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# Amphibian-killing chytrid in Brazil comprises both locally endemic and globally expanding populations

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#### **Abstract**

Chytridiomycosis, caused by the fungus Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (Bd), is the emerging infectious disease implicated in recent population declines and extinctions of amphibian species worldwide. Bd strains from regions of disease-associated amphibian decline to date have all belonged to a single, hypervirulent clonal genotype (Bd-GPL). However, earlier studies in the Atlantic Forest of southeastern Brazil detected a novel, putatively enzootic lineage (Bd-Brazil), and indicated hybridization between Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil. Here, we characterize the spatial distribution and population history of these sympatric lineages in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. To investigate the genetic structure of Bd in this region, we collected and genotyped Bd strains along a 2400-km transect of the Atlantic Forest. Bd-Brazil genotypes were restricted to a narrow geographic range in the southern Atlantic Forest, while Bd-GPL strains were widespread and largely geographically unstructured. Bd population genetics in this region support the hypothesis that the recently discovered Brazilian lineage is enzootic in the Atlantic Forest of Brazil and that Bd-GPL is a more recently expanded invasive. We collected additional hybrid isolates that demonstrate the recurrence of hybridization between panzootic and enzootic lineages, thereby confirming the existence of a hybrid zone in the Serra da Graciosa mountain range of Paraná State. Our field observations suggest that Bd-GPL may be more infective towards native Brazilian amphibians, and potentially more effective at dispersing across a fragmented landscape. We also provide further evidence of pathogen translocations mediated by the Brazilian ranaculture industry with implications for regulations and policies on global amphibian trade.

Keywords: Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis, chytridiomycosis, emerging infectious disease, multi-locus genotyping, population genetics

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#### Introduction

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Novel fungal diseases are on the rise worldwide (Fisher *et al.* 2012). Highly destructive wildlife and human mycoses continue to emerge including white nose

syndrome of bats (Pseudogymnoascus destructans; Blehert et al. 2009; Gargas et al. 2009; Minnis & Lindner 2013), fungal meningitis (Cryptococcus species; Kidd et al. 2004; Bartlett et al. 2008) and valley fever (Coccidioides species; Kirkland & Fierer 1996; Burt et al. 1997; Fisher et al. 2000). Chytridiomycosis may be the most notorious of these emerging mycoses due to its contributions to dramatic amphibian declines worldwide and its potential to lead to massive biodiversity loss (Berger et al. 1998; Rachowicz et al. 2006; Skerratt et al. 2007). Although the current distributions of these mycoses are often well documented, the factors contributing to their emergence and spread remain largely unknown (Fisher et al. 2012). An accurate reconstruction of past disease expansion including the timing and geography of emergence, as well as the selective environment underlying virulence evolution—is necessary if we are to successfully mitigate the emergence of these pathogens. Understanding pathogen geographic and genetic history is also critical to the prediction of future emergences, new host affiliations and disease outcomes under different environmental scenarios (Burt et al. 1996; Fisher et al. 2001; Wood et al. 2012).

Chytridiomycosis is caused by the fungal pathogen Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (hereafter Bd; Longcore et al. 1999), which now occurs on all continents except Antarctica (Olson et al. 2013). A number of recent studies have explored the genetics of Bd associated with amphibian communities in regions experiencing declines. In the best-studied regions of chytridiomycosis outbreaks (California: Morgan et al. 2007; Vredenburg et al. 2010; Central America: Lips et al. 2006; Cheng et al. 2011; the Pyrenees: Walker et al. 2010; and Australia: Berger et al. 1998; Murray et al. 2010), Bd has recently arrived and in some cases is still spreading. Outbreakassociated pathogen strains in these regions all belong to a single, rapidly expanding clonal lineage (James et al. 2009). This globally distributed clone, termed Bd-GPL (for Global Panzootic Lineage), shows a pattern of low genetic polymorphism without obvious geographic structure (Farrer et al. 2011). Recent surveys, however, have revealed the existence of novel Bd genotypes that are deeply divergent from potentially the hypervirulent Bd-GPL (Farrer et al. 2011; Schloegel et al. 2012; Bataille et al. 2013). These newly discovered genotypes are described from geographic localities (Korea, South Africa, Switzerland and Brazil) that typically are not experiencing disease-associated amphibian declines, demonstrating that the evolutionary history of Bd is substantially more complex than previously realized. We now understand that the Bd evolutionary tree is composed of multiple anciently diverged lineages (Rosenblum et al. 2013), probably with more novel branches that have yet to be discovered.

Our study focuses on the Atlantic Forest (AF) of southeastern Brazil, where one recently discovered novel lineage, Bd-Brazil, is hypothesized to be enzootic (Schloegel et al. 2012). We chose to investigate the regional population genetics of Bd in this zone of deep ancestral variation because the pathogen dynamics in the AF remain enigmatic. Bd is widespread in southeastern Brazil (Toledo et al. 2006; Lisboa et al. 2013; Valencia-Aguilar et al. 2015); however, the dramatic, rapid declines of amphibian species, well documented in other Neotropical regions (Lips et al. 2006; Cheng et al. 2011), have not been observed here. The few modern reports of amphibian declines and local extinctions in this area have not been directly attributed to the emergence of Bd, although their timing is contemporaneous with those in the rest of Latin America (Heyer et al. 1988; Eterovick et al. 2005; Silvano & Segalla 2005).

Retrospective studies of museum-preserved amphibians in Brazil suggest that Bd infection prevalence has remained constant in the coastal AF for over a century (approximately 24% prevalence since 1894; Rodriguez et al. 2014). Furthermore, highly divergent lineages (Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil) that separated from a common ancestor up to 105 000 years ago coexist there (Rosenblum et al. 2013) and are capable of hybridizing (Schloegel et al. 2012). This was the first report of outcrossing in Bd, a pathogen initially thought to only reproduce asexually (Morehouse et al. 2003; James et al. 2009). Evidence that Bd is capable of a sexual cycle in this part of its range is of significant consequence to Bd pathogen dynamics, because this creates the possibility that the evolution of virulence in this region, and elsewhere, may be accelerated by sexual recombination.

The Brazilian AF is a major global biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al. 2000). Although the biome is highly fragmented and deforested with over 84% of its original range lost (Ribeiro et al. 2009), Brazil boasts the highest diversity of amphibian species of any nation (Wake & Vredenburg 2008), and around 60% of these amphibian species are endemic to the AF (Haddad et al. 2013). Brazil is also home to the greatest number of North American bullfrog (Lithobates catesbeianus) farms in the Western Hemisphere (Schloegel et al. 2010). Bullfrogs are highly tolerant to Bd infection, show limited disease symptoms (Garner et al. 2006), and have become established throughout southeastern Brazil (Both et al. 2011), making them a potential vector species (Rödder et al. 2013). The ranaculture export industry in Brazil introduces the additional dynamic of non-native amphibians with the capacity to transmit Bd asymptomatically and presents a plausible mechanism for the intercontinental movement of Bd genotypes (James et al. 2015).

Here, we report on a large-scale regional sampling of field-isolated *Bd* strains from the Brazilian AF, with the

goal of characterizing the spatial distribution and population genetic structure of Brazilian Bd lineages relative to the globally distributed Bd-GPL. These sympatric populations of divergent lineages are an excellent system with which to explore the roles of genetic structure, sexual recombination and local adaptation in shaping the evolution of hypervirulent pathogens. Specifically, our aims were to elucidate the geographic distribution of divergent Bd genotypes across the AF, to quantify genetic diversity within and among Bd populations occurring in Brazil, to determine whether strains are long-term enzootics or recently introduced, and to identify the extent of sexual recombination and hybridization in the region. We also assessed the relationship of Bd genotypes recovered from the AF to a global pool of previously described Bd strains. Combined, our results provide insight into the history of chytridiomycosis in a crucial region of amphibian biodiversity and relate the genetics of Bd in this region with that of the ongoing global panzootic.

#### Materials and methods

#### Field sampling and pathogen isolation

During peak rainfall months (January through February) of 2013 and 2014, we collected native larval anurans at 10 collection sites across six Brazilian states. The infection patterns in amphibian larvae provide a reasonable proxy for infection patterns in the amphibian community across developmental stages. Larvae have been shown to maintain infection throughout metamorphosis (McMahon & Rohr 2015) and are readily infected with Bd strains carried by adults sharing the same environment (Greenspan et al. 2012; Bataille et al. 2013) as most amphibian species do in the Brazilian AF (Haddad et al. 2013). Our north-south transect spanned 2400 km of the AF from the northeastern state of Bahia to the southeastern state of Santa Catarina (39.55°W, 15.42°S to 49.9°W, 27.67°S; Fig. 1). We represented collection points less than 10 km apart by a central coordinate for geographic analyses.

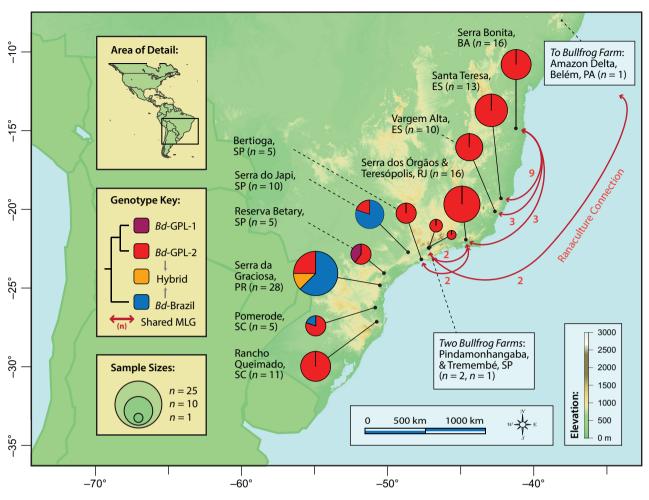
We used a 10X hand lens to screen larvae in the field for signs of chytridiomycosis by assessing the level of oral tissue dekeratinization (Knapp & Morgan 2006). We euthanized animals with signs of *Bd* infection by pithing the brain and spinal cord immediately before confirming the infection with a compound microscope. We dissected infected oral tissues for pathogen isolation on 1% tryptone agar with 0.2 mg/mL penicillin-G and 0.4 mg/mL streptomycin sulphate (Longcore 2000). Isolates of *Bd* were maintained on 1% tryptone agar at 20–21 °C until sufficient growth had occurred for DNA extraction. Finally, we cryopreserved replicate cultures

of all isolates at -80 °C in 1% tryptone broth with cryoprotectant solution (Boyle *et al.* 2003) and deposited them in the University of Maine chytrid culture collection (JEL) and the Universidade Estadual de Campinas Bd culture collection (CLFT).

#### Multilocus sequence typing

Due to increasing awareness that the genomes of Bd isolates change through prolonged laboratory culture (Langhammer et al. 2013; Voyles et al. 2014), we only passaged new isolates two to three times as necessary before DNA extraction. We harvested mature zoospores and sporangia from ~ 7-day-old culture transfers by aseptically scraping fungal tissue from the surface of the agar medium. We used a standard CTAB miniprep protocol with chloroform and isoamyl alcohol to extract DNA from Bd isolates (Zolan & Pukkila 1986). We then amplified DNA extracts with ExTaq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa) and purified the PCR products using Exo-SAP-IT (Affymetrix). We Sanger sequenced 12 polymorphic multilocus sequence typing (MLST) loci on an ABI 3730 DNA analyser (Applied Biosystems) at the University of Michigan DNA Sequencing Core. Seven of these MLST markers were previously described (8009X2, BDC5, BdSC3.1, BdSC4.16, BdSC6.15, BdSC7.6, R6064; Morehouse et al. 2003; Morgan et al. 2007; James et al. 2009; Schloegel et al. 2012). Because previously published markers were designed before the discovery of the Bd-Brazil lineage, and may be biased towards capturing variation in Bd-GPL, we designed five new markers for this study (BdSC2.0, BdSC6.8, BdSC9.1, BdSC11.5, BdSc16.2; Table S1, Supporting information). For a subset of our samples, we also sequenced markers BDC24 (James et al. 2009), BdSC4.3 and BdSC8.10 (Schloegel et al. 2012) to compare with previously published global Bd genotypes; however, we discontinued sequencing of these markers when they were observed to be monomorphic within each major lineage in our transect.

To develop the additional markers, we explored a data set of published *Bd* genomes, including representatives of the *Bd*-GPL, *Bd*-Cape and *Bd*-Brazil lineages (Farrer *et al.* 2011; Rosenblum *et al.* 2013), and searched for regions of high potential heterozygosity with a custom-designed, sliding-window PERL script. We also found protein-coding regions containing trinucleotide repeat expansions, which are known to be of potential utility as population informative markers (Di Rienzo *et al.* 1994; Orr & Zoghbi 2007), by BLASTN of the reference genome of *Bd* (JEL423; Broad Institute version 17-Jan-2007). We then screened regions of high relative heterozygosity and variable repeating sequence for polymorphic sites by designing primers in flanking regions using PRIMER 3 (Rozen & Skaletsky 1999).



**Fig. 1** Spatial distribution of *Bd*-GPL-1, *Bd*-GPL-2, hybrid and *Bd*-Brazil genotypes at collection sites along a 2400-km transect of the Atlantic Forest of Brazil. Diameters of pie graphs represent sample sizes. A hybrid zone is evident in Serra da Graciosa, Paraná. One site; Serra do Japi, São Paulo supports a higher frequency of Brazilian endemic genotypes than any other sample site in the Atlantic Forest. Red arrows indicate shared multilocus genotypes inferred from 12 markers and the total number of clonal isolates observed.

#### Data analyses

We assigned genotypes to each Bd isolate by comparing nucleotide sequences to reference sequences with SEQUENCHER v4.10.1 (GeneCodes). We calculated descriptive indices of molecular diversity including observed heterozygosity ( $H_{\rm O}$ ), and average gene diversity (expected heterozygosity,  $H_{\rm E}$ ; Nei 1987) with arlequin v3.5.1.3 (Excoffier & Lischer 2010). To quantify the degree of genetic similarity between geographic populations, we calculated pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$  values between populations with arlequin and constructed a population level neighbour-joining dendrogram from the resulting  $F_{\rm ST}$  matrix with the R package GPLOTS.

In the absence of sexual reproduction, clonal diploid lineages are predicted to accumulate heterozygosity through mutation leading to highly negative  $F_{\rm IS}$  values (De Meeûs *et al.* 2006). To test for evidence of historical

recombination within lineages, we calculated global and locus-specific  $F_{IS}$  values for individual populations using Weir & Cockerham's (1984) method implemented in GENEPOP v4.0.10 (Rousset 2008). We also conducted Hardy-Weinberg (HW) exact tests for deviations from expectation under a random mating model for each locus with GENEPOP. As an alternative test for recombination utilizing disequilibrium among loci, we determined the index of association (IA; Smith et al. 1993; Agapow & Burt 2001) for each geographic population. The index of association (IA) describes the degree of disequilibrium between genotypes and has been useful in inferring the occurrence of cryptic recombination in putatively asexual populations (Burt et al. 1996). We tested for significant deviation from 1000 random multilocus permutations of genotypes under a random mating model with POPPR v1.1.2 (Kamvar et al. 2014).

We used PAUP\* v4.0b10 (Swofford 2002) to construct a neighbour-joining dendrogram of newly collected isolates and previously published genotypes after clone correction (removal of identical genotypes within a geographic population to account for nonindependent sampling). We estimated genetic distance between genotypes for this analysis with a hetequal coding strategy, which assumes heterozygous polymorphisms in each marker to be one step from the nearest heterozygote and two steps from other heterozygotes (Mountain & Cavalli-Sforza 1997; James et al. 2009). Support values for clades in the neighbour-joining dendrogram were inferred by bootstrapping over 1000 replicates. We visualized genotype clustering of our samples within a globally sampled panel of previously published Bd genotypes with a principal components analysis (PCA) conducted using R packages ADE4 (Dray & Dufour 2007) and ADEGENET (Jombart 2008). For this analysis, we were constrained to a set of markers overlapping with those sequenced in prior studies. Because of this, we used a subset of our isolates for which the monomorphic markers BDC24, BdSC4.3 and BdSC8.10 were sequenced. Finally, we constructed a summary map of genotype distributions in southeastern Brazil using the R packages MAPTOOLS and PLOTRIX.

#### Ethics statement

We performed all investigations involving live animals and the international export of pathogen cultures following protocols approved by the University of Michigan's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocols: PRO00000009 and PRO00005605), and the Brazilian Ministry of the Environment's Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio permits: 27745-8 and 35779-4).

#### Results

Heterogeneous distribution of enzootic and hybrid lineages

We successfully isolated 111 new strains of *Bd* from infected anurans across our sampling transect (Table 1) and analysed them along with eleven previously published Brazilian isolates, including five isolates from Brazilian farmed *L. catesbeianus* (Schloegel *et al.* 2012). We recovered 77 unique multilocus genotypes (MLG) after clone-correcting our data set; 61 were *Bd*-GPL and 14 were *Bd*-Brazil (Table 2). We collected two new hybrid strains represented by a single clonal MLG, which was distinct from that of the hybrid strain originally reported by Schloegel *et al.* (2012). For our seven lineage-informative markers (*8009X2*, *BDC5*, *BdSC2.0*,

*BdSC4.16, BdSC6.15, BdSC6.8, BdSC9.1*), there were no shared alleles between the *Bd*-GPL and *Bd*-Brazil lineages. Our hybrid strains were always heterozygous with one allele from each parental lineage at each of these informative markers. Additionally, no more than two alleles were ever observed at any of the 12 markers, confirming that these were hybrid strains, and not cases of coinfection by *Bd*-Brazil and *Bd*-GPL.

Bd-Brazil and hybrid genotypes were confined to a narrow coastal zone between 23°S and 27°S in the southeastern AF (Fig. 1). Representatives of the globally distributed Bd-GPL lineage were found at all 10 of our sampling sites and were the only genotypes present on non-native amphibians (Table 1). The PCA with a global pool of published Bd genotypes showed that the Brazilian AF harbours a high level of overall genetic diversity when compared to the global panel of Bd-GPL strains (Fig. 2). The diagnostic marker R6046 (Morehouse et al. 2003), which differentiates the mostly temperate North American/European Bd-GPL-1 clade of Schloegel et al. (2012) from the globally distributed Bd-GPL-2, showed that all of our Bd-GPL representatives belonged to the globally distributed Bd-GPL-2 group except for two isolates from Reserva Betary in São Paulo State which belonged to Bd-GPL-1 (Fig. 3).

The proportion of enzootic and hybrid genotypes across all sampled sites in our transect was 23.9% (21.4% *Bd*-Brazil; 2.5% hybrids). However, the prevalence of non-*Bd*-GPL genotypes, in sites where present, ranged from 80.0% (8/10) in Serra do Japi, São Paulo; and 73.1% (19/26) in Serra da Graciosa, Paraná; to 20.0% (1/5) in Pomerode, Santa Catarina. *Bd*-Brazil and hybrid genotypes were not found at the northern or southern extremes of the transect. Where present, these genotypes were restricted to hosts in the genera *Hylodes* and *Bokermannohyla*. Our two newly isolated hybrid strains were from *Bokermannohyla hylax* hosts, both from the Serra da Graciosa hybrid site in the state of Paraná where a previous hybrid strain was reported (Schloegel *et al.* 2012).

Patterns of genetic diversity of Bd lineages in the Atlantic Forest

Global heterozygosity ( $H_{\rm O}$ ) across all AF isolates was 0.473, gene diversity ( $H_{\rm E}$ ) was 0.511 (Table 2), and the inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{\rm IS}$ ) was 0.074 after clone correction. When analysed independently, all major lineages had negative  $F_{\rm IS}$  values, indicating an excess of heterozygotes relative to HW equilibrium expectations (Table 3). The Bd-GPL lineage had slightly higher overall  $H_{\rm O}$  across all alleles compared to the global mean (0.475), while Bd-Brazil was slightly less heterozygous (0.423), but this difference in heterozygosity was not

 Table 1
 Atlantic Forest Bd isolates analysed in this study with associated collection dates, geographic origins, host species and collectors

Isolate	Lineage	Year	Geographic origin, Municipality	State	Host species	Collector
CLFT021	Bd-GPL	2010	2010 Serra do Japi, Cabreúva		Unidentified sp.	L. F. Toledo &
CLFT024/02	Hybrid	2011	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	C. A. Vieira L. F. Toledo &
CLF1024/02	Tiybiid	2011	Seria da Graciosa, Morretes	1 K	Tigioues curuosoi	C. A. Vieira
CLFT026	Bd-GPL	2011	Reserva Betary, Iporanga	SP	Hypsiboas faber	C. Lambertini
CLFT029	Bd-GPL	2011	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hypsiboas albopunctatus	C. Lambertini
CLFT030	Bd-GPL	2012	Bertioga	SP	Hylodes phyllodes	C. Lambertini
CLFT031	Bd-GPL	2012	Bertioga	SP	Hylodes phyllodes	C. Lambertini
CLFT032	Bd-GPL	2012	Bertioga	SP	Hylodes phyllodes	C. Lambertini
CLFT033	Bd-GPL	2012	Bertioga	SP	Hylodes phyllodes	C. Lambertini
CLFT034	Bd-GPL	2013	Bertioga	SP	Hylodes phyllodes	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT035	Bd-GPL	2013	Reserva Betary, Iporanga	SP	Hypsiboas faber	K. R. Zamudio
CLFT036	Bd-GPL	2013	Reserva Betary, Iporanga	SP	Hypsiboas faber	D. Rodriguez
CLFT037	Bd-GPL	2013	Reserva Betary, Iporanga	SP	Hypsiboas faber	K. R. Zamudio
CLFT038	Hybrid	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT039	Hybrid	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT040	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	L. F. Toledo
CLFT041	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	D. Rodriguez
CLFT042	Bd-GPL	2013	Reserva Betary, Iporanga	SP	Hypsiboas faber	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT043	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT044	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT045	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT046	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT047	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT048	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT049	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT050	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT051	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT052	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT053	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	K. R. Zamudio
CLFT054	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	D. Rodriguez
CLFT055	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. Y. James
CLFT056	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT057	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT058	Bd-GPL	2013	Rancho Queimado	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT060	Bd-GPL	2013	Pomerode	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT061	Bd-Brazil	2013	Pomerode	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT062	Bd-GPL	2013	Pomerode	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT063	Bd-GPL	2013	Pomerode	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT064	Bd-GPL	2013	Pomerode	SC	Hylodes meridionalis	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT065	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT066	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	J. E. Longcore
CLFT067	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT068	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT070	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	J. E. Longcore
CLFT071	Bd-Brazil	2013	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT073	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Aplastodiscus sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT074	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Unidentified sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT075	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	ŔĴ	Unidentified sp.	T. Y. James
CLFT076	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	ŔĴ	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT077	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT078	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. Y. James
CLFT079	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. Y. James
CLFT080	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT081	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Unidentified sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT082	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. M. Betancourt

Table 1 Continued

Isolate	Lineage	Year	Geographic origin, Municipality	State	Host species	Collector
CLFT083	Bd-GPL	2013	Lago Iacy, Teresópolis	RJ	Scinax hayii	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT084	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT085	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Unidentified sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT086	Bd-GPL	2013	Serra dos Órgãos National Park	RJ	Unidentified sp.	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT087	Bd-GPL	2013	Lago Iacy, Teresópolis	RJ	Scinax hayii	C. M. Betancourt
CLFT088	Bd-GPL	2013	Lago Iacy, Teresópolis	RJ	Scinax hayii	C. M. Betancourt &
					, and the second	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT095	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT096	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT097	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT098	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT099	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT100	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT101	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Aplastodiscus sp.	A. V. Aguilar &
			,		1 1	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT102	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT103	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT104	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT105	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT106	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT107	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT108	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT109	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT110	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra Bonita, Camacan	BA	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT111	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Aplastodiscus sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT113	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT114	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT115	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT116	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT117	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT118	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT119	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT120	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT121	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT121	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT122 CLFT123	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	C. Lambertini
CLFT123	Bd-GPL	2014	Santa Teresa	ES	Bokermannohyla sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT124 CLFT126	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Phyllomedusa sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT120 CLFT127	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Dendropsophus minutus	T. Y. James
CLFT127 CLFT128	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Aplastodiscus sp.	T. Y. James
CLFT129	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Aplastodiscus sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT130	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Scinax fuscovarius	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT130	Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta	ES	Lithobates catesbeianus	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT131 CLFT132	Bd-GPL	2014	=	ES	Dendropsophus minutus	
CLFT132 CLFT133	Bd-GPL		Vargem Alta	ES		A. V. Aguilar
CLFT133 CLFT134	ва-GPL Bd-GPL	2014	Vargem Alta		Phyllomedusa sp. Phyllomedusa sp.	A. V. Aguilar
CLFT134 CLFT135	ва-GPL Bd-GPL	2014 2014	Vargem Alta	ES ES		T. S. Jenkinson K. R. Zamudio
			Vargem Alta		Scinax fuscovarius	
CLFT136	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Bokermannohyla hylax	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT137	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT138	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	C. Lambertini
CLFT139	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT141	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	L. F. Moreno de Lima
CLFT142	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Crossodactylus schmidti	P. P. Morão
CLFT143	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT144	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT145	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	P. P. Morão
CLFT146	<i>Bd-</i> Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson

Table 1 Continued

Isolate	Lineage	Year	Geographic origin, Municipality	State	Host species	Collector
CLFT148	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT149	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT150	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	P. P. Morão
CLFT151	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	P. P. Morão
CLFT152	Bd-GPL	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Crossodactylus schmidti	T. S. Jenkinson
CLFT153	Bd-Brazil	2014	Serra da Graciosa, Morretes	PR	Hylodes cardosoi	T. S. Jenkinson
JEL648	Bd-Brazil	2010	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	J. E. Longcore
JEL649	Bd-Brazil	2010	Serra do Japi, Jundiaí	SP	Hylodes japi	J. E. Longcore
LMS902	Bd-GPL	2008	Pindamonhangaba (farm)	SP	Lithobates catesbeianus	L. M. Schloegel
LMS925	Bd-GPL	2008	Pindamonhangaba (farm)	SP	Lithobates catesbeianus	L. M. Schloegel
LMS929	Bd-GPL	2008	Belém (farm)	PA	Lithobates catesbeianus	L. M. Schloegel
LMS931	Bd-GPL	2009	Tremembé (farm)	SP	Lithobates catesbeianus	L. M. Schloegel
UM142	Bd-Brazil	2009	Ypsilanti, U.S.A. (market)	MI	Lithobates catesbeianus	T. Y. James

Brazilian state abbreviations are as follows: Bahia (BA), Espírito Santo (ES), Rio de Janeiro (RJ), São Paulo (SP), Paraná (PR) and Santa Catarina (SC).

significant (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, P=0.885). As expected, the hybrid isolates displayed significantly higher levels of observed heterozygosity than the other lineages ( $H_{\rm O}=0.750$ ; Wilcoxon rank-sum test, P=0.012).

Mean gene diversity ( $H_E$ ) across populations differed significantly between lineages, 0.374 in Bd-GPL and 0.287 in Bd-Brazil (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, P = 0.041). Evidence of marker ascertainment bias was observed, however, when our newly developed markers were analysed separately. The significant difference in average gene diversity was not evident when mean  $H_{\rm E}$  was calculated using only our new markers designed from genome sequences of Bd-Brazil (Fig. 4; Wilcoxon ranksum test, P = 0.909), whereas previously published markers analysed separately differed in mean  $H_{\rm E}$  (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, P = 0.030). Average allele richness over all loci ranged from 1.725 alleles in Bd-GPL to 1.667 in Bd-Brazil. The hybrid population had significantly higher gene diversity than the other lineages  $(H_{\rm E}=0.569;~{
m Wilcoxon}~{
m rank-sum}~{
m test},~P=0.004),~{
m and}$ elevated mean allele richness (2.083 alleles). Genotypic diversity (defined as the proportion of unique MLGs per sample) of the entire AF data set was 0.658. Genotypic diversity did not differ between lineages, with average genotypic diversities of 0.583 in Bd-Brazil vs. 0.685 in Bd-GPL (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, P = 0.731). One of our twelve sampled loci (BdSC16.2) was monomorphic in Bd-GPL, whereas three loci (8009X2, BDC5, BdSC4.16) were monomorphic in Bd-Brazil.

Population genetic structure of Atlantic Forest Bd isolates

Both lineages were subdivided by geography (Fisher's exact test; both lineages: P < 0.001). A clustering

dendrogram constructed from pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$  values between  $Bd\text{-}{\rm GPL}$  populations with more than three sequenced isolates grouped geographic populations into two major groups with high bootstrap support (Fig. 5). These groups are unexpectedly structured in that three populations from the extreme northern transect (Serra Bonita, Bahia; Vargem Alta, Espírito Santo; and Santa Teresa, Espírito Santo) cluster with the extreme southern population of Rancho Queimado, Santa Catarina. Geographic subpopulations of  $Bd\text{-}{\rm GPL}$  were weakly isolated by distance (r=0.012; Mantel test P=0.037). We did not test for significant isolation by distance in  $Bd\text{-}{\rm Brazil}$  populations due to the limited sample size of populations.

Despite the significant subdivision among populations, four Bd-GPL MLGs were shared among sample sites in our transect indicating gene flow, or recent, rapid expansion (Figs 1 and 3). The population of Serra Bonita, Bahia, shared one MLG each with the adjacent northeastern sample sites of Santa Teresa and Vargem Alta, both in Espírito Santo State (maximum distance = 521 km). Serra dos Órgãos, Rio de Janeiro State and Bertioga in São Paulo State (distance = 342 km) shared one MLG. The greatest distance between shared MLGs from native amphibians was between Serra Bonita and Serra dos Órgãos (891 km). We also found shared MLGs associated with the ranaculture industry. Isolates from one bullfrog farm in Tremembé, São Paulo, shared MLGs with those from both native and farmed amphibians. This bullfrog farm isolate (LMS931) shared a clonal genotype with an isolate collected in Serra dos Órgãos, a protected national park. The Tremembé farm isolate also shared a genotype with an isolate from a bullfrog farm in Belém, Pará (Schloegel et al. 2012), in the Amazon River delta separated by over 2600 km. No shared Bd-GPL MLGs were observed in

Table 2 Atlantic Forest Bd populations sampled for this study with respective sample sizes (N) and indices of genetic diversity

					Clone-corrected data		
Populations	N	MLGs	Mean allele richness	Genotypic diversity	Observed heterozygosity ( <i>H</i> <sub>O</sub> )	Expected heterozygosity (gene diversity, $H_{\rm E}$ )	
1. Serra Bonita, BA	16	7	1.667	0.438	0.536	0.330	
2. Santa Teresa, ES	13	7	1.667	0.539	0.429	0.306	
3. Vargem Alta, ES	10	7	1.750	0.700	0.500	0.350	
4. Serra dos Órgãos & Teresópolis, RJ	16	14	1.750	0.875	0.512	0.369	
5. Serra do Japi, SP	10						
Bd-GPL	2	2	1.667	1.000	0.500	0.417	
Bd-Brazil	8	6	1.583	0.750	0.403	0.292	
6. Bertioga, SP	5	5	1.667	1.000	0.417	0.328	
7. Reserva Betary, SP	5	4	1.833	0.800	0.458	0.417	
8. Serra da Graciosa, PR	26						
Bd-GPL	7	7	1.917	1.000	0.488	0.406	
Bd-Brazil	16	7	1.750	0.438	0.440	0.293	
Hybrids	3	2	2.083	0.667	0.750	0.569	
9. Pomerode, SC	5						
Bd-GPL	4	3	1.667	0.750	0.417	0.350	
Bd-Brazil	1	1	1.417	1.000	0.417	0.417	
10. Rancho	11	9	1.667	0.818	0.444	0.304	
Queimado, SC							
All Bd-GPL	89	61		0.685	0.475	0.374	
All Bd-Brazil	25	14		0.583	0.423	0.287	
Global	117	77		0.658	0.473	0.511	

Populations of enzootic and hybrid lineages are shaded grey.

the southwestern sample sites of the collection transect, and no MLGs were shared between *Bd*-Brazil populations (maximum distance = 320 km).

The neighbour-joining dendrogram (Fig. 3) revealed a lack of geographic structure in the Bd-GPL lineage. Instead, clades were composed of isolates from disparate geographic populations and several clades included Bd-GPL populations from extremes of the AF transect. Conversely, geographic populations of Bd-Brazil form site-specific clades with the exception of the isolate CLFT071 from Serra do Japi, São Paulo State, which forms a clade with the Bd-Brazil isolate UM142, originally cultured from a captive L. catesbeianus for sale in a United States food market (Schloegel et al. 2012). The PCA of AF isolates with a global pool of previously sequenced isolates showed significant clusters representing all genotypic lineages known to occur in the Western Hemisphere (Fig. 2), with a total of 21.7% of genetic variation explained by the first three principal components. Brazilian AF MLGs of Bd are represented in each cluster. The PCA also shows the Bd-GPL clade forming two clusters representing the Bd-GPL-1 and Bd-GPL-2 split. Our AF Bd-GPL-1 representative, for which we sequenced sufficient overlapping loci with previously sequenced isolates, was separated from the rest of the *Bd*-GPL-1 cluster. The two Brazilian hybrid MLGs are separated across all three axes of our PCA, indicating an appreciable degree of genetic distance between hybrid MLGs.

# Signatures of recombination in Atlantic Forest Bd populations

Both Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil lineages had highly negative  $F_{\rm IS}$  estimates, as predicted for a predominantly asexual population (De Meeûs et~al.~2006). We calculated  $F_{\rm IS}$  values from clone-corrected data to control for nonindependent clonal samples (Table 3). The Bd-GPL displayed an  $F_{\rm IS}$  closer to zero (-0.245) than the Bd-Brazil lineage (-0.416). Both the Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil lineages deviated from expected heterozygosities under HW equilibrium expectations (P < 0.001 and P = 0.0012, respectively). However, not all loci matched these trends. When analysed by lineage using HW exact tests, we failed to reject the null expectation for 36.4% (4/11) of the informative markers in the Bd-GPL group (significance cut-off  $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Within the Bd-Brazil lineage, we failed to reject the null expectation in 42.9% (3/7) of the

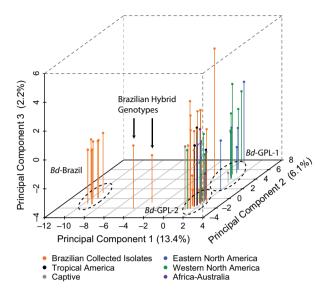


Fig. 2 Principal components ordination plot of a global panel of Bd representatives from this and previously published studies, for which 10 multilocus sequence typing markers have been sequenced. Brazilian Atlantic Forest multilocus genotypes are highlighted in orange and show the greatest degree of genetic diversity of any sampled global region. The major lineages Bd-Brazil, Bd-GPL-1, and Bd-GPL-2 are outlined. The three major principal components explain 21.7% of currently sampled genetic variation in Bd.

informative markers. To eliminate the potential artefact of reduced heterozygosity in pooled populations that are significantly subdivided (the Wahlund effect), we also performed HW exact tests on each geographic population with more than three sequenced MLGs (Table S2, Supporting information). Among the nine *Bd*-GPL populations with adequate sampling, 81.3% (61/75) of the informative markers did not differ from null HW expectations, and 76.9% (10/13) of the informative loci did not significantly differ from null expectations in the *Bd*-Brazil populations.

In a separate test for historical recombination, genotype data from both the Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil lineages were randomly shuffled over 1000 permutations using a nonparametric bootstrap resampling approach to generate a null distribution of  $I_{\rm A}$  values under a random recombination model. The observed index of association estimated for Bd-GPL significantly differed from the randomized distribution (Table 3 and Fig. 6A; P=0.009), whereas the  $I_{\rm A}$  of our Bd-Brazil data set did not (Fig. 6B; P=0.465).

#### Discussion

Emerging fungal pathogens are a growing threat to global biodiversity and have already disrupted host populations throughout a range of habitats (Fisher *et al.*)

2012). Despite the urgent need to comprehend the causes and consequences of disease emergence, our understanding of fungal pathogen biology lags behind that of other taxonomic groups (Giraud et al. 2008), which in turn hinders an informed response to their outbreaks. Prior population studies of fungal pathogen systems have revealed that divergent host adaptation (Fisher et al. 2005; Gladieux et al. 2011), recombination (Stukenbrock et al. 2012) and pathogen translocation to new environments (Gladieux et al. 2015) may all play important roles in emergence. Our study presents a large-scale regional sample of genotyped Bd isolates from the Brazilian AF. The AF is the only global region where all of the aforementioned forces appear to have contributed to local Bd population dynamics. As such, the examination of these populations provides a valuable opportunity to better understand the evolutionary history of Bd, and to predict the consequences of lineage divergence, hybridization, and strain translocation on disease outcomes as chytridiomycosis continues to spread to new environments.

## Long-term population history of Bd in the Atlantic Forest

The only extensive prior study of Bd in the Brazilian AF focused on a temporal sampling of museum-preserved amphibian specimens dating back to 1894 (Rodriguez et al. 2014). In that study, the authors genotyped 52 Bd infections from skin swabs using a single ribosomal marker (ITS1) and concluded that Bd had not been introduced to Brazil over their 116-year sampling period. Based on those results, the authors hypothesized that both the Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil lineages may have been endemic to the AF. However, based on a single hypervariable marker (Nilsson et al. 2008; Bataille et al. 2013), the Rodriguez et al. (2014) study was not able to address the history of Bd in Brazil before their earliest sample. On the other hand, our multilocus data set provided a more robust opportunity to make inferences about population history before 1894. Both of our studies conclude that Bd-Brazil is an endemic lineage to the AF, but our study calls into question the hypothesis that Bd-GPL originated in Brazil. The combined evidence between our two studies agrees that Bd-GPL was already in Brazil before the import, and subsequent escape, of the North American bullfrog for trade in the early 20th century, but the question to be resolved is whether Bd-GPL has been present in the AF as a longterm endemic.

Population genetic theory predicts lineages that have been stable in a given locality should have proportionally greater genetic diversity than recently translocated lineages due to the founder effect (Hartl & Clark 1997).

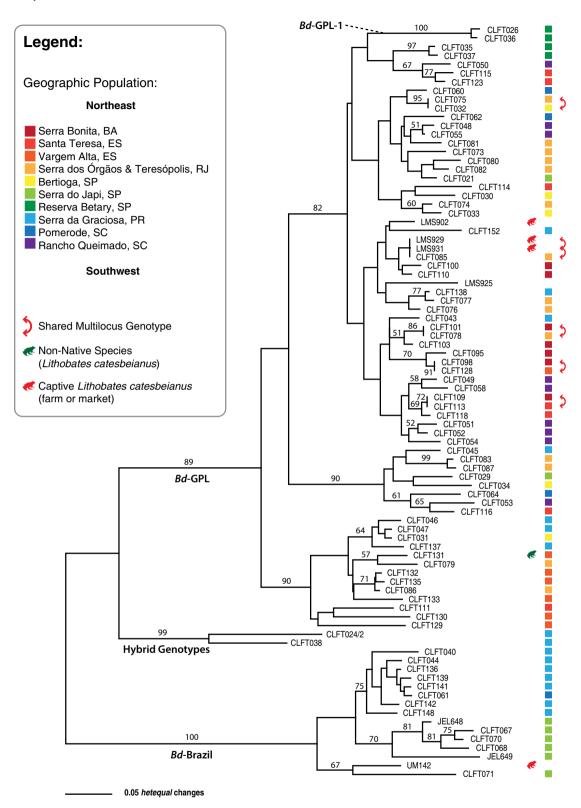


Fig. 3 Neighbour-joining dendrogram of Brazilian Atlantic Forest multilocus genotypes based on 12 multilocus sequence typing markers, using a *hetequal* distance matrix. Genotypes are labelled with a representative isolate. Nodes leading to major lineages indicated (*Bd*-Brazil, *Bd*-GPL-1 and *Bd*-GPL-2). Collection localities are indicated by a colour scale. Shared multilocus genotypes are indicated by curved arrows, and isolates from non-native and captive hosts are marked with green and red icons, respectively. Nodes with bootstrap support greater than 50% across 1000 bootstrap replicates are indicated.

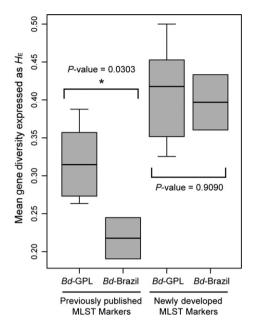
**Table 3** Population-specific inbreeding coefficients and indices of association after clone correction, with associated *P*-values from the results of Hardy–Weinberg exact tests and random permutation tests under a model of random recombination

	Hardy– Weinber	0	Index of association permutation test	
Population	$F_{\rm IS}$	P-value	$I_{\rm A}$	<i>P</i> -value
1. Serra Bonita, BA	-0.709	<0.0001	-0.291	0.8111
2. Santa Teresa, ES	-0.450	0.0016	0.346	0.1728
3. Vargem Alta, ES	-0.482	0.0003	0.086	0.3287
4. Serra dos Órgãos &	-0.406	< 0.0001	0.281	0.0629
Teresópolis, RJ				
5. Serra do Japi, SP				
Bd-GPL	-0.333	0.3500	Permuta	tion test
			not con	ducted
			(N < 3)	<i>'</i>
<i>Bd</i> -Brazil	-0.436	0.0068	0.179	0.2577
6. Bertioga, SP	-0.316	0.0547	-0.019	0.4595
7. Reserva Betary, SP	-0.119	0.2857	3.38	0.0020
8. Serra da Graciosa, PR				
Bd-GPL	-0.224	0.1534	1.063	0.0050
Bd-Brazil	-0.569	0.0001	-0.009	0.4386
Hybrids	-0.565	0.0382	Permutation test	
			not con	
			(N < 3)	)
9. Pomerode, SC			/	
Bd-GPL	-0.250	0.2726	-0.556	0.6623
Bd-Brazil	Exact tes		Permutation test	
	conducted		not conducted	
10 P 1 0 1 1 00	(N=1)	,	(N < 3)	
10. Rancho Queimado, SC	-0.506	< 0.0001	0.517	
All Bd-GPL	-0.245	<0.0001	0.226	0.0099
All Bd-Brazil	-0.416	0.0012	-0.013	0.465
All Populations	0.074	<0.0001		

*P*-values in bold indicate significant deviations from null expectations under Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium or an association model of random recombination. Populations of enzootic and hybrid lineages are shaded grey.

Based on our analysed set of marker loci, it would initially appear that *Bd*-GPL is as genetically diverse as *Bd*-Brazil. Upon further investigation, however, multiple lines of evidence from our study support the hypothesis that the *Bd*-Brazil lineage may have been present in the Brazilian AF longer than *Bd*-GPL.

First, estimates of genetic diversity based on population markers designed before the discovery of novel Brazilian lineages are confounded by an inherent bias towards capturing variation in Bd-GPL and not in Bd-Brazil. When our newly developed markers are analysed independently, a difference in gene diversity ( $H_{\rm E}$ ) between the two lineages is no longer observed (Fig. 4). In a recent study of comparative genomic diversity which included two Bd-Brazil isolates and a global



**Fig. 4** Comparison of previously published MLST markers and newly developed markers accounting for genomic variation in *Bd*-Brazil. Previously published markers show bias towards capturing variation in the *Bd*-GPL lineage. Mean gene diversity differs significantly among lineages (\*) only when calculated separately using previously published markers (Wilcoxon rank-sum test), but significant differences are not observed when newly developed markers are analysed separately.

panel of Bd-GPL isolates (Rosenblum et al. 2013), higher heterozygosity was observed within Bd-Brazil strains lending support to our hypothesis at the genomic level. Within our data set, other historical factors specific to Brazil may have also had an effect on current day diversity estimates. Multiple successive introductions of Bd-GPL—which we infer must have occurred at least twice based on the co-occurrence of both major GPL genotypes (Bd-GPL1 and Bd-GPL2) in the Reserva Betary population—would increase diversity in the Bd-GPL obscuring the expected differences in diversity between the Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil lineages. Because of these variable factors influencing our observed genetic diversity, we chose not to base our conclusions on this line of evidence, opting instead for stronger infralineage based comparisons.

Second, if *Bd*-GPL had been present as a long-term endemic in the AF, geographic structuring should be evident, especially after more than four centuries of anthropogenic habitat fragmentation introducing barriers to dispersal. Three geographic analyses independently show that *Bd*-GPL has not been present in the AF long enough for the establishment of geographic structuring. In contrast, *Bd*-Brazil is geographically structured, most likely as a result of long-term endemism. Our genotype dendrogram (Fig. 3) shows a

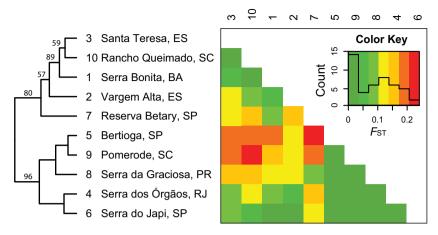
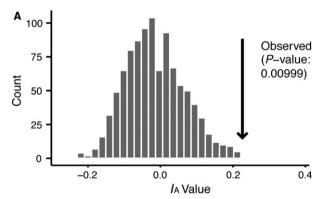


Fig. 5 Heatmap of the pairwise  $F_{ST}$  matrix between Bd-GPL populations and the neighbour-joining dendrogram showing inferred relationships between sample populations based on genetic differentiation. Population labels are numbered from northernmost (1) to southernmost (10) localities. Greener colours indicate low population differentiation ( $F_{ST}$  closer to zero), increasing to red to indicate greater population differentiation. Dendrogram nodes with bootstrap support greater than 50% across 1000 bootstrap replicates are indicated.



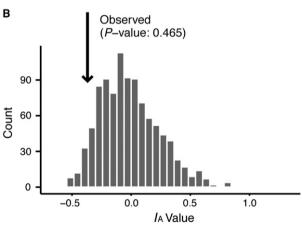


Fig. 6 Histograms of simulated index of association from 1000 permutations of randomization tests under a null model of allelic recombination, and observed values of  $I_{\rm A}$  (indicated by arrows) for the Bd-GPL (A) and Bd-Brazil lineages (B). P-values correspond to the results from the random permutation test comparing observed indices to the distribution of simulation results.

distinct lack of geographic structure in the Bd-GPL clade, whereas our Bd-Brazil genotypes form clades corresponding with geographic origin. Likewise, when we cluster our Bd-GPL populations by pairwise  $F_{ST}$ , we observe only a minor relationship between genetic divergence and geography (Fig. 5). The pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$ analysis indicates that geographically distant populations of Bd-GPL are often less differentiated from one another than they are to their adjacent counterparts, suggesting a rapid and recent expansion (Excoffier et al. 2009). While the possibility exists that historical geographic structure in Bd-GPL could be masked by recent long-range movement of Bd-GPL through the bullfrog trade, this scenario is unlikely given the lack of such long-range movement in Bd-Brazil, which is also known to infect bullfrogs in the ranaculture industry (Schloegel et al. 2012), and whose range overlaps with the potential invasive range of bullfrogs in the AF. It is unlikely that bullfrogs would differentially transmit Bd-GPL to produce the pattern we observe.

Third, only *Bd*-GPL populations share MLG clones, probably due to a recent spread of *Bd*-GPL. Even at short geographic distances, MLGs were never shared among *Bd*-Brazil populations, suggesting that these populations have been separated for longer periods of time without migration. Our observation of shared MLGs concentrated to northern *Bd*-GPL populations indicates that this lineage may have recently expanded northward. If, as we suspect, this pattern were produced by rapid expansion of a recently introduced *Bd*-GPL founding population, *Bd*-GPL populations should show little isolation by distance. Indeed, a Mantel test resulted in a weak correlation between genetic dissimilarity and geo-

graphic distance. Together, these analyses imply a scenario of Bd-GPL introduction within the last few centuries and reflect a relatively short period of time for the accumulation of variation between populations. Again, it is difficult to discern between our hypothesis of historical expansion and a recent increase in gene flow between current populations as the cause of this pattern. Given the highly fragmented nature of the AF, we believe that the former scenario is more plausible. The significant isolation by distance we observe between Bd-GPL populations, albeit weak, indicates that any recent gene flow between populations would have been minimal. We cannot, however, discount the possibility that anthropogenic movement of amphibians may have played a role in shaping the population structure of Bd-GPL in these native amphibian hosts.

Finally, differences in the significant association of alleles from the randomly permutated data sets may indicate major differences in the population histories of the two divergent AF lineages (Fig. 6). Under random recombination over sufficient time, the index of association between alleles in a population is predicted to approach zero (Smith et al. 1993). In clonal populations —where recombination has been rare or absent—alleles are passed on to asexual daughters in complete disequilibrium, resulting in significantly nonzero  $I_A$  values as seen in Bd-GPL populations. In contrast, our results indicated that the Bd-Brazil lineage has been present in the AF long enough to display genotypic equilibrium through rare recombination. The same tests repeated within our subdivided populations show that the significant association of alleles in the Bd-GPL is not solely due to population subdivision. There may be several possible explanations for the disparity in the association of alleles between lineages. One possibility is that recombination rates differ between the two lineages. A study of the recently discovered, divergent Swiss (Bd-CH) and African (Bd-Cape) lineages suggested that representatives of the divergent lineages might have elevated rates of mitotic recombination relative to Bd-GPL (Farrer et al. 2013). Another possibility may be that the observed index of association in Bd-Brazil is a product of long-term demographic stability. Differential rates of recombination between Bd-GPL and Bd-Brazil have never been examined, and while out of the scope of this study, should be a priority for future research.

#### Implications of current lineage distributions

One of the most striking aspects of our field data was the restriction of enzootic lineages (*Bd*-Brazil and hybrids) to a narrow portion of the AF. One explanation for this pattern may be that enzootic lineages require a higher degree of environmental or host specificity than the Bd-GPL lineage. Temperature and humidity are probable abiotic factors restricting the spread of enzootic lineages through the AF given that the latitudinal range in which we found Bd-GPL is much greater than that of Bd-Brazil. Whether Bd-GPL populations are better able to tolerate extremes in temperature and moisture, however, remains to be tested experimentally. Our results indicate that Bd-GPL arrived more recently to the AF than Bd-Brazil and that it shows signatures of a recent demographic expansion. Taken together, these findings support the hypothesis that Bd-GPL may be a better disperser across fragmented landscapes. The southern range of the AF in the states of São Paulo, Paraná and Santa Catarina contain the most intact remnant patches of forested terrain in coastal Brazil, whereas the northern transect in our study has experienced a history of greater deforestation (Pinto et al. 2014). Studies in this region have shown that Bd infection is more prevalent in pristine vs. disturbed habitats (Becker & Zamudio 2011). A fruitful avenue for future research will be to determine whether certain Bd strains themselves are better able to tolerate extreme or degraded habitats, or whether they are better able to disperse through other mechanisms such as infective differences on specific host species.

Our sampling effort was not designed to explicitly address the question of differences in host specificity between lineages, but the predominant trend in our results is that *Bd*-GPL is able to infect a wider assemblage of amphibian hosts in the AF (Table 1). Interestingly, the northernmost extent of *Bd*-Brazil's observed range coincides with a known biogeographic delimitation between northern and southern climatically adapted AF species (Carnaval *et al.* 2014). Taxonomic groups across this north/south split include many amphibians that may have diversified in separate biogeographic refugia (Carnaval *et al.* 2009; Thomé *et al.* 2010). Palaeoclimatic modelling suggests that during the Late Quaternary glacial maxima, the AF was restricted to smaller, climatically stable refugia.

The predicted refugia most relevant to our collection transect are the large northern Bahia refugium, and a series of smaller southern refugia in the coastal regions of the present-day states of São Paulo and Paraná. These refugia are centres of high host phylogenetic endemism (Carnaval & Moritz 2008), and the *Bd*-Brazil lineage has only been found within the southern centre of historical diversification corresponding to the São Paulo and Paraná refugia. The geographic restriction of *Bd*-Brazil to this centre of AF microendemism, in conjunction with our data supporting the long-term endemism of this lineage, leads us to hypothesize that *Bd*-Brazil was similarly restricted to these southern refugia, where it became locally adapted to co-occurring south-

ern host species. Subsequently, its current distribution may reflect a history of tracking hosts that remained confined to the southern AF due to a combination of habitat heterogeneity and migration barriers.

#### Sexual reproduction and a pathogen hybrid zone

Hybridization can be a driving force in the evolution of fungal pathogen populations (Stukenbrock et al. 2012). Studies of other eukaryotic pathogens show that major changes in phenotype by sexual recombination and hybridization can play a pivotal role in the emergence of virulence (Grigg et al. 2001; Sibley & Ajioka 2008). Bd genotypes that have been geographically or environmentally isolated should have diverged from each other over time as they adapted to local host defences. Sexual outcrossing adds a new dimension by which Bd might explore the fitness landscape, particularly through the generation of variation in pathogenic phenotype. Experimental infections show that the original Brazilian hybrid strain CLFT024/02 causes greater mortality in a non-Brazilian amphibian host (Lithobates sylvaticus) than representative strains from either the parent Bd-Brazil or Bd-GPL lineages (Betancourt Román et al. in review). If similar effects occur in local host populations, the ecological implications could be serious, and the need for more robust biosecurity measures to prevent the export of hybrid strains from Brazil will be pressing.

Our survey recovered two new isolates of hybrid genotypes from Serra da Graciosa, the hybrid locality originally reported by Schloegel et al. (2012). Although sexual reproduction has not been directly observed in Bd in vitro, sexual recombination has probably been an important influence on its genetic history (James et al. 2009; Rosenblum et al. 2013). Our two new hybrid isolates appear to be genetic clones of each other (a single MLG), but significant genetic differences exist between our hybrid isolates and the originally described hybrid CLFT024/02. The hybrid MLGs are distinctly separated across all three axes in our PCA (Fig. 2) and differ at five of our 12 sequenced markers. Of these differences, four loci show patterns inconsistent with the inheritance of alleles from the same Bd-GPL or Bd-Brazil gamete (i.e. different lineage specific parental alleles are present in either hybrid MLG). Hence, these data demonstrate the occurrence of multiple hybridization events in the Paraná hybrid zone.

An alternative explanation is that these hybrid genotypes are divergent lineages resulting from a parasexual mating (a nonmeiotic fusion of diploid parents with the subsequent loss of chromosomes back to the diploid state), which is known to occur in many groups of fungi (Buxton 1956; Caten & Jinks 1966). This would involve tetraploid intermediates and may explain the

higher ploidy levels observed in CLFT024/02 (Schloegel et al. 2012). If hybridization was unrestricted, the expected frequency of hybrid strains should approximately equal the frequency of parental genotypes. Hybrid isolates are rarer than expected in the hybrid zone, which may be due to the incipient accumulation of Dobzhansky–Muller incompatibilities hindering the viability of hybrid offspring, or it could represent the rareness of mating opportunities. It remains to be determined whether specific ecological conditions in the Serra da Graciosa site promote the outcrossing of otherwise reproductively isolated lineages. This site may be a recent contact zone between two previously isolated mating types of *Bd* that recently came back into contact without having lost the ability to outcross.

When testing for the signature of historical sexual reproduction, we could not reject that genotypes in AF Bd populations were in HW equilibrium. Our analyses may have been constrained by sample size and the technical challenges involved in producing statistically powerful MLST data, but independent tests produce results inconsistent with a scenario of strict asexuality in both the Bd-Brazil and Bd-GPL lineages. Contrasting the results of our HW exact tests with our  $I_A$  permutation tests (which are more sensitive to rare recombination) indicates that there is variance among loci in heterozygosity excess, a pattern that can be explained by very rare sex (Balloux et al. 2003) or by mitotic recombination with variable effects across loci. Genotypic equilibrium in Bd-Brazil is consistent with an older lineage, in which more time has allowed recombination to break down linkage associations. Furthermore, absence of HW equilibrium may show that some loci are under selection to maintain heterozygosity, perhaps through overdominance. Deeper knowledge about the historical degree of sexual reproduction in Bd may hold the key to the origin of the global chytridiomycosis panzootic. Our MLST data may not be sufficient to provide satisfactory conclusions about historical recombination events, because those genetic signatures may be eroded by mitotic recombination. Alternatively, a genome resequencing approach combined with predictive population genetic models of genomic heterozygosity under differing reproductive scenarios of may provide greater utility in addressing the influence of historical sexual recombination in shaping present-day lineages of Bd.

#### Roles of anthropogenic disease translocation

Our results also provide evidence of recent genotype translocation between *Bd*-GPL populations in the northeast region of our sampling transect and the South American ranaculture industry. The incorporation of five strains recovered from captive *L. catesbeianus* at

three Brazilian bullfrog farms and one United States food market (Schloegel et al. 2012) provides further insight into the role of the amphibian trade in the longdistance dispersal of Bd strains. Most revealing was the distance between shared MLGs (based on our 12 marker data set) recovered from two geographically distant farms 2600 km apart (in São Paulo State and Pará State). This is over three times the distance of shared MLGs between natural populations of native amphibians in the AF and shows that ranaculture in Brazil is responsible for long-distance Bd transmission. The Bd-Brazil representative previously isolated from a market in the Detroit metro area, Michigan, United States, (UM142; Schloegel et al. 2012) forms a clade with a Bd-Brazil isolate from Serra do Japi, São Paulo (Fig. 3). These results, along with the demonstrated niche overlap between Bd and L. catesbeianus (Rödder et al. 2013), illustrate the growing problem of pathogen transport through the South American bullfrog trade.

#### Conclusion

We hypothesize that the divergent *Bd* lineages in Brazil have each experienced very distinct population histories, but have been brought into close contact in portions of the AF. Our findings that *Bd*-Brazil has a higher degree of geographic structure and may have experienced a greater degree of historical recombination than *Bd*-GPL support a hypothesis of long-term endemism of *Bd*-Brazil, and one or more recent introductions, followed by rapid northward expansion of *Bd*-GPL. Our study expands the known range of the recently discovered *Bd*-Brazil lineage in the AF of Brazil, and we document the existence of a hybrid zone in the state of Paraná with the collection of additional hybrid isolates.

A better understanding of how genetic diversity and phenotypic differences in heterogeneous environments underlie selection on pathogen virulence will be necessary to predict and prevent future emerging diseases like chytridiomycosis. We suggest that crucial insights may be found by disentangling the interplay between cross–strain interactions such as competition and sexual recombination. Although we still have much to learn about these interactions between the pathogen lineages detailed herein, the population genetics of *Bd* in the Brazilian AF show that both forces may be shaping disease dynamics of the region and that the long-range transport of these *Bd* genotypes will pose consequences to pathogen evolution at the global scale.

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T.S.J., T.Y.J., L.F.T. and K.R.Z. conceived of and designed the study. T.S.J., C.M.B., C.L., A.V.A., D.R., C.H.L.N., J.R.G., A.M.B., K.R.Z., J.E.L., L.F.T. and T.Y.J. performed fieldwork. T.S.J., C.M.B., C.L., J.E.L., L.F.T., D.S.L. and T.Y.J. performed laboratory work. T.S.J. and T.Y.J. analysed the data. T.S.J. and T.Y.J. wrote the article.

#### Data accessibility

Multilocus genotype data based on 12 markers with representative allele sequences for each locus has been provided in Genepop format as supplementary information (Appendix S1, Supporting information). Recoded genotype data for neighbour-joining dendrogram and associated distance matrix in Nexus format have been provided as supplementary information (Appendix S2, Supporting information). Multilocus genotype data based on 10 markers and a previously published panel of Bd isolates for PCA with representative allele sequences for each locus have been provided in Genepop format as Supporting Information (Appendix S3, Supporting information).

#### Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

**Table S1** Multilocus sequence typing marker details for loci analysed in this study.

**Table S2** Locus-specific  $F_{\rm IS}$  values of by population and lineage.

**Appendix S1** Multilocus genotype data for Brazilian Atlantic Forest *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* based on 12 loci (Genepop format) and representative allele sequences for each locus.

**Appendix S2** Multilocus genotype data based on 12 loci for Brazilian Atlantic Forest *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* recoded for *hetequal* distance (Nexus format) and associated distance matrix.

**Appendix S3** Multilocus genotype data for a global panel of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* based on 10 loci (Genepop format) and representative allele sequences for each locus.