



1. Introduction

The naked dinoflagellate, *Karenia brevis*, is the most common harmful algal bloom (HAB)-forming species in the Gulf of Mexico (Finucane, 1964; Rounsefell and Nelson, 1966; Tester and Steidinger, 1997; Magaña et al., 2003). Cells of *K. brevis* produce brevetoxins (PbTx), a group of intracellular, lipid-soluble biotoxins which bind to site 5 on the voltage-sensitive sodium channels of excitable cells, causing permanent activation of the channel and disruption of nervous transmission (Poli et al., 1986; Baden, 1989; Baden et al., 2005). In addition to PbTx, *K. brevis* produces other chemically characterized and uncharacterized, often unstable compounds that have been shown to have allelopathic, ichthyotoxic, and hemolytic effects (Baden et al., 2005; Kubanek et al., 2005, 2007; Neely and Campbell, 2006; Steidinger, 2009).

Blooms of *Karenia brevis* are initiated offshore before moving to inshore areas, where cells can reach high concentrations ($>10^5$ cells mL⁻¹), persist for long periods (>18 months), and cover large areas ($>25,000$ km²) (Gunter et al., 1948; Rounsefell and Nelson, 1966; Tester and Steidinger, 1997; Hu et al., 2006; Brand and Compton, 2007; Steidinger et al., 2008; Steidinger, 2009; Heil and Steidinger, 2009; Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission, FWC, monitoring data). Once inshore, blooms can have substantial negative effects, including human health problems, caused by inhalation of aerosolized toxins and ingestion of toxic shellfish leading to neurotoxic shellfish poisoning (NSP) (Steidinger et al., 1998; Poli et al., 2000; Backer et al., 2003; Pierce and Henry, 2008; Pierce et al., 2011; Kirkpatrick et al., 2004; Fleming et al., 2005). Occasional catastrophic bloom events have also resulted in mass mortalities of marine mammals, birds, fish, crustaceans, bivalve molluscs and other marine invertebrates (Gunter et al., 1948; Finucane, 1964; Simon and Dauer, 1972; Summerson and Peterson, 1990; Tester and Fowler, 1990; Landsberg, 2002; Shumway et al., 2003; Stumpf et al., 2003; Vargo et al., 2004; Flewelling et al., 2005; Hu et al., 2006).

To date, the main interest in *Karenia brevis* blooms and bivalve molluscs such as the eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) has been driven by their public health significance as vectors of NSP. Shellfish exposed to concentrations as low as 5 cells mL⁻¹ accumulate sufficient amounts of PbTx to cause NSP in humans (Baden et al., 1995) and, as a result, affected shellfish harvest areas in the United States are closed when this cell concentration is reached and when brevetoxin levels within shellfish tissues reach 20 mouse units (MU) 100 g⁻¹ wet weight of shellfish meat [= 0.8 mg PbTx-2 equivalents (eq) kg⁻¹] (NSSP, 2011). This results in economic losses for fisheries, bivalve producers, and related industries (Baden et al., 1995; Pierce et al., 2004; Pierce and Henry, 2008). Eastern oysters also provide important ecosystem services in estuaries (Wells, 1961; Newell, 2004; Burkholder and Shumway, 2012) and may themselves be affected by exposure to *K. brevis*. Effects of exposure to toxic algae on bivalve survival, behavior, respiration, feeding and cellular and immune function have been well established (Shumway and Cucci, 1987; Shumway and Gainey, 1992; Wikfors and Smolowitz, 1995; Smolowitz and Shumway, 1997; Hégaret and Wikfors, 2005a,b; Hégaret et al., 2007a,b; Galimany et al., 2008a,b,c; MacQuarrie and Bricelj, 2008; Haberkorn et al., 2010a,b; Basti et al., 2011); however, studies on the effects on bivalve reproduction are very limited (Haberkorn et al., 2010a).

Previous studies have shown that bivalves such as *Crassostrea virginica* may be adversely affected by exposure to *Karenia brevis*. Gunter et al. (1948) suggested that field exposure to blooms of *K. brevis* may have resulted in mortalities of this species; however, subsequent short-term laboratory exposures of *C. virginica* to bloom concentrations of *K. brevis* (at >1400 and 9900 cells mL⁻¹) did not result in any mortalities or behavioral changes (Ray and

Aldrich, 1967; Sievers, 1969). Possible toxic effects were shown when juvenile eastern oysters were exposed to a mixed suspension of *Isochrysis galbana* (2000 cells mL⁻¹) and whole cells of *K. brevis* (1000 cells mL⁻¹) for 1 h, which resulted in a 38% reduction of the clearance rate of *I. galbana* compared with control oysters fed unialgal *I. galbana* (Leverone et al., 2007). Deleterious effects were also demonstrated by Rolton et al. (2014, 2015) following exposure of the gametes and early life stages of *C. virginica* to bloom concentrations of whole cells, lysed cells, and culture filtrate treatments of *K. brevis* (≥ 500 cells mL⁻¹).

There have been no reports on adverse effects of *Karenia brevis* or PbTx exposure on the gonadal development and reproductive effort of *Crassostrea virginica* or on any offspring produced by toxic adults. Summerson and Peterson (1990) did report near-total recruitment failure of bay scallops (*Argopecten irradians*) exposed to a *K. brevis* bloom, suggesting the toxic algae may have interfered with the spawning of adult scallops, survivorship of the planktonic larvae, larval settlement, or survivorship of newly settled scallops. As sessile inhabitants of shallow, nearshore coastal waters, eastern oysters in southwest Florida, FL, are frequently exposed to blooms of *K. brevis* (Brand and Compton, 2007; FWC, monitoring data). Furthermore, in the subtropical climate of this region, the reproductive periods of eastern oysters and blooms of *K. brevis* often overlap (Rounsefell and Nelson, 1966; Hu et al., 2006; Volety, 2008; Volety et al., 2009). Eastern oysters in Florida are found in spawning condition year-round with the main spawning period from March to November (Volety, 2008; Volety et al., 2009); however, periods of gamete maturation prior to spawning and during post-spawning periods of larval development and recruitment further extend this reproductive period. In the eastern Gulf of Mexico, blooms of *K. brevis* typically occur in late summer/autumn and may last several months (Rounsefell and Nelson, 1966; Stumpf et al., 2003; Hu et al., 2006). Indeed, the 2012–2013 bloom lasted from September 2012 through May 2013 and extended from Pinellas, FL, to the Florida Keys (FWC, monitoring data). Thus, adult eastern oysters may be exposed directly to bloom concentrations of *K. brevis* during gametogenesis, gamete maturation, spawning and larval recruitment. This may not only impact adults, but also any subsequently produced offspring that may be affected by maternal exposure to PbTx. It is unknown if PbTxs accumulate within the gametes of bivalves and are transferred directly to the offspring. Although prior studies confirmed the presence of PbTx in the embryos of mice and sharks, they did not consider the consequences of this transfer (Benson et al., 2006; Flewelling et al., 2010).

This study addresses the following questions: does exposure to bloom concentrations of *Karenia brevis* affect adult eastern oysters including their reproduction and gamete quality, and does this adult exposure adversely affect subsequently produced offspring? The effects of different exposure scenarios of *K. brevis* in the field and laboratory on adult eastern oysters, *Crassostrea virginica*, were studied. Brevetoxin content, condition index (CI), gonadal stage (GS) and relative area, sex distribution, the prevalence of individuals with ripe gametes, histopathological features in oyster tissues, and changes in the cellular parameters of hemocytes were examined. Gametes were obtained from adult oysters exposed to *K. brevis*, and the PbTx content was assessed in stripped, filtered and concentrated gametes. Differences in the spermatozoa, fertilization success and larval development were assessed in offspring up to 11 days post-fertilization (PF).

2. Methods

The effects of field exposure of *Crassostrea virginica* to a natural bloom of *Karenia brevis* and two separate, 10-day laboratory

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