1	The Influence of Pesticide Use on Amphibian Chytrid Fungal Infections
2	Varies with Host Life Stage
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### ABSTRACT

16	Aim Pesticides are widespread and may alter host-pathogen interactions, ultimately influencing
17	pathogen distributions across landscapes. Previous laboratory research supports two hypotheses
18	regarding the effects of pesticides on interactions between amphibians and the predominately
19	aquatic fungal pathogen Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (Bd): 1) pesticides can be directly toxic
20	to Bd reducing infection risk of aquatic larval amphibians, and 2) exposure to pesticides at
21	formative stages of amphibian development can have long-term consequences on defenses,
22	increasing disease risk after metamorphosis. It remains equivocal whether these laboratory
23	patterns are consistent across amphibian species and occur in the field across broad spatial
24	scales. The aim of this research is to address this research gap on the impact of pesticides on Bd
25	distributions.
26	Location Contiguous United States.
27	<b>Time Period</b> 1998-2009.
28	Major Taxa Studied Amphibian hosts and Bd.
29	Methods Our data included 3,946 individuals evaluated for Bd infection across 49 amphibian
30	species, at 126 locations, which resulted in 199 estimates of Bd prevalence in populations. We
31	used species distribution models and multimodel inference to assess the influence of 1) total
32	pesticide use, 2) pesticide use by type (herbicide, insecticide, fungicide), and 3) the most
33	commonly used pesticide compounds on Bd infection prevalence in amphibian populations
34	across life stages, controlling for several factors previously documented to affect Bd's
35	distribution.

- 36 **Results** Consistent with laboratory findings, our results indicate that exposure to multiple
- 37 herbicide compounds is associated with lowered infection risk in the aquatic larval stage but
- 38 higher risk in the terrestrial post-metamorphic stage.
- 39 Main Conclusions Our study highlights the complex nature of the effects that pesticides can
- 40 have on disease distributions and suggests that pesticides should be strongly considered at broad
- 41 scales and across host species, especially in environments in which exposure is widespread.
- 42 Accurate predictions of disease distributions may lead to more effective management strategies
- 43 to limit disease spread.

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#### INTRODUCTION

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46 The emergence of infectious diseases threatens public health, global economies, and 47 wildlife populations (Binder, 1999; Daszak et al., 2000; Morens et al., 2004). Therefore, 48 understanding factors that determine distributions of infectious diseases is critical if we are to 49 design effective management strategies to limit disease spread. Anthropogenic activities are 50 predicted to be major determinants of infectious disease distributions (Daszak et al., 2001; Jones 51 et al., 2008). While mounting evidence suggests that changes to climate and land use type can 52 influence distributions of disease (Lafferty, 2009; Rohr et al., 2011; Martin & Boruta, 2013), the 53 influence of chemical contaminants on disease distributions remains relatively undetermined 54 (Lawler *et al.*, 2006). For wildlife populations in freshwater ecosystems, chemical contaminants, 55 including pesticides, are a widespread abiotic factor that might influence the distributions of 56 disease occurrence by affecting host-pathogen interactions. Pesticides can have simultaneous 57 positive and negative effects on parasite transmission; the net effect of these factors determines 58 the influence of pesticides on disease risk in wildlife populations (Rohr et al., 2008a). For 59 instance, pesticides can increase the incidence of pathogen infection (Christin et al., 2003; Pettis 60 et al., 2012) via the disruption of host immune systems (Blakley et al., 1999; Rohr et al., 2008b). 61 Alternatively, exposure to pesticides can also decrease pathogen viability via direct negative 62 effects of pesticides on pathogen survival and reproduction (Lafferty & Kuris, 1999; Morley et 63 al., 2003), pointing to the complex nature of effects of pesticides on host-pathogen interactions. 64 For hosts with complex life cycles, host life stage could determine the net effects of 65 pesticides on disease risk if the relative balance between the effects of pesticides on host 66 susceptibility and pathogen viability changes throughout the development of the host. If the net 67 effect of pesticides changes with host life stage, we might expect pesticides to be negatively

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68 associated with infections for stages in which the negative effects of pesticides are greater on 69 pathogen viability compared to host immunity. Alternatively, we might expect a positive 70 association between pesticides and infection prevalence for host stages in which the negative 71 impact of pesticides is greater on host immunity compared to pathogen viability. 72 Understanding the influence of pesticides on disease dynamics in amphibian populations 73 at broad spatial scales is markedly important because amphibians are facing global declines that 74 are caused, in part, by a fungal pathogen, Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (hereafter, Bd) that 75 causes the disease chytridiomycosis. Bd has been linked to population declines, mass mortality, 76 and species extinctions in hosts (Lips et al., 2006; Skerratt et al., 2007), and its effects on hosts 77 can be altered by environmental conditions, including pesticide exposure, that may influence 78 pathogen viability or host immune response (Gaietto et al. 2014, Wise et al. 2014). Although the 79 presence of Bd in North America dates back to 1888 (Talley et al., 2015), we lack an 80 understanding of variation in host susceptibility across environmental gradients and the role 81 pesticides might play in mediating the occurrence of Bd. 82 Experimental evidence suggests that pesticide exposure during critical developmental 83 windows in early-life can have effects on the immune system in adult stages (Rohr & Palmer, 84 2005, 2013; Rohr et al., 2006) and that there are differential effects of pesticide exposure on 85 amphibian-Bd interactions over aquatic larval and terrestrial post-metamorphic life stages. For 86 instance, in the aquatic larval life stage of amphibians, pesticides can have direct negative effects 87 on Bd, which results in an overall decreased risk of disease for aquatic larvae. In fact, Bd growth 88 on infected tadpoles can be reduced by pesticide exposure (McMahon *et al.*, 2013) and can even 89 result in clearance of Bd from the host (Hanlon et al., 2012). These negative effects of pesticides 90 on Bd are likely driven by reduced Bd growth and production of Bd zoospores, the aquatic

91 infective stage of the pathogen (Hanlon et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2013). Bd infects 92 keratinized cells in amphibians, which occur only in the mouthparts of tadpoles (Voyles et al., 93 2011), suggesting that susceptibility to Bd infection is low in this early-life stage. As tadpoles 94 metamorphose into the terrestrial life stage, the incidence of keratinized cells increases as the 95 epidermis develops and Bd infection can move from the mouthparts of the tadpole to the entire 96 surface of the body (McMahon & Rohr, 2015), suggesting that susceptibility to infection and 97 disease development increases in the terrestrial host life stage (Rachowicz & Vredenburg, 2004). 98 In the terrestrial post-metamorphic life stage, pesticide exposure during early-life is associated 99 with increased Bd-induced mortality, which may be driven by disruption of the immune system. 100 For example, early-life pesticide exposures can lead to increased Bd-induced mortality of 101 terrestrial hosts, which is caused by reduced tolerance to infection; this finding points to a cost of 102 pesticide exposure that could be induced by disruption of the immune system (Rohr *et al.*, 2013). 103 While these experimental studies support differential effects of pesticide exposure on amphibian-104 Bd interactions over aquatic larval and terrestrial post-metamorphic life stages, it remains 105 equivocal whether these laboratory patterns are consistent across amphibian species and occur in 106 natural populations at broad spatial scales. 107 The objective of the current study is to evaluate the influence of pesticide use on Bd

infection prevalence in amphibian populations across the United States. We used publically available data including 199 field observations of Bd infection prevalence and corresponding estimates of pesticide use at the county level. We used species distribution models and multimodel inference approaches to assess the influence of 1) total pesticide use, 2) pesticide use by type (herbicide use, insecticide use, fungicide use) and 3) the most commonly used pesticide compounds within type on Bd infection prevalence in amphibian populations across life stages

114	controlling for the influence of environmental (vegetation, precipitation, temperature) and biotic
115	(host family) factors. Based on the experimental evidence reviewed previously concerning
116	persistent and life-stage dependent effects of pesticides on Bd infection risk in amphibians, we
117	predicted that in the aquatic larval stage of amphibians, Bd prevalence would be negatively
118	associated with pesticide use, and in the terrestrial post-metamorphic stage, Bd prevalence would
119	be positively associated with pesticide use.
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121	Methods
122	Response and Predictor Variables
123	We obtained a spatially explicit dataset of amphibian populations surveyed for Bd infection
124	from Bd Maps (www.bd-maps.net) in 2013. Bd survey sites were included in our analyses if five
125	or more individuals were surveyed at a given site between 1992 and 2012, life stage information
126	of amphibians was provided, and survey sites were located in the contiguous USA. The resulting
127	dataset comprised 3,946 individuals evaluated for Bd infection, across 49 species, at 126 unique
128	locations, which resulted in 199 observations of Bd infection prevalence at the population level.
129	Bd infection prevalence at each site, which served as the response variable in all of our statistical
130	models, was arcsine-square-root transformed for each analysis.
131	To conservatively estimate pesticide use, we used USA county-level low pesticide use (as
132	opposed to high) estimates from 1992 to 2012 obtained from the Estimated Annual Agricultural
133	Pesticide Use dataset provided by the Pesticide National Synthesis Project of the National Water-
134	Quality Assessment (NAWQA) Program (United States Geological Survey)
135	(https://water.usgs.gov/nawqa/pnsp/usage/maps/county-level/). Preliminary analyses showed the
136	effects of high pesticide use estimates were indistinguishable from low use estimates (data not

137 shown). We classified the pesticide compounds as herbicide, insecticide, or fungicide using the 138 primary use type classifications provided by Pesticide Action Network (PAN) Pesticide Database 139 (http://www.pesticideinfo.org/). We included plant growth regulators and defoliants as herbicides 140 and insect growth regulators as insecticides. For a given site in a given county, we summed low 141 use estimates across pesticide types at the county level. In statistical models, pesticide usages 142 were transformed using the natural logarithm. We excluded mineral and biologic fungicides (e.g. 143 bacteria) because we were interested in non-target effects of synthetic fungicides on host 144 responses to Bd that might influence infection prevalence. To estimate local vegetative habitat, 145 we used a seven-day composite from June 14 to 20 of 2002 of Normalized Difference Index 146 (NDVI) data from eMODIS (Earth Resources Observation and Science Center, Moderate 147 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) made available by the United States Geological Survey 148 (https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/). Data for the following abiotic factors were downloaded from 149 WorldClim (http://www.worldclim.org/): 30-y means (1960-1990) of annual total precipitation, 150 precipitation of the wettest month, precipitation of the driest month, annual mean temperature, 151 mean diurnal temperature range, maximum temperature of the warmest month, and minimum 152 temperature of the coldest month. NDVI, precipitation, and temperature measures were extracted 153 at survey site locations using ArcMap 10.4. We reduced our three precipitation measures and 154 four temperature measures into a single precipitation measure and a single temperature measure 155 using principal component analyses by extracting the first axis for precipitation measures (98.9%) 156 of the total variation, hereafter PC1Precip) and for temperature measures (83.8% of the total 157 variation, hereafter PC1Temp).

158 Generalized Least Squares Models

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159 Generalized least squares (GLS) multiple regression models were fit using the gls 160 function (nlme package) with full maximum likelihood fit and an exponential spatial correlation 161 structure. In all models, observations were weighted based on the number of individuals 162 surveyed at a site. We constructed three sets of models to evaluate the influence of 1) total 163 pesticide use, 2) pesticide use by type (herbicide use, insecticide use, fungicide use), and 3) the 164 most commonly used herbicide compounds on Bd infection prevalence across host life stages. 165 Models for total pesticide use and pesticide use by type included the following covariates to 166 control for the effects of biotic and environmental factors: host family, NDVI, PC1Precip. and 167 PC1Temp. To simplify models of pesticide compounds, we included host family and PC1Temp. 168 as the only biotic and environmental covariates, as these covariates were relatively important in 169 models of total pesticide use and pesticide use by type (relative importance score > 0.6, Figure 170 1).

171 To evaluate the influence of total pesticide use across life stages of amphibian hosts on 172 Bd infection prevalence, we constructed a model with predictor variables including: total 173 pesticide use, host life stage, the interaction of life stage and pesticides, and all covariates. To 174 evaluate which type of pesticide drove the effects of total pesticide use on Bd infection 175 prevalence across life stages, we constructed a model with predictor variables including: 176 herbicide use, insecticide use, fungicide use, host life stage, the two way interactions of host life 177 stage with herbicide, insecticide, or fungicide use, and all covariates. When controlling for the 178 effects of insecticide and fungicide use, herbicide use was the best predictor of Bd infection 179 prevalence across host life stages. To determine which commonly used herbicide compounds 180 drove the effects of herbicide use, we first gathered the use estimates for the top five most-used 181 herbicide types in our dataset and constructed five models that included the following predictor

variables: herbicide compound (glyphosate, atrazine, metolachlor-s, ethephon, or sodium
chlorate), herbicide use minus the compound of focus, insecticide use, fungicide use, host life
stage, the interaction of host life stage and herbicide compound of focus, host family, and
PC1Temp. For use estimates at sites in which a compound estimate was not given, we assumed
no use of that compound for the given site.

## 187 Multimodel Inference and Comparisons of Goodness of Fit

188 To avoid relying on a single model to draw conclusions about the importance of 189 predictors on prevalence, we used multimodel inference (MuMin package), which fits models 190 using combinations of predictors and ranks models by second-order Akaike Information Criteria 191 corrected for small sample sizes (AICc) (dredge function), for models including total pesticide 192 use and pesticide use by type. AICc,  $\Delta$ AICc, and Akaike weights for each candidate model were 193 calculated. To compare the influence of model factors across all candidate models, Akaike 194 weights for each factor were summed across models to determine relative importance scores 195 (Burnham & Anderson, 2002). P-values were calculated from full model-averaged parameter estimates with statistical shrinkage. Nagelkerke pseudo R<sup>2</sup> values were calculated to assess 196 197 goodness-of-fit of the top performing models (with a  $\Delta$ AICc equal to zero). To visualize the 198 effect of significant predictors on prevalence, we provide partial regression plots from these top 199 performing models including total pesticide use and use by pesticide type.

To determine the relative contribution of each of the top five herbicide compounds to the patterns of total herbicide use on Bd prevalence across host life stages, we used a log-likelihood ratio test to compare the goodness-of-fit of two models: one that included the interaction between the focal herbicide compound and host life stage and one that did not. To visualize the influence of herbicide compounds on infection prevalence, we provide partial regression plots for each

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herbicide compound and the sum of the most used herbicide compounds across host life stagescontrolling for covariates.

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#### RESULTS

209 The Influence of Total Pesticides

210 Total pesticide use, life stage, family, and the interaction of pesticide use and life stage 211 influenced Bd infection prevalence in amphibian populations significantly when controlling for covariates (Table 1, Fig. 1A, Nagelkerke pseudo  $R^2 = 0.39$ ). The relative importance scores for 212 213 pesticide use, life stage, and the interaction of pesticide use and life stage were greater than all 214 covariates, including host family, NDVI, precipitation, and temperature (Fig. 1A). In the best-215 fitting model controlling for covariates, the impact of pesticides depended on life stage (Table 1, 216 Fig. 2A). For the aquatic larval life stage of the hosts, Bd infection prevalence decreased with 217 increasing pesticide use, but for the terrestrial post metamorphic life stage of hosts, Bd infection 218 prevalence increased with pesticide use (Fig. 2A).

### 219 The Influence of Pesticide Use by Type

220 While pesticide uses by type were positively correlated (herbicide use vs. insecticide use: 221 Pearson's correlation coefficient = 0.77, herbicide use vs. fungicide use = 0.59, insecticide use 222 vs. fungicide use = 0.82), the influence of total pesticide use on Bd infection prevalence across 223 host life stages seemed to be driven by herbicide use in comparison with insecticide and 224 fungicide use (Table 1). Herbicide use, life stage, family, and the interaction of herbicide use and 225 life stage were significant predictors of prevalence, controlling for insecticide use, fungicide use, 226 the interaction of insecticide and fungicide uses with life stage, and all other covariates (Table 1). 227 The relative importance scores for herbicide use, life stage, and the interaction of herbicide use

and life stage were greater than all other factors in the model, including family, insecticide use,

fungicide use, and the interaction of insecticide or fungicide use with life stage (Fig. 1B). Similar

230 to the effect of total pesticide use, herbicide use was associated with decreased infection

231 prevalence in the aquatic larval life stage and increased infection prevalence in the terrestrial

post-metamorphic life stages (Fig. 2B, Nagelkerke pseudo  $R^2 = 0.37$ ).

## 233 The Influence of Herbicide Compounds

234 The five most commonly used herbicides in the dataset include glyphosate (34% of total 235 herbicide use based on weight), atrazine (10%), metolachlor-s (5%), ethephon (5%), and sodium 236 chlorate (5%). Including the interaction between focal herbicide compound and life stage 237 improved the goodness of fit compared to the same model without this interactions for all five 238 herbicides (glyphosate [log-likelihood ratio = 17.55, p<0.001], atrazine [log-likelihood ratio = 239 8.97, p = 0.003], metolachlor-s [log-likelihood ratio = 8.58, p = 0.003], ethephon [log-likelihood ratio = 4.89, p = 0.027], sodium chlorate [log-likelihood ratio = 6.09, p = 0.01]). Similar to the 240 241 effect of total pesticides and herbicides, glyphosate use was negatively associated with Bd 242 prevalence in the aquatic stage and positively associated in the terrestrial stage (Fig. 3A). Both 243 atrazine and metolachlor-s use were negatively associated with Bd prevalence in the larval stage 244 but did not appear to be associated with infections in the terrestrial stage (Fig. 3B,C). In contrast, 245 ethephon and sodium chlorate use did not have a strong influence on Bd prevalence in the 246 aquatic larval stage, but were positively associated with Bd prevalence in the terrestrial post-247 metamorphic stage (Fig. 3D,E). The influence of the sum of the top five most-used herbicide 248 compounds matches closely with the pattern of overall herbicide use on Bd prevalence (Fig. 3F). 249

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#### DISCUSSION

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251	Pesticides represent a major ecological disturbance to communities in aquatic
252	environments and can shape distributions of organisms across landscapes (Liess et al., 2005;
253	Schäfer et al., 2007; Beketov et al., 2013). Our study provides evidence of the influence of
254	pesticides on infectious disease dynamics of wildlife at broad spatial scales, which is consistent
255	with the body of experimental research on pesticides and amphibian-Bd interactions. We show a
256	negative relationship between pesticide use and Bd infection prevalence in the aquatic larval life
257	stage and a positive relationship between pesticide use and Bd infection prevalence in the
258	terrestrial post-metamorphic life stage. Our analyses suggest that the combined influence of the
259	most commonly used herbicides are the primary determinants of these differential effects of
260	pesticides on infection prevalence across host life stages.
261	Hosts and pathogens in freshwater systems are likely exposed to pesticides in the aquatic
262	environment, where the presence of contaminants, including pesticides, is common because of
263	aerial deposition and agricultural runoff (Gilliom & Hamilton, 2006). In the amphibian-Bd
264	system, when pesticides are present, the balance between hosts and pathogens in the aquatic
265	environment is likely tipped in favor of hosts because of direct negative effects of pesticides on
266	pathogen viability, which explains the mechanism for the observed negative association between
267	pesticide use and infection prevalence in the aquatic larval stage of hosts in the current study.
268	Several pesticides, including atrazine-the second most used herbicide compound in the United
269	States and in our dataset, have been shown to have direct negative effects on Bd growth, survival
270	(Hanlon & Parris, 2012; McMahon et al., 2013), and production of zoospores, the aquatic
271	infective stage of Bd (Hanlon & Parris, 2012).

However, as hosts develop, they can suffer delayed negative effects of early-life pesticide exposure well into adulthood, increasing their overall risk of disease development in the

274	terrestrial post-metamorphic life stage. Pesticide exposure can have delayed effects on organisms
275	(Rohr & Palmer, 2005; Jones et al., 2009) and can disrupt host-pathogen interactions leading to
276	an increase in infectious disease risk (Rohr et al., 2006; Rohr & McCoy, 2010; Wise et al.,
277	2014). We propose that the observed positive effect of pesticide use, mainly driven by herbicide
278	use, on Bd infection prevalence is consistent with the body of research showing persistent
279	negative effects of early-life exposures to pesticides on infectious disease risk; for instance, post-
280	metamorphic amphibians can suffer increased mortality to Bd as a result of early-life exposure to
281	atrazine caused by reduced tolerance to infection, suggesting a long-term cost of pesticide
282	exposure (Rohr et al., 2013).
283	Interestingly, herbicides, as opposed to insecticides or fungicides, were most correlated
284	with the observed patterns between pesticide use and infection prevalence. We suspect the power
285	to detect an effect of herbicides is greater than that for insecticides or fungicides because
286	herbicides are used in greater amounts in the United States (Grube et al., 2011), increasing the
287	likelihood of exposure in natural systems. In a given year, herbicides are used more than five
288	times as much as insecticides or fungicides as measured by mass of active ingredient (Grube et
289	al., 2011). Herbicide exposure of natural host-pathogen populations is therefore more likely to
290	occur in comparison with exposure to insecticides or fungicides.
291	Our results support that the combined effects of the most commonly used herbicides
292	together drive the observed patterns of total herbicide use on infection prevalence. The
293	association between individual herbicide compounds and infection prevalence across life stage
294	either closely matched the overall pattern of total herbicide use (e.g. glyphosate) or showed a
295	similar pattern to the influence of total herbicide use in at least one of the host life stages (e.g.

atrazine, metolachlor-s, ethephon, sodium chlorate). For instance, atrazine and metolachlor-s

297 have negative effects on infection prevalence in the aquatic larval life stage but no strong effect 298 in the terrestrial post-metamorphic life stage, and ethephon and sodium chlorate have positive 299 effects on infection prevalence in the terrestrial post-metamorphic life stage but no strong effect 300 in the aquatic larval life stage. The top five most commonly used herbicides in our dataset 301 comprised about 59% of the total use of herbicides, so when we examine the influence of the 302 sum of these herbicide compounds on infection prevalence across host life stages (Fig. 3F), it 303 unsurprisingly closely matched the patterns for total herbicide use (Fig. 2B). 304 Our results suggest that managers could favor certain herbicide compounds over others if 305 their goal is to limit increasing susceptibility to Bd infection in the terrestrial post-metamorphic 306 stage. An understanding of non-target effects, including the role of potential herbicides on 307 amphibian host fitness, would be needed to develop an integrated pest management solution.

308 While our study evaluates the potential influence of pesticides on amphibian host resistance, via

309 infection prevalence, we have not evaluated fitness consequences of pesticides on hosts exposed

to parasites, which may occur through the physiological mechanisms of resistance or tolerance.

311 For instance, herbicide exposure of Bd-infected or -exposed amphibian hosts may result in

312 increased host mortality.

While we support that the combined uses of the most common herbicide compounds drive the influence of pesticide use on Bd infection prevalence in amphibians, we do not suggest that insecticides and fungicides do not contribute to this pattern. Instead, we highlight that herbicide, insecticide, and fungicide use are positively correlated at the county level across the United States. Since pesticide use estimates are derived at least in part from land use data (Thelin & Stone, 2013), counties in which herbicide use is high are likely counties with increased agricultural land use, so these counties also have high insecticide and fungicide use. The

320 influence of the most abundant pesticide type, namely herbicides, gives rise to the model that 321 best predicts infection prevalence. Even though our models control for the use of other pesticide 322 types when testing for a focal pesticide type, because of the positive correlation among the 323 pesticide use types, we are hesitant to disregard a potential influence of insecticides and 324 fungicides on Bd distributions. 325 Pesticides can be a major driver of communities in freshwater ecosystems (McMahon et 326 al. 2012). Consistent with the body of experimental evidence in this system, our research 327 illustrates how pesticides can shape distributions of infectious pathogens over broad spatial 328 scales via effects that vary over the life span of a host, which highlights the complex nature of 329 the impact of contaminants on natural systems. With their impacts on pathogen viability and host 330 immunity, the effects of pesticides on infectious disease distributions should be given more 331 attention particularly at broad scales and across host species. Accurate predictions of disease 332 distributions may lead to the most effective management strategies to limit the spread of diseases 333 to vulnerable populations. 334 335 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.— Thank you to M. Venesky for providing the Bd dataset and to K. 336 Ronnenberg and D. Olson for information regarding updates to the Bd dataset. We are grateful 337 for the thoughtful advice of S. Koerner, J. Cohen, and M. Mahon on data management and 338 analyses and to the many scientists who freely shared their data by contributing to the Bd-maps 339 database. This manuscript was improved by the thoughtful feedback of the Rohr lab. 340 341 BIOSKETCH

342	Samantha Rumschlag (samantharumschlag.weebly.com) is currently a postdoctoral scholar in
343	Jason Rohr's lab at the University of South Florida. Her research combines experimental
344	manipulations with broad scale analyses to examine the influence of anthropogenic changes on
345	wildlife populations and infectious diseases. The goal of her research is to inform wildlife
346	management concerning current environmental issues to increase the likelihood of sustainable
347	coexistence between humans and wildlife.
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349	DATA ACCESSIBILITY
350	The derived dataset used for these analyses will be made publically available via Dryad upon
351	manuscript acceptance.
352	

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# 466 Table 1. Model averaged coefficients, standard error (SE), z-statistics and associated *p*-values

- 467 with statistical shrinkage from multimodel inference analyses predicting the effects of total
- 468 pesticide use and pesticide use by type on Bd prevalence in amphibian populations.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	Z	р
Total Pesticide Use				
(Intercept)	1.0968	0.2776	3.93	<0.001
Pesticides	-0.0811	0.0238	3.38	0.001
Life Stage (Terrestrial)	-1.2164	0.3135	3.86	<0.001
Family (Hylidae)	-0.1427	0.0931	1.52	0.128
Family (Plethodontidae)	-0.2146	0.0947	2.25	0.024
Family (Ranidae)	0.0145	0.0808	0.18	0.858
Family (Salamandridae)	0.1392	0.1573	0.88	0.379
NDVI	-0.0811	0.1105	0.73	0.464
PC1Precip.	0.0016	0.0051	0.30	0.761
PC1Temp.	-0.0592	0.0453	1.30	0.193
Pesticides*Life Stage (Terrestrial)	0.1396	0.0293	4.74	<0.001
Type of Pesticide Use				
(Intercept)	0.9807	0.2510	3.88	<0.001
Herbicides	-0.0704	0.0245	2.86	0.004
Insecticides	-0.0007	0.0173	0.04	0.970
Fungicides	-0.0033	0.0127	0.26	0.797
Life Stage (Terrestrial)	-1.1068	0.3041	3.62	<0.001
Family (Hylidae)	-0.1338	0.0951	1.40	0.162
Family (Plethodontidae)	-0.2262	0.1023	2.20	0.028
Family (Ranidae)	-0.0070	0.0813	0.09	0.932
Family (Salamandridae)	0.0937	0.1565	0.60	0.552
NDVI	-0.0504	0.0931	0.54	0.590
PC1Precip.	0.0011	0.0047	0.24	0.813
PC1Temp.	-0.0469	0.0442	1.06	0.290
Herbicides*Life Stage(Terrestrial)	0.1315	0.0332	3.94	<0.001
Insecticides*Life Stage (Terrestrial)	0.0019	0.0172	0.11	0.912
Fungicides*Life Stage (Terrestrial)	0.0017	0.0109	0.16	0.875

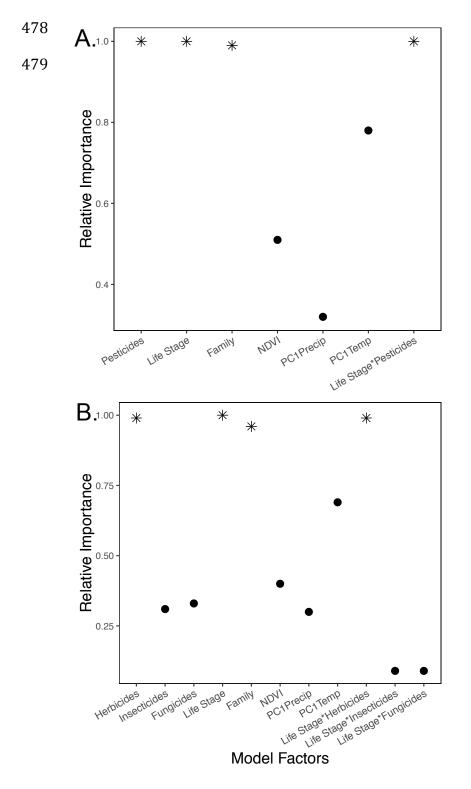
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# 470 Table 2. Model comparison results for models with $\Delta$ AICc values less than 2 testing predictors

471 including total pesticides and types of pesticides.

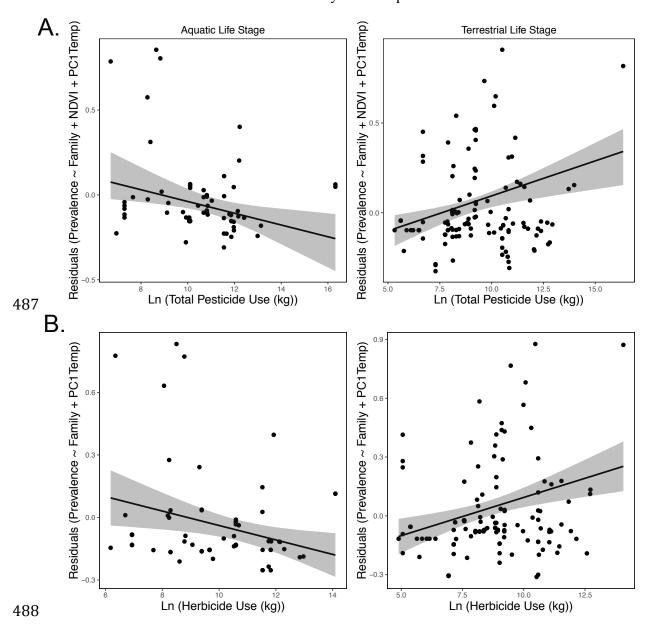
Models Including Total Pesticide Use	AICc	ΔAICc	W
Family + Life Stage + Pesticides + NDVI + PC1Temp + Pesticides*Life Stage	192.21	0	0.28
Family + Life Stage + Pesticides + PC1Temp + Pesticides*Life Stage	192.48	0.27	0.24
Family + Life Stage + Pesticides + NDVI + PC1Temp. + PC1Precip. +			
Pesticides*Life Stage	193.47	1.26	0.15
Family + Life Stage + Pesticides + PC1Temp. + PC1Precip. + Pesticides*Life Stage	194.05	1.84	0.11
Models Including Types of Pesticides			
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + PC1Temp. + Herbicides*Life Stage	193.77	0	0.12
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + NDVI + PC1Temp. + Herbicides*Life Stage	194.34	0.57	0.09
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + Herbicides*Life Stage	194.92	1.16	0.07
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + PC1Precip. + PC1Temp. + Herbicides*Life			
Stage	195.45	1.68	0.05
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + Fungicides + PC1Temp. + Herbicides*Life Stage	195.67	1.91	0.05
Family + Life Stage + Herbicides + NDVI + PC1Precip. + PC1Temp. +			
Herbicides*Life Stage	195.74	1.98	0.04

- 474 Fig. 1. Relative importance of factors included in model comparisons evaluating the influence of
- 475 A) total pesticide use across host life stages and B) herbicide, insecticide, and fungicide use
- 476 across host life stages and model covariates (family, NDVI, precipitation, and temperature). Stars
- 477 indicate significance of the factor (p < 0.05) from model averaging.



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**Fig. 2.** Partial regressions showing A) the influence of total pesticide use on *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* infection prevalence in amphibian populations across aquatic and terrestrial amphibian life stages controlling for effects of host family, NDVI, and temperature and B) the influence of herbicide use on *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* infection prevalence in amphibian populations across aquatic and terrestrial life stages controlling for effects of host family and temperature. Models shown are the models with a  $\Delta$ AICc equal to zero from model comparisons. Prevalence has not been transformed. Gray bands represent 95% confidence intervals.



489 Fig. 3. Partial regressions showing the influence of A) glyphosate use, B) atrazine use, C)

490 metolachlor-s use, D) ethephon use, E) sodium chlorate use, and F) the sum of these top five

491 herbicide compounds across life stages on Bd infection prevalence in amphibian populations

492 controlling for the effects of family, herbicide use (minus the compound or group of focus),

493 insecticide use, fungicide use, and temperature. Prevalence has not been transformed. Gray bands

494 represent 95% confidence intervals.

