



UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AUTÓNOMA DE MÉXICO
POSGRADO EN CIENCIAS BIOLÓGICAS
INSTITUTO DE BIOLOGÍA

**PRESENCIA Y VARIABILIDAD GENÉTICA HISTÓRICA Y CONTEMPORÁNEA DE
Batrachochytrium EN MÉXICO, SU INTERACCIÓN CON EL MICROBIOMA DE
LA PIEL DE LOS ANFIBIOS Y RIESGO POTENCIAL**

TESIS

QUE PARA OPTAR POR EL GRADO DE:
DOCTORA EN CIENCIAS

PRESENTA:

M. en C. María Delia Basanta

TUTORA PRINCIPAL DE TESIS: Dra. Gabriela Parra Olea
Instituto de Biología, UNAM

COMITÉ TUTOR: **Dra. Valeria Francisca Eugenia Leopoldina**
de María de Guadalupe Souza Saldívar
Instituto de Ecología, UNAM
Dr. Gerardo Suzán Azpiri
Facultad de Veterinaria, UNAM



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P r e s e n t e

Me permito informar a usted que en la reunión del Subcomité por Campo de Conocimiento de Ecología, Manejo Integral de Ecosistemas, Biología Evolutiva y Sistemática del Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, celebrada el día 23 de marzo de 2020, se aprobó el siguiente jurado para el examen de grado de **DOCTORA EN CIENCIAS** de la alumna **BASANTA MARÍA DELIA** con número de cuenta **513452871** con la tesis titulada: “**Presencia y variabilidad genética histórica y contemporánea de *Batrachochytrium* en México, su interacción con el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios y riesgo potencial**”, realizada bajo la dirección de la **DRA. GABRIELA PARRA OLEA**, quedando integrado de la siguiente manera:

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DR. ADOLFO GERARDO NAVARRO SIGÜENZA



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UNIDAD DE POSGRADO

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Alcaldía Coyoacán. C. P. 04510 CDMX
Tel. (+5255)5623 7002 <http://pcbiol.posgrado.unam.mx/>

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RESUMEN

La quitridiomicosis, enfermedad emergente causada por *Batrachochytrium dendrobatis* (*Bd*) y *B. salamandivorans* (*Bsal*), ha sido identificada como la principal causa de la crisis, declive y extinción de más de 500 especies de anfibios. Estudios recientes señalan al este de Asia como el centro de origen de estos patógenos, incluyendo cinco linajes genéticos de *Bd* y uno de *Bsal*. Cuatro linajes de *Bd* se encuentran sólo en ciertas localidades, mientras que el linaje panzoótico global (*Bd*-GPL) posee una distribución mundial y es el único que se ha vinculado con la disminución de anfibios. Los declives de anfibios ocurridos en América entre 1970's y 1990's han sido relacionados con la presencia histórica de *Bd* en anfibios de colección, lo que sugiere que su llegada causó brotes epizoóticos en el continente. La distribución global de *Bd* no se encuentra asociada a un ambiente u hospedero en particular, y esto se debe a que distintos factores juegan un papel importante en el desarrollo de la enfermedad y la dinámica de infección. Trabajos recientes han incorporado el papel del microbioma de la piel de los anfibios en las infecciones por *Bd* y *Bsal*, encontrando que algunas comunidades de bacterias pueden inhibir el crecimiento de estos patógenos, representando así un factor importante para la sobrevivencia de los anfibios ante esta enfermedad.

Actualmente en México, se han identificado 83 especies de anfibios infectadas por *Bd*. Además de ser uno de los países con mayor riqueza de anfibios en el mundo, su ubicación geográfica y los declives ocurridos lo hace una región muy importante para el estudio de la quitridiomicosis. La presencia de *Bd* en el país ha sido confirmada desde 1970's y a su vez relacionada con declives de anfibios tanto de México como de Centro y Sur América. Sin embargo, estudios recientes sugieren una presencia más antigua en el continente. La mayoría de los estudios relacionados a este patógeno se han enfocado sólo en su detección, por lo que información respecto a su variabilidad genética, factores del hospedero como el microbioma de su piel, y posible riesgo ante una introducción de *Bsal* como patógeno emergente, son casi nulos.

En este trabajo se evaluó la quitridiomicosis en los anfibios de México, considerando la presencia histórica y los linajes genéticos de *Bd*, su relación con el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios, y la distribución potencial de *Bsal* en el país. En el Capítulo I, se

determinaron los patrones históricos y contemporáneos de prevalencia y variación genética de *Bd* en México. Aquí, se combinaron muestras históricas de hisopados de anfibios de colección con muestras actuales de hisopados y aislados de *Bd*, para analizar la presencia y diversidad genética de *Bd* en el país. Se encontró una presencia antigua de *Bd* en México desde al menos 1890's, y un dominio contemporáneo del linaje genético panzoótico global *Bd*-GPL en todo el país. En el Capítulo II, se analizó la relación entre el nivel de infección y la diversidad genética de *Bd*, con la comunidad de bacterias de la piel de *Hyliola regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) en Baja California. Para esto, se utilizaron datos de infección por *Bd*, amplicones de la región V4 16S rRNA de muestras de hisopados de la piel, y datos genéticos de *Bd* generados en el capítulo anterior. Los resultados sugieren que la intensidad de la infección por *Bd*, la cepa de *Bd* y el ambiente, son factores importantes en la configuración de las comunidades bacterianas de la piel de los anfibios. Finalmente, en el Capítulo III se identificaron las áreas y especies que *Bsal* podría potencialmente afectar en México, teniendo en cuenta la distribución potencial de este patógeno y la distribución de salamandras. Aquí se identificó que las áreas del centro y sur del país son idóneas para el establecimiento de *Bsal* y poseen una alta riqueza de salamandras. De estas áreas, 13 se denominaron puntos críticos para su vigilancia y monitoreo debido al alto riesgo y diversidad que representan. Esta tesis demuestra que la interacción entre *Batrachochytrium* y los anfibios en México es compleja y proporciona el marco para probar nuevas preguntas relacionadas a las especies infectadas por *Bd*, los genotipos históricos de *Bd*, las interacciones entre genotipos de *Bd* y microbiomas de piel de anfibios, y el potencial riesgo de las especies a *Bsal*. Los esfuerzos de conservación para los anfibios en México deberán centrarse en prevenir la llegada de *Bsal* y de nuevos genotipos de *Bd* altamente virulentos, así como su transmisión entre las poblaciones, por lo que se recomienda tomar medidas para su estudio y monitoreo.

ABSTRACT

Chytridiomycosis, the emerging disease caused by *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) and *B. salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*) is one of the main causes of decline and extinction in more than 500 amphibian species. Recent studies found that East Asia is the center of origin of these pathogens, having *Bd* five genetic lineages and *Bsal* one. Four *Bd* lineages are found only in a few locations, while the global panzootic lineage (*Bd*-GPL) has a worldwide distribution and is the one responsible for the amphibian declines. Amphibian declines occurred in America between the 1970s and 1990s and have been associated to the historical presence of *Bd* in specimens from scientific collections, suggesting that its arrival caused epizootic outbreaks in the continent. The global distribution of *Bd* is not associated with a particular environment or host, and this is because several factors play an important role in the development of the disease and the dynamics of infection. Recent work has incorporated the role of the amphibian skin microbiome in *Bd* and *Bsal* infections, finding that bacterial communities can ameliorate infections and some bacterial strains are able to inhibit pathogen growth.

Currently, there are 83 amphibian species that have been positive for *Bd* infection in Mexico. Due to Mexico's geographic location, its high amphibian richness, and the amphibian declines that have occurred in the country, this is a very important region to study chytridiomycosis. The presence of *Bd* in the country has been confirmed since the 1970's and was related to amphibian declines in Mexico, Central, and South America. However, recent studies have suggested an older presence of *Bd* in the continent. Most of the studies related to this pathogen in Mexico only have focused on its detection, with little information about its genetic variability, interaction with host factors such as amphibian microbiome, and potential risk of *Bsal* introduction.

In this work, we evaluated the extent of chytridiomycosis in Mexico by examining the historical presence and *Bd* genetic lineages in the country, its relationship with the amphibian skin microbiome, and the potential distribution of *Bsal*. In Chapter I, the historical and contemporary patterns of *Bd* prevalence and *Bd* genetic variation in Mexico were determined. Here, historical sample swabs from collection specimens were combined

with current swabs and *Bd* isolates samples to analyze the occurrence and genetic diversity of *Bd* in Mexico. An old presence of *Bd* was found since 1890s, with a contemporary domain of the global panzootic lineage (*Bd*-GPL) across the country. In Chapter II, the relationship between *Bd* genotype and *Bd* infection load was analyzed with the skin bacteria community of *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* in Baja California. For this, we analyzed *Bd* prevalence and infection data, 16S rRNA amplicons of the V4 region from skin swab samples, and *Bd* genetic data generated in the previous chapter. Our results suggest that *Bd* genetics and infection load is associated with the skin bacterial composition, suggesting that these are significant factors shaping amphibian skin bacterial communities during infection dynamics. Finally, in Chapter III the areas and species that *Bsal* could potentially affect in Mexico were identified, considering the potential distribution of *Bsal* and salamander distributions. Here, the central and southern areas of the country were identified as suitable for the establishment of *Bsal*, which also has a high salamander richness. Of these areas, 13 were called as hotspots for surveillance and monitoring due to the high risk and salamander diversity that they represent. This thesis demonstrates that the interaction between *Batrachochytrium* and amphibians in Mexico is complex providing the framework to test new questions about species infected by *Bd*, historical *Bd* genotypes, interactions between *Bd* genotypes and amphibian skin microbiome, and the potential risk of amphibian species to *Bsal*. Conservation efforts in Mexico should focus on preventing the arrival of *Bsal* and new highly virulent *Bd* genotypes, as well as their transmission among populations, thus we recommend to take measures for the monitoring of these pathogens in the wild.

INTRODUCCIÓN GENERAL

En los últimos años el declive de especies ha incrementado globalmente, y entre los factores principales se encuentran la destrucción del hábitat, cambio climático, contaminación, introducción y comercio ilegal de especies, y las enfermedades infecciosas emergentes (Dirzo & Raven, 2003; Daszak et al., 2004; Wake & Vredenburg, 2008; Hoffmann et al., 2010). Los cambios en las condiciones ambientales y el tráfico de especies, han facilitado la introducción de nuevos patógenos a sistemas endémicos, resultando en un aumento de enfermedades infecciosas emergentes (Tompkins et al., 2015). Estas enfermedades son de reciente identificación y se caracterizan por ser epidémicas y ocurrir en regiones donde anteriormente no habían sido detectadas. Sus patógenos amplían rápidamente el rango geográfico, hospederos o prevalencia, lo que representa un riesgo global y una amenaza sustancial para la biodiversidad (Racaniello, 2004).

La emergencia de la quitridiomicosis en anfibios ha sido relacionada como una de las principales causas de la crisis global de este grupo, del cual más del 40 % de las especies se encuentran en declive (Stuart et al., 2004; Scheele et al., 2019). Esta enfermedad es causada por los hongos quitridiomicetos *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) y *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*), pertenecientes al Phylum Chytridiomycota, Orden Rhizophydiales (Longcore et al., 1999; Martel et al., 2013). Tanto *Bd* como *Bsal* afectan la piel queratinizada de los anfibios, causando un desequilibrio osmótico seguido por fallas cardíacas y la muerte en muchos casos (Berger et al., 1999). *Batrachochytrium* es el único género en este grupo que ha sido descrito como patógeno de vertebrados (Joneson et al., 2011), destacándose que hasta la fecha *Bd* ha infectado a más de 700 especies de anfibios y es el responsable de importantes disminuciones en poblaciones de Australia, Europa y América del Norte, Centro y Sur (Skerratt et al., 2007; Olson et al., 2013; Scheele et al., 2019). Por otro lado, *Bsal* ha sido vinculado con mortalidades de *Salamandra salamandra* en el norte de Europa, y estudios experimentales han documentado que sus infecciones afectan principalmente a los caudados (Martel et al., 2014; Stegen et al., 2017), lo que podría causar grandes declives en otras poblaciones del mundo (Martel et al., 2013; Martel et al., 2014).

La predicción y abordaje de posibles nuevos brotes de la enfermedad puede lograrse a partir de la comprensión del origen y emergencia de estos patógenos. Para este fin, es fundamental la integración de datos genéticos, junto con datos de incidencia histórica y muestreos recientes (Morehouse et al., 2003; Weldon et al., 2004; Lips et al., 2008; Goka et al., 2009; James et al., 2009; Soto-Azat et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2011, Farrer et al., 2011; Schloegel et al., 2012; Olson et al., 2013; Rosenblum et al., 2013; Rodriguez et al., 2014; Talley et al., 2015; Jenkinson et al., 2016; Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017; Byrne et al., 2019; Scheele et al., 2019). A partir de estudios de genética de poblaciones de *Bd*, el este de Asia ha sido reconocido como el área de origen de *Bd* y *Bsal* (O'Hanlon et al., 2018). Por otra parte la presencia de *Bd* desde los años 1970's en anfibios de colección de América ha sugerido a este patógeno como la causa de disminuciones en las poblaciones de anfibios del continente (Lips et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2011). Los estudios más recientes han revelado que *Bd* comprende cinco linajes genéticos y *Bsal* sólo uno (O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). Cuatro linajes de *Bd* (*Bd*-CAPE, *Bd*-Asia1, *Bd*-Asia2/Brasil y *Bd*-Asia3) se han encontrado en localidades restringidas, mientras que el linaje panzoótico global (*Bd*-GPL) posee una distribución mundial y es el único que se ha relacionado con la disminución de anfibios (Farrer et al., 2011; Schloegel et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). Además, estudios experimentales de infección sugieren que *Bd*-GPL es el linaje más virulento, causando una mayor mortalidad en las especies infectadas respecto a otros linajes (Farrer et al., 2011).

Actualmente la distribución global de *Bd* no se encuentra asociada a un ambiente u hospedero en particular, y esto se debe a que ambos componentes juegan un papel importante en el desarrollo y la dinámica de infección. Entre los factores ambientales que se han identificado como determinantes en los resultados de la enfermedad, se encuentra el clima, la altitud, la estacionalidad, la exposición a los rayos ultravioleta y los agroquímicos (Johnson et al., 2003; Lips et al., 2003; Ron, 2005; Kriger & Hero ,2007; Kriger & Hero, 2008; Kinney et al., 2011; Olson et al., 2013; James et al., 2015); mientras que factores del hospedero incluyen el tamaño, el estado de vida , el modo de vida, y su sistema inmune (Lips et al. 2003, Ellison et al. 2014, Bataille et al. 2015, James et al. 2015). Trabajos recientes han incorporado el papel del microbioma en las infecciones por *Bd* y *Bsal*, encontrando que las comunidades de bacterias asociadas a la piel de los anfibios pueden

inhibir el crecimiento de estos patógenos (Harris et al., 2009; Kueneman et al., 2014; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017; Bates et al., 2019). La capacidad inhibitoria de estas bacterias es debido a que pueden producir metabolitos antifúngicos (Bresciano et al., 2015; Rebollar et al., 2016; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017; Bates et al., 2018). El estudio de la interacción entre estos patógenos y el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios podría ayudar a comprender por qué algunas especies disminuyen mientras otras no frente a una infección, además de representar una alternativa para mitigar los efectos de la quitridiomicosis en anfibios susceptibles.

La emergencia de *Bsal* como nuevo patógeno emergente y con características similares a las de *Bd*, ha desatado una gran preocupación entre los investigadores y las agencias de conservación, ya que este patógeno ha causado la muerte de especies de salamandras nativas en Europa (Martel et al., 2013). La posible dispersión de este patógeno hacia otras regiones con alta diversidad de salamandras como México y Estados Unidos, podría causar efectos devastadores como los observados con *Bd* a nivel global (Scheele et al., 2019). Estudios experimentales han documentado que las infecciones por *Bsal* son perjudiciales para los caudados incluso a niveles muy bajos de zoosporas (Martel et al., 2014; Stegen et al., 2017), mientras que los anuros pueden coexistir con las infecciones y actuar como reservorios (Nguyen et al., 2017; Stegen et al., 2017). Estudios recientes en poblaciones de salamandras europeas determinaron que la combinación de la estrategia de transmisión de *Bsal* con esporas de resistencia, junto a su virulencia y dinámica con la población hospedera, podría tener efectos catastróficos en otras poblaciones de salamandras del mundo (Martel et al., 2014; Stegen et al., 2017). Además, infecciones experimentales con *Bd* y *Bsal*, han documentado que las co-infecciones por ambos patógenos son más letales que las infecciones causadas por sólo uno de ellos (Longo et al., 2019). En consecuencia, la urgencia de esta situación requiere una estimación del efecto potencial de este patógeno en nuevas áreas.

Quitridiomicosis en México

Siendo México uno de los países con mayor riqueza de anfibios en el mundo (Parra-Olea et al., 2014), su ubicación geográfica y los declives ocurridos, lo hacen una región muy importante para el estudio de la quitridiomicosis. Estudios retrospectivos de la

presencia de *Bd* en anfibios de colecciones, junto con estudios de genética de poblaciones del patógeno, han respaldado la hipótesis de que *Bd* llegó a México en la década de 1970 extendiéndose como una onda epizoótica hacia América Central y del Sur (Lips et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2011; Velo-Antón et al., 2012). La presencia más antigua de *Bd* fue encontrada por Cheng et al., (2011) en anfibios del centro y sur de México colectados en 1972, relacionándose con declives de anfibios de ese tiempo (Parra-Olea et al., 1999; Rovito et al., 2009; Lips et al., 2004; Hale et al., 2005). Sin embargo, la falta de un muestreo más antiguo y en otras regiones del país, sumado a estudios recientes que confirman una presencia de *Bd* más antigua en el continente (e.g., Estados Unidos, Talley et al., 2015; Bolivia, Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017), podrían indicar que este patógeno es más antiguo en México también.

El estudio de la quitridiomicosis en los anfibios de México se ha centrado principalmente en analizar la prevalencia entre poblaciones y hábitats de los anfibios (Mendoza-Almeralla et al., 2015; López-Velázquez, 2018; Bolom-Huet et al., 2019). Hasta la fecha, *Bd* ha sido detectado en 83 especies de anfibios de México (de las cuales 44 son especies endémicas de México) (Basanta et al., 2019; Bolom-Huet et al., 2019; Hernández-Martínez et al., 2019), y los estudios de caracterización genética, relación con el microbioma de sus hospederos, y posible riesgo de *Bsal* han sido escasos (Velo-Antón et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; Yap et al., 2015; García-Sánchez, 2017; Ellison et al., 2019). La presencia del linaje *Bd*-GPL ha sido detectada en individuos de Chiapas y de cautiverio, mientras que la identidad genética para el resto del país es desconocida (Rosenblum et al., 2013; Byrne et al., 2019). Por otra parte, los trabajos de microbioma de la piel de anfibios de México han encontrado una gran variabilidad en la composición bacteriana de la piel de los anfibios (García-Sánchez, 2017; Ellison et al., 2019), sin embargo, su interacción con *Bd* y *Bsal* ha sido poco estudiada. Finalmente, la distribución y prevalencia de *Bsal* en otras regiones del mundo sigue siendo desconocida (Yap et al., 2015; González et al., 2019), y su posible introducción a México podría poner en riesgo a las salamandras del país y su biodiversidad asociada.

Por todo lo anterior, el presente trabajo evalúa la quitridiomicosis en los anfibios de México, la presencia histórica y linajes genéticos de *Bd*, su relación con el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios, y la distribución potencial de *Bsal*. En el capítulo I se determinaron

los patrones históricos y contemporáneos de prevalencia y variación genética de *Bd* en México; en el capítulo II se analizó la relación entre el microbioma de la piel de *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)*, el genotipo y nivel de infección por *Bd*; y en el capítulo III se identificaron las áreas y especies que *Bsal* podría potencialmente afectar en México, teniendo en cuenta la distribución potencial de este patógeno y la distribución de salamandras.

OBJETIVO GENERAL

Evaluar la presencia histórica y contemporánea de la quitridiomicosis en anfibios de México, identificando sus linajes genéticos, su relación con el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios, y la distribución potencial de *Bsal* en el país.

OBJETIVOS PARTICULARES

1. Evaluar la presencia antigua de *Bd* en México por medio de su detección en anfibios preservados en colecciones científicas.
2. Cuantificar la prevalencia contemporánea e histórica de *Bd* en México por medio de su detección en anfibios de vida silvestre y preservados en colecciones científicas.
3. Determinar los linajes de *Bd* presentes en México y su distribución geográfica utilizando un método de genotipado en hisopados y aislados de *Bd* de anfibios.
4. Cuantificar la diversidad genética entre las poblaciones de *Bd* de México, y determinar si tiene un patrón geográfico.
5. Determinar la interacción entre la prevalencia, el nivel de infección y genotipo de *Bd* con el microbioma de la piel de los anfibios, utilizando como modelo de estudio poblaciones de *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* en Baja California.
6. Detectar las áreas idóneas para *Bsal* en México a partir del modelado de su nicho ecológico, e identificar su relación con la distribución de salamandras en el país.

CAPITULO 1

Manuscrito:

Early presence of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico with a contemporary dominance of the global panzootic lineage

En revisión en Molecular Ecology

Early presence of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico with a contemporary dominance of the global panzootic lineage

Short title: *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico

M. Delia Basanta^{1,2}, Allison Q. Byrne^{3,4}, Erica B. Rosenblum^{3,4}, Jonah Piovia-Scott⁵, and Gabriela Parra-Olea^{1*}

¹Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

²Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, AP 70-153, C.P. 04510, Ciudad de México, México

³Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of California, Berkeley, CA

⁴Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, University of California, Berkeley

⁵School of Biological Sciences, Washington State University, Vancouver

*Corresponding author

Gabriela Parra-Olea: gparra@ib.unam.mx

Abstract

Chytridiomycosis, caused by the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*), is a devastating infectious disease of amphibians. Retrospective studies using museum vouchers and genetic samples supported the hypothesis that *Bd* colonized Mexico from North America and then continued to spread into Central and South America, where it led to dramatic losses in tropical amphibian biodiversity (the epizootic wave hypothesis). While these studies suggest that *Bd* has been in Mexico since the 1970s, information regarding the historical and contemporary occurrence of different pathogen genetic lineages across the country is limited. In the current study, we investigated the historical and contemporary

patterns of *Bd* in Mexico. We combined the swabbing of historical museum vouchers and sampling of wild amphibians with a custom *Bd* genotyping assay to assess the presence, prevalence, and genetic diversity of *Bd* over time in Mexico. We found a *Bd*-positive museum specimen from the late 1800s, far earlier than previous records and well before recent amphibian declines. We observed a contemporary dominance of the global panzootic lineage in Mexico and report four genetic subpopulations and potential for admixture among these populations. The observed genetic variation did not have a clear geographic signature or provide clear support for the epizootic wave hypothesis. These results provide a framework for testing new questions regarding *Bd* invasions and their temporal relationship to observed amphibian declines in the Americas.

Keywords: Chytridiomycosis, amphibians, infectious disease, pathogen

Introduction

Chytridiomycosis is caused by the fungal pathogen *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) and has caused mass die-offs and declines in amphibians worldwide (Gascon et al., 2007). First described in 1999 (Longcore, Pessier, & Nichols, 1999), this pathogen has impacted hundreds of species in Australia and North, Central and South America (Skerratt et al., 2007). Individuals susceptible to *Bd* can die from skin hyperkeratosis, hyperplasia and disruption of the osmotic and electrolyte balance (Berger et al., 1998; Voyles et al., 2009). To date, *Bd* has been detected on all continents where amphibians occur, and while some species exhibit declines, other species can carry the infection without signs of disease, promoting the spread of the pathogen (Reeder, Pessier, & Vredenburg, 2012).

Detection of *Bd* in wild, captive, and preserved specimens is possible using skin swabbing and quantitative PCR (qPCR) (Boyle, Boyle, Olsen, Morgan & Hyatt, 2004; Retallik, Miera, Richards, Field, & Collins, 2006; Hyatt et al., 2007; Cheng, Rovito, Wake, & Vredenburg, 2011). In addition, the isolation of pure *Bd* cultures from host skin has been a powerful tool for understanding the morphology, physiology, virulence, and genetic variation of the pathogen (Longcore et al., 1999; Piotrowski, Annis, & Longcore, 2004; Berger, Hyatt, Speare, & Longcore, 2005; Berger, Marantelli, Skerratt, & Speare, 2005; Fisher, Garner, & Walker, 2009; Rosenblum, Fisher, James, Stajich, Longcore, Gentry, & Poorten, 2010; Rosenblum et al., 2013; Voyles et al., 2014; Jenkinson et al., 2016; O'Hanlon et al., 2018). Both techniques have helped researchers reconstruct the history of the disease by providing information regarding historical occurrences (using field-collected and museum preserved specimens) and shedding light on patterns of genetic diversity (using field-swabs and cultured isolates).

Bd detection from historical samples has been used as an indicator of possible areas of origin and to trace possible routes of spread (Weldon, Du Preez, Hyatt, Muller, & Speare, 2004; Lips, Diffendorfer, Mendelson, & Sears, 2008; Goka et al., 2009; Soto-Azat, Clarke, Poynton, & Cunningham, 2010; Cheng et al., 2011; Rodriguez, Becker, Pupin, Haddad, & Zamudio, 2014). Initial studies of historical samples suggested an Asian or African origin of *Bd* with occurrences dating back to the 1900s (Weldon et al., 2004; Goka et al., 2009; Soto-Azat et al., 2010). However, recent studies found an even earlier *Bd* presence in the Americas tracing back to the 1860s in Bolivia (Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017), 1880s in the United States (Talley, Muletz, Vredenburg, Fleischer, & Lips, 2015), and 1890s in Brazil (Rodriguez et al., 2014). These retrospective studies cannot provide the conclusive date of *Bd*'s arrival given the challenges of detecting low prevalence and intensity infections from

preserved specimens. However, these studies provide hypotheses regarding when *Bd* became established in different regions worldwide.

Molecular studies complement historical detection studies and indicate a deep evolutionary history of *Bd* with several lineages distributed worldwide. To date, five lineages have been described based on whole-genome and swab genotyping phylogenies (O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). Four lineages, namely, *BdCAPE*, *BdAsia1*, *BdAsia2/Brazil*, and *BdAsia3*, have been found in restricted localities worldwide. Furthermore, the global panzootic lineage (*Bd*-GPL) is distributed worldwide and is thought to be responsible for most documented *Bd*-related amphibian declines (Farrer et al., 2011; Schloegel et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). The phylogenetic relationships among the five lineages suggest that *BdAsia* is the most basal lineage and that *Bd*-GPL is the most recent lineage (Farrer et al., 2011; James et al., 2015; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). Several studies have also found that *Bd*-GPL includes the following two genetic groups: *Bd*-GPL-1, which is primarily found in North America and Europe, and *Bd*-GPL-2, which is distributed worldwide (Schloegel et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; James et al., 2015; Jenkinson et al., 2016; Marshall et al., 2019). Due to the widespread occurrence of *Bd*-GPL in America, many amphibian declines on the continent were attributed to the arrival of this lineage as a novel pathogen (*Bd*-GPL-1 in North America and *Bd*-GPL-2 in Central America; Schloegel et al., 2012; James et al., 2015). However, information regarding the genetic variation within each group and the timing of historical arrivals to continents is limited, constraining insight into patterns of biogeographic spread within continents.

Mexico is an important region for the study of chytridiomycosis due to its geographic location. Retrospective studies investigating the presence of *Bd* in museum vouchers and

population genetic studies have supported the epizootic wave hypothesis, which posits that *Bd* arrived and spread in Mexico from North America (USA) and then subsequently spread to Central and South America, where it caused dramatic declines in amphibian biodiversity (Lips et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2011; Velo-Antón, Rodríguez, Savage, Parra-Olea, Lips, & Zamudio, 2012). Cheng et al. (2011) found the earliest presence of *Bd* in Mexico in the 1970s in salamanders from Central and Southern Mexico. This early occurrence has been linked to both salamander population declines in Veracruz, Hidalgo, Oaxaca, and Chiapas (Parra-Olea, García-París, & Wake, 1999; Rovito, Parra-Olea, Vásquez-Almazán, Papenfuss, & Wake, 2009) and anuran population declines and local extinctions in Sonora, Guerrero, Oaxaca, and Chiapas by the mid-late 1970s and mid-1980s (Lips, Mendelson, Muñoz-Alonso, Canseco-Márquez, & Mulcahy, 2004; Hale, Rosen, Jarchow, & Bradley, 2005). Prior genetic analyses of *Bd* using samples from southern Mexico and captive amphibians have been consistent with the epizootic wave hypothesis. There appears to be low *Bd* genetic diversity in the region with a reduction in heterozygosity from North to Central America (Velo-Antón et al., 2012). Further, the genetic identity of several samples from Chiapas and a captive specimen from a market in Mexico City belong to *Bd*-GPL (Rosenblum et al., 2013; Byrne et al., 2019). However, wider spatial surveys of museum collections and molecular analyses of *Bd* genotypes countrywide are necessary to better understand the patterns of spread and test the validity of the epizootic wave hypothesis of the emergence of *Bd* in both Mexico and America.

In this study, we aimed to determine the historical and contemporary patterns of prevalence and genetic variation of *Bd* in Mexico. We combined the swabbing of historical vouchers and contemporary wild animals with *Bd* isolation from wild amphibians to analyze the presence, prevalence, and genetic diversity of *Bd*. Our objectives were to (i) identify the

earliest occurrence of *Bd* in Mexico, (ii) quantify the historical and contemporary prevalence of *Bd* in Mexico, (iii) identify the *Bd* lineages occurring in Mexico and their geographic distribution, and (iv) understand the geographical pattern of *Bd* genetic diversity across the region. Taken together, our results provide insight into the history and genetics of *Bd* in a crucial region for chytridiomycosis spread.

Materials and methods

Historical and contemporary sampling

The historical samples were collected from skin swabs of 498 post-metamorphic preserved amphibian specimens collected between 1894 and 1985. These specimens were housed in herpetological collections at the Museum of Vertebrate Zoology Berkeley (MVZ), Colección Nacional de Anfibios y Reptiles de México (CNAR), and Museo de Zoología Facultad de Ciencias UNAM (MZFC). Before sampling, we undertook precautions to minimize sample contamination. Equipment and workspace were continually cleaned before taking samples. Each preserved individual was rinsed with 70% ethanol, and gloves were rinsed or changed between animals to decrease cross contamination by errant skin pieces in preservation jars. The contemporary samples were obtained from 721 individuals collected between 2016 and 2019 in 154 localities in Mexico. The individuals were captured using a new inverted plastic bag, manipulated with a new pair of nitrile gloves to avoid cross-contamination (Phillott et al., 2010), and returned to the site where they were found.

Swab sampling of both the historical and contemporary specimens was performed using standardized methods and Medical Wire swabs (MW113 rayon swabs, Medical Wire and Equipment, Corsham, UK) (Hyatt et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2011). This is a noninvasive

genetic method to avoid damaging specimens, especially older ones, which has been used reliably in many other studies of historical *Bd* dynamics (Soto-Azat et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2011; Richards-Hrdlicka, 2012; Huss, Huntley, Vredenburg, Johns, & Green, 2013; Rodríguez et al., 2014; Fong et al., 2015; Sette, Vredenburg, & Zink, 2015; Talley et al. 2015; Watters et al., 2016; Yap et al., 2016; De León, Vredenburg, & Piovia-Scott, 2017; Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017; Vredenburg et al., 2019). It is also preferable to histology because histology has low sensitivity for detecting *Bd* in museum specimens given the poor skin quality of old specimens (Padgett-Flohr & Hopkins II, 2009; Fong et al., 2015) and localized infections that often cannot be detected by histology (Berger, Speare, & Kent, 1999; Olluet et al., 2005; Reeder et al., 2012). All skin swabs were stored in sterile 1.5-mL tubes with 70% ethanol and then frozen at -20°C until the DNA extraction.

Chytrid isolation

Bd isolates were cultured from the wild-caught individuals used for the swab sampling following a nonlethal isolation technique according to Cook, Voyles, Kenny, Pope, & Piovia-Scott (2018). Briefly, one skin sample was collected from each individual using a sterile biopsy punch with a diameter of 1.5 mm (Integra Miltex). The skin samples were manipulated using a needle that was flame-sterilized between uses. Each skin sample was cleaned on a TGhl agar plate (500 mL of H₂O, 4 g of tryptone, 1 g of hydrolysate gelatin, 5 g of bacteriological agar, and 2 g of lactose) with antibiotics (100 mg of penicillin and 250 mg of streptomycin). The cleaning consisted of submerging and repeatedly drawing the sample into the agar plate. Then, the cleaned piece was placed in a new TGhl agar plate with antibiotics. The plates were stored in a cooler with ice packs for transport to the laboratory. In the laboratory, the plates were maintained at 20°C. The presence of *Bd* was checked the following week using microscopy to observe motile zoospores and

zoosporangia. If the presence of *Bd* was confirmed, the sample was transferred to fresh TGhL liquid medium without antibiotics. In total, 878 individuals were sampled, and from these individuals, 154 *Bd* strains were successfully isolated.

DNA extraction and qPCR assays for Bd detection

Chytrid DNA was extracted from swabs using the following two extraction methods: Prepman Ultra and the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit. The Prepman extractions were used for 445 historical and 566 contemporary swab samples following Boyle et al. (2004). Given that the Qiagen extraction results in a higher quantity and quality of extracted DNA (Cheng et al. 2011), we switched to this approach for 78 historical and 154 chytrid-isolated contemporary samples and followed the tissue extraction protocol (Table S1).

For the *Bd* detection, we used a StepOnePlus real-time PCR system (qPCR) (Applied Biosystems). The contemporary samples were analyzed in singlicate with a negative and positive control, and the historical samples were analyzed in duplicate with a negative and positive control as suggested by Kriger, Hero, & Ashton (2006). Historical samples with one of the two replicates testing positive were categorized as *Bd* positive.

Analysis of the historical prevalence of Bd

The historical samples were grouped into 10-yr temporal intervals (1930-1939, 1940-1949, 1950-1959, and 1960-1969), except for the first and last historical periods (1984-1929 and 1970-1985), which were grouped in larger intervals due to having fewer samples and temporal gaps in the sampling records.

We evaluated the historical patterns of *Bd* prevalence using a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with a logit link function and a binomial error distribution (i.e., a mixed

logistic regression) in R (R Core Team, 2019). The response variable was the presence or absence of a positive qPCR signal for *Bd* on each swab from a museum specimen. To assess the temporal patterns in *Bd* prevalence and evaluate evidence related to the pattern of spread from North to South, the time period (as defined above), latitude, and their interaction were used as fixed effects; latitude was scaled and centered (i.e., we used a z transformation) prior to the analysis to facilitate model fitting. The random effects of state and genus were included to account for geographic similarities between samples collected from the same state and phylogenetic similarities between hosts in the same genus, respectively. We fit the GLMM using functions in the lme4 package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). We used likelihood ratio tests to test for the effects of the time period, latitude, and their interaction. Post hoc tests were performed using functions in the emmeans package (Lenth, 2019), and Tukey adjustments were applied for multiple comparisons as appropriate.

Sequencing

In total, 192 samples were selected for sequencing, including 76 isolates, 85 *Bd*-positive historical swabs, and 31 *Bd*-positive contemporary swabs representing localities across Mexico. These samples were sequenced using an amplicon sequencing approach as described by Byrne et al. (2017). The original set of 192 target amplicons described by Byrne et al. (2017) was expanded to 240 targets, each ranging from 150-200 bp in length. The final set of 240 target amplicons included 233 nuclear *Bd* targets, 6 mitochondrial *Bd* targets, and 1 locus-specific target ribosomal ITS region as a detection locus of a recently described relative of *Bd*, i.e., *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans* (*Bsal*), that is particularly deadly to salamanders (Martel et al., 2013). Briefly, the raw DNA extracts were cleaned using isopropanol precipitation, and the preamplification of the samples was

performed in two separate PCRs, each containing 120 primer pairs. Then, the samples were treated with 4 µL of ExoSAP-it (Affymetrix Inc.) and diluted 1:5 in PCR-grade water. The diluted products from each of the two preamplification reactions were combined in equal proportions and sent to the University of Idaho IBEST Genomics Resources Core for further amplification and sequencing. All samples were loaded into a Fluidigm Juno LP 192.24 IFC (Fluidigm, Inc.) microfluidic chip and amplified and barcoded using the Fluidigm Juno system. All samples were pooled for sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq lane using the Micro 300-bp paired-end kit.

Sequence preprocessing and variant calling

All sequencing data were preprocessed as described by Byrne et al. (2017). The reads were filtered by selecting sequence variants represented by at least 5 reads and at least 5% of the total number of reads for that sample/locus. Then, consensus sequences were generated for each sample at each locus using the reduceamplicons R script

(https://github.com/msettles/dbcAmplicons/blob/master/scripts/R/reduce_amplicons.R).

Consensus sequences use IUPAC ambiguity codes to code for multiple alleles. The consensus sequences were used in the downstream phylogenetic analyses. In addition to calling consensus sequences, variants were called using FreeBayes v.1.1.0 (Garrison & Marth, 2012). First, paired-end reads were merged using FLASH v.1.2.11 (Magoč & Salzberg, 2011) and then aligned to a fasta reference containing reference amplicon sequences using BWA-MEM v.0.7.17 (Li, 2013). Variants were called using FreeBayes, which uses a Bayesian framework to call haplotype-based variants, allowing closely linked individual variants to be called together as a single haplotype. The variant call format (vcf) produced by FreeBayes contains 761 variants and was used in the downstream principal component analysis (PCA) and Structure analyses (Pritchard, Stephens, & Donnelly, 2000).

Phylogenetic analyses

The successfully sequenced dataset included the following two museum swabs in addition to the 17 field-collected swabs and 72 pure *Bd* isolates collected between 2016 and 2019: one museum swab collected in 1975 and one museum swab collected in 1981. These newly sequenced samples (N=91) were analyzed in a phylogenetic framework with 10 previously published reference samples representing three major *Bd* clades (*Bd*-CAPE, *Bd*-ASIA2/Brazil, and *Bd*-GPL). The gene-tree-to-species-tree method was used to create a consensus phylogeny. All samples were represented in at least 30 loci trees, and only loci with at least 2/3 of the samples represented were used in this analysis (N loci=218). Each of the 218 loci were individually aligned using the muscle package in R v.3.4.3 (Edgar, 2004), and the alignments were visually checked for errors using Geneious v.10.2.6 (Kearse et al., 2012). To create the gene trees, the RAxML plugin v.8.2.11 (Stamatakis, 2014) in Geneious was used with the rapid bootstrapping method for 100 bootstraps and the GTR substitution model and searched for the best-scoring ML tree. Then, newick utils v.1.6 (Junier & Zdobnov, 2010) was used to collapse all branch lengths with less than 10 bootstrap support. Then, the trees with collapsed branches were input into Astral-III v.5.5.9 (Zhang, Rabiee, Sayyari, & Mirarab, 2018). Astral estimates an unrooted species tree given a set of unrooted trees using the multispecies coalescent model. This method was selected because it is robust against missing data at some loci and allows the use of some unresolved gene trees as the initial input. Then, all nodes were collapsed in our species tree with a posterior support value less than 0.7. Using the vcf containing 761 variants called from FreeBayes, the clustering with the PCA of Mexican samples was visualized using adegenet package v.2.1.1. (Jombart, 2008) in R v.3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). To visualize the

samples in a geographic context, the samples were assigned to their Mexican state in the PCA.

Bd genetic diversity analyses

Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) was calculated between Mexican states, meanwhile pairwise fixation index (F_{ST}) values and geographical distances, were calculated between populations. The geographical distances between populations were calculated using the Imap package (Wallace, 2012) in R (R Core Team, 2019). The AMOVA and the pairwise fixation index (F_{ST}) were calculated based on the vcf using StAMPP (Pembleton, Cogan, & Forster, 2013). The F_{ST} values were estimated from the performed calculations with 1000 bootstrap replications and were compared with the geographic distances of each population using Pearson's correlation in R (R Core Team, 2019). Significant pairwise differences among all populations were inferred with one-way ANOVA and Tukey pairwise comparison in R (R Core Team, 2019). Finally, an analysis of the Mantel test results (9999 matrix permutations) was performed to evaluate the isolation by the pairwise genetic (F_{ST}) and geographic (km) distance using the ade4 package (Dray & Dufour, 2007).

Structure analysis and genotypic composition

The logarithmic probability of the data of each number of groups or populations (K) and their inferred composition were estimated for 91 samples using Structure software (Version 2.3.4; Pritchard et al., 2000). A series of independent runs were performed by using K 1–5 populations, a burn-in of 40,000 Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations, and a data collection period of 1 million MCMC iterations. Each simulation of K was replicated 20 times, and to predict the true population size, the rate of change in the log probability of the data between successive K values (delta K) was calculated and plotted against K following Evanno, Regnaut, & Goudet (2005).

Results

Presence and prevalence patterns of Bd over time

The presence of *Bd* in Mexico was detected as early as 1894 in Baja California Sur (Fig. 1).

Bd was present in 28.9% (144 of 498) of the historical samples from 1894 to 1985 and 21.0% (184 of 878) of the contemporary samples from 2016 to 2019, including 20 new *Bd*-positive species in the country (Table S2). Regarding the historical samples, there were significant differences in *Bd* prevalence among the time periods ($\chi^2=57.8$, df=5, P<0.0001;

Fig. 2), and Tukey tests showed that both 1930-1939 and 1940-1949 displayed a significantly higher *Bd* prevalence than 1960-1969 and 1970-1985 (P<0.01 in all cases).

There was no robust statistical support for a latitude effect ($\chi^2=2.0$, df=1, P=0.16) or a latitude*time period interaction ($\chi^2=8.7$, df=5, P=0.12). Because we had an *a priori* hypothesis that *Bd* spread from North to South, we used our model to evaluate the differences in the effect of latitude among the time periods. The probability of *Bd* detection significantly increased with latitude in the 1894-1929 time period (P=0.031); there were no such associations in the other time periods (P>0.29 in all cases), and no significant differences between slopes for different time periods (P>0.32 in all cases, with Tukey adjustment for P-values).

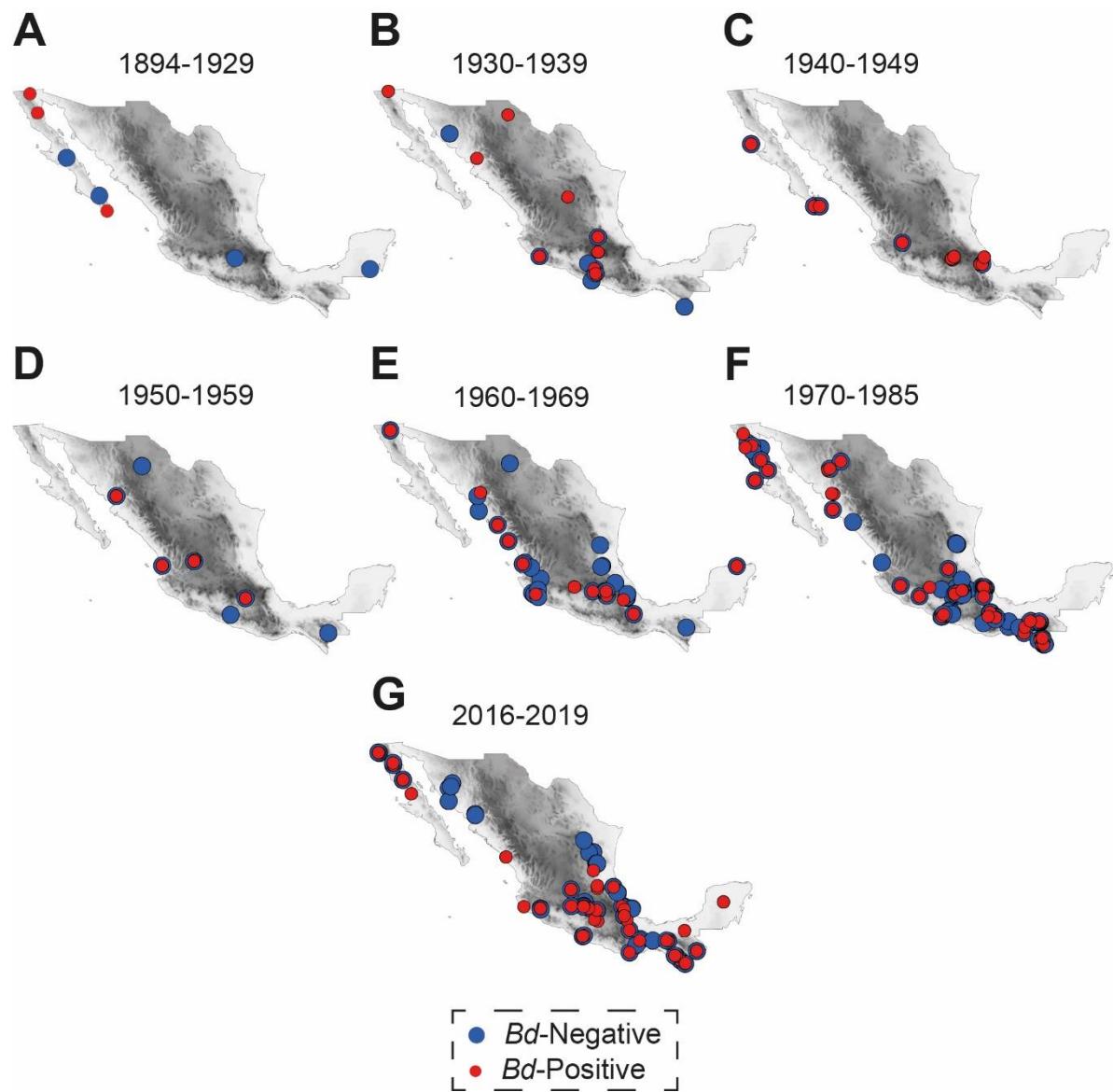


Figure 1. Spatiotemporal distribution of the *Bd*-positive and *Bd*-negative samples in Mexico. Historical periods: A) 1894-1929; B) 1930-1939; C) 1940-1949; D) 1950-1959; E) 1960-1969; F) 1970-1985; G) 2016-2019. The background depicts altitudes ranging from low (white) to high (black).

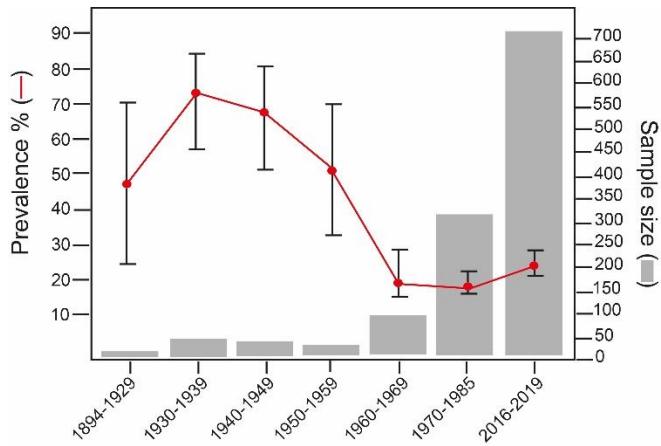


Figure 2. *Bd* prevalence by historical period. *Bd* prevalence (red) with 95% binomial confidence intervals; the sample size (gray bars) is reported for the seven periods.

Bd lineages in Mexico

Using a Fluidigm Access Array assay, 91 samples from Mexico were successfully genotyped in this study. The sequencing revealed that all samples belonged to the global panzootic lineage *Bd*-GPL. The PCA of the 91 Mexican samples and phylogenetic analysis with previously sequenced samples showed that most Mexican samples sequenced (n=87) were within *Bd*-GPL-1 subclade, while only four samples were within *Bd*-GPL-2 subclade. This difference was statistically significant in the gene-tree-to-species-tree phylogeny (Fig. 3). Samples of *Bd*-GPL-2 occurred in Baja California in northern Mexico (n=2, in *Anaxyrus boreas*) and Chiapas in southern Mexico (n=2, in *Plectrohyla sagorum* and *Craugastor* sp.), while samples of *Bd*-GPL-1 included samples from all other Mexican states and species (Fig. 3 and 4 A, B; Table S3).

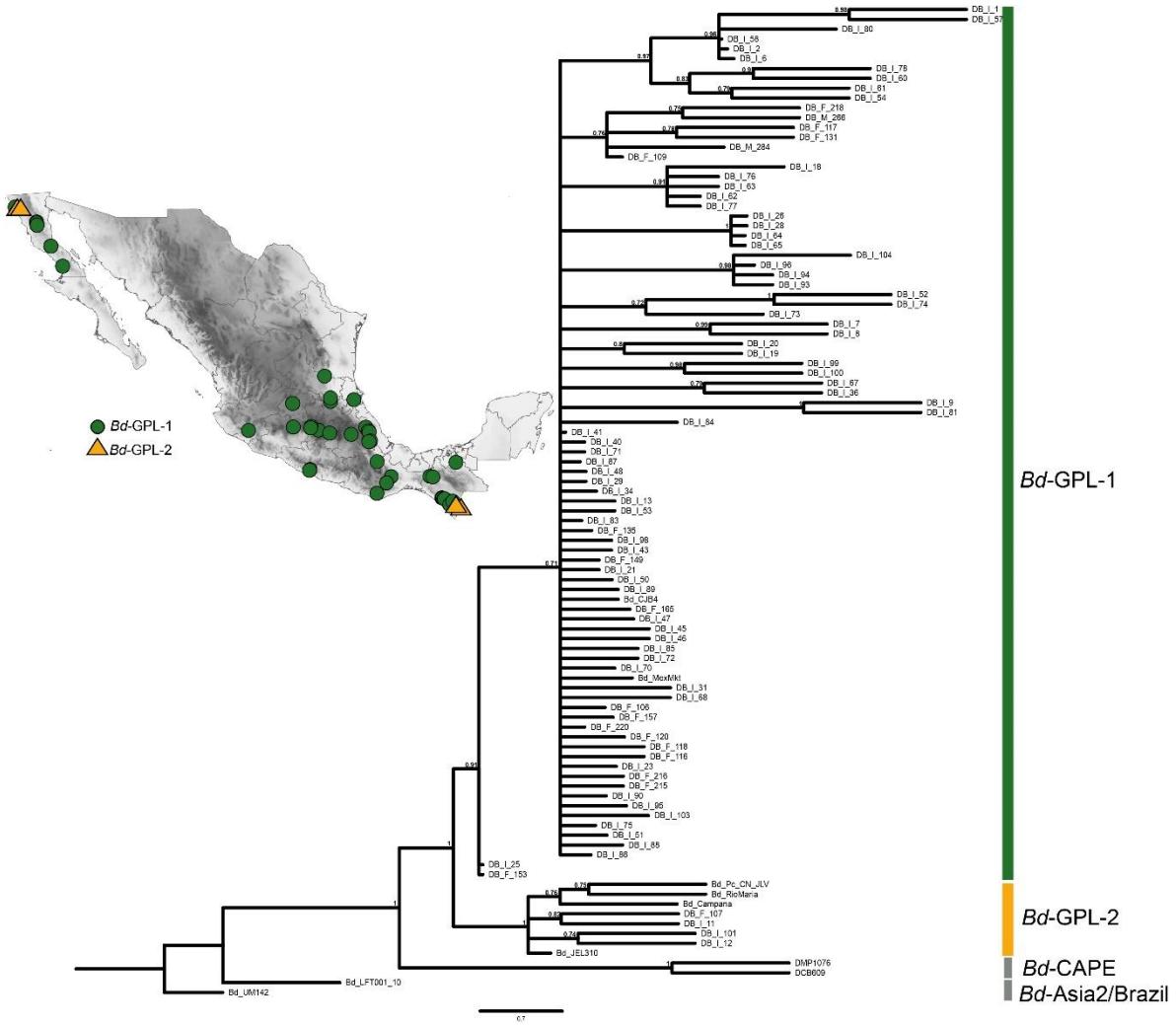


Figure 3. *Bd* genotypes in Mexico. Distribution of *Bd*-GPL- 1 (green circles) and *Bd*-GPL-2 (orange triangles) in Mexico. Consensus tree calculated from 218 locus trees using Astral-III (ref- see above). Tree includes 91 Mexican samples and ten previously sequenced samples from major *Bd* clades, including *Bd*-GPL-1 (CJB4 and MexMkt), *Bd*-GPL-2 (JEL310, Campana, RioMaria, and Pc_CN_JLV), *Bd*-Asia2/Brazil (UM142, LFT001-10), and *Bd*CAPE (DMP1076, DCB609). Tree is rooted on sample UM142. Branches on the phylogenetic tree are colored according to *Bd*-GPL clades 1 and 2. Nodes with posterior support values <0.7 were collapsed.

Population structure of Bd in Mexico

The AMOVAs found no genetic variation among Mexican states ($p>0.05$; Table S4). High and low interpopulation genetic differentiation values (F_{ST}) were found between near and

distant populations (Fig. 4C) with a low and significant correlation between the geographical and genetic distance (F_{ST}) (Mantel test, $P=0.017$; $r^2=0.19$; Fig. 4C).

The Structure analyses showed four genetic clusters or K according to Evanno et al. (2005) (Fig. 5). The model with $K=4$ best fit the data (Fig. 5, $K=4$, Table S5). Additionally, the *Bd* samples from Chiapas were the most admixed. The four samples of *Bd*-GPL-2 (two from Baja California and two from Chiapas) were clearly differentiated in this dataset as indicated by the high representation of the third cluster among these samples (Fig. 5, $K=4$, Table S5). The historic sample from 1975 from Chiapas showed admixture proportions similar to those of some contemporary samples from that area, while the historic sample from 1981 from Veracruz showed a different pattern of admixture from that of the contemporary samples collected in that region (Fig. 5, $K=4$, Table S5).

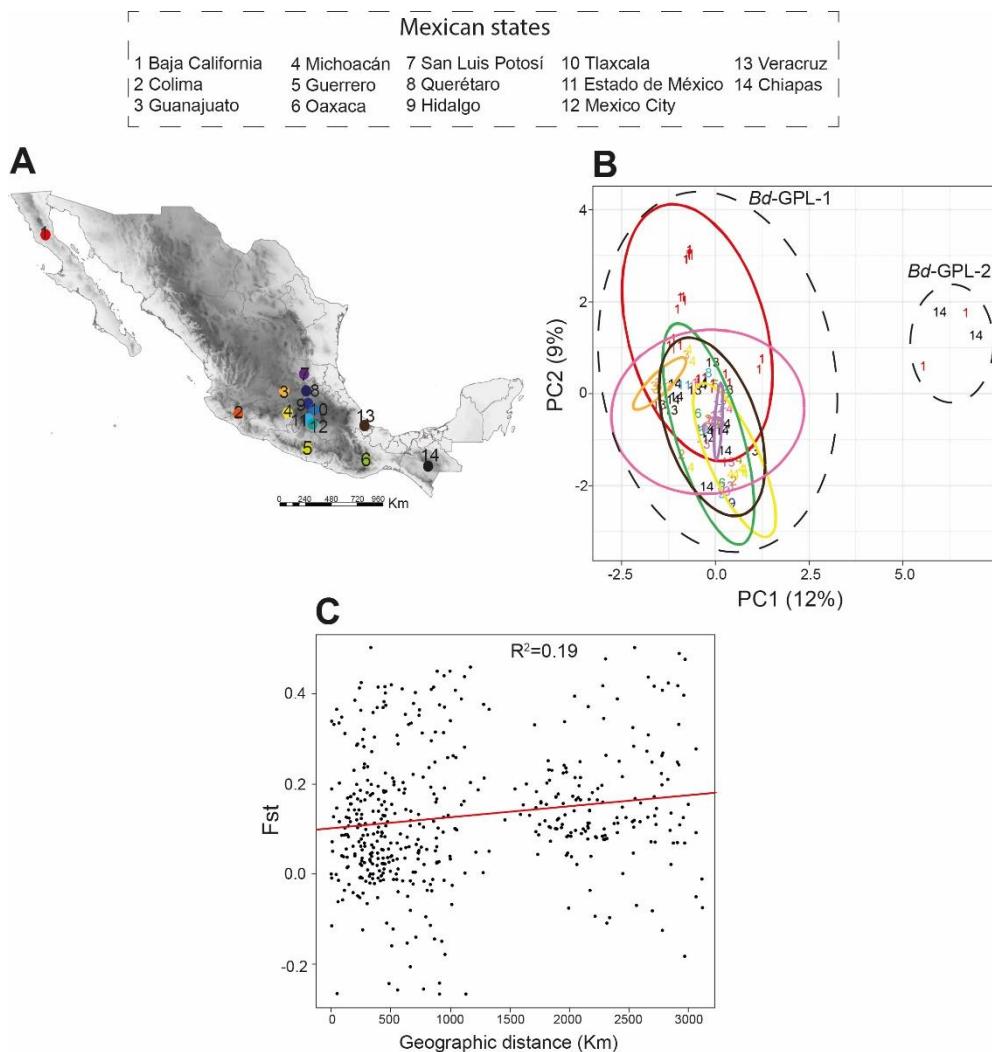


Figure 4. Genetic diversity of *Bd* in Mexico. A) Mexican states of the sequenced samples. B) Principal component analysis of 91 Mexican *Bd* samples. C) Pairwise Mantel test of F_{ST} and geographic distances ($P<0.05$) between localities sampled. Numbers in A, B, and C correspond to Mexican states as follows: 1=Baja California (n=27), 2=Colima (n=3), 3=Guanajuato (n=6), 4=Michoacan (n=9), 5=Guerrero (n=2), 6=Oaxaca (n=4), 7=San Luis Potosí (n=1), 8=Queretaro (n=1), 9=Hidalgo (n=2), 10=Tlaxcala (n=1), 11=Estado de México (n=1), 12=Mexico City (n=4), 13=Veracruz (n=14), and 14=Chiapas (n=16).

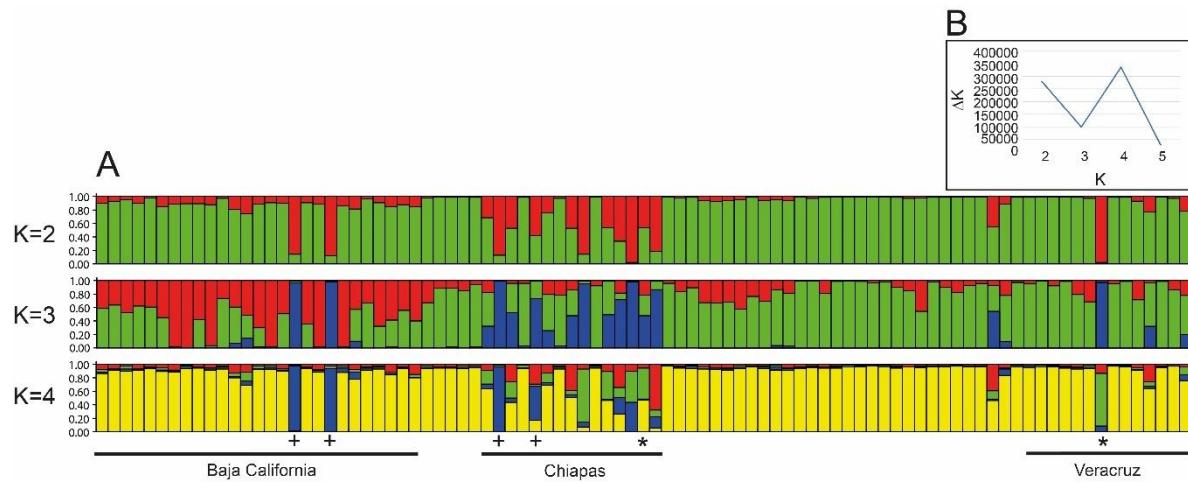


Figure 5. Population structure of *Bd* in Mexico assessed by Structure. A) Each individual is represented by a vertical bar partitioned into colored segments, and the length of each segment represents the proportion of the individual's genetics from $k=2$, 3 and 4 clusters. Symbols: + = *Bd*-GPL-2 samples; * = Historical samples from Chiapas (1975) and Veracruz (1981). B) Plot of population composition (K) versus delta K (the rate of change in the log probability of the data between successive K values) of the Mexican samples.

Discussion

Our study significantly increases our understanding of the known time frame of *Bd* presence and genetic diversity in Mexico. We document the earliest known presence of *Bd* in Middle America from the 1890s and report a relatively high prevalence throughout the early 20th century, indicating a historic relationship between this pathogen and native amphibians. Our data do not provide evidence regarding the previously suggested recent wave-like pattern of spread related to amphibian declines in the country (Lips et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2011). The dominant presence of the global panzootic lineage in Mexico and the lack of geographical patterns of both *Bd*-GPL-1 and *Bd*-GPL-2 provide evidence of a complex – and earlier than previously reported – spread in the country.

Bd had an early and widespread presence in Mexico

Our results show that *Bd* has been present in Mexico since at least the 1890s. This early date coincides with the earliest sample obtained from the three museum collections and with other early reported dates in the United States (the 1880s, Talley et al., 2015), Bolivia (1860s, Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017), and Brazil (1890's, Rodriguez et al., 2014). The early presence of *Bd* suggests that this pathogen may have a longer history in Mexico than previously appreciated with the introduction of *Bd* predating the earliest collection year. The presence of *Bd* associated with the earliest period, i.e., 1894-1929, in the north region of Mexico could indicate an early *Bd* spread from the North, highlighting a longer-term relationship between the pathogen and native amphibians with possible initial declines or stable infections.

The early presence of *Bd* in Mexico is discordant with the epizootic wave hypothesis related to recent amphibian declines in Mexico (see Lips et al., 2008 and Cheng et al., 2011). In northern Mexico (Sonora) and the southern United States (Arizona), population declines occurred in the early 1980s, and similarly, such declines occurred in central-southern Mexico and the Pacific slope of Sierra Madre in the mid-late 1970s and early to mid-1980s (Parra-Olea et al., 1999; Lips et al., 2004; Hale et al., 2005; Rovito et al., 2009). However, we document the presence of *Bd* in these areas of Mexico in the 1930s, 1940s, and 1960s respectively (Fig. 1, Table S6). Consequently, our finding indicates that a more complex relationship exists between *Bd* and amphibian declines in Mexico.

At least three hypotheses can explain the relationship between *Bd* and amphibian declines that occurred in the mid-late 1970s and early to mid-1980s in Mexico given the new knowledge of *Bd* presence by the late 1800s. First, an early presence of *Bd* in the country with the subsequent emergence of other, synergistic stressors (such as environmental changes) could have triggered observed amphibian declines (e.g., Pounds et al., 2006).

Second, declines could have been caused by an *in situ* increase in *Bd* virulence over time through mutation or recombination (e.g., Fisher et al., 2009; O'Hanlon et al., 2018). Third, the early presence of one less virulent lineage and the later arrival of a second virulent lineage (i.e., *Bd*-GPL) could have caused amphibian declines (Jenkinson et al., 2016; O'Hanlon et al., 2018). These hypotheses are not mutually exclusive, and while we explore these hypotheses in greater detail below, further studies investigating historical *Bd* genotypes and environmental changes that could affect the pathogen-host dynamics in Mexico should be conducted.

High historical Bd prevalence

Bd had a high historical prevalence from 1930 to 1949, suggesting the possible occurrence of a *Bd* outbreak at that time. Similar to our results, Talley et al. (2015) found a significant increase in prevalence during the same time period in Illinois, suggesting the possibility of multiple earlier *Bd* outbreaks in North America. During an epizootic outbreak, highly susceptible species may decline quickly (Vredenburg, Knapp, Tunstall, & Briggs, 2010), whereas species with low susceptibility or high resistance persist (Reeder et al., 2012). According to our data, *Bd* was present earlier than previously reported in Mexico, and could have impacted amphibian populations at that time. However, no historical data related to amphibian demography are available from this time period to test this hypothesis. In contrast to Cheng et al. (2011), whose results showed a high *Bd* prevalence during the 1980s in southern Mexico, we identified a decrease in prevalence between 1960 and 1985 in the country. This decrease could indicate enzootic disease dynamics as was observed in the Sierra Nevada and Panama after *Bd* outbreaks (Briggs, Knapp, & Vredenburg, 2010; Voyles et al., 2018). Other factors that could have caused these decreases in prevalence may include the sampling of non-susceptible species or sampling in regions where *Bd* had

coexisted with amphibians for a long time (Brem & Lips, 2008). These alternatives should be examined further by studying the genetic signature of additional historical samples.

Presence of the Bd global panzootic lineage in Mexico

The global panzootic lineage (*Bd*-GPL) is widely distributed in Mexico with a dominant presence of clade *Bd*-GPL-1 rather than *Bd*-GPL-2. The presence of *Bd*-GPL in Mexico is consistent with previously published data (Rosenblum et al., 2013; Byrne et al., 2019). Genetic studies investigating *Bd* indicate that *Bd*-GPL is the most recent widespread genotype (Rosenblum et al., 2013; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). *Bd*-GPL-1 predominates in North America and Europe, with occurrences near Mexico in Arizona, Texas, and California (Rosenblum et al., 2013; Marshall et al., 2019), and is responsible for epizootic infections and mass die-offs in the Sierra Nevada in the United States (Rachowicz et al., 2006; Vredenburg et al., 2010; Schloegel et al., 2012; James et al., 2015). *Bd*-GPL-1 is widespread across Mexico from temperate to tropical zones and includes two historical samples collected in 1975 and 1981 in Chiapas and Veracruz, respectively. Our historical data corresponds to *Bd*-GPL-1 and include amphibian species that previously declined in Mexico; however, due to the early presence of this pathogen in the country and the paucity of historic *Bd* genetic information, we cannot confidently state that *Bd*-GPL was the cause of the decline. Further studies are needed to sequence many more samples from further back in time, determine the genotypes that were present before 1975 and determine whether changes occurred in the *Bd* lineages in Mexico.

The predominant trend in our results is that *Bd*-GPL-1 has a widespread distribution in Mexico and infects a wide range of amphibian hosts (Table S3), which may pose a serious threat to amphibian species. Differences in habitat characteristics and amphibian

community composition between northern and southern areas may differentiate infections by *Bd*. Northern ecosystems are drier with a predominance of xeric vegetation and low amphibian diversity, while southern regions are home to tropical forests with high amphibian diversity (Flores-Villela & Gerez, 1994; Parra-Olea, Flores-Villela, & Mendoza-Almeralla, 2014). Piotrowski et al. (2004) reported *Bd*'s optimal temperature range to be 17-25 °C with a maximum threshold of 28 °C, thus amphibians from sites or seasons with high temperatures may be able to clear or reduce *Bd* infections. However, differences in host susceptibility among and even within species have been documented (Woodhams et al., 2007; Savage & Zamudio, 2011), indicating both environmental and host-specific traits can influence *Bd* infection patterns. Further research investigating these disease dynamics and the host-pathogen interactions of each species in Mexico is needed.

The low occurrence and limited distribution of *Bd*-GPL-2 is a striking aspect of our genetic data. The few samples of *Bd*-GPL-2 were from 2018 and from two distant regions, i.e., Baja California and Chiapas (Fig. 3), corresponding to temperate and tropical zones, respectively. The *Bd*-GPL-2 samples from Baja California were isolated from *Anaxyrus boreas*, while the *Bd*-GPL-2 samples from Chiapas were isolated from *Plectrohyla sagorum* and *Craugastor* sp., indicating a lack of a host, geographic or environmental pattern. *Bd*-GPL-2 has been previously isolated from massive die-offs in Central America (Berger et al., 1998) and is most common in Central and South America (James et al., 2015; Jenkinson et al., 2016). The presence of this genotype in North America has been previously related to captive amphibians (James et al., 2015), which could indicate one mechanism of introduction to Mexico or, in contrast, that *Bd*-GPL-2 could have invaded down to other countries from Mexico. The co-occurrence of *Bd*-GPL-1 and *Bd*-GPL-2 in Baja California and Chiapas may suggest complex interactions between these *Bd* genotypes

and their hosts. Jenkinson et al. (2018) investigated co-infection dynamics of different *Bd* genotypes in the lab and found that competition between genotypes can result in changes in (and replacement of) pathogen diversity. Interactions between *Bd* genotypes may have the potential to modify disease outcomes at regional scales, posing new threats to native amphibians in Mexico.

While two recent global genomic surveys of *Bd* did not report a strong distinction between *Bd*-GPL-1 and *Bd*-GPL-2 (O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019), other studies across smaller spatial scales report a statistically significant split within the GPL that corresponds to the named subclades GPL-1 and GPL-2 (Schloegel et al., 2012; James et al., 2015; Jenkinson et al., 2016; Marshall et al., 2019). Our regional study adds support to the hypothesis that there are significant genetic subdivisions within the GPL. However, we recognize that there is some ambiguity in assigning membership to these two sub-clades within *Bd*-GPL, and additional regional sampling and genomic data could help resolve the sub-clades within GPL.

Genetic diversity of Bd without a geographical pattern

One of the most remarkable findings from our genetic data is the lack of a geo-genetic pattern of *Bd* in Mexico. Our genetic data, including the AMOVA, F_{ST} , and admixture proportions, suggest that several factors could have facilitated *Bd* dispersal and obscured a clear pattern of introduction and spread. One way to test the hypothesis of a wave-like spread is to consider genetic patterns that could indicate a bottleneck (i.e., introduction), followed by an expansion of genetically similar types. For example, evidence supporting that *Bd*-GPL is a rapidly expanding panzootic lineage includes a pattern of loss of heterozygosity in certain regions of the genome (Farrer et al., 2011). Furthermore, samples

closer to the source population during spread should have the highest genetic diversity, decreasing with distance (James et al., 2009). Even though our study did not involve genetic samples from northern half of Mexico due to negative results in *Bd* detection or lack of sampling (Fig. 1G, Fig. 3), our data from other regions are not consistent with a pattern of genetic differentiation that suggests directional spread. Similarly, although we found a significant relationship between F_{ST} and geographic distances, the correlation was low ($P=0.017$; $r^2=0.19$).

Using Structure analyses, we inferred four genetic subpopulations among the Mexican samples, but none of these populations are temporally or geographically restricted. Most samples in our study draw the majority of their admixture from a single genetic cluster (Fig. 5), suggesting a relatively uniform distribution of *Bd* genotypes in Mexico. One exception to this pattern is Chiapas, where we see multiple samples with high levels of admixture between genetic clusters. *Bd* can recombine through a secondary contact (Fisher & Garner, 2020), and recent studies showed that recombinants from *Bd*-GPL and *Bd*-ASIA-2/Brazil were more virulent than their progenitors (Greenspan et al., 2018). The predominance of a single genetic cluster that appears to be distinct from historic genotypes suggests that this cluster could have been recently introduced, replacing historical genotypes. In addition, the mixing of genetic groups in Chiapas highlights the possibility of recombination among *Bd* genotypes which could be related to changes in virulence and effects on amphibian populations. Additional studies considering historical genetic information are needed to determine the timing and changes of *Bd* in Mexico.

The lack of a genetic geographical pattern of *Bd* may be due to amphibian trade, human-mediated dispersal, and/or other biotic and abiotic factors. Amphibian trade is among the principal factors associated with the transport and spread of the major lineages of *Bd* on the

intercontinental scale (O'Hanlon et al., 2018). For example, *Lithobates catesbeianus* is highly traded, and invasive populations have been reported in 1948 in northern Mexico and later in the rest of the country (Casas-Andreu, Aguilar, & Cruz, 2001; Frías-Álvarez, Zúñiga-Vega, & Flores-Villela, 2010; Luja & Rodríguez-Estrella, 2010; Peralta-García et al., 2018). Additional factors, such as dispersal facilitated by reservoir species (Reeder et al., 2012), aquatic birds (Garmyn et al., 2012; Burrowes & De la Riva, 2017), and wind and rain patterns (Kolby et al., 2015), could also have resulted in the spread of the pathogen across different landscapes, resulting in the lack of a geographical pattern and the mixing of genotypes in several regions.

Our study corroborates that *Bd* had an early presence in Mexico with a contemporary dominance of the global panzootic lineage. The prevalence pattern of *Bd* detected by qPCR suggests that the pathogen had been present since at least the 1890s, with a high prevalence in the 1930s. This finding suggests that *Bd* has been present in Mexico for many decades, interacting with amphibians for longer than previously suspected and long before the declines in the 1970s. The population genetic diversity of *Bd* does not show a geographic pattern in Mexico, and the different genetic clusters and admixture patterns suggest spread and recombination in several zones, such as Chiapas. Our study demonstrates that the evolutionary history of *Bd* in Mexico is substantially more complex than previously realized, providing a framework for testing new questions regarding historical *Bd* genotypes and invasions and how they relate to the timing and severity of the amphibian declines observed in Mexico.

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Data accessibility

All sequence data are available from xxx.

A list of the species and number of historical and contemporary samples tested for *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* is provided as supplementary information (Table S2). The amphibian species and Mexican state of the sequenced *Bd* samples are provided as supplementary information (Table S3). The historical and contemporary sampling locations are shown at <https://xxx>.

Author contributions

MDB, GPO and EBR planned the project. MDB, GPO and JPS performed the field surveys. MDB, GPO, EBR and AQB performed the laboratory work. MDB, AQB and JPS analyzed the data. MDB and GPO wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and all authors contributed to the improvement of the manuscript.

1 **Supplemental information**

2 Early presence of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico with a contemporary dominance of
 3 the global panzootic lineage
 4 M. Delia Basanta, Allison Q. Byrne, Erica B. Rosenblum, Jonah Piovia-Scott, and Gabriela
 5 Parra-Olea

6

7

8 Table S1. Extraction method used in historical and contemporary samples.

| Period | Number of samples | |
|-----------|---------------------------|--------------------|
| | Qiagen extraction | Prepman extraction |
| 1894-1929 | 15 | 0 |
| 1930-1939 | 15 | 23 |
| 1940-1949 | 15 | 20 |
| 1950-1959 | 15 | 7 |
| 1960-1969 | 18 | 70 |
| 1970-1985 | 0 | 325 |
| 2016-2019 | 154 (<i>Bd</i> isolates) | 567 |

9

10 Table S2. List of species and number of historical and contemporary samples tested for
 11 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*. *First record of *Bd* in the species.

| Species | Historical | Contemporary |
|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Positive/Total | Positive/Total |
| <i>Agalychnis callidryas</i> * | - | 2/2 |
| <i>Agalychnis dacnicolor</i> | 9/13 | 5/6 |
| <i>Agalychnis moreletii</i> | - | 4/12 |
| <i>Ambystoma altamirani</i> | 11/15 | - |
| <i>Ambystoma lermaense</i> | 0/5 | - |
| <i>Ambystoma mexicanum</i> | 1/2 | - |
| <i>Ambystoma rivulare</i> | - | 3/3 |
| <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> | - | 12/21 |
| <i>Anaxyrus cognatus</i> | 3/3 | - |
| <i>Anaxyrus punctatus</i> | 4/4 | 0/3 |
| <i>Anotheca spinosa</i> * | - | 1/1 |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea cafetalera</i> | | 0/2 |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea cephalica</i> | 2/7 | 0/2 |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea galeanae</i> | | 0/18 |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea praecellens</i> | 0/4 | - |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea scandens</i> | | 0/17 |
| <i>Bolitoglossa franklini</i> * | | 2/13 |

| | | |
|--|-------|-------|
| <i>Bolitoglossa hermosa</i> * | 1/5 | - |
| <i>Bolitoglossa occidentalis</i> * | 6/20 | 2/8 |
| <i>Bolitoglossa platydactyla</i> * | 6/13 | 0/1 |
| <i>Bolitoglossa rostrata</i> * | 3/29 | - |
| <i>Bolitoglossa rufescens</i> | 6/6 | 0/1 |
| <i>Bolitoglossa yucatana</i> * | 3/4 | - |
| <i>Charadrahyla juanitae</i> | - | 0/1 |
| <i>Charadrahyla pinorum</i> * | 3/10 | 0/17 |
| <i>Chiropterotriton chondrostega</i> | 0/10 | - |
| <i>Chiropterotriton dimidiatus</i> | 0/2 | - |
| <i>Chiropterotriton infernalis</i> | 0/6 | 0/9 |
| <i>Chiropterotriton magnipes</i> | 0/7 | - |
| <i>Chiropterotriton miquihuanaus</i> | - | 0/6 |
| <i>Chiropterotriton priscus</i> | - | 0/16 |
| <i>Craugastor augusti</i> | 0/6 | - |
| <i>Craugastor decoratus</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Craugastor laticeps</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Craugastor matudai</i> * | - | 2/22 |
| <i>Craugastor pygmaeus</i> | - | 1/1 |
| <i>Craugastor rhodopis</i> | - | 3/33 |
| <i>Craugastor</i> sp. | - | 3/8 |
| <i>Dendrotriton xolocalcae</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Dermophis mexicanus</i> * | 1/6 | - |
| <i>Dryophytes arenicolor</i> | - | 2/8 |
| <i>Dryophytes eximius</i> | - | 0/3 |
| <i>Dryophytes plicatus</i> | - | 0/4 |
| <i>Dryophytes wrightorum</i> * | 1/2 | - |
| <i>Duellmanohyla</i> sp. | - | 1/5 |
| <i>Eleutherodactylus cystignathoides</i> * | | 0/1 |
| <i>Eleutherodactylus dilatus</i> * | 3/5 | - |
| <i>Eleutherodactylus nitidus</i> | 0/5 | - |
| <i>Eleutherodactylus</i> sp. | - | 0/9 |
| <i>Eleutherodactylus syristes</i> | - | 0/3 |
| <i>Engystomops pustulosus</i> | 0/1 | - |
| <i>Exerodonta sumichrasti</i> | - | 0/23 |
| <i>Gastrophyne mazatlanensis</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Hyalinobatrachium fleischmanni</i> | - | 0/12 |
| <i>Hyliola cadaverina</i> | 7/30 | 2/4 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | 11/33 | 82/94 |
| <i>Hypopachus variolosus</i> | - | 0/8 |
| <i>Incilius alvarius</i> | - | 0/1 |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|
| <i>Incilius canaliferus</i> | 0/1 | - |
| <i>Incilius marmoreus</i> | 0/2 | - |
| <i>Incilius mazatlanensis</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Incilius occidentalis</i> | 2/2 | - |
| <i>Incilius</i> sp. | - | 1/9 |
| <i>Incilius valliceps</i> | - | 0/15 |
| <i>Isthmura bellii</i> | 10/26 | - |
| <i>Isthmura gigantea</i> * | 2/3 | - |
| <i>Isthmura naucampatepetl</i> * | 3/3 | - |
| <i>Leptodactylus melanotus</i> | 9/53 | 3/43 |
| <i>Lithobates berlandieri</i> | 1/1 | 3/7 |
| <i>Lithobates catesbeiana</i> | 2/4 | 1/6 |
| <i>Lithobates maculatus</i> | 1/12 | 0/3 |
| <i>Lithobates magnaocularis</i> | 1/7 | 0/14 |
| <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | 4/8 | 8/14 |
| <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | 2/2 | 20/60 |
| <i>Lithobates pipiens</i> | 4/22 | |
| <i>Lithobates sierramadrensis</i> | - | 2/2 |
| <i>Lithobates</i> sp. | - | 2/13 |
| <i>Lithobates spectabilis</i> | 1/2 | - |
| <i>Lithobates tarahumarae</i> | 1/1 | - |
| <i>Parvimolge townsendi</i> | 0/6 | - |
| <i>Plectrohyla matudai</i> | | 2/14 |
| <i>Plectrohyla sagorum</i> | - | 1/1 |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea anitae</i> | 0/3 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea aquatica</i> | 0/1 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea firscheini</i> | 1/1 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea juarezi</i> * | 5/34 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea leprosa</i> | 5/31 | 0/15 |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea melanomolga</i> | 0/1 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea mixcoatl</i> | 0/13 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea mystax</i> | 0/5 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea nigromaculata</i> | 4/10 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea rex</i> * | 2/4 | - |
| <i>Pseudoeurycea smithi</i> | 1/1 | - |
| <i>Ptychohyla euthysanota</i> | | 1/9 |
| <i>Ptychohyla zophodes</i> * | - | 1/8 |
| <i>Ptychohyla leonhardschultzei</i> | - | 0/3 |
| <i>Ptychohyla</i> sp. | - | 1/6 |
| <i>Rheohyla miotympanum</i> | - | 0/9 |
| <i>Rhinella horribilis</i> | - | 0/1 |

| | | |
|---------------------------------|-----|------|
| <i>Rhinella marina</i> | - | 0/2 |
| <i>Sarcohyla pentherer</i> | - | 0/1 |
| <i>Scinax staufferi</i> * | 1/2 | 9/10 |
| <i>Smilisca baudinii</i> | 0/1 | 2/22 |
| <i>Smilisca cyanosticta</i> | - | 0/3 |
| <i>Smilisca fodiens</i> | 4/5 | 0/4 |
| <i>Thorius munificus</i> | 0/1 | - |
| <i>Thorius pennatus</i> | 1/3 | - |
| <i>Tlalocohyla smithi</i> | - | 0/13 |
| <i>Tlalocohyla loquax</i> | | 0/2 |
| <i>Tlalocohyla</i> sp. | - | 0/3 |
| <i>Trachycephalus typhonius</i> | - | 0/1 |

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13 Table S3. Sequenced *Bd* samples.

| <i>Bd</i> ID | Infected species | Sample source | Mexican state | <i>Bd</i> -GPL | Collection Year |
|--------------|---------------------------|---------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| DB_I_75 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_63 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_7 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_62 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_8 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_77 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_58 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_1 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_78 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_6 | <i>Hyliola cadaverina</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_53 | <i>Rana draytonii</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_18 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_9 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_61 | <i>Hyliola cadaverina</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_80 | <i>Hyliola cadaverina</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_51 | <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_11 | <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 2 | 2018 |
| DB_I_54 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_57 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_12 | <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 2 | 2018 |
| DB_I_2 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_81 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_13 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_60 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_52 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |

| | | | | | |
|----------|----------------------------------|-------------|------------------|---|------|
| DB_I_76 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_74 | <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Isolate | Baja California | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_26 | <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | Isolate | Mexico City | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_28 | <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | Isolate | Mexico City | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_65 | <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | Isolate | Mexico City | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_64 | <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | Isolate | Mexico City | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_F_165 | <i>Agalychnis moreletii</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_M_284 | <i>Pseudoeurycea rex</i> | Museum swab | Chiapas | 1 | 1975 |
| DB_F_118 | <i>Craugastor matudai</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_107 | <i>Craugastor sp.</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 2 | 2016 |
| DB_F_109 | <i>Incilius sp.</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_149 | <i>Agalychnis moreletii</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_101 | <i>Plectrohyla sagorum</i> | Isolate | Chiapas | 2 | 2018 |
| DB_F_120 | <i>Craugastor matudai</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_116 | <i>Bolitoglossa occidentalis</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_157 | <i>Agalychnis callidrias</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_F_218 | <i>Lithobates sp.</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_153 | <i>Agalychnis moreletii</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_F_135 | <i>Agalychnis callidrias</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_F_106 | <i>Craugastor sp.</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_117 | <i>Bolitoglossa occidentalis</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_F_131 | <i>Agalychnis moreletii</i> | Swab | Chiapas | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_85 | <i>Leptodactylus melanotus</i> | Isolate | Colima | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_87 | <i>Lithobates sp.</i> | Isolate | Colima | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_86 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Colima | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_94 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_93 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_96 | <i>Hyla arenicolor</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_95 | <i>Hyla arenicolor</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_103 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_104 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Guanajuato | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_20 | <i>Leptodactylus melanotus</i> | Isolate | Guerrero | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_19 | <i>Leptodactylus melanotus</i> | Isolate | Guerrero | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_100 | <i>Lithobates berlandieri</i> | Isolate | Hidalgo | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_99 | <i>Lithobates berlandieri</i> | Isolate | Hidalgo | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_29 | <i>Lithobates montezumae</i> | Isolate | Estado de México | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_36 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_89 | <i>Ambystoma rivulare</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_67 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_31 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_70 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_34 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_88 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |

| | | | | | |
|----------|------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------|---|------|
| DB_I_90 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_68 | <i>Lithobates neovolcanicus</i> | Isolate | Michoacán | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_48 | <i>Ptycohyla sp.</i> | Isolate | Oaxaca | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_50 | <i>Ptycohyla sp.</i> | Isolate | Oaxaca | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_83 | <i>Craugastor pygmaeus</i> | Isolate | Oaxaca | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_47 | <i>Ptychochyla zophodes</i> | Isolate | Oaxaca | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_F_216 | <i>Lithobates sp.</i> | Swab | Querétaro | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_F_220 | <i>Lithobates sp.</i> | Swab | San Luis Potosí | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_98 | <i>Pseudoeurycea leprosa</i> | Isolate | Tlaxcala | 1 | 2016 |
| DB_I_43 | <i>Lithobates berlandieri</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_84 | <i>Lithobates catesbeiana</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_I_40 | <i>Scinax staufferi</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_45 | <i>Craugastor rhodopis</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_23 | <i>Scinax staufferi</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_21 | <i>Lithobates sierramadrensis</i> | Isolate | Guerrero | 1 | 2018 |
| DB_M_266 | <i>Pseudoeurycea nigromaculata</i> | Museum swab | Veracruz | 1 | 1981 |
| DB_I_41 | <i>Scinax staufferi</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_46 | <i>Craugastor rhodopis</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_73 | <i>Craugastor rhodopis</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_25 | <i>Anotheca spinosa</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_72 | <i>Scinax staufferi</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_I_71 | <i>Scinax staufferi</i> | Isolate | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |
| DB_F_215 | <i>Bolitoglossa platydactyla</i> | Swab | Veracruz | 1 | 2017 |

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15 Table S4. Analysis of molecular variance of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico.

| Population included | Sum of Square Deviations | Mean Square Deviations | Degrees of Freedom | σ^2 | P-value |
|---------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|-------------|----------|
| Mexican states | 0.0353472 | 0.00271902 | 13 | -0.00015844 | 0.722772 |
| Error | 0.2808312 | 0.00364716 | 77 | 0.003647159 | |
| Total | 0.3161784 | 0.00351309 | 90 | | |

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17 Table S5. Genetic cluster proportions of *Bd* population structure in Mexico assessed by
18 Structure.

| ID | Sample | <i>Bd</i> -GPL | Time | Genetic clusters proportions | | | |
|----|---------|----------------|--------------|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | DB_I_75 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.073 | 0.037 | 0.022 | 0.868 |
| 2 | DB_I_63 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.06 | 0.014 | 0.013 | 0.913 |
| 3 | DB_I_7 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.015 | 0.056 | 0.023 | 0.906 |
| 4 | DB_I_62 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.06 | 0.013 | 0.015 | 0.912 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----------|---|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 5 | DB_I_8 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.031 | 0.02 | 0.013 | 0.936 |
| 6 | DB_I_77 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.048 | 0.035 | 0.024 | 0.893 |
| 7 | DB_I_58 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.079 | 0.016 | 0.019 | 0.885 |
| 8 | DB_I_1 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.007 | 0.02 | 0.033 | 0.939 |
| 9 | DB_I_78 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.032 | 0.007 | 0.014 | 0.948 |
| 10 | DB_I_6 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.047 | 0.018 | 0.024 | 0.911 |
| 11 | DB_I_53 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.018 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.931 |
| 12 | DB_I_18 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.123 | 0.058 | 0.013 | 0.807 |
| 13 | DB_I_9 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.114 | 0.131 | 0.059 | 0.695 |
| 14 | DB_I_61 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.02 | 0.038 | 0.016 | 0.926 |
| 15 | DB_I_80 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.028 | 0.027 | 0.022 | 0.923 |
| 16 | DB_I_51 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.06 | 0.024 | 0.011 | 0.905 |
| 17 | DB_I_11 | 2 | Contemporary | 0.007 | 0.014 | 0.961 | 0.019 |
| 18 | DB_I_54 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.04 | 0.003 | 0.016 | 0.941 |
| 19 | DB_I_57 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.075 | 0.015 | 0.024 | 0.885 |
| 20 | DB_I_12 | 2 | Contemporary | 0.018 | 0.042 | 0.936 | 0.005 |
| 21 | DB_I_2 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.024 | 0.032 | 0.062 | 0.883 |
| 22 | DB_I_81 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.076 | 0.035 | 0.104 | 0.784 |
| 23 | DB_I_13 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.031 | 0.02 | 0.032 | 0.917 |
| 24 | DB_I_60 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.019 | 0.019 | 0.027 | 0.934 |
| 25 | DB_I_52 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.12 | 0.016 | 0.015 | 0.85 |
| 26 | DB_I_76 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.033 | 0.011 | 0.016 | 0.94 |
| 27 | DB_I_74 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.149 | 0.04 | 0.007 | 0.804 |
| 28 | DB_I_26 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.028 | 0.016 | 0.017 | 0.938 |
| 29 | DB_I_28 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.032 | 0.004 | 0.019 | 0.945 |
| 30 | DB_I_65 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.03 | 0.008 | 0.013 | 0.948 |
| 31 | DB_I_64 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.024 | 0.028 | 0.011 | 0.937 |
| 32 | DB_F_165 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.015 | 0.01 | 0.024 | 0.951 |
| 33 | DB_F_118 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.091 | 0.196 | 0.071 | 0.642 |
| 34 | DB_F_107 | 2 | Contemporary | 0.009 | 0.023 | 0.964 | 0.004 |
| 35 | DB_F_109 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.251 | 0.246 | 0.064 | 0.44 |
| 36 | DB_F_149 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.011 | 0.035 | 0.012 | 0.943 |
| 37 | DB_I_101 | 2 | Contemporary | 0.288 | 0.037 | 0.499 | 0.175 |
| 38 | DB_F_120 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.124 | 0.142 | 0.039 | 0.695 |
| 39 | DB_F_116 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.018 | 0.023 | 0.028 | 0.931 |
| 40 | DB_F_157 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.38 | 0.07 | 0.037 | 0.513 |
| 41 | DB_F_153 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.069 | 0.784 | 0.072 | 0.075 |
| 42 | DB_F_135 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.013 | 0.013 | 0.029 | 0.944 |
| 43 | DB_F_106 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.107 | 0.411 | 0.017 | 0.465 |
| 44 | DB_F_117 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.341 | 0.147 | 0.247 | 0.264 |
| 45 | DB_F_131 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.096 | 0.467 | 0.432 | 0.005 |
| 46 | DB_M_284 | 1 | Historical | 0.052 | 0.457 | 0.013 | 0.478 |
| 47 | DB_F_218 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.674 | 0.1 | 0.165 | 0.061 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----------|---|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 48 | DB_I_85 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.003 | 0.019 | 0.006 | 0.972 |
| 49 | DB_I_87 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.028 | 0.011 | 0.015 | 0.946 |
| 50 | DB_I_86 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.004 | 0.012 | 0.043 | 0.941 |
| 51 | DB_I_94 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.042 | 0.019 | 0.005 | 0.934 |
| 52 | DB_I_93 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.045 | 0.023 | 0.008 | 0.924 |
| 53 | DB_I_96 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.044 | 0.015 | 0.021 | 0.921 |
| 54 | DB_I_95 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.028 | 0.019 | 0.011 | 0.943 |
| 55 | DB_I_103 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.016 | 0.006 | 0.012 | 0.967 |
| 56 | DB_I_104 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.015 | 0.014 | 0.035 | 0.937 |
| 57 | DB_I_20 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.014 | 0.023 | 0.047 | 0.916 |
| 58 | DB_I_19 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.055 | 0.008 | 0.028 | 0.909 |
| 59 | DB_I_100 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.031 | 0.015 | 0.015 | 0.939 |
| 60 | DB_I_99 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.016 | 0.014 | 0.013 | 0.956 |
| 61 | DB_I_29 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.036 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.944 |
| 62 | DB_I_36 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.021 | 0.011 | 0.019 | 0.949 |
| 63 | DB_I_89 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.008 | 0.027 | 0.003 | 0.962 |
| 64 | DB_I_67 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.008 | 0.008 | 0.018 | 0.966 |
| 65 | DB_I_31 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.005 | 0.003 | 0.008 | 0.984 |
| 66 | DB_I_70 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.008 | 0.003 | 0.02 | 0.969 |
| 67 | DB_I_34 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.02 | 0.019 | 0.015 | 0.946 |
| 68 | DB_I_88 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.033 | 0.006 | 0.003 | 0.958 |
| 69 | DB_I_90 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.021 | 0.013 | 0.011 | 0.956 |
| 70 | DB_I_68 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.017 | 0.019 | 0.005 | 0.959 |
| 71 | DB_I_48 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.021 | 0.007 | 0.008 | 0.964 |
| 72 | DB_I_50 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.003 | 0.015 | 0.006 | 0.976 |
| 73 | DB_I_83 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.018 | 0.014 | 0.006 | 0.962 |
| 74 | DB_I_47 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.016 | 0.005 | 0.013 | 0.967 |
| 75 | DB_F_216 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.389 | 0.124 | 0.016 | 0.472 |
| 76 | DB_F_220 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.053 | 0.018 | 0.091 | 0.838 |
| 77 | DB_I_98 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.01 | 0.003 | 0.023 | 0.964 |
| 78 | DB_I_43 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.02 | 0.006 | 0.02 | 0.953 |
| 79 | DB_I_84 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.013 | 0.017 | 0.005 | 0.965 |
| 80 | DB_I_40 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.006 | 0.013 | 0.01 | 0.971 |
| 81 | DB_I_45 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.023 | 0.013 | 0.016 | 0.948 |
| 82 | DB_I_23 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.034 | 0.014 | 0.018 | 0.934 |
| 83 | DB_I_21 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.019 | 0.024 | 0.015 | 0.942 |
| 84 | DB_M_266 | 1 | Historical | 0.135 | 0.774 | 0.082 | 0.009 |
| 85 | DB_I_41 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.006 | 0.006 | 0.012 | 0.976 |
| 86 | DB_I_46 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.013 | 0.014 | 0.014 | 0.958 |
| 87 | DB_I_73 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.044 | 0.03 | 0.008 | 0.917 |
| 88 | DB_I_25 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.254 | 0.068 | 0.04 | 0.637 |
| 89 | DB_I_72 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.022 | 0.009 | 0.012 | 0.956 |
| 90 | DB_I_71 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.017 | 0.009 | 0.001 | 0.973 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----------|---|--------------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| 91 | DB_F_215 | 1 | Contemporary | 0.04 | 0.113 | 0.088 | 0.758 |
|----|----------|---|--------------|------|-------|-------|-------|

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Table S6. Areas with reported amphibian declines in Mexico compared to historical *Bd* occurrences.

| Location | Species declined | Declines | | | Source | <i>Bd</i> occurrence | | | |
|---------------|-------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------|------|
| | | Latitude, Longitude | Probable decline date | | | Species infected | Latitude, Longitude | Source | Year |
| Pacific Slope | Multiple anuran species | 15.65, -92.81 | mid- to late 1970s- early 1980s | Lips et al., 2004 | <i>Lithobates maculatus</i> | 15.38, -92.53 | This work | 1970 | 1970 |
| | | 15.70, -93.19 | | | <i>Bolitoglossa occidentalis</i> | 15.05, -92.40 | This work | 1972 | 1972 |
| | | 15.47, -92.89 | | | | | | | |
| | | 17.32, -99.47 | | | <i>Incilius occidentalis</i> | 17.45, -99.47 | This work | 1939 | 1939 |
| Pacific Slope | Multiple anuran species | 17.42, -100.19 | mid- to late 1970s- early 1980s | Lips et al., 2004 | <i>Eleutherodactylus dilatus</i> | 17.55, -99.52 | This work | 1937 | 1937 |
| | | 17.62, -99.84 | | | <i>Isthmura bellii</i> | 17.94, -99.59 | This work | 1933 | 1933 |
| | | 17.54, -98.59 | | | <i>Eleutherodactylus dilatus</i> | 17.55, -99.52 | This work | 1937 | 1937 |
| | | 17.64, -99.54 | | | | | | | |
| Pacific Slope | Multiple anuran species | 16.018, -96.53 | mid- to late 1970s- early 1980s | Lips et al., 2004 | | | | | |
| | | 16.09, -97.09 | | | | | | | |
| | | 17.55, -96.47 | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | No data | |
| North Slope | Multiple anuran species | 17.55, -96.47 | mid- to late 1970s- early 1980s | Lips et al., 2004 | <i>Pseudoeurycea juarezi</i> | 17.55, -96.47 | This work | 1969 | 1969 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|----------------|-----------|--|------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------|
| | | | | | | | | |
| Cerro San Felipe, Oaxaca | <i>Pseudoeurycea smithi</i> , <i>P. unidentis</i> | 17.24, -96.64 | 1980s | Parra Olea et al., 1998; Rovito et al., 2009 | <i>Pseudoeurycea smithi</i> | 17.24, -96.64 | This work | 197 4 |
| Puerto del aire, Veracruz | <i>Thorius sp.</i> | 18.7, -97.33 | 1977-1982 | Parra Olea et al., 1998; Rovito et al., 2009 | <i>Pseudoeurycea firscheini</i> | 18.69, -97.29 | This work | 196 3 |
| El Chico National Park, Hidalgo | <i>Chiropotrotriton dimidiatus</i> , <i>C. chico</i> | 20.19, -98.74 | 1974-1976 | Parra Olea et al., 1998; Rovito et al., 2009 | <i>Chiropotrotriton chico</i> | 20.19, -98.74 | Cheng et al., 2011 | 197 4 |
| Cerro Chicahuaxtla , Veracruz | <i>Pseudoeurycea nigromaculata</i> , <i>Thorius pennatus</i> , <i>Parvimolge townsendi</i> | 18.84, -97.01 | 1980s | Rovito et al., 2009 | <i>Bolitoglossa rufescens</i> | 18.87, -97.03 | | 194 0 |
| Sonora | <i>Rana tarahumarae</i> | 30.21, -108.96 | 1980s | Hale et al., 2005 | <i>Pseudoeurycea nigromaculata</i> | 18.84. -97.01 | This work | 197 6 |
| | | | | | <i>Smilisca fodiens</i> | 28.98, -109.39 | | 197 5 |
| | | | | | <i>Smilisca fodiens</i> | 29.054, -109.23 | This work | 197 5 |

| | | | |
|----------|--|----------------------------------|----------------|
| 30.53, - | | | |
| 109.17 | | | |
| | | <i>Rana tarahumarae</i> | 27.20, -108.66 |
| | | | 196 |
| | | | 1 |
| 27.20, - | | <i>Hyla wrightorum</i> | 29.64, -108.36 |
| 108.66 | | | 197 |
| | | | 6 |
| | | <i>Leptodactylus melanonotus</i> | 27.03, -108.93 |
| | | | 193 |
| | | | 7 |

CAPITULO 2

Manuscrito:

Genetic variation of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* is linked to skin bacterial diversity in the pacific treefrog

Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)

Próximo a someter a ISME Journal Multidisciplinary Journal
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Genetic variation of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* is linked to skin bacterial diversity in the pacific treefrog *Hyliola regilla* (*hypochondriaca*)

M. Delia Basanta^{1,2}, Eria A. Rebollar³, Mirna G. García-Castillo^{4,5}, Erica B. Rosenblum^{6,7}, Allison Q. Byrne^{6,7}, Jonah Piovia-Scott⁸, Gabriela Parra Olea^{1*}

¹Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

²Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, AP 70-153, C.P. 04510, Ciudad de México, México.

³Centro de Ciencias Genómicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Cuernavaca, Morelos, México.

⁴Universidad Politécnica de Huatusco, Huatusco, Veracruz, México

⁵Universidad Veracruzana, Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas y Agropecuarias Región: Orizaba–Córdoba, Amatlán de los Reyes, Veracruz, México

⁶Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, University of California, Berkeley

⁷Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of California, Berkeley, CA

⁸School of Biological Sciences, Washington State University, Vancouver

Abstract

Symbiotic bacterial communities are crucial to combating infections and contributing to the host's health. Skin bacterial communities in amphibians play a relevant role protecting their hosts against pathogens such as *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*). *Bd*, the causative agent of chytridiomycosis, has been responsible for dramatic population declines across the world. While it is known that symbiotic skin bacteria can inhibit *Bd* growth, the influence of *Bd* genetic variability and environmental conditions on the skin bacterial community is limited. In this study, we examined the interaction between infection load and *Bd* genetic diversity with skin bacterial community structure in five populations of *Hyliola regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) occurring in different locations with contrasting environments in Baja California, Mexico. We found differences in *Bd* genetics, prevalence and infection load among sites and environments. Genetic analysis of *Bd* isolates revealed different groups of *Bd* corresponding to the five sites sampled, meanwhile *Bd* prevalence and infection load of desert sites showed high values than forest and urban sites. Amphibian skin microbial diversity differed among environments and sites. The skin bacterial composition was

positively correlated with *Bd* genetic distances and *Bd* infection load, demonstrating a covariation between *Bd* strains and infection load with bacterial community composition in *H. regilla* (*hypochondryaca*) populations. Our results indicate that differences between *Bd* strains and infection load across environments may explain the variation of bacterial composition in *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*), suggesting that pathogen genetics and environmental conditions are significant factors in shaping amphibian skin bacterial communities.

Keywords: Chytridiomycosis, skin bacterial diversity, amphibian, symbiosis.

Introduction

Host-associated microbiomes play relevant roles contributing to host's health and defense against pathogens across a variety of organisms (Rosenberg et al., 2007; Harris et al., 2009; Cho & Blaser, 2012). In amphibians, skin bacterial communities are able to protect amphibians from pathogens and may inhibit diseases such as chytridiomycosis (Harris et al., 2009; Muletz- Wolz et al., 2017). Chytridiomycosis is an infectious disease caused by the chytrid fungal pathogen *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) which has been associated to population declines of more than 200 amphibian species worldwide (Skerratt et al., 2007). *Bd* Infections can affect the amphibian keratinized skin disrupting the osmoregulation and leading to cardiac abnormalities causing death (Berger et al., 1999).

Bd comprises multiple divergent genetic lineages with differences in virulence (Farrer et al., 2011; Schloegel et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). Four enzootic lineages, *Bd*-CAPE, *Bd*-Asia1, *Bd*-Asia2/Brazil, and *Bd*-Asia3 have been found in a few localities around the world, while the Global Panzootic Lineage (*Bd*-GPL) has a worldwide distribution with mass mortalities events and population declines linked to it (Schloegel et al., 2012; Farrer et al., 2011; Rosenblum et al., 2013; James et al., 2015; Jenkinson et al., 2016; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). *Bd*-GPL is considered the most virulent lineage (Farrer et al., 2011), and includes two genetic groups, *Bd*-GPL-1 found mainly in North America and Europe, and *Bd*-GPL-2 which has a worldwide distribution (Schloegel et al., 2012; Rosenblum et al., 2013; James et al., 2015; Farrer et al., 2011; Becker et al., 2017; Dang et al., 2017).

In experimental *in vivo* trials, skin bacteria can inhibit *Bd* growth and protect amphibians from this fungal pathogen (Harris et al., 2009; Becker & Harris, 2010), however *Bd* also disrupts the amphibian skin microbiome changing its composition (Jani & Briggs, 2014). Several bacteria isolated from the amphibian skin produce antifungal metabolites that inhibit *Bd* growth (Harris et al., 2009; Woodhams et al., 2015; Kueneman et al., 2016; Woodhams et al., 2018) and changes in relative abundance of some of these bacterial taxa

correlates with differences in *Bd* susceptibility among species and populations (Bresciano et al., 2015; Rebollar et al., 2016; Bates et al., 2018). Up to date, hundreds of *Bd*-inhibitory bacterial strains have been isolated from the skin of multiple amphibian species (e.g. *Janthinobacterium*, *Pseudomonas*, *Pedobacter*, *Serratia*; Woodhams et al., 2015; Kueneman et al., 2016; Woodhams et al., 2018). However, *Bd* inhibition experiments with skin bacteria cultured have demonstrated that results vary for the different *Bd* genotypes and experimental temperatures (Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017; Antwis & Harrison, 2018; Griffiths et al., 2018; Muletz-Wolz et al. 2019). Thus, interactions occurring between bacterial symbionts and *Bd* may depend largely on the environmental context (Longo & Zamudio, 2017), skin bacterial composition (Rebollar et al., 2016), and pathogen genetics (Antwis et al., 2015; Antwis & Harrison, 2018; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017). To better understand the role of skin bacterial communities in mitigating *Bd* infections, it is necessary to evaluate how skin bacterial community structure is correlated with *Bd* genetics and the environmental conditions in which the host (and its associated microbiome) interacts with the pathogen.

Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca) is a hylid frog that has been considered a *Bd* reservoir species in California and Baja California since high levels of *Bd* infection have been found in them without any signs of disease (Reeder et al., 2012). *H. regilla* is a semi-aquatic frog species that is widely spread in Western North America ranging from British Columbia to Baja California Sur in Mexico inhabiting from sea level to elevations of 3540 m a. s. l. including grassland, chaparral, woodland, forest, desert oasis, and farmland (Stebbins, 1985). In Baja California, five populations of contrasting environments were identified previously with *Bd* infection caused by *Bd*-GPL-1 (Basanta et al., unpublished data). If the isolates associated with *Bd* infections on *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* have genetic variations, they could be influencing differences in infections and the skin bacteria composition.

In this study, we analyzed the relationship between host skin bacterial community and *Bd* infection in *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* in Baja California. We examined *Bd* infection load and *Bd* genetic diversity related to the skin bacterial community structure across five sites with contrasting environments. Our results suggest that *Bd* genetics and environmental conditions are significant factors in shaping amphibian skin bacterial communities.

Materials and methods

Field sampling

Skin swabs were taken from 89 individuals of *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* that were collected during March 2018 in five localities in Baja California, Mexico: Rosario (n=34), Cataviña (n=16), Sauzal (n=13), Venado (n=9), and Grulla (n=17) (Table S1). All

individuals were found in ponds, sampled, and returned to the same site. The localities ranged from sea level in a desertic area (El Rosario and Cataviña), an urban area also at sea level (Sauzal), and a pine dominated forest at 2400 masl (Venado and Grulla) (Figure 1).

Each frog was captured using a new inverted plastic bag and manipulated with a new pair of nitrile gloves (Phillott et al., 2010). Skin swab samples were collected according to previously published procedures (Rebollar et al., 2014). Each skin-swab was placed in 1.5 sterile microcentrifuge tubes with 96% EtOH and stored in a cooler for transport to the laboratory. Once in the lab, tubes were kept at -80°C until processing.

The DNA from swab samples was extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit following the manufacturer's protocol including a pretreatment with lysozyme. DNA extractions were used for both microbiota analyses and *Bd* detection and quantification.

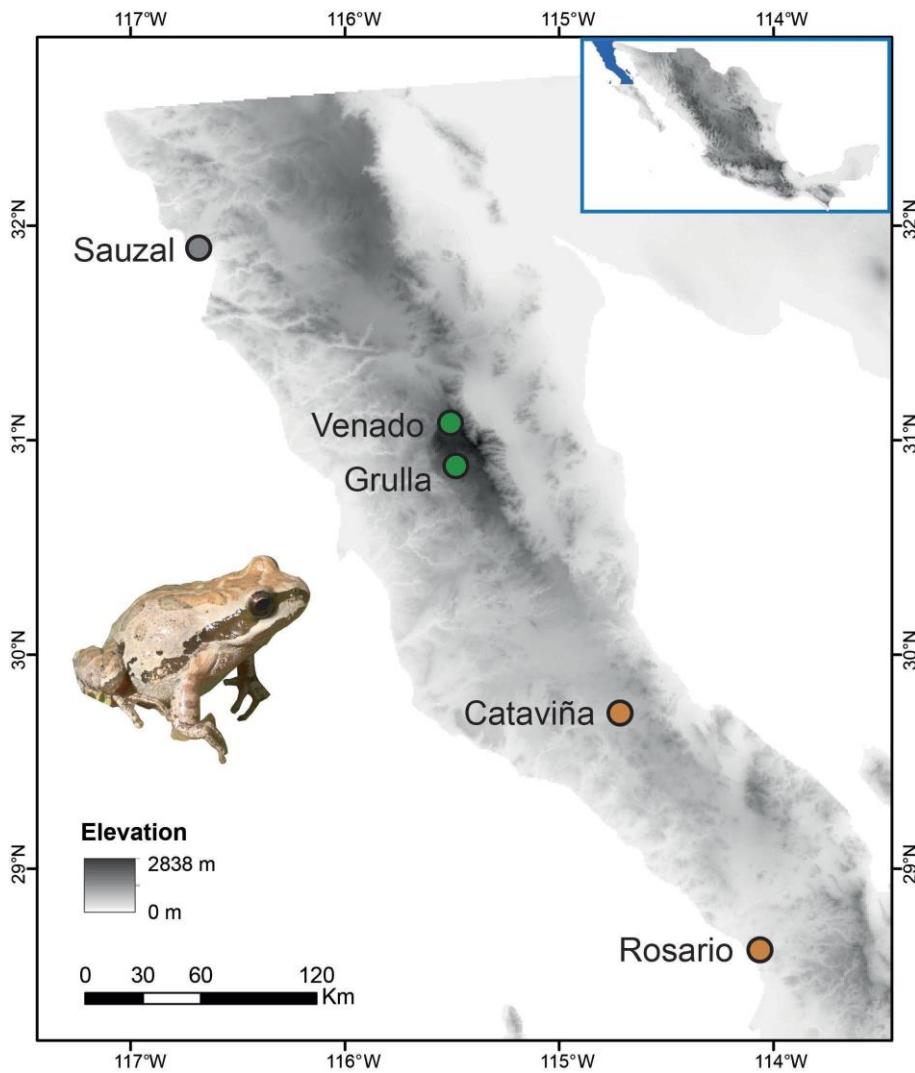


Figure 1. Map of the five study sites where *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* frogs were sampled for *Bd* strains, *Bd* prevalence and infection load and skin microbiota. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

Bd detection and quantification

A portion of the DNA extracts was used for the detection of *Bd* in Taqman real-time PCR assay according to Boyle et al., (2004). Each sample was assayed in duplicate with negative control (5 uL sterile water) and four standards of DNA Gblocks (1, 100, 1000, and 10000 genome equivalents). Given that *Bd* strains have variable copy numbers as well as multiple haplotypes of the ITS1-5.8S DNA fragment (Longo et al., 2013; Rebollar et al., 2017), a positive sample of 1000 zoospore from a *Bd* strain of Mexico was used to quantify the relationship between genomic equivalents and zoospore equivalents.

16S amplicon sequencing of the skin microbiota

The V4 region of the 16S rRNA was amplified in each sample using barcoded primers (F515/R806) and PCR conditions adapted from Caporaso et al., (2018). PCR reactions were run in triplicate with a negative control. Triplicate reaction amplicons were pooled and quantified using the Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer and dsDNA HS assay kit (Life Technologies). The pool of barcoded samples for sequencing was created by combining equimolar ratios of amplicons (200 ng/sample) from the individual samples and was cleaned with the QIAquick Qiagen PCR clean up kit. The barcoded composite PCR products were sent to Harvard University (Boston, MA, USA) for 250PE MiSeq Illumina sequencing.

Bd genotype analysis

Bd genetic data based on haplotype-based variants was taken from Basanta et al., (unpublished data). This data set included *Bd* isolates from 18 individuals of *Hyliola regilla (hypochondriaca)* obtained jointly with the skin swab samples (n=89) used in this study (Table S1). Briefly, *Bd* genetic data corresponds to 18 samples sequenced to target 239 *Bd* unique amplicons, including 233 and 6 nuclear and mitochondrial loci respectively. Reads were filtered by selecting sequence variants represented by at least 5 reads in at least 5% of the total number of reads for that sample/locus. Next, for each sample at each locus, consensus sequences were generated using the reduceamplicons R script (https://github.com/msettles/dbcAmplicons/blob/master/scripts/R/reduce_amplicons.R). Using FreeBayes v.1.1.0 (Garrison & Marth, 2012) haplotype-based variants were called, allowing closely linked individual variants to be called together as a single haplotype, and obtaining a variant call format (vcf) that contained 761 variants.

The 18 sequenced samples corresponded to *Bd*-GPL-1, and population genetic diversity was analyzed by pooling them with four previously sequenced samples of Mexico

(DB_I_11; DB_I_12; DB_I_101, DB_F_107) as outgroup since they correspond to *Bd*-GPL-2 from Baja California and Chiapas (Basanta et al., unpublished data). The variant call format (vcf) was used to construct a genetic distance tree using the unweighted pair group with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) method with 1000 bootstraps. The vcf was also used to calculate Nei genetic distances, visualize clustering with a principal component analysis (PCA).

Bd infection analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using the software R v.3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). Prevalence values were calculated as the proportion of infected individuals per site with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) using prop.test function in R (R Core Team, 2019). Individual infection load was measured as the mean number of zoospore genomic equivalents estimated by qPCR from the two well reactions. For infection load, genome equivalents were obtained by averaging the replicated values per sample. *Bd* infection load values were log-transformed ($\log_{10} (\text{Bd load} + 1)$). Differences among sites and environments of *Bd* prevalence and infection load were estimated using a Chi-square test of independence and a Kruskal-Wallis test, respectively.

Skin bacterial analysis

Single-end sequences of 16S rRNA amplicons were processed and quality-filtered using QIIME 2 pipeline (Bolyen et al., 2018). The sequence processing was performed in DADA2 v1.4.0 (Calahan et al., 2016). Sequence variants with length >240 bp were filtered and taxonomy was assigned using the SILVA training set (Bolyen et al., 2018). The final sequence variants (SVs) table, taxonomy table, and sample metadata were exported for their use in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). For alpha diversity, Shannon and Faith's Phylogenetic diversity (PD) indices were calculated for each frog sample according the sites and environments. Differences between amphibian samples according the sites and environments were tested using ANOVA and *post hoc* Tukey test for normal data, and Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon test for non-normal data. Bray-Curtis and Weighted Unifrac distance matrices were used to calculate beta diversity and were visualized using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of bacterial communities using the vegan package v.2.5-6 in R (Oksanen et al., 2019). Differences in beta diversity between amphibian samples according the sites and environments were tested with non-parametric analysis using permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) with the Adonis function using the vegan package v.2.5-6 (Oksanen et al., 2019).

Clustering patterns of bacterial diversity across sites were determined using the UPGMA method. The UPGMA was based on Bray Curtis distances of the mean relative abundances

for sequence variants at the genus level. The resulting heatmap displayed the relative abundance of the most abundant sequence variants (abundance greater than 0.1%) across all study sites, and the clusters obtained were evaluated with pairwise comparisons using ANOSIM analysis of similarities and Bonferroni adjusted P-values. The multivariate homogeneity of group dispersions was analyzed to determine whether skin communities from different sites had different dispersion values using betadisper in vegan v.2.5-6 (Oksanen et al., 2019).

Bd and skin microbiota correlations

To address if *Bd* infection load and *Bd* genetics were correlated to bacterial community structure, Shannon, PD, and Bray Curtis dissimilarity distances were correlated with *Bd* Log infection, and *Bd* genetic distances across populations and environments using Spearman and Mantel correlations in R (R Core Team, 2019).

A Mantel test was used to examine the relationships between bacterial community composition based on the phylogenetic distances of bacterial communities (Weighted Unifrac distances) and *Bd* load. The orthogonal regression lines were fit to scatter plots of NMDS axes against *Bd* load to have a better visual representation.

A partial Mantel test was used to examine the correlation between *Bd* genetic distances among individuals (calculated from vcf) and Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among their microbial communities (calculated from 16S amplicon data) while controlling for the effect of geographic distance. The geographic distance vectors were converted using Euclidean distances between collection localities, and the estimation was realized using the ‘mantel.partial’ function in the vegan package, specifying the Spearman correlation statistic.

Results

Bd genotypes and infection

Genetic analysis of *Bd* isolates revealed different groups of *Bd* in Baja California in both UPGMA and PCA analyses (Figure 2A, B). The UPGMA tree showed three major clades for *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) samples, with five subclades corresponding to each site sampled (Figure 2A).

Bd prevalence and infection load varied among environments ($\chi^2=14.66$, df=2, $P<0.001$; Kruskal-Wallis, $P<0.001$) (Figure S1). Sites from the desert exhibited higher *Bd* prevalence and significantly higher infection load compared to forest and urban sites (Table S2). Prevalence and infection load also varied across sites ($\chi^2=16.71$, $P<0.01$; Kruskal-Wallis,

$P < 0.01$) (Figure 3). Rosario had a significantly higher prevalence than Grulla and Sauzal, and Sauzal had a lower infection compared to Cataviña and Rosario (Table S2).

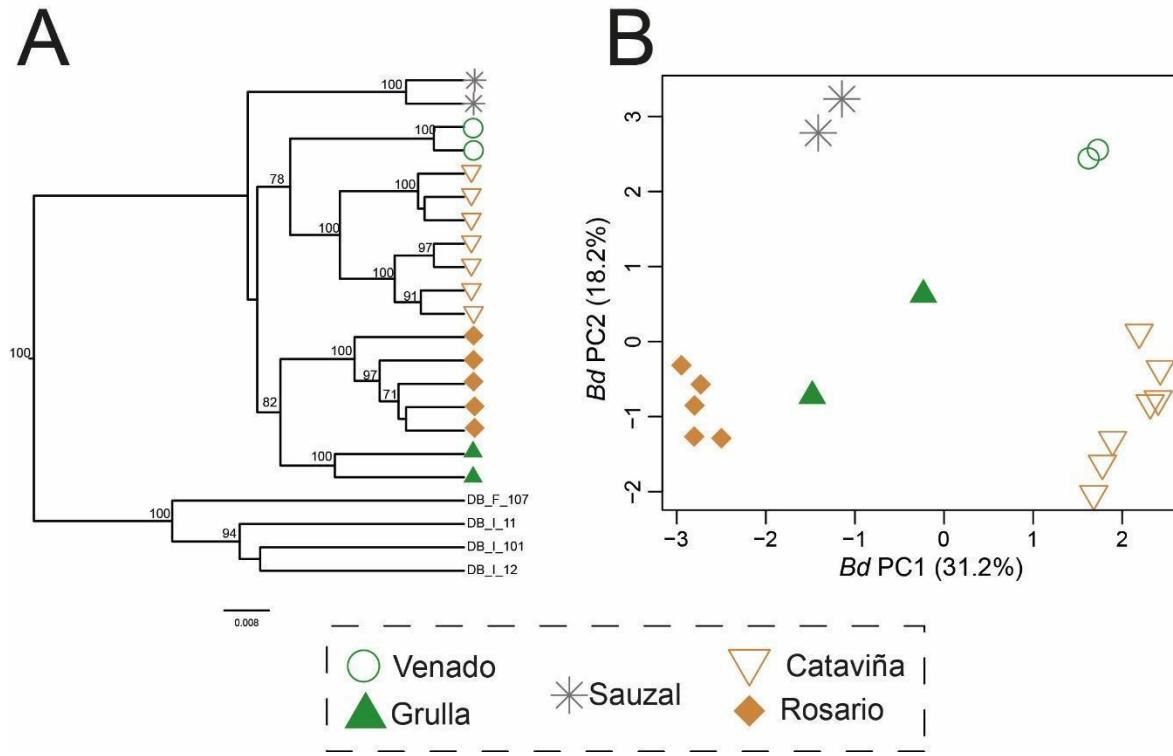


Figure 2. *Bd* genetics of strains isolated from *Hyliola regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) in Baja California. A) Tree using the UPGMA method with 1000 bootstraps of *Bd* isolates collected from *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) in Baja California and four previously sequenced samples from *Bd*-GPL-2 of Mexico (DB_F_107, DB_I_11, DB_I_101, DB_I_12). B) PCA plot of identified SNPs from *Bd* isolates from localities sampled. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

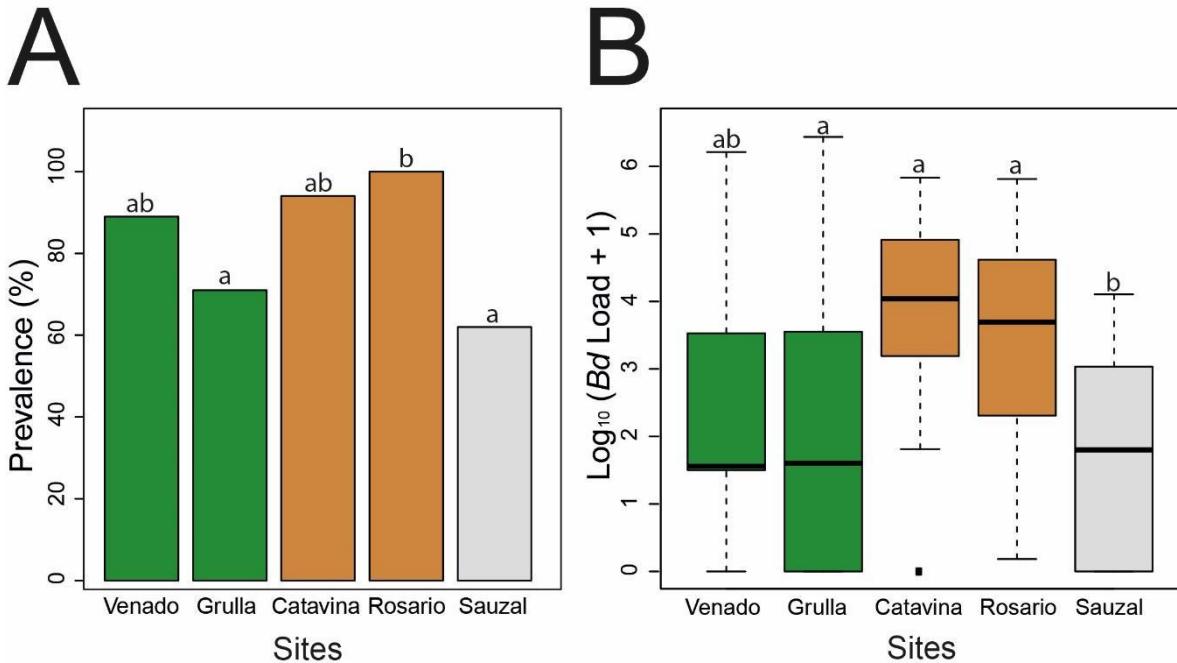


Figure 3. *Bd* infection profiles in *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) A) Bar chart of *Bd* infection and prevalence across sites. Forest sites are colored in green, desert sites in brown, and urban site in gray. B) Boxplot of *Bd* infection load in study sites. Boxes represent 25 and 75 percentile, the horizontal line is the median and whiskers are maximum and minimum values of infection load. Different letters (a, b) represent statistically significant differences among sites, as indicated by the Wilcoxon post hoc tests. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

Bacterial composition

Raw 16S amplicons runs produced a total of 5,013,797 total reads. After filtered by quality, removal chimeras, and rarefying at a sampling depth of 6000 sequences per sample (the lowest number of sequences obtained from any individual sample was 9168), a total of 534,000 sequences remained. The final rarefied SVs table included 3836 SVs. The raw data were deposited in XXXX.

Shannon diversity was similar among environments (Shannon ANOVA $P>0.05$, Figure S2), but PD differed (PD Kruskal-Wallis, $\chi^2=12.22$, $P=0.002$): the urban site had the lowest diversity, and desert and forest had similar PD diversity (Figure S2, Table S2).

Shannon and PD indices showed significant differences in alpha diversity among sites (Shannon ANOVA; $F= 3.837$, $P = 0.00651$; PD Kruskal-Wallis; $\chi^2= 24.048$, $P = 0.00008$;

Figure 4). Cataviña had a significantly higher value of Shannon diversity in comparison to Venado and Sauzal (Figure 4, Table S2). PD was significantly different between sites: Cataviña was different to Rosario, Sauzal and Venado. Grulla and Rosario were different to Sauzal (Table S2).

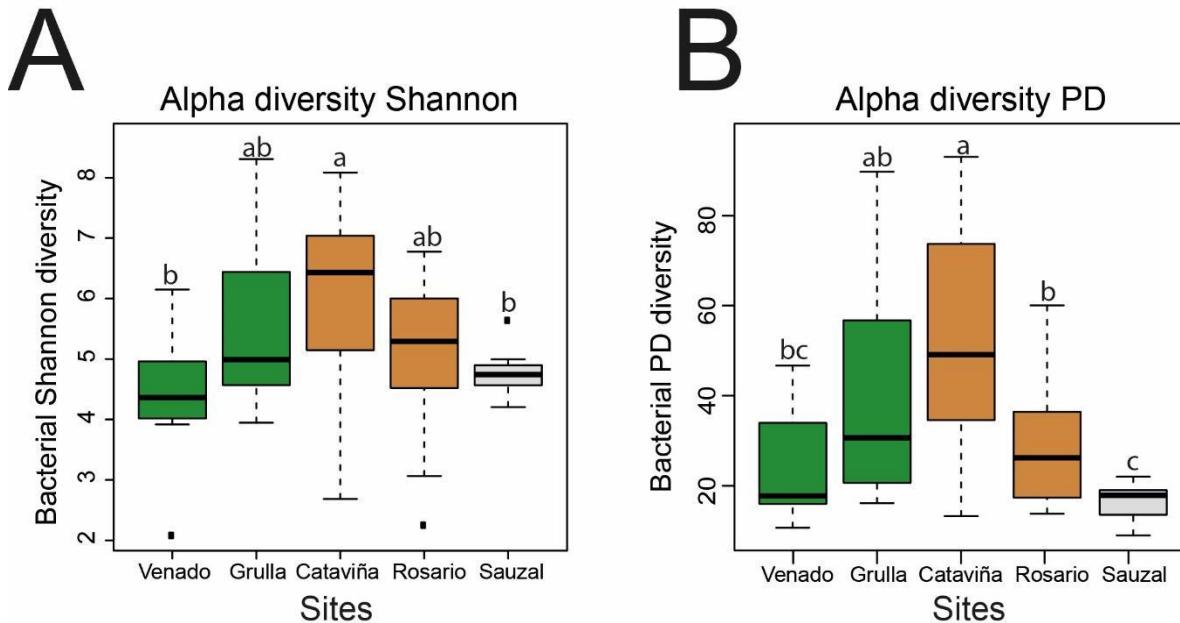


Figure 4. Bacterial community of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) sites. A) Shannon diversity. B) PD diversity. Different letters (a, b, and c) represent statistically significant differences among sites as indicated by the Tukey and Wilcoxon post hoc tests.

Beta diversity of amphibian skin microbiota differed among environments (Bray Curtis PERMANOVA, $F = 51.882$, $P = 0.001$; Weighted Unifrac PERMANOVA, $F = 40.86$, $P = 0.001$; Figure 5, Fig. S2). Dispersion values among environments were significantly different with the desert having the highest dispersion (ANOVA, $F (2,86)=6.34$, $P=0.003$; Figure S3, Table S2). Additionally, skin microbial communities among sites also had significant differences in beta diversity (Bray Curtis PERMANOVA, $F = 33.716$, $P = 0.001$; Weighted Unifrac PERMANOVA, $F = 28.16$, $P = 0.001$; Figure 5), but dispersion values across sites were similar (ANOVA, $P>0.05$, Figure S3, Table S2).

The hierarchical clustering of Bray Curtis distances using UPGMA revealed that each environment (desert, forest, urban) had a particular community structure forming distinct clusters (Figure 5). Pairwise analyses of similarities (ANOSIM) showed differences among environments ($P<0.01$, Table S3). In terms of the community structure, all sites had communities dominated by the genus *Pseudomonas*. This genus had the highest relative abundances in Grulla and Venado (forest environment) followed by sequence variants from

the family Enterobacteriaceae, and the genera *Marinomonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, and *Streptococcus*. Meanwhile, in Cataviña and Rosario (desert environment) *Ferruginibacter* and *Sphaerotilus* had the higher relative abundance, respectively. The skin bacterial communities of Sauzal (urban environment) were dominated by sequence variants from the genera *Cloacibacterium* followed by a high relative abundance of *Flavobacterium*, and sequence variants from the family Burkholderiaceae (Figure 5).

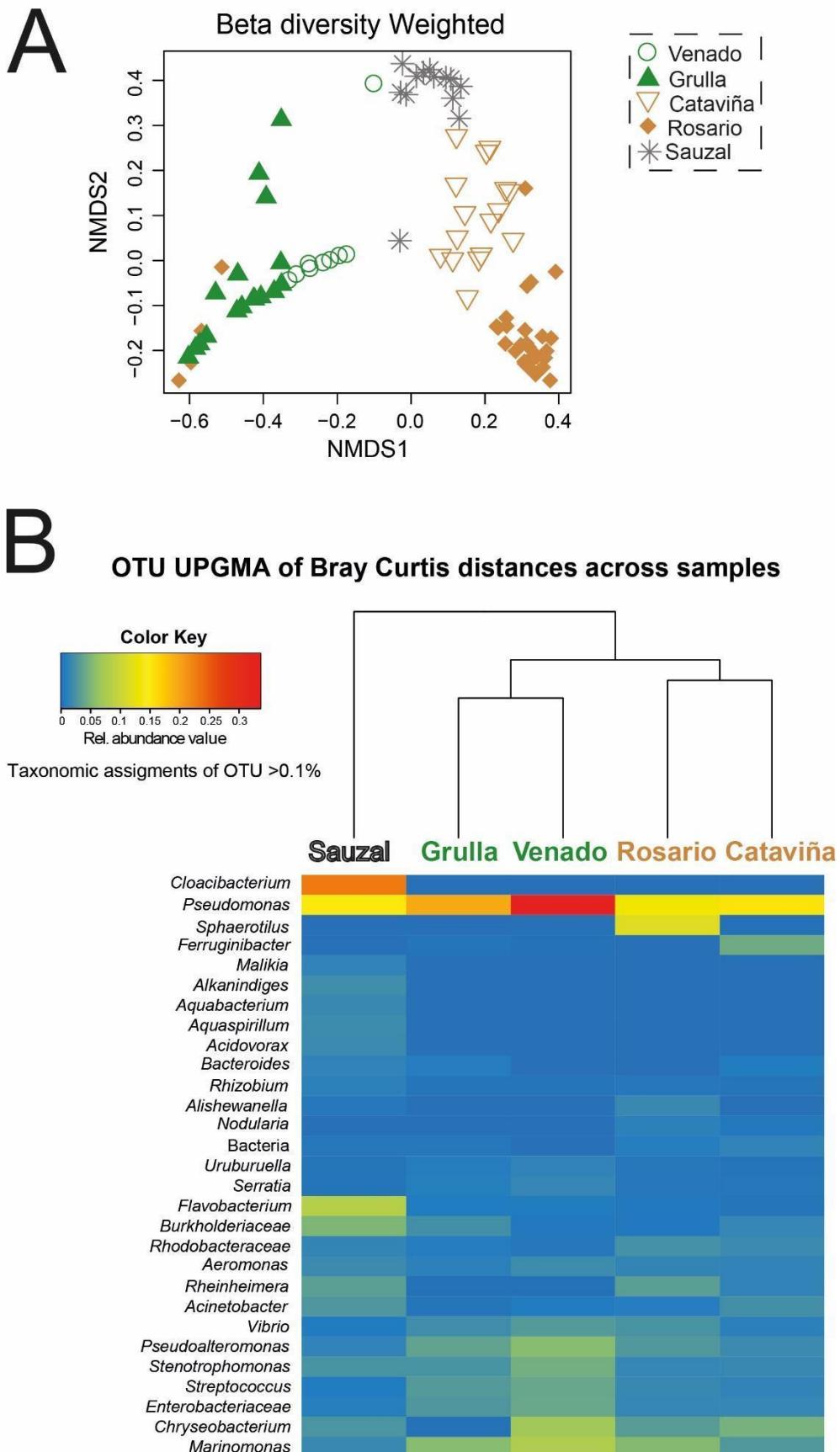


Figure 5. Skin bacterial community structure of *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* of five populations across distinct environments. A) Principal coordinates analysis based on Weighted Unifrac distances displaying beta diversity. B) UPGMA and heatmap of bacterial genera with relative abundances >0.1% across study sites of *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)*. Rows are bacterial taxa and columns are study sites. Colors indicate taxa with a higher (red) or lower (blue) relative abundance in each sample. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

Skin bacterial composition is correlated with Bd load and Bd genetics

To investigate the relationship between *Bd* infection and the skin bacterial microbiota, correlations between *Bd* infection loads and bacterial communities were calculated. Mantel tests showed a significant correlation between the distance matrices of *Bd* load and Weighted Unifrac bacterial communities ($P=0.035$). This correlation was visualized by fitting an orthogonal linear regression to nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination axis 1 plotted against *Bd* load (Figure 6). In contrast to Weighted Unifrac, Bray Curtis was not significantly correlated to *Bd* load ($P > 0.05$).

There was a positive correlation between *Bd* Nei genetic distances calculated from haplotype-based variants and bacterial beta diversity distances when controlling for geographic distance (Partial Mantel Test; Bray Curtis, $R= 0.14$, $P=0.039$; Weighted Unifrac, $R= 0.22$, $P=0.018$).

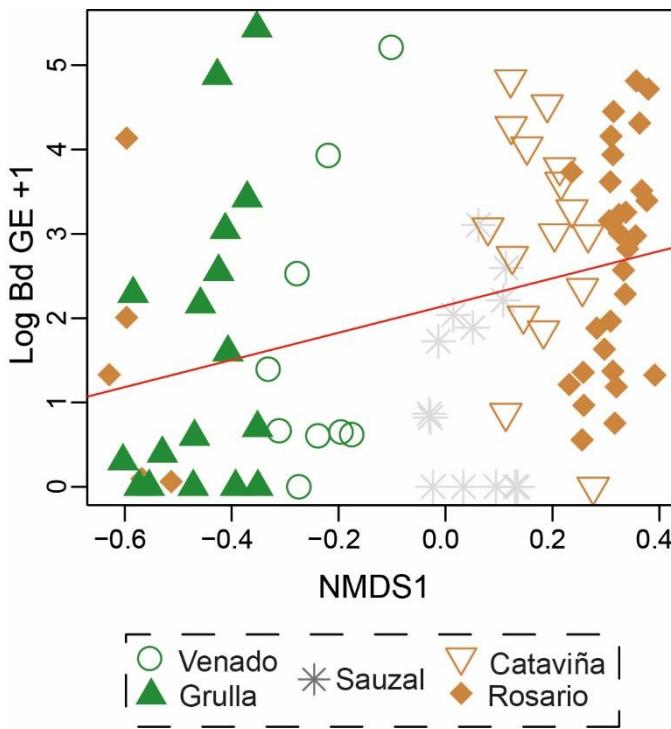


Figure 6. Correlations between NMDS axis 1 of Weighted Unifrac and *Bd* Load. Lines of fit represent significant regressions ($P < 0.05$). Sample sizes were: Cataviña = 16; Rosario = 34, Grulla = 17, Venado = 9, Sauzal = 13. Sample sizes were: Cataviña = 7; Rosario = 5, Grulla = 2, Venado = 2, Sauzal = 2. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

Discussion

Symbiotic bacterial communities are constantly interacting with their host and with host pathogens (Rosenberg et al., 2007; Harris et al., 2009; Cho & Blaser, 2012). Previous studies have demonstrated that, under laboratory conditions, *Bd* growth can be inhibited by several bacterial strains, that act differently in distinct *Bd* genotypes and under different temperatures (Antwis et al., 2015; Antwis & Harrison, 2018; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017), but none of these studies (to our knowledge) have documented the relationship between *Bd* genetic distance and skin bacterial community structure. In this study, we investigated the relationship between skin bacterial diversity in *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) from different environments (desert, forest and urban areas) with *Bd* genetic data and *Bd* infection load. Our results provide evidence that *Bd* genetics and infection load may explain the variation of bacterial composition in *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) from different environments, suggesting that both, *Bd* genetics and environmental differences, are significant factors in shaping the amphibian skin bacterial communities of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*).

We found differences in *Bd* genetics, prevalence and infection load among environments and across sites. The *Bd* strains infecting *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* in Baja California are genetically differentiated across sites, but all of them correspond to *Bd*-GPL-1 which can infect a large number of amphibian species and has a widespread distribution in Mexico (Basanta et al. unpublished data). The *Bd*-GPL as a hypervirulent genotype has a clonal reproduction with loss of heterozygosity (James et al., 2015) and possible non-meiotic recombination generating genotypic variation that could be related to its virulence (Schloegel et al., 2012; Farrer et al., 2011; Rosenblum et al., 2013; James et al., 2015; Becker et al., 2017; Fisher & Garner, 2020). Previous studies have found that *Bd* strains may exhibit local adaptation to environmental conditions increasing its virulence (Voyles et al., 2012; Stevenson et al., 2013). Our results of *Bd* genetic differences among populations may be a result of local adaptation process since these sites harbor contrasting environmental conditions, or a genetic drift occurring among isolating populations. Further work to know if environmental conditions influence differentially the growth and reproduction in vitro of these *Bd* isolates may help to understand whether local adaptation is happening.

The high infection load and prevalence in *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* from Baja California are in agreement with those reported by Peralta-García et al. (2018). This supports *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* as a native reservoir and a *Bd* carrier species in the region, perhaps increasing the infection in the community (Reeder et al., 2012). Interestingly, we found high infection loads in desert sites, which is contrary to studies showing that warmer sites have less infection than colder sites given that in the laboratory cool temperatures are optimal for *Bd* growth, but not for skin-bacteria and skin peptide activity that inhibit *Bd* (Lips, 1998; Longcore et al., 1999; Lips et al. 2003; Berger et al., 2005;; Piotrowski et al. 2004; Hero et al., 2005; Stevenson et al., 2014; Bresciano et al. 2015; Hirschfeld et al., 2016; Robak & Richards-Zawacki, 2018; Robak et al., 2019). Other than temperature, factors such as humidity and amphibian population density could be influencing infection dynamics (Rachowicz & Briggs 2007; Longo et al., 2010). For example, forest sites in Baja California have streams with water all year, while desert sites have water only during the rainy season and in the Oasis (Bullock, 1999). These differences in water availability may cause higher amphibian aggregation in desert populations in contrast to forest populations, favoring the transmission and infection by *Bd*. In addition, our analysis showed genetic differences between *Bd* strains across environments, suggesting that these strains may be locally adapted to different environmental conditions.

Our results indicate that skin bacterial community structure was different among environments (forest, desert, and urban sites) with the urban site being the less phylogenetically diverse. Moreover, the high relative abundance of *Pseudomonas* in all sites may suggests a potential protective role since members of this genus are capable to produce metabolites that inhibit the growth of *Bd* and other fungi, helping frogs to persist

and prevent disease development (Woodhams et al., 2007; Brucker et al., 2008; Flechas et al. 2012; Becker et al., 2015). Additional studies with skin bacterial isolates of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) are required to evaluate their antifungal capabilities.

The urban site was the most different according to Bray Curtis distances with *Cloacibacterium* being the bacterial taxa with the highest relative abundance. Species of this genus have been associated to contamination and wastewater (Allen et al., 2006), thus the presence and high abundance of this bacterial genus in the amphibian skin microbiome is likely a result of this site harboring a distinct environmental reservoir (wastewater) in comparison to all the other sites. This observation supports the fact that environmental bacteria are a fundamental source of bacterial diversity and that changes in bacterial composition in the environment may in turn modify the skin microbiome structure and function (Walke et al., 2014; Rebollar et al., 2016).

In this study we found that *Bd* genetics and infection load are correlated to the skin bacterial structure of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*). *Bd* genetic differences could reflect variation in virulence and phenotypic traits that affect microbiota composition, favoring the presence of specific bacterial taxa (Jani & Briggs, 2014; James et al., 2015; Antwis & Harrison, 2018; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017). Here, the sequence variants with higher abundances in forest sites (e.g. *Pseudomonas*, Enterobacteriaceae) may be involved in disease resistance reflecting less infection, or on the contrary, high *Bd* infection loads in desert sites may be causing a decrease of these sequence variants within the skin bacterial community. In agreement with our data, Jani & Briggs (2014) found that the abundance of *Pseudomonas* decreases with *Bd* infection in *Rana sierra*. However, other studies found that populations with high *Bd* prevalence had dominant anti-*Bd* bacteria such as *Pseudomonas* (Bresciano et al., 2015; Walke et al., 2017). Further experimental studies are needed to evaluate the relationship of *Bd* infection and *Bd* genetic differences with anti-*Bd* bacteria such as *Pseudomonas*.

The correlation of *Bd* genetics with the skin bacterial structure also are correlated with differences among environments. The colonization of skin bacterial symbionts can occur via environmental transmission (Muletz et al., 2012), and the host traits obtain only a partial bacterial set from the environment (Fitzpatrick & Allison, 2014; Walke et al., 2014; Rebollar et al., 2016; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2018). Several studies have documented that geographic location maybe a potential source of variation in the outcome of the host–microbiome–pathogen interaction (Bernardo-Cravo et al., 2020). Therefore, the skin bacterial composition of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) populations can be being influenced by the contrasting environments that inhabit. Our results are not be able to distinguish if *Bd* genetics, environment or both are influencing the bacterial community structure. Future controlled experimental studies of *Bd* infection with different strains should test the response of the skin bacterial structure.

The relationship between *Bd* and the skin bacterial community is also affected by other factors such as the evolutionary history of the host (Rebollar et al., 2016b). Host genetic differentiation between populations also may explain differences and similarities in both bacterial communities and *Bd* infection. *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* has a restricted gene flow, especially in populations from arid areas (Recuero et al., 2006) such as Rosario and Cataviña with forest sites (Grulla and Venado), which could in part describe patterns in skin bacterial assemblages across space (Walker et al., 2019). Additionally, host genetic differences may be associated with distinct immunological responses on the amphibian skin such as mucosal antibodies, lysozyme, and antimicrobial peptides (Rollins-Smith & Woodhams, 2012). For example, Tennessen et al. (2009) found that differences in expression and activity of antimicrobial peptides could be reflected in intraspecific differences in resistance to pathogens. The immunological system also can target some microbial groups more than others selecting advantages for particular bacteria within the microbial communities on host skin (Conlon, 2011). Therefore, the high influence of all these factors in the pathogen-host dynamic should be considered jointly in future research.

Overall, genetic differences of *Bd* within a single clade (GPL-1) could explain differences in the bacterial skin composition among environments. We found genetic differences between *Bd* strains across environments suggesting that these strains may be locally adapted to different environmental conditions or be a result of genetic drift. The correlation between genetic differences of *Bd* and infection loads to particular bacterial community structure, indicate that *Bd* strains and skin-associated bacteria are likely interacting on the host skin and thus may be affecting rates of *Bd* load as well as microbial community structure. The interaction of skin-bacterial composition and *Bd* strains also may vary with ecological contexts, such as amphibian host and environment, therefore, future work is still needed to achieve a fully integrated understanding of *Bd* infection on the skin of amphibian populations.

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Supplementary information

Fig S1. *Bd* infection profiles in *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* A) Bar chart of *Bd* infection and prevalence across environments B) Boxplot of *Bd* infection load in environments. Boxes represent 25 and 75 percentile, the horizontal line is the median and whiskers are maximum and minimum values of infection load. Different letters (a, b) signify statistically significant differences among environments as indicated by the Wilcoxon post hoc tests.

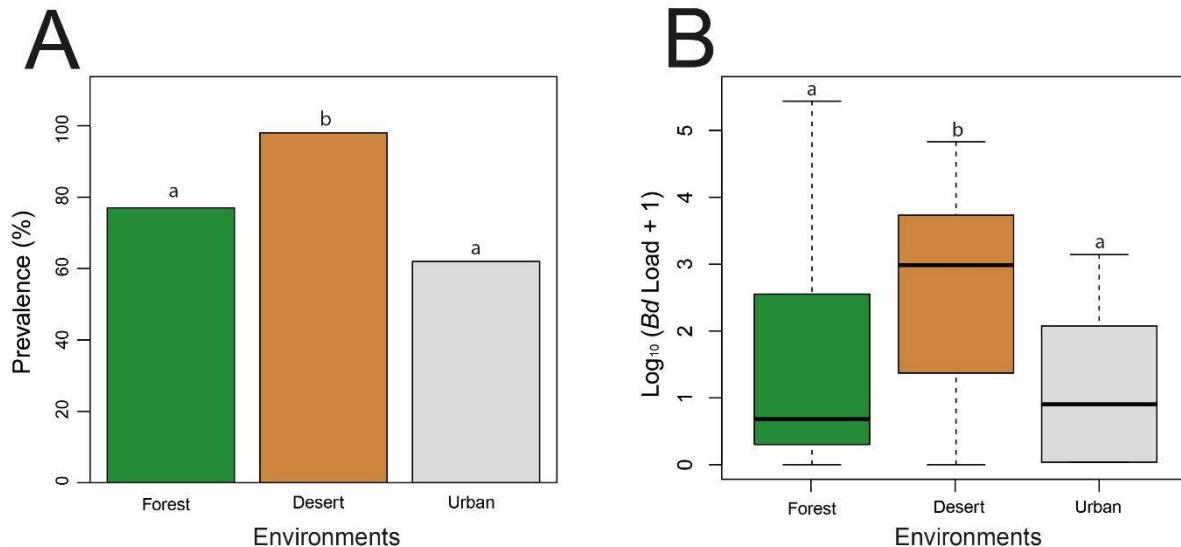


Fig. S2. Alpha diversity of skin bacterial community of *H. regilla (hypochondriaca)* across environments. A) Shannon diversity. B) PD diversity. Different letters (a and b) signify statistically significant differences among environments as indicated by the Wilcoxon post hoc tests.

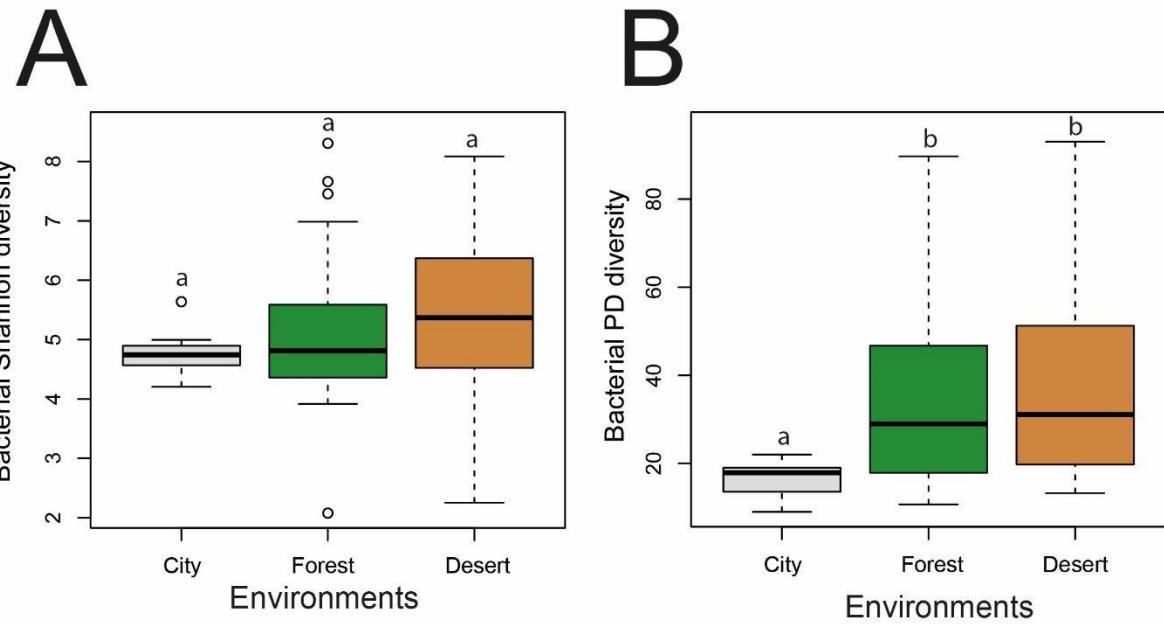


Fig. S2. Principal coordinates analysis based on Bray–Curtis distances displaying bacterial beta diversity of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) sites. Green, brown and gray colors represent forest, desert and urban environments respectively.

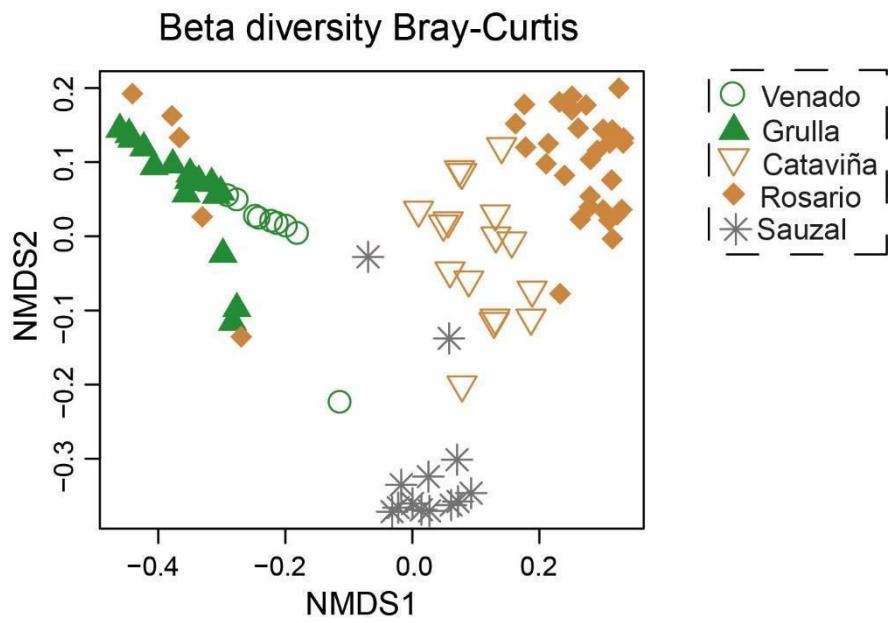


Fig. S3. Analysis of multivariate homogeneity of group dispersions (variance) of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) skin bacterial communities across environments. a) PCoA of Bray Curtis distances across environments. Lines indicate the distance of each point to each centroid's (= environment's) group; b) Box plot of distances to each centroid's environment. c) PCoA of Bray Curtis distances across sites. Lines indicate the distance of each point to each centroid's (= site's) group; d) Box plot of distances to each site's g. Different letters (a and b) signify statistically significant differences among environments as indicated by the Tukey post hoc tests.

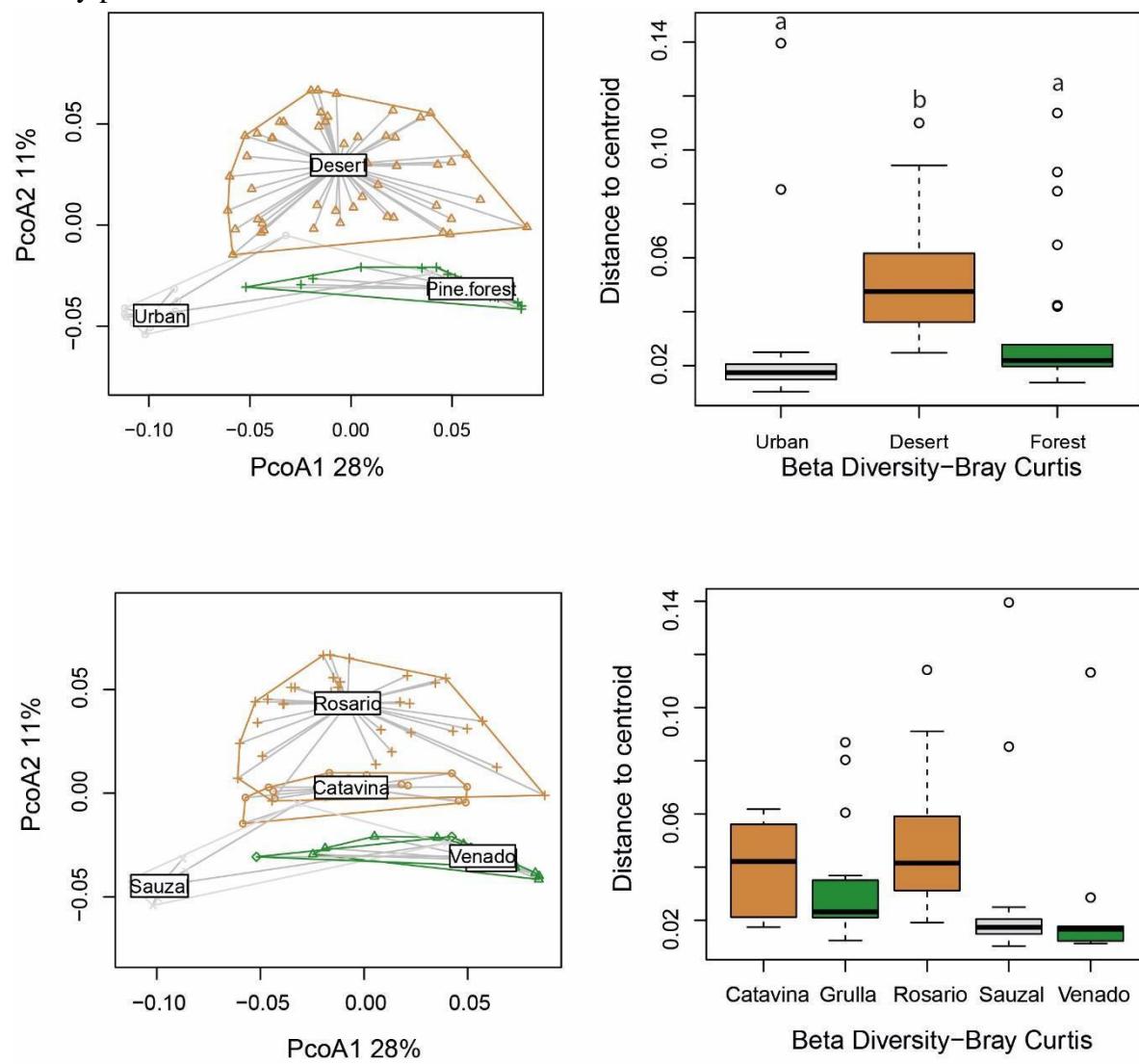


Table S1. Samples information. Identification of swab samples with microbiome data, *Bd* detection, and genetic data from Basanta et al. (unpublished data).

| Species | Locality | ID of samples with microbiome and <i>Bd</i> detection | ID of samples with genetic data from Basanta et al. |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 44 | DB_I_1 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 46 | DB_I_2 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 45 | DB_I_54 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 51 | DB_I_57 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 52 | DB_I_58 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 54 | DB_I_60 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 55 | DB_I_78 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 47 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 48 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 49 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 50 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 53 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 56 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 57 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 58 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Cataviña, Baja California | 59 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 109 | DB_I_18 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 63 | DB_I_62 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 85 | DB_I_63 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 61 | DB_I_76 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 2 | DB_I_77 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 0 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 1 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 3 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 4 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 60 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 62 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 64 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 65 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 66 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 67 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 68 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 69 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 70 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 71 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 72 | - |

| | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|----|---------|
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 73 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 74 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 75 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 76 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 78 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 79 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 80 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 81 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 82 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 83 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 84 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 86 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 87 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Rosario, Baja California | 88 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 33 | DB_I_81 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 37 | DB_I_9 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 31 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 32 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 34 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 35 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 36 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 38 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 39 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 40 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 41 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 42 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | El Sauzal, Baja California | 43 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 10 | DB_I_52 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 19 | DB_I_75 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 14 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 15 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 16 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 17 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 18 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 20 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 21 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 5 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 6 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 7 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 8 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 9 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 11 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 12 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | La Grulla, Baja California. | 13 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 22 | DB_I_7 |

| | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|----|--------|
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 26 | DB_I_8 |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 23 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 24 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 25 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 27 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 28 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 29 | - |
| <i>Hyliola regilla</i> | Venado Blanco, Baja California. | 30 | - |

Table S2. Pairwise comparisons of *Bd* prevalence, *Bd* load, Shannon diversity, phylogenetic diversity, and beta dispersion between environments and sites.

| Pairwise comparison | P-values | | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| | Prevalence-Wilcoxon test | <i>Bd</i> load-Wilcoxon test | Shannon -Tukey test | PD Wilcoxon test | Beta Dispersion-Tukey test |
| Forest-Desert | 0.004 | 0.007 | 0.38 | 0.673 | 0.009 |
| Desert-Urban | 0.0002 | 0.003 | 0.27 | 0.001 | 0.029 |
| Forest-Urban | 0.329 | 0.557 | 0.38 | 0.014 | 0.972 |
| Grulla-Cataviña | 0.189 | 0.069 | 0.745 | 0.625 | 0.919 |
| Grulla-Rosario | 0.005 | 0.452 | 0.804 | 0.398 | 0.279 |
| Grulla-Sauzal | 0.696 | 0.015 | 0.398 | 0.004 | 0.999 |
| Grulla-Venado | 0.399 | 0.140 | 0.134 | 0.145 | 0.988 |
| Rosario-Venado | 0.148 | 0.197 | 0.421 | 0.625 | 0.223 |
| Rosario-Cataviña | 0.257 | 0.452 | 0.106 | 0.018 | 0.858 |
| Rosario-Sauzal | 0.002 | 0.021 | 0.858 | 0.016 | 0.307 |
| Sauzal-Cataviña | 0.131 | 0.015 | 0.039 | 0.001 | 0.901 |
| Sauzal-Venado | 0.257 | 0.624 | 0.944 | 0.625 | 0.996 |
| Venado-Cataviña | 0.718 | 0.140 | 0.010 | 0.039 | 0.761 |

Table S3. Pairwise non-parametric analyses of similarity (ANOSIMs) between the three environments of *H. regilla* (*hypochondriaca*) based on Bray Curtis distances. p-values in black indicate significant comparisons.

| Pairwise comparisons | ANOSIM Results (p values adjusted by Bonferroni) using 999 permutations | |
|----------------------|---|---------------|
| Forest-Desert | 0.164 | 0.0045 |
| Desert-Urban | 0.7783 | 0.0001 |

Forest-Urban 0.8823 **0.0001**

CAPITULO 3

Artículo de requisito:

Potential risk of *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* in Mexico

Artículo de requisito

Revista: PlosOne

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Potential risk of *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans* in Mexico

M. Delia Basanta^{1,2*}, Eria A. Rebollar^{3*}, Gabriela Parra-Olea¹*

1 Departamento de Zoología, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, AP, Tercer Circuito Exterior s/n, Ciudad Universitaria, Ciudad de México, México, **2** Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Unidad de Posgrado, Edificio A, 1º Piso, Circuito de Posgrados, Ciudad Universitaria, Coyoacán, C.P., Ciudad de México, México, **3** Centro de Ciencias Genómicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Cuernavaca, Morelos, México

* These authors contributed equally to this work.

* gparra@ib.unam.mx



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Abstract

The recent decline in populations of European salamanders caused by the chytrid fungus *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans* (*Bsal*) has generated worldwide concern, as it is a major threat to amphibians. Evaluation of the areas most suitable for the establishment of *Bsal*/combined with analysis of the distribution of salamander species could be used to generate and implement biosecurity measures and protect biodiversity at sites with high salamander diversity. In this study, we identified the areas most suitable for the establishment of *Bsal*/in Mexico. Mexico has the second-highest salamander species diversity in the world; thus, we identified areas moderately to highly suitable for the establishment of *Bsal*/with high salamander diversity as potential hotspots for surveillance. Central and Southern Mexico were identified as high-risk zones, with 13 hotspots where 30% of Mexican salamander species occur, including range-restricted species and endangered species. We propose that these hotspots should be thoroughly monitored for the presence of *Bsal*/to prevent the spread of the pathogen if it is introduced to the country.

Introduction

Chytridiomycosis, an emergent disease caused by the fungal pathogen *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*), has caused alarming population collapses and extinctions of amphibians worldwide [1–7]. In many regions throughout the world, *Bd* infections have transitioned from epidemic to endemic states after declines occurred, and at present, some amphibian populations are either stable or recovering after more than a decade since the disease outbreaks occurred [4, 8, 9]. The recent emergence of a second chytrid fungus, *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans* (*Bsal*), has unleashed great concern among researchers and conservation agencies since this pathogen has already caused die-offs of native salamander species in Europe [10]. The potential effects of *Bsal* infections in other regions of the world are still unclear. However, recent studies in European salamander populations determined that the combination of *Bsal*'s transmission strategy, virulence and host population dynamics could have

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catastrophic effects on naïve salamander populations [11, 12], including those species that were not previously affected by *Bd*. The urgency of this situation requires estimation of the potential effect of *Bsal* if introduced to naïve regions.

The available ecological data can provide some indicators regarding the potential of *Bsal* to contribute to the global decline in amphibians. Although *Bd* affects all groups of amphibians, experimental studies have documented that *Bsal* infections are harmful to urodeles even at very low *Bsal* zoospore levels [11, 12], whereas anurans can coexist with *Bsal* infections and act as reservoirs [12, 13]. *Bsal* physiological studies have shown that the thermal growth range of *Bsal* in the laboratory is between 5°C and 25°C, with optimal growth between 10°C and 15°C [10], which is considerably lower than the optimal temperature range of *Bd* (between 17°C and 25°C) [14]. However, recent surveys in Vietnam and China found *Bsal* in ponds and streams with water temperatures between 20°C and 25°C [15, 16], suggesting a wide thermal niche for this pathogen.

Since *Bsal* is lethal to some urodele species, its spread to naïve regions with high salamander diversity, such as North America, could cause significant reductions in amphibian diversity [11, 17, 18]. Thus, areas that are moderately to highly suitable for *Bsal* with high salamander diversity could be considered as hotspots in which surveillance strategies should be implemented to prevent potential amphibian declines.

The use of ecological niche modeling (ENM) to infer the suitable distribution of *Bsal* could provide an estimate of sites with the potential risk of infection based on bioclimatic variables and salamander distributions [18–23]. Yap et al. [18] created a species distribution model for *Bsal* using the native ranges of the three putative native *Bsal* host species in Asia (*Cynops cyanurus*, *C. pyrrhogaster*, and *Paramesotriton deloustali*) and projected these results to North America. These analyses identified the southern part of the Appalachian Mountains, the Pacific Northwest, the Sierra Nevada, and the mid-Atlantic as high-risk zones in the USA and the Sierra Madre Oriental (SMO) and the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TVB) as high-risk zones in Mexico. However, Yap et al. [18] analyzed the native host niche under the assumption that it is a proxy for the *Bsal* ecological niche.

Since *Bsal* has been found in different environmental conditions outside the native host range of Asia (introduced areas in Europe), we constructed a potential distribution model to identify areas susceptible to invasion. We modelled *Bsal*'s niche considering environmental layers and the occurrences of *Bsal* in its native and invasive areas to create projections of *Bsal* suitability in Mexico. Based on the obtained *Bsal* model and the salamander richness distribution, we identified major hotspots for salamander decline in the event of *Bsal* introduction in Mexico. This information will be relevant to implement conservation strategies in Mexico, which has the world's second-highest salamander richness, with 146 described species [24].

Materials and methods

Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans potential distribution model

To assess the potential distribution of *Bsal* in Mexico, we mapped its climatic niche based on environmental layers and *Bsal* occurrences from both Europe and Asia [25] (S1 Fig). *Bsal* occurrence records were obtained from Martel et al. [11], Laking et al. [15], Yuan et al. [16], Spitsen-van der Sluijs et al. [26], and Beukema et al. [27] (S1 Table).

The model was built using the maximum entropy algorithm MaxEnt [23]. This software estimates the probability of species occurrence by finding the distribution of maximum entropy, which is subject to constraints defined by the environmental variables being analyzed [23]. To avoid model overfitting and multicollinearity of predictors [28], we selected the non-correlated variables chosen by MaxEnt. Briefly, we first ran MaxEnt using all 19 bioclimate

layers from Wordclim [29] at 30 arcsecond (~1 km) resolution to let the software select the variables (S2 Table). Then, we calculated pairwise Pearson correlations between the variables using ENM tools [30], and we selected those with the maximum contribution percent in the model and with a Pearson's $r < 0.75$ (S3 Table): mean diurnal range (Bio2), maximum temperature of warmest month (Bio5), temperature annual range (Bio7), precipitation seasonality (Bio15), precipitation of warmest quarter (Bio18), and precipitation of coldest quarter (Bio19).

The MaxEnt model was optimized using the ENMeval package [31] implemented in R 3.2.4 [32], which provides an automated method to execute MaxEnt models across a user-specified range of regularization multiplier (RM) values and feature combinations (FCs). We set the RM range from 0.5 to 2.5 with increments of 0.5 and three FCs, i.e., linear (L), linear and quadratic (LQ), and linear, quadratic and product (LQP), resulting in 15 possible combinations of features and regularization multipliers. The fine-tuned MaxEnt models were made by seeking the lowest delta value of Akaike's information criterion corrected for small samples sizes (AICc) among candidate models, which reflects both model goodness-of-fit and complexity providing the most conservative results. In addition, AICc balances predictability against model complexity due to penalties for overparameterization [21, 31]. The models were built based on an approach proposed by Phillips [33]. Briefly, we modelled *Bsal*'s niche using the native area (Asia) to train the model (occurrences and background) and the invasive area (Europe) as testing data. We also used a block method to generate AUC scores [31].

We selected the model with the lowest delta AICc score, which had a parametrization of regularization multiplier of 2.5 and a LQP feature combination; it exhibited good predictive power, with high accuracy and an average test AUC value of 0.87 (S4 Table, S2 Fig). This model was used to project *Bsal* in Mexico to create the bioclimatic suitability model (logistic output). Because the logistic output from Maxent ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating unsuitable habitat and 1 indicating the highest suitability, we reclassified the predicted values using 0.25 intervals to obtain four suitability classes: no suitability when values were less than 0.25, low suitability when the occurrence probability ranged between 0.25 and 0.5, moderate suitability when the values ranged between 0.5 and 0.75, and high suitability when the values were greater than 0.75 [34–36]. In addition, we defined the potential presence and absence areas in Mexico using the minimum training presence threshold, which correspond to the lowest predicted presence value of an occurrence record [37].

Salamander distribution and richness areas

We estimated salamander richness in Mexico by overlapping 161 distribution maps [18]. 136 of the distribution maps were obtained from the IUCN Red List [38], and the remaining 25 were expert-based maps (*Aquiloeurycea cafetalera*, *Bolitoglossa chinanteca*, *B. odonelli*, *Bradytriton silus*, *Chiropterotriton sp. I*, *Chiropterotriton sp. C*, *Chiropterotriton sp. E*, *Chiropterotriton sp. F*, *Chiropterotriton sp. G*, *Chiropterotriton sp. H*, *Chiropterotriton sp. J*, *Chiropterotriton sp. K*, *Chiropterotriton aureus*, *Chiropterotriton chico*, *Chiropterotriton cieloensis*, *Chiropterotriton infernalis*, *Chiropterotriton miquihuanaus*, *Chiropterotriton nubilus*, *Isthmura corrugata*, *Isthmura sierraoccidentalis*, *Thorius hankeni*, *T. longicaudus*, *T. maxillabrochus*, *T. pinicola*, *T. tlaxiacus*). Expert-based maps were obtained based on records from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF, <http://www.gbif.org>), National Biodiversity Information System of Mexico (SNIB) and published papers [39–41]. These records were carefully reviewed, and we added a 1-km buffer radius to each record according the registered plethodontids home ranges [42]. Moreover, we modified distributions of three species from IUCN (*Ambystoma granulosum*, *A. rivulare*, *Chiropterotriton multidentatus*) considering the occurrences and last updates published [43, 44]. We also consulted the International Union for Conservation of

Nature (IUCN)-The Global Amphibian Assessment (GAA) to obtain the conservation status for all Mexican salamanders listed in the database. We used ArcGIS 10.2 [45] to produce all GIS layers and calculate the distribution area. In addition, we used the R statistical software package to overlap the species distribution and perform the richness map at a resolution of 30 arcseconds ($\sim 1 \text{ km}^2$). Expert-based maps and modified maps are available at <https://github.com/delibasant/Mexican-salamanders.git>

Geographic overlap

We created a salamander-vulnerability model by calculating the overlap of suitable areas of *Bsal* and the salamander-richness distribution. This model retrieved biodiversity hotspots in which *Bsal* has suitable bioclimatic conditions (*Bsal* suitability >0.5) and salamander diversity is high (more than five salamander species).

Results

Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans has several potential suitable regions in Mexico

We found that areas from the Sierra Madre Oriental (SMO), Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TVB), Sierra Madre del Sur (SMS), Mexican Gulf and Yucatan Peninsula were the most suitable areas for *Bsal* (Fig 1, S3 Fig). Of the six environmental variables, temperature annual range (Bio7), minimum temperature of the coldest month (Bio5) and precipitation seasonality (Bio15) had the largest contributions to the distribution model for *Bsal* (S5 Table). These three factors explained 91.3% of the modeled distribution. The contributions of the other factors, i.e., mean diurnal range (Bio2), precipitation of the warmest quarter (Bio18), and precipitation of the coldest quarter (Bio19) were 5.8%, 1.92%, and 0.97%, respectively. These results indicate that thermal conditions and precipitation seasonality were the most important variables of the obtained *Bsal* niche model.

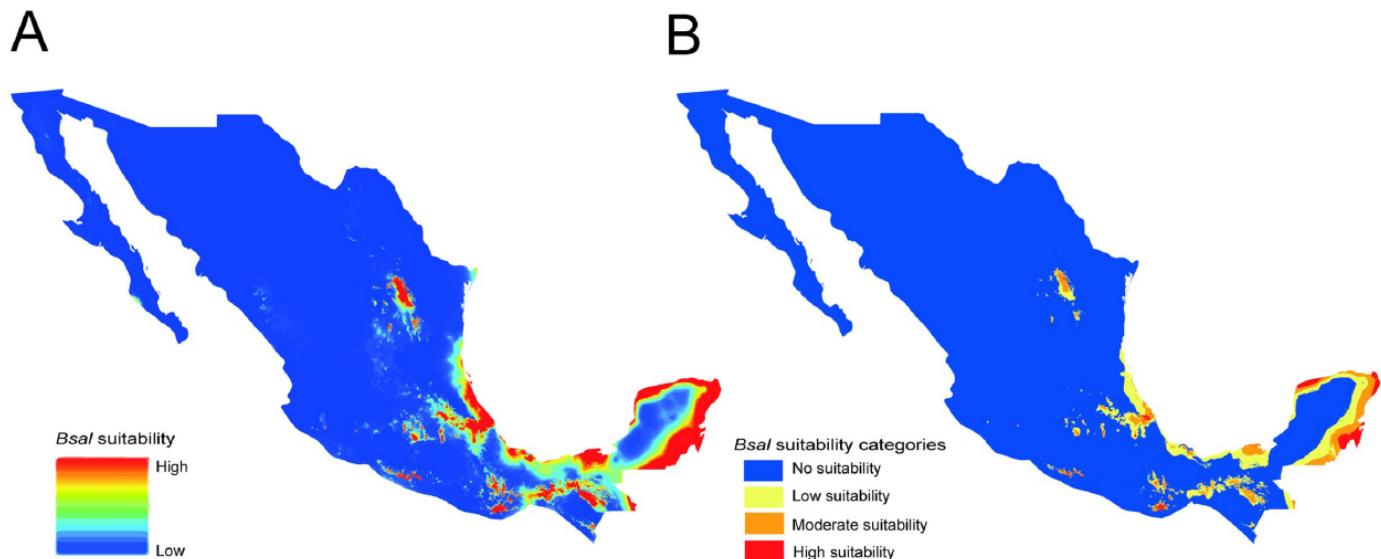


Fig 1. Suitability model for *Bsal* in Mexico. (A) Continuous model (B) Categorized model.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0211960.g001>

Salamander distribution in Mexico is highly heterogeneous

We obtained distribution maps for 161 salamander species (153 described species and 8 undescribed species, *i.e.*, *Chiroppterotriton* spp.) ([S6 Table](#)). These maps were used to generate a salamander richness map ([Fig 2](#)). The salamander distribution in the country is heterogeneous, with most of the species occurring in Central and Southern Mexico ([Fig 2](#)).

According to the areas in which salamanders occur, 44% of the salamander species exhibit a small distribution ($<100 \text{ km}^2$) and are endemic to Mexico ([S6 Table](#)). Moreover, most Mexican salamanders are threatened according the IUCN Red List classification, with 33% of the species listed as critically endangered, 29% as endangered, 8% as vulnerable, 5% as near threatened, 10% as least concern, 4% as data deficient, and 11% not evaluated ([S6 Table](#)).

Species from the family Plethodontidae represented 87.4% of the total number of species in the country, whereas Ambystomatidae, Salamandridae and Sirenidae represented 10.7%, 0.63% and 1.26%, respectively.

Geographic overlap: High correspondence between *Bsal* suitability and salamander richness

We found that 51% of salamander species of Mexico are present in areas that are suitable for *Bsal* ([S4 Fig](#), [S6 Table](#)). We identified 13 hotspots as those suitable areas categorized as moderate and high suitability for *Bsal* ([Fig 1B](#)) in which five or more salamander species were present ([Fig 3](#)). All hotspots are located in Central and Southern Mexico: eight are located on the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TVB), two in Los Tuxtlas Veracruz, one in the Sierra Madre del Sur (SMS) in Guerrero, one in Northern Oaxaca, and one in SMS in Chiapas ([Fig 3](#)). These hotspots included 47 salamander species across seven genera, including species with a restricted geographical range ($<100 \text{ km}^2$) ([Fig 4A](#), [S6](#) and [S7](#) Tables) and endangered species ([Fig 4B](#), [S6 Table](#)).

Discussion

Due to the potential risk of introducing *Bsal* to native regions through wildlife trade [[13](#), [46](#)], we used ENM and salamander distribution data to determine the potential areas and species that are most likely to be at risk of pathogen exposure should an introduction occur in Mexico.

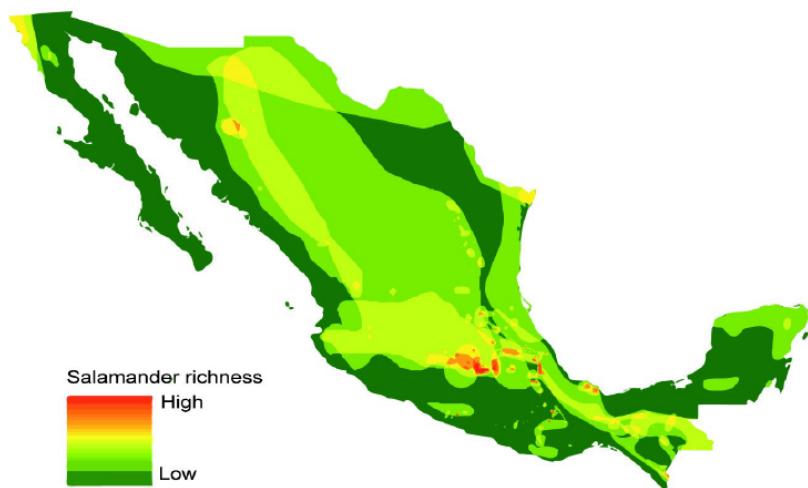


Fig 2. Map of salamander richness distribution in Mexico.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0211960.g002>

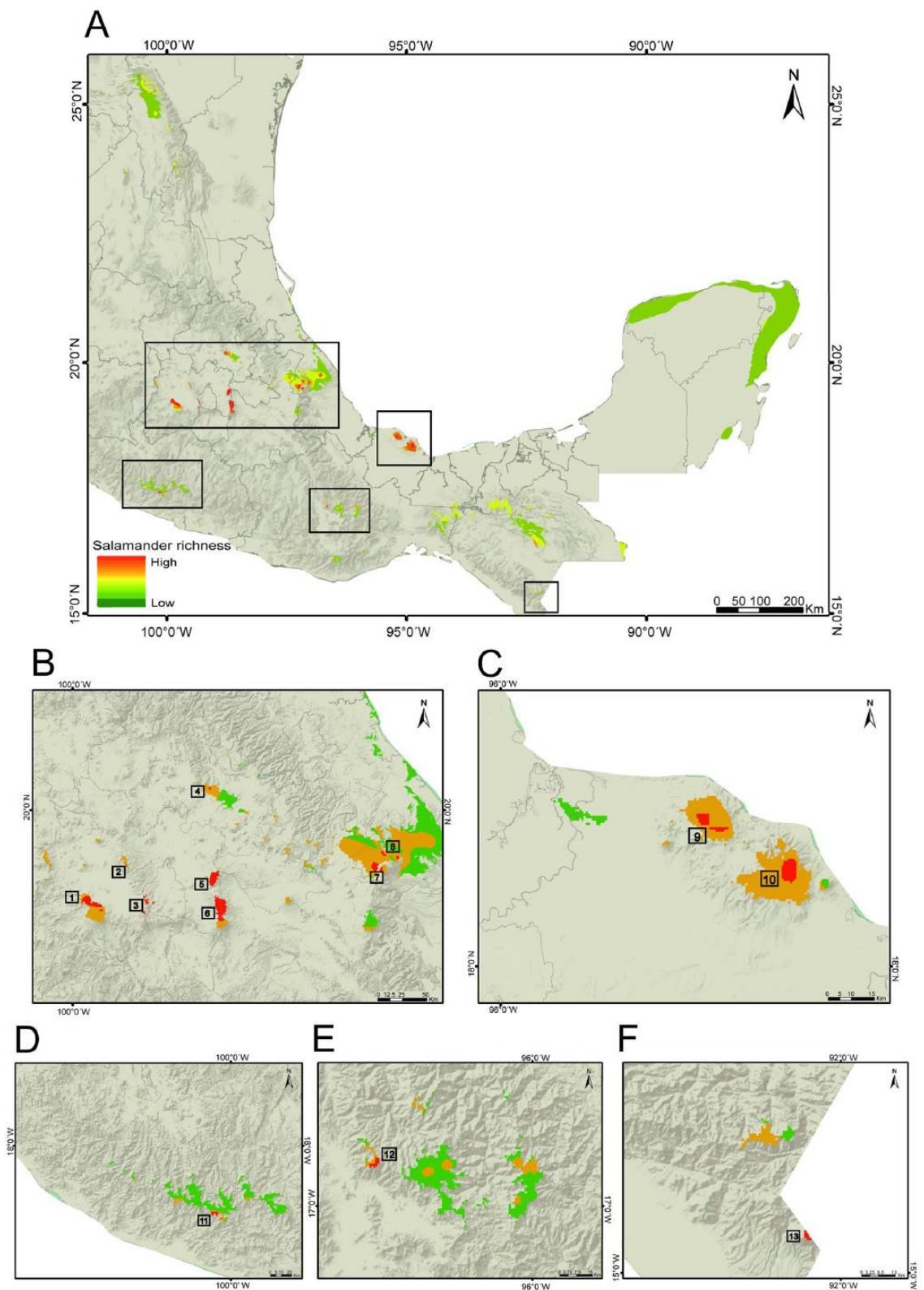


Fig 3. Overlap of salamander richness with moderate suitable and high suitable areas for BsAl. (A) Areas with hotspots. Hotspots identification in: (B) TVB. (C) Los Tuxtlas. (D) SMS in Guerrero. (E) Northern Oaxaca. (F) SMS in Chiapas.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0211960.g003>

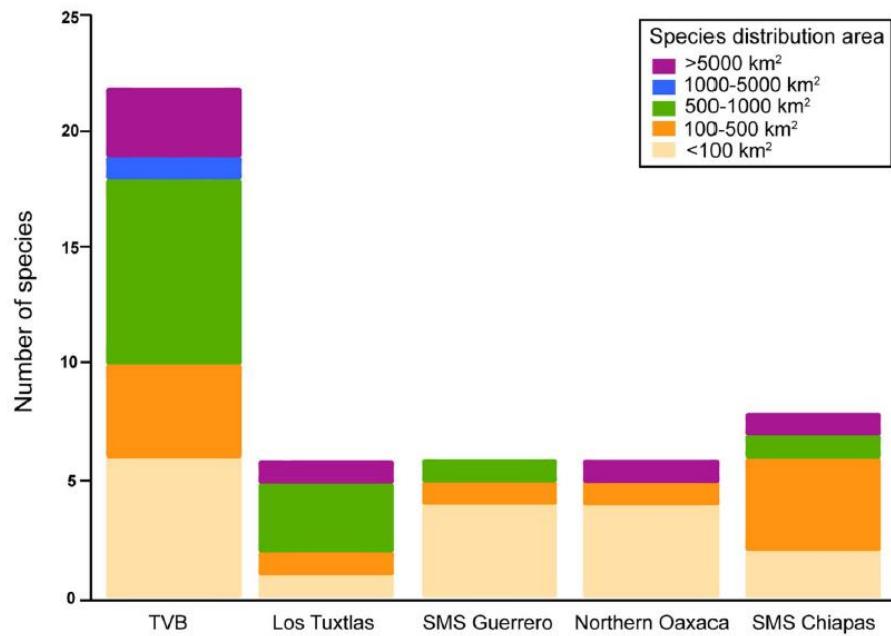
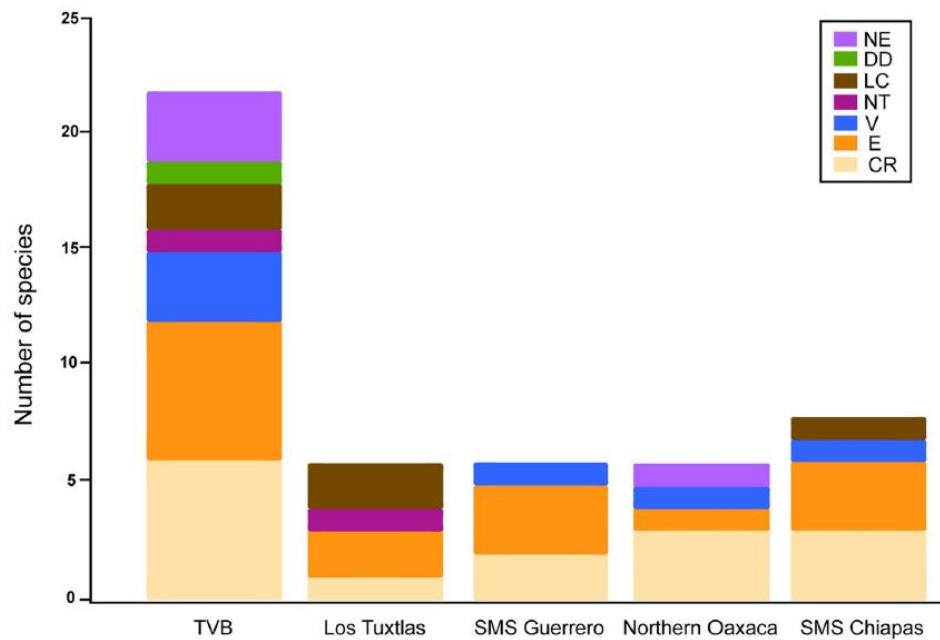
A**B**

Fig 4. Relationship between hotspots and salamander species. (A) Number of salamander species present in the hotspot areas and their associated distribution range. (B) Number of salamander species present in the hotspot areas and the associated IUCN categories.

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Areas with high salamander diversity have climatic conditions that appear to be suitable for the establishment of *Bsal* should an introduction occur. Considering the latter, the risk of *Bsal* arrival is critically important, and it is essential to monitor these areas where species loss would be considerable.

Our niche model predictions differ considerably from those obtained by Yap et al. [18], in which the authors estimated the habitat suitability for invasive *Bsal* in North America. Using Maxent and amphibian host occurrence records, Yap et al. [18] predicted areas of Sierra Madre Occidental (SMOc), Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TVB), Sierra Madre del Sur (SMS), Baja California and Oaxaca as suitable for *Bsal* in Mexico. In contrast, our study predicted some parts of the TVB, SMS, Sierra Madre Oriental (SMO), Northern Oaxaca, Mexican Gulf and Yucatan Peninsula as suitable areas for *Bsal*. The discrepancies between Yap et al. [18] and our study (i.e., Baja California, SMOcc, Mexican Gulf and Yucatan Peninsula) can be explained by methodological differences in calibration areas and the occurrences used to estimate the potential range of *Bsal* in North America. Specifically, our study used the native niche of *Bsal* rather than the native Asian host distribution used by Yap et al. [18]. We consider that the use of *Bsal* ranges instead of *Bsal* host ranges will lead to more accurate results when modeling the potential invasive range of the pathogen.

The model obtained in this study predicted that the areas suitable for *Bsal* are mainly located in Central and Southern Mexico, including diverse environments such as tropical forests, pine forests and cloud forests. We found a high overlap between salamander richness and moderately to highly suitable areas for *Bsal*, which is reflected in the 13 identified hotspots. These hotspots are located in the most diverse regions with respect to amphibian species (including salamanders): east of the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt, Northern Oaxaca and Sierra Madre del Sur in Chiapas [47–49]. Thus, the arrival of *Bsal* in these areas will likely have an impact on amphibian communities that include non-susceptible species (e.g., anuran species) that could act as carriers and transmission vectors [13], in addition to highly susceptible species (e.g., salamander species) [12]. However, *Bsal* could have different strains with genetic physiological and virulence differences such as the case with *Bd* [50]. In terms of *Bsal*, Sabino-Pinto et al. [51] has already suggested the existence of more than one *Bsal* strains with differences in virulence. In this context, further investigations are needed to describe the genetic differences between *Bsal* strains and its effect on Mexican taxa to apply better conservation strategies.

Most Mexican salamander species have a restricted distribution, including those species that inhabit hotspots. Salamander communities mainly inhabit pine-oak forests, tropical forests and cloud forests [52]. These environments in Mexico are highly affected by anthropogenic activities, including deforestation and land use transformation [53–55]. Thus, habitat loss has been one of the main causes of species decline: major amphibian declines were observed between 1970 and 1980 east of the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt, Northern Oaxaca and Sierra Madre del Sur in Chiapas, which coincide with four of the hotspots identified in this study (hotspots 4, 11, 12 and 13). Lips et al. [56] reported population declines and local extinctions in the Pacific slope Sierra Madre del Sur in Guerrero (hotspot 11), Northern Oaxaca (hotspot 12) and Sierra Madre del Sur in Chiapas (hotspot 13). Later, Rovito et al. [57] documented declines in salamander populations of El Chico in Hidalgo (hotspot 4) and Cerro San Felipe in Oaxaca (hotspot 12), where populations of *Chiropterotriton* and *Pseudoeurycea*, respectively, were the most affected.

For Mexican amphibians, in addition to habitat loss, the presence of *Bd* has also been considered a threat. This pathogen was detected in individuals collected in the 1970s, suggesting that chytridiomycosis has affected amphibian populations since then [7, 56]. The presence of *Bd* has been corroborated in many localities, including all 13 hotspots identified in this study [58, 59]. The combined effects of *Bd* and *Bsal* together in amphibian populations are unknown, but we can only assume that they could dramatically affect the amphibian populations that are already threatened by habitat loss.

Conservation efforts for amphibians in Mexico should focus on preventing the arrival of *Bsal* and its transmission among populations. Amphibian trade restrictions are being implemented in the USA, Canada and the European Union, and Mexico should not be the exception. As the country with the second-highest salamander species diversity, Mexico is potentially at risk of facing dramatic declines upon the arrival of an emerging pathogen such as *Bsal*. If *Bsal* is detected in Mexico, immediate management actions to prevent its spread, such as restricting site-level access, especially in hotspots, should be considered.

Conclusions

This study integrated ecological niche modeling of *Bsal* and salamander distribution in Mexico and found high overlap between them. The areas most suitable for *Bsal* in Mexico are Central and Southern Mexico, which coincide with the highest salamander richness areas and with the largest number of endemic and threatened species. We identified 13 areas as potential hotspots for population risk with both high salamander diversity and areas that are moderately to highly suitable for *Bsal*. We propose that the hotspots should be monitored for the presence of *Bsal* to prevent the spread of the pathogen if it is introduced to Mexico.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Occurrences and areas of *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*) used to build the model.

(TIF)

S2 Fig. AICc and AUC values of *Bsal* models obtained with ENMeval.

(TIF)

S3 Fig. Binary model for *Bsal* obtained with the minimum training presence threshold.

Areas of potential presence are in black, and areas of potential absence are in gray.

(TIF)

S4 Fig. Number of salamander species grouped by genus that are present or absent in *Bsal*-suitable areas.

(TIF)

S1 Table. Occurrence data used for *Bsal* ecological niche model.

(DOCX)

S2 Table. Contribution of 19 bioclimate layers from Wordclim that made greatest contribution to the model constructed with MaxEnt.

(DOCX)

S3 Table. Pairwise Pearson correlations of 19 bioclimatic variables. Variables selected with less than $r = 0.75$ are in bold.

(DOCX)

S4 Table. ENMeval models results.

(DOCX)

S5 Table. Variable contributions to *Bsal* distribution model.

(DOCX)

S6 Table. Salamander species of Mexico, range, IUCN status, and relationship with *Bsal* model and hotspots. Hotspots = pixels with *Bsal* suitability values greater than 0.5 and more than five salamander species. IUCN status: critically endangered (CR), endangered (E), vulnerable (V), near threatened (NT), least concern (LC), data deficient (DD), and not evaluated (NE).

(DOCX)

S7 Table. Species present on hotspots.

(DOCX)

Acknowledgments

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization: M. Delia Basanta, Eria A. Rebollar, Gabriela Parra-Olea.

Data curation: Gabriela Parra-Olea.

Formal analysis: M. Delia Basanta.

Funding acquisition: Gabriela Parra-Olea.

Supervision: Gabriela Parra-Olea.

Writing – original draft: M. Delia Basanta.

Writing – review & editing: Eria A. Rebollar, Gabriela Parra-Olea.

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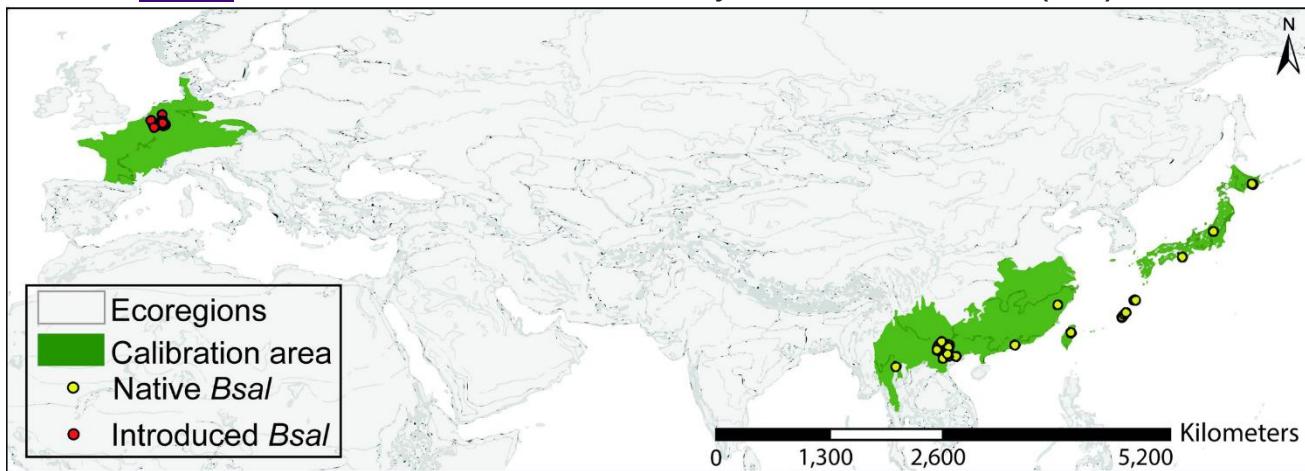
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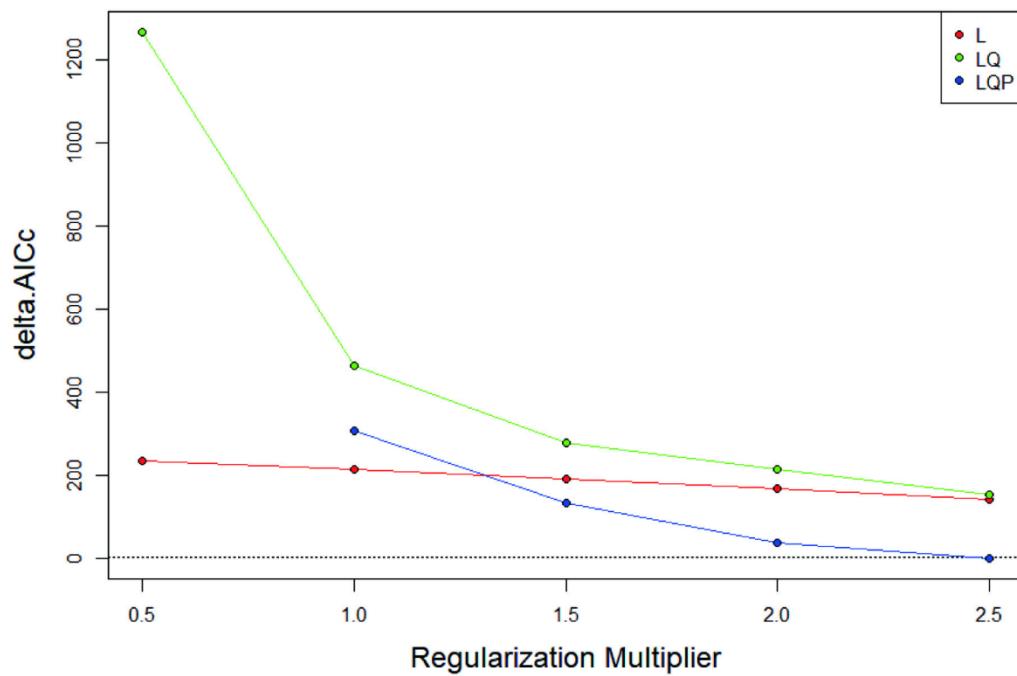
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S1 Fig. Occurrences and areas of *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans* (*Bsal*) used to build the model.

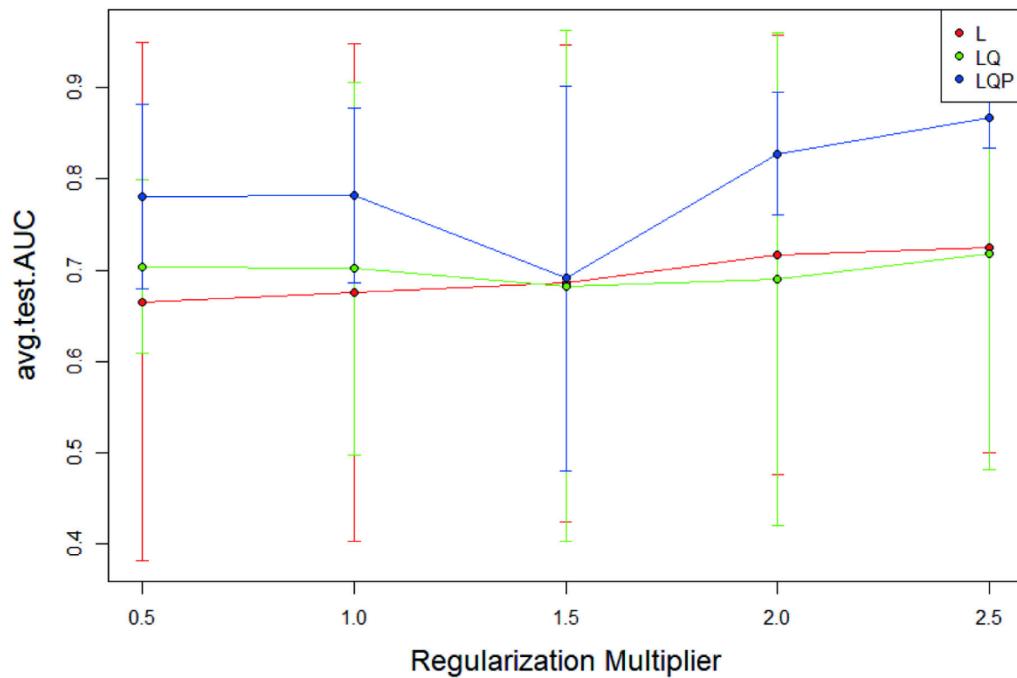


S2 Fig. AICc and AUC values of *Bsa*/ models obtained with ENMeval.

A



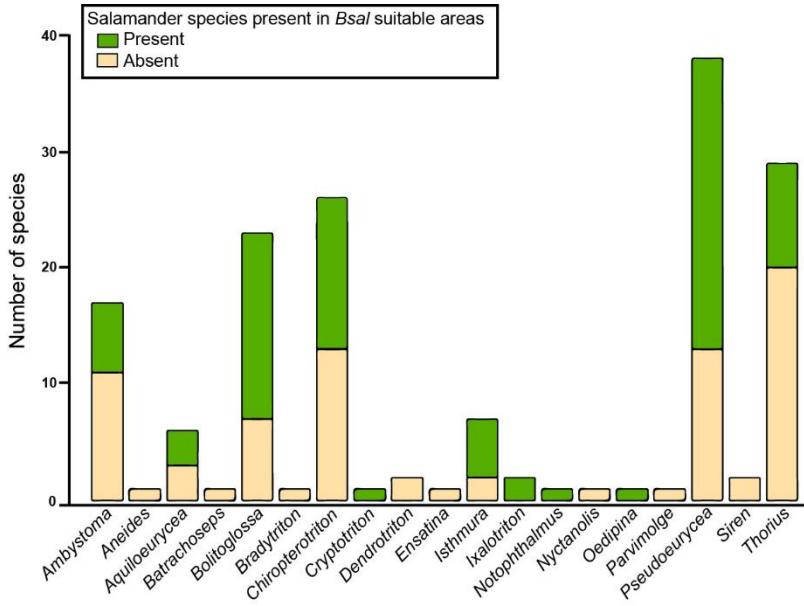
B



S3 Fig. Binary model for *Bsa*l obtained with the minimum training presence threshold.



S4 Fig. Number of salamander species grouped by genus that are present or absent in *Bsal*-suitable areas.



S1 Table. Occurrence data used for *Bsal* ecological niche model.

| Name | Latitude | Longitude |
|---|----------|-----------|
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 19.87 | 99.05 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.62 | 105.87 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 28.27 | 129.3 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 28.34 | 129.5 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 26.14 | 127.77 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 26.18 | 127.8 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 26.54 | 128.03 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 26.75 | 128.24 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 33.79 | 135.43 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 37.02 | 139.39 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 43.02 | 144.41 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 43.08 | 144.28 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.54 | 104.42 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.29 | 105.81 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.18 | 106.73 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.18 | 106.66 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.20 | 105.72 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.37 | 105.73 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 23.03 | 104.87 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 23.04 | 104.85 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.96 | 104.35 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.96 | 104.35 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.00 | 104.26 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 20.94 | 105.04 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 20.94 | 105.04 |

| | | |
|---|-------|--------|
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 20.92 | 105.05 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 21.46 | 105.65 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 24.15 | 121.28 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 24.16 | 121.29 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 24.19 | 121.31 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 27.72 | 119.61 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Native) | 22.6 | 114.2 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.91 | 5.74 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.63 | 6.09 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.45 | 6.1 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.58 | 5.59 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.85 | 5.97 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 51.82 | 5.92 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.88 | 5.75 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 51.09 | 4.51 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.57 | 6.28 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.7 | 6.27 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.7 | 6.27 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.9 | 6.08 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 51.07 | 5.92 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.22 | 4.89 |
| <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> (Introduced) | 50.77 | 5.95 |

S2 Table. Contribution of 19 bioclimate layers from Wordclim that made greatest contribution to the model constructed with MaxEnt.

| Variable | Percent contribution | Permutation importance |
|----------|----------------------|------------------------|
| Bio7 | 43.4 | 10.9 |
| Bio2 | 17 | 12.7 |
| Bio15 | 11.3 | 28.2 |
| Bio18 | 9.3 | 5.3 |
| Bio19 | 6.4 | 0.4 |
| Bio5 | 5.3 | 11.8 |
| Bio3 | 2 | 1.7 |
| Bio14 | 1.7 | 10.2 |
| Bio9 | 1.7 | 8.1 |
| Bio8 | 0.8 | 3.5 |
| Bio12 | 0.5 | 1.8 |
| Bio6 | 0.3 | 5.3 |
| Bio13 | 0.1 | 0 |
| Bio4 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Bio17 | 0 | 0 |
| Bio16 | 0 | 0 |
| Bio11 | 0 | 0 |

| | | |
|-------|---|---|
| Bio10 | 0 | 0 |
| Bio1 | 0 | 0 |

S3 Table. Pairwise Pearson correlations of 19 bioclimatic variables.

Variables selected with less than $r = 0.75$ are in bold.

| | Bio19 | Bio1 | Bio2 | Bio3 | Bio4 | Bio5 | Bio6 | Bio7 | Bio8 | Bio9 | Bio10 | Bio11 | Bio12 | Bio13 | Bio14 | Bio15 | Bio16 | Bio17 | Bio18 |
|--------------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|
| Bio19 | - | -0.43 | -0.51 | -0.55 | 0.46 | -0.20 | -0.40 | 0.29 | -0.47 | -0.22 | -0.20 | -0.50 | 0.17 | -0.20 | 0.93 | -0.65 | -0.20 | 0.94 | -0.21 |
| Bio1 | - | - | 0.26 | 0.35 | -0.37 | 0.86 | 0.91 | -0.23 | 0.73 | 0.78 | 0.87 | 0.94 | 0.55 | 0.71 | -0.55 | 0.77 | 0.71 | -0.49 | 0.58 |
| Bio2 | - | - | - | 0.77 | -0.50 | 0.12 | 0.19 | -0.11 | 0.12 | 0.31 | 0.01 | 0.38 | -0.05 | 0.17 | -0.51 | 0.45 | 0.16 | -0.52 | 0.08 |
| Bio3 | - | - | - | - | -0.92 | -0.06 | 0.52 | -0.70 | 0.01 | 0.58 | -0.10 | 0.62 | -0.04 | 0.21 | -0.61 | 0.47 | 0.22 | -0.63 | 0.15 |
| Bio4 | - | - | - | - | - | 0.10 | -0.65 | 0.90 | 0.04 | -0.65 | 0.12 | -0.67 | 0.01 | -0.19 | 0.55 | -0.38 | -0.21 | 0.57 | -0.11 |
| Bio5 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.62 | 0.27 | 0.74 | 0.52 | 0.98 | 0.65 | 0.54 | 0.60 | -0.28 | 0.57 | 0.59 | -0.20 | 0.44 |
| Bio6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -0.59 | 0.50 | 0.88 | 0.64 | 0.97 | 0.39 | 0.56 | -0.54 | 0.62 | 0.57 | -0.50 | 0.43 |
| Bio7 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.15 | -0.54 | 0.22 | -0.52 | 0.08 | -0.07 | 0.37 | -0.17 | -0.09 | 0.40 | -0.08 |
| Bio8 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.26 | 0.78 | 0.56 | 0.49 | 0.63 | -0.45 | 0.71 | 0.62 | -0.41 | 0.62 |
| Bio9 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.50 | 0.87 | 0.31 | 0.43 | -0.42 | 0.47 | 0.44 | -0.38 | 0.27 |
| Bio10 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.66 | 0.59 | 0.65 | -0.29 | 0.61 | 0.64 | -0.21 | 0.54 |
| Bio11 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.44 | 0.63 | -0.63 | 0.75 | 0.64 | -0.59 | 0.50 |
| Bio12 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.91 | 0.09 | 0.51 | 0.91 | 0.16 |
| Bio13 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -0.28 | 0.79 | 0.99 | -0.22 | 0.90 |
| Bio14 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -0.73 | -0.29 | 0.99 | -0.25 |
| Bio15 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0.79 | -0.69 | 0.74 |
| Bio16 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -0.22 | 0.90 |
| Bio17 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -0.20 |
| Bio18 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

S4 Table. ENMeval models results.

| Features | RM | AUC _{TRAIN} | AUC _{TEST} | MTP _{TEST} | OR _{MTP} | OR ₁₀ | AICc | ΔAICc | w.AIC | Parameters |
|----------|-----|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------|------------------|---------|---------|------------|------------|
| L | 0.5 | 0.8669 | 0.66552 | 0 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1732.08 | 234.671 | 1.10E-51 | 6 |
| LQ | 0.5 | 0.8187 | 0.70386 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2762.17 | 1264.77 | 2.29E-275 | 11 |
| LQP | 0.5 | 0.8913 | 0.78032 | 0 | 0.06818 | 0.00758 | NA | NA | NA | 18 |
| L | 1 | 0.8738 | 0.67542 | 0 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1709.95 | 212.542 | 7.03E-47 | 6 |
| LQ | 1 | 0.8694 | 0.70176 | 0 | 0.04546 | 0.00826 | 1959.27 | 461.862 | 5.10E-101 | 11 |
| LQP | 1 | 0.9235 | 0.78188 | 0 | 0.02273 | 0.00207 | 1804.53 | 307.128 | 2.03E-67 | 14 |
| L | 1.5 | 0.8792 | 0.68596 | 0 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1687.48 | 190.079 | 5.31E-42 | 6 |
| LQ | 1.5 | 0.9091 | 0.68238 | 0 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1773.48 | 276.073 | 1.13E-60 | 10 |
| LQP | 1.5 | 0.936 | 0.69092 | 0.02273 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1628.8 | 131.392 | 2.94E-29 | 9 |
| L | 2 | 0.8833 | 0.71664 | 0.04546 | 0.15909 | 0.03512 | 1663.62 | 166.218 | 8.06E-37 | 6 |
| LQ | 2 | 0.9145 | 0.69016 | 0 | 0.09091 | 0.03306 | 1710.06 | 212.657 | 6.64E-47 | 8 |
| LQP | 2 | 0.9401 | 0.82745 | 0.04546 | 0.18182 | 0.04408 | 1532.88 | 35.4786 | 1.98E-08 | 8 |
| L | 2.5 | 0.8867 | 0.72533 | 0.04546 | 0.15909 | 0.03512 | 1638.35 | 140.943 | 2.48E-31 | 6 |
| LQ | 2.5 | 0.8923 | 0.71777 | 0.04546 | 0.18182 | 0.04408 | 1649.27 | 151.866 | 1.05E-33 | 6 |
| LQP | 2.5 | 0.9397 | 0.86693 | 0.04546 | 0.15909 | 0.03512 | 1497.4 | 0 | 0.99999998 | 5 |

S5 Table. Variable contributions to *Bsal* distribution model.

| Variable | Percent Contribution | Permutation Importance |
|----------|----------------------|------------------------|
| Bio7 | 42.8497 | 45.6188 |
| Bio5 | 26.2472 | 20.2716 |
| Bio15 | 22.2275 | 12.9968 |
| Bio2 | 5.7848 | 17.4223 |
| Bio18 | 1.9229 | 0 |
| Bio19 | 0.968 | 3.6905 |
| | | |

S6 Table. Salamander species of Mexico, range, IUCN status, and relationship with *Bsal* model and hotspots.

Hotspots = pixels with *Bsal* suitability values greater than 0.5 and more than five salamander species. IUCN status: critically endangered (CR), endangered (E), vulnerable (V), near threatened (NT), least concern (LC), data deficient (DD), and not evaluated (NE).

| Species | Genus | Range km ² | Range categories | IUCN status | Endemic to Mexico | Presence in Hotspot | Area | Hotspot | <i>Bsal</i> suitability range | Distribution in <i>Bsal</i> suitable areas |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-------------|-------------------|---------------------|------|-----------|-------------------------------|--|
| <i>Ambystoma altamirani</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 1613 | 1000-5000 | E | Yes | Yes | TVB | 3 | 0-0.56 | Yes |
| <i>Ambystoma amblycephalum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 20 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | - | - | 0.01-0.12 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma andersoni</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 21 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | - | - | 0-0.02 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma bombypellum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 96 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | - | - | 0.04-0.19 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma dumerili</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 6 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | - | - | 0 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma flavipiperatum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 257 | 100-500 | E | Yes | No | - | - | 0-0.04 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma granulosum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 8937 | >5000 | CR | Yes | Yes | TVB | 1, 2 | 0-0.7 | Yes |
| <i>Ambystoma leorae</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 39 | <100 | CR | Yes | Yes | TVB | 6 | 0.16-0.5 | Yes |
| <i>Ambystoma lermaense</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 90 | <100 | E | Yes | No | - | - | 0-0.18 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma mavortium</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 210648 | >5000 | LC | No | No | - | - | 0-0.15 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma mexicanum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 114 | 100-500 | CR | Yes | No | - | - | 0-0.38 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma ordinarium</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 4928 | 1000-5000 | E | Yes | No | - | - | 0-0.53 | Yes |
| <i>Ambystoma rivulare</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 16955 | >5000 | DD | Yes | Yes | TVB | 1-3 | 0-0.89 | Yes |
| <i>Ambystoma rosaceum</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 204227 | >5000 | LC | Yes | No | | | 0-0.13 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma silvense</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 1276 | 1000-5000 | DD | Yes | No | | | 0-0.04 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma taylori</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 17 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | | | 0.19-0.4 | No |
| <i>Ambystoma velasci</i> | <i>Ambystoma</i> | 823141 | >5000 | LC | Yes | Yes | TVB | 1, 2, 4-6 | 0-0.95 | Yes |
| <i>Aneides lugubris</i> | <i>Aneides</i> | 12968 | >5000 | LC | No | No | | | 0-0.06 | No |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea cephalica</i> | <i>Aquiloeurycea</i> | 18726 | >5000 | NT | Yes | Yes | TVB | 3, 4-8 | 0-0.95 | Yes |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea cafetalera</i> | <i>Aquiloeurycea</i> | 632 | 500-1000 | NE | Yes | Yes | TVB | 8 | 0.07-0.53 | Yes |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea galeanae</i> | <i>Aquiloeurycea</i> | 1090 | 1000-5000 | V | Yes | No | | | 0.02-0.7 | Yes |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea praecellens</i> | <i>Aquiloeurycea</i> | 25 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | | | 0.02-0.08 | No |
| <i>Aquiloeurycea quetzalanensis</i> | <i>Aquiloeurycea</i> | 60 | <100 | CR | Yes | No | | | 0.01-0.24 | No |

S7 Table. Species present on hotspots.

| Hotspot identification | Hotspot area | Species |
|------------------------|--------------|---------|
|------------------------|--------------|---------|

| | | |
|----|-------------|--|
| 1 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma granulosum, Ambystoma rivulare, Ambystoma velasci, Chiropterotriton orculus, Isthmura bellii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa, Pseudoeurycea robertsi</i> |
| 2 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma granulosum, Ambystoma rivulare, Ambystoma velasci, Isthmura bellii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa</i> |
| 3 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma altamirani, Ambystoma rivulare, Aquiloerycea cephalica, Chiropterotriton orculus, Isthmura bellii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa, Pseudoeurycea tlilicxitl</i> |
| 4 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma velasci, Aquiloerycea cephalica, Chiropterotriton chico, Chiropterotriton dimidiatus, Pseudoeurycea leprosa</i> |
| 5 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma velasci, Aquiloerycea cephalica, Chiropterotriton orculus, Isthmura bellii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa</i> |
| 6 | TVB | <i>Ambystoma leorae, Ambystoma velasci, Aquiloerycea cephalica, Chiropterotriton orculus, Isthmura bellii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa, Pseudoeurycea tlilicxitl</i> |
| 7 | TVB | <i>Aquiloerycea cephalica, Pseudoeurycea gadovii, Pseudoeurycea leprosa, Pseudoeurycea lynchi, Pseudoeurycea melanomolga</i> |
| 8 | TVB | <i>Aquiloerycea cephalica, Aquiloerycea cafetalera, Chiropterotriton sp. E, Chiropterotriton lavae, Isthmura gigantea, Pseudoeurycea leprosa, Pseudoeurycea lynchi, Thorius minydemus, Thorius munificus</i> |
| 9 | Los Tuxtlas | <i>Bolitoglossa alberchi, Bolitoglossa platydactyla, Bolitoglossa rufescens, Pseudoeurycea orchimelas, Pseudoeurycea werleri, Thorius narismagnus</i> |
| 10 | Los Tuxtlas | <i>Bolitoglossa alberchi, Bolitoglossa platydactyla, Bolitoglossa rufescens, Pseudoeurycea orchimelas, Pseudoeurycea werleri</i> |

| | | |
|----|-----------------|--|
| 11 | SMS Guerrero | <i>Pseudoeurycea ahuitzotl, Pseudoeurycea tenchalli, Pseudoeurycea teotepec, Pseudoeurycea tlahcuiloh, Thorius grandis</i> |
| 12 | Northern Oaxaca | <i>Chiropterotriton sp. K, Isthmura boneti, Pseudoeurycea smithi, Pseudoeurycea unguidentis, Thorius narisovalis, Thorius pulmonaris</i> |
| 13 | SMS Chiapas | <i>Bolitoglossa engelhardti, Bolitoglossa flavimembris, Bolitoglossa franklini, Bolitoglossa occidentalis, Bolitoglossa rostrata, Pseudoeurycea brunnata, Pseudoeurycea goebeli, Pseudoeurycea rex</i> |

DISCUSION GENERAL Y CONCLUSIONES

México es uno de los países con mayor riqueza de anfibios en el mundo, pero también con el mayor número de especies en riesgo y la quitridiomicosis es una de las grandes amenazas para este grupo (Stuart et al., 2008; Fisher & Garner, 2020). La detección de *Bd* en anfibios de norte, centro y sur del país ha sugerido una amplia distribución del patógeno en México. En este trabajo se analizó la presencia de *Bd* en 104 especies de anfibios de 154 localidades. Como resultado, 62 especies se encontraron infectadas, de las cuales 20 representan nuevo registro. Considerando este aporte, el número de especies infectadas por *Bd* en México asciende a 103 (Basanta et al., 2019; Bolom-Huet et al., 2019; Hernández-Martínez et al., 2019), correspondiendo al 26% de los anfibios del país (398 especies; Amphibiaweb, 2020). Sin embargo, aún hay un alto número de especies y poblaciones de anfibios que no han sido analizadas.

Esta tesis reporta la presencia de *Bd* en México desde 1890's con una presencia actual del linaje panzoótico global. La presencia de *Bd* en la década de 1890's indica una relación antigua entre este patógeno y los anfibios nativos, y no proporcionan evidencia de un patrón de propagación reciente relacionado con la disminución de anfibios en el país como se había sugerido anteriormente (Lips et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2011). Además, debido a la falta de información genética histórica de *Bd* anterior a los declives, no podemos afirmar con seguridad que *Bd*-GPL fue la causa de la disminución. Se necesitan más estudios para analizar muestras antiguas y determinar qué genotipos estaban presentes antes de 1975 para determinar si hubieron cambios en los linajes *Bd* en México antes de este período.

La presencia dominante actual del linaje panzoótico global en México y la falta de patrones geográficos tanto de *Bd*-GPL-1 como de *Bd*-GPL-2 proporcionan evidencia de una propagación compleja en el país. Estudios recientes respaldan que *Bd*-GPL es el linaje más reciente e hipervirulento con una gran variabilidad genética (Rosenblum et al., 2013; O'Hanlon et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2019). *Bd*-GPL-1 se ha relacionado con infecciones epizoóticas y muertes masivas en la Sierra Nevada en los Estados Unidos (Schloegel et al., 2012), mientras que *Bd*-GPL-2 ha sido aislado de anfibios que presentaron muertes masivas en América Central (Berger et al., 1998). La presencia de ambos genotipos en el país podría representar un alto riesgo para las especies de anfibios. Jenkinson et al., (2018) han encontrado la presencia y competencia de diferentes genotipos de *Bd* en Brasil, sugiriendo que la competencia entre cepas puede resultar en un cambio y reemplazo de la diversidad existente de patógenos. Estos cambios pueden tener el potencial de modificar los resultados de la enfermedad a escalas regionales, siendo una amenaza para los anfibios nativos de México.

Actualmente no se ha encontrado una cura para la quitridiomicosis (Fisher & Garner, 2020). Sin embargo, estudios de laboratorio y de campo han demostrado que las comunidades bacterianas asociadas a la piel de algunas especies de anfibios pueden disminuir las infecciones por *Bd* y *Bsal*, representando una herramienta prometedora para desarrollar tratamientos probióticos que protegan a los anfibios ante estos patógenos (Bletz et al., 2013; Rebollar et al., 2016). Considerando que las comunidades de anfibios pueden albergar múltiples variantes de *Bd* (Morgan et al., 2007; Rodriguez et al., 2014), los resultados de las interacciones microbioma-patógeno dependerán no sólo del contexto ambiental (Longo & Zamudio, 2017) y la composición del microbioma (Rebollar et al.,

2016), sino también de la genética del patógeno (Antwisch et al., 2015; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2017; Antwisch & Harrison, 2018). Este trabajo proporciona la primera evidencia en vida silvestre de que la genética de *Bd* y la intensidad de su infección son factores relacionados con la estructura de las comunidades bacterianas de la piel de los anfibios. Pequeñas diferencias genéticas de *Bd* podrían conducir a diferencias considerables en el microbioma del hospedero. Por lo tanto, aún se necesitan más estudios para lograr una comprensión completamente integrada de la infección por *Bd* en la piel de las poblaciones de anfibios.

Las infecciones causadas por *Bd* han impactado a cientos de especies en Australia y América (Skerratt et al., 2007; Scheele et al., 2019). De manera que la reciente aparición de *Bsal* como patógeno emergente y de características similares a *Bd* ha desatado una gran preocupación. Experimentos de laboratorio han demostrado que los caudados podrían ser el grupo más afectado por este patógeno, presentando una mayor susceptibilidad (Martel et al., 2014). En consecuencia, la invasión de *Bsal* a nuevas áreas con alta riqueza de salamandras como México, podría causar reducciones significativas en la diversidad de anfibios. En este trabajo se identificaron las áreas idóneas para el establecimiento de *Bsal* en México y su relación con la distribución de salamandras del país. Las áreas más idóneas para *Bsal* se encuentran en el centro y sur de México, y coinciden con las áreas de mayor riqueza de salamandras. Además, se identificaron 13 puntos críticos con alta idoneidad para *Bsal* y alta riqueza en salamandras, los cuales representan un alto riesgo para la biodiversidad en caso de que *Bsal* sea introducido al país. Siendo México el segundo país más diverso de especies de salamandras, la biodiversidad de caudados se encuentra potencialmente en riesgo de enfrentar una disminución dramática con la llegada de un patógeno emergente como *Bsal*. Si este patógeno es detectado en el país, se deberán

considerar acciones de gestión inmediatas para evitar su propagación, como restringir el acceso a nivel de sitio, especialmente en los puntos críticos.

Esta tesis demuestra que la interacción entre *Batrachochytrium* y los anfibios en México es compleja y proporciona el marco para probar nuevas preguntas relacionadas a las especies infectadas por *Bd*, los genotipos históricos de *Bd*, las interacciones entre genotipos de *Bd* y microbiomas de piel de anfibios, y la potencial susceptibilidad de las especies a *Bsal*. Los efectos combinados de *Bd* y *Bsal* en las poblaciones de anfibios son desconocidos, pero solo podemos suponer que podrían afectar dramáticamente las poblaciones de anfibios que ya están amenazadas por la pérdida de hábitat. Los esfuerzos de conservación para los anfibios en México deberán centrarse en prevenir la llegada de *Bsal* y de nuevos genotipos de *Bd* altamente virulentos, así como su transmisión entre las poblaciones, por lo que se recomienda tomar medidas para su estudio y monitoreo.

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ANEXOS

ANEXO I

Detection of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in threatened endemic mole salamanders (*Ambystoma*) in Mexico

Autores: Basanta, M. D., R. A. Calzada-Arciniega, G. Jiménez-Velázquez, S. F. Arias-Balderas, A. A. Ibarra-Reyes, G. Medina-Rangel, I. Suazo-Ortuño, L. M. Ochoa-Ochoa y G. Parra-Olea.

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Detection of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Threatened Endemic Mole Salamanders (*Ambystoma*) in Mexico

Mexico has 17 species of the genus *Ambystoma*, of which 16 are endemic to the country. Most of these *Ambystoma* species inhabit the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt, where their distributions are sometimes limited to a single mountain range or water body. These species face several threats including habitat loss, pollu-

tion, negative interactions with introduced species, and diseases (Parra-Olea et al. 2012; Zamora et al. 2018). Chytridiomycosis is an infectious disease in amphibians caused by the chytrid fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) and *B. salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*). To date, *Bd* has been detected from 76 host amphibian species in Mexico including 10 *Ambystoma* species (Spitzen-van der Slujs et al. 2011; López-Velázquez 2018; Michaels et al. 2018). Here we sampled four range-restricted *Ambystoma* species in Mexico to screen them for *Bd*, two of which have not been analyzed in previous work.

We surveyed individuals of three wild populations of *Ambystoma* (Fig. 1): 1) *Ambystoma flavipiperatum* in streams of the Sierra de Quila Flora and Fauna Protection Area in Jalisco (20.27503°N, 104.0599°W; 20.30083°N, 104.0355°W); 2) *A. andersoni* at Zacapu Lake in Michoacán (19.82475°N, 101.7816°W); 3) *A. rivulare* in the Valle de Bravo, Malacatepec, Tilostoc and Temascaltepec Natural Resources Protection Area in Estado de México (19.23231°N, 99.94872°W). In addition, *A. dumerilii* occur only in Pátzcuaro Lake in Michoacán, but because efforts to collect it in the wild have been unsuccessful for the last decade (Shaffer et al. 2008a), we took samples of captive individuals from two different colonies in Estado de México, the Jimbani Erandi Environmental Management Unit and a private colony of salamanders captured opportunistically two years ago by net. To reduce potential cross-contamination of pathogens among captures, new nitrile gloves were used during handling of each individual. *Bd* sampling consisted of swabbing the organism with a synthetic cotton swab following the protocol by Van Rooij et al. (2011). After swabbing, salamanders were returned to their habitat. In the laboratory, Prepman DNA extraction was conducted and samples were then run in triplicate using real-time TaqMan PCR assays as described by Boyle et al. (2004). We determined the prevalence of *Bd* infection among individuals per species at wild and captive populations.

We detected *Bd* in all four species (Table 1). Across three *Ambystoma* species sampled at wild populations, *Bd* prevalence among individuals ranged from 40% to 90%. We sampled three individuals per captive colony and detected *Bd* presence in both colonies.

This is the first report of *Bd* presence for *A. flavipiperatum* and *A. andersoni*, which are restricted to a single population in Sierra de Quila Flora and Fauna Protection Area in Jalisco and Zacapu Lake in Michoacán, respectively (Huacuz-Elias 2001; Santiago Pérez et al. 2012). Little information is available about the con-

M. DELIA BASANTA

Departamento de Zoología, Instituto de Biología,
Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
Apartado postal 70-153, 04510 México, Ciudad de México,
México; Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Unidad de Posgrado,
Edificio A, 1º Piso, Circuito de Posgrados, Ciudad Universitaria,
Coyoacán, Ciudad de México, Mexico

R. ALEJANDRO CALZADA-ARCINIEGA

Departamento de Zoología, Instituto de Biología,
Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
Apartado postal 70-153, 04510 México, Ciudad de México, Mexico

GUSTAVO JIMÉNEZ VELÁZQUEZ*

Museo de Zoología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional
Autónoma de México
Apartado postal 70-399, 04510 México, Ciudad de México, Mexico;
Vida Silvestre Coatl AC. Sotuta mz. 85 lt. 12 Col. Pedregal de San Nicolas
C.P. 14100 Del. Tlalpan, CDMX, Mexico

SANDRA F. ARIAS-BALDERAS

Laboratorio de Herpetología-Vivario, Facultad de Estudios Superiores
Iztacala, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

ATZIRI A. IBARRA REYES

GONZALO MEDINA RANGEL

Museo de Zoología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional
Autónoma de México. Apartado postal 70-399, 04510 México,
Ciudad de México, Mexico

IRERI SUAZO-ORTUÑO

Instituto de Investigaciones sobre los Recursos Naturales,
Universidad Michoacana de San Nicolás de Hidalgo, Morelia,
Michoacán, Mexico

LETICIA M. OCHOA-OCHOA

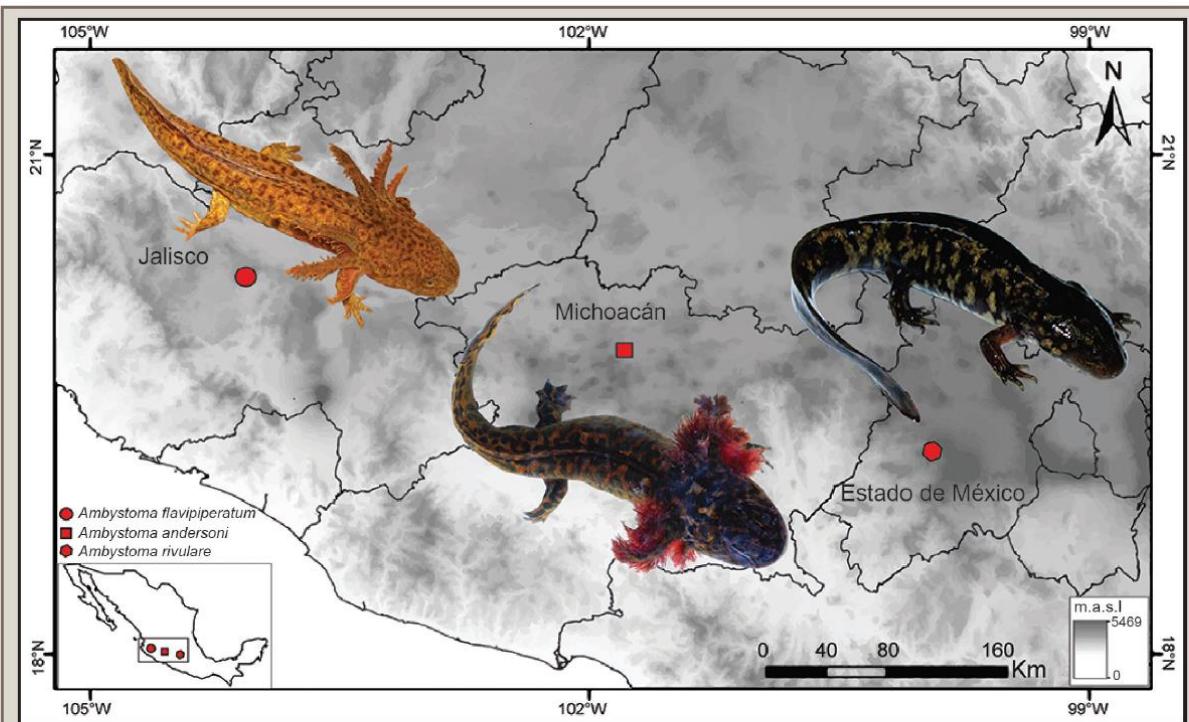
Museo de Zoología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional
Autónoma de México
Apartado postal 70-399, 04510 México, Ciudad de México, Mexico

GABRIELA PARRA-OLEA

Departamento de Zoología, Instituto de Biología,
Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
Apartado postal 70-153, 04510 México, Ciudad de México, Mexico

*Corresponding author; e-mail: vidasilvestrecoatl@gmail.com

PHOTOS BY R. ALEJANDRO CALZADA-ARCINIEGA

FIG. 1. Localities of wild populations of *Ambystoma* species screened for *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico.TABLE 1. Localities and species surveyed for *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* in Mexico.

| Species | Locality | No. infected/ no. examined (prevalence, %) |
|---------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>Ambystoma flavipiperatum</i> | Sierra de Quila, Jalisco | 8/11 (73) |
| <i>Ambystoma andersoni</i> | Zacapu Lake, Michoacán | 11/12 (90) |
| <i>Ambystoma rivulare</i> | Valle de Bravo, Malacatepec, Tilostoc and Temascaltepec, Natural Resources Protection Area, Amanalco, Estado de México | 2/5 (40) |
| <i>Ambystoma dumerilii</i> | Private Colony, Pátzcuaro, Michoacán | 3/3 (100) |
| <i>Ambystoma dumerilii</i> | Colony from UMA Jimbani Erandi, Pátzcuaro, Michoacán | 2/3 (67) |

servation status of *A. flavipiperatum*, however, a severe decline was observed after 2009 (IUCN 2016). Regarding the conservation status of *A. andersoni*, a persistent decline of the population trend was reported previously (IUCN 2015). On the other hand, *Bd* presence in *A. rivulare* was reported previously for Michoacán (Frías-Alvarez et al. 2008). This species lives only in high mountain streams in Estado de México, Michoacán, and Guerrero (Woolrich-Piña et al. 2017), where habitat loss, pollution and introduced predatory fish are the principal threats to its conservation (Shaffer et al. 2008b). *Ambystoma dumerilii* occur only at Pátzcuaro Lake in Michoacán and the presence of *Bd* in captive individuals was reported previously by Michaels et al. (2018) from a colony in the London Zoo, UK. Since 2003 this species has been in serious decline, and in 2008 was declared to be close to extinction (Shaffer et al. 2008a). According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN 2018) and Mexican laws (NOM-059; SEMARNAT 2010), *A. flavipiperatum*, *A. andersoni*, *A. rivulare*, and *A. dumerilii* have threatened species status and are under national protection. Although symptoms of the disease chytridiomycosis were not evident from animals sampled in our study, the presence of

pathogens like *Bd* warrant monitoring as the contexts of disease emergence may be related to a complex and dynamic suite of factors (e.g., Blaustein et al. 2018). With known *Bd* infection of these species, monitoring is especially relevant due to their sensitive status, endemism, and restricted distributions.

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ANEXO II

Ecología y evolución de enfermedades emergentes en anfibios: una revisión de ranavirus y quitridiomicosis

Autor: Basanta, M. D.

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ECOLOGÍA Y EVOLUCIÓN DE ENFERMEDADES EMERGENTES: UNA REVISIÓN DE RANAVIRUS Y QUITRIDIOMICOSIS

ECOLOGY AND EVOLUTION OF EMERGING DISEASES IN AMPHIBIANS: A REVIEW OF RANAVIRUS AND CHYTRIDIOMYCOSIS

MARÍA DELIA BASANTA^{1,2*}

¹Departamento de Zoología, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. Apartado postal 70-153, 04510 México, Ciudad de México, México.

²Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Unidad de Posgrado, Edificio A, 1º Piso, Circuito de Posgrados, Ciudad Universitaria, Coyoacán, Ciudad de México, México.

*Correspondence delibasanta@gmail.com

Resumen.— Las enfermedades infecciosas emergentes son una de las principales causas en el declive de especies de anfibios a nivel global. Estas enfermedades son causadas por patógenos que pueden ampliar su rango geográfico y de hospederos, convirtiéndose en epidémicas. Enfermedades emergentes de anfibios como ranavirus y quitridiomicosis han ocasionado grandes declives en poblaciones del mundo, donde factores ecológicos y evolutivos están implicados tanto en su emergencia como en la variación en la susceptibilidad de las especies. En este trabajo se presenta una revisión de las enfermedades ranavirus y quitridiomicosis en relación a los factores ecológicos y evolutivos que caracterizan sus infecciones, sus efectos sobre las poblaciones de anfibios a nivel mundial, y la posible aplicación de medidas de prevención y conservación.

Palabras clave.— declives, epidemia, enfermedades infecciosas, patógenos.

Abstract.— Emerging infectious diseases are one of the main causes in amphibian worldwide declines. These diseases are caused by pathogens that expand their geographic and host range becoming epidemic. Amphibian emerging diseases such as ranaviruses and chytridiomycosis have caused large declines, where ecological and evolutionary factors are involved in their emergence and species susceptibility variation. This paper presents a review of ranavirus and chytridiomycosis diseases in relationship with their ecological and evolutionary factors, their effects on amphibian populations worldwide and possible applications to prevention and conservation.

Keywords.— declines, epidemic, infectious diseases, pathogens.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El declive de anfibios ha incrementado globalmente en los últimos años, y entre las causas principales se encuentran la destrucción del hábitat, el cambio climático, la contaminación, la introducción de especies invasoras, la sobreexplotación y las enfermedades infecciosas (Stuart et al., 2004). Los cambios en las condiciones ambientales han facilitado la introducción de nuevos patógenos a sistemas endémicos, resultando en

un aumento de enfermedades infecciosas emergentes. Estas enfermedades son de reciente identificación y se caracterizan por ser epidémicas y ocurrir en regiones donde no habían sido detectadas con anterioridad. También, incrementan de manera rápida su área de distribución geográfica, hospederos o prevalencia, lo que representa un riesgo global y una amenaza sustancial para la biodiversidad (Daszak et al., 1999).

Entender el papel de las enfermedades infecciosas y emergentes en el declive de las especies requiere la identificación y comprensión de los factores que influyen en la emergencia de los patógenos, la susceptibilidad de los hospederos y la dinámica patógeno-hospedero. Una de las características más llamativas de estas enfermedades es la variabilidad en la respuesta a la infección que se ha observado a nivel interespecífico e intraespecífico (Blaustein et al., 2005; Searle et al., 2011; Martel et al., 2014; Bradley et al., 2015; Duffus et al., 2015). Esta variabilidad depende de factores ecológicos y evolutivos presentes en la dinámica patógeno-hospedero, por lo que su comprensión es de gran importancia en la aplicación de medidas de conservación para la prevención de futuros declives en la biodiversidad.

En la actualidad, el 40% de las especies de anfibios se encuentran en peligro y más de 200 especies presentan disminución en sus poblaciones (Stuart et al., 2004; IUCN, 2019), siendo las enfermedades emergentes una de las principales causas. A través de los años, se han caracterizado una gran variedad de bacterias, virus y hongos como patógenos de anfibios: por ejemplo, septicemia, avobacteriosis, mycobacteriosis, y clamydiosis (bacterial), iridovirus y herpesvirus (viral), quitridiomicosis, zygomycosis, cromomicosis, saprolegniasis e ictiofoniasis (fúngica) (Desmore & Green, 2007). El ranavirus y la quitridiomicosis son las principales enfermedades emergentes en anfibios, y el aumento de sus áreas de distribución ha causado epidemias y mortandades de anfibios en todo el mundo en los últimos 50 años (Gray & Chinchar, 2015; Scheele et al., 2019). En el caso de ranavirus, sus epidemias han sido registradas en su mayoría en América, Europa, Australia y Asia (Gray & Chinchar, 2015). Los Ranavirus pertenecen a la familia Iridoviridae y existen cuatro tipos de Ranavirus reconocidos como patógenos de anfibios (Tabla 1), *Ambystoma tigrinum virus* (ATV), *Bohole iridovirus* (BIV), *Ranavirus 3* (FV3) y Virus del sapo partero (*Common midwife toad virus*, CMTV), los cuales afectan a más de 184 especies de anfibios, además de peces y reptiles (Duffus et al., 2015). Por otro lado, la quitridiomicosis es causada por los hongos *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) y *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*), ha sido asociada únicamente a declives y mortandades en anfibios y es la principal enfermedad emergente para este grupo (Tabla 1). Más de 700 especies de anfibios han sido afectadas por *Bd* a nivel mundial y es el responsable de importantes disminuciones en poblaciones de Australia, Europa y América del Norte, Centro y Sur (Olson et al., 2013; Lips, 2016). Por otro lado, *Bsal* ha sido vinculada con mortalidades de *Salamandra salamandra* en el norte de Europa e infecciones enzooóticas en 17 especies del este de Asia, con un gran potencial de infectar a más especies de anfibios, en especial caudados, causando posibles declives en muchas poblaciones del mundo

(Martel et al., 2013, 2014; Beukema et al., 2018).

Si bien estas enfermedades emergentes están distribuidas globalmente y se caracterizan por ser epidémicas, existen variaciones en la susceptibilidad entre poblaciones y especies de anfibios. Esto genera una serie de preguntas como por ejemplo: ¿Por qué persisten algunas especies y poblaciones de anfibios después de la introducción de un patógeno emergente mientras que otras no? ¿Qué factores disminuyen la susceptibilidad de las especies a estos patógenos? ¿Qué características están involucradas en la patogenicidad de estos microorganismos? ¿Qué variables conducen a la propagación de estos patógenos? El conocimiento de las dinámicas ecológicas y evolutivas que comparten los anfibios con estos patógenos podrían explicar esta gran variación. En este trabajo se presenta una revisión de las enfermedades ranavirus y quitridiomicosis, en relación a las características ecológicas y evolutivas que caracterizan a estas infecciones, y sus efectos sobre las poblaciones de anfibios a nivel mundial.

1. EL ROL DE LA ECOLOGÍA EN LAS ENFERMEDADES EMERGENTES

La ecología de los patógenos involucra interacciones complejas con el ambiente y las especies, resultando en diferentes rutas de transmisión, modos de persistencia, reservorios, y distintos efectos en el sistema inmune del hospedero. La respuesta diferencial de las poblaciones de anfibios ante la presencia de un patógeno sugiere una relación entre variables ambientales como temperatura y humedad, junto a características ecológicas de las especies como ciclo de infección del patógeno, tamaño y desarrollo del hospedero, que pueden influenciar en la susceptibilidad a la infección (Bancroft et al., 2011; Hoverman et al., 2011; Hernández-López et al., 2018). Además, los cambios en la ecología del patógeno y el hospedero pueden generar desequilibrios en su dinámica y ser la causa de la emergencia de estas enfermedades (Fig. 1).

1.1. Ciclo de infección

El ciclo de infección de estos patógenos es de gran importancia para entender el modo en que actúan y el riesgo al que se someten las especies de anfibios. Los quitridiomicetos *Bd* y *Bsal* presentan formas de vida saprófitas o parasíticas, y se caracterizan por tener una fase móvil infectiva y una fase sésil. El ciclo de infección comienza en un medio acuático o húmedo con el ingreso de las zoosporas (fase móvil) en la piel de los anfibios adultos, o bien, en las partes bucales de las larvas. Ambos sitios poseen queratina, la cual es degradada por estos hongos para obtener sus nutrientes. Las zoosporas se enquistan

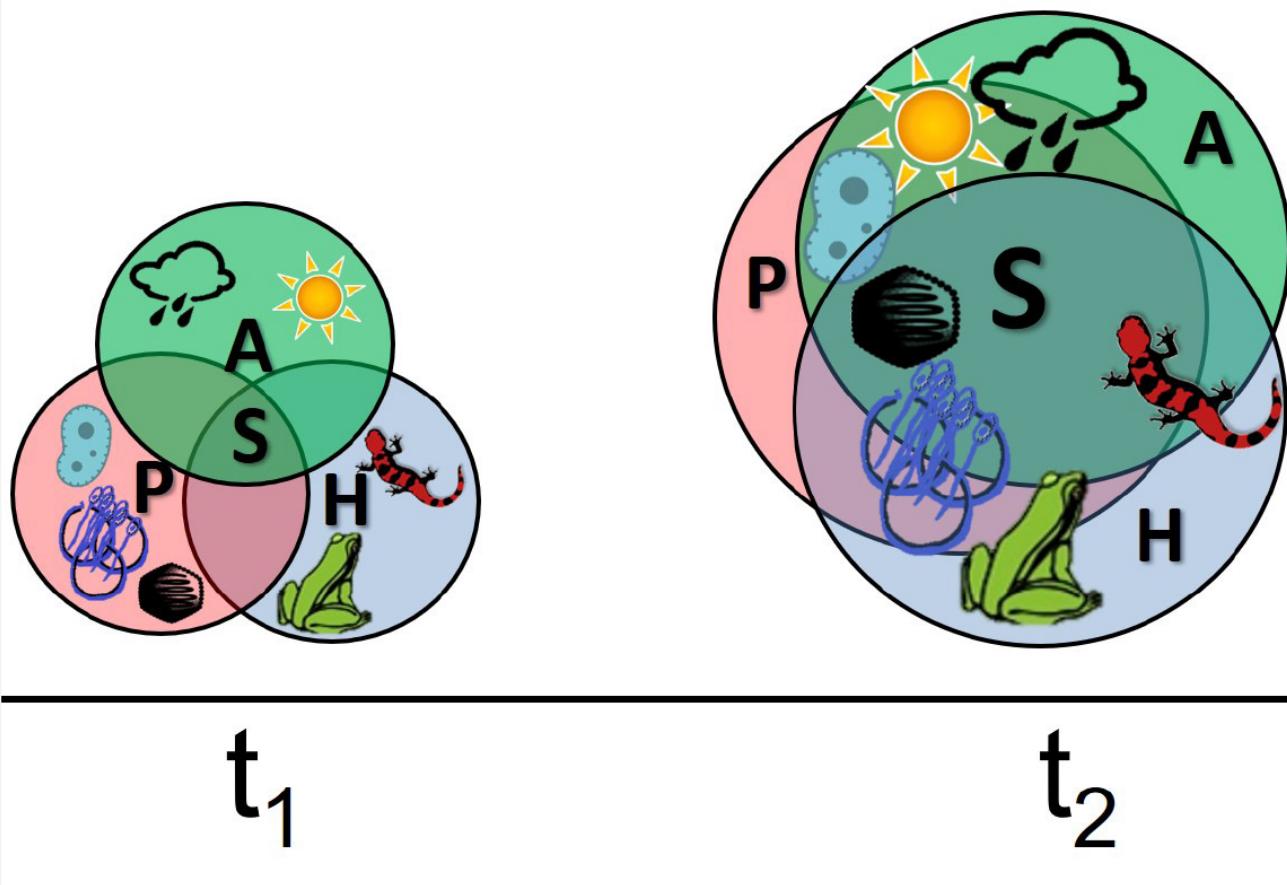


Figure 1. Venn diagrams representing the interactions of the environment (A), host (H) and pathogen (P). The interaction of these three variables at an ecological and evolutionary level results in susceptibility (S). Changes in these interactions over time ($t_1 - t_2$) can lead to an expansion of hosts and environments by the pathogen, which when dispersed (facilitated by man, movement of fauna or aquatic systems), can increase its area of distribution, and emerge as an emerging disease.

Figura 1. Diagramas de Venn representando las interacciones del ambiente (A), hospederos (H) y patógenos (P). La interacción de estas tres variables a nivel ecológico y evolutivo da como resultado la susceptibilidad (S). Los cambios en estas interacciones en el tiempo ($t_1 - t_2$) pueden dar lugar a una ampliación de hospederos y ambientes por parte del patógeno, el cual al dispersarse (facilitado por el hombre, movimiento de fauna o sistemas acuáticos), puede incrementar su área de distribución, y surgir como una enfermedad emergente.

induciendo la formación de un esporangio (fase sésil), el cual formará y liberará nuevas zoosporas a través de la piel del anfibio, comenzando nuevamente el ciclo de infección (Berger et al., 2005). Esta infección puede ocasionarle la muerte a los infectados, ya sea por las deformidades en el aparato bucal en las larvas que dificultan su alimentación, o por un desequilibrio osmótico y/o alteración del sistema inmune como producto de la hiperplasia e hiperqueratosis generada en la piel de los adultos por *Bd* (Daszak et al., 1999), o la necrosis y ulceración ocasionada por *Bsal* (Martel et al., 2013).

Del mismo modo que *Batrachochytrium* necesita un medio acuático o húmedo para realizar su ciclo de infección, los *Ranavirus* también están sujetos a dichas condiciones. Su ciclo

de infección comienza con el ingreso al hospedero a través del contacto con animales o agua infectada con el virus (Brunner et al., 2015). Los signos de infección incluyen edema, eritema, hemorragias y ulceraciones en la piel, siendo el hígado, riñones y bazo los órganos más afectados, pudiendo causar la muerte en tres días (Hoverman et al., 2011). La transmisión de la enfermedad puede ocurrir cuando adultos infectados se reproducen en los cuerpos de agua, transmitiendo la infección a larvas y otros adultos que comparten el sitio, o también cuando individuos infectados mueren en estos cuerpos de agua y son consumidos por los renacuajos (Brunner et al., 2004). Estos patrones generan brotes epidémicos con grandes mortalidades de larvas y metamorfos de anfibios, los cuales han sido reportados de manera similar en Europa, América y Asia (Duffus et al., 2015).

1.2. Variables ambientales: efecto de la temperatura y humedad

Uno de los factores que más contribuye en la persistencia y estabilidad de las poblaciones de anfibios son las condiciones ambientales que limitan el crecimiento del patógeno (Ariel et al., 2009; Fisher et al., 2009; Stegen et al., 2017) (Tabla 1, Fig. 1). Estudios experimentales han demostrado que la temperatura es un factor clave para el crecimiento y desarrollo de *Bd*, siendo 17-25°C su rango óptimo y por debajo o encima de estas temperaturas disminuye su tasa de crecimiento (Piotrowski et al., 2004). También se ha reportado en campo que los sitios con temperaturas altas (mayores a 28°C) están exentos de este patógeno, mientras que los ambientes más fríos presentan una alta prevalencia, grado de infección, o actúan como reservorios de la enfermedad (Retallick et al., 2004; Ron, 2005; Schlaepfer et al., 2007; Forrest & Schlaepfer, 2011). Por otro lado, *Bsal* posee una temperatura de crecimiento óptima menor a la de *Bd*, entre 15°C y 20°C (Blooij et al., 2015), pero también ha sido encontrado en sitios con temperaturas entre 20°C y 26°C, sugiriendo un nicho climático más amplio (Lacking et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018; Beukema et al., 2018). En el caso de los *Ranavirus*, la temperatura es un factor clave en su tasa de replicación (en células de cultivo), siendo 24-28°C el rango óptimo promedio (Ariel et al., 2009), y las altas temperaturas del verano como uno de los factores que contribuye al brote de la enfermedad (Brunner et al., 2015).

Otro factor importante para el crecimiento de estos patógenos es la presencia de un medio acuático o húmedo para su persistencia, por lo que ambientes secos podrían estar delimitando su distribución (Murray et al., 2011). Los estudios de la influencia del microclima y las condiciones fisicoquímicas a escala del hábitat pueden ayudar a comprender la dinámica patógeno-hospedero bajo ciertas condiciones. Por ejemplo, se ha observado que humedales con alta temperatura y salinidad presentan una menor prevalencia de infección por *Bd* que aquellos con una temperatura y salinidad menor en la misma región (Heard et al., 2014). Microhábitats más secos podrían inhibir el crecimiento de *Bd*, y actuar como refugios ambientales contra altas cargas de patógenos y/o altas probabilidades de infección (Puschendorf et al., 2011; Heard et al., 2015). De esta forma, parches de hábitat con ambientes particulares pueden actuar como refugios de enfermedades y sostener las metapoblaciones de hospederos amenazados (Mosher et al., 2018), siendo la conectividad un factor muy importante para la viabilidad de estas especies.

Una de las herramientas utilizadas para detectar las áreas con mayor idoneidad para el crecimiento de estos patógenos ha sido el uso de modelos de nicho ecológico a partir de la información

de variables de temperatura y precipitación obtenida de sus presencias (Ron, 2005; Yap et al., 2015; Gray et al., 2015; Richgels et al., 2016; Katz & Zellmer, 2018; Basanta et al., 2019). Estos modelos pueden ser utilizados para la prevención y mitigación en áreas de posible riesgo, teniendo en cuenta no sólo la distribución del patógeno, sino también la de sus posibles hospederos. También pueden estimarse cambios en temperatura y precipitación como resultado del cambio climático, fragmentación de hábitat y/o contaminación, y determinar las áreas con valores distintos a los óptimos del hospedero que podrían tener efectos en la respuesta inmune y generar un aumento en las tasas de infección (Raffel et al., 2006).

1.3. Antropización y perturbaciones ambientales

La modificación y perturbación de los hábitats es una de las principales causas en la disminución de los anfibios. La antropización puede generar diferencias en las infecciones por quitridiomicosis o ranavirus respecto a ambientes conservados, ya sea por cambios en el microhábitat que aumenten o disminuyan la idoneidad del patógeno u hospedero. Como ejemplos, en el estudio de Van Sluys y Hero (2009) encontraron una mayor densidad de anfibios y una menor prevalencia de *Bd* en tierras de cultivo en comparación con el bosque más cercano. Becker y Zamudio (2011) encontraron que la prevalencia e intensidad de infección por *Bd* estaba correlacionada de manera negativa con la pérdida de hábitat en Costa Rica, Brasil y Australia. En estos casos, los hábitats perturbados pueden actuar como refugios de enfermedades en aquellas especies que pueden tolerar la deforestación. Sin embargo, sitios con alta riqueza de especies de anfibios pueden disminuir el riesgo de enfermedad a partir de un efecto de dilución, como ha sido observado experimentalmente en *Anaxyrus boreas* y especies de anfibios simpátricas de Oregon (Searle et al., 2011). Por lo tanto, la pérdida de especies debida a la deforestación o contaminación podría aumentar el riesgo de infección por *Bd* en las comunidades de anfibios.

La contaminación por pesticidas u herbicidas son otro factor antropogénico que puede influir en las infecciones por ranavirus y quitridiomicosis. Estudios con *Ambystoma tigrinum* expuestos a estos contaminantes, han encontrado una disminución en los leucocitos y una mayor susceptibilidad a la infección por *ATV* (Kerby et al., 2011). Infecciones por *Bd* en presencia de pesticidas también han mostrado un aumento en la susceptibilidad de los anfibios debido a alteraciones en el microbioma (McCoy & Peralta, 2018) o en su sistema inmune (Rollins-Smith et al., 2011). Además, la interacción entre contaminantes y patógenos también pueden afectar el desarrollo del hospedero (Parris & Baud, 2004), desempeñando un papel importante en la susceptibilidad de los anfibios a las enfermedades.

Tabla 1. Factores relacionados a la infección por ranavirus y quitridiomicosis en anfibios.

Table 1. Factors related to ranavirus infection and chytridiomycosis in amphibians.

| Enfermedad infecciosa | Patógeno | Linaje | Impacto | Factores ecológicos | | Distribución | Referencia |
|-------------------------|--|--------------|---|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | Abióticos | Bióticos | | |
| Quitridiomicosis | <i>Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis</i> | <i>BdGPL</i> | | | | Mundial | Densmore y Greeen (2007); Olson et al. (2013); Blaustein et al. (2018); Hernández-López et al. 2018; López-Velázquez et al. 2018; O'Hanlon et al. (2018) |
| | <i>BdCH</i> | | Infecciones enzooticas y epizooticas. Más de 700 especies afectadas. Disminución y extinción de poblaciones en más de 200 especies. | 17°C-25°C Temperatura óptima Sistemas acuáticos/ húmedos | Sistema inmune y microbioma del hospedero. Tamaño del hospedero. Especies/estadios reservorios. Competidores y depredadores. Dispersión de cepas a través de comercio de especies. | Suiza | Farrer et al. (2011) |
| | <i>BdCAPE</i> | | | | | África, España. | Farrer et al. (2011); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) |
| | <i>BdAsia1</i> | | | | | Corea | Bataille et al. (2013) |
| | <i>BdBrazil/ Asia2</i> | | | | | Brasil, Estados Unidos, Corea | Schloegel et al. (2012); Rosenblum et al. (2013); Jenkinson et al. (2016), O'Hanlon et al. (2018) |
| | <i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i> | <i>Bsol</i> | Disminución del 96% de la población de Salamandra salamandra en Europa. Especies de caudados en riesgo a nivel mundial. | 15°C-20°C Temperatura óptima Sistemas acuáticos/ húmedos | | Países Bajos, Bélgica, Alemania, Tailandia, Vietnam, Japón, Taiwán, China. | Martel et al. (2013); Martel et al. (2014); Blaustein et al. (2018) |

| Enfermedad infecciosa | Patógeno | Linaje | Impacto | Factores ecológicos | | Distribución | Referencia |
|-----------------------|--|--------|---|---|--|--|---|
| | | | | Abióticos | Bióticos | | |
| | | | Muerte masiva de larvas y el fracaso del reclutamiento afectan la estructura de la población a corto plazo. Evidencia de disminución a largo plazo en <i>Rana temporaria</i> en Inglaterra; Ranidae más susceptible | | | | |
| Ranavirus | <i>Ranavirus 3 (FV3)</i> | FV3 | | | | América, Europa y Asia. Cepas endémicas en muchos sitios con eventos de mortalidad masiva. | |
| | <i>Ambystoma tigrinum virus (ATV)</i> | ATV | Mortalidad en poblaciones de <i>Ambystoma tigrinum</i> , <i>A. gracile</i> , <i>Notophthalmus viridescens</i> | 24°-28°C Sistemas acuáticos/ húmedos | Sistema inmune y microbioma del hospedero. Tamaño del hospedero. Especies/estadios reservorios. Competidores y depredadores. Dispersión de cepas a través de comercio de especies. | Estados Unidos | Densmore y Green (2007); Duffus et al. (2015); Gray y Chinchar (2015); Blaustein et al. (2018). |
| | <i>Bole iridovirus (BIV)</i> | BIV | Mortalidad en <i>Limnodynastes ornatus</i> , <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> | | | Australia, Estados Unidos | |
| | <i>Virus del sapo partero común (CMTV)</i> | CMTV | Mortalidad en poblaciones de <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> , <i>Mesotriton alpestris</i> , <i>Andrias davidianus</i> | | | Europa | |

1.4. Mecanismos de persistencia y transmisión

Muchos patógenos tienen mecanismos de resistencia a temperaturas o a la desecación en el ambiente, aumentando así su persistencia en las temporadas y/o sitios no favorables para su crecimiento. Estos mecanismos no sólo permiten la persistencia del patógeno en distintos ambientes, también facilitan su propagación a otros sitios y hospederos. *Bd* posee zoosporas móviles que pueden permanecer infectivas hasta por siete semanas en medio acuático (Johnson & Speare, 2003), y hasta 30 minutos en la desecación (Garmyn et al., 2012). *Bsal*, además de las zoosporas móviles, también puede generar esporas enquistadas que pueden persistir hasta por 31 días en cuerpos de agua, adherida a otros organismos y/o frente a depredadores como zooplacton (Stegen et al., 2017). Los *Ranavirus* por otro lado, poseen resistencia a bajas temperaturas en presencia de agua o humedad. Sin embargo, en condiciones naturales la presencia de microorganismos aumenta la degradación viral en

el ambiente (Brunner et al., 2015).

La presencia de hospederos resistentes a la enfermedad y otros organismos no afectados como aves y reptiles (Johnson y Speare, 2005; Kilburn et al., 2011; Burrowes y De La Riva, 2017), hace que éstos puedan actuar como reservorios y transmisores del patógeno. Especies como *Lithobates pipiens*, que se ha encontrado infectada pero sin signos clínicos de quitridiomicosis, puede indicar que la especie es sólo portadora de *Bd*, actuando como reservorio (Woodhams et al., 2006). La resistencia a estos patógenos en algunos estadios de la población, como se ha observado en renacuajos de *Rana muscosa* infectados por *Bd* (Fellers et al., 2001), y renacuajos de *Ambystoma tigrinum* infectados por FV3 (Brunner et al., 2004), aumentan su transmisión a otros individuos de la población. El movimiento de estos organismos dentro de parches de hábitat óptimos para los patógenos puede mantener la enfermedad e iniciar

una epidemia al arribar a otras regiones y entrar en contacto con especies potencialmente susceptibles. Esto puede suceder tanto a nivel regional como global al ser facilitado por el hombre. Como ejemplos, el comercio de larvas de *Ambystoma tigrinum* para cebo de pesca en Estados Unidos ha generado un aumento en la dispersión de *ATV* a otras regiones (Gray y Chinchar, 2015), y el comercio de especies para consumo o uso medicinal como *Lithobates catesbeianus*, *Lithobates pipiens* y *Xenopus laevis*, ha favorecido la dispersión tanto del ranavirus como de la quitridomicosis a nivel mundial (Schloegel et al., 2009; Spitsen-van der Slujs et al., 2011; Galindo-Bustos et al., 2014; Saucedo et al., 2019).

1.5. Características del hospedero

Las características biológicas y ecológicas de las especies de anfibios también están relacionadas con la susceptibilidad a la infección. Aquellas especies con reproducción acuática parecen ser las más afectadas por ranavirus y quitridomicosis (Lips et al., 2003; Kriger & Hero, 2007; Longcore et al., 2007; Bancroft et al., 2011; Hoverman et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2011; Hernández-López et al., 2018). Esto coincide con la biología de ambos patógenos, en la que para comenzar la etapa de infección ambos requieren un medio acuático o húmedo. Sin embargo, también existen excepciones como *Lithobates catesbeianus* y *Xenopus laevis*, especies de anfibio acuáticas resistentes que pueden actuar como reservorios y/o transmisores de éstas enfermedades (Daszak et al., 2004; Robert et al., 2007; Mazzoni et al., 2009).

La variación geográfica y entre especies en las respuestas a los patógenos puede sugerir que la inmunidad es específica del hospedero y se adapta localmente. El sistema inmune desempeña un papel esencial en la formación de la estructura de ensamblajes microbianos en la piel de los anfibios. Estudios recientes han encontrado que distintos aspectos de la respuesta inmune de los anfibios ante las infecciones, incluyendo péptidos antimicrobianos, lisozimas, alcaloides, bacterias simbióticas de la piel, células inmunes y genes, pueden estar adaptados localmente y ser específicos para cada especie o población, generando una gran variabilidad en la susceptibilidad frente a un patógeno (Ellison et al., 2014a; Ellison et al., 2014b; Woodhams et al., 2007; Woodhams et al., 2014; Rebollar et al., 2016).

La primera barrera a la infección son las bacterias y hongos presentes en la piel de los anfibios, los cuales producen compuestos que pueden disminuir el crecimiento de los patógenos (Harris et al., 2006; Woodhams et al., 2007). El microbioma de la piel de los anfibios puede limitar el riesgo de enfermedad a través de la producción de metabolitos antimicrobianos, la competencia y la exclusión de patógenos exógenos, o el aumento de la inmunidad

del hospedero (Rollins-Smith & Woodhams, 2012). Hasta la fecha han sido caracterizados cientos de cepas bacterianas con capacidades de inhibir el crecimiento *in vitro* de *Bd* (Flechas et al., 2012; Woodhams et al., 2015; Medina et al., 2017), y la presencia de ciertos grupos bacterianos de la piel en anfibios se encuentra asociada a la susceptibilidad de los hospederos frente a *Bd* (Rebollar, 2018).

Posterior al microbioma de la piel de los anfibios, el sistema inmune innato es considerado como la siguiente línea de defensa contra los patógenos, puede eliminarlos directamente o ralentizar el desarrollo de la enfermedad hasta que el sistema inmune adaptativo se active. Las células fagocíticas pueden eliminar directamente a los patógenos, e incluyen macrófagos, neutrófilos, basófilos y eosinófilos. Otros componentes esenciales de la inmunidad innata son las proteínas de complemento, lisozimas y péptidos antimicrobianos (Rollins-Smith, 2009). El sistema inmune adaptativo está compuesto por linfocitos T, linfocitos B, y el complejo mayor de histocompatibilidad (MHC) que involucra un conjunto de genes inmunes que codifican moléculas de reconocimiento de antígenos y patógenos para los linfocitos (Rollins-Smith y Woodhams, 2012). Debido a que *Bd* se ubica en las capas epiteliales queratinizadas externas y puede conducir a una rápida mortalidad del hospedero, se cree que las defensas innatas serían críticas para la supervivencia del hospedero (Berger et al., 1998; Rollins-Smith y Woodhams, 2012). Los péptidos antimicrobianos secretados en la piel de los anfibios desempeñan un papel importante en la protección contra la infección por patógenos de la piel como *Bd* (Rollins-Smith, 2009). Se ha documentado que especies comunes y resistentes a *Bd* secretan una mezcla de péptidos inhibidores a este patógeno *in vitro*, mientras que especies en declive o en peligro de extinción secretan péptidos con poca actividad contra *Bd* (Woodhams et al., 2006). Además, se ha comprobado que la similitud en los perfiles de MHC de algunos grupos podría explicar la susceptibilidad de los anfibios a los patógenos (Baribeau et al., 2008; Savage & Zamudio, 2011).

La conducta también es otra respuesta de defensa de los anfibios frente a las infecciones. En el caso de *Bd*, se han registrado conductas de termorregulación en la que individuos infectados podrían modificar su comportamiento con el fin de aumentar su temperatura y eliminar al patógeno (Woodhams et al., 2003; Rowley et al., 2007; Richards-Zawacki, 2010; Puschendorf et al., 2011; Daskin et al., 2011; Karavlan & Venesky, 2016). Este comportamiento mantiene la temperatura corporal elevada por algunas horas pudiendo disminuir la infección por *Bd*, ya sea por una temperatura no idónea para el patógeno o la inducción de una respuesta inmune por parte del hospedero que

reduce la infección (Richards-Zawacki, 2010; Rollins-Smith y Woodhams, 2012).

2. EL ROL DE LA EVOLUCIÓN EN LAS INTERACCIONES PATÓGENO-HOSPEDERO

La variación en la susceptibilidad de los hospederos, las diferencias en la virulencia de los patógenos, las tasas de transmisión, la supervivencia y áreas de distribución de hospederos, pueden tener una base genética que aumenta la variabilidad de la dinámica patógeno-hospedero (Firth & Lipkin, 2013). Además, el ambiente puede estar seleccionando genotipos tanto del patógeno como del hospedero, alterando las frecuencias de los genotipos virulentos en el primero o alelos de resistencia en el segundo (Longo et al., 2014). Los cambios evolutivos en cada una de estas características son los que potencialmente pueden dar al surgimiento de las enfermedades emergentes (Fig. 1).

2.1. Cambios que favorecen la emergencia

Los procesos de migración, cambios en el tamaño de la población, tasas de mutación y tiempos generacionales, pueden interactuar en la introducción de la variación genética en los patógenos. En el caso de los virus y hongos, las fuentes de variación son diferentes y los tiempos generacionales son mucho más cortos que el de sus hospederos. Los virus pueden cambiar su genoma a partir de mutación, reordenamiento de genes, o recombinación con otros virus o genes del hospedero (Schrag & Wiener, 1995). Los *Ranavirus* poseen una cápside icosaédrica que encierra el genoma de ADN de doble cadena, sus genes centrales o *core* incluyen proteínas estructurales virales, proteínas de regulación de la expresión génica, virus de replicación y virulencia que les permite infectar animales ectotérmicos como peces, anfibios y reptiles (Grayfer et al., 2015; Jancovich et al., 2015). Además, su genoma posee palíndromos, microsatélites, regiones repetidas y áreas de variación inter e intragénicas que pueden servir como sitios que facilitan la recombinación o regulan la expresión génica (Jancovich et al., 2015). En el caso de los hongos, éstos tienen la capacidad de reproducirse sexualmente y asexualmente. En *Batrachochytrium*, aún no se ha detectado su modo de reproducción sexual, y análisis moleculares afirman que la reproducción asexual es la más utilizada por este hongo (Morehouse et al., 2003; Morgan et al., 2007). Se ha sugerido que la recombinación mitótica es la fuente de variación en su genoma (James et al., 2009), y a pesar de que esta recombinación puede reducir la heterocigocidad, también puede aumentar la diversidad genotípica facilitando la propagación de mutaciones que pueden resultar beneficiosas para su desarrollo y persistencia (Rosenblum et al., 2010).

El uso de análisis genómicos puede ser utilizado para detectar la presencia de ciertos genes involucrados en la secreción de proteínas que permiten la adquisición de nutrientes en las interacciones con el medio ambiente y el hospedero (Rosenblum et al., 2012). Estos genes pueden ser utilizados como indicadores de patogenicidad en comparación a sus emparentados. Las adaptaciones evolutivas de *Bd* y *Bsal*, a diferencia de otros quitridios saprobios, están correlacionadas con la adquisición de genes que codifican proteínas únicas relacionadas a factores de virulencia como la modificación de la pared celular y secreciones para la destrucción del tejido del hospedero (Farrer et al., 2017). La presencia de una pared celular con composición proteica dinámica es una característica importante en los hongos patógenos ya que les permite cambiar en función a los sustratos encontrados para poder infectar al hospedero (Durán & Nombela, 2004). En los *Ranavirus*, se ha encontrado que comparaciones de *FV3* que varían en virulencia, sugieren que las diferencias intragénicas, así como la variación dentro de las secuencias repetidas, pueden influir en la patogénesis viral (Morrison et al., 2014). Esta variabilidad genómica en los patógenos genera cambios que pueden superar las defensas del hospedero y permitir la colonización a nuevos ambientes, así como también conducir a la diversificación de nuevos linajes patogénicos en evolución independiente.

Correlaciones entre los rasgos que afectan la resistencia del hospedero y el éxito de los patógenos, junto con análisis moleculares, pueden ayudar a reconstruir la historia evolutiva de los patógenos. Estudios genómicos recientes entre aislados de *Bd* a nivel global, han sugerido que el este de Asia podría ser el posible origen de diversificación y recombinación que ha llevado al surgimiento del linaje genético hipervirulento *BdGPL*, asociado a las epidemias y declives de anfibios en América del Norte, Centro América, el Caribe, Australia y Europa (Farrer et al., 2011; Farrer & Fisher, 2017; O'Hanlon et al, 2018). La expansión de *BdGPL* a principios del siglo XX desde Asia oriental, coincide con el incremento en el comercio mundial de especies, pudiendo ser éste el principal medio de transporte y dispersión a nivel intercontinental (O'Hanlon et al, 2018). Por otro lado, la presencia de los linajes genéticos divergentes *BdCH*, *BdCAPE*, *BdAsia1* y *BdBrasil/Asia2*, endémicos de localidades puntuales en Europa, África, Brasil y Asia (Tabla 1), no han sido asociados al declive de anfibios (Farrer et al., 2011; Rosenblum et al., 2013; Rodriguez et al., 2014), demostrando una gran variabilidad genética y de virulencia del patógeno. Además, estos linajes también difieren morfológicamente, siendo las cepas con mayor tamaño de esporangio las más agresivas (Fisher et al., 2009; Muletz-Wolz et al., 2019). Esta variación genética y fenotípica puede ser resultado de adaptaciones a nuevos hospederos o

fuerzas selectivas.

2.2. Efectos de la presión selectiva

La fuerza selectiva que ejercen los patógenos puede generar cambios genéticos en las poblaciones de los hospederos, como reducción de la heterocigocidad, afectando la susceptibilidad de los anfibios a las enfermedades. Posibles modificaciones en la aptitud a causa de las infecciones por *Bd* como efectos en la condición corporal (Carey et al., 2006; Retallick & Miera, 2007; Burrowes et al., 2008; Ramsey et al., 2010; Searle et al., 2011), locomoción (Chatfiel et al., 2013) y vocalización (An y Waldman, 2016), podrían tener un efecto a largo plazo. Estudios a futuro que midan la forma y la intensidad de la selección que actúa sobre el rendimiento de los organismos afectados por la infección durante períodos de tiempo prolongados, ayudarán a comprender el impacto de dichas infecciones en la evolución de la especie. En el caso de especies susceptibles, esta presión podría llevar poblaciones a la extinción o fenómenos de cuellos de botella. Por ejemplo, poblaciones de *Rana latastei* con baja diversidad genética presentan una mayor mortalidad por *FV3*, con respecto a individuos de poblaciones con mayor diversidad genética (Pearman et al., 2004). Patrones similares han sido observados en infecciones por *Bd*, donde poblaciones de *Lithobates sylvaticus* genéticamente distintas presentan diferencias en la intensidad de infección y mortalidad (Bradley et al., 2015).

Las epidemias pueden resultar en fluctuaciones extremas de las poblaciones, incluyendo extinciones puntuales, actuando como una fuerza selectiva sobre las poblaciones de anfibios. Posterior a un evento epizoótico, las poblaciones de anfibios pueden recuperarse mostrándose resistentes y tolerantes a la enfermedad en eventos enzoóticos. Poblaciones de *Ambystoma tigrinum* con *ATV* han mostrado una sincronicidad en las infecciones entre lagunas, donde años anteriores las infecciones habían sido mayores al 50 %, actualmente no presentan signos de la enfermedad (Duffus et al., 2015). En el caso de *Bd*, posterior a los eventos epizoóticos que causaron extinciones en poblaciones de anfibios en Centro y Sur América, se han observado algunas poblaciones resistentes en una situación enzoótica con el patógeno (Lips, 2016; Voyles et al., 2018; DiRenzo et al., 2018). Estos eventos enzoóticos posteriores a eventos epizoóticos con altas mortalidades, podrían ser el resultado de una coevolución entre la cepa del patógeno y los anfibios de la localidad.

Dada la gran variación en la susceptibilidad, en algunos sitios estos patógenos podrían haber coevolucionado con sus hospederos. La concordancia entre filogenias puede revelar una potencial coevolución, mientras que la discordancia

puede significar eventos de cambio de hospedero o frecuentes introducciones externas. Análisis moleculares entre *ATV* y poblaciones de *Ambystoma tigrinum*, encontraron fuertes correlaciones entre las cepas del virus y las poblaciones de salamandras asociadas, sugiriendo una coevolución entre ambos (Storfer et al., 2007). Por otro lado, la dispersión de patógenos por parte del hombre a través del comercio de especies o acuacultura es muy frecuente y puede ser una de las causas que explique la falta de un patrón de coevolución. Debido a la frecuente introducción de cepas en distintas regiones del mundo, sumada a las diversas mutaciones adquiridas, determinar la dirección de los cambios del genoma se torna más difícil (Kao et al., 2014), encontrándose diferentes posibles rutas de origen y transmisión inferidas con la información genética.

2.3. Métodos integrativos ecológicos-evolutivos

Debido a que las infecciones dependen de las interacciones entre la susceptibilidad del hospedero y la virulencia de los patógenos en su contexto ambiental, resulta difícil comprender por qué algunas especies están más infectadas que otras. La combinación de las características biológicas e historias de vida junto con las condiciones ambientales en relación a las infecciones puede permitir la identificación de estrategias evolutivas de resistencia o tolerancia de las especies que pueden ser empleadas en evaluaciones de riesgo.

Experimentos de infección en laboratorio, mesocosmos y en el campo, han podido inferir cómo responden los anfibios a las infecciones por quitridiomicosis y ranavirus considerando las especies, edad del hospedero, etapa de la historia de vida, población, factores bióticos (ej. presencia de competidores, depredadores), factores abióticos (ej. temperatura, presencia de contaminantes), así como el linaje y dosis del patógeno (Blaustein et al., 2018). Además, métodos correlativos utilizando la filogenia, características de historia de vida de los anfibios como hábitat de reproducción, duración de la etapa larval, y/o tamaño corporal en metamorfos y adultos, han sido utilizados para medir las infecciones por *FV3* y *Bd* (Hoverman et al., 2011; Greenberg et al., 2017; Hernández-López et al., 2018). En ambos casos existe una relación entre las características ecológicas de las especies y las infecciones, lo que sugiere que el uso de un enfoque basado en estas variables puede permitir la identificación de especies con resistencia o tolerancia a las infecciones.

La combinación de la información de las interacciones patógeno-hospedero con sus distribuciones geográficas, y/o reconstrucciones filogenéticas de los hospederos también puede ser utilizadas para medir el riesgo a ciertos patógenos (Stephens et al., 2016; Róbles-Fernández & Lira-Noriega,

2017). Estos métodos pueden estimar un índice de interacción/infección patógeno-hospedero y revelar los sitios y especies más vulnerables a la infección. Además, tienen una aplicación global, y a partir de su proyección en el espacio geográfico podrían utilizarse para anticipar el potencial de riesgo de infección en otros sitios, o brotes de enfermedades relacionadas con nuevos patógenos.

3. FUTURAS DIRECCIONES

El estudio de estas enfermedades aún no ha resuelto incógnitas sobre su origen y métodos que ayuden a prevenir el surgimiento de otras enfermedades emergentes. Si bien las investigaciones de ranavirus y quitriomicosis han sido amplias a nivel mundial, todavía quedan vacíos en la detección y en la comprensión de su historia evolutiva y factores ecológicos involucrados. Por ejemplo, aún se desconoce la variabilidad genética de *Bd* en México. Hasta la fecha sólo se ha analizado una cepa de *Bd* en el país (*BdGPL*; Rosenblum et al., 2013), por lo que es probable la presencia de más de un linaje, con factores de virulencia y efectos desconocidos en las poblaciones de anfibios. La determinación de los linajes presentes en México, sus orígenes, propagación y distribución, podría ayudar a determinar las regiones y especies amenazadas. Por otro lado, el estudio de ranavirus en México es casi nulo. A pesar de ser una enfermedad de amplia distribución, la falta de vigilancia podría ser la causa principal de la falta de registros de *Ranavirus* en el país (Duffus et al., 2015). Recientemente, individuos de *Lithobates catesbeianus* pertenecientes a una colonia en cautiverio en el norte de México, estado de Sinaloa, fueron reportados con la presencia del *Ranavirus FV3* (Saucedo et al., 2019). Lo anterior es de suma importancia debido a que *Lithobates catesbeianus* es una especie comercial, invasiva y puede actuar como reservorio y transmisor del virus (Ruggeri et al., 2019), por lo que el riesgo de dispersión e ingreso de este patógeno a áreas naturales donde habitan anfibios endémicos es alto y es necesario el aumento de medidas de monitoreo y detección del patógeno.

La introducción de *Bsal* a nuevas áreas como nueva enfermedad emergente representa un gran riesgo para la biodiversidad. México presenta una alta diversidad de anfibios y más del 50% de las especies de salamandras se encuentran en áreas idóneas para el establecimiento de este patógeno (Basant et al., 2019). La inmediata aplicación de medidas de conservación para evitar su introducción y transmisión entre poblaciones, así como el control y la prohibición de la importación de anfibios oriundos de Europa y Asia, son las medidas más urgentes que deben realizarse con el fin de prevenir la introducción de este patógeno a México.

La posibilidad de que surjan o sean detectadas nuevas enfermedades emergentes es muy alta, en este sentido factores que aumentan este suceso como cambio en los regímenes de temperatura y precipitación como consecuencia del cambio climático, la destrucción del hábitat y/o la contaminación, además del movimiento antrópico de especies, son cada vez más frecuentes. La detección del virus de la carpa (SVCV) en anfibios de comercio (Ip et al., 2016), de *Perkinsus*, un género de protozoarios patógenos de moluscos también se ha detectado como patógeno de anfibios que ha causado grandes mortalidades en poblaciones de Estados Unidos desde 1999 (Isidoro-Ayza et al., 2017), o la misma detección de *Bsal* 14 años después de la descripción de *Bd* son ejemplos de la emergencia de nuevos patógenos con gran potencial en la disminución de anfibios. La prevención de la diseminación de estas enfermedades es el método más efectivo dentro de las acciones a tomar en etapas posteriores a la invasión. Por lo tanto, es importante evitar en lo posible la traslocación de individuos hacia otras regiones, y en el caso de que esto ocurra, implementar diversas herramientas, como certificados de salud previos al envío, cuarentenas, y/o detección de agentes patógenos específicos y prohibiciones absolutas para evitar el ingreso de patógenos. Además, continuar el seguimiento de estas enfermedades emergentes a través de la implementación de métodos de análisis que contemplen aspectos tanto ecológicos y evolutivos que puedan ayudar en la detección de sitios y especies con mayor riesgo, con el fin de implementar medidas mitigación y control.

CONCLUSIONES

La quitriomicosis y ranavirus siguen amenazando a anfibios en todo el mundo, siendo la primera la peor enfermedad infecciosa registrada en vertebrados con mayor número de especies afectadas y gran propensión a extinguirlas. La comprensión de los procesos ecológicos y evolutivos que configuran las interacciones entre un patógeno, sus hospederos y el medio ambiente puede ayudar a dilucidar sobre el origen de una enfermedad infecciosa emergente, su propagación e impacto potencial en las poblaciones. Además, la inclusión de los efectos antropogénicos, como la contaminación, cambios en el uso del suelo y cambio climático pueden ayudar a detectar los factores que alteran la dinámica de las enfermedades en los sistemas naturales. Finalmente, la integración de herramientas ecológicas y genómicas, como información sobre genotipo y fenotipos asociados, factores de virulencia y otros factores que influyen en la enfermedad, podrían proporcionar información importante para detectar el riesgo que estos patógenos representan para especies y sitios particulares con el fin de aplicar medidas de mitigación y conservación.

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Nota editorial:

En la nomenclatura se decidió seguir a Frost 2019 a pesar de que existe una propuesta de Yuan et al. (2016) de regresar a *Rana* en lugar de seguir utilizando *Lithobates* para especies de América; no obstante ésta última propone que se usen subgéneros (e.g. *Rana (Lithobates)*, *Rana (Phanterana)*). Además la propuesta de Frost (2019) tiene un sentido biogeográfico.

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ANEXO III

Diversidad genética y linajes de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatis*

Autor: Basanta, M. D.

Fuente: En López Velázquez A., Basanta M. D. y Ochoa-Ochoa L, (Eds). Quitridiomicosis en México. Publicación especial de la Sociedad Herpetológica Mexicana A. C. 2018; pp. 105–122.

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DIVERSIDAD GENÉTICA Y LINAJES DE *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*

María Delia Basanta^{1*}

¹Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México,
Ciudad Universitaria, 04510, Ciudad de México, México

*Correspondencia: delibasanta@gmail.com

Resumen. La quitridiomicosis causada por *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* y *B. salamandrivorans* es una de las principales enfermedades infecciosas que afecta a los anfibios de todo el mundo. El aislamiento de *B. dendrobatidis* en distintas regiones del mundo y el estudio de su variabilidad genética ha permitido reconocer la existencia de cinco linajes con diferencias en su distribución y virulencia. Esta información ha ayudado a explicar cómo ha sido la historia evolutiva de este patógeno, y sus relaciones enzoóticas o epizoóticas con las poblaciones de anfibios. En este capítulo se presenta una revisión del conocimiento actual sobre la variabilidad genética de *B. dendrobatidis*, sus linajes y asociaciones con los declives de anfibios, destacando los avances en esta área y su importancia en la prevención y manejo de este tipo de patógenos.

Introducción

La quitridiomicosis es reconocida como una enfermedad infecciosa emergente en anfibios a nivel mundial (Lips 2016), y es causada por los hongos *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) y *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*), los cuales pertenecen al Phylum Chytridiomycota (Orden Rhyzophydiales). Las infecciones causadas por *Bd* y *Bsal* en anfibios, muestran un intervalo de especies hospederos notablemente diferentes, *Bsal* afecta principalmente a un solo orden de anfibios, los caudados (salamandras), mientras que *Bd* fue detectado en más de 700 especies en los tres órdenes de anfibios (Olson et al. 2013). La aplicación de medidas de conservación para la prevención de futuros declives en la biodiversidad depende del conocimiento de la historia evolutiva de estos patógenos, los factores de virulencia y su relación en la dinámica huésped-hospedero.

Diferencias en la susceptibilidad a *Batrachochytrium* entre especies y poblaciones, ocasionó que algunas especies se extinguieran, y que en otras sus poblaciones dismi-

nuyeran, persistieran, o presentaran una recuperación después del declive (Lips et al. 2003; Martel et al. 2013; Martel et al. 2014; Berger et al. 2016; Stegen et al. 2017). Estas diferencias pueden deberse tanto a la susceptibilidad de las especies hospederas como a la virulencia del patógeno. El ambiente puede estar seleccionando genotipos tanto del patógeno como del hospedero, alterando las frecuencias de los genotipos virulentos en el primero o alelos de resistencia en el segundo (Longo et al. 2014), generando un aumento en la virulencia de los patógenos y en la susceptibilidad de las especies hospederas. La relación entre *Batrachochytrium* y los declives de anfibios en Centroamérica, Australia, Europa y otras regiones del mundo (Berger et al. 1999; Martel et al. 2013; Stegen et al. 2017), generó una serie de interrogantes sobre el origen y dispersión de estos patógenos: ¿Cuál es el origen de estos patógenos? ¿Por qué generan declives en ciertas regiones y especies de anfibios mientras que en otras no? ¿Cómo han llegado a dispersarse por todo el mundo? ¿Son patógenos nuevos o endémicos? Para responder estas interrogantes, comenzaron a realizarse estudios de genética molecular de estos patógenos basados en cepas de *Bd* obtenidas en distintos países. A partir de esta información, se ha podido reconocer la presencia de más de un linaje de *Bd*, endemismos e introducciones recientes, diferencias en virulencia, y relaciones enzoóticas/epizoóticas entre linajes y poblaciones de anfibios. En este capítulo se hablará sobre la variación genética de *Batrachochytrium* para explicar su historia evolutiva y relación con los anfibios. En la primer parte se abordan los estudios realizados para responder sobre el origen y dispersión de *Bd*, los métodos utilizados y las aportaciones de cada uno de ellos. En la segunda parte, se hablará sobre la variación genética de *Bd* y el reconocimiento de los linajes, seguido de su relación con la patogenicidad y los factores de virulencia, y una breve revisión sobre *Bsal* basada en los aspectos anteriores. Finalmente, se discute la situación actual y cómo esta información puede ser utilizada para la prevención y manejo de estos patógenos en relación a la conservación de los anfibios.

Hipótesis de origen de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatis*

Como una primera explicación sobre el origen y dispersión de *Bd* fueron planteadas las hipótesis de patógeno incipiente y patógeno endémico (Daszak et al. 1999). La primera hipótesis menciona que *Bd* se originó en algún sitio geográfico particular, desde donde se dispersó y arribó recientemente a nuevas áreas, causando brotes epizoóticos entre las especies de anfibios vulnerables (Rachowicz et al. 2005). La segunda hipótesis menciona que *Bd* se encontraba presente históricamente en las localidades y un cambio en las condiciones ambientales causó una disruptión en la relación patógeno-hospedero, volviendo a los anfibios susceptibles a la infección y a *Bd* más virulento (Rachowicz et al. 2005). Las primeras evidencias que apoyaron la hipótesis

de patógeno incipiente fueron los registros de infección por *Bd* espacio-temporales obtenidos de ejemplares de colecciones científicas. Hasta el año 2014, los registros más antiguos de *Bd* correspondían a ejemplares de *Andrias japonicus* colectados en Japón en 1902 (Goka et al. 2009) y de *Xenopus laevis* colectados en África en 1938 (Weldon et al. 2004), mientras que el registro más antiguo en otros continentes como América o Australia pertenecían a la década de 1970 (James et al. 2009; Cheng et al. 2011). Diversos autores postularon que en la década de 1930, *Bd* fue transportado desde África al resto del mundo a través de *Xenopus laevis*, un anfibio anuro utilizado para fines farmacéuticos (Weldon et al. 2004; James et al. 2009). Posteriormente el comercio de *Rana catesbeiana* desde América del Norte hacia el resto de América, Asia y Europa, facilitó la propagación de este patógeno a nuevos ambientes (Fisher y Garner 2007; Schloegel et al. 2009). Sin embargo, la detección de la presencia de *Bd* desde el año 1894 en Brasil comenzó a poner en duda esta hipótesis (Rodríguez et al. 2014).

Estudios genómicos recientes entre cepas de *Bd* a nivel global, observaron una gran diversidad genética de este patógeno, encontrando un linaje global asociado a declives de anfibios, y linajes endémicos divergentes que indican una historia evolutiva de *Bd* más antigua que la sugerida por la hipótesis de patógeno incipiente (Rosenblum et al. 2013). Los estudios de detección histórica de *Bd* en especímenes de colecciones científicas junto con análisis moleculares, han encontrado distintos patrones de origen e introducción. En Brasil, análisis moleculares y de detección de *Bd* en ejemplares de colección desde el año 1894, sugieren la presencia de un linaje de *Bd* endémico para la región y una reciente introducción del linaje global (Rodríguez et al. 2014; Jenkinson et al. 2016). En África Central, el estudio de *Bd* en anfibios continentales y de islas a partir de especímenes de colecciones científicas y de secuencias del espaciador transcritto interno (ITS), demostró que *Bd* ha estado presente por lo menos desde 1966 (Hydeman et al. 2017). En Chile, un análisis filogenómico de tres aislados de *Bd* sugiere una introducción única y reciente del linaje global (Valenzuela-Sánchez et al. 2017). Si bien los ejemplares de colección son útiles para establecer un perfil cronológico de la propagación de este patógeno, los datos moleculares son de gran importancia para poder inferir qué genotipos de *Bd* están asociados a las infecciones históricas, y cuáles se encuentran asociados a los declives.

La evidencia actual sugiere una combinación de ambas hipótesis de origen, soportada principalmente por la variación genética entre aislados de *Bd* a nivel mundial. Estos estudios mencionan que en algunos sitios *Bd* fue y está siendo dispersado con ayuda del hombre, mientras que en otros sitios se ha mantenido como endémico (Schloegel et al. 2012; Jenkinson et al. 2016). Un estudio reciente de análisis de genoma completo con 234 aislados a nivel mundial, sugiere un origen asiático para el linaje global panzootico de *Bd* (O'Hanlon et al. 2018). La expansión de este patógeno a principios del siglo XX en Asia oriental, coincide con el incremento en el comercio mundial de especies, pudiendo ser éste el principal medio de transporte y dispersión de *Bd* a nivel intercontinental.

La presencia de *Bd* en casi todo el mundo sugiere varias hipótesis de dispersión de este patógeno que involucran principalmente el comercio de anfibios como alimento, cebo, mascotas, zoológicos y animales de laboratorio (Garner et al. 2006; Picco y Collins 2008; Garner et al. 2009; Schloegel et al. 2009; O'Hanlon et al. 2018). Especies resistentes a la enfermedad que actúan como reservorios y son altamente comerciales, como *X. laevis* y *R. catesbeiana*, son consideradas como los principales dispersores de *Bd* a nivel mundial (Schloegel et al. 2009).

Diversidad genética de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*

La diferencia en las infecciones por *Bd* se debe tanto a factores ambientales y ecológicos, como a variaciones genéticas del hospedero y el patógeno. Los primeros estudios para examinar la diversidad genética de *Bd* fueron realizados con aislados de Norteamérica, África y Australia (Morehouse et al. 2003; James et al. 2009). Utilizando el método de tipificación de secuencias multilocus MLST con 10 loci, Morehouse et al. (2003) encontraron una baja diversidad genética en *Bd*. Posteriormente James et al. (2009) utilizó 17 loci nucleares y un fragmento del genoma mitocondrial, encontrando nuevamente una baja diversidad genética sin una estructura geográfica de la población, representando un mismo linaje clonal. Esto indicaba que *Bd* era un patógeno emergente, con una dispersión reciente y un modo reproductivo exclusivamente clonal, con lo cual no presentaba variaciones genéticas notorias entre los aislados de distintas regiones geográficas.

Análisis filogenéticos posteriores utilizando genómica poblacional comparativa determinaron que la diversidad genética de *Bd* es alta y está compuesto por más de un linaje. La comparación de 20 aislados de *Bd* determinó la presencia de tres linajes divergentes: el linaje panzootíco global (*Bd*GPL), el linaje del Cabo (*Bd*CAPE) y el linaje suizo (*Bd*CH) (Farrer et al. 2011). El linaje *Bd*GPL se encontró asociado principalmente a las epizootias de América del Norte, América Central, el Caribe, Australia y Europa, e incluye los aislados genotipados previamente por James et al. (2009) (Tabla 1). El linaje *Bd*CAPE contiene un aislado de la isla de Mallorca y otro de la Provincia del Cabo, Sudáfrica, mientras que el linaje *Bd*CH está compuesto por un único aislado de Suiza. A partir de observaciones morfológicas y experimentos de infección, se encontró que los linajes *Bd*CAPE y *Bd*CH difieren en sus fenotipos y virulencia en comparación con el linaje *Bd*GPL, siendo este último caracterizado como hipervirulento y con un tamaño de zoosporangios mayor a los anteriores (Farrer et al. 2011). En conjunto, estos datos mostraron que la diferenciación genética entre los linajes de *Bd* ha dado lugar a una variación morfológica y de virulencia significativa, relacionada con los sitios de declives de anfibios.

Posteriormente, Schoegel et al. (2012) utilizaron el método MLST con 36 locus en 45 aislados e identificaron una división del linaje *BdGPL* en dos subpoblaciones: *BdGPL 1* y *BdGPL 2*. La primera corresponde sólo a ciertos aislados de Norteamérica, mientras que la segunda corresponde al resto de los aislados de *BdGPL* del mundo (Centroamérica, África, Norteamérica) (Tabla 1). Schoegel et al. (2012) también identificaron la presencia de un nuevo linaje endémico de Brasil (*BdBrasil*), y la presencia de híbridos entre este linaje y el linaje *BdGPL*.

Estudios recientes utilizaron secuenciación de nueva generación (NGS) para obtener las secuencias del genoma completo de *Bd* de distintos aislados y analizar la estructura de la población, establecer patrones de relación, y reconstruir los eventos de transmisión entre áreas o sitios de introducción (Farrer et al. 2011; Rosenblum et al. 2013; O'Hanlon et al. 2018). La secuenciación del genoma completo de aislados de América, África, Europa, Asia y Australia reafirmó la presencia de los linajes endémicos y globales anteriormente detectados (Rosenblum et al. 2013; O'Hanlon et al. 2018). O'Hanlon et al. (2018) además de confirmar los linajes *BdGPL* (global), *BdCAPE* (africano), *BdCH* (europeo) y *BdBrasil* (brasileño), también describieron dos nuevos linajes en Asia. El primero posee un origen en Corea (*BdAsia-1*) y agrupa al linaje *BdCH*, mientras que el segundo está asociado a especies introducidas en Asia (*BdAsia-2*), y se encuentra estrechamente relacionado con el linaje brasileño (*BdBrasil*).

Estudios a nivel regional demostraron la posible existencia de nuevos linajes de *Bd* o una posible divergencia entre aislados. A partir de secuencias ITS, Goka et al. (2009) y Bataille et al. (2013) determinaron la presencia de linajes endémicos asiáticos de *Bd* en Japón y Corea. Sin embargo, debido a que las secuencias ITS no son específicas de la cepa, debe tenerse precaución en la evaluación de la diversidad de *Bd* y en la determinación de las relaciones filogenéticas (Schloegel et al. 2012). En América, Velo-Antón et al. (2012) analizaron los cambios en la composición genética de *Bd* desde América del Norte a América Central a partir del genotipado de nueve locus, encontrando un aislamiento genético por distancia entre las poblaciones de *Bd*. En México, los análisis moleculares realizados por Velo-Antón et al. (2012) y Rosenblum et al. (2013) encontraron una relación entre las muestras de México y las de Estados Unidos pertenecientes al linaje *BdGPL*. Sin embargo, debido a que las muestras mexicanas provenían de ejemplares en cautiverio, y no de organismos de vida silvestre, debe tenerse precaución al considerarse estos resultados ya que no puede asignarse un origen específico. Actualmente se han reconocido cinco linajes diferentes para *Bd*, *BdGPL* (*BdGPL 1* y *BdGPL 2*), *BdCAPE*, *BdAsia 1/BdBrasil*, *BdAsia 2*, *BdCH*, y uno para *Bsal* a nivel mundial (Fig. 1), sin embargo, la distribución y localización de éstos aún no es completa. La falta de aislados de otras regiones para su estudio genético (e.g., Mexico), abren la posibilidad a la existencia de un numero mayor de linajes, con factores de virulencia y efecto desconocido en las poblaciones.



Figura 1. Genotipos de *Bd* registrados a nivel mundial (Morehouse et al. 2003; Morgan et al. 2007; James et al. 2009; Farrer et al. 2011; Schloegel et al. 2012; Bataille et al. 2013; Rosenblum et al. 2013; Jenkinson et al. 2016; Valenzuela-Sánchez et al. 2017; O'Hanlon et al. 2018).

Factores de patogenicidad

Los hongos del phylum Chytridiomycota se caracterizan por ser principalmente saprófitos y acuáticos, dentro del cual, *Batrachochytrium* es el único taxón que se ha adaptado para colonizar vertebrados (Berger et al. 1999; Martel et al. 2013). Los quitridiomicetos *Bd* y *Bsal* se caracterizan por infectar la piel de los anfibios, *Bd* genera hiperplasia e hiperqueratosis (Daszak et al. 1999), y *Bsal* necrosis y ulceración (Martel et al. 2013). A pesar de que estos hongos se encuentran restringidos a la epidermis superficial, la capacidad de matar a su hospedador puede deberse a dos mecanismos (Berger et al. 1998; Pessier et al. 1999): (1) la liberación de enzimas proteolíticas u otros compuestos activos por parte del patógeno, y/o (2) los daños en la función de la piel generan una alteración en el equilibrio de oxígeno, agua o electrolitos que causan la muerte. A partir de la secuenciación genómica de *Bd* y *Bsal*, la identificación de genes que contribuyen en la patogenicidad brinda la oportunidad de comprender su evolución relacionada con la virulencia. A diferencia de otros quitridios saprobios,

la expansión de ciertos genes, como proteínas del módulo de unión a carbohidratos (CBM) que pueden facilitar la unión de zoosporas al tejido queratinizado, y genes que codifican proteasas y proteínas de la pared celular únicas para *Bd* y *Bsal*, son adaptaciones evolutivas relacionadas a la capacidad de infectar anfibios (Joneson et al. 2011; Farrer et al. 2017).

Existen tres familias de genes que se cree que desempeñan específicamente un papel en la patogenicidad fúngica de *Batrachochytrium* y muestran grandes expansiones en el genoma de *Bd* y *Bsal*: las familias serina proteasa, aspartil proteasa y fungolisina metaloproteasa peptidasa. Poseer diferentes proteasas o formas múltiples del mismo tipo de proteasa podría ser un indicativo de patógeno exitoso. Estas proteínas también han sido observadas con altos niveles de expresión en otros hongos patógenos de vertebrados, incluyendo *Arthroderra benhamiae*, *Microsporum* spp., *Coccidioides* spp., *Trichophyton* spp. y *Candida albicans* (Hube et al. 1994; Brouta et al. 2002, Descamps et al. 2002; Jousson et al. 2004; Joneson et al. 2011). En el caso de *Bd*, los genes fungalisina metalopeptidasa (peptidasa M36) se encuentran relacionados con la patogenicidad, y su expresión es mayor en los esporangios, la etapa de la vida de *Batrachochytrium* asociada con el tejido queratinizado del hospedador (Rosenblum et al. 2008). La proteína HSP70 y otras dos proteínas con función proteolítica son capaces de degradar elastina, gelatina y caseína *in vitro* (Brochu et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2006; Moss et al. 2010). La secreción de estas enzimas puede resultar en la destrucción del tejido del hospedero, ya que la elastina es un componente de la matriz extracelular de los vertebrados, y la pérdida de la integridad celular puede explicar en parte los síntomas de hiperqueratosis observados durante la quitridomicosis (Moss et al. 2010).

Una característica importante en los hongos patógenos es la capacidad de la pared celular en tener una composición proteica dinámica, cambiando en función de los sustratos encontrados (Verstrepen et al. 2003). Las adhesinas son uno de los componentes de la pared celular que permite la adhesión entre las células fúngicas y podría facilitar tanto la adhesión a las células hospedador como también la evasión del reconocimiento por parte del mismo (Verstrepen et al. 2006). En *Bd*, han sido identificados 11 genes de adhesina específicos para este patógeno que podrían tener esta propiedad (Rosenblum et al. 2012). Además, la presencia de genes con actividad de triglicérido lipasa, podrían indicar una función de nutrición o adhesión, como ha sido observado en *Malassezia furfur* en su interacción con la piel del humano (Brunke y Hube 2006; Jonseson et al. 2011).

La introducción de variación genética relacionada a la virulencia de los patógenos está dada por diversos procesos tales como migración, reproducción, cambios en el tamaño de la población y tasas de mutación. Farrer et al. (2013) mencionan tres procesos que contribuyen a la generación de diversidad *de novo* en *Bd*: 1) variación en el número de copias cromosómicas que cambian en escalas de tiempo cortas, 2) recombinación críptica en todos los linajes de *Bd*, asociado a genes de virulencia, y 3) que estos genes

están bajo selección direccional en el linaje *Bd*GPL. De esta manera, *Bd* posee un genoma dinámico como resultado de la interacción con sus hospederos y ambientes.

La aneuploidía o variación en el número de copias cromosómicas (CCNV) es una característica frecuente en hongos patógenos (Farrer y Fisher 2017). Morehouse et al. (2003) y James et al. (2009) encontraron que *Bd* es por lo menos diploide o con una ploidía mayor, con una reproducción principalmente clonal y la variación genotípica puede generarse a través de la recombinación mitótica. El CCNV de *Bd* puede variar entre 2 a 5 copias, mientras que *Bsal* parece ser diploide con posible trisomía (Farrer et al. 2013; Farrer et al. 2017). Se ha demostrado que *Bd* puede producir cambios significativos en su CCNV en tan sólo 40 generaciones de cultivo (Farrer et al. 2013). Esta variación podría otorgarle cambios fenotípicos ventajosos, como la sobreexpresión de los factores de virulencia y/o la eliminación de mutaciones deletéreas a través de la no disyunción durante la segregación cromosómica (Schoustra et al. 2007). De esta forma, el CCNV puede representar una fuente de variación *de novo* con potencial adaptativo.

La reproducción asexual parece ser la más utilizada en *Bd* (Morehouse et al. 2003). A pesar de que este tipo de reproducción puede reducir la heterocigocidad, también tiene el potencial de aumentar la diversidad genotípica y facilitar la propagación de mutaciones que pueden resultar beneficiosas para su desarrollo y persistencia (Rosenblum et al. 2010). Por otro lado, la hibridación ha sido propuesta como un mecanismo explicativo para el origen del linaje *Bd*GPL (Farrer et al. 2011). Los brotes y eventos epizoóticos de *Bd* sólo han sido atribuidos a este linaje, el cual actúa como una nueva especie invasora en muchas partes del mundo (Rosenblum et al. 2013; James et al. 2015). La presencia de aislados híbridos (*Bd*Brasil/*Bd*GPL; *Bd*CAPE/*Bd*GPL) demuestra una continua recombinación de *Bd*, que a partir del intercambio de haplotipos entre linajes genera una nueva diversidad genómica (O'Hanlon et al. 2018). Esta nueva diversidad podría dar como resultado un aumento en la virulencia y ser un riesgo para la biodiversidad (Schloegel et al. 2012; Ghosh y Fisher 2016; Jenkinson et al. 2016). Considerando el riesgo de estos patógenos, y que aún no se conoce la totalidad de los linajes y factores ecológicos involucrados en la infección, la prevención de su diseminación es de gran importancia para evitar futuros brotes epidémicos.

Batrachochytrium salamandivorans

El descubrimiento de *Bsal* como nuevo patógeno emergente y especie hermana de *Bd* generó una ampliación en la historia evolutiva de este grupo, donde 67.3 millones de años de divergencia separa a ambas especies (Martel et al. 2013). La detección de *Bsal* en un ejemplar de *Cynops ensicauda* mayor a 150 años de Asia, junto con análisis de parsimonia y reconstrucciones ancestrales de máxima verosimilitud, sugieren que el sureste de Asia ha sido un reservorio para *Bsal* en los últimos 30 millones de años

manteniéndose allí en un estado enzoótico (Martel et al. 2013). Su dispersión a Europa facilitada por el hombre, fue lo que generó brotes epizoóticos afectando poblaciones de *Salamandra salamandra*.

Las infecciones de *Bsal* en poblaciones de *Salamandra salamandra* de Europa causaron un rápido colapso en ellas, y la afinidad de este patógeno en infectar caudados pone en riesgo a especies en otras regiones del mundo ante su introducción. Este patógeno posee, además de las esporas móviles identificadas en *Bd*, esporas no motrices resistentes al medio ambiente que retienen su virulencia no sólo en agua y suelo, sino también en otros organismos que funcionan como dispersores y reservorios de infección (Stegen et al. 2017). La detección de *Bsal* en anfibios de comercio ha generado una alerta mundial ante su posible dispersión (Cunningham et al. 2015; Nguyen et al. 2017). Teniendo en cuenta los declives de anfibios ocasionados por *Bd* y el riesgo de introducción de *Bsal* en nuevas áreas, evitar la translocación de anfibios entre regiones es una de las piezas clave en la prevención de la disminución de los anfibios frente a las enfermedades emergentes. Países de Europa, Canadá y Estados Unidos ya poseen controles ante la entrada de caudados al país, específicamente para aquellos procedentes de Asia. En México aún no se ha tomado ninguna medida, existiendo un gran riesgo en su biodiversidad ante la entrada de este patógeno.

Conclusiones

Los avances en las técnicas de secuenciación de ADN han abierto una oportunidad para reconstruir la diversidad genética de *Batrachochytrium*. La evidencia de estudios de laboratorio sugiere que los aislados difieren en virulencia y fenotipos, con evidencia de que el linaje *BdGPL* puede ser más agresivo que los linajes endémicos. El uso de las técnicas moleculares para caracterizar la patogenicidad de *Bd* y encontrar posibles adaptaciones del patógeno desde una perspectiva filogenética podría ser utilizado para analizar las características epidemiológicas de los brotes, identificar los factores de virulencia, y diseñar diagnósticos y tratamientos en México. La caracterización genética de aislados de México y su ubicación dentro del contexto de cepas globales, ayudará a obtener un panorama evolutivo de *Bd* más completo. Además, el estudio de la genética de *Bd* en México ayudaría a comprender la dinámica y dispersión de la enfermedad entre los anfibios nativos y *Bd* en la región.

Existen dos áreas principales de investigación que deben abordarse para esclarecer la historia evolutiva y la trayectoria futura de *Bd* a nivel mundial: ampliación de la información genómica de *Bd* en nuevas áreas geográficas; e investigación de las interacciones entre los linajes en la naturaleza. Pocos estudios han examinado genotipos de *Bd* en regiones en las que no se han producido declives, creando así un sesgo en el conocimiento de la diversidad genética del patógeno y sugiriendo la posibilidad

Tabla 1. Linajes genéticos de aislados de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* de acuerdo a su región y hospedero de origen.

| Origen | Hospederos | Cautiverio | Fuente | No. aislados | Linaje |
|-----------|---|------------|---|--------------|--------------------------------|
| África | <i>Hadromophryne natalensi</i> , <i>Opisthothylax immaculatus</i> , <i>Amietia vertebralis</i> , <i>Amietia angolensis</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 17 | <i>BdCAPE</i> |
| África | <i>Amietia fuscigula</i> , <i>Xenopus laevis</i> , <i>Afrixalus enseticola</i> , <i>Leptopelis</i> sp., <i>Amietia vertebralis</i> , <i>Amietia angolensis</i> , <i>Sclerophry</i> sp. | No | James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); Rosenblum et al. (2013); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 31 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| África | <i>Xenopus laevis</i> , <i>Amietia fuscigula</i> | No | Schloegel et al. (2012) | 2 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| África | <i>Xenopus laevis</i> | Sí | Morgan et al. (2007); James et al. (2009) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| África | - | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 2 | Híbrido <i>BdGPL/BdCAPE</i> |
| Argentina | <i>Hypsiboas cordobae</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Australia | <i>Litoria lesueuri</i> , <i>Litoria caerulea</i> , <i>Nyctimystes dayi</i> , <i>Litoria booroolongensis</i> , <i>Litoria genimaculata</i> , <i>Litoria serrata</i> , <i>Litoria rheocola</i> , <i>Litoria ewingii</i> , <i>Crinia tasmaniensis</i> , <i>Litoria nannotis</i> , <i>Limnodynastes dumerilii</i> , <i>Mixophyes fasciolatus</i> , <i>Limnodynastes peronii</i> , <i>Litoria verreauxii</i> , <i>Limnodynastes</i> sp. | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); Rosenblum et al. (2013); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 38 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Australia | <i>Litoria caerulea</i> , <i>Litoria lesueuri</i> | Sí | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 2 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Australia | <i>Limnodynastes dumerilii</i> | Sí | Morehouse et al. (2003); Morgan et al. (2007); James et al. (2009); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Australia | <i>Litoria lesueuri</i> | No | Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |

| | | | | | |
|----------|---|----|--|----|----------------------------------|
| Brasil | <i>Hylodes meridionalis</i> , <i>Bokermannohyla hylax</i> , <i>Hylodes japi</i> | No | Schloegel et al. (2012); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 25 | <i>Bd-Brasil</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Hylodes cardosoi</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Hypsiboas faber</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 2 | <i>BdGPL 1</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Hylodes phyllodes</i> , <i>Scinax haytii</i> , <i>Hylodes meridionalis</i> , <i>Hypsiboas faber</i> , <i>Aplastodiscus</i> sp., <i>Bokermannohyla</i> sp., <i>Bokermannohyla hylax</i> , <i>Hylodes cardosoi</i> , <i>Crossodactylus schmidti</i> , <i>Hypsiboas albopunctatus</i> , <i>Phyllomedusa</i> sp., <i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> , <i>Scinax fuscovarius</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> , <i>Hypsiboas</i> sp. | No | Schloegel et al. (2012); Rosenblum et al. (2013); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 90 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | Sí | Schloegel et al. (2012); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 2 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Hylodes cardosoi</i> , <i>Bokermannohyla hylax</i> | No | Schloegel et al. (2012); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 3 | Híbrido <i>BdGPL/BdBrasil</i> |
| Brasil | <i>Hylodes cardosoi</i> , <i>Hylodes ornatus</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 2 | x |
| Bélgica | <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> , <i>Ichthyosaura alpestris</i> | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 6 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Canadá | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 4 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Canadá | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 1</i> |
| Chile | <i>Batrachyla antartandica</i> , <i>Xenopus laevis</i> , <i>Calyptcephalella gayi</i> | No | Valenzuela-Sánchez et al. (2017) | 3 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Colombia | <i>Rheobates palmatus</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Corea | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 4 | <i>BdAsia2</i> |

| Corea | <i>Bombina orientalis</i> | No | Bataille et al. (2013) | 3 | <i>BdAsia1</i> |
|----------------|--|----|--|-----|-----------------|
| España | <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> , <i>Pelophylax perezi</i> , <i>Alytes dickhilleni</i> , <i>Lissotriton helveticus</i> | No | James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 13 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| España | <i>Alytes muletensis</i> | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 2 | <i>BdCAPE</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | Sí | Schloegel et al. (2012); Rosenblum et al. (2013); Jenkinson et al. (2016) | 1 | <i>BdBrasil</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Rana clamitans</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> , <i>Rana muscosa</i> , <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> , <i>Hyla arenicolor</i> , <i>Rana pipiens</i> , <i>Rana yavapaiensis</i> , <i>Rana sierrae</i> , <i>Rana draytonii</i> | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); Morgan et al. (2007); James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 119 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Dendrobates auratus</i> , <i>Dyscophus guineti</i> , <i>Rana pipiens</i> | Sí | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009) | 3 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Dendrobates azureus</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | Sí | Morehouse et al. (2003); Morgan et al. (2007); James et al. (2009); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 3 | <i>BdGPL 1</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Rana yavapaiensis</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> , <i>Ambystoma tigrinum</i> , <i>Rana sylvatica</i> , <i>Rana pipiens</i> , <i>Rana muscosa</i> , <i>Hyliola regilla</i> , | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); Schloegel et al. (2012); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 14 | <i>BdGPL 1</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Xenopus tropicalis</i> , <i>Anaxyrus americanus</i> , <i>Rhaeboguttatus</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> , <i>Rana pipiens</i> | Sí | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 6 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Estados Unidos | <i>Anaxyrus boreas</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Schloegel et al. (2012); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 2 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Francia | <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> , <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 19 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Ghana | <i>Xenopus tropicalis</i> | Sí | Morehouse et al. (2003); Morgan et al. (2007) | 2 | <i>BdGPL</i> |

| | | | | | |
|-------------|---|----|---|----|----------------|
| Ghana | <i>Xenopus tropicalis</i> | Si | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Inglaterra | <i>Lissotriton vulgaris, Ichthyosaura alpestris, Epidalea calamita, Pelophylax ridibundus</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 9 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Japón | <i>Ceratophrys cranwelli</i> | No | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Mallorca | <i>Alytes muletensis</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011) | 2 | <i>BdCAPE</i> |
| México | <i>Dryophytes eximius</i> | Si | Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Montserrat | <i>Leptodactylus fallax</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Panamá | <i>Phyllomedusa lemur</i> | No | James et al. (2009); Farrer et al. (2011); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Panamá | <i>Eleutherodactylus podi-noblei, Rhaebo haematinicus, Cochranella euknemos, Eleutherodactylus talamancae, Colostethus inguinalis, Smilisca phaeota, Agalychnis lemur</i> | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); James et al. (2009); Rosenblum et al. (2013); O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 8 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Panamá | <i>Pristimantis caryophyllaceus, Smilisca phaeota</i> | No | Morehouse et al. (2003); Schloegel et al. (2012) | 2 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |
| Puerto Rico | <i>Eleutherodactylus coqui</i> | No | James et al. (2009); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Suiza | <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> | No | Farrer et al. (2011) | 1 | <i>BdCH</i> |
| Suiza | <i>Alytes obstetricans</i> | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 11 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Suecia | - | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 5 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Taiwan | - | No | O'Hanlon et al. (2018) | 10 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Venezuela | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | James et al. (2009); Rosenblum et al. (2013) | 1 | <i>BdGPL</i> |
| Venezuela | <i>Rana catesbeiana</i> | No | Schloegel et al. (2012) | 1 | <i>BdGPL 2</i> |

de descubrir otros linajes. Tener un buen muestreo geográfico es de gran importancia, ya que las regiones no muestreadas representan huecos donde el patógeno puede mantenerse en reservorios, guardando información importante que limite las estimaciones derivadas de los análisis genómicos. El enfoque debe realizarse no sólo en las partes del mundo menos estudiadas, sino también en otras especies de hospederos y ambientes. Los aislados no descubiertos podrían caer en posiciones clave en la filogenia de *Bd*, esclareciendo las asociaciones geográficas en puntos importantes en su historia evolutiva. Por otro lado, la presencia de linajes híbridos, abre aún más interrogantes sobre estos patógenos, siendo importante conocer cuándo y cómo los linajes interactuarán entre sí, y si estas interacciones afectarán en última instancia a la supervivencia del hospedero y la propagación del patógeno.

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ANEXO IV

Quitridiomicosis en México

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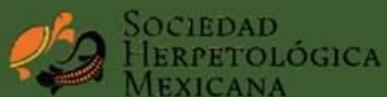
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Aldo López-Velázquez
María Delia Basanta
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en México**

Aldo López-Velázquez
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Imágenes de Portada: De izquierda a derecha y de arriba hacia abajo: 1. Frotis a una rana de la especie *Agalychnis moreletii* para la detección de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatisidis*. Foto de Aldo López Velázquez. 2. Conjunto de esporangios, uno de ellos con su papila de liberación de esporas. Foto de María Delia Basanta. 3. Micrografía de la piel de una *Notophthalmus viridescens* infectada por *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans*. Foto de Robert Ossiboff. 4. Salamandra *Notophthalmus viridescens* con lesiones por infección de *Batrachochytrium salamandivorans*. Foto de Ana V. Longo. 5. Mapa producido por un SDM de *Batrachochytrium dendrobatisidis*. Elaborado por Aldo López Velázquez.

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