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Developmental mode in benthic opisthobranch molluscs from the northeast Pacific Ocean: feeding in a sea of plenty

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Abstract: Mode of development was determined for 130 of the nearly 250 species of shallow-water, benthic opisthobranchs known from the northeast Pacific Ocean. Excluding four introduced or cryptogenic species, 91% of the species have planktotrophic development, 5% have lecithotrophic development, and 5% have direct development. Of the 12 native species with non-feeding (i.e., lecithotrophic or direct) modes of development, 5 occur largely or entirely south of Point Conception, California, where surface waters are warmer, lower in nutrients, and less productive than those to the north; 4 are known from habitats, mainly estuaries, that are small and sparsely distributed along the Pacific coast of North America; and 1 is Arctic and circumboreal in distribution. The nudibranchs Doto amyra Marcus, 1961 and Phidiana hiltoni (O'Donoghue, 1927) were the only species with non-feeding development that were widespread along the outer coast. This pattern of distribution of developmental mode is consistent with the prediction that planktotrophy should be maintained at high prevalence in regions safe for larval feeding and growth and should tend to be selected against where the risks of larval mortality (from low- or poor-quality food, predation, and transport away from favorable adult habitat) are higher. However, direct development, which includes the most derived mode of non-feeding development, was also correlated with small adult size, reflecting an association common in marine invertebrates. Planktotrophic development also predominates in decapod Crustacea from the northeast Pacific, but is less common in echinoderms and prosobranch gastropods from this region owing to the presence of lineages constrained by phylogeny to non-feeding modes of development.

Résumé : Nous avons déterminé les modes de développement chez 130 des presque 250 espèces d'opisthobranches benthiques d'eaux peu profondes connues du nord-est de l'océan Pacifique. Après l'élimination de quatre espèces introduites ou cryptogéniques, 91 % des espèces possèdent un développement planctotrophe, 5 % un développement lécithotrophe et 5 % un développement direct. Des 12 espèces indigènes qui possèdent un des deux derniers modes de développement sans alimentation, cinq se retrouvent exclusivement ou presque au sud de Point Conception en Californie où les eaux superficielles sont plus chaudes, moins riches en nutriments et moins productives que celles plus au nord; quatre des espèces vivent dans des habitats restreints et clairsemés, surtout dans les estuaires, de la côte pacifique de l'Amérique du Nord; une des espèces a une répartition arctique et circumboréale. Les nudibranches Doto amyra Marcus, 1961 et Phidiana hiltoni (O'Donoghue, 1927) sont les seules espèces à développement sans alimentation qui sont communes au large de la côte. Ce pattern de répartition en fonction du mode de développement est en accord avec la prédiction qui veut que la planctotrophie devrait s'établir en forte fréquence dans les régions sûres pour l'alimentation et la croissance des larves; elle devrait être sélectionnée négativement là où les risques de mortalité larvaire (à cause d'une nourriture rare ou de pauvre qualité, de la prédation et de l'entraînement loin des habitats favorables aux adultes) sont plus élevés. Cependant, le développement direct, qui comprend le mode le plus évolué de développement sans alimentation, est en corrélation avec une taille adulte réduite, une relation commune chez les invertébrés marins. Le développement planctotrophe prédomine aussi chez les crustacés décapodes du nord-est du Pacifique, mais il est moins répandu chez les échinodermes et les gastéropodes prosobranches de la région à cause de la présence de lignées restreintes phylogénétiquement à des modes de développement sans alimentation.

[Traduit par la Rédaction]

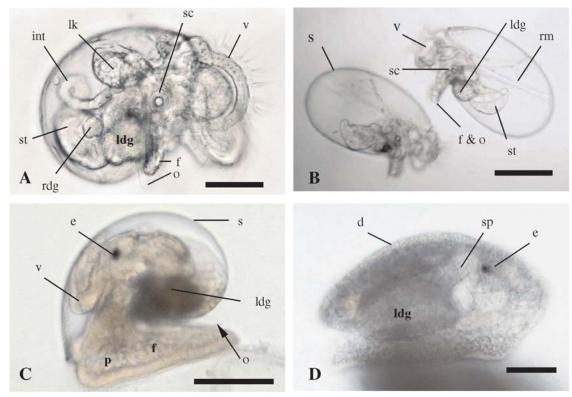
Introduction

The northeast Pacific Ocean is characterized by moderate temperatures; slow-moving boundary currents; seasonal, localized upwelling; and high primary production (Briggs 1974; Hickey 1979; Briggs et al. 1987; Strub et al. 1987). Rocky shores, punctuated by small bays and estuaries, are widespread throughout this region and support a high diversity of benthic organisms (Austin 1985; Ricketts et al. 1985; Foster et al. 1991). Larval mortality due to planktonic food shortages and transport away from suitable settlement sites should be lower here than in regions with low productivity, strong currents, and less extensive adult habitat. A larva hatched in northern California and accidentally transported

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Fig. 1. Representative hatching larvae and juveniles of nudibranch molluscs from the northeast Pacific Ocean. (A) Hatching planktotrophic larva of *Chromodoris macfarlandi*, right lateral view. This larva has a typical coiled shell (type 1 of Thompson 1961) that will grow during the larval period. (B) Hatching planktotrophic larvae of *Eubranchus rupium*, right and left lateral views. These larvae have typical egg-shaped, inflated shells (type 2 of Thompson 1961) that are fully formed at hatching. (C) Hatching lecithotrophic larva of *Phidiana lascrusensis*, left lateral view. Although this species is from the eastern tropical Pacific, its larvae are virtually identical to those of *Phidiana hiltoni* from the northeast Pacific (author's personal observations). (D) Hatching juvenile of *Dendrodoris* sp. 3 of Behrens (1991). All panels are photomicrographs of live specimens; scale bars = $50 \mu m$ (A) and $100 \mu m$ (B–D). d, dorsum; e, eyespot; f, foot; int, intestine; ldg, left digestive gland; lk, larval kidney; o, operculum; p, propodium; rdg, right digestive gland; rm, retractor muscle; s, shell; sc, statocyst; sp, spicules; st, stomach; v, velum.



north to Alaska or south to Baja California is likely to encounter benthic habitats resembling those of its natal origin, and indeed, the ranges of numerous species span this distance (Morris et al. 1980; Austin 1985; Ricketts et al. 1985). In this expansive and relatively uniform environment, the high fecundities associated with feeding larval development, or planktotrophy, should more than offset the risks associated with a longer planktonic period (see below). Planktotrophy is also considered the ancestral mode of development of most marine invertebrates (Strathmann 1978). Therefore, we might predict this mode of development to predominate in the early life histories of benthic invertebrates from the northeast Pacific Ocean, compared with related species from regions with greater risks of larval mortality. To evaluate this prediction. I have undertaken a biogeographic study of developmental mode in benthic opisthobranch gastropods. My purpose here is to document and summarize the now fairly extensive data for this taxon in the northeast Pacific Ocean, and lay the foundation for further biogeographic comparisons. Opisthobranchs are rich in this region (Behrens 1991, 2004) and are well suited to studies of developmental mode because in captivity they readily deposit transparent egg masses that are easily reared to hatching.

Development in opisthobranchs can be divided into three

major types (Thompson 1967; Bonar 1978; Todd 1983; Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984). (1) Planktotrophy is a developmental mode in which newly hatched veliger larvae must feed and grow in the plankton for weeks or months to achieve metamorphic competence (Figs. 1a and 1b). Parental investment per offspring is lowest in this mode, and these larvae develop rapidly from small eggs. At hatching, the larvae are relatively transparent owing to the lack of significant yolk reserves; they also hatch without a propodium and usually without eyespots. (2) Lecithotrophy is a mode in which more advanced veliger larvae develop more slowly from larger eggs and do not need to feed and grow in the plankton to achieve metamorphic competence. These larvae (Fig. 1c) hatch with eyespots, a well-developed foot with a propodium, and all the yolk reserves necessary to fuel metamorphosis into a juvenile slug. They can usually crawl or swim upon hatching and have a precompetent phase lasting a few hours to days. (3) In the direct mode, juveniles, rather than larvae, hatch from the egg coverings (Fig. 1d). As emphasized by Bonar (1978), the direct mode ranges from capsular metamorphic, in which development proceeds through an embryonic veliger stage complete with velum, shell, and operculum, to ametamorphic, in which the characteristic veliger structures are vestigial or absent altogether. Lecithotrophic and direct modes of development are sometimes referred to as non-feeding modes, owing to their lack of dependence on external food supplies. However, in the absence of suitable settlement cues, the lecithotrophic larvae of some species can feed in the plankton and delay metamorphosis for long periods, a condition termed facultative planktotrophy (Chia 1974; Kempf and Hadfield 1985; Emlet 1986). Extended competent periods are also known for some species with planktotrophic development (e.g., Kempf 1981) and may be necessary to allow return to favorable habitats from which the larvae may have been carried away during the obligate precompetent period (Jackson and Strathmann 1981).

In opisthobranchs, as in most other marine invertebrates, planktotrophy is considered the ancestral mode of development, and once lost, larval feeding structures are rarely, if ever, regained (Strathmann 1978, 1993; Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984; Todd 1991; Charlotte et al. 2003). Body plans and adult size can also limit the developmental options available to a particular taxon (Strathmann and Strathmann 1982; Strathmann 1985, 1986). Phylogenetic constraints on mode of development can therefore be severe and must be considered in any biogeographic comparison. Because planktotrophic larvae develop from smaller eggs than either lecithotrophic larvae or directly developing juveniles, fecundities associated with this mode of development can be huge and, at least in good years with low larval mortality rates, this probably helps maximize recruitment potential and overall fitness (Vance 1973; Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984; Strathmann 1985). Worldwide, approximately two thirds of benthic opisthobranch species have a planktotrophic larval stage (Table 3 in Hadfield and Miller 1987), and mode of development in this taxon does not follow any simple correlation with latitude (Goddard 1992; see also Clark and Goetzfried 1978; Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984; Gonsalves-Jackson 2001), as previously thought for many shallowwater invertebrate taxa (Thorson 1950; Mileikovsky 1971).

Methods

From 1999 to 2002 I collected opisthobranchs intertidally from localities between Punta Rosarito, Baja California (28°33.75'N, 114°09.03'W), and Cayucos, California (35°26.50'N, 120°53.27'W). I obtained additional specimens, collected subtidally in the Santa Barbara area, from collectors at the Marine Science Institute (MSI) at the University of California, Santa Barbara. I held adults in either glass jars or PVC containers with 80-µm nylon mesh bottoms on a flow-through seawater table at ambient ocean temperatures (11-19 °C, depending on season) in the laboratory at MSI until they laid egg masses. I examined the newly laid egg masses using a compound microscope equipped with an ocular micrometer. If cleavage had not progressed too far and zygotes were still present, I measured the diameter of a random sample of at least 10 zygotes (avoiding elliptical and oblong eggs sometimes observed in egg masses in the process of being laid). I also examined the newly laid egg masses for provisions of extra-zygotic nutrient reserves (indicated by granular or optically refractile, globular material, located either inside or outside the egg capsules) that might influence development (Clark and Jensen 1981; Boucher 1983; Thompson and Salghetti-Drioli 1984; Goddard 1991). I then transferred the egg masses, or samples of large egg masses, to separate vials, changed the water in all vials and jars at least once daily, and examined the egg masses daily until the veligers hatched. I then examined the hatching veligers and assigned developmental type based on the morphological criteria described by Thompson (1967, 1976), Bonar (1978), and Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap (1984), noting especially the presence or absence of a propodium and eyespots, as well as the size and yolk content of the digestive glands. I measured the longest dimension of the shells of a random sample of at least 10 veligers lying on their sides. To facilitate these measurements, I sometimes immobilized active veligers with a few drops of either 70% ethanol or 4% glutaraldehyde. Measurements of both eggs and shells were accurate to approximately 2.5 µm. Larval shells were described as type 1 or 2 according to Thompson (1961, 1976). Egg-shaped, inflated, type 2 shells are restricted to and occur in all members of the nudibranch families Dendronotidae, Hancockidae, Tergipididae, Eubranchidae, Calmidae, and Fionidae (Thompson 1976; Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984; Goddard 2001b). These families were represented in this study by species of the genera Dendronotus, Catriona, Cuthona, Eubranchus, and Fiona. I did not attempt to rear veliger larvae beyond hatching.

I made a few determinations of developmental mode without obtaining all of the data outlined above. I used a compound microscope to examine the hatching larvae of the cephalaspidean Haminoea virescens and the armininan nudibranch Dirona picta and determined their mode of development based on morphology, but was unable to measure the size of their shells. For the sacoglossan Stiliger sp., I assigned mode of development based on my measurements of egg and egg capsule size and observation of its egg masses, combined with comparisons of egg size, capsule size, and mode of development of sacoglossans from both the northeast Pacific Ocean (Strathmann 1987; this study) and Florida (Clark and Jensen 1981). For the dorid nudibranch Palio dubia, I determined mode of development based on my qualitative observations (made in the field using a hand lens) of the small size of its embryos, combined with Thompson and Brown's (1984) report of its egg size in Britain.

I also surveyed and compiled the literature containing data on mode of development of opisthobranchs from the northeast Pacific Ocean. When an author did not explicitly state the mode of development, I assigned it when possible by applying the morphological criteria mentioned above to published figures and descriptions of newly hatched offspring. For eight species of nudibranchs I assigned mode of development based on reports of egg diameter, embryonic period, and comparisons with congeners as described in Goddard (1992, pp. 38-41). For Thordisa rubescens, I relied on Behrens and Henderson's (1981) detailed description of its egg mass to estimate egg diameter and assign mode of development. In all nine of these cases, egg diameters or embryonic periods were small or short enough, respectively, to confidently assign planktotrophic development (Tables 2 and 3 in Goddard 1992). Developmental mode was assigned to three other species based on data reported for those species in other parts of the world.

When calculating the percentage of each of the major

modes of development in the northeast Pacific Ocean, I used all of the above determinations but excluded introduced species and cryptogenic species (sensu Carlton 1996). In all other data analyses and summaries, I also excluded data reported from other parts of the world. Errors are reported as ± 1 SE. To simplify presentation of the data, I report egg diameters and shell sizes as means or, when measurements were taken from more than one egg mass or more than one study, grand means. When mean egg or shell sizes obtained from different egg masses (or from different literature sources) differed by more than about 10%, I report a range of means. However, for two species of dorid nudibranchs (Geitodoris heathi and Palio zosterae), the published values for shell size at hatching differed so much that I report each value separately for each species. For the rare cases of variable developmental mode, or poecilogony, I report egg and shell sizes for each mode. To examine the relationship between egg size and shell size at hatching in all species combined, I conducted a linear regression analysis using, with two exceptions, the grand means for each value for each mode of development for each species. The exceptions were for the two dorids mentioned above, for which I used the mean values for shell size (145 and 101 μ m, respectively) that I had obtained in my own studies.

Finally, although I am interested here primarily in mode of development, it should be noted that (*i*) coefficients of variation in egg diameter from individual egg masses typically ranged from about 1% to 6%, with most around 2%– 3% (Goddard 1992, pp. 50–51; also see Table 2 in Goddard 1984), and (*ii*) considerable variation in egg size has been documented between populations of some opisthobranchs, especially those with non-feeding development and restricted gene flow (Todd et al. 2001).

Results

Mode of development was determined for 130 of the nearly 250 benthic, shallow-water species reported by Behrens (2004) from the northeast Pacific Ocean (Table 1). Determinations for 126 of these were based on data collected from the northeast Pacific Ocean. Of the remaining 4 species, the mode of development of one (Runcina macfarlandi) was assumed based on Thompson and Brodie's (1988) diagnosis of the genus, and the developmental types of three (Adalaria proxima, Lomanotus vermiformis, and Spurilla neapolitana) were assumed based on data reported from other parts of the world. Three of the species included in Table 1 (Anteaeolidiella indica, Philine auriformis, and Tenellia adspersa) are introduced (Cohen and Carlton 1995; Gosliner 1995; Ruiz et al. 2000), and one (Haminoea callidegenita) is likely introduced (S.V. Millen, personal communication 2003) and therefore cryptogenic. The egg diameter reported by Millen (1989) for Cuthona viridis is too large to allow determination of its mode of development without additional data (see Fig. 2 and Hadfield and Miller 1987).

Excluding the introduced and cryptogenic species, 91% (115 of 126) of northeast Pacific opisthobranchs have planktotrophic development, 5% are lecithotrophic, and 5% have either capsular metamorphic or ametamorphic development (Table 2). Planktotrophy is significantly more prevalent

in the northeast Pacific Ocean, and the non-feeding modes of development less prevalent, compared with the proportions reported by Hadfield and Miller (1987) for opisthobranchs worldwide (Table 2; 2 × 3 contingency table analysis, log-likelihood ratio, $\chi^2 = 27.5$, p < 0.0001). In this analysis, I did not remove species from Hadfield and Miller's (1987) compilation that are also included here in Table 1; therefore, this result is conservative.

Egg sizes of native northeast Pacific opisthobranchs ranged from a mean diameter of 57 µm in the sacoglossan Placida dendritica to 184 µm in Dendrodoris sp. 3 of Behrens (1991), with overall mean and modal diameters of 90.7 \pm 2.4 μ m (n = 91) and 95 μ m, respectively (Table 1, Fig. 2). Mean egg diameter was $86.2 \pm 1.7 \,\mu\text{m}$ (*n* = 84) for the species with planktotrophic development, $134.0 \pm 14.6 \,\mu\text{m}$ (n = 3) for those with lecithotrophic development, and 161.2 \pm 11.4 μ m (*n* = 3) for those with direct modes of development (Fig. 2). Among the planktotrophic species, mean egg size was significantly larger for the species with egg-shaped, inflated larval shells (type 2 of Thompson 1961) than for those with more typical, coiled, type 1 shells (103.6 \pm 3.0 μ m versus $81.4 \pm 1.6 \,\mu\text{m}$, respectively; Wilcoxon's two-sample test, normal approximation, Z = 5.045, p < 0.0001). With the exception of the sacoglossan Alderia modesta, which in southern California produces lecithotrophic larvae from eggs 105 µm in diameter, egg sizes of species with planktotrophic development did not overlap those of species with nonfeeding modes of development (Fig. 2).

Extra-zygotic nutrient reserves were observed during this study in the egg masses of two species, the sacoglossan *Stiliger* sp. and the anaspidean *Phyllaplysia taylori*. In *Stiliger* sp. the reserves were in the form of slightly refractile, granular material inside the egg capsules, which averaged 120 μ m long by 85 μ m wide, and in *P. taylori* they consisted of a clear, refractile material filling an intracapsular body averaging 46 μ m in diameter. Bridges (1975) previously noted the presence of these spherical bodies inside the egg capsules of *P. taylori*. The only other species listed in Table 1 known to possess extra-zygotic nutrient reserves is the aeolid nudibranch *Cuthona lagunae*, whose egg capsules (Goddard 1991).

Egg size was a good predictor of shell size at hatching for species with type 1 shells, explaining 90% of the variation in this variable (Fig. 3). In contrast, egg size explained only 38% of the variation in length of type 2 shells, which were also larger than type 1 shells developing from similarly sized eggs (Fig. 3).

Five of the 12 native species with non-feeding modes of development are known mainly or entirely from regions south of Point Conception, California, a well-known boundary separating the Oregonian and Californian biogeographic provinces (Briggs 1974; Burton 1998; Wares et al. 2001) (Table 3). A sixth species, the sacoglossan *Alderia modesta*, occurs in bays from Alaska to Baja California but is poecilogonous (having planktotrophy and lecithotrophy) only south of Point Conception (Krug 1998). Of the remaining six species in Table 3 regularly found north of Point Conception, two occur only in bay and estuarine habitats, one is found only in high intertidal pools on the outer coast, and one is Arctic and circumboreal in distribution and found in the

Table 1. Egg size, shell size at hatching, and mode of development of benthic opisthobranchs from the northeast Pacific Ocean.

	Egg	Shell size	L		
	diameter	at hatching	Developmental		
Species	(µm)	(µm)	mode	Distribution	Source of development data
Cephalaspidea					
Acteocina inculta (Gould, 1856)	149	270	СМ	N, S	This study
Aglaja ocelligera (Bergh, 1894)	_	155	Р	N, S	Strathmann 1987
Diaphana californica Dall, 1919	73	123	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Gastropteron pacificum Bergh, 1894	95	158	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987
Haminoea callidegenita Gibson and Chia, 1989	220	360	L, CM	Ν	Gibson and Chia 1989a
Haminoea virescens (Sowerby, 1833)			Р	N, S	This study
Haminoea vesicula (Gould, 1855)	90	123–139 ^{<i>a</i>}	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987; Gibson and Chia 1989 <i>b</i>
Melanochlamys diomedea (Bergh, 1894)	98	180	Р	1° N	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987
Navanax inermis (Cooper, 1863)		146	Р	1° S	This study
Philine alba Mattox, 1958		135	Р	N, S	This study
Philine auriformis Suter, 1909		125	Р	Ν	Gosliner 1995
Rictaxis punctocaelatus (Carpenter, 1864)	_	137	Р	N, S	Goddard 2001b
Runcina macfarlandi Gosliner, 1991	_	—	AM^b	Ν	Thompson and Brodie 1988
Anaspidea					
Aplysia californica Cooper, 1863	81	125–135	Р	N, S	Kriegstein et al. 1974; Kriegstein 1977; this study
Aplysia vaccaria Winkler, 1955		152	Р	1° S	This study
Phyllaplysia taylori Dall, 1900	144–157 ^{<i>c</i>}	250-300	СМ	N, S	Bertsch and Hirschberg 1973; Bridges 1975; Goddard 2001
Notaspidea	02	153	Р	NS	Goddard 1984
Berthella californica (Dall, 1900) Berthellina ilisima (= B. engeli) Marcus and Marcus, 1967	93	133	r P	N, S S	This study
Berthella strongi (MacFarland, 1966)		131	Р	N, S	This study
Pleurobranchaea californica MacFarland, 1966	—	215	P	N, S	Chivers 1967; Goddard 2001b
Sacoglossa					
Alderia modesta (Lovén, 1844)	68-80	90–116	Р	N, S	Hand and Steinberg 1955; Strathmann 1987; Krug 1998
	105	186	L	S	Krug 1998
Aplysiopsis enteromorphae (Cockerell and Eliot, 1905)	66–70	109–113	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1984; Strathmann 1987
Elysia hedgpethi Marcus, 1961	68	100-105	Р	N, S	Greene 1968; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 2001 <i>b</i>
Hermaea vancouverensis (O'Donoghue, 1924)	63	114	Р	Ν	Goddard 2001b
Olea hansineensis Agersborg, 1923		111	Р	1° N	Hurst 1967
Placida dendritica (Alder and Hancock, 1843)	57	82-112	Р	N, S	Greene 1968; Goddard 2001b
Stiliger fuscovittatus Lance, 1962	95	150	Р	N, S	Strathmann 1987
Stiliger sp. of Goddard (2000)	60	—	Р	S	Goddard 2000; this study
Nudibranchia: Doridina					
Acanthodoris brunnea MacFarland, 1905	80	130-150	Р	N, S	Strathmann 1987
Acanthodoris hudsoni MacFarland, 1905	67–70	127	Р	N, S	Goddard 1987; Strathmann 198
Acanthodoris nanaimoensis O'Donoghue, 1921	_	133	Р	Ν	Hurst 1967
Acanthodoris pilosa (Abildgaard, 1789)	70	119	Р	Ν	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987
Acanthodoris rhodoceras Cockerell and Eliot, 1905	—	112	Р	N, S	Goddard 2001b
Adalaria jannae Millen, 1987	65	109	Р	Ν	Millen 1987

Goddard

Table 1 (continued).

	Eas	Shall -:			
	Egg diameter	Shell size at hatching	Developmental		
Species	(μm)	(μm)	mode	Distribution	Source of development data
Adalaria proxima Alder and Hancock, 1854	(180)	(290)	(L)	N	Thompson 1976
Adalaria sp. 1 of Behrens (1991)	83	140	P	N	Goddard 1984
Aegires albopunctatus MacFarland, 1905	98–120	154	P	N, S	Strathmann 1987; Goddard 2001 <i>a</i>
Aldisa cooperi Robilliard and Baba, 1972	110		P	N N	Millen and Gosliner 1985
Aldisa sanguinea (Cooper, 1863)	90–100	163	P	N, S	Millen and Gosliner 1985; Goddard 1992
Aldisa tara Millen in Millen and Gosliner, 1985	110		Р	Ν	Millen and Gosliner 1985
Ancula gibbosa (= A. pacifica) (Risso, 1818)	59	104	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Baptodoris mimetica Gosliner, 1991	90	127	Р	N, S	This study
Cadlina flavomaculata MacFarland, 1905	80	140	Р	N, S	This study
Cadlina luteomarginata MacFarland, 1966	90–94	—	Р	N, S	Dehnel and Kong 1979; Goddard 1992
Cadlina modesta MacFarland, 1966	92	157	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Cadlina sparsa (Odhner, 1921)	82	131	Р	1°S	This study
Chromodoris macfarlandi Cockerell, 1902	95	169	Р	1° S	This study
Corambe pacifica MacFarland and O'Donoghue, 1929	70	130	Р	N, S	Yoshioka 1986
Corambe (= Doridella) steinbergae (Lance, 1962)	75–85	142	Р	N, S	Bickell and Chia 1979
Crimora coneja Marcus, 1961	73	116-119	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984, 1992
Dendrodoris nigromaculata (Cockerell in Cockerell and Eliot, 1905)	_	n/a	CM	S	Lance 1982
Dendrodoris sp. 3 of Behrens (1991)	184	n/a	СМ	1° S	This study
Diaphorodoris lirulatocauda Millen, 1985	63	115	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
<i>Diaulula</i> (= <i>Discodoris</i>) <i>aurila</i> (Marcus and Marcus, 1967)	88	140	Р	S	This study
Diaulula sandiegensis (Cooper, 1863)	83	130–153	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 1992
Doriopsilla albopunctata (Cooper, 1863)	108	195	Р	N, S	This study
Doriopsilla gemmela Gosliner, Schaefer and Millen, 1999		_	L	1° S	Gosliner et al. 1999
Doriopsilla spaldingi Valdés and Behrens, 1998	_	—	D^d	1° S	Valdes and Behrens 1998; Behrens 1998
Doris (= Archidoris) montereyensis Cooper, 1863	81–90	154–169	Р	N, S	McGowan and Pratt 1954; Hurst 1967; Goddard 1992
Doris (= Archidoris) odhneri (MacFarland, 1966)	96	186–189	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1992
Geitodoris heathi (MacFarland, 1905)	73–79	102, 145	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984, 1992; Strathmann 1987
Hallaxa chani Gosliner and Williams, 1975	82	131-152	Р	Ν	Goddard 1984, 1992
<i>Limacia</i> (= <i>Laila</i>) <i>cockerelli</i> (MacFarland, 1905)	95	142	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Okenia (= Hopkinsia) rosacea (MacFarland, 1905)	81.5	141	Р	N, S	Goddard 1992
Onchidoris bilamellata (L., 1767)	100	147–165	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987; Chia and Koss 1988
Onchidoris muricata (Müller, 1776)	76	128–137 ^e	Р	Ν	Goddard 1984, 1992; Millen 1985
Palio dubia (M. Sars, 1829)	(79)	—	Р	Ν	Thompson and Brown 1984; this study
Palio zosterae (O'Donoghue, 1924)	65-70	101, 150	Р	Ν	Strathmann 1987; Goddard 1992
cf. Peltodoris (= Anisodoris) lentiginosa (Millen, 1982)	90	154	P	N	Millen 1982

Table 1 (continued).

	Egg	Shell size			
Species	diameter (µm)	at hatching (µm)	Developmental mode	Distribution	Source of development data
Peltodoris (= Anisodoris) nobilis (MacFarland, 1905)	83	153	P	N, S	Goddard 1984
Polycera atra MacFarland, 1905	68-71	122	Р	N, S	Goddard 1992
Polycera hedgpethi Marcus, 1964	<85	131	Р	N, S	This study
Polycera tricolor Robilliard, 1971		_	Р	N, S	Robilliard 1971
Rostanga pulchra MacFarland, 1905	73–80	148–161	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Anderson 1971; Chia and Koss 1978
Taringa aivica Marcus and Marcus, 1967	_	180	Р	S	This study
Thordisa rubescens Behrens and Henderson, 1981		—	Р	S	Behrens and Henderson 1981
Triopha catalinae (Cooper, 1863)	75–87	131–134	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1984, 1992; Strathmann 1987
Triopha maculata MacFarland, 1905	—	—	Р	N, S	Mulliner 1972
Nudibranchia: Dendronotina					
Dendronotus albopunctatus Robilliard, 1972	108		Р	Ν	Robilliard 1972
Dendronotus dalli Bergh, 1879		—	Р	Ν	Robilliard 1970
Dendronotus diversicolor Robilliard, 1970	96	_	Р	N, S	Robilliard 1970; Strathmann 1987
Dendronotus frondosus (Ascanius, 1774)	85–90	230-245	Р	N, S	Strathmann 1987; Goddard 199
Dendronotus iris (Cooper, 1863)	110	268-280	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987
Dendronotus rufus O'Donoghue, 1921	_	_	Р	Ν	Robilliard 1970
Dendronotus subramosus MacFarland, 1966		—	Р	N, S	Goddard 1992
Doto amyra Marcus, 1961	152	239	L	N, S	Goddard 1984, 1996
Doto kya Marcus, 1961	78	133	Р	N, S	Goddard 1996; this study
Doto lancei Marcus and Marcus, 1967		112	P	S	Goddard 1996; this study
Doto form A of Goddard (1996)	75	120	P	N, S	Goddard 1996; this study
Doto form B of Goddard (1996)	70	122	Р	N	Goddard 1996
Lomanotus vermiformis Eliot, 1908	(106)		(L)	S	Clark and Goetzfried 1978
Melibe leonina (Gould, 1852)	86–90	140–152	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Bickell and Kemp 1983; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 1992
Tritonia diomedea Bergh, 1894	87	145	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Kempf and Willow 1977; Strathmann 1987
Tritonia festiva (Stearns, 1873)	79	131	Р	N, S	Goddard 1992
<i>Tritonia myrakeenae</i> Bertsch and Mozqueira, 1986	<80	126	Р	S	This study
Nudibranchia: Arminina					
Armina californica (Cooper, 1863)	95-102	160	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987
Dirona albolineata MacFarland in Cockerell and Eliot, 1905	70	113–129	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 1992
Dirona pellucia (= D. albolineata) Volodchenko, 1941	_	139	Р	Ν	Hurst 1967
Dirona picta MacFarland in Cockerell and Eliot, 1905	80 ^f	—	Р	N, S	Marcus and Marcus 1967; this study
Janolus barbarensis (Cooper, 1863)	_	189	Р	N, S	This study
Janolus fuscus O'Donoghue, 1924	81	138	Р	Ν	Goddard 1992
Nudibranchia: Aeolidina					
Aeolidia papillosa (L., 1761)	74	116–138	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Williams 1980; Strathmann 1987
Aeolidiella chromosoma Cockerell and Eliot, 1905	_	127	Р	1° S	This study
Aeolidiella oliviae MacFarland, 1966	92	153-171	Р	N, S	This study
Anteaeolidiella (= Aeolidiella) indica (Bergh, 1888)	_		L	S	Mulliner 1972

(Bergh, 1888)

Goddard

Table 1 (concluded).

	Egg	Shell size			
	diameter	at hatching	Developmental		
Species	(µm)	(µm)	mode	Distribution	Source of development data
Catriona columbiana (O'Donoghue, 1922)	100-109	274-302	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984, 2001b
Catriona rickettsi Behrens, 1984	98-103	291	Р	N, S	Goddard 2001b
Cumanotus fernaldi Thompson and Brown, 1984	73	119–130	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1992
Cuthona abronia (MacFarland, 1966)	95	224	Р	N, S	Goddard 1991
Cuthona albocrusta (MacFarland, 1966)	97	270-281	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1991
Cuthona cocoachroma Williams and Gosliner, 1979	95	257–277	Р	Ν	Goddard 1984, 1991
Cuthona divae (Marcus, 1961)	107	249	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Cuthona fulgens (MacFarland, 1966)	94	252	Р	Ν	Goddard 1991
Cuthona lagunae (O'Donoghue, 1926)	98	262	Р	N, S	Goddard 1991
Cuthona punicea Millen, 1985	128		Р	Ν	Millen 1986
Cuthona pustulata (Alder and Hancock, 1854)	120		Р	Ν	Gosliner and Millen 1984
Cuthona rolleri Behrens and Gosliner, 1988	121	283	Р	Ν	This study
Cuthona viridis (Forbes, 1840)	134			Ν	Millen 1989
Emarcusia morroensis Roller, 1972			Р	N, S	Roller 1972
<i>Eubranchus rupium</i> (= <i>E. olivaceus</i>) (Möller, 1842)	85	244	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Goddard 1992
Eubranchus rustyus (Marcus, 1961)	93	240	Р	N, S	Goddard 1984
Fiona pinnata (Eschscholtz, 1831)	100-150	280	Р	N, S	Holleman 1972; Schmekel and Portmann 1982; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 2001 <i>b</i>
Flabellina iodinea (Cooper, 1862)		153	Р	N, S	Engel 1976; this study
Flabellina japonica (Volodchenko, 1941)			Р	Ν	S. Millen, personal communica- tion 2001
Flabellina trilineata (O'Donoghue, 1921)	60–65	100-110	Р	N, S	Bridges and Blake 1972; Strathmann 1987; Goddard 1992
Flabellina trophina (= F. fusca) (Bergh, 1894)		133	Р	Ν	Hurst 1967
Flabellina verrucosa (Johnson, 1832)		117	Р	Ν	Strathmann 1987
Hermissenda crassicornis (Eschscholtz, 1831)	65	102–119	Р	N, S	Hurst 1967; Harrigan and Alkon 1978; Williams 1980; Goddard 1992
Phidiana hiltoni (O'Donoghue, 1927)	145	236	L	N, S	This study
Spurilla neapolitana (delle Chiaje, 1823)	(83–100)	—	(P)	S	Eyster and Eckelbarger 1979; Eyster 1980; DeFreese and Clark 1983
Tenellia adspersa (Nordmann, 1845)	(72)	228	Р	Ν	Eyster 1979; Goddard 2001b
• • • • •	(103)	219	L	Ν	Eyster 1979; Goddard 1992

Note: Developmental mode: P, planktotrophic; L, lecithotrophic; CM, capsular metamorphic; AM, ametamorphic; D, direct (capsular metamorphic or ametamorphic not specified) (see text). Distributions are north (N) or south (S) of Point Conception, California, and are based on Behrens (1991, 2004), sources listed below, and personal observations; 1° means most of the population occurs north or south of Point Conception. Values are generally means based on at least 10 measurements; n/a, not applicable. Values and developmental mode determined from specimens collected outside the northeast Pacific are in parentheses.

^aStrahmann (1987) reported an anomalously low value of 90 µm and also considered the development data reported by Hurst (1967) for *Haminoea* virescens to probably represent *H. vesicula*, which I have followed here.

^bDevelopment has not been examined for *Runcina macfarlandi*; however, ametamorphic development is considered diagnostic of the genus (Thompson and Brodie 1988).

^cThe egg capsules of *Phyllaplysia taylori* also contain a nutritive body averaging 45–49 µm in diameter (Bridges 1975; author's personal observations). ^dDirect development for this species is based on the statement by Valdés and Behrens (1998, p. 308) that "the larvae exhibit direct or lecithotrophic development (J. Lance, personal communication)" and the statement by Behrens (1998) that "the larvae exhibit lecithotrophic or direct development; a crawling subadult emerges directly from a large egg, rather than the characteristic swimming veliger larvae of most nudibranchs".

^eHurst's (1967) anomalously high value of 186 μm reported for this species may have actually applied to the morphologically similar Adalaria proxima, whose eggs are this large in the north Atlantic Ocean (Thompson 1976; Todd et al. 2001).

¹Marcus and Marcus (1967) did not specify whether this value was obtained from living or preserved material.

Fig. 2. Egg size distribution, by mode of development, in native benthic opisthobranchs from the northeastern Pacific Ocean. Egg size data reported from other parts of the world are not included, and *Haminoea callidegenita* is omitted owing to the possibility that it is introduced (see text).

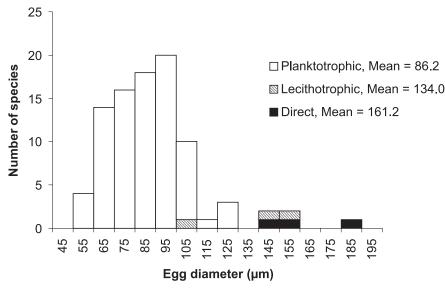


Table 2. Percentages of native benthic opisthobranchs from the northeast Pacific Ocean with each of the three major types of development, compared with worldwide percentages extracted from Table 3 of Hadfield and Miller (1987).

	Percentage of species (no. of species)				
Mode of development	Northeast Pacific Ocean (this study)	Worldwide (from Hadfield and Miller 1987)			
Planktotrophic	91 (115)	67 (164)			
Lecithotrophic	5 (6)	15 (37)			
Direct	5 (6)	18 (43)			
Total	101 (126) ^a	100 (244)			

^{*a*}Percentages in the northeast Pacific add to 101, and the total number of species to 126, because *Alderia modesta*, which has variable development, is counted twice.

northeast Pacific as far south as British Columbia (Table 3). Only the nudibranchs *Doto amyra* and *Phidiana hiltoni* are widespread on the outer coast. All three of the introduced species with non-feeding development occur exclusively or primarily in bays, and one of these is known only south of Point Conception (Table 3).

Discussion

Ninety-one percent of 126 native, benthic opisthobranchs from the northeast Pacific Ocean have planktotrophic larval development. The relatively few native species with nonfeeding modes of development (i) occur largely south of Point Conception, California, where surface waters are warmer, lower in nutrients, and less productive than those to the north (Daily et al. 1993; Blanchette et al. 2002) or (ii) are known from habitats, such as estuaries, that are small and sparsely distributed along the Pacific coast of North America. Considering only those species known mainly from regions north of Point Conception (see Table 1), 94% have planktotrophic development and 6% have non-feeding development. These distribution patterns of of developmental mode are consistent with the prediction that planktotrophy should be maintained at high prevalence in regions safe for larval feeding and growth and should tend to be selected against where the risks of larval mortality from food limitation and transport away from favorable adult habitat are higher. These patterns are further reinforced by the findings that (i) the 3 estuarine species with non-feeding development (Table 3) represent half of the native opisthobranch species from the northeast Pacific that are strictly estuarine in distribution and (ii) the 5 species known primarily from regions south of Point Conception represent 26% of the 19 native opisthobranch species included in Table 1 that share this geographic range (McDonald 1983; Behrens 1991, 2004; author's personal observations). However, the developmental mode of more species from the Californian and Panamic biogeographic provinces needs to be determined to see how this latter proportion holds up.

Planktotrophy is nonetheless still prevalent in estuaries and habitats south of Point Conception, and the above arguments based on relative risk of larval mortality obviously do not apply uniformly to all species found in these habitats. Other kinds of adaptations for reducing larval mortality are possible, and there is no reason to expect shifts in early lifehistory traits such as egg size and mode of development to occur in all or even a majority of species in habitats where larval mortality is generally greater. For example, vertical migration, combined with sensory adaptations to distinguish water masses, can promote local retention of larvae, reducing mortality resulting from advection away from suitable settlement sites (Cronin 1982; Chen et al. 1997; Sponaugle et al. 2002). Predation can also be an important source of larval mortality in some regions (Rumrill 1990; but see Johnson and Shanks 2003), and organisms with sufficient larval variation in morphological, behavioral, or chemical traits are not limited to reducing or omitting a planktonic larval stage in their life cycle to avoid these threats.

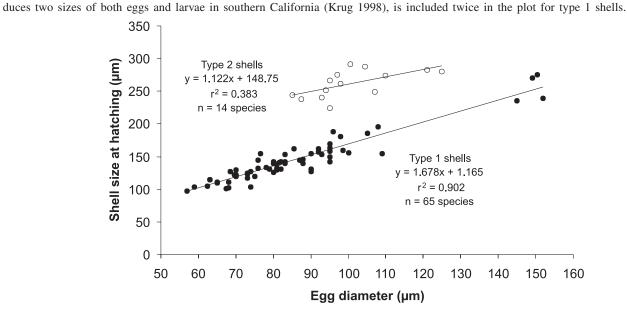


Table 3. Habitats of benthic opisthobranchs with lecithotrophic or direct modes of development in the northeast Pacific Ocean.

Species	Mode of development	Habitat
Acteocina inculta	Capsular metamorphic	Bays
Haminoea callidegenita*	Lecithotrophic, capsular metamorphic	Bays and lagoons
Runcina macfarlandi	Ametamorphic	High intertidal pools, outer coast
Phyllaplysia taylori	Capsular metamorphic	Bays
Alderia modesta	Planktotrophic, lecithotrophic	Bays; lecithotrophic development is known only from the south
Adalaria proxima	(Lecithotrophic)	Outer coast, circumboreal
Dendrodoris nigromaculata	Ametamorphic	Outer coast, south
Dendrodoris sp. 3 of Behrens (1991)	Ametamorphic	Outer coast, 1° south
Doriopsilla gemmela	Lecithotrophic	Outer coast, 1° south
Doriopsilla spaldingi	Direct	Outer coast, 1° south
Doto amyra	Lecithotrophic	Outer coast
Lomanotus vermiformis	(Lecithotrophic)	Outer coast, south
Anteaeolidiella indica*	Lecithotrophic	Mainly bays, south
Phidiana hiltoni	Lecithotrophic	Outer coast
Tenellia adspersa*	Planktotrophic, lecithotrophic	Bays

Note: South, found only south of Point Conception, California; 1° south, most of distribution lies south of Point Conception. Developmental modes determined from specimens from outside the northeast Pacific are in parentheses. An asterisk (*) indicates an introduced or cryptogenic species (see text). Range and habitat information are from Behrens (1991, 2004), sources listed in Table 1, and personal observations.

Non-feeding modes of development can have selective advantages other than reduction of larval mortality, and this reduction does not necessarily underlie all examples of this type of development observed in the northeast Pacific or elsewhere. For example, ametamorphic development can produce larger juveniles than planktotrophic or lecithotrophic development (Hadfield and Miller 1987) and may therefore effectively reduce juvenile mortality stemming from benthic predation or prey-induced size constraints. In some species, overall fitness may be little affected by mode of development (e.g., Levin and Huggett 1990), leaving other mechanisms of evolution, such as founder effects and genetic drift, to influence egg size and mode of development (see Todd et al. 2001). Once lost, larval feeding structures are rarely regained, and whole lineages can become constrained to non-feeding modes of development that may offer no selective advantage in new or changed environments. In the northeast Pacific Ocean this constraint appears to have had little effect on the overall pattern of development. Non-feeding modes of development are rare and are spread among unrelated lineages (nine families in four orders), most of which contain sympatric species with planktotrophic development. The genus *Runcina*, represented in the northeast Pacific by *R. macfarlandi*, is apparently constrained to direct development, and northeast and eastern Pacific species of *Phidiana* and *Dendrodoris* may be limited to non-feeding modes as well (Table 1 and unpublished observations).

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Table 4. Number of species of Echinodermata with planktotrophic versus non-feeding modes of development in the northeast Pacific Ocean.

Class	Mode of development				
	Planktotrophic	Non-feeding			
Asteroidea	10	14			
Crinoidea	0	1			
Echinoidea	7	1			
Holothuroidea	3	11			
Ophiuroidea	6	2			
Total	26	29			

Note: Data compiled from Strathmann (1987), McEdward and Miner (2001), and Miller (2001). Non-feeding development in echinoderms includes lecithotrophic and direct modes analogous to those in opisthobranchs or, more strictly speaking, all examples of lecithotrophic nutrition and direct morphogenesis as outlined by McEdward and Miner (2001).

Small adult size is often associated with increased brooding and direct development in related, co-occurring marine invertebrates (Strathmann and Strathmann 1982) and might underlie the pattern observed in northeast Pacific opisthobranchs, irrespective of the above biogeographic considerations. Except for *Doriopsilla spaldingi*, the directly developing species listed in Table 3 do tend to be smaller than their relatives in the northeast Pacific that have a pelagic larval stage (Table 1; also see adult sizes reported in Behrens 1991, 2004). However, the species in Table 3 with lecithotrophic development are not smaller than congeneric and confamilial species with planktotrophic development from the northeast Pacific (Behrens 1991, 2004; Goddard 1996).

Egg size was a good predictor of shell size at hatching for species with type 1 shells, but not for those with type 2 shells. This is not surprising given the close fit of the spiral, type 1 shell to the body and the lack of examples of extrazygotic yolk supplies (which might result in hatching larvae larger than those predicted based on egg size alone). In contrast, type 2 shells are more elongate and spacious than type 1 shells at hatching (Fig. 1) and, in most cases, will grow little, if at all, after hatching; instead, the body grows during larval development to fill the shell (Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap 1984). Consequently, shell size at hatching in these species generally indicates what the size of the body will be after larval development has been completed, rather than reflecting the size of the body at hatching (which is necessarily dependent on egg size). This was also apparent in the fact that type 2 shells were larger than type 1 shells developing from similarly sized eggs (Fig. 3).

The prediction that planktotrophy should be the predominate mode of development in the northeast Pacific should apply to taxa other than just opisthobranchs. At first glance, this does not appear to be the case for the Echinodermata, another taxon whose development has been well studied in this region as well as worldwide (Emlet et al. 1987; Emlet 1990; Strathmann 1987; McEdward and Miner 2001; Miller 2001). Extracting from these compilations data on developmental mode of northeast Pacific echinoderms, particularly those from regions north of Point Conception, we can see that more than half of the 55 species studied have nonfeeding modes of development (Table 4). However, based on the classification and phylogenies in McEdward and Miner (2001), it becomes clear that phylogeny has constrained developmental mode in these species of Echinodermata to a much greater extent than in opisthobranchs from this region. Twenty-five of the 29 species in Table 4 with non-feeding development are from higher taxa (including one class, a number of orders and families, and one genus) composed entirely of species with non-feeding modes of development. Without these species, the proportions of echinoderms with planktotrophic and non-feeding development in the northeast Pacific are 87% and 13%, respectively, much closer to the 94% and 6% observed for native opisthobranchs from regions north of Point Conception. Why echinoderm taxa limited to non-feeding development have been relatively more successful at colonizing or radiating in the northeast Pacific compared with their counterparts in the Opisthobranchia is beyond the scope of this paper. However, it should be noted that the two groups differ significantly in life histories and trophic roles. Opisthobranchs are generally small, subannual to biennial, semelparous, and predatory (Thompson 1976; Todd et al. 2001), whereas echinoderms are relatively large, long-lived, and iteroparous, with many suspension and deposit-feeding representatives (e.g., Chia and Walker 1991; Pearse and Cameron 1991). The extant classes of echinoderms also originated much earlier than even the earliest known opisthobranchs (Clarkson 1998), perhaps increasing the probability that feeding larvae have been lost in more lineages by chance alone.

The overall pattern of development in prosobranch gastropods from the northeast Pacific (see Table 11.1 in Strathmann 1987) appears to be similar to that in echinoderms from this region. Many species have non-feeding modes of development, but the majority of these are from taxa, such as the Vetigastropoda, Patellogastropoda, Trochidae, and Muricidae, constrained to these modes. Like the echinoderms, prosobranchs are longer lived than opisthobranchs, are iteroparous, and also originated earlier.

Virtually all decapod Crustacea from the northeast Pacific Ocean hatch as feeding zoea larvae and have long larval durations (Strathmann 1987; Jensen 1995; Puls 2001). One conspicuous exception is Sclerocrangon boreas (Phipps, 1774), a circumboreal crangonid shrimp with direct development that is rarely found south of Alaska (Jensen 1995). However, owing to their body plans, decapods and other crustaceans may not be as vulnerable to the same sources of planktonic mortality as other taxa. Crustacean larvae attain larger sizes and are more powerful swimmers (owing to their use of muscle-powered limbs rather than cilia) than those of other taxa. They also possess well-developed sensory organs and an exoskeleton ideally suited for the production of strong and lightweight spines to defend against predators. These traits may better enable them to overcome and counter sources of planktonic mortality, especially advection away from favorable settlement sites, and take advantage of planktonic food supplies (e.g., Shanks 1995; Sponaugle et al. 2002). Potential effects of food limitation notwithstanding, biogeographic patterns of developmental mode in this taxon may therefore be less variable than in other taxa, such as Mollusca and Echinodermata.

Planktotrophy is significantly more prevalent in opisthobranchs from the northeast Pacific Ocean than in opisthobranchs worldwide (Table 2), especially considering that many of the older data in Table 1 were included in Hadfield and Miller's (1987) global compilation and summary. Assuming that there has not been a historical bias toward reporting examples of lecithotrophic and direct development in opisthobranchs, other regions of the world must therefore have significantly higher proportions of species with the non-feeding modes of development than observed in the northeast Pacific. A few published compilations support this conclusion. Clark and Goetzfried (1978) reported that 41% and 16% of 32 species of nudibranchs and sacoglossan opisthobranchs from southeast Florida had lecithotrophic and direct development, respectively, and compared these proportions to the 11% and 0% of 18 species and 16% and 10% of 20 species they calculated for southern New England and Britain, respectively. Small sample sizes notwithstanding, they attributed the high incidence of direct development in Florida to the prevalence of what they perceived as "stable" adult food supplies, "reducing the need for a pelagic dispersal stage". Clark and Goetzfried concluded that "direct development...is selected in areas of high climatic or trophic stability". Hadfield and Switzer-Dunlap (1984) pointed out that there are many known examples of opisthobranchs with planktotrophic development that prey as adults on longlived, persistent prey, such as corals and sponges, in both tropical and temperate regions, and they did not consider Clark and Goetzfried's (1978) conclusion to be broadly supported. Clark and Goetzfried (1978) also ignored the potential advantages, under the environmental conditions they described as "stable", of the increases in fecundity, recruitment, and fitness possible with planktotrophy.

An alternative explanation for the high proportions of species with lecithotrophic and direct development in Florida is that the non-feeding modes have been selected for by less productive subtropical and tropical waters unfavorable to larval feeding and growth and by an increased risk of advection away from favorable settlement sites owing to (*i*) the fast Florida current and (*ii*) steep latitudinal gradients in substratum type and surface temperatures on the east coast of North America (Tchneria 1980; Berger 1989; Pickard and Emory 1990). In stark contrast to the situation at similar latitudes in the northeast Pacific, a larva hatched on a coral reef in Florida and accidentally transported north into New England is not likely to encounter benthic habitats resembling those of its natal origin and, without entering much colder nearshore countercurrents, has little chance of returning home.

More recently, Gonsalves-Jackson (2001) reported in an abstract that 100% of 39 opisthobranchs from the Pacific coast of Panama have "planktonic" development, compared with 83% of 29 species from the Atlantic side. She pointed out that coastal waters on the Pacific side have higher primary productivity and "presumably can more reliably support planktonic larval feeding", and she also alluded to differences between the two regions in substratum type. Her conclusions are consistent with the predictions made above concerning planktonic food supplies and the risk of larval mortality, but are limited by her lack of discrimination between planktotrophic and lecithotrophic modes of larval development. Without more information on the nutrition of the planktonic larvae, we cannot yet rule out that the lecithotrophic form of non-feeding development is actually more prevalent on the Pacific side of the isthmus than both non-feeding modes combined on the Atlantic side.

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