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## **Maze learning and memory in a decapod crustacean**

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**Ross Davies<sup>1</sup>, Mary H Gagen<sup>1</sup>, James C Bull<sup>1</sup> and Edward C Pope<sup>1</sup>**

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<sup>1</sup>College of Science, Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea SA2 8PP

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Correspondence to: EC Pope ([e.c.pope@swansea.ac.uk](mailto:e.c.pope@swansea.ac.uk))

7 **Abstract**

8 Spatial learning is an ecologically important trait well studied in vertebrates and a few invertebrates  
9 yet poorly understood in crustaceans. We investigated the ability of European shore crabs, *Carcinus*  
10 *maenas*, to learn a complex maze over four consecutive weeks using food as a motivator. Crabs  
11 showed steady improvement during this conditioning period in both the time taken to find the food  
12 and in the number of wrong turns taken. Crabs also clearly remembered the maze as when returned  
13 two weeks later but without any food, they all returned to the end of the maze in under eight minutes.  
14 Crabs that had not been conditioned to the maze (naïve animals) took far longer to reach the end and  
15 many (42%) did not venture to the end of the maze at all during the one-hour study period. This study  
16 provides an initial description of spatial learning in a benthic decapod; a better appreciation of this  
17 adaptive trait in these animals will develop our understanding of resource exploitation by benthic  
18 crustaceans and their ecological roles.

19 **Keywords**

20 Crab, *Carcinus maenas*, spatial learning, maze

## 21 **Background**

22 Some forms of learning, for instance habituation and sensitisation, are evident throughout the animal  
23 kingdom [1]. More complex forms of learning, such as spatial learning, have so far been demonstrated  
24 in only vertebrates and a select number of invertebrate species [2–7]. Insects, for example, display an  
25 extensive repertoire of learned behaviours and some impressive cognitive abilities [6,8] but aquatic  
26 arthropods, such as crustaceans, are poorly studied despite their key roles in marine and freshwater  
27 ecosystems. The substantial differences between crustacean and insectan brains [9], especially the  
28 much lower neuronal counts in crustaceans (for example, *ca.* 90 000 neurons in a crayfish brain [10],  
29 *cf.* with *ca.* 1 million in a honey bee brain [11]), might predict a diminished level of behavioural  
30 complexity in Crustacea but the relationship between brain size (measured by either volume or the  
31 number of neurons) and behavioural complexity is far from consistent [8]. Decapod crustaceans, for  
32 example, show a variety of sophisticated navigational behaviours, including homing [12], path  
33 integration [13] and true navigation [14].

34 Decapod crustaceans often live in complex, three-dimensional, benthic habitats. Learning the location  
35 of, and routes to, resources should therefore be an adaptive trait that we can investigate using mazes.  
36 Mazes provide a quantifiable measure of an animal's performance and whilst investigations into  
37 spatial learning in insects have used some quite complex maze configurations [7,15,16], crustacean  
38 studies have used much simpler arrangements (cross-, Y- or T-shaped mazes [17–20]) and the ability  
39 of crustaceans to solve more complex mazes has not been explored since some very limited studies in  
40 the early 20<sup>th</sup> Century [21,22]. We therefore used a more complex, multiple-turn maze, resembling  
41 those used in classic mouse studies (reviewed in [3]), to investigate spatial learning in the European  
42 shore crab, *Carcinus maenas*; an important generalist predator and scavenger in intertidal and shallow  
43 sea ecosystems. Our experimental design differed from many spatial learning studies in that animals  
44 were tested weekly, rather than several times a day, to investigate the formation of memory over  
45 longer timescales. A better appreciation of spatial learning in decapods will develop our  
46 understanding of resource exploitation by benthic crustaceans and their ecological roles, as well as  
47 leading to potential comparative studies with other animals, especially their insectan allies.

## 48 **Methods**

### 49 **(a) Animals**

50 12 *Carcinus maenas* (mean carapace width, CW,  $\pm 1SD = 54 \pm 16$ mm, range = 32–82mm; mean weight  
51  $\pm 1SD = 28.7 \pm 13.0$ g, range = 6.2–43.3g) were collected from two locations in South Wales: Oxwich  
52 Bay (51°32'48.04"N, 4° 8'38.41"W ) and Swansea Docks (51°36'59.26" N, 3°55'6.38" W) and kept  
53 individually in 30L tanks connected to a recirculating 40 000L seawater system. All crabs were  
54 healthy with intact appendages and identified by the tank they were kept in (1-12). Animals  
55 acclimated to this system for four weeks under an illumination cycle of 13:11 h light: dark and were  
56 fed half a blue mussel, *Mytilus edulis*, twice a week before commencement of the study. No crabs  
57 died or moulted during the study.

### 58 **(b) Maze design**

59 A maze with external dimensions 75cm x 50cm x 12.5cm high was constructed from 8mm opaque  
60 black Perspex (see figure 1a). A starting chamber (15cm x 15cm x 12.5cm high) was positioned  
61 adjacent to the entrance and separated from the main maze with a removable piece of black 8mm  
62 Perspex. The maze had a single correct path to the end-point, requiring five changes of direction, and  
63 included three dead ends. All passages were 10cm wide and a direct route from the starting box to the  
64 end-point required the crabs to traverse *ca.* 2m.

### 65 **(c) Conditioning study**

66 Crabs were tested weekly on the same day for four weeks; all crabs were fasted for a minimum of  
67 three days (d) before they were tested, with some fasted for 5d. The maze was placed in a large  
68 raceway tank (1.5m x 1m) in the same room as the holding tanks and both the maze and raceway were  
69 filled with still system water to a depth of 10cm. Individual crabs were placed in the starting chamber  
70 and a single crushed mussel was placed at the maze end-point. After a 60s acclimation period, the  
71 wall between the starting chamber and maze was removed. Movements of the crab were recorded  
72 using a Praktica DVC5.1 high definition video camera mounted on a tripod without additional  
73 lighting. The trial stopped when the crab located the food and started to feed, or after 60min had  
74 elapsed. Nobody was present in the laboratory during the trial, with the maze checked after 30min and  
75 then every 15min until the end of the trial. The maze and raceway were emptied, cleaned and refilled  
76 between each trial. The video was used to calculate latency (defined as the time elapsed) and the  
77 number of wrong turns taken whilst trying to reach the end of the maze.

78 **(d) Trials without food**

79 Crabs from the conditioning study (hereafter “conditioned”) were tested again after six weeks (two  
80 weeks after the last conditioning trial) in the absence of food. The trials were identical to the  
81 conditioning study but with no mussel at the end-point. The maze was thoroughly cleaned with EtOH  
82 in week 5 to remove any scent from the maze. To investigate whether another factor might attract the  
83 crabs to the end-point, 12 new (naïve) *C. maenas* (mean CW $\pm$ 1SD = 51 $\pm$ 19mm, range = 34–89mm;  
84 mean weight  $\pm$ 1SD = 26.1 $\pm$ 14.6 g, range = 7.7–50.0g) were collected from Oxwich Bay and  
85 maintained in individual tanks in the system for four weeks as before, then tested in the maze in the  
86 absence of food. There was no significant difference in mean CW (unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{df=22} = 0.522$ ,  $p =$   
87 0.607) or weight (unpaired *t*-test,  $t_{df=22} = 0.474$ ,  $p = 0.640$ ) between the naïve and conditioned crabs.

88 **(e) Data analysis**

89 Latency and number of wrong turns were analysed using separate generalised linear mixed-effects  
90 models. Latency was natural logarithm-transformed and modelled as a Gaussian process. The number  
91 of wrong turns was modelled as a Poisson process. Week was initially treated as a categorical variable  
92 and crab weight as a continuous variable; both as main effects and interacting. Data were grouped by  
93 individual crab, fitted as random intercepts. The significance of fixed effects was tested using  
94 likelihood ratios tests. Pairwise comparisons between weeks were assessed using *post hoc* Tukey  
95 tests. Subsequently, week 6 was dropped from the model and week was refitted as a linear response,  
96 interacting with weight. Here, week was modelled with random intercepts and slopes, by crab. The  
97 degree to which individuals deviated from population average model predictions was quantified using  
98 concordance correlation coefficients ( $\rho_c$ ) [23]. The latency of conditioned and naïve crabs in the  
99 absence of food was compared using a Mann-Whitney U test. Statistical analyses were performed  
100 using R version 3.6.0 [24] and GraphPad Prism 7.

101

102 **Results**

103 Data available on Dryad ([doi.org/10.5061/dryad.h2cp37f](https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.h2cp37f) doi:xx).

104 **(a) Conditioning study**

105 All crabs completed the maze within 25min when food was present. Crab weight did not significantly  
106 affect latency (weight x week:  $\chi^2_{df=1} = 0.004$ ,  $p = 0.95$ , weight:  $\chi^2_{df=1} = 0.046$ ,  $p = 0.83$ ) or the number  
107 of wrong turns (weight x week:  $\chi^2_{df=1} = 1.62$ ,  $p = 0.20$ , weight:  $\chi^2_{df=1} = 0.009$ ,  $p = 0.92$ ). Latency  
108 showed a significant log-linear trend over time (slope = -0.634, SE = 0.079,  $t_{df=11} = 7.98$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ),  
109 decreasing from 435 $\pm$ 283s (mean  $\pm$  1SD) in week 1 to 68 $\pm$ 58s by week 4 (figure 1b). Crabs also took  
110 fewer wrong turns in successive weeks; there was a significant, negative log-linear trend in the

111 number of wrong turns over time (slope = -0.455, SE = 0.107,  $z = 4.24$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), with the median  
112 number of wrong turns decreasing from 3.5 (interquartile range, IQR 2-5) in week 1 to 1 (IQR 0.25-1)  
113 in week 4 (figure 1c).

114 Concordance correlation between individual crab performance and population average predictions  
115 ranged between  $\rho_c = 0.686$ – $0.977$  (median = 0.923) for latency and  $\rho_c = 0.623$ – $0.925$  (median =  
116 0.896) for the number of wrong turns, differences between slopes (latency:  $cv_{slopes} = 24.6\%$ ; wrong  
117 turns:  $cv_{slopes} = 20.8\%$ ) dominated rather than intercepts (latency:  $cv_{intercepts} = 5.75\%$ ; wrong turns:  
118  $cv_{intercepts} = 2.28\%$ ). There was little rank correlation amongst individuals between concordance  
119 correlation coefficients for latency and wrong turns (Kendall's  $\tau = 0.091$ ,  $p = 0.74$ ), nor between  
120 individual response intercepts (Kendall's  $\tau = -0.382$ ,  $p = 0.09$ ) or individual slopes over time  
121 (Kendall's  $\tau = 0.030$ ,  $p = 0.95$ ) for latency and wrong turns.

## 122 (b) Trials without food

123 All conditioned crabs moved to the end-point within 8min in the absence of food; mean ( $\pm 1SD$ )  
124 latency for these animals was  $276 \pm 95s$ , which was significantly greater than in weeks 3 and 4 in the  
125 presence of food (Tukey's multiple comparisons: week 3 vs. 6, mean difference = 181s,  $p < 0.001$ ,  
126 week 4 vs. 6, mean difference = 204s,  $p < 0.001$ ) but not significantly different from crabs in weeks 1  
127 or 2 (Tukey's multiple comparisons: week 1 vs. 6, mean difference = -108s,  $p = 0.458$ , week 2 vs. 6,  
128 mean difference = 94.5s,  $p = 0.193$ ). There was a significant difference in latency between naïve and  
129 conditioned crabs (Mann-Whitney  $U = 8$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ; figure 2) with only seven naïve crabs reaching  
130 the end-point within the 60min trial and a mean ( $\pm 1SD$ ) latency for all 12 naïve crabs of  
131  $2,321 \pm 1,320s$ .

132

## 133 Discussion

134 Crabs showed a strong capacity for spatial learning over the timescale of this work. This learning  
135 ability was consistent across all animals, with individuals highly correlated against population average  
136 predictions. Consistency in behaviour, including exploratory behaviour, has been demonstrated in *C.*  
137 *maenas* before [25–27] but not in learning, and studies investigating invertebrate learning often record  
138 high levels of behavioural variability [2,18], which could be attributed to either behavioural plasticity  
139 or consistent individual differences (sometimes referred to as personality). We used concordance  
140 correlation coefficients to quantify individual differences [23,28] then compared rank concordance  
141 amongst individuals for consistent (intercepts) and plastic (slopes) changes over time [29,30]. There  
142 was a very weak correlation between individual differences in latency and wrong turns and this was  
143 dominated by idiosyncracies in plasticity rather than consistent differences between individuals – an  
144 individual that habituates to its environment strongly is not necessarily a faster learner. Caution is

145 needed in ascribing behavioural mechanisms to observed responses but these findings suggest maze  
146 learning in crabs is not simply accounted for by boldness or habituation to their environment.

147 Navigation in invertebrates is known to rely on several principles: compass directions, landmarks,  
148 path integration and magnetic maps [6,12,14,31]. The crabs did not complete the maze without error  
149 until week 3, suggesting either adoption of a search strategy or memory of approximate distance  
150 travelled and sequential turn direction. *C. maenas* shows strong thigmotactic behaviour in natural and  
151 tank conditions [32] which could manifest in our study as wall-hugging. Consistently following a wall  
152 on either the right or left would result in one or two wrong turns respectively, however, and we  
153 therefore propose the crabs displayed a degree of spatial learning. We looked solely at egocentric  
154 learning as visual and tactile cues were minimised, as were olfactory cues, other than from the food,  
155 so a response strategy based on sequential learning (in this case, right turn, ignore two openings, left  
156 turn, left turn, right turn, right turn) is possible. The potential for allocentric (the use of landmarks)  
157 learning cannot be entirely discarded, however, as crabs may have used the position of the camera, or  
158 other overhead features. Future work using other experimental designs, including placing food in  
159 more than one location, and maze configurations, such as consecutive T-mazes, might further  
160 elaborate spatial learning in these animals.

161 Decapod crustaceans display anxiety mediated by serotonin [19] so the maze conditions were as close  
162 to those in the husbandry tanks as possible (i.e. same system water, no additional lighting) and the  
163 experimental design included a substantial acclimation period to captivity. We believe these  
164 accommodations contributed substantially to our results showing that although olfactory cues were  
165 undoubtedly important in navigating the maze, the crabs clearly learned to move to the end-point of  
166 the maze and improved their speed and efficiency during the four weeks. In addition, all conditioned  
167 crabs showed some memory of the maze in the absence of food, with no significant difference in  
168 latency between week 6 (food absent) and weeks 1 and 2 when food (and therefore an olfactory cue)  
169 was present (figure 1b). The increase in latency and the number of wrong turns from week 4 to week  
170 6 suggest, however, that some dishabituation occurred during the intervening two weeks. The  
171 discovery that decapod crustaceans are able to learn mazes has important ecological implications but  
172 will also allow the development of a model system to investigate the effects of waterborne  
173 contaminants, or changes in water chemistry, on a sophisticated behaviour in ecologically and  
174 economically important invertebrates.

175

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178 maze.

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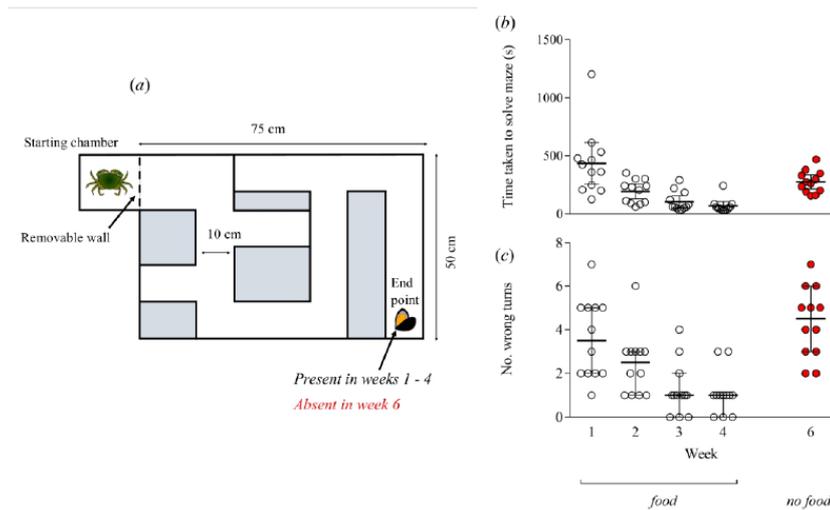


Figure 1. A) Scale schematic of the experimental maze showing an individual *Carcinus maenas* present in the starting chamber and a single, crushed *Mytilus edulis* (present in weeks 1-4, absent in week 6) at the end-point. B) Time taken to reach the end-point of the maze (latency; s) by *C. maenas* individuals in weeks 1-6. Lines = mean  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals (CIs), n = 12. C) The number of wrong turns taken by individual *C. maenas* in weeks 1-6. Lines = median  $\pm$  95% CIs, n = 12. *Carcinus maenas* clipart courtesy of Tanya L. Rogers.

182

313x194mm (300 x 300 DPI)

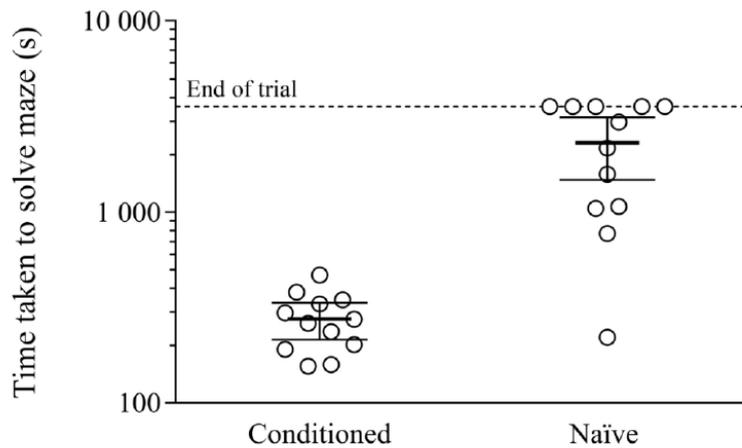


Figure 2. Time taken to reach the end-point of the maze (latency; s) for conditioned (n = 12) and naïve (n = 12) *C. maenas* individuals in week 6 (food absent). Lines shows means values  $\pm$  95% CIs. The study was stopped after 1h (3 600 s) with animals that did not reach the end awarded this time.

112x66mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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184

185 **Legends**

186 **Figure 1.** A) Scale schematic of the experimental maze showing an individual *Carcinus maenas*  
187 present in the starting chamber and a single, crushed *Mytilus edulis* (present in weeks 1-4, absent in  
188 week 6) at the end-point. B) Time taken to reach the end-point of the maze (latency; s) by *C. maenas*  
189 individuals in weeks 1-6. Lines = mean $\pm$ 95% confidence intervals (CIs),  $n = 12$ . C) The number of  
190 wrong turns taken by individual *C. maenas* in weeks 1-6. Lines = median $\pm$ 95% CIs,  $n = 12$ . *Carcinus*  
191 *maenas* clipart courtesy of Tanya L. Rogers.

192

193 **Figure 2.** Time taken to reach the end-point of the maze (latency; s) for conditioned ( $n = 12$ ) and  
194 naive ( $n = 12$ ) *C. maenas* individuals in week 6 (food absent). Lines shows means values  $\pm$ 95% CIs.  
195 The study was stopped after 1h (3 600 s) with animals that did not reach the end awarded this time.

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