

1 **New climatically specialized lineages of**
2 ***Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* and their sub-lethal**
3 **effects on amphibians establish the Asiatic origins of**
4 **the pathogen**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Chytridiomycosis, a highly significant global wildlife disease, has caused
22 unprecedented amphibian population declines and species extinctions
23 worldwide. In contrast, mass die-offs due to chytridiomycosis have not
24 been observed in Asia, which is thought to be the ancestral region of
25 origin and a hyper-diversity hotspot of the known causal pathogens,
26 *Batrachochytrium dendrobtiidis* (*Bd*) and *B. salamndrivorans* (*Bsal*). It
27 has been hypothesized that Asian amphibians may have evolved
28 immunity to clinical *Batrachochytrium* infection. However, limited
29 knowledge of endemic lineages, evolutionary history, and climate-related
30 infection patterns limits our ability to explore this hypothesis. Here, we
31 investigated the genetic diversity and infection patterns of the frog-
32 infecting species, *Bd*, in China's poorly-explored Guangxi region. We
33 used the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) marker and the nested PCR
34 method to survey prevalence and haplotype diversity of *Bd* across 17
35 forest sites. A generalized linear model was used to evaluate associations
36 between numerous variables and *Bd* prevalence within native amphibians.
37 Our results identified seven new haplotypes, four of which are closely
38 related to the early-emerging *BdASIA-1* lineage recovered from South
39 Korea. We also identified a unique Asian haplotype, close to the
40 *BdASIA-3* lineage, as the most prevalent (64.6% of *Bd*-infected adult
41 individuals) in 11 out of 15 infected species. This haplotype was also

42 detected in a salamander individual, which exhibited non-lethal skin
43 lesions on the abdomen. The infection of *Bd* within amphibians was
44 found to be positively associated with temperature and elevation. Our
45 findings suggest that there is significant undiscovered genetic diversity of
46 Asian *Bd* lineages in this region. Longer-term studies are required to
47 further investigate *Bd* diversity, prevalence, seasonality and impact on
48 native species and populations in Southern China and across the region of
49 origin in Asia.

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51 **Key words:** Fungal disease; Chytridiomycosis; *Batrachochytrium*
52 *dendrobatidi*; Evolution; Origin; Environmental conditions

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64 **Author Summary**

65 Chytridiomycosis is a disease which is responsible for the sharp decline
66 of amphibian populations and species extinctions around the world.

67 Surprisingly, it has not yet been well-studied in Asia, the region where
68 the two causal pathogens of the disease, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*

69 (*Bd*) and *B. salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*) originated. In order to better
70 understand the lack of mass die-offs in Asia, we recently conducted a

71 study in south China's Guangxi region to investigate the genetic diversity
72 and infection patterns of *Bd*. Through the use of internal transcribed

73 spacer (ITS) markers and nested PCR, we discovered seven new types of
74 *Bd*, four of which were closely related to the early-emerging *BdASIA-1*

75 lineage from South Korea. The highest prevalence of *Bd* infection was

76 observed in 11 species of amphibians, including a salamander which had
77 non-lethal skin lesions. It was also noted that infection of *Bd* in

78 amphibians was associated with temperature and elevation. This study

79 has provided important information on *Bd* diversity and prevalence in the
80 region, and further research is needed to explore Asia as the putative

81 region of origin for this disease.

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86 **Introduction**

87 Emerging pathogenic fungi, such as *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*
88 (*Bd*) and *B. salamandrivorans* (*Bsal*), pose a significant threat to many
89 free-ranging animal taxa, particularly amphibians [1-3]. Since their
90 discovery in the late 1990s and 2013, respectively, these highly virulent
91 pathogens have been known to cause chytridiomycosis in amphibians,
92 resulting in unprecedented impacts on global amphibian diversity [4-9].
93 In particular, *Bd* is considered one of the most feared fungal pathogens
94 infecting vertebrate taxa [8, 10]. It is thought that the geographic origin of
95 *Bd* is in Asia [11]; however, mass mortality of amphibians has not been
96 recorded in this region [12, 13]. Despite this, our understanding of the
97 endemic lineages, complex evolutionary history, genetic diversity,
98 infection patterns, and predictors of *Bd* in the region of origin remains
99 limited.

100 Asia is considered a "cold spot" for chytridiomycosis, as the presence
101 of *Bd* has not been associated with mass die-offs or amphibian population
102 declines [13, 14]. Moreover, prevalence (below 10%) and infection loads
103 (zoospore loads <10000) in infected Asian amphibians are usually below
104 the thresholds associated with clinical disease in other regions [15-17]. It
105 is possible that native amphibian species in Asia have evolved resistance
106 to the clinical impacts of *Bd* infection over the past 50 million years, due
107 to the presence of ancient *Bd* in natural urodele hosts, such as *Andrias*

108 *japonicas* [6, 7, 18, 19].

109 Nevertheless, some Asian amphibian populations have been found to
110 exhibit higher prevalence of *Bd* (i.g. >20%) [18, 20-22]. These
111 populations often harbor multiple *Bd* genotypes, including both endemic
112 lineages and the globally invasive *Bd*GPL. This suggests that certain
113 species in the region may serve as important reservoir hosts, allowing the
114 pathogen to persist across the region [18, 21-23].

115 Two endemic *Bd* lineages, *Bd*ASIA-1 and *Bd*ASIA-2/*Bd*BRAZIL,
116 have been identified in South Korea [11, 22], and *Bd*ASIA-3 has recently
117 been described from Indonesia, Philippines, and China [23]. High ITS-
118 based haplotype diversity of *Bd*GPL and four specific early-emerging
119 haplotypes (JPK, JPJ, IN55, and JPB=CN30=IN05) have been identified
120 in Japan, India, and the Yunnan province of China [18, 23, 24],
121 suggesting that a wide area within the Asian continent is likely the area of
122 origin of *Bd* and the main driver of its genetic diversity.

123 Although China has the largest number of amphibian species in Asia
124 (more than 500 species) [25], only 110 species have been tested for *Bd*
125 infection [26-28]. Of these, approximately 30 native species, as well as
126 two additional exotic species (African clawed frog *Xenopus laevis* and the
127 American bullfrog *Rana catesbeiana*), have been confirmed positive.
128 Despite this, understanding of the diversity and evolution of native *Bd*
129 lineages and their host dynamics is poor in China, likely due to the

130 narrow distributional ranges of many native species [25]. Infected native
131 amphibians have mostly been recorded from the southern regions of
132 China [24, 26-30], which is characterized by a complex geography and
133 pronounced climate variation, particularly in natural forested mountains.
134 Therefore, further knowledge of genetic diversity and the environmental
135 correlates of *Bd* distribution and prevalence in affected habitats across
136 China is essential [23, 24, 30, 31].

137 We hypothesized (1), that southern China likely harbours
138 undiscovered genetic diversity of both endemic Asian *Bd* lineages and
139 globally invasive lineages infecting previously undocumented host
140 species, and (2), that environmental factors, particularly habitat and
141 climate, play a key role in structuring this diversity and infection
142 prevalence. To explore this, we conducted a widespread genetic sampling
143 of *Bd* lineages across 17 sites consisting of various environments and
144 native species.

145 We found new basal haplotypes that putatively belong to the
146 *BdASIA-1* and *BdASIA-3* lineages, suggesting that China is an important
147 epicenter of evolutionary process for *Bd* and highlighting the need for
148 further in-depth studies of *Bd* diversity and infection patterns in the
149 region.

150

151 **Materials and methods**

152 **Study sites**

153 The Guangxi Autonomous Region (GAR, 21°42.45'-25°37.01' N,
154 107°32.59'-110°12.44' E), located in southern China (Fig. 1), covers
155 236,700 km² and is home to a mosaic of habitats that host amphibian
156 species. *Bd* has been reported in seven amphibian species from GAR: a
157 wild caecilian (*Ichthyophis bannanicus*) [28], five frog species
158 (*Fejervarya limnocharis*, *Odorrana schmackeri*, *Rhacophorus dennysi*,
159 *Rhacophorus megacephalus*, *Amolops ricketti*) [30, 33], and one toad
160 species (*Bufo melanostictus*) [29, 32]. The western border of GAR is
161 shared with the province of Yunnan, from which an endemic Asian *Bd*
162 lineage has been described [23].

163 We focused our sampling on four natural and protected forest areas
164 along a latitudinal gradient across GAR (S1Table). These areas lie within
165 the Indo-Burma biodiversity hotspot [33] and capture the climatic and
166 topographic variation of Southern China. The region's climate is sub-
167 tropical and depends on the central and South Asian tropical monsoon,
168 with strongly seasonal rainfall [34]. Our sampling sites ranged in altitude
169 ca. 70 – 1300 m, with vegetation dominated by sub-tropical evergreen
170 broad-leaved forests in the north and sub-tropical evergreen seasonal
171 rainforests in the south.

172 Seventeen field sites were selected based on information on
173 amphibian habitats and accessibility. Seven of these were in southern

174 Guangxi and the remaining ten were in northern Guangxi (Fig. 1). The
175 sites spanned an altitudinal range from 69 – 1310 m above sea level
176 (a.s.l.) and had varying levels of disturbance due to human activities such
177 as villages, tourism, and agriculture. Most of the sites were separated by
178 more than 5 km, but 6 sites were less than 5 km apart because of
179 impassable geographical barriers, such as mountains and torrents.

180 We employed nocturnal visual encounter and acoustic methods to
181 collect *Bd* samples from amphibians between 2019 and 2021. Samples
182 were collected from amphibians dwelling in various habitat types,
183 including forest floors, tree branches, leaves and trunks, and various
184 water bodies such as permanent lakes, periodic and perennial ponds,
185 streams, riparian zones, and ephemeral habitats. We also conducted
186 opportunistic sampling of tadpoles when possible. The infection status of
187 wild amphibians was evaluated by assessing typical clinical signs,
188 including skin lesions, coloration, and shedding of adult amphibians [4,
189 35, 36], and by looking for loss or deformities in keratin-covered regions
190 such as mouthparts, tooth rows, and jaw sheaths for larval anurans [37,
191 38].

192

193 **Molecular diagnostics of *Bd***

194 We swabbed 1088 amphibians consisting of 1012 adults and 76 tadpoles.
195 They consisted of 36 species across 25 genera (S1 Table). All sampling

196 adhered to approved protocols from the Institutional Animal Care and
197 Use Committee (GXU2018-048) at Guangxi University and was
198 conducted with ethical clearance.

199 We collected individuals using clean and unused 10 x 5 cm or 15 x 20
200 cm plastic zippered bags. We followed standardized protocols and
201 biosecurity measures while collecting skin and mouthpart swabs from
202 wild amphibians. To collect mouthpart swabs from larval amphibians, we
203 gently inserted a sterile dry swab with a fine-tip (Medical Wire &
204 Equipment Co. MW 113) and rotated it fifteen times. For adult
205 amphibians, we rubbed their skin with a swab using some pressure and
206 firmly moving the swab over the back, pelvic patch, inside back legs and
207 toes ten times [39-42]. After swabbing, we immediately sealed the swabs
208 into 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes without touching and released the
209 amphibians back to their point of capture. We stored the swab samples at
210 -80°C in the lab until DNA extraction.

211 DNA extraction from swab samples were carried out using PrepMan
212 Ultra reagent (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) [43] and Qiagen
213 DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit [44]. The extracted genome DNA was
214 diluted with nuclease-free water in proportions of 1:10 for follow-up
215 molecular diagnosis, and stored at -80°C [41, 45].

216 We used nested PCR assay for the detection of *Bd* [18, 46]. Total
217 25µl reactions contained 12.5µl, 0.5nM of each primer, 5µl DNA

218 template. The conditions for the first amplification included initial
219 denaturation for 4min at 94°C, 30 cycles of 30s at 94°C, 30s at 50°C and
220 2min at 72°C, and a final extension for 10min at 70°C. The conditions for
221 the second amplification consisted of initial denaturation for 4min at
222 94°C, 30 cycles of 30s at 94°C, 30s at 60°C and 1min at 72°C and a final
223 extension for 10min at 72°C. PCR products were visualized on 1.5%
224 agarose gels, around 300 bp bands were observed, and positive samples
225 for *Bd* were confirmed via re-amplification. Negative and positive
226 controls were used in each PCR amplification. PCR products of positive
227 samples from the second amplification were directly sequenced though
228 Sequencer (Sangon Biotech). A few of the sequenced samples with
229 ambiguous chromatograms of amplicon and positive samples with
230 multiple bands were cloned using Hieff Clone® Zero TOPO-TA Cloning
231 Kit in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol and sequenced using
232 universal primers.

233

234 **Data analysis**

235 **Variations in *Bd* prevalence**

236 We initially summarized infection patterns across *Bd* prevalence and
237 corresponding 95% confidence intervals according to age (adults and
238 larvae), species, sites and months. We used the ‘binconf’ function with
239 Wilson interval in the “Hmisc” package [47]. Then, we further analyzed

240 positive samples phylogenetically and assessed patterns of infection
241 prevalence using generalised linear models (GMLs). See separate sections
242 below for details.

243

244 **Drivers of infection prevalence analysis**

245 We employed an information-theoretic modelling approach [48] to assess
246 the effects of multiple bioclimatic, elevation, season (month), habitat
247 factors, and latitude \square longitude interaction on *Bd* infection in amphibian
248 adults [49-54]. We downloaded 19 bioclimatic variables from the
249 CHELSA version 1.2 database at a resolution of 30 arc sec [55]. We
250 calculated the correlation between bioclimatic factors and elevation, and
251 only selected five variables with a correlation coefficient < 0.70 . To
252 classify adult habitats, we used the activity breadth of adults observed
253 during the non-breeding season [56, 57].

254 We conducted a Generalised Linear Model (GLM) to analyze the
255 influence of eight predictor variables on *Bd* presence/absence in
256 amphibian populations. We used populations infected by *Bd* within sites
257 as the response variable. We set up candidate models based on all
258 possible combinations of the eight factors as explanatory variables, as
259 well as a null model. We also included a candidate model with species as
260 the single explanatory variable to assess whether species per se affect *Bd*
261 presence/absence.

262 Each candidate model was quantified and evaluated based on Akaike
263 Information Criterion (AIC), Akaike second-order corrected (AICc) and
264 Akaike weights (AICw) [58]. The final support model was validated
265 according to the evaluation of homogeneity in the residuals of the models
266 against fitted values [59].

267

268 **Phylogenetic analysis**

269 We analyzed the phylogenetic relationships among newly generated *Bd*
270 haplotypes from this study combined with sequences of ITS1-5.8S-ITS2
271 gene generated in previous studies (S2 Table). Seven outgroup taxa were
272 selected according to [18]. We aligned a total length of 300 bp sequences
273 of ITS1-5.8S rRNA-ITS2 of *Bd* using Clustal W with manual adjustment
274 in MEGA v.7 [60]. Bayesian phylogenetic inference was performed in
275 MrBayes v.3.2.6 [61] with an evolutionary HKY+G model generated in
276 jModelTest v.2.1.10 using the Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) [62].
277 Bayesian analyses were run for 15 million generations in four MCMC
278 chains and 1000 generations sampled, with the initial 25% discarded as
279 burn-in. Running results were visualized to check effective samples sizes
280 (ESS) in Tracer v.1.6 [63]. The trees and posterior probabilities for label
281 nodes were visualized in FigTree v.1.4.3 [64]. Haplotype sequence data
282 of ITS-5.8S gene were generated by calculating the number and diversity
283 of haplotypes in DnaSP v.6 [65]. Haplotype networks were obtained from

284 Network v.10 using the median-joining method [66].

285 Furthermore, we used the bioclimatic and elevation parameters to
286 examine the environmental conditions among *Bd* haplotypes based on a
287 principal component analysis method.

288

289 **Results**

290 **Variation in prevalence of *Bd***

291 The overall prevalence of *Bd* infection across the GAR was 4.74%
292 (95%CI: 3.60%-6.23%) in adult individuals and 5.26% (95%CI: 2.07%-
293 12.77%) in tadpoles. Of 36 amphibian species sampled, 16 had positive
294 *Bd* infections (Table 1). The highest prevalence among species with at
295 least 22 samples was 59.09% (95%CI: 38.73%-76.74%) for *Amolops*
296 *chunganensis*. Among a sample of 15 tadpoles from five or six species, 4
297 from *Hylarana guentheri* were *Bd* positive (26.67%, 95%CI: 10.90%-
298 51.95%; Table 1).

299

300 **Table 1. Prevalence of *Bd* infection and haplotype distribution in 16**
301 **infected species across 13 genera, with *Bd* haplotypes and numbers of**
302 **haplotypes, and 95% CI are indicated within brackets. ★ indicate *Bd***
303 **positive species from previous studies in Asia. Conservation status is**
304 **based on IUCN categories with acronyms representing from low to high**
305 **extinction risk: LC, least concern; NT, near threatened; VU, vulnerable;**

306 EN, endangered; DD, Data Deficiency.

Genus	Species	Sample	Positive (Haplotype)	Prevalence (95%CI)	IUCN
<i>Amolops</i>	Chungan Sucker Frog, <i>Amolops chunganensis</i>	22	13 (GX03)	59.09% (38.73%-76.74%)	LC
	South China Torrent Frog, <i>Amolops ricketti</i>	271	1 (GX10)	0.37% (0.07%-2.06%)	LC
<i>Kurixalus</i>	Serrate-legged Small Treefrog, <i>Kurixalus odontotarsus</i>	42	2 (1: GX02; 1: GX03)	4.76% (1.32%-15.79%)	LC
<i>Odorran</i>	Lungshen Odorous Frog, <i>Odorranalungshengensis</i>	22	6 (GX03)	27.27% (13.15%-48.15%)	NT
	Large Odorous Frog, <i>Odorranagraminea</i>	53	2 (GX03)	3.77% (1.04%-12.75%)	DD
	Bamboo-leaf Frog, <i>Odorranaversabilis</i>	20	3 (GX03)	15.00% (5.24%-36.04%)	LC
<i>Pachytriton</i>	Yaoshan Stout Newt, <i>Pachytriton inexpectatus</i>	20	2 (GX03)	10.00% (2.79%-30.10%)	LC
<i>Quasipa</i>	Spiny-bellied Frog, <i>Quasipaa boulengeri</i> ★	34	1 (GX03)	2.94% (0.52%-14.92%)	EN
<i>Rana</i>	Hanlui Brown Frog, <i>Rana hanluica</i>	4	1 (GX03)	25.00% (4.56%-69.94%)	DD
<i>Kaloula</i>	Asian Painted Frog, <i>Kaloula pulchra</i> ★	1	1 (GX04)	100% (20.65%-100.00%)	LC
<i>Polypedates</i>	Spot-legged Treefrog, <i>Polypedates megacephalus</i> ★	131	1 (GX03)	0.76% (0.13%-4.20%)	LC
<i>Zhangixalus</i>	Large Treefrog, <i>Zhangixalus dennysi</i> ★	32	1 (GX03)	3.13% (0.55%-15.74%)	LC
<i>Leptobrachella</i>	Fujian Metacarpal-tubercl Toad, <i>Leptobrachella liui</i>	19	3 (1: GX01; 2: GX05)	15.79% (5.52%-37.57%)	LC
<i>Theloderma</i>	Red-disked Small Treefrog, <i>Theloderma rhododiscus</i>	38	8 (7: GX05; 1: GX03; 1: GX06)	21.05% (11.07%-36.35%)	NT
<i>Zhangixalus</i>	Minimal Treefrog, <i>Zhangixalus minimus</i>	37	3 (2: GX05; 1: GX09)	8.11% (2.80%-21.30%)	EN
<i>Hylarana</i>	Guenther's Stream Frog <i>Hylarana guentheri</i> (Larva)	15	4 (1: GX07; 1: GX08; 2: GX01)	26.67% (10.90%-51.95%)	LC

307

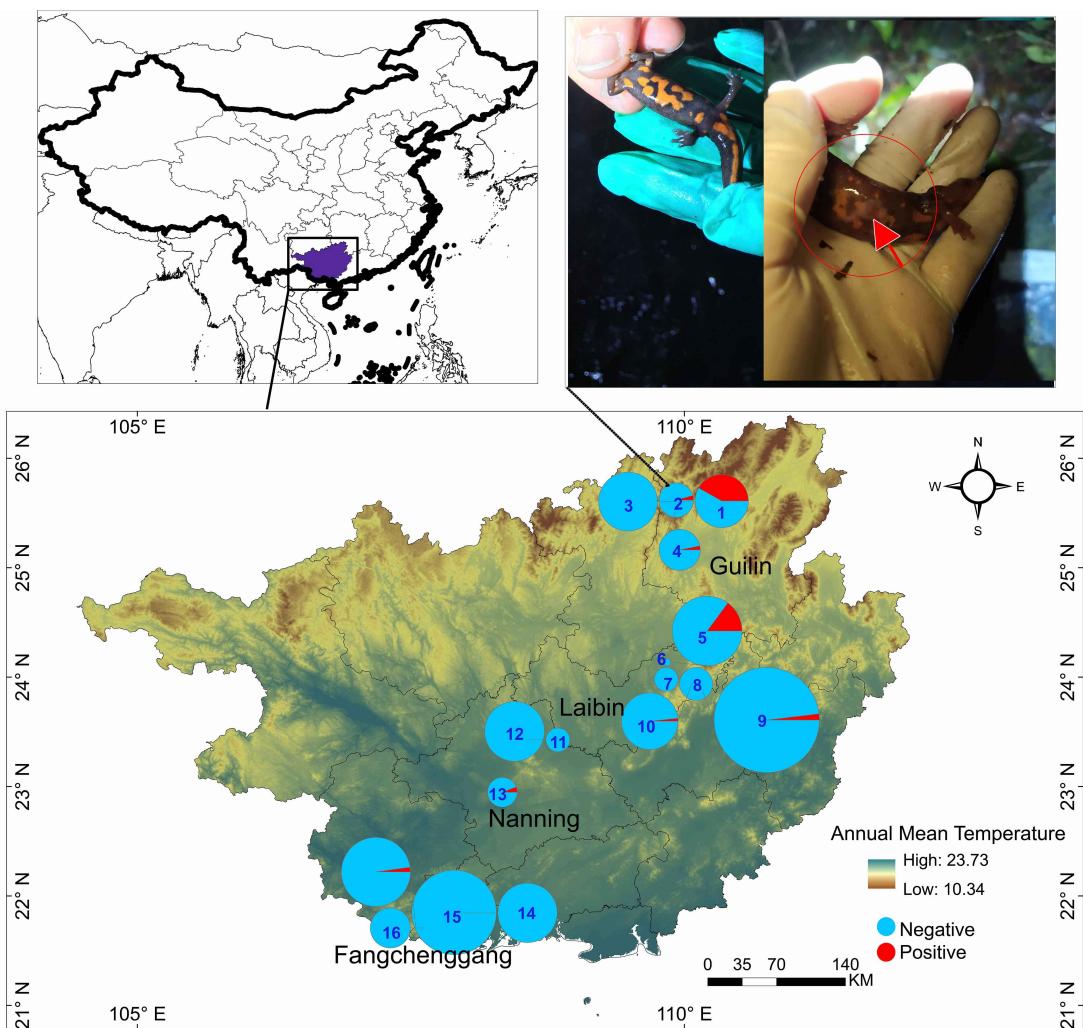
308 Dead or dying frogs affected with *Bd* were not observed in the field.

309 However, the typical clinical signs of chytridiomycosis were noted in one

310 individual of a Yaoshan Stout Newt (*Pachytriton inexpectatus*), which

311 contained abdominal skin lesions (Fig. 1).

312



313

314 **Fig 1. The distribution of sampling sites across a latitudinal gradient.** The map
315 depicts annual mean temperature of the study region. Fangchenggang, Nanning,
316 Laibin and Guilin represent four cities where sampling sites located. Numbers
317 represent different sampling sites: 1 (Hongtan), 2 (Huaping), 3 (Cujiang), 4
318 (Anjiangping), 5 (Shiliugongli), 6 (Hekou), 7 (Laoshanshuiku), 8 (Wuzhishan), 9
319 (Shengtangshan), 10 (Daling), 11 (Shangshuiyuan), 12 (Tianping), 13 (Laohuling), 14
320 (Nakuan), 15 (Pinglong), 16 (Nianbei), 17 (Dongzhong). The size variations of the
321 circles correspond to the numbers of skin swab samples from adults; – further details
322 are provided in the supplemental materials (S1 Table). An abdomen of a healthy *P.*

323 *inexpectatus* salamander (left) and observed skin lesions on the abdomen of a *P.*
324 *inexpectatus* salamander (right), infected by *Bd* at Site #2. The location of the study
325 region, Guangxi in southern China.

326

327 The prevalence of *Bd* varied between sites (range 0.0% to 43.4%; see
328 Table 2 and Fig. 1). Sites #1 (Hongtan) and #5 (Shiliugongli), both
329 located at high elevations (>700 m), had the highest prevalence. Sample
330 sizes and infection status are indicated in S1 Table. *Bd* prevalence was
331 higher in northern GAR sites during the colder, rainy season (S3 Table).

332

333 **Table 2. Prevalence of *Bd* and haplotype distribution in the 17**
334 **sampling sites.** *Bd* haplotypes with their numbers, and 95% CI are
335 indicated within brackets.

Site # (location: elevation)	No. sample	No. positive (haplotype)	Prevalence (95%CI)
Site#1 (Hongtan: 889 m)	Adult: 53	23 (GX03)	43.40% (31.95%-56.73%)
Site #2 (Huaping:1033 m)	Adult: 30	1 (GX03)	3.33% (0.59%-16.67%)
Site #3 (Cuijiang: 965 m)	Adult: 54 Larva:15	4 (2: GX01; 1: GX07; 1: GX08)	5.80% (2.27%-13.98%)
Site #4 (Anjiangping: 1310 m)	Adult: 43 Larva:16	1 (GX03)	1.69% (0.30%-8.90%)
Site #5 (Shiliugongli: 1286 m)	Adult: 102 Larva: 8	14 (1: GX01; 1: GX03; 11: GX05; 1: GX06; 1: GX09)	12.72% (7.73%-20.24%)
Site #6 (Hekou: 841 m)	Adult: 1 Larva: 29	0	0.00% (0.00-11.35%)
Site #7 (Laoshanshuiku: 943 m)	Adult: 11	0	0.00% (0.00%-25.88%)
Site #8 (Wuzhishan: 573 m)	Adult: 21	0	2.94% (0.52%-14.92%)

Site #9 (Shengtangshan: 770 m)	Adult: 214	4 (GX03)	0.87% (0.73%-4.71%)
Site #10 (Daling: 476 m)	Adult: 62	1 (GX10)	1.61% (0.29%-8.59%)
Site #11(Shangshuiyuan: 69 m)	Adult: 11	0	0.00% (0.00%-25.88%)
Site #12 (Tianping: 1249 m)	Adult: 69	0	0.00% (0.00%-5.27%)
Site #13 (Laohuling: 104 m)	Adult: 17	1 (1: GX04)	5.88% (1.05%-26.98%)
Site #14 (Nakuan: 131 m)	Adult: 68	0	0.00% (0.00%-5.35%)
Site #15 (Pinglong: 509 m)	Adult: 142	1 (GX03)	0.70% (0.12%-3.88%)
Site #16 (Nianbei: 282 m)	Adult: 31 Larva: 2	0	0.00% (0.00%-10.43%)
Site #17 (Dongzhong: 912 m)	Adult: 92 Larva: 6	2 (1: GX02; 1: GX03)	2.04% (0.56%-7.14%)

336

337 **Drivers of *Bd* prevalence**

338 The best-supported GLM involved two variables: mean temperature of
339 the warmest quarter and elevation (S4 Table). This suggests that high
340 temperature and high-low elevation were positively correlated with *Bd*
341 prevalence within amphibians; other environmental and geographical
342 factors had a marginal effect on *Bd* infection, but no effect was linked to
343 species.

344

345 **Phylogenetic diversity**

346 **ITS-based haplotype diversity and distribution**

347 A total of 10 haplotypes were detected in the 52 positive samples. Each
348 infected amphibian had only a single haplotype, except for the tree frog

349 species *Theloderma rhododiscus*, which harbored two haplotypes (GX05
350 and GX06). These haplotypes were numbered from GX01 to GX10 and
351 deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers OQ275246 –
352 OQ275255.

353 Seven of the ten *Bd* haplotypes were novel; the remaining three had
354 been previously reported (S2 Table). Haplotype GX03 was identical to
355 CN30 from Yunnan Province, China [24], JPB from Japan [18], and
356 IN05 from mountains in India [67]. It was also the most common
357 haplotype at all sites where *Bd* was found in this study. GX03 was
358 detected in 32 adults from 11 species, representing 73% of the 16
359 susceptible species and 67% of the 48 infected adults (Table 1).

360

361 **Phylogenetic relationships and haplotype network**

362 Our phylogenetic analysis on *Bd* based on 254 ITS sequences revealed
363 five major clades in the Bayesian phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2). Haplotypes
364 GX04, GX05, GX06 and GX10 formed an independent cluster nested in
365 the most basal clade, closely related to Korean haplotypes. GX03, GX07,
366 GX08 and GX09, along with several previously identified haplotypes
367 from Japan, China and India, formed the second major clade. The third
368 and fourth clades included Brazilian, Japanese, South African and other
369 haplotypes. The fifth clade was distinctive from the *Bd*GPL clade and
370 contained Asian haplotypes, while GX01 and GX02 were placed in the

371 fourth clade together with *Bd*GPL haplotypes.

372



373

374 **Fig 2. Phylogenetic tree of *Bd* ITS1-5.8S rRNA-ITS2 haplotypes based on**

375 **Bayesian inference.** The posterior probability (PP > 0.5) values are shown at nodes.

376 Haplotypes marked with different colors indicates ten countries.

377

378 The median-joining network revealed 207 *Bd* haplotypes (10 newly

379 generated and 197 obtained from GenBank) distributed geographically

380 (Fig. 3 and S2 Table). The ten haplotype clusters found in this analysis

381 were similar to the clades on the phylogenetic tree. Haplotypes GX04-

382 GX06 and GX10 formed a separate cluster, likely belonging to the

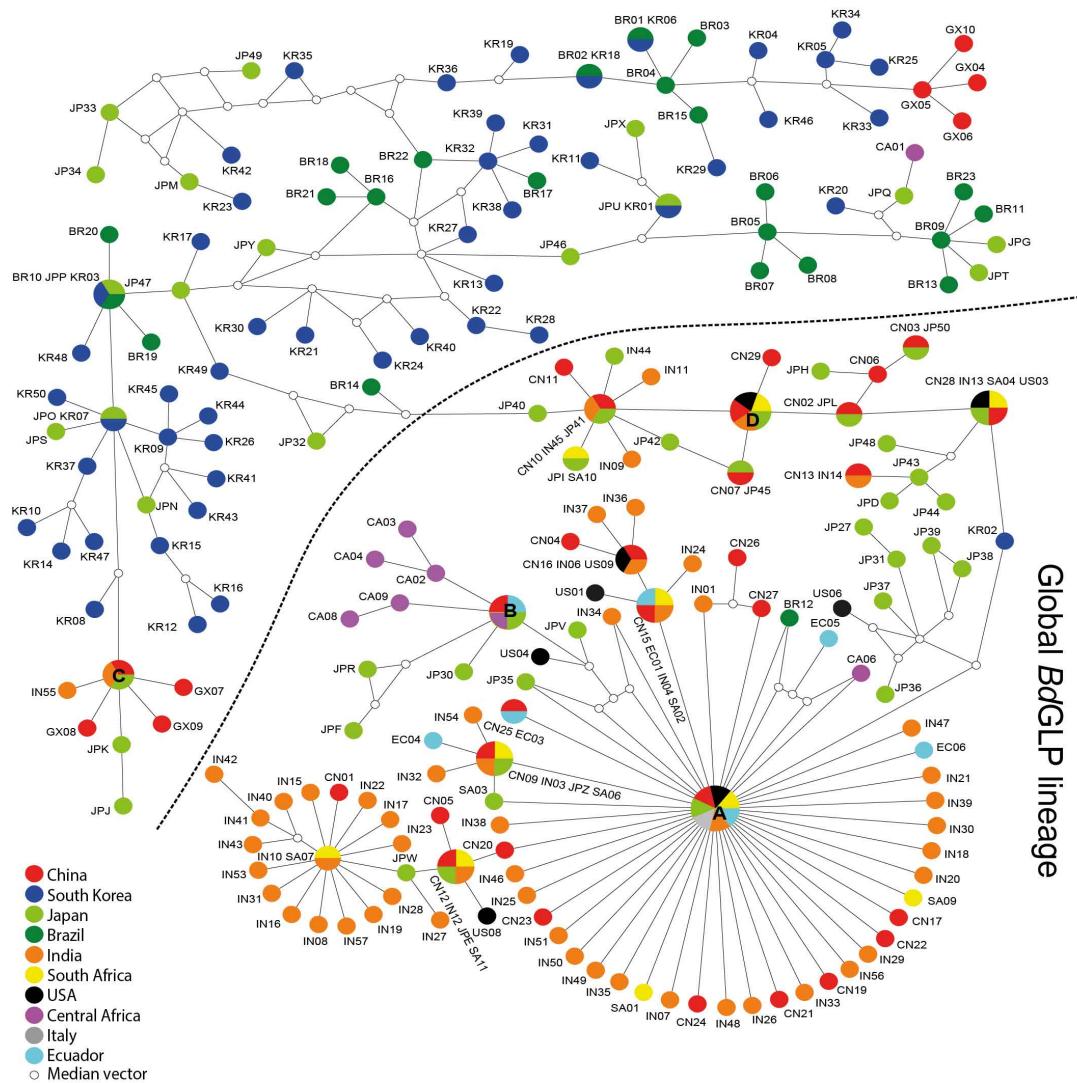
383 *Bd*ASIA-1 lineage recently identified in the fire-bellied toad *Bombina*

384 *orientalis* from South Korea [11]. Interestingly, haplotypes GX03, GX07-

385 GX09, combined with IN55, JPK and JPJ, formed another cluster which
 386 was distinct from the endemic *Bd* lineages, and was likely part of the
 387 *BdASIA-3* lineage recently identified in Southeast Asia [23]. Haplotypes
 388 GX01 and GX02 were found within the group of the globally widespread
 389 *BdGPL* lineage. Haplotype A (GX01) was the most prevalent haplotype
 390 across continents, while haplotype B (GX02) was detected in Ecuador,
 391 South Africa, Japan and China.

392

Regional *Bd* lineages (*BdASIA-1/BdASIA-2/BdASIA-3*)



393

394 **Fig 3. Median-joining haplotype network of *Bd* ITS1-5.8S rRNA-ITS2 sequences.**

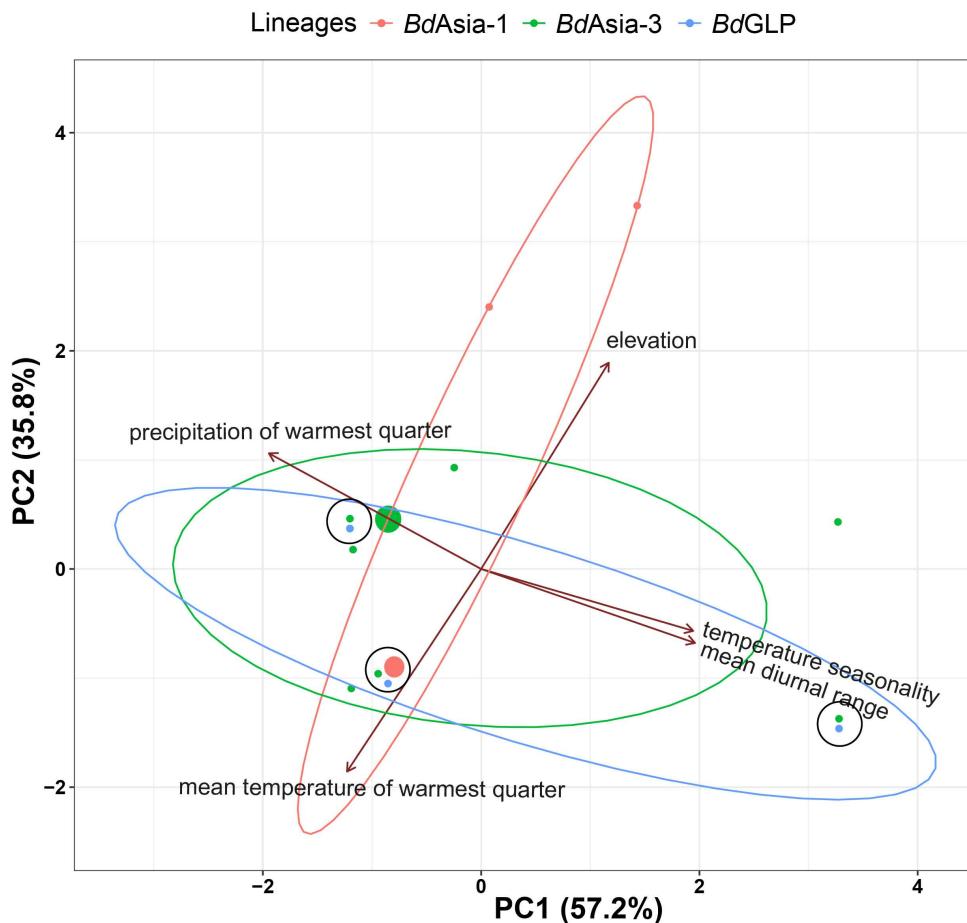
395 Colored circles represent haplotypes from different countries. Hollow circles
396 represent median vectors (missing haplotype). Owing to space limitations, the figure
397 does not show the specific numbers of mutations in each step and denote same
398 haplotypes instead of these abbreviations: A = CA05 = CN18 = IN02 = IT01 = JPA =
399 SA08 = US02 = GX01; B=CA07 CN14 = EC02 = JPC = GX02; C = CN30 = IN05 =
400 JPB = GX03; D = CN08 = IN52 = JP29 = SA05 = US07.

401

402 **Putative environmental conditions of *Bd* lineages found in the study**

403 Principal components analysis of bioclimatic and elevation parameters for
404 *Bd* lineages (Fig. 4) revealed that the first two axes explained 93% of
405 contribution. The *Bd*GPL and *Bd*ASIA-3 lineages were concentrated in
406 the first axis, with the highest contributions from mean diurnal range,
407 temperature seasonality, and precipitation of the warmest quarter.
408 *Bd*ASIA-1, however, showed clustering in the second axis, with the
409 highest contributions from mean temperature of the warmest quarter and
410 elevation. These results suggest that different lineages occur under
411 distinct climatic conditions.

412



413

414 **Fig 4. Principal components analysis of bioclimatic and elevation variables for**

415 ***Bd* lineages.** Different color ellipses represent each lineage. Black circles represent
416 sites where two or three lineages co-exist. Points with different color represent sites
417 where lineages exist, in which bigger green and red points represent high prevalence
418 for *BdASIA-3* and *BdASIA-1* lineages, respectively.

419

420 **Discussion**

421 Our hypothesis that there is undiscovered diversity of *Bd* lineages across
422 South China was supported by our explorations across GAR. We
423 discovered four new *Bd* lineages close to *BdASIA-1*, infecting three
424 species in isolated populations. This indicates that the *BdASIA-1* lineage

425 has a broader distribution in Asia than previously thought. In addition, we
426 identified four *Bd* haplotypes closely related to *BdASIA-3*, which
427 dominate montane forests in southern China. Our findings suggest that
428 the habitats of these *Bd* lineages are correlated with climatic and elevation
429 factors, possibly explaining their localized distributions.

430

431 **Patterns of *Bd* infection**

432 We identified 12 new amphibian species infected with *Bd*, in addition to
433 the four species previously documented from different areas. This
434 indicates that a greater number of forest amphibians in China are infected
435 with *Bd* than was previously thought. The four previously recorded
436 species (*K. pulchra*, *P. megacephalus*, *Q. boulengeri*, *Z. dennysi*) are all
437 endemic to South-East Asia [25, 29, 32, 68]. The newly identified hosts
438 mainly occupy restricted regions of South-East Asia or China [25]. Our
439 study screened 36 species from 25 genera, which is approximately one-
440 third of all amphibian species from GAR. Notably, with the increasing
441 number of newly described amphibian species from China (see,
442 <http://www.amphibiachina.org/>), it is likely that numerous other restricted
443 species are infected with *Bd*.

444 Our results suggest that some amphibian species and populations are
445 highly susceptible to *Bd* infection. The Chungan Sucker Frog (*A.*
446 *chunganensis*) exhibited the highest prevalence, while the Lungshen

447 Odorous Frog (*O. lungshengensis*) and Red-disked Small Treefrog (*T.*
448 *rhododiscus*) also showed relatively high prevalence. These findings are
449 in line with a few previous studies in Asia [18, 20-22], which also suggest
450 that some Asian amphibian species and populations are more at risk of *Bd*
451 infection than others [18]. Interestingly, the populations of the Odorous
452 Frog (*O. graminea*) located in lower latitudes were free of *Bd*, while a
453 population of this species in site#1 was detected to be infected (S1
454 Table). This suggests that infection patterns may not always have a taxon-
455 specific context, and could be linked to other factors such as climate.

456 Our results suggest that site-specific environmental conditions are key
457 drivers of *Bd* prevalence in amphibian adults. Our analysis demonstrated
458 that mean temperature of warmest quarter and elevation are the most
459 important factors influencing *Bd* infection in susceptible individuals (S4
460 Table). In sub-tropical regions, warm temperatures during the breeding
461 season likely exceed the optimal range for *Bd* [69]. This could reduce
462 pathogen survival and transmission among hosts [53, 70-72]. We also
463 found that elevation is related to variations in temperature, and at higher
464 elevation sites (>700 m), cooler temperatures during the warmest months
465 may be a mitigating factor. In addition, *Bd* prevalence appears to be
466 associated with the habitats of adult hosts, with multiple habitats resulting
467 in higher infection risk [52, 73, 74]. Taken together, these findings
468 suggest that environmental conditions at a given location may be one of

469 the most important factors driving *Bd* prevalence in amphibians.

470 Our study included 76 opportunistically collected tadpoles of several
471 endemic species, representing only a small sample size. Some authors
472 indicate that most *Bd*-related studies have focused on post-metamorphic
473 Asian frogs [26], suggesting that the role of metamorphic stages in the
474 dispersal and persistence of *Bd* may be currently under-estimated [37,
475 75]. Our findings supports this notion; we observed that some tadpoles of
476 the common species *H. guentheri* were frequently infected with *Bd*
477 whereas adults were not, suggesting that *Bd* surveys should investigate
478 infection patterns across anuran life-history stages in endemic species
479 [26] in order to better assess infection dynamics.

480

481 **ITS-based haplotype diversity and distribution**

482 Our phylogenetic analysis showed that the new haplotypes uncovered
483 belonged to the earliest emerging clade in the tree, *BdASIA-1*. This
484 indicates that southern China may be important in the origins and spread
485 of *Bd*. *Bd*-Asian lineages were present at all sites where *Bd* was found,
486 with *BdASIA-1* and *BdASIA-3* lineages co-occurring at three sites (Fig.
487 4). Among the amphibians tested and the sites surveyed, haplotype GX03
488 (*BdASIA-3*) was the most prevalent, suggesting the widespread presence
489 of *BdASIA-3* in Southeast Asia [23]. Moreover, the few clinical signs of
490 *Bd* infection observed in Asian amphibians were mainly attributed to this

491 haplotype (*Bd*ASIA-3 lineage) [76].

492 The limited presence of the *Bd*GPL lineage in this study is different
493 from findings of previous studies in China, Japan, and Brazil, which
494 revealed its widespread distribution [18, 21, 24, 77, 78]. High haplotype
495 richness of the *Bd*GPL has been identified from native frogs dwelling in
496 forested areas in India [67, 79]. Given the low genetic diversity, we
497 suspect that *Bd*GPL in the studied sites may have been recently
498 introduced to the region through anthropogenic activity, as has been
499 observed elsewhere, due to its easy accessibility. Another possibility is
500 that competition from endemic basal *Bd* lineages restricts the spread of
501 *Bd*GPL.

502 Interestingly, the haplotype GX05 (*Bd*ASIA-1) occurs more
503 frequently when co-occurring with GX01 (*Bd*GPL) and GX03 (*Bd*ASIA-
504 3). This haplotype was detected at all sites and most species or
505 populations. Its relatively strong competitive ability within microhabitats
506 due to local conditions could potentially explain this prevalence pattern
507 [80], although further investigation is needed.

508 Infected individual amphibians typically carried only a single
509 haplotype, with the exception of one endangered tree frog that had two
510 haplotypes (GX05 and GX06 - both from the *Bd*ASIA-1 lineage). While
511 this is consistent with early studies in Japan [18, 21], numerous studies
512 have since shown co-infection to be frequent in both native and invasive

513 species [22, 24, 67]. In China, prior work has demonstrated that
514 amphibians infected with *Bd* often carry multiple haplotypes, belonging
515 to the *Bd*GPL lineage [24]. Similarly, introduced Northern American
516 bullfrogs (*R. catesbeiana*) and endemic species (*Pelophylax*
517 *nigromaculatus*, *F. limnocharis*, *Rana chaochiaoensis*, *Hyla annectans*)
518 in China harbor *Bd*GPL lineages with many haplotypes co-occurring in
519 the region [24]. In South Korea, many amphibians also carry multiple
520 haplotypes of the endemic lineages of *Bd* (*Bd*ASIA-1 and *Bd*ASIA-
521 2/BRAZIL). Further studies on haplotype co-occurrence in Asia are
522 warranted as this could potentially lead to the unearthing of highly
523 virulent and new genotypes [81, 82].

524

525 **Sub-lethal effects of chytridiomycosis to Asian amphibians**

526 This study, for the first time in Asia, observed clinical signs of
527 chytridiomycosis on a urodelean salamander (*P. inexpectatus*) in a natural
528 habitat. The individual was found in a stream under a waterfall in
529 southern China [83] and belongs to the Least Concern (LC) species
530 category [25]. Despite the LC status, it was listed as a vulnerable species
531 at the national level [84]. Our observation adds to the growing evidence
532 that *Bd* infection can cause sub-lethal effects on some Asian amphibians,
533 including the Bombay Night Frog (*Nyctibatrachus humayuni*) in the
534 Western Ghats of India [76], Hasselt's Toad (*Leptobrachium hasseltii*) in

535 Indonesia [85], and the Japanese tree frog (*Hyla japonica*) [86]. Our
536 observation associated with previous documented impacts of *Bd* in
537 natural species populations in Asia, highlight that *Bd* infection might
538 cause sub-lethal effects on some native amphibians, particularly in forest
539 populations at high elevations, where population numbers are low owing
540 to greater habitat fidelity and lower fecundity [87].

541 In conclusion, our research found new haplotype diversity in *Bd*-
542 Asian lineages infecting isolated populations of previously unknown
543 native amphibian species. Early emerging haplotypes closely related to
544 *BdASIA-1* and *BdASIA-3* lineages, together with the global infection
545 haplotype (*BdGPL*), were identified, indicating southern China as a *Bd*
546 diversity hotspot. Our findings also suggest that *Bd* prevalence in
547 amphibians is affected by temperature and elevation within natural
548 forests, and that it may pose sub-lethal effects on some susceptible
549 amphibian species. These results reinforce the knowledge base for
550 understanding the *Bd* infection dynamics of amphibians in China, in Asia,
551 and globally.

552

553 **Supporting information**

554 **S1 Table. *Bd* prevalence of different sites in adult and larva
555 amphibians**

556 **S2 Table. The ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequences of *Bd* used in this study.**

557 **S3 Table. The prevalence of *Bd* in months across 17 sites.**

558 **S4 Table. First 15 candidate models for *Bd* presence/absence in**
559 **susceptible amphibian adults.**

560

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594

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