

1 **Impacts of exposure to UV radiation and an**  
2 **agricultural pollutant on morphology and behaviour**  
3 **of tadpoles (*Limnodynastes tasmaniensis*)**

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5 Jack T. Orford <sup>1\*</sup>, Hung Tan<sup>1</sup>, Jake M. Martin <sup>1,2,3,†</sup>, Bob B.M. Wong <sup>1,†</sup>, Lesley A.  
6 Alton <sup>1,4,†</sup>

7  
8 <sup>1</sup> School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

9 <sup>2</sup> Department of Wildlife, Fish, and Environmental Studies, Swedish University  
10 of Agricultural Sciences, Umeå, Sweden

11 <sup>3</sup> Department of Zoology, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden

12 <sup>4</sup> Centre for Geometric Biology, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

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15 †Joint senior authors

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22 Corresponding author

23 \*E-mail: [jack.orford1@monash.edu](mailto:jack.orford1@monash.edu)

24 **Abstract**

25 Amphibians are the most threatened vertebrate class globally, with many species at  
26 risk of extinction. Multiple factors have been implicated in the global decline of  
27 amphibian populations, and it has been hypothesised that interactions between  
28 these stressors may be responsible for such rapid declines. Increased ultraviolet  
29 (UV) radiation as a result of ozone depletion has been identified as one such  
30 stressor. Exposure to UV radiation has been shown to have detrimental effects on  
31 amphibian survival, development, and behaviour. UV radiation has also been shown  
32 to exacerbate the effects of other stressors, such as chemical pollutants. Chemical  
33 pollution has been recognised as another major factor contributing to amphibian  
34 declines, particularly, endocrine-disrupting chemicals. 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone is a potent  
35 anabolic steroid used in the agricultural industry to increase muscle mass in cattle,  
36 and has been repeatedly detected in the environment where amphibians live and  
37 breed. At high concentrations, 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone exposure has been shown to impact  
38 amphibian survival and gonadal development. In the present study, we investigated  
39 the effects of one-month exposure to environmentally realistic levels of UV radiation  
40 and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, both in isolation and in combination, on the morphology and  
41 behaviour of spotted marsh frog tadpoles (*Limnodynastes tasmaniensis*). We found  
42 that neither stressor in isolation affected the morphology or behaviour of tadpoles,  
43 nor did we find any interactive effects. The results from our 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone treatment  
44 are consistent with recent research suggesting that, at environmentally realistic  
45 concentrations, tadpoles may be less vulnerable to this pollutant compared to other  
46 vertebrate classes (e.g. fish). The absence of UV radiation-induced effects found in  
47 this study could be due to species-specific variation in susceptibility to UV radiation,  
48 as well as the UV dosage utilised in the present study. We suggest future research

49 incorporates long-term studies using multiple stressors at environmentally realistic  
50 levels to accurately identify the threats, and subsequent consequences, that  
51 amphibians face in natural conditions.

52 **Keywords**

53 Agricultural pollutant, Amphibian declines, Behavioural ecotoxicology, Endocrine  
54 disrupting chemical, Interactive effects, Multiple stressors, Ultraviolet radiation

55

56 **Introduction**

57 Up to 41% of amphibian species are currently at risk of extinction, making them the  
58 most imperilled vertebrate class globally (IUCN, 2022). The rate at which amphibian  
59 populations are declining is more rapid than that of birds or mammals, and  
60 potentially over 120 amphibian species have become extinct since 1980 (Stuart et al  
61 2004, Mendelson et al 2006). The loss of amphibian populations globally may lead to  
62 further ecological consequences, as amphibians are a key component of trophic  
63 dynamics and energy flow within ecosystems, and are often viewed as excellent  
64 indicators of environmental health (Quaranta et al., 2009; Whiles et al., 2006).

65 Various factors have been identified as contributing to the decline of  
66 amphibians, including increased exposure to ultraviolet (UV) radiation (reviewed in  
67 Alton and Franklin, 2017). The coinciding fall in ozone levels and the beginning of  
68 rapid amphibian declines during the late 1970s resulted in an increased effort to  
69 understand the potential impacts of increased UV radiation associated with ozone  
70 depletion (Blaustein et al., 2001). Such studies have shown that UV exposure can  
71 cause increased mortality, reduced growth, slower rates of development, delayed  
72 metamorphosis, developmental abnormalities, and behavioural changes in  
73 amphibians (reviewed in Alton and Franklin, 2017).

74 UV exposure has been demonstrated to interact with both abiotic and biotic  
75 factors to have compounding negative effects on amphibians (e.g. temperature and  
76 predation, respectively; Alton and Franklin, 2017; Bancroft et al., 2008). Here, the

77 interactive effects of multiple stressors can be difficult to predict. On the one hand,  
78 they can be additive, that is, the interaction can be equal to the sum of the stressors'  
79 independent effects. On the other, evidence suggests that exposure to multiple  
80 stressors can have synergistic or even antagonistic effects, meaning that their  
81 impacts can be either greater, or less than, the sum of their independent effects,  
82 respectively (Folt et al., 1999). Although UV radiation and additional stressors tend to  
83 interact synergistically to increase mortality in amphibians (Bancroft et al., 2008),  
84 there is evidence that UV can interact both antagonistically and additively with other  
85 stressors (Alton and Franklin, 2017; Lundsgaard et al., 2021). Multi-stressor studies  
86 have therefore been recognised as a key area of research in investigating amphibian  
87 declines (Alton and Franklin, 2017; Bancroft et al., 2008; Sievers et al., 2019), as it is  
88 now generally understood that declines are more likely to be due to complex  
89 interactions between multiple factors, rather than single factors acting in isolation  
90 (Côté et al., 2016; Womack et al., 2022). These studies also help to increase the  
91 environmental realism of experiments, and therefore our understanding of the threats  
92 that amphibians face in the wild, because in natural settings, amphibians are  
93 frequently exposed to more than one stressor simultaneously (Croteau et al., 2008;  
94 Sievers et al., 2019; Sih et al., 2004).

95 Another stressor that has been recognised as contributing to amphibian  
96 declines is chemical pollution (Egea-Serrano et al., 2012; Orton and Tyler, 2015).  
97 Due to various physical and life-history traits (e.g. permeable skin, aquatic eggs),  
98 many amphibian species are particularly vulnerable to toxicants in the environment  
99 (Bókonyi et al., 2020; Hayes et al., 2010). In isolation, chemical pollutants have been  
100 shown to impact amphibian survival, morphology, physiology, and behaviour  
101 (reviewed in Baker et al., 2013; Egea-Serrano et al., 2012; Sievers et al., 2019).

102 Alarminglly, even chemicals that do not have an effect in isolation have been shown  
103 to impact amphibian survival and development when combined with an additional  
104 stressor (Boone et al., 2005; Boone and James, 2003; Hatch and Blaustein, 2003).  
105 Research has shown that UV radiation and chemical pollutants can interact  
106 synergistically to affect survival, development, morphology and behaviour (Bancroft  
107 et al., 2008; Blaustein et al., 2003; Mann et al., 2009). However, so far, pollution  
108 studies have tended to focus on only a few chemical classes (e.g. carbaryl, nitrate),  
109 and often use UV radiation doses and/or concentrations of chemicals above those  
110 commonly found in the environment (Ankley et al., 2000; Licht, 2003; Zaga et al.,  
111 1998). One pollutant of increasing concern is 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, a potent endocrine-  
112 disrupting chemical used in the agricultural industry to increase meat yield from  
113 cattle (Ankley et al., 2018; Hunter, 2010). It enters the environment through  
114 excrement of injected animals, and has been measured in environmental  
115 concentrations of <1–270 ng/L (Ankley et al., 2018). In Australia, many amphibian  
116 species are at high risk of exposure to agricultural pollutants, such as 17 $\beta$ -  
117 trenbolone, because they inhabit and breed in areas where agricultural pollution is  
118 present, either as run-off or where it is intentionally applied (Brand and Snodgrass,  
119 2010; Hazell et al., 2001; Sievers et al., 2018a). Research has shown that exposure  
120 to environmentally realistic concentrations of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone is sufficient to induce  
121 morphological and behavioural effects in fish (reviewed in Ankley et al., 2018). At  
122 high concentrations, exposure to 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone has also been shown to affect  
123 amphibian survival, gonadal development, and sex ratios (Haselman et al., 2016; Li  
124 et al., 2015; Olmstead et al., 2012; Rozenblut-Kościsty et al., 2019). Recent studies  
125 of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone suggest that, at environmentally realistic concentrations,  
126 amphibians may be less vulnerable than fish, with exposure having no effect on

127 behaviour or morphology (Martin et al., 2022; Orford et al., 2022). However, the  
128 potential for UV radiation to act synergistically with 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone remains to be  
129 investigated.

130 Accordingly, we set out to examine the effects of UV radiation and 17 $\beta$ -  
131 trenbolone on tadpole morphology and behaviour of the spotted marsh frog  
132 (*Limnodynastes tasmaniensis*). The levels of UV radiation used in the experiment  
133 were based on conditions experienced by *L. tasmaniensis* during their breeding  
134 season in Melbourne, Australia (ARPANSA 2019). For our 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone exposure,  
135 we used an environmentally realistic nominal concentration of 50 ng/L, representing  
136 levels detected on a working agricultural farm (Gall et al., 2011). Using a factorial  
137 combination of these two stressors, we then investigated the effects of exposure on  
138 the morphology and behaviour of tadpoles, specifically, responses to conspecific  
139 chemical cues that signal the presence of predators and a simulated predator strike,  
140 and assessed whether the ubiquitous environmental stressor UV radiation may  
141 intensify or reduce the effects of a potent chemical pollutant on exposed wildlife.

142

## 143 **Methods**

### 144 **Animal collection and housing**

145 Twelve spotted marsh frog (*Limnodynastes tasmaniensis*) egg masses were  
146 collected on 14 October 2020 in Melbourne, Victoria, Australia (37° 50' 31.6" S, 145°  
147 12' 43.1" E; DELWP permit number 10009162). Water samples taken from this water  
148 body confirmed it was free from 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone contamination (Envirolab Services, *n*  
149 = 2, unpublished data). Egg masses were transported to Monash University where  
150 they were housed in a constant temperature room maintained on a 12:12 h light:dark  
151 regime at 19.4  $\pm$  0.1 °C (mean  $\pm$  SD). Egg masses were held separately in tanks (60

152 × 30 × 30 cm; length × width × height) filled with 32 L of aged carbon-filtered water  
153 for approximately three weeks prior to chemical exposure in order to allow the  
154 tadpoles to develop to Gosner stage 25 (GS; Gosner, 1960). During this period,  
155 weekly water changes using aged carbon-filtered water (6 L) were performed to  
156 maintain water quality.

157

### 158 **Experimental exposure**

159 Upon reaching Gosner stage (GS) 25 (Gosner, 1960), tadpoles were exposed to a  
160 factorial combination of two UV treatments (UV radiation either present or absent)  
161 and two 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone treatments (17 $\beta$ -trenbolone either present or absent), such  
162 that there were four experimental treatments in total: a freshwater solvent control  
163 (17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and UV radiation both absent; hereafter control treatment), a UV  
164 treatment (UV radiation present, 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone absent), a 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone treatment  
165 (17 $\beta$ -trenbolone present, UV radiation absent; nominal concentration 50 ng/L), and a  
166 UV and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone combination treatment (17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and UV radiation  
167 both present; nominal concentration 50 ng/L; hereafter multi-stressor treatment). The  
168 exposure length of one month was chosen as previous research has shown that  
169 exposure to 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone or UV radiation for similar periods is sufficient to induce  
170 effects on morphology or behaviour in tadpoles and other aquatic animals (Alton et  
171 al., 2012; Alves et al., 2020; Bertram et al., 2015; Lundsgaard et al., 2022, 2020;  
172 Saaristo et al., 2013; Sone et al., 2005; Tomkins et al., 2017).

173 The exposure consisted of 24 independent tanks (60 × 30 × 30 cm;  $n = 6$  per  
174 treatment), with 40 tadpoles in each tank ( $n = 240$  per treatment). When allocating  
175 individuals to tanks, the number of tadpoles from each egg mass was approximately  
176 balanced across both the individual tanks and the four treatment groups, in order to



177 control for any potential clutch effects (Gibbons and George, 2013). For logistical  
178 reasons due to space and equipment constraints, introduction to the exposure  
179 system was staggered in three batches over 9 days (i.e. two tanks per treatment  
180 were established with 40 tadpoles each on days 1, 5 and 9). As a result of this  
181 design, tadpole age at the beginning of the exposure, and subsequently when they  
182 underwent behavioural assays and morphological measurements at the end of the  
183 exposure, varied by 1–9 days. In addition, this design meant that there was a slight  
184 variation in exposure length, with treatment tanks being exposed for 28–31 days (for  
185 simplicity, exposure duration is referred to as one month). Importantly, however,  
186 tadpole age and the variation in exposure length were balanced equally across  
187 treatments, and were included in statistical models to control for any potential effects  
188 on morphology or behaviour (Orford et al., 2022; Touchon et al., 2013; see statistical  
189 analysis below). Each exposure tank was filled with 18 L of aged carbon-filtered  
190 water, and contained 1 cm of natural gravel substrate. Water changes (6 L, i.e. 33%)  
191 were performed once a week. To ensure consistent conditions across tanks, weekly  
192 temperature ( $18.56 \pm 0.19$  °C, mean  $\pm$  SD;  $n = 96$ ) and pH ( $6.94 \pm 0.13$ ;  $n = 96$ )  
193 checks were performed (data available at Martin et al 2023). Tadpole survival in  
194 each treatment tank was measured at the end of the one-month exposure and did  
195 not differ significantly among treatments (mean  $\pm$  SD survival percentage:  $82.9 \pm$   
196  $17.3$  %; see Supplementary material for survival by treatment comparisons). At day  
197 14 of the exposure, 12 tadpoles per treatment tank were removed for use in a  
198 separate experiment that is not discussed here. Tadpoles were fed boiled spinach  
199 three times a week.

200

201 **UV radiation exposure**

202 Treatment tanks were exposed to ultraviolet-B radiation (UVBR), ultraviolet-A  
203 radiation (UVAR) and visible light emitted from a 36 W 120-cm linear fluorescent light  
204 bulb (Repti-Glo Exo Terra T8, Montreal, QC, Canada) that was suspended 50 cm  
205 above the water surface across the centre of three tanks and set on a 12:12 h  
206 light:dark photoperiod. The bulbs suspended over the control and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone  
207 treatment tanks were covered with a UV-blocking filter (Crystal clear window film,  
208 Pillar, Melbourne, Australia), whereas the bulbs over the UV and multi-stressor  
209 treatment tanks were uncovered. The absolute irradiance of UVBR and UVAR for all  
210 treatments was measured using a spectrometer (USB2000+ Miniature Fiber Optic  
211 Spectrometer, Ocean Optics, Dunedin, FL, USA) at 7 fixed positions at the level of  
212 the water surface (see Supplementary Methods for further detail). Three  
213 measurements were taken directly below the light bulb (i.e., one measurement at the  
214 centre of each tank) and four measurements were taken at the edge of the tanks, in  
215 order to estimate the range of absolute irradiance that the tanks would be receiving.  
216 For tanks in the UV and multi-stressor treatments, the absolute irradiance of UVBR  
217 ranged from 4.3 to 8.7  $\mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$  from the edge to the centre of the tanks,  
218 respectively. For UVAR, the absolute irradiance ranged from 34.7 to 71.8  $\mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$ .  
219 These absolute irradiances result in a UV index of  $< 1$  (see Table S2 and Fig S1 for  
220 measurements from all experimental treatments). The UV index during the breeding  
221 season of *L. tasmaniensis* in Melbourne, Australia, falls below 1 in the morning (i.e.  
222 before 09.00 h) and in the evening (i.e. after 18.00 h), with the average daily  
223 maximum UV index between October and December 2019 being 6.5 (ARPANSA,  
224 2019). As UV penetration into water is attenuated by suspended particulate matter  
225 and dissolved carbon, it is likely that tadpoles in the wild would experience only a  
226 small fraction of the total solar irradiance measured at water surface level (Alton and

227 Franklin, 2017; Ceccato et al., 2016). We therefore chose to expose tadpoles to  
228 relatively low UVR levels as this is more likely to reflect levels that tadpoles would  
229 naturally experience in the wild, due to the aforementioned absorbance of UVR by  
230 dissolved organic matter in the water column, as well as shading by vegetation (both  
231 terrestrial and aquatic) and cloud cover (Alton and Franklin, 2017; Diamond et al.,  
232 2005; Lundsgaard et al., 2020; Palen et al., 2002; Palen and Schindler, 2010).

233

### 234 **17 $\beta$ -Trenbolone exposure**

235 Tadpoles in the 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and multi-stressor treatments were exposed to 17 $\beta$ -  
236 trenbolone using a static renewal system. At the start of the exposure, all tanks in  
237 these treatments received an initial dose of 16.36  $\mu$ g of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone (CAS:  
238 10161–33-8; Novachem, Germany) dissolved in 1 mL of ethanol (HPLC grade,  $\geq$   
239 99.99%) respectively. Thereafter, to maintain exposure concentrations and replace  
240 any 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone lost to evaporation and water changes, all 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and  
241 multi-stressor tanks were dosed twice a week with 2.45  $\mu$ g of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone  
242 dissolved in 1 mL of ethanol respectively. To control for any potential effects of the  
243 ethanol solvent, all tanks in the control and UV treatments received an initial dose of  
244 1 mL ethanol and subsequent 1 mL ethanol doses twice a week, at the same time as  
245 the 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and multi-stressor tanks. To monitor concentrations of 17 $\beta$ -  
246 trenbolone in the 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone and multi-stressor treatments, water samples (100  
247 mL) were taken from each exposure tank approximately 24 h after the second of the  
248 two weekly doses. Over the one-month exposure period, each exposure tank in  
249 these two treatments was tested six times ( $n = 36$  per treatment). Each tank in the  
250 control and UV treatments was tested three times during the one-month exposure ( $n$   
251 = 18 per treatment) to confirm that contamination had not occurred in these tanks.

252 These samples were collected at the same time as those from the 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone  
253 and multi-stressor tanks. The concentration of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone in all samples was  
254 measured using liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (Shimadzu 8050  
255 LCMSMS), performed by a commercial environmental testing company, Envirolab  
256 Services (MPL Laboratories; NATA accreditation: 2901; accredited for compliance  
257 with ISO/IEC: 17025), with a quantification limit of 2 ng/L (for a detailed description of  
258 the analytical procedure, see Supplementary material).

259

### 260 **Behavioural assays**

261 The effects of experimental treatments on behaviour were tested in two separate  
262 assays (conspecific cue and simulated predator strike; detailed below) that were  
263 conducted after one month of exposure. These behavioural assays were chosen as  
264 UV radiation and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone have previously been shown to affect anxiety-like  
265 behaviour (i.e. activity) and antipredator behaviour (Alton and Franklin, 2017;  
266 Bertram et al., 2018; Heintz et al., 2015; Lagesson et al., 2019). Upon completion of  
267 the one month exposure period, for each batch of exposure tanks (3 batches total; 8  
268 tanks per batch) eight individuals were randomly selected per tank each day over a  
269 2-day trial period. Half of the individuals performed the conspecific cue experiment ( $n$   
270 = 16 per day), and the other half underwent the simulated predator strike experiment  
271 ( $n$  = 16 per day). This process was repeated for all three batches. Any variation in  
272 exposure period due to this design was accounted for in statistical analyses. Trial  
273 tanks were covered on all sides with frosted opaque sheeting to prevent tadpole  
274 behaviour being affected by external stimuli. Tanks were emptied and wiped clean  
275 between trials to avoid cross-contamination of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, and to remove any  
276 conspecific chemical cues that may have influenced tadpole behaviour in

277 subsequent trials. All trials and subsequent data extraction were performed blind to  
278 experimental treatment. During the trials, all behaviours were recorded from above at  
279 60 frames per second (Panasonic HC-V180) for the conspecific cue assay, and 100  
280 frames per second (Sony FDR-AX33) for the simulated predator strike assay. From  
281 the resulting videos, the animal tracking software Ethovision XT V16 (Noldus  
282 Information Technology, the Netherlands) was used to track tadpoles. This allowed  
283 for total distance moved (cm), and time spent stationary (i.e. freezing behaviour; s)  
284 before and after either the addition of conspecific chemical cues or the simulated  
285 predator strike to be calculated for each tadpole. A tadpole was considered to not be  
286 moving if velocity dropped below  $5 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  (as previously used in Orford et al., 2022).  
287 All trials had a tracking efficiency of  $> 99\%$ .

288

### 289 **Conspecific cue assay**

290 We measured the behaviour of tadpoles (control  $n = 48$ , UV  $n = 46$ ,  $17\beta$ -trenbolone  
291  $n = 48$ , multi-stressor  $n = 48$ ) before and after the addition of conspecific chemical  
292 cues using methods adapted from previously established protocols (Crossland et al.,  
293 2019; Gonzalo et al., 2007; Hagman et al., 2009; McCann et al., 2020). Conspecific  
294 chemical cues were used in this experiment as a variety of taxa (including  
295 amphibians and fish) respond to chemical cues from injured conspecifics because  
296 they act as a reliable indicator of an immediate threat, such as the presence of a  
297 predator (Chivers and Smith, 1998; Hagman et al., 2009; Rajchard, 2006). Trials  
298 took place in observation tanks ( $25 \times 15 \times 15 \text{ cm}$ ) filled with aged carbon-filtered  
299 water to a depth of  $2 \text{ cm}$  ( $17.8 \pm 0.1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). Tadpoles were introduced to the  
300 observation tank and given a 10 min acclimation period. After the acclimation period,  
301  $5 \text{ mL}$  of control water (i.e. aged carbon-filtered water free of any chemical cues) was

302 slowly added to the tank at either end via syringes (i.e. 10 mL added to the tank in  
303 total). A dye infusion test (using green food dye) confirmed that this method resulted  
304 in a rapid and equal dispersion of stimulus throughout the tank. The addition of  
305 control water to the tanks was to control for any impact on tadpole behaviour that the  
306 manual addition of cues may have had. Tadpoles were then filmed for 5 min (i.e. pre-  
307 cue period). After the 5 min period, 10 mL of conspecific cue mix was added in the  
308 same manner (i.e. 5 mL added from each end of the tank). To prepare the  
309 conspecific cue mix, 2 g of tadpoles (sourced from the same egg clutches as the  
310 tadpoles in the exposure system but not exposed to any experimental treatments)  
311 were macerated in 2 L of water which was then filtered. A 10 mL aliquot of this mix  
312 was then used in our trials, resulting in the same final concentration of cue mix  
313 employed by Hagman et al. (2009). For further details regarding conspecific cue  
314 preparation, see Supplementary methods. Tadpoles were then filmed for another 5  
315 min (i.e. post-cue period).

316

### 317 **Simulated predator strike assay**

318 In a separate assay, we measured the behaviour of tadpoles ( $n = 48$  per treatment)  
319 before and after a simulated predator strike using methods adapted from previously  
320 established protocols (Arendt, 2003; Orford et al., 2022). Trials took place in  
321 observation tanks (diameter = 15 cm, height = 14.5 cm) filled with aged carbon-  
322 filtered water to a depth of 2 cm ( $18.2 \pm 0.2$  °C). Prior to behavioural recordings,  
323 tadpoles were left to freely acclimate to the trial tank for 10 min. After this acclimation  
324 period, tadpole behaviour was recorded for 5 min prior to a simulated predator strike  
325 in order to establish a measure of baseline activity (i.e. pre-strike period). Tadpoles  
326 were then subjected to a simulated predator strike. This involved gently prodding the

327 tail of the tadpole using a 20 cm blunt glass probe, a common technique used for  
328 eliciting escape responses in tadpoles (Arendt, 2003; Sievers et al., 2018b).  
329 Subsequent post-strike behaviour was then recorded for 5 min (i.e. post-strike  
330 period).

331

### 332 **Morphology**

333 Upon completion of the behavioural assays, tadpoles were photographed dorsally  
334 (Canon Powershot S120) and laterally (Nikon DSLR D80) for measures of total  
335 length, body length, body width and body height (cm;  $\pm$  0.01 mm). Data were  
336 extracted from the photographs using ImageJ software (Schneider et al., 2012).  
337 Tadpoles were then blotted dry and weighed (g;  $\pm$  0.0001 g; ZSA210 Analytical  
338 Balance, Scientech, Melbourne, Australia). As a proxy for body condition, a scaled  
339 mass index (SMI) was calculated for all tadpoles (*sensu* Peig and Green, 2009).  
340 Specifically, we performed a standard major axis regression on the base-e log of  
341 body mass (M; g) and body length of tadpoles (L; cm), and calculated a beta  
342 coefficient ( $\beta$ ) which was then used to obtain the SMI for each tadpole (Peig and  
343 Green, 2009). Body length was selected as the length metric for condition estimates  
344 as it had the strongest correlation with mass on a log-log scale (Pearson's  
345 correlation:  $R = 0.972$ ).

346

### 347 **Statistical Analyses**

348 Statistical analyses were conducted using *R* version 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2022).  
349 Where appropriate, data were transformed to approximate Gaussian error  
350 distributions and continuous predictors were scaled to aid model fitting (see Tables  
351 S3–9 for descriptions). F-tests for linear mixed-effects models (LME, *lme4* package;

352 Bates et al., 2015) with Kenward-Roger Degrees of Freedom Approximation were  
353 used to calculate *p*-values of fixed effects. The interactive effects of UV radiation  
354 radiation and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone on tadpole morphology and behaviour were analysed.  
355 All models included an interaction term between the categorical factors of UV and  
356 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, each of which had two levels (i.e. UV+/UV-, TB+/TB-), indicating  
357 presence or absence of exposure to UV radiation and/or 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone. The  
358 significance of the interaction term was tested using type-III tests.

359 Data from both the conspecific cue and simulated predator strike assays  
360 (distance moved and freezing behaviour) were analysed using LMEs. For both  
361 endpoints, models included a 3-way interaction between UV, 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, and  
362 trial period (i.e. pre-cue/strike, post-cue/strike). Tadpole mass (mg), exposure length  
363 (i.e. 28–31 days of exposure), and time of day were also included as fixed effects.  
364 Treatment tank (i.e. what exposure tank the individual was housed in) nested within  
365 experimental group (i.e. tadpole age when it was introduced to the exposure) and  
366 tadpole ID were included as random intercepts.

367 All morphological endpoints (total length, body length, body width, body height  
368 and mass) were shown to be highly correlated with each other ( $\geq 0.86$ ), so analyses  
369 proceeded with total length and mass as the chosen morphological measurements of  
370 interest. Morphological data (total length, mass and body condition) were analysed  
371 using LMEs. Models included a 2-way interaction between UV and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone.  
372 Exposure length was included as a fixed effect. Treatment tank nested within  
373 experimental group was included as a random intercept.

374

## 375 **Results**

### 376 **Analytical verification of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone analysis**

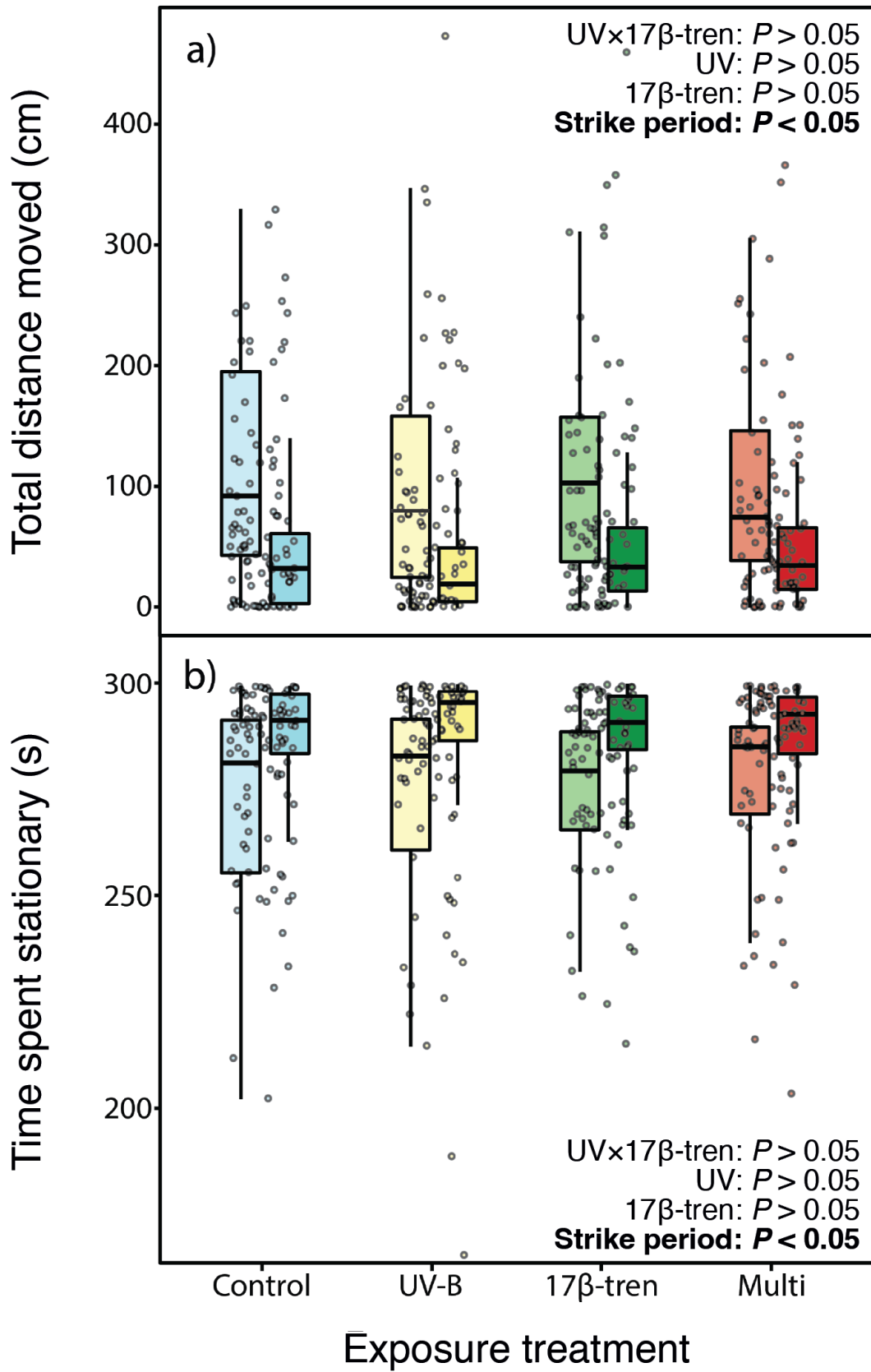


377 To account for left-censoring of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone due to the method detection limit  
378 (MDL = 2 ng/L), all trenbolone samples that fell below the MDL (17 $\beta$ -trenbolone  
379 treatment  $n = 9$ ) were included in the analysis as the MDL divided by 2, following  
380 Antweiler and Taylor (2015). The mean measured concentrations ( $\pm$  SD) for the 17 $\beta$ -  
381 trenbolone and multi-stressor treatments during the one-month exposure were 33.6  
382  $\pm$  56 ng/L and 24.9  $\pm$  37.3 ng/L, respectively. No 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone was detected in the  
383 control or UV treatment tanks.

384

### 385 **Conspecific cue assay**

386 For both distance moved and freezing behaviour during the conspecific cue assay,  
387 there was no significant interaction between UV radiation, 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, and trial  
388 period ( $F_{1,186.0} = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.873$ ;  $F_{1,186.0} = 1.47$ ,  $p = 0.226$ , respectively), nor were  
389 there significant main effects of UV radiation or 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone (see Tables S3–4 for  
390 full model outputs). Irrespective of treatment, trial period had a significant effect on  
391 both distance moved and freezing behaviour ( $F_{1,186.0} = 30.23$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $F_{1,186.0} =$   
392 14.43,  $p < 0.001$ , respectively), with tadpoles travelling shorter distances and  
393 spending more time freezing after the addition of conspecific cues (Fig. 1).

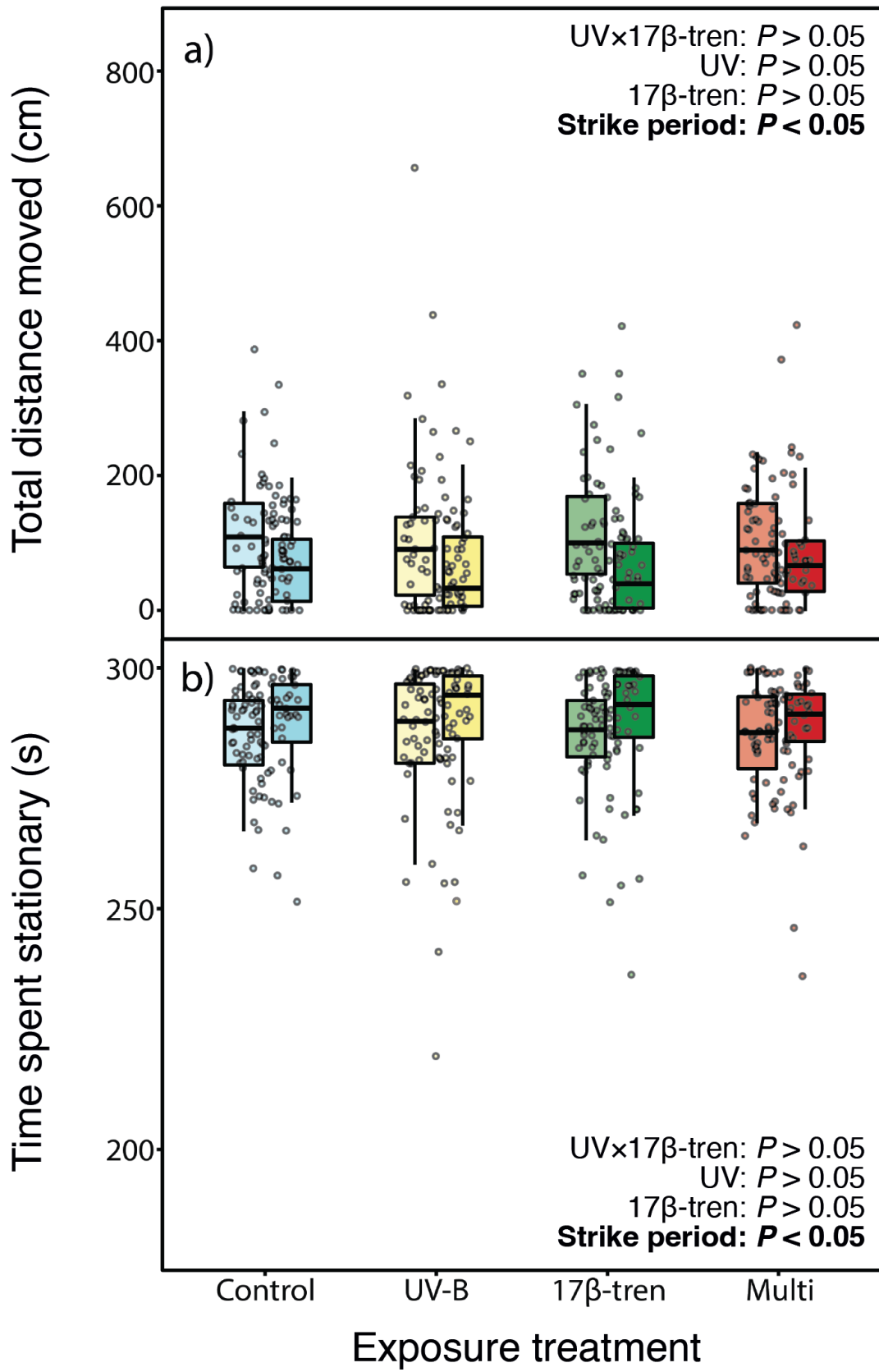


395 **Figure 1.** Boxplots showing (a) the distance moved (cm) and (b) time spent  
396 stationary (s) by tadpoles before (lighter coloured boxes on the left for each  
397 treatment) and after (darker coloured boxes on the right for each treatment) the  
398 addition of conspecific cues for all exposure treatments (control  $n = 48$ , UV  $n = 46$ ,  
399  $17\beta$ -trenbolone  $n = 48$ , multi-stressor  $n = 48$ ). Treatment groups that do not share  
400 upper case letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

401

### 402 **Simulated predator strike assay**

403 For both distance moved and freezing behaviour during the simulated predator strike  
404 assay there was no significant interaction between UV radiation,  $17\beta$ -trenbolone,  
405 and trial period ( $F_{1,188.0} = 0.99$ ,  $p = 0.321$ ;  $F_{1,188.0} = 1.37$ ,  $p = 0.243$ , respectively), nor  
406 were there significant main effects of UV radiation or  $17\beta$ -trenbolone (see Tables  
407 S5–6 for full model outputs). Irrespective of treatment, trial period had a significant  
408 effect on both distance moved and freezing behaviour ( $F_{1,188.0} = 10.13$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  
409  $F_{1,188.0} = 7.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , respectively), with tadpoles travelling shorter distances and  
410 spending more time freezing after the simulated predator strike (Fig. 2). There was  
411 also a significant effect of mass on both distance moved and freezing behaviour  
412 ( $F_{1,164.1} = 11.09$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ;  $F_{1,169.3} = 4.88$ ,  $p = 0.028$ , respectively), with heavier  
413 tadpoles moving greater distances and spending more time moving overall (Fig S2  
414 and S3).

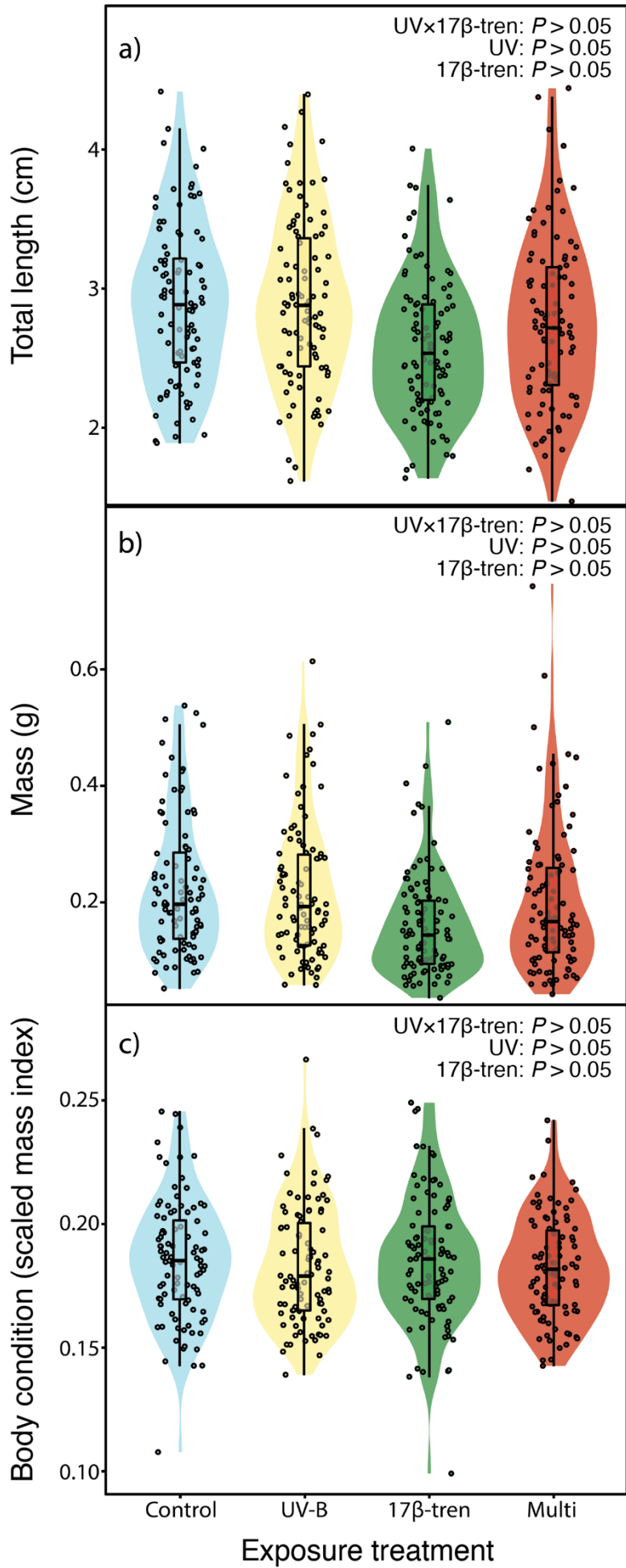


416 **Figure 2.** Boxplots showing (a) the distance moved (cm) and (b) time spent  
417 stationary (s) by tadpoles before (lighter coloured boxes on the left for each  
418 treatment) and after (darker coloured boxes on the right for each treatment) the  
419 simulated predator strike for all exposure treatments ( $n = 48$  per treatment).  
420 Treatment groups that do not share upper case letters are significantly different ( $p <$   
421  $0.05$ ).

422

### 423 **Morphology**

424 For total length, mass, and body condition, we found no significant interaction  
425 between UV radiation and  $17\beta$ -trenbolone ( $F_{1,17.3} = 0.56$ ,  $p = 0.464$ ;  $F_{1,17.3} = 0.89$ ,  $p =$   
426  $0.358$ ;  $F_{1,17.1} = 0.02$ ,  $p = 0.902$ , respectively), nor any significant main effects of  
427 either stressor (Fig. 3; see Tables S7–9 for full model outputs).



429 **Figure 3.** Violin plots and boxplots showing tadpole (a) total length, (b) mass, and (c)  
430 body condition. Control ( $n = 96$ ) is shown here in blue, UV ( $n = 94$ ) in yellow, 17 $\beta$ -  
431 trenbolone ( $n = 96$ ) in green, and multi stressor ( $n = 96$ ) in red. Box plots show 25th  
432 (Q1), 50th (median), and 75th (Q3) percentiles. The whiskers represent the Q1–  
433 1.5\*IQR (interquartile range) to Q3+1.5\*IQR. The coloured area surrounding the box-  
434 plot (violin plot) shows the probability density at different values smoothed by a  
435 kernel density estimator. The  $p$ -values for the interaction between UV radiation and  
436 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, and main effects of both stressors, are included.

437

### 438 **Discussion**

439 Here we investigated whether exposure to environmentally realistic levels of UV  
440 radiation and the agricultural pollutant 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone for one month would impact  
441 the behaviour and morphology of tadpoles. We found no significant interactions  
442 between UV radiation and 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone, and no significant main effects of either  
443 stressor, on tadpole morphology or behaviour.

444 We found no significant effect of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone on *L. tasmaniensis* tadpole  
445 morphology, or anxiety-like behaviour during the conspecific cue and simulated  
446 predator strike assays. Currently, research investigating the effects of  
447 environmentally-realistic concentrations of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone on tadpoles is scarce  
448 (Ankley et al., 2018). However, the findings presented here are concordant with our  
449 previous studies on *L. tasmaniensis*, where 28-day exposure to comparable  
450 concentrations of 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone (10 and 66 ng/L for 28 days) had no impact on  
451 tadpole length and mass, or on anxiety-like behaviours across multiple assays (i.e.,  
452 freezing behaviour, distance moved, and time spent in upper half of water column;  
453 Martin et al., 2022; Orford et al., 2022). The results presented here do, however,

454 contrast with Li et al. (2015), who reported *Pelophylax nigromaculatus* tadpoles  
455 exposed to 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone exhibited decreased growth. One potential explanation  
456 for the differences between this study and the present experiment is the dosage of  
457 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone used, with Li et al. (2015) exposing tadpoles to 10,000 ng/L, a  
458 concentration far exceeding those recorded in the environment (Ankley et al., 2018).  
459 Another potential explanation is that species-specific responses to chemical  
460 pollutants have been repeatedly observed in amphibians, with behavioural  
461 responses of different species following exposure to the same concentration of  
462 chemical pollutant differing in terms of both magnitude and direction (discussed  
463 further in Orford et al., 2023). The results in this experiment also contrast with  
464 existing literature on fish, which found that exposure to 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone can result in  
465 changes to both morphology and behaviour (e.g. Baumann et al., 2014; Bertram et  
466 al., 2018; Tan et al., 2021). We have previously hypothesised that these differences  
467 may be due to the life-stage of the animals used, with fish studies often using  
468 sexually mature animals (see Orford et al., 2022). As an androgen agonist, 17 $\beta$ -  
469 trenbolone may have greater effects during this developmental period due to the  
470 high levels of androgen receptors available (Ankley et al., 2018; Fujii et al., 2014;  
471 Leet et al., 2011; Oike et al., 2017). However, tadpole development had not reached  
472 this stage in the present study, and therefore tadpoles were not exposed to 17 $\beta$ -  
473 trenbolone during this period of increased sensitivity.

474 UV radiation has previously been shown to impact both behaviour and  
475 morphology across a number of anuran species, including species within the  
476 *Limnodynastes* genus (reviewed in Alton and Franklin, 2017). For example,  
477 exposure to environmentally-realistic levels of UV radiation (i.e. UV index scores of  
478 <1) for 7–9 days resulted in significantly reduced mass and size in *Limnodynastes*



479 *peronii* tadpoles, as well as causing individuals to significantly reduce their activity  
480 (Alton et al., 2012, 2010; Bernal et al., 2011). UV radiation exposure has also been  
481 shown to affect anuran responses to both conspecific and predator chemical cues.  
482 Kats et al. (2000) found that *Bufo boreas* metamorphs exposed to UV radiation  
483 exhibited less avoidance behaviour to conspecific cues compared with unexposed  
484 toads, and *Rana cascadae* tadpoles exposed to UV radiation did not reduce their  
485 movement in response to predatory cues as much as unexposed tadpoles. The lack  
486 of effect that UV radiation had on tadpole behaviour and morphology in the present  
487 study was therefore surprising, but could potentially be explained by variation in  
488 sensitivity and exposure to UV radiation that occurs across amphibian species,  
489 populations, and life stages (Alton and Franklin, 2017; Blaustein et al., 1999; Palen  
490 et al., 2005). The extent to which survival, development, and behaviour are affected  
491 by UV exposure has been shown to vary across taxa, with some species seemingly  
492 unaffected by exposure (Long et al., 1995; Pahkala et al., 2003), whilst others suffer  
493 increased mortality, developmental abnormalities, extended development times, and  
494 various changes to behaviour (reviewed in Alton and Franklin, 2017). Susceptibility  
495 to UV radiation can also differ between different populations of the same species,  
496 with high-altitude populations seemingly having an increased tolerance compared to  
497 lowland populations (Marquis and Miaud, 2008). These species- and population-  
498 specific effects of UV radiation are largely associated with variation in DNA repair  
499 rates and melanin synthesis (see Alton and Franklin, 2017). In addition, as  
500 amphibians develop, they may utilise behavioural strategies to a greater degree,  
501 compared to earlier life-stages, in order to avoid UV exposure, for example  
502 swimming in shaded areas or at greater depths (Alton and Franklin, 2017; Belden et  
503 al., 2000; Blaustein and Belden, 2003). In an experimental setting, these behaviours

504 may affect the amount of UV radiation that a study organism receives. Indeed,  
505 Bridges and Boone (2003) suggested that the lack of effects seen in their UV  
506 exposure study may have been due to tadpoles swimming into leaf litter and depths  
507 where less UV radiation penetrated. This variation in exposure to UV radiation  
508 between life-stages means that results from other early-life studies may not be  
509 consistent across the life-stages of tadpoles covered in the present study. It should  
510 also be noted that some effects observed as a result of UV exposure utilised non-  
511 environmentally realistic levels of UV radiation (e.g. Grant and Licht, 1995; Licht,  
512 2003; M. Pahkala et al., 2003; Pahkala et al., 2001), with one study exposing eggs to  
513 an absolute irradiance of  $340 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$  (Grant and Licht, 1995), which is over 40  
514 times higher than the absolute irradiances employed in the present study. Increasing  
515 environmental realism in such studies is paramount to accurately identifying the  
516 threats that UV radiation may have on animals under natural conditions (Ankley et  
517 al., 2000; Cramp and Franklin, 2018; Peterson et al., 2002), and the use of  
518 environmentally realistic levels in this study reflects this. Overall, the literature  
519 suggests that the results observed in the present study may be influenced by the UV  
520 dosage, species, life stage and behaviour of the study organism.

521         The literature investigating the effects of combined UV radiation and chemical  
522 pollutant exposure is currently limited (reviewed in Bancroft et al., 2008; Blaustein et  
523 al., 2003; Mann et al., 2009). Whilst most of the existing studies suggest that UV  
524 radiation and chemicals interact synergistically to result in detrimental effects greater  
525 than those caused by either stressor alone (e.g. Baud and Beck, 2005; Hatch and  
526 Blaustein, 2003; Macías et al., 2007), there is evidence to suggest that combined  
527 exposure can result in either no effect (Bridges and Boone, 2003; Croteau et al.,  
528 2008), or an effect in the opposite direction to what would commonly be seen as

529 detrimental (e.g. increased growth, faster development; Crump et al., 2002). To our  
530 knowledge, there are currently no studies that have used 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone as part of a  
531 multi-stressor study. However, based on the results of this study, it appears that at  
532 environmentally realistic concentrations there is no interaction between 17 $\beta$ -  
533 trenbolone and UV radiation. The combined effects of UV exposure and chemical  
534 pollutants are also understudied in tadpoles, with many studies using only the  
535 embryo life-stage (Bancroft et al., 2008). Further, very few studies investigating the  
536 combined effects of UV radiation and chemical pollutants on amphibians have  
537 investigated the potential for early-life exposure to have long-lasting effects that  
538 might, potentially, carry over to impact metamorphs and adults (Bancroft et al., 2008;  
539 Lundsgaard et al., 2023; Sievers et al., 2019). This is despite research showing that  
540 exposure during the tadpole life-stage to either UV radiation or chemical pollutants  
541 can result in carryover effects that impact adult fitness (Ceccato et al., 2016;  
542 Lundsgaard et al., 2022; Pakkala et al., 2003; Rohr et al., 2013). Increasing  
543 environmental realism through the use of multiple stressors, environmentally realistic  
544 concentrations, and long-term exposures enables the gap between field and  
545 laboratory studies to be bridged, and advances our understanding of the real-world  
546 impacts that such stressors have on wildlife (Bertram et al., 2022; Mehdi et al.,  
547 2019).

548

## 549 **Conclusion**

550 In summary, we did not detect a significant effect of UV radiation or 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone,  
551 either alone or in combination, on the morphology or behaviour of tadpoles. In  
552 comparison to past research, our study lends support to the idea that there is taxon-  
553 specific differences in susceptibility to 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone (Martin et al., 2022; Orford et

554 al., 2022). Given that the effects of UV exposure on tadpoles varies depending on  
555 numerous factors, and that exposure can result in no effects, this research adds  
556 information on *L. tasmaniensis* to an extensive body of existing work. As this is the  
557 first study of its kind to utilise 17 $\beta$ -trenbolone as part of a multi-stressor study, and  
558 given the current state of research on UV radiation and chemical pollutants, future  
559 studies should aim to investigate the long-term (i.e. across multiple life-stages)  
560 effects of environmentally realistic levels of UV radiation and chemical pollutants on  
561 amphibians. Studies with high levels of environmental realism can help to further our  
562 understanding of the threats that this imperilled taxa face in the wild, which, in turn,  
563 can assist with the implementation of effective conservation efforts.

564

#### 565 **Ethical statement**

566 The research detailed in this study was approved by the Biological Sciences Animal  
567 Ethics Committee of Monash University (AEC approval number 20799) and complies  
568 with all relevant State and Federal laws of Australia. Eggs were collected in  
569 compliance with the Wildlife Act 1975 (DELWP permit number 10009162).

570

#### 571 **Data availability statement**

572 All of the data and code associated with this manuscript are available from the Open  
573 Science Framework (Martin et al. 2023; <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/XYG63>)

574

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