



4-nonylphenol and 17 α -ethynylestradiol exposure in the Sydney rock oyster *Saccostrea glomerata*: Vitellogenin induction and gonadal development

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ABSTRACT

Adult *Saccostrea glomerata* were exposed to environmentally relevant concentrations of 4-nonylphenol (1 μ g/L and 100 μ g/L) and 17 α -ethynylestradiol (5 ng/L and 50 ng/L) in seawater over 8 weeks. Exposures were performed to assess effects on vitellogenin induction and gonadal development during reproductive conditioning. Chronic direct estrogenicity within gonadal tissue was assessed via an estrogen receptor-mediated, chemical-activated luciferase reporter gene-expression assay (ER-CALUX[®]). Estradiol equivalents (EEQ) were greatest in the 100 μ g/L 4-nonylphenol exposure (28.7 ± 2.3 ng/g tissue EEQ) while 17 α -ethynylestradiol at concentrations of 50 ng/L were 2.2 ± 1.5 ng/g tissue EEQ. Results suggest 4-nonylphenol may be accumulated in tissue and is partly resistant to biotransformation; maintaining its potential for chronic estrogenic action, while 17 α -ethynylestradiol, although exhibiting greater estrogenic potency on biological endpoints possibly exerts its estrogenic action before being rapidly metabolised and/or excreted. A novel methodology was developed to assess vitellogenin using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Exposure to both 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) and 4-nonylphenol (100 μ g/L) produced increases in vitellogenin for females, whereas males exhibited increases in vitellogenin when exposed to 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol only. Females exhibited greater vitellogenin responses than males at 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol only. Histological examination of gonads revealed a number of individuals exhibiting intersex (ovotestis) in 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol exposures. Male individuals in 1 μ g/L and 100 μ g/L 4-nonylphenol exposures and 5 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol were at earlier stages of spermatogenic development than corresponding controls.

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common among the nonylphenol polyethoxylates (Marcomini et al., 1990).

In sewage effluent and open waters 17 α -ethynylestradiol is usually reported in the ng/L range, from 0.2 to 42 ng/L in sewage effluent (Desbrow et al., 1998; Ternes et al., 1999) and <0.1 up to 15 ng/L in open waters (Belfroid et al., 1999; Aherne and Briggs, 1989). In comparison 4-nonylphenol is usually found in higher con-

significant estrogenic compounds in estuaries from a range of anthropogenic sources including discharge from sewage treatment plants, industrial works and agricultural/livestock runoff) are 4-nonylphenol (Langston et al., 2005).

ted to date withholding the examination of mosquito fish, *Gambusia affinis holbrooki* (Nasch et al., 2006b). Little work has been done on marine species, and to our knowledge, no one has examined the effects of estrogenic contaminants on Australian molluscan taxa.

The biological relevance of vertebrate-type vitellogenin in vertebrates is debated, considerable evidence suggests that vitellogenins play a functional role. The most recent work (Porte, 2007) suggests that selected molluscs are able to synthesise sex steroids, including estradiol, through the action of cytochrome P450s and steroid 5 α -reductase. Compiling evidence to date suggests that estradiol is converted to estrone by cytochrome P450 17 α -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and estrone to estrone-3 β -diol by cytochrome P450 17 α -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (an androstenedione precursor). Androstenedione may also be converted to androstenedione (DHEA), and subsequently to estradiol by cytochrome P450 aromatase. Seventeen cytochrome P450s (17 β -HSDs) facilitate production of androstenedione and 17 β -estradiol from androstenedione (Porte, 2006). Thus xenobiotics which mimic the action of these enzymes and exert effects through direct receptor activation or contaminants that alter sex steroid synthesis, metabolism and/or the balance of endogenous sex steroids are likely to affect vitellogenin production and endocrine action in molluscan models.

Vitellogenin (vitellin) accumulates in molluscan oocytes and vitellogenin is synthesised from its precursor vitellogenin. It has been suggested that vitellogenin is under endocrine control. Estradiol and 250 nM 4-nonylphenol has been shown to increase in lipophilic alkali-labile proteins (including vitellogenin) in both male and female *Mytilus complanatus*, under laboratory conditions (Porte, 2001). Furthermore, exposure of both male and female *Mytilus complanatus* in environments contaminated through agricultural runoff waters exhibited increased vitellogenin, with higher concentrations for females than males (Blaise et al., 2004).

It is suggested that estrogenic compounds may also affect sex ratios towards females in adult molluscs. Furthermore, estrogenic compounds may also affect the development of gametes for adult individuals during gonadal maturation/reproductive

The native Australian Sydney rock oyster, *Saccostrea glomerata*, is thought to exhibit protandric dioecy (Asif, 1979). Male and female sexes are separate; though a subset of the 'male' population are protandric, maturing as males at the juvenile stage, with the ability to change sex to females in later years (Asif, 1979; Guo et al., 1998). Sex reversal usually occurs between spawning seasons when the gonad is undifferentiated, thus the sexes are separate at any sampling point in time, with a shift to greater proportions of females in the population with size/age (Thompson et al., 1996). Hermaphroditism is present but with very low occurrence with reported percentages within populations of 0.7% (Dinamani, 1974) and 0.4% (Cox et al., 1996). Evidence of the sensitivity to estrogens in other bivalve molluscan taxa, coupled with the potential of protandric progression, suggests that exposure to xeno-estrogens may also exert effects on vitellogenesis and the differentiation of gonadal tissue in *S. glomerata*.

S. glomerata forms the basis of the oldest and largest aquaculture industry in NSW with high commercial value (\$US28 million) along the East coast of Australia from southern Queensland to southern NSW (White, 2002). Aquaculture initiatives are increasingly occurring in urbanised areas and may be affected (both in terms of productivity and marketability) by wastewater treatment plants where effluent discharges may potentially contain elevated levels of estrogenically active compounds. Indeed *S. glomerata* has been employed as a biomonitor for a range of contaminant classes (metals and organic contaminants) in Australian waters (Scanes, 1997), and may also be an appropriate sentinel species for the detection of biological effects from exposure to estrogenically active compounds.

Our current experiment aimed to determine what effects environmentally relevant concentrations of two xeno-estrogens, 4-nonylphenol and 17 α -ethynylestradiol may impart on vitellogenin induction and reproductive condition during a gonadal maturation phase in *S. glomerata*. The estrogen receptor assay (ER-CALUX[®]) was employed to measure uptake of estrogenic compounds and assess chronic direct estrogenicity within gonadal tissue of xeno-estrogens. It was hypothesised that vitellogenin induction would increase upon exposure to 17 α -ethynylestradiol and 4-nonylphenol, particularly in females and at higher exposures. It was further hypothesised that histological examination of individuals exposed to 17 α -ethynylestradiol and 4-nonylphenol may reveal significant effects on gonadal development.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental design

Four hundred and fifty, 18-month-old *S. glomerata*, were used for experimentation. Oysters were sourced from a farm in the Port

higher exposure concentrations were chosen. High values of estrogenically active compounds were used at higher and lower exposure concentrations based on what is likely to be typical in estuaries adjacent to urban areas and/or found to elicit biological effects in oysters (Ternes and Briggs, 1989; Desbrow et al., 1998; Ternes et al., 2005; Langston et al., 2005; Ternes et al., 2005). Exposure duration was chosen as the average gonadal maturation from resting phase to mature phase (dependent on initial physiological condition (Lucas et al., 1991)).

Salinity (g/L salinity) within each replicate aquarium was maintained thrice weekly. Seawater was heated to 22 °C prior to water change and temperature were monitored daily. Oysters were fed daily containing 660 mL of each algal species (e.g. *Pavlova lutheri*, *Chaetoceros muelleri* and *Thalassiosira galbana* (1.5×10^9 cells/oyster/day)). Temperatures were chosen in order to facilitate gonadal maturation (Lucas et al., 2003).

Oyster growth and algal consumption were measured to control for potential/confounding effects of treatments on oyster growth. In addition due to the presence of estrogenically active compounds in ethanol as a solvent carrier. Wet consumption was measured at the beginning and completion of each exposure period was calculated using the formula (Wet tissue weight – wet shell weight) (Lucas et al., 2003). Algal consumption was monitored weekly throughout the experiment. Three hours after a water change, a 10 mL sample of water was sampled from each aquarium and preserved in formalin. Algal cell numbers were enumerated from each experimental unit to provide a measure of algal consumption. Neither 4-nonylphenol nor bisphenol A (at all experimental exposure concentrations) (pooled mean of condition index, $F=0.96$, $p>0.05$), nor algal concentration (algal cells per mL, $0.684 \times 10^9 \pm 0.002 \times 10^9$) changed during the exposure period.

Analysis of homogenates from oysters exposed to estrogenically active substances were analysed via the BioDetection System-mediated, chemical-activated luciferase reporter gene assay (ER-CALUX[®]) assay. The ER-CALUX[®] assay uses a human breast cancer cells modified to express a luciferase gene upon exposure to estrogenically active compounds. Detailed description of ER-CALUX[®] refer to Legler et al. (2006). Laboratory analyses for the ER-CALUX[®] assay were

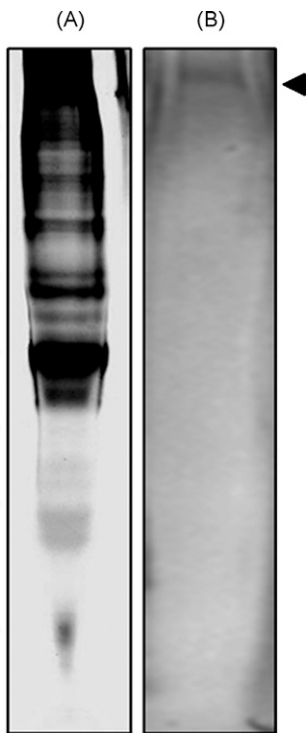
performed during the 48 h incubation period, incubation wells were examined under a microscope for any signs of contamination or abnormal cell growth. Cells were then exposed to the oyster test sample(s) and placed back in the CO₂ incubator for a further 24 h. The medium was then removed from the cells, dosed with 50 µL of lysis reagent and incubated at room temperature (<20 °C) for 15 min. The microtiter plates were then shaken for 2 min at room temperature at 300 rpm (2 mm orbit). One microtiter plate was analysed at a time by removing the lid and placing plate into a BMG Lumistar luminometer. Glowmix reagent (luciferin; luciferase substrate) was robotically dispensed into each well immediately prior to reading the sample, and the sample was quenched using 1 M NaOH prior to the next well being read. Analysis of data was undertaken using Biodetection Systems Software (BiodetectionSystems, 2006) and data are reported as EEQ (estrogen equivalents) for ng/g tissue fresh weight (of oysters) (Legler et al., 1999).

2.3. Extraction and HPLC assay for measuring vitellogenin in *S. glomerata*

The method of Gagné and Blaise (1999) was adapted/modified to extract vitellogenin from oyster gonadal tissue for subsequent High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analysis. Excised gonad tissue (approximately 100 mg) was stored and homogenised in 0.225 mL citrate buffer (pH 6.5 10 mM and with 16 mg/mL polyethylene glycol) and 25 µL of the protease inhibitor aprotinin (Gagné and Blaise, 1999; Brodeur et al., 2006) and stored at –80 °C.

Gonad samples were later thawed and 500 µL Tris–HCl buffer was added and sample was homogenised using micro pestle. 100 µL of tissue homogenate was transferred to a glass centrifuge tube. Based on the Organic Alkali-labile phosphate method described by (Gagné and Blaise, 1999) 800 µL *t*-butyl methyl ether (Chromosolv grade, Sigma–Aldrich) was used to extract vitellogenin. The mixture was then vortexed and incubated at 4 °C for 30 min. The organic phase was then separated and dried under N₂. This was then resuspended in 1000 µL of PBS. The purification of oyster vitellogenin into the organic phase was also confirmed as 99% (peak area 2256.2 ± 16.7) by also injecting and eluting the discarded aqueous phase; this phase contained less than 1% (peak area 20.5 ± 7.7) vitellogenin but had multiple peaks of other proteins.

Analysis of samples was performed using a Hewlett-Packard 1100 Series HPLC (Waldbronn, Germany). Separation of sample analytes was achieved at room (24 °C) temperature on a Hypersil ODS (C18) (Agilent Technologies, USA) analytical column with dimensions 2.0 mm i.d. × 125 mm, 3 µm particle size and 120 Å pore size. The guard column was a Hypersil ODS (C18) cartridge (Agilent Technologies, USA), with dimensions 4.0 mm i.d. × 4 mm, 5 µm par-



Saccostrea glomerata vitellogenin. (A) Aqueous extracts were subjected to silver staining. Numerous bands were detected with subsequent silver staining. Numerous bands were detected in the aqueous phase (Fig. 1A). In comparison, a single prominent protein band was detected in the organic phase corresponding to a molecular weight >170 kDa (Fig. 1B). The excised gel plug was subjected to amino acid sequencing.

...ol blue) and heated at 100 °C for 5 min. The gel was then subjected to SDS-PAGE on 4–20% gradient Tris glycine polyacrylamide (BioRad, NG31–420) before being stained overnight with Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 (Sigma–Aldrich). Following this treatment, numerous bands were detected in the aqueous phase (Fig. 1A). In comparison, a single prominent protein band was detected in the organic phase corresponding to a molecular weight >170 kDa (Fig. 1B). The excised gel plug was subjected to amino acid sequencing.

...was determined via 1D NanoLC ESI MS/MS analysis. Access to the Australian Proteome Analysis Facility was provided under the Australian Government's Major Research Facilities program. The excised gel plug was

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1  iesvntpgqqvpenlfrpltgkdadgmikdlrpinflyvrgnvreikgeaddpewsvnv
61  kkglisilevnldkrkgldgsssiprvlrpgssnedsmkvmepsiggecetlykvspht
121  sssddpimyitkvrnydncldrpmyfssmfhgkrcaecvkersd
    
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Fig. 2. Alignment of the amino acid sequence of peptide fragments obtained from *Saccostrea glomerata* excised protein band via 1D NanoLC ESI MS/MS analysis with only 'known' sequence of *S. glomerata* vitellogenin; a previously determined vitellogenin amino acid sequence deduced from a partial cDNA fragment (GenBank accession number ABW69671.1). Sequenced peptides with matches to the deduced known vitellogenin sequence are underlined.

charged ions (counts >50) in the survey scan sequentially subjected to MS/MS analysis. MS/MS spectra were accumulated for 1 s (m/z 100–1600). The LC/MS/MS data was used to search *Other Metazoa* entries using Mascot (Matrix Science, London, UK) in the NCBI protein database and seven peptides provided matches with 43% coverage and an alignment score of 63.9 to an oyster vitellogenin amino acid sequence deduced from a partial cDNA fragment of *S. glomerata* origin (Anderson et al. unpublished, GenBank accession number ABW69671.1) (Fig. 2).

2.5. Sex determination

Sexes in *S. glomerata* are separate with low occurrence of hermaphroditism (Dinamani, 1974). Sex assignment was required due to the hypothesised differences in vitellogenin induction between males and females (Blaise et al., 1999, 2003). Approximately 5/54 oysters (9%) in each treatment had insufficient gonadal development to obtain a smear to determine sex. These oysters were thus not included in analysis. The sex of each oyster was determined by sampling a smear of gonadal tissue biopsy via an incision in the gonad using a scalpel no less than 1 h following harvest. This smear was then examined under a compound microscope at 100× magnification with the absence/presence of oocytes used as indicator of sex. Histological analysis was originally performed to assess stage of gametal development which cannot be determined via biopsy and smear techniques. However this also revealed unexpected individuals exhibiting intersex in the 50 ng/L 17α-ethynylestradiol treatment who were originally classed as female via the smear technique. The smear technique is problematic in detecting the individuals exhibiting intersex due to the fact that oocytes are much larger and easier to detect in comparison to spermatozoa. Thus the assignment of sex based on smear testing is reliable for all individuals that were male. Results obtained for females (including EEQ, sex ratio and vitellogenin) in the 50 ng/L EE2 treatment are likely however, to represent values pooled across female and intersex individuals, although it is impossible to separate and quantify these separately, as histological analyses were not performed on all individuals.

assigned a gonadal developmental stage for oogenesis based on criteria described by [unclear] described briefly below: (1) follicles contain spermatogonia, (2) oocytes (<25 μm) or spermato mature, (3) maturation of oocytes (>25 μm) oogenesis up to spermatids, few spermatozoa, spermatozoa occupying large proportion of gonad, discharged, residual oocytes or spermatozoa, (X) there are residual oocytes or spermatozoa and [unclear]. Individuals where an intact gonadal follicle [unclear] and spermatozoa (ovotestis) [unclear] or sex.

ed using a two-way analysis of variance (StatSoft, 2005). According to Levene's test [unclear]; vitellogenin units were not homoge- [unclear] transformed, $\ln(x + 1)$, prior to statistical analysis. [unclear] was observed, Tukey's HSD multiple com- [unclear] among groups. A significance level of [unclear] for all statistical analyses.

ts (EEQ) provide an indication of the relative [unclear] simulated xeno-estrogen and/or endogenous [unclear] estrogenically active form at time of analysis [unclear] the T47-D estrogen receptor. Measurement [unclear] analysis revealed that individuals in the [unclear] treatment had significantly higher EEQ [unclear] (F=15.4, $p < 0.05$). Neither a signifi- [unclear] sexes (F=4.7, $p > 0.05$) nor an interaction [unclear] and sex were observed (F=2.1, $p > 0.05$)

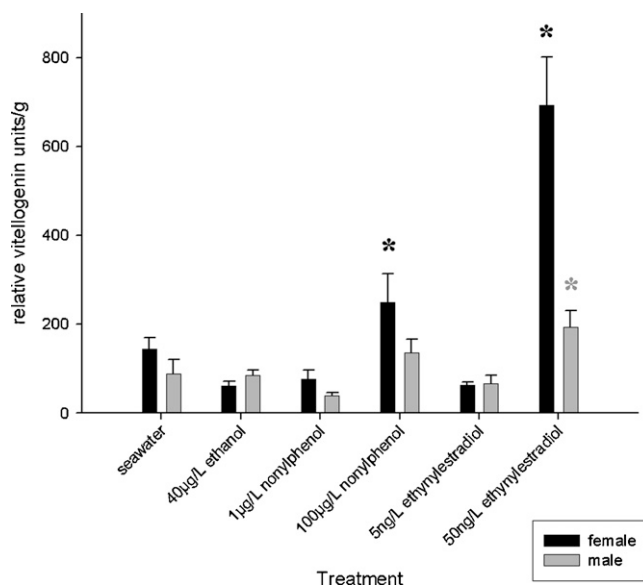


Fig. 4. Vitellogenin units (relative units/g) measured in gonadal tissue of *Saccostrea glomerata*, exposed to 4-nonylphenol (1 μg/L and 100 μg/L) and 17α-ethynylestradiol (5 ng/L and 50 ng/L) over an 8-week exposure period in experimental aquaria (mean ± standard error, $n = 14$), * $p < 0.05$.

3.2. Vitellogenin analysis

Exposure to both 17α-ethynylestradiol and 4-nonylphenol increased vitellogenin induction. A significant interaction was observed between sex and treatment suggesting differences among treatments differed for each sex ($F = 3.5$, $p < 0.05$). For females, the high exposure treatments of both 17α-ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) and 4-nonylphenol (100 μg/L) exhibited significant increases in vitellogenin, up to three-fold and double the controls respectively. For males, significant increases in vitellogenin compared to controls were observed when exposed to 17α-ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) only. A significant difference between sexes occurred within the 50 ng/L 17α-ethynylestradiol exposure where females exhibited greater vitellogenin responses than males (Fig. 4). No significant differences in vitellogenin were observed between sexes in other treatments. No significant differences in vitellogenin were found between the seawater control and ethanol control.

3.3. Sex ratio

Identification of sex as female or male was determined via the presence or absence of oocytes. The sex ratio of *S. glomerata* was similar among most exposures, controls and oysters at experimen-

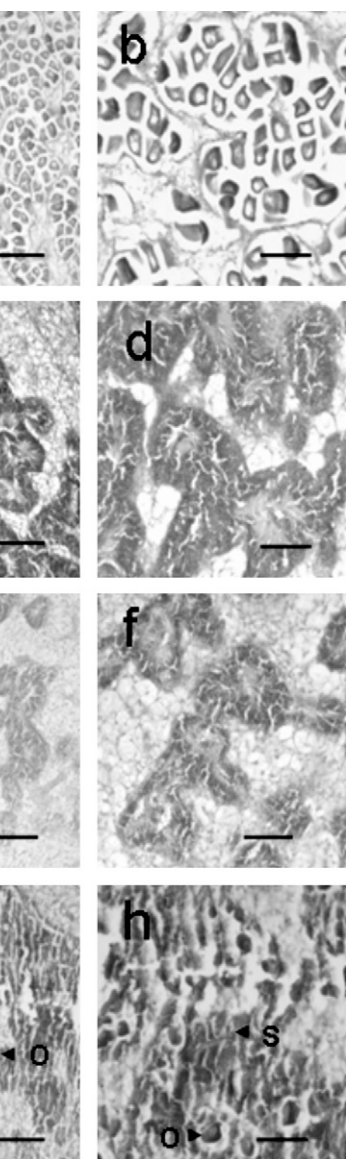


Fig. 5. Histological sections of gonads in *Saccostrea glomerata*. (a) Female gonad (control) $\times 200$, (b) female gonad (control) $\times 400$, (c) male gonad treatment (control) $\times 200$, (d) male gonad treatment (control) $\times 400$, (e) male gonad 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) $\times 200$, (f) male gonad 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) $\times 400$, (g) ovotestis from 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) $\times 400$; O, oocyte and S, spermatozoa, (h) ovotestis from 4-nonylphenol (10.2 and 105 EEQ) $\times 400$; O, oocyte and S, spermatozoa. Scale bars: 100 μ m in b, d, f and h.

in these individuals was identified through the presence of both spermatozoa and oocytes contained within follicles which were only evident after microscopic examination. In some intersex individuals, large regions of the ovotestis had spermatozoa packed within follicles; however, one small region of the ovotestis had both spermatozoa and oocytes contained within follicles. In the gonadal tissue of all intersex individuals, high hemocytic activity was observed; in some cases within broken follicles (Fig. 5G and H).

4. Discussion

EEQ was highest in the 100 μ g/L 4-nonylphenol treatment and thus appears to have a higher potential for accumulation relative to 17 α -ethynylestradiol. Individuals in the 100 μ g/L 4-nonylphenol treatment accumulated 43% of total EEQ applied over an 8-week period in comparison to individuals in the 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol where accumulation was <1%. This estimation is based on the assumption that the ER-CALUX[®] measurement of total EEQ is only due to the presence of 4-nonylphenol or 17 α -ethynylestradiol whereas there are likely other endogenous estrogens such as 17 β -estradiol present within tissue (as evident in the measurement of low levels of EEQ in the control treatments) which may also increase upon xeno-estrogenic exposure.

Possibly 4-nonylphenol has accumulated in oyster tissue and is not readily metabolised, nor depurated. High accumulation of 4-nonylphenol to tissue may be largely due to the high lipophilic nature of the compound, as reported in previous studies (e.g. Ekeland et al., 1990). McLeese et al. (1980) reported BCFs ranging from 1.4 to 7.9 in *Mytilus edulis* following short-term exposure of nonylphenol. Ekeland et al. (1990) measured the bioaccumulation of 4-nonylphenol in *M. edulis* following a 16-day exposure to 6.2 μ g/L and 5.9 μ g/L and reported BCF's of 4120 and 2740, respectively. Accumulation of 4-nonylphenol without significant degradation could also potentially imply that its effects may be long-term/chronic. Another explanation may be that endogenous estrogens in oysters are stimulated upon exposure to xeno-estrogens resulting in increased estrogen induction.

Despite greater observed tissue EEQ due to 4-nonylphenol exposure, biological effects observed in individuals exposed to 17 α -ethynylestradiol indicated that this compound exerted greater estrogenic potency than 4-nonylphenol. Seventeen α -ethynylestradiol has a comparatively higher estradiol equivalence factor (EEF) than 4-nonylphenol, i.e. an EEF of 2.1 for 17 α -ethynylestradiol versus 2.3×10^{-5} for 4-nonylphenol (Legler et al., 2002). Thus at the exposure concentrations employed, 17 α -ethynylestradiol (10.2 and 105 EEQ) also had a much higher potential for estrogenic action than 4-nonylphenol (0.023 and 2.3 EEQ). In *M. edulis*, the metabolism of estrogens has been demon-

in a number of molluscan species including *Mytilus edulis* (Kara et al., 2006), *Octopus vulgaris* (Keay et al., 2007), and *Mytilus trossulus* (Matsumoto et al., 2007). Subsequent studies of the ER in these species is not responsive to, or weakly responsive to, when recombinantly expressed in a cell line derived from vertebrate cell lines (reporter gene assay). Matsumoto et al. (2007) found ER immunoreactivity in the nuclei of follicle cells, the site of estradiol action, and they suggest that the ER could possibly be a nuclear receptor regulating the transactivation of estradiol. Matsumoto et al. (2003) found 17 β -estradiol mRNA levels profile with gonadal maturity. Following treatment with 17 α -ethynylestradiol *C. gigas* has been demonstrated to induce vitellogenesis (Croll, 1998). High levels of vitellogenin mRNA have been demonstrated during the vitellogenic phase in *C. gigas* (Matsumoto et al., 1997, 2003). Thus estrogens appear to mediate vitellogenesis in some molluscan species through a genomic action. Alternatively estrogen binding may be encoded by genes unrelated to known estrogen receptors that may mediate their vitellogenic action through a non-genomic action (Croll and Wang, 2007). Taken together, the differences are significant among molluscan taxa and require further elucidation.

It is noted however that Sydney rock oysters exposed to 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) and 4-nonylphenol (1000 μ g/kg) exhibited significant increases in vitellogenin for males and females. Males exhibited significant increases in vitellogenin to 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol only. The results provide further confirmation that exposures to concentrations of xeno-estrogenic compounds can elicit vitellogenesis responses in molluscs, especially for females. The precise mechanism(s) of action remain to be determined. Protandry induction in *S. glomerata* appears a sensitive response to xeno-estrogenic exposure and effect.

Other researchers have reported vitellogenin as a female sex-specific protein (Croll et al., 1980; Tyler and Sumpter, 1990; Wang et al., 1994). However male and female oysters responded similarly in all treatments except for 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol where the female response was significantly higher. This was found in all male individuals in the current study and those in the seawater control treatment. The results indicate that male molluscs can exhibit sensitivity to estrogens in terms of initiation of vitellogenesis. Matazzo et al. (2007) found that male and female clams (*Tapes philippinarum*) exposed to environmentally relevant concentrations of 17 α -ethynylestradiol (100 μ g/L and 200 μ g/L) exhibited elevated vitellogenin levels. Furthermore, exposure of both male and female oysters to 17 α -ethynylestradiol in environments contaminated through

inadvertently overlooked explaining the higher proportion of individuals identified as 'females' in the 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol treatment. Together, these observations suggest that high 17 α -ethynylestradiol exposures may potentially induce oogenesis along with spermatogenesis in individuals that would otherwise develop male gonadal tissue, though larger sample sizes would be required to unequivocally support this hypothesis. For future studies it is recommended that histology is employed for all individuals to provide definitive identification of gametal status and the developmental stage of the gonad.

Based on the histological examination of the ovotestis from intersex individuals in the 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol treatment, it appears likely that the gonad of these individuals were in a process of transition from male to female. The majority of the gonad was male with small regions containing both male and female gametes. It is unknown whether continued exposure to 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol would induce a functional hermaphroditic condition, individuals would remain intersex or individuals were in the process of transitioning from male to female at experimental completion. However an earlier study by Mori et al. (1969) suggested that 17 β -estradiol exposure resulted in a full sex reversal from male to female gonadal tissue in adult *C. gigas*. Langston et al. (2007) also demonstrated that in vitro exposure of undifferentiated adult clams *S. plana* to sediment spiked with 17 β -estradiol (100 μ g/kg), 17 α -ethynylestradiol (100 μ g/kg), 4-nonylphenol (1000 μ g/kg) and octylphenol (1000 μ g/kg) (for low exposures and $\times 10$ for higher exposures) caused varying degrees of intersex and enlarged oocytes in the ovotestis of males. Nice et al. (2000) also found that exposure to 1 μ g/L and 100 μ g/L of 4-nonylphenol at very early life stages in *C. gigas* resulted an altered sex ratio towards females, a higher percentage of functional hermaphrodites in adulthood, and reduced gamete viability in the subsequent generation. A subset of individuals in *S. glomerata* populations does exhibit sequential protandry (i.e. begin as males and may change sex to females later in life), usually occurring when the gonad is undifferentiated (i.e. between reproductive cycles) with hermaphroditism being a rare occurrence (Asif, 1979). Although further experimentation is required, it is possible that that intersex individuals arising from the 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol exposure in current experiments were protandric individuals capable of undergoing transition from male to female and that exposure to estrogenically active compounds initiated and/or accelerated this transition.

While there is little available evidence to date examining the mechanism of protandric sex reversal in molluscs, findings in fishes suggest a role for estrogens in protandric progression. For the protandrous black porgy, *Acanthopagrus schlegelii*, 17 β -estradiol exposure (4 mg/kg in feed, 7-month exposure) induced regression of testicular tissue and development of ovarian tissue (Chang et al., 1994). Furthermore, elevated gonadal aromatase activity

observed among gonadal development in individuals in mature male stages while 4-nonylphenol exposure treatments produced a range of gonadal developmental stages. The low 17 α -ethynylestradiol and in both sexes exhibited earlier stages of gonadal development to control treatments including stage 2 for 1 μ g/L 4-nonylphenol and 3 for 1 μ g/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol. In comparison, males in the 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol treatment were found to be in a similar gonadal condition (stages 4 and 5) where the gonad was mature and close to spawning or had partially differentiated. Endocrine compounds may initiate and/or accelerate gonadal development in a subset of males (protandric males), while another subset may not be susceptible to remain male.

Explanation for the observation of early male development in 4-nonylphenol exposure treatments (compared to mature males) could be that 4-nonylphenol may negatively affect the rate of the gonadal development. Van den Belt et al. (2002) found exposure of 10 ng/L and 25 ng/L inhibited spermatogenesis in *Chironomus tentans* causing earlier spermatogenic stages in comparison to control males. It is perhaps that levels of estrogens promote the production of sperm but inhibit the development of spermatogenesis, thus altering the mode of gonadal development. Conversely, Wang and Croll (2004) found that in *Dreissena polymorpha*, injected with 17 β -oestradiol into abductor muscle once per month, induced sexual differentiation of male gonadal structures and recognisable gametes versus undifferentiated gonads in control exposure groups than in the control group. The results of gonadal differentiation are perhaps not

The present study suggest *S. glomerata* is an ideal molluscan biomonitor for assessing effects of endocrine disruptors in Australian waters, with evidenced sensitivity to endocrine disruptors, and reproductive endpoint biomarker (intersex) induction upon estrogenic exposure. Further the research effort, experiments are required to establish dose–response relationships between marker and relevant estrogenic exposures, temporal changes in vitellogenin to changes in estrogenic exposure and the utility of vitellogenin induction to predict levels of biological organisation with potential for reproductive endpoints). Exploring the

17 α -ethynylestradiol). Exposure to both 17 α -ethynylestradiol and 4-nonylphenol increased vitellogenin induction. Exposure treatments of both 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L) and 4-nonylphenol (100 μ g/L) exhibited significant increases in vitellogenin for females, whereas males exhibited significant increases in vitellogenin only when exposed to 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol. Females exhibited greater vitellogenin responses than males in the high exposure of 17 α -ethynylestradiol (50 ng/L). Exposure to 50 ng/L 17 α -ethynylestradiol, induced a shift in the sex ratio (i.e. an increase in the proportion of female individuals) with many individuals sexed initially as females via smear testing assigned to an intersex condition upon histological examination, suggesting a protandric progression was induced for subset of males within this treatment.

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