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1 **Correspondence**2 **Ship noise inhibits colour change, camouflage, and anti-predator**  
3 **behaviour in shore crabs**

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10 **eTOC blurb:** Ship noise is a prominent source of underwater sound pollution. Carter *et al.*  
11 demonstrate that ship noise has multiple negative effects on animal traits that do not primary rely  
12 on acoustics. In shore crabs, colour change to improve camouflage, and predator escape responses  
13 are adversely affected by ship noise but not by equally loud ambient noise.

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15 The marine environment is experiencing unprecedented levels of anthropogenic noise. This is known  
16 to have adverse effects across a range of taxa, directly affecting sensory systems and behaviours [1].  
17 Stress caused by noise pollution may affect physiological processes that do not have obvious links to  
18 the acoustic environment [2]. We show that noise from shipping reduces colour change and  
19 consequent camouflage in juvenile shore crabs (*Carcinus maenas*). Furthermore, ship noise causes  
20 maladaptive defensive responses, with crabs less likely to flee a simulated attack. In contrast, loud  
21 natural noises at the same intensity have none of the same negative effects. Our study shows that  
22 anthropogenic noise is likely to be more disruptive than anticipated: in common with other marine  
23 invertebrates, shore crabs may perceive sound, but they rely predominantly on other senses. As  
24 such, the effects of anthropogenic sound in the marine environment extend beyond interfering with  
25 acoustic communication, affecting a variety of behavioural and physiological responses across a wide  
26 range of species.

27 A prominent source of underwater noise pollution is shipping activity, which has increased ambient  
28 ocean sound levels by 10-15dB [3]. Recent work has investigated the effects of noise pollution on  
29 marine organisms [1]. There is, however, a strong bias toward studies on species and behaviours  
30 primarily reliant on acoustic cues. This is despite evidence that exposure to anthropogenic noise has  
31 broad systemic impacts which can be characterised as 'stress' [e.g. 2]. Furthermore, studies have  
32 focussed primarily on vertebrates, even though many marine invertebrates can detect sound.  
33 Marine invertebrates including decapod crustaceans possess a variety of organs for detecting  
34 particle motion, including hair-like cells on the body, chordotonal organs on appendages, and  
35 statocyst organs in the cephalothorax [4]. Changes in cephalopod behaviour following exposure to  
36 anthropogenic noise can be associated with damage to cellular structures [5], demonstrating that  
37 negative impacts of noise pollution are not confined to vertebrates.

38 We use playback experiments to test for effects of noise pollution on juvenile shore crabs, focussing  
39 on anti-predator adaptations found across taxa: colour change for camouflage and predator fleeing  
40 behaviour. Noise pollution has been shown to increase the time taken for individuals to retreat to a  
41 shelter [6], and leads to physiological stress in the form of increased metabolic rates [2]. However,

42 direct comparisons of anthropogenic noise and natural noise of similar amplitude are lacking, and  
43 potential effects of noise on non-behavioural anti-predator adaptations have not been investigated.  
44 The ability to change colour is widespread in nature, and juvenile shore crabs alter their brightness  
45 according to the substrate [7]. Colour change is likely to be especially important for juveniles, which  
46 are subject to heightened predation risk. However, colour change likely incurs energetic costs, and  
47 may be impaired under stressful conditions [7].

48 We housed uniform, dark crabs on white backgrounds for eight weeks, a situation in which crabs  
49 normally change to a lighter coloration, with minor changes occurring in hours and more noticeable  
50 changes occurring over several weeks [5]. We split crabs into three groups, exposing individuals to  
51 either noise from shipping, a quiet control ambient noise treatment, or a control noise treatment of  
52 the same intensity as the ship noise (i.e. a loud control; see supplementary information, Figure S1).  
53 We used calibrated digital image analyses and modelling of shorebird predator vision  
54 (supplementary information) to measure changes in crab luminance (perceived lightness). Noise  
55 treatment significantly affected luminance change during the eight week exposure period (GLM,  
56  $\chi^2_{(2,99)}=0.048$ ,  $p=0.001$ ), with individuals exposed to ship noise changing significantly less than those  
57 subjected to either ambient or loud control noise (Figure 1A, 1C). Consequently, background  
58 matching was affected by ship noise (GLM,  $\chi^2_{(2,99)}=0.364$ ,  $p=0.001$ ), with individuals in this treatment  
59 significantly less camouflaged to predator vision after eight weeks than individuals from the other  
60 two treatments (Figure 1B). There was no effect of noise on luminance change when individuals  
61 moulted (GLM,  $\chi^2_{(2,69)}=0.032$ ,  $p=0.409$ ), showing that noise affected colour change within moults.  
62 Individuals exposed to ship noise suffered a reduction in growth per moult (GLM,  $\chi^2_{(2,69)}=2.63$ ,  
63  $p=0.003$ ; control  $3.69 \text{ mm} \pm 0.28$ , loud control  $3.83 \pm 0.30$ , ship  $2.05 \pm 0.26$ ), and a delay in the  
64 timing of moulting (Cox proportional hazards,  $\chi^2_{(2)}=6.75$ ,  $p=0.034$ ; control  $29.1 \text{ days} \pm 3.41$ , loud  
65 control  $34.6 \pm 3.35$ , ship  $38.9 \pm 3.41$ ), demonstrating further evidence of ship noise-induced stress.

66 Camouflage is a primary defence in avoiding predation, but once discovered, animals must rely on  
67 additional defences. We examined the response of individuals to a simulated predator attack to  
68 determine the impact of ship noise on escape behaviour. Under normal circumstances, shore crabs  
69 flee from predators. Previous work found that ship noise increased the time taken for adults to  
70 retreat during a simulated attack but did not affect the likelihood of individuals responding [6].  
71 However, here we found that juveniles were less likely to respond to a simulated predator, and  
72 when responding were slower to retreat when exposed to ship noise than to the other treatments  
73 (Figure S2) (GLM,  $\chi^2_{(2,278)}=31.09$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ; and GLM,  $\chi^2_{(2,339)}=43.9$ ,  $p<0.0001$  respectively). This was  
74 consistent for all individuals, regardless of which noise treatment they had been exposed to for the  
75 previous eight weeks.

76 Negative responses to noise are only displayed in individuals exposed to loud anthropogenic noise  
77 from shipping, but not in those exposed to loud natural ambient sounds. This distinction indicates  
78 that some aspect of ship noise makes it more stressful than its amplitude alone would predict. Many  
79 of the already documented effects of noise *per se* (particularly those related to stress rather than  
80 masking [e.g. 2]) may be specific to anthropogenic noise, rather than simply additional  
81 environmental noise. Why anthropogenic noise has such effects requires further study to determine  
82 whether it relates to its frequency distribution or temporal structure. The effects on luminance  
83 change, moulting, and growth that we observed may be the outcome of reduced energy availability  
84 associated with stress, impacting on physiological mechanisms of colour change affecting pigment  
85 distribution and chromatophore cells [7]. Stress can alter the balance of hormones involved in  
86 endocrine-regulated processes such as luminance change and moulting (e.g. CHH [8]), as well as the  
87 pattern of investment in behaviours [9]. Stress can also impair cognitive function and diminish  
88 decision-making and awareness, which may account for the disrupted antipredator response [6].

89 Further research is needed to determine the specific mechanism(s) underpinning the responses  
90 demonstrated.

91 A reduction in camouflage under exposure to ship noise will likely lead to an increase in detection by  
92 predators and consequent predation risk. This amplifies the need for rapid anti-predator behaviours.  
93 However, in the presence of ship noise, crabs were slower to retreat and often entirely failed to  
94 respond to simulated predators. This reveals multiplicative negative impacts of noise on predation  
95 risk. Human impacts are widely affecting the efficacy of anti-predator coloration, including  
96 camouflage on a global scale [10]. Our findings suggest that other marine species for which there is  
97 little evidence for a primary importance of acoustic communication may also be affected by marine  
98 noise pollution.

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100 **Author contributions:** All authors conceived and designed the study and experiments. EEC  
101 undertook the experiments and analyses, with contributions from MS and TT. All authors wrote the  
102 paper.

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135 **Figure 1: Ship noise reduces luminance change and consequent background matching after eight**  
136 **weeks, but loud control has no effect.** A) Mean change in luminance (avian double cone values)  
137 after eight weeks, for each noise treatment with standard error shown. B) Mean level of background  
138 matching, measured as the absolute difference in luminance (double cone values) between the crab  
139 and background, after 8 weeks, for each noise treatment, with standard error shown. Lower values  
140 indicate better matching and consequently a greater level of camouflage. Control n=30; Loud  
141 Control n=36; Ship n=32. C) Representative examples of an individual from each noise treatment  
142 whose level of change reflected the average for that group, at the start and end of the experiment.  
143 Each of these individuals moulted during the experiment. Photographs were all enhanced in  
144 brightness equally for presentation purposes only.

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147 **Data S1. Original data from the experiments.** The sheet 'Luminance' includes change in luminance  
148 of individual crabs over the duration ('day') of experiment, size of crabs, whether they moulted  
149 during the experiment, and level of background matching, by treatment ('noise'). Sheet 'Moult'  
150 contains data for the time for each crab to moult, and changes in size and luminance under each  
151 treatment. Sheet three ('Predator Response') contains the data for the behavioural response trials,  
152 including whether crabs responded to a simulated predator attack, the time to respond, previous  
153 noise exposure during the colour change experiment, and current noise treatment during the trial  
154 ('Track').