

RANAVIRUS INFECTIONS IN AMPHIBIANS IN THE SOUTHEAST USA

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Amphibian Mortality Events:

In the southeastern USA, viruses from the genus Ranavirus have been responsible for many amphibian disease and mortality events (Duffus et al. 2015). When compared to the fungal pathogen, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, the number of ranavirus-associated mortality events in the USA is three to four times greater (Muths et al. 2006). Amphibian mortality events associated with ranavirus infections have been documented in many species in the southeastern USA, and an even greater number of species are known to be affected by ranavirus infections (Table 1). These infection and die-off events have occurred in both wild and captive populations (Duffus et al. 2015).

The amphibian family that appears to be the most susceptible to ranavirus infection is the Ranidae, which experiences high mortality both in the lab and in the field (Duffus et al. 2015, Hoverman et al. 2011, Miller et al. 2011). There is no doubt that ranavirus associated disease and mortality events have gone undocumented because they were not discovered, or because proper pathological investigations were not performed. Therefore, when a die-off or disease event is discovered, it is important that full pathological investigations are performed to ensure that the cause of death/disease is properly identified (See Duffus et al. 2018).

Since the majority of ranavirus mortality events occur in relatively common species (see Duffus et al. 2015, Green et al. 2002, Miller et al. 2011, Table 1), the significance of this group of pathogens is often dismissed. In the southeast, ranavirus infection has been documented in the eastern hellbender, a species of conservation concern (Souza et al. 2012). It is also very likely that ranavirus-associated disease and die-off events have happened in other species present in the southeast, even in some that are of conservation concern, and these have gone undocumented.

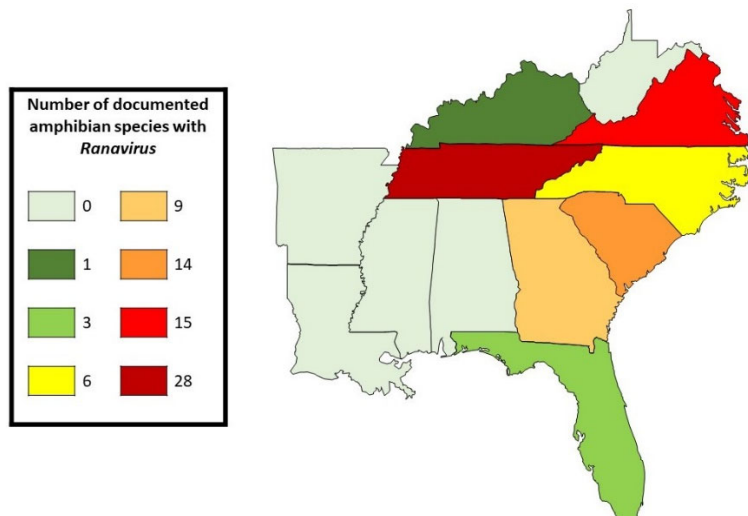


Figure 1. Number of documented amphibian species with ranavirus infections in the southeast USA.

Pathogen Characteristics:

Ranaviruses are members of the viral family *Iridoviridae* (subfamily *Alphairidovirinae*; Chinchar et al. 2020). Of the three species of ranavirus known to affect amphibians, *Frog Virus 3* (FV3), is assumed to be the most prevalent in the southeast USA (Duffus et al. 2015). However, a chimeric ranavirus made up of FV3 and *Common Midwife Toad Virus* (CMTV) was found in the southeast and described by Claytor et al. (2017). It is predicted that if this chimeric ranavirus were to invade naïve populations of amphibians, they would be decimated (Peace et al. 2019). Therefore, proper biosecurity within and between sites is paramount to avoid the introduction of new infectious agents to naïve populations.

The susceptibility of amphibians to ranaviruses actually changes of their development, with animals that are closer to metamorphosis or those that have recently metamorphosed being most sensitive (Haislip et al. 2011, Warne et al. 2011). In most cases, die-off and disease events occur in tadpoles or salamander larvae (1) and these infections are wide spread in the southeast (Hoverman et al. 2012, Figure 1, Table 1). However, infections are known to occur across all developmental and life history stages (Duffus et al. 2015).

Ranaviruses may be transmitted between amphibians in several different ways: direct contact; scavenging on infected animals or eating infected tissues; and exposure to contaminated water or sediments (Brunner et al. 2011, Brunner et al. 2015, Converse and Green 2015). Ranavirus infections and disease can also cause very high mortality (95-99%) in tadpole/larval populations (Duffus et al. 2015, Green et al. 2002, Greer et al. 2005).

Signs of Disease:

Amphibians suffering from ranaviral disease often have swollen limbs and reddening of the skin. Typically, affected animals will have redness that is concentrated on lower abdomen and on the upper hind limbs. However, it is important to note that there are no ranavirus specific signs of disease and that the signs described here can be associated with other pathogens, such as bacteria (e.g. *Aeromonas hydrophila*) or alveolates. In terms of behavioral changes, amphibians with ranavirus disease tend to be lethargic, stop eating, loose coordination and their typical avoidance behaviors (Miller et al. 2015).

Ranaviruses can infect many tissues, including the liver and kidneys. At necropsy, these organs may be pale and friable or hemorrhagic (Convers and Green 2005, Miller et al. 2008, Miller et al. 2015). Mortality due to ranavirus infection can happen as soon as a few days, or in some cases sub-lethal (also called subclinical) infections, these individuals may become carriers/reservoirs of the virus (Brunner et al. 2004, Brunner et al. 2015).

The standard ways to confirm ranavirus infection in animals involves one or more specific diagnostic tests (Miller et al. 2015). These test may include histological examination of specific tissues for pathological changes, electron microscopic examination for the presence of virions in tissue, isolation of the virus in cell culture, and polymerase chain reaction (PCR; both traditional and qPCR; Miller et al. 2015). PCR is the most commonly used diagnostic tool to determine if ranavirus is present in a specific tissue, however, it only detects the presence/absence of viral DNA in the sample and does not determine if that DNA is from viable virions (i.e. as would be detected with virus isolation; Miller et al. 2015). These techniques are available at most diagnostic laboratories. A list of laboratories that are able to identify ranavirus infections are available on the Global Ranavirus Consortium's website, www.ranavirus.org.

Factors Contributing to Emergence:

The first large scale mortality events associated with ranavirus infections in amphibians in North America occurred in the early 1990s (Duffus et al. 2015). Now, disease and mortality events have occurred in amphibians present in six southeastern states (Figure 1; Table 1). Ranavirus has been found in at least 48 amphibian species from 11 families (Table 1).

One of the major factors that has been associated with ranavirus emergence is the introduction of novel strains into naïve populations by humans (Picco et al. 2008, Storfer et al. 2007). Humans can unknowingly transport the virus between areas on footwear, clothing, recreational equipment, and field equipment. Importantly, results from recent studies suggest that ranaviruses from captive amphibian facilities (e.g. bait shops, ranaculture facilities, biological supply companies) may be more virulent than those that are found in the wild (Hoverman et al. 2011, Majji et al. 2006, Storfer et al. 2007). Therefore,

novel and potentially highly virulent strains of ranavirus may be introduced to naïve populations through anthropogenic means.

Preventative Measures:

To reduce the likelihood of spreading ranaviruses to naïve populations or between populations, the soles of boots, recreation equipment, and field gear should be disinfected prior to entering a new area. Effective methods of disinfection can be found on the in SEPARC Information Sheet #10R. These methods include a 3% bleach solution or a 1% Novalsan solution with a minimum contact of one minute (Bryan et al. 2009).

Release of captive amphibians or reptiles (including chelonians) is discouraged, except in cases of repatriation, head start programs, or similar conservation efforts, and even then, care must be taken to ensure that novel pathogens are not inadvertently included with these releases. If captive animals from other situations (e.g., rehabilitation programs) are to be released, they should be returned to the location of origin, and only if there is no evidence (i.e., via diagnostic testing) that they are infected with a pathogen of concern (e.g., ranavirus, Bd, Bsal, mycoplasma, herpesvirus).

In 2008, the OIE (World Organization on Animal Health) declared that ranaviruses were Reportable Infections in amphibians (but not reptiles), recognizing the negative effects that this group of viruses has on these animals. The listing of ranaviruses as reportable infections in amphibians may eventually affect legislation that governs the movement of amphibians between states and countries, and may eventually lead to the requirement that animals be certified ranavirus-free before they are moved.

Table 1: Amphibian species known to be affected by *Ranavirus* infection in the southeastern USA.

Family	Species	State	First Reference(s)
Ambystomatidae	<i>Ambystoma maculatum</i>	TN	Todd – Thompson 2010
	<i>Ambystoma opacum</i>	TN, SC	Todd –Thompson 2010. Love et al. 2016
	<i>Ambystoma talpoideum</i>	TN, SC	O’Bryan et al. 2012, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Ambystoma tigrinum</i>	TN, SC	Hoverman et al. 2011; Love et al. 2016
Bufonidae	<i>Anaxyrus americanus</i>	TN	Hoverman et al. 2011
	<i>Anaxyrus terrestris</i>	SC	Love et al. 2016
Cryptobranchidae	<i>Cryptobranchus alleganiensis</i>	TN	Souza et al. 2012
Eleutherodactylidae	<i>Eleutherodactylus planirostris</i>	GA	Rivera et al. 2019
Hylidae	<i>Acris crepitans</i>	TN	Hoverman et al. 2011
	<i>Hyla chryoscleris</i>	TN, SC	Todd –Thompson 2010, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Hyla chryoscleris</i> and <i>H. versicolor</i> complex	TN	O’Bryan et al. 2012
	<i>Hyla cinerea</i>	GA,SC	Rivera et al. 2019, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Hyla squirella</i>	GA	Rivera et al. 2019
	<i>Pseudacris crucifer</i>	TN, SC	Todd – Thompson 2010, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Pseudacris feriarum</i>	TN	Todd – Thompson 2010
	<i>Pseudacris ornate</i>	SC	Love et al. 2016
Microhylidae	<i>Gastrophryne carolinensis</i>	SC	Love et al. 2016
Plethodontidae	<i>Aneides aeneus</i>	VA	Blackburn et al. 2015
	<i>Desmognathus conanti</i>	TN	Gray et al. 2009
	<i>Desmognathus crestes</i>	VA	Hamed et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus folkesti</i>	GA, NC	Rothermel et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus fuscus</i>	VA	Hamed et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus imitator</i>	TN	Gray et al. 2009

	<i>Desmognathus marmoratus</i>	GA, NC	Rothermel et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus monticola</i>	GA, NC, TN,VA	Gray et al, 2009, Davidson and Chambers 2011, Hamed et al. 2013, Rothermel et al 2013,
	<i>Desmognathus ocoee</i>	GA, NC, TN	Gray et al. 2009, Rothermel et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus organi</i>	VA	Hamed et al. 2013
	<i>Desmognathus quadramaculatus</i>	GA, NC,TN, VA	Gray et al, 2009, Davidson and Chambers 2011, Hamed et al. 2013, Rothermel et al 2013,
	<i>Desmognathus santeetlah</i>	TN	Gray et al, 2009
	<i>Desmognathus wrighti</i>	TN	Gray et al, 2009
	<i>Eurycea cirrigera</i>	VA	Davidson and Chambers 2011
	<i>Eurycea longicauda</i>	VA	Davidson and Chambers 2011
	<i>Eurycea lucifuga</i>	VA	Davidson and Chambers 2011
	<i>Eurycea wilderae</i>	GA, NC, TN	Davidson and Chambers 2011, Rothermel et al. 2013
	<i>Gyrinophilus porphyriticus</i>	TN	Davidson and Chambers 2011
	<i>Plethodon glutinosus</i> complex	VA	Davidson and Chambers 2011
	<i>Plethodon jordani</i>	TN	Gray et al. 2009
	<i>Plethodon montaneus</i>	VA	Hamed et al. 2013
	<i>Plethodon welleri</i>	VA	Hamed et al. 2013
Ranidae	<i>Lithobates calmitans</i>	TN	Todd-Thompson 2010
	<i>Lithobates capito</i>	FL	Landsberg et al. 2013
	<i>Lithobates catesbeianus</i>	FL, TN, VA, SC	Todd- Thompson 2010, Davidson and Chambers 2011, Hoverman et al. 2011, Landsberg et al. 2013, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Lithobates clamitans</i>	TN, SC	Hoverman et al. 2011, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Lithobates paulstris</i>	TN, VA	Todd-Thompson 2010, Davidson and Chambers 2011, Hoverman et al. 2011
	<i>Lithobates sphenoccephalus</i>	FL,TN, SC	Hoverman et al. 2011, O'Bryan et al. 2012, Landsberg et al 2013, Love et al. 2016
	<i>Lithobates sylvaticus</i>	TN	Todd-Thompson 2010
Salamandridae	<i>Notophthalmus viridescens</i>	KY, TN, SC, VA	Todd-Thompson 2010,Davidson and Chambers 2011, Hoverman et al. 2011, Richter et al. 2013, Love et al. 2016
Scaphiopodidae	<i>Scaphiopus holbrookii</i>	SC	Love et al. 2016

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