

1 **Unusual male size vs sperm count relationships in a coastal marine amphipod indicate**
2 **reproductive impairment by unknown toxicants**

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11
12 Abstract:

13 Sperm quantity/quality are significant reproductive endpoints with clear links to population level
14 dynamics. Amphipods are important model organisms in environmental toxicology. Despite this, field
15 monitoring of male fertility in invertebrates has rarely been used in monitoring programs. The aim of
16 this study was to compare sperm quality/quantity in an amphipod collected at six UK locations with
17 differing water quality. Due to low sperm counts and an observed lack of relationship between sperm
18 count and weight in amphipods collected from a nationally protected conservation area (Langstone
19 Harbour, England), we also compared datasets from this site over a decade to determine the temporal
20 significance of this finding. One collection to evaluate a female reproductive endpoint was also
21 performed at this site. Interestingly, this harbour consistently presented some of the lowest sperm
22 counts comparable to highly industrial sites and low eggs number from females. Amphipods collected
23 from all the sites, except from Langstone Harbour, presented strong positive correlations between
24 sperm count and weight. Given Langstone Harbour has several international and national protected
25 statutes primarily for marine life and birds, our results indicate that *E. marinus*, one important food

26 component for wading birds, might be impacted by unknown reproductive stressors. These unknown
27 stressors maybe related to agricultural runoff, leachate from historical landfills and effluent from
28 storm water overflows. This study highlights the importance of exploring new reproductive endpoints
29 such as sperm quantity/quality in marine monitoring programs.

30

31 Keywords: sperm quality; reproduction; invertebrates; ecotoxicology; pollution

32

33 Capsule: Unusual crustacean sperm counts and sperm count/weight parameters in a marine
34 conservation area highlight impacts of unknown reproductive toxicants

35 **Introduction**

36 Healthy reproduction is a vital process to maintain the integrity of populations and ecosystems
37 and gamete fertilization is a fundamental step to achieve successful reproduction. Spermatozoa are
38 specialized cells used to transfer genetic information from males to eggs and their quality depends on
39 a number of factors, like nutrition and other environmental conditions (Lewis and Ford, 2012). Sperm
40 quality is essential for successful fertilization and has been measured by several metrics including
41 sperm number, sperm viability, sperm motility, spermatophore size, acrosome reaction, melanization
42 and spermatophore absence rate and energy content of spermatophores (Harlioğlu et al., 2018). The
43 most commonly used methods to determine sperm quality are sperm count, sperm viability and sperm
44 motility (Harlioğlu et al., 2018).

45 Sperm count and sperm concentration are the main parameters to assess sperm quality in
46 mammals (Ravanos et al., 2018), insects (Strobl et al., 2019), and marine invertebrates (Harlioğlu et
47 al., 2018). Positive relationships between body size and sperm counts are already known in insects,
48 with larger males having more sperm cells; however, these relationships may vary depending on the
49 environment that the organisms live in (Strobl et al., 2019). In many crustaceans, larger males tend to
50 produce significantly more quantities of sperm than smaller males (Rodríguez et al., 2007). This
51 significant positive correlation between sperm counts and male weight was observed in many species
52 (Peralta-Martínez et al., 2019; Rodríguez et al., 2007). It has been noted that larger amphipods have
53 an advantage to pair with larger females in a process known as mate guarding (Elwood and Dick,
54 1990), so it is important to study whether this advantage is only because of the size or if sperm quality
55 of larger males is also higher than sperm quality of smaller males. Positive correlations between adult
56 male size and sperm counts have also been reported in amphipods, for example, in *Echinogammarus*
57 *marinus* (Yang et al., 2008), *Gammarus pulex* (Galipaud et al., 2011) and *Gammarus duebeni*
58 (Arundell et al., 2014). However, no relationship between these parameters were reported in *G.*
59 *duebeni* (Dunn et al., 2006), *G. pulex* (Lemaître et al., 2009) and *Gammarus roeseli* (Couchoux et al.,

60 2018). To date, no studies have looked carefully into the relationship between sperm counts and sperm
61 viability with male size in the context of environmental pollution.

62 Sperm viability is related to the ability of sperm cells to survive and for enough time to reach
63 the place of fertilization (Holman, 2009). It is usually measured with a combination of two fluorescent
64 dyes, SYBR-14, which stains live cells in green, and propidium iodide, which stains dead cells in red,
65 and the cells can be observed by flow cytometry or fluorescence microscopy (Lewis and Ford, 2012).
66 This method is relatively quick, it has been used for more than 50 years in reproduction and fertility
67 studies of human and domestic animals and only in the last decade it has been increasingly applied
68 to ecology (Holman, 2009). Holman (2009) and Gress and Kelly (2011) recommended to always
69 associate sperm viability with sperm count to avoid spurious results, since the sperm viability assay
70 could kill cells and reduce viability. According to these authors, a non-linear positive correlation
71 between sperm count and viability is usually associated with problems in the technique that kill sperm
72 cells and in this case sperm count should be used as a covariate for the analysis. A positive relationship
73 between sperm count and sperm viability was found in insect house cricket (Gress and Kelly, 2011).

74 Crustaceans, specifically amphipods, are ideal candidates as model organisms having been
75 successfully used in ecotoxicology for decades due to their short life-cycles and capacity to be
76 maintain and reproduce in the laboratory (Podlesińska and Dąbrowska, 2019). They are essential
77 components of aquatic ecosystems because they occupy several trophic niches and serve as food for
78 fish and birds (Glazier, 2014). *Echinogammarus marinus* is one of the most abundant amphipod
79 species in coastal communities in the northeast Atlantic (Martins et al., 2014), and lives mainly
80 associated with assemblages of macro algae *Fucus* spp. These amphipods have great importance in
81 the structure and functioning of intertidal communities, as an active predator of other invertebrates
82 and an important prey for wading birds (Martins et al., 2014). This species has been a potential model
83 organism in many fields of study, like ecology (Maranhão et al., 2001), reproductive biology (Ford et
84 al., 2003a) and ecotoxicology (Yang et al., 2008).

85 General observations in gammarid amphipods from temperate zones show that females
86 typically produce several broods in succession in warmer months (Hyne, 2011). *E. marinus*
87 population density usually have a clear seasonal variation, with peaks during summer months in
88 Southern England (Guler, 2012), Portugal (Maranhão et al., 2001) and Southwest Netherlands
89 (Vlasblom, 1969). Environmental parameters, specifically temperature, seems to impact reproductive
90 process of the amphipods (Maranhão et al., 2001). Sexual activity and recruitment happen during all
91 year in *E. marinus* population from Southern England (Guler, 2012) and Portugal; however, in
92 Portugal the recruitment was minimum by the end of winter (Maranhão et al., 2001). There is limited
93 information about the effects of contaminants on male amphipod reproduction (Lewis and Ford, 2012;
94 Yang et al., 2008). Decreases in amphipod sperm counts have been observed following exposures to
95 contaminants, like cyproterone acetate (Gismondi et al., 2017), methoxyfenozide, pyriproxyfen and
96 cadmium (Trapp et al., 2014) in laboratory studies. In field studies in Scotland, amphipods collected
97 from industrially polluted sites had been reported to have about 20% significantly fewer sperm
98 compared to the ones from reference sites (Yang et al., 2008). Studies assessing sperm viability have
99 rarely been conducted in amphipods, although a reduction in viability of sperm cells has already been
100 observed in amphipods exposed to ionizing radiation (Fuller et al., 2019). Low sperm counts and
101 sperm viability in amphipods have been linked to fewer fertilized eggs and brood success (Dunn et
102 al., 2006; Fuller et al., 2019), which highlights the potential impact that reduced sperm counts could
103 cause at the population level. This has been modelled for different species of amphipods, indicating
104 that a decrease in sperm counts below certain thresholds could lead to population level impacts (Ford
105 et al., 2012).

106 The aim of this study was to compare sperm counts and animal weight, and sperm count and
107 sperm viability relationships in *E. marinus* collected from England and Scotland using pre-published
108 and previously unpublished field and laboratory data. Following an unusual observation that
109 amphipods collected in one location (Langstone Harbour) in Southern England over a decade ago,

110 had what appeared to be no or very little relationship between sperm count and weight, we compared
111 datasets over a decade to determine the temporal significance of this finding. To complement this data
112 we also recorded egg/embryo numbers from females from Langstone Harbour and compared to the
113 published literature.

114

115 **Methods**

116 *Site selection and sampling*

117 *E. marinus* were manually collected from seaweed in the intertidal zone at five different sites
118 along the shores of the United Kingdom during different years and seasons (Table 1). In Scotland, the
119 organisms were collected at one industrially contaminated site (Inverkeithing, 56.025637, -3.385377),
120 and two references sites (Loch Fleet, 57.933809, -4.010696, and Thurso, 58.597759, -3.512685). In
121 England, the organisms were collected at Portsmouth Harbour (Tipner, 50.827035, -1.095151) and
122 Langstone Harbour (50.789624, -1.042419). Inverkeithing is characterized by high levels of PCBs,
123 heavy metals and paper fibres in the sediment. It is a semi-enclosed bay nearby to a shipbreaker's
124 yard and a paper mill (SEPA, 2000). Loch Fleet and Thurso are classified as Class A (excellent) under
125 the coastal classification scheme of water quality. Tipner has elevated levels of TBT and Irgarol 1051
126 (antifouling biocide) due to historical activity of antifouling painting on boats (Zhou, 2008).
127 Langstone Harbour had water quality classified as "excellent" by Havant Borough Council during
128 the period of sampling; however, it has a legacy of pollution with chemicals such as TBT and other
129 biocides (Cole et al., 2018) and it also regularly receives sewage effluents as storm water overflows
130 in periods of heavy rain (Langstone Harbour Board, 2020), which could increase nitrogen compounds
131 concentrations. According to an Environmental Agency report, Langstone Harbour is considered a
132 eutrophic area since 1994, and the surveys from 2009, 2011 and 2014 showed improvements in the
133 water classification, but opportunistic macroalgae cover in the intertidal area was still above than
134 recommend (Environmental Agency, 2016). Although nitrogen is considered good and oxygen high,

135 the overall water body from Langstone Harbour is classified as moderate and the water quality had
 136 failed in the chemical classification in 2013, 2014 and 2019 due to priority hazardous substances, like
 137 mercury and its compounds, and polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) (Environmental Agency,
 138 2021). Thurso (Thurso/Lab 1 and Thurso/Lab 2) and Langstone Harbour also had specimens
 139 maintained in laboratory to compare with field amphipods. This period of acclimation in the
 140 laboratory without females was thought might provide time to restore their spermatozoa (Table 1). In
 141 laboratory, the sex of the organisms was determined using a stereomicroscope and classified as males
 142 through the presence of genital papillae. Amphipods were visually inspected for parasites (trematode)
 143 infections and the sampling procedure was performed if they were from field groups, otherwise they
 144 were maintained in the laboratory away from the females (Table 1).

145

146 Table 1: *Echinogammarus marinus* collections used in this study.

Site	Collection date	Sample number	Condition	Time maintained in the laboratory (days)	Analysis	Anaesthetic	Medium form sperm cells
Loch Fleet	April/May2007	47	Field sample	-	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Thurso	April/May2007	58	Field sample	-	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Thurso/Lab 1	April/May 2009	15	Laboratory	20	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Thurso/Lab 2	November 2008	34	Laboratory		Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Inverkeithing	April/May2007	47	Field sample	-	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Tipner	December 2009	30	Field sample	-	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Langstone Harbour	October/December 2009	58	Field sample	-	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Langstone Harbour/Lab	March/April 2012	11	Laboratory	14	Sperm count	Carbonated seawater	Distilled water
Langstone Harbour/Lab	October 2015	20	Laboratory	28	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES
Langstone Harbour/Lab	November 2016	21	Laboratory	28	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES

Langstone Harbour/Lab	June 2017	11	Laboratory	9	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES
Langstone Harbour/Lab	July 2017	10	Laboratory	33	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES
Langstone Harbour/Lab	October 2017	6	Laboratory	9	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES
Langstone Harbour/Lab	November 2017	7	Laboratory	33	Sperm count and viability	Clove oil	Leibovitz L-15 and HEPES
Langstone Harbour	October 2020	116	Field sample	-	Egg numbers	Clove oil	-

147

148 *Sperm counts and sperm viability*

149 Sperm counts of amphipods collected in Scotland (Thurso, Loch Fleet and Inverkeithing) in
150 2007 have already been published in Yang et al. (2008). The methods used for sperm counts and
151 sperm viability are described in Yang et al. (2008) and Fuller et al. (2019). Organisms were
152 anaesthetized using carbonated water or clove oil (Table 1) and the organisms were weighted (mg).
153 Testes were dissected onto a cavity slide under stereo microscope, using micro-dissecting scissors
154 and tweezers. Spermatozoa in seminal vesicles were smeared onto the cavity slide and mixed with
155 distilled water or a medium made with Leibovitz L-15 Medium (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) and HEPES
156 (Fisher Scientific, UK) (Table 1), then transferred to an Eppendorf tube with the same solution.
157 Distilled water and L-15/HEPES probably have different osmotic concentrations than marine sperm
158 cells. The modifications in sampling procedure were necessary to preserve cell integrity through the
159 whole procedure for sperm viability, which was assessed using LIVE/DEAD viability kit (Molecular
160 Probes Inc) and a fluorescence microscope with filters of 340–480nm and 450–490nm for SYBR-14
161 and PI staining, respectively. The cell suspension was mixed, added to a Neubauer haemocytometer
162 and number of sperm cells were counted as three technical replicates for each organism. For sperm
163 viability analysis, number of live and dead cells were counted separately. Total sperm count and sperm
164 viability (% of live sperm) were calculated as the average of three technical replicates. Sperm count

165 data was grouped according to the condition (field or maintained in laboratory) and collection site,
166 normalized by organism weight and means were calculated to compare the different datasets.

167

168 *Egg numbers*

169 Females collected at Langstone Harbour in 2020 (n = 116) were anaesthetized with clove oil,
170 weighted and embryos were removed from gravid females using a fine pipette. The embryos were
171 counted and classified as their stage as described by Sheader and Chia (1970). Embryo stages were
172 grouped as early (stages 1 to 3) and late (stages 4 and 5) as recommended by Ford et al. (2003a). All
173 embryos were classified within two days of collection to avoid further development. Egg numbers
174 were normalized by organism weight.

175

176 *Statistical analysis*

177 Sperm count data was normalized by fourth root transformation. One-way ANCOVA was
178 employed to compare different sites and controls from laboratory, using weight as covariate to
179 account for the effect of weight on sperm count results. Pearson's correlation analysis was also applied
180 to evaluate the relationship between sperm count and animal weight for each collection site. Data
181 from Langstone Harbour was separately compared using a one-way ANCOVA to evaluate the
182 differences in the sperm counts among collection years using animal weight as covariate. One-way
183 ANCOVA was also used to evaluate differences of sperm counts among different collection months
184 in 2009 and 2016, also using animal weight as covariate. Weight was used as covariate for statistical
185 analysis and to normalized data to calculate means, because it is considered a good proxy for length
186 (Ford et al., 2003a). Sperm viability was evaluated with one-way ANCOVA to compare differences
187 among period of collection using sperm count as covariate. For all tests, residuals were tested for
188 normality with Shapiro-Wilk test. Residuals were not normal only when data from all sites was

189 grouped together ($p = 0.009$); however, ANCOVA is robust across non-normal distributions
190 (Rheinheimer and Penfield, 2001).

191

192 **Results**

193 Sperm counts and relationships between sperm counts and animal weight of *E. marinus*
194 collected at different sites from Scotland and England were compared (Figure 1A). Significant
195 differences were detected among sites and covariate animal weight (ANCOVA, $F = 32.992$, $DFn = 7$,
196 $DFd = 366$, $p = 1.75 \times 10^{-35}$ and $F = 55.758$, $DFn = 1$, $DFd = 366$, $p = 6.06 \times 10^{-13}$, respectively)
197 indicating a strong positive relationship between amphipod weight and sperm counts. Multiple
198 comparison analysis (Bonferroni method) indicated that the sites were separated into three distinct
199 groups that were significantly different from each other. The first group included Inverkeithing
200 (Scotland) and Tipner (England), which are both industrially polluted sites and boat breakers yards.
201 Oddly, Langstone Harbour and Langstone Harbour/Lab also fell into this group with the lowest sperm
202 counts. The second group included Loch Fleet and Thurso which are reference sites in Scotland, with
203 intermediate sperm count values. The third group included the two groups of organisms maintained
204 in laboratory collected in Thurso, with the highest sperm counts. Langstone Harbour sperm counts
205 normalized by weight were 70% lower in field amphipods compared to field amphipods from Thurso
206 (Figure 2). Comparing amphipods maintained in laboratory, sperm counts from Langstone Harbour
207 were between 67% and 74% lower compared to Thurso lab specimens (Figure 2).

208 Sperm counts of amphipods at Langstone Harbour sampled from the field or maintained in
209 laboratory also did not have a clear relationship with animal weight (Figure 1A); however, the other
210 sites had a significant positive correlation between these two parameters, with large amphipods
211 presenting higher sperm counts (Table 2). Thurso/Lab 1 also did not have a significant positive
212 correlation between sperm count and male weight, however, this is possibly due to the smaller number
213 of amphipods sampled ($n = 15$) compared to the other sites (Loch Fleet $n = 47$, Thurso $n = 58$,

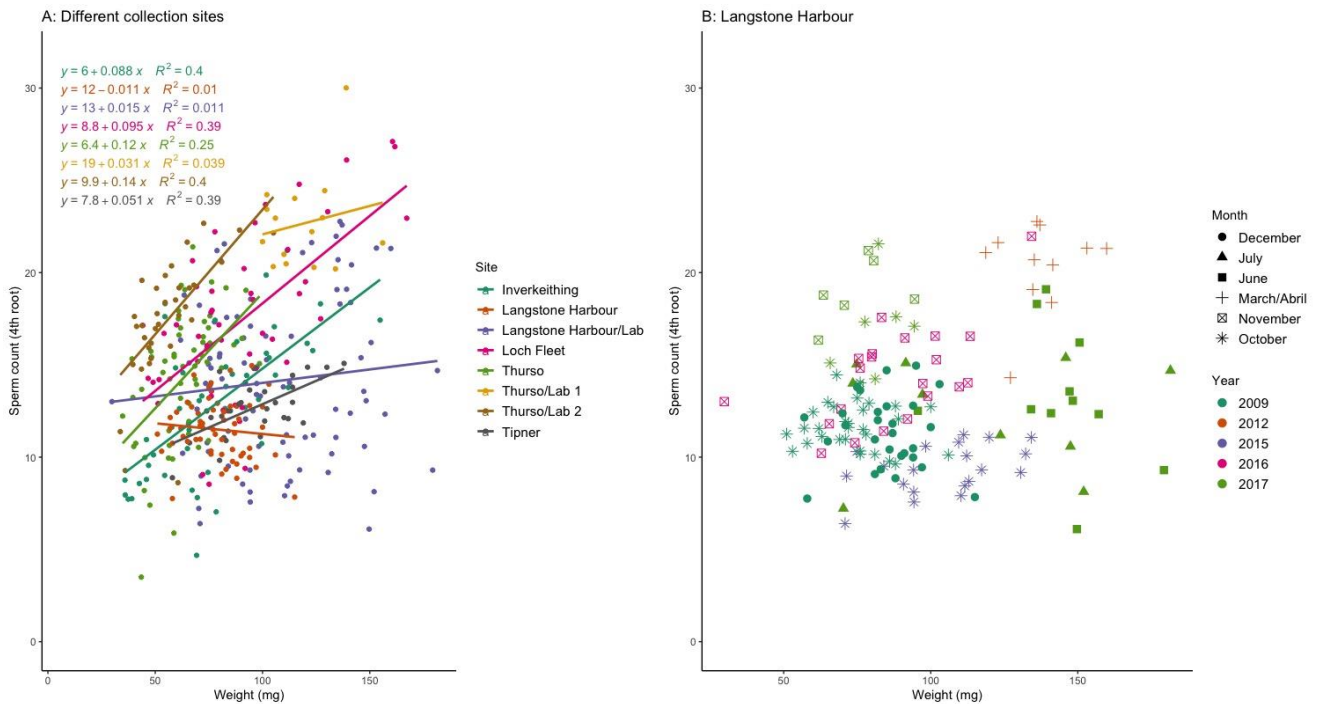
214 Inverkeithing n = 47, Langstone Harbour n = 58, Langstone Harbour/Lab = 84, Tipner n = 30,
 215 Thurso/Lab 2 n = 34).

216 Sperm counts from amphipods collected at Langstone Harbour were compared among years
 217 (Figure 1B). Significant differences were observed among different years (ANCOVA, F = 4.273, DF_n
 218 = 1, DF_d = 141, p = 0.041); however, animal weight was not significant covariate (ANCOVA, F =
 219 3.739, DF_n = 1, DF_d = 141, p = 0.055) in any year of collection. The sample years clustered roughly
 220 into three groups. The first group included data from 2009 and 2015 and it had the lowest values of
 221 sperm count. The second group included only data from 2012 and it had the highest sperm counts,
 222 however, the values were still lower than sperm counts from amphipods from reference sites in
 223 Scotland. And the third group included data from 2016 and 2017 with intermediate sperm count
 224 values. Sperm counts from amphipods collected were also compared using the different periods that
 225 they were maintained in the laboratory as covariate. Significant differences among the years of
 226 collection were the same as previous analysis comparing amphipods collected in Langstone Harbour
 227 in different years using weight as covariate and without considering the time in the laboratory
 228 (ANCOVA, F = 5.473, DF_n = 1, DF_d = 141, p = 0.021) and period in laboratory was not a significant
 229 covariate (ANCOVA, F = 0.593, DF_n = 1, DF_d = 141, p = 0.442).

230

231 Table 2: Pearson's correlation between sperm count and weight of *Echinogammarus marinus*
 232 collected at different sites from England and Scotland.

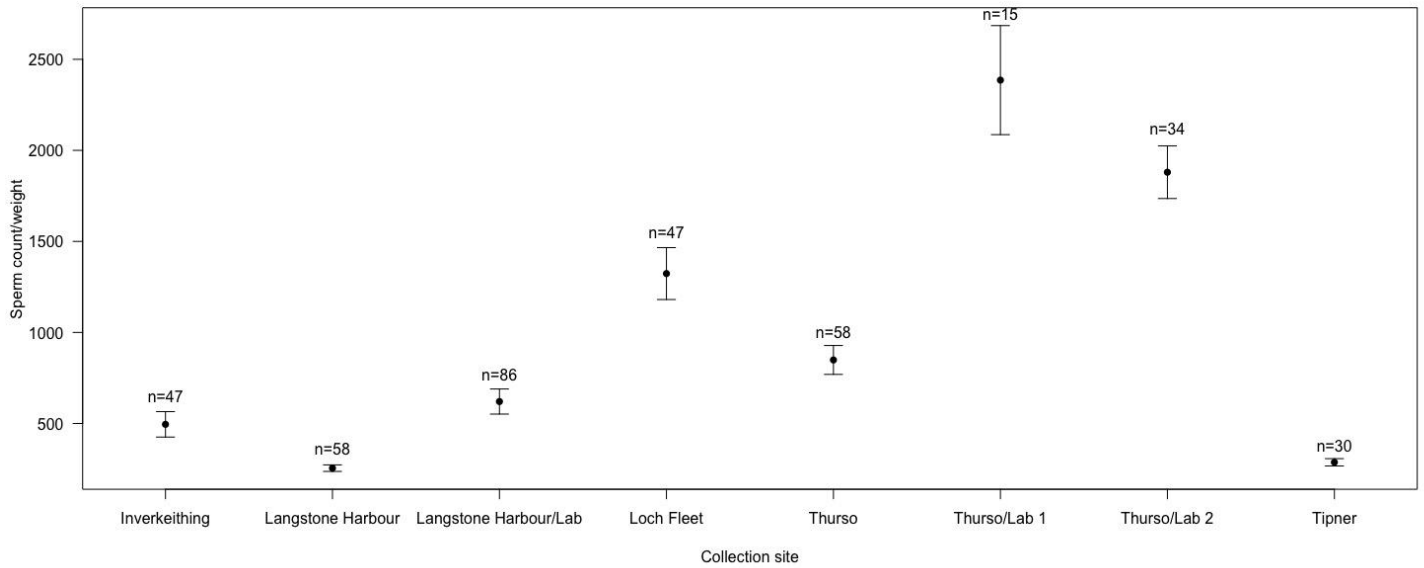
Collection site	Pearson's correlation		
	t.test value	df	p value
Loch Fleet	5.3115	45	3.24 x 10 ⁻⁶
Thurso	4.3325	56	6.18 x 10 ⁻⁵
Inverkeithing	5.5274	45	1.56 x 10 ⁻⁶
Thurso/Lab. 1	0.72724	13	0.48
Thurso/Lab. 2	4.6323	32	5.77 x 10 ⁻⁵
Tipner	4.2062	28	0.000241
Langstone Harbour	-0.75066	56	0.456
Langstone Harbour/Lab.	0.96308	84	0.3383



234 Figure 1: Relationship between sperm counts (normalized by the fourth root) and weight (mg). A:
 235 *Echinogammarus marinus* collected at different sites from Scotland and England (for linear Pearson
 236 correlation results see Table 2). B: Sperm count from *Echinogammarus marinus* collected at
 237 Langstone Harbour in different periods. Amphipods from 2009 were sampled from the field and
 238 amphipods from 2012, 2015, 2016 and 2017 were maintained in the laboratory before sampling.

239

240 The time of the year also seemed to influence sperm counts. Therefore, another comparison
 241 was done in the years of 2009 and 2017, as these had sufficient data available for comparisons among
 242 months. In 2009, animal weight did not have significant effect on sperm count (ANCOVA, $F = 0.237$,
 243 $DF_n = 1$, $DF_d = 55$, $p = 0.628$) and October and December sperm counts had similar values with no
 244 significant difference (ANCOVA, $F = 0.245$, $DF_n = 1$, $DF_d = 55$, $p = 0.622$). In 2017, animal weight
 245 had no significant effect on sperm count (ANCOVA, $F = 0.069$, $DF_n = 1$, $DF_d = 29$, $p = 0.794$);
 246 however, there was a significant difference among months (ANCOVA, $F = 3.464$, $DF_n = 3$, $DF_d =$
 247 29 , $p = 0.029$). November had a significantly higher sperm count than July. The other months, June
 248 and October, had no significant differences between them.

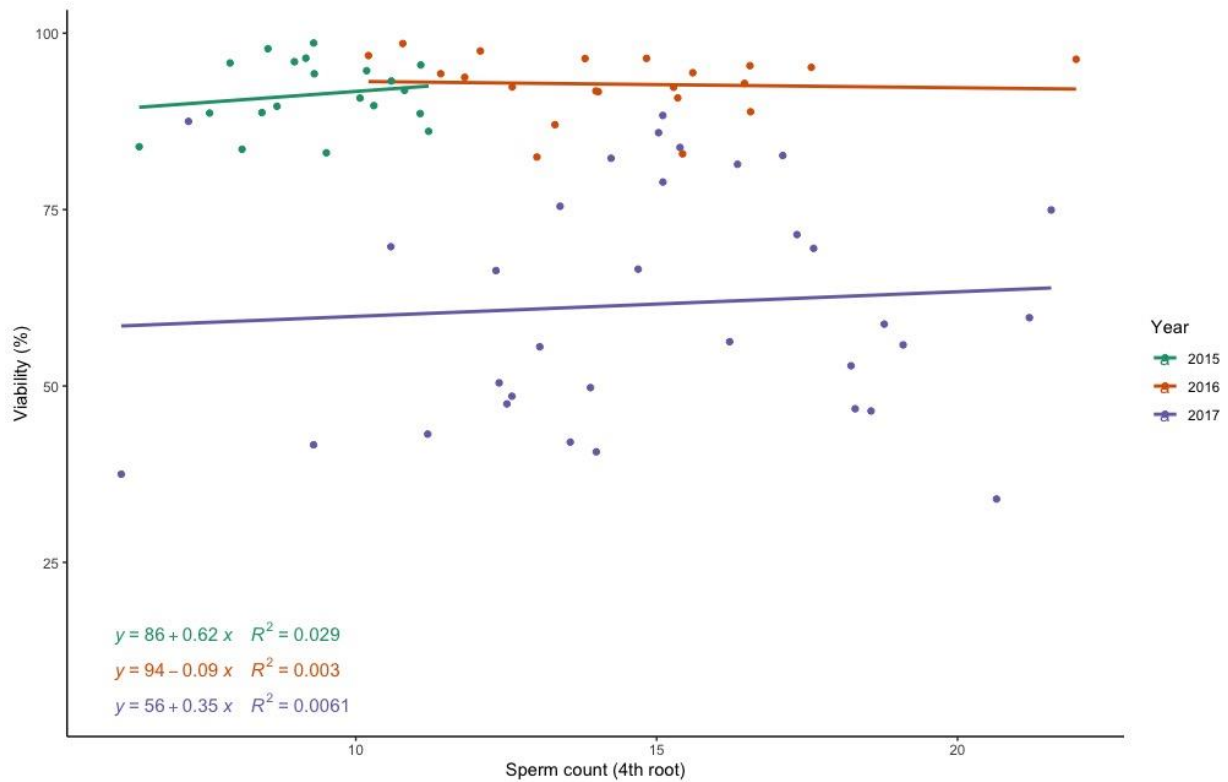


249 Figure 2: Mean \pm SEM of *Echinogammarus marinus* sperm counts normalized by weight collected
 250 in different sites from the United Kingdom. Groups called Lab were collected from the respective site
 251 and maintained in laboratory for a period (for more information about this period see Table 1).

252

253 Sperm viability was evaluated only in amphipods from Langstone Harbour collected in 2015,
 254 2016 and 2017 (Figure 3). A significant reduction in sperm viability was observed in 2017 compared
 255 to 2015 and 2016 (ANCOVA, $F = 65.372$, $DF_n = 1$, $DF_d = 71$, $p < 0.05$). However, no significant effect
 256 of the covariate sperm count was observed on sperm viability (ANCOVA, $F = 3.969$, $DF_n = 1$, DF_d
 257 $= 71$, $p > 0.05$). Interestingly, even with low sperm counts, amphipods from Langstone Harbour had
 258 high sperm viability.

259



260 Figure 3: Sperm viability and sperm count (transformed by the fourth root) of *Echinogammarus*
 261 *marinus* collected in Langstone Harbour, England, in different periods.

262

263 Egg numbers from females collected in Langstone Harbour were 18.55±7.98 for early
 264 stages, 14.77±5.98 for late stages and 17.04±7.42 for total eggs (Table 3). Egg numbers normalized
 265 by organism weight (mg) were 0.39±0.21 for early stages, 0.28±0.10 for late stages and 0.35±0.18
 266 for total eggs (Table 3).

267

268 Table 3: Egg numbers from *Echinogammarus marinus* females collected in Langstone Harbour,
 269 Southern England.

Stage	Egg numbers		Egg numbers/organism weight (mg)	
	Mean	St. deviation	Mean	St. deviation
Early	18.55	7.98	0.39	0.21
Late	14.77	5.98	0.28	0.10
Total (early + late)	17.04	7.42	0.35	0.18
Hatched	6.15	5.61	0.13	0.12

270

271 **Discussion**

272 In this study, we evaluated the relationship between sperm counts and weight in a marine
273 amphipod collected from different regions of Scotland and England. Furthermore, the relationships
274 between sperm counts and animal weight, and sperm count and sperm viability were analysed, since
275 there is limited understanding of these relationships in these organisms.

276 A positive correlation between sperm counts and animal weight in *E. marinus* was found at all
277 sampling sites and organisms maintained in laboratory, except Langstone Harbour and Thurso/Lab1.
278 The most contaminated sites presented organisms with the lowest sperm counts, as previously
279 published by Yang et al. (2008), with exception of Langstone Harbour, which also presented
280 specimens with low sperm counts despite being an area with national and international conservation
281 protection. As expected, those specimens kept in the laboratory for a period of time presented the
282 higher sperm counts compared to those collected directly from the field due to a period of abstinence
283 from females. It is also important to highlight that at Langstone Harbour, no relationship between
284 sperm counts and male size (weight) was observed, regardless of the year and month when organisms
285 were collected, which we believe is unusual since significant and positive relationships occurred at
286 all other collection sites. Although one cannot rule out that the lack of this relationship and low sperm
287 counts in *E. marinus* from Langstone Harbour could be related to ecological factors, such as
288 population more actively reproductive, or genetic differences among different populations, we
289 propose another explanation could be related to chemical and/or physiochemical variables. The
290 comparison between collection sites corroborates this and potentially rules our reproductive activity,
291 since amphipods from Langstone Harbour sampled from field and maintained in laboratory (i.e.
292 separated from females) had similar sperm counts to places known to be polluted (Inverkeithing and
293 Tipner) and significantly lower sperm counts compared to Scotland's reference sites. Egg numbers

294 from females collected in Langstone Harbour were also low compared to reference locations and
295 similar to those previously recorded at the polluted site, Inverkeithing (Ford et al., 2003b).

296 Organisms from Tipner in Southern England also had low sperm counts, which are possibly related
297 to a variety of legacy pollutants, since this location has a history of contamination due to boating
298 activity (Zhou, 2008). Interestingly, Inverkeithing and Tipner are both boat breakers yards. Specimens
299 kept in the laboratory from both England and Scotland had approximately 30% higher sperm counts
300 than those from their respective field collected locations. Organisms maintained in the laboratory
301 were kept away from females, so they had enough time to restore spermatozoa, which could explain
302 their higher sperm counts. Amphipods take between 6 to 12 days to replenish the sperm (Couchoux
303 et al., 2018; Lemaître et al., 2009).

304 Langstone Harbour is a protected area, being a site of special scientific interest (SSSI) and
305 special area of conservation (SAC) and is also a Ramsar Convention of Wetlands of International
306 Importance (also known as Convention on Wetlands) for bird observation (Baily et al., 2002).
307 However, it has a legacy of pollutants, like TBT and other biocides (Cole et al., 2018), due to
308 antifouling painting boat activity (El-Shenawy et al., 2010), and nowadays it frequently receives
309 discharges from storm water overflows due to heavy rains (Langstone Harbour Board, 2020) and may
310 still be impacted by a legacy of leachate from old landfills (Walton and Higgins, 1998). For example,
311 the site where *E. marinus* were collected is situated close to a historic landfill for naval waste
312 containing asbestos and heavy metals, such as lead, mercury, zinc and cadmium (Walton and Higgins,
313 1998). The extent to which this impacts coastal waters is unknown. Eutrophic conditions were already
314 observed in Langstone Harbour in 1981 (Montgomery and Soulsby, 1981) and this area had received
315 several alerts classifications due to high levels of nutrients and eutrophic conditions (Leaf and
316 Chatterjee, 1999; Maier et al., 2009). Surveys from 2009, 2011 and 2014 in Langstone Harbour
317 showed improvements in the water classification and in opportunistic macroalgae cover in the
318 intertidal area. However, overall the data indicate that Langstone Harbour still had elevated

319 concentrations of nutrients especially in winter months (Environmental Agency, 2016). Sewage
320 effluent is usually considered responsible for the excess of nitrogen and phosphate compounds in
321 coastal areas (Taylor, 1999), which could lead to algal blooms and algal mats, impacting the O₂
322 availability and, consequently, the local organisms (Baily et al., 2002; Maier et al., 2009; Taylor,
323 1999). Langstone Harbour area includes the major conurbation of Portsmouth, Hayling Island and
324 Havant, the upper catchment is mainly arable land, with areas of woodland, agricultural and cultivated
325 lands, and the lower catchment is significantly more urbanised, with few industrial and commercial
326 areas (Environmental Agency, 2016). During 2013 to 2019, overall water body from Langstone
327 Harbour was classified as “moderate” and the water quality has failed in chemical classification in
328 2013, 2014 and 2019. due to priority hazardous substances, like polybrominated diphenyl ethers
329 (PBDE), and mercury and its compounds (Environmental Agency, 2021). Therefore, organisms from
330 Langstone Harbour are exposed throughout their life stages to different types of contamination.

331

332 These conditions are a potential cause for the low sperm counts observed at Langstone Harbour *E.*
333 *marinus* similar to Inverkeithing and Tipner, although the absence of a relationship between sperm
334 count and animal weight is worth highlighting and not observed in previous recorded locations. In
335 aquatic wildlife a variety of contaminants have been shown to adversely affect sperm counts or
336 viability. For example, Carp fish (*Cyprinus carpio*) exposed to high concentrations of nitrite and
337 nitrate had a significant decreased of sperm motility (Epler et al., 2000) and lower sperm counts when
338 cultivated in eutrophic ponds (Bieniarz et al., 1996). Mosquitofish (*Gambusia holbrooki*) had a
339 decrease of total sperm counts per spermatozeugmatum as nitrate concentration increased, which
340 could be related to the increased apoptosis of sperm cells due to potential conversion of nitrate to
341 nitrite and ultimately toxic nitric oxide *in vivo* (Edwards and Guillette, 2007).The prawn
342 (*Machobrachium nipponense*) exposed to hypoxia showed significant decrease of testicular weight
343 and sperm membrane integrity, and a significant increase of apoptosis rate in spermatids (Sun et al.,

344 2020). In amphipods, decreases in sperm counts have been observed following exposures to
345 pesticides and metals in laboratory studies (Trapp et al., 2014; Gismondi et al., 2017). Therefore, it
346 would be difficult to pinpoint a particular stressor at this stage or rule out other ecological factors at
347 this stage.

348 The data from this work also demonstrated a seasonal variability of sperm counts in Langstone
349 Harbour. Amphipods collected in July had significantly lower sperm counts than the ones from
350 November. Therefore, the period of collection should be considered for future monitoring studies.
351 This variability on sperm counts among the months is possibly related to breeding periods. Gammarid
352 amphipods in temperate zones usually produce several successive broods during warmer months
353 (Hyne, 2011), thus males collected in the summer would likely have lower sperm counts compared
354 to those collected in the winter, due to the increased use of sperm for breeding. Also, in *E. marinus*
355 populations, males dominate from August to November and females dominate from April to July
356 (Guler et al., 2012). Photoperiod appear to be an influential factor in determining sex of *E. marinus*
357 under laboratory conditions, since male bias was observed in broods over a long-day photoperiod
358 regime and female bias was observed in broods during short-day photoperiod regime (Guler et al.,
359 2012), therefore, with fewer males in July, they would have less time to replenish sperm compared to
360 November, when the male population is larger than the female population. Horseshoe crabs also suffer
361 the influence of season on sperm concentrations, which were more elevated in spring than autumn
362 (Sasson et al., 2012).

363 Sperm viability is also important to reproduction, since sperm cells have to be viable to
364 fertilize the eggs (Holman, 2009). Sperm viability is commonly evaluated in studies with mammals,
365 however, it is not very commonly used in marine invertebrates (Lewis and Ford, 2012). A relationship
366 between sperm viability and egg numbers was already recorded in *E. marinus*, indicating that low
367 sperm quality could reduce the fecundity (Fuller et al., 2019). No relationship between sperm counts
368 and sperm quality was observed in Langstone Harbour and sperm viability appeared relatively high

369 but variable between years. Further studies on the variability between sites would be useful to
370 understand what might be considered ‘good’ baseline levels of sperm viability Sperm counts and
371 sperm viability are relevant to evaluate impacts that males can cause on reproduction. Reductions in
372 sperm counts have already been associated with a decrease in eggs production and embryos viability
373 (Lemaître et al., 2009). Also, sperm viability has a positive relationship with eggs number produced
374 by the females (Fuller et al., 2019). Moreover, modelling has predicted that a reduction in sperm
375 counts would decrease the female brood size, causing effects on population size and, if perpetuated,
376 the population could collapse (Ford et al., 2012). Amphipods from Langstone Harbour maintained in
377 laboratory for a period of time were not able to reach similar sperm counts to the ones from reference
378 sites. Low sperm counts and eggs number of *E. marinus* from Langstone Harbour should be
379 monitored, because in a long-term time it could affect the densities and overall vigor of these
380 population. If this was the case, it is likely that the impacts would be passed on wading birds and
381 marine life for which amphipods are an important food source (Martins et al., 2014). In Langstone
382 Harbour population density of *E. marinus* was estimated between 5.8 to 97 individuals/m² depending
383 on the month of collection (Guler, 2012), however more southerly populations in Mondego estuary
384 (Portugal) the population density of this species is considerably higher (100 to 600 individual/m²
385 depending on the season of collection) (Maranhão et al., 2001). Whether the low sperm counts and
386 low population densities are currently linked is currently unknown, but an important research question
387 for further enquiry. While the causal agents for these unusual sperm indices have not been identified,
388 this study has highlighted the importance of evaluating sperm quantity/quality in environmental
389 monitoring.

390

391 **Acknowledgment:**

392 The authors acknowledge São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP – grant numbers 2019/14398-2
393 and 2017/16168-9) for a scholarship to M.T. Botelho. ATF is funded through the EU Interreg

394 REDPOL project - Reduction of Pollution by endocrine disrupting compounds at source. Graphical
395 abstract created with BioRender.com.

396

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