

1 Running headline: Rhinobatid and urolophid reproduction

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4 **Reproductive parameters of rhinobatid and urolophid batoids taken as bycatch in the**
5 **Queensland (Australia) East Coast Otter Trawl Fishery**

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26 ABSTRACT

27 Reproductive parameters are provided for batoids regularly taken as bycatch in the East Coast
28 Otter Trawl Fishery on the inner-mid continental shelf off the south-east and central coasts of
29 Queensland, Australia. Size-at-maturity (L_{T50} and 95% C.I.) for the eastern shovelnose ray
30 *Aptychotrema rostrata* was 639.5 mm (617.6–663.4 mm) for females and 597.3 mm (551.4–
31 648.6 mm) for males. Litter size ($n = 9$) ranged from 9–20 (mean \pm S.E. = 15.1 ± 1.2). This
32 species exhibited a positive litter size-maternal size relationship. Size-at-maturity (W_{D50} and
33 95% C.I.) for the common stingaree *Trygonoptera testacea* was 162.7 mm (155.8–168.5 mm)
34 for females and 145.9 mm (140.2–150.2 mm) for males. Gravid *T. testacea* ($n = 6$) each carried
35 a single egg in the one functional (left) uterus. Size-at-maturity (W_{D50} and 95% C.I.) for the
36 Kapala stingaree *Urolophus kapalensis* was 153.7 mm (145.1–160.4 mm) for females and
37 155.2 mm (149.1–159.1 mm) for males. Gravid *U. kapalensis* ($n = 16$) each carried a single
38 egg or embryo in the one functional (left) uterus. A single female yellowback stingaree
39 *Urolophus sufflavus* carried an embryo in each uterus. A global review of the litter sizes of
40 shovelnose rays (Rhinobatidae) and stingarees (Urolophidae) is provided.

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42 Key words: *Aptychotrema rostrata*; litter size; *Trygonoptera testacea*; *Urolophus kapalensis*;
43 *Urolophus sufflavus*

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INTRODUCTION

46 The batoids (order Rajiformes) are a large and diverse assemblage of chondrichthyan fishes
47 comprising 23 families (Compagno, 2005) yet biological and ecological information on most
48 species is lacking or very limited. Such basic biological information is essential to
49 understanding a species' productivity, and hence their vulnerability to fishing activities. This
50 is of particular importance given concern surrounding long-term sustainability of batoid
51 populations and threats facing batoids globally (Dulvy *et al.*, 2014). As most batoids inhabit
52 benthic environments they are a regular bycatch of benthic trawl fisheries including within
53 Australian prawn trawl fisheries such as the Northern Prawn Trawl Fishery (Stobutzki *et al.*,
54 2002) and the Queensland East Coast Otter Trawl Fishery (ECOTF) (Courtney *et al.*, 2006;
55 2008). In tropical Australia, these species are typically discarded as bycatch although batoids
56 can make up a large proportion of the product sold for consumption in other areas, *e.g.*
57 Indonesia (White & Dharmadi, 2007).

58 The Queensland ECOTF is Australia's largest prawn trawl fishery which primarily targets
59 benthic prawns (*Penaeus* spp., *Melicertus* spp. and *Metapenaeus* spp.) and saucer scallops
60 (*Amusium balloti*). The fishery operates over a large geographic area along the Queensland
61 continental shelf, and is divided into 'sectors' based on key target species and location. Fishing
62 effort, reported catch and the number of licensed vessels have declined significantly over the
63 last decade for a combination of reasons including management arrangements (effort reduction
64 schemes, spatial closures) and reduced rates of participation (Courtney *et al.*, 2014). Bycatch
65 has likely declined as a result of decreased effort, as well as the mandatory use of bycatch
66 reduction devices, in addition to turtle exclusion devices (see Courtney *et al.*, 2006; 2008;
67 2014). While turtle excluders in Australian prawn trawl fisheries have reduced the catch of
68 larger batoids, smaller species and individuals are still regularly caught (Brewer *et al.*, 2006;
69 Courtney *et al.*, 2008; 2014).

70 In southern sectors of the ECOTF (those fishing on the south-east and central Queensland
71 continental shelf for eastern king prawn *Melicertus plebejus* and saucer scallop), three of the
72 most commonly encountered chondrichthyans are the eastern shovelnose ray *Aptychotrema*
73 *rostrata* (Shaw & Nodder, 1794), the common stingaree *Trygonoptera testacea* Banks, in
74 Müller & Henle, 1841 and the Kapala stingaree *Urolophus kapalensis* Yearsley & Last, 2006
75 (Kyne *et al.*, unpublished data). These three species are all endemic to the continental shelf of
76 eastern Australia (Last & Stevens, 2009). *Aptychotrema rostrata* is a common species of
77 inshore and shelf waters of south-east Queensland, and is the most numerically abundant
78 chondrichthyan in the bycatch of both the eastern king prawn (shallow water) sector and the
79 scallop sector of the ECOTF (Kyne *et al.*, unpublished data). *Trygonoptera testacea* and *U.*
80 *kapalensis* represent the second and third most common chondrichthyans, numerically, in the
81 bycatch of the eastern king prawn (shallow water) sector, but are not recorded in the scallop
82 sector as south-east Queensland represents the northern-most extent of their ranges (Last &
83 Stevens, 2009; Kyne *et al.*, unpublished data). Seasonally, the ECOTF targets eastern king
84 prawns in deeper waters (> 90 m) with a shift in the chondrichthyan bycatch community to
85 species more representative of the outer shelf and upper slope environment (*e.g.* skates and
86 catsharks) (Courtney *et al.*, 2014). Both *A. rostrata* and *U. kapalensis* also occur on these
87 deeper trawl grounds, as does the yellowback stingaree *Urolophus sufflavus* Whitley, 1929;
88 another batoid endemic to eastern Australia (Last & Stevens, 2009). The extent of interactions
89 between *U. sufflavus* and the ECOTF is more restricted than the afore-mentioned species as *U.*
90 *sufflavus* is at the northern extent of its range off south-east Queensland and generally occurs
91 in deeper water (Last & Stevens, 2009).

92 Guitarfishes (family Rhinobatidae) and stingarees (family Urolophidae) are viviparous;
93 rhinobatids are lecithotrophic, exhibiting aplacental yolk sacs, while urolophids are
94 matrotrophic, exhibiting placental analogues in the form of histotrophe and trophonemata

95 (Conrath, 2005). Kyne & Bennett (2002) provided a review of the reproductive cycles and litter
96 sizes of the rhinobatids, and White & Potter (2005) and Trinnie *et al.* (2014; 2015) review the
97 reproductive biology of the urolophids. Rhinobatids produce one litter annually and have
98 gestation periods ranging from 3–4 months in the banded guitarfish *Zapteryx exasperata*
99 (Jordan & Gilbert, 1880) to 12 months in some *Rhinobatos* species (Lessa, 1982; Wenbin &
100 Shuyuan, 1993; Villavicencio-Garayzar, 1995). Litter size within the Rhinobatidae is often
101 positively correlated with maternal body size (*e.g.* Kyne & Bennett, 2002; Marshall *et al.*, 2007;
102 Kume *et al.*, 2009; Rocha & Gadig, 2013) with a maximum of 24 reported from the blackchin
103 guitarfish *Rhinobatos cemiculus* St. Hilaire, 1817 (Seck *et al.*, 2004). Urolophids reproduce
104 annually or biennially with parturition occurring after a 5–19 month (regularly 10–11 month)
105 gestation period (see Trinnie *et al.*, 2014; 2015). Maximum litter size in urolophids is typically
106 < 6, but for several species is as low as 1–2 (see White & Potter, 2005; Trinnie *et al.*, 2014;
107 2015).

108 This paper provides information on reproductive parameters, including size-at-maturity,
109 litter size and size-at-birth, of three Australian endemic batoids from the families Rhinobatidae
110 (*A. rostrata*), and Urolophidae (*T. testacea* and *U. kapalensis*) that are taken as bycatch on the
111 east coast of the Australia. The study addresses knowledge gaps in the basic biology of these
112 three species, provides a global review of litter sizes of rhinobatids and urolophids, and
113 includes the first litter size information for *U. sufflavaus*.

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115

MATERIALS AND METHODS

116 Specimens were collected between February 2001 and February 2004 from the inner- to
117 mid-continental shelf off the south-east and central coasts of Queensland (22°42'–28°00'S,
118 150°57'–153°47'E) (Fig. 1). Capture depth ranged: 7–110 m for *A. rostrata*; 21–82 m for *T.*
119 *testacea*; 33–128 m for *Urolophus kapalensis*; and, 150 m for the single *U. sufflavus*. All

120 specimens were collected during fishery-independent and fishery-dependent sampling of the
121 ECOTF eastern king prawn and saucer scallop sectors. Specimens were collected by otter
122 trawlers utilizing three or four 2-seam Florida Flyer nets with net body mesh size 50.8 or 88.9
123 mm; codend mesh size 44.5 or 88.9 mm; and, headrope lengths of 10.97, 12.81 or 21.96 m,
124 depending on the fishery sector. Full descriptions of the fishing gears deployed are provided in
125 Courtney *et al.* (2006; 2008; 2014).

126 Total length (L_T) was used as the primary size measurement for *A. rostrata* and disc width
127 (W_D) for *T. testacea*, *U. kapalensis* and *U. sufflavus*. The sex ratio of each species was analysed
128 using a χ^2 -test. Maturity stages were assessed for male and female *A. rostrata* in accordance
129 with Kyne & Bennett (2002). Maturity assessments for *T. testacea* and *U. kapalensis* were
130 based on White *et al.* (2001). For all species, males were classed as immature (possessing short,
131 flexible, uncalcified claspers) or mature (rigid, calcified and elongated claspers, testes
132 developed and lobular, epididymides highly coiled). For *A. rostrata*, females were classed as
133 immature (possessing undifferentiated ovaries, undeveloped oviducal glands, thin uteri) or
134 mature (developed ovaries with yellow vitellogenic follicles ≥ 5 mm diameter, fully developed
135 oviducal glands and uteri, uterine eggs or embryos may be present). For urolophids, females
136 were classed as immature (possessing small ovaries, both uteri thin and flaccid) or mature (left
137 ovary developed with yellow vitellogenic follicles ≥ 2 mm diameter, left uterus expanded and
138 enlarged in comparison to the right uterus, eggs or embryos may be present in the left uterus).

139 The ovaries of all three species were examined for follicles and uteri examined for the
140 presence and number of eggs or embryos. The size of embryos (L_T for *A. rostrata* and W_D for
141 *T. testacea* and *U. kapalensis*) and the maximum follicle diameter (D_{Fmax}) were measured to
142 the nearest 1 mm. As most specimens were collected during fishery-independent surveys in
143 October 2001 (eastern king prawn sector) and October 2002 (scallop sector), it was not possible
144 to examine seasonal trends in reproductive cycles for any species.

145 The size at 50% and 95% maturity (L_{T50} and L_{T95} for *A. rostrata*, and W_{D50} and W_{D95} for *T.*
146 *testacea* and *U. kapalensis*), together with 95% confidence intervals (C.I.) was estimated for
147 each sex by applying logistic regression analysis to the data for the maturity status and size of
148 individuals. Application of this procedure followed White & Potter (2005). The proportion of
149 mature individuals, P , at a given size (L_T and W_D , respectively) is estimated as:

150

151 and,

$$P = \left\{ 1 + \exp \left[-\log_e (19) \frac{(L_T - L_{T50})}{(L_{T95} - L_{T50})} \right] \right\}^{-1}$$

152

153 This is a reparameterised form of the logistic equation using the parameters L_{T50} and L_{T95}
154 or W_{D50} and W_{D95} (White & Potter, 2005). The Microsoft Excel routine SOLVER was used to

$$P = \left\{ 1 + \exp \left[-\log_e (19) \frac{(W_D - W_{D50})}{(W_{D95} - W_{D50})} \right] \right\}^{-1}$$

155 obtain maximum-likelihood estimates of the parameters L_{T50} and L_{T95} or W_{D50} and W_{D95} within
156 the equation. Bootstrapping was used to randomly resample the data, with the reported
157 parameters being the median values (and the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles in the case of the 95%
158 confidence intervals) of 200 bootstrap runs.

159

160

RESULTS

161 *APTYCHOTREMA ROSTRATA* (SHAW & NODDER, 1794)

162 Of 414 *A. rostrata* collected (Table I), females had a smaller modal value, but reached
163 larger sizes than did males (Fig. 2a). The female to male sex ratio of 0.90:1.00 did not differ
164 significantly from the expected ratio of 1:1 (χ^2 , d.f. = 1, $P = 0.28$).

165 The largest immature female was 614 mm L_T and the smallest mature female was 665 mm
166 L_T . There were no specimens collected between these sizes. The L_{T50} and L_{T95} for females was

167 639.5 mm (95% C.I.: 617.6–663.4 mm) (Fig. 3a) and 642.1 mm (95% C.I.: 621.3–667.0 mm),
168 respectively. The largest immature male was 658 mm L_T and the smallest mature male was 562
169 mm L_T . The L_{T50} and L_{T95} for males was 597.3 mm (95% C.I.: 551.4–648.6 mm) (Fig. 3b) and
170 608.7 mm (95% C.I.: 559.2–660.9 mm), respectively.

171 Of the 23 mature females, 9 (684–800 mm L_T) were gravid. Litter size ranged from 9–20
172 with a mean (\pm S.E.) of 15.1 ± 1.2 . All gravid females were collected in the month of October.
173 Large pre-ovulatory sized follicles were observed in three females collected in September
174 ($D_{Fmax} = 28, 28, 30$ mm). Data combined with that from Kyne & Bennett (2002) produced an
175 updated litter size-maternal size relationship; litter size was significantly correlated with
176 maternal size (L_T) ($R^2 = 0.594, P < 0.001, n = 25$). Litter size = $-38.76 + (0.069L_T)$ (Fig. 4).

177 Intra-uterine embryos of *A. rostrata* (all collected in October) were 24–57 mm L_T , the
178 largest of which still possessed a large yolk-sac and were thus far from near-term. An accurate
179 assessment of size-at-birth could not be determined, but the five smallest free-swimming
180 individuals were 168, 170, 176, 178 and 183 mm L_T , suggesting a size-at-birth of < 170 mm
181 L_T .

182

183 *TRYGONOPTERA TESTACEA* BANKS, IN MÜLLER & HENLE, 1841

184 Of 303 *T. testacea* collected (Table I), males dominated the smaller size classes (< 170 mm
185 W_D) and females the larger size classes (> 190 mm W_D) (Fig. 2b). The female to male sex ratio
186 of 0.86:1.00 did not differ significantly from the expected ratio of 1:1 (χ^2 , d.f. = 1, $P = 0.19$).

187 The largest immature female was 187 mm W_D and the smallest mature female was 145 mm
188 W_D . The W_{D50} and W_{D95} for females was 162.7 mm (95% C.I.: 155.8–168.5 mm) (Fig. 3c) and
189 192.2 mm (95% C.I.: 177.9–202.9 mm), respectively. The largest immature male was 160 mm
190 W_D and the smallest mature male was 128 mm W_D . The W_{D50} and W_{D95} for males was 145.9

191 mm (95% C.I.: 140.2–150.2 mm) (Fig. 3d) and 170.7 mm (95% C.I.: 164.8–177.5 mm),
192 respectively.

193 Of the 82 mature females, 6 (198–270 mm W_D) were gravid. In each instance, a single egg
194 was found in the left uterus. One non-gravid mature female possessed two large pre-ovulatory
195 follicles ($D_{Fmax} = 18$ and 19 mm), suggesting that the species may be capable of carrying two
196 embryos simultaneously. All other non-gravid mature females with large pre-ovulatory
197 follicles ($n = 5$) ($D_{Fmax} = 27$ mm) had only a single large follicle.

198 While no embryos were observed from mature females, numerous small, free-swimming
199 individuals (77–120 mm W_D), considered to be neonates, were caught in the trawls. Several of
200 these (77, 78, 79, 83, 89 and 100 mm W_D) possessed internal yolk-sacs and were likely to be
201 recently-pupped; size-at-birth was estimated to be between 77 and 100 mm W_D .

202

203 *UROLOPHUS KAPALENSIS* YEARSLEY & LAST, 2006

204 Of 100 *U. kapalensis* collected (Table I), females dominated almost all size classes (Fig.
205 2c). The female to male sex ratio of 1.00:0.30 differed significantly from the expected ratio of
206 1:1 (χ^2 , d.f. = 1, $P < 0.001$).

207 The largest immature female was 167 mm W_D and the smallest mature female was 142 mm
208 W_D . The W_{D50} and W_{D95} of females was 153.7 mm (95% C.I.: 145.1–160.4 mm) (Fig. 3e) and
209 168.6 mm (95% C.I.: 160.7–175.2 mm), respectively. The largest immature male was 162 mm
210 W_D and the smallest mature male was 150 mm W_D . The W_{D50} and W_{D95} of males was 155.2 mm
211 (95% C.I.: 149.1–159.1 mm) (Fig. 3f) and 164.1 mm (95% C.I.: 157.1–176.1 mm),
212 respectively.

213 Of the 62 mature females, 16 (155–220 mm W_D) were gravid, with a single egg or embryo
214 found in the left uterus. All gravid females were collected in October. Five non-gravid mature
215 females each possessed two larger ovarian follicles (≥ 10 mm diameter; $D_{Fmax} = 17$ mm),

216 suggesting that the species may be capable of carrying two embryos simultaneously. All other
217 non-gravid mature females possessing larger follicles ($n = 10$) ($D_{Fmax} = 17$ mm) had only a
218 single large follicle.

219 Uterine contents were observed in various stages of development. Seven gravid females
220 carried a single egg with no discernible embryos, three females carried embryos in mid-stages
221 of development (27, 38, 48 mm W_D), one female carried an embryo in a mid-late stage of
222 development (64 mm W_D), and four females carried near-term embryos (75, 78, 78, 85 mm
223 W_D). One additional female aborted a near-term embryo of 76 mm W_D and a second near-term
224 embryo of 80 mm W_D (aborted from an unknown female) was found during catch sorting on
225 board the trawler. The largest embryo thus observed was 85 mm W_D . The smallest free-
226 swimming individuals caught were 97, 100 and 105 mm W_D ; size-at-birth was estimated to be
227 between 75 and 100 mm W_D .

228

229 *UROLOPHUS SUFFLAVUS* WHITLEY, 1929

230 A single female *U. sufflavus* of 180 mm W_D was collected. This individual, collected in
231 July, was mature and gravid, with one early-stage embryo (21–23 mm L_T) in each uterus;
232 pectoral fins had not yet formed and so W_D could not be measured.

233

234

DISCUSSION

235 This study provides an assessment of reproductive parameters for three batoid species that
236 are common components of the Queensland ECOTF bycatch. It is the first study to provide
237 such information for *U. kapalensis*, and expands on that previously published for *A. rostrata*
238 from south-east Queensland (Moreton Bay; Kyne & Bennett, 2002) and for *T. testacea* from
239 the central coast of New South Wales (van der Broek *et al.*, 2011). New, albeit limited
240 information is also presented on the reproductive biology of *U. sufflavus*.

241 *Aptychotrema rostrata* displays a seasonal reproductive cycle with gravid females recorded
242 in Moreton Bay from September to November (Kyne & Bennett, 2002). Females collected in
243 October from the ECOTF bycatch had embryos in early-mid stages of development (24–57
244 mm L_T), which is in agreement with the period of pregnancy identified for the species in
245 Moreton Bay. The capture of non-gravid mature females with large pre-ovulatory follicles in
246 their ovaries in September also corresponds with the timing of ovulation (July–September)
247 postulated by Kyne & Bennett (2002). While the gestation period of the species was estimated
248 to be 3–5 months by Kyne & Bennett (2002), this estimate cannot be refined here with the data
249 collected from specimens taken in the ECOTF.

250 Size-at-maturity for *A. rostrata* from Moreton Bay was previously reported as 540–660
251 mm L_T for females and 600–680 mm L_T for males (Kyne & Bennett, 2002). The L_{T50} values of
252 639.5 mm for females and 597.3 mm for males obtained here provide more robust estimates of
253 size-at-maturity for the species. However, the female estimate could be further refined with
254 additional sampling of individuals between the largest immature specimen (614 mm L_T) and
255 the smallest mature specimen (665 mm L_T).

256 The mean litter size for *A. rostrata* was considerably larger than that reported by Kyne &
257 Bennett (2002) (15.1 ± 1.2 v. 7.9 ± 0.9). In addition, the maximum litter size reported by Kyne
258 & Bennett (2002) was 18, while maximum litter size in the present study was 20 (Table II).
259 This species displays a positive relationship between litter size and maternal size (Fig. 4), and
260 the higher mean litter size reported here is likely attributable to the predominance of larger
261 gravid females; the mean size of gravid females examined by Kyne & Bennett (2002) was
262 699.3 ± 14.7 mm L_T ($n = 16$), whereas in the present sampling mean size was 738.3 ± 14.3 mm
263 L_T ($n = 9$).

264 Broader comparisons of rhinobatid species showed that litter sizes within species is
265 variable (Table II). This variation may be partially explained by the positive correlation

266 between litter size and maternal size that many species display, including common guitarfish
267 *Rhinobatos rhinobatos* (L. 1758) (Enajjar *et al.*, 2008), ringstraked guitarfish *Rhinobatos*
268 *hynnicephalus* Richardson, 1846 (Wenbin & Shuyuan, 1993; Kume *et al.*, 2009) and southern
269 fiddler ray *Trygonorrhina dumerilii* Castelnau, 1873 (Marshall *et al.*, 2007). Combining the
270 litter size results from this study with data reported in Kyne & Bennett (2002), *A. rostrata* bears
271 litters of 4–20 young (mean = 10.5 ± 1.0 ; $n = 25$), with the upper end of this range amongst the
272 highest reported for any rhinobatid species (Table II).

273 An accurate estimate of size-at-birth remains unavailable for *A. rostrata*. Kyne (2000)
274 estimated 130–150 mm L_T based on a comparison of *A. rostrata* embryo and yolk sac sizes
275 with published accounts of the similarly-sized Atlantic guitarfish *Rhinobatos lentiginosus*
276 Garman, 1880 (Hensley *et al.*, 1998), but cautioned that this was a preliminary estimate at best.
277 The largest embryos recorded by Kyne (2000) were 105 mm L_T , but these retained large
278 external yolk sacs. Embryos recorded in the present study were smaller (to 57 mm L_T), and as
279 such provide no assistance in estimating size-at-birth. There were however, several free-
280 swimming neonates captured and from the size of these animals, size-at-birth is suggested to
281 be < 170 mm L_T .

282 Previous studies of the reproductive biology of urolophid batoids have shown that the
283 majority have annual reproductive cycles with long gestation periods of 10–12 months (White
284 *et al.*, 2001; 2002; White & Potter, 2005; Trinnie *et al.*, 2014; 2015). Biennial reproductive
285 periodicity has however been reported in the sandyback stingaree *U. bucculentus* Macleay,
286 1884 (Trinnie *et al.*, 2012), banded stingaree *U. cruciatus* (Lacépède, 1804) (Trinnie, 2013)
287 and spotted stingaree *U. gigas* Scott, 1954 (Trinnie *et al.*, 2014). The timing of reproductive
288 events within the Urolophidae appears to vary both with respect to location and genus (Trinnie
289 *et al.*, 2014). Off south-west Australia, *Trygonoptera* species typically give birth in mid-
290 autumn to early winter (April-June), and *Urolophus* species in late spring/early summer

291 (October-December) (White & Potter, 2005). Trinnie *et al.* (2012) however suggests parturition
292 during autumn (April–May) for *U. bucculentus* and *U. cruciatus* in south-east Australia. This
293 could be attributed to these two species having biennial reproductive periodicity (Trinnie *et al.*,
294 2012).

295 In the current study, all gravid *U. kapalensis* were collected during a 10-day period in mid-
296 spring (October), and showed considerable variation in the stages of uterine development (*i.e.*
297 from eggs with no visual embryos through to mid-late and near-term embryos). Neonate
298 individuals were also collected at the same time, along with females without uterine contents
299 but with large ovarian follicles. As specimens came from a short collection period, it was not
300 possible to determine reproductive cycle characteristics for the species, although the parturition
301 period for *U. kapalensis* may begin in spring (September-November) (as evidenced by near-
302 term embryos and neonates) and last several months into summer (December-February) (as
303 evidenced by smaller embryos observed in October). Given embryonic growth patterns
304 recorded by White & Potter (2005) for the sparsely-spotted stingaree *U. paucimaculatus* Dixon,
305 1969, the smaller developing *U. kapalensis* embryos observed here in mid-spring could
306 conceivably grow to term size by mid-summer. Females bearing only eggs without embryos
307 may represent the following year's cohort of neonates. The examined uteri of gravid *T. testacea*
308 carried only eggs with no visible embryos; thus it is not possible to speculate on this species'
309 reproductive cycle. However, a number of neonate *T. testacea* (from 77 mm W_D), some with
310 internal yolk sacs, were sampled in January (mid-summer), suggesting parturition in summer.
311 This is earlier than the timing of parturition for *Trygonoptera* species off south-west Australia
312 (March-June; White *et al.*, 2002; Trinnie *et al.*, 2009), although van den Broek *et al.* (2011)
313 postulated a parturition period of February to April for *T. testacea* off New South Wales.

314 Litter sizes in urolophids are lower than rhinobatids with a maximum of 1–2 for several
315 species (Table III). Litter sizes recorded here for *T. testacea* (1), *U. kapalensis* (1) and *U.*

316 *sufflavus* (2) are consistent with species from south-west Australia (White *et al.*, 2001; 2002;
317 White & Potter, 2005). For these south-west Australian species, litter size was most often 1,
318 and only occasionally 2 (*i.e.* mean litter sizes: western shovelnose stingaree *T. mucosa*
319 (Whitley, 1939), 1.3 ± 0.10 ; masked stingaree *T. personata* Last & Gomon, 1987, 1.2 ± 0.12 ;
320 lobed stingaree *U. lobatus* McKay, 1966, 1.3 ± 0.30 ; *U. paucimaculatus* 1.06 ± 0.05) (White
321 *et al.*, 2001; 2002; White & Potter, 2005). Larger maximum litter sizes have been reported for
322 several species off south-east Australia, including 6–7 for the eastern shovelnose stingaree
323 *Trygonoptera imitata* Yearsley, Last & Gomon, 2008 (Trinnie *et al.*, 2009) and 11–13 for *U.*
324 *gigas* (Trinnie *et al.*, 2014). For *U. paucimaculatus*, Trinnie *et al.* (2014) reported maximum
325 litter sizes of 4–5 and 5–6 off two different regions of south-east Australia, while White &
326 Potter (2005) reported 1–2 off south-west Australia, highlighting a general trend of higher litter
327 sizes in urolophids off south-east Australia compared to south-west Australia (Trinnie *et al.*,
328 2014). White *et al.* (2001) demonstrated that in *U. lobatus* off south-west Australia, litter size
329 declined during pregnancy, apparently due to embryos being aborted during the gestation
330 period. Litter size declined from 2–6 embryos for early-term pregnancies, 1–4 for mid-term to
331 1–2 for late-term (White *et al.*, 2001). Trinnie *et al.* (2014) however, report that observations
332 from south-east Australian urolophids show similar litter sizes during early and late-term, and
333 as such, the higher reported litter sizes in that region are considered accurate by those authors.

334 White & Potter (2005) explained the small litter sizes of urolophids by the fact that they
335 reach around 35–50% of their asymptotic disc width before birth. Such a large size-at-birth,
336 relative to adult body size, is presumably advantageous for increasing juvenile survivorship,
337 but limits litter size due to the morphological constraints of the maternal body. The largest *U.*
338 *kapalensis* embryo observed (85 mm W_D) was 39% of the maximum size of the species
339 collected during the present study (220 mm W_D), or 27% of the reported maximum size of the
340 species (312 mm W_D ; Yearsley & Last, 2006). By comparison, if a size-at-birth of 170 mm L_T

341 is assumed for *A. rostrata* (this is probably an overestimate), this represents 20% of maximum
342 size observed in the present study (852 mm L_T), or 14% of the reported maximum size of the
343 species (1200 mm L_T ; Last & Stevens, 2009).

344 Gravid urolophids are known to readily abort their embryos upon capture (White *et al.*,
345 2001; *U. kapalensis* in the present study). Urolophids are common components of trawl bycatch
346 where their range overlaps with that of fishing operations, including the eastern king prawn
347 sector of the ECOTF, upper-mid slope trawl fisheries off New South Wales (Graham *et al.*,
348 2001) and demersal trawl fisheries off south-west Australia (Laurenson *et al.*, 1993). Even if
349 trawl-caught stingarees are released alive, the induced embryonic mortality from abortion has
350 the potential to reduce individual reproductive output. Evidently, this is an area of research that
351 requires further investigation, not only for stingaree species but for batoids more generally.

352 *K*-selected reproductive parameters (*i.e.* low fecundity, long gestation period) have been
353 demonstrated for many urolophid species (see White & Potter, 2005; Trinnie *et al.*, 2014; 2015;
354 Table III). Despite these life history limitations on productivity, combined with their abortive
355 behaviour, White & Potter (2005) commented that it was encouraging to see that large numbers
356 of mature stingarees of all four species in their study off south-west Australia remained
357 prevalent. In contrast, on the New South Wales upper continental slope Trawl surveys
358 undertaken in 1976–77 and repeated in 1996–97 showed an overall decline in the catch rate of
359 stingarees (four species of *Urolophus*) of 65.6%, while declines on individual trawl grounds
360 were as high as 90.5% (Graham *et al.*, 2001). As these declines in stingaree catch rates may be
361 attributable to a long history of trawling, it is recommended that stingaree catch rates be
362 monitored in the ECOTF, particularly for the rarer *U. kapalensis*.

363

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563 TABLE I. Sample sizes, size ranges and mass ranges for *Aptychotrema rostrata*,
 564 *Trygonoptera testacea* and *Urolophus kapalensis* captured as bycatch in the Queensland East
 565 Coast Otter Trawl Fishery

Species	Total <i>n</i>	♀	♂	Size range (mean ± S.E.)	Mass range (mean ± S.E.)
				mm L_T (<i>A. rostrata</i>)	g
				mm W_D (urolophids)	
<i>Aptychotrema</i>	414	196	218	♀: 176–852 (465.3 ± 10.0)	♀: 19–2300 (435.7 ± 34.3)
<i>rostrata</i>				♂: 168–790 (470.5 ± 9.2)	♂: 15–1418 (396.5 ± 21.4)
<i>Trygonoptera</i>	303	140	163	♀: 77–270 (170.6 ± 4.2)	♀: 13–942 (274.5 ± 17.8)
<i>testacea</i>				♂: 78–222 (147.2 ± 2.5)	♂: 13–469 (147.7 ± 7.1)
<i>Urolophus</i>	100	77	23	♀: 97–220 (170.5 ± 2.8)	♀: 30–463 (216.4 ± 9.5)
<i>kapalensis</i>				♂: 126–203 (154.7 ± 3.3)	♂: 57–308 (141.9 ± 10.5)

566 L_T , total length; W_D , disc width.
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568 TABLE II. Litter sizes for species of the family Rhinobatidae

Species	Location	Litter size		Source
		Range	Mean (\pm S.E. or S.D.)	
<i>Aptychotrema rostrata</i>	Moreton Bay, Queensland, Australia	4–18	7.9 \pm 0.9 (\pm S.E.)	Kyne & Bennett 2002
	South-east/central Queensland, Australia	9–20	15.1 \pm 1.2 (\pm S.E.)	This study
<i>Aptychotrema vincentiana</i>	Southern Australia	14–16	--	Haacke 1885
<i>Glaucostegus granulatus</i>	Madras, India	6–10	--	Prasad 1951
<i>Glaucostegus typus</i>	Captivity	11*	--	Timm <i>et al.</i> 2014
<i>Rhinobatos cemiculus</i>	Tunisia	5–8	7	Capapé <i>et al.</i> 1976
	Gulf of Gabès, southern Tunisia	5–12	7.52	Capapé & Zaouali 1994
<i>Rhinobatos horkelii</i>	Cape Verde, Senegal	16–24	--	Seck <i>et al.</i> 2004
	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	3–9	--	Lessa 1982
	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	4–12	--	Lessa <i>et al.</i> 1986
<i>Rhinobatos hynnicephalus</i>	Xiamen, Fujian, China	2–9	4.6	Wenbin & Shuyuan 1993
	Ariake Bay, Japan	1–9	4.4	Kume <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Rhinobatos jimbaranensis</i>	Eastern Indonesia	6–11	--	White & Dharmadi 2007
<i>Rhinobatos lentiginosus</i>	South Carolina, USA	5*	--	Jordan & Gilbert 1883
	Western North Atlantic	6*	--	Bigelow & Schroeder 1953
	Gulf of Mexico, USA	--	6.6 \pm 0.557 (\pm S.E.)	Hensley <i>et al.</i> 1998
<i>Rhinobatos leucorhynchus</i>	Pacific Colombia	1–6	3.45 \pm 1.15 (\pm S.D.)	Payán <i>et al.</i> 2011
	Pacific Ecuador	1–7	2.5 \pm 1.5 (\pm S.D.)	Romero-Caicedo & Carrera-Fernández 2015
<i>Rhinobatos penggali</i>	Eastern Indonesia	2–13	--	White & Dharmadi 2007
<i>Rhinobatos percellens</i>	Santa Marta, Caribbean Colombia	2–4	--	Grijalba-Bendeck <i>et al.</i> 2008
	São Paulo, Brazil	2–13	5 \pm 4 (\pm S.D.)	Rocha & Gadig 2013
<i>Rhinobatos productus</i>	Isla de Margarita, Nueva Esparta, Venezuela	4^	--	Tagliafico <i>et al.</i> 2013
	Bahía Almejas, Baja California Sur, Mexico	6–16	9	Villavicencio-Garayzar 1993
	Long Beach, California, USA	--	9	Timmons & Bray 1997
<i>Rhinobatos rhinobatos</i>	Sonora, Gulf of California, Mexico	1–10	5 \pm 2.24 (\pm S.D.)	Márquez-Farías 2007
	Tunisia	4–6	5.3	Capapé <i>et al.</i> 1976
	Alexandria, Egypt	8–14	12	Abdel-Aziz <i>et al.</i> 1993
	Gulf of Gabès, southern Tunisia	6–8	--	Capapé <i>et al.</i> 1997
	Gulf of Gabès, southern Tunisia	1–13	5.34 \pm 0.37#	Enajjar <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>Rhinobatos schlegelii</i>	Penghu Islands, Taiwan	1–14	8.5 \pm 4.8 (\pm S.D.)	Schluessel <i>et al.</i> 2015
<i>Trygonorrhina dumerilii</i>	Southern Australia	4–6	--	Haacke 1885
	Western Australia, Australia	2–5	3 \pm 0.3 (\pm S.E.)	Marshall <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>Zapteryx brevirostris</i>	South Australia, Australia	4–7	5.33 \pm 1.53 (\pm S.D.)	Izzo & Gillanders 2008
	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	1–6	--	Batista 1991

	São Francisco do Sul, Santa Catarina, Brazil	4–9	--	Abilhoa <i>et al.</i> 2007
	Uruguay/northern Argentina	3–6	3.8 ± 0.7 (± S.D.)	Colonello <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>Zapteryx exasperata</i>	Bahía Almejas, Baja California Sur, Mexico	4–11	--	Villavicencio-Garayzar 1995
	Sonora, Gulf of California, Mexico	2–13	7 ± 3 (± S.D.)	Blanco-Parra <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Zapteryx xyster</i>	Pacific Costa Rica	1–8	--	Clarke <i>et al.</i> 2014

569 *Only one gravid female examined

570 ^Only the maximum provided

571 #Not specified if S.E. or S.D.

572

573 TABLE III. Litter sizes for species of the family Urolophidae. All locations are in Australia

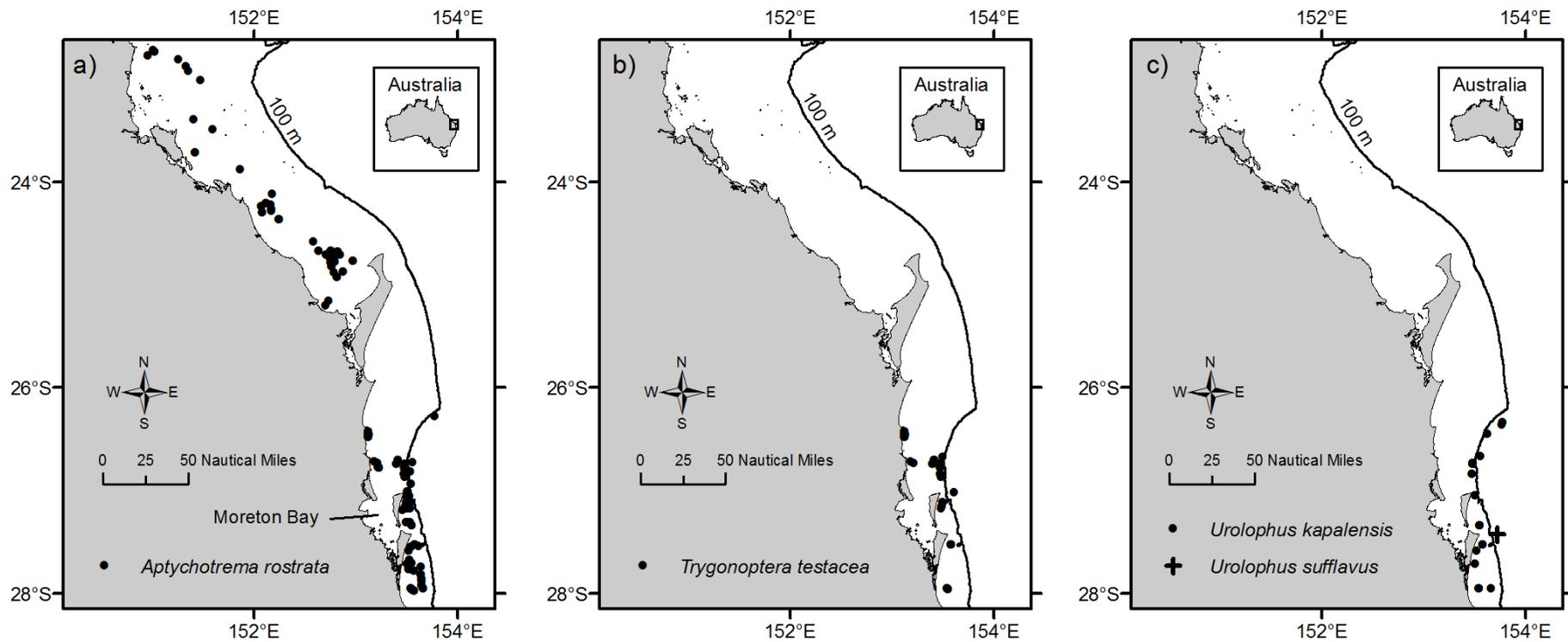
Species	Location	Litter Size		Source
		Range	Mean (\pm S.E.)	
<i>Trygonoptera imitata</i>	Victoria	1–7	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Trygonoptera mucosa</i>	Southern Western Australia	1–2	1.1 \pm 0.10	White <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>Trygonoptera personata</i>	Southern Western Australia	1–2	1.2 \pm 0.12	White <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>Trygonoptera testacea</i>	Off Newcastle, New South Wales	2*	--	van den Broek <i>et al.</i> 2011
	South-east Queensland	1	1.0	This study
<i>Urolophus bucculentus</i>	Victoria	1–5	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2012
<i>Urolophus cruciatus</i>	South-west Victoria	2	--	Treloar & Laurenson 2005
	Victoria	4	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2009^
<i>Urolophus gigas</i>	Victoria	11–13	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2014^
<i>Urolophus kapalensis</i>	South-east Queensland	1	1.0	This study
<i>Urolophus lobatus</i>	Southern Western Australia	1–6	#	White <i>et al.</i> 2001
<i>Urolophus paucimaculatus</i>	Port Phillip Bay, Victoria	2–6	--	Edwards 1980
	Southern Western Australia	1–2	1.06 \pm 0.05	White & Potter 2005
	Victoria	1–6	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2014
<i>Urolophus sufflavus</i>	South-east Queensland	2*	--	This study
<i>Urolophus viridis</i>	Victoria	1–3	--	Trinnie <i>et al.</i> 2015

574 *Only one gravid female examined

575 ^Referenced by authors as unpublished data

576 #Refer to Discussion

577

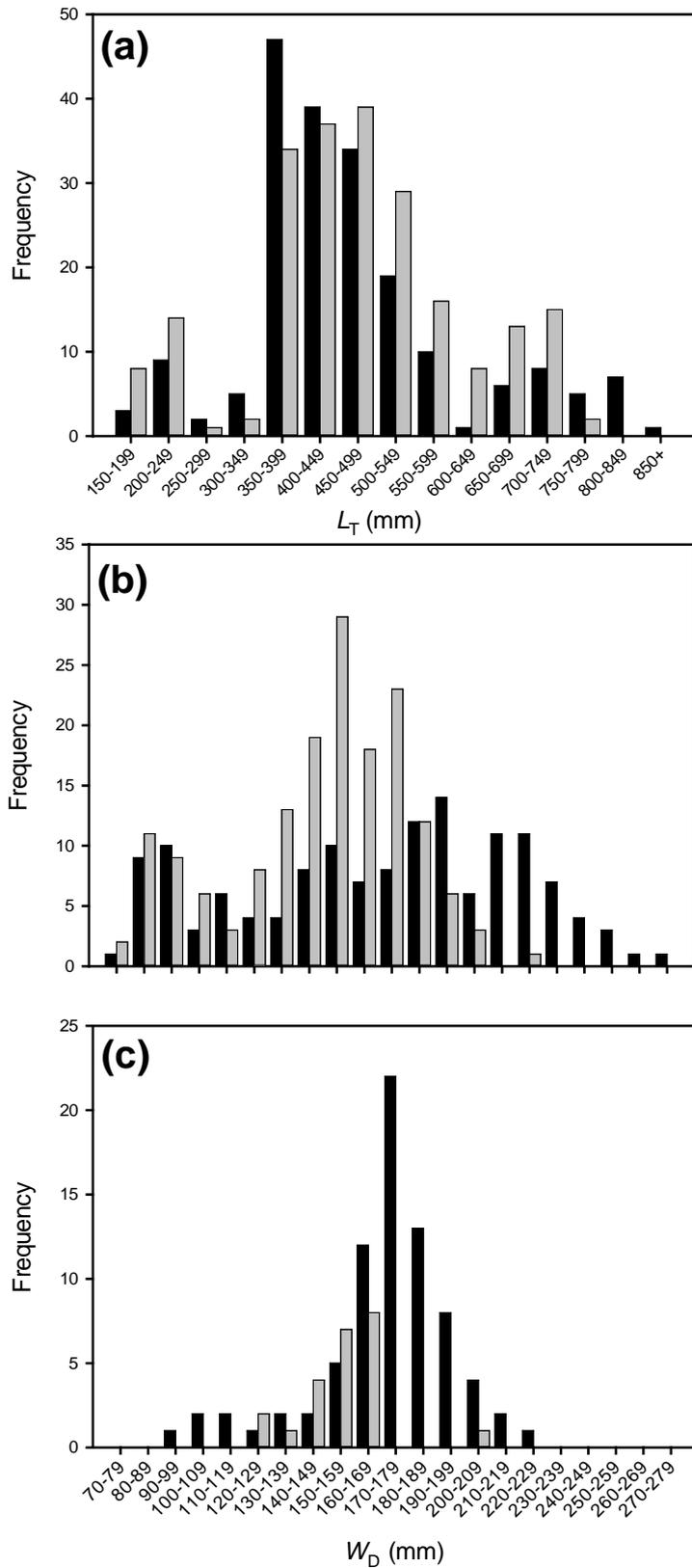


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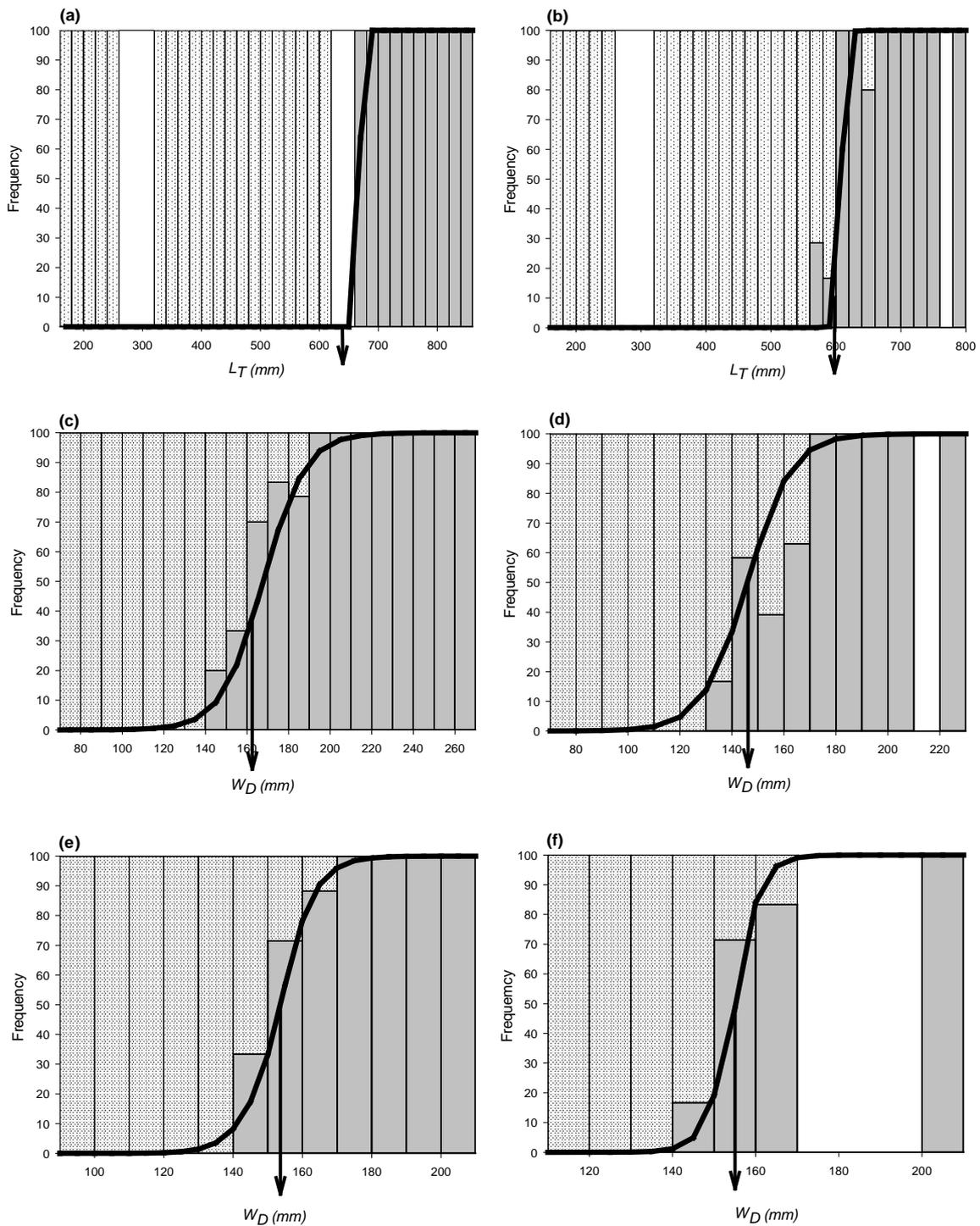
579 FIG. 1. Sample collection sites for (a) *Aptychotrema rostrata*, (b) *Trygonoptera testacea*, and (c) *Urolophus kapalensis* and *Urolophus sufflavus*

580 from off the coast of south-east and central Queensland, Australia. Inset shows sample area circumscribed by a square.

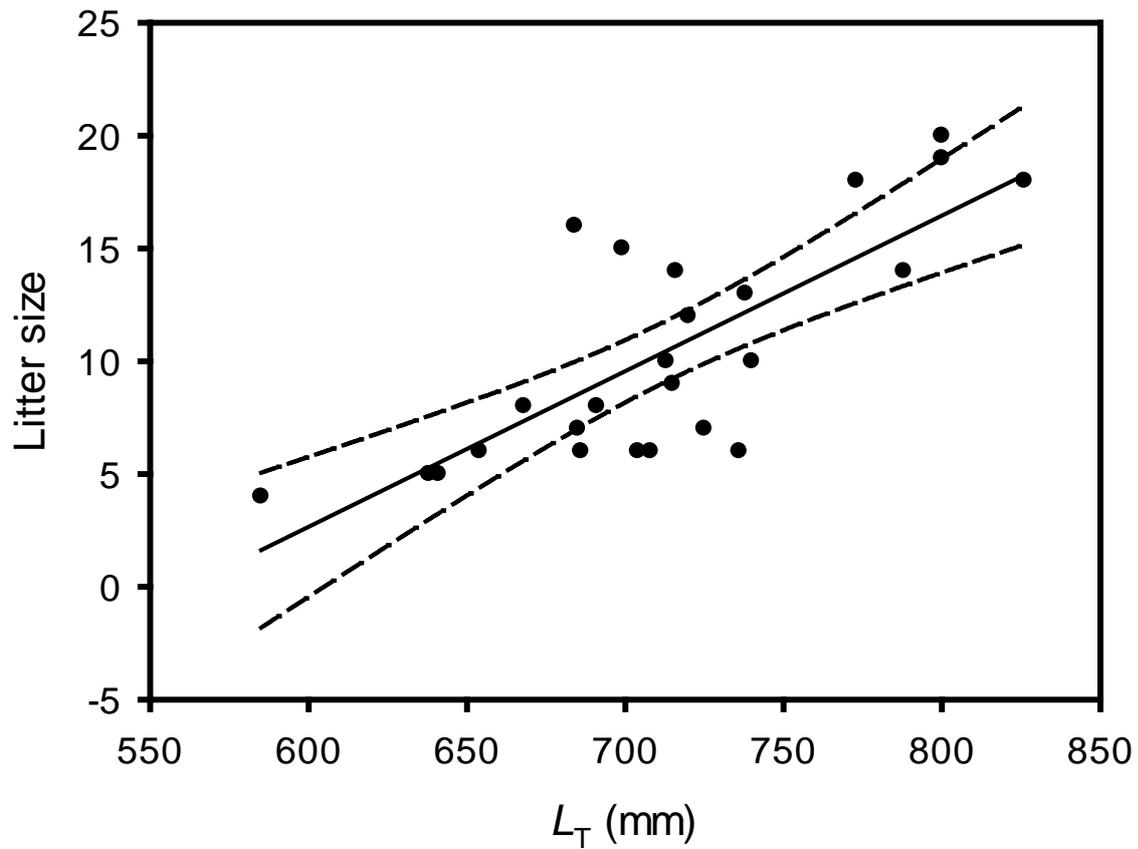
581



583 FIG. 2. Size (L_T , total length; W_D , disc width)-frequency histogram of female (black bars) and
584 male (grey bars) (a) *Aptychotrema rostrata*, (b) *Trygonoptera testacea*, and (c) *Urolophus*
585 *kapalensis*.



586
587 FIG. 3. Frequency of occurrence of immature (transparent grey bars) and mature (solid grey
588 bars), and maturity curves for (a) female *Aptychotrema rostrata*, (b) male *Aptychotrema*
589 *rostrata*, (c) female *Trygonoptera testacea*, (d) male *Trygonoptera testacea*, (e) female
590 *Urolophus kapalensis*, and (f) male *Urolophus kapalensis*. Arrows denote L_{T50} and W_{D50} . White
591 bars, no data. L_T , total length; W_D , disc width.



592
593 FIG 4. Linear regression analysis of litter size ($R^2 = 0.594$, $P < 0.001$, $n = 25$) with respect to
594 maternal size (L_T , total length) of *Aptychotrema rostrata*. Data combined from present study
595 and Kyne & Bennett (2002). Dashed lines show 95 % confidence intervals.