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- 1 Inter-population variability in the reproductive morphology of the shore crab (*Carcinus*
- 2 *maenas*): evidence of endocrine disruption in a marine crustacean?
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1 Abstract

2 Environmental contaminants that are capable of causing endocrine disrupting effects are 3 currently a major cause for concern. These chemicals are known to influence the 4 reproductive development of vertebrates by mimicking or antagonising the actions of 5 endogenous hormones. However, little is known regarding their potential effects on 6 invertebrates. Here we examine variations in the reproductive morphology of the shore 7 crab (Carcinus maenas) for evidence of endocrine disruption. Crabs were collected from 8 a number of sites comprising a putative gradient of exposure to endocrine disrupting 9 chemicals. Patterns of inter-population variability in the expression of sexually 10 dimorphic traits were then examined for evidence of hormone disruption. Extensive 11 variability was detected and patterns of chelal morphology were consistent with the 12 gradient of endocrine disruption. However, overall, the patterns of morphological 13 variability were not consistent with hormonally-mediated effects. This suggests that 14 shore crabs are not susceptible to the same type of endocrine disrupting effects that have 15 been detected in vertebrates, which are most commonly mediated via the oestrogen 16 receptor. However, the potential for androgenic effects on crustacean morphology are 17 discussed.

18

Key words: shore crab; *Carcinus maenas*; endocrine disruption; oestrogen; reproductive
development; morphology.

## 1 1. Introduction

2 There is now unequivocal evidence that a wide variety of chemicals that enter the aquatic 3 environment are capable of disrupting endocrine function in wildlife and humans (IEH, 4 1999). Endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) that interfere with the actions of the sex 5 hormones are of particular concern, having been associated with reproductive dysfunction 6 in all classes of vertebrate (Ashby et al., 1997; Tyler et al., 1998). The mechanisms 7 responsible for these effects are very similar across this group of organisms as the 8 vertebrate hormone-receptor system is highly conserved. Consequently, this 9 phenomenon is relatively well understood. In contrast, little is known regarding the 10 potential implications of these chemicals for invertebrates, largely due to our rudimentary 11 understanding of invertebrate hormone-receptor systems. This paucity of knowledge is 12 dangerous, given that invertebrates comprise 95% of all animal species and play a pivotal 13 role in ecosystem dynamics (Defur et al., 1999; Depledge & Billinghurst, 1999). 14 The phenomenon known as "imposex" remains one of the few clear examples of 15 endocrine disruption in invertebrates in the field. This morphological abnormality occurs 16 in gastropod molluscs exposed to organotin compounds and it is characterised by the 17 superimposition of male reproductive characteristics, including a penis and vas deferense, 18 on the female genitalia (Bryan et al., 1986). The mechanism by which this occurs is still 19 under investigation. However, interference with the aromatase enzymes, which are 20 normally responsible for the conversion of testosterone to  $17\beta$  estradiol, is the most 21 widely accepted explanation. The resulting accumulation of testosterone is thought to be 22 responsible for these masculinising effects (Matthiessen & Gibbs, 1998).

1	There is putative evidence that the reproductive morphology of crustaceans may also be
2	affected by EDCs. For example, increased rates of intersex and female biased sex ratios
3	have been reported in harpacticoid copepods from sewage polluted locations along the
4	East coast of Scotland, although a direct correlation between the frequency of intersex
5	and distance from the discharge locations was not observed (Moore & Stevenson, 1991;
6	1994). Ovotestes formation has also been reported in lobsters (Homarus americanus)
7	around the coast of Nova Scotia (Sangalang & Jones, 1997) and duel-gender intersex,
8	characterised by the presence of penis-like appendages on females and gonopore-like
9	openings and ovotestes in males, has been observed in Japanese freshwater crabs
10	(Geothelphus dehaani) from contaminated sites (Takahashi et al., 2000). Recent data
11	have revealed increased rates of intersex and female biased sex ratios in the marine
12	amphipod, Echinogammarus marinus, from the Scottish coast (Ford et al., 2004).
13	Furthermore, discriminant analysis of sexual dimorphisms, such as gnathopod length,
14	revealed that "normal" males from polluted sites closely resembled intersex specimens.
15	Similar abnormalities have been reported in amphipods (Hyalella azteca) exposed to
16	ethinylestradiol (Vandenbergh et al., 2003), which provides further evidence that these
17	effects may be endocrine-mediated. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis
18	that, like vertebrates, crustaceans are susceptible to the effects of EDCs.
19	In this study, we examine patterns of variability in the reproductive morphology of the

In this study, we examine patterns of variability in the reproductive morphology of the shore crab, *Carcinus maenas* L., for evidence of endocrine disruption. The shore crab provides an ideal focus for this type of study as it has a particular affinity to estuarine habitats, which are particularly susceptible to pollution from anthropogenic sources. Recent evidence indicates that this species is sensitive to contaminant-induced effects

(Galloway et al., 2004). The shore crab also fulfils many of the criteria for the selection
 of sentinel species outlined at the Institute for Environmental Health workshop on "The
 Ecological Significance of Endocrine Disruption" (Leicester, 1997) in that it is common
 and widespread in Northern Europe, it reproduces sexually and is sexually dimorphic.
 Unlike a number of decapods that are naturally hermaphroditic, the shore crab is single
 sexed throughout life and adult males and females are readily identifiable.

7 However, male shore crabs are known to be capable of exhibiting an intersex condition, 8 which is induced by parasitic castration by the thoracican barnacle, *Sacculina carcini* 9 (Charniaux-Cotton, 1960). This leads to the development of more feminine features, 10 such as a broadened abdomen and a reduction in dominant claw size, through changes in 11 their endogenous endocrine regime. Preliminary data indicate that these feminised 12 features are also exhibited by male shore crabs from polluted environments, with males 13 from the Type and Tees estuaries, which are impacted by EDCs (Allen et al., 1999a; b; 14 Lye et al., 1999; Matthiessen et al., 1998), appearing to be less male than those from a 15 reference population (unpublished data). This indicates that the reproductive 16 development of this species may be susceptible to endocrine disruption by exogenous 17 agents such as EDCs. Here we present the findings of an extensive field survey that 18 aimed to investigate these patterns of inter-population variability in shore crab 19 morphology and assess their potential use as a biomarker of endocrine disrupting effects 20 on crustaceans in the field.

21 2. Materials and Methods

22 Approximately one hundred shore crabs were collected from each of eight sites around

1	northern Britain. Sampling site locations are shown in Figure 1. These locations were
2	selected on the basis of previous reports of endocrine disruption, including the induction
3	of vitellogenin and intersexuality in wild flounder (Allen et al., 1999a; b). In increasing
4	order of impact, these were located in the estuaries of the rivers Dee, Clyde, Tyne,
5	Mersey and Tees. Three reference sites were also identified, two of which were located
6	on the west coast of Scotland at Arisaig and Appin, and one of which was located on the
7	east coast at Belhaven Bay. No evidence of endocrine disrupting inputs was available for
8	these sites, but given their remoteness from centres of population and industry, the risk of
9	endocrine disrupting effects is likely to be low.
10	Samples were collected during a six-week period in the summer of 2001 Adult crabs
11	(>30mm carapace width) were collected by hand from the intertidal zone. Individuals
10	that ayhibited signs of infaction by S causinii ware discorded. The remaining areha ware
12	that exhibited signs of infection by <i>S. carcinii</i> were discarded. The remaining craos were
13	returned to the laboratory for morphological examination (see Figure 2). This focused
14	on the analysis of sexually dimorphic traits. Carapace length and width and
15	cephalothorax depth were measured at the widest, longest and deepest dimensions,
16	respectively. The depth of the chelae was also measured between the maximum points.
17	The degree of heterochely was taken to be the difference in depth between the left and
18	right claws. Individuals that had lost chelae or that were suspected to have regenerated
19	one or more cheliped were omitted from the analysis of claw morphology. Periopod and
20	propodus lengths were measured by taking an average from the fourth and fifth pairs of
21	limbs, respectively. Again, data from crabs with missing or regenerating limbs were
22	ignored. These dimensions were measured using digital callipers (Browne & Sharpe).
23	The length of the first pair of pleopods was measured under a dissecting microscope.

These structures exhibit clear sexual dimorphism, with the pleopods of males being modified for copulation and those of females being used to hold eggs. Pleopod structure was therefore used to confirm the sex of each crab. The size and shape of the abdomen also exhibits sexual dimorphism. Hence, the area of the abdomen was recorded using the image analysis package, Image Tool.

6 Each of the characters measured was plotted against carapace width in order to 7 investigate their relationship with body size. All characters increased with body size, 8 although the nature of these allometric relationships varied between traits. It was 9 necessary to remove the effects of size dependence to allow the morphological 10 comparison of crabs of varying size. This was achieved by calculating the residuals of 11 the line of best fit between each trait versus carapace width, which was used as a 12 reference dimension. These residuals were then used as adjusted trait values (Reist, 13 1985; Debuse et al., 2001). For some traits, the residuals required log transformation in 14 order to fulfil the assumptions of normality. In other cases, the adjusted trait values 15 increased with body size. This required that they were divided by carapace width in 16 order to achieve homogeneity of variance. These transformations enabled the statistical 17 analysis of inter-population variations in morphology, which was carried out using 18 ANOVA and Tukey's pairwise comparisons. The correlations between each trait and the 19 gradient of exposure to EDCs was explored by ranking the data and calculating Pearson's 20 product moment correlation coefficient. Traits were ranked from 1-8 according to their 21 mean adjusted values. Sites were ranked according to their pollution status: the three 22 reference sites were given a mean rank of 2 and the remaining five contaminated sites 23 were ranked 4-8 according to the extent of the effects reported by Allen et al. (1999a; b).

1 3. Results

The mean body size of crabs collected varied extensively between sites. In general, crabs were smallest at the Dee estuary, where the majority of individuals were of between 35 and 40mm carapace width, and were largest at Arisaig, where the majority of crabs fell within the 45 and 50mm carapace width range. For this reason, the mean trait values presented in Tables 1 (a and b) have been calculated for a crab of average size.

7 Each of the traits analysed exhibited some degree of sexual dimorphism. This required 8 that male and female crabs were considered independently for the analysis of inter-9 population variability. These analyses revealed that males exhibited significant 10 variability in nine out of the ten traits measured and that females exhibited significant 11 inter-site variability in all ten traits (See Table 2). However, no consistent pattern in the 12 distribution of this variability among populations from reference sites and those that had 13 evidence of endocrine disruption was apparent from the results of the post-hoc tests. 14 The pattern of variability expressed by each trait was then considered in terms of

15 exposure to EDCs. In male crabs, a correlation between depth of the right chelae and the 16 putative gradient of endocrine disrupting effects was observed (r=-0.81, p<0.05). This 17 pattern was not evident from the analysis of the left chelae (r=0.27, p=0.52). This meant 18 that the degree of heterochely also correlated with the pollution gradient, with male crabs 19 from sites with deeper right chelae exhibiting greater differences between the size of the 20 left and right claw (r=-0.88, p<0.01). Although this characteristic is generally more 21 pronounced in male crabs, the degree of heterochely expressed by female crabs also 22 correlated with the pollution gradient (r=-0.78, p<0.05). These patterns are highlighted

on Table 1. Tukey's tests revealed that there was a significant difference between the
degree of heterochely expressed by male and female crabs at the reference sites compared
with those at the Mersey and Tees, and to a lesser extent, the Clyde and Dee. The only
anomaly to this pattern was at the Tyne, where the chelal morphology of male and female
crabs differed little from that at the reference sites.

6 4. Discussion

7 This study has revealed that there is extensive inter-population variability in the 8 morphology of male and female shore crabs around the coast of Northern Britain. 9 However, examination of the patterns of spatial variability expressed by each trait 10 revealed that only the size of the dominant claw, and hence the degree of heterochely, 11 exhibited any correlation with previous reports of endocrine disrupting effects in fish 12 (Allen et al., 1999a; b). In male shore crabs, the dominant claw is a secondary sexual 13 characteristic that is used in aggressive and sexual interactions. As its development is 14 determined by sex hormones (Charnioux-Cotton, 1960), variations in the size or shape of 15 this structure could be indicative of endocrine disruption. However, if this were the case, 16 we would also expect there to be effects on the expression of other sexually dimorphic 17 traits, such as abdominal area, that are known to be affected by endogenous endocrine 18 disruption. We might also expect to see an increase in the degree of sexual dimorphism 19 expressed by crabs at the affected sites. The lack of further evidence of feminisation, 20 combined with the fact that similar patterns of variability in claw morphology were 21 evident in female crabs, indicates that endocrine disruption is an unlikely explanation for 22 the patterns observed.

1 This finding was not consistent with that of a previous, smaller scale survey of crab 2 morphology, although the same patterns of variability were expressed by each of the 3 traits analysed at each of the sites in question (Brian, unpublished data). This should 4 serve to caution against claims of endocrine disruption when small datasets, containing 5 fewer sites and/or lower sample sizes, are used to investigate such effects. In contrast, 6 the results of this study were in close agreement with those of a similar survey of shore 7 crab morphology, which was carried out under the EDMAR programme (Allen et al., 8 2002). This revealed patterns of inter-population variability in the morphology of the 9 right chelae that were analogous to those presented in this study, but overall, it was 10 concluded that the data was equivocal and the mechanism responsible for variations in 11 claw size was unknown.

Potential explanations for these patterns of morphological variability are wide ranging. 12 13 For example, it is possible that differences in the chelal morphology of crabs from 14 reference and contaminated sites reflect a more general effect of pollution on crustacean 15 health. Alternatively it may be that the patterns observed have arisen as an indirect 16 consequence of contamination on ecological parameters. For example, changes in 17 community composition may alter the availability of different prey types. Diet has been 18 found to play an important role in the chelal development of the blue crab, *Callinectes* 19 sapidus (Smith & Palmer, 1994). Variations in morphology may have also arisen in 20 response to natural environmental differences between the sites, such as the structure of 21 the substrate. Further research is required to establish the potential influence of the 22 habitat characteristics on morphological variability.

1	However, the lack of evidence of a relationship between variations in shore crab
2	morphology and the putative gradient of endocrine disruption does not rule out the
3	possibility that shore crabs may be susceptible to the same type of effects reported in
4	crustaceans in the literature (e.g. Ford et al., 2004; Moore & Stevenson, 1991; Sangalang
5	& Jones, 1997; Takahashi et al., 2000). It is possible that a correlation was not detected
6	because the levels of EDCs encountered by the crabs from these populations did not
7	exceed the threshold required to elicit an affect. Alternatively, it may be that the methods
8	employed in this study were not sufficiently sensitive to reflect the effects of exposure to
9	environmentally relevant concentrations of EDCs or that the high levels of background
10	variability have obscured any contaminant-induced patterns in morphology. However, it
11	is also possible that these results reflect the fact that, unlike vertebrates, crustaceans such
12	as the shore crab are not susceptible to developmental effects exerted by EDCs.
13	The reproductive development of crustacea is similar to that of vertebrates in that sex is
14	genetically determined, but the expression of secondary sexual characteristics is largely
15	under hormonal control (Highnam & Hill, 1976). However, the structures and functions
16	of crustacean hormones are very different to those found in vertebrates. Although
17	vertebrate-like oestrogens and androgens have been identified in some invertebrate phyla,
18	such as cephalopods, bivalves and gastropods (DeLoof & DeClerk, 1986; Joosse, 1982),
19	the principal sex steroids in the crustacea are the ecdysteriods. Non-steroidal compounds
20	such as methyl-farnesoate have been associated with the reproductive control of some
21	species (Baldwin et al., 1995). This indicates that crustaceans are unlikely to be affected

22 by the same type of chemicals that are capable of interfering with the reproductive

23 development of vertebrates.

1 Previous research has revealed that changes in the reproductive morphology of the shore 2 crab can be induced by the manipulation of the androgenic gland, which is the site of 3 male sex hormone synthesis in crustacea (Barki et al., 2003). The removal of this gland 4 from juvenile male shore crabs has been found to inhibit the growth of male secondary 5 sexual characteristics and result in the development of the female form. Conversely, the 6 implantation of an androgenic gland into immature females stimulates the development of 7 male characteristics and inhibits female reproductive processes, such as vitellogenesis 8 (Charnioux-Cotton & Payen, 1988). This indicates that the expression of male and 9 female morphological characteristics is largely determined by the presence or absence of 10 androgenic hormones. This would explain the absence of a correlation between 11 variations in shore crab morphology and the gradient of endocrine disrupting effects in 12 flounder, which reflect the levels of estrogenic, as opposed to androgenic, activity.

13 The significance of androgenic hormones in determining the reproductive development of 14 the shore crab highlights the potential for androgenically-mediated effects on crustacean 15 morphology. It is unlikely that and rogenic endocrine disruptors are responsible for the 16 patterns of inter-population variability detected in this study, which were not consistent 17 with the effects of hormone disruption. However, the de-masculinising actions of anti-18 androgenic chemicals provide a plausible explanation for previous reports of feminisation 19 and intersexuality in copepods, decapods and amphipods *in situ*. Further research is 20 clearly required to elucidate the potential for androgenically-mediated effects on the 21 reproductive development of crustacea and to establish the implications for invertebrate populations in the field. 22

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1 Figure 1



1 Figure 2



Table 1 (a and b)

	——— Reference Sites ———			Increasing degree of contamination —				
(a) <i>Trait Value (mm)</i>	Arisaig	Appin	Dunbar	Dee	Clyde	Tyne	Mersey	Tees
Carapace width	$50.4 \pm 8.66$	$47.7 \pm 8.35$	$48.1 \pm 10.46$	$41.5 \pm 6.34$	$44.1 \pm 8.85$	$45.3 \pm 9.78$	$43.5 \pm 7.56$	$43.2 \pm 9.65$
Carapace length	$34.5\pm0.47$	$34.5\pm0.09$	$34.7\pm0.12$	$34.9\pm0.09$	$34.8\pm0.09$	$34.6\pm0.76$	$34.5\pm0.84$	$34.5\pm0.41$
Cephalothorax depth	$18.9\pm0.45$	$19.0\pm0.64$	$19.1\pm0.10$	$18.9\pm0.58$	$18.6\pm0.59$	$18.7\pm0.60$	$18.8\pm0.06$	$19.0\pm0.39$
Left chelae depth	$9.59\pm0.55$	$9.62\pm0.39$	$10.3\pm0.57$	$9.81\pm0.48$	$9.54\pm0.47$	$9.92\pm0.29$	$9.89\pm0.33$	$9.92\pm0.46$
<b>Right chelae depth</b>	$13.4\pm1.12$	$13.1\pm0.93$	$13.6\pm1.02$	$12.4\pm0.06$	$11.8\pm0.68$	$12.9\pm0.96$	$11.6\pm0.94$	$12.1\pm0.77$
Heterochely	$\textbf{3.84} \pm \textbf{0.90}$	$\textbf{3.45} \pm \textbf{0.81}$	3.37 ± 0.59	$\pmb{2.61 \pm 0.62}$	$2.39 \pm 0.46$	$3.17\pm0.65$	$1.83\pm0.82$	$2.23\pm0.63$
Pleopod length	$11.5\pm0.48$	$12.8\pm0.49$	$13.3\pm0.43$	$13.2\pm0.38$	$12.6\pm0.61$	$13.1\pm0.44$	$13.1\pm0.41$	$12.9\pm0.41$
Abdominal area	$145\pm8.20$	$149\pm9.16$	$155 \pm 11.15$	$145\pm8.46$	$145\pm7.81$	$149\pm8.03$	$148\pm6.49$	$153\pm8.98$
Periopod length	$48.8 \pm 1.74$	$50.0\pm1.88$	$48.9 \pm 1.46$	$48.9 \pm 1.73$	$48.4 \pm 1.79$	$49.6\pm2.02$	$48.7 \pm 1.42$	$49.8\pm1.7$
Propodus length	$16.7\pm0.47$	$16.8\pm0.47$	$16.7\pm0.42$	$16.5\pm0.54$	$16.5\pm0.43$	$16.7\pm0.46$	$16.5\pm0.30$	$16.8\pm0.46$

<i>—— Reference Sites ——</i>	Increasing degree of contamination
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(b) <i>Trait Value (mm)</i>	Arisaig	Appin	Dunbar	Dee	Clyde	Tyne	Mersey	Tees
Carapace width	$46.5\pm6.72$	$46.5\pm6.71$	$40.3\pm 6.93$	$33.9\pm4.09$	$49.4\pm5.76$	$43.2\pm10.7$	$38.1\pm5.72$	$37.4\pm5.48$
Carapace length	$34.7\pm0.88$	$34.7\pm0.46$	$34.8\pm0.59$	$35.2\pm0.07$	$34.8\pm0.07$	$35.2\pm0.57$	$34.9\pm0.12$	$34.5\pm0.05$
Cephalothorax depth	$19.3\pm0.74$	$19.4\pm0.46$	$19.5\pm0.66$	$19.4\pm0.36$	$19.2\pm0.52$	$19.1\pm0.63$	$19.0\pm0.37$	$19.4\pm0.31$
Left chelae depth	$9.02\pm0.31$	$9.62\pm0.28$	$9.15\pm0.26$	$8.66\pm0.25$	$8.98\pm0.26$	$9.26\pm0.36$	$8.66\pm0.13$	$8.79\pm0.26$
Right chelae depth	$11.6 \pm 1.22$	$10.6\pm0.82$	$11.1\pm0.72$	$10.2\pm0.36$	$10.0\pm0.51$	$11.2\pm0.95$	$9.10\pm0.22$	$9.64\pm0.43$
Heterochely	$2.66 \pm 1.04$	$1.74\pm0.85$	$2.11\pm0.65$	$\boldsymbol{1.73\pm0.40}$	$1.06\pm0.46$	$\textbf{2.04} \pm \textbf{0.85}$	$0.43 \pm 0.23$	$0.84 \pm 0.33$
Pleopod length	$20.2\pm1.06$	$19.1\pm0.87$	$20.1\pm1.14$	$20.7\pm1.29$	$19.0\pm1.38$	$19.8 \pm 1.05$	$19.2\pm0.75$	$20.1\pm0.80$
Abdominal area	$255\pm22.7$	$262\pm10.7$	$277 \pm 19.4$	$257 \pm 11.9$	$294 \pm 19.9$	$277\pm26.3$	$234\pm10.3$	$258 \pm 13.9$
Periopod length	$46.2\pm1.90$	$47.8 \pm 1.34$	$44.4 \pm 1.63$	$44.0\pm0.74$	$46.5\pm1.02$	$47.8 \pm 1.83$	$45.9\pm0.77$	$46.5\pm1.19$
Propodus length	$16.3\pm0.65$	$16.2\pm0.48$	$15.7\pm0.46$	$14.8\pm0.31$	$16.0\pm0.38$	$15.8\pm0.52$	$15.7\pm0.37$	$15.9\pm0.36$

Table	e 2
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		Males			Females	
Trait	df	F	р	Df	F	р
Carapace Width	340	5.31	< 0.01	305	17.56	< 0.01
Carapace Length	338	4.26	< 0.01	299	3.99	< 0.01
Cephalothorax depth	253	1.83	0.08	223	2.76	< 0.05
Left chelae depth	185	6.60	< 0.01	153	3.98	< 0.01
Right chelae depth	187	1.59	< 0.01	157	17.33	< 0.01
Heterochely	176	18.14	< 0.01	151	19.40	< 0.01
Pleopod length	216	6.22	< 0.01	171	4.16	< 0.01
Abdominal area	211	5.48	< 0.01	179	6.83	< 0.01
Periopod length	209	5.09	< 0.01	165	15.68	< 0.01
Propodus length	215	5.49	< 0.01	192	13.98	< 0.01

## Legends

Figure 1. Locations of the sampling sites.

Figure 2. Illustration of morphological dimensions measured. (Reproduced and modified from Crothers (1967) with the kind permission of J.H. Crothers).

Table 1 (a) and (b). Relative mean trait values for male (a) and female (b) shore crabs at each site. With the exception of carapace width, the mean trait values have been calculated for a crab of average size (45.6mm carapace width) to enable the comparison of populations of varying size. This was achieved using the regression equation of the relationship between each trait and carapace width. The error values represent the mean of the residuals of this relationship for each population. Traits that correlated with the gradient of endocrine disrupting effects are highlighted.

 Table 2. Inter-population differences in the morphological characteristics of male and female crabs.