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### Hormone-induced spawning of the critically endangered northern corroboree frog Pseudophryne pengilleyi

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#### Abstract

Fundamental knowledge of the optimal hormone concentrations required to stimulate amplexus and spawning in breeding pairs of amphibians is currently lacking, hindering our understanding of the proximate mechanisms underpinning mating behaviour. The present study investigated the effects of: (1) the dose of a gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogue (GnRH-A) administered; (2) male-female hormone administration interval; and (3) topical application of GnRH-A, on spawning success in the northern corroboree frog. Administration of GnRH-A at doses of 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 µg g-1were highly successful, with a significantly greater proportion of hormone-Treated pairs ovipositing (89-100%) compared with the 0 µg g-1treatment (22%). Of the hormone-Treated pairs, those receiving 0.5 µg g-1GnRH-A exhibited the highest fertilisation success (61%). Administration of GnRH-A to males and females simultaneously (0 h) was more effective than injecting males either 48 or 24 h before the injection of females. Overall, administration of GnRH-A was highly successful at inducing spawning in northern corroboree frogs. For the first time, we also effectively induced spawning following the topical application of GnRH-A to the ventral pelvic region. Topical application of GnRH-A eliminates the need for specialised training in amphibian injection, and will allow assisted reproductive technologies to be adopted by a greater number of captive facilities globally.

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### 1 Hormone-induced spawning of the critically endangered

2 Northern Corroboree Frog, *Pseudophryne pengilleyi* 

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25	Running Head: Hormone-induced spawning of the Northern Corroboree Frog
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#### 35 Abstract

Fundamental knowledge of the optimal hormone concentrations required to stimulate amplexus and spawning in breeding pairs of amphibians is currently lacking, hindering our understanding of the proximate mechanisms underpinning mating behaviour. The present study investigated the effects of: 1) GnRH-a dose, 2) male:female hormone administration interval, and 3) topical application of Gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogue (GnRH-a), on spawning success in the Northern Corroboree Frog. Administration of GnRH-a at doses of 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0  $\mu$ g/g were highly successful, with a significantly greater proportion of hormone-treated pairs ovipositing (89 -100%) compared to the  $0 \mu g/g$  treatment (22%). Of the hormone-treated pairs, those receiving  $0.5 \,\mu\text{g/g}$  exhibited the highest fertilisation success (61%). Administration of GnRH-a to males and females simultaneously (0hrs) was more effective than injecting males at either 48 or 24 hrs prior to the injection of females. Overall, administration of GnRH-a was highly successful at inducing spawning in Northern Corroboree Frogs. For the first time, we also effectively induced spawning following the topical application of GnRH-a to the ventral pelvic region. Topical application of GnRH-a eliminates the need for specialised training in amphibian injection, and will allow assisted reproductive technologies to be adopted by a greater number of captive facilities globally. **Keywords:** amphibian, assisted reproductive technology, captive breeding, conservation, gamete-release, GnRH, LHRH, mating, reproduction, spawning. 

#### 70 Introduction

71 Advances in assisted reproductive technologies (ARTs) have markedly improved the 72 efficiency and sustainability of agricultural animal production. More recently, the value of ARTs for endangered species recovery has been recognised in order to overcome the 73 74 behavioural impediments to natural mating and fertilisation that captive animals often encounter (Durrant 2009). Recent reports confirm that we are already amidst a sixth mass 75 76 extinction (Ceballos et al. 2015), with numerous conservation breeding programs established for threatened species globally. These programs aim to maintain genetically viable insurance 77 78 colonies ex situ, while also providing individuals for population augmentation, translocation 79 and reintroduction in situ. Despite considerable efforts to mimic natural environmental cues, many amphibian conservation breeding programs continue to face difficulties reliably and 80 predictably initiating breeding behaviour in captivity (Kouba et al. 2009). This deficiency 81 threatens the genetic viability of insurance colonies and has limited the generation of large-82 numbers of individuals for release. Assisted reproductive technologies, such as the hormonal 83 84 induction of spawning, gamete-release and artificial fertilisation, have the potential to contribute to amphibian conservation by enhancing species propagation, synchronizing 85 breeding events and permitting greater control over the genetic management of insurance 86 colonies. 87

Exogenous reproductive hormones have been used to successfully induce spawning 88 89 and gamete-release in a number of anuran (frog and toad) and urodele (newt and salamander) species (Byrne and Silla 2010; Mansour et al. 2011; Silla 2011; Trudeau et al. 2013; 90 91 Calatayud et al. 2015; Uteshev et al. 2015; Della Togna et al. 2017). The two hormones most commonly employed are human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) and gonadotropin- releasing 92 93 hormone (GnRH, also known as luteinizing hormone- releasing hormone; LHRH). The 94 administration of purified hCG mimics the luteinizing hormone (LH) surge required to 95 stimulate final gamete maturation and release (hypophyseal approach; Vu and Trudeau 2016). For most amphibian species, hCG is less effective, and may reflect species specificity in LH-96 receptor affinities (Silla and Roberts 2012). In contrast, synthetic GnRH-a is structurally 97 similar to the GnRH-1 molecule found in the anterior pre-optic area of the hypothalamus and 98 99 the median eminence of the amphibian brain (Vu and Trudeau 2016). GnRH-a acts by 100 stimulating the anterior pituitary gland to synthesise and release natural LH (hypothalamic approach; Vu and Trudeau 2016). Administration of GnRH-a has been shown to effectively 101

stimulate ovulation and spermiation in a diversity of anurans in the absence of a mating

103 partner (Michael *et al.* 2004; Silla 2010; Silla 2011; Silla and Roberts 2012; Jacobs *et al.* 

104 2016). By contrast, the ability of GnRH-a to elicit mating behaviour, and in particular the

105 optimal doses required to stimulate amplexus and spawning, has seldom been tested

106 empirically, hindering our understanding of the proximate mechanisms underpinning mating

107 behaviour in amphibians.

The administration of GnRH-a is typically achieved via intraperitoneal or 108 subcutaneous injection. However, amphibians also afford a unique opportunity to develop 109 110 methods for the topical application of exogenous hormones (epicutaneous administration) due to their highly permeable, hypervascularised skin surfaces. The ability to induce spermiation 111 through the topical application of GnRH-a has previously been tested in American Toads 112 (Bufo americanus) and Gulf Coast Toads (Incilius valliceps), with varying degrees of success 113 (Obringer et al. 2000; Rowson et al. 2001). To date, no attempt has been made to employ 114 these protocols to induce ovulation or spawning in amphibians. Refining protocols for the 115 topical application of GnRH-a would be of enormous benefit to amphibian conservation 116 because it would eliminate the need for specialised training in amphibian injection and allow 117 ARTs to be adopted by a greater number of captive facilities. 118

119 The northern corroboree frog (*Pseudophryne pengilleyi*) is considered one of Australia's most threatened vertebrates, listed as Critically Endangered by state and federal 120 121 governments, and Endangered by the IUCN (McFadden et al. 2016). The species has been the focus of an intensive captive breeding and reintroduction program since 2003, established 122 123 as a partnership between the Taronga Conservation Society Australia (TCSA), Tidbinbilla Nature Reserve and the NSW Office of Environment and Heritage (OEH) (McFadden et al. 124 125 2016). Although northern corroboree frogs have been bred successfully in captivity for a number of years, a proportion of gravid females fail to spawn annually, reducing the 126 127 reproductive potential of captive colonies. Additionally, captive populations display strong mating biases with less than a third of available males contributing to mating success. Over 128 time, such captive mating biases may lead to a loss of genetic variation and adaptive potential 129 that could compromise re-introduction success. 130

The present study aimed to empirically test protocols to hormonally induce spawning
behaviour in the critically endangered northern corroboree frog, *Pseudophryne pengilleyi*.
Specific objectives were to investigate: 1) the effect of GnRH-a dose, 2) the effect of
male:female hormone administration interval, and 3) the effect of topical application of

135 GnRH-a, on spawning success. The percentage of pairs ovipositing, number of eggs

136 oviposited, and percentage fertilisation were determined for each experiment.

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139 Methods

#### 140 Ethics Statement

All procedures were conducted following evaluation and approval by the Taronga
Conservation Society Australia's Animal Ethics Committee (protocol numbers 3b/08/14 and
3a/11/16).

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#### 145 Study Species

The northern corroboree frog (Pseudophryne pengilleyi) is a small (25-30mm snout-vent 146 147 length), terrestrial frog easily recognised by longitudinal black and lime-green/yellow dorsal colouration (Figure 1a). The species is restricted to areas above 850m altitude in the 148 149 Brindabella and Fiery ranges of New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory in south-eastern Australia. The region experiences an average annual rainfall of 1,200 mm and 150 151 snowfall at higher elevations during winter. Breeding in this species commences in late austral summer and continues until early autumn. Male P.pengilleyi construct shallow 152 terrestrial nests in isolated frost-hollow grasslands, narrow seeps, and open bogs that are 153 subject to seasonal inundation (Osborne 1991; Scheele et al. 2017). Females oviposit a small 154 clutch of between 16 - 40 eggs (mean = 24.0, Osborne 1991), though captive females have 155 been recorded ovipositing up to 59 eggs (range = 17 - 59, mean =  $35.90 \pm 1.01$ , n=79; 156 unpublished data). Fertilised eggs undergo intracapsular embryonic development, which is 157 typically suspended at Gosner Stage 26–28. In the field, terrestrial embryos may remain in 158 suspended development for several weeks until heavy autumn rainfall floods the nest and 159 160 hypoxia triggers tadpoles to hatch into temporary pools (Osborne 1991). This reproductive mode (terrestrial egg mass with aquatic free-living larvae) is characteristic of the majority of 161 162 species in the genus *Pseudophryne* (Watson and Martin 1973).

163

#### 164 Animal husbandry

165 Northern corroboree frogs were maintained in an isolated, biosecurity facility located at

166 Taronga Zoo, Mosman, NSW, Australia. Internal lighting within the facility was controlled

using a weatherproof light sensitive switch (HPM, NSW, Australia) set to simulate local

168 photoperiod. Lighting was provided using fluorescent tubes (10.0 UV-B, Reptisun, Germany) suspended approximately 36cm above each shelf, resulting in 20–30  $\mu$ W / cm<sup>2</sup> UV-B at the 169 substrate floor of each enclosure. Ambient temperature within the facility was cycled 170 annually to reflect seasonal changes in the average climatic conditions experienced in the 171 subalpine areas where the species naturally occurs. Temperatures ranged from 5 - 20  $^{\circ}$ C, 172 including a 6-week hibernation period. Programmed temperatures were at a maximum during 173 the breeding season, when frogs were maintained on a 20  $^{\circ}C/17 ^{\circ}C$  day/ night temperature 174 cycle. Outside of the breeding season, male and female northern corroboree frogs were 175 176 communally housed in same sex groups in ventilated, clear plastic terraria (28cm L  $\times$  17cm  $W \times 18$ cm H; 4-6 individuals per. terrarium). Each terrarium contained a layer of aquarium 177 gravel (particle size ~4 mm) approximately two cm deep, in addition to a layer of hydrated 178 sphagnum moss approximately 5 cm deep covering half of the enclosure floor. Holes (3 mm 179 D) were drilled in the base of each terrarium for drainage. Enclosure substrates were sprayed 180 with reverse osmosis (RO) water twice weekly to break down and remove excrement and 181 detritus. Frogs were fed a diet of 6-9 day old hatchling crickets (Acheta domestica; 15-20 182 crickets per. individual) once every five days. Crickets were dusted with calcium powder 183 (Calcium with Vit. D<sub>3</sub>, Rep-Cal Research Labs, United States) prior to every feed and a 184 185 multivitamin supplement (Herptivite, Rep-Cal Research Labs, United States) every alternate feed. 186

187

#### 188 Experiment 1: The effect of GnRH-a dose on spawning success

189 To determine the effect of GnRH-a dose on spawning success, 36 male-female pairs were 190 allocated to one of four experimental treatments; 0.0, 0.5, 1.0, or 2.0 µg/gram body weight 191 GnRH-a (Leuprorelin acetate; Lucrin®)(n=9 pairs per treatment). All frogs were sexually mature (5-11 years of age) and ranged in weight from 1.39 - 4.00 grams. The male/female 192 body mass ratio of each pair ranged from 53.82 - 74.52 % (mean  $\pm$  sem =  $61.12 \pm 0.89$ ) and 193 the body mass of males and females did not differ significantly between treatment groups 194 (one-way ANOVA male mass:  $F_{3,32} = 0.042$ , p = 0.988; female mass:  $F_{3,32} = 0.676$ , p =195 196 0.573).

197 One week prior to hormone administration, males were removed from communal housing 198 and moved into individual terraria (28cm L  $\times$  17cm W  $\times$  18cm H) containing substrates as 199 described above (see section 2.3 *Animal husbandry*). This was done in order to provide each 200 male with the opportunity to establish a nest site prior to introducing the female. Individuals within each male-female pair were weighed and administered a single hormone dose 201 corresponding to their experimental treatment. Hormones were diluted in 100  $\mu$ L of 202 Simplified Amphibian Ringer (SAR; 113 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1.35 mM CaCl2, 1.2 mM 203 NaHCO3) and administered via subcutaneous injection into the dorsal lymph sac (Figure 1b). 204 Three weeks after hormone administration, terraria were searched for the presence of eggs, 205 and the number of eggs oviposited, and fertilisation success, scored. In the absence of eggs, 206 the male-female pair was categorised as unresponsive. Experiment 1 was conducted from 207 208 April 10 to May 8, 2014.

209

## Experiment 2: The effect of male:female hormone administration interval on spawning success

To determine the effect of hormone administration interval on spawning success, males were administered GnRH-a at one of three time periods (48, 24, or 0 hrs) prior to the administration of GnRH-a to females (27 male-female pairs, n=9 per treatment). All frogs were sexually mature (5-12 years of age) and ranged in weight from 1.34 - 3.90 grams. The male/female body mass ratio of each pair ranged from 48.20 - 68.83 % (mean ± sem = 56.56 ± 0.87) and the body mass of males and females did not differ significantly between treatment groups (one-way ANOVA male mass: F <sub>2,24</sub> = 0.021, *p* = 0.979; female mass: F <sub>2,24</sub>

219 = 0.191, p = 0.827).

One week prior to hormone administration, males were removed from communal housing 220 and moved into individual terraria (28cm L  $\times$  17cm W  $\times$  18cm H) containing substrates as 221 described above (see section 2.3 Animal husbandry). Males were removed from their 222 223 enclosures, weighed and administered a single dose of 0.5 µg/g GnRH-a either 48, 24, or 0 hrs prior to the introduction of freshly injected females. As with the males, all females 224 received a single injection of 0.5  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a (diluted in 100  $\mu$ L of SAR) administered via 225 subcutaneous injection into the dorsal lymph sac (Figure 1b). Three weeks after hormone 226 administration, terraria were searched for the presence of eggs, and the number of eggs 227 oviposited, and fertilisation success, scored. In the absence of eggs, the male-female pair was 228 categorised as unresponsive. Experiment 2 was conducted from March 31 to April 27, 2015. 229

#### 231 Experiment 3: The effect of topical application of GnRH-a on spawning success

- 232 To determine the effect of topical application of GnRH-a on spawning success, 37 male-
- female pairs were allocated to one of three experimental treatments (n=11-13 pairs per
- treatment; 0, 25 or 50 µg/g GnRH-a). All frogs were sexually mature (5-14 years of age) and
- ranged in weight from 1.45 4.39 grams. The male/female body mass ratio of each pair
- ranged from 46.47 72.09 % (mean  $\pm$  sem =  $54.54 \pm 0.84$ ) and the body mass of males and
- 237 females did not differ significantly between treatment groups (one-way ANOVA male mass:
- 238 F <sub>2,33</sub> = 0.177, p = 0.839; female mass: F <sub>2,33</sub> = 0.215, p = 0.808).
- As with experiments 1 and 2 detailed above, male frogs were removed from communal
- housing and moved into individual terraria (28cm L  $\times$  17cm W  $\times$  18cm H) one week prior to
- the introduction of females. Individuals within each male-female pair were weighed and
- administered a single hormone dose corresponding to their experimental treatment (0, 25 or
- 243 50  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a; n= 11, 13 and 13, respectively). Hormones were diluted in 100  $\mu$ L of
- distilled water and administered dermally via drop-wise topical application onto the ventral
- abdominal surface (Figure 1c). Three weeks after hormone administration, terraria were
- searched for the presence of eggs, and the number of eggs oviposited, and fertilisation
- success, scored. In the absence of eggs, the male-female pair was categorised as
- unresponsive. Experiment 3 was conducted from March 23 to April 20, 2017.
- 249

#### 250 Statistical Analyses

251 The numbers of male-female pairs ovipositing were compared between treatment groups in

each experiment using two-tailed Fisher's exact tests. One-way analyses of variance

253 (ANOVAs) were used to test for statistical differences in the mean number of eggs oviposited

or percent fertilisation, between experimental treatments. Comparisons among treatment

255 means were conducted using Tukey-Kramer Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc

tests. To verify homogeneity of variances, Levene's tests were performed. If variances were

- 257 unequal, Kruskal-Wallis tests (KW) were conducted, and post hoc treatment comparisons
- were made using Wilcoxon matched-pair tests. All statistical analyses were performed using
- JMP Pro 11.0.0 software package (SAS Institute Inc. North Carolina, USE). For all analyses,
- statistical significance was accepted at P < 0.05.

#### 263 **Results**

#### 264 Experiment 1: The effect of GnRH-a dose on spawning success

The number of male-female pairs ovipositing in response to the administration of 0.5, 1.0, or 265 266 2.0 µg/g GnRH-a was significantly greater than the number of pairs ovipositing in response to the 0  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a treatment (no hormone stimulation)(Fisher's Exact Tests, P < 0.05; 267 Table 1). Similarly, the total number of eggs laid in response to GnRH-a differed 268 significantly among dose treatments (one-way ANOVA,  $F_{3,32} = 7.186$ , p = 0.0008), with 269 pairs receiving 0.5, 1.0, or 2.0 µg/g GnRH-a producing a significantly greater number of eggs 270 than pairs receiving 0.0  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a (Tukey-Kramer HSD, P < 0.05; Table 1). Percent 271 fertilisation was calculated for all pairs that oviposited. Overall, mean percent fertilisation 272 also differed significantly among treatment groups (Kruskal Wallice test,  $\chi^2 = 9.051$ , p =273 0.0286), with percent fertilisation significantly higher in the 0.0  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a dose treatment 274 compared with the 1.0 and 2.0  $\mu$ g/g dose treatments (Tukey-Kramer HSD, P < 0.05; Table 1). 275 276 Mean percent fertilisation of clutches in the 0.5 µg/g GnRH-a dose treatment was not significantly different from any of the remaining doses (0.0, 1.0 & 2.0 µg/g GnRH-a; Tukey-277

278 Kramer HSD, P > 0.05; Table 1).

279

## 280 Experiment 2: The effect of male:female hormone administration interval on spawning 281 success

- Hormone administration interval did not significantly effect the number of pairs that
- oviposited (Fisher's Exact Tests, P > 0.05), or the number of eggs laid (Kruskal Wallice test,
- 284  $\chi^2 = 0.621$ , p = 0.733; Table 2). Similarly, mean percent fertilisation did not differ
- significantly among treatment groups (Kruskal Wallice test,  $\chi^2 = 5.584$ , p = 0.0613; Table 2).
- 286 However, Wilcoxon matched-pair post-hoc tests indicated that mean percent fertilisation was
- significantly higher in the 0-hr treatment compared to 24-hrs (64% and 25%, respectively;Table 2).

289

#### 290 Experiment 3: The effect of topical application of GnRH-a on spawning success

291 The number of male-female pairs ovipositing in response to the topical administration of 25  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a was significantly greater than the number of pairs ovipositing in response to the 292  $0 \mu g/g$  GnRH-a dose treatment (Fisher's Exact Test, P = 0.0377). In contrast, the number of 293 pairs ovipositing in response to 50 µg/g GnRH-a, was not significantly different from either 294 the 0  $\mu$ g/g or 25  $\mu$ g/g dose treatments (Fisher's Exact Tests, P < 0.05; Table 3). Similarly, the 295 number of eggs laid in response to GnRH-a differed significantly among dose treatments 296 (one-way ANOVA, F  $_{2.34}$  = 3.540, p = 0.040), with pairs receiving 25 µg/g GnRH-a 297 producing a significantly greater number of eggs than the  $0 \mu g/g$  GnRH-a dose treatment 298 299 (Tukey-Kramer HSD, P < 0.05; Table 3). The number of eggs laid in response to the topical administration of 50 µg/g GnRH-a was not significantly different from either the 0 µg/g or 25 300  $\mu$ g/g dose treatments (Tukey-Kramer HSD, P > 0.05; Table 3). Percent fertilisation was 301 calculated for all pairs that oviposited, with mean percent fertilisation statistically similar 302

among treatment groups (one-way ANOVA, F  $_{2, 18} = 0.517$ , p = 0.605; Table 3).

304

#### 305 **Discussion**

306 Assisted reproductive technologies have enormous potential to enhance captive breeding and reintroduction programs by improving species propagation and permitting greater control 307 over the genetic management of insurance colonies. To date empirical studies have 308 309 predominantly focused on quantifying the effects of exogenous hormone administration on gamete-release in individuals (in the absence of a mating partner), as a precursor to gamete-310 storage and artificial fertilisation (AF, also known as in vitro fertilisation, IVF) (Browne et al. 311 2006; Byrne and Silla 2010; Silla 2011; Silla 2013; Uteshev et al. 2015; Della Togna et al. 312 2017). Fundamental knowledge of the optimal hormone concentrations required to stimulate 313 amplexus and spawning in breeding pairs of amphibians is substantially lacking by 314 comparison, hindering our understanding of the proximate mechanisms underpinning mating 315 behaviour in amphibians. In the present study we aimed to empirically test protocols to 316 hormonally induce spawning behaviour in the critically endangered northern corroboree frog. 317 Specifically, we investigated the effects of 1) GnRH-a dose, 2) male:female hormone 318 319 administration interval, and 3) topical application of GnRH-a, on spawning success. Results from this study showed that the administration of GnRH-a at doses of 0.5 320  $\mu g/g$ , 1  $\mu g/g$ , and 2  $\mu g/g$  body weight were highly successful at inducing spawning, with a 321 significantly greater proportion of hormone treated pairs ovipositing (72 -100%) compared to 322

pairs in the 0 µg/g GnRH-a dose treatment (22%). Our results are consistent with those of 323 previous studies on northern leopard frogs (Lithobates pipiens) that report a significant 324 increase in the spawning success of hormone treated frogs (42 -100% and 88 -89%, 325 respectively) compared with untreated animals, which failed to spawn (Trudeau et al. 2010; 326 327 Trudeau et al. 2013). Similar findings have also been reported in captive rocky mountain 328 boreal toads (Anaxyus boreas boreas), where hormone administration effectively doubled the proportion of spawning pairs (from 17% to 33%) (Calatayud et al. 2017). Interestingly, 329 previous studies inducing spawning in amphibians have all administered GnRH-a in 330 331 combination with other reproductive hormones, including hCG and dopamine antagonists (metoclopramide, pimozide & domperidone) (Trudeau et al. 2010; Trudeau et al. 2013; 332 Calatayud et al. 2017). The present study is the first to demonstrate that GnRH-a alone can 333 induce 100% of male-female pairs to spawn at doses of either 0.5 or 2  $\mu$ g/g and highlights the 334 importance of establishing dose- response curves for individual hormones. 335

336 The fertilisation success of clutches oviposited in the present study also differed significantly according to the GnRH-a dose administered. Male-female pairs in the  $0 \mu g/g$ 337 338 GnRH-a dose treatment exhibited the greatest percentage fertilisation (97%), however it is important to note that only two pairs oviposited and the fertilisation success of untreated 339 340 animals may vary with additional replication. Of the hormone treated pairs ovipositing (n=8-9 per treatment), those injected with 0.5  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a exhibited the greatest percentage 341 342 fertilisation (61%), while frogs in the higher dose treatments (1 & 2 µg/g GnRH-a) displayed low mean fertilisation success (< 22%). One explanation for the reduced fertilisation success 343 344 observed in the higher dose treatments is that oocytes underwent a process of over-ripening. Over-ripening results from the aging and deterioration of oocytes retained for an extended 345 period within the coelomic cavity of a female post ovulation (Bromage et al. 1994; Silla 346 2011). Oocyte over-ripening may have occurred in the higher dose treatments if oocyte 347 maturation and ovulation was stimulated too quickly, resulting in the retention of oocytes 348 prior to amplexus and fertilisation. This explanation is consistent with the observation that 349 embryos oviposited within the higher dose treatments were often scattered or clumped in 350 small groups rather than deposited in a discrete, well-defined nest. 351

Interestingly, amphibian species appear to vary considerably in their sensitivity to GnRH-a administration (Silla and Roberts 2012), despite the general conservation of the structure and function of GnRH among vertebrates (Gore 2002). If doses of GnRH-a administered are too low for a given species, they may induce the upregulation of GnRH receptors without a corresponding change in LH synthesis and release (Conn 1986; Gore 357 2002), resulting in incomplete oocyte maturation, reduced spawning rates and/or fertilisation success. As GnRH-a doses administered are increased, nearing optimal concentrations, up-358 regulation of GnRH receptors continues, receptor numbers are elevated and the tissue 359 responds with the LH surge required to stimulate final oocyte maturation and ovulation 360 (Conn 1986; Gore 2002). If optimal GnRH-a doses are exceeded, oocyte over-ripening may 361 362 occur resulting in a reduction of oocyte quality and diminished fertilisation success (Silla 2011). Interspecific variation in the comparative efficacy of GnRH administration, and 363 therefore optimal dose, is unlikely to be driven by species-specific differences in the structure 364 365 of natural GnRH, as the amino acid sequences of these molecules are highly conserved across all vertebrate species (Gore 2002). However, given the phylogenetic diversity of anurans and 366 the diversity of reproductive modes they exhibit, it is reasonable to expect interspecific 367 variance, not in the GnRH molecules themselves, but in the timing and concentration of 368 GnRH released. Gaining knowledge of the optimal GnRH doses required to stimulate 369 amplexus and spawning across a diversity of species will therefore further our understanding 370 371 of the evolution of the proximate mechanisms controlling mating behaviour in amphibians.

372 An alternative approach to the injection of GnRH-a is the epicutaneous administration of the hormone directly to the ventral abdominal skin surface (topical application). The 373 374 topical application of GnRH-a was initially tested in male American toads to induce spermiation with poor success (22% spermiation response)(Obringer et al. 2000). However, 375 376 further protocol refinement using higher hormone doses led to the successful induction of spermiation in both American toads and gulf coast toads (75% spermiation response) 377 378 (Rowson et al. 2001). The present study tested for the first time the efficacy of GnRH-a 379 applied topically to the ventral abdominal surface of male and female frogs to induce 380 spawning. Topical administration protocols were highly successful, with 77% of male-female pairs ovipositing in response to a dose of 25  $\mu$ g/g GnRH-a. This is the first demonstration that 381 topical application of reproductive hormones can induce spawning in an amphibian. 382 Amphibians possess highly vascularised, permeable ventral pelvic surfaces that enable the 383 rapid absorption of water and low molecular weight compounds (Toledo and Jared 1993). 384 This is particularly true for terrestrial amphibians, which exhibit a greater intensity of 385 386 cutaneous vascularisation in the pelvic region compared with aquatic species (Toledo and Jared 1993), making them ideal candidates for the topical application of reproductive 387 hormones. 388

Incorporating ARTs into existing conservation breeding programs has the potential toenhance species propagation, allow the synchronisation of breeding events, and increase

391 genetic diversity and adaptive potential of the offspring generated. Furthermore,

- incorporating ARTs enables better control over breeding designs and provides an opportunity 392 for selective breeding of particular genotypes. As a result, ARTs are being increasingly 393 employed by captive facilities to compliment traditional breeding methods and enhance 394 species recovery (Silla et al. 2015). At present, a vast number of CBPs for threatened 395 amphibians are yet to benefit from the implementation of ARTs. One reason for this is that a 396 disproportionate number of threatened amphibian species originate from developing countries 397 within Neotropical, Afrotropical and Indomalayan regions (collectively harbouring >82% of 398 399 rapidly declining amphibians)(Stuart et al. 2004). CBPs in these locations often have limited resources and lack veterinary capacity or personnel with expertise in amphibian injection. 400 The topical hormone administration protocols developed in the present study have enormous 401 potential to increase the number of captive facilities globally adopting ARTs. Such cost 402 effective protocols that eliminate the need for specialised training (such as animal injection or 403 gamete-collection) are urgently needed to assist amphibian species recovery. 404
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#### 406 Conclusions

Assisted reproductive technologies have enormous potential to contribute to amphibian 407 408 conservation breeding programs by increasing species propagation, synchronizing breeding events and permitting greater control over the genetic management of insurance colonies. 409 410 Here we demonstrate that GnRH-a can be effectively used to induce spawning in the critically endangered northern corroboree frog, with 100% of male-female pairs ovipositing 411 412 in response to an optimal dose of 0.5  $\mu$ g/g. In a world first, we also effectively induced spawning following the topical application of GnRH-a to the ventral pelvic region. Topical 413 414 application of reproductive hormones eliminates the need for specialised training in amphibian injection. Refinement of these protocols will therefore allow ARTs to be adopted 415 by a greater number of captive facilities globally to enhance threatened species recovery. 416 417

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#### 427 Authors' contributions

- 428 AS, PB and MM designed the experiment and collected the data. AS and PB performed the
- 429 statistical analyses. AS wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.
- 430

#### 431 **Competing interests**

- 432 The authors declare that there are no competing interests.
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#### 565 Figure and table captions

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Figure one: A) adult northern corroboree frog, *P. pengilleyi*; B) subcutaneous injection of reproductive
 hormones into the dorsal lymph sac; C) topical administration of reproductive hormones onto the
 ventral abdominal surface.

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- 571 **Table one:** The effect of GnRHa dose on spawning success.

572 Data shown are the number of pairs ovipositing/total number of pairs, or mean ± SEM (n=9 per. treatment). Data
573 were analysed using Fisher's Exact Tests (pairs ovipositing), one-way ANOVA (total eggs) or Kruskal Wallice
574 Test (percent fertilisation). Letters displayed are the result of post-hoc tests. Within a row, treatments that share a

- 575 letter are not significantly different (P>0.05). See methods for details of all statistical analyses.
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578 **Table two:** The effect of injection interval between the administration of GnRHa to males and females 579 on spawning success.

580 Data shown are the number of pairs ovipositing/total number of pairs, or mean ± SEM (n=9 per. treatment). Data

581 were analysed using Fisher's Exact Tests (pairs ovipositing), or Kruskal Wallice Tests (total eggs, percent

582 fertilisation). Letters displayed are the result of post-hoc tests. Within a row, treatments that share a letter are not

583 significantly different (P>0.05). See methods for details of all statistical analyses.

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**Table three:** The effect of topical application of GnRHa on spawning success.

587 Data shown are the number of pairs ovipositing/total number of pairs, or mean ± SEM (n=11-13 per. treatment).

588 Data were analysed using Fisher's Exact Tests (pairs ovipositing), or one-way ANOVAs (total eggs, percent

589 fertilisation). Letters displayed are the result of post-hoc tests. Within a row, treatments that share a letter are not 590 significantly different (P>0.05). See methods for details of all statistical analyses.

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