

Pronounced and prevalent intersexuality does not impede the ‘Demon Shrimp’ invasion

Amaia Green Etxabe, Stephen Short, Tim Flood, Tim Johns, Alex Ford

Crustacean intersexuality is widespread and often linked to infection by sex-distorting parasites. However, unlike vertebrate intersexuality, its association with sexual dysfunction is unclear and remains a matter of debate. The ‘Demon Shrimp’, *Dikerogammarus haemobaphes*, an amphipod that has invaded continental waterways, has recently become widespread in Britain. Intersexuality has been noted in *D. haemobaphes* but not investigated further. We hypothesise that a successful invasive population should not display a high prevalence of intersexuality if this condition represents a truly dysfunctional phenotype. Experiments have indicated that particular parasite burdens in amphipods may facilitate invasions. The rapid and ongoing invasion of British waterways represents an opportunity to determine whether these hypotheses are consistent with field observations. This study investigates the parasites and sexual phenotypes of *D. haemobaphes* in British waterways, characterising parasite burdens using molecular screening, and make comparisons with the threatened *Gammarus pulex* natives. We reveal that invasive and native populations have distinct parasitic profiles, suggesting the loss of *G. pulex* may have parasite-mediated eco-system impacts. Furthermore, the parasite burdens are consistent with those previously proposed to facilitate biological invasions. Our study also indicates that while no intersexuality occurs in the native *G. pulex*, approximately 50% of *D. haemobaphes* males present pronounced intersexuality associated with infection by the microsporidian *Dictyocoela berillonum*. This unambiguously successful invasive population presents, to our knowledge, the highest reported prevalence of male intersexuality. This is the clearest evidence to date that such intersexuality does not represent a form of debilitating sexual dysfunction that negatively impacts amphipod populations.

Pronounced and prevalent intersexuality does not impede the 'Demon Shrimp' invasion

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amphipod, sexual dysfunction.

Abstract

Crustacean intersexuality is widespread and often linked to infection by sex-distorting parasites. However, unlike vertebrate intersexuality, its association with sexual dysfunction is unclear and remains a matter of debate. The 'Demon Shrimp', *Dikerogammarus haemobaphes*, an amphipod that has invaded continental waterways, has recently become widespread in Britain. Intersexuality has been noted in *D. haemobaphes* but not investigated further. We hypothesise that a successful invasive population should not display a high prevalence of intersexuality if this condition represents a truly dysfunctional phenotype. Experiments have indicated that particular parasite burdens in amphipods may facilitate invasions. The rapid and ongoing invasion of British waterways represents an opportunity to determine whether these hypotheses are consistent with field observations. This study

investigates the parasites and sexual phenotypes of *D. haemobaphes* in British waterways, characterising parasite burdens using molecular screening, and make comparisons with the threatened *Gammarus pulex* natives. We reveal that invasive and native populations have distinct parasitic profiles, suggesting the loss of *G. pulex* may have parasite-mediated eco-system impacts. Furthermore, the parasite burdens are consistent with those previously proposed to facilitate biological invasions. Our study also indicates that while no intersexuality occurs in the native *G. pulex*, approximately 50% of *D. haemobaphes* males present pronounced intersexuality associated with infection by the microsporidian *Dictyocoela berillonum*. This unambiguously successful invasive population presents, to our knowledge, the highest reported prevalence of male intersexuality. This is the clearest evidence to date that such intersexuality does not represent a form of debilitating sexual dysfunction that negatively impacts amphipod populations.

Introduction

Dikerogammarus haemobaphes (Eichwald, 1841), an effective predatory amphipod from the Ponto-Caspian (Bacela-Spychalska and van der Velde 2013), has spread through Europe and is now recognised as an extremely successful invader of British waterways (Green Etxabe and Ford 2014). *D. haemobaphes*, also known as the ‘demon shrimp’, invaded the British Isles more recently than the infamous ‘killer shrimp’ (*Dikerogammarus villosus*,

Sowinsky, 1894) (MacNeil et al. 2010) but is already more widespread (Fig. 1). Amphipods harbour many parasites that can drastically impact host populations by influencing the health, behaviour, reproduction and sex determination of their host (Hatcher and Dunn 2011; Bacela-Spychalska et al. 2012). The invasive *D. haemobaphes*, therefore, could not only out compete and prey on native amphipod species, but also introduce parasites into their new habitats. Screening parasites in invasive and native amphipod species associated with a rapid and on-going invasion will test hypotheses that particular parasitic burdens impact invasion success (MacNeil et al. 2003a; Hatcher and Dunn 2011; Hatcher et al. 2014).

Some amphipod-infecting parasites maximise their transmission via the host's progeny by converting males into reproductive females (Ford 2012). Infection by such parasites results in sex-biased populations (Terry et al. 2004) and, in cases of incomplete conversion, intersexuality, where secondary sex characteristics of both genders occur on an individual (Ford 2012). Intersex phenotypes are found in a range of animals (Matthiessen and Gibbs 1998; Harris et al. 2011; Hayes et al. 2002), including crustaceans (Ford 2012), where they are linked to parasitic infection (Short et al. 2012a) and environmental conditions (Dunn et al. 1996), as well the direct (Short et al. 2012b) and indirect (Jacobson et al. 2010) influence of contaminant exposure. In cases of parasitic infection, an incomplete conversion is thought to occur due to insufficient parasite burden, suboptimal conditions, or effective host responses (Dunn and Rigaud 1998; Kelly et al. 2002; Short et

al. 2014). Current evidence suggests the impact of female intersexuality is subtle (Ford et al. 2003; Kelly et al. 2004) or effectively non-existent (Glazier et al. 2012), and the female intersexuality observed in *D. haemobaphes* successfully invading Polish waterways (Bacela et al. 2009) is consistent with these hypotheses.

Male intersexuality is also widespread in amphipods, however, our understanding of its reproductive consequences is poorly understood relative to vertebrates (Harris et al. 2011). The extents of morphological and behavioural changes (McCurdy et al. 2008; Yang et al. 2008) have led to the suggestion (Yang et al. 2008; Ford 2012) that the impact of crustacean male intersexuality may be similar to that seen in vertebrates (Harris et al. 2011). Despite some evidence of intersexuality in invasive *D. haemobaphes* (Bacela et al. 2009), sexual phenotypes in this species have not been studied, even though notable levels of intersexuality in the unambiguously successful invading population would reveal considerable insight into the consequences of intersexuality for wild crustacean populations.

This study investigates the sexual phenotypes and parasites of *D. haemobaphes* and the native *Gammarus pulex* (Linnaeus, 1758) at multiple locations in British waterways to give insights into this rapidly invading species and expand our understanding of crustacean intersexuality.

Methods

Specimen characterisation

Amphipods were collected from Wallingford Bridge and Bell Weir, U.K. Amphipods were categorised into species and phenotypes: males, females, intersex males and intersex females. Intersex males were identified by genital papillae, between pereonite 7 and pleonite 1, in conjunction with rudimentary oostegites. Intersex females were identified by oostegites in conjunction with secondary genital papilla/e. Animals from each phenotype were measured from antennal joint to telson to obtain body length (ImageJ, v1.4u4) and comparisons were made using analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the post hoc Tamhanes-T2 test (SPSS v21).

Scanning electron microscopy

Specimens of *D. haemobaphes* were taken through transitional steps (100% ethanol to 100% hexamethyldisilazane, HMDS) then evaporated to dryness. The dry samples were mounted on SEM stubs, sputter coated with gold-palladium and examined using a scanning electron microscope (JEOL 6060LV) operating in high vacuum mode with a secondary electron detector active at an acceleration voltage of 10kV. Images were cropped and colourised using Adobe Photoshop (CS5v12).

PCR screen

DNA was purified from internal animal tissue (excluding gut) or eggs using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, UK). Samples were screened using previously described PCR primers for general parasites (Table 1). PCR

reactions were performed in 25 μ l volumes containing 10 ng of DNA as template, 1 U of Taq polymerase (Promega, UK), 5 μ l of 5x PCR buffer 1.25 mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.4 mM of each corresponding primer.

Sequence identification

PCR products were analysed using agarose gel electrophoresis containing 1x GelGreen[®] (Cambridge Bioscience, UK) for the presence of bands potentially representing amplified parasite sequences. Individual bands were isolated and DNA extracted using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, UK) and sequenced (Source Bioscience, UK), before a BLAST analysis was performed against sequences stored in GenBank (NCBI).

Results

Sexual phenotypes

Pronounced male intersex phenotypes were found in *D. haemobaphes* at both sites, with most specimens displaying well-developed oostegites with visible setae (Fig. 2). Almost half the male population presented intersex characteristics at both locations and very few cases of female intersexuality were observed (Fig. 3a). *G. pulex* was only found in conjunction with *D. haemobaphes* at one sampling site and no intersex phenotypes were found (Fig. 3a). Significant differences were found in lengths of *D. haemobaphes* phenotypes ($f = 3.885$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.23$) where normal males ($N = 32$) are significantly larger ($p = 0.04$) than females ($N = 52$). However, there is no

significant difference between intersex males ($N = 37$) and either females ($p = 0.735$) or males ($p = 0.328$).

Parasite screening

Screening of *D. haemobaphes* and *G. pulex* populations revealed evidence of infection by several parasites (Table 2). All *D. haemobaphes* females and intersex males were found infected with *D. berillorum*, with one female classed as weakly infected (Fig. 3b), as previously defined (Yang et al. 2011). The majority of males were also infected, although more weak infections were found (Fig. 3b). This pattern of *D. berillorum* infection was consistent at both collection sites and when combined in a Fisher's Exact test (two-tailed) reveal a significant difference in the level of infection between normal and intersex males ($p = 0.003$ using strong infections only, $p = 0.02$, using weak and strong infections). To confirm vertical transmission, the broods of ten infected females were also tested and all were infected by *D. berillorum*. Only one case of weak infection was found in *G. pulex* (Fig. 3b).

Discussion

Our screen of invasive and native species associated with an extremely successful, and ongoing, amphipod invasion reveals parasitic profiles strikingly consistent with hypotheses that particular parasitic burdens influence the dynamics of biological invasion (MacNeil et al. 2003a; Hatcher and Dunn 2011; Hatcher et al. 2014). The native *G. pulex* are infected with a microsporidian of the genus *Pleistophora*, which include behaviour altering

species known to increase the likelihood of predation on native amphipods and reduce their predatory behaviour when interacting with invaders (MacNeil et al. 2003a; Fielding et al. 2005). Sequences were also found for an acanthocephalan, most likely *Echinorhynchus truttae*. This species can both reduce its host's predatory behaviour and increase vulnerability to predation by fish (Fielding et al. 2003; MacNeil et al. 2003b; Lagrue et al. 2013). Consequently, the parasite burden of *G. pulex* may facilitate invasion of *D. haemobaphes* through British waterways by impairing the competitive abilities of the native population, a scenario consistent with recent experiments and population modelling (MacNeil et al. 2003a; Haddaway et al. 2012; Hatcher et al. 2014). In contrast, the invasive *D. haemobaphes* was almost ubiquitously infected by the vertically transmitted microsporidian *Dictyocoela berillonum*. It is possible the initial invasive population consisted of a small number of infected individuals and the current infection prevalence represents a parasitic founder-effect. Alternatively, given that parasite infection is predicted to influence invasion success (MacNeil et al. 2003a; Fielding et al. 2005; Hatcher et al. 2014) via trait-mediated effects, it is possible the high prevalence of *D. berillonum* occurs due to a subsequent enhancement in invasive capabilities.

The distinct parasitic profiles of *G. pulex* and *D. haemobaphes* may have ecological impacts. Our results suggest the eradication of *G. pulex* would lead to the removal of a pleistophoran microsporidian from the ecosystem potentially capable of causing disease in fish (Lom and Nilsen 2003) and an acanthocephalan indistinguishable from *E. truttae* (García-

Varela and Nadler 2005). Although *E. truttae* infection in fish does not appear to cause morbidity (Dorucu et al. 1995), infected amphipods are more vulnerable to fish predation due to altered habitat usage (MacNeil et al. 2003b; Lagrue et al. 2013). Therefore, loss of this parasite may alter prey abundance, even if the overall amphipod biomass is maintained following the displacement of *G. pulex*.

The sexual phenotype survey revealed that while no intersexuality was evident in *G. pulex*, *D. haemobaphes* presents striking levels of pronounced male intersexuality, where males exhibit unambiguous oostegites possessing rudimentary seta and are significantly smaller than normal males. In contrast, the low levels of female intersexuality in *D. haemobaphes* were much like those previously reported in Polish waters (Bacela et al. 2009). To our knowledge, this is the highest prevalence of male intersexuality recorded in an amphipod population (McCurdy et al. 2004; Ford and Fernandes 2005; Short et al. 2012b; Yang et al. 2011) and is the first evidence clearly linking *D. berillonum* with amphipod intersexuality (Terry et al. 2004; Yang et al. 2011). Other *Dictyocoela* species have been linked to both abnormal sexual phenotypes and female-biased sex ratios (Terry et al. 2004; Short et al. 2012a), however, the lack of female-bias in *D. haemobaphes* suggests *D. berillonum* is unable to fully convert males in to females. This could result from sub-optimal environmental conditions impacting the efficacy of conversion or the consequence of *D. berillonum* infecting an unfamiliar host. Whatever the cause, *D. haemobaphes* is of interest, as the association

between male intersexuality and sexual dysfunction is, despite recent molecular advances (Short et al. 2014), still poorly understood.

The fact that high levels of pronounced intersexuality has not impeded a successful amphipod invasion is the strongest evidence to date that crustacean male intersexuality is not, in any meaningful sense, equivalent to vertebrate intersexuality, which is commonly associated with serious sexual dysfunction. Furthermore, our findings are consistent with experimentally generated hypotheses that certain parasitic burdens facilitate biological invasions.

Acknowledgements

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356 **Table 1.** Primers used to conduct parasite screen.

357 **Table 2.** A screen of parasites using a subsample of the *D. haemobaphes*
358 *and G. pulex* populations revealed infection by a variety of parasites. Strong
359 infection as defined by previous studies (Yang et al. 2011).

360 **Fig. 1** Recent confirmed reports of *D. haemobaphes* (green triangles) and *D.*
 361 *villosus* (red circles) in UK waterways (EA – unpublished data January 2014;
 362 image courtesy of SE Environment Agency).

363 **Fig. 2** External sexual phenotypes. a) Normal female *D. haemobaphes* with
 364 only oostegites (green). b) Intersex male *D. haemobaphes* specimen
 365 presenting genital papillae (purple) alongside oostegites (green) with
 366 rudimentary setae. c) Normal male *D. haemobaphes* with only genital
 367 papillae (purple).

368 **Fig. 3** Frequency of sexual phenotypes and prevalence of *D. berillorum*
 369 infection. a) Sexual phenotypes found in two *D. haemobaphes* populations
 370 and *G. pulex*. b) Infection of *D. berillorum* found in *D. haemobaphes* and *G.*
 371 *pulex* found in both sites (NF=Normal Female, EIF=External Intersex Female,
 372 NM=Normal Male, EIM= External Intersex Male).

Figure 1(on next page)

Figure 1

Fig. 1 Recent confirmed reports of *D. haemobaphes* (green triangles) and *D. villosus* (red circles) in UK waterways (EA – unpublished data January 2014; image courtesy of SE Environment Agency).

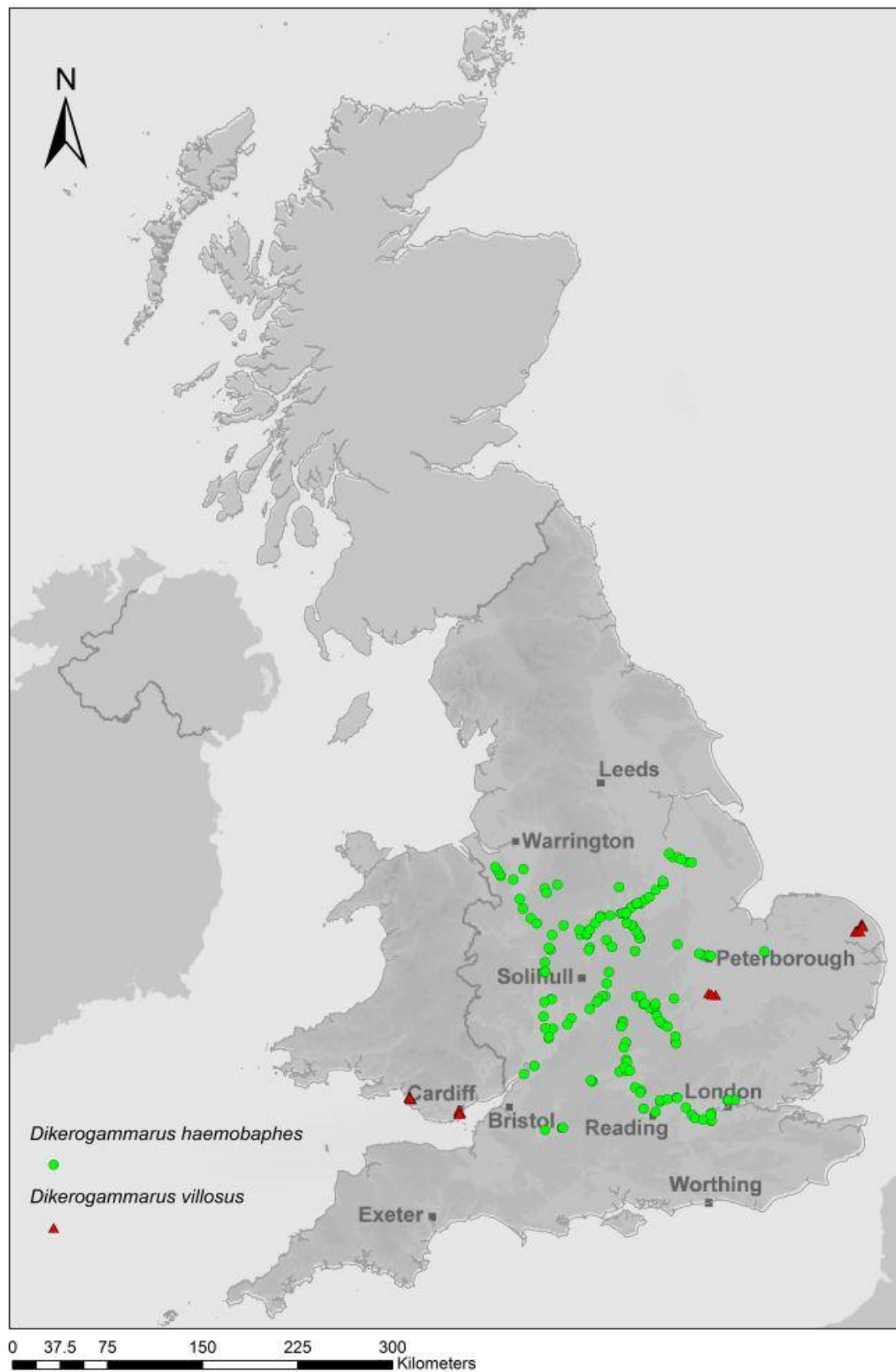


Figure 2 (on next page)

Figure 2

Fig. 2 External sexual phenotypes. a) Normal female *D. haemobaphes* with only oostegites (green). b) Intersex male *D. haemobaphes* specimen presenting genital papillae (purple) alongside oostegites (green) with rudimentary setae. c) Normal male *D. haemobaphes* with only genital papillae (purple).

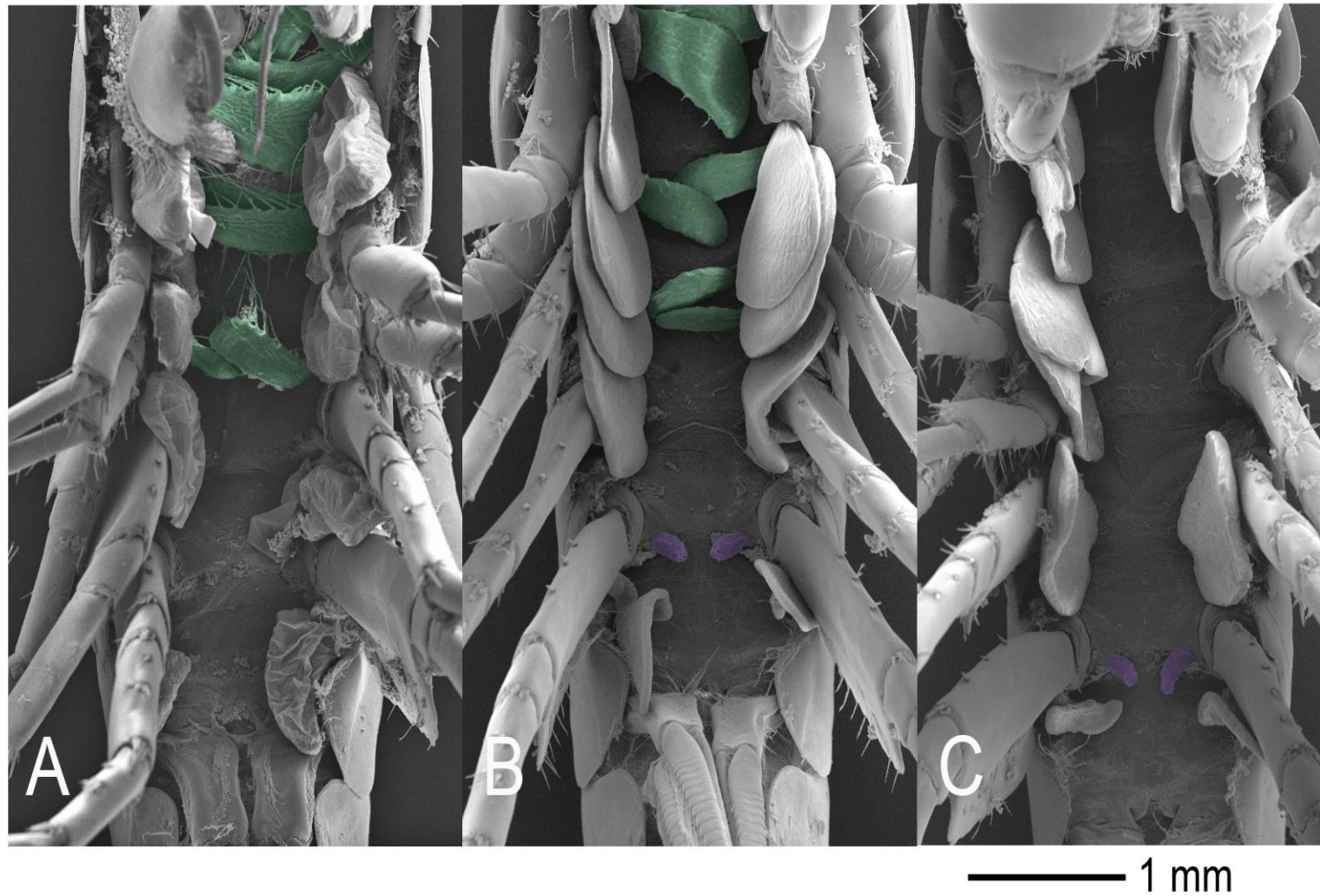


Figure 3(on next page)

Figure 3

Fig. 3 Frequency of sexual phenotypes and prevalence of *D. berillionum* infection. a) Sexual phenotypes found in two *D. haemobaphes* populations and *G. pulex*. b) Infection of *D. berillionum* found in *D. haemobaphes* and *G. pulex* found in both sites (NF=Normal Female, EIF=External Intersex Female, NM=Normal Male, EIM= External Intersex Male).

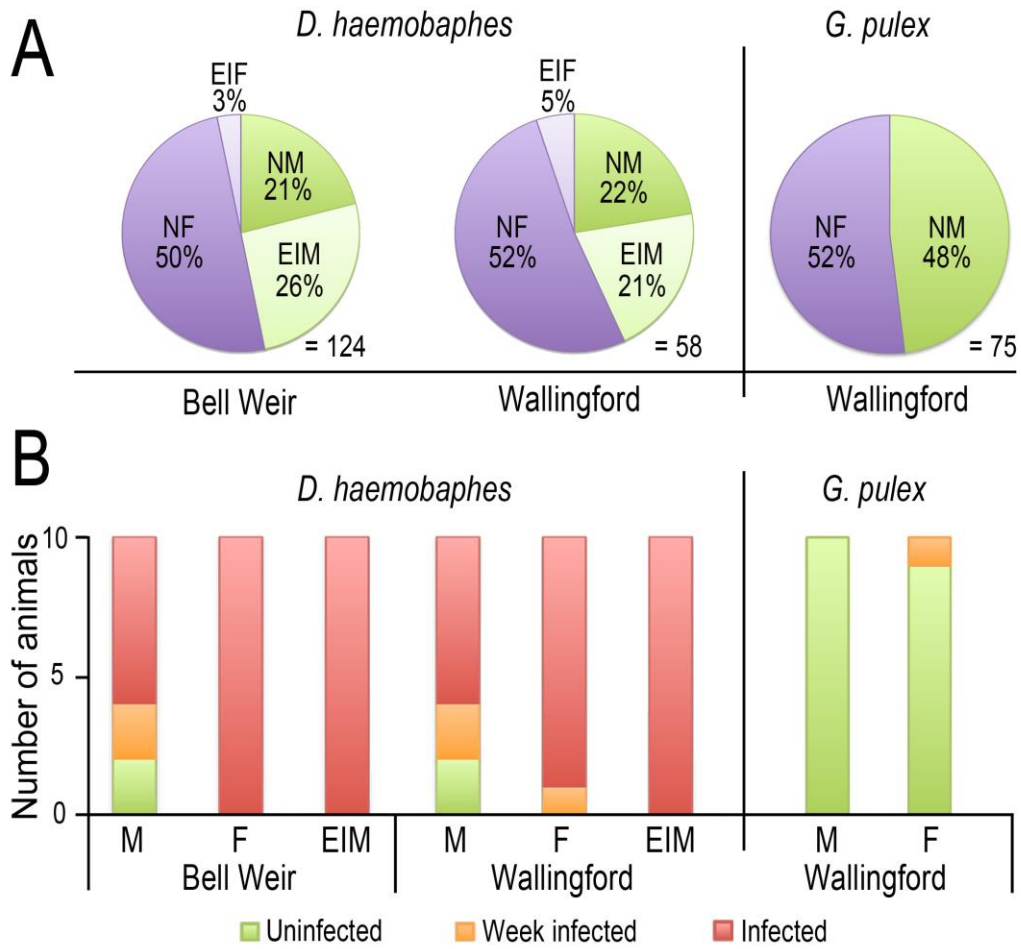


Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1

**Table
1.**

Target	Primer	Sequence	Reference
Microsporidea 16S	V1f	5'- CACCAGGTTGATTCTGCCTGAC- 3'	Weiss <i>et al.</i> , 1994
	1342AC	5'- ACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGGTAC AG-3'	Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Acanthocephala 18S	537F	5'-GCCGCGGTAATTCCAGCTC-3'	Near, Garey & Nadler, 1998
	1133R	5'-CTGGTGTGCCCCCTCCGTC-3'	
	1073F	5'-CGGGGGGAGTATGGTTGC-3'	
	18SR	5'- TGATCCTTCTGCAGGTTACCTAC -3'	
	18SF	5'- AGATTAAGCCATGCATGCGTAAG- 3'	
	549R	5'-GAATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG-3'	
Nematode/acanthocephala/apicomplexa	Nem18Slon gF	5'- CAGGGCAAGTCTGGTGCCAGCA GC-3'	Wood <i>et al.</i> , 2013
	Nem18Slon gR	5'- GACTTTCGTTCTTGATTAATGAA- 3'	
Paramyxea	Para18SF3	5'-CTACGGCGATGGCAGGTC-3'	Short <i>et al.</i> , 2012b
	Para18SR3	5'-GGGCGGTGTGTACAAAGG-3'	
<i>Wolbachia</i>	WSPEC-F	5'-CATACCTATTCGAAGGGATAG- 3'	Werren & Windsor, 2000
	WSPEC-R	5'-AGCTTCGAGTGAAACCAATTC- 3'	

Primers used to conduct parasite screen.

Table 2 (on next page)

Table 2

Table 2. A screen of parasites using a subsample of the *D. haemobaphes* and *G. pulex* populations revealed infection by a variety of parasites. Strong infection as defined by previous studies (Yang et al. 2011).

Amphipod	Phylum of isolated parasite	No of strongly infected animals	Length of ribosomal sequence	Primers used for amplification	GenBank accession of isolated sequence	Closest identity using a BLAST	GenBank accession of closest match	% Identity
<i>D. haemobaphes</i>	Nematoda	11/60	472bp	537F 1133R	KM486061	<i>Hysterothylacium deardorffoverstreetorum</i>	JF718550	100%
	Microsporidia	51/60	1148bp	V1f 1342AC	KM486059	<i>Dictyocoela berillonum</i>	KF830272	99.9%
<i>G. pulex</i>	Acanthocephala	3/20	547bp	537F 1133R	KM486063	<i>Echinorhynchus gadi</i> <i>Echinorhynchus truttae</i>	AY830156	98%
	Microsporidia	10/20	1135bp	V1f 1342AC	KM486060	<i>Pleistrophora hippoglossoides</i> <i>Pleistrophora typicalis</i> <i>Pleistrophora mulleri</i>	EF119339	99.6%
	Apicomplexa	10/20	402bp	537F 1133R	KM486064	<i>Mattesia geminate</i>	AY334568	90.2%

Table 2. A screen of parasites using a subsample of the *D. haemobaphes* and *G. pulex* populations revealed infection by a variety of parasites.

Strong infection as defined by previous studies (Yang *et al.*, 2011).