

# **A unique mating strategy without physical contact during fertilization in Bombay Night Frog (*Nyctibatrachus humayuni*) with the description of a new form of amplexus and female call**

Bert Willaert, Robin Suyesh, Sonali Garg, Varad B Giri, Mark A Bee, SD Biju

Anurans show the highest diversity in reproductive modes of all vertebrate taxa, with a variety of associated breeding behaviours. One striking feature of anuran reproduction is amplexus. During this process, in which the male clasps the female, both individuals' cloacae are juxtaposed to ensure successful external fertilization. Several types of amplexus have evolved with the diversification of anurans, and secondary loss of amplexus has been reported in a few distantly related taxa. Within *Nyctibatrachus*, a genus endemic to the Western Ghats of India, normal axillary amplexus, a complete loss of amplexus, and intermediate forms of amplexus have all been suggested to occur, but many species remain unstudied. Here, we describe the reproductive behaviour of *N. humayuni*, including a new type of amplexus. The dorsal straddle, here defined as a loose form of contact in which the male sits on the dorsum of the female prior to oviposition but without clasping her, is previously unreported for anurans. When compared to known amplexus types, it most closely resembles the form of amplexus observed in Mantellinae. Furthermore, we prove that, opposed to the situation in most anurans, male semen release happens before egg deposition. We hypothesize that the male ejaculates on the female's dorsum and that sperm subsequently runs from her back and hind legs before fertilizing the eggs. A second feature characterizing anuran breeding is the advertisement call, mostly produced solely by males. Despite recent descriptions of several new *Nyctibatrachus* species, few studies have explored their vocal repertoire. We describe both the male advertisement call and a female call for *N. humayuni*. The presence of a female call has not been reported within Nyctibatrachidae, and has been reported in less than 0.5% of anuran species. Altogether, our results highlight a striking diversity and several unique aspects of *Nyctibatrachus* breeding behaviour.

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34 **ABSTRACT**

35 Anurans show the highest diversity in reproductive modes of all vertebrate taxa, with a variety of  
36 associated breeding behaviours. One striking feature of anuran reproduction is amplexus. During  
37 this process, in which the male clasps the female, both individuals' cloacae are juxtaposed to  
38 ensure successful external fertilization. Several types of amplexus have evolved with the  
39 diversification of anurans, and secondary loss of amplexus has been reported in a few distantly  
40 related taxa. Within *Nyctibatrachus*, a genus endemic to the Western Ghats of India, normal  
41 axillary amplexus, a complete loss of amplexus, and intermediate forms of amplexus have all  
42 been suggested to occur, but many species remain unstudied. Here, we describe the reproductive  
43 behaviour of *N. humayuni*, including a new type of amplexus. The dorsal straddle, here defined  
44 as a loose form of contact in which the male sits on the dorsum of the female prior to oviposition  
45 but without clasping her, is previously unreported for anurans. When compared to known  
46 amplexus types, it most closely resembles the form of amplexus observed in Mantellinae.  
47 Furthermore, we prove that, opposed to the situation in most anurans, male semen release  
48 happens before egg deposition. We hypothesize that the male ejaculates on the female's dorsum  
49 and that sperm subsequently runs from her back and hind legs before fertilizing the eggs. A  
50 second feature characterizing anuran breeding is the advertisement call, mostly produced solely  
51 by males. Despite recent descriptions of several new *Nyctibatrachus* species, few studies have  
52 explored their vocal repertoire. We describe both the male advertisement call and a female call  
53 for *N. humayuni*. The presence of a female call has not been reported within Nyctibatrachidae,  
54 and has been reported in less than 0.5% of anuran species. Altogether, our results highlight a  
55 striking diversity and several unique aspects of *Nyctibatrachus* breeding behaviour.

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57 Subjects Animal Behaviour, Zoology, Ecology

58 Keywords Amphibians, Advertisement call, Amplexus, Bioacoustics, Breeding behaviour, Egg  
59 attendance, Egg predation, Nyctibatrachidae, Reproductive modes, Western Ghats

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## 62 INTRODUCTION

63 Anurans exhibit considerable diversity in their reproductive modes, with differences occurring,  
64 for example, in oviposition sites, larval development, and parental care (*Crump, 1974; Haddad*  
65 *& Prado, 2005; Crump, 2015*). One behaviour characteristic of nearly all anuran species'  
66 reproduction is amplexus. This behaviour, whereby the male takes the female in an embrace, is  
67 considered to have evolved to optimize successful fertilization of the eggs. Because fertilization  
68 is external in most anurans, the juxtaposition of the male and female cloacae during amplexus  
69 helps to synchronize egg deposition and the release of sperm (*Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 68–70;*  
70 *Wells, 2007: 452–458*). Several forms of amplexus have been described, with inguinal and  
71 axillary being the most widespread. Inguinal amplexus, in which the male clasps the female  
72 around her waist, is considered the ancestral state and is found in the oldest anuran lineages  
73 (*Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 68–70; Wells, 2007: 452*). Axillary amplexus, in which the male  
74 grasps the female in her armpits, is sometimes considered to be more efficient because the  
75 cloacae are better juxtaposed (*Rabb & Rabb, 1963*). While there is no evidence that axillary  
76 amplexus results in higher fertilization rates than inguinal amplexus, species with axillary  
77 amplexus may require less time to lay their eggs, thereby reducing an amplexant pair's  
78 vulnerability to predators (*Wells, 2007: 456*). Other forms of amplexus, in addition to axillary  
79 amplexus and inguinal amplexus, have evolved in some lineages (*Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 68–*  
80 *70*). A complete loss of amplexus has been observed in a few distantly related taxa (*Limerick,*  
81 *1980; Kunte, 2004; Zhang et al., 2012*).

82 Another distinctive behaviour associated with anuran reproduction is calling. The vocal  
83 repertoire of male frogs and toads is well known, with the advertisement call, which is produced  
84 to attract mates and signal presence towards other males, being present in all but a few species  
85 (*Wells & Schwartz, 2007*). Male advertisement calls are species specific and can convey  
86 information about the signaller to other individuals. A key function of male advertisement calls  
87 is in premating species isolation (*Gerhardt & Huber, 2002*). It is, therefore, important to record  
88 and describe advertisement calls, as they can provide useful information in both taxonomical and  
89 evolutionary frameworks. Female calls are less well known because they are rare and seldom  
90 observed. For example, females in only a few anuran species are known to produce true  
91 advertisement calls (e.g., *Emerson, 1992; Bush, Dyson & Halliday, 1996; Bush, 1997; Bosch &*  
92 *Márquez, 2001*). The use of courtship calls by females engaged in close-range interactions with

93 males has been reported in a number of species (e.g., *Given, 1993; Tobias, Viswanathan &*  
94 *Kelley, 1998; Bosch, 2002; Shen et al., 2008; Cui et al., 2010*). In some species, females produce  
95 a territorial call upon disturbance (*Capranica, 1968; Wells, 1980; Stewart & Rand, 1991*).  
96 Females in some anuran species also produce a release call when they are amplexed but  
97 unreceptive, or amplexed by an undesired male (*Brzoska, Walkowiak & Schneider, 1977;*  
98 *Gollmann, Benkő & Hödl, 2009*).

99         The genus *Nyctibatrachus* *Boulenger, 1882* is endemic to the Western Ghats of India and  
100 comprises 28 known species, many of which have only recently been described (*Das & Kunte,*  
101 *2005; Biju et al., 2011; Gururaja et al., 2014; Frost, 2015*). *Nyctibatrachus* species vary in  
102 snout-vent length (SVL) from 10.0 mm (*N. minimus Biju et al., 2007*) to 76.9 mm (*N. grandis*  
103 *Biju et al., 2011*) and are either stream-associated or found in the leaf litter, the latter making use  
104 of small puddles for reproduction (*Biju et al., 2007; Biju, et al., 2011; Van Bocxlaer et al., 2012*).  
105 Information about their natural history is scarce, and the conservation status of many species is  
106 unknown, with only 15 out of the 28 species having been assessed by the IUCN Red List  
107 (including four that are considered data deficient) (*Biju et al., 2011; IUCN, 2014*). Furthermore,  
108 male advertisement calls have only been described in four species (*Kuramoto & Joshy, 2001;*  
109 *Gururaja et al., 2014*).

110         Despite their poorly understood ecology, several studies suggest the presence of  
111 interesting forms of reproductive behaviour (*Kunte, 2004; Biju et al., 2011; Gramapurohit,*  
112 *Gosavi & Phuge, 2011; Gururaja et al., 2014*). In all *Nyctibatrachus* species, egg clutches are  
113 deposited on rocks or vegetation overhanging water, and tadpoles fall in the water after hatching,  
114 where they continue their development and metamorphosis (*Biju et al., 2011; Gururaja et al.,*  
115 *2014*). Different kinds of amplexus behaviours have been described within this genus. Pairs of *N.*  
116 *kumbara* *Gururaja et al., 2014*, for example, perform a short axillary amplexus followed by a  
117 handstand. The female then deposits the eggs from this upside down position directly after the  
118 male has dismounted (*Gururaja et al., 2014*). Afterwards, males of *N. kumbara* cover the  
119 deposited eggs with a layer of mud, a behaviour previously unknown for anurans. In *N. aliciae*  
120 *Inger et al., 1984, N. humayuni Bhaduri & Kripalani, 1955, N. jog Biju et al., 2011* and *N. minor*  
121 *Inger et al., 1984* a short, loose physical contact between the male and female takes place as the  
122 male sits on the dorsum of the female but does not clasp her as in a normal axillary amplexus  
123 (*Biju et al., 2011; Gramapurohit, Gosavi & Phuge, 2011*). In other species, such as *N. petraeus*

124 *Das & Kunte, 2005*, amplexus behaviour may be completely absent, with the female depositing  
125 the eggs prior to the male fertilizing them (*Kunte, 2004; Das & Kunte, 2005*). On one occasion,  
126 amplexus was observed in *N. petraeus* five minutes before egg deposition took place, and the  
127 author therefore considered this to be a type of ‘pseudo-amplexus’ (*Kunte, 2004*).

128 Together the available data indicates a wide range of breeding-associated behaviours in  
129 *Nyctibatrachus*, with a new form of amplexus and an intrageneric variation in amplexus types  
130 previously unreported in anurans. To better understand the reproductive behaviour of  
131 *Nyctibatrachus* frogs, we observed breeding and associated vocalizations in a wild population of  
132 *N. humayuni*. Here, we describe both the male advertisement call and a female call, and discuss  
133 the different behavioural steps involved in reproduction based on field observations.

134

## 135 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 136 Field surveys and behavioral observations

137 We spent a total of 40 nights in the field during July and August 2010 and 2012 studying a  
138 population of *Nyctibatrachus humayuni*. The population was located in a dense forest near  
139 Humbarli village, Koyna, Satara District, Maharashtra (coordinates 17°24’10.8” N,  
140 73°44’13.2”E, 827 m asl) (*Fig. S1A*). Males were easily located by their calls while females,  
141 which were harder to find, were more often encountered by chance. Sex was determined by the  
142 presence of femoral glands in males and their absence in females (*Biju et al., 2011*). The moment  
143 a female was observed approaching a male, we started filming the event using a camera with  
144 infrared function (Sony HDR-XR 550VE). In most such instances, we used infrared light to  
145 avoid disturbing the animals and affecting their behaviour. Movies were analysed with iMovie  
146 8.0.6 (Apple Inc.) to determine the duration of different steps of reproduction. In order to test the  
147 assumption that fertilization happens after the female has left the oviposition site (*Gramapurohit,*  
148 *Gosavi & Phuge, 2011*), Ziploc® bags were placed around egg clutches directly after deposition  
149 on five occasions to hinder male contact with the eggs. To determine the duration of embryo  
150 development, deposited and fertilised clutches were monitored every evening until hatching  
151 occurred.

152

### 153 Call recording

154 The advertisement calls of eight males and the calls of one female were recorded on a solid-state  
155 digital recorder (Marantz PMD620, 44.1 KHz sampling rate, 16-bit resolution) using a  
156 directional shotgun microphone (Sennheiser ME 66). A minimum of 20 calls were recorded per  
157 individual. Microphones were handheld and positioned at a distance of approximately 75 cm  
158 from the target animal. Sounds were monitored in real time using headphones (Sony MDR-  
159 V500). At the end of each recording, the calling individual was captured and its SVL was  
160 measured to the nearest 0.1 mm using digital callipers. A portable digital balance was used to  
161 measure body mass to the nearest 0.01 g. These two measures of body size were used to compute  
162 a measure of body condition (i.e., length independent mass) following *Baker (1992)*. Condition  
163 was estimated as the residuals from a regression of the cube root of mass on SVL divided by  
164 SVL. We used these measures of SVL body mass and body condition to assess whether any call  
165 properties were correlated with body size and condition. Recorded frogs were released at their  
166 calling site immediately after obtaining body size measurements. To avoid recording the same  
167 individual twice, we only recorded animals that were widely spaced ( $> 15$  m). Since the study  
168 area was large (ca. 250 m  $\times$  30 m) and males of this species are territorial, being found sitting  
169 next to or on previously deposited egg clutches on subsequent nights, the chance of recording the  
170 same individual multiple times was negligible (*Gramapurohit, Gosavi & Phuge, 2011*). As call  
171 properties can vary with temperatures in anurans (*Gerhardt & Huber, 2002*), we recorded both  
172 dry bulb and wet bulb air temperatures ( $\pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ ) at the animal's calling site using a thermometer  
173 (Jennson Delux).

174 This study was conducted with permissions and guidelines from the responsible  
175 authorities in the State Forest Department of Maharashtra. Study permit: D-22  
176 (8)/Research/4543/2012-13, dated 1-03-2012. This study did not sample animals for any captive  
177 or laboratory studies. All observations were made in the wild. Recorded frogs were released back  
178 at their calling site immediately after measuring the body size and body mass.

179

#### 180 Call analysis

181 We used Raven Pro 1.4 (*Charif, Waack & Strickman, 2010*) to measure 32 acoustic properties  
182 for each of the 160 advertisement calls recorded from the eight males. Raven's waveform display  
183 was used to measure 21 temporal properties, while 11 spectral properties were measured using  
184 the spectrogram slice view (1024pt. FFT, Hanning window). A description of the measured

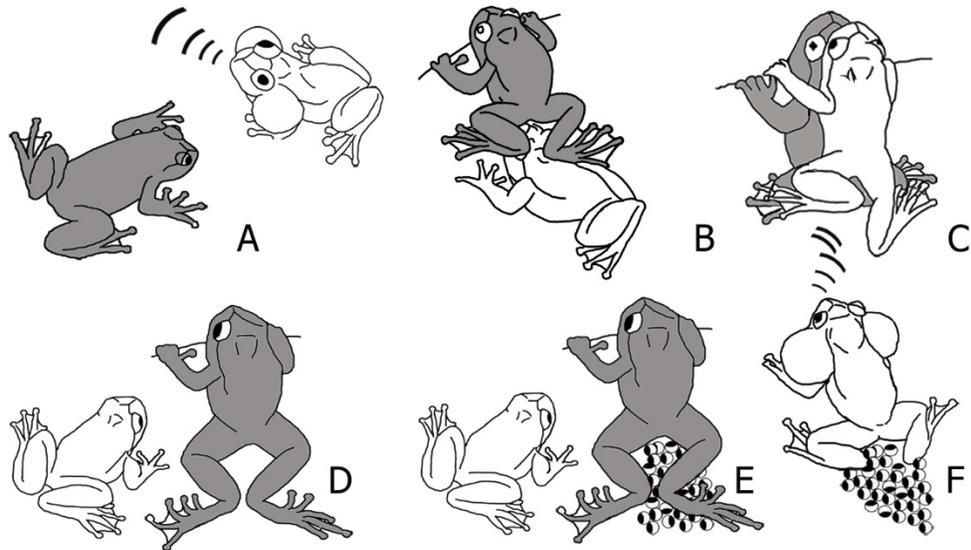
185 properties is provided in [Table S1A](#). Properties are analyzed after *Bee et al.* (2013a; 2013b).  
186 Coefficients of variation ( $CV = \text{standard deviation}/\text{mean}$ ) were computed to describe patterns of  
187 both within-individual ( $CV_w$ ) and between-individual ( $CV_b$ ) variation in call parameters and are  
188 expressed here as percentages (*Gerhardt, 1991*). Correlation of any of the acoustic parameters  
189 with physical characteristics (SVL, body mass and body condition) and temperature was  
190 explored by performing Spearman rank correlations using the software package Statistica v7.1  
191 (Statsoft). Due to the low sample size, these correlation analyses should be considered  
192 exploratory and are not intended to test any specific hypotheses. Five temporal and four spectral  
193 properties were measured for the 20 calls recorded from one female ([Table S1B](#)). Since we only  
194 recorded the call of a single female, descriptive statistics and correlations with other parameters  
195 could not be carried out.

196

## 197 **RESULTS**

### 198 Reproductive behaviour

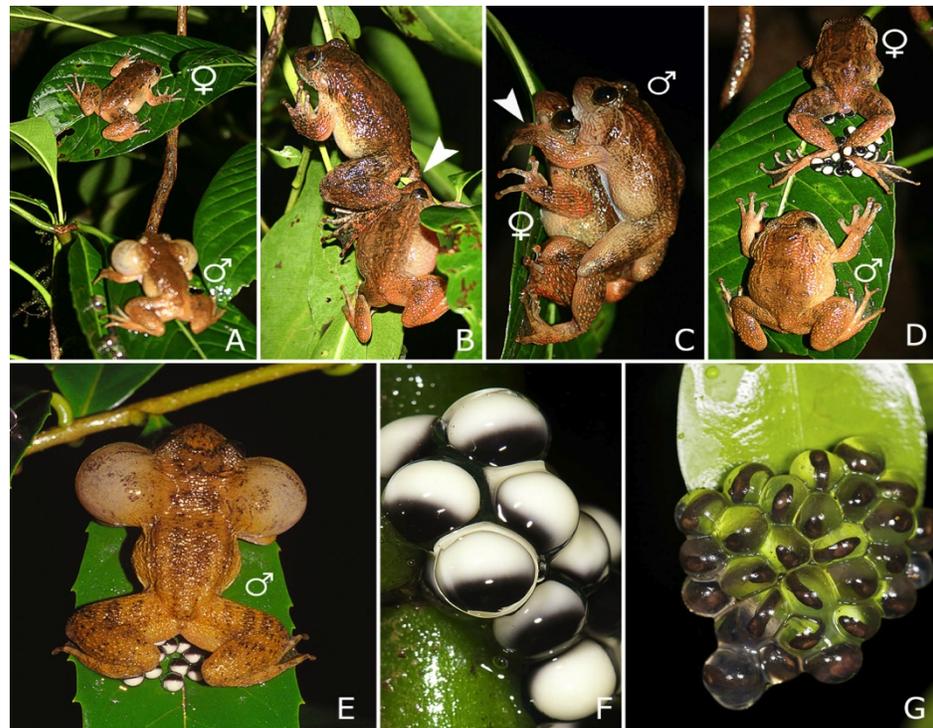
199 Breeding took place in and around a stream in which the water level heavily depended on the  
200 weather conditions ([Figs. S1B](#) and [S1C](#)). Males were observed calling from different positions  
201 along the stream. They were perched on rocks, vegetation and fallen trees, all bordering or  
202 overhanging the water ([Video S1](#)). Their vertical position ranged from partially submerged to up  
203 to four metres high on trees. Females were observed moving slowly between the territories of  
204 different males. A schematic overview of the reproductive sequence is shown in [Figures 1](#) and [2](#),  
205 and videos of the different steps are provided as supplementary information.



**Figure 1** Schematic sequence of reproductive behaviour in *Nyctibatrachus humayuni*. (A) A female approaches a calling male. (B) The female sits in front of the male and creeps backwards, until her feet touch the male's head. (C) The male mounts the female and forms a dorsal straddle, and most likely sperm is released on her back during this moment. (D) When the female is about to deposit the eggs, the male dismounts. (E) Immediately after the male dismounts, the female deposits the eggs and remains motionless with her hind legs stretched around the eggs. (F) After oviposition, the female leaves the oviposition site, and the male sits on or near the eggs and continues to call. The male is drawn white and the female grey.

206 When a female approaches a male (Figs. 1A and 2A; Video S2), she sits in front of him  
 207 and creeps backwards until her abdomen is placed over his head, making physical contact (Figs.  
 208 1B and 2B; Video S3). At this moment, the male mounts the female. If the male does not react,  
 209 the female will repeat this physical contact. When mounted, the male rests on the female without  
 210 grabbing her in a firm amplexus, and instead uses his hands to hold on to the leaf or branch on  
 211 which the pair sits (Figs. 1C and 2C; Video S4). Lateral movements in the male's flank were  
 212 observed during this stage in a few of the breeding sequences (Video S4). This loose form of  
 213 amplexus is of short duration, lasting on average 768 s (n=21, range: 338–1670 s). At the end of  
 214 this embrace, the female strongly and repeatedly arches her back followed by the male  
 215 immediately dismounting (Fig. 1D; Video S5), a behaviour known from other species too  
 216 (Gosner & Rosmann, 1959). The female deposits eggs in a single bout immediately after the  
 217 male dismounts (Figs. 1E and 2D; Video S6). Oviposition takes only a few seconds and occurs

218 without any form of physical contact between the sexes. The female then remains motionless,  
 219 with her hind legs stretched around the freshly deposited clutch (Figs. 1E and 2D; Video S6). It  
 220 takes on average 479 s (n=17, range: 260–961 s) before the female moves after egg laying. After  
 221 this first movement, it takes another 728 s (n=11, range: 405–1692 s) before she jumps back into  
 222 the stream. During this period, the male is sitting nearby. There is, however, no physical contact  
 223 between the two sexes after egg deposition.  
 224



**Figure 2** A–E. Sequence of breeding behaviour in *Nyctibatrachus humayuni*; F–G. Egg development. (A) Female approaches a calling male. (B) Female touches male just before the dorsal straddle (arrow indicates the position of female's leg on male's head). (C) Male mounts the female in a dorsal straddle, and most likely sperm is released on her back during this moment (arrow indicates the male's hand positioned on the leaf, but not clasping the female). (D) Female deposits eggs and remains motionless with her hind legs stretched around the eggs. The male is mostly seen sitting close-by without any physical contact with the female. (E) After the female leaves the oviposition site, the male sits on or near the eggs and continues to call. (F) Freshly laid eggs, pigmented (egg diameter  $3.5 \pm 0.2$  mm, n=20). (G) Developing embryos on the 19<sup>th</sup> day, just

before hatching out of the eggs.

225 During several of the observed breeding sequences, the male crawled back over the eggs  
226 after the female had moved away (Figs. 1F and 2E), but we did not see this on every occasion.  
227 This prompted us to test whether fertilization had already happened during an earlier stage. We  
228 tested this by placing a Ziploc® bag around five egg clutches directly after deposition, and in this  
229 way prevented the male from having any further contact with the eggs (Video S7). Interestingly,  
230 in all five clutches, the fertilization rate was 100%. In at least half of the observations we made  
231 (nine observations), reproduction was interrupted by one or both of the frogs falling into the  
232 water (Video S6, examples 6 and 7). Fallen individuals returned to the same position to continue  
233 the mating sequence, except when strong currents swept them away. Males showed high site  
234 fidelity, with new eggs being deposited directly next to present clutches or in close vicinity ( $\leq 50$   
235 cm). When a female approached a male calling from a position away from his previously  
236 fertilized clutches, the male moved towards those eggs upon the first contact while continuing to  
237 produce advertisement calls as the female followed. Males are known to defend their territories  
238 (*Gramapurohit, Gosavi & Phuge, 2011*), and we witnessed a single event of aggression where  
239 the resident male chased off an intruder (Video S8).

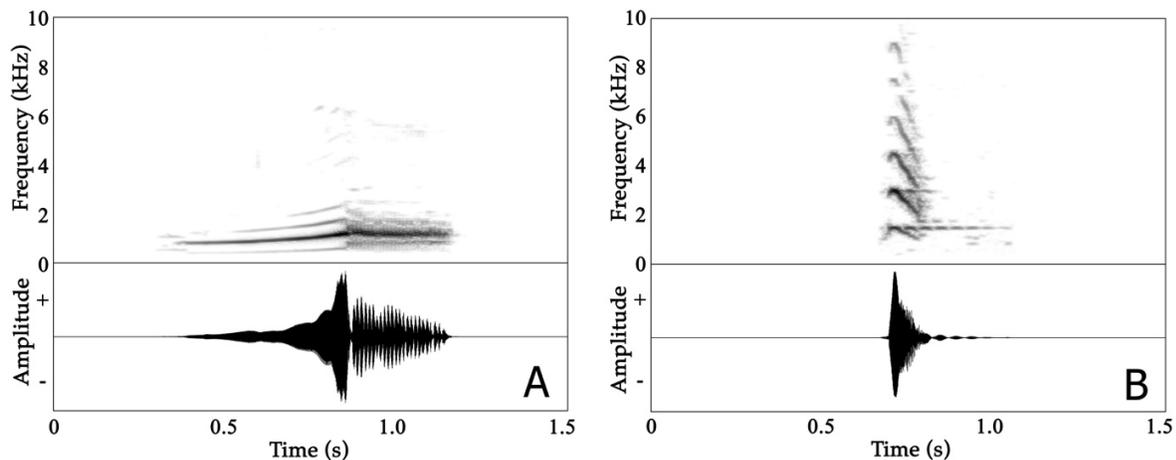
240 We monitored 15 egg clutches from the moment of deposition until hatching. Of the 15  
241 clutches, 12 were eaten before hatching took place. These cases of predation were rarely  
242 observed but could easily be distinguished from hatched clutches, because in hatched clutches,  
243 the jelly remained visible on the substrate after hatching, in contrast to instances of predation,  
244 where most of the jelly was removed. In one of the remaining three clutches, hatching started 18  
245 days after oviposition and all larvae had fallen into the stream by the 19<sup>th</sup> day. In the other two  
246 clutches, hatching started after 19 days and finished one and two days later (Figs. 2F and 2G).

247

248 Male advertisement calls

249 Male advertisement calls are composed of two distinct parts, with the first part being non-  
250 pulsatile and the second part having a pulsatile temporal structure (Fig. 3A; Audios S1 and S2).  
251 A detailed overview of analysed properties, including the variation both within and between  
252 individuals, is given in Table S2.

253 The mean call duration was 532 ms (range: 483–630 ms). On average, calls reached their  
 254 full amplitude in 268 ms (rise time) and decreased in amplitude over the last 262 ms of the call  
 255 (fall time). Both rise time and fall time were approximately 50% of the total call duration ([Table](#)  
 256 [S2A](#)). The second part of calls consisted of 16–24 pulses, with a mean pulse period of 13.2 ms  
 257 and a mean pulse duration of 12.8 ms. These pulses were produced at rates of 74–84 pulses/s.  
 258 Individual pulses had mean rise and fall times of 4.7 ms and 8.1 ms, respectively ([Table S2C](#)).



259  
 260 **Figure 3** Spectrograms (above) and oscillogram (below) of *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* calls. (A) Male  
 261 advertisement call. (B) Female call.

262 The mean dominant frequency, measured over entire calls, was 1.34 kHz (1.11–1.45 kHz)  
 263 with relatively low variation between calls produced by the same individual ( $CV_w = 3.73\%$ )  
 264 compared to the magnitude of variation observed among the eight individuals ( $CV_b = 8.19\%$ ).  
 265 The dominant frequency of the first, non-pulsatile part of the call ranged between 0.91–1.45 kHz  
 266 while in the second, pulsatile part the dominant frequency ranged between 1.17–1.47 kHz (as  
 267 calculated from first pulse, middle pulse and last pulse) ([Table S2](#)). Frequency modulation is  
 268 present in the first, non-pulsatile part of the call, but absent in the second, pulsatile part. The  
 269 dominant frequency increased by approximately 30% during the first part of the call, from 1027  
 270 Hz (mean dominant frequency 1) to 1336 Hz (mean dominant frequency 4) in less than 300 ms  
 271 ([Table S2B](#)).

272 Results of correlation tests are presented in [Table S3](#). SVL and body mass of the different  
 273 recorded males and corresponding temperature data is presented in [Table S4](#). The mean ( $\pm$  SD)  
 274 dry bulb and wet bulb air temperatures during our study were  $22.2 \pm 0.6^\circ\text{C}$  and  $22.7 \pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$ ,  
 275 respectively. There were no correlations between these temperatures and the acoustic properties  
 276 analysed. Though temporal properties are frequently correlated with temperature, we attribute

277 this lack of temperature effects on call properties to the very small temperature variation across  
278 our recordings ( $< 2.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  dry bulb air temperature;  $< 1.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  wet bulb air temperature).

279 Several spectral properties were correlated with our measures of body size. The overall  
280 dominant frequency of the entire call was significantly negatively correlated with body mass  
281 (Table S3A). The dominant frequencies measured separately over the first and second halves of  
282 the call were also significantly negatively correlated to body mass (Tables S3B and S3C). The  
283 overall dominant frequency of the entire call was also negatively correlated with the SVL (Table  
284 S3A). The overall dominant frequency, dominant frequency 2, and dominant frequency 4 of the  
285 1<sup>st</sup> half were significantly negatively correlated with SVL (Table S3B). The overall dominant  
286 frequency and dominant frequency of the first and last pulses of the second, pulsatile part of the  
287 call were also significantly negatively correlated with SVL (Table S3C). The correlation of  
288 dominant frequency 1 and dominant frequency 3 with SVL were marginally non-significant in  
289 the first half of the call (Table S3B). Only one temporal property, pulse 50% rise time of  
290 maximum amplitude pulse, was correlated with body mass (Table S3C).

291 With only one exception, there were no significant correlations between body condition  
292 and the acoustic properties measured in this study (Table S3). The exception was the temporal  
293 property of fall time of the first part of the call, which was significantly negatively correlated  
294 with body condition (Table S3B). Several spectral properties had reasonably strong negative  
295 correlations with body condition ( $-0.69 \leq r \leq -0.62$ ), but these correlations were not quite  
296 significant ( $0.06 \leq P \leq 0.10$ ; Table S3B). Body condition can sometimes be strongly related to  
297 certain temporal call properties associated with higher energetic demands, such as fast pulse rates  
298 (Jakob *et al.*, 1996). Although overall pulse rate was not related to body condition (Table S3C),  
299 two measures of individual pulse period ( $= 1/\text{pulse rate}$ ) had correlations with body mass that  
300 approached significance ( $r = -0.69$ ,  $P = 0.06$ ; Table S3C). We attribute the general lack of  
301 significant effects of body condition on several analysed call properties to our small sample size.

302

### 303 Female call

304 Female *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* calls were only rarely observed (four individuals), as females  
305 do not seem to vocalize on a regular basis. A single female calling from a height of 2.5 m above  
306 the ground was recorded. It produced about 50 calls in about 30 minutes. These calls sounded  
307 similar to the calls we heard other females produce (Table S5; Video S9). The female call is

308 quite distinct from the male advertisement call (Fig. 3B; Audio S3; Video S9). The call is short,  
309 consisting of a single note, with a mean call duration of 83 ms and a rapid onset (call rise time =  
310 16 ms). The call's frequency spectrum is characterized by several frequency peaks, with the  
311 lowest three peaks having mean frequencies of 1.45 kHz (Dominant frequency 1), 2.90 kHz  
312 (Dominant frequency 2) and 4.37 kHz (Dominant frequency 3), respectively. The overall  
313 dominant frequency of the call was 2.85 kHz (range 1.39–3.10 kHz). Based on measures of  
314 within-individual CVs, spectral properties were less variable ( $2.53 \leq CV_w \leq 12.37\%$ ) compared  
315 to temporal properties ( $18.30 \leq CV_w \leq 58.04\%$ ). The call 50% rise time and call 50% fall time  
316 were more variable compared to other temporal properties. During two of our observations of  
317 female calling behaviour in *N. humayuni*, the female only initiated calling when she had not  
318 succeeded in reaching a calling male after trying for considerable time (more than 30 minutes).  
319 On one of these occasions the male immediately changed his position as soon as the female  
320 called. Although the male's response resulted in him calling from a new position closer to the  
321 stream and to the female, she still failed to locate him.

322

## 323 DISCUSSION

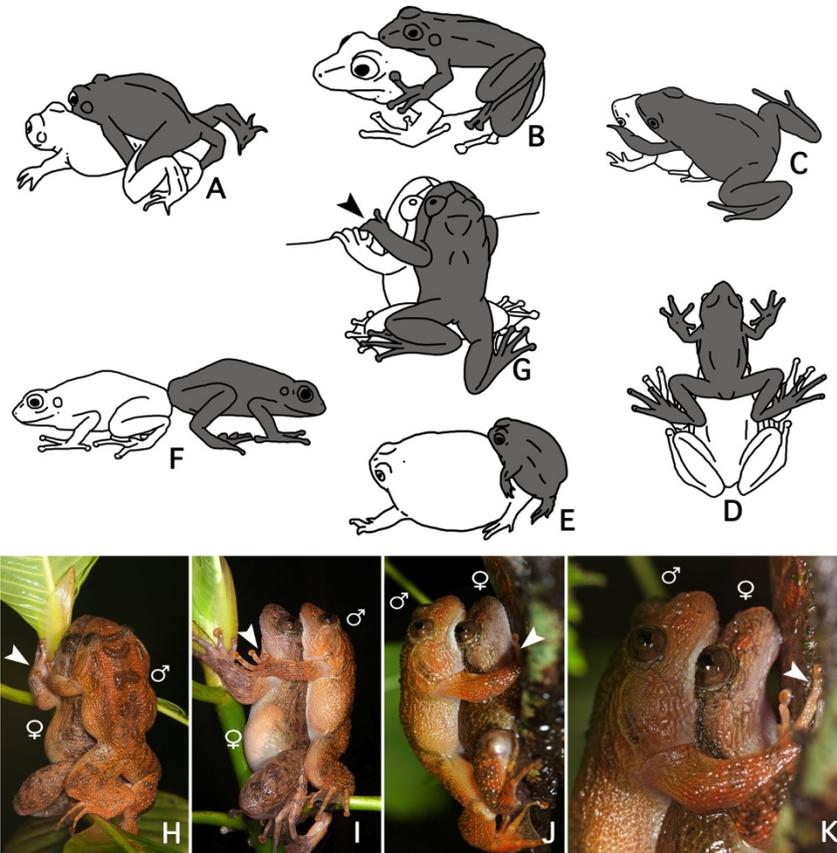
### 324 New form of amplexus

325 The loose amplexus observed here in *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* differs from all previously  
326 described amplexus types in anurans (Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 68–70) (Figs. 4A–F). Our  
327 observations indicate there is some similarity between amplexus in *N. humayuni* and that  
328 observed in some mantellid frogs, whereby the male sits with his abdomen on the female's head  
329 (Blommers-Schlösser, 1975; Glaw & Vences, 2007: 144, 186, 200, 204; Altig, 2008). Duellman  
330 & Trueb (1986: 69) defined this type of amplexus as a straddle, and it was later more specifically  
331 called a head straddle (Savage, 2002: 166). The form of contact described in this study resembles  
332 this head straddle, but the male is positioned lower on the female, with his abdomen placed on  
333 her lower dorsum. When mounted, the male rests on the female without grabbing her tightly, but  
334 instead uses his hands to hold on to a leaf, branch or tree trunk (Figs. 1C, 2C and 4J–K). On  
335 some occasions his hands may rest on her arms or hands (Figs. 4H–I). Gramapurohit *et al.*  
336 (2011) considered this to be cephalic amplexus, similar to that present in some dendrobatids.  
337 Because the male does not press the backside of his hands against the female's throat, we believe  
338 this term should not be used (Wells, 1980). We therefore propose to name this behaviour a *dorsal*

339 *straddle*. A dorsal straddle can be defined as a loose form of amplexus in which the male sits on  
340 top of the female with his abdomen positioned on her lower dorsum. The male does not, however,  
341 grasp the female under her armpits or head, but instead places his hands on the leaf, branch or  
342 tree trunk the pair is sitting on (Figs. 1C and 2C). At the moment, dorsal straddle is known to  
343 occur in *N. humayuni* only, but observations made in other *Nyctibatrachus* species (Biju *et al.*,  
344 2011) might also correspond with this newly-defined type of amplexus.

345 We speculate that a loose form of contact, with the male holding on to the substrate rather  
346 than to the female, as seen during a dorsal straddle, might function to avoid falling and  
347 interrupting mating. In *Guibemantis depressiceps* (Boulenger, 1882), which uses a head straddle  
348 during amplexus, pulsing movements in the male flanks were observed during a short period of  
349 physical contact (Blommers-Schlösser, 1975), similar to the ones observed here for  
350 *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* (Video S4). The function of these pulsations is unclear, but similar  
351 movements during amplexus have been observed in several other frog species (Savage, 1932;  
352 Rabb & Rabb, 1963; Weygoldt, 1976; Cui *et al.*, 2010). It has been proposed that these  
353 movements might stimulate ovulation by the female (Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 71; Cui *et al.*,  
354 2010).

355



**Figure 4** A comparison of known amplexus positions found in anuran amphibians with the new amplexus mode in *Nyctibatrachus humayuni*. (A–F) Known amplexus positions. (A) Inguinal. (B) Axillary. (C) Cephalic. (D) Head straddle. (E) Glued. (F) Independent (adapted from *Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 69*). (G–I) Dorsal straddle, with the male's hands on sides of the female's head but not clasping the female. (G–H) Dorsal views. (I) Side view. (J–K) Dorsal straddle, with the male's hands holding a twig but not clasping the female. (J) Side view. (K) Close-up of the side view. Arrows indicate the male grasping position. The male is drawn grey and the female white.

356

357 Moment of fertilization

358 The loose contact during amplexus, and the lack of any physical contact between both sexes  
 359 during oviposition, that we have described is rarely seen among anurans. Our observations  
 360 significantly extend those made by Gramapurohit *et al.* (2011) of the same species.  
 361 Gramapurohit *et al.* (2011) observed a subsequent step after oviposition, in which the male

362 placed himself on top of the eggs, and they considered this to be the moment of fertilization  
363 (*Gramapurohit, Gosavi & Phuge, 2011*). In our study, however, all clutches covered with a  
364 Ziploc® bag immediately after oviposition showed a 100% fertilization rate, proving that semen  
365 release must happen before clutch deposition, since the male dismounts the female just before  
366 oviposition (*Videos S5 and S7*). This is remarkable, since amplexus is considered to increase  
367 chances of successful fertilization by synchronizing egg deposition and semen release (*Duellman*  
368 *& Trueb, 1986: 68–70*). A complete lack of physical contact between male and female during  
369 egg deposition is, therefore, rarely seen in anurans (*Wells, 2007: 458, 513*). Our findings are  
370 inconsistent with the idea of the male fertilizing the eggs after deposition, as postulated by  
371 *Gramapurohit et al. (2011)*, and instead suggest that semen release must take place during the  
372 dorsal straddle. We hypothesize that the male releases his sperm on the female's back and the  
373 eggs are subsequently fertilized by the semen running down her back and hind legs. This  
374 hypothesis is supported by the observation that female remains motionless after egg deposition,  
375 for 479 seconds on average, with her hind legs stretched around the freshly deposited clutch  
376 (*Figs. 1E and 2D; Video S6*). Furthermore, similar behaviour has been reported for *Blommersia*  
377 *wittei* (*Guibé, 1974*), *B. blommersae* (*Guibé, 1975*), *Guibemantis depressiceps* and *G. liber*  
378 (*Peracca, 1893*), among others (*Blommers-Schlösser, 1975; Glaw & Vences, 2007: 144, 186,*  
379 *200, 204; Altig, 2008*). In these Malagasy frogs, males engage in a head straddle with females  
380 and dismount the female before she finishes egg deposition.

381 In *Guibemantis depressiceps*, multiple males were observed sitting on a female's head  
382 during a single egg deposition event, and the female exhibited lethargic behaviour, remaining  
383 stretched around the clutch for at least an hour after deposition had finished (*Altig, 2008*). For  
384 these mantellid frogs, the hypothesis of sperm running from the female back has also been  
385 assumed (*Blommers-Schlösser, 1975; Altig, 2008*). The exact moment of semen release could not  
386 be observed, as this was not possible with the naked eye during extremely wet field conditions, a  
387 problem also mentioned by *Altig (2008)*. The male might release his semen just before  
388 dismounting the female. The eggs are then subsequently fertilized by sperm running down her  
389 back. Another possibility is that sperm is gradually released during amplexus and that the eggs  
390 are eventually deposited on top of the sperm. This last option has been observed in some species  
391 of Dendrobatoidea (*Weygoldt, 1980*). A few anurans make use of internal fertilization (*Townsend*

392 *et al.*, 1981; Stephenson & Verrell, 2003), but for *N. humayuni* this is very unlikely as males lack  
393 an intromittent organ and only limited contact between the two sexes exists.

394 In *Nyctibatrachus petraeus* there is no physical contact at all, and it is believed that the  
395 male fertilizes the eggs after the female has deposited the clutch (Kunte, 2004). In this species  
396 the female is reported to immediately leave after egg deposition (Kunte, 2004), contrasting with  
397 our findings of *N. humayuni* females. Gururaja *et al.* (2014) do not mention the moment of  
398 fertilization in *N. kumbara*, but it is unlikely to happen as in one of the methods described above.  
399 Since the female deposits the eggs from an upside-down position, sperm cannot run down from  
400 her back onto the eggs. Furthermore, the male only touches the eggs with his hands after  
401 deposition, to cover them with mud (Gururaja *et al.*, 2014). Future studies regarding the  
402 reproductive behaviour of *Nyctibatrachus* should aim to pinpoint when semen is released and  
403 how fertilization is achieved.

404

405 Egg development and egg attendance

406 Of the egg clutches monitored, 80% were eaten by predators before hatching. During a single  
407 occasion, a *Boiga* sp. (tree snake) was observed eating a *N. humayuni* egg clutch (Video S10).  
408 Another water snake, *Rhabdops olivaceus* (Beddome, 1863), was frequently observed around the  
409 oviposition sites but no direct observation of predation was made. Gramapurohit *et al.* (2011)  
410 reported an egg stage duration of 11 to 13 days in their study population, which is much shorter  
411 than our observation of 18 to 21 days (Figs. 2F–G). An egg stage of 12 to 15 days and 8 days  
412 were observed for *Nyctibatrachus petraeus* and *N. kumbara*, respectively (Kunte, 2004;  
413 Gururaja *et al.*, 2014), while for *N. aliciae* an egg stage of 8 to 9 days was observed in a clutch  
414 studied in captivity (Biju *et al.*, 2011). As egg development duration is negatively correlated  
415 with temperature within a certain optimal range (Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 120–124; Wells,  
416 2007: 124, 499), a higher number of observations and associated temperature data will be needed  
417 to address this variation.

418 Males were seen each night in the same location, sitting near or on the developing  
419 clutches that had resulted from earlier successful mating encounters. Egg attendance by the male,  
420 or both male and female, is known for all *Nyctibatrachus* species in which reproductive  
421 behaviour has been studied (Kunte, 2004; Biju *et al.*, 2011; Gramapurohit, Gosavi & Phuge,  
422 2011; Gururaja *et al.*, 2014). The function of egg attendance has not yet been studied in this

423 genus, but it might prevent desiccation or reduce predation risk by arthropods, both of which  
424 have already been confirmed in other anuran taxa ([Crump, 2015](#)). More specific parental care has  
425 been documented for *N. kumbara* and *N. grandis*. *Nyctibatrachus kumbara* males cover the egg  
426 clutch with mud, possibly preventing dehydration or providing camouflage against predation  
427 ([Gururaja et al., 2014](#)). Males of *N. grandis* have been observed inflating their body upon  
428 disturbance and making attempts to bite would-be predators, including human observers ([Biju et](#)  
429 [al., 2011](#)).

430

431 Male call

432 The advertisement calls of only a few *Nyctibatrachus* species have been described ([Kuramoto &](#)  
433 [Joshy, 2001](#); [Gururaja et al., 2014](#)). [Gururaja et al. \(2014\)](#) provide a brief description of the calls  
434 of *N. kumbara*, *N. jog* and *N. kempholeyensis* ([Rao, 1937](#)), while a concise description of the call  
435 of *N. major* [Boulenger, 1882](#) is given by [Kuramoto & Joshy \(2001\)](#). In *N. kumbara* and *N.*  
436 *kempholeyensis* two distinct call types are distinguished; in *N. kumbara* one of these types was  
437 produced more frequently when a female was present ([Gururaja et al., 2014](#)). Our recordings  
438 were made in the absence of females. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that in *N.*  
439 *humayuni* too, distinct call types are present. The advertisement call from male *N. humayuni*  
440 described here is complex, consisting of an initial, unpulsed part with frequency modulation and  
441 a second, pulsed part without frequency modulation ([Fig. 3A](#); [Table S2](#)). The call of *N. jog* also  
442 has a pulsed second part of the call ([Gururaja et al., 2014](#)). The call of *N. humayuni* can be  
443 distinguished from the call of *N. major*, the type I call of *N. kumbara*, and both types of call of *N.*  
444 *kempholeyensis* by call duration. With an average duration of 0.53 s, the call is longer than the  
445 type I call of *N. kumbara* (0.11 s) and the call of *N. major* (0.05 s), while being substantially  
446 shorter than both call types of *N. kempholeyensis* (5.17 s and 11.69 s for the type I and type II  
447 calls, respectively). Although call duration is similar between *N. humayuni* and the call of *N. jog*  
448 and the type II call of *N. kumbara*, the dominant frequency of *N. humayuni* calls is lower (1.33  
449 kHz) than that of *N. kumbara* type II calls (1.53 kHz) and *N. jog* calls (1.51 kHz).

450 Our results show a significant negative correlation between male body size and dominant  
451 frequency ([Table S3](#)). This is the case for many anuran species, in which relatively larger  
452 individuals' calls are characterized by relatively lower dominant frequencies. Larger males tend  
453 to have more massive vocal cords and, consequently, produce lower-frequency calls ([Martin,](#)

454 1971). In some species, females show a preference for low frequency calls and hence larger  
455 males (Ryan, 1980; Wollerman, 1998). However, experimental studies have also shown that in  
456 other species no preference is given to lower frequencies (Rosso, Castellano & Giacoma, 2006).  
457 Furthermore, female preference can vary between different populations within a single species  
458 (Schrode et al., 2012). Within *Nyctibatrachus*, only a few species' calls have been described, and  
459 no data on female preferences for spectral properties are available, making it impossible to draw  
460 conclusions without further bioacoustic research on this group.

461

#### 462 Female call

463 The discovery of a female call is remarkable, as this is rarely observed in frogs and toads.  
464 Female calling behaviour has so far been reported in – to our knowledge – only 25 anurans,  
465 representing less than 0.5% of the total of 6583 anuran species that are currently recognized  
466 (25/01/2016) (Frost, 2015). An overview of the species for which a female call has been reported  
467 is given in Table S6. Female calling in *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* was observed only briefly and  
468 on just four occasions over a total of 40 nights in the field, compared to the almost permanent  
469 presence of male advertisement calls. The female call of *N. humayuni* is shorter and less complex  
470 than that of the male, consisting of a single, unpulsed note (Fig. 3B; Video S9). A short and less  
471 intense female call is also observed in other anuran species (Given, 1987; Emerson, 1992; Cui et  
472 al., 2010) and can, in part, be explained by the smaller size of laryngeal and oblique muscles of  
473 the female (Emerson & Boyd, 1999). A female call is not known from any other species of  
474 *Nyctibatrachus*. Since documentation of the presence of female calls can be done with more  
475 confidence than their absence (Wells, 2007: 282), female vocalizations might be more common  
476 than currently believed, both among *Nyctibatrachus* species and across all anuran taxa more  
477 generally (Emerson & Boyd, 1999).

478 Observed male responses to female calls include positive phonotaxis and changes in male  
479 vocalization rate (Emerson & Boyd, 1999; Shen et al., 2008; Cui et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010),  
480 suggesting that female vocalization is important in mate location and recognition. In this and  
481 other *Nyctibatrachus* species, calling males are often located in difficult to reach locations (e.g.  
482 vegetation overhanging the water) that might be accessed only by leaping towards them directly  
483 from the stream. It is likely that in such a situation the female will mainly rely on acoustic cues  
484 to localize the calling male. Intensified male calling, or the male shifting to another position, in

485 response to a female call might then prove beneficial in successfully locating a mate. This  
486 hypothesis is only speculative at present, and additional observational and experimental studies  
487 will be required to test it. Several other potential functions have been attributed to female calling  
488 behaviour, such as signalling receptivity (*Tobias, Viswanathan & Kelley, 1998; Shen et al.,*  
489 *2008*), distinguishing satellite males from territorial ones (*Given, 1993*) and inciting male-male  
490 (*Judge, Swanson & Brooks, 2000*) and female-female competition (*Bush, 1997; Bosch, 2002*).  
491 Few of these hypotheses, however, have been tested experimentally (*Wells & Schwartz, 2007*).  
492 Both positive and negative phonotaxis has been observed in male *Xenopus laevis* (*Daudin, 1802*)  
493 in response to two distinct female call types (*Wang et al., 2010*). Distinct female call types have  
494 also been described for *Alytes cisternasii* (*Márquez & Verrell, 1991*). Together, the scarce data  
495 available on female vocal behaviour and the variability observed in male responses suggest a  
496 complex of multiple, non-exclusive functions rather than a sole explanation.

497

#### 498 Diversity in reproductive behaviours

499 Our results, combined with other recent behavioural studies (*Kunte, 2004; Biju et al., 2011;*  
500 *Gururaja et al., 2014*), show a striking interspecific diversity in reproductive behaviours within  
501 *Nyctibatrachus*. As the reproduction of many species in this genus has not yet been studied, the  
502 extent of variation is likely to be even greater. Our limited understanding of this diversity is  
503 evidenced by the high number of recent publications reporting new modes of breeding and  
504 associated reproductive behaviours (*Zhang et al., 2012; Gururaja et al., 2014; Iskandar, Evans*  
505 *& McGuire, 2014; Crump, 2015; Seshadri, Gururaja & Bickford, 2015; Senevirathne et al.,*  
506 *2016*). Within *Nyctibatrachus*, variation in the types of amplexus is especially remarkable,  
507 ranging from a normal axillary amplexus to a complete lack of physical contact between the  
508 sexes (*Kunte, 2004; Gururaja et al., 2014*). The use of amplexus is the ancestral state in anuran  
509 amphibians and enables juxtaposition of male and female cloaca to ensure successful fertilization  
510 (*Duellman & Trueb, 1986: 68–70; Wells, 2007: 452–458*). Secondary loss of amplexus was  
511 already shown for a limited number of anuran taxa (*Limerick, 1980; Brown et al., 2008; Zhang et*  
512 *al., 2012*) and a short, loose contact (head straddle) similar to the dorsal straddle reported here  
513 for *N. humayuni*, was also found in several *Mantidactylus* species (*Blommers-Schlösser, 1975;*  
514 *Altig, 2008*). Many males of both *Mantidactylus* and *Nyctibatrachus* possess distinct femoral  
515 glands (Fig. S2B) (*Vences et al., 2007; Biju et al., 2011*). The function of these structures in

516 *Nyctibatrachus* has not yet been addressed, but recently it was shown that the femoral glands of  
517 *Mantidactylus* secrete volatile pheromones (Poth *et al.*, 2012; Hötling *et al.*, 2014). Further  
518 studies are required to discover and understand the full extent of variation and the evolutionary  
519 advantage of these highly diversified behaviours within *Nyctibatrachus*, especially regarding the  
520 modification and loss of amplexus.

521

## 522 **CONCLUSION**

523 The breeding behaviour of *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* has several unique elements: a new type of  
524 amplexus, the release of semen before oviposition and the presence of a female call. These  
525 findings further highlight the tremendous variation present in the reproductive behaviour of  
526 anuran amphibians. *Nyctibatrachus* frogs are one of several unique taxa in the Western Ghats  
527 biodiversity hotspot, which is heavily threatened by anthropogenic activities (Myers *et al.*, 2000;  
528 Bossuyt *et al.*, 2004; Van Bocxlaer *et al.*, 2012). A good understanding of each species' ecology,  
529 including reproduction, is of major importance for planning and successfully implementing  
530 conservation strategies. Additional studies further exploring the unique and diverse behaviour in  
531 *Nyctibatrachus* frogs are, therefore, badly needed. Special attention should be paid to describing  
532 the amplexus type, determining the moment of fertilization and assessing the presence and  
533 function of female calling behaviour.

534

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542

## 543 **Additional Information and Declarations**

544

### 545 **Data Deposition**

546 The following information was supplied regarding data availability: No additional raw data  
547 beyond the Supplemental Information found in the body of the manuscript.

- 548  
549 **Supplemental Information**  
550  
551 **Videos**  
552 **Video S1** Male advertisement call.mov (20:00 sec)  
553 **Video S2** Female approaches calling male.mov (50:00 sec)  
554 **Video S3** Female touches male's head with her feet.mov (24:00 sec)  
555 **Video S4** Dorsal straddle: a new amplexus mode. mov (52:00 sec)  
556 **Video S5** Female's movements and dismounting of male.mov (56:00 sec)  
557 **Video S6** Oviposition: female deposits eggs.mov (01:10 sec)  
558 **Video S7** Field experiment: Bagging of eggs.mov (10 sec)  
559 **Video S8** Male-male combat.mov (37 sec)  
560 **Video S9** Female call.mov (27 sec)  
561 **Video S10** Egg predation by snakes.mov (01:14 sec)  
562  
563  
564 **Audios**  
565 **Audio S1** Male advertisement call: 10 filtered calls. wav  
566 **Audio S2** Male advertisement call: 10 unfiltered calls. wav  
567 **Audio S3** Female advertisement call: 6 unfiltered calls. wav  
568  
569 **Figures**  
570 **Figure S1** Study site and breeding habitat of *Nyctibatrachus humayuni*.  
571 **Figure S2** An adult male of *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* (in life).  
572  
573 **Tables**  
574 **Table S1** Description of the different properties that are used to describe the male and female calls.  
575 **Table S2** Overview of descriptive statistics of male *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* advertisement calls, based  
576 on the values determined from a sample of eight individuals.  
577 **Table S3** Spearman Rank correlation between mean properties of male *Nyctibatrachus*  
578 *humayuni* calls and SVL, mass and temperature (wet and dry) (n=8).  
579 **Table S4** Snout-Vent Length (SVL) and body mass of recorded male individuals, with  
580 corresponding dry bulb and wet bulb temperature.  
581 **Table S5** Descriptive statistics of entire call of female *Nyctibatrachus humayuni* based on the  
582 values determined from a sample of 1 individual (20 calls).  
583 **Table S6** Overview of anuran species in which a female call has been described.  
584  
585  
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