energetic density (ED, kJ g^{-1} AFDM) and dry mass (DM, in percentage) for different body components of asteroid species. **a** Gonads of *C. lurida* ($n=2$), *D. verrucosus* ($n=6$), *P. folliculatus* ($n=7$), and *G. antarctica* ($n=3$). All species: $\text{ED}=8.35+0.97*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.47$. **b** Pyloric caeca of *C. lurida* ($n=4$), *D. verrucosus* ($n=7$), $\text{ED}=16.11+0.52*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.57$; *P. folliculatus* ($n=6$), $\text{ED}=7.55+1.16*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.66$; *G. antarctica* ($n=4$), $\text{ED}=34.08-0.86*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.91$. All species: $\text{ED}=17.65+0.37*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.25$. **c** Body wall of *C. lurida* ($n=4$), *D. verrucosus* ($n=6$), *P. folliculatus* ($n=11$), $\text{ED}=1.62+0.17*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.38$; *G. antarctica* ($n=7$), *H. obesa* ($n=3$), *D. brandti* ($n=3$), $\text{ED}=23.64-0.57*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.99$. All species: $\text{ED}=7.99-0.12*\text{DM}$, $R^2=0.33$



The role of the pyloric caeca as a nutrient storage organ has been well documented before. For instance, McClintock and Pearse (1987) recorded high levels of lipids in the pyloric caeca of antarctic asteroids, which is an advantage over storing energy in the form of lower-energy protein or carbohydrate because more energy can be stored per unit mass. The pyloric caeca is considered an important source of nutrients and energy during gametogenesis (Lawrence and Lane 1982) and functions as a reserve organ in brooding females of species with direct development, especially in species where feeding is impossible during the incubation period (e.g., *Anasterias antarctica* Pérez et al. 2017). Contrary to what would be expected, differences in energy in the pyloric caeca between sexes were not observed (Fig. 3b). This may be due to a temporal bias given our discrete sampling captured only one time point of the reproductive cycle. For a better understanding of the pyloric caeca role as the energetic reservoir to reproduction, a seasonal study

is needed. For instance, the lower ED values found in the pyloric caeca of *D. verrucosus* and *G. antarctica* compared to *P. folliculatus* (Fig. 3b) could be the consequence of a higher transference of energy to the gonads for both sexes during gonadal maturation. Though gonadal cycles are well studied in several shallow water sea stars (Bosch and Pearse 1990; Pearse et al. 1991; Cossi et al. 2015; Pérez et al. 2017), less is known about gonadal cycles of species inhabiting deeper depths, such as *D. verrucosus*, *G. antarctica*, and *P. folliculatus*.

The high level of IM found in the body walls of asteroids in the present study (46.48–77.14%, Table 1), is in accordance with those levels reported for echinoids, holothuroids, and ophiuroids (Lawrence and Guille 1982; McClintock et al. 1990). Differences among sea star species in the energetic content of the body wall seems to be purely structural, given the lack of evidences of differential contribution of body wall to the incubation, i.e., lack of differences in ED

between sexes (Fig. 3c). While analyzing the organic composition of the body wall, Lawrence and Guille (1982) found low levels of carbohydrate and lipids, while protein was reported as the primary organic compound.

Several sea stars such as *Pteraster tessellatus*, *Asterias rubens*, *Porania pulvillus*, and *Marthasterias glacialis* secrete a mucous through the supradorsal membrane that is utilized as a strong defense mechanism when attacked by other asteroids (Bavington et al. 2004; Hennebert et al. 2012, 2015; Nance and Braithwaite 1979). The mucous contains a saponin or saponin-like compound that after hydrolysis yield various sugars, i.e., galactose, xylose, or glucose (Fieser et al. 1956; Ward 1962; Nance and Braithwaite 1979). The structure of the mucous has also been analyzed by Hennebert et al. (2015), who found it to contain a high proportion of polysaccharides and carbohydrates. As we also observed *D. verrucosus* and *P. folliculatus* to release mucous from their body walls (authors, pers. obs.), the higher values of the ED measured for these species may reflect these secretions and their constituents.

Lawrence and Moran (1992) established energy rather than mass better represents biomass, especially in representatives of the Echinodermata where much of the mass may be inorganic. In the present study, we propose a tool to estimate the ED of different body components of asteroids based on the value of DM (Fig. 4). The data from the studied species showed a relationship between ED and the different body components' DM, enabling the use of the latter as an estimator of ED. This relationship is generally positive for gonads and pyloric caeca, but negative for the body wall. The one exception was for *P. folliculatus* where we suspect that the inverse relationship in the body wall is explained by its high content of ash (Table 1) and hence, lower levels of organic constituents (lipids, carbohydrates, and protein) that contribute to total ED. On the other hand, this exception for *P. folliculatus* could be related to the production of mucous secretions (presumably rich in carbohydrates) that effectively reduce total ED.

The present research provides basic information for improving our understanding of patterns of energy allocation among sea stars with contrasting modes of development. Further seasonal and energetic studies are required to better evaluate our initial findings. For instance, it is still unclear whether the body wall may also serve as an energy reservoir for brooding females. However, the differences we detected in the patterns of energy allocation to gonads between sexes provides strong evidence of a higher energy investment to reproduction in females than in males, especially in species that brood or spawn lecithotrophic larvae.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval All permissions for collecting samples from the Marine Protected Area Namuncurá (MPAN) were issued by its Administrative Council by authorizing and funding the scientific missions. All sampling procedures and experimental manipulations follow the guidelines approved by the Universidad de Buenos Aires (Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Bioterio Central, <https://exactas.uba.ar/cicual/>).

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