

1 **Disease driven extinction in the wild of the Kihansi spray toad (*Nectophrynoides***
2 ***asperginis*)**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 The Kihansi spray toad, *Nectophrynoides asperginis*, became extinct in the wild
18 despite population monitoring and conservation management of its habitat in the
19 Kihansi gorge, Tanzania. Anecdotal evidence has indicated human induced habitat
20 modification, predators, pesticides and disease as possible causes of a rapid
21 population decline and the species extirpation. Here, we systematically investigate the
22 role of disease in the extinction event of the wild toad population. The amphibian
23 chytrid fungus, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, was detected in spray toads that died
24 during the extinction event and subsequently in other amphibian species in Kihansi
25 Gorge and the adjacent Udagaji Gorge, but not in any toads collected prior to this.
26 Following the population decline, the remnant spray toad population gradually
27 disappeared over a nine-month period. We demonstrate how demographic and
28 behavioral attributes predisposed the spray toads to chytridiomycosis, due to *B.*
29 *dendrobatidis* infection, and how epidemic disease could have been exacerbated by
30 altered environmental conditions in the spray wetlands. Our results show that
31 chytridiomycosis was the proximate cause of extinction in the wild of *N. asperginis*.
32 This represents the first known case of extinction by disease of an amphibian species
33 in Africa. A captive breeding program in the US and Tanzania ensures the survival of
34 the species and a reintroduction program is underway. However, we caution that

35 chytridiomycosis remains an existing threat that requires a comprehensive mitigation
36 strategy before the desired conservation outcome of an established population of
37 repatriated toads can be achieved.

38

39 **Introduction**

40 The Kihansi spray toad, *Nectophrynoides asperginis*, was discovered in 1996 at
41 Kihansi Gorge in the southern Udzungwa Mountains, Tanzania and was distinctive in
42 Africa in terms of the habitat it occupied (Poynton et al. 1998). Its entire known
43 distribution was restricted to less than 0.15 km² of a unique vegetation type within a
44 narrow strip of moist forest bordering the Kihansi River in the Kihansi gorge.

45 Continuous spray generated by the Kihansi River as it flowed over the steep
46 Udzungwa scarp previously showered patches of herbaceous vegetation and moss-
47 covered rocks to create a series of spray wetlands. While *N. asperginis* could be
48 classified as naturally rare at the time of its discovery due to its small geographic
49 range (Rabinowitz et al. 1986), within its limited habitable range *N. asperginis* was
50 locally abundant, owing to its characteristically dense populations (Channing et al.
51 2006).

52 The spray wetlands underwent severe alteration because of a ten-fold reduction in
53 water flow following the construction of a hydroelectric power plant that was
54 commissioned in May 2000. The bypass flow released from the newly constructed
55 dam above the main Kihansi falls was not sufficient to generate the spray that
56 characterised the gorge and sustain the unique ecosystem within it (Quinn et al. 2005).
57 Immediately following the diversion of the river, the spray toad population
58 experienced a considerable drop in numbers from its original population estimated at
59 almost 18,000 (Channing et al. 2006). An elaborate sprinkler system was installed in
60 three of the five wetlands (Upper, Lower and Mid-Gorge Spray Wetlands) to mitigate
61 the situation by mimicking the spray zone conditions of high relative humidity and
62 low, constant temperatures (NORPLAN 2001). Spray toad numbers continued to
63 fluctuate, but substantially increased from below 2,000 in March 2001 to almost
64 18,000 in early June 2003 for the Upper Spray Wetland (Channing et al. 2006). In the
65 weeks following the June 2003 census, however, population numbers unexpectedly
66 plummeted and *N. asperginis* was declared extinct in the wild after repeated
67 subsequent surveys yielded no records of the spray toad (IUCN SSC Amphibian
68 Specialist Group, 2015). A captive assurance population established in December

69 2000, following the initial population decline, prevented the extinction of the species.
70 The offspring of these founder animals were housed at the New York Bronx and
71 Toledo zoos in the U.S.A. (Lee et al. 2006), and, from August 2010 to date,
72 additionally at captive breeding facilities at the University of Dar es Salaam and
73 Kihansi, Tanzania.

74 The cause of the decline and subsequent extinction in the wild of *N. asperginis*
75 has been widely debated, but little evidence to support any of the proposed causes has
76 been presented (Weldon and du Preez 2004, Quinn et al. 2005, Channing et al. 2006,
77 Krajik 2006). There is wide support that drying of the habitat as a direct result of
78 commissioning of the Lower Kihansi Hydropower Project played a central role in the
79 initial decline of the species. In addition to the obvious habitat modification caused by
80 the reduction in bypass flow (gradual desertification accompanied by alteration of
81 vegetation composition), sediment laden water and pesticide release that coincided
82 with flushing of the dam just prior to the population crash have also been suggested
83 as contributory factors (Hawkes et al. 2008, Rija et al. 2010).

84 This sudden, catastrophic population crash lasted less than one month and left
85 only a small remnant of the population alive. This remnant population gradually
86 declined over the next eight months until no more toads could be found (Hawkes et al.
87 2008). A crash of this magnitude is characteristically caused by a stochastic event that
88 pushes a population beyond its resilience threshold. The variation in a number of
89 demographic traits (demographic stochasticity) is proportionally larger, the smaller
90 the population size (Shaffer 1981), but the spray toad population was at its peak in the
91 months preceding the crash and had survived all former fluctuations in population size
92 despite a modified habitat. Similarly, environmental stochasticity is more prone to
93 cause the extinction of small populations. Although the normal range of variation in
94 physical factors was dramatically altered by a temporary shut-down of the sprinkler
95 system during flushing of the dam, the same procedure had been successfully
96 conducted before without adversely affecting the toads. It appears more likely that a
97 catastrophe (e.g. hurricane, major fire, epizootic disease) to which small populations
98 are particularly vulnerable caused the *N. asperginis* population crash.

99 Interestingly, the fungal pathogen, *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, was detected
100 in some spray toads at the time of the ultimate population crash, thus disease has been
101 proposed as a possible cause of the population decline and extirpation (Weldon and
102 du Preez 2004). The presence of *B. dendrobatidis* in a species that went extinct is

103 noteworthy, since this fungus has been identified as an emerging amphibian pathogen,
104 capable of acting as both the proximate and predisposing cause of amphibian species
105 extinction (Schloegel et al. 2006, Fisher et al. 2009). Assessing the role of pathogens
106 in population declines is challenging because of the logistical and technical
107 difficulties involved (Daszak et al. 2003). Linking infectious disease to extinction
108 requires collection of population data from the last remnant group of a species prior to
109 extinction and pathological examination of at least some of these individuals
110 (MacPhee and Marx, 1997). Here, we investigate the occurrence of the chytrid fungus
111 *B. dendrobatidis* in the Kihansi Gorge region through systematic observations and
112 retrospective surveys and we specifically examine the role of chytridiomycosis as a
113 possible cause of the population crash that led to the extinction of *N. asperginis* in the
114 wild.

115

116 **Material and Methods**

117 Kihansi Gorge is situated in the southern Udzungwa Mountains, Tanzania
118 (approximate co-ordinates -8.58333, 35.8500) and holds a narrow strip of rain forest
119 surrounded by Miombo woodland. A unique vegetation type grows within the spray
120 zone of the Kihansi River waterfalls to form a series of spray wetlands (Figure 1). The
121 adjacent Udagaji Gorge (approximate co-ordinates -8.58666, 35.87333) was selected
122 as a reference site because it does not share the same catchment as the Kihansi River,
123 but has a similar amphibian community structure as Kihansi Gorge, apart from *N.*
124 *asperginis*.

125

126 *Timeline of decline and retrospective survey*

127 Observations from the sprinkler-service and monitoring team at Kihansi, which were
128 mostly disclosed in the report of a Population and Habitat Viability Assessment for
129 the spray toads (Lee et al. 2006, Hawkes et al. 2008), were examined to compile a
130 timeline of the estimated size of the remnant *N. asperginis* population until extinction.

131 Using inter-dental brushes (3.2 to 6.0 mm; Oral B Laboratories), skin brushings
132 of the ventral abdomen, hind limbs and hind feet were taken of the paratype collection
133 of *N. asperginis* at the Natural History Museum, London (see Poynton et al. 1998) as
134 described by Soto-Azat et al. (2009). DNA was extracted from each sample and was
135 tested for the presence of *B. dendrobatidis* using a specific real-time polymerase chain
136 reaction (qPCR) assay as described by Boyle et al. (2004). For each sample, the

137 diagnostic assay was performed in duplicate, and standards of known *B.*
138 *dendrobatidis* zoospore concentrations and negative controls were included within
139 each qPCR plate. A sample was considered to be positive when: (1) amplification (i.e.
140 a clearly sigmoid curve) occurred in both replicated qPCR reactions, and (2) values >
141 0.1 genomic equivalents (GE) were obtained from both replicated reactions.

142 A toe clip was taken from the left hind foot of each archived *N. asperginis* and *N.*
143 *tornieri* specimens housed in the herpetofauna collection of the University of Dar es
144 Salaam and the University of the Western Cape. These specimens were collected alive
145 during monitoring expeditions, 1997-2002, under the auspices of the Lower Kihansi
146 Environmental Management Project (LKEMP). Each toe clip was stored in 70%
147 alcohol and prepared for histological examination using routine methods. Tissue
148 sections, 6 µm thick, were stained with Mayer's haematoxylin and counter stained
149 with eosin. Slides were then examined using a Nikon Eclipse E800 compound
150 microscope for the presence of *B. dendrobatidis* thalli using the criteria described by
151 Berger et al. (1999).

152 In June to August 2003, during the terminal population crash, eight *N. asperginis*
153 found dead in the Upper and Mid-Gorge Spray Wetlands were collected by LKEMP
154 staff. Part of the left hind foot of seven of these carcasses was similarly prepared for
155 histological examination. One of the specimens was swabbed with a sterile cotton
156 swab and analysed using conventional PCR to test for the presence of *B.*
157 *dendrobatidis*, as previously described by Annis et al. (2004).

158

159 *Field survey*

160 Field trips to Kihansi and Udagaji gorges were undertaken during November 2003
161 and May 2006. Before entering and upon exiting a gorge or spray wetland, footwear
162 was scrubbed and disinfected with a 2% sodium hypochlorite solution. Kihansi Gorge
163 was thoroughly searched for the presence of amphibians both during the day and at
164 night, concentrating on the spray wetlands and immediate surrounding forest. Diurnal
165 surveys involved systematically searching among wetland vegetation and exposed
166 rock surfaces inside wetlands, using the sprinkler lines as transects. Nocturnal surveys
167 involved searching among wetland vegetation along the artificial walkways and
168 examining all exposed rock surfaces. Frogs and toads were collected by hand and kept
169 individually in separate plastic bags. Disposable nitrile gloves were worn whenever
170 animals were handled and a clean pair was used for each animal. The fifth toe of the

171 left hind foot of each animal captured was surgically removed and fixed in 70%
172 alcohol for later examination using histology. The wound was anointed with antiseptic
173 ointment (Betadine; Adcock Ingram Ltd.) before the animal was released at the point
174 of capture. Scissors were sterilized with alcohol wipes between each sample. At
175 Udagaji Gorge, searches for amphibians took place along the banks of the river (5 m
176 on either side) up to the main falls of the gorge. The same sampling protocol was
177 followed as for Kihansi Gorge.

178

179 **Results**

180 *Population trend*

181 By July 2003, spray toad population numbers had plummeted from an estimate 17,745
182 (4.3 toads/m²) for the upper spray wetland in June 2003 to only 43 toads in total for
183 all wetlands combined. Converting all subsequent records of toads to numbers per
184 search hour revealed that a remnant population persisted after the population crash for
185 nine months. During the first four months numbers continued to drop sharply from 31
186 toads/h in July 2003 to 3.2 toads/h in November 2003, after which it remained more
187 or less stable between 2.5 and 1.3 toads/h (Figure 1) until March 2004 when the last
188 confirmed sighting of the Kihansi spray toads in the wild was made.

189

190 *Retrospective survey*

191 A total of 107 archived *N. asperginis* and eight *N. tornieri* from Kihansi Gorge were
192 tested for chytrid fungus infection using histological examination of toe clips. All of
193 the examined specimens were collected from the wild during 1996 or 2003 and
194 included the 18 paratypes used in the original species description of *N. asperginis*. No
195 archived amphibians from Udagaji Gorge were available for disease screening.

196 All 99 *N. asperginis* as well as the eight *N. tornieri* that were collected between
197 1996 and 2002 tested negative for chytrid fungus infection (Table 1). However, five
198 of the eight Kihansi spray toads found dead in 2003 (Upper and Mid-Gorge Spray
199 wetlands) had chytridiomycosis (Tables 1 & 2) due to infection with chytrid fungal
200 zoosporangia which were morphologically consistent with those of *Batrachochytrium*
201 *dendrobatidis* (Berger et al. 1998, 1999), and one tested positive for *B. dendrobatidis*
202 with PCR. Histopathological examination of these toads consistently revealed severe
203 infection intensity concentrated in the anterior half of the feet (Figure 2). Almost 50%

204 of the examined skin surface contained chytrid thalli, with infected loci often
205 consisting of up to 10 layers of sporangia.

206

207 *Field survey*

208 The field survey included the screening of 60 specimens from seven amphibian
209 species from Kihansi Gorge, and 20 specimens from Udagaji Gorge (Table 1). Two
210 species from Kihansi Gorge tested positive for infection with chytrid fungus,
211 morphologically consistent with *B. dendrobatidis*, on histological examination of toe-
212 clips, namely *Ptychadena anchietae* and *Arthroleptides yakusini* (Table 1). Infection
213 was also detected in *A. yakusini* from Udagaji Gorge in 2003 and 2006 (27.3% and
214 28.6% prevalence respectively).

215 Despite intensive diurnal and nocturnal surveys (32 man-hours in 2003, 21 man-
216 hours in 2006), no Kihansi spray toads could be found in any of the spray wetlands
217 where the species was known to have occurred. In both years, the spray wetlands were
218 almost totally devoid of any anurans, but for a few *A. yakusini* and a single
219 *Hyperolius substriatus* in 2006.

220

221 **Discussion**

222 *Evidence linking chytridiomycosis with the extinction of Kihansi spray toads in the*
223 *wild*

224 The rapidity and severity with which the spray toad population declined is typical of
225 an infectious disease epidemic in a naïve host (Rachowicz et al. 2005).

226 Chytridiomycosis is known to have had such a devastating effect on amphibian
227 populations elsewhere (Hudson et al. 2016), and the pattern of decline in *N.*
228 *asperginis* shows similarity to amphibian declines attributable to chytridiomycosis
229 elsewhere (Lips et al. 2006, Hudson et al. 2016).

230 According to Schloegel et al. (2006), extinction can be attributed to infection if a
231 pathogen caused declines in the majority of a species' population leading to its
232 extinction; if a pathogen was responsible for the die-off of the last remnant population
233 of a species regardless of the cause of previous declines; or if a pathogen caused the
234 death of the last individual of a species even if other factors were responsible for
235 driving the species to the verge of extinction. The evidence presented here indicates
236 that *B. dendrobatidis* infection caused the decline of *N. asperginis*, eventually leading
237 to the species becoming extinct in the wild: (1) The *N. asperginis* population

238 underwent a rapid and catastrophic decline due to adult mortality. (2)
239 Chytridiomycosis was prevalent among animals examined that had been found dead
240 during this population crash. (3) Histopathological examination of the skin of Kihansi
241 spray toads that died during the population decline demonstrated an acute infection
242 with severe and extensive epidermal lesions associated with zoosporangia
243 morphologically consistent with *B. dendrobatidis*, and *B. dendrobatidis* infection was
244 confirmed using PCR in one of the last specimens of the species to be collected before
245 its extinction. (4) None of the amphibians tested that had been collected over six years
246 prior to the population crash were positive for *B. dendrobatidis*. The epidemiological
247 chain of events, therefore, indicates that the timing of the population crash coincided
248 with the first appearance of chytridiomycosis in *N. asperginis* as well as in the related
249 *N. tornieri*. Based on this evidence we are assuming that all animals that died with
250 chytridiomycosis died from *B. dendrobatidis* infection.

251 The infection dynamics of *B. dendrobatidis* during frog die-offs is typically
252 characterized by a rapid buildup of high-level infections, followed by death due to
253 chytridiomycosis (Vrendenburg et al. 2010). The first arrival of *B. dendrobatidis* into
254 a naive frog population often coincides with an outbreak of chytridiomycosis (Berger
255 et al. 1998, Lips et al. 2006, Vrendenburg et al. 2010, Hudson et al. 2016). A similar
256 epidemiological pattern to Kihansi Gorge (no evidence of infection until just before
257 the observed frog die-offs) was consistently witnessed at multiple sites in California's
258 Sierra Nevada that resulted in the extirpation of numerous mountain yellow-legged
259 frog (*Rana muscosa*) populations (Vrendenburg et al. 2010). This pattern was also
260 found with the mountain chicken frog (*Leptodactylus fallax*) decline on the Caribbean
261 islands of Montserrat and Dominica (Hudson et al. 2016). Similarly, pathological
262 examinations on declining populations of the now extinct sharp-snouted torrent frog
263 (*Taudactylus acutirostris*) from Australia, including individuals from the last free-
264 living remnant population, demonstrated chytridiomycosis as the probable cause of
265 extinction of this species (Schloegel et al. 2006). Since not a single animal from the
266 remnant *N. asperginis* population was collected during the nine months of surveying
267 following the crash, *B. dendrobatidis* could not be confirmed as having caused the
268 deaths of the last few animals that lingered on as a remnant group, but whether or not
269 they were killed by *B. dendrobatidis*, according to the criteria of Schloegel et al.
270 (2006), there is compelling evidence that this pathogen caused the extinction of *N.*
271 *asperginis*.

272 The absence of *B. dendrobatidis* from all historic records predating the
273 population crash does not support the notion of a chytridiomycosis outbreak that
274 emerged from an endemic infection triggered by changing environmental conditions
275 (chytrid thermal optimum hypothesis) (Pounds et al. 2006). Rather, the emergence of
276 chytridiomycosis at Kihansi Gorge suggests that *B. dendrobatidis* had been
277 introduced to a naïve *N. asperginis* population shortly before the epidemic occurred
278 (novel pathogen hypothesis) (Lips et al. 2008, James et al. 2009). Moreover, the
279 absence of infection in any of the founder toads that were translocated to the United
280 States in 2000 (Lee et al. 2006), provides further evidence that *B. dendrobatidis* had
281 been introduced to the wild toad population shortly before the terminal population
282 decline.

283

284 *Predisposition of Kihansi spray toads to chytridiomycosis*

285 Species extinction represents one end of a spectrum of possible outcomes of infection
286 with *B. dendrobatidis*. In the most benign cases, individuals of some amphibian
287 species carry the infection with apparently little to no effects (Daszak et al. 2004,
288 Weldon et al. 2004), whereas other species experience death of individuals,
289 extirpation of populations or species extinctions (Skerrat et al. 2007, Scheele et al.
290 2019). Previous studies have demonstrated that a combination of physiological,
291 demographic, and ecological traits at the species level (e.g. Woodhams et al. 2006,
292 Smith et al. 2009, Briggs et al. 2010), as well as the virulence of the particular strain
293 of *B. dendrobatidis* (Ferrar et al. 2011, O’Hanlon et al. 2018) influence the outcome
294 of infection.

295 In general, species that are rare, that have low fecundity, that have aquatic larvae
296 associated with streams, or that occur at high elevation are predisposed to population
297 declines and extinction due to *B. dendrobatidis* infection (Lips et al. 2003, Murray
298 and Hose 2005, Bielby et al. 2008). Except for aquatic larvae, *N. asperginis* displays
299 all of these characteristics (600–940 m alt., home range < 2 ha, prolonged gestation,
300 live bearing, clutch size of 5–16; Poynton et al. 1998, Channing et al. 2006),
301 suggesting that it was at high risk of population decline due to chytridiomycosis. The
302 exceptionally high densities at which spray toads used to occur (up to 17 toads/m²),
303 together with the habit of congregating on exposed rocks within wetlands (Poynton et
304 al. 1998), implies that substantial physical contact occurred between individuals. It
305 has been demonstrated that *B. dendrobatidis* transmission is density dependent and

306 that host population density governs host-pathogen dynamics (Briggs et al. 2010).
307 Thus it is likely that the population density and behaviour of *N. asperginis* facilitated
308 frog-to-frog transmission and enabled the rapid spread of *B. dendrobatidis*.

309

310 *Environmental exacerbation of the epidemic*

311 *Nectophrynoides asperginis* appears to be susceptible to lethal chytridiomycosis due
312 to *B. dendrobatidis* infection in the absence of any predisposing factors. In addition to
313 the epidemic mortality seen in the wild, all of the spray toads in a single enclosure in
314 the Wildlife Conservation Society's Bronx Zoo died from a chytridiomycosis
315 outbreak following an incursion of *B. dendrobatidis* (McAloose et al. 2008). The
316 species' high susceptibility to chytridiomycosis was further demonstrated when 62%
317 of the captive breeding facility population in Kihansi died of the disease in under
318 seven weeks following incursion of *B. dendrobatidis* despite daily removal of
319 carcasses and antifungal treatment (Makange et al. 2014).

320 In addition to the species' susceptibility to lethal chytridiomycosis, the prevailing
321 environmental conditions in the spray wetlands as well as anthropogenic disturbance
322 of these conditions just prior to the 2003 population crash, might have exacerbated
323 epidemic chytridiomycosis. A constant relative humidity of near saturation and
324 ambient temperature of 15–23°C (Poynton et al. 1998) provides optimal growth
325 conditions for *B. dendrobatidis* (see Longcore et al. 1999). These favourable
326 conditions would have facilitated the rapid invasion of the spray wetlands following
327 incursion by the fungus in the presence of a suitable host. Furthermore, the constant
328 movement of saturated air generated by the spray zones might have aided the
329 dissemination of *B. dendrobatidis* between adjacent wetlands. Shortly before the
330 disease outbreak occurred in the wild, there was a temporary shutdown of the
331 sprinklers during intermittent high-flow tests of the dam. Spray toads reacted to such
332 periods of reduced humidity by aggregating in parts of the wetland closest to the
333 waterfall that still received small amounts of natural spray (Channing et al. 2006). The
334 aggregation of amphibians in damp refugia during periods of drought increases the
335 rate of *B. dendrobatidis* transmission and has been documented elsewhere as a trigger
336 for chytridiomycosis outbreaks (Burrowes et al. 2004, Longo et al. 2010). The ultra-
337 dense assemblages of spray toads during the June 2003 high-flow test also would
338 have accelerated frog-to-frog disease transmission.

339

340 *Implications for conservation*

341 A reintroduction plan for *N. asperginis* was developed in 2010 that involved
342 maintaining captive assurance colonies at the University of Dar es Salaam and the
343 Kihansi Research Centre, and the reinstatement of a viable wild population at Kihansi
344 Gorge (Rija et al. 2010). In addition to identifying a feasible chytridiomycosis
345 mitigation strategy, the successful establishment of a wild spray toad population will
346 depend on overcoming other management challenges such as water flow and quality,
347 vegetation change and the encroachment of non-native species (Rija et al. 2010).

348 Our results show that *B. dendrobatidis* is likely to persist in Kihansi Gorge in
349 other amphibian species; it was detected even more recently in *Phrynobatrachus*
350 *mababiensis* from below the gorge (Makange et al. 2014). Sympatric amphibian
351 species can act as reservoir hosts of *B. dendrobatidis* and transmit the pathogen to any
352 repatriated spray toads. Continued monitoring and assessment of the risks of disease
353 should be a key component of the reintroduction strategy for any species. This is
354 particularly important for *N. asperginis* because the extinction of this species in the
355 wild was not observed until it was imminent; this, despite monitoring and
356 conservation strategies to maximize the preservation of the species at that time.
357 Garner et al. (2016) highlighted the need for field trials to develop chytridiomycosis
358 mitigation in the wild, but also recommended that such *in situ* work be guided by the
359 results of *ex situ* research. The current captive breeding and reintroduction program
360 for *N. asperginis* provides a fitting opportunity for doing this as a conservation action
361 for this species, but also for furthering the science of infectious diseases mitigation for
362 threatened wildlife.

363

364 **Conclusion**

365 Our investigation into the rapid, catastrophic decline of *N. asperginis* suggests that the
366 virulent amphibian pathogen, *B. dendrobatidis*, was responsible for driving this toad
367 to extinction in the wild. This represents the first documented case of extinction by
368 disease in the wild of an amphibian species in Africa. The extremely restricted
369 distribution of the species made it vulnerable to a stochastic event such as infectious
370 disease introduction and this was enhanced by the high population density, the
371 aggregation behaviour of the toads and the optimal environmental conditions for *B.*
372 *dendrobatidis*. The live bearing life history of the species added to its vulnerability
373 because of its low fecundity and prolonged gestation. There is a lack of evidence of

374 the cause of extinction of the remnant Kihansi spray toads that survived the
375 chytridiomycosis epidemic, but as the population declined and population density
376 decreased, infection dynamics dictate that a small number of animals survive through
377 the tail of the epidemic curve. Also, the epidemic likely left surviving *N. asperginis*
378 with population numbers below a threshold number of individuals required to
379 maintain the characteristic behaviour associated with a species that forms large
380 aggregations. Whether these remaining animals died of *B. dendrobatidis* infection
381 transmitted from other Kihansi spray toads, sympatric amphibians or due to other
382 factors, we posit that this pathogen was the cause of this species' extinction in the
383 wild.

384

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392

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- 565

566 **Table 1.** Occurrence of chytrid fungal infection in amphibians from Kihansi and
 567 Udagaji gorges since the discovery of *Nectophrynoides asperginis*. USW - Upper
 568 Spray Wetland, MGSW - Mid-Gorge Spray Wetland, LSW - Lower Spray Wetland,
 569 MSW - Mhalala Spray Wetland

Kihansi frogs	Site details	Date	N^o. infected/ N^o. tested
<i>Nectophrynoides asperginis</i>	–	1996	0/18
	–	1997	0/1
	–	1999	0/17
	–	2000	0/56
	–	2001	0/4
	–	2002	0/3
	USW, MGSW	2003	6/8
<i>Nectophrynoides tornieri</i>	–	2000	0/3
	–	2001	0/3
	–	2002	0/2
	Herbaceous vegetation on fringe of USW	2003	0/4
<i>Arthroleptidis yakusini</i>	Handaki stream	2003	0/9
	USW, LSW, MGSW, Handaki stream	2006	2/10
<i>Ptychadena anchietae</i>	Grass fringing LSW	2003	1/1
<i>Arthroleptis stenodactylus</i>	Leaf litter in forest below USW	2006	0/1
<i>Arthroleptis xenodactyloides</i>	Seepage in forest below MGSW	2003	0/17
	Forest surrounding USW, MGSW and MSW	2006	0/8
<i>Afrivalus fornasinii</i>	Herbaceous vegetation on fringe of MGSW	2003	0/1
<i>Hyperolius substriatus</i>	USW	2006	0/1
Udagaji frogs			

<i>Nectophrynoides tornieri</i>	Rock crevices along river bank	2003	0/2
<i>Arthroleptidis yakusini</i>	Rock crevices in torrents	2003	3/11
	Rock crevices in torrents	2006	2/7

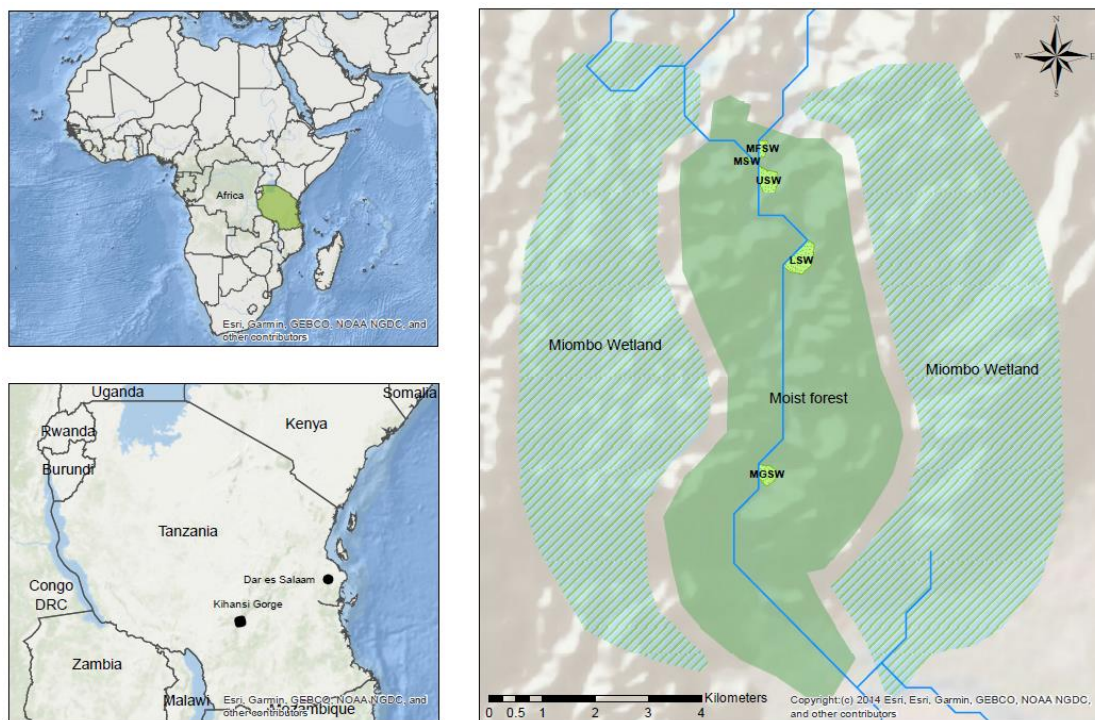
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571

572 **Table 2.** *Nectophrynoides asperginis* infection history since the earliest detection of
573 chytrid fungus, which coincides with the timing of the population crash. Histology
574 was used in most diagnosis, except for one specimen (asterisk) for which PCR was
575 used.

Date	N^o. specimens	N^o. infected	Locality
4 Jun 2003	2	1	Upper Spray Wetland
28 Jul 2003	3	2	Mid-Gorge Spray Wetland
4 Aug 2003	1	1*	Mid-Gorge Spray Wetland
14 Aug 2003	2	2	Mid-Gorge Spray Wetland

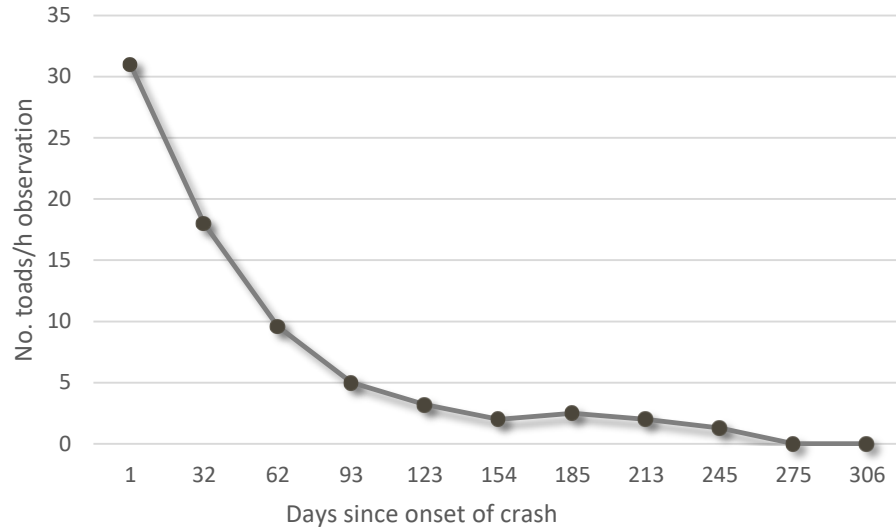
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577

578 **Figure 1.** Map of Kihansi Gorge indicating the course of the Kihansi River and
579 location of spray wetlands. MFSW, Main Falls Spray wetland; MSW, Mhalala Spray
580 wetland; UPS, Upper Spray wetland; LSW, Lower Spray wetland; MGSW, Mid-
581 gorge Spray wetland.

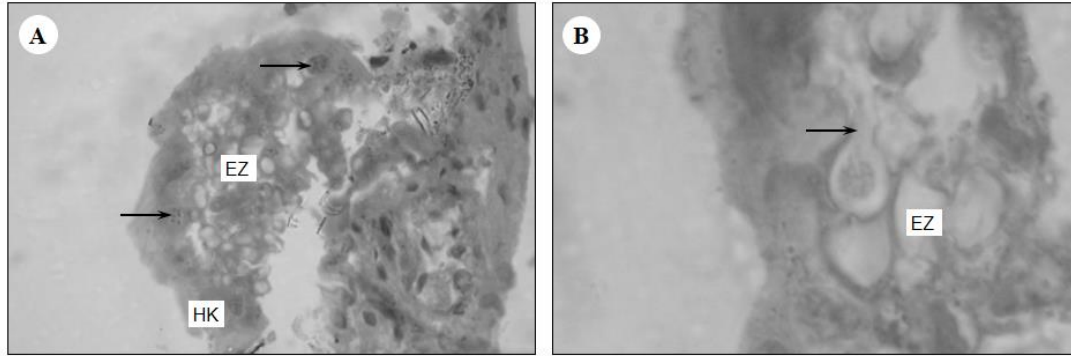
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583

584 **Figure 2.** Population trend of *Nectophrynoides asperginis* following the crash in June
585 2003. Numbers are based on total number of toads observed per hour of search effort
586 (compiled from Hawkes et al. 2008).

587



588

589 **Figure 3.** Micrographs of hematoxylin and eosin stained sections of *Nectophrynoides*

590 *asperginis* skin. A) A large cluster of mostly empty zoosporangia (EZ) in a fragment

591 of partially detached epidermis, with severe hyperkeratosis in the *stratum corneum*

592 (HK). Zoosporangia containing zoospores (arrows) are also visible. B)

593 Zoosporangium with discharge papilla (arrow), surrounded by empty zoosporangia

594 within the *stratum corneum* with advanced autolysis.

595