In-situ itraconazole treatment improves survival rate during an amphibian chytridiomycosis epidemic

- 3
- 4 Michael A. Hudson^{a,b,c}, Richard P. Young^{c,d}, Javier Lopez^e, Lloyd Martin^f, Calvin Fenton^f, Rachel
- McCrea^g, Richard A. Griffiths^b, Sarah-Louise Adams^c, Gerard Gray^f, Gerardo Garcia^e, Andrew A.
 Cunningham^a.
- 6 Cuni 7
- ^a Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, Regent's Park, London NW1 4RY, UK;
- 9 ^b Durrell Institute of Conservation and Ecology, School of Anthropology and Conservation, University
- 10 of Kent, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NR, UK;
- ^c Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust, Les Augres Manor, Trinity, Jersey, Channel Islands, UK;
- ^d Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College London, Silwood Park Campus, Buckhurst Road,
 Ascot, Berkshire SL5 7PY, UK;
- ^e Chester Zoo, Cedar House, Caughall Road, Upton by Chester, Chester CH2 1LH, UK;
- 15 ^f Montserrat Department of Environment, Montserrat, West Indies.
- ^g National Centre for Statistical Ecology, School of Mathematics, Statistics and Actuarial Science,
- 17 University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NF, UK.
- 18

19 Corresponding author

- Michael Hudson (<u>Michael.Hudson@ioz.ac.uk</u>), Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London,
 Regent's Park, London NW1 4RY, UK
- 22

23 Ethics statement

- 24 This study was approved by the Zoological Society of London's Ethics Committee; project ref.
- 25 WLE/0526. A permit to conduct this study was provided by the Government of Montserrat.
- 26

27 Role of funders

- 28 This work was funded by the People's Trust for Endangered Species, ZSL and the Balcombe Trust
- 29 through Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust. ZSL and Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust were
- 30 involved in study design; in the collection, analysis and interpretation of data; in the writing of the
- 31 report; and in the decision to submit the article for publication.
- 32
- 33 34
- 35
- 36 37

52 Abstract

- 53 The emerging infectious disease, amphibian chytridiomycosis caused by the fungus
- 54 Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (Bd), threatens hundreds of amphibian species globally. In the
- absence of field-based mitigation methods, the Amphibian Conservation Action Plan advocates
- 56 captive assurance programmes to prevent extinction from this infectious disease. Unfortunately,
- 57 with the cooperation of the entire global zoo community, the International Union for the
- 58 Conservation of Nature Amphibian Ark estimates only 50 species could be saved. Clearly, if
- 59 catastrophic losses are to be averted, alternative mitigation techniques need to be developed. There
- 60 has been an absence of trialling laboratory proven interventions for chytridiomycosis in field
- 61 settings, which must change in order to allow informed management decisions for highly threatened
- 62 amphibian populations. We tested the in-situ treatment of individual mountain chicken frogs
- 63 (Leptodactylus fallax) using the antifungal drug, itraconazole. Multi-state mark recapture analysis
 64 showed increased probability of survival and loss of Bd infection for treated frogs compared to
- 65 untreated animals. There was evidence of a prophylactic effect of treatment as, during the
- 66 treatment period, infection probability was lower for treated animals than untreated animals. Whilst
- 67 long term, post-treatment increase in survival was not observed, a deterministic population model
- 68 estimated antifungal treatment would extend time to extinction of the population from 49 to 124
- 69 weeks, an approximated 60% increase. In-situ treatment of individuals could, therefore, be a useful
- short-term measure to augment other conservation actions for amphibian species threatened by
- 71 chytridiomycosis or to facilitate population survival during periods of high disease risk.

72

76

73 Keywords

- 74 In-situ treatment, Amphibian declines, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, Chytridiomycosis,
- 75 Itraconazole, Antifungal

77 Abbreviations

- 78 Bd Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis
- 79 CJS Cormack-Jolly-Seber
- 80 CMR capture-mark-recapture
- 81 DNA deoxyribonucleic acid
- 82 GE genome equivalent
- 83 IT itraconazole treatment
- 84 NBC non-bath control
- 85 PCR polymerase chain reaction
- 86 PIT passive Integrated Transponder
- 87 SWC stream water control
- 88 89

103 1. Introduction

104

Emerging infectious diseases are a growing threat to both humans and biodiversity globally (Daszak
et al. 2000; Morens and Fauci 2013). Three main strategies exist for the management of wildlife
disease: prevention of introduction, mitigation of impact, and eradication (Wobeser 2002).
Globalisation, with its increased rate and volume of trade and travel, means preventing the

109 introduction of novel diseases is increasingly difficult (Marano et al. 2007). Whilst neutralisation of

- 110 threats has long been considered a pre-requisite for successful wildlife conservation (Caughley
- 111 1994), the emergence of threats which cannot be negated pose a difficult challenge to conservation
- 112 managers. One example is amphibian chytridiomycosis, caused by the chytrid fungus
- 113 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (Bd), which is implicated in the rapid decline or extinction of over
- 114 200 amphibian species globally (Skerrat et al. 2007), and has been described as "the worst infectious
- disease ever recorded among vertebrates in terms of the number of species impacted, and it's
- propensity to drive them to extinction" (Amphibian Conservation Summit 2005). This rapid global
 loss of amphibians is likely to have major implications for the environment (Whiles et al. 2006).
- 118
- 119 In the absence of in-situ mitigation for amphibian chytridiomycosis (Woodhams et al. 2011; Joseph
- et al. 2013), the Amphibian Conservation Action Plan advocates the creation of Bd-free captive
- 121 populations for eventual release as a key conservation strategy (Gascon et al. 2007). Currently,
- 122 conservation practitioners rely on such captive assurance programmes to prevent species extinctions
- 123 (Mendelson et al. 2006), but this is only a short to medium term solution and Amphibian Ark
- estimates that only around 50 species can be saved in this way (Zippel et al. 2011). Even so, zoos are
- currently failing to prioritise species that are likely to require captive breeding programmes toprevent their extinction (Dawson et al. 2015). There is, therefore, an urgent need to change the
- prevent their extinction (Dawson et al. 2015). There is, therefore, an urgent need to change the
 research focus from the treatment of captive animals to in-situ mitigation (Scheele et al. 2014;
 Harding et al. 2015).
- 129

130 A range of potential in-situ interventions to mitigate the impacts of chytridiomycosis have been 131 suggested, but so far these remain largely untested in the field (Berger & Skerrat 2012; Scheele et al. 132 2014). These include habitat manipulation to inhibit Bd (Scheele et al. 2014), reintroduction after 133 selection for resistance in captivity (Venesky et al. 2014), and in-situ use of antifungal treatments 134 (Berger and Skerrat, 2012). Some antifungal drugs, including itraconazole, are effective in the 135 treatment of Bd infection in captivity, but only following multiple daily applications (e.g. Forzan et al. 136 2008; Tamukai et al. 2011; Jones et al. 2012; Georoff et al. 2013; Brannelly et al. 2015). In addition to 137 being effective, the application of itraconazole is relatively easy, being via immersion in an aqueous 138 solution – albeit that repeated administration is required for successful treatment (Nichols & 139 Lamirande 2000). Whilst there have been some reported side-effects in certain species (Brannelly et 140 al. 2012; Brannelly 2014) and life stages (Garner et al. 2009; Woodhams et al. 2012), itraconazole is 141 considered to be the treatment of choice for amphibian chytridiomycosis (Holden et al. 2014). 142 Reducing the dose from 0.01% for 11 days to 0.0025% for 5 days has been shown to reduce side 143 effects while maintaining efficacy (Brannelly 2014). Bosch et al. (2015) described the eradication of 144 Bd from the wild Mallorcan midwife toad (Alytes muletensis) tadpoles by treating them with 145 itraconazole in captivity and returning them to the wild following chemical disinfection of their 146 breeding ponds and surrounding rocks. As other amphibians and vegetation were absent from the 147 disinfected sites, and as these were rock pools containing little organic matter (which rapidly 148 inactivates most disinfectants), this technique is unlikely to be transferable to many other species or 149 locations.

150

151 In-situ treatment regimens provide challenges in field settings due to, for example, large target

- 152 population sizes, low capture rates the potential of reinfection and the need for a continuous supply
- 153 of labour. As a result, previous studies have treated individuals with itraconazole in captivity prior to

re-release rather than treating them in-situ (Hardy et al. 2015). Environmental persistence of Bd

- zoospores (Johnson & Speare 2003; 2005) and the possible presence of infected sympatric
- amphibians (Daszak et al. 1999) mean animals treated in-situ would likely be exposed to Bd both
- throughout and after the treatment period, increasing the likelihood of their extirpation (Retallick et
- al. 2004; Mitchell et al. 2008). Antifungal treatment in a field setting, however, might enable treated
- animals to persist by lowering their Bd infection load until the initial epidemic has passed (Briggs etal. 2010; Vredenberg et al. 2010). There is some evidence that animals surviving the epidemic phase
- 161 persist by tolerating subsequent lower levels and frequencies of infection (Retallick et al. 2004;
- 162 Briggs et al. 2010). Also, repeated infection and clearance of Bd might allow the development of
- 163 resistance in some species (McMahon et al. 2014).
- 164

The Caribbean is a global hotspot of amphibian endemism, with 99% of the 197 species being 165 endemic (Fong et al. 2015), and it has the highest proportion (84%) of threatened amphibians within 166 167 a region (Stuart et al. 2008). One species, the mountain chicken frog (Leptodactylus fallax), has 168 suffered a precipitous decline due to chytridiomycosis (Magin 2003; Fa et al. 2010; Mountain 169 Chicken Recovery Programme 2014). L. fallax is classified as Critically Endangered on the IUCN Red 170 List of Threatened Species (Fa et al. 2010) and is restricted to only Dominica and Montserrat in the 171 Lesser Antilles. A 2005 survey found no evidence of Bd in amphibians on Montserrat (Garcia et al. 172 2007), but in January 2009 L. fallax mortality due to chytridiomycosis was first discovered on 173 Montserrat and this was rapidly followed by epidemic mortality across the island (Mountain Chicken Recovery Programme 2014). The characteristically rapid rates of chytridiomycosis-driven declines 174 175 (Lips et al. 2006), such as those observed in *L. fallax*, limit the time available to react effectively. 176 Interventions that can reduce rates of decline can be valuable for providing extra time to implement

- 177 further conservation actions.
- 178

179 In this study we report the use of itraconazole treatment in a field setting in an attempt to mitigate

- the impact of epidemic chytridiomycosis. We assess whether in-situ antifungal treatment is a
- feasible and effective method for improving the survival of a critically endangered species
 undergoing a precipitous decline due to epidemic chytridiomycosis. *L. fallax* is an ideal species to use
- as a model for such in-situ treatment as it is a large territorial animal with predictable behaviours,
- making it relatively easy to detect and individually identify. Also, the species has been studied for
- 185 over ten years on Montserrat, so there is a great deal of knowledge about its distribution,
- abundance and behaviour and field sites were already established (Garcia et al. 2007; Martin et al.
- 187 2007). On Montserrat the presence of a sympatric amphibian fauna of species (*Eleutherodactylus*
- *johnstonei* and *Rhinella marina*) able to carry Bd renders an in-situ treatment study realistic for
- 189 extrapolation to other species and regions where sympatric amphibians act as Bd reservoirs.
- 190 Effective treatment of chytridiomycosis in captive *L. fallax* using itraconazole has shown the drug to
- 191 be safe for this species (authors' unpublished observations). Finally, *L. fallax* has a voracious appetite 192 and requires large enclosures in captivity, therefore it is difficult and expensive to hold a large
- 193 enough captive population for a viable, long-term conservation breeding programme.
- 194

195 **2. Materials and methods**

196 **2.1. Study site**

- 197 Montserrat is a U.K. overseas territory in the Eastern Caribbean (16.45°N, 62.15°W). The centre of
- 198 the island comprises an active volcano which has been erupting regularly since 1995. As a
- 199 consequence *L. fallax* is restricted to a circa 17 km² mountainous area; the Centre Hills region which
- is typified by montane rainforest and deep valleys (or ghauts Fig. 1) (Young 2008).
- 201 The field site (Fairy Walk) is a forested relatively-shallow-sloped ghaut of approximately 1 km² on the
- 202 eastern flank of the Centre Hills at an approximate elevation of 250 m asl. Prior to 2009, Fairy Walk
- 203 was home to the highest known population density of *L. fallax* on Montserrat (Young, 2008) and, at

- the commencement of this study, it contained the last remaining intact population following theemergence of chytridiomycosis on the island in 2009.
- 206

207 2.2. Study design

208 The field experiment took place between August 2009 and January 2010. We visited Fairy Walk 209 three times a week for 24 weeks and surveyed a predefined 800 m transect along the stream (Fig. 1) 210 at a slow walking pace in a team of five. On each occasion the team caught all *L. fallax* seen within 5 211 m of the transect and recovered any dead animals. We individually marked all captured frogs using a 212 Passive Integrated Transponder (PIT) (11 mm x 2 mm, ID-100A Microtransponder, Trovan Ltd.), 213 which we subcutaneously implanted in the dorsum where retention rates are maximal (Blomquist et 214 al. 2008). We skin-swabbed each frog for Bd on every capture using a rayon-tipped swab (MW 100-215 100, Medical Wire and Equipment Co.) three times across each of the following sites: ventral 216 abdomen, ventral thighs and calves, and plantar surfaces of both hind-feet. We assigned frogs to one 217 of three groups during the study: itraconazole treatment (IT), stream water control (SWC), and non-218 bath control (NBC). On each capture, after skin-swabbing, we immersed each animal in the IT group 219 for 5 minutes in a 0.01% aqueous solution of itraconazole (Sporanox, Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Inc.),

- prepared using stream water on site. We treated frogs in the SWC group similarly, but in stream
- water without itraconazole. We immersed each frog within a new, disposable food-grade plastic bag.
- We released frogs in the NBC group after swabbing with no further intervention.
- 223

224 During the first 2 weeks of the study, we randomly assigned animals to the IT and SWC groups at the

time of first capture, with a 2:1 bias towards treatment. From week 3, we assigned all further

- captures to the NBC group. In order to examine any treatment-specific long term effect on survival
- or infection rate, we discontinued treatments after 15 weeks, but continued to capture and skin-
- swab re-sighted animals. We continued monitoring until week 24 when the study was prematurelyended by a major volcanic eruption.
- 230

231 2.3. Laboratory methods

- We refrigerated skin-swabs until transport to the laboratory where DNA was extracted using
 methods adapted from Hyatt et al. (2007) (explained in Annex A). We diluted extracted DNA 1:10 in
- molecular grade water and examined it for the presence of Bd DNA using a Bd-specific TaqMan real time PCR as described by Boyle et al. (2004) modified by the inclusion of bovine serum albumin to
 reduce PCR inhibition (Gerland et al. 2010). We tested samples in duplicate, incorporating two
 negative control wells containing laboratory grade distilled water and four positive controls (100, 10,
- 1, and 0.1 zoospore equivalents) in duplicate on each plate. A sample was considered positive if PCR
 and 0.1 zoospore equivalents in duplicate on each plate.
- amplification occurred in both duplicates. If duplicates generated conflicting results, the samples
 were re-run up to three times until matching results were obtained. If there was no consensus on
 the third occasion, the sample was considered negative.
- 242

243 Quantification of Bd DNA in each well was determined as Bd genome equivalents (GEs) by

- multiplying the real time PCR result by 120 (4 μ l of 60 μ l total elute used to make up the dilution (x15) and 5 μ l of 40 μ l 1:10 dilution used in qPCR (x8) [15 x 8=120]).
- 246

247 2.4. Bd infection intensity comparison

248 In order to test whether itraconazole treatment significantly reduced Bd infection intensity, we used

- a linear mixed effects model, with treatment group (control vs. IT) and time as fixed effects and frog
- 250 ID as a random effect. Infection intensity was log transformed prior to analysis as values ranged over
- 251 many orders of magnitude. Models were compared using AIC corrected for small sample size (AICc)
- and if no model was overwhelmingly supported (Akaike weight > 0.95), models with a Δ AlCc<7 were
- considered for inference. Summed Akaike weight evidence ratios were used to assess variable
- 254 importance (Burnham and Anderson, 2002).

256 **2.5. Capture-mark-recapture analyses**

We analysed our capture-mark-recapture (CMR) data using the software program Mark (White & Burnham 1999) in a multi-state CMR framework (Lebreton et al. 2009). Multi-state CMR models are an extension of Cormack-Jolly-Seber (CJS) which are used to model the probability of transition between states alongside estimating state dependent survival and recapture rates. These transitions were modelled as first order Markov processes in which the state at time *t*+1 is dependent only on the state at time *t*. For our study, we defined states as 'uninfected' (U), 'infected' (I), and 'dead' (D).

263

264 We converted data from daily to weekly capture histories using weekly bins to generate weekly 265 parameter estimates. Although grouping data in this way has been shown to produce biased 266 parameter estimates of survival rate in a CJS model when survival rate is time-dependent (Barbour 267 et al. 2013), fixed estimates of survival and transition rate were best supported by our data. Where 268 we detected different states during a single weekly bin (n=32) we assigned frogs to whichever state 269 we most commonly caught the individual in, unless one of those states was dead, which superseded 270 other states. In the majority of cases (n=17) the different states recorded within a week reflected a 271 transition between the state recorded in the previous week and the state in the following week, 272 meaning there was no loss of transition in the weekly data. Where we caught the individual in two 273 different states in the same week, we assigned the individual randomly to either state. As this might 274 have hidden capture heterogeneity an ANOVA was used to test for a difference in the mean number

- 275 of captures per week in each group.
- 276

277 We examined infection state (inf), treatment group (gr), sex and time dependence (time) in 278 estimates of survival, recapture, and transition probabilities. Recovery rates of dead frogs were 279 modelled as a function of treatment group, and sex. We also used models in which survival, 280 recapture and transition rates were a function of group, but with two estimates for the IT group; one 281 estimate during treatment with itraconazole (weeks 1-15), and one after this treatment had ended 282 (week 16-24) (gr[split T]). This enabled us to test for any post-treatment effects. We tested for an 283 effect of the immersion process by comparing models with one estimate for both control groups 284 combined (gr[C]) and one where SWC and NBC were estimated separately (gr). No occasion-specific 285 environmental variables were available. Juveniles were excluded from the analysis due to low 286 sample size.

287

In order to reduce the potentially very large number of candidate models, we used a two-step process modified from Lebreton et al. (1992) to estimate parameters in the CMR analysis. In step one, we used the top model for survival and recapture probabilities from a preliminary Burnham dead recoveries analysis (Burnham 1993) to model dead recovery and transition rates. In step two, we used the best estimates of dead recovery and transition rates from step one to model survival and recapture probabilities. This led to the generation of a model set of 128 models.

294

295 2.6. Model selection and goodness of fit

296 We based model selection on AICc. To account for model selection uncertainty, robust estimates of 297 the parameters were computed using weighted model averaging (Burnham & Anderson 2002).

298

We performed a preliminary diagnostic goodness of fit test for the multi-state models in program U-CARE (Choquet et al. 2009) which detected slight over-dispersion and so and we altered the variance

- 301 inflation factor to 1.15 and the adjusted QAICc was used for model selection.
- 302

303 Summed Akaike weight evidence ratios were used to examine the support for dependencies in the

304 models. The strength of the support provided by the evidence ratios was extracted from Table 3 in

305 Lucaks et al. (2007).

307 2.7. Population modelling

308 In order to predict how treatment with itraconazole would have affected the entire sampled 309 population had it been applied across all frogs in this study, we produced a deterministic population 310 model in a susceptible-infected-susceptible (SIS) framework using the transition and survival rate 311 estimates from the CMR modelling. We excluded any recruitment to the adult population as no

312 nests have been recorded on Montserrat since the onset of the chytridiomycosis epidemic. We

- 313 defined population extinction as population size below 1.
- 314

315 We produced two versions of this model for a population of 228 frogs (the number of unique

316 captures in this study). The first assumed that all frogs were treated at the same rate as the treated 317 frogs in this study using the model averaged CMR transition and survival rate estimates for the IT 318 group. We modelled the second population as untreated, using the model averaged CMR parameter 319 estimates for the control groups. We initiated the simulation with one infected individual. The 320 number of frogs in each state at each time step was calculated using the matrix below, following the 321 notation in Lebreton et al. (2009) in which $\varphi(1,2)$ indicates the rate of transition between state 1 and state 2.

- 322
- 323 324
- $\begin{pmatrix} nI\\ nS\\ nD \end{pmatrix}_{t+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi(I,I) & \varphi(U,I) & 0\\ \varphi(I,U) & \varphi(U,U) & 0\\ \varphi(I,D) & \varphi(U,D) & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} nI\\ nS\\ nD \end{pmatrix}_{t}$
- 326 327

325

- 328

329 330 In order to include model-averaged parameter uncertainty from the CMR models, we made two 331 further models for each group, the shortest and longest times to extinction. To make the lowest time 332 to extinction model we used the lower 95% CI estimate for the rate of loss of infection and the upper 333 95% CI estimates for infection and mortality rates. The opposite 95% CIs were used to make the 334 longest time to extinction model. We present only the mean model graphically.

where: $\varphi(I,I) = 1 - \varphi(I,U) - \varphi(I,D)$ and: $\varphi(U, U) = 1 - \varphi(U, I) - \varphi(U, D)$

335 3. Results 336

337 In total we made 1735 captures of 228 frogs. We caught frogs assigned to the IT group (841 captures 338 of 80 frogs) more often in both absolute terms and relative to the group size than frogs from the 339 SWC group (326 captures of 42 frogs) and the NBC group (482 captures of 106 frogs). The sex ratio 340 was circa 1:1 in each treatment group. Frogs with clinical signs of chytridiomycosis were found throughout the study and in all groups.

341 342

343 By the end of the study, 22% (n=50) of the frogs had been found dead (SWC=21% (n=9), NBC=18% 344 (n=19), IT=28% (n=22)). The proportion of animals known to be extant was greatest in the IT group 345 throughout the study, and this was especially evident towards the end of the study period (Fig. 2).

346

347 Across the study we captured, and therefore treated, frogs in the IT group an average of 0.98 348 (SE=0.06, min=0.16, max=2.50) times per week.

349 350 3.1. Skin swab Bd data

- 351 During the study 67% of the 1735 skin swabs taken tested positive for Bd (SWC=84% (n=317),
- 352 NBC=80% (n=463), IT=64% (n=819)). Until the itraconazole treatment ended at week 15, frogs in the
- 353 IT group were more likely to test negative for Bd than frogs in the control groups, after which the
- 354 likelihood of testing negative became the same across all groups (Fig. 2). We captured only 13 frogs

355 which never tested positive for Bd. Eleven of these were in the NBC group and were captured only

- 356 once (n=8) or twice (n=3). The remaining two were in the IT group and were captured 3 and 16 357 times. Bd infected animals in the IT group had a lower infection intensity during treatment than
- 358 animals in the control group (IT: naïve mean=5666 GE, SE=1879; Control: naïve mean=71 607 GE,
- 359 SE=24 218). The top linear mixed model for the treatment period contained a group-time interaction
- 360 and received overwhelming support (Akaike weight=0.9997). This provided evidence that although
- 361 the Bd infection intensity of infected animals was similar in the IT and control groups at the start of
- the study (IT=168.81 GE, SE=1.63; Control=87.46 GE, SE=1.44), the rate at which the infection 362
- 363 intensity increased was much greater in the control group (on the log scale: IT=0.015 GE/week,
- 364 SE=0.03; Control=0.138 GE/week, SE=0.02; Annex B). In the post-treatment period, the infection 365 intensity of infected animals in the IT group increased (IT: naïve mean=47 002 GE, SE=19 169) and
- there was very weak evidence (summed Akaike weight =0.4041, evidence ratio=0.7) of a difference 366
- with the control group animals in the same period (Control: naïve mean=69 480 GE, SE=57 678) 367
- 368 suggesting the benefit of treatment were lost after treatment ended (see Annex B).
- 369

370 3.2. Multi-state CMR models

- 371 The top models (Δ QAICc<7) are listed in Table 1. As no model received overwhelming support (top
- 372 model Akaike weight 0.293), model averaging was used to generate robust parameter estimates to
- 373 account for model variation. Grouping captures into weekly bins may have hidden heterogeneity in
- 374 the capture rate between groups, but we found no evidence for a significant difference in the mean 375 number of captures per week between groups (ANOVA: SWC: mean=1.12, SE=0.08; NBC:
- 376 mean=0.97, SE=0.04; IT: mean= 0.98 SE=0.06; F(2,225)=1.598, MSE=0.236, p=0.205).
- 377
- 378 All of the most parsimonious models (Akaike weight >0) contained a difference in survival between 379 the IT and control groups, and between Bd infected and uninfected animals. There was moderate 380 support for no difference in the SWC and NBC groups (summed Akaike weight=0.969; evidence 381 ratio=31.3) and so, only one estimate of survival for the two control groups is presented. Model 382 averaged parameter estimates showed that itraconazole treatment increased the weekly survival 383 rate of Bd infected animals by 11.6% compared to animals in the control groups (IT = 0.903, 95% CI = 384 0.860-0.934; Control = 0.809, 95% CI = 0.764-0.841; Fig. 3). All of the most parsimonious models, 385 however, included a second estimate for the IT group when treatment ended: the estimate 386 decreased to a value similar to the control groups (0.795, 95% CI = 0.709-0.864). Uninfected animals 387 had a higher weekly survival rate than Bd infected animals in both the IT (0.988, 95% CI = 0.972-388 0.995, effect size = 9.4%) and control groups (0.974, 95% CI = 0.939-0.987, effect size = 20.3%; Fig. 389 3).

390 391 Each of the most parsimonious models contained a difference in recapture rate between Bd infected 392 and uninfected animals, and with time dependency. The top models also contained a difference in 393 the recapture rate of the IT and control groups, with limited support for a difference in the NBC and 394 SWC groups (summed Akaike weight = 0.877; evidence ratio = 7.1). There was very weak support for 395 an interaction between infection state and treatment group (summed Akaike weight = 0.095, 396 evidence ratio = 0.1). As time dependent recapture probability was best supported, mean estimates 397 averaged across each occasion are presented (Fig. 4 - full results). Model averaged parameter 398 estimates showed that Bd infection increased recapture probability by a mean of 99.1% in the IT 399 group (Uninfected(U) = 0.354, Infected(I) = 0.711), 120% in the SWC group (U = 0.310, I = 0.686), and 400 136% in the NBC group (U = 0.270, I = 0.637). Based on these estimates, the recapture rate of Bd 401 infected animals in the IT group was 3.6% greater than the SWC group and 11.6% higher than the 402 NBC group. The recapture rate of uninfected animals in the IT group was 14.1% greater than the 403 SWC group and 31.1% higher than in the NBC group. The recapture rate of Bd infected animals in the 404 SWC group was 7.2% higher than in the NBC group and 14.8% higher in uninfected animals. 405

All of the most parsimonious models contained a difference in state transition rates (infection and
 loss of infection) rates between the itraconazole treatment and control groups. There was very weak

- 408 support for a difference in the transition rates of the two control groups (summed Akaike weight =
- 409 0.043; evidence ratio < 0.1), and in the different sexes (summed Akaike weight = 0.142; evidence
- ratio = 0.2). As a result one estimate for both control groups and sexes is presented. Itraconazole
 treatment reduced the weekly infection rate of uninfected animals by 19.3% compared to the
- 411 treatment reduced the weekly infection rate of diminected animals by 19.3% compared to the 412 control groups (IT = 0.208, 95% CI = 0.158-0.269: Control = 0.248, 95% CI = 0.185-0.330; Fig. 3).
- 413 Itraconazole treatment also increased the weekly rate of loss of Bd infection of infected animals by
- 414 161% compared to the control groups (IT= 0.338, 95% CI = 0.254-0.433: Control = 0.129, 95% CI =
- 415 0.088-0.177). All top models included a second estimate for transition rate for the itraconazole
- 416 treatment group when treatment ended, when infection rate increased to a similar level to the
- 417 control groups (IT= 0.298, 95% CI = 0.194-0.430) and rate of loss of infection declined to levels
- 418 similar to the control groups (IT = 0.083, 95% CI = 0.036-0.178; Fig. 3).
- 419
- 420 There was weak evidence for a treatment group difference in dead recovery rate (summed Akaike 421 weight = 0.271; evidence ratio = 0.3). The model averaged parameter estimate was 0.241 (95% Cl =
- 422 0.163-0.340) across all three groups.
- 423

424 **3.3. Population models**

- 425 The deterministic SIS models indicate that if the entire sampled population had been treated with 426 itraconazole at the rate applied to frogs in the IT group, it would have survived an estimated 124
- 427 weeks (min = 79, max = 236) compared to 49 weeks (min = 33, max = 73) if no drug treatment had
- been given. Consequently, treatment would have increased time until extinction by an estimated 75
 weeks (min = 6, max = 203) (Fig. 5). This represents an estimated weekly survival of 95.7% for the
- 430 treated population compared to 89.4% for the untreated population.
- 431

432 **4. Discussion**

433 We used the emergence of amphibian chytridiomycosis in *L. fallax* on Montserrat as a model system 434 to investigate the feasibility and impact of in-situ treatment of the disease using the antifungal drug, 435 itraconazole. Our study shows that in-situ treatment of wild amphibians with itraconazole in the face 436 of epidemic chytridiomycosis decreased the mortality rate of infected animals and increased their 437 rate of loss of infection during the treatment period. Itraconazole treatment also reduced the 438 infection rate of animals in the IT group during the treatment period, providing evidence of a short 439 term prophylactic effect. On cessation of treatment, the benefits were lost and the rate of survival 440 and loss of infection regressed and the infection rate increased to those of untreated individuals. It 441 also suggests that, at least in *L. fallax*, repeated exposure to Bd and anti-fungal treatments does not 442 facilitate resistance through the development of an immune response.

443

McMahon et al. (2014) reported that relatively small numbers of repeated exposures to Bd followed
by clearances using heat treatment in captivity were sufficient to stimulate an immune response in *Osteopilus septentrionalis* resulting in a reduced mortality rate. Other studies have presented

- 447 contradictory findings (Stice & Briggs 2010; Cashins et al. 2013; Fites et al. 2013), and it appears
 448 unlikely that this immuno-protective effect, if it does occur, can be stimulated in all species.
- 448 449
- 450 The decreased mortality rate conferred by itraconazole treatment in our study is encouraging
- 451 considering each frog was treated on average just once a week. This is a substantially lower
- 452 treatment rate than the once-daily treatment used in laboratory studies and recommended for
- 453 captive animals (Pessier & Mendelson 2010).
- 454
- There was no difference in survival or infection state transition rates between the two control groups, providing assurance that the physical action of handling and immersing frogs did not cause

457 stress sufficient to contribute to mortality or infection. This is important as there are limited

- 458 methods for the targeted delivery of antifungal compounds for *L. fallax* or for the application of this 459 technique to other amphibian species (Scheele et al. 2014). Hardy et al. (2015) recorded a prolonged
- 459 decrease in Bd prevalence and an increase in overwinter survival in *Rana cascadae* treated with
- 461 itraconazole in captivity prior to release into the wild. Although the pharmacokinetics of the drug
- 462 have not been studied in amphibians, these authors proposed that the itraconazole might have
- 463 persisted in the skin long enough for another mechanism of resistance to develop, but there is no
- 464 evidence for this (e.g. Cashins et al. 2013). In our study, itraconazole provided no prophylactic
- 465 protection from Bd infection beyond the treatment period.
- 466

467 During the post-treatment period, the infection rate in the IT group increased from that seen in the 468 treatment period to that seen in the control groups. The Bd infection intensity also increased in the 469 IT frogs from the levels found during the treatment period to those found in the control animals. 470 When Cashins et al. (2013) treated experimentally infected frogs (Litoria booroolongensis) with 471 itraconazole and then re-exposed them to Bd, they found higher infection prevalence and intensity 472 in frogs post-treatment than in frogs exposed only to Bd. These authors proposed an 473 immunosuppressant effect of itraconazole treatment although this is not a recognised side effect of 474 this drug in amphibians (Pessier & Mendelson 2010) or any other species (NOAH 2015). Itraconazole 475 at concentrations of up to 0.08 μ g/ml has been shown not to inhibit the growth of multiple 476 symbiotic bacteria isolated from Rana sphenocephala skin (Holden et al. 2014). However, this is a 477 low concentration compared to the treatment used in our study and the study described by Cashins 478 et al. (2013) (0.1 mg/ml). At higher concentrations itraconazole solutions are lower in pH which 479 might result in skin irritation or osmotic dysfunction (Baitchman & Pessier 2013). Modifications such 480 as reducing the itraconazole concentration (Jones et al. 2012; Brannelly 2014) or using an alkalising 481 buffer (Brannelly et al. 2012), might help to reduce any such side effects. The similarity in infection 482 rate estimates in post-treatment and control group animals in this study suggests that any post-483 treatment impact was not associated with changes to immune function or skin microflora and was 484 not ecologically important.

485

486 Using the mean parameter estimates from the CMR analysis, our population models predict a delay 487 of 75 weeks to population extinction for an itraconazole-treated population compared to an 488 untreated population; i.e. an approximated 60% increase in time to extinction. Whilst in-situ 489 itraconazole treatment at the intensity conducted in our study would not prevent population 490 extinction, it would prolong the period until extinction, thus allowing time to implement other 491 conservation measures, such as the establishment of an ex-situ conservation breeding population. 492 The prevalence of - and the risk of contracting - Bd infection have been repeatedly shown to vary 493 seasonally in response to environmental conditions (Kriger & Hero 2006; Longo et al. 2010). The 494 increased time until extinction predicted by our population model for populations treated in-situ 495 with itraconazole has the potential to maintain a susceptible population through seasonally high risk 496 periods.

497

In the current study, itraconazole treatment was applied for only 15 weeks, which was insufficient time for the epidemic phase to come to an end and therefore high infection loads likely persisted in untreated syntopic animals throughout this period. Should treatment have continued beyond the epidemic phase, it is possible that a longer term benefit from itraconazole treatment, such as the prevention of population extinction, could have occurred as exposure rates and inoculation doses decreased and this would be worth investigating in other systems.

504

Previous studies have predicted the importance of Bd infection state in species detectability (Jenelle
et al. 2007), with reduced recapture probability of infected animals in populations where Bd is
endemic (Murray et al. 2009). Other studies have provided no evidence for a difference in recapture

rates of infected vs uninfected animals (Phillot et al. 2013), therefore this effect is likely species- and

- 509 infection-load- specific. In our study, we found infection state to be an important predictor of 510 detectability, but with higher recapture rates for infected animals. A possible reason for this
- 511 difference from previous studies is that *L. fallax* is a large bodied and highly territorial species
- 512 (Martin et al. 2007), thus sick animals will be more easily detected than cryptic species such as tree
- 513 frogs. Our field observations showed that *L. fallax* frogs with clinical chytridiomycosis were lethargic,
- active during the day, aggregated in ponds, and displayed decreased capture avoidance (authors'
- 515 unpublished observations). It is possible that the increased recapture probability of infected animals
- 516 may have increased the efficacy of itraconazole treatment, by increasing the likelihood of capture 517 and, hence, treatment of infected animals. This is unlikely to be the case for all amphibian species.
- 518
- 519 We found that animals in the IT group had higher recapture probabilities than those in the control 520 groups. At first, this seems to contradict our finding that infected animals were more likely to be 521 recaptured than uninfected animals (with a higher proportion of the IT group being uninfected than 522 the control groups). This result, however, appears to be due to a higher recapture probability of 523 uninfected animals in the IT group compared to the control groups (Fig. 4). Itraconazole treatment 524 has been reported to cause lethargy of some amphibians under laboratory conditions (Brannelly et 525 al. 2012), but in these cases the drug doses were higher as they were administered daily compared 526 to on average weekly in this study. Importantly, the apparent behavioural differences of animals in 527 the IT and control groups did not impact survival sufficiently to negate from the increased survival 528 resulting from itraconazole treatment.
- 529

530 The NBC group also had lower recapture probabilities than either the IT or the SWC group. This could 531 be because animals were assigned to the NBC group after the other groups and the first animals 532 caught and assigned to the IT and SWC groups might have been more territorial and, hence, more-533 easily detected, and recaptured.

534

There has been little research into the potential for the development of antifungal resistance by Bd.

- 536 Such resistance has been widely reported in human fungal pathogens, including to triazoles, the
- 537 group of fungicides which includes itraconazole (e.g. Kanafani & Perfect 2008). It is possible,
- therefore, that in-situ treatment with itraconazole could enhance the development of resistance to
- this drug in Bd, especially if, as is the case in the field, treatment protocols cannot be conducted
 rigorously and treatment regimens are suboptimal with Bd survival within the treated population.
- 540 541
- 542 **5. Conclusions**

543 Our study has shown that in-situ treatment of individual animals by immersion in an aqueous 544 solution of itraconazole is an effective tool for reducing the chytridiomycosis-induced mortality rate 545 in *L. fallax* in the short term. This treatment, however, is highly labour intensive and limited to 546 amphibian species for which recapture rates are relatively high.

- 540 547
- A lack of capacity for captive assurance colonies for the large number of amphibian species at risk of decline should Bd reach naïve amphibian hotspots (Bielby et al. 2008) means alternative responses to the mitigation of Bd in-situ, such as anti-fungal treatment, are urgently required. The concurrent
- 551 in-situ treatment of multiple endemic and sympatric species, such as those in Madagascar (where
- there is now evidence for Bd presence (Bletz et al. 2015)) and Sri-Lanka, could provide a more cost-
- effective treatment regimen and justify the high effort required.
- 554
- 555 Further work is urgently required to test the efficacy of new and existing treatments for
- 556 chytridiomycosis in field settings. Field-trials such as ours should be replicated on species with
- 557 different life histories and in systems where Bd infection is endemic. Modifications to the treatment
- protocol to include parallel electrolyte treatment (Baitchman & Pessier 2013; Brannelly et al. 2015),

- and alterations in the concentration of itraconazole or the addition of pH buffers, should also be
- 560 considered. New delivery methods for antifungals, and the use of longer-acting drugs if they become
- available, should be investigated to enable larger numbers of animals to be treated with lower effort
- 562 over longer time periods.
- 563

564 Acknowledgements

- 565 We thank Matthew Perkins, Zoological Society of London (ZSL) for technical assistance and the
- 566 Forestry Officers of the Montserrat Department of Environment for assistance in the field. This work
- 567 was funded by the People's Trust for Endangered Species, ZSL and the Balcombe Trust through
- 568 Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust. A permit to conduct this study was provided by the Government 569 of Montserrat.
- 570571 References
- Amphibian Conservation Summit 2005. Amphibian conservation action plan, Washington DC. See:
 http://www.globalamphibians.org/acap_5fsummit_5fdeclaration.pdf
- 574

- 575 Baitchman, E.J. & Pessier, A.P. 2013. Pathogenesis, diagnosis, and treatment of amphibian
- 576 chytridiomycosis. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Exotic Animal Practice 16: 669-685.577
- 578 Barbour, A.B., Ponciano, J.M., and Lorenzen, K. 2013. Apparent survival estimation from continuous 579 mark-recapture/resighting data. Methods in Ecology and Evolution **4**: 846-853.
- Berger, L., and L. Skerrat. 2012. Disease Strategy Chytridiomycosis (Infection with *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*) Version 1. Department of Sustainability, Environment, Water, Populations and
 Communities, Public Affairs, Canberra, Australia.
- 584
 585 Bielby, J., Cooper, N., Cunningham, A.A., Garner, T.W.J., and Purvis, A. 2008. Predicting susceptibility
 586 to future declines in the world's frogs. Conservation Letters 1: 82-90.
- 587
 588 Bletz, M., et al. 2015. Widespread presence of the pathogenic fungus *Batrachochytrium*589 *dendrobatidis* in wild amphibian communities in Madagascar. Scientific Reports 5: 8633.
 590 doi:10.1038/srep08633.
- 590 591
- 592 Blomquist, S.M., J.D. Zydlewski, and M.L. Hunter, Jr. (2008). Efficacy of PIT tags for tracking the 593 terrestrial anurans *Rana pipiens* and *Rana sylvatica*. Herpetological Review **39**: 174–179.
- 594
- Bosch, J., Sanchez-Tomé, E., Fernández-Loras, A., Oliver, J.A., Fisher, M.C. & Garner, T.W.J. (2015)
 Successful elimination of a lethal wildlife infectious disease in nature. *Biology Letters*http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2015.0874.
- 598
- Boyle, D.G., Boyle, D.B., Olsen, V., Morgan, J.A.T., and Hyatt, A.D. 2004. Rapid quantitative detection
 of chytridiomycosis (*Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*) in amphibian samples using real-time Taqman
 PCR assay. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms **60**: 141-148.
- Brannelly, L.A., Richards-Zawacki, C.L., and Pessier, A.P. 2012. Clinical trials with itraconazole as a
 treatment for chytrid fungal infections in amphibians. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms **101**: 95-104.
- 605
 606 Brannelly, L.A. 2014. Reduced itraconazole concentration and durations are successful in treating
 607 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* infection in amphibians. Journal of Visualised Experiments **85**:
 608 e51166.
- 609

610 Brannelly, L.A., Skerrat, L.F., and Berger, L. 2015. Treatment trial of clinically ill corroboree frogs with 611 chytridiomycosis with two triazole antifungals and electrolyte therapy. Veterinary Research 612 Communications **39**: 179-187. 613 614 Briggs, C.J., Knapp, R.A., and Vredenberg, V.T. 2010. Enzootic and epizootic dynamics of the chytrid 615 fungal pathogen of amphibians. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United 616 States of America 107: 9695-9700. 617 618 Burnham, K.P. 1993. A theory for combined analysis of ring recovery and recapture data. Pages 199-619 213 in J.-D. Lebreton and P. North, editors. Marked Individuals in Bird Population Studies. Birkhauser 620 Verlag, Basel. 621 622 Burnham, K.P., and Anderson, D.R. 2002. Model Selection and Multimodel Inference: A Practical 623 Information-Theoretic Approach. Springer-Verlag, New York. 624 625 Cashins, S.D., Grogan, L.F., McFadden, M., Hunter, M., Harlow, P.S., Berger, L., and Skerrat, L.F. 2013. 626 Prior infection does not improve survival against the amphibian diseases chytridiomycosis. Plos One 627 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056747. 628 629 Caughley, G. 1994. Directions in conservation biology. Journal of Animal Ecology 63: 215-244. 630 631 Choquet, R., Lebreton, J.-D., Giminez, O., Reboulet, A.-M., and Pradel, R. 2009. U-CARE: utilities for 632 performing goodness of fit tests and manipulating CApture-REcapture data. Ecogography 32: 1071-633 1074 (Version 2.3). 634 635 Daszak, P., Berger, L., Cunningham, A.A., Hyatt, A.D., Green, D.E., and Speare, R. 1999. Emerging 636 infectious diseases and amphibian population declines. Emerging Infectious Diseases 5: 735-748. 637 638 Daszak, P., Cunningham, A.A., and Hyatt, A.D. 2000. Emerging infectious diseases of wildlife: threats 639 to biodiversity and human health. Science 287: 443-449. 640 641 Dawson, J., Patel, F., Griffiths, R., and Young, R. 2015. Assessing the global zoo response to the 642 amphibian crisis through 20-year trends in captive collections. Conservation Biology 643 doi:10.1111/cobi.12563. 644 645 Fa, J., Hedges, B., Ibéné, B., Breuil, M., Powell, R., and Magin, C. 2010. Leptodactylus fallax. The IUCN 646 Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2014.3. <<u>www.iucnredlist.org</u>>. Downloaded 10 March 2015. 647 648 Fites, J.S., et al. 2013. The invasive chytrid fungus of amphibians paralyzes lymphocyte responses. 649 Science 342: 366-369. 650 651 Fong, G.A., Viña Dávila, N. and López-Iborra, G.M. 2015. Amphibian hotspots and conservation 652 priorities in eastern Cuba identified by species distribution modelling. Biotropica 47: 119-127. 653 654 Forzan, M., Gunn, H., and Scott, P. 2008. Chytridiomycosis in an aquarium collection of frogs: 655 diagnosis, treatment, and control. Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine 39: 406-411. 656 657 Garcia, G., Cunningham, A.A., Horton, D.L., Garner, T.W.J., Hyatt, A., Hengstberger, S., Lopez, J., 658 Orgrodowczyk, A., Fenton, C., and Fa, J.E. 2007. Mountain chickens Leptodactylus fallax and 659 sympatric amphibians appear to be disease free on Montserrat. Oryx 41: 398-401. 660

661 Garner, T.W.J., Garcia, G., Carroll, B., and Fisher, M.C. 2009. Using itraconazole to clear 662 Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis infection, and subsequent depigmentation of Alytes muletensis 663 tadpoles. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 83: 257-260. 664 665 Gascon, C., Collins, J.P., Moore, R.D., Church, D.R., McKay, J.E., and Mendelson, J.R. III, editors. 2007. 666 Amphibian Conservation Action Plan. IUCN/SSC Amphibian Specialist Group. Gland, Switzerland and 667 Cambridge, UK. 668 669 Georoff, T.A., Moore, R.P., Rodriguez, C., Pessier, A.P., Newton, A.L., McAloose, D., and Calle, P.P. 670 2013. Efficacy of treatment and long-term follow-up of Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis PCR-positive 671 anurans following itraconazole bath treatment. Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine 44: 395-403. 672 673 Gerland, S., Baker, A., Phillott, A.D., and Skerratt, L. 2010. BSA reduces inhibition of a 674 TaqMan assay for the detection of Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis. Diseases of Aquatic 675 Organisms 92: 113-116. 676 677 Harding, G., Griffiths, R.A., and Pavajeau, L. 2015. Developments in amphibian captive 678 breeding and reintroduction programs. Conservation Biology doi:10.1111/cobi.12612. 679 680 Hardy, B.M., Pope, K.L., Piovia-Scott, J., Brown, R.N. and Foley, J.E. 2015. Itraconazole treatment 681 reduces Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis prevalence and increases overwinter field survival in 682 juvenile cascades frogs. Diseases of aquatic organisms **112**: 243-250. 683 684 Holden, W.M., Ebert, A.R., Canning, P.F., and Rollins-Smith, L.A. 2014. Evaluation of amphotericin B 685 and chloramphenicol as alternative drugs for treatment of chytridiomycosis and their impacts on 686 innate skin defences. Applied Environmental Microbiology 80: 4034-4041. 687 688 Hyatt, A.D., et al. 2007. Diagnostic assays and sampling protocols for the detection of Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 75: 175-192. 689 690 691 Jenelle, C.S., Cooch, E.G., Conroy, M.J., and Senar, J.C. 2007. State specific detection probabilities 692 and disease prevalence. Ecological Applications 17: 154-167. 693 694 Johnson, M.L. and Speare, R. 2003. Survival of Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis in water: guarantine 695 and disease control implications. Emerging Infectious Diseases **9**: 922-925. 696 697 Johnson, M.L., and Speare, R. 2005. Possible modes of dissemination of the amphibian chytrid 698 Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis in the environment. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 65: 181-186. 699 700 Jones, M.E.B., Paddock, D., Bender, L., Allen, J.L., Schrenzel, M.S., and Pessier, A.P. 2012. Treatment 701 of chytridiomycosis with reduced-dose itraconazole. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 99: 243-249. 702 703 Joseph, M.B., Mihaljevic, J.R., Arellano, A.L., Kueneman, J.G., Preston, D.L., Cross, P.C., and Johnson, 704 P.T. 2013. Taming wildlife disease: bridging the gap between science and management. Journal of 705 Applied Ecology **50**: 702–712. 706 707 Kanafani, Z.A., and Perfect, J.R. 2008. Resistance to antifungal agents: mechanisms and clinical 708 impact. Clinical Infectious Diseases 46: 120-128. 709 710 Kriger, K.M., and Hero, J.-M. 2006. Large-scale seasonal variation in the prevalence and severity of 711 chytridiomycosis. Journal of Zoology 271: 352-359.

712 713 Lebreton, J.D., Burnham, K.P., Clobert, J., and Anderson, D.R. 1992. Modelling survival and testing 714 biological hypotheses using marked animals: a unified approach with case studies. Ecological 715 Monographs 62: 67-118. 716 717 Lebreton, J.D., Nichols, J.D., Barker, R.J., Pradel, R., and Spendelow, J.A. 2009. Modelling individual 718 animal histories with multistate capture-recapture models. In Caswell, H., editor: Advances in 719 Ecological Research, Vol. 41, Burlington Academic Press, pp. 87-173. 720 721 Lips, K.R., Brem. F., Brenes, R., Reeve, J.D., Alford, R.A., Voyles, J., Carey, C., Livo, L., Pessier, A.P., and 722 Collins, J.P. 2006. Emerging infectious disease and the loss of biodiversity in a neotropical amphibian 723 community. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 103: 724 3165-3170. 725 726 Longo, A.V., Burrowes, P.A., and Joglar, R.L. 2010. Seasonality of Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis 727 infection in direct-developing frogs suggests a mechanism for persistence. Diseases of Aquatic 728 Organisms 92: 253-260. 729 730 Lucaks, P.M., Thompson, W.L., Kendall, W.L., Gould, W.R., Doherty P.F., Jr., Burnham, K.P., and 731 Anderson, D.R. 2007. Concerns regarding a call for pluralism of information theory and hypothesis 732 testing. Journal of Applied Ecology **44**(2): 456-460. 733 734 Magin, C. 2003. Dominica's frogs are croaking. Oryx 37: 406. 735 736 Marano, N., Arguin, P.M., and Pappaioanou, M. 2007. Impact of globalization and animal trade on 737 infectious disease ecology. Emerging Infectious Diseases **13**: 1807-1809. 738 Martin, L., Morton, M.N., Hilton, G.M., Young, R.P., Garcia, G., Cunningham, A.A., James, 739 A., Gray, G., and Mendes, S. (eds.). 2007. A Species Action Plan for the Montserrat Mountain Chicken 740 Leptodactylus fallax. Department of Environment, Montserrat. Available from: 741 http://www.durrell.org/library/document/montserrat mountain chicken action plan.pdf 742 743 McMahon, T.A., et al. 2014. Amphibians acquire resistance to live and dead fungus overcoming 744 fungal immunosuppression. Nature 511: 224-227. 745 746 Mendelson. J.R., et al. 2006. Confronting amphibian declines and extinctions. Science 313: 48-48. 747 748 Mitchell, K.M., Churcher, T.S., Garner, T.W.J., and Fisher, M.C. 2008. Persistence of the emerging 749 pathogen Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis outside the amphibian host greatly increases the 750 probability of host extinction. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 275: 329-334. 751 752 Morens, D.M. and Fauci, A.S. 2013. Emerging infectious diseases: threats to human health and global 753 stability. PLoS Pathogens 9: e1003467. 754 Mountain Chicken Recovery Programme 2014. Long-Term Recovery Strategy for the Critically 755 Endangered Mountain Chicken 2014-2034. Mountain Chicken Recovery Programme. 756 Murray, K.A., Skerrat, L.F. Speare, R., and McCallum, H. 2009. Impact and dynamics of disease in 757 species threatened by the amphibian chytrid fungus, Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis. Conservation 758 Biology 23: 1242-1252.

760 Nichols, D.K., and Lamirande, E.W. 2000. Treatment of cutaneous chytridiomycosis in blue and 761 yellow poison dart frogs (Dendrobates tinctorius). Page 51 in: R. Speare, editor. Proceedings: Getting 762 the Jump on Amphibian Disease. James Cook University, Cairns. 763 764 NOAH (National Office of Animal Health). 2015. NOAH compendium of animal medicines: Itrafungol 765 10 mg/ml oral solution: Contra-indications, warnings etc. Available at <u>www.noahcompendium.co.uk</u>. 766 Accessed 20/06/2015. 767 768 Pessier, A.P., and Mendelson, J.R. (eds.) 2010. A Manual for Control of Infectious Diseases in 769 Amphibian Survival Assurance Colonies and Reintroduction Programs. IUCN/SSC Conservation 770 Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, MN. 771 772 Phillot, A.D., Grogan, L.F., Cashins, S.D., McDonald, K.R., Berger, L., and Skerratt, L.F. 2013. 773 Chytridiomycosis and seasonal mortality of tropical stream-associated frogs 15 years after 774 introduction of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*. Conservation Biology 27: 1058-1068. 775 776 Retallick, R.W.R., McCallum, H., and Speare, R. 2004. Endemic infection of the amphibian chytrid 777 fungus in a frog community post-decline. Plos Biology 2: 1965-1971. 778 779 Scheele, B.C., Hunter, D.A., Grogan, L.F., Berger, L., Kolby, J.E., McFadden, M.S., Marantelli, G., 780 Skerratt, L., and Driscoll, D.A. 2014. Interventions for reducing extinction risk in chytridiomycosis-781 threatened amphibians. Conservation Biology 28: 1195-1205. 782 783 Skerrat, L.F., Berger, L., Speare, R., Cashins, S., McDonald, K.R., Phillot, A.D., Hines, H.B., and Kenyon, 784 N. 2007. Spread of chytridiomycosis has caused the rapid global declines and extinction of frogs. 785 Ecohealth 4: 125-134. 786 787 Stice, M.J., and Briggs, C.J. 2010. Immunization is infective against preventing infection and mortality 788 due to the amphibian fungus Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis. Journal of Wildlife Diseases 46: 70-77. 789 790 Stuart, S.N., Hoffmann, M., Chanson, J.S., Cox, N.A., Berridge, R.J., Ramani, P., and Young, B.E. (eds.) 791 2008. Threatened Amphibians of the World. Lynx Edicions, Barcelona, Spain; IUCN, Gland, 792 Switzerland; and Conservation International, Arlington, Virginia, USA. 793 794 Tamukai, K., Une, Y., Tominaga, A., Suzuki, K., and Goka, K. 2011. Treatment of spontaneous 795 chytridiomycosis in captive amphibians using itraconazole. Journal of Veterinary Medical Science 73: 796 155-159. 797 798 Venesky, M.D., Raffel, T.R., McMahon, T.A., and Rohr, J.R. 2014. Confronting inconsistencies in the 799 amphibian-chytridiomycosis system: implications for disease management. Biological Reviews 89: 800 477-483. 801 802 Vredenburg, V.T., Knapp, R.A., Tunstall, T.S., and Briggs, C.J. 2010. Dynamics of an emerging disease 803 drive large-scale amphibian population extinctions. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 804 of the United States of America 107: 9689-9694. 805 806 Whiles, M.R., et al. 2006. The effects of amphibian population declines on the structure and function 807 of neotropical stream ecosystems. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 4: 27–34. 808 809 White, G.C., and Burnham, K.P. 1999. Program MARK: survival estimation from populations of

810 marked animals. Bird Study **46**: 120-139.

| 811 | |
|------------|--|
| 812 | Wobeser, G. 2002. Disease management strategies for wildlife. Revue Scientifique et Technique |
| 813 | (International office of Epizootics) 21 : 159-178. |
| 814 | |
| 815 | Woodhams D.C. et al. 2011 Mitigating amphibian disease: strategies to maintain wild populations |
| 015 | and control chytridiomycocis. Frontiers in Zoology 9 , doi:10.1196/1742.0004.9.9 |
| 010 | and control chytholomycosis. Hontlers in 20010gy 8. doi.10.1180/1742-3334-8-8 |
| 817 | |
| 818 | Woodhams, D.C., Geiger, C.C., Reinert, L.K., Rollins-Smith, L.A., Lam, B., Harris, R.N., Briggs, C.J., |
| 819 | Vredenburg, V.T., and Voyles, J. 2012. Treatment of amphibians infected with chytrid fungus: |
| 820 | learning from failed treatments with itraconazole, anti-microbial peptides, bacteria, and heat |
| 821 | therapy. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 98 : 11-25. |
| 822 | |
| 823 | Young, R.P. (ed.) 2008. A biodiversity assessment of the Centre Hills, Montserrat. Durrell |
| 824 | Conservation Monograph No. 1. Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust, Jersey, Channel Islands. |
| 825 | |
| 826 | Zippel, K., Johnson, K., Gagliardo, R., Gibson, R., McFadden, M., Browne, R., Martinez, C., and |
| 827 | Townsend E 2011 The amphibian ark: a global community for ex-situ conservation of amphibians |
| 027 979 | Hernetological Conservation and Biology 6: 240-252 |
| 020 | |
| 029 | |
| 830 | |
| 831 | |
| 832 | |
| 833 | |
| 834 | |
| 835 | |
| 836 | |
| 837 | |
| 838 | |
| 839 | |
| 840 | |
| 841 | |
| 842 | |
| 843 | |
| 844 | |
| 845 | |
| 846 | |
| 847 | |
| 848 | |
| 8/9 | |
| 850 | |
| 951 | |
| 001 | |
| 052 | |
| 073 | |
| 854 855 | |
| 855 | |
| 856 | |
| 857 | |
| 858 | |
| 859 | |
| 860 | |
| 861 | |

862 Tables

863

864 **Table 1. Multi-state mark recapture model selection table** showing the top models (Δ QAICc<2), the 865 next best models (Δ QAICc<7) and the general model (bottom row).

866

867 Abbreviations: no group or time variation (.), infection state (inf), all group difference (gr), difference between

treatment and control groups (gr[C]), with two estimates for the treatment group: one during and one post-

treatment gr[splitT], time, sex, difference in AIC between selected model and top model (Δ QAICc), the QAICc

870 weight (W), the number of parameters (K). The AIC score is corrected for small sample size (AICc) and an

adjusted variance-inflation factor to account for slight-overdispersion (QAICc).

| Survival | Recapture | Dead recovery | Transition | QAICc | ΔQAICc | w | К | QDeviance |
|----------------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------|---------|--------|-----|-----------|
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5057.429 | 0.000 | 0.296 | 37 | 4978.787 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr+time | gr | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5057.937 | 0.508 | 0.230 | 38 | 4981.433 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T]+sex | 5059.732 | 2.274 | 0.095 | 38 | 4981.061 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT]+sex | inf+gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5059.857 | 2.429 | 0.088 | 38 | 4981.216 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf*gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5060.888 | 3.459 | 0.052 | 39 | 4980.104 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | Inf+gr+time | | inf*gr[split T] | 5061.289 | 3.861 | 0.043 | 39 | 4980.506 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr[C]+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5061.697 | 4.268 | 0.035 | 36 | 4985.193 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr[C]+time | gr | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5062.263 | 4.834 | 0.026 | 37 | 4987.893 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf*gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T]+sex | 5062.526 | 5.097 | 0.023 | 40 | 4979.598 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT]+sex | inf*gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5062.776 | 5.347 | 0.020 | 40 | 4979.847 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr[C]+time | | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5063.183 | 5.754 | 0.017 | 37 | 4986.679 |
| inf+gr[splitT] | inf+gr+time | gr | inf*gr[C+split T] | 5063.433 | 6.004 | 0.015 | 42 | 4976.202 |
| inf+gr[splitT] | inf+gr+time | | inf*gr[C+split T]+sex | 5063.483 | 6.055 | 0.014 | 41 | 4978.406 |
| inf+gr[C+splitT] | inf+gr[C]+time | | inf*gr[C+split T]+sex | 5064.112 | 6.683 | 0.010 | 37 | 4987.608 |
| inf*time | inf*gr+time | gr+time | inf*gr+time | 5186.711 | 110.834 | 0.0000 | 124 | 5645.1061 |

872 Figures

874 Figure 1



877 Figure 1. Map of Montserrat and Fairy Walk study site. The ghauts (steep sided valleys) of

878 Montserrat with the study transect in Fairy Walk ghaut highlighted, downstream of the Fairy Walk 879 spring on the East of Montserrat.



Page 20

Figure 2. Weekly states of captured L. fallax by proportion of total number in the (a) stream water control group, (b) non-bath control group and (c) itraconazole treatment group. Higher levels of uninfected individuals are visible throughout the study in the itraconazole treatment group and a larger number of known extant individuals persist in that group at the end of the study.





917 Figure 3. Model averaged weekly multi-state mark recapture parameter estimates with

918 unconditional standard errors. Estimates are shown for control groups and itraconazole treatment

- 919 group (IT) during and after treatment. Abbreviations: uninfected state (U), infected state (I) and 920 dead (D).
- 921





Figure 4. Model averaged estimates of recapture probability from the multi-state capture-markrecapture model for infected and uninfected *L. fallax*. Estimates shown for the (a) stream water
control group, (b) non-bath control and (c) itraconazole treatment group. No animals were allocated
to the NBC group for the first two weeks of the study and so no estimates are shown.





Figure 5. Deterministic SIS models (with mortality) of the total individuals in each disease state (and
 total live) using model averaged parameter estimates generated by the multi-state mark-recapture
 modelling for the (a) control group (untreated population) and (b) itraconazole treatment group
 (Itraconazole treated population).