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Egg clutch dehydration induces early hatching in red-eyed treefrogs, *Agalychnis callidryas*

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Terrestrial eggs have evolved repeatedly in tropical anurans exposing embryos to the new threat of dehydration. Red-eyed treefrogs, *Agalychnis callidryas*, lay eggs on plants over water. Maternally provided water allows shaded eggs in humid sites to develop to hatching without rainfall, but unshaded eggs and those in less humid sites can die from dehydration. Hatching responses of amphibian eggs to dry conditions are known from two lineages with independent origins of terrestrial eggs. Here, we experimentally tested for dehydration-induced early hatching in another lineage (*Agalychnis callidryas*, Phyllomedusidae), representing a third independent origin of terrestrial eggs. We also investigated how dehydration affected egg and clutch structure, and egg mortality. We collected clutches from a pond in Gamboa, Panama, and randomly allocated them to wet or dry treatments at age 1 day. Embryos hatched earlier from dry clutches than from wet clutches, accelerating hatching by ~11%. Clutch thickness and egg diameter were affected by dehydration, diverging between treatments over time. Meanwhile, mortality in dry clutches was six-fold higher than in control clutches. With this study, early hatching responses to escape mortality from egg dehydration are now known from three anuran lineages with independent origins of terrestrial eggs, suggesting they may be widespread. Further studies are needed to understand how terrestrial amphibian eggs can respond to, or will be affected by, rapid changes in climate over the next decades.

1 **Egg clutch dehydration induces early hatching in red-eyed treefrogs, *Agalychnis callidryas***

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24 **Abstract**

25 Terrestrial eggs have evolved repeatedly in tropical anurans exposing embryos to the new
26 threat of dehydration. Red-eyed treefrogs, *Agalychnis callidryas*, lay eggs on plants over water.
27 Maternally provided water allows shaded eggs in humid sites to develop to hatching without
28 rainfall, but unshaded eggs and those in less humid sites can die from dehydration. Hatching
29 responses of amphibian eggs to dry conditions are known from two lineages with independent
30 origins of terrestrial eggs. Here, we experimentally tested for dehydration-induced early hatching
31 in another lineage (*Agalychnis callidryas*, Phyllomedusidae), representing a third independent
32 origin of terrestrial eggs. We also investigated how dehydration affected egg and clutch
33 structure, and egg mortality. We collected clutches from a pond in Gamboa, Panama, and
34 randomly allocated them to wet or dry treatments at age 1 day. Embryos hatched earlier from dry
35 clutches than from wet clutches, accelerating hatching by ~11%. Clutch thickness and egg
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44 *Key words:* climate change; hatching plasticity; Panama; Phyllomedusidae; tropical wet forest.

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46

47 **INTRODUCTION**

48 Terrestrial eggs have evolved repeatedly in many species of teleost fishes and amphibians
49 (Martin & Carter, 2013). In tropical anurans, Gomez-Mestre, Pyron & Wiens (2012) found 48
50 independent origins of terrestrial reproduction. The evolution of terrestrial breeding may be
51 driven by the risk of aquatic predation in early life stages (Duellman & Trueb, 1986; Touchon,
52 2012). However, nonaquatic reproduction also entails risks. Terrestrial eggs are exposed to
53 different threats than those affecting aquatic eggs, including terrestrial predators (Warkentin,
54 1995, 2000), pathogens (Warkentin, Currie & Rehner, 2001), and the novel threat of dehydration
55 (Mitchell, 2002, Touchon & Warkentin, 2009). The risk of egg dehydration most strongly affects
56 species without parental care, and this threat could be exacerbated by climate change (Donnelly
57 & Crump, 1998). As well as temperature, rainfall patterns are changing in the tropics.
58 Specifically, even if overall rainfall remains similar, in Neotropics rainfall events are becoming
59 less frequent, resulting in an increase in dry spells during the rainy season (Hulme & Viner,
60 1998, Christensen *et al.*, 2007, Allan & Soden, 2008). Therefore, it is important to understand
61 the potential responses of vulnerable life stages to such climate variations.



62 Environmentally cued variation in hatching time is widespread in many taxa (Warkentin, 2011a)
63 and serves as an important defense mechanism against egg-stage risks. Environmentally cued
64 hatching (ECH) is well documented in anurans (Warkentin, 2011b); much of this research
65 addresses biotic threats to eggs and larvae, and a substantial subset addresses responses of
66 embryos to hypoxia. The terrestrial eggs of red-eyed treefrogs, *Agalychnis callidryas*, one of the
67 most studied species, hatch early in response to multiple environmental threats, including
68 predator attack (snakes, Warkentin, 1995; wasps, Warkentin, 2000), fungal infection (Warkentin,
69 Currie & Rehner, 2001) and flooding, which can kill embryos too young to hatch (Warkentin,

70 2002). Embryos presumably use some of the same mechanisms to respond to these different
71 risks. For instance, all responses require a means to exit from the egg and the ability to regulate
72 expression of this process (Cohen, Seid & Warkentin, 2016). Nonetheless, different types of
73 threat provide very different types of cues. Their detection requires different sensors, and
74 assessing different risks may require different cognitive mechanisms. Thus embryos that respond
75 to one threat, using one type of cue, may be insensitive to other cues and unresponsive to other
76 threats.

77 Only a few studies of ECH have examined how amphibian eggs respond to dry conditions
78 (Warkentin, 2011b); thus, it is unclear how widespread hatching responses to egg dehydration
79 might be. To date, such responses are known from two lineages with independent origins of
80 terrestrial eggs. In the treefrog *Dendropsophus ebraccatus* (Hylidae: Dendropsophinae), eggs
81 exposed to dehydration hatch earlier and more synchronously than well-hydrated clutches
82 (Touchon & Warkentin, 2010, Touchon, Urbina & Warkentin, 2011). In the glassfrog
83 *Hyalinobatrachium fleischmanni* (Centrolenidae: Hyalinobatrachinae) fathers hydrate their
84 developing embryos during dry weather. When the caring parent is removed, increasing risk of
85 egg dehydration, the embryos also respond by hatching Earlier And More Synchronously (Delia,
86 Ramírez-Bautista & Summers, 2014). Here, we tested for dehydration-induced early hatching in
87 another lineage (*Agalychnis callidryas*, Phyllomedusidae), representing a third independent
88 origin of terrestrial eggs. We also investigated how dehydration affected egg and clutch
89 structure, and egg mortality.

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93 MATERIALS & METHODS

94 Study system

95 The recently redescribed family Phyllomedusidae (Amphibia: Anura: Arboranae, Duellman
96 Marion & Hedges, 2016) are uniformly terrestrial egg layers. They place eggs on vegetation over
97 water, into which tadpoles fall upon hatching. These treefrogs have evolved several strategies to
98 avoid egg dehydration. Females absorb water from their environment before oviposition and
99 deposit eggs surrounded by well hydrated jelly (Pyburn, 1970, 1980). In addition, some species
100 wrap eggs in a funnel-shaped nest of leaves, and surround their eggs with eggless jelly capsules
101 as water reservoirs (Faivovich *et al.*, 2010). Nonetheless, after the eggs are deposited, embryos
102 must face dehydration and other risks with no further parental assistance. *Agalychnis callidryas*
103 inhabits lowland wet forest from the Yucatan through Panama (Frost, 2016), breeding in
104 seasonal ponds and swamps. This species lays their gelatinous egg masses exposed on
105 vegetation, without wrapping them in leaves. Maternally provided water allows shaded eggs in
106 humid sites to develop to hatching without rainfall. However, unshaded eggs and those in less
107 humid sites can die from dehydration. We studied them at the Smithsonian Tropical Research
108 Institute in Gamboa, Panama. At this locality egg mortality from dehydration has historically
109 been low but detectable (e.g., 3% in 1998, vs. zero at a pond in Corcovado Park, Costa Rica, in
110 1993 and 1994; Warkentin, 2000, Gomez-Mestre & Warkentin, 2007). However, in the
111 extremely dry El Niño of 2015 many entire egg cohorts laid in Gamboa perished from
112 dehydration (K. Warkentin, pers. obs.).

113 Experimental Design

114 We collected 30 healthy egg clutches laid on the night of 24 July 2011 from the Experimental
115 Pond in Gamboa, Panama (9°07'15" N, 79°42'14" W). All clutches were collected with the

116 leaves on which they were laid, mounted on plastic cards for support and attached to the sides of
117 plastic cups in a vertical orientation. Each cup contained aged tap water to catch hatched
118 tadpoles. Eggs in each clutch were counted, and any dead or undeveloped eggs (possibly
119 unfertilized) were noted. Clutches were paired based on overall similarity of clutch structure and
120 size, and egg color and size, then one of each pair was randomly allocated to a wet treatment and
121 the other to a dry treatment. Treatments were imposed starting at age 1 day. Wet clutches were
122 heavily sprayed with aged tap water multiple times daily, taking care not to overspray onto dry
123 clutches. Dry clutches were unsprayed or minimally sprayed in some cases where eggs were
124 dying from dehydration. Clutches were located on the same table in a laboratory with slightly
125 higher temperatures and less humidity than natural ponds, with a 12:12 light: dark photoperiod
126 based on local sunrise/sunset times. All clutches were checked for hatching at least 5 times daily.
127 Clutches were photographed daily with a ruler for egg size measurements, from age 1 to 4 days.
128 At each age, for each clutch, we measured two orthogonal diameters for each of 10 eggs from the
129 photographs, using ImageJ (NIH). We also measured the thickness of each clutch when it entered
130 the experiment at 1 day old and after two days in the treatments, at 3 days old, by inserting a fine
131 probe orthogonally through the thickest part of the clutch, between eggs, to the leaf surface. This
132 measurement included both eggs and associated jelly thickness.

133 **Statistical Analysis**

134 All statistical analyses were conducted in R version 2.13.1 (R Development Core Team 2011).
135 We used generalized linear models (GLM) with an underlying binomial error distribution to
136 examine the influence of dehydration on time to hatching. To determine how dehydration
137 affected clutch thickness and egg diameter we used a two way ANOVA. To highlight the effect

138 of dehydration on egg mortality, an ANOVA was performed on a generalized linear model
139 (family: quasibinomial).

140

141 RESULTS

142 Embryos in the dry treatment hatched earlier than embryos in the wet treatment, accelerating
143 hatching by approximately 11% (Fig. 1, Binomial GLM, treatment $F_{1, 445} = 91.9, P < 0.001$). In
144 both treatments, hatching was gradual and asynchronous, but dry clutches started hatching
145 sooner and the entire hatching curve was shifted earlier (Fig. 1).

146 Clutch thickness was altered by the treatment (ANOVA, day x treatment $F_{1, 55} = 6.33, P =$
147 0.015). At the beginning of the experiment, at age 1 day, there was no difference in thickness
148 between clutches assigned to different treatments; the mean for dry treatment was 7.03 ± 0.44 mm
149 (SE) while the mean for wet treatment was 6.73 ± 0.40 mm (SE). However, two days later wet
150 clutches were much thicker than dry clutches, the mean for dry treatment was 5.67 ± 0.42 mm
151 (SE), while the mean for wet treatment was 7.50 ± 0.48 mm (SE).

152 The diameter of individual eggs was also affected by treatment, diverging over time (Fig. 2,
153 ANOVA, treatment x day, $F_{1, 115} = 15.9, P = 0.0001$). Initially, in both dry and wet clutches egg
154 diameters increased due to absorption of water from the egg jelly into the perivitelline space;
155 however, wet eggs swelled more rapidly. Eggs in wet clutches continued to swell, then stabilized
156 in diameter at age 3 days. By contrast, from 2 days eggs in dry clutches shrank, with the
157 difference between treatments increasing over time.

158 Egg mortality was also affected by treatment (Quasibinomial GLM, treatment $F_{1, 28} = 6.91, P =$
159 0.013). Mortality in dry clutches was higher than in control clutches, 24 ± 0.09 % (SE) of the
160 embryos in the dry treatment died due to dehydration, while egg mortality in the wet treatment

161 was only 4 ± 0.01 % (SE). However, mortality level varied substantially among clutches; two
162 clutches, with relatively little jelly, experienced 100% mortality in the dry treatment, whereas 3
163 clutches had no mortality at all. Mortality data did not include unfertilized or undeveloped eggs,
164 only eggs showing normal development. Therefore, all the mortality was due to dehydration.

165

166 **DISCUSSION**

167 Our results show that red-eyed treefrogs can accelerate hatching when exposed to the gradual
168 threat of dehydration over embryonic development. In this study, the acceleration in hatching
169 timing (11%) was less than that reported for other frogs (*Dendrosophus ebraccatus*: 17%,
170 Touchon & Warkentin 2010; *Hyalinobatrachium fleishmanni*: 59%, Delia, Ramírez-Bautista &
171 Summers, 2014). It may be that, compared with those species, *A. callidryas* has a relatively
172 limited capacity to accelerate hatching under the threat of drying. Indeed, based on field
173 monitoring of eggs, both *D. ebraccatus* and *H. fleishmanni* both appear at higher risk of
174 mortality from dehydration than does *A. callidryas*. Dehydration led to 98% mortality in
175 terrestrial eggs of *D. ebraccatus* exposed to lack of rainfall during the first 48 h post-oviposition
176 (Touchon & Warkentin, 2009). Similarly, in male removal experiments generating “orphan”
177 clutches of *H. fleishmanni*, 78% of total mortality was due to dehydration (Delia, Ramírez-
178 Bautista & Summer, 2013). Alternatively, because the mortality imposed by our drying treatment
179 was moderate (24%), compared with the possible risk of mortality under more extreme weather
180 conditions, it may not have tested the limits of *A. callidryas* capacity to accelerate hatching.
181 The hatching pattern of drying clutches - accelerated but gradual hatching, over a period of days
182 - was very similar to the hatching pattern of clutches infected by a pathogenic fungus which
183 caused about 40% mortality and 17% acceleration of hatching (Warkentin, Currie & Rehner,

184 2001, Warkentin, 2011b). Both fungus and dehydration are chronic threats, that affect egg
185 clutches gradually and potentially provide cues over extended periods of development. However,
186 what those cues are, or how embryos detect them, is in both cases unknown. Red-eyed treefrog
187 embryos use physical disturbance or vibrations to assess danger in predator attacks (Warkentin,
188 2005) and respond by hatching very rapidly, within seconds (Cohen, Seid & Warkentin, 2016;
189 Warkentin *et al.*, 2007). They also use hypoxia as a cue to hatch from eggs that are flooded,
190 responding to submergence in minutes (Warkentin, 2002). Like fungus infection, dehydration
191 does not move eggs, and neither threat has a sudden, acute onset. Either vibrational cues or
192 another sudden change in clutch conditions may be necessary to induce rapid or synchronous
193 hatching.

194 Both clutch thickness and egg diameter were affected by dehydration, diverging between
195 treatments over time. Dehydration began to affect these variables from age 3 days, when both
196 clutch thickness and egg diameter decreased in dry treatment eggs (Fig. 2). Our results suggest
197 that during early developmental stages water moves from the jelly layers into the perivitelline
198 space, enlarging the eggs (Salthe, 1965), as egg diameter increased even in the dry treatment.
199 Later in embryonic development (from 3 days), after available water from jelly layers has been
200 absorbed, the eggs can absorb additional water from external sources, such as rainfall. Without
201 external sources of water, egg diameter then begins to decrease, constricting the perivitelline
202 space. Egg diameter of terrestrial breeding frogs usually decreases when they are exposed to dry
203 conditions (e.g. *Kurixalus eiffinger*, Kam, Yen & Hsu, 1998a; *Bryobatrachus nimbus*, Mitchell,
204 2002), due to the semipermeable nature of their vitelline membrane (Salthe, 1965).
205 With this study, early hatching responses to escape mortality from egg dehydration are now
206 known from three anuran lineages with independent origins of terrestrial eggs (Hylidae:

207 Dendropsophinae; Centrolenidae; Phyllomedusidae). Other responses to, and effects of,
208 dehydration on terrestrial frog eggs have been explored in other lineages. For example, Kam,
209 Yen & Hsu (1998a) found the opposite response in *Kurixalus eiffinger* (Rhacophoridae:
210 Rhacophorinae); well-hydrated eggs hatched earlier than drier eggs. In this species, accelerating
211 the time of hatching under wetter conditions has a clear adaptive significance. Tadpoles of *K.*
212 *eiffinger* are oophagous. Females lay their first batch of trophic eggs before all the fertilized eggs
213 have hatched, then return eight days later to feed the tadpoles again (Kam *et al.* 1998b). Tadpoles
214 that hatch earlier obtain more trophic eggs, grow faster and reach metamorphosis earlier. Other
215 studies have been conducted on terrestrial anuran embryos with a similar approach. Most of this
216 research has focused on effects of different moisture conditions on phenotypic traits (Taigen,
217 Pough & Stewart, 1984; Bradford & Seymour, 1988; Seymour, Geiser & Bradford, 1991a,
218 1991b; Kam, Yen & Hsu, 1998a, Mitchell, 2002). Anuran embryos exposed to dry conditions
219 grow more slowly (*Pseudophryne bibroni*, Bradford & Seymour, 1988), have lower hatching
220 success (e.g. *Kurixalus eiffingeri*, Kam, Yen & Hsu, 1998a; *Bryobatrachus nimbus*, Mitchell,
221 2002), produce smaller hatchlings (e.g. *Eleutherodactylus coqui*, Taigen, Pough & Stewart,
222 1984; Kam, Yen & Hsu, 1998a; Mitchell, 2002) and generate stunted and asymmetric
223 morphologies at hatching (Mitchell, 2002). In *A. callidryas*, we observed no effects of drying on
224 embryo development rate or morphology. Early-induced hatchlings are generally smaller and
225 less developed than full term hatchlings (Warkentin 1995, 1999; Gomez-Mestre *et al.* 2008).
226 Such differences, however, appear simply to be caused by differences in the period of embryonic
227 development, not by differences in embryonic developmental trajectories. There is no evidence
228 that hatching plasticity in this species occurs by altering the rate of embryo development
229 (Warkentin, 2011a).

230 The anuran lineages now demonstrated to hatch early in response to drying vary in their degree
231 of egg and clutch adaptation to terrestrial development. *Dendropsophus ebraccatus* egg size and
232 clutch morphology are much like those of aquatic breeding congeners; they appear not to be
233 strongly adapted to terrestrial development, and indeed can also develop aquatically (Touchon &
234 Warkentin, 2008). In contrast, phyllomedusines have a long (34 to 50 million years) evolutionary
235 history of terrestrial eggs (Gomez-Mestre, Pyron & Wiens, 2012) and *A. callidryas* eggs do not
236 survive prolonged submergence (Pyburn, 1970). Considering that these highly adapted terrestrial
237 eggs, which typically do not suffer high dehydration mortality, can show adaptive plastic
238 responses to reduce mortality from this occasional threat, drying-induced early hatching may be
239 a more general, broadly distributed phenomenon.

240 The risk of dehydration as a source of mortality for terrestrial-breeding frogs is particularly
241 important in the context of global climate change. Local changes in weather and climate can
242 affect the hydration of terrestrial embryos. In *D. ebraccatus* living in sympatry with *A.*
243 *callidryas*, the survival of terrestrial eggs is affected both directly and indirectly by the amount of
244 rainfall (Touchon & Warkentin, 2009). Directly, rain hydrates eggs and prevents mortality from
245 drying. Indirectly, because the jelly surrounding eggs swells with hydration, rain decreases the
246 risk of predation; dehydrated eggs are more susceptible to predation by ants and wasps. In
247 *Phyllomedusa hypochondrialis*, which normally wraps its eggs in leaves, the mortality of
248 embryos exposed directly to the air decreased during rainy periods (Pyburn, 1980). The tropics,
249 where the highest biodiversity of amphibians is concentrated, are expected to become warmer
250 and drier, and many tropical anuran lineages have evolved terrestrial eggs. Therefore, to
251 understand how these terrestrial eggs can respond to, or will be affected by, rapid changes in
252 climate over the next decades is relevant for conservation planning.

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259

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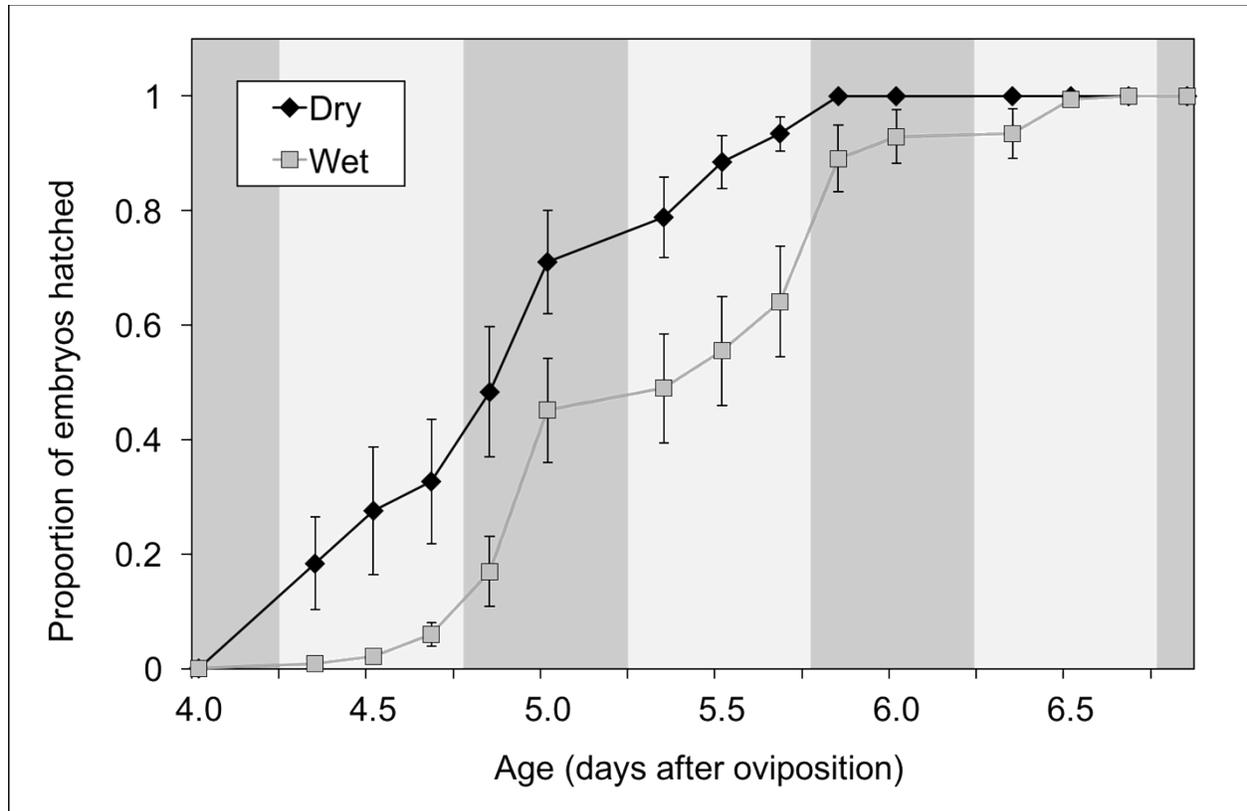
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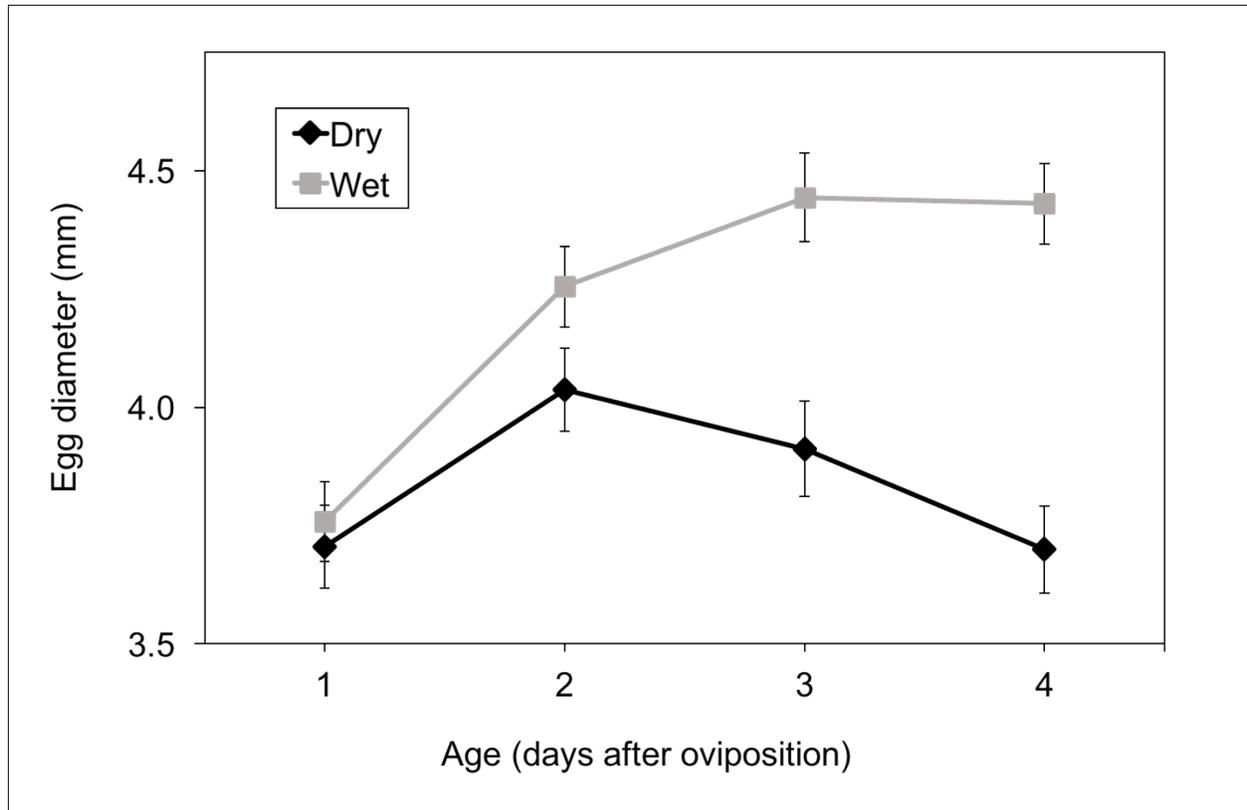
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364 **FIGURE 1.** Embryos hatched $\approx 11\%$ earlier from drying vs. wet clutches (Binomial GLM,
365 treatment $F_{1, 445} = 91.9$, $P < 0.001$). Data are mean proportion hatched at each age (\pm SE across
366 clutches), of all that eventually hatched. Dark and light shading along the x-axis indicates
367 photoperiod.

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370 **FIGURE 2.** Effect of development and hydration treatment on *A. callidryas* egg diameter. Data
371 are mean \pm SE across clutches. Egg diameters diverged over time (ANOVA, treatment x day, $F_{1,}$
372 $_{115} = 15.9$, $P = 0.0001$).