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# Morphology and ultrastructure of the esophagus during the ontogeny of the spider crab *Maja brachydactyla* (Decapoda, Brachyura, Majidae).

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13 **Short title**: *Maja brachydactyla* esophagus morphology and ontogeny

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The esophagus of the eucrustaceans is known as a short tube that connects the 18 mouth with the stomach but has generally received little attention by the carcinologists, 19 especially during the larval stages. By this reason, the present study is focused on the 20 morphology and ultrastructure of the esophagus in the brachyuran Maja brachydactyla 21 22 Balss, 1922 during the larval development and adult stage. The esophagus shows 23 internally four longitudinal folds. The simple columnar epithelium is covered by a thick cuticle. The epithelial cells of the adults are heavily interdigitated and show abundant 24 25 apical mitochondria and bundles of filamentous structures. The cuticle surface has microspines and mutually exclusive pores. Three muscle types surrounded by the 26 27 connective tissue are reported: circular muscles forming a broad continuous band, longitudinal muscle bundles adjacent to the circular muscles, and dilator muscles 28 crossing the connective tissue vertically toward the epithelium. The connective tissue 29 30 has rosette glands. The esophagus of the larvae have epithelial cells with big vesicles but poorly developed interdigitations and filamentous structures, the cuticle is formed 31 by a procuticle without differentiated exocuticle and endocuticle, the connective layer is 32 thin and the rosette glands are absent. The observed features can be explained by his 33 34 role in the swallowing of the food.

35 Keywords: Eucrustacea sensu Walossek 1999; larval development; epithelium;

36 microspines; rosette glands

## 1. Introduction

The comprehension of the digestive process is fundamental to the understanding 38 of the nutrition of decapods (Ceccaldi, 1989; Vogt, 1996) and it is a crucial step for the 39 production of aquaculture species (Zambonino-Infante et al., 2008). The foregut of 40 decapods derives from the embryonary ectoderm and it is lined by a chitinous cuticle. It 41 is constituted by two organs: the esophagus and the stomach (Ceccaldi, 1989; 42 Felgenhauer, 1992; Icely and Nott, 1992; McLaughlin, 1983). The study of the foregut 43 of the decapods has been overshadowed by the stomach (Felgenhauer, 1992; Icely and 44 45 Nott, 1992) and comparatively little attention has been realized on the esophagus. Henry Milne-Edwards (1834a; b) published one of the earliest descriptions using crabs of the 46 47 genus Maja (presumably M. brachydactyla) and other species as models. The first 48 sentence that describes the esophagus indicated that "l'oesophage ne présenterien de remarquable" (the esophagus does not show anything remarkable). This impression was 49 50 maintained during the next decades, being described as a simple, short, vertical tube that connects the mouth with the stomach (Ceccaldi, 1989; Felgenhauer, 1992). 51

However, in fact the esophagus comprises different structures: longitudinal folds 52 (Felgenhauer, 1992; McLaughlin, 1983); internal cuticle surfaces covered by 53 microspines or setae (Elzinga, 1998; Elzinga and Hopkins, 1994; 1995; McLaughlin, 54 1983) and pierced by pore-like structures (Robertson and Laverack, 1979); epithelium 55 surrounded by a connective tissue with rosette or "tegumental" glands (Barker and 56 57 Gibson, 1977; 1978; Erri Babu et al., 1979; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989) and strong circular and longitudinal muscles (Barker and Gibson, 1977; 1978; Erri Babu et al., 58 1979; Felgenhauer, 1992; McLaughlin, 1983; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989). However, 59 60 few publications have focused on this organ (Altner et al., 1986; Erri Babu et al., 1979; Robertson and Laverack, 1979; Spirito, 1975), and the study of the esophagus during 61

the larval stages has been largely neglected in studies focused on the foregut or on the
general digestive anatomy (Johnston and Ritar, 2002; Minagawa and Takashima, 1994;
Schlegel, 1911; Tziouveli et al., 2011).

We consider the esophagus an important organ involved in the swallowing of the 65 food pieces provided by the mouth appendages, with the knowledge of their 66 morphology being important for understanding this role. The main objective of this 67 study is a detailed description of the esophagus of a representative Decapoda species 68 from hatching to the first juvenile stage, as well during the adult stage employing 69 70 morphological, histological and ultrastructural approaches. The species selected for this study was the spider crab Maja brachydactyla Balss, 1922. It is a commercial 71 brachyuran species with fisheries located on the NW of the Iberian Peninsula, Denmark, 72 73 France, Ireland, Portugal, and United Kingdom (FAO, 2012). In M. brachydactyla, the larval development has two zoeal stages (zoea I and zoea II) and one megalopa stage 74 75 (Guerao et al., 2008). Previous studies focused on the feeding and digestive system of M. brachydactyla during their larval development, in which the mouthparts (Guerao et 76 al., 2008), the general morphology of the stomach (Castejón et al., 2015), and the 77 78 ontogeny of the digestive enzymatic capacity were described (Andrés et al., 2010), as well as the tolerance to starvation and refeeding on the success of the larval 79 development (Guerao et al., 2012; Rotllant et al., 2010). 80

#### 2. Material and methods

#### 83

## 2.1 Adult and larval culture system

The adult specimens of *M. brachydactyla* were captured along the coasts of the 84 Northwest Iberian Peninsula and Ireland (CADEMAR & LONXANET), and 85 transported to the Institut de Recerca i Tecnologia Agroalimentàries (IRTA, Sant Carles 86 de la Ràpita, Tarragona, Spain). The adult specimens were euthanatized and dissected to 87 obtain the foregut, or employed for reproductive purposes, maintaining a sex ratio of six 88 females and one male per tank. In this last case, the specimens were maintained in 2,000 89 L cylindrical tanks with a renewal rate of 3.5 m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. The environmental parameters 90 91 were:  $18 \pm 1$  °C,  $35 \pm 1$  psu, and photoperiod 12 h light: 12 h dark provided by 92 fluorescent tubes at 25 lux. The feeding consisted on fresh and frozen mussels (Mytilus sp. Linnaeus, 1758). Under these conditions continuous larval hatches can be obtained 93 94 yearly during 5-6 months (Simeó et al., 2015). The larvae ca. 12 hours after hatch were recovered from the broodstock tanks by the water drainage into 35 L PVC baskets. 95 Then, the larvae were put directly in 600 mL glass beakers placed inside 360 L tanks 96 (96 x 96 x 40 cm) used as incubation chambers. The environmental parameters were: 21 97  $\pm$  1 °C, 35  $\pm$  1 psu, and photoperiod 12 h light: 12 h dark provided by white LED lights 98 99 at 1,000 lux. The feeding consisted of fresh Artemia sp. Kellogg, 1906 nauplii (INVE Aquaculture Nutrition, Salt Lake UT, USA). Daily, the living specimens were carefully 100 pipetted to glass beakers with clean water and fresh food. The specimens were sampled 101 102 at each larval stage: zoea I ca. 15 hours after hatching, zoea II at 3-4 days after hatching 103 (dah), megalopa at 6-7 dah, and first juvenile at 12-13 dah, and fixed according to the required procedure (see next sections). 104

#### 106 *2.2 Optical microscopy study*

In the present study the stages of zoea I, zoea II, megalopa and first juvenile will 107 be considered together as "immature stages". For the gross morphology observations, 108 109 entire specimens of immature stages were fixed in formaldehyde 4 %. Then, these specimens were dissected and the foregut extracted and cleaned by their immersion in a 110 solution of 10 % KOH at 80 °C during 15-20 min. The cleaned foreguts were mounted 111 in microscope slides for their observation without staining. In the case of the adults, a 112 fresh foregut was obtained and the pictures were taken with a digital camera. The 113 114 esophagus of three specimens of each immature stage were measured; by contrast, the length of the adult esophagus is an approximation because it is strongly attached to the 115 116 mouth opening and can break when extracted.

To study the tissue organization of the esophagus in immature stages the 117 specimens were fixed as a whole; in the case of the adults the fresh foreguts were 118 119 extracted and the esophagus sectioned with a scalpel into longitudinal and transversal sections before fixation. Thereafter, Davidson's fixative (ethanol absolute: seawater: 120 formaldehyde 37 %: glycine: glacial acetic acid in proportion 3: 3: 2: 1: 1) was 121 employed as fixative during 24 h. An automatic tissue processor was used for the 122 123 dehydration and embedding in paraffin, then a paraffin processor was used to prepare 124 the paraffin blocks (AP208, Myr, Spain). A microtome (Leica RM2155, Wetzlar, Germany) was employed to cut 2 µm sections. The staining techniques used were: 1) 125 126 Hematoxylin and Eosin (H-E) to show the general morphology of the tissue; 2) Periodic 127 Acid-Schiff (PAS) to reveal substances with affinity to neutral polysaccharides and mucopolysaccharides; and 3) Mallory's trichrome stain (Acid Fuchsine, Orange G and 128 Aniline Blue stains) to visualize the structure of the muscular and connective tissues. 129

The observations were realized under an optical microscope (Leica LB30T
111/97, Wetzlar, Germany) connected to a camera (Olympus DP70 1.45 Mpx) and an
image analyzing system (DP Controller 2.1.1.83 and DP Manager 2.1.1.163; Olympus).

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# 2.3 Transmission and scanning electron microscopy study

Zoea I specimens and pieces of the esophagus of the adults were fixed with 2 % 134 paraformaldehyde - 2.5 % glutaraldehyde in cacodylate buffer (0.1 mol  $L^{-1}$  pH 7.4) in 135 total darkness at 4 °C for 12 h. Then, the samples were rinsed twice with cacodylate 136 137 buffer and post-fixed in 1 % osmium tetroxide solution in cacodylate buffer. After the post-fixation the samples were dehydrated in a graded series of acetone. For the 138 139 transmission electron microscopy post-fixed samples were embedded in Spurr's resin 140 and cut into semi-thin (0.5 µm) and ultrathin (50-70 nm) sections with an ultramicrotome (Leica UCT, Wetzlar, Germany). Before observation, grids were 141 142 counterstained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. The observations were realized in a JEOL EM-1010 electron microscope at 80 kV equipped with an image analysis system 143 (AnalySIS, SIS, Münster, Germany), a single zoea I specimen and two adult specimens 144 were observed. For scanning electron microscopy, post-fixed samples were critical-145 point-dried, mounted on SEM stubs with self-adhesive stickers and coated with carbon. 146 147 Observations were made with a JEOL JSM-7001F scanning electron microscope. The post-fixative treatment and TEM and SEM observations were realized at CCiTUB 148 (Hospital Clinic, University of Barcelona, Spain). 149

#### 151 **3. Results**

The mouth of *M. brachydactyla* open ventrally, while the stomach is positioned 152 dorsally (Fig. 1C). The esophagus is a short, almost vertical tube that connects the 153 mouth with the ventral floor of the cardiac stomach (Fig. 1A-C). The esophagus length 154 has been measured during development:  $233 \pm 5 \mu m$  in zoea I,  $265 \pm 20 \mu m$  in zoea II, 155  $265 \pm 17 \,\mu\text{m}$  in megalopa,  $297 \pm 24 \,\mu\text{m}$  in juvenile 1, and between 15 and 25 mm in the 156 adult (Fig. 1A-C). The cross-section is quadrate; however the lumen has an X- or H-like 157 shape due to the presence of four main internal longitudinal folds or evaginations 158 159 located on the lateral walls (Fig. 2A-B; 3A, C, E).

160 The basic structure of the esophagus is similar in all the life stages, but it is more 161 complex in the adults than in the immature stages (Fig. 2-3). The basic structure comprises an epithelium covered by a cuticle. Below the basal lamina a layer of 162 163 connective tissue is present: in the adults the connective layer is wide and contain groups of rosette glands (Fig. 2A-D; 8A), while in the immature stages it is very thin 164 and glands were not observed (Fig. 3B-C). Three orientations of striated muscle fibers 165 have been observed: circular, longitudinal and dilator muscles (Fig. 2A-D; 3A-D). The 166 circular muscles form a continuous band that wrap the connective tissue and the 167 168 epithelium along the longitudinal axis of the esophagus (Fig. 2A-C). In the adults, this 169 muscle layer is highly developed and associated with blood vessels (Fig. 2B) and constitutes the most prominent muscle layer of the immature stages (Fig. 3A-C). The 170 171 bundles of longitudinal muscles of the adults are located in the connective layer, adjacently to the circular muscle band (Fig. 2A-B), but in the immature stages the 172 longitudinal muscles were not identified. The dilator muscles of the adults are identified 173 174 crossing vertically the connective tissue to reach perpendicularly the epithelium (Fig.

175 2A-B, D), while in the immature stages they connect the epithelium of the esophagus176 with the epithelial cells of the tegument located behind the mandibles (Fig. 3A-D).

*Epithelial cells.* The epithelium of the esophagus is composed of a single cell type and is covered by a cuticle. The morphology of the epithelium differs between adults and immature stages. The adults have a simple columnar epithelium, measuring around  $47 \pm 19 \,\mu\text{m}$  in height (Fig. 2E). In the immature stages, the invaginations have a simple squamous epithelium (3-5  $\mu\text{m}$  in height), while the evaginations have a stratified epithelium composed by basal irregular cells and distal short columnar (25-30  $\mu\text{m}$  in height) cells (Fig. 3E; 5B-C).

184 The adult epithelial cells have a marked polarity (Fig. 4A, B, D); whereas in 185 zoea I no polarity has been observed (Fig. 3E; 5A-B). The apical cell membrane contains a structure denominated by us as an "apical complex": these are irregular 186 187 electron-dense infolds intracellularly connected to bundles of filamentous structures (Fig. 4F). In the adults, the lateral cell membranes are heavily interdigitated; the number 188 189 of interdigitations increases toward the cell basis (Fig. 4B, D). By contrast, in the zoeae I the lateral cell membranes are smoothly undulated and lateral interdigitations are 190 marginal (Fig. 5A-C). The cells are joined by cell-to-cell junctions, but their extension 191 192 is not yet well defined (Fig. 4F; Suppl. Mat. 1). The basal membrane of the adults is heavily infolded (Fig. 4D); while in the zoeae I the basal membrane is generally smooth 193 (Fig. 5B-C). 194

195 Neither adults nor immature stages showed PAS positive granules in their 196 cytoplasm (Suppl. Mat. 3). In the adults, the cytoplasm is generally lucent, containing 197 sparse ribosomes, small lucent vesicles and multivesicular bodies (Fig. 4A-F). In the 198 immature stages the majority of the cytoplasm can be occupied by a giant vesicle 199 without affinity to the staining techniques used (Fig. 3A-C). By electron microscopy this vesicle is lined by a single membrane and contains aggregations of electron-dense
matter (Fig. 3E; 5A-B; Suppl. Mat. 1-2). In the adults the cell nucleus is located medial
to basally (Fig. 2E; 4A, D); while in immature stages the cell nucleus can be located
from the cell basis to the cell apex (Fig. 3E; 5A-B).

204 The mitochondria concentrate at the cell apex of the adult cells, but in the zoeae I they do not show such a distribution pattern (Fig. 4A, B, F; 5A-B; Suppl. Mat. 1-2). 205 The rough endoplasmic reticulum is composed by thin, short and dispersed cisternae 206 (Fig. 4D-E; 5D). Golgi bodies are scarce (Fig. 4E). One of the most important features 207 208 of the epithelial cells is the presence of bundles of filamentous structures (Fig. 4C), 209 whose identity is unclear. The bundles of filamentous structures are more prominent in 210 the adults (Fig. 4B-D, F) than in the zoeae I (Fig. 5D; Suppl. Mat. 1). In the adults they 211 cross the cell from the basis (Fig. 4D) to the apex (Fig. 4B, F). The apical extreme of 212 the filamentous structures are attached to the "apical complex" of the apical membrane 213 (Fig. 4F).

214 *Cuticle organization*. The epithelial cells are apically covered by a cuticle layer. In the adults the cuticle thickness is  $86 \pm 18 \mu m$ . The adult cuticle shows the typical 215 216 layers of the arthropod cuticle: epicuticle, exocuticle and endocuticle (Fig. 2D-E; Suppl. 217 Mat. 3). The epicuticle is the outmost cuticle layer, and represents ca.  $10 \pm 1$  % of the cuticle thickness. It is strongly stained by Orange G and Eosin, and it can be subdivided 218 into three sub-layers: 1) the outermost sub-layer is a thin refractory coat; 2) the next 219 220 sub-layer shows affinity to Eosin and acquires a yellow color with Orange G, it is 221 composed by fibers without a defined orientation; and 3) the most basal epicuticle sublayer shows affinity to Hematoxylin and acquires an orange color with Orange G, and is 222 223 composed of fibers with a vertical orientation that protrudes toward the underlying exocuticle (Fig. 2D-F; 6A-B). The next layers are the exocuticle and the endocuticle. 224

Both layers differentiate from the epicuticle due to their lamellar structure and their 225 homogeneous staining affinity to Hematoxylin and Aniline Blue (Fig. 2D-E). PAS 226 staining is slightly stronger in the exocuticle than in the endocuticle (Suppl. Mat. 3). 227 The exocuticle represents ca. 30-40 % of the cuticle thickness and it is composed of 228 wide lamellae (5.8  $\pm$  1.1 µm), while the endocuticle represents ca. 50-55 % of the 229 cuticle thickness and it is composed by thin lamellae  $(2.5 \pm 0.6 \ \mu m)$  (Fig. 6B-C). 230 Concomitantly with the proximity to the cell basis the lamellae of the endocuticle 231 232 gradually lose definition and become extensively wider (Fig. 6D).

The cuticle of the immature stages is much thinner and the typical layers of the arthropod cuticle cannot be identified by optical microscopy (Fig. 3B-C). The cuticle of the zoeal stage is around  $570 \pm 70$  nm, it has an epicuticle that represents ca.  $20 \pm 5$  % of the cuticle thickness and a lamellate procuticle (Fig. 7B; Suppl. Mat. 1-2).

237 The cuticle surface shows two types of structures: microspines and pores. The microspines appear in all the life stages. The microspines are projected from the 238 epicuticle (Fig. 7B) as hair-like structures difficult to observe by optical microscopy 239 (Fig. 7A). The microspines of the adults form groups of one to three microspines 240 attached to each other, occasionally some groups include more than three microspines 241 242 (Fig. 7C-D), with the density of groups of microspines calculated to be ca. 0.7 per 10  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>. Each microspine is approximately 4 ± 1  $\mu$ m in length (Fig. 7C). The distribution 243 pattern of the microspines is unclear; we observed areas rich in microspines and areas 244 245 where the microspines are absent. In the zoeae I, the microspines are shorter  $(540 \pm 180)$ 246 nm in ZI) and each microspine is individually separated from each other (Suppl. Mat. 4). 247

The pores have been observed on the adult cuticle but not in the zoeae I. The pores are aggregated in "pore areas", they are microspine free areas with a circular to elliptical shape, slightly elevated in comparison to the surrounding cuticle and pierced by pores (Fig.7F). Two types of pores have been identified. The "large pores" are 2  $\mu$ m in diameter or more, the cross section is circular and are surrounded by a smooth elevation of the cuticle (Fig. 7G). The "small pores" have around 1  $\mu$ m in diameter or less, the cross section is horseshoe-like and are surrounded by an abrupt elevation of the cuticle (Fig. 7H).

Rosette glands. In the adults, the connective tissue of the esophagus contains 256 rosette glands (Fig. 2D; 7E; 8A). The rosette glands are absent from the esophagus of 257 258 the immature stages, but appear below the tegument of the mouthparts and the anterior distal portion of the thoracic ganglionic mass, nevertheless they seem more associated 259 with the mouth and mouthparts than with the esophagus itself (Fig. 1C). The rosette 260 261 glands are clusters of secretory cells aggregated into acinar like structures with a 262 diameter of 75-100 µm. The secretory cells surround a central tube that channel the 263 secretions outside the glands (Fig. 8A). The cuticle is pierced by tube-like structures 264 located above some gland agglomerations, showing a possible secretion pathway of the products released by the secretory cells (Fig. 7E). There is only a single type of 265 266 secretory cell in the rosette glands. These cells have a pyramidal shape and measure ca. 35  $\mu$ m in height (Fig. 8A). The cytoplasm is filled by vesicles of 865 ±118 nm in 267 diameter, however many vesicles are fused into larger structures (Fig. 8B-C). The 268 269 vesicles contain a dense fibrillar-like matrix with a variable electron-density (Fig.8B-E). 270 Some secretory cells contain a cytoplasm occupied by vesicles that are similar in appearance and size to a "vacuole" (Fig. 8A). The nucleus is located basally (Fig.8A). 271 272 Mitochondria are usually located around the Golgi bodies (Fig. 8B). Golgi bodies are 273 abundant, large and highly developed (Fig. 8B). The rough endoplasmic reticulum 274 forms a thin layer located adjacent to the nucleus and the basal membrane (Fig. 8D-E).

## 4. Discussion

The esophagus of *M. brachydactyla* is a short vertical tube that connects the mouth with the stomach as has been described in other decapods (Ceccaldi, 1989; Felgenhauer, 1992; Icely and Nott, 1992), including larval stages such as the zoeae of the brachyuran crabs *Maja* sp. (Schlegel, 1911), *Ranina ranina* (Minagawa and Takashima, 1994), and *Scylla olivacea* (Jantrarotai and Sawanyatiputi, 2005), the zoeae of the caridean shrimp *Lysmata amboinensis* (Tziouveli et al., 2011) and the phyllosomata of the achelatan rock lobster *Panulirus ornatus* (Johnston et al., 2008).

The esophagus is the organ responsible for the transport of the ingested food 283 284 from the mouth opening to the stomach. The passage of the food into the stomach 285 requires the dilation of the esophageal walls. For this reason, when relaxed the esophagus of *M. brachydactyla* shows four internal longitudinal folds from hatching to 286 287 the adult stage, which provide capacity for elastic expansion of the esophagus and passage of food to the stomach. Similar infoldings have been described in brachyurans 288 289 (Erri Babu et al., 1982; Minagawa and Takashima, 1994; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989), astacideans (Factor, 1981; Loya-Javellana et al., 1994; Yonge, 1924), penaeids (Dall, 290 1967), achelatans (Johnston and Alexander, 1999) and carideans (Patwardhan, 1935; 291 292 Pillai, 1960; Sousa and Petriella, 2006).

To realize the peristaltic movements required to swallow the food requires a powerful set of muscles. The adult esophagus of *M. brachydactyla* shares with other brachyuran crabs such as *Menippe rumphii* (Erri Babu et al., 1982), *Portunus sanguinolentus* (Trinadha Babu et al., 1989), *Scylla serrata* (Barker and Gibson, 1978), and *Spiralothelphusa hydrodroma* (referred as *Parathelphusa hydrodromus*) (Reddy, 1937), caridean shrimps as *Caridina laevis* (Pillai, 1960), and astacideans such as the Norway lobster *Nephrops norvegicus* (Yonge, 1924) and the European lobster *Homarus* 

gammarus (Barker and Gibson, 1977), the presence of a wide band of circular muscles 300 associated with longitudinal muscles. Another set of muscles observed in M. 301 brachydactyla receive names such as "dilator muscles" (Erri Babu et al., 1979; Erri 302 303 Babu et al., 1982; Pillai, 1960; Reddy, 1937; Yonge, 1924), "extrinsic muscles" (Schmitz and Scherrey, 1983) and "radial muscles" (Barker and Gibson, 1977; 1978). 304 Their function has been associated with the expansive efforts required to swallow the 305 food in amphipods (Schmitz and Scherrey, 1983) and the present study suggests the 306 307 same function for *M. brachydactyla*: the contraction of the "dilator muscles" could press the epithelium toward the connective tissue facilitating the expansion of the lumen. In 308 the case of the larval stages of M. brachydactyla, we observed circular and dilator 309 muscles but longitudinal muscles were not identified. Similarly, Schlegel (1911) in the 310 zoea I of the same genus described circular muscle fibers (as "constrictor muscles") and 311 similar "dilator muscles". The circular muscles also were described in the esophagus of 312 313 R. ranina zoeae (Minagawa and Takashima, 1994). The role of the muscles of the larvae 314 must be similar to their adult counterpart.

315 Epithelial cells. The simple columnar epithelium of the adult esophagus of M. brachydactyla is covered by a cuticle, as has been reported in other brachyurans: e.g. M. 316 rumphii (Erri Babu et al., 1982), P. sanguinolentus (Trinadha Babu et al., 1989), S. 317 serrata (Barker and Gibson, 1978) and S. hydrodroma (Reddy, 1937). The esophageal 318 319 epithelium is also described as columnar in astacideans (Barker and Gibson, 1977; Yonge, 1924) and carideans (Pillai, 1960). By contrast, in the brachyuran crab 320 Pseudocarcinus gigas the epithelium is cuboidal (Heeren and Mitchell, 1997). This 321 322 information suggests that the epithelium of the esophagus is generally conserved among the decapods during the adulthood. The epithelial cells of the larvae differs from their 323 324 adult counterpart, varying from plane to short columnar cells. Schlegel (1911) in his study of the first zoeal stage of a *Maja* species, described an esophageal epithelium composed of big cells with basal nuclei and covered by a cuticle. In other Decapoda larvae the epithelium is considered short columnar, as in *R. ranina* zoeae (Minagawa and Takashima, 1994) and *P. ornatus* phyllosomata (Johnston et al., 2008), or cuboidal as in *L. amboinensis* zoeae (Tziouveli et al., 2011). The current data are not enough to evaluate if these cell morphologies are related with a functional role, the phylogeny, or a consequence of the molt cycle.

The esophageal epithelium must be able to support the expansive and contractive 332 333 efforts required for the swallowing of the food. In this sense, one of the most distinctive 334 characteristics of the epithelial cells of M. brachydactyla are their richness in interdigitations and bundles of filamentous structures, coinciding with the esophageal 335 336 epithelial cells of the cirolanid isopod Natatolana obtusata (Storch et al., 2002). The filamentous structures have been reported as microtubules in the esophagus and/or 337 338 hindgut tract of diverse malacostracans, including the brachyuran Metacarcinus 339 magister (Mykles, 1979), and astacideans such as the lobsters Homarus americanus and Homarus gammarus (Mykles, 1979), and the crayfish Procambarus clarkii (Komuro 340 and Yamamoto, 1968), as well diverse isopod species (Holdich and Mayes, 1975; 341 Vernon et al., 1974; Witkus et al., 1969). Some authors suggested that the microtubules 342 could help to maintain the cell structure through the support of the expansive and 343 344 contractive efforts realized by these organs (Komuro and Yamamoto, 1968; Mykles, 345 1979; Witkus et al., 1969). Similarly, the interdigitations could help to avoid the tearing 346 of the epithelium through the expansive waves. By contrast, the epithelial cells of the 347 larvae are very different from their adult counterpart. Many larval epithelial cells show highly developed vesicles (feature not observed in the adults), while the bundles of 348 filamentous structures and interdigitations are poorly developed. These large vesicles 349

have not been reported previously and their role is unknown, but tentatively could beconsidered as having a structural role, maybe maintaining the cell shape.

352 Cuticle organization. The cuticle surface is rich in small hair-like structures named "microspines" by Elzinga and Hopkins (1994; 1995). These microspines are 353 cuticle specializations observed in ectoderm derivatives such as the foregut and hindgut 354 (Elzinga, 1998; Elzinga and Hopkins, 1994; 1995). They have been reported in the 355 esophagus of the Malacostraca as small aggregations or rows projected toward the 356 stomach (De Jong and Casanova, 1997; Elzinga, 1998; Friesen et al., 1986; Icely and 357 358 Nott, 1984; Johnston et al., 2004; Storch et al., 2002). Few studies mentioned the presence of microspines in the esophagus of the larval stages. Johnston et al. (2008) 359 mentioned "short spines" in the esophageal lumen of *P. ornatus* phyllosomata. By 360 361 contrast, in L. amboinensis the larval esophagus project dense and thick setae, a feature not observed in *M. brachydactyla* (Tziouveli et al., 2011). The role of the esophageal 362 363 microspines is unknown. In the hindgut, they have been associated with the grasping of 364 the peritrophic membrane to avoid their backward movement due to anti-peristaltic waves (Felder and Felgenhauer, 1993; Hopkin and Nott, 1980). Other authors suggested 365 366 a role such as a supporting surface for symbiotic microorganisms (Elzinga, 1998; Harris, 1993). In the case of the esophagus none of these hypotheses looks probable, 367 since no peritrophic membrane or microorganism have been observed. Perhaps the 368 369 microspines could help to grasp the food for their ingestion.

Other cuticle specializations are the areas devoid from microspines but pierced
by "small" (ca. 1 µm diameter) and "large" (ca. 2 µm diameter) pores. In *S. serrata* the
cuticle is also pierced by tubes ca. 3 µm in width (Barker and Gibson, 1978). Small (1-3
µm diameter) and large (5-8 µm diameter) pores have been identified in the esophagus
of *H. gammarus*, but differs from our study since they are restricted to the esophagus -

stomach junction and are associated with long filaments (Robertson and Laverack, 375 1979). The "pore areas" can appear at the distal side of cuticle tubes located over the 376 rosette glands, which make it is possible that these pores constitute a release pathway 377 378 for the gland secretions. An alternative hypothesis suggests that the pores and channels could be "sensors" of the rosette glands, but this hypothesis require confirmation of the 379 380 presence of nervous structures, i.e. the axons observed in the connective that surrounds 381 rosette glands in carideans such as the common prawn Palaemon serratus (Alexander, 382 1989) and the daggerblade grass shrimp *Palaemonetes pugio* (Doughtie and Rao, 1982).

Rosette glands. The rosette glands received numerous names based on their 383 location ("tegumental", "esophageal", or "intestinal glands"), shape ("rosette glands") or 384 hypothetical function ("salivary glands", or "cement glands"), but has not yet been an 385 386 agreement in their denomination (Gorvett, 1946; Reddy, 1937; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989; Yonge, 1924). The rosette glands have been described in the adult esophagus of 387 388 diverse brachyurans (Barker and Gibson, 1978; Erri Babu et al., 1979; Erri Babu et al., 1982; Heeren and Mitchell, 1997; Reddy, 1937; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989), 389 astacideans (Barker and Gibson, 1977; Yonge, 1924; 1932), achelatans (Johnston and 390 391 Alexander, 1999), carideans (Pillai, 1960) and penaeids (Dall, 1967; Sousa and Petriella, 2006). Although the rosette glands appear to be absent in the esophagus of the 392 immature specimens, they appear near to the mouth opening and mouthparts, coinciding 393 394 with observations realized in the zoeal stages of S. olivacea (Jantrarotai and 395 Sawanyatiputi, 2005) and the pre-zoeal stage of the anomuran Porcellana platycheles (Williams, 1944). The rosette glands of *M. brachydactyla* are very active: the cytoplasm 396 397 of the secretory cells is filled by vesicles and the Golgi bodies are highly developed. Moreover, the secretory cells can be stained by Alcian blue and PAS coinciding to 398 399 previous studies realized in other brachyurans (Barker and Gibson, 1978; Erri Babu et

al., 1982; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989). These stain affinities reveal a possible 400 401 composition based on acid mucopolysaccharides (including sulphated 402 mucopolysaccharides, sulphated sialomucins and hyaluronic acid), as well neutral mucopolysaccharides (Erri Babu et al., 1979; Trinadha Babu et al., 1989). Other studies 403 discarded the presence of glycogen (Erri Babu et al., 1979), lipids and phospholipids 404 (Trinadha Babu et al., 1989). Yonge (1932) mentioned numerous possible roles for the 405 rosette glands: "salivary glands" that help the passage and digestion of the food, "slime 406 407 glands" with no mentioned role, "secretory organs" with a midgut gland-like role, or "cement glands" involved on the oviposition. Considering all the mentioned roles and 408 their location, a probable function for the esophageal rosette glands in M. brachydactyla 409 410 could be comparable to the "salivary glands": the acid compounds could help in digestive processes, while the mucous nature is useful to entangle and lubricate the 411 412 lumen surface allowing the passage of the food (Barker and Gibson, 1977; Erri Babu et 413 al., 1979; Hunt et al., 1992; Shyamasundari and Hanumantha Rao, 1977; 1978; Yonge, 414 1924).

The role of the esophagus can explain their histological and ultrastructural 416 characteristics: the internal folds allow the expansion of the lumen, the epithelial cells 417 have numerous interdigitations and filamentous structures to presumably avoid its 418 419 tearing, the epithelium is covered by a cuticle that protects the epithelial cells and it is covered by microspines that could help to grasp the food, while the connective tissue 420 contains highly developed muscles to realize the peristaltic movements required for 421 these efforts. The rosette glands found in the connective tissue could act as "salivary 422 423 glands". The esophagus of the larval stages has numerous differences from their adult counterpart: the epithelial cells can contain big vesicles, and the connective tissue and 424 425 cuticle are thinner than in the adults, lacking rosette glands and blood vessels. The esophagus of the adults is much wider than in the larvae, with the distance between 426 tissues being greatly increased. Consequently, the esophagus of the adult requires 427 428 additional structures for their maintenance (such as extended connective tissue, blood 429 vessels and glands) and a more complex organization.

430

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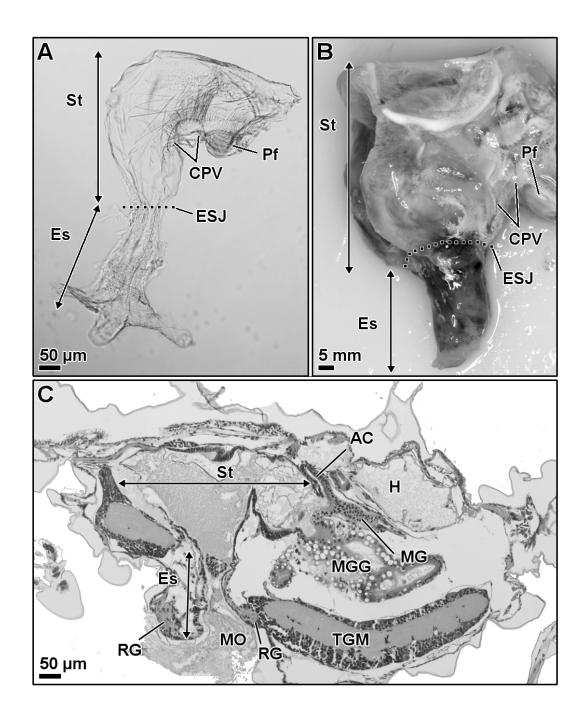




Figure 1. *Maja brachydactyla*. Esophagus, gross morphology and location. Zoea II, optical microscope
(A). Adult, digital camera (B). Megalopa, H-E, optical microscope (C). Abbreviations: AC, anterior
caeca; CPV, cardio-pyloric valve; Es, esophagus; ESJ, esophagus - stomach junction; H, heart; Pf, pyloric
filter; MG, midgut tract; MGG, midgut gland (hepatopancreas); MO, mouth opening; RG, rosette glands;
St, stomach; TGM, thoracic ganglionic mass.

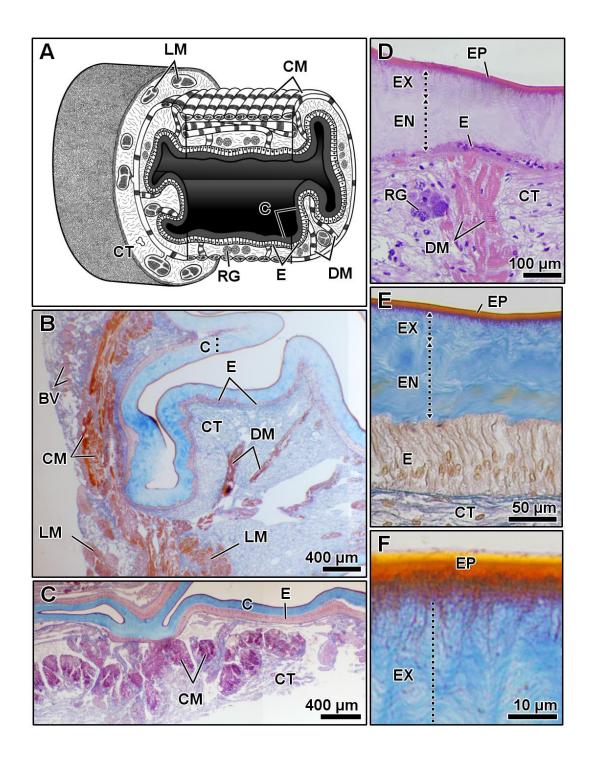


Figure 2. *Maja brachydactyla*. Adult. Esophagus, histological organization. Optical microscopy. General diagram (A). General view, Mallory's trichrome (B-C): transversal (B) and longitudinal sections (C).
Epithelium and connective tissue, H-E (D). Close view of the epithelium, Mallory's trichrome (E).
Exocuticle and epicuticle, Mallory's trichrome (F). Abbreviations: BV, blood vessels; C, cuticle; CT, connective tissue; CM, circular muscles; DM, dilator muscles; EN, endocuticle; EP, epicuticle; EX, exocuticle; RG, rosette glands; LM, longitudinal muscles.

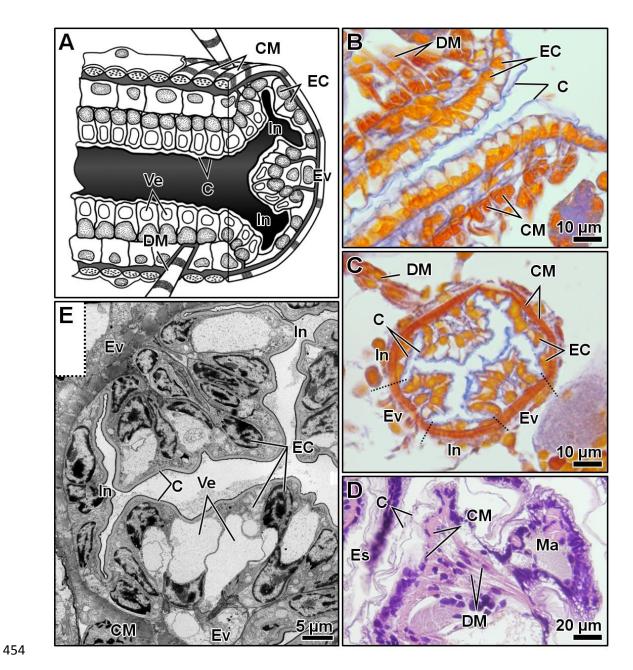
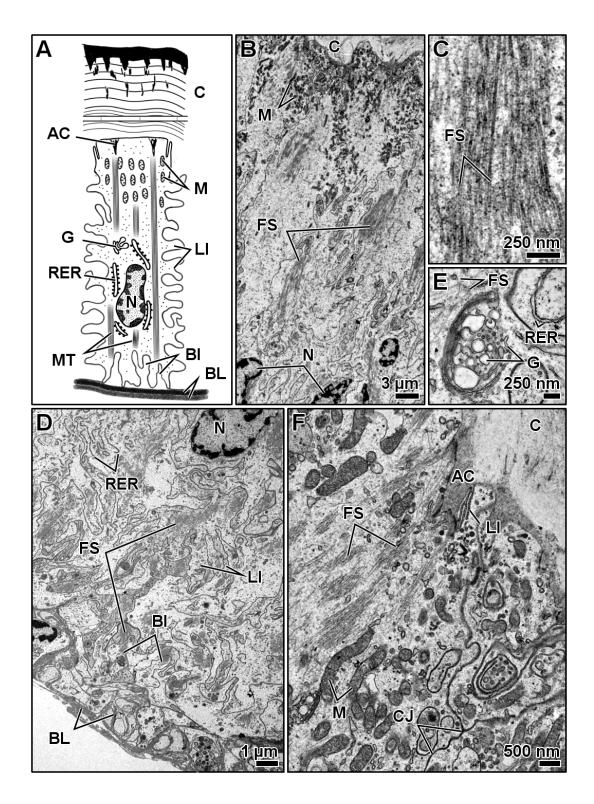


Figure 3. *Maja brachydactyla*. Larvae. Esophagus, histological organization. Optical microscopy.
General diagram (A). Megalopa, Mallory's trichrome (B-C): longitudinal (B) and transversal sections (C).
Megalopa, close view of the dilator muscles, HE (D). Zoea I, transversal section, TEM. Abbreviations:
C, cuticle; CM, circular muscles; DM, dilator muscles; EC, epithelial cells; Es, esophagus; Ev,
evaginations; If, infold; In, invaginations; Ma, mandible; Ve, vesicles.



462 Figure 4. *Maja brachydactyla*. Adult. Esophagus. Epithelial cells. TEM. General diagram (A). Apex of
463 the epithelial cell (B). Close view of the filamentous structures (C). Basis of the epithelial cell (D). Close
464 view of a Golgi body (E). Cell apex showing the cell-to-cell junctions and the "apical complex" (F).
465 Abbreviations: AC, apical complex; AI, apical infolds; BI, basal infolds; BL, basal lamina; C, cuticle; CJ,
466 cell-to-cell junctions; FS, filamentous structures; G, Golgi body; LI, lateral interdigitations; M,
467 mitochondria; N, nucleus; RER, rough endoplasmic reticulum.

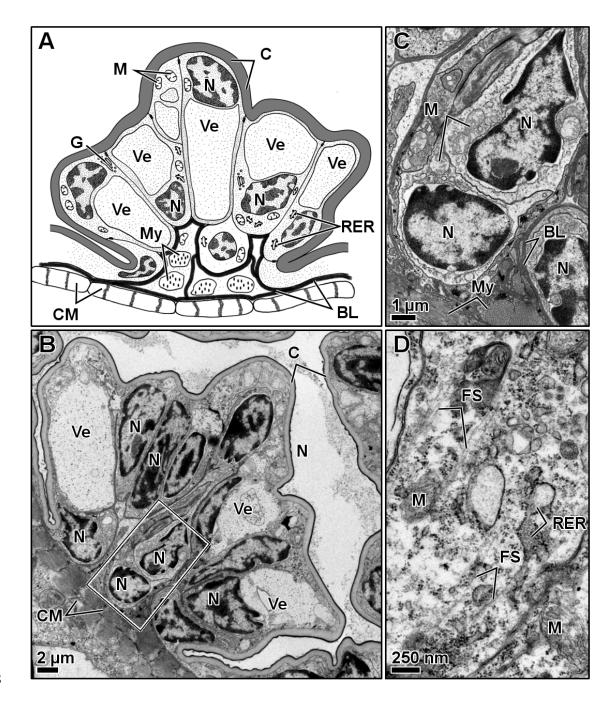
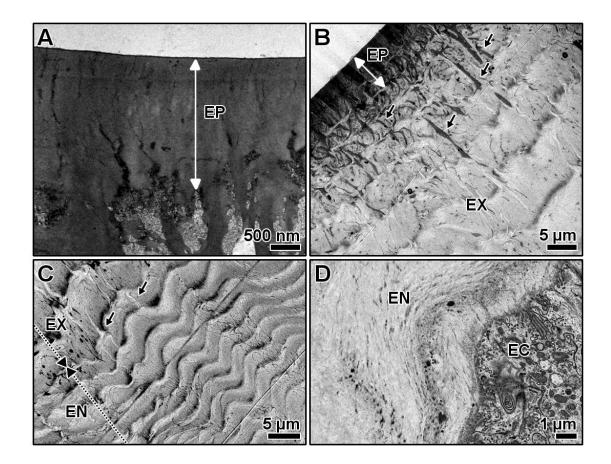


Figure 5. *Maja brachydactyla*. Zoea I. Esophagus. Epithelial fold. TEM. General diagram (A). General
view, the rectangle marks the epithelial cells located on the fold center (B). Detailed view of the rectangle
marked in B (C). Close view of the filamentous structures (D). Abbreviations: BL, basal lamina; C,
cuticle; CM, circular muscles; EC, epithelial cell; FS, filamentous structures; G; Golgi body; M,
mitochondria; My, myofibrils; N, nucleus; RER, rough endoplasmic reticulum; Ve, vesicles.



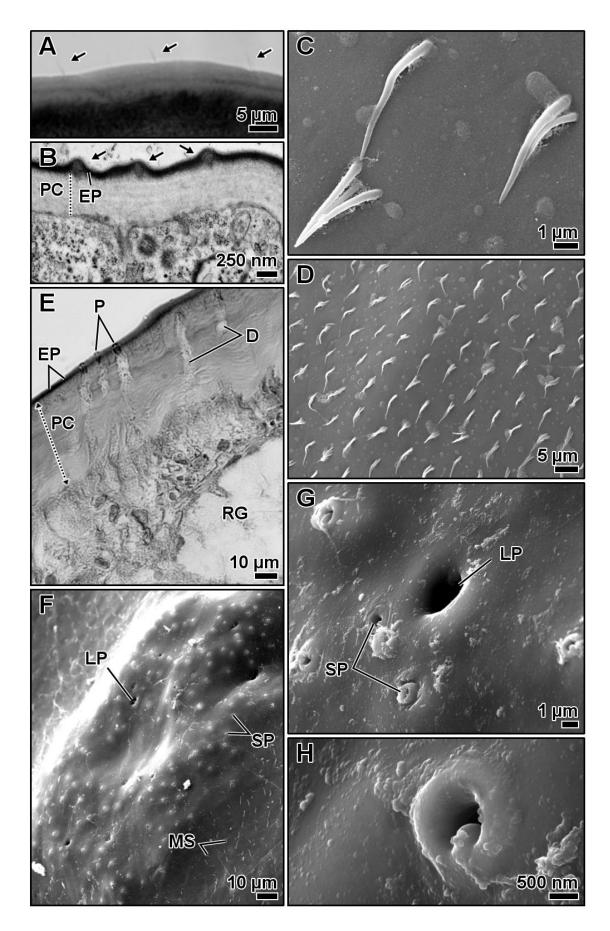


477 Figure 6. *Maja brachydactyla*. Adult. Esophagus. Cuticle. TEM. Epicuticle (A). Epicuticle, exocuticle
478 and protrusions of epicuticle crossing the exocuticle (arrows) (B). Transition from the exocuticle to the
479 endocuticle, pore canals (arrows) are showed (C). Basal endocuticle and apex of the epithelial cell (D).
480 Abbreviations: EC; epithelial cell; EN, endocuticle; EP, epicuticle; EX, exocuticle.

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484 Figure 7 (next page). Maja brachydactyla. Esophagus, superficial structures of the cuticle. Adult, 485 microspines (arrows), Mallory's trichrome (A). Zoea I, microspines protruding from the cuticle, TEM (B). 486 Adult, microspines, SEM (C-D): close view (C) and field of microspines (D). Rosette glands associated 487 with duct-like structures and pores, Mallory's trichrome (E). "Pore area" with elongated shape, SEM (F). 488 Close view of the cuticle pores, SEM (G-H): "large pore" surrounded by "small pores" (G) and "small 489 pore" (H). Abbreviations: D, duct-like structure; EC, epithelial cells; EN, endocuticle; EP, epicuticle; EX, 490 exocuticle; LP, "large pore"; MS, microspines; P, pores; PC, procuticle; RG, rosette glands; SP, "small 491 pore".



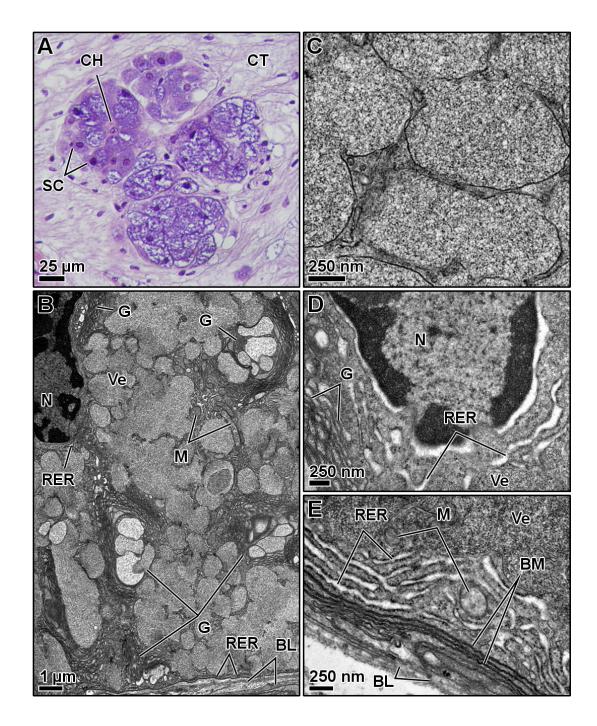
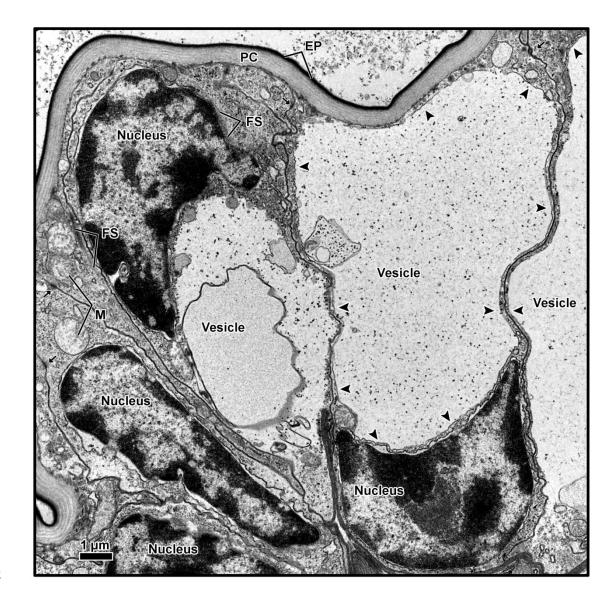


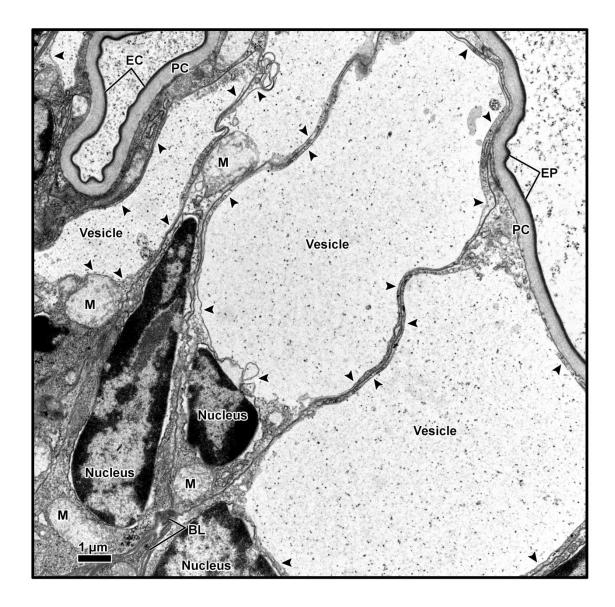


Figure 8. *Maja brachydactyla*. Adult. Esophagus, rosette glands. General view of the rosette glands, H-E
(A). General view of the gland cells, TEM (B). Close view of the secretory vesicles (C). Close view of the
nucleus and rough endoplasmic reticulum (D). Close view of the basal layer of rough endoplasmic
reticulum. Abbreviations: BL, basal lamina; BM, basal membrane; CH, central channel; CT, connective
tissue; G, Golgi bodies; N, nucleus; RER, rough endoplasmic reticulum; RG, rosette glands; SC,
secretory cells; Ve, vesicles.

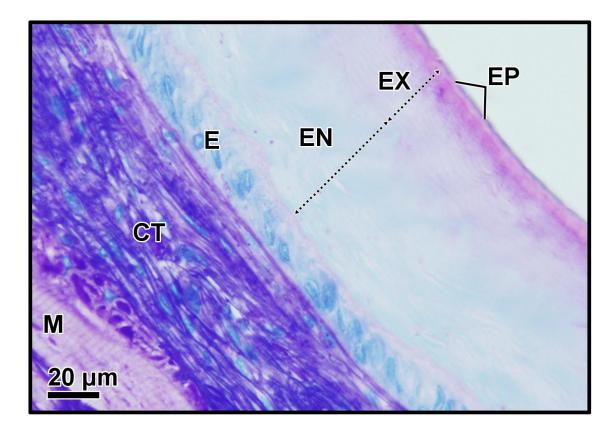


Supplementary Material 1 (Suppl. Mat 1). *Maja brachydactyla*. Zoea I. Esophagus, epithelial cells.
 TEM. The cell-to-cell junctions are marked by arrows and the single membrane of the vesicles by arrow-

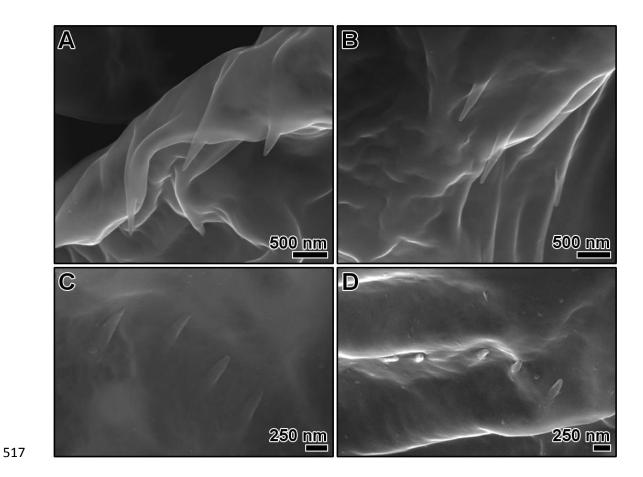
heads. Abbreviations: EC, epicuticle; FS, filamentous structures; M, mitochondria; PC, procuticle.



- Supplementary Material 2 (Suppl. Mat 2). *Maja brachydactyla*. Zoea I. Esophagus, epithelial cells.
   TEM. The single membrane of the vesicles are marked by arrow-heads. Abbreviations: EC, epicuticle; M,
- 510 mitochondria; PC, procuticle.



**Supplementary Material 3 (Suppl. Mat 3)**. *Maja brachydactyla*. Adult. Esophagus. Close view of the
epithelium, PAS and Methylene Blue. Abbreviations: CT, connective tissue; E, epithelium; EN,
endocuticle; EP, epicuticle; EX, exocuticle; M, muscle.



**Supplementary Material 4 (Suppl. Mat 4)**. *Maja brachydactyla*. Zoea I. Esophagus, microspines of the
cuticle surface (A-D): three microspines (A), three microspines (B), four microspines (C) and five
microspines (D).

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