

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Jenny Cecilia Urbina Gonzalez for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Environmental Science presented on August 4, 2017.

Title: Ontogenetic Shifts in Disease Response in Native and Invasive Anuran Species

Abstract approved:

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This dissertation presents a different approach to understanding how amphibians are responding to disease through ontogeny. Although numerous efforts have been conducted to understand host responses to the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd), studies have been restricted to distinct developmental stages. This dissertation provides information on host response to Bd across life history transitions in native and invasive anuran species. My dissertation is an effort to understand several aspects of the host-pathogen dynamic in the amphibian- chytrid system from embryos to hatchlings, larvae, and juveniles to reproductive adults. I investigate how previous exposure at early life stages (embryos) carries over to impact host response in later life stages. Then, I explore how the virulence of the pathogen varies according to its origin and how this modifies host response. Finally I explore variation across geographic ranges in size at first reproduction, a life history trait that influences invasion potential, in the American bullfrog (*Lithobates catesbeianus*).

Biodiversity loss threatens ecosystems worldwide and several factors, such as habitat transformation, overexploitation, and pollution contribute to this unprecedented crisis. Additional threats include emerging infectious diseases and the introduction of invasive species, both included as central topics of my dissertation research.

I experimentally examined if embryonic exposure of anuran species to the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) produces effects within the same stage. I exposed embryos of three anuran species found in the Willamette Valley, Oregon, to different strains of Bd at particular stages of embryonic development. I found that exposure to Bd resulted in direct effects on embryos; I found an increase in mortality after Bd exposure, and this response was conditioned by the host species, timing of exposure and Bd strain. I followed individuals through the hatching life history transition and into the larval stage. I detected both direct and latent effects of Bd exposure on the anuran larvae. Direct effects were observed in individuals exposed only as larvae, while latent effects were detected in individuals exposed only as embryos. Finally, repeated exposure to Bd as embryos and larvae resulted in species-specific mortality (Chapter 2).

Research on variation in host response to pathogens isolated from conspecifics in different distributional ranges is needed to understand how pathogen origin can mediate host response. Chapter 3 explores the susceptibility of wild-caught invasive American bullfrogs to different Bd strains isolated from conspecifics in different distributional ranges. I found larval bullfrogs were susceptible to a novel Bd strain despite it being isolated from conspecifics. The finding of lower infection loads over time suggests bullfrogs are potentially able to clear Bd infection, but this response seems to be strain-specific. In an era of emerging diseases and globalization, understanding the impacts of

novel strains provides information about the importance of evolutionary relationships between hosts and pathogens.

In chapter 4, I studied the next anuran life history transition: reproductive adults. I quantified variation in a key life history trait, size at first reproduction, which contributes to reproductive, and thus invasion, success. I used field sampling and laboratory analysis to determine the minimum reproductive size in an invasive anuran species, the American bullfrog, in the Willamette Valley. I found the minimum reproductive size of bullfrogs is similar to the reported values for bullfrogs in other invaded ranges yet smaller than sizes reported from their native range at similar latitudes. The results obtained by this research may be applied to management actions towards controlling and minimizing the impacts of this invasive species over local species of conservation concern.

Chapter 5 summarizes the findings and implications of the studies presented in this dissertation.

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Ontogenetic Shifts in Disease Response in Native and Invasive Anuran Species

by
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I understand that my dissertation will become part of the permanent collection of Oregon State University libraries. My signature below authorizes release of my dissertation to any reader upon request.

Jenny Cecilia Urbina Gonzalez, Author

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DEDICATION

In memory of my daddy Manuel Francisco Urbina Sierra

To my mom for her unconditional love, friendship and constant support

Ontogenetic Shifts in Disease Response in Native and Invasive Anuran Species

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Diseases play a major role in determining the life history, population dynamics and community structure (Jones et al. 2008). Disease results in complex interactions among hosts, pathogens and the environment (Plowright et al. 2008, Skerratt et al. 2009, Haislip et al. 2011). Therefore, understanding disease dynamics requires study across multiple taxonomic and hierarchical scales ranging from molecular biology to ecosystem level. The integration of ecology, immunology, epidemiology, pathology, invasion biology and conservation biology will enrich our understanding and management of disease dynamics that can have significant impacts on wild organisms. To advance our knowledge of disease, we must integrate these diverse scientific disciplines to design comprehensive and holistic studies (Plowright et al. 2008).

In recent years, the emergence of infectious diseases has caused global concern due to the link with species extinctions, population declines and developmental anomalies (Jones et al. 2008). Biodiversity losses have been documented globally across multiple taxonomic groups (Mooney 2010) and amphibians are recognized as a group of serious conservation concern (Stuart et al. 2004, Wake & Vredenburg 2008, Kilpatrick et al. 2010) with extinction rates estimated to exceed 105 times the baseline for all species (McCallum 2007). Amphibian population declines are often the result of multiple factors and are strongly impacted by habitat loss, the introduction of non-native species, and emerging infectious diseases (Kats & Ferrer 2003, Cushman 2006, Blaustein et al. 2011). Different types of pathogens affect amphibians in complex ways and can cause mortality or sublethal damage (Blaustein & Kiesecker 2002, Blaustein et al. 2012). Bacterial and viral diseases such as red leg syndrome and ranaviruses affect both wildlife and captive amphibian populations (Cunningham et al. 2003, Densmore & Green 2007). Mycotic and mycotic-like organisms are also implicated with amphibian diseases,

such as chytridiomycosis, zygomycoses, chromomycoses, saprolegniasis and ichthyophoniasis (Speare et al. 1994, Longcore et al. 1999, Taylor et al. 1999, Kiesecker et al. 2001, Juopperi et al. 2002, Densmore & Green 2007). Protozoan and metazoan parasites cause malformations, such as webbings, supernumerary digits and limbs, or missing limbs (Blaustein & Johnson 2003a, b, Johnson et al. 2003). However, only a fraction of these pathogens are implicated in the decline of multiple populations of amphibians (Daszak et al. 1999, Wake & Vredenburg 2008).

Emerging Infectious Diseases (EIDs) are those reported in new geographical ranges and host species, and whose incidence, pathogenicity and impact have increased recently (Daszak et al. 2003). *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) is the pathogen that causes chytridiomycosis, an emerging infectious disease of amphibians ((Berger et al. 1998, Daszak et al. 1999, Longcore et al. 1999). The geographical distribution of Bd is extensive: Bd is present on every continent except Antarctica (Fisher, Garner, et al. 2009). Bd has been reported in 516 amphibian species (Olson et al. 2013), and is associated with the extinction and decline of at least 200 species (Skerratt et al. 2007). Considering future scenarios of climate change, model project Bd will spread to new regions threatening additional amphibians populations (Xie et al. 2016). Virulence of Bd is associated with its dynamic genome (Farrer et al. 2017); multiple lineages have been described revealing the complexity of Bd's evolutionary history and significant diversity in lineage function (Rosenblum et al. 2013). So far, the global panzootic lineage emerging in the 20th century is recognized as producing the most aggressive strains (Farrer et al. 2011). Research on how hosts respond to different strains with different virulence must be done when considering the interaction among the host, Bd, and the environment.

The response of amphibians to Bd vary with species (Blaustein et al. 2005, Garner et al. 2006, Searle et al. 2011, Brannelly et al. 2012, Gervasi et al. 2017) and population (Briggs et al.

2005, Tobler & Schmidt 2010, Phillott et al. 2013, Bradley et al. 2015). Host response is also modified by factors such as environmental conditions (Schlaepfer et al. 2007), Bd strain (Berger et al. 2005, Fisher et al. 2009, Dang et al. 2017), host developmental stage (Garcia et al. 2006, Ortiz-Santaliestra et al. 2013, Bakar et al. 2016, Gervasi et al. 2017) and host immunity (Gervasi et al. 2014, McMahon et al. 2014, Bataille et al. 2015). Hosts can exhibit diverse responses to Bd infection which include reduced survivorship as well as indirect or sub-lethal impacts such as changes in host behavior (Han et al. 2011), activity (Kleinhenz et al. 2012), morphology (Venesky et al. 2010), and timing and size at metamorphosis (Parris & Beaudoin 2004, Parris & Cornelius 2004). These sub-lethal responses can have significant impacts on host fitness and disease dynamics within the ecosystem. As such, it is important to identify species- and stage-specific variables that influence the direct and indirect effects of Bd.

Host ontogeny and life stage are important factors when examining or predicting disease dynamics. Exposure to the pathogen during a particular developmental stage can drastically change host life history trajectories. Exposure of amphibian embryos to pathogens at early stages of development can trigger latent, or carry over development effects over ontogeny (Rohr et al. 2013). For example, exposure of amphibian egg masses to a pathogenic fungus (Order: Dothideales) and water molds (Order: Saprolegniales) resulted in earlier hatching in four different amphibian host species (Warkentin et al. 2001, Gomez- Mestre et al. 2006, Touchon et al. 2006). We currently lack information regarding latent effects of Bd exposure on development through ontogeny, as well as direct Bd impacts on embryos. Interestingly, amphibian embryos were not considered to be susceptible to the chytrid fungus. However, the Bd pathogen can produce enzymes that can destroy tissue, potentially impacting embryos by delaying or triggering key transitions such as hatching time (Rosenblum et al. 2010, McMahon et al. 2013,

Fites et al. 2013). This may result in ontogenetic shifts or changes in life history strategies.

Direct or latent effects may also vary with Bd strain and with host species, therefore evaluating different strains is critical to disentangle intrinsic aspects of the pathogen as virulence and how it changes among hosts.

The chapters included as part of this thesis are aimed to advance our understanding of the interaction host – pathogen in native and invasive amphibian species across life history transitions. My research is mainly empirically driven, but it also includes field sampling for sample collection and laboratory analysis. In this thesis, I examine the impact of exposure to different Bd strains on native and invasive amphibian species (Chapter 2). I exposed embryos and followed their development across the hatching life history transition (Gosner stage 26), describing patterns of susceptibility for *Pseudacris regilla*, *Anaxyrus boreas* and *Lithobates catesbeianus*. In my next chapter, using wild - caught metamorphs of *L. catesbeianus*, I evaluated susceptibility to different strains of Bd isolated from conspecifics (Chapter 3). This chapter examines different pathogenic strains and their differential effects on an invasive anuran species. In chapter 4, I focused on reproductive potential of *L. catesbeianus* in their invaded range. The results from this chapter may be useful for managers for understanding when an invasive species reaches its minimum reproductive size which can help management to make informed decisions for control. Finally, in the last chapter (5), I summarize my work in regards to future research efforts to better understand the dynamics of an emerging infectious disease (chytridiomycosis) in anuran hosts. This research represents a different approach to understanding how amphibians are responding to disease through ontogeny and provides novel information regarding disease ecology, particularly impacts of emerging infectious diseases in key life history stages.

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CHAPTER 2 - DIRECT AND LATENT EFFECTS OF PATHOGEN EXPOSURE ACROSS
NATIVE AND INVASIVE AMPHIBIAN LIFE STAGES

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Abstract

Emerging infectious diseases are one of the multiple factors contributing to the current biodiversity crisis. Amphibian populations are declining globally in part due to chytridiomycosis, an emerging infectious disease, caused by the fungal pathogen *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd). This fungus primarily affects keratinized structures in larval, juvenile, and adult amphibians. However, we know little about how Bd can impact early amphibian life history stages as well as potential latent effects of Bd exposure over ontogeny. We examined the effects of Bd exposure across Pacific chorus frog (*Pseudacris regilla*), Western toad (*Anaxyrus boreas*) and American bullfrog (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) life stages using two different Bd strains and multiple exposure times. Using a factorial experimental design, embryos of these three species were exposed to Bd at early or late embryonic stages, with some individuals re-exposed after hatching. Embryonic Bd exposure resulted in differential survival as a function of host species, Bd strain and timing of exposure. *P. regilla* experience embryonic mortality when exposed during later developmental stages to one of the Bd strains. There were no differences across the treatments in embryonic mortality of *A. boreas*. And embryonic mortality of *L. catesbeianus* occurred in all Bd exposure. We detected latent effects in *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* larvae, as the odds of larval mortality increased when individuals had been exposed to any of the Bd strains during the embryonic stage. We also detected direct effects on larval mortality in all three-anuran species as a function of Bd strain. And when individuals were repeatedly exposed (late in the embryonic stage and again as larvae), we found an increase in the odds of mortality. Our results suggest that exposure to Bd can directly affect embryo survival and have direct and latent effects on larvae survival of both native and invasive species. However, these impacts were highly context dependent, with timing of exposure and Bd strain influencing the severity of the effects.

Introduction

In many organisms, exposure to stressors during embryonic or prenatal stages can result in both direct and latent effects on subsequent developmental stages. These effects can be on individual growth rates, behavior, locomotion, immunology, etc. (Pechenik 2006, Uller et al. 2009, Murillo-Rincón et al. 2017, Sniegula et al. 2017). For example, exposure to predator cues in the pinewoods tree frog *Hyla femoralis* slowed larval growth and development, resulting in metamorphs with relatively smaller body sizes (LaFiandra & Babbitt 2004). In amphibians, repeated exposure at early life stages to other environmental stressors, such as contaminants, predator cues, and pathogens can produce latent effects in juvenile and adult amphibians (Pechenik 2006, Richter-Boix et al. 2014, Garcia et al. 2017). As such, the timing of pathogen exposure might play a critical role on host susceptibility to infection (Rumschlag & Boone 2015).

Changes in individual susceptibility to pathogens occur throughout ontogeny in many organisms, including plants (Develey-Rivière & Galiana 2007), insects (Brutscher et al. 2015), birds (Mast & Goddeeris 1999), reptiles (Holgersson et al. 2016), mammals (Valkenburg et al. 2012) and amphibians (Rohr et al. 2010, Echaubard et al. 2016). The key, however, to understanding temporal association between pathogens and susceptibility is to empirically discern latent and direct effects within and across life history stages. We posit that amphibians can be model systems for testing these questions as they are a taxon of conservation concern, have complex life histories, and are susceptible to multiple emerging infectious diseases.

One of the most researched amphibian pathogens is the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd), which has been implicated in the decline of numerous amphibian species

worldwide (Hatcher et al. 2012, Olson et al. 2013, Berger et al. 2016). Differential susceptibility to *Bd* has been documented across species (Blaustein et al. 2005, Searle et al. 2011, Gahl et al. 2012, Gervasi et al. 2013, Bielby et al. 2015, Gervasi et al. 2017), populations (Tobler & Schmidt 2010, Bradley et al. 2015), life stages (Briggs et al. 2005, Garner et al. 2009, Briggs et al. 2010, Piovio-Scott et al. 2011, Ortiz-Santaliestra et al. 2013) and *Bd* strains (Retallick & Miera 2007, Gervasi et al. 2013, Doddington et al. 2013, Piovio-Scott et al. 2015, Berger et al. 2016, Dang et al. 2017). However, how exposure to *Bd* in one developmental stage can produce latent effects in a later life stage is unclear. Information regarding direct *Bd* impacts on embryos is also lacking as *Bd* mainly affects keratinized structures, which are absent in embryos. Further, the importance of evolutionary relationships between *Bd* strain and the embryonic host may also have significant implications.

We explored the direct and latent effects of *Bd* exposure on both the embryonic and larval stages using three amphibian species with differential susceptibility to native and invasive *Bd* strains. We posit that amphibian embryos will be susceptible to the chytrid fungus as *Bd* can produce enzymes that can destroy tissue (Fites et al. 2013; McMahon et al. 2012; Rosenblum et al. 2010). Further, the release of fungal toxin (Blaustein et al. 2005, Voyles et al. 2009) could impact embryos by delaying or triggering key transitions resulting in ontogenetic shifts or latent effects on life history trajectories. Direct or latent effects may also vary with *Bd* strain and with host species, therefore evaluating different strains is critical to disentangle intrinsic aspects of the pathogen, such as virulence and how it changes among hosts. We also examined the influence of *Bd* exposure on larval survival predicting that repeated exposure to *Bd* across the embryonic/larval transition would result in decreased survival.

Methods

We studied three anuran species found in the US Pacific Northwest (PNW). The Pacific chorus frog (*Pseudacris regilla*) is a highly abundant species throughout its PNW range, the Western toad (*Anaxyrus boreas*) has experienced declines across much of its historic range and American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) are an introduced species in the PNW (Blaustein et al. 1995, Muths et al. 2003, Jones et al. 2005). Twenty clutches of *P. regilla* were collected from Little Three creeks on 19 June 2014 (44°06'03.5" N, 121°38'34.7" WGS84 Deschutes County, OR, elevation = 2000 meters) and 600 eggs of *A. boreas* were collected from 20 different egg masses at Todd Lake (44°01'44.5" N, 121°41'07.6" WGS84 Deschutes County, OR, elevation = 1870 meters) on 29 May 2015. We collected 600 newly laid eggs from six distinct *L. catesbeianus* egg masses from William L. Finley National Wildlife Refuge on 20 May 2014 (44°25'23.6" N, 123°18'41.8" WGS84 Benton County, OR, elevation = 276 meters). After collection, eggs were immediately transported to a climate controlled environment at Oregon State University and held under constant temperature (14 – 15.5 C) and photoperiod (12L: 12D) conditions. Less than six hours after arrival, every clutch of *P. regilla* or group of eggs of *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* were divided into three groups and each group for *P. regilla* and *A. boreas* contained ~10 eggs (± 1.95 eggs), and 20 eggs for *L. catesbeianus*.

Pre-Hatch Exposure Regime-

Bd exposure treatments were administered in either the early embryonic developmental stages or closer to hatching. Early exposure (early) corresponded to the late gastrula stages, or Gosner Developmental Stage 12 (Gosner 1960) while closer to hatching exposure (late)

corresponded to embryos capable of muscular response, or Gosner Developmental Stage 18 (Gosner 1960). Bd strains (i.e. the isolate of the fungus used for the inoculation) included a novel Bd strain to Oregon freshwater habitats (JEL 627, hereafter 'East', isolated from *L. catesbeianus* in Maine USA), and an endemic Bd strain (JEL 630, hereafter 'West', isolated from *L. catesbeianus* in Oregon). Following Searle et al. (2011), Bd was cultured on a sterile tryptone – agar media plates with 0.5 ml of stock Bd broth coming from each particular strain of the fungi. Bd cultures were allowed to grow for 5-8 days at 20 °C before used in the experiment. Using a hemocytometer, we quantified the zoospores from a pooled inoculation broth (8-12 plates per Bd strain). Five ml inoculations of the zoospore broth (30K zoospores/ml) were then administered to experimental units (18 cm H x 10 cm OD high - density polyethylene graduated beakers) containing 800 ml of dechlorinated water. A similar dose was previously tested in larvae of *P. regilla* (Gervasi et al. 2013), *A. boreas* (Marcum et al. 2010, Gervasi et al. 2013, Searle et al. 2014), and *L. catesbeianus* (Gahl et al. 2012, Eskew et al. 2015). Controls were inoculated with a sham inoculum created by rinsing the same number of sterile agar plates with 5 ml of dechlorinated water.

Using a factorial experimental design, each group of eggs was assigned to a time of exposure treatment (Early, Late) and a Bd strain treatment (West, East, Control) (Figure 2.1: pre-hatching). 60 experimental units (581 total eggs) were assigned for *P. regilla* (10 replicates per Early and Late treatment groups), 51 experimental units (506 total eggs) for *A. boreas* (8 replicates per Early exposure treatment, 9 replicates per Late exposure treatment), and 30 experimental units (600 total eggs) for *L. catesbeianus* (5 replicates per Early treatment groups, 6 replicates per East/Late treatment, and 4 replicates for West/Late exposure treatment) (Table

Table 2.1). The length of the pre-hatching phase varied by species, lasting 19 days for *P. regilla* and *A. boreas*, and 22 days for *L. catesbeianus*. Embryos that died were preserved individually in 2.0 ml Eppendorf tubes with 95 % ethanol. No water changes were performed during the pre-hatching phase as movement associated with water changes can induce hatching, thus influencing our results. Upon hatching, water changes were conducted weekly. We quantified the time of hatching by direct observation, and hatchling events and survival were recorded twice per day.

To analyze differences in hatching time, we compared proportions between treatments of eggs being exposed to Bd and control treatments (no exposure to the pathogen) using quasibinomial generalized linear models (GLM). All analyses were run in R (R Core Team 2016). To evaluate differences among strains and controls we calculated pairwise comparison using a Tukey HSD test.

Post-Hatch Exposure Regime

Upon hatching, survivors were pooled within pre-hatch treatment groups (Early or Late; East, West, Control) to standardize sample sizes for the post-hatch phase of the experiment. In this phase, larvae were either re-exposed to the same pre-hatch Bd strain or held as controls to estimate latent effects (Figure 2.1: Post-Hatch). For *P. regilla*, there were a total of 328 surviving hatchlings distributed across the larval exposure treatments for a total of 82 experimental units, resulting in 33 control replicates, 21 East strain replicates, and 28 West strain replicates. We reported complete mortality in the East/Late pre-hatch exposure treatment group; as such, there was no continuation of this treatment in the post-hatch phase. For *A. boreas*, we ran 42 control replicates, 28 East strain replicates, and 26 West strain that contained a total of 384 surviving

hatchlings for a total of 96 experimental units. For *L. catesbeianus*, we ran 23 control replicates, 17 East strain replicates, and 16 West strain using a total of 228 surviving hatchlings with a total of 56 experimental units. Due to complete mortality in the East/Early and the West/Early pre-hatch phase, these treatments were not continued in the post-hatch phase (Table 2.2).

Larvae were held individually and those that were re-exposed to Bd were re-inoculated once a week (every 7 d) for the duration of the experiment. Individuals were held in rectangular plastic containers (31 x 18 x 8 cm) filled with 2000 ml dechlorinated water. Water changes occurred concurrently with re-inoculation using 5ml of 50K zoospores/ml. Animals that died during the experiment were preserved in 95% ethanol. At the end of the experiment, animals remaining alive were humanely euthanized in accordance with institutional animal care protocol in MS-222 (Tricaine methanesulfonate) and then preserved in 95% ethanol. The experimental trials for each species lasted until individuals reached Gosner stage 30-31 (distinctive foot paddle) or death. Total duration for the experiment was 65 days for *P. regilla*, 59 days for *A. boreas* and 19 days for *L. catesbeianus*.

We monitored survival twice per day and quantified developmental differences through time by staging all larvae (Gosner stage) every week during water changes. At the end of the post-hatch phase, we sampled a subset of all Bd-exposed animals of each species and also randomly sampled 5 control animals of each species to confirm no contamination happened across treatments. To assess infection load at the termination of the experiment, we dissected larvae mouthparts for *P. regilla* individuals, and we swabbed mouthparts using fine tipped sterile rayon swabs (Medical Wire and Equipment MW&E 113) for *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus*. Both protocols, swabbing and cutting mouthparts, are recommended as adequate protocols for

assessing infection loads. Excised mouthparts and swabbing are similar in the likelihood of detecting Bd infection regardless of developmental stage and larval size (Retallick et al. 2006, Hyatt et al. 2007).

Each sample was analyzed using quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) following the methods of (Boyle et al. 2004). A small modification of the amount of Prepman Ultra (Applied Biosystems®, Life Technologies) was used to extract the DNA; we used 60 μ L instead of 40 μ L (Searle et al. 2013). Our extractions were diluted 1:10 and each sample was analyzed in triplicate to quantify the average number of genome equivalents per animal (7500 real-time PCR Applied Biosystems instrument). To analyze infection loads, we log transformed the qPCR results as $\log(\text{genome equivalents per individual} + 1)$ to normalize data.

Effect of exposure on survivorship was analyzed independently by species using odds ratios calculated with a generalized linear mixed model, family: binomial (logit). The values of the ratios represent the likelihood or the risk of mortality due to exposure to the pathogen in comparison to the controls. Therefore, odds ratios higher than 1 represent an increased risk after exposure, odds ratios equal to one represent no difference in the risk, and odds ratios lower than 1 represent a lower risk of the exposed group. All analyses were run in R (version 3.3.2).

Results

Pre-Hatching Phase:

Pseudacris regilla embryos exposed to both the East and West Bd strains in the Early exposure groups had a lower proportion of hatchlings relative to controls (East strain: $t = -4.40$, $p < 0.001$;

West strain: $t=1.99$, $p=0.04$). A post hoc Tukey test showed that this proportion was different in embryos exposed to the East strain in contrast to the control ($z = -4.45$, $p<0.001$) and the West strain ($z = 6.14$, $p<0.001$), with only a 50% hatching rate. Reduced hatching was also found in the Late/East treatment group ($t=- 11.03$, $p<0.001$) relative to the Late/West treatment ($t=- 1.29$, $p= 0.19$). In fact, less than 10% of embryos hatched after being exposed late in development to the non-native East strain (Figure 2.2, top). In *A. boreas*, the proportion of embryos that hatched was similar across both strains in comparison to controls across the Early (East strain: $t= -0.49$, $p= 0.62$; West strain: $t=0.62$, $p=0.53$) and Late exposure treatments (East strain: $t= 1.31$, $p=0. 19$; West strain: $t=0.73$, $p=0. 46$) (Figure 2.2, middle). The proportion of *L. catesbeianus* embryos that hatched was low when embryos were exposed early in development, with lower survival in the West Bd strain treatment relative to controls (West strain: $t=3.58$, $p<0.001$). There were no survivors in the East strain exposure treatment. The estimate of Bd strain as factor in our model was high (5329), potentially due to the 100% mortality, making the t and p - value not significant ($t= 0.003$, $p = 0.99$). The proportion of embryos that hatched in the Late exposure treatment was lower across both Bd strains in comparison to the controls (East strain: $t= 2.89$, $p <0.01$; West strain: $t= 2.13$, $p=0.03$) (Figure 2.2, bottom). A post hoc Tukey test showed that this proportion was different in embryos exposed to the East strain in contrast to the control ($z = 2.89$, $p<0.01$), but it was not different for embryos exposed to the West strain ($z = 2.13$, $p= 0.08$)

Post-Hatching Phase

Our generalized linear mixed model quantified as odds ratios (OR) the effects of exposure to a particular strain on larvae mortality in comparison to the controls given their history of exposure as embryos. As such, results are reported as an increase or decrease in odds of mortality.

Direct effects on larvae –only exposed to Bd as larvae (Control-Bd)

We found evidence for direct effects of Bd exposure on larval mortality for the three species. In *P. regilla*, post -hatching exposure to the East strain increased the odds of mortality (OR_{Early/Control- East} 8.88, $p = 0.01$, CI: 1.43- 54.85) (Figure 2.3 Left panel). For *A. boreas*, we found that individuals exposed during the post-hatch phase to the West strain had lower odds of mortality relative to controls (OR_{Early/Control- West} 0.12, $p = 0.03$, CI: 0.018 – 0.84, Figure 2.4 Left panel). In contrast, larvae coming from the Late control group and exposed post-hatch to East or West had higher odds of mortality than controls (OR_{Late/Control - East} 14.38, $p = 0.03$, CI: 1.19 - 173.65; OR_{Late /Control -West} 19.56, $p=0.03$, CI: 1.32- 288 (Figure 2.4 Right panel). Larvae of *L catesbeianus* increased their odds of mortality when exposed to either East or West strain (OR_{East} 9.9, $p=0.04$, CI: 1.06 – 92; OR_{West} 539, $p < 0.001$, CI: 29.64 – 9801).

Latent Effects on larvae –only exposed to Bd as embryos (Bd-Control)

We did not find evidence for latent effects in *P. regilla*. In *A. boreas* odds of mortality changed according to the time of exposure and Bd strain. Odds of mortality for larvae decreased when embryos were exposed early in development to the West strain of Bd (OR_{Early/ West – control} 0.14, $p = 0.02$, CI: 0.026 - 0.73, Figure 2.4, left panel). On the contrary, individuals exposed Late as embryos to the East strain had higher odds of mortality than controls (OR_{Late/ East – control} 10.62, $p = 0.04$, CI: 1.07-105, Figure 2.4 right panel). In *L catesbeianus*, we found higher odds of

mortality than controls for both Bd strains (OR_{Late/ East – control} 31, $p = 0.001$, CI: 3.5- 272, OR_{Late/ West control} 23.21, $p = 0.006$, CI: 2.42 – 222.14, Figure 2.5).

Repeatedly Exposed treatments- exposed to Bd as both embryos and larvae (Bd-Bd)

We found evidence that exposure to Bd in both the embryonic and larval stages affects the larval odds of mortality in all three species. We found in *P. regilla* that re- exposure to the West strain, (Late treatment group) increased the odds of mortality (OR_{Late/West–West} 8.05, $p = 0.04$, CI 1.01- 64.22, Figure 2.3). In *A. boreas* odds of mortality increased in re- exposed individuals to both the East and West strains (Late treatment groups) (OR_{Late/East - East} 9.37, $p = 0.05$, CI: 0.92 – 95; OR_{Late/West -West} 9.12, $p = 0.05$, CI: 0.91 – 91.32). In *L. catesbeianus*, odds of mortality were high for re-exposed animals to either Bd strain (OR_{East Late - East} 58.3 $p = 0.0003$, CI: 6.35 – 534.6, OR_{West Late-West} 101.29, $p < 0.001$, CI: 8.9 – 1145).

Infection loads

Real-time qPCR analyses of tadpole mouthparts for *P. regilla* and swabs for *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* confirmed Bd infection in all species but not in all treatments. All tadpoles subsampled from control treatments were negative for Bd. Mean infection load did not differ by treatment and history of exposure across all species. We found infection loads from *P. regilla* when exposed to both strains at Early or Late treatment groups in the direct effect and the repeatedly exposure treatments (Table 2.3). In *A. boreas* infection loads were positive when individuals were exposed Early or Late to the East strain in the direct effect treatment and in individuals from the Early treatment group repeatedly exposed to the West strain (Table 2.3). Infection loads for *L. catesbeianus* were positive for individuals exposed in the Late treatment

group. Positive results for this species were detected after exposure to the East strain in the direct effect treatment and for both strains in the latent effect treatment (Table 2.3).

Discussion

Life stage, time of exposure, and Bd strain influenced susceptibility to Bd in the embryo - larvae life history transition for three anuran species: *P. regilla*, *A. boreas*, and *L. catesbeianus*. We detected direct effects of Bd on embryonic and larval mortality, latent effects across the embryo/larval transition, and additive effects when repeatedly-exposed to Bd across both life stages. Exposure of embryos to Bd resulted in direct impacts on hatchling survivorship. We found direct, negative impacts of Bd strain and time of exposure on embryonic survival and proportion of hatching success for *P. regilla* and *L. catesbeianus*. Embryos of *P. regilla* were drastically affected by the non-native East Bd strain, resulting in 90% mortality when exposed later in embryonic development. Interestingly, embryos of invasive *L. catesbeianus* died when exposed to either Bd strain (East or West). When exposed early in embryonic development to the East strain, the number of viable hatchlings was zero and we detected a mortality of 90% in hatchlings after early exposure to the West Bd strain. When exposed later in development (East or West strains), only 50% of embryos hatched.

Post-hatching exposure resulted in both direct and latent impacts on larval survivorship. Direct effects on larvae are reported mainly as an increased in the odds of mortality for all three-anuran species. *P. regilla* was negatively affected by exposure to the non-native East Bd strain, while *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* were affected by both strains (East and West). Odds of mortality in *A. boreas* were higher when exposed to the West strain (19.56) than when exposed to the East strain (14.38). On the contrary, the odds of mortality in *L. catesbeianus* were higher

when exposed to the East strain (9.9) than when exposed to the West strain (5.39). This result was not wholly unexpected as larval mortality has been reported in experimental studies exposing these same species to Bd. *A. boreas* has been particularly susceptible to Bd (Blaustein et al. 2005, Dang et al. 2017) while *P. regilla* and *L. catesbeianus* larvae have relatively high survivorship (Blaustein et al. 2005, Reeder et al. 2012, Gervasi et al. 2013, Dang et al. 2017). In this study, we found a direct effect of Bd on larval survivorship for all three species. The increase in the odds of mortality in *P. regilla* and *L. catesbeianus* larvae can be explained by the origin and characteristics of the East strain. Isolated from *L. catesbeianus* in Maine (USA), this strain has been identified as hypervirulent (Farrer et al. 2011, Schloegel et al. 2012, Rosenblum et al. 2013) and categorized as part of the North American clade in the Global Pandemic Lineage (GPL) (Schloegel et al. 2012). As such, we anticipated an increase in larval mortality due to a lack of evolutionary relationship with this strain. However, *L. catesbeianus* larvae were also susceptible to the East strain even though it was isolated from their conspecifics within their native range.

In terms of latent effects, we found an increase in the odds of larval mortality of both *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* as a function of Bd strain and timing of embryonic exposure. In *A. boreas*, embryos exposed early to the West strain showed a decrease in the odds of mortality. Conversely, when *A. boreas* were exposed to the East strain late in embryonic development, larvae were almost 10 times more likely to die than control individuals. There was a similar increase in the odds of larval mortality in *L. catesbeianus* when exposed as embryos to any of the Bd strains. The high mortality rates in *L. catesbeianus* when exposed early to Bd prevented us from understanding potential latent effects for this invasive species. Similarly, we could not evaluate potential latent effects after late exposure of *P. regilla* embryos to the East strain. Our

results support the hypothesis that timing of pathogen exposure is a major factor that influences host survivorship.

We also found effects of repeatedly Bd exposure (exposed in both the embryonic and larval stages) in all three-anuran species. All species showed an increase in the odds of larval mortality when the first Bd exposure occurred at a later embryonic developmental stage (Gosner stage 18). In *P. regilla*, odds of mortality increased after repeated exposure to the West strain. *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* increased the odds of mortality when exposed to both strains (East or West). Repeated exposure effects have been reported in experiments examining the larval/metamorph transition (Goater 1994, LaFiandra & Babbitt 2004, Kelehear et al. 2009, Saka et al. 2013), thus our experiment provides additional information concerning other life history transitions.

The differential response of *A. boreas* to Early/Late and East/West Bd treatments may be explained by the presence of a potential critical window of vulnerability for this species and by the virulence of Bd strain. Late exposure of *A. boreas* embryos to the East strain increased the odds of larval mortality of this species. Fernandez-Beneitez et al. (2011) found that embryos of natterjack toad (*Bufo calamita*) and Western spadefoot toad (*Pelobates cultripes*) exposed to *Saprolegnia* spp. at early developmental stage (Gosner stage 12) suffered no increase in mortality, while embryos challenged at later stages of embryonic development Gosner staged 15 and 19 were sensitive to the pathogen with mortality rates up to 90%. Understanding which species experience latent effects will help target management efforts by identifying how exposure in particular life history stages can change host response.

Our findings complement the information on susceptibility of *P. regilla* to Bd as larvae of this species had previously been reported to be tolerant to certain Bd strains (Blaustein et al.

2005, Dang et al. 2017). Interestingly, we found that this tolerance can change with an individual's previous exposure regime to non-native strains. Our experimental evaluation revealed that Bd strains isolated from an invasive species can have harmful consequences on native and even invasive conspecific hosts. Our findings for *A. boreas* support previous work showing species as being susceptible to both the East and West strains of Bd (Blaustein et al. 2005, Gervasi et al. 2013, Dang et al. 2017). In *L. catesbeianus*, larvae and adults have been reported as able to withstand infection loads of the chytrid in different regions (Hanselmann et al. 2004) and this species is suggested as an asymptomatic carrier or reservoir of Bd (Daszak et al. 2004, Garner et al. 2006). Our results indicate that larvae can also be susceptible to Bd but this response will be mediated by previous exposure in an early life stage. Individuals that received exposure as embryos and then were re-exposed as larvae to the chytrid were about 50 times more likely to die than individuals kept as controls. This contrasts with previous experimental studies reporting this species as a carrier of Bd (Blaustein et al. 2005, Gahl et al. 2012, Eskew et al. 2015). Generally, those studies directly exposed individuals in the larval stage (Gosner stage 26-30) without considering previous exposure regimes. In our study, *L. catesbeianus* were vulnerable to Bd exposure in response to direct exposure and across life history transitions.

We found species-specific embryonic mortality after exposure to Bd. Many pathogens impact anuran embryos, including ranavirus (Haislip et al. 2011), oomycetes (Kiesecker & Blaustein 1995, Fernández-Benítez et al. 2008), filamentous ascomycetes (Warkentin et al. 2001) and microsporidia (Green & Converse 2005). But few studies have quantified direct effects of Bd on anuran embryos. Bd enzymatic action is one mechanism that could explain this result, as it can cause damage in skin tissue of hosts after exposure (Blaustein et al. 2005, Symonds et al. 2008, Moss et al. 2010, McMahon et al. 2013). A complex mix of proteolytic and

hydrolyze enzymes (esterases) that degrade amphibian tissue have been described from different Bd isolates (Symonds et al. 2008, Moss et al. 2010, Brutyn et al. 2012). In addition, many hatching anurans release enzymes to assist with degradation of the egg capsule at the moment of hatching (Carroll & Hedrick 1974, Cohen et al. 2016); this could potentially facilitate the enzymatic action of Bd to degrade tissues. Recently, dose - dependent mortality and proliferation in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) tissue was reported with toxins secreted after the establishment of Bd sporangia (Liew et al. 2017).

The present study offers useful information about the complexity of host response to a pathogen, particularly with multiple exposures across life stages. Our study provides information about direct effects of Bd on anuran embryos, with significant impacts on mortality and the proportion of hatching success. Our results also quantified latent effects of Bd exposure over ontogeny (Hamdoun & Epel 2007). Despite being a relatively brief period, exposure to Bd in the egg led to increased mortality after hatching. Species-specific differences were due to the timing of embryonic exposure and re-exposure in the larval stage. Additional research exploring the mechanisms protecting the embryos is needed to better understand the susceptibility of this developmental stage to disease. Characteristics such as jelly thickness and composition, or size of the capsule, can be involved in resistance to chytrid. As eggs received material from their parents during oviposition, evaluating the role of parents in the immune response of their offspring can help us to understand more about embryonic immunity. Further studies are also required to better understand how variation in other environmental and biological parameters can affect the outcome of repeated Bd exposure in anuran species. Our results add information to the growing body of evidence concerning differential susceptibility to pathogens among amphibian species and across life stages.

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Table**Table 2.1** Number of replicates per treatment per species followed by total number of eggs per treatment between parentheses

Host species	Pre-hatch exposure regime					
	Bd strain x Time exposure treatments					
	Control		East		West	
	Early	Late	Early	Late	Early	Late
<i>Pseudacris regilla</i>	10 (101)	10(96)	10(97)	10(94)	10(98)	10(95)
<i>Anaxyrus boreas</i>	8(80)	9(85)	8(84)	9(86)	8(84)	9(87)
<i>Lithobates catesbeianus</i>	5(100)	5(100)	5(100)	6(120)	5(100)	4(80)

Table 2.2 Number of replicated groups exposed in the different treatments per species as larvae. In parentheses, total number of individuals per treatment including all replicates; (-) no treatment

		Pre-hatching treatments					
		Bd strain x Time					
<i>Pseudacris regilla</i>		Control		East		West	
		Early	Late	Early	Late	Early	Late
Post -hatch Bd treatment	Control	8 (32)	7 (28)	5 (20)	0 (0)	7 (28)	6 (24)
	East	8 (32)	7 (28)	6 (24)	0 (0)	-	-
	West	8 (32)	7 (28)	-	-	7 (28)	6 (24)

		Pre -hatching treatments					
		Bd strain x Time					
<i>Anaxyrus boreas</i>		Control		East		West	
		Early	Late	Early	Late	Early	Late
Post -hatch Bd treatment	Control	5 (20)	3 (12)	8 (32)	8 (32)	9 (36)	9 (36)
	East	6 (24)	5 (20)	9 (36)	8 (32)	-	-
	West	5 (20)	4 (16)	-	-	9 (36)	8 (32)

		Pre-hatching treatments					
		Bd strain x Time					
<i>Lithobates catesbeianus</i>		Control		East		West	
		Early	Late	Early	Late	Early	Late
Post -hatch Bd treatment	Control	6 (24)	6 (24)	0 (0)	7 (28)	0 (0)	4 (16)
	East	5 (20)	5 (20)	0 (0)	7 (28)	-	-
	West	6 (24)	6 (24)	-	-	0 (0)	4 (16)

Table 2.3 Mean Bd loads (genome equivalents \pm SD) at the end of experiment for *P. regilla*, *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* exposed early during embryonic development (top panel) and Bd loads for the same species exposed late during embryonic development (bottom panel). Star * indicates treatments with significant effects in the odds of mortality of larvae. NA indicates treatments without samples due to mortality in the pre-hatching exposure part.

Species	EARLY		Direct effects		Latent effects		Twofold effects	
	<u>CONTROL</u>		<u>CONTROL</u>		<u>EAST</u>	<u>WEST</u>	<u>EAST</u>	<u>WEST</u>
	Control	East	East	West	Control		East	West
<i>P. regilla</i>	0	1.25* \pm 1.009	1.86 \pm 1.24	0	0	0	0.005 \pm 0.009	1.45 \pm 1.77
<i>A. boreas</i>	0	0.008 \pm 0.008	0*	0	0*	0	0	0.012 \pm 0.02
<i>L. catesbeianus</i>	0	0	0*	0*	NA	NA	NA	NA

Species	LATE		Direct effects		Latent effects		Twofold effects	
	<u>CONTROL</u>		<u>CONTROL</u>		<u>EAST</u>	<u>WEST</u>	<u>EAST</u>	<u>WEST</u>
	Control	East	East	West	Control		East	West
<i>P. regilla</i>	0	0.74 \pm 1.24	3.39 \pm 1.05	NA	0	0	NA	1.62* \pm 1.17
<i>A. boreas</i>	0	0.019* \pm 0.01	0*	0.00016* \pm 0.0003	0	0	0.005* \pm 0.006	0
<i>L. catesbeianus</i>	0	0.53* \pm 0.62	0	0.03** \pm 0.05	0.59** \pm 0.76	0	0	0

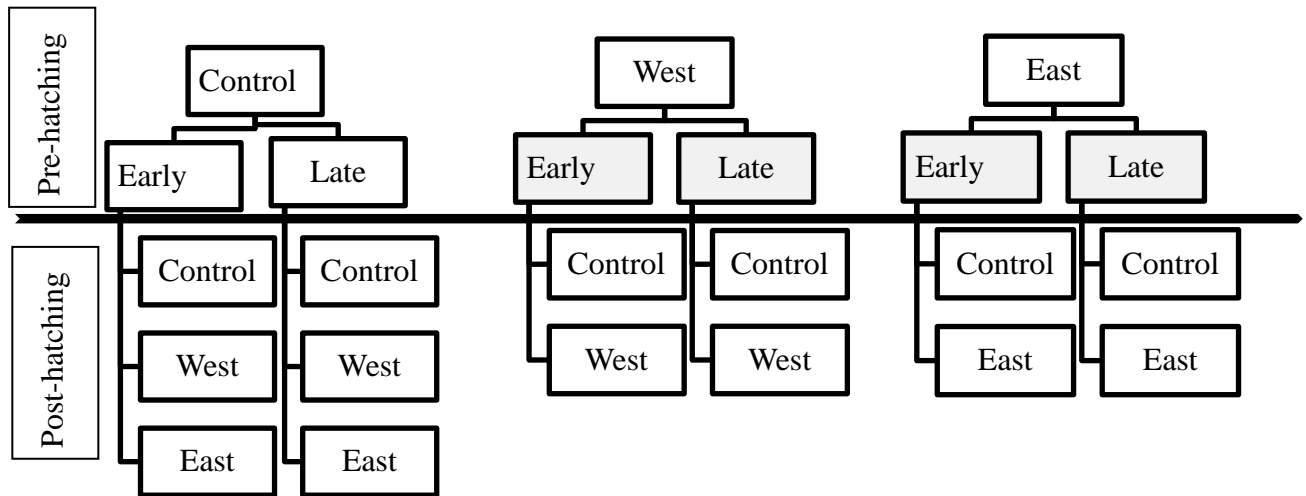


Figure 2.1 Exposure treatments of egg masses and tadpoles according to the time of exposure and chytrid strain. Pre-hatching treatments are indicated in gray and above the separation line. Treatments for tadpoles (Post-hatching) are listed below the separation line

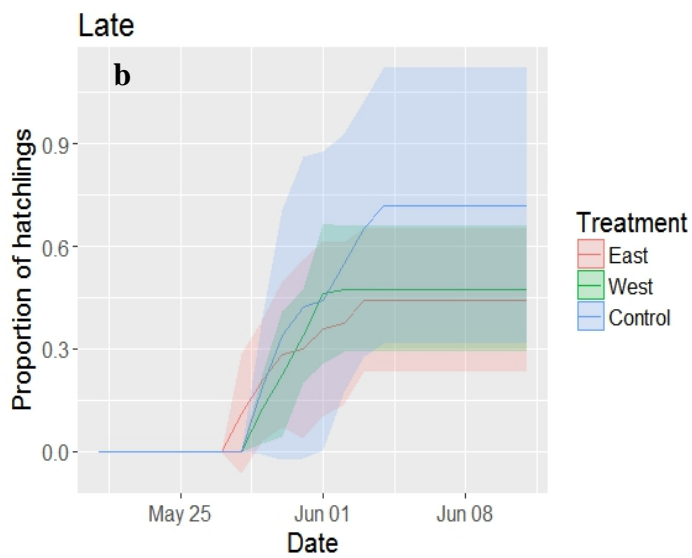
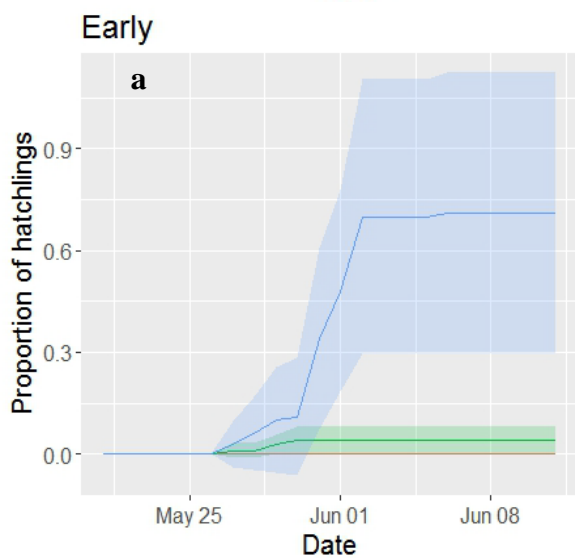
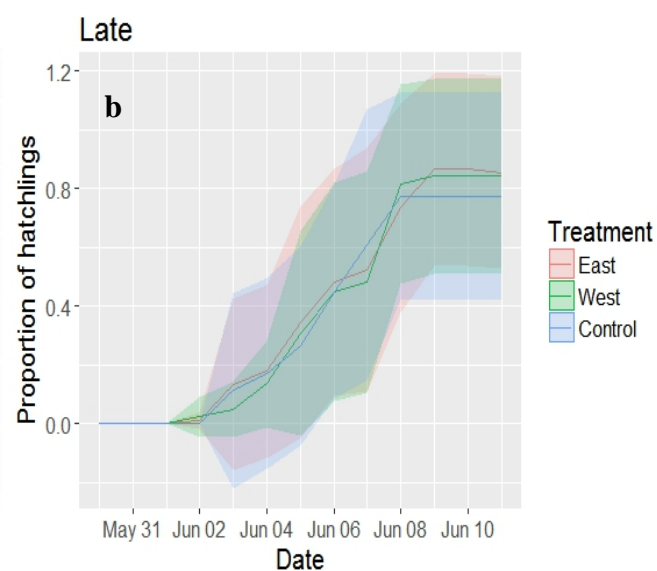
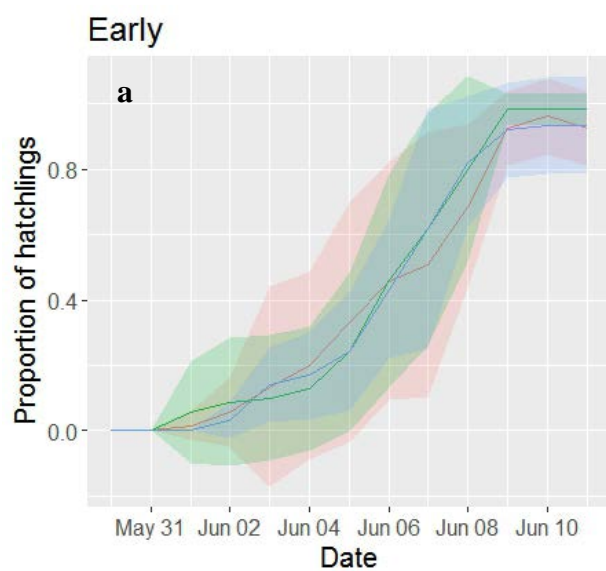
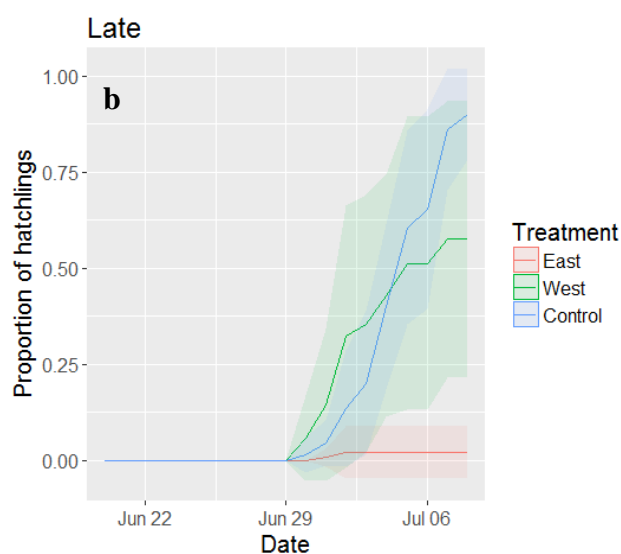
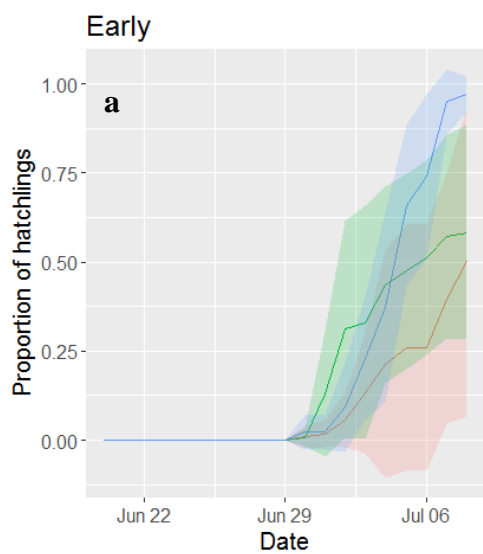


Figure 2.2 Proportion of hatchlings in *P. regilla* (top), *A. boreas* (middle), and *L. catesbeianus* (bottom) after exposure of eggs to different chytrid treatments. Red color represents exposure to the East strain, green color represents exposure to the West strain, and controls are indicated by the blue color. a) Treatments exposed early in development (Gosner stage 12) and b) Treatments exposed late in development (Gosner state 18)

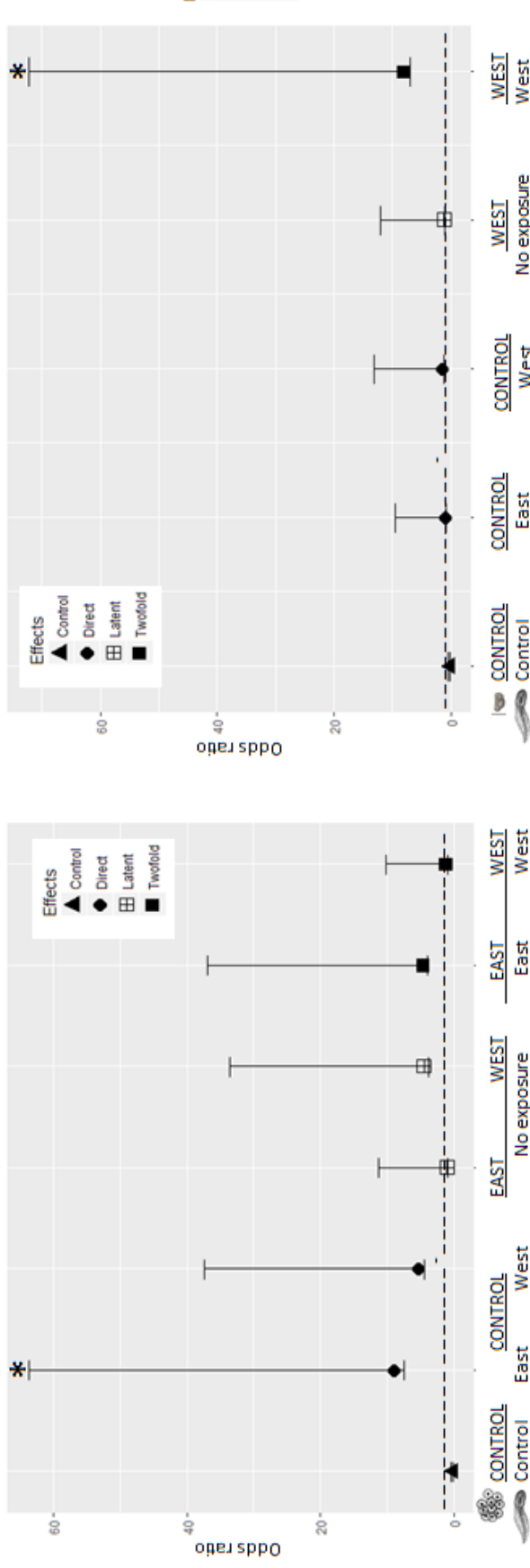


Figure 2.3 Odds ratio (OR) for *P. regilla* tadpoles according to their original exposure as embryos and their subsequent exposure as larvae. Left panel: early exposure, right panel: late exposure. Label of x-axis includes a fraction that indicates in the numerator the exposure regime as embryo and in the denominator exposure regime post-hatching. A dashed line indicates value 1. $OR > 1$ higher risk after exposure, $OR = 1$ no risk difference, $OR < 1$ lower risk after exposure. A star (*) indicates treatments with significant odds ratios

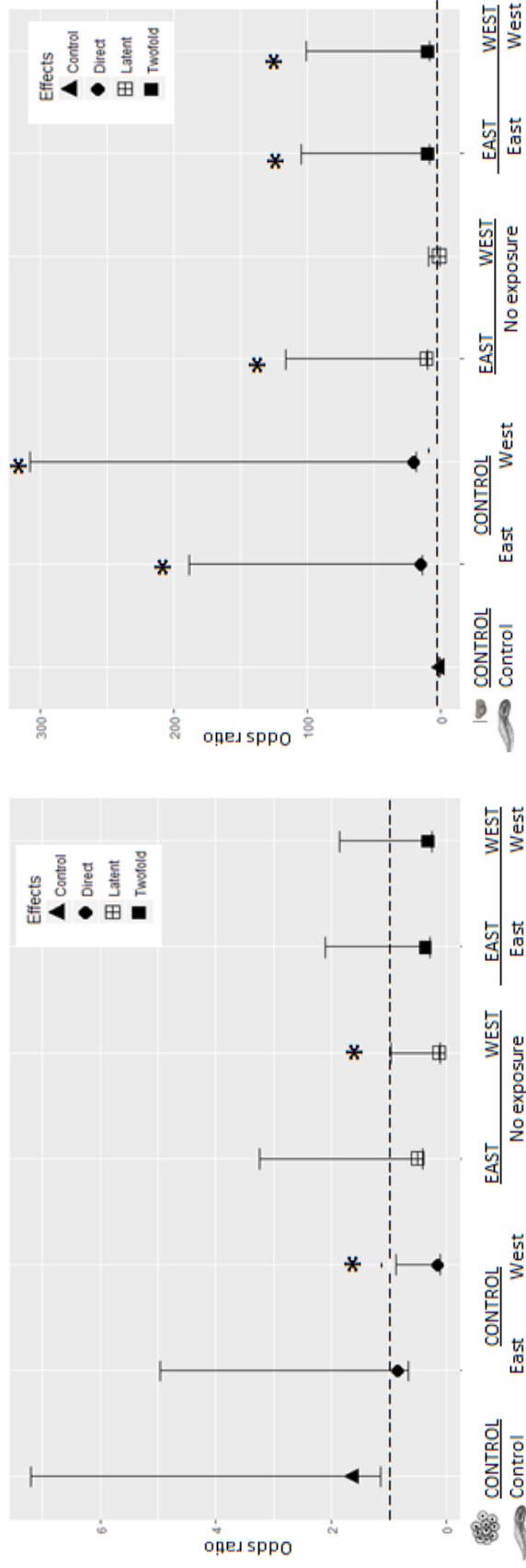


Figure 2.4 Odds ratio (OR) for *A. boreas* tadpoles according to their original exposure as embryos and their subsequent exposure as larvae. Left panel: early exposure, right panel: late exposure. Label of x-axis indicates a fraction that indicates in the numerator the exposure regime as embryo and in the denominator exposure regime post-hatching. A dashed line indicates value 1. $OR > 1$ higher risk after exposure, $OR = 1$ no risk difference, $OR < 1$ lower risk after exposure. A star (*) indicates treatments with significant odds ratios

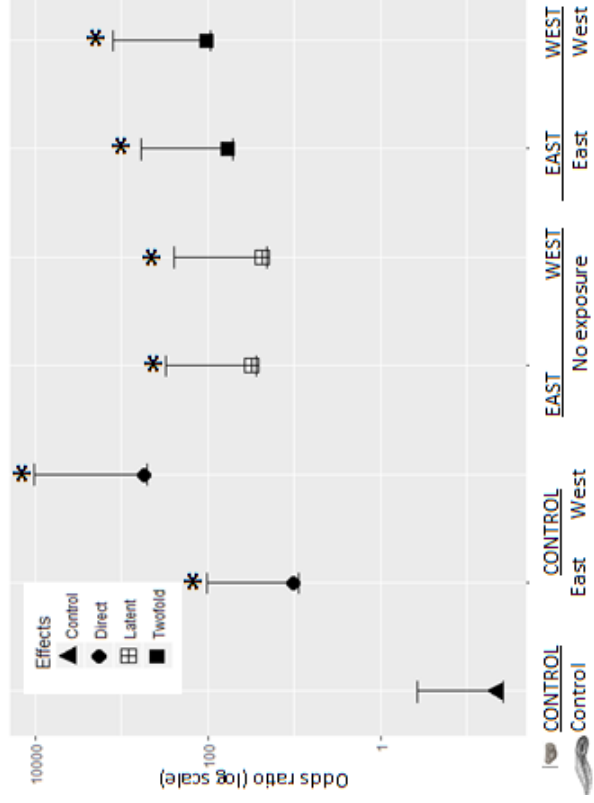


Figure 2.5 Odds ratio (OR) for *L. catesbeianus* tadpoles according to their original exposure as embryos and their subsequent exposure as larvae. Only one panel showing results of late exposure as embryos exposed early died. Label of x-axis includes a fraction that indicates in the numerator the exposure regime as embryo and in the denominator exposure regime post-hatching. A star (*) indicates treatments with significant odds ratios

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CHAPTER 3 - HOST-PATHOGEN DYNAMICS AMONG THE INVASIVE
AMERICAN BULLFROG (*LITHOBATES CATESBEIANUS*) AND CHYTRID FUNGUS
(*BATRACHOCHYTRIUM DENDROBATIDIS*)

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Abstract

The combination of introduced host species and emerging pathogens can result in unanticipated disease dynamics and novel host-pathogen interactions. The American bullfrog (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) is a successful invasive amphibian in the western U.S. that can act as a host to the emerging fungal pathogen, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) that has been implicated in the decline of amphibian populations worldwide. However, how host-pathogen interactions vary across populations and strains is relatively unknown. We experimentally examined if wild caught invasive bullfrogs were differentially susceptible to two regionally distinct isolates of Bd. Newly metamorphosed bullfrog individuals were exposed to either a Bd strain originally isolated from bullfrogs in their endemic range or a strain from the invaded range in the western USA. Juvenile bullfrogs were collected from a breeding site in the western U.S. where the western US strain of Bd is also found. We quantified initial infection load of bullfrogs and compared mortality rates and changes in infection load after 30 days to determine strain-specific susceptibility. We found that wild caught bullfrogs from the western U.S. were particularly susceptible to an eastern Bd strain (JEL 627). In contrast, infection loads and survival were higher in individuals exposed to the western strain (JEL 630); suggesting individuals were more susceptible to a novel strain. Individuals infected upon collection were able to clear their infection over time. We found lower infection loads over time in individuals exposed to the western strain, indicating the ability to clear this infection. This suggests rapid evolution of resistance to sympatric pathogens and indicates a cost to maintaining resistance to historic strains.

Introduction

Biodiversity loss threatens ecosystem function and ecosystem services worldwide (Naeem et al., 1999; Balvanera et al., 2006; Oliver et al., 2015). Habitat transformation, introduction of invasive species, pollution, overpopulation, and overexploitation are human activities explaining the unprecedented biodiversity loss (Brook et al., 2008; Butchart et al., 2010; Barnosky et al., 2012; Dirzo et al., 2014). Another global threat for biodiversity conservation and human health are emerging infectious diseases (EID's) (Fisher et al., 2012; Tompkins et al., 2015). EID's may have substantial ecological and economic costs (Hatcher et al., 2012). Population declines and extinctions across multiple taxa have been associated with EID's (Daszak et al., 2000; Frick et al., 2010; Rogers & Miller, 2013; Lorch et al., 2015). For example, amphibians represent one of the most threatened vertebrate group whose numbers have been decimated worldwide, in part, by disease (Skerratt et al., 2007; Crawford et al., 2010; Olson et al., 2013).

The fungal pathogen *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) is especially prominent with regard to amphibians population declines, range reductions and extinctions (Hatcher et al., 2012; Berger et al., 2016). Bd infects more than 600 amphibian species globally (Olson et al. 2013) and recent distribution models suggest shifts and potential expansion in Bd ranges under projected scenarios of climate change (Xie et al., 2016). Bd causes chytridiomycosis, which can cause excessive skin shedding, loss of reflex, lethargy and mortality in susceptible juveniles and adults. In tadpoles, chytridiomycosis affects mainly mouthpart structures (Voyles et al., 2009; Brutyn et al., 2012), although mortality can occur when larvae are exposed to Bd (Blaustein et al., 2005; Garner et al., 2009; Searle et al., 2013). Susceptibility to Bd varies across host species (Blaustein et al., 2005; Searle et al., 2011; Gahl et al., 2012; Bielby et al., 2015; Gervasi et al., 2017), population (Tobler & Schmidt, 2010; Bradley et al., 2015), life stage (Blaustein et al., 2005;

Briggs et al., 2010; Ortiz-Santaliestra et al., 2013; Searle et al., 2013) and, pathogen strain (Berger et al. 1998, Retallick & Miera 2007, Gervasi et al. 2013, Doddington et al. 2013, Eskew et al. 2015).

Despite extensive research effort since the discovery of Bd, differential impacts of Bd strain on amphibian hosts are poorly understood (Morehouse et al., 2003; Retallick & Miera, 2007; Farrer et al., 2011; Gahl et al., 2012). The response of a host to a particular strain gives us insight about virulence of the pathogen as well as tolerance and resistance of the host. Multiple lineages of Bd have been identified using genetic and genomic information from multiple geographic locations (Farrer et al., 2011; Rosenblum et al., 2013). Pathogenicity of these lineages can differ according to amphibian host and/or location (Schloegel et al., 2012). Some Bd Global pandemic lineage (Bd-GPL) strains, however, have shown different virulence levels when tested in common hosts (Berger et al., 1998), highlighting the need for additional research on strain-specific interactions.

Several amphibian hosts are considered to be more resistant to Bd than other. Among anuran amphibians, it has been suggested that the American bullfrog (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) is a relatively tolerant carrier of Bd, harboring the pathogen without signs of morbidity or mortality (Daszak et al., 2004; Garner et al., 2006). However, reports of mass mortality events in farmed American bullfrog populations suggested that exposure to novel Bd strains may cause chytridiomycosis outbreaks (Mazzoni et al., 2003). Moreover, Gervasi et al. (2013) found differential susceptibility in juvenile bullfrogs experimentally exposed to different Bd strains. As such, American bullfrogs offer a unique opportunity to study the ecological and evolutionary relationship between an EID and its host.

Bullfrogs are endemically distributed in the east and central regions of the United States and have established wild invasive populations after introductions in the western US (Moyle, 1973) and other continents (Ficetola et al., 2007; Nori et al., 2011) and island chains around the world (Lever, 2003). In their invaded range, direct and indirect effects of bullfrogs on native amphibian species have been documented by field surveys and experimental studies (Kats & Ferrer, 2003; Bucciarelli et al., 2014). Direct effects occurred by predation (D'Amore et al., 2009) and competition (Both & Grant, 2012; Preston et al., 2012; Medeiros et al., 2017) while indirect effects involved altering the use of habitat (D'Amore et al., 2009), changes in behavior (Kiesecker et al., 2001), and changes in activity and refuge use (Kiesecker & Blaustein, 1997, 1998). Other indirect effect involved the role play by bullfrogs as disease vector (Garner et al., 2006; Greenspan et al., 2012), especially of chytridiomycosis.

Bd strains have been isolated from bullfrogs in their native and invasive ranges (Schloegel et al., 2012) with the earliest detection of Bd in invasive California populations reported from specimens in 1928 (Huss et al., 2013). We investigated if invasive bullfrogs in Oregon USA had differential susceptibility to Bd strains isolated from their endemic and invasive ranges. Therefore, we experimentally exposed wild caught juveniles to Bd isolated from bullfrogs in Maine, USA (eastern strain, JEL 627) and Bd isolated from bullfrogs in Oregon, USA (western strain, JEL 630). We used wild caught animals to estimate infection loads at the time of capture and to estimate the impact of previous exposure on strain specific susceptibility. While virulence typically depends on the interaction among host, pathogen and environment (Poulin & Combes, 1999), some Bd traits such as zoosporangium size (Fisher et al., 2009), inhibition of growth in immune cells (Fites et al., 2013) and zoospores production (Langhammer et al., 2013) have been linked to virulence. We quantified the mean number of zoospores

produced by Bd while in culture in agar media to identify activity differences in both Bd strains outside the host. While a high zoospore number can be linked mechanistically to a high infection rate (Briggs et al., 2010); some strains with low zoospore production can still have major impacts on their host. We hypothesized that bullfrogs from Oregon would show greater mortality when exposed to a novel Bd strain (eastern strain). We also hypothesized that individuals infected at the time of capture would be more susceptible to a novel strain.

Materials and methods

We collected 90 recently juvenile bullfrogs at Gosner stage 45 when a tail stub was still detected in the individuals (Gosner, 1960), (\bar{x} = 3.3–8.9 g, SD = 5.6 g \pm 1.15) from a seasonal pond with no resident fish populations (44°24'47.0"N 123°19'38.0"W) in William L. Finley National wildlife refuge, OR (USA). Our survey followed a Visual Encounter Survey method (VES); we used head-lamps and manual flashlights to spotlight individual frogs on the vegetation along the margin of the pond. Once an animal was detected, we hand-collected the individual wearing new gloves per individual to avoid cross contamination.

Initial Infection Load Assessment

We handled each individual with fresh gloves and swabbed fifteen strokes along the ventral side and along each thigh and rear foot using one sterile swab per individual (MW113, Medical Wire & Equipment). Swabs were placed in sterile 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes and kept on a cooler with ice. We immediately transported the frogs and swabs to Oregon State University in individual containers and randomly assigned individuals to one of three experimental treatments: Eastern Bd treatment (strain JEL 627), Western Bd treatment (strain JEL 630) or control (No Bd). Although the use of terbinafine hydrochlorine in ethanol has been found as effective at curing infection in *L. catesbeianus* (Bowerman et al., 2010), we did not use this

substance or a different fungicide as their action could change the response of the individuals when exposed to the pathogen. We use wild caught animals to obtain information about how previous exposure in nature affect the response of individuals when repeatedly exposed to Bd.

Bd Culture Methodology

Bd strain JEL 627 is an isolate from the native range of American bullfrogs in Maine, USA; JEL 630 was isolated from the local invasive range of American bullfrogs in Oregon, USA. Both strains were obtained from cryogenically preserved material by J. Longcore in May 2013. Colonies from the plates were sterilely moved into tryptone broth 1% before being plated in sterile agar for at least 7 days before inoculation. For control animals (n=30), inoculum without Bd but from sterile agar plates was used (Searle et al. 2011, Gervasi et al. 2013).

Bd virulence Methodology

To quantify the virulence of Bd, we counted the number of zoospores produced in culture over time for both strains JEL 627 and JEL 630 (i.e., strain growth rate). We cultured on the same day: 50 agar plates per strain using 1 ml of tryptone broth 1% per plate. After 6 days of culture, we harvested zoospores from 5 plates per strain using 10 ml of water and counted the number of active zoospores using a hemocytometer. We repeated the harvesting and counting of zoospores on days 8 through 15. We stopped our observations when the number of zoospores and their activity began to decline (Day 15).

Bd Exposure Methodology

We housed frogs individually in petri dishes (140 x 30 mm) with holes in the lid and 10 ml of water covering the bottom. All units were held at 18 ° C and on a 12hr light: 12hr dark photoperiod. Animals were acclimated for three days and then exposed to one of three treatment groups: JEL 627 (n=30), JEL 630 (n=30), or a control. Individuals were given to a concentration of 1.7×10^4 zoospores/ml in 15 ml of total inoculate weekly.

Survival of individuals was monitored for 30 days post initial treatment exposure. Individuals found dead during the experiment were immediately preserved in 95% ethanol. After 30 days, all surviving animals were euthanized (MS-222) and preserved in 95% ethanol. All animals were swabbed after preservation following the same protocol used to assess initial infection loads (15 strokes along the ventral side and along each thigh and rear foot using one sterile swab per individual). We quantified infection load of all animals before and after the experiment using quantitative-PCR (qPCR) (Boyle et al., 2004). All samples were analyzed in triplicate and reported as positive when replicates showed Bd DNA in at least two wells. Average number of genome equivalents per individual (infection loads) were log transformed to normalize data distribution during statistical analysis.

Statistical Analysis

Using a *post hoc* analysis of variance (ANOVA), we evaluated if initial infection load differed among individuals randomly assigned to the treatments. We hypothesized that some individuals would be infected with the western Bd strain upon capture, thus we used a linear regression model to determine if body size (snout-vent length) or body condition (Băncilă et al., 2010) impacted initial Bd infection loads. We used an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to

determine treatment effects on infection loads upon death or at the termination of the experiment controlling for initial infection load.

Using Kaplan-Meier analyses, we compared survival of animals in control versus Bd-exposed treatments (JEL 627 and JEL 630). We used a Cox's proportional hazards model to statistically compare survival of each treatment group and its associated "hazard ratio" as well as the effect of initial infection load. A hazard ratio including 1 indicates there is no difference in the probability of mortality associated with a factor, in a comparative way (a hazard ratio > 1 indicates an increase in the probability of mortality). To analyze differences in growth rate between strains, we calculated a log-level multiple linear regression to predict mean number of zoospores based on strains (treatments) and time. Statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.3.1, 2016).

Results

The overall prevalence of Bd in wild-caught juveniles of *L. catesbeianus* was 43 %, with 39 out of 90 frogs testing positive for Bd at the time of capture (Table 3.1). Individuals were randomly assigned to treatment groups without a priori information on infection status. Treatment groups were significantly different in proportion of initially infected individuals and infections loads ($F_{2, 87} = 4.52$, $p < 0.001$), with the control group having a high number of individuals with higher infection loads than either exposure group (Table 3.1). However, initial infection load was not a significant predictor of infection load after the experiment ($F_{1, 86} = 0.29$, $p = 0.59$).

Infection loads of juveniles collected in the field were in average 11.2 genome equivalents and this initial infection load was not related with snout-vent length ($t_{87} = 1.71$, $p = 0.09$) or body condition ($t_{87} = 0.17$, $p = 0.86$) of the animals. At the termination of the

experiment, we found reduced infection loads in the control treatment. As expected, animals exposed to Bd strains during the experiment had significantly higher infection loads than controls, with the JEL 630 ($t_{86} = 3.47$, $p < 0.001$) group showing higher loads than JEL 627 ($t_{86} = 2.63$, $p = 0.01$). Infection loads after 30 days of treatment exposure were largely explained by treatment level ($F_{2,86} = 6.34$, $p = 0.0027$, Table 3.2 and Figure 3.1).

After experimental exposure to Bd treatments, the rate of mortality in animals exposed to JEL 627 was significantly greater than the rate of mortality in control animals (Figure 3.2, Cox proportional hazards model $p < 0.008$; hazard ratio = 3.7). The rate of mortality of individuals exposed to JEL 630 was not significantly greater than the rate of mortality in control animals (Figure 3.3; Cox proportional hazards model $p = 0.63$; hazard ratio = 0.72). During the first 15 days of the experiment, 15 of 30 animals died when exposed to JEL 627. In comparison, only 4 animals died when exposed to JEL 630 (Figure 3.3) in the first half of the experiment. These treatment effects were independent of initial infection load which was included in the Cox model, but did not significantly influence mortality (Figure 3.3; Cox proportional hazards model $p = 0.74$; hazard ratio = 1.11). The following log-level multiple linear regression model predicted the number of zoospores for strains in culture as $-2.15 + 0.28 (\text{days}) + 0.07 (\text{strain})$ ($F_{2,13} = 70.42$, $p < 0.001$, R-square = 0.9155). There was a significant effect of strain on growth rate ($F_{1,13} = 22.73$, $p = 0.00036$); JEL 627 had a 7.1% higher growth rate per day after culture than JEL 630 (CI 3.98 to 10.95%) (Figure 3.4).

Discussion

Wild-caught American bullfrog (*L. catesbeianus*) juveniles from a population within their western USA invasion range were susceptible to a novel Bd strain. In a factorial experiment, we found that bullfrogs exposed to a Bd strain isolated from the bullfrog's endemic range (eastern

strain, JEL 627) suffered higher mortality rates compared to controls (no Bd exposure), bullfrogs exposed to a western Bd strain (JEL 630) isolated from Oregon. During the first half of the experiment, almost 50% of the individuals exposed to the eastern Bd strain died. In contrast, 86 % of the individuals exposed to the western Bd strain survived and harbored a higher pathogen burden. This suggests strain-specific resistance in this invasive anuran population.

We found that 43% of the bullfrog juveniles were infected with Bd prior to experimental exposure. Interestingly, 19 out of 30 infected individuals randomly placed within the control group were able to clear the infection over time. The initial infection loads may not have reached a threshold for the onset of disease (McConnell, 2007). The levels of initial Bd infection were low in terms of prevalence and intensity (mean 11.1 raw genome equivalents), and were similar to other wild-caught bullfrogs swab samples from the USA (Garner et al., 2006; Schloegel et al., 2009; Walke et al., 2015).

Lower infection loads were detected in individuals exposed to the eastern strain upon termination of the study. This observed reduction in infection load was not associated with a lower incidence of the disease as concluded in several chytridiomycosis studies (Stockwell et al. 2010, Gervasi et al. 2013). These lower infections loads were related to an increased probability of mortality in animals exposed to the eastern strain. Conversely, individuals exposed to the western strain had higher infection loads and a lower mortality risk. We posit that this is a statistical relationship and argue for closer examination of the relationships between infection load, morbidity and strain pathogenicity.

Infection loads can vary considerably among individuals due to host susceptibility but also to pathogen virulence (Beldomenico & Begon, 2010). Although we did not characterize individual host immunity via immune response (see Gervasi et al. 2013), we characterized the

eastern and western strain growth rate while in culture to infer virulence (Fisher et al 2009, Langhammer et al 2013). Our results indicate that the eastern strain had a higher growth rate relative to the western JEL 630 while in culture. A greater number of active zoospores through time could lead to an increase in the risk of mortality in animals exposed to JEL 627. However, *in-vitro* growth rates of the pathogen are not always consistent with pathogen growth in susceptible hosts. Strains with lower *in-vitro* growth rates can represent higher Bd loads in their hosts (Piovia-Scott et al., 2015). In this study, bullfrogs exposed to the novel eastern strain with an higher *in vitro* growth rate were more susceptible and died faster, even with a lower infection load relative to animals exposed to the western strain.

Individuals exposed to a novel Bd strain can experience a higher mortality risk than individuals exposed to strains isolated from conspecifics (Gervasi et al., 2013b; Eskew et al., 2015). When exposed to the native strain, individuals have high infection loads and survive which could be indicative of co-evolutionary dynamics. The host-pathogen interaction in a particular geographic distribution is expected to lead toward coexistence, with reduced susceptibility in the host and reduced pathogenicity in the pathogen (Doddington et al., 2013).

Bd is an emerging pathogen globally (Olson et al., 2013; Balaz et al., 2014; Van Rooij et al., 2015) and it is projected to spread with changes in climate (Liu et al., 2012; Xie et al., 2016). In the absence of a shared evolutionary history, the impact of a new Bd strain on the host is a higher probability of host mortality. Invasive species capable of transporting novel strains to new geographic ranges can potentially cause chytridiomycosis outbreaks with unusual severity and magnitude (Farrer et al., 2011; Van Rooij et al., 2015). This disruption of evolved trade-offs between the host and the pathogen can be devastating to local amphibian assemblages. At least 17 different Bd strains have been isolated from *L. catesbeianus* from different geographic

distributions (Schloegel et al., 2012) and archived collections from the California Academy of Sciences (CAS) reported the presence of Bd in specimens dated back to 1928 (Huss et al., 2013). While it is unknown which Bd strain was detected at 1928, we hypothesize that invasive bullfrogs in the western USA have coexisted with Bd, and after reaching stable pathogen-host equilibrium this strain is not virulent to their host. A similar result was found in *Taudactylus eungellensis*, a stream dwelling frog in Australia where populations were able to persist with endemic infections of Bd (Retallick et al., 2004).

Understanding the variation in host response to pathogens isolated from conspecifics in different distributional ranges is needed to understand how pathogen origin can mediate host response. The strains used in this experiment are part of the North American clade - Global Panzootic Lineage (Bd- GPL1). However, they are grouped within distinct clusters and thus vary in distributional range and heterozygosity (James et al., 2009; Rosenblum et al., 2013). Although the GPL contains many of the deadliest Bd isolates, our findings support there are differences in virulence properties inside this lineage that deserve more research.

In conclusion, this study underscores the importance of experimental studies to shed light on infection dynamics in invasive species and its implication in the movement of individuals to different geographic locations. Translocation of an invasive species will mean the arrival of not only of a potential predator and competitor of native species but also a host species harboring pathogens that affect natives. Arrival of non-native bullfrogs and their associated pathogens can represent an ‘invasional meltdown’ increasing their likelihood of survival and the magnitude of their ecological impacts (Simberloff & Von Holle, 1999). We need to evaluate the interactions among Bd strains from different geographic locations and susceptible hosts to understand if the interaction is facilitating or precluding the onset of a disease. In an era of emerging diseases

and globalization, understanding the impacts of a novel strain can help managers better mitigate these dangers, potentially through stronger regulation of importation of live animals, reducing the trade of species and applying informed legislation in conservation actions.

Table 3.1 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) mean initial infection load values (raw genome equivalents GE) for all individuals upon field capture. Bd occurrences CI = 95% Clopper-Pearson binomial confidence interval for prevalence (%)

Assigned Exposure treatment (n=30 per treatment)	Infection loads mean Bd raw GE (low-high)	Prevalence Bd No. Bd-positive / Total no. samples (%)	Prevalence Bd CI
Control	21.8 (0-343)	26/30 (86)	69-96
JEL 627 (East strain)	10.7 (0-303)	8/30 (26)	12-45
JEL 630 (West strain)	0.8 (0- 12)	5/30 (16)	5-34
Total	11.1 (0-343)	39/90 (43)	32-54

Table 3.2 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) mean infection load values (raw genome equivalents GE) for all individuals after being Bd-exposed to JEL 627 and JEL 630. Bd occurrences CI = 95% Clopper-Pearson binomial confidence interval for prevalence (%)

Exposure treatment	Infection loads mean Bd raw GE (low-high)	Prevalence Bd No. Bd-positive / Total no. samples (%)	Prevalence Bd CI
Control	7.3 (0-145)	11/30 (36)	19-56
JEL 627 (East strain)	30.7 (0-613)	28/30 (93)	77-99
JEL 630 (West strain)	76.6 (0- 1721)	29/30 (96)	83-99

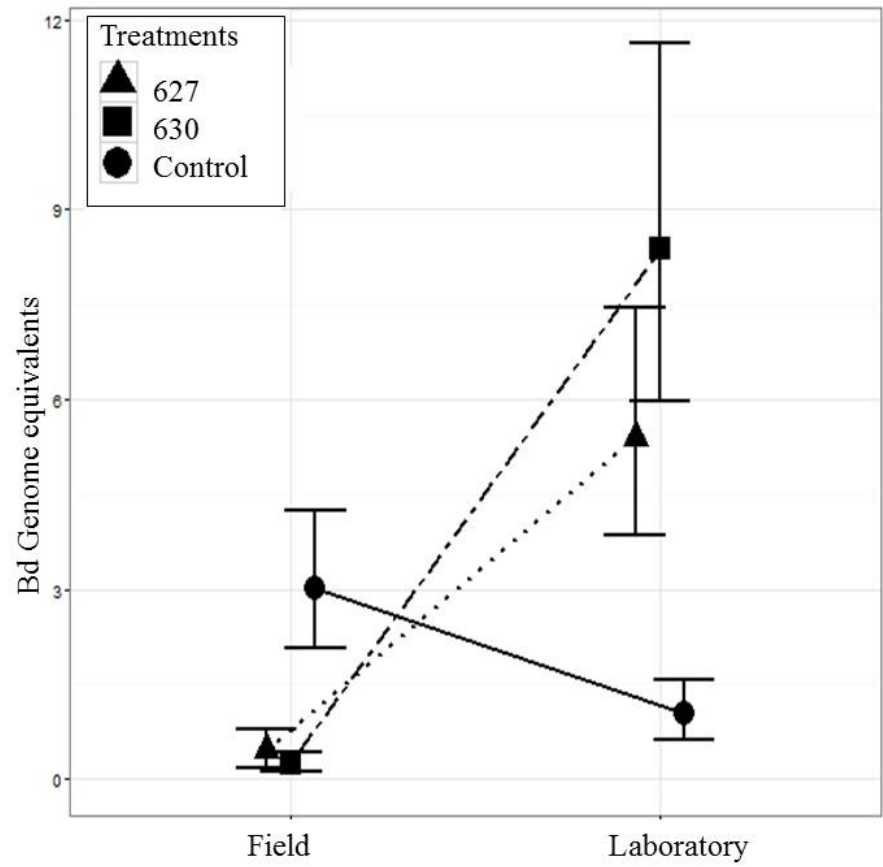


Figure 3.1 Genome equivalents of Bd before and after exposure to the pathogen. Bars represent standard error range. Field values represent infection loads of animals collected in the field. Laboratory infection loads represent animals after being exposed to a particular treatment. Individuals selected as controls decreased their infection loads through the experiment. Individuals exposed to JEL 630 were able to sustain higher infection loads than individuals exposed to JEL 627.

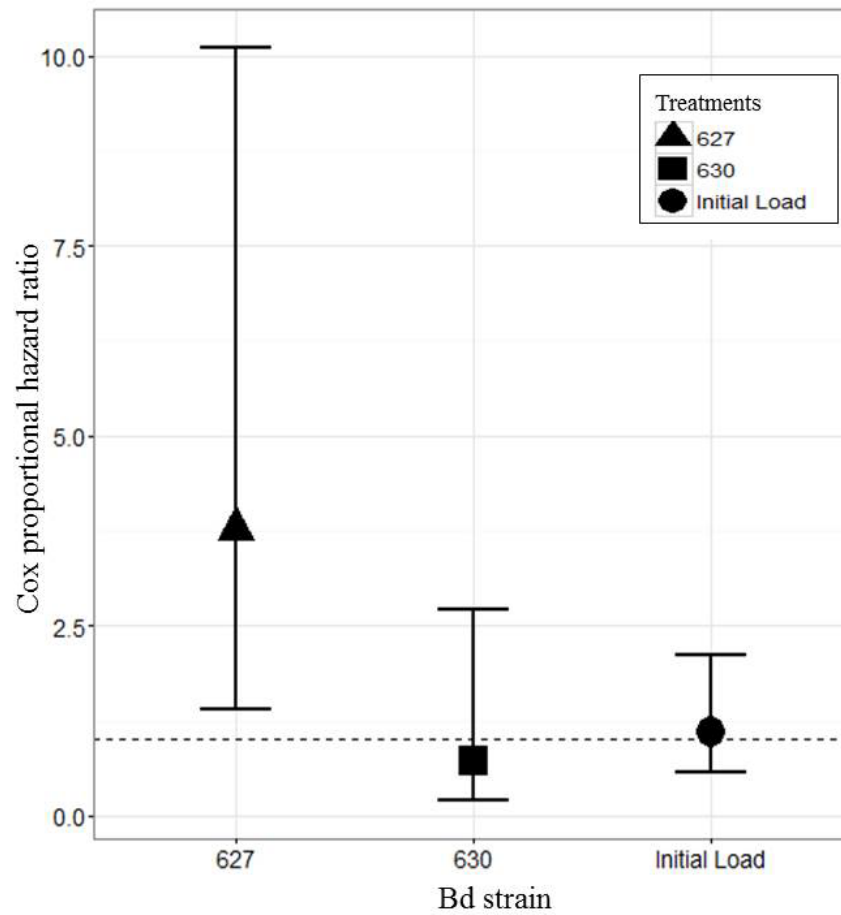


Figure 3.2: Cox proportional hazard ratios for factors of exposure treatment and initial infection load compared with a base level of one. Bars represent the 95% confidence interval for the hazard ratios. A hazard ratio of 1 indicates there is no difference in the probability of mortality associated with a factor, in a comparative way (a hazard ratio > 1 indicates an increase in the probability of mortality).

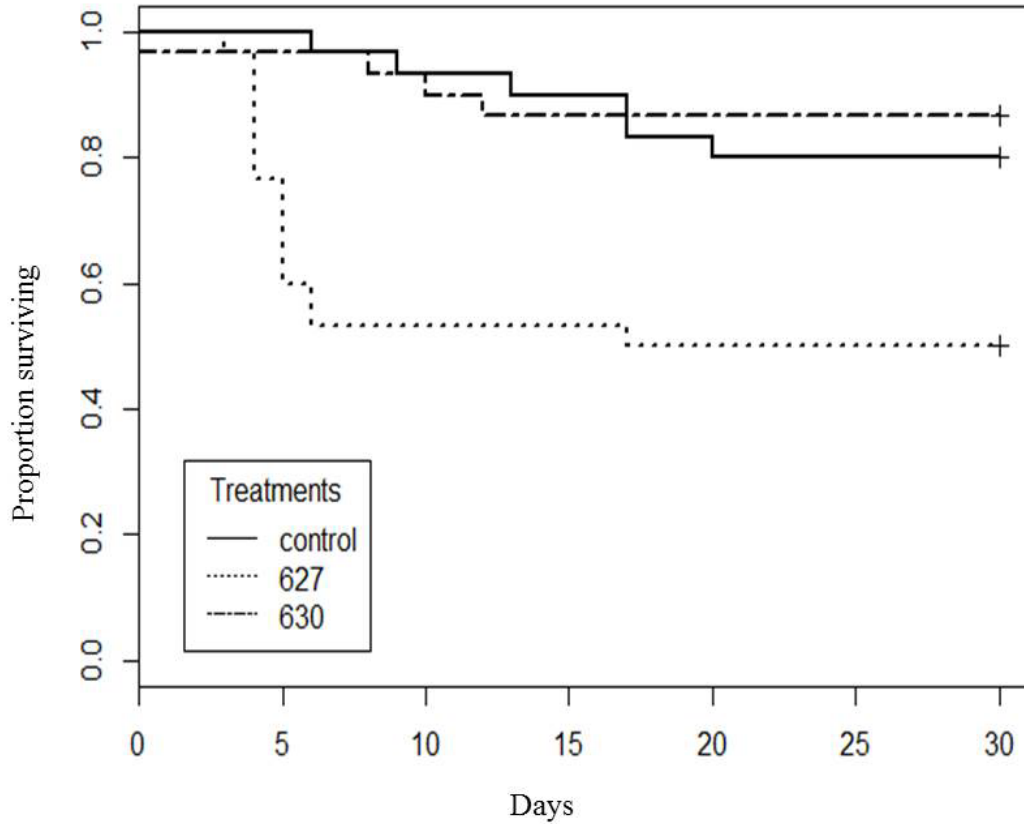


Figure 3.3: Survival curves of invasive bullfrogs after exposure to amphibian chytrid fungus strains JEL 627 (dotted lines) and JEL 630 (dashed line). Survival was significantly reduced in the pathogen treatment for JEL 627. No differences in survival occurred between Control (solid line) and pathogen-exposed animals in the JEL 630 treatment (dashed line)

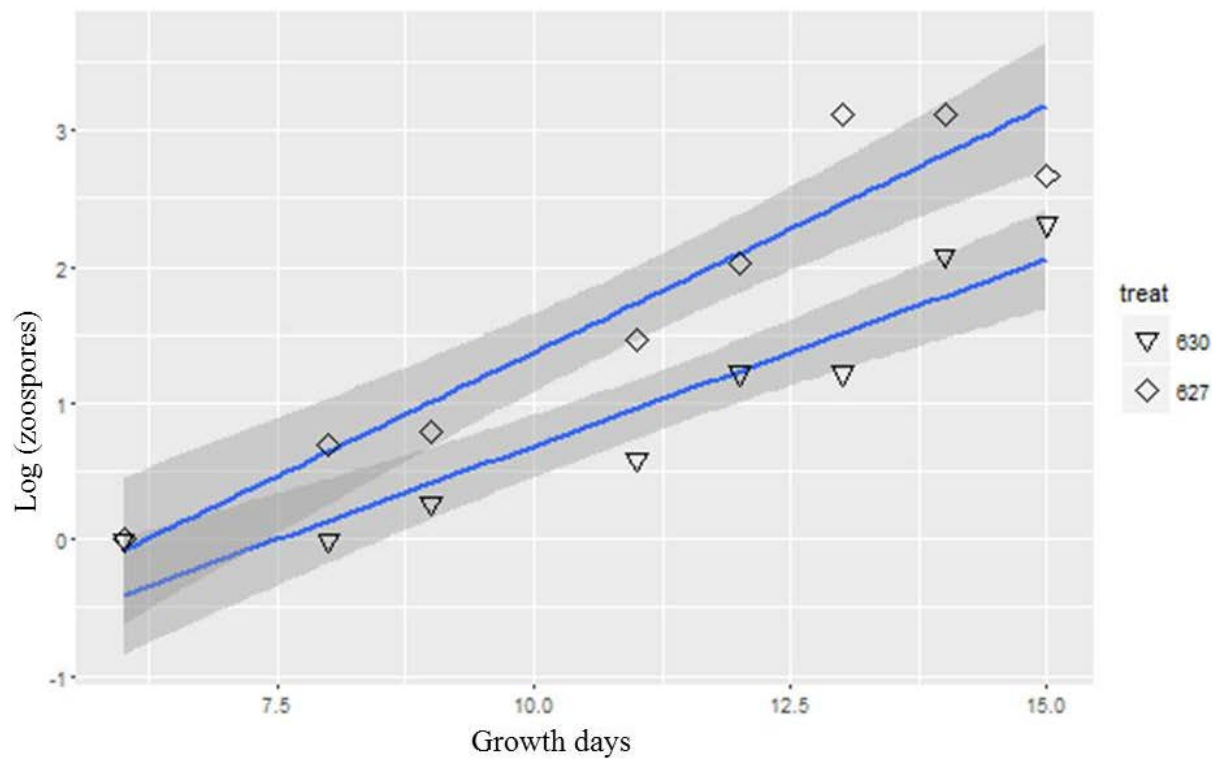


Figure 3.4 Growth curves in days after culture for two *Bd* strains. JEL 627 represented by diamonds (top line) and JEL 630 represented by triangle (bottom line). The shadow represents the estimated standard errors per strain.

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CHAPTER 4 - REPRODUCTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF INVASIVE AMERICAN
BULLFROGS (*LITHOBATES CATESBEIANUS*) IN THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST
INVADED RANGE

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Abstract

Invasive species pose a major threat to global biodiversity. Invasion potential of exotic populations can be strongly influenced and potentially mediated, by reproductive characteristics such as fecundity, egg production and duration and number of reproductive events. The minimum body size at first reproduction can also play a role in the establishment of an invasive species, with breeding at smaller sizes facilitating establishment and spread. The American bullfrog (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) is an invasive anuran that has successfully invaded more than 40 countries across 4 continents. In the Willamette Valley, Oregon, USA, this nonnative species is having profound effects on native ecosystems. We characterized reproductive characteristics with emphasis on the minimum size at which males and females reach sexual maturity. We collected and dissected 105 individuals between 2013 and 2017, quantifying characteristics of sexual maturity including snout-vent length, total length, sex, tympanum diameter, presence of distended oviducts or eggs for females, and testes length and sperm activity in males. The minimum reproductive size we measured is smaller than predicted, with both males and females exhibiting smaller minimum reproductive sizes relative to bullfrogs within their native range. Our results are similar to other studies on minimum reproductive size on invasive bullfrog populations within the South American invasion ranges. Reduction in size at reproductive maturity is likely impacting the invasive success of American bullfrogs within these regions and this study gives us insight into potential control mechanisms.

Introduction

Biological invasions are a significant driver of global change in biodiversity (Elton 1958, Simberloff 2013). Intentional and unintentional species introduction can result in degraded ecosystem function (Ehrenfeld 2010, Simberloff 2011), changes in interspecific interactions (Simberloff 2006, Fukami et al. 2006) and contributes to native population declines (Gibbons et al. 2000, Blackburn et al. 2004). In addition to environmental impacts, changes to economic growth (i.e agriculture, Paine et al. 2016) and human health (Juliano & Lounibos 2005) make invasive species one of the more costly anthropogenic disturbances at a global scale (Pimentel et al. 2000, Paine et al. 2016, Rogers 2017). However, a reasonably small proportion of exotic species succeed in establishing populations within novel regions (Booth et al. 2003) or, after becoming established, do not directly impact the invaded ecosystems (White et al. 2006). Therefore, it is of utmost importance to understand and evaluate the potential of introduced species to invade within a novel range. Predicting invasiveness can be difficult as biotic and abiotic factors both play a role determining the establishment of exotic populations (Hui et al. 2016).

Trait-based inquiry can be useful when characterizing biological invaders (Ricciardi et al. 2013), including life history characteristics such as growth and reproduction rates, home range size, and diet breadth (Kolar & Lodge 2001). Although the strategies by which invasive species establish and spread vary significantly, reproductive traits, such as average clutch size and size at first reproduction, can disproportionately affect population dynamics (Lodge 1993). In particular, invasion potential can be strongly impacted by body size at first reproduction. For example, lionfish (*Pterois* spp) and the brown tree snake (*Boiga irregularis*) have larger body sizes in their

invaded ranges, resulting in increased propagule pressure (Savidge et al. 2007, Gardner et al. 2015). Species-specific information on the relationship between body size and reproductive capacity can be useful for management actions that target invasive species with significant conservation impacts (Van Kleunen et al. 2010).

The unprecedented loss of amphibian biodiversity at a global scale (Barnosky et al. 2011, Ceballos et al. 2015) contrasts to several anuran species that are successful invaders (Beard et al. 2003, Lobos & Jaksic 2005, Ortega et al. 2005, Vargas Salinas 2006, Urban et al. 2007, Rebelo et al. 2010, Bucciarelli et al. 2014). American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) have established in over 40 countries across 4 continents and been implicated in the decline of native species across multiple taxonomic groups (Adams & Pearl 2007). Trait-based research has largely attributed successful bullfrog invasions to initial propagule pressure and biotic tolerance to varying climate regimes (Pearl et al. 2005, Govindarajulu et al. 2006, Adams & Pearl 2007, Rago et al. 2012, Bai et al. 2012). The ability to reproduce at a smaller size improves invasion and range expansion potential of a newly established bullfrog population. In Brazil, established populations of American bullfrogs are able to reproduce when males reach 7.6 cm and females reach 6.5 cm (Lima et al. 1998, Leivas et al. 2012), which is smaller than what is reported in the bullfrog's native range. In the northern extent of the bullfrog's Pacific Northwest range, Govindarajulu et al. (2006) reported reproductive sizes similar to those found in the native populations at similar latitudes (Bruneau & Magnin 1980; Shirose et al. 1993).

We evaluated the size at first reproduction in bullfrogs in the southern extent of their Pacific Northwest invaded range and compared minimum sizes with other invaded and native populations for this species. Bullfrogs were introduced to the Pacific Northwest during the early 1900's to establish frog farms with the intention of exporting to international markets and are

now densely populated throughout the region's low-elevation freshwater habitats (Jennings & Hayes 1985). We evaluated the minimum reproductive size for males and females of American bullfrogs in the Willamette Valley (OR, USA) using macroscopic and microscopic characteristics of their reproductive system. We hypothesized the minimum reproductive size in the Willamette Valley would be smaller than the size reported in bullfrog populations at similar latitudes within their native range, and invasive populations from the northern extent of the Pacific Northwest invaded range. Further, we predicted minimum reproductive sizes would be similar to invasive populations in Brazil.

Methods

We collected American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) samples from 6 locations in Lane (43° 57' 39.5994" N, 122° 39' 42.4794" W) and Benton County (44° 37' 41.5194" N, 123° 23' 14.6394" W) in the Willamette Valley (Oregon). We sampled 4 ponds with no resident fish populations and 2 permanent ponds with fish populations (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1). Using Visual Encounter Surveys (Crump & Scott Jr. 1994) we sampled and collected bullfrogs during spring and summer breeding seasons of 2013 and 2017 for a total sampling effort of 150 hours. Individuals were transported to Oregon State University where they were euthanized using MS-222 and preserved in 90% ethanol. We followed all institutional and national guidelines for the care and use of animals.

Determination of sexual maturity is more rigorously done by examination of the gonads (Govindarajulu et al. 2006), as relying only on secondary sexual characteristics can be problematic. Yellow throat coloration and swollen nuptial pads in males are indicators of sexual maturity, but are only present in males. Further, gender differences in tympanum size are not

obvious in young individuals. As such, we determined the stage of gonad development for both males and females in addition to measured snout-vent length (SVL), total body length, eye and tympanum diameter, and determined body mass for each individual. For males, we excised, measured and weighed testes with a precision of 0.001 g for mass and 0.01 mm for length. The right gonad was macerated to test for the presence of active sperm while the left gonad was preserved in 90% ethanol for microscopic analysis (Costa et al. 1998a, b). For females, ovarian maturation stages were described following the protocol developed in Costa et al. (1998a). Ovarian maturation in female American bullfrogs can be categorized into five distinct stages: 1) juvenile with thin ovaries, hyaline to whitish and no oocytes distinguishable; 2) beginning of maturation with yellowish ovaries and deeper invaginations, oocytes present; 3) intermediate maturation grayish ovaries with pigmented post-vitellogenic oocytes; 4) advanced maturation high proportion of post-vitellogenic oocytes; and 5) spent ovaries: flaccid, with reduced volume and atresic oocytes (Costa et al. 1998, Kaefer et al. 2007).

The minimum reproductive size was determined as the minimum SVL when females presented convoluted oviducts or ovaries with eggs inside their thoracic cavity (stages ≥ 2). In the case of males, their minimum reproductive size was the minimum SVL when they exhibited active sperm. We macerated the right testis in 0.5 ml of Holtfreter's solution 10% to count actively motile sperm using a hemocytometer (Browne & Zippel 2007). We evaluated if body size of adults were different by analyzing the SVL measurement and body mass using a Student's t- test with a Welsh correction. To evaluate the logistic regression accuracy to predict sexual maturity in males and females, we used a ROC (Receiving Operator Characteristic Curve). This graphic representation shows the ability of the logistic regression to correctly classify cases meeting certain condition (sexually maturity) and cases not meeting the condition

of interest. The estimated threshold indicates the point at which the prediction for values meeting the condition is optimal; this is the point at which the sum of the false positives and false negatives is the least.

Results

We collected a total of 105 *L. catesbeianus*: 51 females, 50 males, and 4 individuals that were undetermined. Of this total, 21 were adult females and 38 were adult males. In females, SVL varied between 3.8 cm to 17.6 cm, total length between 8.46 cm and 34 cm, and body mass ranged from 4.63 g to 500 g. In males, SVL varied between 4.01 mm to 16.5 mm, total length between 8.77 cm and 36 cm, and body mass ranged from 5.37 g to 357 g. We found that the minimum reproductive size for females was 6.7 cm and for the males 6.6 cm. For mature individuals we did not observe gender differences in size (SVL Welsh t-test, $t = 1.244$, $df = 41.02$, and $p = 0.22$; mean \pm SD: Males SVL = 10.98 ± 2.75 cm, and females SVL = 11.93 ± 2.80 cm) or body mass (Welsh t-test, $t = 0.90$, $df = 34.67$, and $p = 0.37$; mean \pm SD: Males BM = 144 ± 105 g, and females BM = 174.11 ± 129 g). The threshold at which ROC curves estimated the accuracy of the logistic regression to predict sexual maturity in males and females as optimal was 0.69 and 0.48 respectively. The SVL value for these thresholds is 7.8 cm in males and 10 cm for females (Figure 4.2). At these thresholds, males and females were predicted to be sexually mature, with the minimum number of false positives and false negatives.

Discussion

We found that the minimum reproductive size for male and female American bullfrogs in the Willamette Valley was 6.6 cm and 6.7 cm respectively, which is smaller relative to

populations within the native range at similar latitudes with male and females being mature at 9.5 cm and 10.8 cm respectively (Howard 1981) (Table 4.2). Further, our minimum reproductive size is similar to those found in invasive bullfrog populations in Brazil, South America, where the minimum reproductive size at sexual maturity was found to be 7.6 cm for males and 6.5 cm for females (Leivas et al. 2012). Minimum reproductive sizes in our study were smaller relative to other invaded ranges in the United States and Canada, including populations from the northern extent of the Pacific Northwest invaded range (Washington and British Columbia; Table 4.2). This reduction in minimum reproductive size is likely increasing the number of reproductive events for breeding individuals, thus increasing the propagule pressure of invasive populations in Oregon (Leivas et al. 2012). Reaching sexual maturity at a smaller body size is thus likely enhancing invasion potential for populations within the Willamette Valley, Oregon, with individuals reaching breeding age before secondary sexual characteristics are present.

The allocation of energy towards reproduction provides advantages to invading species. The reproductive cycle of American bullfrogs in Oregon is mainly restricted to the summer season when individuals congregate in lentic freshwater systems. Critical factors for breeding include calm water and air temperature above 20° C (Jones et al. 2005). In the Willamette Valley, females can lay egg masses with 6,000 to 20,000 eggs with body size positively correlated with egg number (Nussbaum et al. 1983). In warm water, hatching occurs in two to five days and tadpoles can take up to two years to reach metamorphosis. However, tadpoles from some populations in the Pacific Northwest invaded range have been documented as being able to metamorphose less than four months after hatching (Govindarajulu et al. 2005, Cook et al. 2013). Males and females in the Willamette Valley may therefore be reaching their minimum reproductive size less than two years after metamorphosis. This size shift may be explained by

reaching metamorphosis faster, resulting in smaller juvenile body sizes. The estimated thresholds for males and females to be sexually mature were similar to measurements reported in an invaded range from Brazil (Lima et al. 1998). The estimated threshold was greater for females (10 cm) that could indicate females reach maturity delayed relative than males. Females of the western clawed frog (*Xenopus tropicalis*), another successful anuran invader, are able to mature 6 months after metamorphosis at only 6.5 cm in length, providing an advantage in the widespread of the invaded range of this species (McCoid & Fritts 1989).

Life history characteristics that value adult survivorship over reproductive potential can also increase invasion success (Sol et al. 2012). This highlights the tradeoff between earlier sexual maturity and smaller juvenile body size in Oregon bullfrog populations. We posit that bullfrog females in the Willamette Valley are allocating energy to early maturation with a correlated reduction in egg mass size. Individuals may also be capable of double clutching, or spawning multiple times during a breeding season. Multiple clutching increases propagule pressure as increases in the number of offspring within each generation. Additionally, multiple clutching can lead to improving the genetic diversity of the invading populations as one female's eggs can be fertilized by multiple males (Howard 1983). However, this aspect of reproductive biology has not been studied or reported in the Willamette Valley.

Understanding key traits that predict or enhanced invasion success is critical for the implementation of management and control actions (Adams & Pearl 2007). Characterizing the reproductive activity of breeding bullfrog populations in the Willamette Valley in connection with abiotic factors can be critical in managing the establishment of new populations of this species. Our study identified a decrease in the minimum reproductive size of males and females in invasive American bullfrogs in the Willamette Valley relative to native populations. This

finding indicates that we need to modify our view of what constitutes a mature bullfrog in the Willamette Valley, and potentially in other invasion ranges. Although smaller females can have limited reproductive output, the potential for longer reproductive longevity both over ontogeny and within a breeding season could significantly increase the invasion potential of this critical invasive species.

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"... They are present in hundreds, or even thousands. The transformed individuals present a spirited sight as one approach... Wright 1920 "...

Table 4.1 Sampled locations for American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) in the Willamette Valley.

Location	Coordinates	Fish presence (Yes=Y/No=N)	Hydroperiod
William L. Finley National Wildlife refuge -Lower 22	44°24'47.0"N 123°19'38.0"W	N	Mostly permanent, dry by management
LCC wetlands	44°00'49.5"N 123°02'22.1"W	N	Permanent
Timberline	44° 01' 13.07 "N 123° 08' 52.07"W	N	Permanent
Barger	44° 04' 35.8"N 123° 12' 14.7"W	N	Permanent
William L. Finley National wildlife refuge -Cattail pond	44° 24' 05.0"N 123° 19' 27.8"W	Y	Mostly permanent, dry by management
Green Island	44°08'23.6"N 123°06'14.4"W	Y	Permanent

Table 4.2 Minimum reproductive size for American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) in native and invaded ranges of distribution (ND =no data)

Location	Country	Invasive Population (Y-N)	Minimum reproductive size males (cm)	Minimum reproductive size females (cm)	Reference
Oregon	USA	Y	6.61	6.77	This study
State of Parana	Brazil	Y	7.6	6.5	(Leivas et al. 2012)
Washington	USA	Y	10.5	11.5	(Jones et al. 2005)
State of Rio Grande do sul	Brazil	Y	9.025	12.083	(Kaefer et al. 2007)
British Columbia	Canada	Y	mean 14.8	mean 14.7	(Govindarajulu et al. 2006)
State of Minas Gerais	Brazil	Y	8.09	10.33	(Lima et al. 1998)
Quebec	Canada	N	9.5-11	9.5-11	(Bruneau & Magnin 1980)
Ontario	Canada	N	9.1	11.3	(Shirose et al. 1993)
Michigan	USA	N	9.5	10.8	(Howard 1981)
New Jersey	USA	N	Mean 15.12	Mean 14.03	(Ryan 1980)
Missouri	USA	N	ND	12.3	(Willis et al. 1956)
ND	USA	N	8.5	8.9	(Wright & Wright 1949)
New York	USA	N	8.5	11	(Raney & Ingram 1941)
Louisiana	USA	N	ND	12.7	George 1940 (thesis unpublished) **
ND	USA	N	ND	10.16	(Wright 1920)

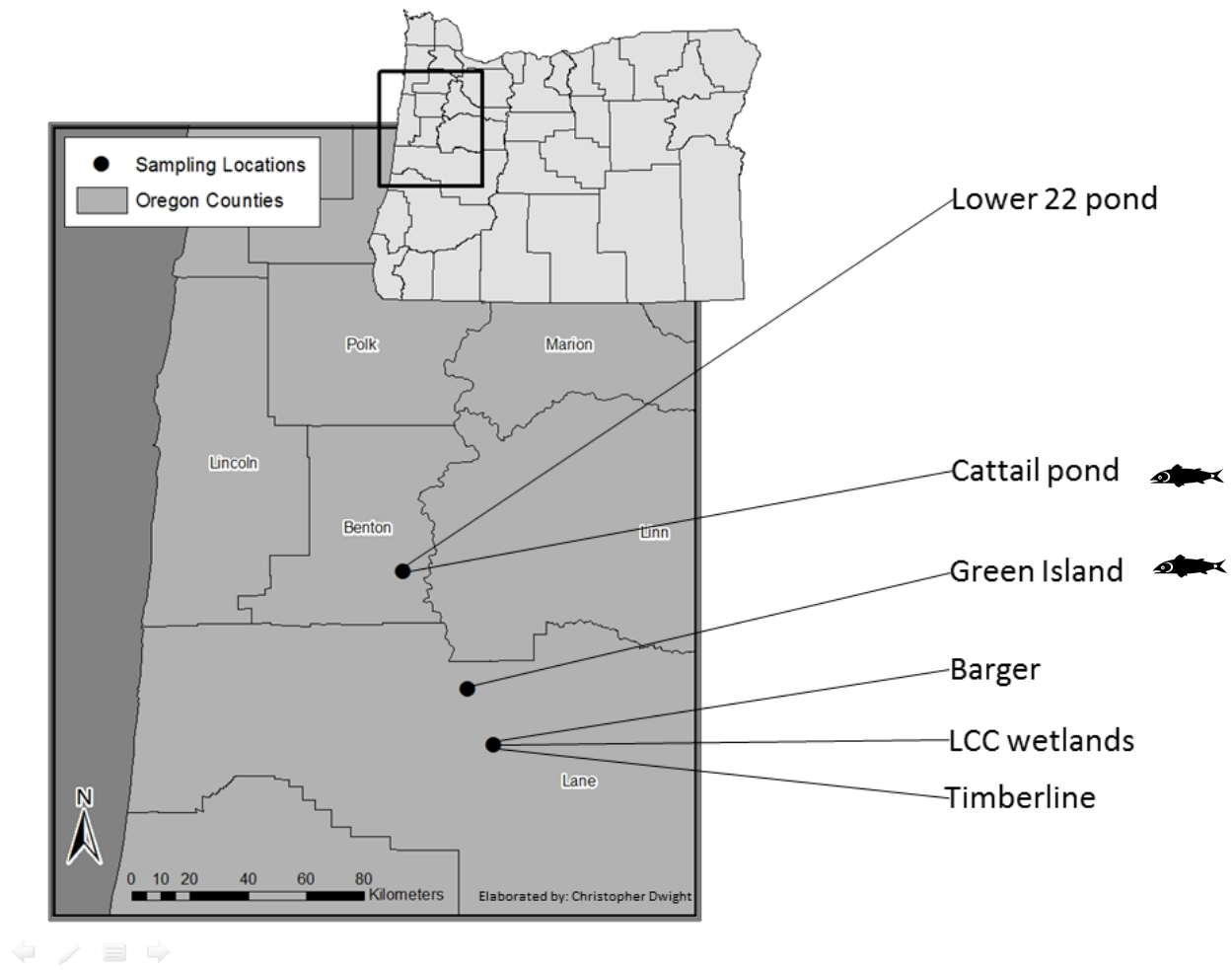


Figure 4.1 Sampling sites in the Willamette Valley from where American bullfrogs (*L. catesbeianus*) were collected

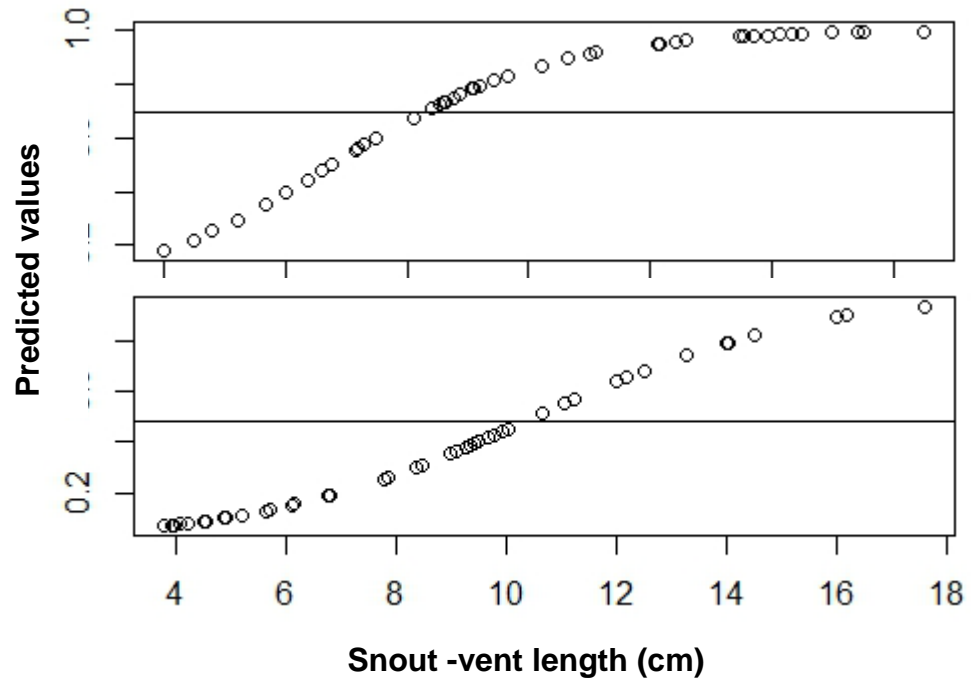


Figure 4.2 Estimated values for the first maturation of males (top) and females (bottom) of America bullfrog (*L. catesbeianus*) in an invaded range (Willamette Valley, OR). The horizontal line represents the threshold at which males and females are sexually mature

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CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS

Disease is a product of interactions among hosts and pathogens within in a particular environment. The amphibian - chytrid interaction is an ideal system to study the impact of an emerging pathogen and host response, as there is significant variation in species and population response, in addition to differential impacts across strain and life stage. My thesis examines amphibian host response to *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd) across life history transitions: embryos to larvae, larvae to metamorphs and juveniles to adults in different host species.

To investigate how host exposure to Bd during early life stages (embryos) impacts later life history stages, I used a factorial experimental design. Embryos of three anuran species (*Pseudacris regilla*, *Anaxyrus boreas* and *Lithobates catesbeianus*) were exposed to Bd at early or late embryonic stages, with some individuals re-exposed after hatching. I evaluated how time of exposure and Bd strain influenced host response (Chapter 2). Embryonic Bd exposure resulted in differential survival as a function of host species, Bd strain and timing of exposure. *P. regilla* experienced embryonic mortality when exposed during later developmental stages to one of the Bd strains. There were no differences across the treatments in embryonic mortality in *A. boreas*. Embryonic mortality of *L. catesbeianus* occurred in all Bd exposure treatments. We detected latent effects in *A. boreas* and *L. catesbeianus* larvae, as mortality increased when individuals had been exposed to any of the Bd strains during the embryonic stage. We also detected direct effects on larval mortality in all three-anuran species and it varied with Bd strain. When individuals were repeatedly exposed (late in the embryonic stage and again as larvae), we found an increase in mortality. Our results suggest that exposure to Bd can directly affect

embryo survival and have direct and latent effects on larval survival of both native and invasive species. However, these impacts were highly context dependent, with timing of exposure and Bd strain influencing the severity of the effects. This chapter emphasizes how important is to consider that, despite being a relatively brief period, exposure to Bd in the embryonic stage can lead to increased mortality after hatching. Additional research exploring the mechanisms protecting the embryos is needed to better understand the susceptibility of this developmental stage to disease. As eggs receive material from their parents during oviposition, evaluating the role of parental contributions to the immune response of their offspring can help us better understand embryonic immunity. Further studies are also required to understand how variation in other environmental and biological parameters can affect the outcome of repeated Bd exposure in anuran species. Our results add information to the growing body of evidence concerning differential susceptibility to pathogens among amphibian species and across life stages.

I explored the next life transition, metamorphosis, by evaluating how wild - caught invasive *Lithobates catesbeianus*, respond to Bd strains isolated from conspecifics. My results showed that wild caught bullfrog metamorphs from the Western, US were susceptible to a Bd strain isolated from conspecifics from the Eastern US. Bullfrogs exposed to this novel strain suffered higher mortality rates compared to controls and to bullfrogs exposed to a Bd strain isolated from conspecifics in the Western US. Individuals exposed to the Western Bd strain survived and were able to harbor a higher pathogen burden. I found 43% of the wild - caught animals were infected prior to experimental exposure. Interestingly, they were able to clear the infection. Understanding the variation in host response to pathogens isolated from conspecifics across different

distributional ranges can help us to understand how pathogen origin mediates host responses. Future work about virulence of Bd in isolates from conspecifics deserves more research. Upcoming research should include characterization of aspects such as individual immunity and pathogen virulence with and without the interaction with the host. This chapter illustrates how the movement of individuals to different geographic locations contributes to the arrival of pathogens that can affect local organisms.

Reproductive strategies and propagule pressure are key determinants of the invasive potential of a species. We studied reproductively mature adult bullfrogs. We quantified reproductive characteristics with an emphasis on the minimum size at which males and females reach sexual maturity in bullfrog population within the Willamette Valley Oregon USA (Chapter 4). After sampling six locations in the Willamette Valley during 2013 and 2017, results suggest the minimum reproductive size for males and females is smaller relative to sizes of adults in the native bullfrog range and similar to minimum reproductive sizes observed in bullfrog invasion ranges in South America. Reduction in size at reproductive maturity could impact the invasive success of American bullfrogs and give us insight into the history of their founder populations.

The research presented in this thesis sheds light on the complexity of host-pathogen interactions. Our experimental and observational studies indicate that the incorporation of a neglected life stage (embryos) is needed to understand the direct and latent impacts of Bd on later life stages. Future research can benefit from the inclusion of life history transitions in conjunction with changes in environmental conditions to better understand the host response and the pathogen role in an integral way. Results from my

dissertation related to the minimum size of an invasive species can be taken into account in planning management actions to control this species. This dissertation provides new information on the impact of Bd on embryonic life stages, as well as information about susceptibility of American bullfrogs to Bd, a species that has generally been considered tolerant to Bd. Our results provide necessary information for conducting future research projects on the role of life history transition, repeated exposure, and strain virulence in different hosts.

Wildlife and human health are threatened by emergent infectious diseases and information about factors that influence the response of hosts and how that response changes is critical to establish actions to prevent or control disease spread. Ultimately, it is in our hands to conduct research and plan conservation actions that include a holistic view of disease. I posit there is a need to involve more sub disciplines in this research, and a demand to work together to understand disease dynamics. Understanding the amphibian –chytrid system is a first step to obtain information to disentangle disease dynamics and applied our knowledge in different systems affected by diseases.

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