

Published in the United States of America

2013 • VOLUME 6 • NUMBER 4

AMPHIBIAN & REPTILE CONSERVATION



NEURERGUS

amphibian-reptile-conservation.org

ISSN: 1083-446X

eISSN: 1525-9153

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Neurergus kaiseri.

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Sexual size dimorphism in *Neurergus kaiseri* (Caudata: Salamandridae) in south-western Zagros Mountains, Iran

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Abstract.—Using bivariate and multivariate techniques we evaluated sexual size dimorphism in 13 body-related and six head-related metrics from 99 live specimens of the Lorestan newt, *Neurergus kaiseri*. Analyses of variance of 12 metrics showed that average sizes for all these characters in females are significantly ($P < 0.05$) greater than in males. However, one character (vent length) is larger in males than females ($P < 0.001$). Evaluation of 13 metrics showed that average size dimorphism is apparent in 10 characters with nine characters showing these differences at $P \leq 0.01$ and one character at $P < 0.05$ confidence levels. Principal Components Analysis of external characters provided a good separation of males and females. Although body measurements gave a clear pattern of differences between the sexes in *N. kaiseri*, head measurements showed no such distinctions.

Key words. *Neurergus kaiseri*, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), sexual size dimorphism, southwestern Iran, cloaca

Citation: Sharifi M, Farasat H, Vaissi S. 2012. Sexual size dimorphism in *Neurergus kaiseri* (Caudata: Salamandridae) in south-western Zagros Mountains, Iran. *Amphibian & Reptile Conservation* 6(4):1-8(e48).

Introduction

Sexual dimorphism shows widespread and recognizable patterns in many species and has been studied for more than a century (reviewed in Fairbairn et al. 2007). Sexual size dimorphism is common in animal taxa, but is highly variable in magnitude and direction (Andersson 1994; Fairbairn 1997; Brandt and Andrade 2007). Sexually dimorphic traits have been surveyed in different classes of vertebrates, including birds (Temeles 1985; Temeles et al. 2000), primates (Crook 1972), amphibians (Schäuble 2004; Vargas-Salinas 2006; McGarrity and Johnson 2008; Malmgren and Thollesson 1999; Kalezić et al. 1992), lizards (Bruner et al. 2005; Kaliontzopoulou et al. 2007), and snakes (Feriche et al. 1993; Shine et al. 1999). Amphibian females generally grow larger than males and female body size is often correlated to clutch size (Duellman and Trueb 1986; Rafinski and Pecio 1989; Kalezić et al. 1992). In amphibians, the most strikingly dimorphic sexual characteristics are seasonal; however, most species also show permanent sexual differences in morphometrics and morphology (Malacarne and Cortassa 1983).

Although mature female amphibians are generally larger than males, and female body size is often correlated to clutch size, there are examples where males are the larger. This can be attributed to high degrees of agonistic male behavior such as combat during the reproduc-

tive season. Several theories have been developed to explain ecological and evolutionary significance for sexual size dimorphism (e.g., Slatkin 1984; Andersson 1994). As stated by Darwin (1871) sexual selection is likely the most important single cause that generates dimorphism, but other factors such as female reproductive strategy and competition for food resources have been considered to be significant (Duellman and Trueb 1986).

In the present paper, we explore and discuss sexual size dimorphism in the Lorestan newt *Neurergus kaiseri* in the southwestern mountains of Iran. The aim is to describe the expression of intersexual differences in this species to reveal sexually dimorphic traits that can be important in systematic and evolutionary research.

Material and methods

We measured 99 live specimens of *Neurergus kaiseri* found in the southern Zagros ranges. The average annual precipitation in the southern Zagros ranges from 400 to 800 mm per year. The dominant vegetation cover around streams is oak tree (*Quercus brantii*) open woodlands. The active period of *N. kaiseri* in its aquatic environment starts in March and ends in July, a period when temperature enables breeding and feeding. The *N. kaiseri* used in the present study (58 males, 41 females) were all caught in the daytime between the 7th and 13th April 2012. The

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Figure 1. Male *Neurergus kaiseri* have a fleshy protuberance at the base of the tail (A), whereas female has a prominent cloaca but without the protuberance (B). Photos by Mozafar Sharifi.

method of capture was by hand, with individuals taken from among or under stones in the shallow water at the side of the stream. After measuring, the *N. kaiseri* were released unharmed at the location of their capture. The sex of each individual was assessed according to external secondary sexual characters: males have a fleshy protuberance at the base of the tail, whereas females have a prominent cloaca, but without the protuberance (Fig 1). Juveniles are differentiated from mature adults in having a smaller body length and lacking both the protuberance and the prominent cloaca (Baran and Atatür 1998).

Thirteen variables (Table 1) for all specimens were measured with calipers to the nearest 0.1 mm. To test significant differences of sexually dimorphic metrics, Independent Sample *t*-test (2-tailed) as well as Principal Component Analysis (PCA: correlation matrix) at the significance level of 0.01 were used. In multivariate analyses the variables were carried out into two sets (body- and head-related measurements) and were analyzed separately using PCA based on Pearson's correlation coefficients. SPSS software version 16, Excel, and Past software were used for running the statistical analyses.

Table 1. Definitions of the morphometric character set and abbreviations used for body- and head-related metrics.

Abbreviations	Variable definition
Body measurements	
W	Weight
SVL	Snout to vent length, tip of snout to anterior margin of cloacal lips
TL	Tail length, posterior margin of cloacal lips to tip of tail
LFL	Length of fore limb, anterior margin of front leg to tip of the longest finger
LHL	Length of hind limb, anterior margin of hind leg to tip of the longest toe
FHL	Forelimb to hindlimb length, posterior margin of front leg (axilla) to anterior margin of hind leg (groin)
VL	Vent length, anterior margin of cloacal lips to posterior margin of cloacal lips
TLL	Total length, tip of snout to tip of tail (SVL + VL + TL)
Head measurements	
HL	Head length, tip of snout to posterior region of neck
HW	Head width, largest width of head, in line with the corner of the mouth
HH	Height of head, margin of lower jaw to upper of eye, in line with the eyes
IOD	Interorbital distance, shortest distance between eyes
DN	Distance of nostrils, from one nostril to the other
LW	Length of wrinkles under throat, tip of snout to posterior margin of wrinkles under throat

Results

The results of the Independent Sample *t*-test (2-tailed) show that in *N. kaiseri* most characters differed significantly between sexes ($P \leq 0.01$), so that in each variable females are larger than males, excluding vent length (Table 2). In *N. kaiseri*, 89% of body related metrics were significantly sexually dimorphic (Table 2). In contrast, there were fewer such sex related differences (50%) in measurements related to head morphology. The mean male to female Snout to Vent Length (SVL) ratio was 0.86 for *N. kaiseri* (Table 2). In Bivariate Analyses, SVL in relation to the Total Length (TL; measured from tip-of-snout to tip-of-tail), was dimorphic in *N. kaiseri* (males $46.59\% \pm 0.004$ SE, females $49.36\% \pm 0.004$ SE; $P < 0.001$). The relation between Tail Length (TL) to the Total Length and Forelimb to Hindlimb Length (FHL) to SVL were not significantly sexually dimorphic in *N. kaiseri*. Males of *N. kaiseri* had the shorter tail (males 56.76 ± 0.93 SE, females 63.20 ± 0.92 ; $P < 0.001$).

Analysis of metrics indicated general trends in variation. Loadings for the first two components are given in Table 2, and the individual specimens are projected onto these components in Figure 3. In each PCA there were high positive loadings for all characters on PC1. This axis is therefore interpreted as a general size measure. Contrasting positive and negative loadings were found

on PC2, indicating general shape measures as important for this separation.

Body variables gave a clear pattern of differences between the sexes in *N. kaiseri*, while head measurements showed no such distinctions (Figs. 1 and 2). Factor loadings for principal components (Table 3) revealed that a total of 75.9% and 58.3% of the variability for *N. kaiseri* could be explained by the first two components (PC1 and PC2) for body- and head-related traits, respectively. The first component, which explained 62.1% and the second component, which explained 13.7% of the total character variation for body characters, provided complete separation between males and females (Figs. 3, 4, and 5). The first component, which explained 39% and the second component, which explained 19.3% of the total character variation for head measurements, do not prove complete separation between males and females (Figs. 3, 4, and 5). The remaining components (PC3 \pm PC9) individually explained $< 12\%$ of the total variation for this species on body related traits, and did not reveal any readily interpretable patterns. Factor loadings for discriminant Hotelling's T^2 revealed that with using body measurements, males and females were well separated (Hotelling's T^2 : 1307.9, F: 175.28, $P < 0.001$), but with using head variables the sexes were not separated (Hotelling's T^2 : 29.351, F: 5.63, $P < 0.001$), and revealed these measurements unsuitable for determination of sexual dimorphism in *N. kaiseri* (Fig. 2).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard error of mean, and range) of 13 external characteristics (mm) in males and females of *Neurergus kaiseri*; *n*: number; SE: standard error of mean. Morphometric Abbreviations: W (Weight), SVL (Snout-Vent Length), TL (Tail Length), HH (Height of Head), LFL (Length of Forelimb), LHL (Length of Hindlimb), FHL (Forelimb to Hindlimb Length), VL (Cloacal Length), IOD (Interorbital Distance), DN (Distance of Nostrils).

Variable	Males (<i>n</i> = 58)		Females (<i>n</i> = 41)		<i>P</i>
	Mean \pm SE	Range	Mean \pm SE	Range	
Body measurements					
W	6.2 \pm 0.2	3.2 – 9.8	7.2 \pm 0.3	3.8 – 11.4	0.0
SVL	54.8 \pm 0.5	47.9 – 61.8	63.6 \pm 0.8	54.1 – 78.9	0.0
TL	56.8 \pm 0.9	33.5 – 72.8	63.3 \pm 0.9	52.6 – 75.9	0.0
LFL	20.1 \pm 0.2	16.3 – 22.3	20.5 \pm 0.2	16.9 – 23.1	0.05
LHL	21.6 \pm 0.2	17.2 – 24.6	22.4 \pm 0.3	19.2 – 26.0	0.0
FHL	29.4 \pm 0.4	18.0 – 35.8	35.0 \pm 0.6	26.9 – 41.6	0.0
LW	13.8 \pm 0.2	11.1 – 16.7	14.4 \pm 0.4	6.2 – 18.9	0.1
VL	6.2 \pm 0.2	4.5 – 7.9	2.1 \pm 0.4	1.4 – 2.5	0.0
TLL	117.8 \pm 1.4	100.1 – 137.3	128.9 \pm 1.4	111.8 – 146.5	0.0
Head measurements					
HL	13.5 \pm 0.1	10.7 – 16.0	13.6 \pm 0.1	12.1 – 15.0	0.2
HW	11.0 \pm 0.1	9.5 – 13.4	11.1 \pm 0.2	5.7 – 12.5	0.7
HH	5.6 \pm 0.1	4.9 – 7.4	6.0 \pm 0.1	5.3 – 7.2	0.0
IOD	7.1 \pm 0.1	5.9 – 8.0	7.4 \pm 0.1	6.2 – 8.8	0.0
DN	3.8 \pm 0.1	1.2 – 4.6	4.0 \pm 0.0	3.5 – 4.7	0.01

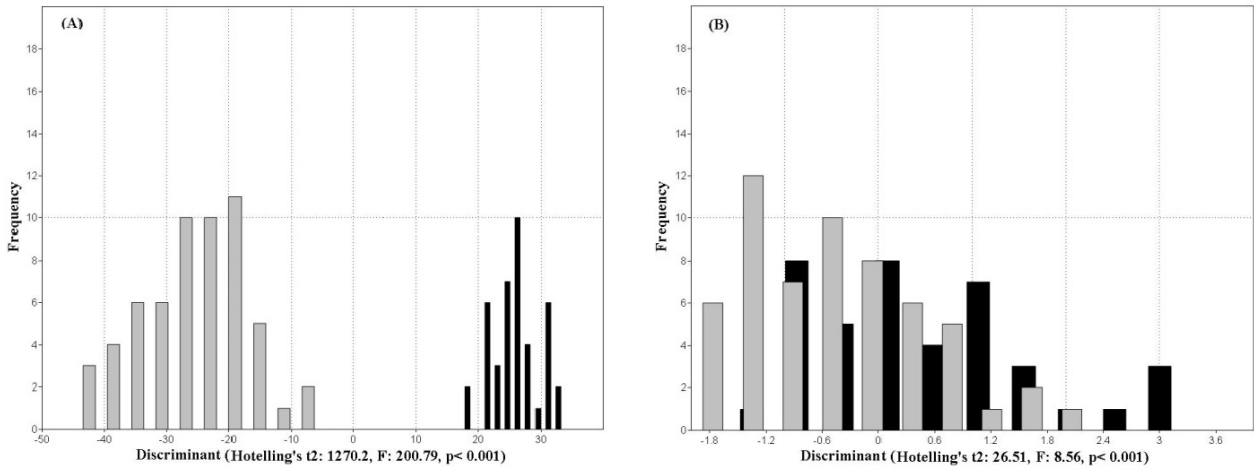


Figure 2. Discriminant Hotelling’s T^2 for separation of male and female *Neurergus kaiseri*. (A) Body-related characters; (B) Head-related variables. Note that on base head-related variables male and female aren’t well separated.

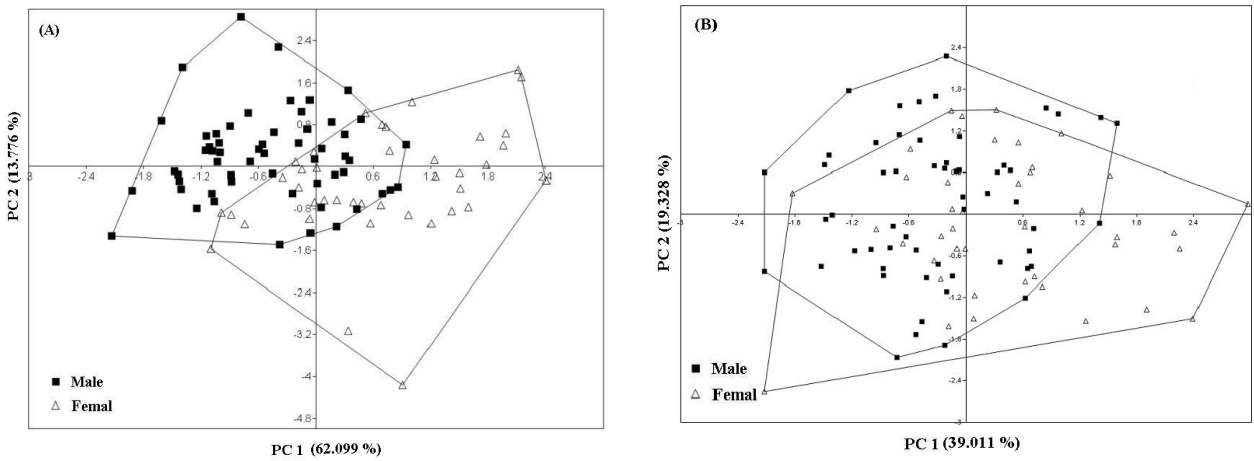


Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on sexual dimorphism in *Neurergus kaiseri*. Scatter plots of principal component scores for the first two principal axes, with convex polygons for males and females. Loadings are shown in Table 3. (A) Body-related characters; (B) Head-related variables, significant sex differences are noted on neither PC1, nor PC2.

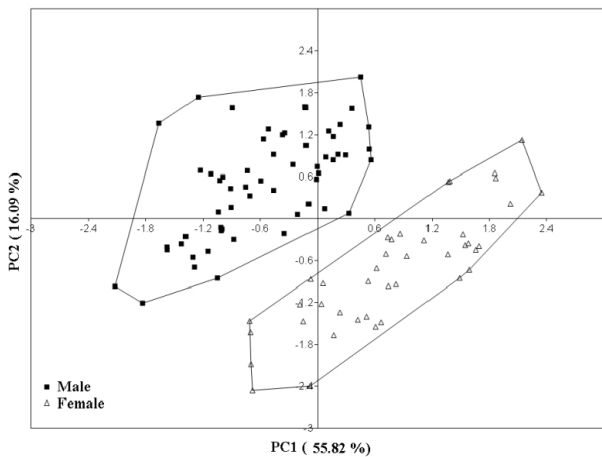


Figure 4. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on seasonal sexual dimorphism in *Neurergus kaiseri*. Scatter plots of principal component scores for the first two principal axes, with convex polygons for males and females. Loadings are shown in Table 3.

Discussion

The Lorestan newt *Neurergus kaiseri* was shown not to exhibit sexually dimorphism in head-related metrics. This is in agreement with other studies on head morphology in newts (Malmgren and Thollesson 1999; Rafinski and Pecio 1989; Kalezic et al. 1992). These results do not support the ecological model that *N. kaiseri* has developed intersexual differences in feeding strategies along a niche divergence process (Slatkin 1984; Andersson 1994) driven by the two factors, the rate of feeding and type of food consumed (Shine 1989). The first factor considers that substantial intersexual difference in body size lead to differences in feeding rates between the sexes. The second factor comprises species where the sexes diverge in trophic morphology as a result of intersexual differences in dietary preferences. Both male and female newts experience high energetic costs during the reproductive season (Halliday and Arano 1991; Griffiths

Sexual size dimorphism in *Neurergus kaiseri*

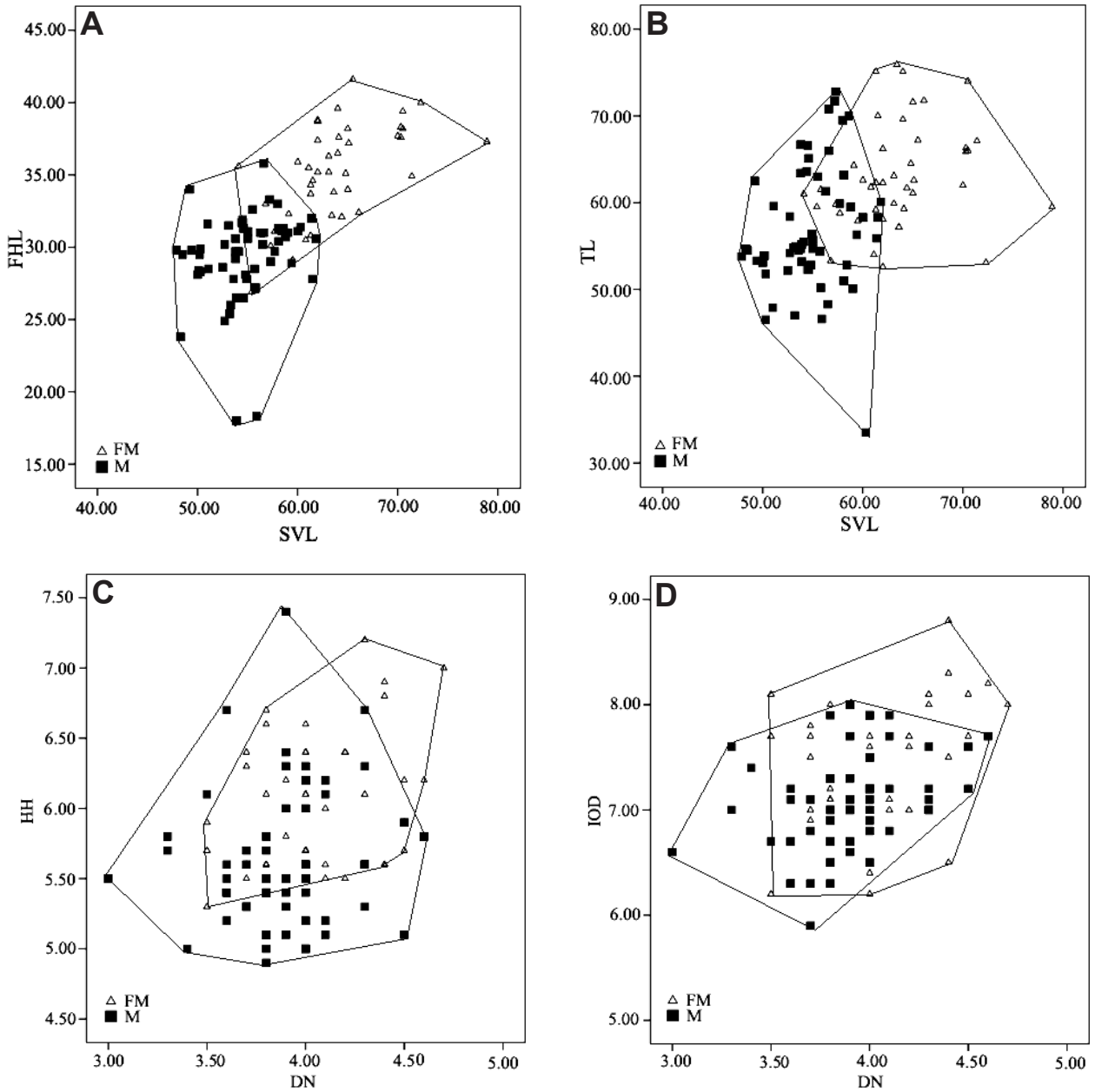


Figure 5. Bivariate scatterplots of variables on sexual dimorphism with convex polygons for males and females in *Neurergus kaiseri*. (A and B) Body-related characters (C and D) Head-related variables. Body measurements gave a clear pattern of differences between the sexes in *N. kaiseri*, while head measurements showed no such distinctions. All values in mm.

1996) and both spend considerable time feeding when not involved in courtship. This indicates that feeding rates between males and females might be similar within species, even during the breeding period, suggesting that sexual dimorphism resulting from feeding rates and diet may be negligible.

The separation of sexes in statistical analyses was high in *N. kaiseri*. Sexual dimorphism was attributed to females showing large values for dimensions related to fecundity, such as SVL and distance of FHL, contrasted with large values for cloaca in males. In all analyses the female SVL and FHL metrics were highly significant in the observed patterns, contrasting against the male CL.

These results can be interpreted as primarily concordant with the fecundity model. Previous studies on amphibians have shown that females are generally larger than males in body size (Duellman and Trueb 1986), possibly because fecundity increases with increasing female body size. Males, however, can often increase their lifetime reproductive success through other life history traits in species with little or no agonistic behavior; for example by maturing at an early age. Moreover, Kalezić et al. (1992), showed that the trunk length (corresponding to FHL) is directly correlated to the length of the pleuroperitoneal cavity in *Triturus newts* to which *Neurergus* is a closely related.

Table 3. Factor loadings for the first two principal components (eigenvectors) for *Neurergus kaiseri* from multivariate analyses (Principal Components Analysis, PCA) on body- and head-related variables.

Variable	<i>Neurergus kaiseri</i>		
	PC1	PC2	PC3
Body measurements			
SVL	0.848	0.124	-0.304
TL	0.755	-0.570	0.293
LFL	0.668	0.470	0.447
LHL	0.734	0.420	0.041
FHL	0.762	-0.025	-0.534
TLL	0.934	-0.298	0.123
Eigenvalue	3.726	0.827	0.680
% of variability	62.099	13.776	11.328
Cumulated %	62.099	75.874	87.202
Head measurements			
HH	0.484	0.794	0.049
DN	0.631	-0.540	-0.003
IOD	0.654	0.140	-0.482
Eigenvalue	1.699	0.985	0.887
% of variability	39.011	19.328	17.216
Cumulated %	39.011	58.339	75.555

Male *N. kaiseri* could be distinguished from females in having a larger cloaca (Fig. 1). The cloacal swelling in male newts is most notable laterally and ventrally compared to females, and may be an important factor in male mating success. Most of the cloacal volume is occupied by glands secreting substances forming the spermatophore, although tubules emanating from the pheromone-producing dorsal gland are present—especially in the caudal region of the cloaca (Sever et al. 1990). The dorsal gland itself, which is known to be greatly enlarged during the breeding season in some newts, lies anterior to the pelvic girdle. As proposed by Sever et al. (1990), it is quite likely that both the rate of spermatophore production and the synthesis of courtship pheromones—factors contributing to male mating success—are under the influence of sexual selection, thus increasing the size and volume of structures in the cloacal region.

Acknowledgments.—We thank Nate Nelson for providing funding for this project through the conservation breeding program for *N. kaiseri* at Sedgewick County Zoo, Wichita, Kansas, USA. We are also grateful to Razi University which provides funding to the postgraduate students involved in present study.

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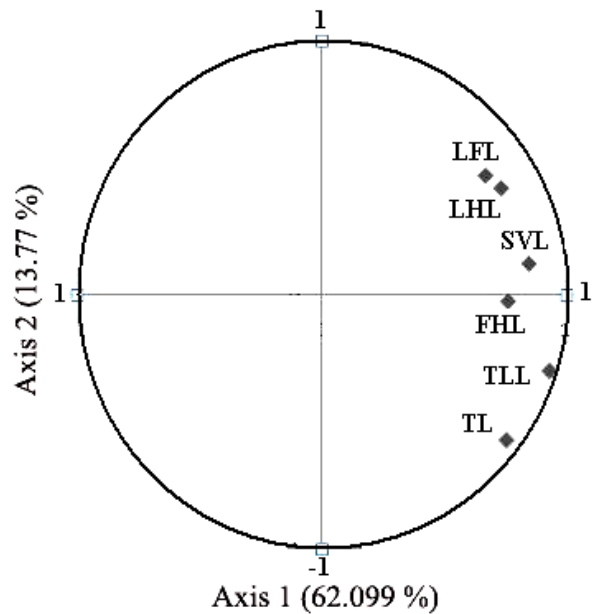


Figure 6. Factor loadings for the first two principal components in analyses of body-related characters. Loadings on PC1 are all close to one and positive, and this component is interpreted as a general size measure. On PC2 positive loadings (characters above the abscissa) are contrasted with negative loadings (below), and the component is interpreted as a measure of shape that discriminates between males and females (Figs. 4 and 5). Abbreviations as in Table 1.

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Received: 11 May 2012

Accepted: 07 June 2012

Published: 12 July 2012



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Hossain Farasat is currently a Ph.D. candidate at Department of Biology, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran. He earned his M.Sc. from Razi University. His present research focuses on the ecology and genetic diversity of fragmented populations of *Neurergus kaiseri*. His main interest is to examine whether these fragmented populations are structured by a metapopulation. He is also keen to apply his finding in conservation of this critically endangered and endemic species of Iran.



Somaye Vaissi is a M.Sc. student in systematic zoology at Department of Biology, Razi University, Iran. She has earned her B.Sc. in animal biology from the same department. She is currently the curator of a Captive Breeding Facility for *Neurergus microspilotus* at Razi University funded by the Mohamed bin Zayed Species Conservation Fund. Her current research activities with two species of *Neurergus* involve several topics associated with husbandry and health of the newts in captivity. These include nutrition, growth, development and their health. She has contribution in detecting chytrid fungus and other diseases such as red-leg syndrome and rickettsial inclusions in the newts.

Conservation biology, husbandry, and captive breeding of the endemic Anatolia newt, *Neurergus strauchii* Steindachner (1887) (Amphibia: Caudata: Salamandridae)

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Abstract.—The long-term experiences of different private breeders on husbandry and breeding of the Anatolia newt, *Neurergus strauchii* are presented. This information is introduced and discussed in respect to the ecology, systematics, and conservation of *N. strauchii*. Our knowledge and data of husbandry and captive breeding is collated and compared with the literature. We present our experiences to provide information and advice for the successful long-term keeping, breeding, and raising of *N. strauchii* and also an example and model that may be used for privates' contribution to Conservation Breeding Programs for endangered *Neurergus* species and other semi-aquatic salamanders. *Neurergus strauchii* has proved relatively easy to keep in captivity under a range of aquatic and terrestrial housing and with adequate diet. However, although breeding is successful under a variety of conditions survival from egg to adult is low. Cold husbandry temperatures in winter increase reproduction. Eggs are laid very irregularly in time and number, and oviposition may depend on the condition of the female, particularly her nutritional condition through diet. There may be up to 285 eggs per female. The best temperature for egg laying is about 14.5 °C. Hatching success of eggs can vary enormously from 0% to 80%. Most larvae hatch from 11.5 to 14.5 mm. Larvae are easy to raise, with low mortality over a wide range of temperatures, and metamorphose in three to seven months, mostly from 55 to 63 mm and about 0.6 g. Several diseases are known to affect these newts and high temperature stress may exacerbate pathology.

Key words. *Neurergus strauchii*, breeding, husbandry, ecology, conservation, private breeders, long-term maintenance, diseases, international cooperation

Citation: Bogaerts S, Janssen H, Macke J, Schultschik G, Ernst K, Maillet F, Bork C, Pasmans F, Wisniewski P. 2012. Conservation biology, husbandry, and captive breeding of the endemic Anatolia newt, *Neurergus strauchii* Steindachner (1887) (Amphibia: Caudata: Salamandridae). *Amphibian & Reptile Conservation* 6(4):9-29(e53).

Introduction

Since its description by Steindachner (1887), relatively little information has been collected on the Anatolia newt, *Neurergus strauchii*. Schmidtler and Schmidtler (1970) were the first to collect substantial information on this species. In 1982, the first captive breeding experiences were published by Fleck (1982). Haker (1985) described breeding an F2 generation and the appearance of a color mutant, later known as the “gold-dust” variety. Although Fleck and Haker both mentioned that it was not difficult to keep and breed *N. strauchii*, it is still relatively rare to find *N. strauchii* in captivity. Little information on the husbandry of *N. strauchii* has been published,

perhaps due to a lack of husbandry and breeding success. Steinfartz (1995) was the first to report detailed information on the keeping and breeding of the subspecies *N. s. barani*, which had been described just two years prior (Öz 1994).

Inspired by the aquatic versus terrestrial rearing experiments on juvenile *N. s. strauchii* of Jennifer Macke (Macke 2006), the scattered Internet data sheets (see for instance Schultschik 2010; Sparreboom 2009), and the fact that Kristina Ernst is running a Studbook for this species for the AG Urodela, Serge Bogaerts started collecting data and experiences from active and long-term breeders in order to establish some guidelines for successful husbandry of this species. In 2007, our common project was presented at the meeting of the Arbeitsgruppe

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[†]We dedicate this paper to a passionate and experienced amphibian keeper and breeder, Patrick Wisniewski, who sadly passed away during the time of writing.



Figure 1. Captive bred adult female of *Neurergus s. strauchii*. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.



Figure 2. Adult female of *Neurergus strauchii barani* photographed at Kubbe mountain, Malatya. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.

Urodela of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Herpetologie und Terrarienkunde (DGHT) in Gersfeld, Germany (Bogaerts 2007). Not all authors have collected similar data for example, Henry Janssen has put an extraordinary effort in collecting data on reproduction between 1991 and 1997. However, through collating all husbandry knowledge and data, we can draw some general guidelines for successfully keeping and breeding *N. strauchii*. We will combine the information from both subspecies, as there appears to be few differences in their maintenance.

Distribution, description, and habitat

Neurergus strauchii is endemic to mountainous areas in eastern Turkey, roughly from Malatya to Lake Van. The subspecies *N. s. barani* is found only in the mountains southeast of Malatya. *Neurergus s. strauchii* has a wider distribution and is found east from the river Euphrates

up onto the Lake Van area. Although there is a relatively high level of genetic differentiation at both the mitochondrial (12S and 16S rRNA) and nuclear levels between the subspecies (Steinfartz et al. 2002; Pasmans et al. 2006), it is not very easy to distinguish individuals of each subspecies, particularly as juveniles. Özdemir et al. (2009) found that *N. s. barani* is not strongly differentiated from *N. s. strauchii*, suggesting their distributions are either connected, or have been separated only recently.

The most obvious visual difference between *N. s. strauchii* and *N. s. barani* is the difference in the number and size of yellow spots on adults (Figs. 1 and 2). The main phenotypic difference between the subspecies is that the number of spots greatly increases during maturation in *N. s. strauchii*, but increases very little in *N. s. barani*. The *N. s. barani* subspecies keeps approximately its juvenile pattern of small spots in two rows dorsally,



Figure 3. Cloaca's of male (left) and female (right) of *N. s. barani* during breeding. *Photo by Serge Bogaerts.*

whereas the number of spots on *N. s. strauchii* increases as it matures. Although this difference is very pronounced between the eastern populations of *N. s. strauchii* and *N. s. barani*, the westernmost *N. s. strauchii* are virtually indistinguishable from *N. s. barani* in this respect. Pasmans et al. (2006) found a geographically correlated increase in the number of spots on adult newts towards the eastern part of their distribution.

Neurergus strauchii are relatively large newts, measuring up to 19 cm (Steindachner 1887). Mean lengths in the wild are 14.3 cm for adult males and 15.2 cm for adult females (Table 1). The largest total length documented in the field was 18.1 cm for a female ($n = 42$) and 17.6 cm for a male ($n = 21$) (Pasmans et al. 2006). Males can be recognized by their slender body, shorter tail, larger cloaca, and the bluish-white colorations on the lateral sides of the tail, which can run through to the lateral sides of the body. These breeding colorations are often already visible in autumn. Females have an orange cloaca, relatively longer tails, and shorter legs, and appear more robust than males (Fig. 3).

Neurergus strauchii lives roughly between 1,000 and 1,900 m. above sea level. Its breeding habitats are mountain brooks, preferably with large, deep, slow running pools. A typical habitat is shown in Figure 4. Terrestrial habitats are often very bare, without much vegetation (Bogaerts et al. 2006). Water temperatures vary considerably seasonally and with stream length from springs. Pasmans et al. (2006) recorded water temperatures in breeding streams from 10.9 to 17.3 °C, although Schmidler and Schmidler (1970) recorded temperatures of 9 to 10 °C in a flowing spring in which they found adults. Schneider and Schneider (2010) found water temperatures up to 21.9 °C, at the end of breeding season (June). Bogaerts et al. (2010) report of a temperature drop of 2.5 °C from 8.3 °C to 5.8 °C within one week at the start of the breeding season in April, which did not seem to change the breeding activity. From a spring, the water temperature was only 8.9 °C, but after flowing through a completely deforested and heavily grazed valley, the temperature rose about 2 °C per 100 meters up to 19 °C. Nevertheless, this wide temperature range is tolerated by *N. strauchii*, with

Table 1. Mean lengths and weights of adult *N. strauchii* (Adapted from Pasmans et al. 2006). Data were collected in the breeding season. There is no significant difference between the subspecies or males and females between the subspecies (*t*-test).

Subspecies	Sex and number	Mean total length (mm)	Min – max total length (mm)	Snout vent length (mm)	Tail length (mm)	Mean weight (g)
<i>barani</i>	Males ($n = 11$)	143	132-153	72	71	11.2
<i>barani</i>	Females ($n = 25$)	154	134-174	76	78	14.0
<i>strauchii</i>	Males ($n = 10$)	143	131-176	73	68	10.3
<i>strauchii</i>	Females ($n = 17$)	150	129-181	75	75	12.7



Figure 4. Habitat of *N. s. strauchii* near Bitlis. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.

the warmer areas probably only increasing the development rate of larvae and shortening or shifting the aquatic phase in the adults. The streams in which the newts were found by Pasmans et al. (2006) were all slightly alkaline (pH 7-9) and soft to moderately hard, but these values can be strongly influenced by heavy rains or periods of prolonged drought.

Neurergus strauchii has been found overwintering on land, not far from streams (Schmidler and Schmidler 1970). Adults, subadults, and juveniles have also occasionally been found under stones on land in April (Pasmans et al. 2006). As streams probably partly dry, it seems likely that *N. strauchii* spends most of the year on land under stones or underground, protected from high temperatures and arid summer conditions. Breeding animals in streams and pools are found during a relatively short period in spring from April to June (Steinfartz and Schultschik 1997; Bogaerts et al. 2010; Schneider and Schneider 2010).

Protection

Neurergus strauchii is a strictly protected species (Appendix II) by the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats (also known as the Bern Convention), which was ratified by Turkey in 1984. In Resolution No. 6 (1998) of the Standing Committee, *N. strauchii* is listed as a species requiring specific habitat conservation measures. The status of *N. strauchii* in Turkey is not clear, although the IUCN lists them as Vulnerable B1ab (iii) (Papenfuss et al. 2009). Their currently known distribution is much larger than previously

thought, but the fact that they live in a habitat that is sensitive to human influences, and particularly climate change, makes them vulnerable. Habitat changes and destruction including overgrazing, pollution of breeding waters, cutting of trees, appear to currently be the major threats to the species (Bogaerts et al. 2006; Schneider and Schneider 2010).

Materials and methods

Origin of *N. s. strauchii*

The origin of the *N. s. strauchii* being kept by the authors has an interesting history, as it involves extensive co-operation between privates and the *N. s. strauchii* originated from a very small gene pool. Henry Janssen was one of the first people who succeeded in breeding F3 and F4 animals from captive breeding groups started by Fleck (F1) and Haker (F2) originating from Bitlis, near Lake Van, Turkey. These were distributed among other private breeders, including all authors on this article. Gunter Schultschik had several successful breedings (2000, 2001), and in 2003 Gunter bred a large group of offspring many of which were distributed within Europe, with a group being exported to the United States of America. All *N. s. strauchii* we have kept are direct descendants of the first breedings by Fleck. So we conclude that all animals of this subspecies kept by the authors originate from the same very small gene pool and we have bred to at least the F5 generation. Most *N. s. barani* that are in captivity originated from small private importations in 1997 and 1998, and two larger importations in 2002 and 2003.

Housing for adults in captivity

Adults may be housed under a wide variety of conditions. The first main variation in housing is whether they are kept in an aquatic habitat all year or kept terrestrially for part of the year. Although in nature they will probably spend the majority of the year on land away from the breeding waters, some are kept aquatic for most of the year, or permanently.

Different types of tanks are used for housing and relatively small: 30 × 40 cm to 50 × 120 cm. Individual carers use different furnishings for their terrariums. Terrestrial enclosures are often typical naturalistic terrariums with, for instance, a well-drained forest soil or loam and pieces of bark, moss, and plants to create shelter. Gunter Schultschik keeps his animals in a more sterile enclosure, on a five cm layer of synthetic foam, with shelters made out of pieces of bark. In this case, each tank is connected to a water system that drips cold water into the tank slowly, and seeps through the foam, running out again through a drain. This system works well in a warm and dry environment, but not in a relatively cold moist cellar or basement. When kept terrestrially, in a naturalistic enclosure, a water bowl is always present, and a gradation of humidity is offered so animals can choose from slightly humid to dry parts of the habitat.

When kept all year round in an aquarium or aquaterrarium, all carers provide the newts with an opportunity to climb to a dry area, which usually consists of stone plates that are above the water level (Fig. 5). These stones are often covered with cork bark or sometimes moss for hiding opportunities. The newts usually

don't remain in the dry region for long periods, only for a few hours or occasionally for a few days, except when temperatures rise above 20-22 °C, then they escape the water. Henry Janssen notes that in colder periods, with temperatures below 10 °C, the newts spend most of their time on land. Temperatures can drop in winter to close to zero and in summer can rise up to 30 °C. Animals that are kept aquatic during summer will typically stay in the water until the temperature of the water exceeds 20-22 °C. Incidental high temperatures of up to 30 °C do not directly harm the newts, as long as the newts are healthy and can stay on land.

For lighting, natural light or fluorescent lamps are used. Temperatures in the tanks usually follow the season in order to mimic the animals' natural environment (Table 2). *Neurergus strauchii* are very good at escape and will soon notice any chance to escape and take it. Therefore, it is necessary to cover the aquarium or terrarium with a secure, well-ventilated cover.

Temperature cycling

A cold period occurs in nature from autumn to spring, in the snow covered mountain areas where these newts live. In captivity, this cold period is simulated using different methods as part of the natural reproductive cycle. Half of the current authors hibernate their animals in a refrigerator, approximately from mid-December to the end of February, at temperatures from 2 to 5 °C or at a constant 4.5 °C. Newts are kept in small boxes with wet paper towel(s) and bark with the sexes separated. The other half of the current authors keep newts under a regional temperature cycle at temperatures varying between 0-10



Figure 5. Aquarium constructed for *N. s. strauchii*. Photo by Jennifer Macke.

Table 2. Mean temperature ranges in the adult environment through the seasons and aquatic (a), aqua-terrestrial (a-t) or terrestrial (t) set up of the tank.

Keeper	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
Steinfartz (1995)	14 °C (a)	Up to 23 °C (a)	10-14 °C (t)	10-14 °C (t)
Henry Janssen	10-17 °C (a)	up to 25 °C (a-t)	10-17 °C (a-t)	7-13 °C (a-t)
Jennifer Macke	16-17 °C (a)	18-22 °C (a)	16-17 °C (a)	2-12 °C (a)
Gunter Schultschik	16-17 °C (a)	up to 30 °C (t)	16 (t)	4.5 °C (t)
Kristina Ernst	12-18 °C (a)	18-27 °C (t)	8-18 °C (t) and more humidity	2-5 °C (t and a)
François Maillet	12-14 °C (a)	17-20 °C (a)	12-16 °C (a)	6-10 °C (t)
Christoph Bork	12-16 °C (a)	17-21 °C (a), max. 25	16-19 °C (a)	< 10 °C (t, for 2 months)
Sergé Bogaerts	12-16 °C (a)	Up to 30 °C (a-t)	15-20 °C (t)	5-10 °C in a refrigerator (t)
Patrick Wisniewski	10-15 °C (a)	15-25 °C (a)	15-20 °C (t)	10-15 °C (t)

°C in garages, basements, or garden sheds for one to three months. Fleck (1982), Haker (1986), and Steinfartz (1995) all kept these newts in an unheated room where temperatures could drop as well. This is either done in terrestrial or aquatic conditions, and both sexes are usually kept together. Newts can be transferred into another tank or stay in the same tank. Newts are mostly not fed during the cold period; only Jennifer Macke feeds them twice per week throughout the cold period and finds that they eat well, and are active even when their temperature is as low as 2 °C.

Diet and nutrition

Adult newts eat many types of living and non-living food. On land we offer them a wide variety of insects, including young crickets (*Acheata domesticus* or *Gryllus* sp.), mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*), fungus beetle larvae (*Alphitobius laevigatus*), and larvae of wax moths; both the lesser (*Achroia grisella*) and greater (*Galleria mellonella*). We also feed earthworms (*Lumbricus* sp.), maggots, firebrats/silverfish (*Thermobia* sp.), and slugs. In water they are fed earthworms, black worms (*Lumbriculus variegatus*), *Tubifex* sp., bloodworms (*Chironimus* sp.), *Daphnia* sp., *Gammarus* sp., *Hyaella azteca*, white worms (*Enchytraeus albidus*), woodlice (*Asellus* sp.), etc. Amphibian eggs and larvae (*Rana* sp.) are eaten. Henry Janssen also saw them eat small fish (Guppies, *Poecilia reticulata*) at night when the guppies were sleeping. Non-living prey is accepted. Fleck (1982) fed them slices of liver, and Christoph Bork fed them, with tweezers, octopus that was cut into small worm-like strips.

Kristina Ernst reports that keeping females on land makes it easier to give high calorie food like wax worms, which seems to yield more eggs the next breeding period. Henry Janssen has noted that, with equal amounts of food offered, juveniles grow faster and adults gain more volume at lower temperatures (10-17 °C) than at higher temperatures (18-25 °C). *Neurergus strauchii* is not as voracious a feeder as, for instance, newts of the genus *Triturus*. *Neurergus strauchii* may be rather slow to catch

prey. *Neurergus s. barani* seem to be more greedy for food and eat everything in greater portions, compared to *N. s. strauchii* in our experience; it is one of the few significant differences between keeping *N. s. strauchii* and *N. s. barani*. We find that feeding plenty of (high calorie) food during the breeding period is essential for females to produce many eggs.

Food items offered on land are typically dusted with a calcium vitamin powder. We have used, for example, Korvimin ZVT, Amivit A, Nutrobal Vitamin/Mineral powder, and ZooMed Calcium. Gut loading crickets with calcium rich plants, like dandelion, or nettles will enrich their food quality. Feeding crickets at temperatures below 10 °C is difficult as most crickets die. Individual newts can have very different preferences for food items.

Results

Breeding

For breeding purposes, the newts are placed into an aquarium. The tanks are furnished in various ways. Most of us use a layer of gravel on the tank floor, and various types of stones are placed on top of each other to provide places for hiding and egg deposition. Jennifer Macke uses turned over non-glazed ceramic flower pots with a cut out entrance, used by the females to deposit their eggs, which can easily be taken out with the eggs and replaced. Some of us have used no substrate or just a few flat stone plates, covering only part of the tank bottom. Tables 3 and 4 report the periods, temperatures, and other characteristics of the various breeding tanks.

Development of enlarged cloacas and the whitish-blue colorations on tails of males can already be observed in autumn. The smallest male in captivity bred measured 11.5 cm total length (TL) and 6.2 cm snout-vent length (SVL); the smallest female measured 12.8 cm TL and 6.5 cm SVL. Thus, animals start breeding at total lengths of around 12 cm TL. Breeding occurs within a water temperature range of 9-17 °C (mean 10-14 °C) and this seems to be independent of the time of the year (Table

Table 3. Aquarium conditions when breeding started. Included are only those years in which fertile eggs were deposited.

Keeper	Subspecies	Year	Starting	Temperature start breeding (°C)	Water level (cm)	Water circulation and/or air pump
Fleck (1982)	<i>strauchii</i>	1981	March	12	10	yes
Steinfartz (1995)	<i>barani</i>	1993-1994	Feb-March	14	25	yes
Jennifer Macke	<i>strauchii</i>	2005-2009 2011-2012	Dec-Jan	9-12	20	yes
Gunter Schultschik	<i>strauchii</i> & <i>barani</i>	2003-2004	Jan-Feb	16-17	28	yes
Kristina Ernst	<i>strauchii</i> & <i>barani</i>	2004	May	14	11-12	yes
		2005	May	14		
		2011	April	14		
		2012	Feb	10-12		
François Maillet	<i>barani</i>	2005	March-April	12-14	12/15	yes and air pump
Christoph Bork	<i>strauchii</i> & <i>barani</i>	2001	Feb	13-15	24-28	yes
		2003				
		2005				
Patrick Wisniewski	<i>strauchii</i>	1996 1997	Feb-March	10-12	15	strong air pump only
Sergé Bogaerts	<i>strauchii</i>	2006	Feb	12-14	8	yes

3). Newts were bred in winter, early spring or even to the end of spring. The water level does not seem to be important. As these newts are stream dwellers, most of us have simulated this by using water circulation, sometimes with the addition of an air pump.

Breeding starts with male activity, typically at water temperatures of 10 °C. Males and females can be put in the water at the same time, but some of us prefer to introduce females to the water a few days or weeks later. After entering the water, males have been observed to start performing courtship the same evening. Within the courtship period, it is best to try and keep water temperatures below 14 °C. At 14 °C females start oviposition (Table 4 and Fig. 6).

Figure 6 shows oviposition in three of the most successful breeding years, in relation to the water temperature. Oviposition may take place during both day and night and may continue until water temperatures reach about 20 °C. Eggs are laid very irregularly in time and number, and oviposition may depend on the condition of the female, particularly her nutritional condition through diet. Occasional egg laying (one per day or less) can continue for up to two months after the main period of oviposition.

Henry Janssen measured the water temperatures at which oviposition took place for 1,225 eggs from different breedings over the years 1991-1997. He also noted which of these eggs hatched. Of all eggs, only six (0.48%) were laid at water temperatures below 14 °C. Most eggs (77.3%) were deposited at temperatures of 15-19 °C. Above 20 °C, production of eggs rapidly decreases. Figure 1 shows a dip at 16-17 °C, but we think this is an artifact of the combination of data from different years. Another finding of Henry Janssen is that of all eggs that were deposited, the ones laid between 14-16 °C had the best hatching rate (62.4% between 14-15 °C and

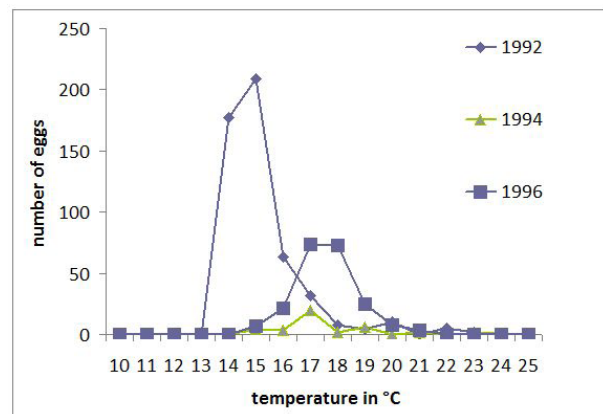


Figure 6. Oviposition ($n = 760$ eggs) in three successful breeding years in relation to water temperature. Data by Henry Janssen.

28.5% between 15-16 °C). There are several possible interpretations for these data. First, it may be related to the fecundity of the females; the first eggs laid are often of a higher quality than later eggs. Second, it could be related to the fertility of the males, which seem to be more active at lower temperatures. Jennifer Macke has also noted that egg fertility consistently decreases over time during the egg laying period (data not shown). Henry Janssen noted from the 1995 breeding season that when he separated females from males, after he discovered that males were eating some of the first eggs, most eggs laid afterwards were not fertilized. This seems to indicate that regular uptakes of spermatophores by the female, during the breeding period, are necessary for her to continue producing fertile eggs.

Table 4 records the aquarium conditions when females started oviposition—the number of eggs per female, and the percent of hatched eggs. As can be seen, large variations were found in number of eggs per female

Table 4. Conditions in the aquarium when females started oviposition, number of eggs per female (~ when more females are kept together), time to metamorphosis, and percent hatched. - No data available. # Average over the whole oviposition period. *Ten of these are 14 months old but still have not completed metamorphosis; they show no differences in length compared with their siblings.

Keeper	Subspecies	Year	Starting	T °C	Number of eggs per female	Time to metamorphosis (months)	Hatched
Fleck (1982)	<i>strauchii</i>	1981	April	17	~ 75	4.5	-
Haker (1986)	<i>strauchii</i>	1985	June	16	-	3	-
Steinfartz (1995)	<i>barani</i>	-	-	-	80-90	-	-
Jennifer Macke	<i>strauchii</i>	2005	Feb 16	14	152	-	~50%
		2006	Feb 19	13	150	-	~50%
		2007	Feb 27	-	104	-	-
		2008	March 4	-	246	-	-
		2009	Feb 27	-	285	-	-
		2011	Feb 26	-	238	-	mean 41% #
		2012	March 8	-	195	-	mean 78% #
Gunter Schultschik	<i>strauchii</i>	2004	May	14	11-12	yes	
		2005	May	14			
		2011	April	14			
		2012	Feb	10-12			
Kristina Ernst	<i>barani</i>	2004	June	16	~ 200	5-8	~ 50%
	<i>barani</i>	2005	May	20-21	~ 100	4-7	~ 25%
	<i>strauchii</i>	2005	May	17-19	~ 150	4-7	98%
	<i>barani</i>	2006	May	16	~ 250	-	~ 75%
	<i>strauchii</i>	2006	May	17	~ 200	-	97%
	<i>strauchii</i>	2011	April	15	~ 150	4-7*	88%
	<i>strauchii</i>	2012	March	15	~ 100	-	80%
	<i>barani</i>	2012	April	15	~ 100	-	90%
Christoph Bork	<i>strauchii</i> & <i>barani</i>	2001					
		2003	March	14-16	-	~ 4	No counts, but never 100%
		2005					
Henry Janssen	<i>strauchii</i>	1992	Mar-April	14-17	129	4-8	45%
	<i>strauchii</i>	1995	April-May	16-19	~ 120	4-8	10%
	<i>strauchii</i>	1996	April	16-17	~ 85	4-8	25%
Patrick Wisniewski	<i>strauchii</i>	1996	March	10-15	47	5-6	45%
	<i>strauchii</i>	1997	February	10-15	17	5-6	50%
Sergé Bogaerts	<i>strauchii</i>	2006	March	14-16	~ 40	5-10	70%

and hatching rates. However, the temperature conditions in which oviposition occurred were roughly the same for all of us, for both subspecies.

Eggs

Eggs are mostly attached to the underside of stones (Fig. 7), but they can be laid almost anywhere, including on the filter, aquarium walls, and plants (Fig. 8), or specially prepared flower pots. Eggs may be found loose on the bottom of the tank, but this mainly occurs when there is too little space on the favorable places and, or eggs are not well attached. During oviposition the female lies on her back, often sandwiched between two layers of flat rock, depositing eggs on the underside of the upper rock. It is important that the habitat has enough space between the stone plates for the females to move around. Henry Janssen noted that out of a total of 560 eggs, 237 were deposited on the glass, 199 on stones, 83 loose on the substrate, 37 on plants, three on the filter system, and one was stuck to the hind leg of a female. No negative effects

from exposure of developing eggs to indirect sunlight or artificial light could be observed when compared to eggs that developed under darker conditions.

In general, eggs were removed from the breeding tank, as the adults sometimes eat the eggs. Eggs were typically removed every few days. Some of us moved the eggs together with the stones they were attached to, others cut the eggs gently loose from the rocks with a razor blade or fingernail. There was no difference observed in the development of eggs that were cut loose versus eggs that were left on the stones they were laid upon.

Water parameters of the tank, where the eggs are put to hatch, do not seem to matter. Even an air stone is not really necessary for the development of the eggs. If the water is refreshed once a week this seems to be enough. It is, however, also possible to leave the eggs in the tank until they hatch, which some of us prefer.

In all our breedings, no clutch of eggs was 100% fertile. Unfertilized eggs and eggs that have died off, shrink in size and start decaying, resulting in the clear layers around the zygote becoming cloudy, starting with



Figure 7. Female *N. s. strauchii* depositing eggs. Photo by Christoph Bork.

the innermost layer and continuing outwards, followed by mould—growth on the outer surface (observations Henry Janssen; Fig. 9). It seems that a developing egg, attached to a moulding egg, can be infected with fungus too. Therefore, it is best to separate moulding eggs from developing eggs. Eggs can be eaten by the usual predators like snails and flat worms (*Planaria* sp.). Hatching success of eggs can vary enormously (Table 4). Jennifer Macke noted that in 2005 about 50% of eggs were fertile, and 10% began to develop but died as embryos. In 2006 about 80% were fertile and about 10% began to develop but died as embryos. Malformations seem to occur in all breedings. Kristina Ernst states that through feeding the females more often, more eggs are produced and in shorter periods. She observed up to about 15 eggs per day per female.

In 2005 Jennifer Macke had eggs laid from February until the beginning of March. After that animals were transferred to another location and they continued to lay eggs (about one a day), but all eggs produced in April and May were infertile. In 2009 Jennifer counted a total of 570 eggs from two females during the entire egg laying period (February-June). Henry Janssen measured the hatching success of all eggs deposited between 1991 and 1997, each year breeding occurred. Of the total of 1,413 eggs, 348 hatched (24, 62%).

Gunther Schultschik noted the exact water parameters in his rearing tanks. Larvae were raised at a water temperature of 16-19 °C, with no measurable organic ions in the water (NH₃, NO₂, NO₃), maximum of oxygen, minimum of CO₂. Water was treated by UV lamp. PH was 7.2 to 7.5. François Maillet maintains a pH of 7-8 and changed part of the water often to avoid nitrate development.

Henry Janssen measured the length at hatching for 283 specimens (Figure 10). About 45% of the measured larvae were between 12 to 14 mm at hatching. Fig. 11 shows a hatching larvae.

Henry Janssen measured the relationship between days of incubation and total length at hatching for 249 larvae. The shortest time to hatch was 15 days and the longest was 34 days. About 57.4% of all larvae hatch between 26 and 31 days after deposition. Consistent with this, Jennifer Macke found that from the time the first eggs were laid until the first larva hatched, exactly 30 days elapsed when the eggs were maintained at 16-17 °C.

The total length of the larvae becomes larger when hatching is delayed. Thus, the moment of hatching is not a fixed point in time. Moving the egg, for instance, can cause the larva to leave the egg shortly thereafter, whereas it would have stayed in place if the egg had been left undisturbed.

Larval rearing

All authors raised their larvae in more or less the same way, and all agreed it was not very difficult or problematic. For the first few days after hatching, the larvae live on their yolk. No food was added at this time, and some

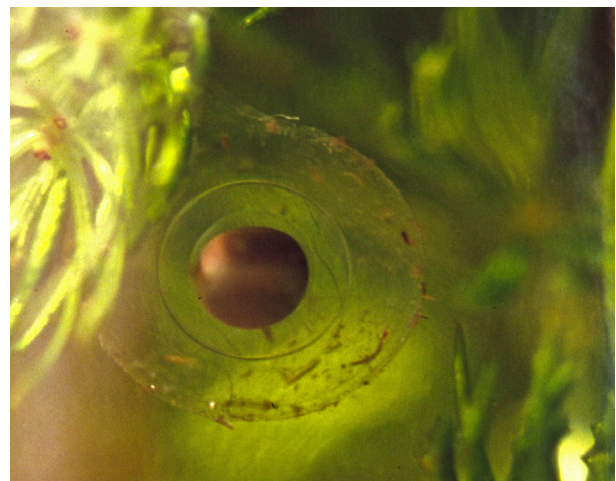


Figure 8. Fresh laid *N. s. strauchii* egg. Photo by Henry Janssen.

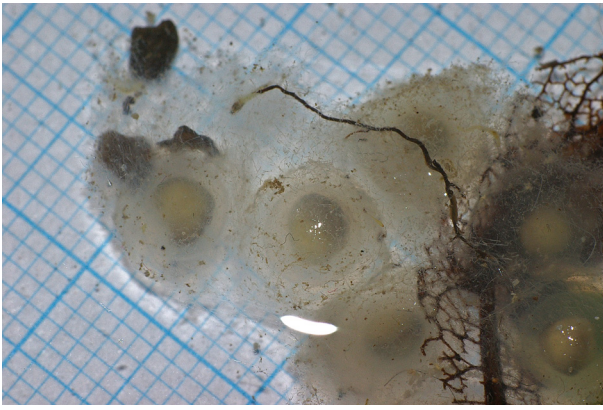


Figure 9. Moulding unfertilized eggs of *N. s. strauchii* on mm paper Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.

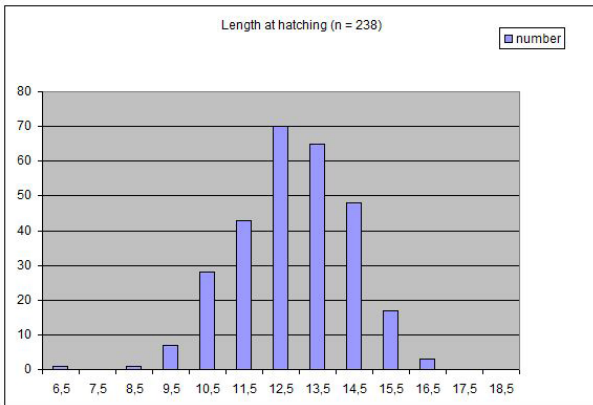


Figure 10. Total length of larvae at hatching in mm. Data by *Henry Janssen*, *n* = 283.

authors noted that micro-organisms, particularly water mites (*Hydracarina* sp.) and *Cyclops* sp. attacked newly-hatched larvae. After a few days the larvae begin to eat live food. Larvae are kept in tanks or tubs containing

three to 20 cm of water, an air stone, and some pebbles and pots as hiding places. Aquatic plants are sometimes included. Larvae are fed first with *Artemia* (only the first one or two weeks), small live *Daphnia* sp., *Tubifex/Lumbriculus* (initially chopped, later whole), red mosquito larvae/bloodworms (*Chironimus* sp.), and white worms (*Enchytraeus albidus*). Gunter Schultschik gave *Artemia* until the larvae were 20 mm. When feeding *Daphnia*, care must be taken to avoid feeding other less harmless aquatic fauna. Water temperatures can range from 10 to 20 °C. Even if the temperature of the water rises up to 30 °C accidentally, it is not a serious problem, although larvae stop eating and become less active.

The larvae are not as aggressive toward each other as, for instance, *Triturus* larvae, but care must be taken to avoid overcrowding. Kristina Ernst noted cannibalistic behavior until the larvae were 1.5-2.0 cm, at which point the behavior disappeared. Several of us have never observed cannibalism and even kept larvae of different sizes together without a problem. Most of us have kept the larvae in small groups (15-30 larvae) in, for instance, plastic containers of various sizes with aquatic vegetation and shelters, like pieces of ceramic garden pots, as these salamanders hide during the day. Water is refreshed every week, or as often as required to avoid poor water quality.

In some cases, malformed larvae hatch. These larvae spin around when trying to swim, or are swollen. These larvae often lag far behind their siblings in growth, and euthanasia is the best option. Larvae of a few centimeters in size develop gold colored, shiny spots and dots that seem similar to the lateral line sense organs in fish used to detect movement and vibration in surrounding water (Fig. 12), which stay visible until metamorphosis (Fig. 13). After about three to four months the larvae de-

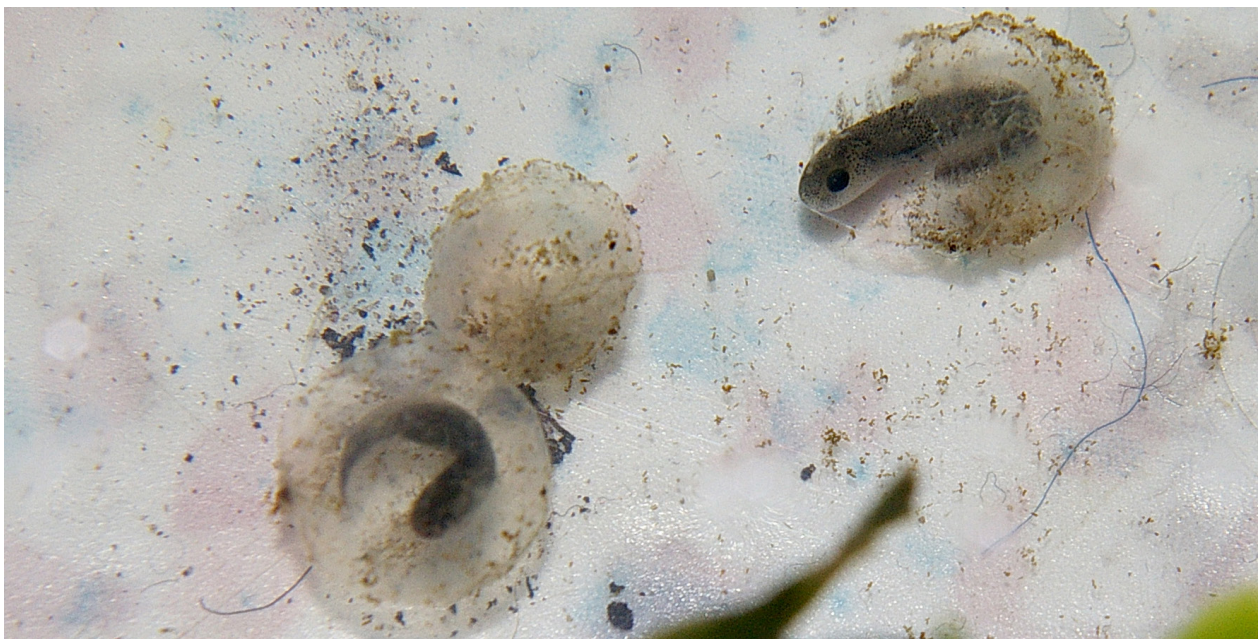


Figure 11. Hatching larvae of *N. s. strauchii*. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.



Figure 12. Larva of *N. s. strauchii* few weeks old, the lateral line sense system visible in stripes on lateral sides and tail and in spots behind the eye. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.

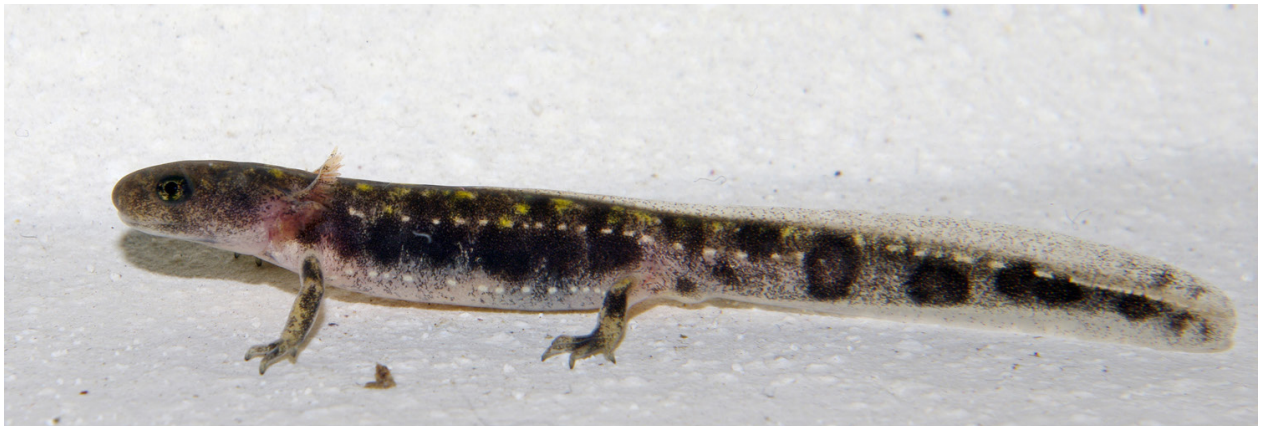


Figure 13. Larva of *N. s. strauchii* of approximately four months old. Photo by *Sergé Bogaerts*.

velop yellow spots and later become darker and darker developing their juvenile black pattern (Figs. 14, 15). Another one to three months may elapse before the gills are completely gone. Mortality of larvae is very low. Larvae become lighter in color at night. Depending on the water temperature and the amount of food, larvae metamorphosed in three to seven months, with a mean period of about five months (Table 4).

The first shedding takes place at around the time of metamorphosis, sometimes just before emergence from the water. They leave the water mostly at night and search for a hiding place, and if not provided, they try to hide again in the water. The first few weeks after metamorphosis, the juveniles can be kept in an aqua-terrarium with different hiding places from wet to dry, from which

they can choose. Metamorphosis in this newt seems to be very gradual, such that juveniles continue to shift from water to land during a period of several weeks.

After metamorphosis the juveniles resemble their parents, although they have significantly fewer yellow spots, and spots are confined to two rows along their backs. The bellies are not completely black and show light-colored parts. The orange-red stripe on the belly is rose-orange and not as brilliant as in the adults. We are positive color intensity in captive-raised adults depends on the amount of carotenoid-rich food animals eat, like in the Japanese fire belly newt, *Cynops pyrrhogaster* (see Matsui et al. 2003).

Henry Janssen measured the total length of 108 specimens at the moment of metamorphosis (Figure 16). The

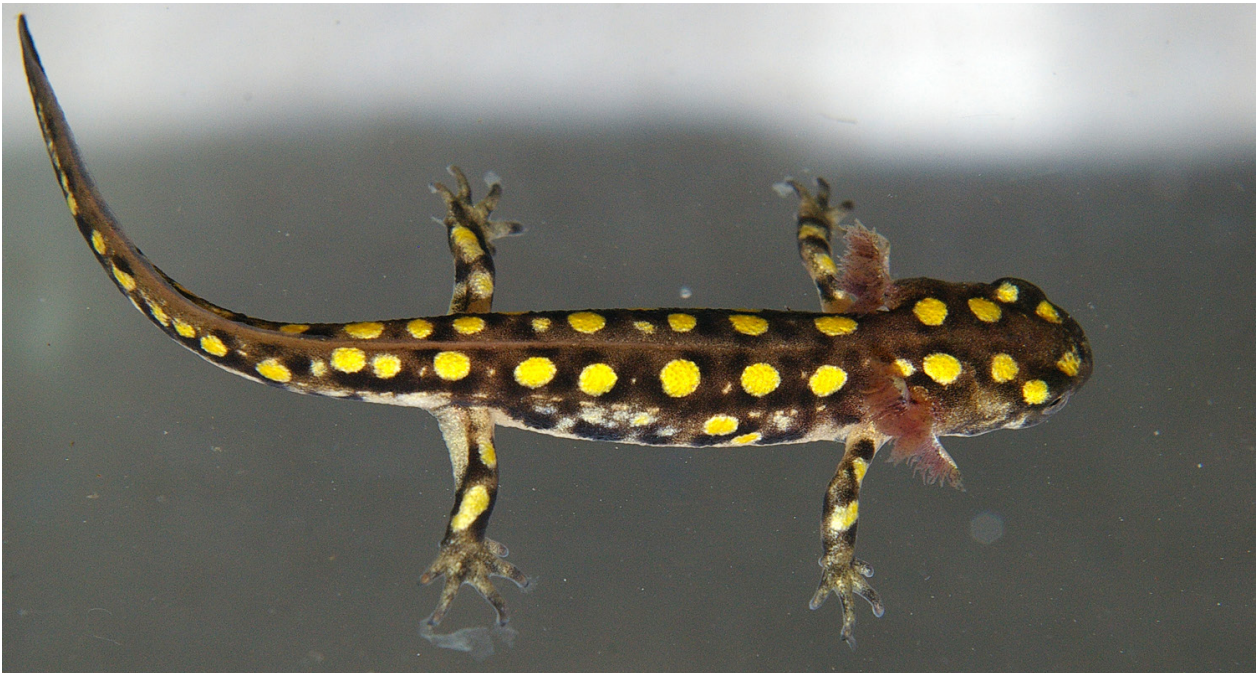


Figure 14. Larva of *N. s. strauchii* change its coloration to juvenile pattern. *Photo by Sergé Bogaerts.*



Figure 15. Larva of *N. s. strauchii* just before metamorphosis. *Photo by Sergé Bogaerts.*

data include only larvae that metamorphosed within the year eggs were laid. Metamorphosed *N. s. strauchii* weigh about 0.60 g ($n = 11$, with mean total length of 55 mm; data Sergé Bogaerts) which corresponds to Schultschik (data not shown) who gives 0.67 g for metamorphosed *N. s. strauchii*.

Henry Janssen measured the rate of metamorphosis of all eggs deposited between 1991 and 1997 in which breeding occurred each year. Of the total of 1,413 eggs, only 138 specimens reached metamorphosis (9.8%) (see Table 5).

Metamorphosis was considered as the moment the gills disappear, the black and yellow coloration are visible, and juvenile newt(s) come onto land for the first time. However, this is not a fixed moment. They can stay in a semi-aquatic stage for a while, with very short gills and full black and yellow coloration. The data of Henry Janssen show that there is a wide range of lengths at which metamorphosis can take place (Fig. 16). All of the

measurements taken by other breeders have fallen within these ranges (Table 6).

“Overwintering” larvae

In both *N. s. strauchii* and *N. s. barani*, overwintering larvae are observed. Larvae that hatch later in the season, or stay behind in development, will remain larvae during the winter and metamorphose the next year. Fleck (1982) and Haker (1986) describe *N. s. strauchii* still found in larval form in January. Pasmans et al. (2006) describe this phenomenon for *N. s. barani*. During a field visit in May 2006, special attention was paid to this phenomenon at the type locality of *N. s. barani*, and many larvae that hatched in 2005 could be observed (S. Bogaerts, pers. obs.). The larvae keep their gills and fins, but develop characteristics of the juvenile coloration: black background color and yellow spots. Overwintering larvae seem to grow a bit larger than their siblings that

Table 5. Survival rate from egg laying until metamorphosis over seven years of breeding. *Data by Henry Janssen.*

Year	Number of eggs	Hatched eggs	Metamorphosed	Success rate per year (%)
1991	40	0	0	0
1992	514	229	48	9.3
1993	85	30	24	28.2
1994	39	2	2	5.1
1995	476	43	30	6.3
1996	171	43	34	19.8
1997	88	1	0	0

Table 6. Lengths of larvae at metamorphosis.

Keeper	Subspecies	Length (mm)	Remarks
Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1970	<i>strauchii</i>	54-61	
Fleck 1982	<i>strauchii</i>	54-55	
Steinfartz 1995	<i>barani</i>	56	
Henry Janssen	<i>strauchii</i>	47-75	
Gunter Schultschik	<i>strauchii</i>	45-50	
Kristina Ernst	<i>barani & strauchii</i>	40-60	
Jennifer Macke	<i>strauchii</i>	60-65	Still with gills
François Maillet	<i>barani</i>	55-60	

completed metamorphosis the previous year (up to 75, 25 mm; data Henry Janssen).

Raising juveniles

Fleck (1982) writes that raising juveniles is not problematic, as they easily switch between aquatic and terrestrial living, and can be kept and raised in an aqua-terrarium. Most of us raise the juveniles terrestrially. This method of rearing is most like their natural conditions, where juveniles live terrestrially until reaching reproductive age. A small terrarium (50 × 20 × 15 cm) is often used, with a leaf litter soil (typically from beech or oak forest), or a mixture of substrates (soil, coconut fibre, etc.) and some pieces of bark, which the newts use as shelter. A more sterile option with moist paper towel(s) and some pieces of bark also works well, but needs cleaning at least once a week. The juveniles are fed at a minimum of once a week, or usually more (further details above under the “Diet and nutrition” section on page 14). Tanks should provide a range of dry and moist places (Fig. 17). Frank Pasmans raised juveniles on wet Kleenex kitchen towel paper, with pieces of ceramic roof tiles piled up, creating gradients from moist to dry.

Foods are prepared similar as for the adults and are typically small crickets, small wax worms, slugs, fruit flies (*Drosophila* sp.), woodlice (*Asellus* sp.), firebrats/silverfishes (*Thermobia* sp.), etc. Further, bloodworm (*Chironimus* sp.), *Tubifex* sp., or chopped earthworms and blackworms can be fed from a small bowl or on a wet paper towel. They can be kept in the same temperature ranges as adults. Our captive bred animals have reached at least the age of 12 years.

Jennifer Macke tested the difference between terrestrial and aquatic raising of juveniles. In March 2004, four of the juveniles obtained in October 2003 were adapted to water at a size of about 7-8 cm total length. This was accomplished by placing them, one at a time, into an 18-liter (five gallon) tank containing two cm (one inch) of water, a thick layer of aquatic plants, and an ample supply of live blackworms (*Lumbriculus variegatus*), and chopped earthworms. Each animal adapted to hiding beneath the plants within one day. Once adapted to water, they were moved to a larger tank (60 × 30 × 30 cm) containing 25 cm of water, large river rocks, clay pots, and a mini canister filter providing a bit of current. Local tap water comes from ground water that is alkaline and moderately hard (GH 70 ppm, KH 90 ppm, pH 8). Both the aquatic and terrestrial animals appeared healthy and grew well. Feeding regimens were, of necessity, dif-

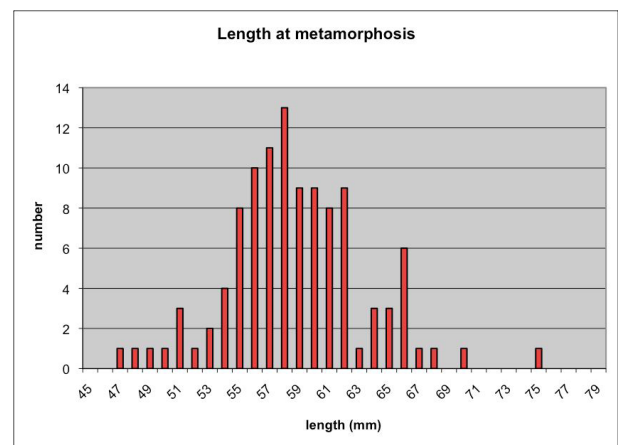


Figure 16. Length at metamorphosis ($n = 108$; data by Henry Janssen).



Figure 17. Set up for raising juvenile *N. s. strauchii*. Photo by Jennifer Macke.

ferent for the two groups. The terrestrial group was fed as described above, including live blackworms *ad libitum*. The aquatic group was hand fed almost every day with chopped earthworms and occasional fly larvae or crickets. They were also given some live blackworms during the first months. However, when a large population of leeches was discovered in the tank (and one leech was observed briefly attached to one of the newts), no more blackworms were given. By August 2004, the typical size of the terrestrial animals was 10 cm, while the aquatic animals were approximately 12 cm and more heavily spotted. The aquatic group mated and bred the following winter, while the terrestrial animals showed no sign of breeding readiness. By August 2005, the aquatic animals were all 12-13 cm, while the terrestrial group had reached 11-12 cm, and males of both groups had enlarged cloacas and some white highlights on the tail. Thus, it can take just two years between egg and breeding adult (at least for males). In our experience, females need one year more to become adult, and when raised more slowly (given less food), they take three to four years to mature.

Gold dust variety

Haker (1986) first bred some aberrant color morphs, known as the “gold dust” variety—originated because of their appearance of being sprinkled with gold dust and a

black line along the dorsal side (Fig. 18). This form occasionally still occurs in breedings directly derived from Haker through Henry Janssen. The number of individuals is very low, noted Patrick Wisniewski. In the first breeding of 35 metamorphs, two were “gold dust,” and in the second batch of nine metamorphs, only one. This form has not appeared since the breedings of Henry Janssen, in any of the other breeding groups, that are involved in this article.

Diseases

Very little is known regarding diseases occurring in newts of the genus *Neurergus*. As in most urodelans, inadequate husbandry (including poor water quality) and/or nutrition are probably the most important predisposing factors for disease. More specifically, for *Neurergus*, most disease cases appear to occur during summer months, suggesting this species to be sensitive to higher temperatures (>20 °C). A six week quarantine period is recommended when having first obtained animal(s). During this period, the newly acquired animal should be assessed by a qualified veterinarian for the presence of infectious and non-infectious diseases. We strongly recommend every newly acquired animal to be tested for the presence of ranaviruses and *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*. The presence of both agents can be assessed by detection of their respective DNA in skin swabs (less sensitive for the detection



Figure 18. Adult of *N. s. strauchii* of “Gold-dust” form. Photo by Henry Janssen.



Figure 19. Metabolic bone disease in an adult female *N. s. strauchii*. Note the malformation of the lower jaw. Photo by Frank Pasmans.

of ranaviruses) or tail clips. Trade derived animals have indeed been identified as important carriers of both infectious agents and may spread diseases to native amphibian populations. Both diseases have been listed by the Office International des Epizooties or World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE) as notifiable diseases since 2008. The following disorders have been diagnosed in *Neurergus* (in part by F. Pasmans, pers. observ.):

1) Metabolic bone disease (MBD, Fig. 19). MBD comprises a number of metabolic disorders affecting skeletal calcification. In urodelans, most cases of MBD can probably be attributed to relative lack of calcium and/or vitamin D in the feed, and would thus be more appropriately named, nutritional secondary hyperparathyroidism. Clinical signs are most obvious in young, terrestrial specimens, and include backbone and head malformations (e.g., shortening of the lower jaw), and abnormal movements. MBD can be prevented by supplying feed items (e.g., crickets) with extra calcium through the insect diet (“gut loading”) and topically applying calcium containing powder on the feed insects. However, this is only applicable for juveniles raised on land and for terrestrial adults. Feeding calcium supplementation for

aquatic newts is much more difficult to achieve and may in part be met by providing calcium supplemented pellet feed (e.g., turtle pellets, if accepted by the newt).

2) Ranaviriosis. Recently, ranaviriosis has been described in *N. crocatus*, imported from Iraq (Stöhr et al., in prep.). Clinical signs of this viral disease include reddening of the skin (erythema), skin ulceration, edema, anorexia, and death. The course of a *Ranavirus* infection may vary from subclinical (without clinical signs) to mass mortality. This virus is one of two known infectious threats to amphibian biodiversity worldwide. Prevention consists of quarantine measures of newly acquired animals and preferably testing of a tail clip or skin swab for the presence of the viral DNA. It is of utmost importance to prevent any contact of *Ranavirus*-infected newts or their environment (e.g., aquarium water) with the environment, to prevent spread of the virus to native amphibian populations. Ranaviriosis cannot be treated.

3) Chytridiomycosis. This fungal disease is caused by *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* and is considered the most important infectious driver of worldwide amphibian declines. For this reason, it is of utmost importance that (as for ranaviriosis), captive populations of *Neurergus* are negative for the fungus. It is at present not clear whether this fungus causes clinical problems in newts of the genus *Neurergus*. In other amphibians, the course of a *B. dendrobatidis* infection may vary from asymptomatic to apathy, skin disorders, and death. Recently, *B. dendrobatidis* infection was demonstrated in *N. kaiseri* (Spitzen van der Sluijs et al. 2011) but no clinical signs of disease were noticed. As a preventative measure, all newly acquired *Neurergus* should be tested for the presence of the fungus using a skin swab. If positive, infected animals and their captive environment should be treated appropriately. *Neurergus kaiseri* was treated successfully using voriconazole (F. Pasmans, pers. observ.; Martel et al. 2011). As for ranaviruses, all contact of *B. dendrobatidis* infected animals and their captive environment with the outside environment should be strictly prevented.



Figure 20. Ascites (“bloating”) in an adult female *N. s. strauchii* with a severe enteritis, associated with high numbers of flagellates. Photo by Frank Pasmans.

4) Chlamydiosis. For more than a decade, enigmatic mortality in captive *N. crocatus* and *N. strauchii* newts was observed by several breeders. This mortality even impaired the establishment of successful breeding programs in for example *N. crocatus*. In the nineties of the past century, entire captive breeding groups of this newt were lost. Keepers reported non healing wounds on the tail. Recently, the cause for this mortality was suggested to be a bacterium: *Candidatus Amphibiichlamydia salamandrae* (Martel et al. 2012). The disease presents as anorexia, lethargy, edema, markedly abnormal gait, and death. Secondary bacterial or mycotic infections (e.g., with *Aeromonas* sp. or *Mucor* sp.) appear to be common. Urodelans can be very probably latent carriers of *Chlamydia* bacteria, with possible reactivation of the infection during stress periods. Indeed, *Chlamydia* infections are probably widely spread in urodelan collections and clinical signs are possibly provoked by suboptimal conditions, for example, elevated temperatures during summer months. Until now, clinically infected animals invariably die but therapy may consist of the use of, for example, tetracyclines to cure the infection. Preventative measures consist solely of quarantine measures and optimal husbandry (including temperatures <20 °C).

5) Intestinal parasitosis (Fig. 20). As in all amphibians, intestinal parasitosis may occur in *Neurergus* newts and appears to be mostly provoked by suboptimal husbandry. Several cases of severe enteritis, coinciding with very high numbers of flagellate protozoa were diagnosed in *N. strauchii* and *N. crocatus*. Clinical signs were anorexia, loss of condition to cachexia, and in some cases ascites (bloating). Treatment using metronidazole and optimizing husbandry was successful in cases with an early diagnosis.

Conclusions

In addition to their beauty, *N. strauchii* are interesting newts in captivity. Although our data are still scattered and incomplete, the results of this project presents good indications for long-term captive maintenance and gives direction for further studies especially, when our experiences differ, or have revealed new topics to study.

Our main goal in keeping this newt has been its successful breeding. We vary in our opinions about the importance of a terrestrial period as part of the yearly breeding cycle. Although, it is in their natural cycle to have a terrestrial period both Fleck (1982) and Steinfartz (1995) write that a terrestrial phase is necessary to initiate breeding. Fleck kept his animals from 1975 to 1979 in an aquatic enclosure, but males and females were not synchronized in their breeding behavior. He gave three animals a terrestrial phase in 1980 and then both sexes got into breeding condition at the same time. However, Jennifer Macke has bred the same group of animals for eight years without any terrestrial periods, while most of us experienced that animals were less willing to breed when they were not given a terrestrial period.

Thus, if keeping adults aquatic or not, the whole year round is not of major importance in breeding these animals, we show that a dramatic change in temperature, often combined with an abrupt shift from land to water is probably more important. Steinfartz (1995) reported that in his opinion it is not a low temperature in winter that is necessary for successful breeding, but a strong temperature difference between summer and winter period. However, our findings indicate a strong correlation between specific temperatures and the specific phases of reproduction. A period with temperatures below 10 °C

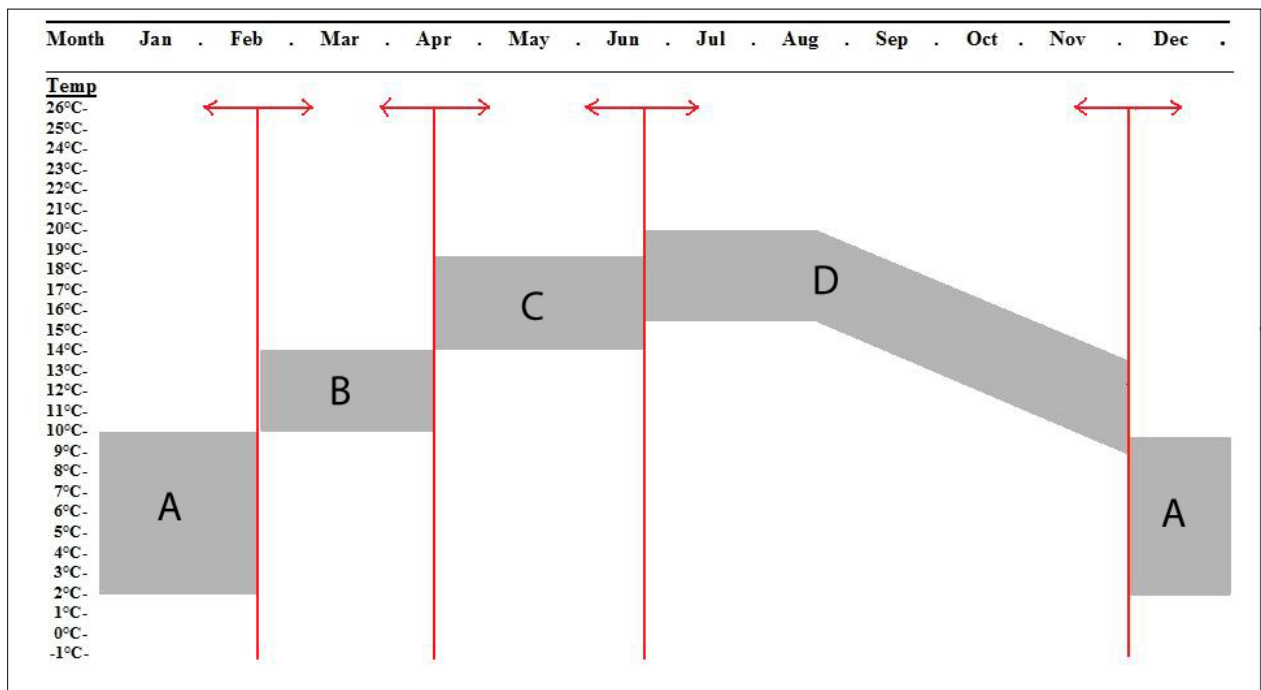


Figure 21. Proposed yearly temperature-curve for the captive breeding of *Neurergus strauchii*.

prior to the breeding season proves essential to realize the temperature curve that stimulates breeding (Fig 21). Hence, a terrestrial period may help to synchronize the sexes and breeding behavior. Adults can be kept all year round aquatic and will still breed, but need to at least undergo a change in temperatures. Keeping animals in a terrestrial phase makes it easier to change temperatures by, for instance, placing them in a refrigerator or outdoors. Another advantage of a terrestrial period is that one can provide more differentiation in food items (e.g., crickets, wax worms, and other insects) which increased diet quality.

It seems that changing the newts between enclosures is not a drawback. When animals are kept the whole year in the same tank, with just gradual changes of temperature, they will not breed, but if they have a dramatic change of environment (or change of temperature), they are likely to initiate breeding behavior. We all agree that giving the newts a cold winter period is the best way to have a successful breeding.

Although Sparreboom et al. (2000) noted interfering males when a couple is mating, it does not seem to decrease the success rate of breeding, but if undisturbed breeding is the goal, one should keep one male together with one or more females during the breeding period.

For successful initiation of oviposition, it seems that a shift in temperature from 12-14 °C (courtship behavior and development of eggs) to 16-18 °C is important. A temperature stable environment where the tank is placed (basement) or refreshing the water can help provide this. The period of egg laying seems to depend on the gradual rising of temperature. If temperature rises quickly this can reduce, or even eliminate, the period of egg laying.

Henry Janssen noted such negative influences on his breeding results, caused by rapid and unwanted temperature changes, typical for the sea climate where he lives. It seems therefore important for the breeder to have some control over water temperature. In nature, depending on the weather, mating season starts approximately at the end of April to beginning of May for both subspecies (Bogaerts et al. 2006) and continues into June (Schmidtler 1994). In captivity, temperature is of more influence than the time of the year and newts are preparing to breed when temperatures rise above 10 °C.

Although eggs are mostly “spawned” on the underside of stones, they can be laid anywhere, as described. Bogaerts et al. (2006) found some eggs of *N. s. barani* on tree branches and at the bottom of water bodies, but concluded it was an artifact due to the lack of other suitable sites. This might also be true for captive populations. Eggs laid or kept in lighter environments develop in the same manner, and we have not found any differences in development. Development of eggs does not seem to be influenced by taking them out of the breeding tank or cutting them loose from stones. The eggs are not delicate. One can choose the way that suits the breeder best. Taking the eggs out of the tank gives the breeder more control.

Our data show total number of eggs per female can be much higher, up to 285, than previously reported (Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1970; Fleck 1982; Steinfartz 1995). It seems likely the amount of food given to females adds to production of more eggs. Even young females can lay many eggs, thus size of the female does not seem to be a major factor determining the amount of eggs laid, but the amount of food given probably is

a contributing factor as well; however, we do not have enough data to support this claim. There doesn't seem to be a difference between the two subspecies in the number of eggs.

Steinfartz (1995) stated that in his opinion the larvae of *N. s. barani* are more pond-type, in comparison to stream-type larvae of *N. s. trauchii*, based on minor differences. In the experience of the authors that have kept both subspecies, it is impossible to tell larvae apart. However, perhaps *N. s. barani* grows a little larger and more robust before metamorphosis. But we do not have data to support this.

Rearing of the larvae and juveniles was relatively unproblematic in all cases, as long as water quality is checked regularly. Raising juveniles can be done in a terrestrial environment or in an aqua-terrarium. In nature, juveniles certainly grow up terrestrial, as aquatic juveniles have never been observed in the field. Raising them in an aqua-terrarium gives the opportunity to feed them more varied types of food. The newts are able to switch easily from land to water and vice versa, and they adapt quickly to water without skin problems. Jennifer Macke showed a slightly faster growth of aquatically-raised animals. But as the number of animals is very small and because the feeding regime and types of food differed, it is not possible to draw straightforward conclusions. It seems likely that growth depends more on quality and availability of food and temperature, than on the type of housing. In the past, whole groups of captive bred *N. trauchii* have collapsed; also among the authors. Several possible and proven candidates have been described above. We strongly advise to avoid stress (e.g. high temperatures >20 °C) and provide optimal husbandry and feeding.

We hope our successful long-term keeping, breeding, and raising of *N. trauchii* is an example and model that may be used for private contributions to conservation breeding programs, for endangered *Neurergus* species and other semi-aquatic salamanders. Future studies on captive specimens will provide more data on the captive breeding of this, and other newts. According to the Studbook (Molch-Register) by Kristina Ernst it seems this species is still available in good numbers, but consistent breeding every year is still rare, even among the authors. Hopefully, this paper can contribute to greater captive breeding efforts and to a better understanding of the ecology of this fascinating newt but also can be seen as a valuable example of private contribution to conservation breeding programs for endangered *Neurergus* species and other semi-aquatic salamanders.

Acknowledgments.—Henk Wallays is thanked for his support and encouragement in the early part of the project. We thank the AG Urodela (www.ag-urodela.de) and the Salamander Society (www.salamanders.nl) for their support.

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Received: 14 June 2012

Accepted: 01 July 2012

Published: 22 September 2012



Sergé Bogaerts has been fascinated by salamanders and newts since the age of seven. He studied biology at Raboud University Nijmegen, specializing in herpetology and animal ecology. He works as advisor on ecology and nature law for infrastructure projects for the Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment, while he continues herpetological studies as a hobby. Both through field work and captive care, he is striving to learn more about the ecology and behavior of newts and salamanders, particularly those of the Mediterranean and Middle East, and he publishes the results of these studies whenever possible.



Henry Janssen started out as a turtle enthusiast in the early 1970s. Gradually his interest shifted to newts, in particular to the genus *Paramesotriton*. Over the years he was able to build up a significant collection of *Paramesotriton* and other newt species, and has bred and raised at least one generation of most of these. By keeping detailed records of his observations and through the systematic gathering of data, he has acquired a thorough knowledge about the species he works with.



Jennifer Macke has had a life-long fascination with animals. Her interest in newts began with an undergraduate research project on limb regeneration, and she has kept and bred caudates ever since. She is particularly interested in newts of the genera *Cynops* and *Neurergus*. She is currently employed as a molecular biologist and also volunteers her time to manage the care of the reptiles, amphibians, and invertebrates at a local nature center.



Günter Schultschik started keeping newts and salamanders as a boy and still considers himself just an enthusiast. After getting in contact with AG-Urodela of DGHT in 1989, his collection grew rapidly. J. F. Schmidler (Munich) was his teacher when he began to travel through Anatolia and the Middle East searching for amphibians and reptiles. As a member of the Austrian Herpetological Society, he founded “Urodela-Austria” a working group which has a meeting once a year, the “Molchlertag.” After some publications together with W. Grosse, they started a project called “Captive Care Management” for threatened species of tailed amphibians, which will be published soon in the DGHT series *Mertensiella*.



Kristina Ernst has been interested in all kinds of animals since she was a small child. Her fascination for newts and salamanders started in 1993 with her first newts of the genus *Cynops*. In 2000 she became a member of AG-Urodela of the DGHT and discovered, and developed a special interest in the genus *Neurergus*. Since then, she has focused on this genus and is responsible for the studbook of *Neurergus strauchii* at AG-Urodela.



François Maillet has been keeping and breeding salamanders and newts as long as he can remember. Together with Jean Raffaelli and Arnaud Jamin, he forms the core of the French Urodela Group (FUG), whose goals are to bring together knowledge and experience regarding captive bred animals, and to keep stable long-term populations of many species of newts and salamanders in captivity.



Christoph Bork has been interested in amphibians since he was six years old. He especially loves newts and salamanders, which he has kept seriously for at least 25 years now. He got his start with *Triturus* species, and mainly keeps *Neurergus* species nowadays. As a hobby newt enthusiast he has been a member of the AG Urodela for many years. Additionally he is fascinated by poison dart frogs. Several of these species decorate his living room.



Frank Pasmans has been fascinated by urodelans since he was a young boy, and he has kept and bred several species. As a veterinarian, he is currently head of a research group that studies amphibian diseases at Ghent University, Belgium.



Patrick (Pat) Wisniewski (1954-2008) was an all-round natural historian and the longest serving curator of Martin Mere in Lancashire, one of the nine UK Wildfowl & Wetland Trusts centres. He was “the newt man’s newt man,” said to be ahead of his time in amphibian husbandry. He kept and bred a great range of amphibians, especially newts and salamanders—mainly European and Asian species. A vast collection of captive animals covered every inch of several rooms and part of the garden. Pat wrote the booklet “Newts of the British Isles” published in 1989.

Ecology of Kurdistan newt (*Neurergus microspilotus*: Salamandridae): Population and conservation with an appraisal of the potential impact of urbanization

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Abstract.—The Kurdistan newt, *Neurergus microspilotus* Nesterov, 1916, inhabits springs, ponds, brooks, streams, and wet caves in the western Iranian Plateau in both Iran and Iraq. The Iranian distribution of *N. microspilotus* is limited to Kurdistan and Kermanshah Provinces. Several major populations of *N. microspilotus* are threatened by urban development. We gathered autecological data of *N. microspilotus* and evaluated factors that may affect the distribution and abundance of this species. We conducted visual surveys for *N. microspilotus* at twelve localities across the north-western regions of Kermanshah Province from February to July 2012. The survey sites were classified as undeveloped or developed based on their proximity to urban or rural landscapes, and other anthropogenic disturbance and structures. We analyzed the effect of ecological factors, including water pH and specific conductance, temperature, peak of mating behavior, and the time of egg-laying. The daily air temperature of the study sites was provided by the weather bureau of Kermanshah Province. We investigated the correlation between daily maximum air temperature and *N. microspilotus* population density using Pearson Correlation Analysis, and analyzed the impact of urbanization on specific conductance and pH of habitat water and numbers of *N. microspilotus* according to Independent-Samples *t*-test. The densities of *N. microspilotus* across sites were positively correlated with increased water and daily maximum air temperatures. In addition, we found that densities of *N. microspilotus* at undeveloped sites were significantly higher than those of developed sites, whereas no relationship was recorded between specific conductance and pH of the water and urbanization.

Key words. Kurdistan newt, *Neurergus microspilotus*, ecology, conservation, urbanization

Citation: Rastegar-Pouyani N, Takesh M, Fattahi A, Sadeghi MS, Khorshidi F, Browne R. 2013. Ecology of Kurdistan newt (*Neurergus microspilotus*: Salamandridae): Population and conservation with an appraisal of the potential impact of urbanization. *Amphibian & Reptile Conservation* 6(4):30-35(e58).

Introduction

Many species of amphibians globally have declined in abundance and range over recent decades (Collins and Storer 2003; Stuart and Chanson 2004; Beebe and Griffiths 2005) and 30% of species are now threatened with extinction (IUCN 2010). Related causes of these declines and extinctions are habitat loss and fragmentation, unsustainable harvesting, environmental contaminants, increasing UV radiation, climate change, introduced predators, and emerging diseases (Young et al. 2001; Collins and Storer 2003; Baillie et al. 2004). Urbanization is a substantial cause of habitat loss and fragmentation (McKinney 2002, 2006). Urbanization is a complex process characterized by increasing in human population density, which generates significant changes in the chemical, physical, and ecological conditions of affected

areas, and specifically results in the creation of new assemblages of plants and animals, and possible alteration of the types and frequency of disturbance regimes (McDonnell and Pickett 1993; Kinzig and Grove 2001).

Urbanization alters hydrology through water extraction, the construction of impervious surface and increased runoff, increase sedimentation, and pollution of hydrological systems (Paul and Meyer 2001; Miltner et al. 2004), and through modifying soils (Effland and Pouyat 1997). Urbanization may also result in an increase in invasive plants and animals (Pickett et al. 2001; McKinney 2006), different climates between urban and surrounding rural areas (Grimm et al. 2008). Urbanization is therefore currently one of the most pervasive causes of natural ecosystem modification globally, and thus presents a major threat to biodiversity conservation (Czech et al. 2000; Miller and Hobbs 2002).

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Previous investigations indicated that the distribution of the Kurdistan newt, *Neurergus microspilotus*, is in the mid-Zagros range at the bordering regions of Iran and Iraq (Nesterov 1917; Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1975). Najafimajd and Kaya (2010) reported the first observation of *N. microspilotus* in west-Azarbaijan, Iran, however, molecular studies were not conducted on these specimens to confirm their claimed status. Major localities of *N. microspilotus* are found in both urban and rural areas some of which are centers for tourism (Sharifi et al. 2004; Rastegar-Pouyani et al. 2005; Rastegar-Pouyani 2006). In the present study, we investigated the relationships between presence and density of *N. microspilotus*, and the degree of urbanization, and analyzed factors that may affect this relationship including autecological data and water temperature.

Materials and methods

Study sites and survey techniques

The survey area is located in north-western regions of Kermanshah Province, western Iran, and surveys were conducted from February to July 2012. Twelve sites including a range of ponds, pools, brooks, and streams were selected for surveys. The selection of sites was based on our previous knowledge of these sites providing a consistent occurrence of *N. microspilotus*.

Sites investigated were Darian (35°08' N 46°19' E), Darre-Najjar (35°06' N 46°19' E), Deshe (35°04' N 46°16' E), Dorisan (35°11' N 46°23' E), Hajij (35°09' N 46°19' E), Kavvat (34°53' N 46°31' E), Lashgargah (35°01' N 46°08' E), Nilan (35°09' N 46°12' E), Nodeshe (35°11' N 46°14' E), Noseme (35°00' N 46°22' E), Qholani (34°54' N 46°27' E), and Qhuri-Qhala (34°21' N 46°30' E) (See Table 1).

We categorized study sites into two categories; 1) Developed-sites placed at the center or vicinity of urban, rural, or tourism areas, and 2) Undeveloped-sites remote from urbanization with limited ecological change such as grazing.

The counting of *N. microspilotus* in the Kavvat and Dorisan habitats begun on 08 March 2012 and, with weekly intervals, ended on 05 July 2012. *Neurergus microspilotus* were surveyed and counted through stream bank observation without substrate disturbance. The peak of mating behavior was recorded as the maximum amount of courting behavior, and the time of egg-laying through the observation of eggs in the water for the first time during the season.

Collection of habitat data

To assay the specific conductance and pH of water, water-sampling was performed on a 50 ml water sample from each site. A Jenway 3345 Ion Meter was used for determination of conductivity measurements. The pH of water was calculated via pH meter model Metrohm 827 pH lab equipped with a combined glass electrode, calibrated against two standard buffer solutions at pH 4.0 and 7.0 and used for monitoring of the pH values. The daily maximum air temperature of the study sites, over the period of the study, was provided by the weather bureau of Kermanshah Province (Table 3).

Statistical analysis

To statistically analyze the effect of urbanization on specific conductance and pH of water, and the population density of *N. microspilotus*, we subjected the data to Independent-Sample *t*-tests. To analyze the relationship between daily maximum air temperature and increasing populations of *N. microspilotus* subjected the data to

Table 1. Study site names and coordinates (North, East), *N. microspilotus* numbers (no.), water specific conductance (SC; $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$), and pH, natural (normal font) or developed (italic font) sites, and threats.

Sites	Coordinates	No.	SC	pH	Threats from development
Kavvat	34°53' N 46°31' E	750	0.3	8.2	—
Qholani	34°54' N 46°27' E	79	0.4	7.8	—
Darre-Najjar	35°06' N 46°19' E	19	0.4	7.6	—
<i>Darian</i>	35°08' N 46°19' E	24	0.2	7.8	Fish aquaculture and gardening
<i>Nilan</i>	35°09' N 46°12' E	48	0.3	7.6	Gardeners in this suburban development, clearing the bottom of the pools of aquatic plants that provide shelter for eggs, larvae, juveniles, and adults
<i>Hajij</i>	35°09' N 46°19' E	7	0.3	7.4	Dam-construction in the Sirvan River, ecotourism, gardening
<i>Noseme</i>	35°00' N 46°22' E	5	0.3	7.2	Habitat degradation or loss through irrigation and domestic water usage, accumulation of rubbish in water, and home-construction in the village
<i>Deshe</i>	35°04' N 46°16' E	1	0.3	7.3	"
<i>Dorisan</i>	35°01' N 46°23' E	58	0.3	7.3	"
<i>Nodeshe</i>	35°11' N 46°14' E	30	0.3	7.5	Organic-pollution of water and gardening
<i>Qhuri-Qhala</i>	34°21' N 46°30' E	3	0.4	7.4	Major tourist destination. Accumulation of rubbish in the water and the manipulation of habitat through sanitation processes and cleaners in streams
<i>Lashkargah</i>	35°01' N 46°08' E	5	0.46	7.6	Many <i>N. microspilotus</i> are road fatalities

Table 2. Statistical analysis of the effect of urbanization on the specific conductance and pH of water and the number of *N. microspilotus*.

Variable	Developed habitats (n = 9) Mean ± SD	Undeveloped habitats (n = 3) Mean ± SD	t	df	p-value
Specific conductance	0.3 ± 0.1	0.48 ± 0.1	1.1	10	0.32
pH	7.5 ± 0.2	7.9 ± 0.3	2.9	10	0.02
Number	20.1 ± 21.3	299.7 ± 393.9	2.4	10	0.04

Pearson Correlation Analysis using the program SPSS (version 16 for Windows; SPSS Inc. Chicago, Illinois, USA). Data were considered statistically different at $P < 0.05$.

Results and discussion

Our results suggest that nine out of 12 localities of *N. microspilotus* from the populations were lowered by urbanization. These localities are Darian, Deshe, Dorisan, Hajji, Lashgargah, Nilan, Nodeshe, Noseme, and Qhuri-Qhala.

The Independent-Samples *t*-test revealed that developed/undeveloped sites do not have any difference in specific conductance ($p = 0.31$), but do in the water pH and number of newts ($p = 0.04$). Bowles et al. (2006) used specific conductance to investigate the effect of urbanization on water of habitats in *Eurycea tonkawae*, but our results indicate that specific conductance could not be used as a separator tool to measure the impact of urbanization on *N. microspilotus*. The resulting data of the specific conductance indicates that there is not much overlap between developed ($0.22 \leq X \leq 0.46$) and undeveloped sites ($0.27 \leq X \leq 0.44$). Instead, the analysis suggests that the pH is a better indicator ($p = 0.02$) of the effects of urbanization on *N. microspilotus* (in our studied populations) (Table 2).

The resulting data on the counting of the newt in the Kavut and Dorisan habitats, the temperature of the two synoptic stations, dates of observations and statistical assessment of correlation between maximum daily air temperature, and the number of *N. microspilotus* are presented in Table 3. The Pearson Correlation Analysis revealed that there is a strong association between the temperature and presence of individuals of two populations in Kavut and Dorisan (p -value = 0.919, $r = 0.000$; p -value = 0.812, $r = 0.000$, respectively).

According to the data, *N. microspilotus* adjusts its transition from torpor, and presence in the environment and mating behavior, at a time when food availability of insects and other invertebrates is maximum and the thickness of the forest canopy and leaves on the water surface provides the maximum shelter from predators (Table 3; Fig. 1a, b). At this time a maximal cover of aquatic vegetation provides the best environment for reproductive activities, the deposition of sperm, and egg attachment. In March and early April, the vegetative cover of the Kavut and Dorisan habitats is low. Habitat suitability

for the reproduction of *N. microspilotus* within the Kavut and Dorisan habitats, as well as on Shahoo Mountain (northwestern Kermanshah Province), gradually reaches an optimum with the onset of increased moisture (from melting snow and spring rain) and temperature, with a peak in mid-June and early July (Fig. 1a, b).

Acknowledgments.—We wish to thank the Mohamed Ben Zayed Foundation, and the European Association of Zoos and Aquaria for supporting of this project through grants. Support was also provided by core funding from the Royal Zoological Society of Antwerp. We also thank the weather bureau of Kermanshah Province, especially Mr. Shaygan for providing weather data, the driver, Sabzali Rasooli, who helped us very much during field work in western Iran, and Mohammad Reza Ashrafi Kooshk and Dariush Naderi for their help in preparation of the manuscript.

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Table 3. The number of individuals of *N. microspilotus* and mean daily air temperature of Kavat and Dorisan sites.

Parameters	8 Mar	15 Mar	23 Mar	30 Mar	6 Apr	13 Apr	20 Apr	27 Apr	3 May	11 May	18 May	24 May	1 Jun	8 Jun	15 Jun	22 Jun	29 Jun	5 Jul	r	p-value
Numbers in Kavat habitat	4	11	20	39	55	59	81	95	100	130	230	370	410	500	590	690	750	710	0.919	0.000
Mean temperature of Kavat habitat (°C)	3.7	7.5	6.0	6.8	13.6	13.2	12.6	16.2	19.9	22.9	20.7	18.1	22.5	25.0	29.9	32.2	34.1	36.1		
Numbers in Dorisan habitat	0	0	0	1	1	6	5	6	10	13	20	32	33	49	54	55	58	31	0.812	0.000
Mean temperature of Dorisan habitat (°C)	5.8	8.3	8.8	6.9	14.5	12.6	12.8	15.8	22.7	23.5	21.0	20.8	22.4	24.9	28.8	29.4	30.3	33.7		

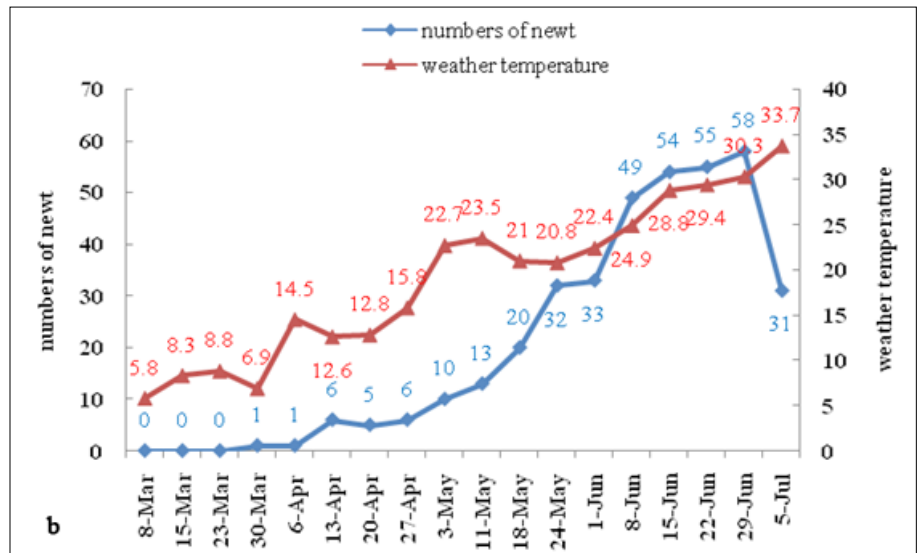
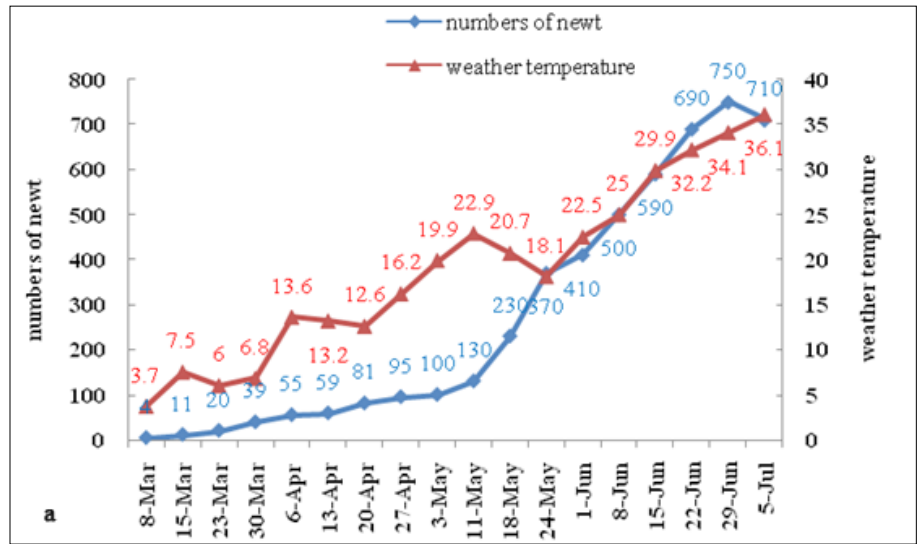


Figure 1a, b. The graphs of weather temperature (red) and number of newts (blue) in the Kavat (a) and Dorisan (b) habitats.

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- Received: 22 October 2012
Accepted: 29 December 2012
Published: 14 March 2013



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Rediscovery of the Lake Urmia newt, *Neurergus crocatus* Cope, 1862 (Caudata: Salamandridae) in northwestern Iran after 150 years

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Abstract.—We report on the rediscovery of the Lake Urmia newt, *Neurergus crocatus* in Iran, 150 years after its original description and last report by Cope 1862. The Lake Urmia newt is classified as Vulnerable by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Some specimens, both adult and larvae, of *N. crocatus* were found in Iran during two field surveys near the Iran-Iraq border (south west of West Azerbaijan Province, surrounding the type locality “Urmia,” at 1786-1823 m above sea level [a.s.l.] elevation). Water samples were taken from two breeding habitats, as preliminary data, and were analyzed for 13 chemical variables to determine the characteristics of water chemistry. The morphological comparison of the new specimens with the original description and data from Schmidtler and Schmidtler (1975) did not reveal any distinct morphological differences. Previous to our study there was no information regarding the exact locality of *N. crocatus* and its population status in Iran. Our confirmation of *N. crocatus* in northwestern Iran indicates that protection is needed if this species is to persist in Iran. In addition, water chemistry analysis of the two new habitat records showed that in this area *N. crocatus* inhabits two streams with good water quality.

Key words. *Neurergus crocatus*, rediscovery, conservation, Iran

Citation: Najafi-Majd E, Kaya U. 2013. Rediscovery of the Lake Urmia newt, *Neurergus crocatus* Cope, 1862 (Caudata: Salamandridae) in northwestern Iran after 150 years. *Amphibian & Reptile Conservation* 6(4):36-41(e59).

Introduction

Newts of the genus *Neurergus* (Salamandridae) are confined to Turkey, Iran, and Iraq. *Neurergus* was originally categorized as a member of the family Salamandridae and the subfamily Tritoninae, subsequently it was changed to Pleurodelinae (Cope, 1862). Four species of *Neurergus* have been described (Schmidtler 1975; Leviton et al. 1992; Sparreboom et al. 2000): *Neurergus crocatus* Cope, 1862 from northwest of Iran, northern Iraq, and southeast of Turkey; *Neurergus strauchii* (Steindachner 1887) from the western side of Van Lake to Malatya in eastern (Anatolian) Turkey; *Neurergus microspilotus* (Nesterov 1916) from the west and northwest of Iran and east of Iraq; and *Neurergus kaiseri* Schmidt 1952 from the surroundings of Shah-Bazan of Luristan Province, Iran. All known species of *Neurergus* can easily be distinguished by their morphological characters (Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1970, 1975; Schmidtler 1994; Najafimajd and Kaya 2010; Schneider and Schneider 2011). At present, the taxonomic relations of the closely related taxa *N. microspilotus* and *N. derjugini* (Nesterov 1916) from the Iraq and Iran borders are still debatable (Schneider and Schneider 2011).

The genus *Neurergus* is represented by three species in Iran, *N. crocatus* Cope, 1862, *N. microspilotus* (Nesterov 1916), and *N. kaiseri* Schmidt, 1952 (Balouch and Kami 1995). According to IUCN, *N. crocatus* has one of the largest distribution ranges among all *Neurergus* species; though there is almost no data about its biology and exact distribution (Steinfartz et al. 2008). As stated by Sparreboom (2009) this insufficient data may be ascribed primarily to geographic inaccessibility, as well as long term ethnic tensions, and a long and continuing history of military conflicts. *Neurergus crocatus* has been known from several localities in Turkey since 1986 (Baran and Öz 1986; Baran and Atatur 1997; Özdemir et al. 2009). This striking coloration of these *N. crocatus* attracted the attention of local people and non-herpetologists subsequently misidentified them as *N. strauchii* (Kemal 2008). Very recently in 2010 a new locality for *N. crocatus*, including two neighboring streams close to the Şemdinli, Turkey, was published (Schneider and Schneider 2010).

Neurergus crocatus has been reported from eight localities in Iraq: Agrah (Schmidt 1939), Shiwolak and Tajeka villages in the northeastern (Khalaf 1961; Nader 1969), and five recent localities from Barzan, Girbish, Roste, Smilan, and Nawanda in 2010 (Schneider and Schneider 2011).

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There is limited information regarding the exact locality and the distribution of *N. crocatus* and its population status in Iran. Only one historic record by Cope (1862) is noted from northwestern Iran but the exact type locality is unknown, however Fowler and Dunn (1917) reported the type locality as “Ooremiah, Persia.”

Within the Salamandridae, newts of the genus *Neurergus* are basically known as stream inhabiting species that leave streams during dry periods or during winter (Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1970, 1975; Schmidtler 1994). The Lake Urmia newt, *N. crocatus* is quite closely related in an ecological aspect to *Calotriton* species which have similar habitats (Steinfartz et al. 2002). *Neurergus crocatus* is a montane species and lives in cool and well-oxygenated streams (Özeti and Yilmaz 1994; Baran and Atatür 1998), where it breeds. There is no published information about the terrestrial component of their life history. It is presumed that the adults hibernate under rocks and other cover during the winter (Papenfuss et al. 2009). There is almost no information on its life cycle, but eggs and larvae of different lengths were observed at the end of May and June. The seasonality of the breeding season is dependent upon elevation (Özeti and Yilmaz 1994).

According to the IUCN, there is a continuing decline in the extent and quality of the habitat of *N. crocatus* in Turkey, Iran, and Iraq (Papenfuss et al. 2009). However, there is no published information about the size and rate of this decline. *Neurergus crocatus* is categorized as a Vulnerable species [VU B2ab (iii)] in the IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals. Despite the significance of its conservation, nothing is known about the life history of *N. crocatus*, e.g., individual growth, longevity, and other demographic parameters, or its ecology including critical habitat components such as water quality and temperature, breeding, oviposition, or hibernation sites.

One hundred and fifty years after the original description of *N. crocatus* (Cope 1862) we verify the existence of *N. crocatus* in northwest Iran. We also provide information on the characteristics of water chemistry in the aquatic breeding habitat of *N. crocatus*.

Materials and methods

To assess the presence of *N. crocatus* in north-west Iran, we conducted two surveys during the field seasons of 2009 and 2010 of the northern Zagros Mountains in the west of Lake Urmia, from Sero (the area between Lake

Table 1. Morphological characteristics of the closely related species *Neurergus microspilotus* and *N. crocatus* (Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1975) in comparison with our specimens from Oshnaviyeh.

Characteristics	<i>Neurergus crocatus</i>	<i>Neurergus microspilotus</i>	Specimens from Oshnaviyeh
Adult			
1. Maximum total length of ♀/♂	16 / 18 cm	15 / 17 cm	16.8 cm ♀ (Mean)
2. The form of cloacae in mating season in ♀	Lips approximately 1-2 mm protruding	Not sharp conical, lips 3 mm protruding	Lips approximately 1-2 mm protruding
3. Design of backside (spots small 0.2 mm, large 0.4 mm)	Large and small yellow spots	Small yellow spots	Large and small yellow spots
4. Design of throat	Unicolored orange	Orange, mostly with black spots	Unicolored orange
5. Design of belly	Unicolored yellow to reddish orange	Lateral black coloration confines orange middle parts	Unicolored yellow to reddish orange
6. Design of underside of extremities	Unicolored orange	Orange, mostly black spotted	Unicolored orange
7. Design of tail laterals	Large yellow spots	Small yellow spots	Large yellow spots
Larvae			
8. Total length	35-70 mm	35-70 mm	58 mm
9. Relation dorsal fin-length / interaxial length	1.0-1.1 Protrudes from the back center significantly	0.7-0.9 Protrudes from the back center	1.0-1.1 Protrudes from the back center significantly
10. Dorsal design of older larvae (about 50 mm total length)	Bright spots irregularly and big; partly fused	Clearly long bright stains toward two lines along center of the back	Big, irregular bright spots; partly fused
11. Design of belly of older larvae (about 50 mm total length)	Almost unicolored bright	Two imperfect dark spot lines along edges of belly	Almost unicolored bright
12. Design of tail sides	More or less clearly dark pigmented	Clearly blackish brown "clouded"	More or less clearly dark pigmented

Urmia and Iran-Turkey border) and continued the search to the south up to Piranshahr, in the West Azerbaijan Province near the Iran-Iraq border (between 37° 42' 36" and 36° 40' 33" latitudes).

We investigated all potential and accessible habitats of *N. crocatus* in this area, including streams, springs, and ponds. Searches were undertaken between 9.30 am and 6.30 pm. Local people were interviewed in order to obtain more information on *N. crocatus*.

Geographic positions of study sites were recorded with a GPS receiver (Garmin eTrex® 30). Total lengths of adult females were measured with calipers in the field and given in millimeters (mm). Collected specimens were compared morphologically with the description given in Cope (1863) and Schmidtler and Schmidtler's (1975) table (Table 1).

Water samples were collected from the breeding habitat to determine parameters of the salamander's breeding water conditions. Water conductivity, pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), and salinity were measured in the field using a Hach Portable pH/conductivity/dissolved oxygen meter, and water temperature was measured with a thermometer. Some water chemistry parameters such as iron, manganese, chloride, ammonium, sulfide, potassium, nitrate, ammonia, and hardness (calcium and magnesium) were measured in the laboratory using a DR 2800 VIS Spectrophotometer, following the manufacturer's procedures.

Results and discussion

There was no evidence of the species in the 2009 field survey but in 2010, on June 4th, seven adult specimens (♀) were discovered and collected from a Margo Ziyarat Region spring near Oshnaviye, at the border in the west of West Azerbaijan Province, north-Zagros Mountains. In the last conducted survey of the same locality on July 30, 2010 morning, two adults in the spring and eight larvae were found in a small stream and six larvae were collected from the stream; elevation of the location was 1786-1823 m a.s.l.

Neurergus crocatus was previously known from 11 locations in Iran, Iraq, and Turkey (Cope 1863; Schmidt 1939; Khalaf 1961; Nader 1969; Baran and Öz 1986; Schneider and Schneider 2010, 2011). This species is present in the vicinity of Beytüşşebap and Şemdinli, south-east Anatolia, Turkey and in eight localities in the northeastern region of northern Iraq. For the Iranian record, Cope (1862) did not designate the exact type locality of *N. crocatus*; however subsequently Flower and Dunn (1917) determined the type locality as "Ooremiah, Persia" which corresponds to Lake Urmia. Freytag (1956: pl. 4) has at first depicted the type specimen with the labels. We discovered *N. crocatus* in the west of West Azerbaijan Province near the Iran-Iraq border in a natural spring and a small stream. The investigated locality and previously known localities are shown in Fig. 1.

In the north west of Iran in the Mergo Ziyarat region near Oshnaviyeh, we found a total of 17 newts (nine adult females and eight larvae); adults from a spring and larvae from a stream. Adult specimens were discovered in Arabe Spring (37° 2.59' N; 44° 56.72' E), west of Oshnaviyeh. Six larvae were collected from Gurgu Stream (37° 2.78' N, 44° 56.80' E), approximately 100 m north of the spring at 1786-1799 m a.s.l. (Fig 2: A, B). Females were hiding between vegetation in the spring and larvae were found in streams with fast running water, in a small puddle behind stones.

Morphological characters

Collected specimens were compared morphologically as well as in coloration with the description of Cope 1862 and Table 1 in Schmidtler and Schmidtler (1975). *Neurergus crocatus* is characterized and readily identified by yellowish color spots on their flattened black body. Dorsal blotches are yellow and small in midline and larger with light yellow coloration in the lateral position; ventral surface orange-red in males, yellowish in females; limbs overlap when laid against the body, broadly. Males have white colored spots along the tail (Schneider and Schneider 2010). Tail fins on dorsal and ventral sides developed; dorsal tail fin a little higher, especially in the breeding season (Fig 2: C, D).

Our specimens represent the typical characteristics of *N. crocatus* given in the literature (Table 1; Schmidtler and Schmidtler 1975). The species dorsal coloration varies from dark brown to black with numerous yellow round or elongated spots. The yellow spots were a little smaller than in the type specimen (Freytag 1956: pl. 4). The coloration of trunk and tail venter is yellowish orange with infrequent small black spots overlaying the abdomen.

Ecological habitat characteristics

Generally, salamanders are found only in or near running water such as mountain brooks and streams and their survival and distribution can be strongly limited by water quality (Sayim et al. 2009). Moreover, salamanders have highly permeable skin and their larvae may be particularly susceptible to water quality parameters (Duellman and Trueb 1994). Some chemicals such as nitrates and chlorides could influence salamander distribution, abundance, and the selection of breeding sites (Odum and Zippel 2008).

Neurergus crocatus is a montane species that lives and breeds in cool and continuously flowing streams and springs in hillsides and mountainous areas. Habitat substrate is composed of small stones and sands. Typical of the environment of *N. crocatus* are Water cress (*Nasturtium officinale*), Oregano (*Origanum vulgare*), and



Figure 1. A new locality, Oshnaviyeh (11) and other known localities of *Neuregerus crocatus*: 1) Beytüşşebap, 2) Şemdinli, 3) Agrah, 4) Shiwolak, 5) Tajeka, 6) Barzan, 7) Girbish, 8) Roste, 9) Smilan, 10) Nawanda. The hatched part shows our studied area, which also covers the unknown exact location of Cope’s original “terra typica.”



Figure 2. A) Arabe Spring. B) Gurgu Stream. C and D) *Neuregerus crocatus* adult female.

Table 2. Values of some water chemistry variables in breeding habitats of *Neurergus crocatus*.

Habitat	TEM (C°)	pH	DO mg/l	CON µs/cm	SAL %	Fe mg/l	Mn mg/l	Cl mg/l	K mg/l	NO ₃ mg/l	NH ₃ mg/l	Hardness Mg(mg/l)	Hardness Ca (mg/l)
Arabeh	10	7.69	6.78	228	0.11	0.03	0.2	0.9	0.7	1.2	0.01	2.43	0.01
Gurgu	15	8.45	7.64	301	0.14	0.00	0.2	0.9	0.5	1.2	0.02	2.00	0.13

Stinging nettle (*Urtica dioica*). According to Baran and Atatür (1998) *N. crocatus* spend the winter months on land under stones or in burrows.

Analysis results of some water chemistry parameters in breeding habitats such as iron, manganese, chloride, potassium, nitrate, ammonia, and hardness (calcium and magnesium) are given in Table 2.

Mean values of some water chemistry parameters of breeding habitats was found to be as follows: Fe = 0.015 mg/l, Mn = 0.2 mg/l, Cl = 0.9 mg/l, K = 0.6 mg/L, NO₃ = 1.2 mg/L, NH₃ = 0.015 mg/L, hardness Ca = 0.07 mg/L, and hardness Mg = 2.215 mg/L. Therefore, in these inhabited waters toxic parameters (chloride, nitrate, and ammonia), hardness (Mg and Ca), dissolved oxygen, and pH are all in acceptable range (Odum and Zippel 2008).

Amphibians, especially salamanders, are excellent indicators of local conditions because they have permeable skins and fairly limited home ranges (Blaustein and Wake 1995). After obtaining similar information from known breeding habitats and comparing these with habitats that are not used for breeding, it will be possible to assess the water quality requirements for breeding of *N. crocatus*. This information can be combined with information of other habitat variables to assess the broader habitat requirements of *N. crocatus*.

Threats and conservation of *N. crocatus*

Currently, *N. crocatus* is considered Vulnerable by the IUCN Red List due to its restricted range and potential habitat destruction. *Neurergus crocatus* has not been observed since its original description from Iran by Cope in 1862. Our new record verifies its existence after 150 years from its original description and adds to the broader distributional knowledge of the species. The species is susceptible to habitat change, habitat losses, pollution, drought, and over harvesting (Papenfuss et al. 2009), but these factors have not been determined.

There is a continuing decline in the extent and quality of its habitat. The distribution of this species in Turkey is expected to undergo significant change due to various human activities such as the construction of several dams within the range of *N. crocatus* over the next 10 years (Papenfuss et al. 2009). During summer and fall over grazing and pollution of streams by sheep and goats damage the habitat of *N. crocatus*. Some *N. crocatus* were reported killed by local people that use these springs as drinking water resource, as they think these newts are poisonous.

To assure the sustainable management of *N. crocatus* it is imperative to assess its habitat needs and conservation status over its range and distribution surveys. Of particular importance are how aquatic habitat variables influence the choice and success of breeding sites.

Acknowledgments.—This study was a part of the first author's Ph.D. thesis. We want to thank Jahanbakhsh Najafi-Majd who companies us in all field studies. This work was supported by Ege University (BAP, Project No. 2012/FEN/004).

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Received: 19 October 2012

Accepted: 26 December 2012

Published: 05 April 2013



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New localities of the Kurdistan newt *Neurergus microspilotus* and Lake Urmia newt *Neurergus crocatus* (Caudata: Salamandridae) in Iraq

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Abstract.—Little is known about the distribution and current conservation status of the two species of mountain dwelling newts of the genus *Neurergus* found in the Zagros Mountain in northern and northeastern Iraq: the Critically Endangered Kurdistan newt *Neurergus microspilotus* (Nesterov 1916), and the vulnerable Lake Urmia newt *Neurergus crocatus* (Cope 1862). Surveys in the Kurdistan region of northeastern Iraq from 2007 to 2012 resulted in the discovery of *N. microspilotus* at seven new localities distributed in the Zagros Mountain of Sulaymaniyah Province. The new locations provide a major range extension of *N. microspilotus*. In addition, four new localities of *N. crocatus* were located between 2007 and 2013. In addition to *Neurergus* newt surveys, interviews with local people were also conducted through the use of photographs. Severe drought during recent years as well as anthropogenic habitat destruction and pollution have been considered as main threats to the survival of both species in northern Iraq. Here we describe new geographical distributions and the conservation status of both *Neurergus* species found in Iraq.

Key words. Kurdistan newt, Lake Urmia newt, *Neurergus microspilotus*, *Neurergus crocatus*, salamanders, Kurdistan region, Iraq

Citation: Al-Sheikhly OF, Nader IA, Rastegar-Pouyani N, Browne RK. 2013. New localities of the Kurdistan newt *Neurergus microspilotus* and Lake Urmia newt *Neurergus crocatus* (Caudata: Salamandridae) in Iraq. *Amphibian and Reptile Conservation* 6(4): 42–48 (e68).

Introduction

The Kurdistan newts we surveyed corresponded to their description by Nesterov (1916) under the names *Rhithrotriton derjugini* and *R. d. var. microspilotus*. These taxa, *Neurergus d. derjugini* (Nesterov 1916) and *N. d. microspilotus* (Nesterov 1916), are currently considered a single species (Syn. *Neurergus microspilotus* [Nesterov 1916]) and were first recorded in Iraq by Schneider and Schneider (2011), in the close vicinity of their type localities in Iran. The surveys made by Schneider and Schneider (2011) in the Kurdistan region of northern Iraq in spring 2010 reported the Critically Endangered (IUCN Red List 2013) *N. microspilotus* from seven localities situated in the northeastern mountains along the Iraq-Iran border. Leviton et al. (1992) described the range of the Vulnerable (IUCN Red List 2013) Lake Urmia newt (*N. crocatus*; Cope 1862) from northeastern Iraq, eastern Turkey, northwestern Iran, and the Zagros Mountains of Luristan.

Neurergus crocatus was found in Iraq by Allouse (1955) and Khalaf (1959), with a subsequent review of the range and distribution of *N. crocatus* in Iraq by Nader (1969). Al-Adhami and Hameed (1988) carried out a comprehensive study on the histology of the *N. c. cro-*

catus (Schmidt 1939) combined with description of the sampling locations. Mahdi and George (1969) listed both *N. microspilotus* and *N. crocatus* in the herpetofauna of Iraq without providing their range or distribution. Both species were shown to have a restricted range in Iraq and to be allopatric (Najafimajid and Kaya 2010). From 2007 to 2013 we conducted intensive field work to determine the range, distribution, and conservation status of *Neurergus* newts in the Kurdistan region of northern Iraq. Here we describe a new geographical distribution for both species in Iraq and assesses their conservation status.

Material and Methods

We surveyed suitable habitats from 2006 to 2012 for *Neurergus* in the three Iraqi provinces of Kurdistan region in Northern Iraq (Sulaymaniyah, Erbil, and Duhok provinces; Table 1); additional field observations were made during a short survey in 2013. In mountainous landscapes (elevation of ca. 1200–1600 m) consisting of fresh water springs, streams, ponds, and waterfalls, we conducted surveys in order to locate *Neurergus* eggs, larvae, and

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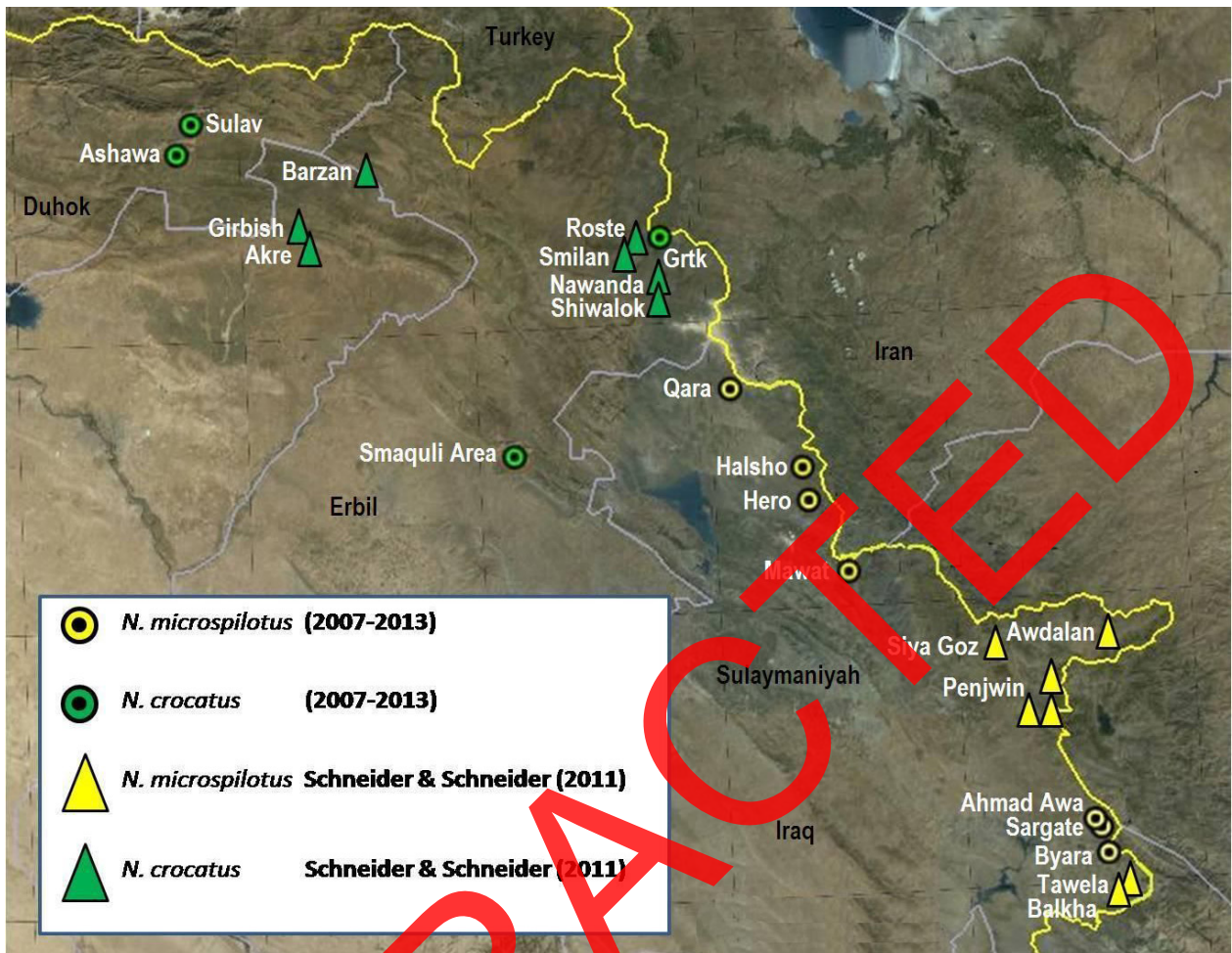


Fig. 1. Google Earth map of northern Iraq (Kurdistan region) shows new localities we discovered during our surveys from 2007 to 2013 for *Neuregus microspilotus* and *N. crocatus* and those described by Schneider and Schneider (2011).

adults. Adults and larvae were photographed and some collected for morphological examination; especially *N. crocatus*, with focus on the differences between the coloration pattern of the *N. derjugini / microspilotus* taxon and those of *N. crocatus*. A Canon EOS Canon EOS 40D camera body equipped with Canon EF 75-300 mm (f 4-5.6) and Canon EF 100-400 mm (f 4) lens was used to take close-up photos to confirm field identifications. We used a Garmin eTrex Waterproof Hiking GPS device to record locations (longitude, latitude, and elevation). Local people were interviewed and shown photographs in order to further identify locations where *Neuregus* spp. have been observed. An IUCN threat assessment score was then calculated to identify the main threats to both *Neuregus* spp.

Results

Kurdistan newt (*Neuregus microspilotus*)

Neuregus microspilotus is mainly found at an elevation of about 1200–1600 m in the fresh water springs, streams, ponds, and waterfalls of the Zagros Mountain

Forest Steppe Ecoregion in northeastern Iraq. These water bodies are primarily found on hillsides or in deep wooded valleys. The 2012 surveys located populations of *N. microspilotus* (18 individuals: 12 males; 6 females; 442 larvae) at seven new locations along the Iraq-Iran northern border (Table 1, Fig. 1). The previously recognized populations of *N. microspilotus* in Iraq are mainly restricted to the mountains of northeastern districts of Sulaymaniyah province. We found six new localities for *N. microspilotus* in the Halabja and Pshdar districts of Sulaymaniyah province.

On 10 July 2007 an adult male *N. microspilotus* was found in a shallow mountain pond with a maximum depth of 7.3 cm. The pond (elevation 1307 m) branched from a running stream within a valley near Isawa village, Mawat Mountain, Sharbazher district (to the north of Sulaymaniyah City). Furthermore, additional new localities for *N. microspilotus* were discovered during extensive field surveys in northern Iraq (in Iraqi Kurdistan) performed during May and June 2012. At the Isawa site on 13 May 2012 we failed to locate any adult *N. microspilotus* but found hundreds of eggs and larvae in early metamorphosis stages. We also surveyed many suitable habitats in the Pshdar district on 15 May 2012 which resulted

New localities of the Kurdistan and Lake Urmia newts

Table 1. List of the New localities for *N. microspilotus* and *N. crocatus* in Northern Iraq (Kurdistan Region); M = male; F =female; L =larva; *= unknown count.

Province	District	Site	Coordinates	<i>Neurergus</i> species	M	F	L
Sulaymaniya	Sharbazher	Mawat - Isawa village	N 35°56' E 45°23'	<i>microspilotus</i>	1	-	*
Sulaymaniya	Halabja	Sargate	N 35°17' E 46° 6'	<i>microspilotus</i>	1	-	-
Sulaymaniya	Halabja	Ahmad Awa Area	N 35°18' E 46° 5'	<i>microspilotus</i>	1	-	31
Sulaymaniya	Halabja	Byara	N 35°13' E 46° 7'	<i>microspilotus</i>	7	4	208
Sulaymaniya	Pshdar	Qara and Abubakra Area	N 36°24' E 45° 3'	<i>microspilotus</i>	1	1	163
Sulaymaniya	Pshdar	Halsho	N 36°12' E 45°16'	<i>microspilotus</i>	-	-	23
Sulaymaniya	Pshdar	Hero	N 36° 7' E 45°17'	<i>microspilotus</i>	1	1	17
Total					12	6	442
Erbil	Shaqlawana	Doli Smaquili Area	N 36°21' E 44°19'	<i>crocatus</i>	1	-	-
Erbil	Choman	Grtk	N 36°46' E 44°52'	<i>crocatus</i>	1	1	-
Duhok	Duhok Area	Ashawa - Sarsank	N 37°0' E 43°17'	<i>crocatus</i>	1	1	-
Duhok	Amedi	Sulav	N 37° 5' E 43°27'	<i>crocatus</i>	1	-	-
Total					4	2	-

in three new locations for *N. microspilotus*. Adult males and females were located in a small gravel pool branching from a running mountain stream at elevation ca.1309 m in the Hero area (to the southeast of the Qaladza township). Searches along the edge of the pool resulted in identifying 17 larvae in different metamorphosis stages. Both adults and larvae were carefully examined and photographed (Figs. 2a and b).

We located a breeding site for *N. microspilotus* at an elevation of ca.1342 m in a mountain pond to the north of Hero in the Halsho area to the northeast of Qaladza (ca. 10 km). A total of 23 larvae were found but no adults were found (Fig. 3a). On 9 June 2012 the Qara and

Abubakra areas were visited. After interviewing many locals we were able to locate adult males and females with 163 larvae in different metamorphic stages in a small mountain stream at an elevation of ca. 1300 m in the Qara mountain (Fig. 3b). In June 2012, our surveys for *Neurergus* were extended throughout suitable habitats in the Halabja district. In addition to the Schneider and Schneider (2011) sites, we located three new localities for *N. microspilotus* in Halabja.

An adult male along with 31 larvae were found in a mountain pond (elevation ca. 1400 m) in Ahmad Awa on 4 June 2012. Additionally, 11 individuals (seven males and four females) with 208 larvae in early metamorphic



Figs. 2a and 2b. *Neurergus microspilotus* (a): adult male; (b): larva, Hero of Pshdar district. Photographs by Omar Al-Sheikhly.

stages were found in Byara (ca. 12 km) to the southeast of Ahmad Awa and near the Schneider and Schneider (2011) sites in Tawale and Balkha (Fig. 1). On the 5 June 2012, through interviews with local people, an adult male was located in a mountain stream at an elevation of ca. 1254 m in Sargate area in Halabja (Table 1).

Lake Uremia newt (*Neurergus crocatus*)

Neurergus crocatus thrives in any suitable aquatic habitat found at an elevation of ca. 1200–1500 m in the north-western parts of the Zagros Mountain Ecoregion in northern Iraq. In addition to the Schneider and Schneider (2011) *N. crocatus* localities, our 2012–2013 surveys resulted in four new localities for *N. crocatus* within the Erbil and Duhok provinces. Four males and two females were found (Table 1). However, it appears that there are many potential areas of suitable habitat for *N. crocatus* in northern Iraq still to be discovered. Four new localities (two in Erbil and two in Duhok) for *N. crocatus* were located during 2007 field surveys, and during a short visit to the Duhok area in 2013 (Fig. 1).

In the Erbil Province two new localities were located. On 17 August 2007 an adult male and female were found in a mountain stream at elevation of ca. 1400 m in the Grtk Mountains in the Choman district of the Erbil Province (c. 15 km), close to the Iraq-Iran border (Fig. 4). On 25 August 2007 an adult male was found at elevation of ca. 1200 m in a mountain stream in Doli Smaquli area of Shaqlawa district in Erbil. On 1 September 2007 an adult male was located at the Sulav area in Amedi district at elevation of ca. 1400–1500 m. On 15 April 2013 and during a short visit to the Ashawa Dam-Sarsank waterfall an adult male and female was found at an elevation of ca. 1206 m (Table 1).

Discussion

There is a paucity of information concerning *Neurergus* newts in Iraq. *Neurergus* newts have a restricted range and scattered distribution mainly confined to the habitat of the Zagros Mountain Forest Steep Ecoregion. Our 2007 to 2013 surveys suggest that *Neurergus* newts are



Figs. 3a and 3b. *Neurergus microspilotus* (a): juvenile at Halsho of Pshdar district; (b): Adult male (below) and female (above) in Qara mountain. Photographs by Omar Al-Sheikhly.



Fig. 4. Male (right) and female (left) *N. crocatus* in mountain stream at Grtk of Choman district in Erbil. Photograph by Omar Al-Sheikhly.

still thriving in suitable habitats in the northern mountains of Iraq, with locations concentrated mainly along the border with Iran. Our surveys extended the known range of *N. microspilotus* that included seven new localities in the mountains of northeastern Iraq. In addition, four new localities of *N. crocatus* were discovered in this region.

Our surveys show that there are two allopatric species of *Neureergus* newts in Iraq with the populations of *N. microspilotus* being restricted mainly to the eastern and northeastern mountains of Sulaymaniya Province with notable concentrations of populations in the Halabja and Pshdar districts. Halabja and Pshdar had six new localities of the *N. microspilotus* with high number of eggs and larvae. The Penjwin district also appears to provide many habitats for *N. microspilotus*. Schneider and Schneider (2011) reported *N. microspilotus* from three different localities in Penjwin, however, we believe that further surveys in Pshdar and Penjwin districts will reveal new localities for *N. microspilotus*. The protection of known localities in these three districts is urgently needed to conserve *N. microspilotus* in Iraq.

Populations of *N. crocatus* in Iraq are mainly restricted to the mountains and elevated grounds of Erbil and Duhok provinces, close to Iraq-Turkey border. Scattered populations of *N. crocatus* were located during our 2012–2013 surveys. However, many areas in the Erbil and Duhok provinces suspected to host *N. crocatus* have not yet been surveyed.

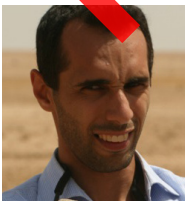
Conclusion

The mountain dwelling *Neureergus* newts are living in relictual aquatic environments which may make them particularly vulnerable to environmental changes. However the geographical range and distribution of *Neureergus* newts in Iraq are not yet fully accessed and little is known about their ecology and conservation biology. From our survey results and a literature search we consider that habitat destruction including pollution when combined with climate extremes, and especially droughts, are the main threats to these newts. Urban expansion and rapid development combined with severe drought especially

during the current years have impacted many fresh water springs, streams, ponds, and waterfalls which are considered the main habitats for *Neurergus* newts in northern Iraq. Solid wastes produced by tourism and agro-chemical pollutants, mainly from the use of agricultural pesticides and herbicides, are considered as the main pollutants that may impact *Neurergus* populations.

Therefore, serious conservation actions should be urgently undertaken in light of various factors negatively impacting populations of these unique salamanders. The Iraqi government is responsible for protecting mountain biota including *Neurergus* spp., and particularly the Critically Endangered *N. microspilotus*, as they are iconic species for conservation. Greater international cooperation between researchers and conservation agencies in Iraq, Iran, and Turkey, countries sharing similar mountainous habitats and water resources, should be strengthened in order to conserve the *Neurergus* species. The populations of *N. microspilotus* and *N. crocatus* and their unique habitat in the mountains of northern Iraq need to be urgently included in long-term monitoring programs with the aim of: 1) estimating the effective size and conservation significance of genetically distinct populations; 2) quantify the main threats and gathering additional information of the threats to salamander populations; 3) undertake in situ actions such as land/water management and protection; and 4) raising educational awareness should be prioritized to protect and conserve the genus *Neurergus* in Iraq.

Acknowledgments.—We thank the Italian Ministry of Environment, Land and Seas (IMELCS), Iraqi Ministry of Environment (IMoE), University of Baghdad, and Nature Iraq for their support to the field surveys in northern Iraq (Kurdistan region). Our thanks extend to Dr. Filippo Barbanera; Dr. Mukhtar K. Haba; Dr. Elnaz Najafimajd; Dr. Jorg Feryahof; and Mr. Ali Ne'ema Salaman for their assistance during fieldwork; Mrs. Zainb Mahmud and Ali Taha (University of Baghdad) for their notes and photographs of the *N. crocatus* in Ashawa – Sarsank in Duhok province; Mr. Nadheer Abood for his helpful support to the 2012 field work; Dr. Göran Nilson for his advice and comments on herpetological studies in Iraq.



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Received: 14 May 2013

Accepted: 16 June 2013

Published: 15 July 2013



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Robert Browne, director of the journal *Amphibian & Reptile Conservation*, has a wide range of academic and practical experience in many research fields supporting herpetological conservation and environmental sustainability.

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