The Amphibian Genomics Consortium: advancing genomic and genetic resources for amphibian research and conservation

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Abstract

Amphibians represent a diverse group of tetrapods, marked by deep divergence

times between their three systematic orders and families. Studying amphibian

biology through the genomics lens increases our understanding of the features of

this animal class and that of other terrestrial vertebrates. The need for amphibian

genomic resources is more urgent than ever due to the increasing threats to this

group. Amphibians are one of the most imperiled taxonomic groups, with

approximately 41% of species threatened with extinction due to habitat loss,

changes in land use patterns, disease, climate change, and their synergistic effects.

Amphibian genomic resources have provided a better understanding of ontogenetic

diversity, tissue regeneration, diverse life history and reproductive modes, anti-

predator strategies, and resilience and adaptive responses. They also serve as

essential models for studying broad genomic traits, such as evolutionary genome

expansions and contractions, as they exhibit the widest range of genome sizes

among all animal taxa and possess multiple mechanisms of genetic sex

determination. Despite these features, genome sequencing of amphibians has

significantly lagged behind that of other vertebrates, primarily due to the challenges

of assembling their large, repeat-rich genomes and the relative lack of societal

support. The emergence of long-read sequencing technologies, combined with

advanced molecular and computational techniques that improve scaffolding and

reduce computational workloads, is now making it possible to address some of these

challenges. To promote and accelerate the production and use of amphibian

genomics research through international coordination and collaboration, we

launched the Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC,

https://mvs.unimelb.edu.au/amphibian-genomics-consortium) in early 2023. This

burgeoning community already has more than 282 members from 41 countries. The

AGC aims to leverage the diverse capabilities of its members to advance genomic

resources for amphibians and bridge the implementation gap between biologists,

bioinformaticians, and conservation practitioners. Here we evaluate the state of the

field of amphibian genomics, highlight previous studies, present challenges to

overcome, and call on the research and conservation communities to unite as part of

the AGC to enable amphibian genomics research to "leap" to the next level.

Keywords

Amphibians, Biodiversity conservation, Comparative genomics, Genomics,

Lissamphibia, Metagenomics, Phylogenomics, Population genomics, Taxonomy,

Transcriptomics.

State of the field of amphibian genomics

In 2010, the genome of the Western clawed frog (*Xenopus tropicalis*) was

sequenced, marking the first genome assembly for Class Amphibia [1]. This species

serves as a crucial laboratory model organism for cell biology, molecular genetics,

and developmental biology [2]. The first amphibian genome assembly came years

after the completion of the first genomes for other vertebrate groups: fishes in 2002

(*Fugu rubripes*; [3]), mammals in 2003 (*Homo sapiens*; [4]), birds in 2004 (*Gallus*

gallus; [5]), and reptiles in 2007 (*Anolis carolinensis*; Anolis Genome Project

https://www.broadinstitute.org/anolis/anolis-genome-project). Since then, the

generation and annotation of amphibian reference genomes has dramatically lagged

behind those of other vertebrates [6], even though amphibians represent nearly 22%

of all tetrapods [7]. Nearly 15 years later, amphibians are still the tetrapod class with

the lowest number of sequenced genomes (111 genomes of 8648 described

amphibian species being the tetrapod class with the second lowest proportion after

non-avian Reptiles, i.e. crocodilians, lepidosaurs, and testudines [database records

accessed on 1 March 2024], Fig. 1A and Supplementary File 1). This is likely

attributable to the size of amphibian genomes, which are generally larger than the

genomes of other terrestrial vertebrates (Fig. 1B and Fig. S1; see Supplementary

Material for methodological information). Indeed, among all vertebrates, only the

genomes of lungfish are larger (up to 130 Gb) than the largest amphibian genomes

(up to ~120 Gb in *Necturus lewisi*) [8-11].

To reduce costs and enhance feasibility, early amphibian genome sequencing

projects tended to select species with comparatively small genomes (Fig. 1B). This

has resulted in disproportionately fewer sequenced salamander genomes, given this

is the amphibian order with the largest genomes [12]. To date, the largest amphibian

genome assemblies belong to three salamander species: *Ambystoma mexicanum*

(27.3 Gb assembly; [13]), *Pleurodeles waltl* (20.3 Gb; [14]), and *Calotriton arnoldi*

(22.8 Gb; [15]). However, these only represent the lower end of the genome size

range for this group, with the genomes of *Necturus* salamanders exceeding 100 Gb

(Fig. 2) [10].

In addition to their large sizes, amphibian genomes have also been challenging to

assemble due to their extensive repeat content (up to 82% [16]). Amphibian

transposable elements have expanded and become highly abundant in younger

clades, posing challenges for the construction of contiguous genome assemblies

[17]. These characteristics of amphibian genomes make sequencing and assembly

both costly and technically challenging (e.g., repetitive regions can often lead to

fragmented assemblies when using short-read sequencing). However, the advent of

new sequencing approaches such as long-read sequencing (e.g., PacBio HiFi and

Oxford Nanopore Duplex), Hi-C scaffolding, along with reduced sequencing costs

have resolved many of these assembly challenges (e.g., *Nanorana parkeri*; [18]).

Thus, the number of amphibian genome assemblies has increased rapidly in recent

years, reaching 111 listed in early 2024 as reference genomes at the scaffold level or

higher in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) genome

database (52 for Anura, 55 for Urodela, and four for Gymnophiona; NCBI genome

database records accessed on 1 March 2024). Despite this rapid increase, the

quality of available amphibian genomes varies significantly: only 38 are

chromosome-level assemblies, and among these, only 16 are annotated. This

indicates that the majority of available assemblies are incomplete or partial. For

example, several recently published salamander genomes of the genus

Desmognathus have assembly sizes of ~1 Gb while their genome size estimates

based on flow cytometry or image densitometry average 14 Gb [19, 20].

Furthermore, the gene content values for many of these incomplete genomes can be

as low as 0.7% [16]. Besides the variation in quality, there are substantial taxonomic

gaps in genome representation across Amphibia. Notably, 48 of the 77 amphibian

families (62%) lack a representative genome assembly in the NCBI genome

database (Fig. 2B), indicating significant gaps in our understanding (see "The AGC's

genome sequencing targets" section and Table 1 for more information about these

48 families).

Due to the difficulty of assembling genomes, most previous genomic research in

amphibians has relied on alternative high-throughput sequencing methodologies,

including RNA sequencing (RNA-seq), reduced representation or target-capture

approaches, or metagenomic methods (Fig. 3 and Supplementary File 2 that

contains the information for the search term "Amphibia" of the NCBI Sequence Read

Archive [SRA] accessed on 1 March 2024). For example, RNA-Seq techniques have

been used to explore gene expression across more than 300 different amphibian

species (see Supplementary File 2 and Supplementary Methods for detail

information about how SRA records were summarized). Furthermore, a substantial

number of *de novo* transcriptomes are available through the NCBI Transcriptome

Shotgun Assemblies (TSA) database (79 total: 59 for Anura, 15 for Urodela, and 5

for Gymnophiona). Various reduced-representation (e.g., ddRADseq) and targeted-

capture sequencing approaches have also been implemented in recent years to

obtain genome-wide sequence information from more than 1,400 amphibian species

(see Supplementary File 2 and Supplementary Methods for detail information about

how SRA records were summarized). All this information—from whole genomes to

gene transcript features—has advanced the understanding of amphibian biology and

directly contributed to conservation efforts as described below.

Advancing research and conservation through amphibian genomics

Amphibians have many unique characteristics that make them subjects of interest to

a wide variety of scientific disciplines, spanning from developmental biology and

medical research to ecology and evolution. The rapid development of genomic tools

is galvanizing the study of amphibian biology and uncovering important facets of

their biology and conservation [21-23]. We highlight some examples here and state

the imperious need to generate amphibian genomic resources to decrease further

biodiversity loss as the ultimate reason.

<u>Embryogenesis, developmental and regenerative biology</u>

Amphibians have played a fundamental role in uncovering developmental principles

[for a detailed review see 24]. Research on anurans has enabled the understanding

of critical developmental mechanisms such as the breaking of egg asymmetry [25],

axis establishment, and nerve transmission [26]. Notably, the availability of genome

assemblies for *Xenopus laevis* and *X. tropicalis* has significantly advanced

embryological and developmental biology. This advancement has enabled gene loss-

of-function research through the combination of transgenesis with RNA interference,

gene editing, and enhanced morpholino design. This has facilitated the in-depth

analysis of regulatory and non-coding genomic influences in developmental

processes [27, 28]. Consequently, these studies have generated thousands of

genomic and transcriptomic resources for these two species [29, 30].

Yet, there is much more to uncover about amphibian development, especially given

the numerous developmental modalities found across amphibians, which likely

demonstrates the highest diversity among vertebrates [31]. This includes direct

development (egg to froglet; the first genome of a direct-developing amphibian,

Eleutherodactylus coqui, was published in 2024 [32]), and phenotypic plasticity [33,

34].

Sexual development and determination are also diverse and unique in amphibians

[35]. Unlike most mammals and birds who have degenerate Y and W chromosomes,

most amphibians have undifferentiated sex chromosomes, making it extremely

difficult to study sex evolution through traditional cytogenetic techniques [36, 37].

However, sex-determining systems are starting to be explored through high-

throughput sequencing [6, 38-42]. For example, the application of multiple omics

techniques led to the identification of a Y-specific non-coding RNA in the 5'-region of

the *bod1l* gene, which is involved in male sex determination in *Bufotes viridis* [41].

Strikingly, some salamanders in the genus *Ambystoma* exist as a single all-female,

polyploid lineage that can incorporate new chromosome sets from up to five other

sexual species [43]. Transcriptomes from these salamanders have shown that gene

expression from their divergent genomes is balanced for some genes but biased for

others [44]. Sexual development in amphibians can result in sexually dimorphic

features such as nuptial spines, which have been explored using comparative

genomics approaches such as in the frog *Leptobrachium leishanense* [45].

The increasing availability of amphibian genomes will enable a deeper

understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying such ontogenetic diversity.

Chromosome-level reference genomes provide high-resolution data crucial for

identifying sex-determining regions, revealing new insights about these processes

and, helping to address challenges of sex reversal due to temperature fluctuations

and the increasing presence of endocrine disruptors [46].

Metamorphosis sets many amphibian species apart from amniotes. Transcriptomics

has revealed a remarkable turnover in gene expression between larval and adult

stages of both frogs [47-50] and salamanders [51, 52]. This represents genomic

uncoupling of these life history phases with major macroevolutionary implications

[49, 53]. Amphibian omics approaches are rapidly increasing our understanding of

the developmental process of metamorphosis, including the role of methylation in

gene regulation and other epigenetic markers [54]. Amphibians have also been

found to respond to environmental perturbations by altering their behavior or

phenotypes in various ways. These mechanisms, including change developmental

rate [33], hybridization with positive fitness effects [55], production of novel trophic

morphologies [56], and kin recognition to avoid cannibalizing relatives [57-59],

remain poorly understood, and would benefit from further genomic research.

Due to their exceptional tissue repair and regenerative capacities [60, 61],

amphibians are leading models for understanding the mechanisms of regeneration.

This is particularly true for salamanders, which display the most extensive adult

regenerative repertoire among vertebrates, including the ability to regenerate parts of

their eyes, brain, heart, jaws, lungs, spinal cord, tail, and entire limbs [61]. Due to

new genome assemblies for urodele species, *Ambystoma mexicanum* and

Pleurodeles waltl, regeneration can now be studied with transgenesis, advanced

imaging, and genome editing. Intensive transcriptomic sequencing for these two

salamander species has facilitated gene expression studies, including investigations

into regeneration processes and characterization of other genomic features [62].

Additionally, a novel mechanism of telomere length maintenance and elongation has

recently been described in *P. waltl* [63] and, potentially linking regenerative capability

with longevity. Other amphibian species have also contributed to genomic research

on regeneration, for example, an early database compiled from gene expression

resources of *Notophthalmus viridescens* [64].

<u>Ecology and evolution</u>

Modern amphibians are the sister lineage of all amniotes, making them a valuable

resource for studying species relationships and trait evolution. This is exemplified by

studies that explore the rapid diversification of frogs [65], the evolution of vision [66],

hybridogenesis [67-69], and the evolution of limblessness [70]. Amphibian

phylogenomics has addressed many longstanding questions in amphibian evolution

[71-74]. Comparative genomic analyses including amphibian groups have also

revealed important gaps in our understanding of tetrapod molecular evolution such

as chromosomal rearrangements and group-specific gene families that remain

unclassified to date [70, 75, 76]. Nevertheless, there are numerous open questions

and unresolved evolutionary relationships that could benefit from high-quality

genomes, which are especially powerful in revealing the role of transposable

elements in adaptation and evolution [77]. In this section, we explore how genomics

is being applied to understand the diverse ecological and evolutionary features

unique to amphibians.

Like mammals, birds, and reptiles [78-80], some amphibians have evolved the ability

to live in high-elevation environments such as the Andes (up to 5400 m) [81, 82] and

the Tibetan Plateau (4478 m) [18]. However, unlike other groups, amphibians lack

fur, feathers, or scales to protect them from physiological stressors such as UV

exposure. This vulnerability makes them an intriguing model for studying the effects

of UV radiation, which is relevant not only to humans [18] but also to species

impacted by climate change. Amphibians have evolved multiple mechanisms of

resisting UV, including increasing antioxidant efficiency and gene regulatory changes

in defense pathways [18, 83]. There is evidence that genes that impact other high-

elevation traits (e.g., hypoxia resistance, immunity, cold tolerance) have evolved

convergently across distantly related families (e.g., Dicroglossidae, Bufonidae,

Megophryidae, Ranidae) [84, 85], and that intraspecific divergence in many of these

genes correlates with elevation deepening our understanding of evolutionary

processes shaped by environmental conditions [86, 87]. While we are beginning to

understand the genetic mechanisms of high-elevation adaptation in some Asian and

North American frogs, this has yet to be investigated in other high-elevation

amphibians where genomic data is still missing, including Andean anurans (e.g.,

Telmatobius culeus [88]) and high-elevation salamanders, such as *Pseudoeurycea*

gadovii [89]).

The ability to produce or sequester toxins has evolved across all three amphibian

orders, where it primarily serves as an anti-predation mechanism. The source of

amphibian toxins varies: some species are capable of synthesizing poisonous

compounds (e.g., bufonids, myobatrachids), whereas others sequester toxic

substances from their diet (e.g., dendrobatids, mantellids) [90-93] or microbial

symbionts (e.g., newts) [94]. Since dendrobatid frogs sequester their toxins from

prey (e.g., mites and ants), they lack genes encoding these toxins [95, 96]. However,

they require genes to facilitate the transport of these toxins to the skin. Recent

genomic and proteomic research has identified candidate genes coding for proteins

that may serve dual roles in toxin transport and resistance [97-99]. Comparative

genomic research has identified specific substitutions that allow toxic amphibian

species to effectively mitigate the effects of the sequestered toxins on their own

tissues [100-102]. Skin transcriptomes have also proven to be a rich source for data

mining and the identification of candidate toxins and antimicrobial peptides in various

amphibians [103-107], which could potentially be used for future human medical

treatments.

Interactions between toxic amphibians and their predators have resulted in a

fascinating variety of co-evolutionary arms races. These include well-characterized

systems of toxicity resistance mechanisms in amphibian predators [108-112] and

aposematism and mimicry in toxic species [113, 114]. Research on aposematism

and mimicry has utilized whole genome, exome capture, and transcriptome

sequencing to elucidate the genes underlying the vast diversity of color patterns

across populations and species in dendrobatids [115-120]. These approaches have

yielded a goldmine of information that can be used to understand the genes, gene

networks, and biochemical pathways that underlie variation in coloration in other

amphibian groups including highly diverged aposematic taxa such as Australian

myobatrachid frogs (e.g., *Pseudophryne corroboree)*, Malagasy poison frogs

(Mantellidae), caecilians (e.g., *Schistometopum thomense*), and salamanders (e.g.,

Salamandra salamandra). Indeed, these methods have already enabled the

identification of genes and loci involved in coloration in the salamander *S.*

salamandra bernardezi [121].

Despite the numerous advances made with amphibian omics in elucidating

evolutionary and ecological mechanisms, fully unraveling their genetic basis requires

the generation of a vast number of genomes, given the comparative nature of these

fields and the evolutionary uniqueness of each lineage. Some of the exciting

research avenues in amphibians include behavioral adaptations like parental care

[122, 123], milk production or skin feeding in caecilians [124, 125], spatial navigation

[126]; adaptations to environmental conditions, like niche expansion due to the

evolution of gliding ability [127], the evolution of lunglessness [128, 129] or predator-

prey interactions like unusual defense mechanisms, such as the ability of some

newts to pierce their ribs through toxin glands in their skin [130, 131].

Conservation

Amphibians are the most endangered class of vertebrates with current estimates

suggesting that more than 40% of species are threatened with extinction [132]. The

threats amphibians face continue to increase [132], creating a clear need to develop

innovative and effective methods to conserve them. Paradoxically, current rates of

amphibian species description are exponential, and numerous candidate species are

being flagged worldwide. This suggests that we are still far from overcoming the

amphibian Linnean shortfall, especially in tropical regions [133, 134]. Hence,

numbers of threatened species are likely underestimated, as undescribed species

cannot be assessed and are more likely to become extinct [135]. Further, the

conservation status of many amphibians remains unknown, especially for tropical

species [136] and for a number of soil-dwelling caecilians for which only a limited

number of specimens are available [137]. Generating genomic data is one method to

address this challenge, as it can be used to estimate both evolutionary potential and

extinction risk [138, 139]. Genomes are also vital for understanding species

boundaries and the geographic distribution of genetic diversity within species, and

for identifying populations under higher risk due to anthropogenic pressures or

climate change [21, 22, 140, 141]. These features make genomic resources

invaluable for developing species conservation action plans [142].

Amphibian conservation efforts should leverage population genetic theory and the

burgeoning field of conservation genomics. These approaches enable the

quantification of both neutral and adaptive diversity across genomes, thereby

facilitating the promotion of adaptive potential or genetic rescue through

translocation programs [143-146]. High quality genomes can also facilitate more

comprehensive genomic diversity analyses, enabling the analyses of structural

variants in addition to single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), which are often

overlooked, and an improve of the runs of homozygosity (ROH) analyses.

Typically, these studies begin with the genomic characterization of populations

across various environmental conditions, assessing population genetic health and

disease risk [147, 148]. They can also support monitoring and surveillance efforts by

identifying populations most at risk of declines due to potential genetic threats like

maladaptive alleles, genetic load, inbreeding and outbreeding depression,

hybridization, and/or genetic incompatibility [143, 149]. Increased monitoring and

maintenance of genomic diversity are key targets of many national and international

recommendations such as the US Endangered Species Act [150], the Kunming-

Montreal Global Biodiversity Monitoring Framework [151], and the Amphibian

Conservation Action Plan[142] .

A more specific application of amphibian genomics for conservation requires

understanding the genetic basis of traits that impact fitness, such as disease

resistance or climate change tolerance. The increased availability of long-read

sequencing technology is particularly valuable in addressing the challenges of

identifying highly variable gene regions accountable for immunological processes

such as the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) [152]. This information can be

used to promote adaptation using approaches like Targeted Genetic Intervention

(TGI), which aims to increase the frequency of adaptive alleles with approaches such

as selective breeding, genome editing, or targeted gene flow [153]. Considerable

effort has been invested in understanding the genetic basis of resistance to the

devastating amphibian disease chytridiomycosis. This has resulted in the

identification of multiple candidate genes [154-156] that could be targeted to

increase chytridiomycosis resistance with TGI.

Additionally, the efficacy of TGI at increasing chytridiomycosis resistance has already

been demonstrated in North American mountain yellow-legged frogs (*Rana muscosa*

and *R. sierrae*) where translocation of resistant individuals increased recipient

population persistence [157]. Despite the obvious appeal of using genetic

intervention approaches for conservation, these methods should be evaluated in

contained facilities whenever possible and accompanied by long-term monitoring to

ensure their efficacy and rule out any unintended impacts [153, 158-160]. Although

such conservation interventions require extensive resources, this may be the only

effective method for restoring some species to the wild, especially in those

threatened by intractable threats such as chytridiomycosis [161].

Challenges for amphibian genomic research and ways forward

The future of amphibian omics research will rely on high-quality reference genomes,

which necessitates overcoming unique bioinformatic challenges in genome assembly

and securing high-quality starting materials (e.g., tissue, blood). Additionally,

challenges in obtaining funding, particularly in low-income countries, exacerbate

these issues. Here, we outline these challenges in amphibian omics and highlight

emerging developments aimed at addressing them.

The large genomes of amphibians increase requirements and costs for sequencing,

computing, and data storage [6, 162]. Despite technological advancements and

decreasing service costs, assembling these genomes remains methodologically

challenging due to the notable intron lengths and repetitive content of amphibian

genomes [163], especially when repeat lengths exceed sequencing read lengths.

Regions of low complexity can result in erroneously joined contigs [164] or a

significant loss of sequence information (by as much as 16%) through the collapsing

of repetitive sequences [165]. Polyploidy has also evolved repeatedly in amphibians

[166, 167], making haplotype-specific assemblies challenging and may require

dramatically increased sequencing and computational efforts [168, 169]. The

development of long-read sequencing (e.g. PacBio HiFi, ONT), optical mapping and

3C technology (i.e., Hi-C scaffolding) is therefore especially important for assembling

amphibian genomes [164, 170].

Annotations are as crucial as genome assemblies, but current homology-based

approaches using ortholog databases like UniProt [171] often miss or poorly

annotate genes, especially polymorphic genes or those lacking representation in

model taxa. This limits amphibian studies on gene evolution [72], repeats [16, 163],

or immune genes [172].

Additionally, functional genomics tools like gene editing, *in vitro* fertilization and

transgenesis are rare for most amphibians [153, 173], developed primarily in model

species (e.g., *Xenopus* spp., *Ambystoma mexicanum*) [61, 174-177]. Immortal cell

lines have been successfully generated for some amphibians [178] and protocols

have been established to facilitate the initiation of spontaneously arising cell lines for

a subset of anurans [179]. However, establishing cell cultures for most species

requires extensive problem-solving and expertise [178].

Most tissue sampling protocols for sequencing reference genomes recommend

harvesting samples from fresh tissue, followed immediately by flash freezing in liquid

nitrogen (LN2) and storing at -80°C until extraction

(https://www.vertebrategenomelab.org/resources/guidelines). This often requires

fieldwork with many logistical challenges.

The small body sizes and blood volumes of most amphibians (e.g., < 30 g) may

necessitate lethal sampling to obtain sufficient high-molecular-weight DNA for

generating reference genomes (HMW, reaching 100 Kb or ultra HMW, reaching 1

Mb) [180, 181]. While this characteristic is shared with other taxonomic groups (e.g.,

invertebrates), lethal sampling may not always be legally permitted or ethically

advisable in amphibians, especially for threatened species or those in captive

collections [182]. Non-lethal sampling approaches, such as buccal swabs or toe or

tail clips, are increasingly viable for various genomic applications, including low-

coverage whole genome sequencing or targeted sequencing approaches [183, 184].

Until these become suitable for reference-grade genome sequencing, an alternative

to minimize sampling impacts may be to use tadpoles instead of adults (e.g., to

generate the genome of *Taudactylus pleione* [185]).

Working with museum or natural history collections [the burgeoning field of

"museomics"; 186] is a promising avenue of research for circumventing the intrinsic

problems of sample collection. Moreover, it allows access to past amphibian

biodiversity and is revolutionizing amphibian taxonomy by integrating DNA from

name-bearing type specimens, overcoming impediments like uncertainty in

nomenclature, species complexes, and cryptic species [187-190]. Key challenges of

such research include issues with DNA degradation, preservation methods, and

contamination that need to be overcome [191-193]. This is particularly relevant for

wet-preserved amphibian specimens, as retrieving DNA can be challenging due

undocumented fixation and preservation methods that may alter nucleotide integrity.

Methodological advances in laboratory protocols [e.g., 194, 195, 196] and the

development of sequencing strategies, such as 'Barcode Fishing', have made

significant progress in addressing these challenges, including the ability to sequence

extinct species [187, 188, 197-199]. In the current era, even limited sequences from

taxonomic type specimens are of unparalleled importance, especially for species

identification using genetic data, by those applying methods like eDNA and

metagenomics [200].

Other noteworthy challenges, that are not necessarily unique to amphibians, include

securing collection and research permits, maintaining ultracold storage and an

uninterrupted cold chain during transport, and adhering to regulations for the

international movement of biological samples across political borders. [201, 202].

Amphibian-specific challenges, however, can arise due to their biological, ecological,

and conservation characteristics. Centers of amphibian diversity and endemism

include remote, highly specialized habitats, such as tropical montane forests, cave

systems or isolated wetlands. Moreover, many amphibians have specialized aquatic,

subterranean or arboreal ecologies, are mostly nocturnal and highly seasonal. These

factors make fieldwork and sample transportation challenging, especially in regions

with poor infrastructure, inadequate storage facilities, socio-political conflicts, and

limited funding for research, conservation, and public awareness.

While eliminating some of these practical and political challenges in amphibian

fieldwork is beyond the scope of individual researchers, the growing accessibility of

genomic data calls for increased awareness of the principles of fair and equitable

access to genetic resources, as outlined by the Convention on Biological Diversity

(CBD) and further elaborated by the Nagoya Protocol

https://www.cbd.int/abs/default.shtml). Indigenous peoples and local communities

(IPLC) are often custodians of genetic resources (physical material) sought by

researchers, requiring that all parties enter into collaborative and equitable

agreements on access and benefit-sharing (ABS) before embarking on a genomics

project [203-207].

Aims, priorities, and structure of the Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC)

The AGC (https://mvs.unimelb.edu.au/amphibian-genomics-consortium) was

launched in March 2023 to address the aforementioned knowledge gaps through

technological advances and international cooperation. The mission of the AGC is to

enhance international and interdisciplinary collaboration among amphibian

researchers, expand amphibian genomic resources, and effectively utilize genomic

data and functional resources to close the gap between genome biologists,

scientists, and conservation practitioners. The leadership structure of the AGC

consists of a director, two co-directors, and a 10-member board. The board was

carefully chosen to ensure gender equality, diversity of scientific disciplines, career

stages, and representation from various geographic regions.

The first actions of the AGC include hosting monthly regular meetings that showcase

advances in amphibian genomics research, developing technical resources and best

practices guidelines (through discussions facilitated in a Discord channel), improving

amphibian genome annotation, supporting travel for students and early career

researchers, hosting networking events at conferences, and conducting virtual and

in-person computational workshops. Details of these activities can be found in the

AGC website. The AGC plans to secure funding to sequence high-priority amphibian

species (see The AGC's genome sequencing targets section and Table 1).

Additionally, the AGC aims to facilitate amphibian sample collection for broader

taxonomic consortia. The AGC is already affiliated with the Earth BioGenome Project

(EBP; [208]) and AmphibiaWeb (https://amphibiaweb.org), reinforcing its

commitment to advancing amphibian genomics and conservation efforts.

AGC membership

At the time of the submission of this work, the AGC had 282 members from 41

countries (6 in Africa, 131 in the Americas, 27 in Asia, 29 in Australasia, and 89 in

Europe), with membership continuing to increase (Fig. 4). Although the membership

is geographically diverse, disparity persists across regions. The recruitment of

members from underrepresented countries will be a key focus of the AGC, with a

particular emphasis on regions known for high amphibian diversity and/or endemism

such as Central and South America, and Southeast Asia. We promote equity

between members by providing additional support and opportunities to those from

developing countries and underrepresented groups. This includes eliminating

membership fees, scheduling online meetings at alternating times to accommodate

global time zones, facilitating discussion groups on the cloud-based collaboration

platform Discord, and translating AGC correspondence into multiple languages.

Furthermore, we are also committed to fostering knowledge and skills transfer to all

emerging scientists worldwide, and we actively encourage early career researchers

to join the initiative and participate in governance.

Current use and perception of genomics technologies by members of the AGC

The AGC leadership designed a 23-question survey to investigate consortium

members' experiences in amphibian genomics (questions can be found in

Supplementary Table S1). The survey was distributed using the Qualtrics XM

platform and remained active from the 4th of March to the 27th of December 2023.

We collected responses from a total of 133 AGC members from 32 countries with

different expertise in sequencing approaches and bioinformatics techniques, who

primarily work on the ecology and evolution of anurans. Overall, respondents

emphasized the urgency of filling knowledge gaps in amphibian genomics due to the

current conservation crisis, pinpointing the necessity to expand the number of high-

quality chromosome-level amphibian genomes. Additionally, there was strong

agreement among survey respondents that the generation of new genomic

resources needs to be coupled with the improvement and accessibility of annotation

processes. A better development of sharing computational expertise among

members and resources internationally was also underscored. More than half of the

survey participants said they use sequencing technologies for their studies (70 of the

133). About half of the respondents said their main work activities were "genomics

lab work" or "computational analyses" (48% and 57%, respectively).

To evaluate consortium members' experience in amphibian genomics, we applied a

principal components analysis to the quantitative responses. Bioinformatic

competencies and perceived challenges of the AGC respondents were grouped in

two dimensions, respectively (Fig. 5A and Fig. S2; see Supplementary Material for

methodological information). To explain the variation of these two new variables, we

used the scientific expertise of AGC members, the funding success, and two

variables related to the country of main affiliation of the respondent: the number of

amphibian species and gross domestic expenditure on R&D (GERD) per capita, as

explanatory variables. Amphibian genomics expertise and identified challenges

varied substantially among respondents. The number of amphibian species and

GERD per capita of the respondent's main affiliation country did not capture this

variation (Fig. 5B and Fig. S3; see Supplementary Material for methodological

information). Instead, genomics funding success and years of scientific expertise

were, as expected, positively correlated and both variables were associated with a

reduction in the perceived challenges associated with amphibian genomics.

<u>The AGC's genome sequencing targets</u>

Following the efforts of genomics consortia for other tetrapod groups [e.g., 209], and

previous research [22], we identified 48 amphibian families for which no

representative genomes had been sequenced and selected one representative

species from each family for our sequencing priority list (Fig. 2B and Table 1). We

propose 48 candidate species based on their IUCN Red List category, ecological and

evolutionary distinctiveness, and the availability of other genomics records,

especially transcriptomics. This list includes 38 anurans, four urodeles, and six

caecilians.

We recommend this priority list as a starting point. If suitable sample material from

other species within the targeted families becomes available, those species could

replace the ones currently proposed. fAdditionally, we aim to build upon the efforts of

existing genomics consortia such as the Vertebrate Genomes Project (VGP), hence,

we included two species with draft genomes in the GenomeArk

(https://www.genomeark.org/) in our sequencing target list.

<u>The AGC's stance on resource and benefits sharing</u>

With increasingly easy access to genomic data, researchers and industry need to be

aware of the principles of fair and equitable access to genetic resources, as

stipulated by Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and expanded upon by the

Nagoya Protocol (https://www.cbd.int/abs/default.shtml). As a negative example from

amphibians, *Phyllomedusa bicolor* skin secretions traditionally used by Amazonian

Indigenous peoples were patented by actors in the US, Japan, Russia and

elsewhere, promoting the 'legal' but unfair appropriation of genetic resources and

potentially the traditional knowledge itself from the Matses and other Indigenous

tribes [210].

To promote better practices, researchers should allocate the necessary time and

funds for prior consultation during fieldwork planning and seek guidance from their

National Focal Points on ABS. How the concept of ABS may be applied to the

downstream use of the digital sequence information (DSI) generated has yet to be

resolved. However, there are currently developments underway that may provide a

solution (https://www.cbd.int/dsi-gr). It is imperative that this issue be considered

going forward [see for example 211]. Moreover, voucher specimens and duplicate

tissue samples should be deposited in local natural history collections or preferred

partners of the local communities [212, 213].

The global genomics community should strive to ensure that sequencing projects

occur within the country of origin of the samples and discourage 'parachute' or

'helicopter science' [214, 215]. Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) may be

promising solution, providing comparatively affordable access to equipment and

reagents for ultra-long read sequencing that can even be done directly in the field

[216]. However, optimization for non-model organisms, along with the startup costs

for this infrastructure remain prohibitive for many scientists from low-income

countries. Moving forward, the goal should be to apply these technologies in

collaboration with local researchers. Programs like the In Situ Laboratories Initiative

(https://insitulabs.org/hubs/) aim to overcome these challenges by providing

affordable access to high-tech laboratories in remote biodiverse areas. Such

collaborative projects should proceed from finding shared interests, developing

ideas, realizing the shared benefits from research outputs, and focusing on capacity-

building efforts [217].

Conclusion and call to action

Moving forward, the AGC is committed to supporting amphibian sequencing

initiatives worldwide, with a particular emphasis on taxonomic groups lacking

representation, and species from biodiverse countries within a conservation

framework (Table 1). Local sequencing initiatives will be given priority whenever

feasible to promote the development of *in situ* research efforts and facilities. We will

achieve this goal building strong networks between researchers and conservation

practitioners and by providing an open list of members and their expertise.

Additionally, we aim to provide funding and training opportunities to facilitate

collaboration among underrepresented groups, molecular and organismal biologists,

bioinformaticians, and conservation practitioners. We will also support the

development of a concept of Access and Benefit Sharing policies that can be applied

to the downstream use of the digital sequence information (DSI), including long-term

storage and access. Further, the AGC aspires to stimulate public and scientific

interest in amphibian research and, ultimately, to enhance conservation outcomes for

this intriguing and highly endangered group of vertebrates.

We hope that the recent advancements in technology, a focus on equitable research,

and the integration of the research community to form the AGC will ignite research to

revolutionize amphibian conservation and our understanding of their fascinating

biology, ecology and evolution. By addressing the challenges outlined, supporting

and promoting amphibian genomics research and uniting amphibian researchers

worldwide, the AGC aims to fill the huge gap in genomic data for this diverse group

of tetrapods and in doing so, propel amphibian genomics research into the future.

List of Abbreviations

ABS: access and benefit-sharing

AGC: Amphibian Genomics Consortium

CBD: Convention on Biological Diversity

DSI: digital sequence information

EBP: Earth BioGenome Project

GERD: gross domestic expenditure on research and development

GoaT: Genomes on a Tree

HMW: High molecular weight DNA

IPLC: Indigenous peoples and local communities

IUCN: International Union for Conservation of Nature

ONT: Oxford Nanopore Technology

VGP: Vertebrate Genomes Project

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

T.A.K. was supported by Australian Research Council grants (FT190100462 and LP200301370). M.T.-S. was supported by María Zambrano fellowship from Complutense University of Madrid and NextGenerationEU. The *Xenopus laevis* Research Resource for Immunobiology is supported by the National Institute of Health (R24-AI-05983).

Authors' contributions

T.A.K. and M.T.-S. drafted the manuscript. T.A.K., M.T.-S., H.C.L., K.S., M.H.Y., S.T.M., A.J.C. contributed text to the first draft, M.T.-S. and T.A.K. analyzed the data and created the figures, members of the Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC) reviewed later drafts. T.A.K., M.T.-S, C.D., N.J.F, Y.C., R.D.T., H.C.L, V.L.N.A., R.M.,

K.S.-S., H.M., K.C.W.V, M.H.Y., and M.S. contributed to revising the manuscript for

resubmission. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

<u>Acknowledgments</u>

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Roberto Biello, Gabriela B. Bittencourt-Silva, Amaël Borzée, Ian G. Brennan, Rafe M.

Brown, Natalie Calatayud, Hugo Cayuela, Jing Chai, Ignacio De la Riva, Lana J.

Deaton, Khalid A. E. Eisawi, Kathryn R. Elmer, W. Chris Funk, Giussepe Gagliardi-

Urrutia, Wei Gao, Mark J. Goodman, Sandra Goutte, Melissa Hernandez Poveda,

Tomas Hrbek, Oluyinka A. Iyiola, Gregory F.M. Jongsma, J. Scott Keogh, Tianming

Lan, Pablo Lechuga-Paredes, Emily Moriarty Lemmon, Stephen C. Lougheed, Thom

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Owens, Hibraim Pérez-Mendoza, Nicolas Pollet, Megan L. Power, Mizanur Rahman,

Hans Recknagel, Ariel Rodríguez, Santiago R. Ron, Joana Sabino-Pinto, Yongming

Sang, Suman Sapkota, Rosio G. Schneider, Laura Schulte, Ana Serra Silva, Lee F.

Skerratt, Nicholas Strowbridge, Karthikeyan Vasudevan, Govindappa Venu, Lucas

Vicuña, David R. Vieites, Judit Vörös, Matt West, Mark Wilkinson, Guinevere O. U.

Wogan. We also appreciate the helpful suggestions from Jia-Tang Li, Jun Li, Wei

Wu, and Hua Wu.

Table 1. Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC) sequencing priority list. Table of

amphibian families without any sequenced genomes. For each family, AGC

proposed a candidate species based on its IUCN Red List category (LC: Least

Concern, NT: Near Threatened, VU: Vulnerable, EN: Endangered, CR: Critically

Endangered, and NA: Not evaluated), ecological and evolutionary distinctiveness,

and availability of other genomic records. This table shows the amphibian order to

which each family belongs and its number of genera (#G) and described extant

species (#S) as well as distribution region. *Species with available draft genome

assemblies in the GenomeArk (https://www.genomeark.org/).

Family	Region	#G	#S	Candidate species	IUCN	Motives
Anura: Allophrynidae	South America	1	3	*Allophryne relicta*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Alsodidae	South America	3	26	*Alsodes gargola*	LC	High altitude adaptation
Anura: Arthroleptidae	Africa	8	151	*Leptopelis vermiculatus*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Ascaphidae	North America	1	2	*Ascaphus montanus**	LC	High altitude adaptation
Anura: Batrachylidae	South America	4	13	*Batrachyla leptopus*	LC	High altitude adaptation
Anura: Brachycephalidae	South America	2	79	*Brachycephalus pitanga*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Brevicipitidae	Africa	5	36	*Breviceps fuscus*	LC	Burrowing adaptation
Anura: Caligophrynidae	South America	1	1	*Caligophryne doylei*	NA	Pantepui endemism
Anura: Calyptocephalellidae	South America	2	5	*Telmatobufo bullocki*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Centrolenidae	Central & South America	12	166	*Centrolene pipilata*	CR	Endangered, Gigantism
Anura: Ceratobatrachidae	Southeast Asia	4	103	*Platymantis spelaeus*	EN	Cave-dweller, Endangered
Anura: Ceratophryidae	South America	3	12	*Lepidobatrachus laevis*	LC	Transcriptomic resources

Family	Region	#G	#S	Candidate species	IUCN	Motives
Anura: Ceuthomantidae	South America	2	6	*Ceuthomantis cavernibardus*	LC	Cave-dweller
Anura: Conrauidae	Africa	1	8	*Conraua goliath*	EN	Gigantism
Anura: Craugastoridae	Central America	3	136	*Craugastor fitzingeri*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Cycloramphidae	South America	3	37	*Cycloramphus granulosus*	CR	Critically endangered
Anura: Heleophrynidae	South Africa	2	6	*Heleophryne rosei*	CR	Critically endangered
Anura: Hemiphractidae	Central & South America	6	123	*Gastrotheca cornuta*	CR	Critically endangered
Anura: Hemisotidae	Sub-Saharan Africa	1	9	*Hemisus marmoratus*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Hylodidae	South America	4	49	*Phantasmarana massarti*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Hyperoliidae	Sub-Saharan Africa & Madagascar	17	236	*Hyperolius thomensis*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Leiopelmatidae	New Zealand	1	3	*Leiopelma archeyi*	CR	Critically endangered
Anura: Mantellidae	Madagascar	12	272	*Mantidactylus betsileanus*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Micrixalidae	India	1	24	*Micrixalus mallani*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Nasikabatrachidae	India	1	2	*Nasikabatrachus sahyadrensis*	NT	EDGE target species
Anura: Neblinaphrynidae	South America	1	1	*Neblinaphryne mayeri*	NA	Pantepui endemism
Anura: Nyctibatrachidae	India & Sri Lanka	3	37	*Nyctibatrachus grandis*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Odontobatrachidae	Tropical West Africa	1	5	*Odontobatrachus fouta*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Odontophrynidae	South America	3	54	*Proceratophrys redacta*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Petropedetidae	Sub-Saharan tropical Africa	3	13	*Petropedetes perreti*	CR	Critically endangered
Anura: Phrynobatrachidae	Africa	1	99	*Phrynobatrachus guineensis*	LC	Tree-hole breeder
Anura: Ranixalidae	India	2	19	*Indirana chiravasi*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Rhacophoridae	Eastern Asia	22	444	*Buergeria otai*	LC	Transcriptomic resources

Family	Region	#G	#S	Candidate species	IUCN	Motives
Anura: Rhinodermatidae	South America	1	3	*Rhinoderma darwinii*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Rhinophrynidae	Central America	1	1	*Rhinophrynus dorsalis**	LC	Targeted sequencing resources
Anura: Sooglossidae	Seychelles Islands	2	4	*Sooglossus sechellensis*	EN	Endangered
Anura: Strabomantidae	South America	19	792	*Oreobates cruralis*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Anura: Telmatobiidae	South America	1	63	*Telmatobius simonsi*	CR	Critically endangered
Gymnophiona: Caeciliidae	Central & South America	2	49	*Caecilia tentaculata*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Gymnophiona: Chikilidae	India	1	4	*Chikila gaiduwani*	LC	Coloration adaptation
Gymnophiona: Grandisoniidae	Africa, Seychelles & India	7	24	*Hypogeophis montanus*	NA	Miniaturization
Gymnophiona: Herpelidae	Sub-Saharan Africa	2	11	*Boulengerula niedeni*	EN	Endangered
Gymnophiona: Scolecomorphidae	Africa	2	6	*Crotaphatrema lamottei*	CR	Critically endangered
Gymnophiona: Typhlonectidae	South America	5	14	*Typhlonectes compressicauda*	LC	Transcriptomic resources
Urodela: Cryptobranchidae	Asia & North America	2	6	*Cryptobranchus alleganiensis*	VU	Vulnerable
Urodela: Dicamptodontidae	North America	1	4	*Dicamptodon tenebrosus*	LC	Gigantism
Urodela: Hynobiidae	Eastern Asia	9	98	*Hynobius vandenburghi*	VU	Vulnerable
Urodela: Rhyacotritonidae	North America	1	4	*Rhyacotriton olympicus*	NT	Near threatened

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799 **Figures**
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Figure 1. **Estimated genome size across tetrapod classes in relation to**

sequenced genomes. (A) Mosaic plot representing the percentage of species with

sequenced genomes as a proportion of the number of described species for each

tetrapod class (Yes: % species with sequenced genome; No: % species without

sequenced genome). (B) Combined box and density plot with raw data as points

comparing genome size of species with sequenced genome (gray; genome sizes

from NCBI genome assemblies) versus a subset of species without a sequenced

genome (red; genome sizes from the Animal Genome Size Database) for each

tetrapod class. The y-axis is log-transformed to facilitate visualization. Information

about sequenced genomes and genome sizes was obtained from the NCBI Genome

Browser, the Animal Genome Size database, and amphibian records from [12, 20].

Figure 2. Estimated genome size across amphibian orders in relation to

sequenced genomes. (A) Combined box and density plot with raw data as points

showing genome size of species with sequenced genome (gray color; genome sizes

from NCBI genome assemblies) versus a subset of species without available

genome assembly (red color; genome sizes from the Animal Genome Size

Database) for each amphibian order. The y-axis is logarithmic transformed to

facilitate visualization. Information about sequenced genomes and genome sizes

was obtained from the NCBI Genome Browser, the Animal Genome Size database

[20], and amphibian records from [12]. (B) Amphibian phylogenetic tree was adapted

from [71], which includes species with genome size estimates from Genomes on a

Tree (GoaT) [19]. Branches are color coded to represent families without any

genomic record (in red) and families with at least a representative genome

sequenced (in gray). Bar plots around the phylogeny indicate relative genome sizes.

Figure 3. Main sequencing techniques applied to amphibian genomics studies.

Yearly cumulative number of amphibian BioProjects split and color-coded by

sequencing technique (DNA accessibility Sequencing includes ATAC-Seq and

Mnase-Seq; Immunoprecipitation Sequencing includes: ChIP-Seq and RIP-Seq;

Amplicon sequencing was included with Targeted-Capture Sequencing; Noncoding

RNA Sequencing includes: miRNA-Seq and ncRNA-Seq). BioProject information

was obtained from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA, accessed 1 March

2024).

841 **Figure 4. Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC) membership by country**.

842 Inset map showing the size of each country scaled by number of members in the

843 AGC.

Figure 5. Sequencing competencies and identified challenges of the members of the Amphibian Genomics Consortium (AGC). (A) Representation of the contribution of the AGC survey quantitative questions to the first dimensions after computing a principal component analysis (PCA). Bioinformatic competencies and perceived challenges were grouped into dimensions one and two, respectively. (B) Scatter plot showing PCA scores for each AGC survey respondent. Respondent answers are coded by the qualitative question about funding success for amphibian genomics projects using shape; number of amphibian species of the respondent main affiliation country by size, and gross domestic expenditure on R&D (GERD) per capita of the respondent main affiliation country by gray-scale color coded. Information about the number of amphibian species per country was obtained from AmphibiaWeb. GERD per capita was calculated using information from the UNESCO and World Bank websites from the information about the most recent year for each country.

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