

UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL PAULISTA – UNESP

INSTITUTO DE BIOCÊNCIAS DE BOTUCATU

PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS BIOLÓGICAS – ZOOLOGIA

Juan Carlos Farias Pardo

Espécies-chave estuarinas em um mundo em mudança: como as fases mais vulneráveis dos caranguejos violinistas respondem ao aquecimento e acidificação global?

Apoio:



São Vicente,

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Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas (Zoologia), do Instituto de Biociências de Botucatu – Universidade Estadual Paulista, como parte dos requisitos para a obtenção do título de Mestre.

Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Tânia Márcia Costa

Coorientador: Prof. Dr. Stefano Cannicci

São Vicente,

2018

FICHA CATALOGRÁFICA ELABORADA PELA SEÇÃO TÉC. AQUIS. TRATAMENTO DA INFORM.
DIVISÃO TÉCNICA DE BIBLIOTECA E DOCUMENTAÇÃO - CÂMPUS DE BOTUCATU - UNESP
BIBLIOTECÁRIA RESPONSÁVEL: ROSANGELA APARECIDA LOBO-CRB 8/7500

Pardo, Juan Carlos Farias.

Espécies-chave estuarinas em um mundo em mudança : como as fases mais vulneráveis dos caranguejos violinistas respondem ao aquecimento e acidificação global? / Juan Carlos Farias Pardo. - Botucatu, 2018

Dissertação (mestrado) - Universidade Estadual Paulista "Júlio de Mesquita Filho", Instituto de Biociências de Botucatu
Orientador: Tânia Marcia Costa
Coorientador: Stefano Cannicci
Capes: 20403003

1. Caranguejo - Pesquisa. 2. Mudanças climáticas. 3. Fatores abióticos. 4. Aquecimento global. 5. Stress (Fisiologia).

Palavras-chave: Ectotérmicos; Estressores múltiplos; Mudança Climática.

Dedico esse trabalho aos meus pais, Juan Luis e
Maria das Graças, e à minha vó, Maria Esther.

Agradecimentos

Agradeço aos meus mentores e queridos pais, Juan Luis e Maria das Graças, por me ensinarem como lidar com a vida e pelo imenso apoio durante toda minha trajetória;

À minha avó, Maria Esther, por todo amor oferecido e por ainda me inspirar até os dias de hoje;

À minha família, em especial para minha irmã, Ana Carla, por me ensinar, mesmo não sabendo que o faça, a ser uma pessoa melhor;

À minha orientadora Profa. Dra. Tânia M. Costa por todo suporte desde o momento que entrei na universidade. Um exemplo de gestora, pesquisadora, professora e pessoa. Sou imensamente grato por todo o período de orientação e amizade;

Ao meu coorientador Prof. Dr. Stefano Cannicci pelo auxílio científico durante o período de pesquisa no exterior;

À Universidade Estadual Paulista “Júlio de Mesquita Filho” pelo suporte e estrutura para a elaboração desse estudo;

Ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas (Zoologia) de Botucatu e seus funcionários, em especial ao Davi pela prestatividade e Prof. Antônio Castilho pela coordenação do Programa;

Aos amigos do Laboratório de Ecologia e Comportamento Animal (LABECOM) por todo auxílio em saídas de campo e laboratório, conversas científicas (ou não) e, principalmente, pela amizade;

À Universidade de Hong Kong pelo apoio durante o período de estágio no exterior, em especial a Sylvia, Cecily e Dr. Gray Willians pelo apoio técnico e estrutural;

À todos amigos das diversas fases da minha vida pelo imenso apoio;

À Profa. Dra. Alessandra Augusto pelas críticas construtivas feitas no trabalho e por compartilhar a infraestrutura do seu laboratório;

Aos membros do Laboratório de Sustentabilidade (LABSUSSA) em especial a Andressa e a Julia pelas dicas nas análises e amizade;

Aos membros da banca, Glauco Machado e Rafael Duarte, por aceitarem o convite de avaliar o nosso trabalho;

À Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP) e Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) (processo nº 2017/00802-0, 2018/00577-0) e Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) (processo nº 131970/2017-8) pelo apoio financeiro em diferentes períodos durante o mestrado.

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Resumo

A mudança climática antropogênica afeta a estrutura e funcionamento dos ecossistemas. O aquecimento e acidificação global estão entre os principais estressores. Habitats costeiros e estuarinos são dinâmicos e seus organismos são diretamente afetados pelas mudanças abióticas no ambiente. No presente estudo, verificamos como as fases potencialmente vulneráveis de organismos ectotérmicos estuarinos respondem às variações climáticas. Utilizando como modelo os caranguejos violinistas, um grupo-chave na conformação dos ambientes estuarinos, avaliamos respostas morfológicas e fisiológicas frente ao aumento da temperatura e/ou redução do pH. Inicialmente, caracterizamos o ambiente em que se desenvolvem os embriões do caranguejo do Atlântico *Leptuca thayeri*. Temperatura, pH e salinidade no microhabitat (tocas) foram diferentes do ambiente ao entorno. O desenvolvimento embrionário foi afetado por ambos estressores: o aumento da temperatura acelerou o desenvolvimento e diminuiu a sobrevivência independente do pH, sendo a concentração de amônia e volume dos ovos as variáveis resposta que evidenciam o efeito sinérgico entre pH e temperatura. Em uma abordagem interespecífica, demonstramos experimentalmente que a sensibilidade termal de fêmeas ovígeras varia de acordo com a espécie. Fêmeas ovígeras de *Gelasimus borealis* foram mais sensíveis ao aumento de temperatura do que não ovígeras, porém a tolerância termal de *L. thayeri* não variou independente do seu status reprodutivo. A temperatura média mensurada no habitat natural foi abaixo dos limites termais de ambas espécies, porém com extremos acima dos seus limites termais. Desse modo, demonstramos que fases vulneráveis dos caranguejos violinistas são sensíveis às variações abióticas previstas, porém as respostas podem ser individuais e espécie-específicas dependendo do estágio.

Apresentação

A mudança climática é inquestionável, sendo a ação antropogênica uma das suas principais causas nas últimas décadas (IPCC, 2014; Oreskes, 2018). A intensificação no aumento de gases pós era industrial alavancou o aumento da temperatura em escalas regionais e globais (Ahmed et al., 2013; IPCC, 2014). Grande parte do CO₂ emitido é absorvido pelos oceanos, alterando o balanço de carbonato (CO₃⁻²) e, conseqüentemente, reduzindo o pH (Feely et al., 2004). A acidificação e aquecimento global estão entre os principais estressores aos ambientes aquáticos, sobretudo os costeiros e estuarinos. Organismos encontrados nesses ambientes dinâmicos são adaptados às variações triviais (escalas diárias e sazonais) dos fatores abióticos e, usualmente, vivem perto aos seus limites fisiológicos, tornando-os suscetíveis a atual e futura variação de temperatura e pH (Helmuth et al., 2006; Vinagre et al., 2018).

Os padrões de fenologia, distribuição e plasticidade fisiológica e comportamental são reconhecidamente afetados pela mudança climática antropogênica (Sunday et al., 2012; Seebacher et al., 2015; Cohen et al., 2018). A variação acelerada dos fatores pode ser aquém a plasticidade fisiológica e comportamental ou adaptação a partir da seleção natural (Pistevos et al., 2011; Seebacher et al., 2015). Revisões demonstram a imensa lacuna no conhecimento acerca das respostas dos organismos frente às mudanças do clima nos trópicos e subtropicais, sobretudo do hemisfério sul (Sunday et al., 2012; Seebacher et al., 2015; Cohen et al., 2018). Segundo o IPCC (2014), a potência da circulação da corrente do Brasil pode ser reduzida em 44% até 2100, tornando a situação semelhante ao período de degelo. Somado ao aumento na frequência e intensidade de eventos extremos (e.g., ondas de calor, Oliver et al. (2018)), as implicações de tal variação climática aos habitats do Atlântico Sul, principalmente os costeiros e estuarinos, ainda são pouco conhecidas (Bernardino et al., 2015). Dessa forma, faz-se necessário estudos

comparativos e descritivos quanto a sensibilidade dos organismos frente aos futuros cenários climáticos.

Os capítulos desta dissertação visam preencher algumas dessas lacunas em fases reconhecidamente vulneráveis dos organismos, utilizando como modelo os caranguejos violinistas ou chama-maré. O grupo é utilizado em estudos comparativos e ecológicos dada sua importância na conformação dos habitats estuarinos (Cannicci et al., 2008; Natálio et al., 2017) e seus estágios de vida variarem de oceânico (fase larval) a semiterrestre (adultos). Embriões e larvas possuem adaptações fisiológicas e comportamentais aos estressores bióticos e abióticos, porém são tidas como fases potencialmente sensíveis aos estressores, sobretudo temperatura e pH (Przeslawski et al., 2015). Por outro lado, a sensibilidade de fêmeas ovígeras, uma fase de alto custo energético, frente ao aumento da temperatura, ainda não foi avaliada experimentalmente em ectotérmicos. Nesse sentido, no **Capítulo 1** verificamos como o aumento da temperatura e diminuição do pH, em níveis preditos para o final do século, pode afetar o desenvolvimento embrionário do caranguejo violinista *Leptuca thayeri*. No **Capítulo 2** avaliamos se as fêmeas ovígeras são mais sensíveis ao aumento da temperatura do que fêmeas não ovígeras. Nesse estudo, comparamos o limite termal de duas espécies, *L. thayeri* e *Gelasimus borealis*, de gêneros distintos, mas hábitos comportamentais semelhantes durante seu período reprodutivo. Dessa forma, a presente dissertação avaliou como as fases potencialmente vulneráveis de ectotérmicos estuarinos respondem as predições de aquecimento e acidificação global.

CAPÍTULO 1

Multiple stressors effects of warming and acidification in the embryonic development of
an estuarine fiddler crab

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Manuscript Format in accordance with the guidelines of the Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology

24 **Abstract**

25 The warming and acidification of coastal areas have been demonstrated to affect habitats'
26 structure and functioning. Predicted effects of anthropogenic climate change on estuarine
27 and coastal organisms are complex and early life-history stages of calcified ectotherms
28 are among the most sensitive group in a changing environment. In this context, we
29 verified the combined effects of temperature increase and pH decrease on the embryonic
30 development of the estuarine fiddler crab *Leptuca thayeri*. Microhabitat (burrows) were
31 characterized and its abiotic parameters (temperature, pH and salinity) differs from the
32 surrounding environment. Embryo development was faster, and survivorship was lower
33 in warmer conditions for either control and low pH. Ammonia concentration and egg
34 volume follows the synergetic effect of pH and temperature through embryo
35 development. Besides the ontogenetic constraints, several eggs developed until late
36 embryonic developmental stages, bringing important insights on the effects of a warmed
37 and acidified environment in early stages of estuarine species.

38

39 Key-words: Climate change. Multiple stressors. Synergic effect. Early-life stages.

40 *Leptuca thayeri*.

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49 **Introduction**

50 Human mediated environmental changes lead by exploitation and
51 mismanagement entail modifications in ecosystem functioning. Anthropogenic climate
52 change has been recognized as a significant threat to biogeochemical processes and
53 biodiversity (IPCC, 2014; Nagelkerken & Connell, 2015). Global warming and/or
54 acidification, for instance, may drives species distribution and affect behaviour and
55 physiology of many species (Parmesan, 2006; Byrne et al., 2013; Bozinovic & Pörtner,
56 2015; Lefevre, 2016; Calosi et al., 2017; Cohen et al., 2018). Among global
57 environments, coastal and estuarine habitats are threatened as one of the most vulnerable
58 environments due to their highly restricted areas and complexity of multifaceted biotic
59 (e.g., competition, trophic interactions) and abiotic (e.g., temperature, salinity, pH)
60 factors (Alongi, 2002; Nagelkerken & Connell, 2015; Gunderson et al., 2016).

61 Estuarine fauna and flora are well-adapted (physiology, morphology and/or
62 behaviour) to daily oscillations in abiotic factors (Duke et al., 1998; Madeira et al., 2012;
63 Fusi et al., 2015); however, severe and rapid changes in abiotic parameters (e.g.,
64 temperature increase and pH decrease) may exceed their physiological thresholds
65 resulting in acute and chronic impacts (Crain et al., 2008; Madeira et al., 2012; Byrne &
66 Przeslawski, 2013; Przeslawski, et al., 2015). Consequently, the structure and functioning
67 of estuarine habitats depend on few key-groups which are not necessarily well adapted to
68 climate change.

69 There is an increasing recognition of the importance to understand how multiple
70 stressors affect biodiversity (Rudd, 2014; Gunderson et al., 2016). Currently, there is a
71 lack of information on the impacts of combined stressors incorporating abiotic parameters
72 obtained by downscaling modelling and field measurements (Bozinovic & Pörtner, 2015;
73 Przeslawski et al., 2015; Gunderson et al., 2016). The combination of stressors may entail

74 addictive, antagonistic and/or synergic effects, which are, respectively, equal, lower or
75 greater than the sum of their separate effects (Crain et al., 2008; Griffen et al., 2016). The
76 different responses to multiple stressors support the need for studies in groups and species
77 which are still not explored.

78 Early life-history stages are potentially vulnerable stages in a climate change
79 context, particularly through effects on survival, excretion, development and calcification
80 (Kroeker et al., 2013; Przeslawski et al., 2015; Navarro et al., 2016). The synergistic effect
81 is the most observed impact in marine species varying among ontogeny stages, stressors
82 and biological responses (Przeslawski et al., 2015 and literature within); however,
83 responses to combined stressors also vary among groups: temperature increase minimizes
84 the effect of low salinity (antagonistic effect) in embryo development of the sea urchin,
85 *Evechinus chloroticus* (Delorme & Sewell, 2014), and pH decrease and temperature
86 increase showed an additive effect through the embryonic development (i.e. increase
87 deformities) in the Atlantic cod, *Gadus morhua* (Dahlke et al., 2017). Despite their
88 susceptibility to the effects of climate change, studies showing the vulnerability of
89 estuarine early stages are scarce (Przeslawski et al., 2015; Gunderson et al., 2016).

90 In mangroves, macrofauna is delimited to a few dominant groups which are
91 generally constituted by ectothermic decapod crustaceans and mollusks (Nagelkerken et
92 al. 2008). Among them, fiddler crabs are a key group where their burrowing and feeding
93 behaviour plays an important role in mangrove soil conformation (Kristensen et al., 2008;
94 Citadin et al., 2016; Natálio et al., 2017). Their reproductive strategy varies among
95 species: whereas some female fiddler crabs remain inside burrows during egg
96 development, others behave outside when carrying eggs, experiencing all daily abiotic
97 changes in the surrounding environment (Christy & Wada, 2015). The latter case is
98 represented by *Leptuca thayeri* (previously *Uca thayeri*) Rathbun, 1990, one of the most

99 widespread fiddler crab species (Costa & Negreiros-Fransozo, 2002; Thurman et al.,
100 2013). At this sense, to better understand the impacts of coastal warming and acidification
101 in the embryonic development of an estuarine species, we first (1) characterized the
102 abiotic factors of the microhabitat of ovigerous *L. thayeri* during the embryo development
103 and then (2) verified the combined effect of temperature increase and pH decrease in their
104 embryonic development using the following response variables: development rate,
105 survivorship, egg volume and ammonia concentration. Based on its biology, we predicted
106 a synergetic negative effect of temperature increase and pH decrease in the embryonic
107 development of *L. thayeri*, hypothesizing lower development rate, higher mortality and
108 lower volume of eggs under extreme conditions with higher excretion of nitrogenous
109 waste (i.e., ammonia concentration) under warmer and more acid treatments.

110

111 **Material and Methods**

112 **Study site**

113 Field samplings of crabs and abiotic factors were conducted in Portinho Mangrove
114 at the Ézio Dall' Aqua City Park, Praia Grande - São Paulo/Brazil (23°59'16.74" S
115 46°24'26.28" W). The mangrove forest is situated in the `Mar Pequeno´ estuarine system
116 (Santos - São Vicente Estuary Complex) and characterized as a semidiurnal tide cycle
117 with forests colonized by *Avicennia schaueriana*, followed by *Rhizophora mangle* and
118 *Laguncularia racemosa*. Several studies with fiddler crabs were conducted at this area
119 (e.g., Gusmão-Junior et al., 2012; Machado et al., 2013; Checon & Costa, 2017; Príncipe
120 et al., 2018) due the well-established communities of crabs from different species,
121 including *L. thayeri*.

122

123

124 **Microhabitat characterization**

125 Abiotic parameters were sampled in seven campaigns during spring and summer
126 periods of 2017 (January to March and September to December) (peak of reproduction of
127 *L. thayeri*, Gusmão-Junior et al., 2012). We measured the temperature (thermometer
128 Lutron TM-946 ($\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$)), pH (pHmeter mPA2010 MS TECNOPON® (± 0.01)) and
129 salinity (Handheld Refractometer ATC®) of water from burrows (microhabitat) of *L.*
130 *thayeri* ovigerous females (embryos at initial stage of development) and in the mangrove
131 surrounding area (closest water body). Previous observations of ovigerous females of our
132 model species indicate that a vivid red egg mass represents embryos at the first stage of
133 development (as also stated by Christopher et al., 2008). Burrows with chimneys were
134 randomly chosen and sampled in the central region of the mangrove forest. Burrow water
135 temperature were measured with thermocouples (10 cm depth) in situ and then water was
136 collected with syringes with a plastic tube (~10 cm) to analyse pH and salinity in
137 laboratory. All analyses were conducted in less than 30 minutes after field samplings;
138 prior samplings showed that these abiotic factors (pH and salinity) are not significantly
139 changed during this period of time. Abiotic factors were obtained first and then crab
140 carapace width (CW) were measured with calipers. *Leptuca thayeri* ovigerous females
141 build burrows with higher chimneys (Gusmão-Junior et al., 2012); however, not all
142 burrows with chimneys were inhabited by ovigerous crabs at the initial stage of
143 development and those were excluded from our analysis. Air temperature was also
144 measured at each burrow or closest body water measurement. All samplings occurred in
145 daylight spring low tides. Our sampling strategy was taken due to fiddler crabs usually
146 close their burrows in high tide periods (de la Iglesia et al., 1994; Fusi et al., 2015); also,
147 despite recognized activity of some species when covered by water, ovigerous *L. thayeri*

148 were not observed behaving outside burrows in the study conducted by De Grande et al.
149 (2018).

150

151 **Crab collection and maintenance**

152 Ovigerous females with embryos at initial stage of development were manually
153 collected during the summer period of 2018 (January to February) by excavating their
154 burrows. Crabs were maintained for one day in aquariums containing PVC pipe
155 connectors (2.5 cm of diameter) to provide shelter and a thin water column [artificial sea
156 salt (Blue Treasure Reef Sea®) dissolved in deionized water (33 PSU – based on
157 microhabitats' mean value)]. A 12h light:dark photoperiod cycle and controlled air
158 temperature (~25°C) were maintained during acclimation.

159

160 **Experimental design and water chemistry**

161 We verified how predicted coastal warming and acidification affect the embryo
162 development of the fiddler crab *L. thayeri*. Embryos were exposed to 4 factorial
163 combinations (2x2) of temperature increase [control (26°C), + 4.0 degrees (30°C)] and
164 pH decrease [control (6.9), - 0.7 units (6.2)]. Control of temperature and pH were based
165 on abiotic field samplings of the microhabitat (burrows with chimneys) of *L. thayeri*
166 ovigerous. Higher temperature is based on 2081-2100 values predicted by general
167 circulation models under the IPCC (2014) scenario RCP 8.5 and lower pH by Caldeira &
168 Wicket (2005) and IPCC (2014) for the late 21st century. Temperature was controlled
169 using thermostats (Aquarium heater HOPAR® H-606) and pH values were reached
170 bubbling CO₂ gas. Abiotic factors were checked each hour until stabilized and three times
171 a day for temperature and pH or day after day for salinity throughout the experiment to
172 maintain their values. As gas bubbling was manually controlled, we had a pH oscillation

173 which did not exceed ± 0.3 during the experiment with a standardized variation for all
174 treatments. Saltwater temperature was monitored with a thermometer Lutron® TM-946
175 ($\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$) with OMEGA® thermocouples and pH with a pHmeter PG 1400 Gehaka®
176 with an electrode 2A09EBI Analyser® (± 0.01). Prior to use, pHmeter calibration was
177 performed with 7.1 and 4.01 buffers (Gehaka®). Desired higher temperature and lower
178 pH values were gradually reached over 1 day, beginning in control values when running
179 the experiment.

180 Partial pressure of carbon dioxide ($p\text{CO}_2$), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-), carbonate (CO_3^{2-}),
181 aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Arag}) and calcite saturation state (Ω_{Calc}) were calculated
182 with pH, total alkalinity (TA) (T50 automatic titrator Mettler toledo®), temperature (T)
183 and salinity obtained at beginning and end of the experiment. We calculated with CO2SYS
184 (Robbins et al., 2010) using carbonate dissociation constants K1 and K2 from Mehrbach
185 et al. (1973) refitted by Dickson & Millero (1987) and KSO4 from Dickson (1990) (see
186 Supplementary Table 1 for water chemistry details). Water level was constantly refilled
187 in our microcosms (see details in ‘Experimental apparatus’ below) with distilled water to
188 maintain controlled salinity values.

189 The experiment was performed twice for 10 days in January-February/2018.
190 Nearly 10-11 days of development, embryos are expected to present completed eyes, yolk
191 in four lobes and strong heart beat representing an advanced stage of embryonic
192 development (Stage X for *A. lactea* - Yamaguchi, 2001). We used detached embryos in
193 the initial stage of development (blastula stage, based in Yamaguchi, 2001 – see
194 Supplementary Figure 1 for details) from 12 ovigerous females to exclude the maternal
195 effect in egg development and female bias. Roggatz et al. (2016) claimed that ovigerous
196 female crabs, which provide oxygen to embryos during their development, had their
197 clutch ventilation and egg mass care behaviour affected by seawater acidification.

198 Detached embryos developed when separate from their clutch (e.g., Miller et al., 2016)
199 and females are in charge of controlling their hatching time (De Vries & Forward, 1989).
200 Thus, we eliminated the female crab influence to verify the effects of high temperature
201 and low pH in embryos itself. A portion of the clutches were detached with forceps from
202 the central region of the egg mass. Embryo aggregations (EA) were gently detached from
203 the portion of the clutch under a stereomicroscope (ZEISS Discovery.V8 – Axiocam Erc
204 5s) with thin hypodermic needles. Each aggregation consisted in 20-40 embryos; most of
205 the embryo filaments detached from the clutch had nearly 20-40 eggs each and to ensure
206 embryo integrity we maintained the EA with their natural egg disposition. Six EA of each
207 female were photographed with the same stereomicroscope mentioned above to posterior
208 analysis. Images were taken at the same magnification and scale (0.2 mm). Embryo
209 aggregations ($n = 576/ 144$ per treatment) had their eggs counted, transferred using pipets
210 to a well (2 ml vol each) in a 24 Well Cell Culture Plate and then reallocated to the
211 microcosms with saltwater at control treatment parameters. Transfer pipets and needles
212 were constant cleaned during the detaching process with distilled water to avoid
213 contamination. Crabs had measured their carapace width using calipers (mean \pm SE:
214 16.29 ± 0.49 mm).

215

216 **Experimental apparatus**

217 Microcosms ($n = 24/ 6$ per treatment) consisted in tanks (39 x 9 x 14) filled with
218 4.91 liters of artificial saltwater (same mentioned above in ‘Crab collection and
219 maintenance’). Each tank had a 24 Well Cell Culture Plate attached with Velcro. Plastic
220 bottom of each well was removed and substituted by a nylon mesh (180 μ) allowing water
221 circulation. Each tank had two connected compartments: one for the culture plates and
222 other for controlling abiotic factors and apparatus setup including the thermostat, plastic

223 tubes providing CO₂ gas and oxygen supply by air pumps with air stones bubbling at
224 similar intensity (see Supplemental Figure 2 for details). Tanks were checked daily and
225 equally refilled, when necessary, in the setup compartment to prevent heat and pH shock.
226 Photoperiod regime were settled in a 12h light:dark cycle.

227

228 **Response variables: Stage of development, survivorship, egg volume and ammonia**
229 **concentration**

230 Day after day until the end of the experiment, EA from three different females (n
231 = 3 EA per microcosm totalizing 9 per treatment) had all eggs (20-40) photographed as
232 mentioned above and embryos scored as dead or alive. Embryos with pale yellow/white
233 coloration and degenerated or relatively underdeveloped eggs were considered dead
234 (Förster & Baeza, 2001; Davis et al., 2013) (see Supplementary Figure 1 for details).
235 Embryonic stages were based in the detailed classification of Yamaguchi et al. (2001)
236 and classified as: (1) blastula (egg capsule with almost undistinguished individual cells
237 with near 24 to 48 hours after ovulation), (2) gastrula (small yolk-free portion with a
238 formed germinal disc), (3) advanced gastrula (yolkfree portion increased), (4) early larvae
239 (differentiation of limb buds, decreasing yolk mass, development of eye placodes and
240 eyes and faint heartbeat) and (5) pre hatching larvae (completed eye, yolk in four lobes,
241 strong heart beat) (see Supplementary Figure 1 for images of all embryonic stages).
242 Stages were assessed according to the specific stage in which most embryos were
243 observed. We assumed the mean stage when two stages were found in similar number
244 (methods based in Davis et al. (2013)). EA were systematically chosen day after day to
245 do not repeat the same pattern of females analysed and prevent female bias over time.
246 None EA returned to the microcosms after manipulation. At the end of experiment, we

247 photographed the remaining EA to posterior analysis and also scored as dead or alive (20-
248 40 embryos).

249 We estimated the differences between initial and final volume of embryos using
250 the formula for oblate spheroids: $V=1/6(\pi \cdot d^2 \cdot D)$ [d= smaller diameter, D = larger
251 diameter] (Simoni et al., 2011). Embryos from the central region of the EA were measured
252 (smaller and larger diameter) with ImageJ. Five embryos of 3 EA from each female clutch
253 were used to estimate the initial embryonic volume (n = 36 EA/ 180 embryos). Since not
254 all EA were alive at the final of experiment, 36 EA (live embryos at final stage of
255 development) of each treatment were chosen randomly using a random sequence
256 generator (n = 144 EA/ 720 embryos). Similar number of EA (n = 36 EA/ 180 embryos)
257 per treatment were analysed for all response variables (stage of development,
258 survivorship and egg volume) at the end of experiment.

259 Ammonia concentration were estimated at the beginning (12h after embryos were
260 inserted in the microcosms, 1st day), middle (5th day) and end of the experiment (10th day)
261 sampling a water aliquot (250ml) of each microcosm (n = 3 per treatment/period).
262 Ammonia concentration of each treatment was determined by colorimetry reading
263 samples at 630 nm in a spectrophotometer (HACH DR/2400) (Koroleff, 1976).

264

265

266

267 **Statistical analysis**

268 Data were checked for normality and homoscedasticity using Shapiro–Wilk’s and
269 Levene’s test, respectively. Differences between abiotic parameters in microhabitats and
270 the surrounding environment was assessed by an independent t test to compare pH,
271 temperature and salinity between burrows and closest water body. Temperature anomaly
272 (Ta) of air and burrow or closest water body temperature (i.e., Ta = burrow temperature

273 - air temperature) were compared applying a paired t test. Also, a simple linear regression
274 analysis was applied to estimate the relationship between water inside burrows and air
275 temperature.

276 Stages of development were analysed with a two-way analysis of variance
277 (ANOVA) using Treatment and Time (days) as fixed factors and Stage of development
278 (1-5) as dependent variables. Additionally, we applied an one-way ANOVA to verify the
279 embryonic stage at the end of experiment (10th day) among treatments. Probability of
280 survival over time was assessed with survival curves using Kaplan-Meier test with Log-
281 Rank and post Chi-Square comparisons; a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
282 followed by Tukey's *post hoc* test was used to compare initial and final volume of
283 embryos and survivorship among treatments in the last day of experiment. Since some
284 EA showed dead and live embryos at the same aggregation, we scored each embryo as
285 'dead or alive'. Survival data showed a binomial distribution and were arcsin square root
286 transformed. The assumption of normality was not achieved for volume data and we
287 assumed that ANOVA is robust to deviations from normality in large and balanced data
288 sets (Underwood, 1997; Schmider et al., 2010). A Generalized Linear Model (GLM) for
289 Repeated measures was used to identify differences on ammonia concentration over time
290 and treatments. We applied the Chauvenet's criterion to identify outliers in ammonia data
291 to avoid bias due contamination.

292 Values throughout the text were reported as mean and standardized error. The
293 critical level (α) was set at 95% of confidence interval ($\alpha= 0.05$). Analyses were
294 conducted in the software SPSS 25.0 (SPSS Inc., Armonk, NY, U.S.A.).

295

296

297

298 Results

299 Microhabitat characterization

300 We measured the abiotic factors of 39 burrows with chimneys (microhabitat)
 301 habited by ovigerous crabs (mean CW: 16.14 ± 0.55) at initial stage of development. All
 302 abiotic parameters differed between microhabitat and closest water body. Water inside
 303 burrows presented lower temperature and pH and higher salinity than the closest water
 304 body (Table 1). Air temperature in mangrove forest during our measurements was
 305 24.44 ± 0.28 °C, being lower (paired t test: $t = -6.202$, $df = 38$, $p = 0.0000$) and positively
 306 related (regression: $N = 39$, $df = 38$, $F = 32.5$, $R^2 = 0.47$, $p = 0.0000$) with the water inside
 307 burrows.

308

309 **Table 1.** Mean (\pm SE) of temperature, pH and salinity values in the microhabitat ($N = 39$)
 310 and closest water body. Data is presented as t values (t), degrees of freedom (df) and p
 311 value from an independent t test.

Abiotic factors	Burrow	Closest water body	t	df	p value
Temperature (°C)	26.16 ± 0.38	28.42 ± 0.36	-5.331	76	0.0000
pH	6.89 ± 0.03	7.75 ± 0.04	-15,284	76	0.0000
Salinity (PSU)	33.51 ± 0.56	25.33 ± 0.65	9,510	76	0.0000

312

313 Stage of development

314 Embryonic development differed among treatments and time (Table 2). Stages
 315 among treatments did not differ until the 2nd day (Tukey HSD: $p > 0.05$). Control
 316 temperature treatments showed similar development trend over time (Tukey HSD: $p >$
 317 0.05); same pattern was observed for the high temperature treatments, which means a
 318 non-direct pH effect in their development (Tukey HSD: $p > 0.05$). Otherwise, the `high

319 temp. and low pH' treatment showed the more advanced stages at the 4th day among
320 treatments (Tukey HSD: $p < 0.05$).

321 All treatments presented similar embryonic stage of their live embryos at the last
322 day of experiment (10th day) (one way ANOVA: $df = 3$, $F = 1.373$, $p = 0.254$). The
323 majority of embryos were at their latter stage of development (Stage 5: 140/144 embryos).
324

325 **Table 2.** Two-way ANOVA used to evaluate the effects of treatment and time (days) on
326 the embryonic stages of development.

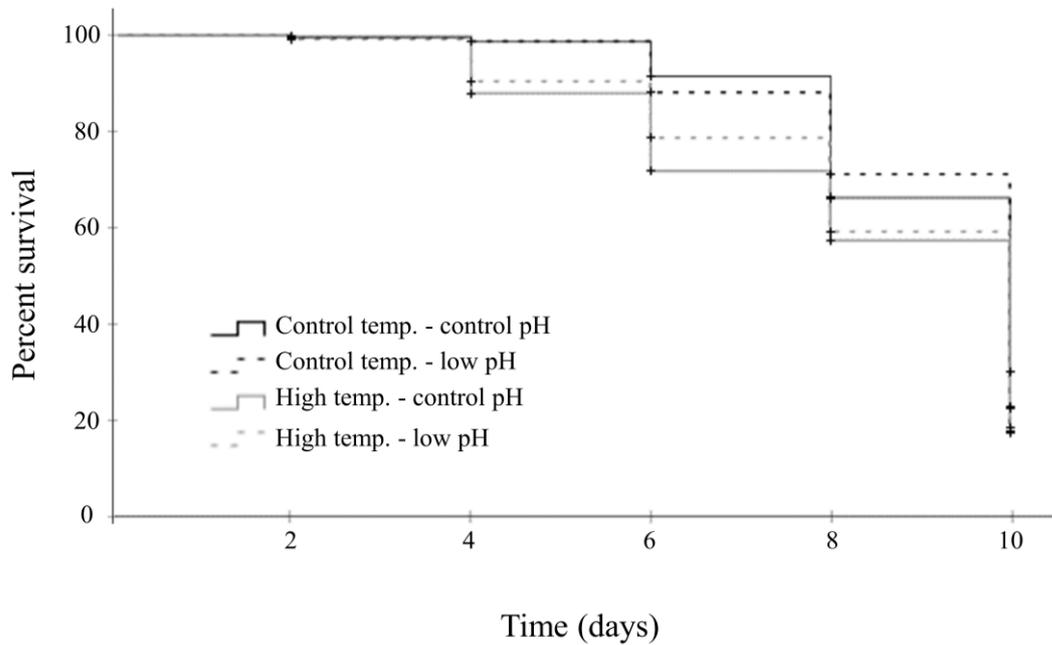
Source of Variation	df	MS	F	p-value
Treatment (T)	3	2.848	10.442	0.0000
Time (TI)	4	31.810	116.620	0.0000
T × TI	12	0.438	1.607	0.109
Residue	71	0.273		

327

328

329 Survivorship

330 Control temperature treatments showed similar probability of survival over
331 embryonic development (control temperature – control pH': 79.1%; control temperature
332 – low pH': 80%) (Kaplan-Meier, Log Rank: χ^2 : 0.93, $p = 0.33$). Higher temperature,
333 independent of pH conditions, affected embryos over time (Kaplan-Meier, Log Rank: p
334 < 0.001), showing the lower percent of survivorship (high temperature – control pH':
335 68,8 %; high temperature - low pH' treatment: 72,4%) (Supplemental Table 2 for
336 pairwise comparisons and values) (Figure 1).



337

338 **Figure 1.** Survival analysis of *Leptuca thayeri* embryos (N = 180 per treatment) in four
 339 different combinations of temperature and pH over embryonic development: control
 340 temperature – control pH, control temperature – low pH, high temperature – control pH
 341 and high temperature – low pH.

342

343 Survivorship rate differs among treatments (one-way ANOVA: $df = 3$, $F = 6.138$,
 344 $p = 0.0003$). Similar to the probability of survival results, control temperature treatments
 345 showed more live embryos than high temperature groups at their latter stage of
 346 development (Tukey HSD: $p < 0.05$) with low pH do not affecting their survivorship rate
 347 (Tukey HSD: $p > 0.05$) (Table 3). Some of dead embryos were associated with undefined
 348 symbionts, partially or entirely covering their circumference (Table 3).

349

350

351 **Table 3.** Summary of the survivorship of embryos under the different treatment
 352 conditions of temperature and pH highlighting dead, infected and alive embryos at the
 353 end of experiment (total num. and %).

Treatment		Embryos		
Temperature	pH	Total	Dead (Infected)	Alive
Control	Control	893	298 (220)	595 (66.63%)
	Low	917	362 (210)	555 (60.52%)
High	Control	943	396 (330)	547 (58.01%)
	Low	804	337 (268)	467 (58.08%)

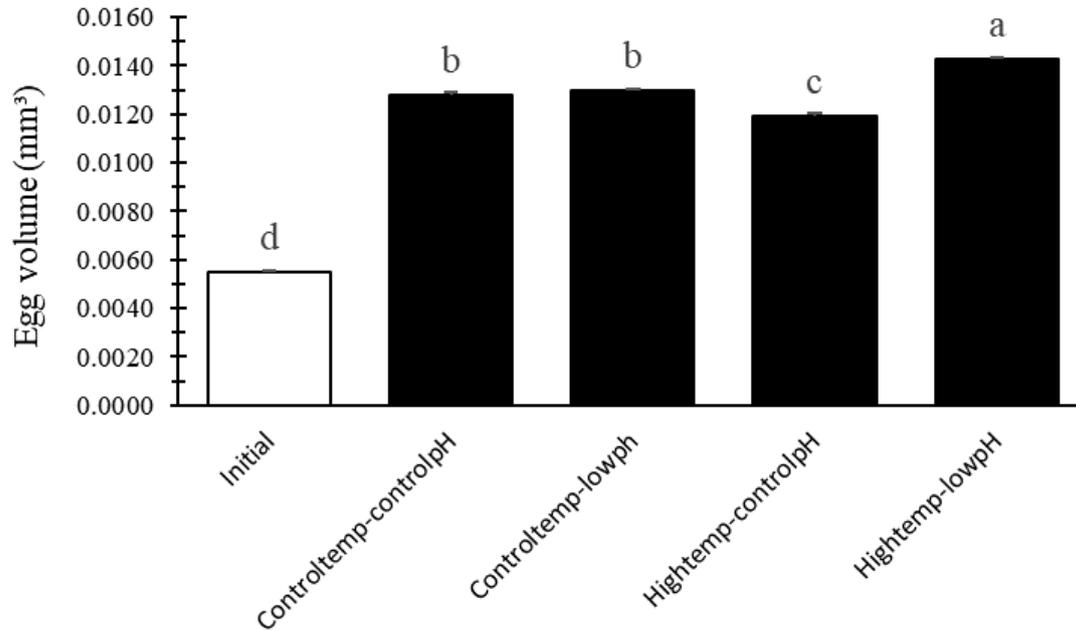
354

355 **Egg volume**

356 The initial volume of eggs was lower than final volume for all treatments
 357 (ANOVA: $F_{4,895} = 1243.927$, $p = 0.000$; Tukey's HSD: $p = 0.0000$). Except when
 358 compared the control treatment and control temperature with low pH (Tukey's HSD: $p =$
 359 0.858), all other treatments differed in their egg volume values (Tukey's HSD: $p =$
 360 0.0000). The 'high temperature – control pH' treatment showed the lower and 'high
 361 temperature – low pH' the more voluminous eggs (Tukey's HSD: $p = 0.0000$),
 362 highlighting an apparent synergic effect of high temperature and low pH (Figure 2).

363

364



365

366 **Figure 2.** Variation in egg volume (Mean \pm SE) (N = 180 per treatment) of *Leptuca*
 367 *thayeri* at initial and final embryonic development stages for all experimental treatments:
 368 control temperature – control pH, control temperature – low pH, high temperature –
 369 control pH and high temperature – low pH. Different letters indicate statistical difference
 370 between treatments (Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.05$).

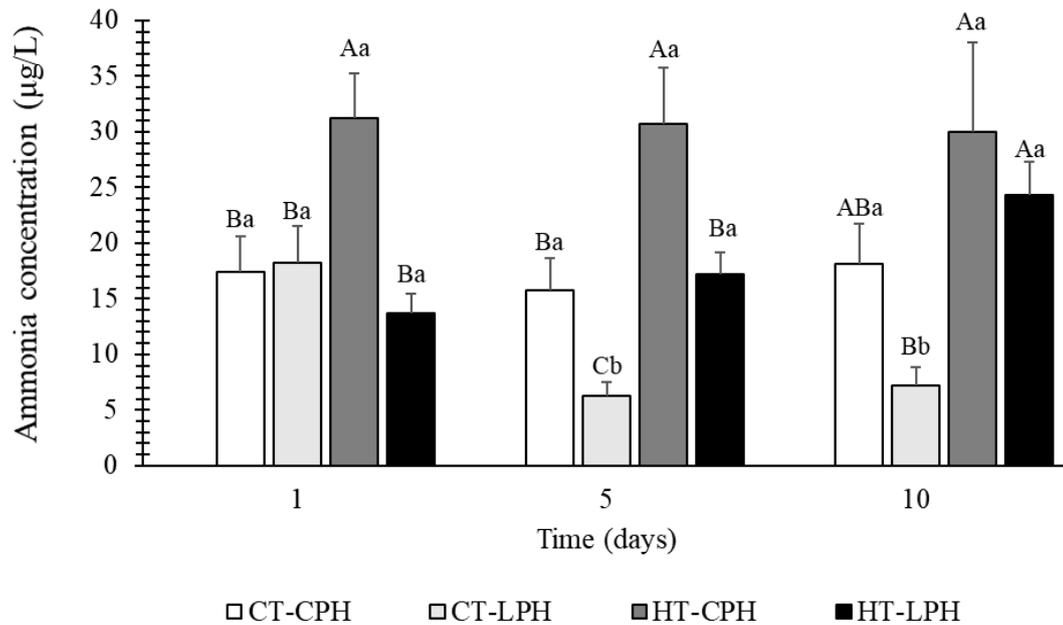
371

372

373 Ammonia concentration

374 Ammonia concentration was higher in the 'high temperature – control pH'
 375 treatment from the beginning until the 5th day of experiment (GLM Repeated measures:
 376 $df = 3$, $ms = 0.145$, $F = 8.359$, $p = 0.000$; *post hoc* LSD: $p < 0.05$) (Figure 3). The 10th
 377 day of experiment showed similar ammonia concentration among treatments (*post hoc*
 378 LSD: $p > 0.05$), except for the lower values in the control temperature and low pH, being
 379 the only treatment which decreased ammonia concentration following the embryo
 380 development (*post hoc* LSD: $p = 0.011$) since 5th day (Figure 3; supplementary Table 4).

381



382

383 **Figure 3.** Mean (\pm SE) of ammonia concentration at the beginning (1st day), middle (5th
 384 day) and end of the experiment (10th day) for the different experimental treatments:
 385 control temperature – control pH (CT-CPH), control temperature – low pH (CT-LPH),
 386 high temperature – control pH (HT-CPH) and high temperature – low pH (HT-LPH).
 387 Different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among treatments at the same
 388 day and lowercase letters indicate significant differences among each treatment over time
 389 (GLM Repeated measures, post hoc LSD: $p < 0.05$).

390

391 Discussion

392 We investigated the effects of predicted costal warming and acidification in the
 393 embryonic development of the fiddler crab *L. thayeri*. Microhabitats (burrows with
 394 chimneys) of ovigerous females presented distinct abiotic factors (pH, temperature and
 395 salinity) values from the surround environment. Our results indicated that high
 396 temperature and low pH affected embryos and, despite ontogenic and morphological
 397 constraints, several embryos deal with those adverse conditions until their late stages.
 398 High temperature accelerated their development and increased mortality, independently

399 of pH conditions. Higher egg volume was observed in a warmer and acidified
400 environment and lower volume in warmer and non-acidified conditions, supporting a
401 synergetic and negative effect of pH and temperature through their embryonic
402 development of *L. thayeri*.

403 Ovigerous females of fiddler crabs use burrows as their microhabitat over the
404 embryo development. Burrows are behaviour- (territorial marking, protection against
405 predators) and physiological (thermal refuge, egg incubation) significant to their builders
406 and considered part of the animals themselves (Laland et al., 2014). From beehives to
407 beavers dams, their microhabitat creates a suitable environment usually differing internal
408 and external abiotic conditions (Hansell, 2007; Laland et al., 2014). Temperature inside
409 crab burrows are usually cooler than outside (e.g., *Leptuca panacea*, Power & Colle,
410 1976). Watson et al. (2018) demonstrated that burrows of the ghost crab *Ocypode*
411 *cordimanus* provide a thermal refugia at different periods of the day: buffers the intense
412 heat of open coastal area during daylight and maintain a constant temperature at night.
413 Our results challenge those inferences as we observed higher temperature inside burrows
414 when compared to air temperature at daylight. However, the mentioned species are from
415 non-vegetated areas and those studies evaluated air temperature inside burrows. *L.*
416 *thayeri*, our model species, lives in vegetated areas and their burrows are constantly
417 flooded, being water a better heat conductor than air. Despite those contrasts, we can
418 expect that burrows of *L. thayeri* ovigerous females also maintain abiotic conditions.
419 Water is a better heat conductor than air and its circulation is reduced inside burrows;
420 burrow internal parameters tend to be distinct than surrounding areas, as we observed for
421 temperature, pH and salinity. Daily temperature fluctuation reduces the optimum and
422 critical temperature and also overall fitness of ectotherms which in turn makes them more
423 sensitive to climate change (Paaijmans et al., 2013). Stable environments are important

424 for embryonic development and their burrows may increase rate and success of healthy
425 embryos, being the sedimentary structure in the shape of chimneys hypothetically an
426 important factor on that dynamic (Gusmão-Júnior et al., 2013). Since we observed that
427 temperature inside burrows are related with air temperature, the tendency of a warming
428 climate may have direct impacts on embryo development.

429 Development rate of ectotherms is temperature-dependent. The success of
430 embryonic development was assessed in twenty-one species of British crustaceans
431 showing trends among groups (Wear, 1974 and literature within) and temperature was
432 the main factor observed affecting their early stages. At the present study, embryos were
433 at similar stage until the 2nd day, following a rapidly development in day 04 at the most
434 extreme treatment. As stages were also similar within control and high temperature
435 groups, our results also support that temperature is one of the main drivers in embryonic
436 development, resulting in a faster growth (Wear, 1974; Anger, 2001; Przeslawski et al.,
437 2015). However, faster development, as we observed in a warmer environment, does not
438 mean healthier development. Larval viability, fitness and risk of mortality are usually
439 reduced when embryonic development occurred with temperature ranging outside their
440 trivial variations (Wear, 1974; Kroeker et al., 2013; Harvey et al., 2013). As we observed,
441 high temperature resulted in higher mortality over time in the embryonic development of
442 our model species. In a robust meta-analysis, Harvey et al. (2013) evidenced that
443 survivorship of early-life history stages is negatively and synergistically affect by
444 temperature and pH. Thermal stress and low pH has been recognized as an important
445 threat to oxygen supply, calcification, growth, reproduction, survival and so forth (Pörtner
446 & Knust 2007; Bozinovic & Pörtner, 2015; Griffen et al., 2016) and survivorship is
447 among the most evaluated response variable to those stressors (Crain et al., 2008;
448 Przeslawski et al., 2015).

449 Low pH environment does not seem to significantly influence egg development
450 or even survivorship. Examples of tolerance to low pH conditions are observed across-
451 taxa where growth, development and survivorship of estuarine and marine early-life
452 stages were not or partially affected (Pansch et al., 2012; Range et al., 2012; Miller et al.,
453 2016; Gravinese, 2017; Jarrold & Munday, 2018). Coastal pH is naturally more variable
454 and complex to predict than open ocean (Hofmann et al., 2011; Carstensen, et al., 2018)
455 and some habitats already experience similar or wider pH variation than predictions for
456 the late 21st century (Dai et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2013; Carstensen et al., 2018).
457 However, the egg volume may entail a complementary interpretation of the low pH effect
458 on our results. Embryos at the 'high temperature and control pH treatment' may had their
459 metabolic rate increased and exceed their physiological threshold, which explain their
460 lower volume and higher ammonia concentration until their middle development stages.
461 Otherwise, eggs at the most extreme treatment may be not considered more successfully
462 developed despite their higher volume. Their higher volume may be linked to the lack of
463 osmoregulation capacity and ammonia concentration due acid-base (extracellular
464 acidosis), ionic balance and gases exchange due high pCO₂ concentrations (Simoni et al.,
465 2011; Gravinese, 2017), being the decrease of ammonia concentration in low pH
466 treatments an important indicative of that prediction. Those ammonia concentration
467 results also support a non-expressive effect of the occasional difference in the number of
468 embryos among treatments where ammonia values were consistent with our predictions
469 and general pattern. Interestingly, an interactive effect (temperature*pH) resulting in a
470 negative sublethal response in marine biodiversity was not previously reported in Harvey
471 et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis. Summing up the effects on *L. thayeri*'s embryos,
472 temperature increases development rate and pH may disrupts their homeostasis affecting
473 exchanges with surrounding environment.

474 Symbionts (e.g. bacteria, fungi) were observed in association with embryos and
475 may have also impacted their development. They are commonly found in crustaceans and
476 their clutch in coastal environments (Fisher, 1976; Alda et al., 2011; Silva et al., 2007).
477 Those communities are linked with embryo mortality competing with embryos for
478 oxygen and restricting the gas exchange within egg mass (Fisher, 1976; Silva et al., 2007).
479 Oxygen provision to egg mass by ovigerous females is intensify through the embryo
480 development (Baeza & Fernández, 2002), and crustacean embryos with insufficient
481 oxygen supply by maternal care (lack of grooming) may have their ontogeny development
482 delayed or even die (Förster & Baeza, 2001). Warmer environments favor the symbiont
483 development and further research could be undertaken to investigate this cascade
484 relationship (high temperature - embryo development - symbionts) under the perspective
485 of a warming climate.

486 Warming and acidification have been heavily discussed as important stressors in
487 marine and costal habitats (Duarte et al., 2013; Rudd, 2014; Nagelkerken & Connell,
488 2015; Gunderson et al., 2016). In a climate change context, abiotic stressors drive
489 directional selection and define `winners and losers´ at different scales (Somero, 2010).
490 Physiological plasticity plays an important role in how species deal with climate change
491 (Seebacher et al., 2015), and the relevance of individual genetic variability among
492 individuals may trigger species acclimation defining their adaptation by natural selection
493 (Pistevos et al., 2011). It turns more relevant when that responses are observed in an
494 estuarine calcified ectothermic with r-selected reproductive strategy, such as the case of
495 fiddler crabs. In our study, an expressive number of embryos were alive and apparently
496 ready to hatch (morphological perspective) at the end of our experiment in controlled and
497 extreme abiotic conditions. Thus, despite the observed negative impacts of near-future
498 conditions, it would be important to understand the potential adaptation of fiddler crabs

499 in the next life-stages (e.g., larvae) under predicted abiotic factors. Our results gave
500 indicatives that leads to the need of a deeper comprehension of that impacts among
501 ontogeny, populations and generations.

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732

733 **Acknowledgments**

734 We thank Alessandra Augusto, Camila G. Blanco, Glauco B. O. Machado, Murilo
735 Z. Marochi and Rafael M. Duarte for their valuable comments in the early version of this
736 manuscript and all members of the Laboratório de Ecologia e Comportamento Animal
737 (LABECOM) and Laboratório de Sustentabilidade (LABSUSSA) for their technical
738 support in lab experiments.

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740

741 **Funding**

742 This work was funded by Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo
743 (FAPESP): financial aid granted to JCF Pardo (Masters scholarship – FAPESP No
744 2017/00802-0) and TM Costa (Regular Grant - FAPESP No 2015/50300-6). TM Costa
745 was recipient of the Brazilian Research Council (CNPq) productivity fellowship (No.
746 303400/2012-9).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Multiple stressors effects of warming and acidification in the embryonic development of
an estuarine fiddler crabPardo. J. C. F.^{1,2,*} & Costa. T. M.^{1,2}

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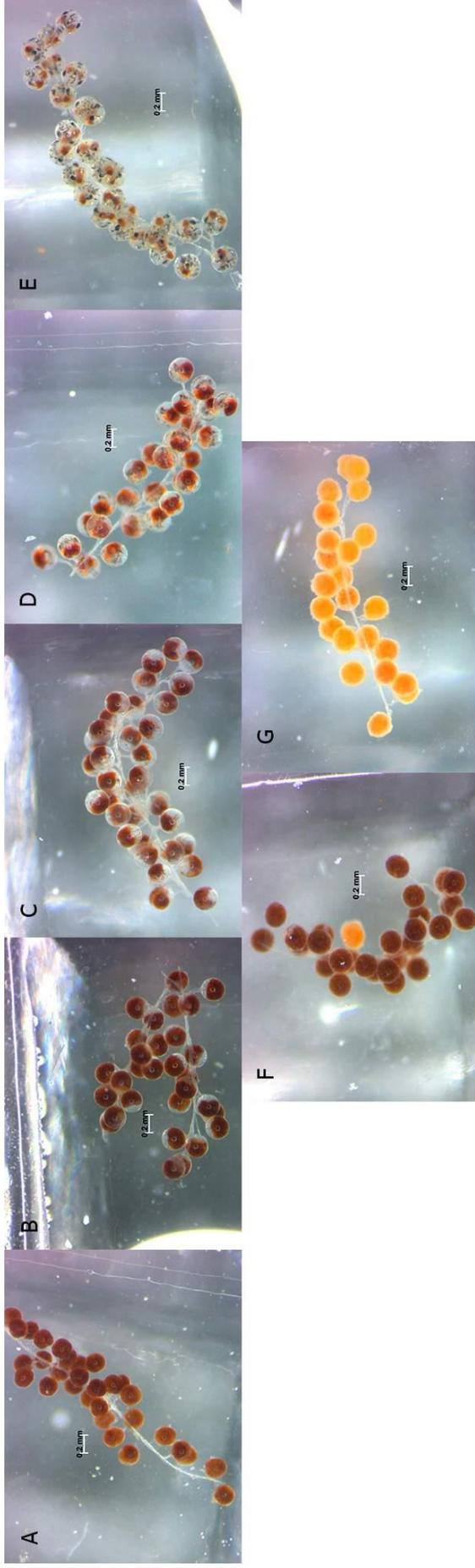
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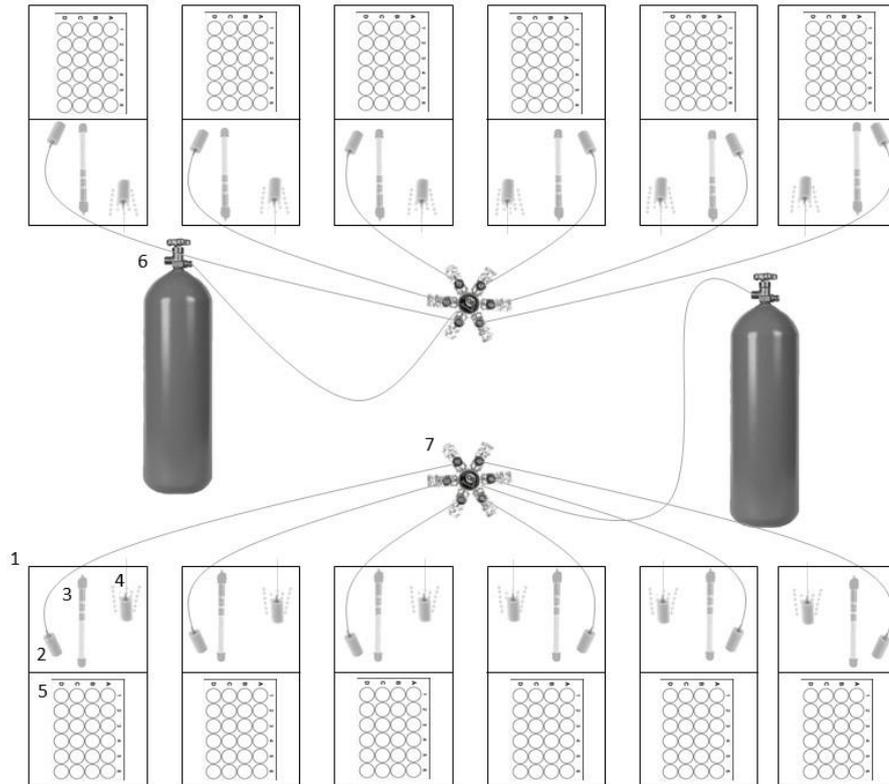
Supplemental Table 1. Mean (\pm SE) of measured (beginning/final of the experiment) [pH, temperature (T), total alkalinity (TA)] and calculated (CO2SYS) saltwater parameters [partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂), bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), carbonate (CO₃²⁻), aragonite saturation state (Ω Arag) and calcite saturation state (Ω Calc)] for the experimental treatments.

Treatment	Measured parameters			Calculated parameters	
	pH	T (°C)	A _t (μ mol.Kg ⁻¹)	pCO ₂ (μ atm)	
Control temp.	Control pH	6.99 \pm 0.02	26.13 \pm 0.10	2324.11 \pm 169.32	5721.62 \pm 517.68
	Low pH	6.20 \pm 0.05	26.43 \pm 0.13	2105.99 \pm 165.83	31713.16 \pm 7705.09
High temp.	Control pH	6.95 \pm 0.02	29.88 \pm 0.12	2537.12 \pm 28.36	7031.64 \pm 305.71
	Low pH	6.21 \pm 0.05	29.95 \pm 0.16	2376.15 \pm 35.30	37964.41 \pm 4579.74

Sup. Table I cont.		Calculated parameters			
Treatment		HCO ₃ ⁻ (μmol.Kg ⁻¹)	CO ₃ ²⁻ (μmol.Kg ⁻¹)	Ω _{Arag}	Ω _{Calc}
Control temp.	Control pH	2273.87 ±165.78	24.85±2.25	0.40±0.04	0.61±0.06
	Low pH	2096.07±166.38	5.19±3.80	0.08±0.03	0.13±0.04
High temp.	Control pH	2480.54±26.95	27.94±1.37	0.46±0.02	0.69±0.03
	Low pH	10983.44±8627.22	4.95±0.45	0.08±0.01	0.12±0.01



Supplemental Figure 1. Classification scheme of the development of *Leptuca thayeri* embryos based on yolk content, eyes presence and heart beating: (A) blastula (egg capsule with almost undistinguished individual cells with near 24 to 48 hours after ovulation), (B) gastrula (small yolk-free portion with a formed germinal disc), (C) advanced gastrula (yolkfree portion increased), (D) early larvae (differentiation of limb buds, decreasing yolk mass, development of eye placodes and eyes and faint heartbeat) and (E) pre hatching larvae (completed eye, yolk in four lobes, strong heart beat). Description were based in Yamaguchi (2001) for the embryonic development of the fiddler crab *Austruca lactea*. Additional examples of degenerated or relatively underdeveloped eggs (F) and infested with symbionts and dead embryos (G).



Supplemental Figure 2. Schematic design of the microcosms used in the laboratory experiment. Tank overview (1) with two connected compartments, one for the apparatus setup compartment including air stone bubbling O₂ (2), thermostat (3) and air stone (4) for CO₂ bubbling and other for the 24 Well Cell Culture Plate (5). CO₂ system consisted in gas cylinders (6) with aquarium CO₂ 6-way Splitters (7).

Supplemental Table 2. Result summary of the Log Rank test's pairwise comparisons among experimental treatments. P-values in bold mean statistical significance.

Treatment		Control temp. - control pH		Control temp. - low pH		High temp. - control pH		High temp. - low pH	
Temp.	pH	Chi-Square	p-value	Chi-Square	p-value	Chi-Square	p-value	Chi-Square	p-value
Control	Control	-	-	0.93	0.33	29.53	0.0000	10.17	0.001
	Low	0.93	0.33	-	-	19.89	0.0000	5.38	0.02
High	Control	29.53	0.0000	19.89	0.0000	-	-	5.11	0.23
	Low	10.17	0.001	5.38	0.02	5.11	0.23	-	-

CAPÍTULO 2

Maternal status elicits species-specific responses to warming in fiddler crabs

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26 **Abstract**

27 Coastal and estuarine ectotherms are potentially vulnerable to temperature instability.
28 Thermal tolerance varies among groups and life-stages. However, the influence of
29 maternal status in a climate warming scenario it is still unexplored. The fiddler crabs
30 *Leptuca thayeri* and *Gelasimus borealis* were used as model species to verify if ovigerous
31 females are more sensitive to warming than non-ovigerous. Environmental
32 characterization showed that both species experienced temperatures way above their
33 thermal limit (TL). Ovigerous *G. borealis* had lower TL than non-ovigerous; otherwise,
34 *L. thayeri* had similar TL despite their reproductive status. The lighter and narrower body
35 *G. borealis* had higher TL possibly due their living environmental and evolutionary
36 history. Habitat and reproductive patterns may explain disparities between species'
37 thermal tolerances. Beyond theoretical approaches, we present an experimental support
38 on maternal status' TLs showing a non-general pattern for an ectotherm group.

39

40

41 **Key-words:** Ectotherms. Ovigerous status. Thermal limit. Thermal tolerance. *Leptuca*
42 *thayeri*. *Gelasimus borealis*.

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44

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48 **Introduction**

49 Thermal variability imposes direct and indirect impacts to ecosystems and their
50 organisms [1]. Slow and rapid (extreme heatwaves) temperature variations lead changes
51 in phenology [2], shifts in species location [3] and individual-level effects on physiology
52 and behaviour [4]. In this context, the temperature-dependent group of ectotherms are
53 particularly more sensitive [5]. Coastal and estuarine ectotherms are even more
54 vulnerable to temperature increase, usually living close to their critical thermal limits [6].
55 Species may have different thermal limits according to their environment and life-history
56 stages [7; 8]. Marine embryos and larvae are recognized as potentially vulnerable stages
57 in a warming context [9]. However, at our knowledge, there are no experimental studies
58 showing the warming sensitivity on ovigerous females. Parental care is an energy-costly
59 behaviour presented in many taxa [10]. Most ovigerous brachyurans change their
60 physiology and behaviour reducing their time exposed and activity to care for embryos
61 during their development [11]. Energy is invested in pleonal pumping which provides
62 oxygen to their egg mass, mainly in the later embryo development stages [11, 12]. In this
63 sense, these physio-behavioural changes in females with extruded eggs may carry
64 consequences for the ovigerous female itself in a warming context.

65 At this context, we verified the habitat range temperature and thermal limits of
66 ovigerous and non-ovigerous females of two estuarine key-stone species, *Leptuca thayeri*
67 and *Gelasimus borealis*. Despite their geographical distance and distinct clades, both
68 fiddler crab species live in low to middle intertidal soils and have similar reproductive
69 habits, behaving (i.e., feeding on soil surface) outside their burrows even when ovigerous
70 [13, 14]. We assessed the following questions: (1) Are ovigerous females more sensitive
71 to temperature increase than non-ovigerous females? (2) Do ovigerous females from
72 distinct genus with similar reproductive behaviour have different thermal limits? Physio-

73 behavioural traits leads to predict that ovigerous of *L. thayeri* and *G. borealis* are more
74 sensitive to warming than non-ovigerous. We hypothesized (H0) that ovigerous females
75 have lower thermal limit than non-ovigerous females for both species.

76

77 **Material and methods**

78 Environmental characterization and crab collection (see supplementary online
79 material for details) of *L. thayeri* were conducted in Portinho Mangrove, Praia Grande -
80 São Paulo, Brazil (23°59'16.74" S 46°24'26.28" W) and *G. borealis* samplings at the Tung
81 Chung mangrove, Hong Kong, Republic of China (22°16'56.7"N 113°55'43.3"E). We
82 measured the habitat temperature experienced by the ovigerous fiddler crabs during their
83 embryo development installing thermo-loggers [Maxim® iButtons ($\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$)] at the
84 following three zones: soil surface, below (20 cm) and above ground (attached to
85 branches, 20 cm). Fiddler crabs usually takes 13-14 days of embryo development until
86 release their larvae [15, 16]. Thus, iButton loggers stayed at least 15 days (spring and
87 neap tide) logging the temperature with 5-minute interval.

88 We used heart rate (beats per minute) and thermal limit as our response variable
89 [17] for ovigerous and non-ovigerous female crabs (*L. thayeri*: n = 10 per reproductive
90 status; *G. borealis*: n = 20 per reproductive status) subjected to a thermal ramp (see the
91 electronic supplementary material for details). The experiment procedures were
92 conducted in both countries with same methodology and equipment.

93 Data were checked for normality (Shapiro-Wilk's test) and homoscedasticity
94 (Levene's test). Unequal sample size and non-normality data leads to compare the thermal
95 limit with a factorial permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) (9999
96 permutations) using Species (*L. thayeri* and *G. borealis*) and Reproductive status

97 (ovigerous and non-ovigerous) as fixed factors. A *post hoc* PERMANOVA analyses were
98 conducted to verify the significant difference in reproductive status. Carapace width
99 (CW), body (with and without egg mass) weight and body/egg mass ratio among
100 ovigerous and non-ovigerous females of both species were analysed with a Welch's t test
101 for unequal sample sizes. Differences were considered significant if $p < 0.05$. Analyses
102 were conducted in SPSS 25.0 (SPSS Inc., Armonk, NY, U.S.A.) and PAST v3.20.

103

104 **Results**

105 The mean measured temperature experienced by non-ovigerous and ovigerous
106 female crabs was below their thermal limits with some extremes above their thermal limit
107 (Figure 1; electronic supplementary material, Table S1). Ovigerous *G. borealis* were
108 more sensitive to warming than non-ovigerous, being the latter with higher thermal limit
109 than non-ovigerous and ovigerous *L. thayeri* (PERMANOVA, $F = 1.313$, $DF = 3$, $p =$
110 0.02 ; *post hoc*s: $p < 0.01$) (Figure 2; electronic supplementary material, Table S2, S3).
111 Ovigerous and non-ovigerous *L. thayeri* showed similar lethal temperatures (*post hoc*
112 PERMANOVA: $p = 0.42$) (Figure 2; electronic supplementary material, Table S3) and
113 were heavier and wider with heavier egg mass than *G. borealis* (summary of Welch's t
114 test results in Table 1).

115

116 **Discussion**

117

118 Our study highlights that ovigerous females, a high energy-costly life stages, have
119 species-specific responses to warming in fiddler crabs. Theoretical models predict that
120 early-stages and spawners of fishes have the narrow thermal window widths across their
121 life stages [18]. Our results give the first experimental support to a non-general pattern in

122 ectotherms. Although their thermal limits are below the mean environmental temperature,
123 several field measured temperatures surpassed their thermal limit and direct warming may
124 affect species thermal windows at individual level [7, 18]. In ectothermic biology, their
125 metabolic and behavioural processes, such as fecundity, foraging and growing, are known
126 to be affected by thermal variability [7, 8]. Therefore, invertebrates evolved specific
127 mechanisms to cope with extreme temperatures [18]. Fiddler crabs use burrows as thermal
128 refuges [19] and males major claws act as heat sinks [20], for example. However, as
129 extreme thermal events are becoming longer and more frequent (e.g., marine heatwaves,
130 21), ectothermic species, mainly the ones living in exposed habitats and warming-
131 sensitive life-stages, encounter direct and severe constraints.

132 Both species live in estuarine areas with distinct tree cover, which explain the
133 higher temperatures on *G. borealis* exposed habitat (Tung Chung mangrove). Adapted to
134 warmer conditions, non-ovigerous *G. borealis* had higher TL than *L. thayeri* showing a
135 potential wider aerobic performance window, despite its lower weight and carapace
136 width. Following the general trend, species living in more exposed areas tend to present
137 lower mortality rates in high temperatures, as observed for other fiddler crab species [22].
138 Our model species have similar reproductive behaviour but not the same reproductive
139 pattern: *L. thayeri* has a seasonal reproduction period [23] and *G. borealis* an annual
140 pattern, breeding during most part of the year [24]. As observed for the fiddler crab
141 *Minuca pugnax*, ovigerous females have low hepatosomatic index (i.e., indirect index of
142 energy status) due to reproduction [25]. Energy costs involved in continuous reproduction
143 strategies may explain the contrast ovigerous TL results between both species. Also,
144 ovigerous *L. thayeri* have heavier egg mass than *G. borealis*. Broods accumulate water
145 and larger egg masses may help as heat sink in species with high fecundity.

146 Species are extending their range limits due to climate change [3]. The Atlantic
147 marsh fiddler crabs *Gelasimus pugnax*, as an example, northern range expanded their
148 distribution [26]. Based on our environment characterization and TL results, fiddler crabs
149 living inside coastal forests may have favourable environmental temperature conditions
150 to expand their distributions, besides other abiotic (e.g., salinity, pH) and biotic factors
151 (e.g., niche competition). Considering carrying-egg females a crucial life-stage and a
152 bottleneck on population dynamics, complementary physiological and behavioural
153 information are essential to clarify how ovigerous females from different groups deal with
154 warming in the context of climate change.

155

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157

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233 **Acknowledges**

234 We thank all members of the Laboratory of Ecology and Animal Behaviour
235 (LABECOM) (UNESP) and Mangrove Ecology Lab (HKU) - Swire Institute of Marine
236 Science (SWIMS). We also thank Cecily for the technical support.

237

238 **Ethics.** Experiments were conducted in agreement with Brazil and Hong Kong laws.

239 **Data accessibility.** Data are available as the electronic supplementary material.

240 **Authors' contributions.** J.C.F.P., T.M.C. and S.C. conceived the study; J.C.F.P.
241 developed experiments, carried out analyses and drafted the manuscript. J.C.F.P., P.J.J.
242 and P.G. designed the experiments.

243 **Competing interests.** We have no competing interests.

244 **Funding.** J.C.F.P. was supported by Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São
245 Paulo (FAPESP) via Masters scholarship (FAPESP No 2017/00802-0, 2018/00577-0).
246 T.M.C. was supported by FAPESP (Regular Grant - FAPESP No 2015/50300-6) and
247 recipient of the Brazilian Research Council (CNPq) productivity fellowship (No.
248 303400/2012-9).

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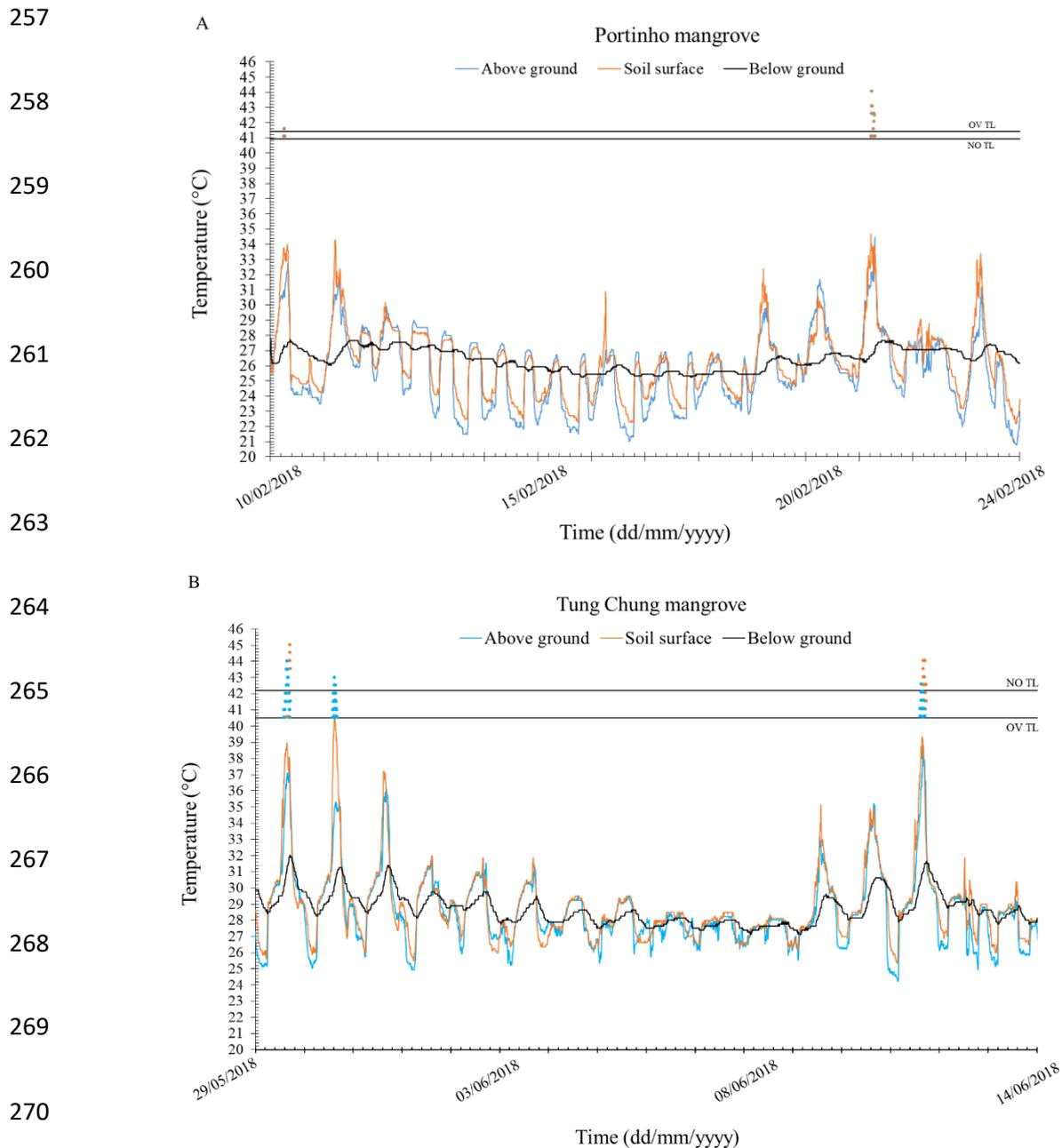
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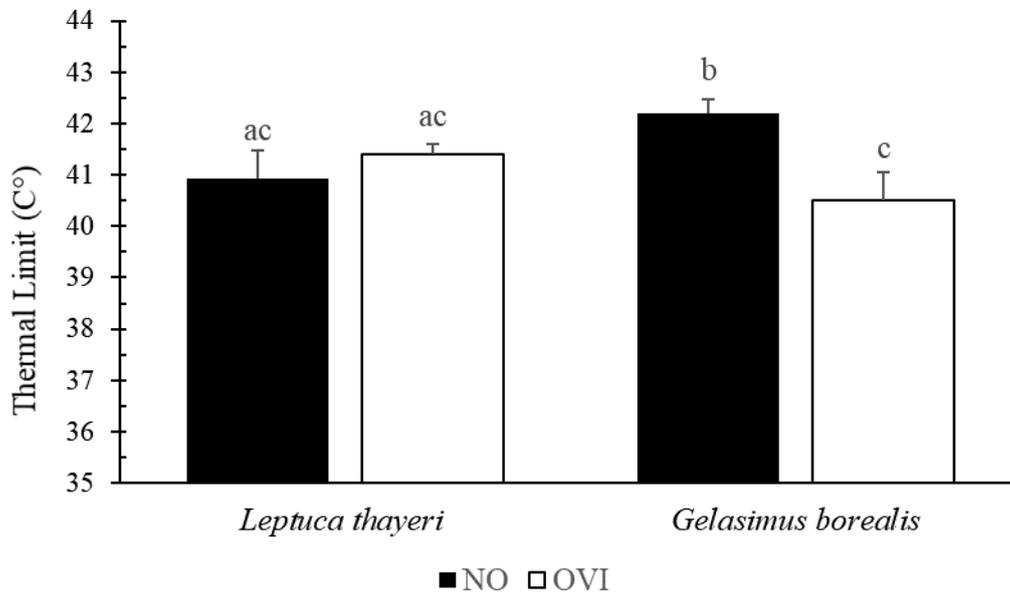
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272 **Figure 1:** Mean field environment temperature of the fiddler crab habitats on (A) Portinho
 273 mangrove, Brazil, (10/02/2018-24/02/2018) and (B) Tung Chung mangrove, Hong Kong,
 274 (29/05/2018-14/06/2018) at the different zones: soil surface and above and below ground.
 275 Black lines represent thermal limits (TLs) of each species and reproductive status and
 276 dots are the extremes values above species' TLs observed in all loggers from each zone

277 and day. Estimations were made with five loggers at each zone, except for soil surface
 278 and below ground in Tung Chung mangrove (four loggers/each).

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281 **Figure 2:** Thermal limit (TL) (\pm SE) of the non-ovigerous (NO) and ovigerous (OVI)
 282 fiddler crabs *Leptuca thayeri* and *Gelasimus borealis*. Different letters indicate statistical
 283 difference between treatments (PERMANOVA: $p < 0.05$).

284

285 **Table 1:** Welch's t test results among carapace width (CW), body (with and without egg
 286 mass) weight and egg mass. Values are expressed as mean \pm SE. Degrees of freedom, df1:
 287 numerator, df2: denominator.

	Species		Welch's test			
	<i>Leptuca thayeri</i>	<i>Gelasimus borealis</i>	Statistic	df1	df2	p-value
CW (mm)						
NO	18.72 \pm 0.32	13.29 \pm 0.23	174.13	1	19.29	0.000
OVI	18.3 \pm 0.34	13.41 \pm 0.19	158.13	1	14.61	0.000
Weight (g)						

NO	2.65±0.43	0.62±0.03	205.78	1	10.21	0.000
OV (with egg mass)	2.96±0.17	0.61±0.03	176.5	1	9.58	0.000
OV (without egg mass)	2.52±0.15	0.55±0.03	167.15	1	9.54	0.000
Egg mass*	0.44±0.04	0.06±0.01	5.22	1	27.31	0.03

288 *comparison using body/egg mass ratio

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Electronic Supplementary Material

Maternal status elicits species-specific responses to warming in fiddler crabs

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Legends of supplementary files

* Supplementary material and methods:

a) Crab collection and maintenance

b) Upper thermal limits of heart function

*Supplementary results

Table S1

Table S2

Table S3

Material and Methods

a) Crab collection and maintenance

Non-ovigerous and ovigerous female crabs (embryos in advanced stage of development) of *L. thayeri* (carapace width (CW): 17-20 mm) and *G. borealis* (CW: 12-15 mm) were collected at the same areas of the environmental temperature characterization. Carapace width range was based on the most frequent width of collected ovigerous crabs in the sampling area. Prior observations showed that black egg mass represented embryos at late stages of development. We manually sampled all individuals by excavating their burrows and transferred them to the laboratory. Only undamaged crabs in the intermold were collected. Crabs were maintained for two (minimum) to five (maximum) days in aquariums with a thin saltwater layer (artificial sea salt dissolved in distilled water (S33-35)), containing PVC pipe connectors (2.5 cm of diameter) to provide dry shelter. Saltwater was partially changed daily in all aquariums. Crabs were fed *ad libitum* daily after the second day with fish food for marine carnivores. A 12h light:dark photoperiod cycle and controlled air and water temperature (25°C) were maintained during acclimatization.

b) Thermal limits - heart function

After the period of acclimatization, specimens were individually transferred to glass containers (covered with a black contact paper) with 1 ml of saltwater to avoid dehydration. Containers were placed in a water bath and subjected to a thermal ramp starting at 25°C increasing the temperature by 1°C every 20 min until 50°C (general average temperature rise in mangroves). We used a non-invasive method to estimate heart

rates which consists in carefully attaching an infrared sensor (Vishay Semiconductors, CNY70) to the cardiac region of the crabs using blue tack adhesive and cyanoacrylate instant glue [1]. Signals were filtered and recorded with a Picoscope® oscilloscope connected to a computer. The lethal temperature was estimated using the endpoint for the heart function (flat-line temperature (FLT)) [2].

We evaluated and estimated the relationship between the crabs' body temperature and the water during the thermal ramp. K-type thermocouples were inserted into the branchial chambers of ovigerous and non-ovigerous crabs allocated in the water bath (as mentioned above). Temperature ($\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$) of both crabs and water were logged with a Lutron TM-947SD thermometer. We applied a linear regression analysis generating an equation [3] for each species and reproductive status and estimated the real body temperature and TL for specimens from the heart function experiments (Simple Linear Regression: *L. thayeri*: non ovigerous: N_{crabs} : 5; N = 2552, df = 2551, F = 53215.21, r^2 = 0.95, p = 0.000/ ovigerous: N_{crabs} : 7; N = 3614, df = 3613, F = 65913.34, r^2 = 0.94, p = 0.000; *G. borealis*: non ovigerous: N_{crabs} : 20; N = 10303, df = 10302, F = 658071.9, r^2 = 0.98, p = 0.000/ ovigerous: N_{crabs} : 20; N = 10296, df = 10295, F = 868740.3, r^2 = 0.98, p = 0.000).

All crabs had measured their carapace width (± 0.1 mm) and weight (± 0.001 g) with and without eggs after trials.

Results

Table S1: Mean (\pm SE), minimum and maximum temperature on Portinho mangrove, Brazil, and Tung Chung mangrove, Hong Kong, of three different zones: above ground, soil surface and below ground. Min and max values referred to the extremes observed in all loggers from each zone.

Study site	Temperature								
	Above ground			Soil surface			Below ground		
	Mean	Min	Max	Mean	Min	Max	Mean	Min	Max
Portinho mangrove	25.63 \pm 0.04	20.8	34.5	26.23 \pm 0.04	22.18	34.67	26.4 \pm 0.01	25.24	27.84
Tung Chung mangrove	28.45 \pm 0.03	24.10	45.08	29.82 \pm 0.03	24.58	44.05	28.66 \pm 0.01	26.67	33.61

Table S2: PERMANOVA test on differences in CTmax across Species (*Leptuca thayeri* and *Gelasimus borealis*) and Reproductive Status (ovigerous and non-ovigerous) (fixed factors). Sum of squares, Sum of sqrs; Degrees of freedom, df; Mean Square, MS; pseudo-F-statistic value, F; p value, p.

Source	Sum of sqrs	df	MS	F	p
Species	0.4788	1	0.4788	0.062787	0.6855
Reprod. Status	30.038	3	10.013	1.313	0.0259
Interaction	-243.32	3	-81.105	-10.636	0.8066
Residual	396.54	52	76.258		
Total	183.74	59			

Table S3: P values of *post hoc* PERMANOVA analyses on CTmax between Reproductive Status (ovigerous and non-ovigerous) (fixed factor). *Leptuca thayeri* non-ovigerous (LTNO); *L. thayeri* ovigerous (LTOVI); *Gelasimus borealis* non-ovigerous (GBNO); *G. borealis* ovigerous (GBOVI).

	LTNO	LTOVI	GBNO	GBOVI
LTNO		0.4284	0.0071	0.6448
LTOVI	0.4284		0.0048	0.2769
GBNO	0.0071	0.0048		0.005
GBOVI	0.6448	0.2769	0.005	

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Considerações finais

“For centuries, scientists thought that earth processes were so large and powerful that nothing we could do would change them. This was a basic tenet of geological science: that human chronologies were insignificant compared with the vastness of geological time; that human activities were insignificant compared with the force of geological processes. And once they were. But no more. There are now so many of us cutting down so many trees and burning so many billions of tons of fossil fuels that we have become geological agents. We have changed the chemistry of our atmosphere, causing sea level to rise, ice to melt, and climate to change. There is no reason to think otherwise. And, in my view, there is, at this point in history, no excuse for not taking action to prevent the very significant losses that are likely to ensue—indeed, losses that are already becoming evident—if we sit around denying the reality that science has made clear.”

Oreskers, 2018

E.A. Lloyd, E. Winsberg
(eds.), *Climate Modelling*

Nossos resultados demonstram que as fases tidas como vulneráveis de caranguejos violinistas, ectotérmicos estuarinos de grande importância na conformação dos seus habitats, demonstram sensibilidade às variações abióticas atreladas à mudança climática antropogênica. Respostas fisiológicas e morfológicas revelam que o aumento da temperatura e redução do pH, preditos para o final do século, afetam negativamente e individualmente os organismos, podendo acarretar uma cascata de efeitos na dinâmica dos ecossistemas. Apesar de adaptados à constante variação abiótica, os organismos estuarinos, sobretudo as fases vulneráveis (embriões, larvas e fêmeas ovígeras), vivem perto dos seus limites fisiológicos com curtas janelas termais, resultando em uma tolerância limitada e sensível as variações preditas. Contudo, as respostas não ocorrem de forma absoluta e/ou são espécie-específicas, o que conduz a perguntas mais específicas quanto a tolerância e consequências nessas fases determinantes da ontogenia dos organismos. Apesar dos recentes esforços da comunidade científica, a literatura ainda

carece de informações mais realísticas sobre os efeitos das atuais e futuras mudanças nas condicionantes abióticas e suas interações nos ecossistemas. Estudos abordando estressores múltiplos ou isolados e seus efeitos a curto e longo prazo ao longo de gerações e interações tróficas são alguns exemplos de áreas a serem exploradas.

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