# SEXUAL SHAPE DIMORPHISM IN *BUFO VERRUCOSISSIMUS* (PALLAS, 1814) FROM LAKE BORÇKA KARAGÖL, TÜRKİYE

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Sexual dimorphism, i.e., differences in morphology between sexes of a species caused by intersexual differences in the strength or direction of sexual or natural selection, is prevalent throughout the animal kingdom. Contrary to differences in body size, little is known about sexual shape dimorphism in anurans. Here we investigated intersexual shape differences in *Bufo verrucosissimus* (Pallas, 1814) by taking 27 linear measurements to characterize body morphology of 23 males and 23 females. Relative to their overall body size, males had longer limbs and larger eyes, while females displayed larger parotoid glands and had wider heads. We speculate that these intersexual differences may have arisen due to differences in natural and sexual selection regimes acting on males and females, especially during foraging, mate searching, or intrasexual competition.

Key words: Anura, Bufonidae, PCA, morphometry.

#### INTRODUCTION

Sexual dimorphism is a widespread phenomenon in the animal kingdom and refers to significant morphological differences between males and females of the same species such as in body size, shape, and colour (SHINE 1989, ANDERSSON 1994, MORI et al. 2017). The occurrence of sexual dimorphism can be caused by different selection pressures due to sexual or natural selection. It is generally explained by one of three main hypotheses (PINCHEIRA-DONOSO et al. 2017, SHUKER et al. 2021). The intrasexual competition hypothesis states that sexual selection favours males exhibiting larger body sizes or higher character values in specific morphologies that provide them with advantages in malemale competition and in territorial defence. In contrast, the fecundity selection hypothesis suggests that there is selection for larger females or females exhibiting enlarged reproductive organs because they can produce more offspring as they have more volume for eggs or developing embryos and can invest more energy into reproduction. Finally, the niche segregation hypothesis suggests that niche divergence between individuals of different sexes can result in shape differences via natural selection.

The difference in body size or mass between the sexes is referred to as sexual size dimorphism "SSD", while intersexual differences in other quantitative morphological traits such as colour represent sexual shape dimorphism "SShD" (FAIRBAIRN 1997, FAIRBAIRN *et al.* 2007, BERNS 2013). SSD arising due to sexual or natural selection is a widely studied pattern in sexually reproducing animals (PARKER 1992, ISAAC 2005, Cox *et al.* 2007, PINCHEIRA-DONOSO *et al.* 2021). It is noted that the analysis of shape dimorphism can contribute to the understanding of reproductive traits, enhanced fitness, and adaptation to ecological conditions (OLSSON *et al.* 2002, BUTLER & LOSOS 2002, ENGLMAIER *et al.* 2022, LI *et al.* 2022).

In anurans, sexual dimorphism is prevalent in size and shape and is affected by intersexual differences in life-history traits such as age at sexual maturity and growth rate. In anurans, most species studied (~90%) are known to have a female-biased SSD (SHINE 1979). Ultimately, this general trend is interpreted as a consequence of selection acting to increase female fecundity (Woolbright 1983, Monnet & Cherry 2002, Silva et al. 2020), but, proximately, it can be attributed to intersexual differences in life-history traits such as growth rate, lifespan, or age at maturity (HAN & Fu 2013; ALAEI et al. 2021, MARANGONI et al. 2021). Conversely, selective forces may favour larger body sizes in males by increasing reproductive success if larger males are preferred by females or if larger male have an advantage in male-male competition (Yu et al. 2010, HUDSON & FU 2013). In contrast to numerous SSD studies, less attention has been paid to SShD in anurans. Recently, however, the number of studies investigating body shape dimorphism has increased to describe intersexual differences (DI CERBO & BLANCARDI 2012, MAGALHÃES et al. 2016, DE OLIVERA-LÓPEZ et al. 2021, SANCHES et al. 2022). Morphological traits exhibiting SShD may result from differences in selection pressures acting on females and males, and they may be useful in the identification of sex. On the other hand, studying SShD is useful for revealing hidden variation and phenotypic responses to environmental changes. Finally, testing for body shape differences between sexes can provide starting points for the study of reproductive traits, ecological roles, and adaptive mechanisms.

The Caucasian toad *Bufo verrucosissimus* (Pallas, 1814) is distributed throughout Caucasia including Azerbaijan, Georgia, south-western Russia, and north-eastern Türkiye, as well as in Lebanon and the southern shores of Türkiye (Recuero *et al.* 2012, JABLONSKI & SADEK 2019, ÖZDEMIR *et al.* 2020). The species has become the subject of numerous morphological studies, and some of them have indicated the presence of female-biased SSD (ORLOVA & TUNIYEV 1989, TARKHNISHVILI 1994, KIDOV *et al.* 2015; KIDOV *et al.* 2017, DURSUN & ÖZDEMIR 2022) as reported in other *Bufo* toads (CVETKOVIĆ *et al.* 2005, ARN-TZEN *et al.* 2013, JAVANBAKHT *et al.* 2022). However, little is known about SShD

in *B. verrucosissimus* (Üzüm *et al.* 2021). Here we comprehensively investigated SShD in Caucasian toads by taking linear measurements of a large number of different body parts and controlling for overall body size.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

We used the morphological dataset recorded in our previous studies (ÖZDEMIR et al. 2020, DURSUN & ÖZDEMIR 2022), including 46 adult B. verrucosissimus individuals (23 males and 23 females) sampled from Lake Borcka Karagöl, Artvin, Türkiye. Fieldwork was done during the breeding season. We followed previous studies to design the analytic framework (XIONG et al. 2016a,b, DURSUN et al. 2022). The sex determination of adults was done following the presence of nuptial pads in males, and their absence in females. We obtained measurements of 27 different variables from right side (for a representative figure see CASTELLANO & GIACOMA 1998) using a digital calliper to the nearest 0.01 mm: snout-vent length (SVL), length of the head (LHEAD), width of the head (WHEAD), minimum distance between the nostrils (INTNOS), distance between the nostril and the tip of the snout (NOSTIP), minimum distance from the nostril to the anterior corner of the eye (NOSEYE), eye-tympanum distance (EYETYM), horizontal diameter of the eye (DEYE), diameter of the tympanum (DTYM), length of the parotoid gland (LPAR), distance between the elbows with humerus kept perpendicular to the body axis (WGRASP), radioulna length (RADUL), length of the hand (LHAND), length of the first finger (L1FING), length of the femur (LFEM), length of the tibia (LTIB), length of the tarsus (LTARS), length of the foot (LFOOT), minimum distance from the distal extreme of the inner metatarsal tubercle and the web between the third and fourth digit (WEB), length of the metatarsal tubercle (LMET), interorbital distance (IOD), distance between the anterior parts of parotoids (PDA), distance between the posterior parts of parotoids (PDP), left parotoid width (LPW), right parotoid width (RPW), length of the inner metatarsal tubercle (LIMT), and width of the inner metatarsal tubercle (WIMT).

All statistical analyses were executed in R Programming Language (R CORE TEAM 2022). Descriptive statistics were calculated using the package *psych* (Revelle 2021). The original dataset was z-transformed to minimize distortion effects using the package *clus*terSim (WALESIAK & DUDEK 2020). We assessed adherence to the normality assumption using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in the package *olsrr* (HEBBALI 2020). The homogeneity of variances among z-transformed variables was verified using Levene's test in the package car (Fox & WEISBERG 2019). We performed a Principal component analysis on size measures and saved PC1 scores as measures of overall body size. The PCA returned two principal components with Eigenvalues >1. Subsequently, we ran ANCOVA analyses using the "lm" and "Anova" functions and a type III error. PCA and ANCOVA analyses were carried out using stats package (R CORE TEAM 2021). We entered PC1 scores as a covariate, sex as a factor, and z-transformed values as dependent variables. We also entered the interaction between sex and PC1 scores to test for homogeneity of regression slopes. The homogeneity of variances was supported by Levene's test in all variables (P > 0.05). To assess the direction of sexual shape dimorphism we used post-hoc tests while applying Bonferroni correction for multiple testing in the package *rstatix* (KASSAMBARA 2020). We visualized results using the package ggplot2 (WICKHAM 2016).

### RESULTS

Medians and interquartile ranges of raw morphometric measurements are presented in Table 1. The first principal component (PC1) explained 80.44%, the second component (PC2) explained 5.00% of the variance. The interaction terms between sex and PC1 were non-significant (all P > 0.05; Fig. 1),

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of raw morphometric measurements (mm). For explanations of abbreviations see Material and methods.

N7	]	Females	Median 74.43 17.16 23.80 4.84 3.25 3.73 2.75 7.30 2.81 15.92 62.60 23.88	Males
variable —	Median	Interquartile range		Interquartile range
SVL	104.23	99.98-108.45	74.43	70.61–75.72
LHEAD	24.59	23.63-26.88	17.16	16.90-17.97
WHEAD	33.22	32.60-25.60	23.80	22.86-24.22
INTNOS	6.13	5.90-6.48	4.84	4.59-4.96
NOSTIP	3.64	3.34-4.01	3.25	2.68-3.64
NOSEYE	5.24	5.04-5.77	3.73	3.39–3.92
EYETYM	4.31	3.89-4.70	2.75	2.44-3.13
DEYE	9.00	8.66–9.97	7.30	7.01–7.63
DTYM	3.51	2.99-3.86	2.81	2.15-3.22
LPAR	22.97	22.16-23.87	15.92	14.76-16.40
WGRASP	76.91	72.24-82.90	62.60	60.36-64.52
RADUL	30.19	28.64-31.77	23.88	22.08-25.28
LHAND	28.50	25.66-30.10	20.28	19.17-20.78
L1FING	12.15	11.31-12.99	7.98	7.22-8.62
LFEM	41.99	40.66-44.14	30.85	28.83-32.24
LTIB	28.84	26.06-32.98	20.44	19.48-25.80
LTARS	24.64	23.07–26.38	18.60	17.45-19.60
LFOOT	41.43	37.90-43.03	33.72	32.70-34.82
WEB	23.70	23.11-26.70	20.24	19.63-21.84
LMET	4.31	3.75-5.09	3.07	2.65-3.41
IOD	12.79	12.35-13.40	8.49	8.00-9.27
PDA	23.70	22.25-25.34	16.57	15.77-17.43
PDP	34.20	32.65-38.09	23.94	22.39-26.00
RPW	8.29	7.78-8.82	5.33	5.05-5.85
LPW	8.17	7.20-7.82	5.15	4.89-5.46
LIMT	6.30	6.10-6.78	4.65	4.42-4.89
WIMT	3.53	3.24–3.75	2.65	2.44-2.74

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indicating no difference in regression slopes. Therefore, the interaction term was removed from the models. Results of ANCOVAs indicated that 11 out of 26 characters differed between sexes (all P < 0.05 after Bonferroni-correction) (Table 2). Compared to females and relative to their overall body size, males

**Table 2.** The result of ANCOVA test is presented below. Significant sex-biased body shape differences were noted based on post-hoc test results. Abbreviations: F = female, M = male; n.s. = non-significant differences. (\*): P < 0.05; (\*\*): P < 0.01; (\*\*\*): P < 0.001.

Variable	ANCOVA			
variable	F-value	Significance level	Sex bias	
SVL	$F_{1,43} = 29.305$	***	F	
LHEAD	$F_{1,43} = 1.351$	n.s.	n.s.	
WHEAD	$F_{1,43} = 12.077$	**	F	
INTNOS	$F_{1,43} = 0.301$	n.s.	n.s.	
NOSTIP	$F_{1,43} = 1.846$	n.s.	n.s.	
NOSEYE	$F_{1,43} = 0.474$	n.s.	n.s.	
EYETYM	$F_{1,43} = 4.558$	*	F	
DEYE	$F_{1,43} = 5.391$	*	М	
DTYM	$F_{1,43} = 3.631$	n.s.	n.s.	
LPAR	$F_{1,43} = 9.626$	**	F	
WGRASP	$F_{1,43} = 13.678$	**	М	
RADUL	$F_{1,43} = 1.881$	n.s.	n.s.	
LHAND	$F_{1,43} = 2.399$	n.s.	n.s.	
L1FING	$F_{1,43} = 0.341$	n.s.	n.s.	
LFEM	$F_{1,43} = 4.520$	*	F	
LTIB	$F_{1,43} = 2.731$	n.s.	n.s.	
LTARS	$F_{1,43} = 1.403$	n.s.	n.s.	
LFOOT	$F_{1,43} = 4.474$	*	М	
WEB	$F_{1,43} = 19.017$	***	М	
LMET	$F_{1,43} = 0.635$	n.s.	n.s.	
IOD	$F_{1,43} = 0.800$	n.s.	n.s.	
PDA	$F_{1,43} = 0.322$	n.s.	n.s.	
PDP	$F_{1,43} = 4.110$	*	F	
RPW	$F_{1,43} = 5.145$	*	F	
LPW	$F_{1,43} = 0.329$	n.s.	n.s.	
LIMT	$F_{1,43} = 0.405$	n.s.	n.s.	
WIMT	$F_{1,42} = 1.074$	n.s.	n.s.	

had longer back foot and webbings, larger eyes, and a larger distance between fore elbows, while females have a larger body, wider head proportion, and parotoid characteristics.

## DISCUSSION

This study documents that male and female *B. verrucosissimus* differ in their body shape. Our results demonstrated that the sexes differed in head width. In anurans, the dimension of head parts can be related to body size (VITT & COOPER 1985) as we observed in the eye-tympanum distance. Previous studies suggested that intersexual differences in size and shape may be associated with variation in dietary preferences in bufonids (CRNOBRNJA-ISAILOVIĆ *et al.* 2012, DURSUN *et al.* 2022). CRNOBRNJA-ISAILOVIĆ *et al.* (2012) also emphasized that *B. bufo* males have a higher proportion of small prey items in their dietary preferences than females. Therefore, we propose that variation in dietary composition may be a reason for the observed intersexual divergence in head width, as reported in several Anuran species (ARANTES *et al.* 2015, VU-KOV *et al.* 2018; RAČKOVIĆ *et al.* 2019; ZHANG *et al.* 2020b). It may also influence mating success, i.e., an elongated snout shape may help males dislodge rivals from the backs of females (MOZAFFARI & MOGHARI 2012).

We found that males had larger eyes relative to their body size than females. HUANG *et al.* (2019) did a comparative study where they studied eye size in anurans and found that it was highly correlated with body mass, while other factors had only limited effects. However, BURROWES (2000) studied sexual selection in *Eleutherodactylus cooki* and showed that the larger eye of males enhances their visual capability and can provide advantages in the form of enhanced mating success. ANDERSSON (1994) observed that males of species with mating systems ruled by scramble competition have larger eyes to increase mobility and locate females. Therefore, the divergence in eye size may be a result of sexual selection.

We revealed male-biased SShD in the hindlimb-relevant variables. LEHTIN-EN (2003) suggested that larger male hindlimbs in Mantellid frogs contribute to male-male competition abilities and faster locomotion. PETROVIĆ *et al.* (2017) emphasized that Anuran males with relatively longer hindlimbs have an advantage during migration. ZHIPING (2013) stated that the mass of hindlimb muscles was larger in males than in females of *Bufo gargarizans*, and that this trait positively affected male mating success. Our results also indicated a significant difference in distance between the elbows with humerus kept perpendicular to the body axis. This dimorphic trait has been reported for several bufonid toads and is thought to increase amplexus success and dispersal distance during the breeding season (OKA *et al.* 1984, LEE 2001, CLARKE *et al.* 2019, DURSUN *et al.* 2022). Females exhibited relatively longer femurs than males. Similarly, Lo VALVO & GIACALONE (2008) biometrically analysed Sicilian green toad and they associated larger body parts with body size. QUIROGA *et al.* (2015) observed larger femurs in females of *Odontophrynus cf. barrioi* and suggested that this may have evolved as it is beneficial for females when moving eggs in ponds during amplexus. Therefore, the larger femur in *B. verrucosissimus* may contribute to moving egg chain in water.

The results of our study confirmed sexual dimorphism in parotoid size as revealed by the morphological characters parotoid length, right parotoid width and posterior distance between parotoids. This accords with results of HUDSON et al. (2021) who studied 3779 adult Rhinella marina individuals and showed that females had larger and more elongated parotoids. Similar results regarding female biased parotoid size dimorphism have also been documented in Rhinella arenarum (REGUEIRA et al. 2017) and Bufo bufo (Во́кону et al. 2019, ZAMORA-CAMACHO 2022). CHEN et al. (2017) suggested that female Rhinella marina exhibiting larger bodies may be more visible to predators, hence their need for larger parotoids as a defensive adaptation. The observation that the relative width of the right parotoid differed between sexes, but the width of the left parotoid did not is in line with results of previous studies which reported size and width differences between right and left parotoids both between sexes and between genetic lineages of *B. verrucosissimus* (SINSCH et al. 2009, Özdemir et al. 2020). In addition, Arntzen et al. (2013) recorded highly variable parotoid size and shape characteristics between the sexes of *B. bufo* and B. spinosus distributed in Western Europe. Therefore, we think that the shape dimorphism of parotoids in *B. verrucosissimus* is similar to other *Bufo* taxa.

In this study, we found that females are larger than males. The generally accepted explanation for female-biased SSD in anurans is provided by the fecundity selection hypothesis: The large body size of females provides an advantage in terms of enhanced fecundity. This sex difference is mainly associated with reproductive traits such as clutch and egg sizes, number of offspring produced, and fertility rate as was previously reported for the genus *Bufo* (READING 1986, TARKHNISHVILI 1993, LIAO *et al.* 2015). Nonetheless, females may also be larger than males due to higher growth rates and delayed reproduction (MIAUD *et al.* 1999, VALDEZ & MANEYRO 2016). Although larger size usually benefits males competing for females (DAVIES & HALLIDAY 1978, VÁGI & HETTYEY 2016), being smaller can also be advantageous for males by resulting in higher mobilization capacity and agility (HUDSON *et al.* 2020, ZHANG *et al.* 2020*a*).

In summary, we document sexual shape dimorphism in *B. verrucosissimus* regarding the head, parotoid glands, hindlimbs, and forelimbs. To further expand our knowledge of shape differences between sexes, the use of geometric morphometric applications will be of great help and may provide new insights also related to the variation found in this study.

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