



# ECOTOXICOLOGY OF AMPHIBIANS AND REPTILES

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## CHAPTER 11

# Amphibian Deformities: Current State of Knowledge

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Isolated cases of amphibian deformities have been reported in scientific literature for nearly 300 years. Vallisneri (1733b, 1733c) recorded the occurrence of a frog with an additional limb, first described in 1706. In this particular frog, the fifth limb was located in the right pelvic region and the left hindlimb was polydactylous with seven toes (see Appendix). The specimen was caught in Scandiano, a little town located in the region of Emilia-Romagna in northern Italy. In 1740, De Superville mentioned a frog with a supernumerary limb at the level of the right shoulder. This case and two others (published in 1783 by Guettard, and 1816 by Otto) were cited by Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire (1836b) in the third volume of his classic treatise on monstrosities in humans and animals. Virey (1819) and Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire (1832) also cited instances of polydactyly in frogs and salamanders, respectively. Duméril (1865a) reviewed early observations of deformed anurans, most of them carrying supernumerary limb structures, and described in detail 10 cases that were known to him, although at least 17 extra-legged frogs had in fact been documented by 1865 (Taruffi 1880; Ercolani 1881). Taruffi (1880) presented a good historic review, tabulating 32 observations of polymelous anurans by year of publication from 1706 until 1879. In North America, the first described abnormal amphibian was a five-legged *Rana pipiens* thought to be found in Rochester, New York, around 1850 (Kingsley 1881).

More contemporary reviews of supernumerary limbs and other deformities in amphibians are those of Bateson (1894), Gemmill (1906), Przibram (1921), Woitkewitsch (1959), Van Valen (1974), Vizotto et al. (1977), and Dubois (1979). Past records of polymelous frogs found in Japan were recently presented by Takeishi (1996). A well-illustrated atlas of anuran deformities was produced by Rostand (1958). An atlas of developmental abnormalities also exists for *Xenopus laevis* embryos raised under laboratory conditions (Bantle et al. 1991). A general review of color abnormalities in free-living anurans such as albinism, melanism, black eyes, and blue frogs is given by Dubois (1979). Although most of these reports refer to individual cases of deformed amphibians, the recent literature concentrates more on the description of mass occurrences of deformities in particular populations. It is

impossible to know how many of the historic mentions were part of population level phenomena.

Morphological abnormalities and injuries occur normally at low frequencies in wild populations of amphibians, ranging from 0 to 2% (Rostand 1949b; Dubois and Vachard 1969; Koskela 1974; Dubois 1979; Semlitsch et al. 1981; Borkin and Pikulik 1986; Luis and Báez 1987; Meyer-Rochow and Asashima 1988; Read and Tyler 1994; Marvin and Hutchison 1997). For example, 451 cases (1.0%) of clinodactyly, ectrodactyly, and polydactyly were recorded in a sample of 44,000 adult *Bufo bufo* examined from two regions of France (Rostand 1949b). Meyer-Rochow and Asashima (1988) reported 2.4% or 335 cases of external deformities (ectrodactyly, polydactyly, polymely, abnormal webbing of toes, and tail projections) for a total of 13,815 adult *Cynops pyrrhogaster* newts from Japan. Of 4137 frogs examined from different age classes, eight cases (0.2%) of unilateral anophthalmia were found in populations of *Rana esculenta* complex (Dubois 1979). In his standard table for staging anuran embryos and larvae, Gosner (1960) mentioned that aberrant mouth parts were common in some samples (see also Grillitsch and Grillitsch 1989).

However, this is not the phenomenon of concern. It is only when frequencies of abnormalities grossly exceed the baseline level that there is any reason to be alarmed. Recently, an increasing number of populations where frequencies of deformities were abnormally high (> 5%) have been described in parts of North America, Europe, and Asia. Up to 85% of the individuals from a given population can show external abnormalities (Rostand 1959, 1971; Rostand and Darré 1968; Mizgireuv et al. 1984; Flindt 1985; Vershinin 1989, 1995b; Sessions and Ruth 1990; Veith and Viertel 1993; Bohl 1997; Flax and Borkin 1997; Ouellet et al. 1997; Burkhart et al. 1998; Helgen et al. 1998; Johnson et al. 1999). Many factors have been proposed or shown to cause developmental abnormalities in amphibians, but further studies will be necessary to explain the exact mechanisms and developmental pathways involved. The ecological significance of several of these factors also remains to be proven. Whatever the actual causes of such deformities, the biggest challenge that remains is to determine if their origins are natural or anthropogenic.

The apparent global decline of amphibians and the consequent growth of interest in monitoring amphibian populations have stimulated numerous studies around the world (Kuzmin et al. 1995; Green 1997; Lannoo 1998). Are amphibian deformities more common simply because of increased surveillance, or are they recent and widespread phenomena? Are deformities related to the worldwide decline of amphibian populations? Are natural causes responsible, or are we ourselves contributing to ecosystem degradation, with possible relevance to human health?

To better appreciate the difficulty and complexity of answering these questions, I have reviewed the existing literature on amphibian deformities up to early 1999. Almost exclusively, peer-reviewed and published material has been considered. I have standardized the technical terms used to describe these abnormalities (see

Appendix). The terms abnormalities, anomalies, malformations, malformities, and monstrosities were used interchangeably in the literature to refer to cases of amphibian deformities. I focused on all external deformities involving the eyes, head, limbs, mouth, oral cavity, snout, and tail. Accounts of color mutations, diseases, neoplasms, and internal abnormalities were not included in this review. I had multiple objectives. First, I reviewed the reports of deformed frogs, toads, newts, and salamanders in the wild to seek generalities of species sensitivity and geographic distribution. Second, the possible causes and hypotheses used to explain deformities were explored and analyzed. Third, I also examined the implications of developmental abnormalities with regard to amphibian population declines, ecosystem degradation, and human-health concerns. Finally, I conclude with recommendations and suggestions for future research on amphibian deformities.

### Species Sensitivity and Geographic Distribution

A total of 67 different species of anurans and 26 species of salamanders with deformities have been documented (Tables 11-1 and 11-2). Many of the accounts are purely descriptive without any analysis. One hundred and forty-one reports out of a total of 202 (69.8%) refer to deformities in fewer than 10 individuals per species at particular sites (Figure 11-1), and many of these describe only a single case. At the other extreme, 17 situations (8.4%) have deformity occurrences at one or more sites greater than 100 individuals per species. Some reports may refer to the same

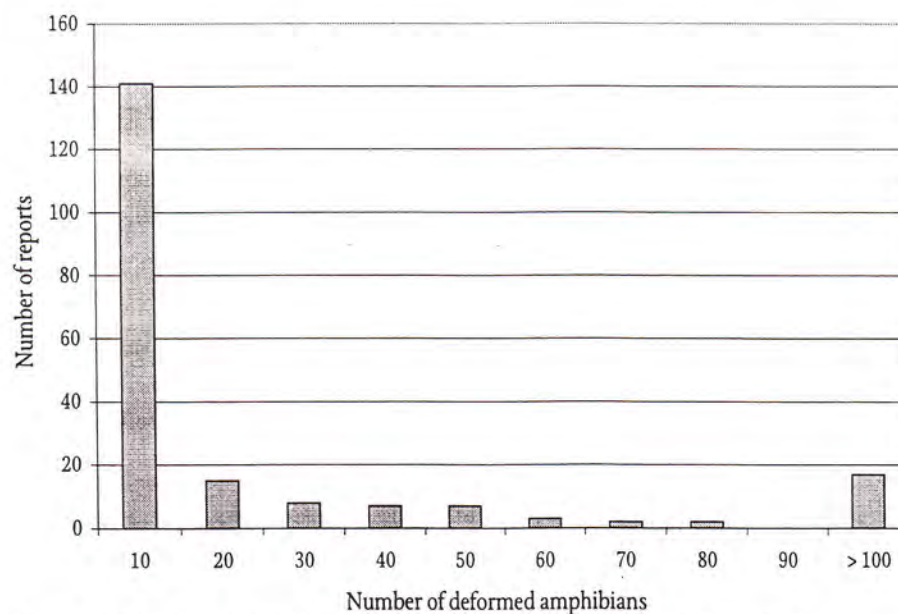


Figure 11-1 Numbers of published reports describing numbers of deformed amphibians

Table 11-1 Species sensitivity and geographic distribution of published frog deformities in the wild

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<b>Bufonidae</b>					
<i>Bufo americanus</i>	E	1	A	Canada (ON)	Rollo 1995
	L <sup>E</sup>	42	M	Canada (QC)	Ouellet et al. 1997
<i>B. arenarum</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Argentine Republic	Gaggero 1960
<i>B. boreas</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	United States (OR)	Washburn 1899
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	United States (CA)	Crosswhite and Wyman 1920
<i>B. bufo</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	United Kingdom	Bland Sutton 1889, 1890
	L <sup>E,P,S</sup>	> 461	A, M	France	Rostand 1949b, 1951a, 1958, 1971
	L <sup>P</sup>	> 6	A	France	Dubois 1974
	L <sup>P</sup>	4	A	Byelorussia	Borkin and Pikulik 1986
	L <sup>E,S</sup>	226	M, T	Federal Republic of Germany	Veith and Viertel 1993
<i>B. ictericus</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Federative Republic of Brazil	Pasquarelli et al. 1981
<i>B. maculatus</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	6	A, M	Zimbabwe	Lambiris 1982
<i>B. marinus</i>	L <sup>E,P</sup>	4	A	Puerto Rico <sup>4</sup>	Heatwole and Suárez-Lazú 1965
	L <sup>E</sup>	1	A	United States (HI) <sup>4</sup>	Chan and Young 1985
<i>B. melanostictus</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Sri Lanka	Samarasinghe 1951
<i>B. regularis</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Arab Republic of Egypt	Al-Hussaini 1953
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Arab Republic of Egypt	Ghorab 1959
<i>B. viridis</i>	L <sup>E,P,M</sup>	> 50	M, T	Federal Republic of Germany	Henle 1981
	L <sup>E,P</sup>	> 51	A, M	Federal Republic of Germany	Flindt 1985
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Russian Federation	Dunayev 1997
	L <sup>E</sup>	2	A or M	Ukraine	Flax and Borkin 1997
<b>Dendrobatidae</b>					
<i>Mannophryne lamarcai</i>	L <sup>E,S</sup>	7	A	Venezuela	Mijares-Urrutia and Arends 1999

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
Discoglossidae					
<i>Alytes obstetricans</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A or M	Spain	Cisternas 1865
	E	1	T	France	Héron-Royer 1884
	L <sup>P*</sup>	1	M	Federal Republic of Germany	Hellmich 1929
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	France	Rostand 1955c, 1958
<i>Bombina bombina</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	567	A or M	Ukraine	Flax and Borkin 1997
<i>B. orientalis</i>	L	1	A or M	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	Tyler 1989
<i>Discoglossus pictus</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Spain	Sanchiz and Pérez 1974
Hylidae					
<i>Acris crepitans</i>	E	1	A	United States (MO)	Smith and Powell 1983
<i>Cyclorana australis</i>	E, L <sup>E*</sup>	68	M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>C. longipes</i>	L <sup>E*</sup>	39	A, M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>Hyla meridionalis</i>	L <sup>E*</sup>	5	A or M	Spain [Canary Islands]	Luis and Báez 1987
<i>H. regilla</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	> 18	M	United States (MT)	Hebard and Brunson 1963
	L <sup>P</sup>	> 5	M	United States (WA)	Miller 1968
	L <sup>P</sup>	13	M	United States (ID)	Reynolds and Stephens 1984
	L <sup>E*</sup>	205	A, M, T	United States (CA)	Sessions and Ruth 1990
	E, L <sup>E*</sup> , M	1086	M	United States (CA)	Johnson et al. 1999
	L <sup>P</sup>	391	M	United States (CA, OR)	Sessions et al. 1999
<i>Litoria aurea</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Australia	O'Donoghue 1910
	L	1	A	New Zealand	Richardson and Barwick 1957
<i>L. bicolor</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	6	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. caerulea</i>	L <sup>E</sup> , M	4	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. dahlia</i>	L <sup>E*</sup>	11	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. inermis</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	7	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. meiriana</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	3	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. pallida</i>	L <sup>E*</sup>	5	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. rothii</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	1	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>L. rubella</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A	Australia	Tyler 1976
	L <sup>f</sup> , M	36	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. torneri</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	4	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>Phrynohyas hebes</i>	A, L <sup>f</sup>	1	A	Federative Republic of Brazil	Vizotto et al. 1977
Leptodactylidae					
<i>Eleutherodactylus rugulosus</i>	L	1	A or "M"	Costa Rica	Tyler 1989
<i>Leptodactylus ocellatus</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	2	M	Federative Republic of Brazil	Amaro and Sena 1968
Myobatrachidae					
<i>Limnodynastes dumerilii</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. ornatus</i>	L <sup>f</sup> *	61	A, M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>L. tasmaniensis</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A or M	Australia	Kinghorn 1924
<i>Neobatrachus aquilonius</i>	L <sup>f</sup> , M*	17	A	Australia	Tyler et al. 1985
<i>N. centralis</i>	L <sup>f</sup> *	37	A, M	Australia	Read and Tyler 1990, 1994
<i>Notaden melanoscaphus</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	3	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
<i>Uperoleia inundata</i>	L <sup>f</sup> *	9	A or M	Australia	Tyler 1989
Pelobatidae					
<i>Pelobates cultripes</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A or M	France	Gervais 1864
<i>P. fuscus</i>	V	2	T	France	Héron-Royer 1884
<i>Scaphiopus bombifrons</i>	L	6	A or M	United States	Tyler 1989
Pipidae					
<i>Xenopus laevis</i>	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A	Republic of South Africa	Hobson 1958

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
Ranidae					
<i>Rana alpicola</i>	L <sup>E</sup>	2	M, T	India	Anandale 1905
<i>R. arvalis</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	36	A, M, T	Byelorussia	Borkin and Pikulik 1986
	E, L <sup>E</sup> , M	53	A, M	Russian Federation	Vershinin 1989, 1995b
<i>R. aurora</i>	L <sup>E,P</sup>	2	A or M	United States (CA)	Cunningham 1955
<i>R. boylei</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	United States (CA)	Banta 1966
<i>R. catesbeiana</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	Canada (QC)	Anonymous 1944
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	United States (CA) <sup>4</sup>	Pelgen 1951
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	T	United States (GA)	Houck and Henderson 1953
	L <sup>P</sup>	>20	M	United States (OH)	Anonymous 1954
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	United States (NJ)	Pearson 1960
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	United States (CA) <sup>4</sup>	Ruth 1961
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A or M	United States (AL)	Anonymous 1962
	L <sup>P</sup>	> 350	M	United States (MS)	Volpe 1970
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	United States (IL)	Lopez and Maxson 1990
	O	1202	T	United States (SC)	Rowe et al. 1996
	L <sup>E</sup>	1	M	Canada (QC)	Ouellet et al. 1997
<i>R. chensinensis</i> <sup>5</sup>	E, L <sup>E</sup>	2384	A, M, T	Russian Federation [Sakhalin Island]	Mizgirev et al. 1984
<i>R. clamitans</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A or M	United States	Duméril 1865a, 1865b
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	United States (IA)	Anonymous 1945
	E, H, L <sup>E</sup> , M	>41	A, M	United States (MI)	Martof 1956
	L <sup>P</sup>	2	M	United States (MD)	Cooper 1958
	L <sup>P</sup>	>1	M	Canada (ON)	Froom 1982
	E, L <sup>E</sup>	26	A, M	Canada (QC)	Bonin et al. 1997; Ouellet et al. 1997
<i>R. cyanophlyctis</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	M	Sri Lanka	Deraniyagala 1944



Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>R. esculenta</i> complex <sup>6</sup>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	France	Duméril 1865a, 1865b
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A, M	Switzerland	Lunel 1868
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or M	Italy	Sordelli 1876
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A or M	Italy	Strobel 1876
	L <sup>p</sup>	5	A	Italy	Ercolani 1881
	L <sup>e</sup>	1	M	Italy	Camerano 1888
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Italy	Mazza 1888
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Russian Federation	Cholodkovsky 1896
	L <sup>f*</sup>	1	M	Federal Republic of Germany	Tornier 1898
	E	1	A	France	Paris 1912
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	T	Federal Republic of Germany	Schüßler 1925
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Federal Republic of Germany	Hellmich 1929
	L <sup>p</sup>	21	A	France	Bonnet and Rey 1935, 1937
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Denmark	Hvass 1943
	L <sup>p</sup>	> 1000	A, M, T	France	Rostand 1950, 1951a, 1958, 1959, 1971
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Federal Republic of Germany	Klausewitz 1952
	L <sup>p</sup>	31	M, T	Netherlands	Hillenius 1959
	L <sup>f*</sup>	1	A	Hungary	Dely 1960
	L <sup>p</sup>	21	A, M	France	Dubois 1968
	E*, L <sup>f*</sup>	> 168	A, M, T	France [and others]	Dubois 1979
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Romania	Andrei 1985
	L <sup>p</sup>	47	A, M	Byelorussia	Borkin and Pikulik 1986

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>R. graeca</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Greece	Hellmich 1929
	L <sup>p</sup>	54	M, T	Federal Republic of Yugoslavia [Montenegro]	Dubois 1974
<i>R. grisea</i>	L	1	A or M	[New Guinea]	Tyler 1989
<i>R. iberica</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	3	A	Portugal	Dubois and Thireau 1972
<i>R. lessonae</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A	Latvia	Borkin and Pikulik 1986
<i>R. nigromaculata</i>	L <sup>p*</sup>	1	A	People's Republic of China	Wu and Liu 1941
<i>R. ornativentris</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	8	M	Japan	Takeishi 1996
<i>R. palmipes</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	[Central or South America]	Johnson 1901
	L	1	A	Mexico (Chiapas)	Lynch 1965
<i>R. palustris</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or M	United States (PA)	Ryder 1878
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (MA)	Tuckerman 1886
	L	12	M	United States (NC)	Murphy 1965
<i>R. perezi</i>	L <sup>p*</sup>	4	A	Spain [Canary Islands] <sup>4</sup>	Luis and Báez 1987
<i>R. pipiens</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (NY)	Kingsley 1881
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (IN)	Eigenmann and Cox 1901
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	M	United States (IL, NY)	Johnson 1901
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (WI)	Wagner 1913
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (PA)	Colton 1922
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United States (MN)	Charles 1944

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>R. pipiens</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	3	A or M	United States (CO)	Rosine 1955
	L <sup>f</sup>	1	A	United States (OH)	Adler 1958
	L <sup>e</sup>	49	M	United States (MN)	Merrell 1969
	L <sup>e</sup>	41	M	Canada (QC)	Ouellet et al. 1997
	E*, L <sup>e</sup> , L <sup>f</sup> *	180	M	United States (MN)	Burkhardt et al. 1998
	E*, L <sup>e</sup> , L <sup>f</sup> *	> 241	M	United States (MN)	Helgen et al. 1998
<i>R. ridibunda</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	> 546	A, M, T	Kazakhstan, Russian Federation	Woitkewitsch 1955, 1959, 1961, 1963, 1965
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or M	Turkmenistan	Ataeva 1986
	L <sup>e</sup>	4	M	Russian Federation [Ural] <sup>4</sup>	Vershinin 1989, 1995b
	L <sup>e</sup>	1471	A or M	Ukraine	Flax and Borkin 1997
<i>R. septentrionalis</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Canada (ON)	Anonymous 1945
<i>R. temporaria</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	France	Duméril 1865a, 1865b
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or M	Italy	Strobel 1876
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Sweden	Bergendal 1889
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United Kingdom	Bland Sutton 1889, 1890
	H	1	T	France	Loyez 1897

Table 11-1 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stages of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>R. temporaria</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	[Europe]	Gemmill 1906
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United Kingdom	O'Donoghue 1910
	L <sup>e</sup>	1	A	United Kingdom	Row 1916
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	United Kingdom	Hamilton 1950
	L <sup>e,p</sup>	> 75	A, M, T	France	Rostand 1950, 1951a, 1952a, 1956a, 1956b, 1958, 1971
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	M	Federal Republic of Germany	Rahmann et al. 1962
	L <sup>e,p</sup>	3	M	France	Dubois and Vachard 1969
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Federal Republic of Germany	Lüdicke 1971
	L <sup>e</sup>	1	A	Finland	Koskela 1974
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A, M	Latvia	Borkin and Pikulik 1986
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Federal Republic of Germany	Meyer-Rochow and Koebeke 1986
<i>R. tigrina</i>	E, L <sup>e</sup>	11	A, M	Russian Federation	Vershinin 1989, 1995b
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	India	Mahendra 1936

<sup>1</sup> According to Frost (1985), see also Schmidt (1953) and Gorham (1974) for synonymy

<sup>2</sup> A = Axial deformities: kyphosis, lordosis, scoliosis; E = Eye deformities: four-eyed tadpole, palatine eye, unilateral anophthalmia; H = Head deformities: absence of one tympanum, dicephalism; L = Limb deformities: anteversions, bony excrescences, bony triangles, brachydactyly, brachymely, clinodactyly, cutaneous fusion, ectopic structures, ectrodactyly (oligodactyly), ectromelia, hemimely, luxation, paralysis, permanent extension of limbs, polydactyly, polymely, polypody, retained forelimbs, subluxation, syndactyly, symmely, taumely; L<sup>e</sup> = Mostly ectromelia and/or ectrodactyly; L<sup>p</sup> = mostly polymely and/or polydactyly; M = Mouth deformities: injuries\*, mandibular hypoplasia; O = Oral deformities: abnormal labial papillae, reduced number of labial teeth; S = Snout deformities: monorhiny; V = Spiracle deformities: abnormal development, extra spiracles; \* = Some abnormalities possibly explained by traumatic events or attempted predation

<sup>3</sup> A = Adults: evidence of sexual maturity; M = Metamorphosing anurans: tadpoles with four limbs fully developed (Stage 42, Gosner 1960) to late juveniles (before sexual maturity); T = Tadpoles: from hatching until Stage 41 (Gosner 1960); <sup>4</sup> Introduced species; <sup>5</sup> *Rana chensinensis* = *R. pirica* for that particular locality (Matsui et al. 1993; Tanaka-Ueno et al. 1999); <sup>6</sup> *Rana esculenta* is a hybrid of *R. lessonae* and *R. ridibunda* (Berger 1968a, 1983)

Table 11-2 Species sensitivity and geographic distribution of published salamander deformities in the wild

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<b>Ambystomatidae</b>					
<i>Ambystoma laterale</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	11	J	Canada (NS)	Lowcock et al. 1997
<i>A. macrodactylum</i>	L <sup>e,p*</sup>	1686	A, J, L	United States (CA)	Sessions and Ruth 1990
<i>A. maculatum</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or J	United States (MA)	Kingsley 1880
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A, L	United States (MA)	Winslow 1904
	L <sup>e,p</sup>	29	A	United States (MD, MS)	Worthington 1974
<i>A. talpoideum</i>	L <sup>p</sup> , T <sup>*</sup>	3	A	United States (SC)	Semlitsch et al. 1981
<i>A. tigrinum</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A or J	United States (MN)	Sealander 1944
	L <sup>p</sup>	24	A, L	United States (CO)	Bishop 1947; Bishop and Hamilton 1947; Rosine 1955
<b>Hynobiidae</b>					
<i>Salamandrella keyserlingii</i>	E, L <sup>e,p*</sup>	28	A, J	Russian Federation	Vershinin 1989, 1995b
<b>Plethodontidae</b>					
<i>Desmognathus fuscus</i>	T <sup>*</sup>	> 1	A	Canada (QC)	Pendlebury 1973
<i>Plethodon albagula</i>	L <sup>e,p*</sup>	16	A or J	United States (TX)	Lazell 1995
<i>P. cinereus</i>	L <sup>e*</sup>	> 12	A	Canada (NS)	Hanken 1983
	L <sup>e*</sup>	> 11	A	Canada (NS), United States (ME, VA)	Hanken and Dinsmore 1986
	L <sup>e*</sup> , T <sup>*</sup>	76	A, J	Canada (QC)	Bonin et al. 1999
<i>P. glutinosus</i>	T <sup>*</sup>	1	A	United States (MA)	Winslow 1904
	A	2	J	United States (KY)	Marvin 1995; Marvin and Hutchison 1997

Table 11-2 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>P. kentucki</i>	A, H, M	4	J	United States (KY)	Marvin and Hutchison 1997
<i>P. neomexicanus</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	> 4	A, J	United States (NM)	Dwyer and Hanken 1990
Salamandridae					
<i>Chioglossa lusitanica</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	2	A	Portugal	Dubois and Thireau 1972
<i>Cynops orientalis</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	12	A	People's Republic of China	Chang and Boring 1935
<i>C. pyrrhogaster</i>	L <sup>F*</sup> , T	335	A	Japan	Meyer-Rochow and Asashima 1988
<i>Pachytriton brevipes</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	20	A, J	People's Republic of China	Chang and Boring 1935
<i>Paramotriton chinensis</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	20	A	People's Republic of China	Chang and Boring 1935
<i>Pleurodeles waltl</i>	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A or J	Spain	Héron-Royer 1884
<i>Salamandra salamandra</i>	L <sup>T</sup>	1	A	United Kingdom	Howes 1893
	H, T	5	L	[Europe]	Politzer 1926
	L <sup>P</sup>	1	A	Italy	Hellmich 1929
	E, L <sup>P</sup>	5	L	France	Joly 1966
<i>Taricha granulosa</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	> 30	A	United States (CA)	Shubin et al. 1995
<i>Triturus boscai</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	> 9	A	Portugal	Malkmus 1981
<i>T. carnifex</i>	L <sup>F*</sup>	> 35	A	Italy	Paccos Zaffaroni et al. 1992, 1996

Table 11-2 continued

Taxon <sup>1</sup>	Types of deformities <sup>2</sup>	No. of deformed individuals	Stage of development <sup>3</sup>	Country (province or state)	References
<i>T. cristatus</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	France	Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire 1832
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Federal Republic of Germany	Jäckel 1881
	L <sup>p</sup>	4	A	France	Dubois and Thireau 1972
<i>T. helveticus</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	France	Rostand 1958, 1959
	L <sup>p</sup>	2	A	France	Dubois and Thireau 1972
<i>T. marmoratus</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	France	Rostand 1951a
	L <sup>e,p,*</sup>	41	A	Portugal	Caetano 1991
<i>T. vulgaris</i>	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Italy	Camerano 1882
	L <sup>p</sup>	1	A	Federal Republic of Germany	Landois 1884
	L <sup>e,p,*</sup> , T <sup>*</sup>	25	A	United Kingdom	Griffiths 1981
	L <sup>e,p,*</sup>	35	A	United Kingdom	Roberts and Verrell 1984
	L <sup>e,p</sup>	11	A	Russian Federation	Vershinin 1989, 1995b

<sup>1</sup> According to Frost (1985), see also Schmidt (1953) and Gorham (1974) for synonymy

<sup>2</sup> A = Axial deformities: kyphosis, lordosis, scoliosis; E = Eye deformities: atrophy, unilateral anophthalmia; H = Head deformities: dicephalism; L = Limb deformities: abnormal webbing of toes, brachydactyly, brachymely, clinodactyly, ectopic structures, ectrodactyly (oligodactyly), ectromelia, hemimely, longer digits, polydactyly, polymely, polyptody, syndactyly, symmely; L<sup>e</sup> = mostly ectromelia and/or ectrodactyly; L<sup>p</sup> = mostly polymely and/or polydactyly; M = Mouth deformities: mandibular hypoplasia; T = Tail deformities: amputations\*, extra tails, tail projections; \* = Some abnormalities possibly explained by traumatic events or attempted predation

<sup>3</sup> A = Adults: evidence of sexual maturity; J = Juveniles: from gill resorption for species having aquatic eggs and larvae (from hatching for species having terrestrial eggs) to late juveniles (before sexual maturity); L = Larvae: from hatching until gill resorption for species having aquatic eggs and larvae

individuals or the same sites, and others may include many species. Amphibian deformities are represented mainly by species with life histories that include aquatic eggs and larvae (indirect development). *Eleutherodactylus* frogs and *Plethodon* salamanders do not lay their eggs in water and have direct development, yet deformities have been reported in some species. The highly aquatic *Rana* species are probably overrepresented in the literature because they occur almost worldwide and have long been used in research and teaching activities. Species with a longer larval stage (e.g., up to two years in the North American *Rana catesbeiana*, *R. clamitans*, and *R. septentrionalis*) may be more susceptible if developmental perturbations are waterborne.

The most frequent amphibian deformity cited in the literature is polymely (Tables 11-1 and 11-2). However, this is probably a biased generalization, as extra limbs are spectacular and attract more attention than any other deformity (e.g., Anonymous 1964). Other types of limb abnormalities and external deformities involving the eyes, head, mouth, oral cavity, snout, and tail are also diagnosed in natural populations. The total sample size examined was not taken into consideration (Tables 11-1 and 11-2) because in reports of individual cases, it was often unknown, and in many other cases, the frequencies were not possible to break down.

Amphibian deformities do occur everywhere and in all species. Developmental abnormalities have been described in North, Central, and South America; Europe; Africa; Asia; and Australasia (Figures 11-2 and 11-3). The temperate zone is well represented by reports of mass deformities, but this may reflect more intensive investigation of these areas by herpetologists.

## Possible Causes and Hypotheses

### Abnormal regeneration after injury

It is well known that salamanders have the ability to regenerate lost structures throughout life, while anurans lose that power at the onset of metamorphosis. Yet the regenerative capacity in adult amphibians covers a continuum from normal regeneration to total absence of regenerative ability (Scadding 1981). Some authors (Tornier 1898; Wu and Liu 1941; Rostand 1951a; Dely 1960; Brunst 1961; Dubois 1979; Griffiths 1981) have proposed that isolated cases of polydactyly or polymely in the field may be the result of hyper-regeneration after injury. In these cases, the supernumerary digit or limb is usually heteromorphic and not symmetrical. Laboratory observations confirm this explanation. For example, a series of abnormal limbs due to conspecific bites and mutilations, and subsequent regeneration, was fully described by Duméril (1867) in captive axolotls (*Ambystoma mexicanum*). Hyper-regeneration after injury is also supported by many laboratory experiments. Surgical manipulations of limb buds during critical cell-division stages or of blastemas of regenerating limbs have been shown to be effective ways of producing



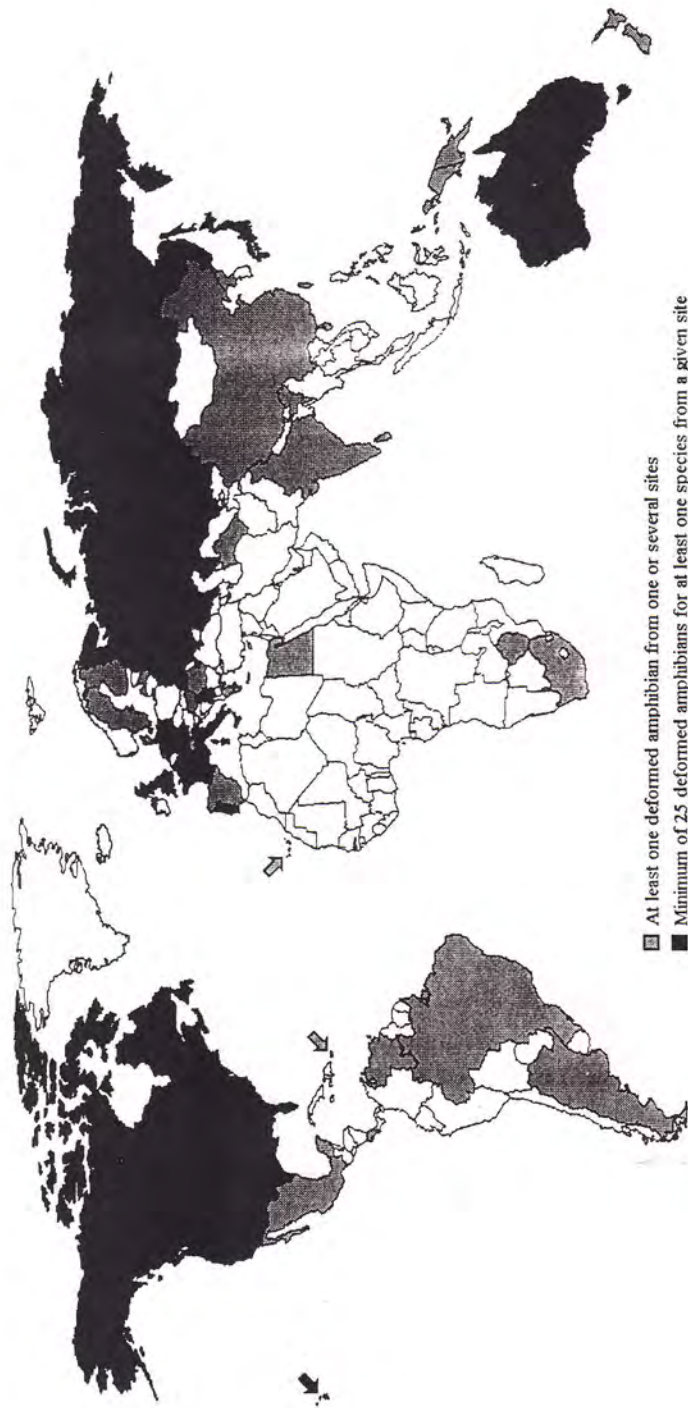


Figure 11-2 Worldwide distribution of published amphibian deformities

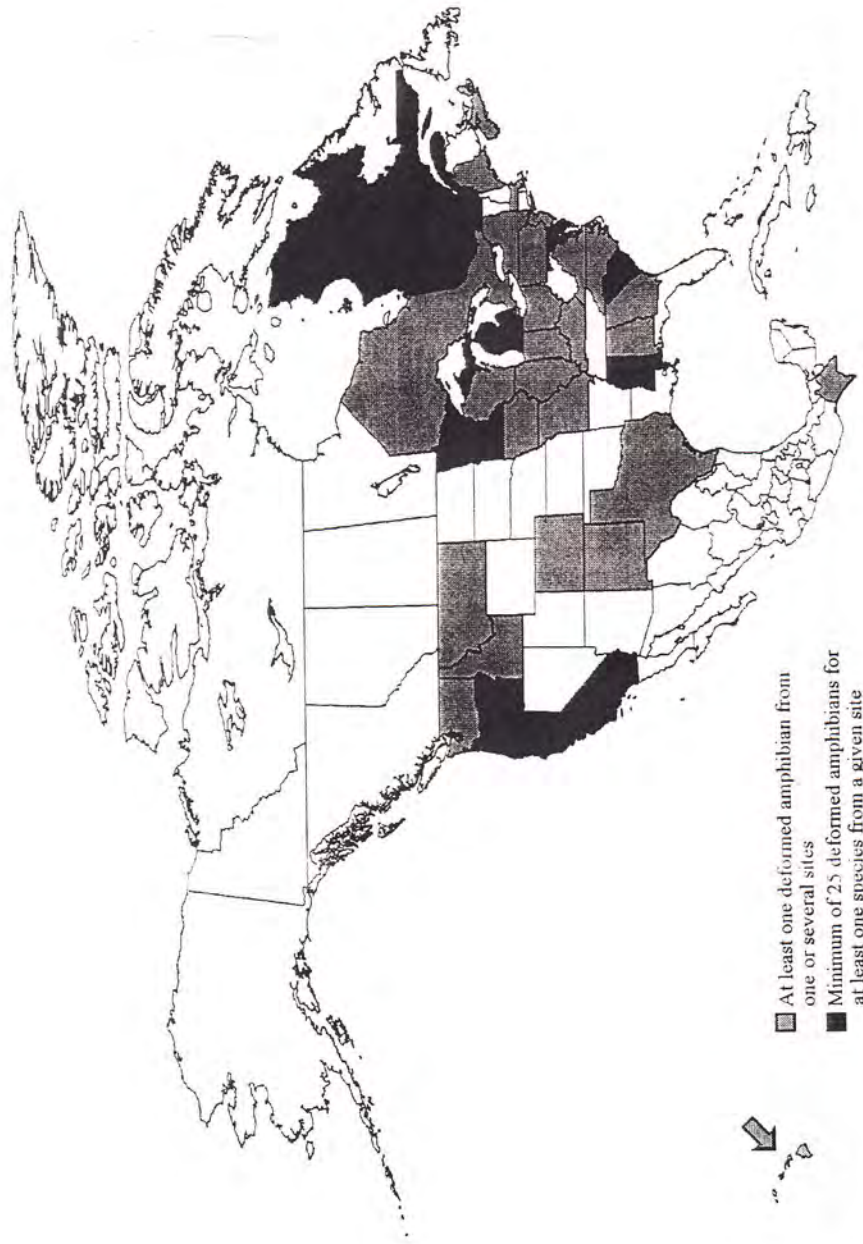


Figure 11-3 North American distribution of published amphibian deformities

extra limbs and digits in amphibians (Barfurth 1895a; Tornier 1897a, 1897b, 1905; Blount 1935; Brandt 1940; Cooper 1965; Bryant and Iten 1976; Maden 1982). More problematic to explain are cases of bilateral polymely because accidents involving both limb buds are less likely to occur in nature. Forelimb deformities are likewise difficult to explain by injury in most anurans because the forelimb buds develop protected in peribranchial sacs within the branchial chamber, whereas the hindlimb buds are in contact with the external milieu during the whole developmental process (Gosner 1960). In salamanders with aquatic larvae, the forelimbs usually undergo much of their development before hatching, while the hindlimbs develop mostly after hatching (Duellman and Trueb 1986) and are thus prone to greater exogenous assaults.

Atypical or limited limb regeneration resulting in a regenerative spike also may occur in adult amphibians following amputation (Thornton and Shields 1945; Scadding 1981) or repeated amputations (Dearlove and Dresden 1976). In the field, predatory leeches (*Erpobdella octoculata*) may damage larval hindlimbs in anurans and subsequently lead to cases of ectromelia and ectrodactyly (Veith and Viertel 1993). Hindlimb appearance after metamorphosis will depend on the level, severity, and time of injury during larval stage (Barfurth 1895b; Schotté and Harland 1943).

#### Agricultural pesticides and fertilizers

Agricultural herbicides, insecticides, fungicides, and fertilizers are often toxic to nontarget organisms, and can cause deformities and mortality in amphibians (Harfenist et al. 1989; Diana and Beasley 1998). In addition to the active ingredients in pesticides, a number of pesticides also contain solvents as inert ingredients that may contribute to potential developmental toxicity. Axial skeleton and tail malformations are observed after pesticide or fertilizer treatments in laboratory and field experiments conducted on anuran embryos and tadpoles (Cooke 1981; Tyler 1989; Hecnar 1995). Thus far, few studies have dealt with the full limb-development stage. Alvarez et al. (1995) reported skeletal malformations in metamorphosing *Rana perezi* kept in water containing sublethal levels of the insecticides methyl-parathion and pirimicarb. Tadpoles suffered hindlimb brachymely with twisted epiphyses of the long bones and scoliosis. The effects of the fungicide maneb (manganese ethylenebisdithiocarbamate) on limb regeneration of adult *Triturus carnifex* were examined by Arias and Zavanella (1979) and Zavanella et al. (1984). Growth retardation and skeletal abnormalities of the regenerating forelimbs were found in both studies. Brachymely, clinodactyly, ectrodactyly, syndactyly, and/or supernumerary distal bone elements were observed in all newts exposed to maneb, while only a few minor abnormalities were encountered in control animals.

Quellet et al. (1997) reported hindlimb deformities in free-living anurans from agricultural habitats exposed to pesticide runoff in the St. Lawrence River Valley of Québec. In agricultural areas, ponds or ditches were adjacent to plots of barley, corn, potatoes, soya, sweet corn, and/or wheat. A wide range of pesticide products

was used in these sites, as often as three times during a given season. Pesticide-free control sites were localized either in pastures or old fields. Of 853 metamorphosing anurans examined in 14 farmland habitats, 106 (12.4%) had severe degrees of ectromelia and ectrodactyly, compared to only two (0.7%) of 271 in 12 unexposed sites. In this preliminary study, the variance in the proportion of deformities among sites was too great to provide statistical power sufficient to conclude that there was a significant difference between pesticide-exposed and control habitats.

#### Chemical composition of the water

Acidity can affect amphibians directly, as well as indirectly by influencing the toxicity of xenobiotic contaminants (Harfenist et al. 1989; see also Chapters 7 and 9, this volume). In laboratory experiments, skeletal deformities have been induced in *Rana temporaria* raised to metamorphosis at low pH (Cummins 1987, 1989). Tadpoles that grew and developed rapidly at pH 4 suffered brachymely, permanent extension, and/or grossly deformed hindlimbs. However, the effect of acidity was difficult to dissociate from tadpole crowding and from a diet of food exposed to acidified water (Cummins 1989). Further water-quality variables such as hardness, osmotic pressure, and oxygen concentration have been mentioned as potential causative agents of abnormalities, but these factors are not yet linked with actual amphibian deformities.

#### Coexistence with certain fishes

A severe form of polydactyly, called "Anomalie P," which is commonly accompanied with brachymely, polymely, and grossly deformed limbs, was observed over a period of two decades in some populations of the *Rana esculenta* complex in France (Rostand 1958, 1959, 1971; Dubois 1983). This condition is polymorphic but is usually bilateral and characterized by a postero-anterior gradient of teratogenicity. All the other amphibian species inhabiting these ponds were found to be physically normal. In young tadpoles exhibiting the anomaly, distal amputation of an abnormal hindlimb was followed by regeneration of a normal limb (Rostand 1952b). The coexistence of certain fishes (*Anguilla* sp., *Tinca* sp.) with *R. esculenta* during the first days of the larval life was discovered to be sufficient to induce Anomalie P. Rostand and Darré (1967, 1968) succeeded in producing abnormalities in larvae they had reared in special cages kept partly submerged in an anomaly producing pond. In these cages, two or three fishes (*Anguilla* sp., *Tinca* sp.) were restrained for two weeks with newly hatched *R. esculenta* larvae from a control area. No deformity was observed when the larvae were raised alone (Rostand et al. 1967). In the laboratory, Rostand and Darré (1969) were able to cause Anomalie P by rearing two- and three-day-old *R. esculenta* in contact with only the excrement of either of these two fish species caught in the anomaly producing pond. Larvae were considered to be sensitive to a factor present in the fishes digestive tract, the factor being perhaps a

teratogenic virus. Meanwhile, Surlève-Bazeille and Cambar (1969) were unable to induce the anomaly in *R. esculenta* when using only the mucus of these fish or bacterial cultures of it. However, cases of ectrodactyly and syndactyly were obtained by rearing larvae of *Rana temporaria* in contact with this mucus (Surlève-Bazeille, Cambar, and Mauget 1969). Histological examination of affected limbs in metamorphosing *R. esculenta* was briefly described by Surlève-Bazeille, Cambar, and Calas (1969). Light and electron microscopy revealed no viral particles or parasites in relation to limb structures (Surlève-Bazeille, Cambar, and Calas 1969; Surlève-Bazeille et al. 1970).

### Diseases

Aflatoxins B<sub>1</sub> and G<sub>1</sub> diluted in water have induced teratogenic responses in *Rana temporaria* and *Bombina* sp. (Gabor et al. 1973; Puşcariu et al. 1973). Ascites was observed in tadpoles, while three metamorphosing *R. temporaria* exhibited either bilateral posterior ectromelia or hemimely.

Recent observations suggest that environmental toxicants might increase susceptibility of amphibians to disease (Carey and Bryant 1995). However, bacterial and fungal infections have not yet been incriminated in the wild as causative agents in cases of amphibian deformities. Little is known about the consequences of these infections on limb development.

### Elevated tadpole densities

Berger (1968b, 1971) obtained multiple limb deformities when elevated densities of tadpoles were reared together in common aquaria. In particular, forelimb ectromelia and ectrodactyly were encountered in *Rana esculenta* complex froglets raised in densities between 3.5 to 11.1 tadpoles per liter of water. Cases of permanent extension of one or both hindlimbs also occurred (Berger 1971). It is not known if a chemical factor with some teratogenic properties can be released by crowded tadpoles.

### Extreme temperatures

Anomalies in forelimb and hindlimb skeletons have been induced artificially in larvae of *Bufo vulgaris formosus* reared at a high temperature (Muto 1969a, 1969b, 1970). Digital malformations involving the metacarpal, metatarsal, and phalangeal bones (brachydactyly, ectrodactyly) were commonly observed at 30 °C, while the development was normal in control toads raised at 20 °C. The skeletal elements that differentiate at the earlier stages were more resistant to defective changes than were elements that differentiate at the later stages (Muto 1969a). Because similar anomalies were obtained at 30 °C when the water was aerated by an air pump (Muto 1971), it was determined that the high temperature was the primary teratogenic agent rather than the associated lower oxygen supply. In some laboratory stocks of *Pleurodeles waltl*, Dournon (1983) also observed that more larvae displayed hindlimb

ectrodactyly, ectromelia, or knee anteversion when reared at 30 °C compared to others kept at 20 °C.

In the field, the teratogenic action of extreme temperature has been blamed for accounts of deformities occurring in isolated habitats (Woitekewitch 1961; Worthington 1974). Polymelous anurans were encountered in a region of cold spring water in a particular reservoir (Woitekewitch 1961). Retardation of development in cold water might influence normal limb formation in ectotherm animals to produce deformities. Woitekewitch (1961) also noticed that overwintering larvae of *Rana ridibunda* were prone to a higher rate of hindlimb polymely, mainly on the right body side.

### Hereditary mechanisms

Some types of mass deformities may be due to genetic mutation. A recessive lethal factor was discovered in *Ambystoma mexicanum* of the mutant white strain (Humphrey 1967). The lethal trait induced limb brachymely and ectrodactyly, incomplete development of Müllerian ducts, and renal pathology and dysfunction leading to death. Droin et al. (1968) described a recessive lethal mutation that caused mandibular deformities in *Xenopus laevis* embryos. Uehlinger (1969) further reported a recessive sublethal mutation that was responsible for severe forms of polydactyly in *X. laevis*. In the same laboratory stock of *X. laevis*, cases of brachydactyly, brachymely, clinodactyly, polydactyly, and syndactyly resulted from another recessive and semilethal mutation (Droin and Fischberg 1980). These latest abnormalities were more frequent in forelimbs than in hindlimbs. A hereditary mechanism in *Bufo bufo* was also proposed by Ponse (1941) for cases of forelimb ectromelia, by Rostand (1947, 1951a) for cases of polydactyly, and by Rostand (1949a) for one case of polymely. A hereditary polymely was described in toads by Witschi and Chang (1954), but the condition was associated with egg overripeness and edema of the tadpoles. Genetic determinism has been demonstrated or hypothesized for some cases of clinodactyly, ectrodactyly, and syndactyly in *Rana temporaria* (Dubois and Vachard 1971; Dubois 1977).

Spontaneous mutations are conceivable to explain some unusual types of deformities, but this hypothesis remains generally untested. For example, abnormal webbing of toes in salamanders has been suggested by Meyer-Rochow and Asashima (1988) and Meyer-Rochow (1989) to be genetically controlled. However, this webbing might be explained by an atypical regeneration following a traumatic event.

Hybridization also has been hypothesized by Berger (1971) to explain the occurrence of some developmental abnormalities among progeny of crosses between different phenotypes of *Rana esculenta*, *R. lessonae*, and *R. ridibunda*. Spinal curvature was common in hybrid tadpoles, while permanent extension of hindlimbs and ectrodactyly were observed in metamorphosed frogs. These deformities also could be due to deficiencies in the rearing conditions. An abnormal metamorphosing

tadpole with generalized edema from a *Bombina variegata/Bombina bombina* hybridizing population from the wild was described by Gollmann et al. (1984).

### Nutritional deficiencies

Skeletal malformations, luxations and subluxations of the hindlimbs, and ectrodactyly were obtained in metamorphosing *Rana perezi* reared in culture (Martínez et al. 1992). The authors suggested that the origin of the lesions was a deficiency in some compounded diets, which could alter collagen metabolism during skeletal adjustments at metamorphosis. Growing amphibians fed calcium-deficient or vitamin D-deficient foods may develop metabolic or nutritional bone disease (Crawshaw 1993; Wright 1996). Mandibular deformities, scoliosis, folding fractures of the long bones, and paralysis are sometimes observed clinically. Decreasing bone density and pathologic fractures may be seen radiographically. Diets with increased amount of calcium (Marshall et al. 1980) or vitamin C (Leibovitz et al. 1982) were both associated with a reduced incidence of scoliosis and twisted limbs in cultured *Rana catesbeiana* larvae.

The spindly leg syndrome is characterized by hypomorphic limbs, in which forelimbs often fail to emerge from the branchial chamber at metamorphosis (Crawshaw 1993; Wright 1996). A nutritional etiology also has been proposed for this condition encountered in some captive anurans, especially metamorphosing Dendrobatidae (Crawshaw 1993).

### Osteolathyrogenic agents

Osteolathyrogenic defects are characterized by decreased connective tissue strength and collagen extractability, which are manifested in early embryos as notochord and tail deformities in the long axis of the animal. In metamorphosing anurans, joint dislocations and limb distortions are the clinical manifestations. Sweet pea poisoning and a variety of synthetic lathyrogenic compounds such as organic nitriles, ureides, hydrazides, and hydrazines are able to induce osteolathyrisms (Levy 1959; Barrow et al. 1974). The teratogenic effects of sweet pea seeds (*Lathyrus odoratus*) and their extracts were first described in amphibians by Chang et al. (1954, 1955) on *Xenopus laevis* development and *Notophthalmus viridescens* regenerating limbs. Hindlimb deformities such as brachymely, joint dislocations, bent long bones (bony triangles), and clinodactyly were similarly obtained in *Rana temporaria* treated with *Lathyrus odoratus* seeds (Roth 1978, 1988). Toxic and osteolathyrogenic effects have also been observed in *X. laevis* embryos and metamorphosing tadpoles exposed to hydrazine, methylhydrazine, and dimethylhydrazine (Greenhouse 1976), thiosemicarbazide (Newman and Dumont 1983), semicarbazide (Schultz et al. 1985), benzoyl hydrazine (Riggin and Schultz 1986), as well as benzoic hydrazide and  $\beta$ -aminopropionitrile (Dawson 1993).

### Parasitic cysts

The potential influence of a parasitic factor has long been suggested in the literature (Woitkewitch 1961). Sessions and Ruth (1990) reported 205 *Hyla regilla* and 1686 *Ambystoma macrodactylum* with limb abnormalities, including supernumerary hindlimbs, in two adjacent ponds in California. Metacercarial cysts of digenetic trematodes were found preferentially localized in the cloacal and developing hindlimb regions in larvae of both species. Certain species of these parasitic flatworms use amphibians as a secondary intermediate host in a complex life cycle in which the definitive host is usually a vertebrate (e.g., aquatic birds, fishes, snakes) and pond snails are the first intermediate host. It was hypothesized by Sessions and Ruth (1990) that metacercarial cysts of trematodes can interfere mechanically with normal limb development and regeneration by disrupting positional relationships between cells to produce extra limbs in amphibians. Sessions and Ruth (1990) experimentally induced duplicated distal limb structures by implanting inert resin beads into developing limb buds of laboratory-raised *Xenopus laevis* and *Ambystoma mexicanum*. They proposed that extra hindlimbs with mirror-image duplications in the anteroposterior axis are a characteristic feature of trematode infestation (see also Sessions et al. 1999). Hindlimb deformities including cases of cutaneous fusion, ectromelia, hemimely, and polymely were recently obtained in metamorphosing *H. regilla* exposed as tadpoles to cercariae of *Ribeiroia* sp. (Johnson et al. 1999).

Digenetic trematode infestation in deformed amphibians and aquatic snail population fluctuations warrant further studies. Host animals and their parasites usually exist in relative equilibrium in most environments. Trematode communities in molluscan intermediate hosts are highly structured, very dynamic in character, and reflect long periods of coevolution (Esch and Fernandez 1994). Anthropogenic habitat alteration, introduced species, and poor water quality may influence snail dynamics, trematode abundance and interactions, and host behavior. Environmental deterioration also may compromise the immune system of amphibian hosts and affect their susceptibility to parasite infestation. Proper identification of trematode cysts following a careful dissection of deformed amphibians, and the experimental induction of limb deformities by using actual trematode cercariae remain to be performed in different amphibian species.

### Radioactive pollution

Abnormalities in the formation of visual organs have been induced experimentally in *Rana nigromaculata* larvae reared in rainwater contaminated with radioactive dust (Nishimura 1967). In the wild, an outbreak of limb deformities similar to those of Anomalie P was discovered in a canal carrying waste from a nuclear research institute in the Netherlands (Hillenius 1959). The abnormalities found in metamorphosing frogs of the *Rana esculenta* complex were associated with the presence of radioactive waste. Henle (1981) reported a similar case of mass deformities in *Bufo viridis* encountered in a particular quarry in the Federal Republic of Germany. High



levels of radioactivity were first measured near the breeding pond but were not subsequently verified because of the owner's controversial destruction of the habitat. Further environmental and experimental evidence will be necessary to support this hypothesis.

### Retinoids

In vertebrates, retinoids (vitamin A and derivatives) carry out important roles in cell differentiation, embryonic development, and morphogenesis. Retinoids are necessary for normal limb development but are capable of altering normal developmental pathways in certain instances (Maden 1996; Gilbert 1997). Alteration of pattern formation in both developing and regenerating amphibian limbs has been induced by exogenous vitamin A and its analogues (Niazi and Saxena 1978; Johnson and Scadding 1991; Maden 1996, 1997; Niazi 1996). A hypomorphic response such as the reduction or absence of limb structures (i.e., ectromelia and ectrodactyly) can be produced with exogenous retinoids on developing limbs. In the regenerating amphibian limb, an excess of retinoids may result in a hypermorphic response characterized by duplications of limb structures (e.g., in the proximodistal axis), which can include mirror images (Maden 1983a). The regeneration of such amputated limbs in larvae can be modified in either the proximodistal, the anteroposterior, or the dorsoventral axes (Maden 1996; Niazi 1996). Bent long bones forming bony triangles or pyramids are sometimes found in these experiments (e.g., Maden 1983a; Scadding and Maden 1986a, 1986b). Remarkably, exogenous retinoids also can cause homeotic transformation of regenerating tissue in anurans. When amputated tails of tadpoles are treated with retinoids, hindlimbs are regenerated instead of new tails (Mohanty-Hejmadi et al. 1992; Maden 1993; Mahapatra and Mohanty-Hejmadi 1994). Maden and Corcoran (1996) suggest that thyroid-hormone receptors are also involved in the homeotic transformation of tails into limbs. The retinoid effects are concentration-, time-, and stage-dependent and affect the degree of limb reduction or duplication. Of the naturally occurring retinoids, retinoic acid is the most potent (Maden 1983b), but synthetic retinoids may be more potent still.

The insecticide methoprene, a synthetic terpenoid, is an insect-growth regulator used in a variety of domestic and agricultural products. At least one metabolite of methoprene, methoprene acid, has been shown to bind to retinoid X receptors and to stimulate gene transcription in both insect and mammalian cells (Harmon et al. 1995). Methoprene is thus able to mimic the action of juvenile hormone in insects and also can activate a mammalian retinoid-responsive pathway (Harmon et al. 1995). Other synthetic ligands selective for retinoic acid receptors and retinoid X receptors have produced severe malformations in *Xenopus laevis* embryos (Minucci et al. 1996). These results raise the possibility that methoprene and other yet-to-be-discovered exogenous retinoid analogues might play a role in amphibian develop-

mental abnormalities by affecting retinoid receptor pathways. Although low methoprene concentrations may pose minimal teratogenicity for laboratory-raised amphibians (Ankley et al. 1998; La Clair et al. 1998), its metabolites and photoisomers may prove to be very teratogenic, as shown recently in *X. laevis* embryos by La Clair et al. (1998).

### Teratogenic viruses

A viral etiology has been proposed, but not verified, to explain the occurrence of Anomalie P in populations of the *Rana esculenta* complex (Rostand and Darré 1969; Rostand 1971). Viruses should be considered in any investigation of abnormal amphibians, and especially in cases where diseases and mass deformities are encountered. A few viruses were recently identified in certain amphibian populations, and some were associated with episodes of mortality (Cunningham et al. 1996; Crawshaw 1997).

### Trace metals

A number of metals have toxic and teratogenic effects on amphibians (Harfenist et al. 1989; Tyler 1989). Dissolved organic carbon, hardness, pH, and temperature of the water may all influence metal toxicity in breeding habitats (Freda 1991). Ocular malformations such as microphthalmia and hypopigmentation are observed in *Xenopus laevis* exposed to Ni during embryogenesis (Hauptman et al. 1993). In South Carolina, oral deformities in *Rana catesbeiana* tadpoles have been linked with coal-ash pollutants (Rowe et al. 1996, 1998). The polluted site and tadpole tissues were contaminated with a mixture of As, Ba, Cd, Cr, and Se resulting from coal combustion wastes.

### Ultraviolet B radiation

Increased solar ultraviolet (UV) radiation has the potential to affect amphibian development directly, as well as indirectly through changes in water chemistry and formation of breakdown products resulting from photochemical reactions (Ovaska 1997; Blaustein et al. 1998). Cases of posterior ectromelia and polymely in *Rana temporaria* have been obtained following exposure to ultraviolet B (UV-B) radiation (Rostand 1955a, 1958). Larvae were irradiated for 15 minutes one or two days after hatching in laboratory situations. Even after prolonged exposure of larvae to ambient solar radiation, Rostand was unable to reproduce the same deformities in other experiments. Butler and Blum (1963) found that localized ultraviolet irradiation of the forelimb of larval *Ambystoma maculatum* and *A. opacum* was sufficient to cause the formation of a supernumerary limb at the level of irradiation. In the laboratory, *Bufo boreas* tadpoles exposed to enhanced levels of UV-B displayed abnormal development of the cornea, areas of hyperplasia in the integument, lordosis, and increased mortality (Worrest and Kimeldorf 1975, 1976). Lordosis in tadpoles and generalized distension in both tadpoles and newly metamorphosed

*Hyla regilla* and *Rana cascadae* were similarly induced under UV-B and ultraviolet A light (Hays et al. 1996). Ankley et al. (1998) have obtained many cases of hindlimb ectromelia and ectrodactyly, which usually were bilateral and often symmetrical in *Rana pipiens* held under UV light. Under field conditions, Blaustein et al. (1997) showed that *Ambystoma macrodactylum* embryos exposed to ambient levels of UV-B in controlled experiments developed edema and tail malformations.

### Other xenobiotic chemicals

Various other industrial and domestic chemicals (including pharmaceutical products and endocrine disruptors) are released in aquatic ecosystems and may potentially interfere with the health of amphibian populations. Cases of hindlimb ectromelia and unilateral anophthalmia were encountered in anurans inhabiting three different regions contaminated with sewage effluent from a paper factory and municipal gutters (Mizgireuv et al. 1984). Among the 6360 *Rana chensinensis* (= *R. pirica*) examined in these regions of Sakhalin Island, Russian Federation, 2384 (37.5%) individuals of diverse ages exhibited limb abnormalities. Mizgireuv et al. (1984) also reported tumor-like dysplasia of osteochondrous tissue of hindlimbs in 328 (5.2%) of these frogs. More recently, hindlimb ectromelia and ectrodactyly, polydactyly, and tumor-like lesions were diagnosed in industrialized regions of eastern Ukraine (Flax and Borkin 1997). Of 3505 *Rana ridibunda* and 1980 *Bombina bombina* examined from water bodies polluted by factories of various types, 1471 (42.0%) and 567 (28.6%) individuals, respectively, showed limb abnormalities. In the Urals, greater percentages of morphological deformities were observed in heavily urbanized areas than in more natural habitats (Vershinin 1989, 1995a, 1995b). Environmental pollution in urban regions could be responsible for the higher rates of developmental deformities, abnormal regeneration, mutation frequencies, and neoplasms in both frogs and salamanders.

## Implications in Amphibian Population Declines

In areas where deformities were abundant in the 1950s and 1960s, anuran survivorship was already a matter of concern (Rostand and Darré 1968; Rostand 1971). Severe cases of Anomalie P were always lethal under field conditions at the metamorphic stage. Injuries and mechanical interferences caused by the abnormal hindlimbs were responsible for the mortality (Rostand 1955b). The highest prevalences of amphibian deformities are found in metamorphosing individuals while low frequencies prevail among adults (Martof 1956; Rostand 1959; Sessions and Ruth 1990; Veith and Viertel 1993; Ouellet et al. 1997; Johnson et al. 1999). It is easy to see that developmental abnormalities are maladaptive and can affect survivorship by interfering with swimming, hopping, acquisition of food, and avoidance of predators. Abnormalities are likely to affect population recruitment at local and regional scales. Thus far, deformities seem site-specific, and there is no real

evidence of an unitary global phenomenon. Since one or more of a variety of factors may cause amphibian deformities, population level studies will be required to determine the extent to which mass deformities contribute to amphibian declines at local, regional, or global scales.

### Environmental Degradation and Human-health Concerns

In humans, deformities very similar to those encountered in amphibians are not rare and have long been reported in the scientific literature (Liceti 1634; Vallisneri 1733a, 1733b, 1733c; De Superville 1740; Virey 1819; Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire 1832, 1836a, 1836b; Handyside 1866; Bateson 1894). More recently, Schwartz and LoGerfo (1988) associated congenital limb reduction defects with parental involvement in agricultural work and residence in agricultural settings. The authors stressed that although pesticides are the most obvious toxic agent, other environmental exposures are unique to the agricultural setting, such as inorganic and organic fertilizers and specific pollens. Garry et al. (1996) reported that private pesticide applicators and families residing in predominantly agricultural regions are more likely to have children with birth anomalies. Excess frequencies of musculoskeletal anomalies including limb reduction defects, polydactyly, syndactyly, and adactyly were associated with agricultural work by pesticide applicators. A recent literature review also reported that there were some indications of elevated risks of limb anomalies and orofacial clefts associated with environmental or occupational exposure to pesticides (Nurminen 1995).

Today, large numbers of pesticides and industrial chemicals are widely distributed in the environment. These pollutants have multiple modes of action, and many can disturb normal development and endocrine function in both wildlife and humans (Zile 1992; Colborn et al. 1993; Guillette 1995; Hayes 1997; LeBlanc and Bain 1997; Arbuckle and Sever 1998; Cheek et al. 1998). Endocrine-disrupting toxicants may have effects at cellular and tissue levels well below detectable levels.

Clinical examination and measurement of frequency of external deformities in tadpoles (Cooke 1981) and metamorphosing anurans (Ouellet et al. 1997) have been proposed as a first step to the assessment of ecosystem health and the detection of environmental contaminants in agricultural habitats. This screening tool is economical and noninvasive and may be of ecological significance, especially as an indicator in freshwater ecosystems. The relevance to human health lies in the understanding of cause-effect linkages between all possible natural and anthropogenic factors and the high frequencies of amphibian deformities where they occur. Consideration should be given to the fact that environmental pollutants might produce a broad spectrum of sublethal and lethal effects that are still poorly understood. Deformity rates are determined from survivors and, if sublethal

responses to some contaminants are skewed toward lethality, their impact might be underestimated. In farming regions of the St. Lawrence River Valley of Québec, genotoxic effects, assayed as DNA profile abnormalities, were identified by flow cytometry in outwardly deformed metamorphosing *Rana clamitans* as well as in apparently healthy adults where both were subjected to pesticide applications (Bonin et al. 1997; Lowcock et al. 1997). As another example, Honrubia et al. (1993) showed that chronic exposure to pirimicarb, a carbamate insecticide, induced structural changes of gills, liver, gallbladder, heart, and notochord in *Rana perezi* tadpoles. Physical deformities may initially be noticed, but they may represent only one of several developmental, or more subtle, endpoints.

## Recommendations and Suggestions for Future Research

Recent observations of high frequencies of mass deformities in amphibians (Mizgirev et al. 1984; Flindt 1985; Vershinin 1989, 1995b; Sessions and Ruth 1990; Veith and Viertel 1993; Flax and Borkin 1997; Ouellet et al. 1997; Burkhart et al. 1998; Helgen et al. 1998; Johnson et al. 1999) clearly deserve further investigation. Amphibian deformity surveys should be standardized to enable statistical comparisons and to allow inferences regarding the possible causes. Deformity distribution data should be incorporated into computer-based geographic information systems to analyze spatially related land-use patterns and environmental factors. Abnormalities need to be described with proper technical terms (see Appendix) and categorized because more than one phenomenon may occur simultaneously.

Although sometimes difficult, it is important to differentiate between traumatic injuries (e.g., digit amputation, eye enucleation) and true developmental abnormalities. Attempted predation, mechanical accidents, conspecific fighting, and sequelae from a previous disease are all potential factors that may cause injuries in amphibians. Leeches attached to digit extremities and small bivalve molluscs clenching the tips of toes have been noticed to cause digit injuries in *Rana* and *Triturus* species (Dubois 1979). Breeding *Ambystoma laterale* were observed transporting pea clams (*Pisidium adamsi*) attached to digits of their hindlimbs, causing swelling at the point of attachment (Davis and Gilhen 1982). Abrasion injuries of digits and sides of the mouth were recorded in 17 adult *Neobatrachus aquilonius* found in an empty swimming pool (Tyler et al. 1985). The self-inflicted injuries exhibited by this fossorial species were consistent with the frogs' attempting to burrow into the concrete floor. Bleeding or a red appearance of cutaneous surfaces, healing wounds of superficial soft tissues and/or bones, scar tissue, and stumps with or without cartilaginous regenerative spikes are common features diagnostic of trauma. Unilateral and asymmetrical lesions may be more indicative of traumatic instances, in contrast to the bilateral and symmetrical lesions that are more likely developmental defects. Number of individuals, age group, species, and number of species involved are also important considerations that can help pinpoint a cause. In

comparison with anurans, limb and eye abnormalities in newts and salamanders are more difficult to classify because of the regenerative capacity of these animals (Scadding 1981; Mitashov 1997). However, both a traumatic injury during tadpole development in anurans or throughout life in salamanders may stimulate an abnormal regenerative response and generate a developmental abnormality. For example, a young newt may grow an extra foot, a developmental abnormality, from a complicated wound resulting from attempted predation or a traumatic injury.

Radiographic examination is a noninvasive approach that can be used in amphibians to better diagnose doubtful cases and can reveal, for example, an old fracture causing limb asymmetry or duplicated internal limb structures. High resolution radiography may be useful to detect skeletal and other internal abnormalities. Clearing and differential staining techniques for bone and cartilage (Wassersug 1976; Hanken and Wassersug 1981) can be used on freshly dead or voucher specimens to characterize deformities and search for metacercarial cysts in relation to limb structures (Sessions and Ruth 1990). In these procedures, cartilage will appear blue when stained with Alcian Blue, and bone will stain red with Alizarin Red S. Soft tissue will become translucent or transparent. An automated double-staining protocol using Alcian Blue for cartilage and Murexide for bone has also been developed (Miller and Tarpley 1996). Another whole-mount technique using Victoria Blue B is described by Bryant and Iten (1974). Patterns of skin pigmentation should be noted on abnormal limb structures before using such techniques. Histopathology is another postmortem diagnostic tool that may shed light on the nature of abnormalities.

Properly designed sampling methods are crucial to avoid bias and misrepresentation of current frequencies of amphibian deformities. Anuran surveys should focus on the metamorphosing age group. The prevalence of deformities for the same age group of the same species may vary between years at a given site. For example, frequencies ranged from 0 to 80% during a multi-year survey of *Rana esculenta* complex in a particular French site (Rostand 1971), and from 0 to 66% in a two-year survey of *Rana pipiens* in a Québec pond (Ouellet et al. 1997). In contrast, annual variation in the frequency of limb abnormalities was not high in some polluted areas of Ukraine (Flax and Borkin 1997). During a given season, the month and even the day of collection may cause discrepancies between results for the same habitat. Merrell (1969) found that in a Minnesota lake 22.5% of *R. pipiens* were deformed at the end of July; two days later, the rate was 8.4%, then 14.2% in mid-August, and finally 3.6% in late September. Similarly, the frequency of deformed *R. esculenta* in a French pond was 2% in May, and 20% for both a June and a July collection (Rostand 1971). Furthermore, Rostand (1971) noted that deformity rates were variable between the different areas of the same pond and that these regions of high deformity rates moved from year to year.

The Frog Embryo Teratogenesis Assay - *Xenopus* (FETAX) is a 96-h whole-embryo developmental toxicity screening assay used in ecotoxicology that utilizes the

laboratory-raised embryos of *X. laevis* (ASTM 1991; Bantle et al. 1991; Bantle 1995). As a first step, FETAX is well suited for testing chemicals and environmental samples. Even though a large genetic distance separates laboratory *X. laevis* and native temperate species, developmental pathways are highly conserved. However, the FETAX assay should be expanded to include the full limb-development stage. The standard 96-h assay has been used by Burkhart et al. (1998) to evaluate the capacity of water samples from Minnesota to induce malformations in embryos of *X. laevis*. Using water from ponds with high incidences of frog malformations, Burkhart et al. (1998) suggest that water in the affected sites contains one or more unknown agents that induce developmental abnormalities and mortality in *X. laevis*.

Controlled experiments under field conditions with native amphibian species (e.g., *Rana* sp.) need to be performed to investigate the ambient levels of environmental factors as potential causes of amphibian deformities. Rearing conditions (e.g., tadpole densities, ion concentrations, metals, pH) are crucial in such experiments. Even in the best control situations, amphibian deformities may occur spontaneously (Reichenow 1908; Woodland 1908; Fischer 1971, 1973, 1977; Lauthier 1971; Dubois and Fischer 1975; Cooke 1981; Greer 1997). Overripeness of the eggs has been incriminated as a cause of teratogenesis (Witschi 1952), but Rostand (1951b) was unable to obtain more limb anomalies with overripe eggs than with normal ones.

Caution is warranted if more effort is to be undertaken to establish the distribution and prevalence of amphibian deformities. Excessive and unnecessary sampling may be detrimental to amphibian populations and may disturb sensitive aquatic ecosystems. Field investigators also have the potential to act as vectors of infectious diseases and parasites. No single cause will likely explain mass occurrences of amphibian deformities in the wild. The causes are probably local or regional, and a complex interaction of multiple factors is also conceivable. Diagnosis may be further complicated due to possible time lag between the presence of a factor and later detection of deformities. Trauma, parasitic trematode infestation, and xenobiotic pesticides or chemicals (perhaps affecting retinoid receptor pathways), along with a synergistic action of UV-B radiation, emerge as the leading hypotheses. Other yet undiscovered causative agents may be at work too.

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**APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 11****Glossary**

*Anomalie P*: severe form of polydactyly commonly accompanied with brachymely, polymely, and grossly deformed limbs (see Rostand 1958, 1959, 1971)

*Anteversion*: a joint oriented in a forward direction (e.g., a knee anteversion)

*Ascites*: accumulation of serous fluid in the peritoneal cavity (abdominal edema)

*Bony triangle*: bent long bone(s) forming a bony triangle or pyramid

*Brachydactyly*: shorter digit(s)

*Brachymely*: shorter limb(s)

*Clinodactyly*: curvature of one or more digits

*Dicephalism*: two heads

*Ectrodactyly (oligodactyly)*: absence of one or more digits (*adactyly*) or parts of digits

*Ectromelia*: absence of one or more limbs or parts of limbs

*Hemimely*: absence of all or part of the distal half of a limb

*Kyphosis*: abnormal backward curvature of the spine

*Lordosis*: abnormal forward curvature of the spine

*Luxation*: dislocation of a joint

*Mandibular hypoplasia*: underdeveloped mandible

*Microphthalmia*: eye smaller than normal

*Monorhiny*: having a single nostril

*Palatine eye*: eye in mouth

*Polydactyly*: supernumerary digit(s)

*Polymely*: supernumerary limb(s)

*Polypody*: a limb with two or more hands or feet

*Scoliosis*: abnormal lateral curvature of the spine

*Subluxation*: incomplete or partial dislocation of a joint

*Syndactyly*: fusion of two or more digits

*Synmely*: fusion of a limb or parts of a limb to a body part

*Synrhiny*: joined nostrils

*Taumely*: a limb element oriented at 90° to the long axis of the limb

*Unilateral anophthalmia*: absence of one eye



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