Wildlife disease from a fungal perspective: a look into host specificity and physiology of *Ophidiomyes ophiodiicola* and *Nannizziopsis guarroi*

By

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Do the best you can until you know better.

Then when you know better,

Do better.

― Maya Angelou Author, Poet, Civil Rights Activist

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### **Dissertation Introduction**

Unveiling the mysteries of disease has been a significant core goal of research and technology from time immemorial. Spanning a multitude of different disciplines, the relationship between humanity and disease infinitely cycles between outbreak, discovery, and prevention. Rapid advances in sequencing and genomic technology have given biologists the ability to study the complexity within the epidemiologic triad, colloquially the "disease triad", at the molecular level. Such advances lend to a more holistic view in the relationships between host, pathogen, and environment. However, with complexity comes the muddying of conceptual frameworks of understanding, and a distancing from fundamental physiological experiments of microorganisms. Perhaps inescapably, such advances have prioritized human diseases over other organisms and wildlife diseases essential for environmental health and maintenance that may otherwise hold key insight toward the diseases fervently combatted in humans.

In this dissertation, I lean heavily on the concept of host specificity toward broadening our understanding of fungal physiology in wildlife diseases. I use the understudied fungi *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* and *Nannizziopsis guarroi* to enhance the body of literature around the emerging infectious diseases they cause, snake fungal disease and yellow fungus disease, respectively. Each chapter relates its findings to concerns of infectious disease escaping into naïve wildlife populations that could result in potentially unforeseen and long-lasting consequences for a species.

In chapter I, I investigated the pervasive literature assumptions between *N. guarroi* and its associated host, bearded dragons. Specifically, I studied the requirements that consider a fungal pathogen as a direct, primary, infection agent as opposed to an

opportunistic, secondary infection agent. Following Koch's postulates, we confirmed *N. guarroi* could establish an infection in healthy bearded dragons without the necessity of an abrasion, supporting literature assumptions with experimental evidence.

In chapter II, I reexamined the host species for both *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* known to be snakes and lizards, respectively. Based on the shared fungal history of these pathogens being a part of the former *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii* (CANV), I focused on the ability of each fungus to infect the opposite host. I was in part driven to understand if either fungus was truly restricted to their documented hosts. We found evidence that both *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* could establish infection in both snakes and lizards, ultimately increasing the host range of each disease and the concem for an increased disease distribution.

In chapter III, I am the first to assemble the genome of *N. guarroi* for a suite of putative genes related to keratin degradation. I focus on the observed ability of *N. guarroi* to infect reptiles without disruptions in the epidermis, identifying the presence of enzymatic tools that could unveil downstream pathogenicity factors and differ from other fungi once a part of the CANV complex.

# **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

## Chapter I

**Savannah Gentry** performed the conceptualization of, and conducted, the experiment, wrote the original draft, and edited and submitted the manuscript for publication.

Jeffrey M Lorch contributed to the conceptualization and execution of the experiment and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

Julia S. Lankton performed histopathology and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

Anne Pringle contributed to the conceptualization of the experiment and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

## Chapter II

**Savannah Gentry** performed the conceptualization of, and conducted, the experiment, wrote the original draft, and edited and submitted the manuscript for publication.

Jeffrey M Lorch contributed to the conceptualization and execution of the experiment and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

Julia S. Lankton performed histopathology and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

Anne Pringle contributed to the conceptualization of the experiment and reviewed the manuscript for publication.

## Chapter III

**Savannah Gentry** performed the conceptualization, execution of the bioinformatics analysis, and writing.

Yen-Wen Wang contributed bioinformatics expertise.

Jin Woo Bok performed molecular techniques of the experiment.

Nancy Keller contributed to the conceptualization.

Jeffrey Lorch contributed fungal isolates.

Anne Pring performed writing – review.

**Chapter I** – Koch's Postulates: Confirming *Nannizziopsis guarroi* as the cause of yellow fungal disease in *Pogona vitticeps*

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### **ABSTRACT**

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* is an ascomycete fungus associated with a necrotizing dermatitis in captive green iguanas (*Iguana iguana*) and bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*) across both Europe and North America. Clinical signs of the disease include swelling and lesion formation. Lesions develop from white raised bumps on the skin and progress into crusty, yellow, discolored scales, eventually becoming necrotic. The clinical signs are the basis of a colloquial name yellow fungus disease (YFD). However, until now *N. guarroi* has not been confirmed as the primary agent of the disease in bearded dragons. In this experiment, we fulfill Koch's postulates criteria of disease, demonstrating *N. guarroi* as the primary agent of YFD in bearded dragons.

#### **GENERAL AUDIENCE**

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* is a fungus known to cause yellow fungus disease (YFD), which can be fatal for lizard species. However, *N. guarroi* has only been assumed to cause disease in bearded dragons but had yet to be confirmed with experimental support. Using Koch's specific criteria that help determine if a single microbe can cause an infection in an animal host, we demonstrated that *N. guarroi* causes YFD in bearded dragons. Our evidence to support the previous assumptions include observational data of disease symptoms in the animals during our experiment, studying the tissues from the infected animals, and culturing the pathogenic fungus from the infected tissues. Our findings emphasize the necessity for experimental support toward diseases that remain largely hidden and unfamiliar.

**KEYWORDS**: Ascomycota, emerging infectious diseases, wildlife, C*hrysosporium*  anamoroph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii*, pet trade

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Starting in the late 1990s, case reports from veterinary clinics began associating *Nannizziopsis guarroi* with a fungal infection in bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*), termed yellow fungus disease (YFD) (Sigler *et al.* 2013; Paré and Sigler 2016; Paré *et al.* 1997). Although little is known about the natural history of *N. guarroi*, an association of *N. guarroi* with the necrotic mycoses described as YFD in lizard species continues to be reported despite the direct lack of evidence for *N. guarroi* as the agent of disease. As reports of YFD in captive reptiles become more common, particularly among popular species in the pet trade, concern for the potential spread of the disease among wild populations of susceptible animals is increasing.

Clinical signs associated with YFD include lesion formation and swelling: lesions begin as white raised bumps on the skin and develop into crusty, yellow, discolored scales, eventually swelling from inflammation and becoming necrotic at the sites of infection (Le Donne *et al.* 2016; Abarca et al 2010; Schneider *et al.* 2018). However, many have attributed infections associated with *N. guarroi* to other factors compromising host health, for example improper husbandry conditions (Le Donne *et al.* 2016). Case reports associating *N. guarroi* with YFD in captive reptiles dominate the literature and reports

span North America and Europe, but also come from Korea and Australia (Paré *et al.* 1997; Abarca *et al.* 2008, 2009, 2010; Waeyenberghe *et al.* 2010, Han *et al.* 2010, Johnson *et al.* 2011; Schmidt-Ukaj *et al.* 2014, 2016; Bowman *et al.* 2007; Hedley *et al.* 2010; Le Donne *et al.* 2016; Skomorucha *et al.* 2014).

Discovering whether a microbe is the primary agent of disease in a host or hosts is critical to elucidating disease dynamics and identifying appropriate control measures. Fulfilling Koch's postulates enables subsequent investigation into disease spread, origin, and host range. Koch's postulates are standard criteria developed to establish an organism (e.g. a fungus, bacterium, or virus) as the cause of a disease. To satisfy Koch's postulates: (i) the potential agent of disease must be found in an infected host, (ii) the agent must be isolated from the infected host and grown in pure culture, (iii) the isolated agent must cause disease when introduced into a healthy host, and (iv) the agent must be re-isolated from the newly infected and diseased host while a negative control remains uninfected (Koch 1884; Isenberg 1988; Orélis-Ribeiro *et al.* 2010).

Koch's postulates are often used to identify primary agents of disease in wildlife. For example, *Pseudogymnoascus destructans* was confirmed as the primary agent of white-nose syndrome (WNS) in little brown bats by fulfilling Koch's postulates (Lorch *et al.* 2011). Similarly, Koch's postulates were used to confirm *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* as the primary agent of chytridiomycosis, a disease causing dramatic population declines and extinctions of numerous amphibian species (Longcore *et al.* 1999; Mitchell *et al.* 2008). Koch's postulates confirmed *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* as the primary agent of snake fungal disease (SFD; Lorch *et al.* 2015), and SFD currently

impacts multiple populations of different snake species across North America (Lorch *et al.* 2016; Burbrink *et al.* 2017).

The history of WNS, Chytridiomycosis, and SFD highlights the potential for YFD to spillover into wildlife with potentially devastating effects on naïve populations (Fisher *et al.* 2012). In this context, the apparently widespread distribution of *N. guarroi* and the lack of information on its ecology and physiology is disconcerting. Until recently, *N. guarroi* (formerly *Chrysosporium guarroi*) was considered to be a part of the *Chrysosporium*  anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vreisii* (CANV) fungal complex. It is now understood to be a separate species and was described from strains isolated from captive green iguanas (*Iguana iguana*) in Spain (Abarca *et al.* 2008). However, to date, no experiment has tested the assumption that *N. guarroi* is the primary agent of YFD. We aimed to fulfill Koch's postulates with *N. guarroi* by conducting a challenge experiment with captive-bred juvenile bearded dragons to determine if the fungus is the primary agent of YFD. We are motivated in part by the potential for spillover effects from domestic populations into wildlife, particularly, naïve reptile populations (Thompson *et al.* 2009).

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### *Animal Husbandry*

Our experimental protocols, including the protocols for husbandry and euthanasia, were approved by the University of Wisconsin Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC; Approval number #V006070IACUC). We conducted live animal experiments at the Charmany Instructional Facility in Madison, Wisconsin, United States. We acquired seven, two- to three-month-old captive-bred bearded dragons (27 g–48 g) from a local vendor. At the Charmany facility, body condition, shedding, and, after inoculation, infection progression was tracked daily throughout the experiment. Each bearded dragon was housed in an individual plastic tub with a ventilated cover (FIG. 1). Water was available *ad libitum*; shelter and enrichment in the form of climbable sticks were also provided. We randomly designated two bearded dragons as negative controls and isolated them in a separate room while the remaining five were held in a different room for future inoculation with *N. guarroi*. Control and experimental rooms were maintained between 30–35 C with humidity between 30–40%, parameters chosen to optimize fungal growth, and which were appropriate for bearded dragon habitats; no heat gradients were provided within the enclosures. Rooms were kept on a 12 h light/dark cycle and all animals were given eight days to acclimate to their new environment. Research veterinary staff conducted an initial physical and wellness check of the animals and determined all were healthy. We screened all animals for *N. guarroi* prior to the challenge study by swabbing each individual from snout tip to tail end on the dorsal and ventral sides of the body with fine tip rayon swabs (#MW113, Medical Wire & Equipment, Wiltshire, England) moistened with 25 µl of sterile distilled water. Each swab was plated on dermatophyte test media (DTM) and incubated at 24 C for 20 days. All animals were found free of *N. guarroi*.

### *Inoculation*

As an inoculant, we used a pure culture of a strain of *N. guarroi* obtained from the UAMH Centre for Global Microfungal Biodiversity culture collection (UAMH-10352); the culture was originally isolated from a bearded dragon with YFD in 2016 in Madison, Wisconsin, United States, and was grown from a single spore. The isolate was grown on Sabouraurd's Dextrose agar (SDA) and incubated at 24 C for 20 days. A conidial

suspension in phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.5% Tween 20 solution (84 250 conidia/ µl) was prepared as described in Lorch *et al.* (2015). The day of inoculation, the five bearded dragons to be inoculated were gently abraded with sterile sandpaper, creating a 1 cm<sup>2</sup> abrasion area at four sites (snout, dorsal-side neck, ventral-side midbody, and left ventral-side leg around the femoral pits; FIG. 2) following a similar protocol described in Lorch *et al.* (2015); two additional sites were left unabraded (dorsalside midbody and ventral-side neck; FIG. 2). Each treatment animal was inoculated at each of the six sites with 4 µl of the *N. guarroi* conidial suspension. Following the same abrasion protocol, the negative controls were sham-inoculated with the same, but sterile saline solution.

#### *Euthanasia, Necropsy, Histopathology*

We euthanized animals if they developed skin lesions exceeding 1 cm in diameter, if there was a noticeable decline in body condition, or on the final day (day 52) of the experiment. Before euthanasia, each animal was anesthetized in an induction chamber using isoflurane gas. Animals were then injected intracoelomically with 0.1 ml of pentobarbital, a fatal dosage. Decapitation was then used per protocol ensuring death. Animals were necropsied by removing skin samples from each inoculated site (and from sham-inoculated sites), surrounding the 1  $\text{cm}^2$  abraded areas and non-abraded areas; samples were divided for DTM cultures and for histopathological analyses. Skin was removed even if there were no visible gross lesions or other presentation of clinical signs at the inoculated sites. Along with the skin samples, internal organs (heart, lung, kidney, spleen, pancreas, esophagus, stomach, and small and large intestines), decapitated heads, and inoculated legs were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin. After fixation,

heads and legs were decalcified in saturated ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) solution. Tissues for histology were trimmed, embedded in paraffin, sectioned, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) or periodic acid-Schiff (PAS; FIG. 3) depending on tissue type: internal organs were stained with H&E and skin samples were stained with PAS. Each slide was analyzed for fungal elements (hyphae and/or arthroconidia) by a board-certified veterinary pathologist using a constructed histological scale of none, few, moderate, or many.

#### *Sequencing*

Inoculated and sham-inoculated skin samples were cultured on DTM at 30 C for 20 days. Any fungal or bacterial growth from any skin sample was isolated and subcultured on SDA (FIG. 4). To extract fungal DNA from each subculture, a 0.5 cm diameter plug of fungal material was scraped from the subculture using a sterile scalpel and put in a 2 ml screw-cap tube with 3 mm diameter glass beads; tissue was macerated using a mini-beadbeater (Product number: 112011, BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, Oklahoma). Macerated tissues were subsequently placed in 600 µl of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) buffer and incubated at 65 C for 1 h. We then added 600 µl of chloroform isoamyl alcohol to each tube, mixing it with the CTAB and then centrifuging at 13 000 rpm for 10 min. Supernatants were pipetted off and placed in new, sterile 2 ml Eppendorf tubes; we added 600 µl chloroform isoamyl alcohol to each tube and gently rocked tubes on a tipping tray for 10 min. Next, tubes were centrifuged a second time. Following centrifugation, iced 96% EtOH was added at 2x the total sample volume to wash the extracted DNA. We washed each DNA pellet twice and then dried the pellets in a DNA SpeedVac system for 30 min before adding 400 µl of Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer and storing extracted DNA in the -20 C freezer to be used for downstream PCR. Bacterial DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNEasy Powersoil kit (Germantown, Maryland) following the manufacturer's protocol.

We conducted PCR for Sanger sequencing on all extracted DNA. For fungi, we amplified the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region in fungal samples using standard fungal primers, ITS1-F and ITS4 (Manter and Vivanco 2007), EconoTaq Plus 2X Master Mix, and distilled water. PCR reactions used the following parameters: 2 min at 95 C, 15 s at 95 C (30 cycles), 15 s at 49 C, 1 min at 68 C, 5 min at 68 C. For bacteria, we amplified the 16S ribosomal region using primers rp2 and fD1 (Weisburg *et al.* 1991) and PCR reactions used the following parameters: 5 min at 95 C, 1 min at 94 C (25 cycles), 1 min at 59 C, 2 min at 72 C, and 5 min at 72 C.

We submitted the ITS and 16S amplicons to a third-party vendor for Sanger sequencing (Functional Biosciences Madison, Wisconsin), receiving the ab1 files and then visually inspecting and trimming the chromatographs to verify the quality of each of our samples. To determine the species of fungi and bacteria we cultured, we next used BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool; Altschul *et al.* 1990) to compare our sequences with sequences stored in GenBank (Benson *et al.* 2016). Subsequently, we deposited four sequences into GenBank (acc. No. MT503283, MT503284, MT503285, and MT503223), one of which (MT503283) represents our *N. guarroi* cultures (every culture yielded an identical ITS sequence); sequences are described in more detail in results.

### **RESULTS**

By day 52 post-inoculation, all lizards exposed to *N. guarroi* had developed clinical signs of infection; the negative control animals developed no clinical signs of infection. The initial clinical signs appeared between 15–31 days post-inoculation (FIG. 5). Initial clinical signs were discolored, yellow scales at inoculated sites, often on the ventral midbody and around the femoral pits. Affected areas of skin eventually became swollen, thickened, and darker in coloration. Following are the observed onset of clinical signs for each bearded dragon inoculated with *N. guarroi* summarized from our daily logs; individual animals are identified as BD8N, BD9N, BD10N, BD12N, and BD11N. Animal BD8N developed a single lesion on the ventral side of the neck, 31 days after inoculation. The lesion did not swell or become necrotic by the end of the experiment. Animal BD9N also developed a lesion on the ventral side of the neck 31 days after inoculation which did not swell or become necrotic by the end of the experiment, similar to BD8N. However, BD9N developed an additional lesion on the tail, which was not a site we abraded or inoculated. Animals BD10N and BD12N developed lesions on the ventral midbody and femoral pits 20 days after inoculation both of which progressed into swelling and necrosis at the inoculated sites by the end of the experiment. Animal BD11N developed necrotic lesions on the femoral pits and across the snout 15 days after inoculation, which progressed into the eye causing swelling and a thickening of the scales around the eye. Due to its rapidly declining body condition, BD11N was euthanized 22 days after inoculation and did not reach the end of the experiment. Among the five treated bearded dragons, there was no consistent pattern between abraded and non -abraded sites as lesions formed in both kinds of (but not all) sites. Ecdysis (shedding of the skin) was infrequent during the experiment. Some animals completed a full shed within 2–3 days while others shed but retained skin remnants for up to 14 days. However, regardless of whether shedding events were complete or incomplete, clinical signs persisted, even after shedding.

Histological analyses confirmed a positive infection in four of the five treated bearded dragons. Fungal elements (hyphae and/or arthroconidia) were present in epidermal, dermal, and/or muscle tissue (FIG. 3; FIG. 5). Microscopically, skin lesions were consistent with those previously reported for YFD in bearded dragons (Bowman *et al.* 2007; Hedley *et al.* 2010; Paré and Jacobson 2007). Lesions were characterized by epidermal ulceration, epidermal and dermal necrosis, and histiocytic to granulomatous dermatitis, panniculitis, and myositis. Lesions contained moderate to large numbers of 3– 5 µm diameter, parallel-walled, septate, rarely branching fungal hyphae extending from the epidermis to the underlying muscular layer. Rarely, fungal hyphae were found within blood vessels of the dermis and subcutis. Cylindrical 2 x 3 μm conidia were occasionally present in clusters on the skin surface. In some areas, infection was limited to the subcutis and muscle with minimal involvement of the epidermis and dermis. Mature granulomas as described in previous reports were not seen, probably because of the relatively short duration of the infection trial. In the five treated bearded dragons, none of the internal organ samples had fungal elements, indicating no sign of systemic infection; the negative controls had no fungal elements present in any tissue samples.

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* was re-isolated in culture from 24 of the 30 skin samples taken from the 30 inoculated sites of the five bearded dragons exposed to the fungus (FIG. 4; TABLE 1). Sequencing data confirmed that every culture of *N. guarroi* was identical to the initial strain used during inoculation. Six of the 30 skin samples (1 from BD8N, 2 from BD9N, 1 from BD11N, and 2 from BD12N) did not grow fungi when cultured (TABLE 2). *Neosetophoma guiyangensis* was cultured from a single skin sample of one bearded dragon (BD8N; TABLE 2) from which *N. guarroi* was also cultured; we deposited the *N. guiyangensis* sequence into GenBank (MT503284). *Neosetophoma* is a genus of fungal endophytes and saprobes associated with plant hosts and is not known to be pathogenic to animals (Karunarathna *et al.* 2017; Hyde *et al.* 2018). The skin samples from the negative controls never generated *N. guarroi* in culture. However, *Chaetomium globosum* and a *Kocuria sp.* were isolated in culture from one negative control animal (BD1NC; TABLE 2); we deposited sequences of both cultures into GenBank (MT503285 and MT503223, respectively). Neither organism is a known pathogen of bearded dragons; *C. globosum* is a cosmopolitan fungal endophyte and *Kocuria sp.* is a Grampositive bacterium that occurs on the skin of humans and animals without inciting disease (Wang *et al.* 2016; Kandi *et al.* 2016). The negative control samples containing *C. globosum* and the *Kocuria sp.* did not present any internal or external signs of infection or abnormal clinical signs that would suggest disease from those specific microbes; no histopathological evidence of any of these microbes was seen.

### **DISCUSSION**

By fulfilling Koch's postulates our work definitively demonstrates *N. guarroi* as the primary agent of YFD in bearded dragons: all five treatment animals developed clinical signs of YFD and *N. guarroi* was re-isolated from each animal. While, in this case, Koch's postulates is a useful criteria to determine infection capability of a single microbe in one host species, our experiment cannot elude to what YFD infection could look like in other potential reptilian species; such findings would require additional challenge experiments with different species.

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* persisted at the inoculated sites throughout the experiment and was re-isolated from 80% of inoculated sites. However, results of the histopathological analyses and re-isolation were not uniform across each treatment animal or individual inoculation site (TABLE 1). For example, a bearded dragon sometimes did not present histological evidence of infection at an inoculation site from which *N. guarroi* was cultured. Conversely, a bearded dragon sometimes presented histological evidence at a site from which *N. guarroi* was not re-isolated. In the case of one bearded dragon, a lesion formed on the tail, a location that was neither abraded nor inoculated. Our results highlight the variability in clinical signs of YFD: three animals developed swelling and lesions at inoculated sites 20 days after inoculation while two remained clinically normal for 41 days post-inoculation, 4 days before euthanasia. The most likely explanation for both the variability among sites and the two bearded dragons with a late onset of clinical signs is early-stage infection. Had the experiment continued, the early-stage infections associated with a relatively late onset of clinical signs would likely have progressed into a more severe disease.

Observed variability may also be explained by the texture, topography, and coloration of bearded dragon skin, which can make it difficult to observe abnormalities, including lesions, especially when gross lesions are < 1 cm in diameter. Because of the relatively small sizes of some lesions, it was difficult to divide samples and ensure that a portion of the lesion was analyzed both histologically and by culture. Moreover, capturing

the infection within any lesion histologically can be difficult because the thin sections viewed microscopically represent a very small portion of sampled tissue.

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* was able to be re-isolated even after the bearded dragons underwent ecdysis (shedding of the skin). In some animals shed remnants adhered to the new epidermis for as long as 14 days, and this time may have allowed the pathogen to establish into deeper tissues or enabled re-infection of the new epidermis. Epidermal abrasion does not appear to be a requirement for infection. Paré *et al.* (2006) demonstrated that breakage of the epidermis was an important variable for the development of infection using an isolate of a *Nannizziopsis sp.* on chameleons (*Chamaeleo calyptratus*). In our study infection also appeared to involve epidermal breakage as both visible gross lesions and histopathological evidence of disease were predominantly seen on abraded areas. However, there was also evidence of fungal elements in non-abraded areas, implying that an intact epidermis is not a completely effective deterrent to infection. Although epidermal breakage may facilitate infection and can serve as a primary route for invasion, fungal presence in non -abraded areas highlights the ability of *N. guarroi* to colonize even unabraded skin, similar to *O. ophiodiicola* (Lorch *et al.* 2015). Had the experiment continued, we hypothesize that disease would have appeared and progressed at all inoculated sites on every individual animal, abraded and unabraded. The dorsal side of the epidermis of bearded dragons is more heavily keratinized (it is thicker) than the ventral side, a feature which makes abrasions more likely to occur on the abdomen. The thickness of the dorsal side of the epidermis may slow the rate of fungal invasion which may explain why we found fungal elements within dorsal tissue but did not see visible clinical signs of infection in that area.

The ecology of *N.* guarroi is poorly understood. Apart from optimal growth temperatures little is known (Abarca *et al.* 2008a, 2009b). Closely related pathogenic fungi, including *O. ophiodiicola,* are thought to persist in environments outside of host animals, often establishing in soil which acts as a reservoir of infection (Guthrie *et al.* 2016). Reservoirs of potentially infectious material may facilitate consistent exposure to a host, continual reinfection, and potentially a more systemic and fatal disease. *Nannizziopsis guarroi* can generally tolerate warmer temperatures than such pathogens as *O. ophiodiicola* and *B. dendrobatidis* or *Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (Allender *et al.* 2015; Blooi *et al.* 2015), which may allow it to persist for longer periods of time and in a greater range of environments in the absence of a host. Research into *N. guarroi'*s native geographic range, natural history, and ecology is critically needed to enable an understanding of the transmission and epidemiology of YFD.

Fungal pathogens often appear opportunistic in nature, primarily causing infections in hosts with pre-existing health problems and, in the case of *N. guarroi,* also in animals kept under poor husbandry conditions (Cabañes *et al.* 2014; Le Donne *et al.* 2016). However, although declining body conditions and suboptimal environments will certainly influence the onset of infection, the former CANV fungi (e.g. *O. ophiodiicola, N. guarroi*, *N. barbatae*) have increasingly been demonstrated to function as primary agents of diseases in various reptile species (Cabañes *et al.* 2014; Han *et al.* 2010). Furthermore, recent case studies of yellow fungus disease have eluded to the acceptance that *N. guarroi,* as well as other *Nannizziopsis* species, does not primarily act as an opportunistic fungus on its associated (now confirmed) hosts, identifying infection as aggressive (Murillo *et al.* 2022; Paré *et al.* 2021). As we demonstrate here, *N. guarroi* also appears to be a primary agent of disease.

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* has never been discovered in a wild host and is only known from captive animals. Case reports of *N. guarroi* associated with fatal infections and implicating the fungus as a primary pathogen span 1997–2018, and disease has been described from multiple species of lizards in captivity across North America, Europe, Korea, and Australia, but without any discussion of how dispersal might occur or whether there is potential for the fungus to spillover and establish as an invasive pathogen in ecosystems (Fisher *et al.* 2020). If the fungus were to spillover into wild populations, it has the potential to cause significant morbidity and mortality to naïve populations of other reptile species. Although degrees of resistance have been documented for animals exposed to other fungal pathogens (e.g. Archey's frog, *Lepiopelma archeyi*, is less susceptible to *B. dendrobatidis* than other frog species*,* and the Big Brown Bat, *Eptesicus fuscus,* is resistant to infection by *P. destructans* (Frank *et al.* 2014; Savage and Zamudio 2011; Palmer *et al.* 2018), whether different reptile species vary in susceptibility to *N. guarroi* is unknown. However, the methods presented here could be used to establish differential susceptibility experimentally; the true risk that YFD poses to wild reptile populations requires further study.

Species known to be susceptible to *N. guarroi* are popular species commonly found in the pet trade (i.e. chameleons, green iguanas, and bearded dragons), and trade provides opportunities for the pathogen to be moved long distances and to jump to new hosts. Roughly 350 million live animals are imported and exported across the globe annually; many are poached from the wild (Warwick 2014). The potential spillover of YFD

into naïve populations is an imminent threat. Our findings are a first step toward illustrating the importance of *N. guarroi* as a primary pathogen and emphasize the need for additional research to better understand the ecology and impact of the fungus on reptile populations worldwide.

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# **FIGURES & TABLES**



**Figure 1.** Animal enclosure.



**Figure 2.** Inoculation of bearded dragons with *N. guarroi*. A – C. Photographs of the inoculation process using 4 µl of *N. guarroi* to inoculate sites on individual bearded dragons. D. Circles mark each of the 6 inoculation sites across the dorsal and ventral sides of the animal; green circles



represent abraded sites and orange circles represent sites left unabraded. The "vent" label distinguishes between the dorsal and ventral sides.

**Figure 3.** Histological images of tissue samples from control (A) and inoculated (B-F) sites stained with periodic acid-Schiff stain. (A) Dorsal neck, BD1NC, Negative control. A thin epidermis and stratum corneum (arrowhead) overlie a sparsely cellular dermis (star) and thick muscular layer (cross). (B) Leg, BD12N. The epidermis, dermis, and muscular layers are obscured and replaced by widespread necrosis and inflammation. (C) Leg, BD10N. There is marked epidermal and dermal necrosis (diamonds) and granulomatous dermatitis with intralesional fungal hyphae

(circle) and conidia; inset – a cluster of conidia (filled arrow) fills an ulcer. (D) Ventral body, BD12N. There is deep granulomatous dermatitis with intralesional fungal hyphae (lined arrows). (E) Ventral body, BD12N. Fungal hyphae within the dermis are surrounded by macrophages (lined arrows). (F) Leg, BD12N. There is marked necrotizing myositis (filled circles) extending to the femur. Only a small portion of unaffected muscle remains (cross).



**Figure 4.** Culture results from each of the seven bearded dragons. A – E. Cultures of *N. guarroi* maintained on SDA isolated from diseased bearded dragons. F. Plate of SDA with no growth isolated from a negative control, BD2NC. G and H. Cultures of the *Kocuria sp.* and *C. globosum*, respectively, on DTM, isolated from the negative control, BD1NC.



**Figure 5.** Disease progression on an individual bearded dragon photographed on different days. A and B. Manifestation of clinical signs of infection 20 days and 35 days post-inoculation, respectively.

Anımaı ID	rreatment	Ulinical	$HISIOPatnology \mid Re-ISolation$								
<b>Signs</b> <b>Inoculated Sites</b>											
Snout*											
	Negative										
BD1NC	Control										
BD <sub>2NC</sub>	Negative Control										
BD <sub>8N</sub>	N. guarroi			٠							
BD9N	N. guarroi		$\blacksquare$	٠							
BD <sub>10</sub> N	N. guarroi		۰	٠							
BD11N	N. guarroi	÷		٠							
BD12N	N. guarroi										
<b>Dorsal Neck*</b>											
BD1NC	Negative										
	Control										
BD2NC	Negative Control										
BD8N	N. guarroi	$\blacksquare$		٠							
BD9N	N. guarroi	$\blacksquare$	٠	٠							
BD <sub>10N</sub>	N. guarroi			÷							
BD11N	N. guarroi			÷							
BD12N	N. guarroi			÷							
			<b>Ventral Neck</b>								
BD1NC	Negative Control										
BD <sub>2NC</sub>	Negative Control										
BD <sub>8N</sub>	N. guarroi	÷		٠							
BD9N	N. guarroi	÷	÷	÷							
BD10N	N. guarroi	$\blacksquare$	-	$\ddot{}$							
BD11N	N. guarroi			٠							
BD12N	N. guarroi										
			<b>Dorsal Midbody</b>								
BD1NC	Negative Control										
BD <sub>2NC</sub>	Negative Control										
BD8N	N. guarroi			٠							
BD <sub>9N</sub>	N. guarroi		÷	-							
BD10N	N. guarroi	-		$\ddot{}$							
BD11N	N. guarroi										
BD12N	N. guarroi			÷							
Ventral Midbody*											
BD1NC	Negative Control										

**Table 1.** Clinical signs, histological, and re-isolation results of *Nannizziopsis guarroi*.

\*Inoculated site that was abraded before inoculation. (-) None observed. (+) Positive observation.

<b>Inoculated Sites</b>										
Animal ID	<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Snout</b>	<b>Dorsal Neck</b>	<b>Ventral Neck</b>	<b>Dorsal</b> <b>Midbody</b>	<b>Ventral</b> <b>Midbody</b>	<b>Ventral</b> <b>Hindleg</b>			
BD <sub>1</sub> NC	Negative Control				Chaetomium globosum	Kocuria sp.				
BD <sub>2</sub> NC	Negative Control									
BD <sub>8N</sub>	N. guarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Neosetophoma guiyangensis Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi				
BD <sub>9N</sub>	N. guarroi		Nannizziopsis quarroi			Nannizziopsis quarroi				
BD <sub>10</sub> N	N. guarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis guarroi	Nannizziopsis guarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi			
BD11N	N. guarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi		Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis guarroi			
BD <sub>12N</sub>	N. guarroi	Nannizzioppsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi		Nannizziopsis quarroi	Nannizziopsis guarroi	Nannizziopsis quarroi			

**Table 2.** *Simplified -* Cultured fungi and bacteria isolated from inoculated sites.

\*BD9N developed a lesion on its tail from which a culture was taken, resulting in a positive identification of *N. guarroi*. BD11N developed a lesion near the eye and a part was taken for culture and identified as *N. guarroi*. BD2NC had no microbes isolated from any site. Grey boxes indicate a location where no microbe was isolated. Refer to Gentry *et al.* 2021. Mycologia 113:1253-1263 for the non-simplified table.

**Chapter II** – A cross inoculation experiment reveals *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* and *Nannizziopsis guarroi* can each infect both snakes and lizards.

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### **Abstract**

Host range and specificity are key concepts in the study of infectious diseases. However, both concepts remain largely undefined for many influential pathogens, including many fungi within the *Onygenales* order. This order encompasses reptile-infecting genera (*Nannizziopsis, Ophidiomyces*, and *Paranannizziopsis*) formerly classified as the *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis viresii* (CANV). Reported hosts for many of these fungi represent a narrow range of phylogenetically related animals, suggesting many of these disease-causing fungi are host-specific, but the true number of species affected by these pathogens is unknown. For example, to date, *Nannizziopsis guarroi* (the causative agent of yellow fungus disease) and *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* (the causative agent of snake fungal disease) have only been documented in lizards and snakes, respectively. In a 52-day reciprocal infection experiment, we tested the ability of these two pathogens to infect currently unreported hosts, inoculating central bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*) with *O. ophiodiicola* and corn snakes (*Pantherophis guttatus*) with *N. guarroi*. We confirmed infection by documenting both clinical signs and histopathological evidence of fungal infection. Our reciprocity experiment resulted in 100% of corn snakes and 60% of bearded dragons developing infection with *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola*,
respectively, demonstrating that these fungal pathogens have a broader host range than previously thought, and that hosts with cryptic infections may play a role in pathogen translocation and transmission.

### **GENERAL AUDIENCE**

When it comes to understanding fungal pathogens responsible for wildlife diseases, it is important to understand the number of hosts one pathogen can infect. Snake fungal disease (SFD), caused by the fungus *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola*, and yellow fungus disease (YFD), caused by the fungus *Nannizziopsis guarroi*, affect snakes and lizards, respectively. The fungal infections of SFD and YFD can be fatal for wild and captive reptiles, and are known to be contagious. However, it is currently unknown whether either of these fungal pathogens can infect other reptile species. To test this, we conducted a cross infection experiment by inoculating groups of bearded dragons and groups of corn snakes with *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*. Our results confirmed that both fungal pathogens can infect both corn snakes and bearded dragons, which has significant implications toward conservation and preventing disease outbreaks. Our main concem with our findings is the likelihood that an increase in the spread of either disease has gone unnoticed for a decade, thus becoming even more difficult to manage.

**Keywords**: Snake Fungal Disease, Yellow Fungus Disease, Emerging Infectious Disease, Spillover, Host Specificity, *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii*, Mycoses

## **Introduction**

Host specificity is fundamental to understanding disease ecology and is often defined based on the ability of a pathogenic organism to infect singular or multiple host species (1). However, host specificity is more complex than its simple definition as it involves a continuum of susceptibilities among individuals within a host species and evolves with host-pathogen interactions (2-5). Furthermore, pathogens may infect reservoir or intermediate hosts without causing overt disease. As such, host specificity emerges as a concept existing on a spectrum; there are rarely clear delineations of susceptibility based on host taxonomy alone. Nevertheless, identifying the range of potential hosts a fungus can persist on or infect is central to understanding the epidemiology of many important mycoses, especially for emerging diseases such as chytridiomycosis in amphibians, snake fungal disease (SFD or ophidiomycosis), and white-nose syndrome in bats.

Fungi within the Onygenales order, formerly classified within the *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii* (CANV) complex, have been considered as generalist pathogens with a host range spanning multiple reptilian orders (Crocodilia [crocodilians], Rhynchocephalia [tuataras], Squamata [lizards and snakes]); CANV fungi have also been associated with opportunistic infections in humans (6-13). However, the former CANV fungi have since been separated into several genera (Ophidiomyces, Paranannizziopsis, Emydomyces, and Nannizziopsis) and multiple species (12, 14), leaving the host specificity of the newly described taxa ill-defined. Case reports of former CANV fungi demonstrate the complexity of host specificity; for example, N. crocodili has only been reported to infect crocodiles (12, 15); *N. barbatae*, *N. dermatitidis*, and *N. guarroi* are only known to infect lizards (9, 12); *O. ophiodiicola* has only been reported from snake hosts (12, 16, 17); and *N. hominis*, *N. infrequens*, and *N. obscura* have only been recovered from humans (9); *Paranannizziopsis* spp. have been recovered from multiple lizard,

snake, and tuatara species (18); *E. testavorans* has only been reported to infect freshwater aquatic turtles (19).

However, opportunistic reports of infected animals are unlikely to reveal the full host range of any pathogen, and two consequential fungal pathogens within the former CANV complex requiring further study with respect to host range are *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, responsible for two important emerging infectious diseases (EIDs) of reptiles, SFD, and yellow fungus disease (YFD), respectively (17, 20-24). The possibility of spillover from captive to wild populations exists for both SFD and YFD. Because spillover might negatively impact as-yet unreported wild hosts and allow these EIDs to further invade novel environments with unknown consequences, both pathogens are a concem for conservation (25, 26). Perhaps due to the underlying shared evolutionary history of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, SFD and YFD elicit a similar disease process in their hosts, which includes necrotizing dermatitis and, in severe cases, death of the host (17, 27, 28). Yet, despite infecting phylogenetically related host taxa, current observations suggest both *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* possess some level of host specificity, and each is reported from only snakes and lizards, respectively. Here we explore the host fidelity of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* in greater depth. Specifically, we conducted a 52-day challenge experiment inoculating groups of corn snakes (*Pantherophis guttatus*; a known host of *O. ophiodiicola*) and central bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*; a known host of *N. guarroi*) with both fungi to test the ability of these pathogens to infect "nontarget" host species; our experiment also fulfilled Koch's postulates by confirming *N. guarroi* as a primary pathogen of YFD in bearded dragons (23).

### *Animal Husbandry*

Our experimental protocols were approved by the University of Wisconsin Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC, #V006070IACUC). We conducted live animal experiments at the Charmany Instructional Facility in Madison, Wisconsin, United States. We acquired 12 four- to ten-year-old  $(310 g - 930 g)$  captive-bred corn snakes and 12 two- to three-month-old (27 g to 48 g) captive-bred bearded dragons from a local vendor. Each animal was housed individually in a plastic tub with a ventilated cover and water available ad libitum; shelter and (for bearded dragons) enrichment in the form of climbable sticks were also provided. We randomly placed ten corn snakes and ten bearded dragons into four groups, separated by host species and treatment. Each group was assigned one pathogen treatment (*O. ophiodiicola* or *N. guarroi*) and contained five animals of one of the two host species (corn snakes or bearded dragons); each group had a its own individual room. The remaining four animals (two corn snakes and two bearded dragons) were designated as negative controls. We also grouped the negative controls by species and put the two groups into two separate rooms. In each room, temperatures were kept within an optimal range for fungi and a tolerable range for the animals; animals treated with *O. ophiodiicola* were maintained at  $24^{\circ}$  C –  $27^{\circ}$  C and animals treated with *N. guarroi* were maintained at 30°C – 35°C. No heat gradient was provided within the enclosures because of the relatively short (52 days) duration of our experiment. For corn snakes, humidity was kept within 40 – 50% and within 30 – 40% for bearded dragons; all rooms were set on a 12h light/dark cycle. All corn snakes were fed two adult mice per week, and bearded dragons were fed daily, alternating between fresh greens (e.g. collard greens, cabbage, etc.) and superworms (*Zophobas morio*). The research veterinary staff conducted initial physical and wellness checks of each animal and determined all were physically healthy with no visible pre-existing conditions. We screened every animal for *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* prior to the challenge study by swabbing the dorsal and ventral skin from snout to tail tip (23). Swabs were screened for the presence of *O. ophiodiicola* using real-time PCR (29). We also streaked all swabs onto dermatophyte test media (DTM) plates and incubated at  $24\degree C$  for 20 days to screen for *N. guarroi*; there is currently no specific real-time PCR assay published for this organism. All animals were found to be free of both *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola*. We also tracked the behavior, body condition, ecdysis (shedding skin), and, after inoculation, infection progression, for each individual daily until the completion of the challenge experiment.

## *Inoculation and Re-inoculation*

As inoculants, we used pure cultures of *O. ophiodiicola* (ATCC MYA-4974) isolated from a wild caught water snake (*Nerodia sipedon*) infected with SFD, and *N. guarroi* (UAMH-10352) isolated from a domestic bearded dragon infected with YFD; cultures were from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC), Manassas, Virginia and the University of Alberta Microfungus Collection and Herbarium (UAMH), Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, respectively. Cultures were grown from single isolated colonies on Sabouraud's dextrose agar (SDA) at  $24\degree$ C for 20 days. We prepared conidial suspensions from the cultures using phosphate-buffered saline with 0.5% Tween 20 solution (PBST)(17). Animals were inoculated with 168,500 or 325,580 conidia per inoculation site for *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, respectively. To facilitate infection and mimic the skin abrasions reptiles incur in nature, we gently abraded a 1  $\text{cm}^2$  area of skin at three or four sites, depending on the species, on each animal using sterile sandpaper, as has been

done in previous studies (14, 17, 23). We abraded the skin of corn snakes on the snout, dorsal neck, and ventral midbody; two additional sites to be inoculated (dorsal midbody and ventral neck) were left unabraded. The procedure for abrading the skin and inoculating bearded dragons is described in Gentry *et al.* (2021) (23). We inoculated the corn snakes with 2 µl of the designated spore suspension at each site and bearded dragons were inoculated with 4 µl of the spore suspension at each site; the difference in total volume applied between host species accommodates for differences in skin textures of the two species (snake skin does not retain water as easily as the skin of bearded dragons). Collectively, we inoculated the corn snake treatment groups at 25 sites and the bearded dragon treatment groups at 30 sites; we abraded 15 sites on corn snakes and abraded 20 sites on bearded dragons. We used the same protocol to abrade each negative control and inoculated the animals with a sham inoculant consisting of a sterile saline solution (17). We re-inoculated treated corn snakes with the same conidial concentration used in the first round of inoculation if ecdysis occurred before the completion of the experiment because ecdysis has been shown to clear infection in some cases (17). Three corn snakes within the *N. guarroi* treatment group and three within the *O. ophiodiicola* treatment group were re-inoculated 23 days after initial inoculation; we did not re-inoculate any bearded dragons.

## *Euthanasia and Necropsy*

We euthanized any animal that developed lesions exceeding 1 cm in diameter or displayed a rapid decline in body condition; the remaining animals were euthanized on the final day (day 52) of the experiment. Prior to euthanasia, we anesthetized each animal in an induction chamber using isoflurane gas, and then we injected animals

intracoelomically with a fatal dosage of pentobarbital, with each dosage adjusted to accommodate animal body size. We used decapitation as a secondary method of euthanasia. The euthanasia chamber was disinfected between animals to prevent crosscontamination. At necropsy, we removed skin samples from each inoculated and shaminoculated site. We divided the skin samples for use in both histopathological analyses and for fungal isolation. Samples were taken from each inoculated site, even if a site presented no visible gross lesions. In addition, we removed skin from areas that developed lesions at non-inoculated sites. Inoculated skin, viscera (including heart, lung, kidney, spleen, pancreas, esophagus, stomach, and small and large intestines), decapitated heads and (for bearded dragons) entire inoculated legs were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin. After fixation, heads and legs were decalcified in saturated ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) solution. Tissues for histopathology were trimmed, embedded in paraffin, sectioned, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) or periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) methods depending on tissue type: internal organs were stained with H&E and skin samples were stained with PAS. Sections were assessed for microscopic lesions of infection, including fungal elements (hyphae and/or conidia), by a board-certified veterinary pathologist.

### *Fungal Culture Analyses*

We cultured inoculated and sham-inoculated skin samples on DTM at  $30^{\circ}$ C for 20 days. Fungal or bacterial colonies from the skin samples were isolated and subcultured on SDA. To extract fungal DNA from each subculture, we took a 0.5 cm diameter plug of fungal biomass from the subculture using a sterile scalpel and put in a two ml screw-cap tube with three mm diameter glass beads; we macerated the fungal material using a minibeadbeater (Product number: 112011, BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, Oklahoma, United States). We combined the macerated material with 600 µl of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) buffer and incubated the samples at 65°C for one hour. We then added 600 µl of chloroform isoamyl alcohol to each tube, mixed it with the CTAB, and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for ten min. We placed the supernatants into new, sterile 2 ml Eppendorf tubes and added 600 µl chloroform isoamyl alcohol to each tube, gently rocking the tubes on a tipping tray for 10 min. We centrifuged the tubes a second time and added ice-cold 96% EtOH at 2x the total sample volume to wash the extracted DNA. We washed each DNA pellet twice and then dried the pellets in a DNA SpeedVac system for 30 min before re-dissolving the DNA in 400 µl of Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer; extracted DNA was stored at -  $20^{\circ}$  C to be used for downstream PCR. We used the Qiagen DNEasy Powersoil kit (Germantown, Maryland) to extract bacterial DNA, following the manufacturer's protocol.

We conducted PCR for Sanger sequencing on all extracted DNA. For fungi, we amplified the ITS region using primers, ITS1-F and ITS4 (30), EconoTaq Plus 2X Master Mix, and distilled water. PCR reactions used the following cycling conditions: 2 min at 95 $\circ$ C; 30 cycles of: 15 s at 95 $\circ$  C, 15 s at 49 $\circ$  C, 1 min at 68 $\circ$  C; and 5 min at 68 $\circ$  C. For bacteria, we amplified the 16S ribosomal region using primers rp2 and fD1 (31) and PCR reactions used the following parameters: 5 min at  $95^{\circ}$ C; 25 cycles of: 1 min at  $94^{\circ}$ C, 1 min at 59 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ , 2 min at 72 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ ; and 5 min at 72 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ . We submitted the ITS and 16S amplicons to a third-party vendor (Functional Biosciences Madison, Wisconsin) for Sanger sequencing using the primers in one direction, receiving the ab1 files and then visually inspecting and trimming the chromatographs in Chromas to verify the quality of each of our samples. To determine the species of fungi and bacteria we cultured, we used BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool)(32) to compare our sequences with sequences stored in GenBank (33). Subsequently, we deposited the sequences of the additionally isolated microbes into GenBank (accession nos. OP798776, OP798777, OP798778, OP798779, OP798780, OP801847, and OP801848). Because the re-isolation of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* were identical to the strains in our inoculation step, we did not deposit the duplicate sequences (ATCC MYA-4974 and UAMH-10352) in GenBank as they already exist.

### *Histopathological Analyses and Infection Status*

We evaluated each inoculated and sham-inoculated site for gross signs of infection (e.g., swelling, discoloration of the skin), and for histopathological evidence of infection by identifying the presence of fungal elements (e.g., hyphae, conidia) with an associated tissue response such as inflammation or necrosis, indicative with SFD and YFD diagnostics (15, 34). We considered an animal infected if it developed clinical signs or histopathological evidence of fungal infection at any inoculated site.

## **Results**

None of the negative controls developed clinical signs or histopathological evidence of infection at any of the abraded or non-abraded sites; neither *O. ophiodiicola* nor *N. guarroi* were cultured from any negative control animal.

*Corn Snakes infected with* Nannizziopsis guarroi.

All corn snakes inoculated with *N. guarroi* expressed clinical signs of infection and had histopathological evidence of infection, resulting in a 100% infection prevalence. Clinical signs of infection across the treatment animals were restricted to mild swelling around the snout (FIG 1), first appearing nine days after inoculation. Despite the lack of obvious clinical signs at other sites of inoculation, there was histopathological evidence of infection in the form of associated fungal elements within tissues across multiple inoculation sites (Table 1). Microscopic lesions were characterized by superficial epidermal necrosisandmild granulocytic tolymphoplasmacytic dermatitis with occasional intra-epidermal fungal hyphae but no observed conidia. One corn snake (CS12N) lacked intralesional hyphae or conidia but did have a small area of epidermal necrosis and inflammation on the dorsal skin of the head, an abraded site.

Of the abraded inoculation sites, 33% of sites across all inoculated corn snakes demonstrated clinical signs of infection (all on the snout) and 26% presented histopathological evidence of infection. Although there were no clinical signs of infection at any of the non-abraded sites, 30% of the non-abraded sites presented histopathological evidence of infection. Based on our histopathological examination, infections were superficial and limited to the skin; there was no evidence that fungal invasion extended into the viscera. We re-isolated *N. guarroi* from 32% of the cultured skin samples irrespective of the presence of clinical or histopathological signs of infection (Table 1). Sequencing of DNA confirmed that each isolate of *N. guarroi* had an identical ITS sequence to the initial strain used for inoculation.

### *Corn Snakes infected with* Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola

All corn snakes inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* expressed clinical signs and histopathological evidence of infection typical of SFD (FIG 1; FIG 3) (17), resulting in a 100% infection prevalence; clinical signs of swelling and scale discoloration first appeared nine days after inoculation. All corn snakes developed microscopic cutaneous fungal lesions with mild to moderate necrosis and granulocytic inflammation of the superficial epidermis and intralesional fungal hyphae. The underlying dermis exhibited mild granulocytic to lymphoplasmacytic inflammation; conidia were variably present on the skin surface. Many snakes were in the process of ecdysis; in these instances, lesions were confined to the layers of epidermis being shed, and the new underlying epidermis was microscopically unremarkable. Although each snake inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* had at least two inoculated sites exhibit evidence of infection, not all of the 25 inoculated sites across the five corn snakes showed evidence of being infected (Table 1). Of the abraded inoculation sites, 66% demonstrated clinical signs of infection and 96% demonstrated histopathological evidence of infection; no clinical or histopathological signs of infection were seen at the non-abraded sites. Based on histopathological examination, there was no evidence of infection in the viscera. We re-isolated *O. ophiodiicola* from 84% of the inoculated skin samples taken at the time of necropsy, and growth occurred irrespective of the presence of clinical or histopathological signs of infection (Table 1). Sequencing of DNA confirmed that each isolate of *O. ophiodiicola* had an identical ITS sequence to the initial strain used for inoculation.

## *Bearded Dragons infected with* Nannizziopsis guarroi

Results of the experiment in which bearded dragons were challenged with *N. guarro*i have been previously published (23). Briefly, all bearded dragons inoculated with *N. guarroi* developed clinical signs or histopathological evidence of infection, resulting in 100% incidence of infection. We euthanized one bearded dragon (BD11N) 22 days after our initial inoculation due to rapidly deteriorating body condition (23). Clinical signs first appeared 10 days after inoculation. All microscopic skin lesions were consistent with

those previously reported for YFD (FIG 2; FIG 3)(8, 35, 36), and detailed descriptions of clinical signs and histopathological lesions can be found in Gentry *et al.* (2021)(23). Of the abraded sites, 35% exhibited clinical signs of infection and histopathological evidence of infection. For non-abraded sites, 30% exhibited clinical signs and 20% contained histopathological evidence of infection. Infection did not extend into the viscera, although fungal invasion was noted deep into the dermis and underlying skeletal muscle. We reisolated *N. guarroi* from 80% of the inoculated sites collected at the time of necropsy, and growth occurred irrespective of whether the inoculated site exhibited clinical signs or histopathological evidence of infection. Sequencing of DNA confirmed that each isolate of *N. guarroi* had an identical ITS sequence to the initial strain used for inoculation.

## *Bearded Dragons infected with* Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola

Sixty percent of bearded dragons inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* became infected, with 6% of sites exhibiting clinical signs of infection and 60% having histopathological evidence of infection. A single bearded dragon (BD3O) developed clinical signs of infection; these gross lesions occurred on the snout and dorsal neck skin (both abraded inoculation sites). The lesions appeared 20 days after inoculation and initially presented as mild swelling and a white discoloration of skin, progressing to brown discoloration and crusting of the skin (FIG 2). In two bearded dragons, histopathologic lesions were characterized by full-thickness epidermal necrosis and marked lymphoplasmacytic to histiocytic inflammation within the dermis. Early granulomas surrounding the fungal hyphae extended from the epidermis deep into the dermis. Conidia were present on the surface of the skin. In the third lizard that developed infection, similar dermal lesions were present, but epidermal necrosis was not observed, potentially due to the affected epidermis being outside the portion of the sectioned skin. Despite the absence of clinical signs among four of the five bearded dragons, 25% of the abraded sites exhibited histopathological evidence of infection. Infections were histopathologically confirmed in 30% of the non-abraded sites. Based on histopathological examination, infection did not extend into the viscera. We re-isolated *O. ophiodiicola* from 76% of the inoculated skin samples collected at the time of necropsy and growth occurred irrespective of whether clinical signs or histopathological evidence of infection were observed within the samples. Sequencing of DNA confirmed that each isolate of *O. ophiodiicola* had an identical ITS sequence to the initial strain used for inoculation.

In addition to *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, other fungi were isolated from some inoculated skin samples, including *Neosetophoma guiyangensis*, *Kocuria sp*., *Chaetomium globosum*, *Purpureocillium lilacinum*, *Defltia sp*., *Achromobacter sp*., *Penicillium steckii*, *P. brevicompactum*, *Aspergillus terreus*, and *Beauveria bassiana* (STable 1; STable 2). These microbes were likely environmental contaminants.

### **Discussion**

The results of our cross-inoculation experiment demonstrate *O. ophiodiicola* (previously understood as host specific to snakes) and *N. guarroi* (previously understood as host specific to lizards) infect a wider variety of hosts than previously suspected, and both may be better classified as host generalists – pathogens able to infect a diverse range of animals. Using a combination of gross examination, histopathologic analyses, and re-isolation of the pathogens, we confirmed that *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* can each cause disease in both lizard and snake species. Clinical signs of infection in corn snakes inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* and in bearded dragons inoculated with *N. guarroi* (both "typical" hosts for the respective pathogens) followed the expected progression of disease detailed in the literature (9, 17, 21, 22, 27, 35, 36).

When animals were challenged with the pathogen known to infect them, 100% of the inoculated individuals developed clinical and/or histopathological signs of infection. However, when challenged with the pathogen not previously known to infect that host species, clinical signs of infection across the inoculated sites were more variable despite the histopathology confirming 100% infection prevalence in some treatment groups. Specifically, each of the five corn snakes challenged with *N. guarroi* developed infections while three of the five bearded dragons challenged with *O. ophiodiicola* exhibited clinical or histopathologic evidence of infection. Whether the lack of disease in the remaining two bearded dragons challenged with *O. ophiodiicola* was caused by a failure to establish (or ability to recover from) infection, or sampling technique, is unclear. Discrepancies between the presence of clinical signs, histopathologic findings, and re-isolation of the pathogen from the same skin lesion have been previously reported (23). The variation we observed across the animals may be explained by the relatively small sizes of some lesions, which made it difficult to divide samples and ensure a portion of the lesion was analyzed by culture and histopathology. Also, many of the inoculation sites on bearded dragons infected with *O. ophiodiicola* did not exhibit gross lesions, making it difficult to pinpoint the exact regions where fungal infection may have occurred. Infections in snakes caused by *O. ophiodiicola* were primarily seen at inoculation sites where skin had been lightly abraded to facilitate entry of the conidia into the skin (Table 1). By contrast, *N. guarroi* appeared capable of initiating infections in snakes at inoculation sites at which the stratum corneum was intact; this was also the case for bearded dragons infected with *O.* 

*ophiodiicola* (Table 1). These findings indicate the possible differences in the infection mechanisms between *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* and indicate that *O. ophiodiicola* may act differently in entirely new hosts (e.g., indicating different fungal roles between a primary and secondary pathogen).

Aside from the experimentally induced infections, the snakes and lizards appeared healthy throughout the experiment, suggesting that the ability to cross-infect the animals was not due to poor husbandry or other factors potentially affecting underlying host health. While a few other fungi and bacteria were isolated from the skin lesions of our animals, they represent common environmental flora (37-40). Some of these fungi (e.g., *B. bassiana* and *P. lilacinum*) have been previously reported from skin lesions in reptiles with *O. ophiodiicola* or *N. guarroi* infections and from healthy skin (17), suggesting they are likely commensals, "hitchhikers", or secondary invaders.

While *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* were able to infect both snakes and lizards, disease presentation differed by host species and pathogen. As expected, previously identified hosts of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* developed obvious gross lesions. However, infection by *O. ophiodiicola* or *N. guarroi* on newly identified hosts manifested more subtly (Table 1). Corn snakes infected with *N. guarroi* displayed little to no recognizable clinical signs of infection apart from slight swelling of the snout where minor distortions were easy to observe (FIG 1). In bearded dragons, only one individual challenged with *O. ophiodiicola* developed clinical signs of disease with lesions similar to, but more subtle than, lesions typically seen in SFD (FIG 2). Yet, infection was confirmed through histopathology in many inoculated sites lacking clinical signs, and the respective pathogens were re-isolated in culture from the grossly normal skin. Cryptic infections on certain taxa may explain why *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* were previously believed to be host specific and highlights the bias inherent in describing the host range of a pathogen from information compiled primarily through case reports in which animals exhibit clinical disease. Our results also highlight the variation in infection that exists within a single host species. For example, although each corn snake and bearded dragon inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, respectively, showed signs of infection (clinical and/or histopathological) in at least one inoculated site, the proportion of inoculated sites that developed lesions varied among individual animals. The ability of snakes to harbor *O. ophiodiicola* in the absence of clinical signs of infection is supported by previous studies screening for the pathogen (10, 41), but such work has not been extended to other reptile taxa, *N. guarroi* or other fungi formerly classified as CANV.

Recovery of viable O. ophiodiicola and N. guarroi from inoculated skin generally occurred at a higher frequency than either the appearance of clinical signs or histopathologic evidence of infection. Although the caveats described above may explain at least some of these discrepancies, it is also possible that these fungi are capable of persisting for long periods of time (i.e. >50 days) on the host in the absence of infection. The ability for these fungi to infect or persist on a broad range of hosts has significant implications with respect to disease ecology, pathogen screening, and translocation, especially in light of the recent finding that O. ophiodiicola likely spilled over into wild snake populations in North America from captive reptile collections (42). Specifically, these pathogens may be capable of "hitch-hiking" on hosts not exhibiting signs of infection and persist beyond typical quarantine periods for animals. An expanded host range also emphasizes the concern for disease spillover from captive into wild populations; if either pathogen escapes into new environments, it may put naïve hosts at risk.

Our challenge experiment lasted 52 days and, had we continued the experiment, we do not know if the infections in the newly identified hosts would have resolved or progressed to greater severity. Our observations of milder disease presentation in lizards and snakes infected by *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, respectively, cannot be interpreted as either host being more resistant or tolerant to the effects of the pathogens. Nonetheless, it is possible that the cryptic infections we observed are the result of a deep coevolutionary history between these fungi and their hosts. Specifically, *O. ophiodiicola* may have evolved with lizard hosts and *N. guarroi* with snake hosts. Many fungal pathogens do not cause significant disease in the host species they evolved with (e.g. Batrachochytrium in Asian amphibian species [43, 44]; *Pseudogymnoascus destructans* in Eurasian bat populations [45]). Future efforts to better elucidate the natural geographic distribution of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi*, and determine preferred hosts within their native ranges, may enable better predictions of which reptile populations are at the greatest risk of developing severe disease should spillover occur.

Host specificity is a widely accepted concept, but it is not as simplistic as host susceptibility or resistance. Instead, host specificity functions on a continuum influenced by a range of variables shaped by the host, pathogen, environment, and their interactions. Phylogenetic specificity, a measure proposed by Poulin *et al.* (2011) (3), uses host species to distinguish between related pathogens. The shared evolutionary history of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* (reflected in their previous classification as a single taxon) was the reason we chose to compare the ability of these fungi to infect reciprocal,

previously undocumented hosts. Lizards and snakes are also phylogenetically related (they are both in the order Squamata) and the abilities of *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* to infect both host classes are not overly surprising (46). However, additional work is necessary to explore the full range of hosts that *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* (and other former CANV fungi) can infect, as well as how factors not accounted for in our study (e.g., host behavior, pathogen exposure, pathogen physiology) influence the likelihood of a host becoming infected in nature.

In summary, our results establish both *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* as having a more generalized host range than previously thought. However, the clinical and histopathological signs of disease are expressed differently depending on which host the pathogen is infecting. Cryptic infections in a variety of host species may also be caused by other fungi formerly classified as part of the CANV complex. Thus, our findings emphasize a potential need to alter the screening approaches for these pathogens, opting to broaden surveillance efforts to include a greater diversity of fungi and hosts. The probability of spillover of former CANV fungi into additional naïve hosts, either across captive populations or from captive to wild populations, is a major concern. Reptile populations are experiencing worldwide declines and many species are in danger of extinction (47, 48). Additional research is needed to more holistically understand how fungal pathogens are affecting reptile populations so that conservation strategies can be developed to protect sensitive populations from the emerging threat of fungal diseases.

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# **FIGURES & TABLES**



**Figure 1**. Comparison of clinical signs of *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* and *Nannizziopsis guarroi* infection in corn snakes. A. Corn snake infected with *O. ophiodiicola*. Note the severe swelling and thickening of skin on the snout (white arrows indicate the extent of the swelling). B. Corn snake infected with *N. guarroi*. Note the mild swelling and lack of apparent scale thickening (white star). C. Negative control corn snake with no swelling, thickening, or lesions.



**Figure 2.** Clinical signs of disease on bearded dragons infected with *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola*. A and B. One bearded dragon inoculated with *N. guarroi* with clinical signs 20 days after inoculation (A) and 35 days after inoculation (B). C and D. One bearded dragon inoculated with *O. ophiodiicola* with clinical signs 20 days (C) and 41 days (D) after inoculation. Black solid arrows indicate areas of infection at abraded inoculated sites, black dashed arrows indicate areas of infection at non-abraded sites, and white stars indicates areas of swelling.



**Figure 3.** Photomicrographs of corn snakes (*Pantherophis guttatus*) and central bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*) infected with *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola* or *Nannizziopsis guarroi*. A. Skin from the neck of a corn snake negative control. A thin epidermis (arrow) overlies a sparsely cellular

dermis (asterisk) and deep muscular layer (diamond). Hematoxylin and eosin stain. B. Skin from the neck of a bearded dragon negative control. There is a thick stratum corneum (arrow), thin epidermis, sparsely cellular dermis (asterisk), and deep muscular layer (diamond). Hematoxylin and eosin stain. C. Skin from the head of a corn snake infected with *O. ophiodiicola*. The superficial epidermis is expanded by necrotic material (arrow) and the epidermis and dermis contain many granulocytic inflammatory cells (arrowheads). Periodic acid-Schiff stain. D. Detail of 2C, skin from the head of a corn snake infected with *O. ophiodiicola*. Many periodic acid-Schiffpositive fungal hyphae (arrows) and superficial conidia (arrowhead) are within the area of epidermal necrosis. Periodic acid-Schiff stain. E. Skin from the neck of a bearded dragon infected with *O. ophiodiicola*. There is a large area of epidermal necrosis (asterisk). The dermis is expanded by abundant lymphoplasmacytic to histiocytic inflammatory cells (arrows) and contains few fungal hyphae (arrowhead). Periodic acid-Schiff stain. F. Detail of 2E, skin from the neck of a bearded dragon infected with *O. ophiodiicola*. The epidermis contains many fungal hyphae. There is a large cluster of conidia in the superficial epidermis (arrowhead) which underlies an area of discontinuity in the stratum corneum (arrow). Periodic acid-Schiff stain. G. Skin from the head of a corn snake infected with *N. guarroi*. There is necrosis of the superficial epidermis (arrows). Inset: Detail of G. An area of epidermal necrosis underlies an area of discontinuity in the stratum corneum and contains low numbers of fungal hyphae (arrowhead). Periodic acid-Schiff stain. H. Skin from the mid-body of a bearded dragon infected with *N. guarroi*. The dermis is expanded by clear space (edema) and contains many fungal hyphae (arrows). There are conidia in the superficial epidermis within the crypt of a scale (arrowhead).

**Table 1.** Average percentages among inoculated sites (5 for corn snakes and 6 for bearded dragons per individual) that developed gross lesions of infection, histopathology consistent with infection, and from which the respective fungal pathogen was re-isolated.



\* BD9N developed a gross lesion on its tail, a location we did not inoculate. Colors of marked prevalence: 0-20% blue, 21-39% green, 40-60% orange, 61-80% red, 81-100% dark red.

**Chapter III** – Genome Assembly of *Nannizziopsis guarroi* and early-stage protein blasts of CANV-related fungi.

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### **Abstract**

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* is a keratinophilic fungal pathogen of the Onygenales order and the primary agent of yellow fungus disease, reported in bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*) and green iguana (*Igunana iguana*). With the surge in disease incidence in wild populations by other *Nannizziopsis* species, emphasizing concerns of disease spillover, we sequenced and assembled the genome of *N. guarroi.* Because of the pervasiveness of *N. guarroi* and other fungi once a part of the *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii* (CANV) complex, we additionally compared the absence and presence of specialized proteins associated with keratin degradation and pathogenicity. Our findings indicate differences in potential pathogenicity factors in *N. guarroi* compared to related fungi that may inform its virulence.

### **General Audience**

*Nannizziopsis guarroi* is a fungal pathogen responsible for yellow fungus disease (YFD), a fatal skin infection in lizards. Because of the increasing spread of YFD from captive to wild lizard populations, we sequenced and assembled the genome of *N. guarroi.* Additionally, we compared the absence and presence of specialized proteins associated

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with disease between *N. guarroi* to other fungi it shares an evolutionary history. Our findings lay the foundation for understanding the pathogenicity of *N. guarroi.*

### **Introduction**

Historically, pathogenicity has been an ill-defined concept used across a multitude of disciplines (microbiology, epidemiology, medicine, etc.). It is often used as a synonym for virulence, further confusing attempts to understand how a pathogen, or diseasecausing agent, infects and spreads disease within individuals, species, or across multiple species (Anderson & May 1982; Casadevall & Pirofski 1999; 2001; Thomas & Elkinton 2004). Despite the centuries long debate, in fields as diverse as ecology, physiology, and genetics, conceptualization of pathogenicity has always been intimately tied to investigating a pathogen's ability to incite infection. Here, we explicitly maintain that although pathogenicity and virulence are unavoidably linked, they are not synonymous, aligning with previous definitions attempting to maintain their separation (Blair 1965; Barr 1979; Tanada & Kaya 1993). We define pathogenicity as the inherent mechanisms, or molecular toolkit, a microbe possesses that can allow for infection, regardless of disease severity (virulence) or rate of infection.

With the advent of high throughput sequencing, pathogenicity factors (often secreted enzymes associated with the infection process) could finally be identified through the power of genomics and transcriptomics. However, in order to truly understand if putative, or potential, pathogenicity factors not only exist but are activated during an infection event, a series of requirements need to be met: 1) having a sequenced genome and transcriptome of the pathogen, 2) conducting gene knockouts to create a mutant, and 3) a re-inoculation of the mutated pathogen into the target host to determine if infection

establishes or not. Undeniably, just one of the steps requires a lot of time and resources further emphasizing the difficulty in quantifying pathogenicity at all.

To further complicate the meeting of these requirements, for the fungal kingdom, our ability to identify pathogenicity factors of fungal pathogens, particularly those responsible for emerging infectious diseases (EIDs), is limited by our understanding of fungal physiology and publicly available genomes. Currently, the estimation of fungal diversity remains uncertain at a conservative 3.8 million species, a modest 5.1 million species, or a projected ten million species or more (Hawksworth & Lücking 2016; Blackwell et al. 2018; Locey & Lennon 2016). No matter the true number, it is certain that only around 120,000 fungal species are currently described, leaving roughly 90% of fungi undiscovered (Hawksworth & Lücking 2016; Tripp et al. 2017). Despite the breadth of this diverse kingdom, the uncertainty around biodiversity makes it difficult to gain a holistic perspective of a fungal pathogen, requiring onerous preliminary work to understanding even the basic physiology of a fungus, especially in the context of wildlife disease.

For the last two decades, wildlife has seen an increase in EIDs caused by fungal pathogens (Baker et al. 2022; Stephen et al. 2022; Cardoso et al. 2022). Chytridiomycosis (caused by *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* and *B. salamandrivorans*), white nose syndrome (caused by *Pseudogymnoascus destructans*), and snake fungal disease (SFD; caused by *O. ophiodiicola*), are all significant diseases devastating animal populations. Additionally, *Nannizziopsis guarroi,* the causative agent of a necrotic and infectious skin disease (yellow fungus disease (YFD)), in green iguanas (*Iguana iguana*) and bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*; Abarca et al. 2008; Gentry et al. 2021) is on the precipice of becoming a recognized EID. Despite the recognition of this disease in case reports since

the 1990s, only now has research started to focus on *N. guarroi* and other *Nannizziopsis* species from a conservation perspective. An EID can be defined as a newly appearing or existing infectious disease rapidly increasing in incidence in a population or rapidly expanding its geographic range (Ndow et al. 2019). By that definition, *N. guarroi* is considered an EID, especially bearing in mind its evolutionary history within the *Chrysosporium* anamorph of *Nannizziopsis vriesii* (CANV) complex, the isolation of the fungus from reptiles around the globe, and the recent finding of a more generalized host range that includes snakes (Sigler et al. 2013; Gentry et al. 2021; Gentry et al. 2023 *in review*).

In Gentry *et al.* (2021) and Gentry *et al.*(2023), we focused on ecological questions regarding the physiology and host specificity of *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola* and found evidence of a more generalized host range for both pathogens than was previously suspected. However, a distinction between abraded skin and non-abraded skin emerged from the histopathological evidence of infection by *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola*. While *O. ophiodiicola* required a breakage in the outermost epidermal layer of its host for infection to establish, regardless of the animal species being infected, *N. guarroi* did not. Whether in bearded dragons or corn snakes, *N. guarroi* was able to establish infection without needing any breakage in the skin and could maintain infection even when the animals shed. Such a distinction could hypothesize that different pathogenicity factors are at play between the two fungi and suggests*N. guarroi* has the potential to cause systemic infection in a greater number of naive hosts because of its ability to bypass a host's first line of defense, its skin.

Like *O. ophiodiicola* and other Nannizziopsis species, *N. guarroi* has been described as a keratinophilic fungus (a keratin degrader; Cabañes et al. 2014). Although many fungi can break down keratin to a degree, complete degradation of keratin requires a specialized suite of endo- and exoproteases. Keratin is one of the most stable and difficult compounds to degrade in the environment. We aimed to investigate step 1) of the requirements needed to identify the pathogenicity factors of *N. guarroi* by conducting whole genome sequencing of *N. guarroi* and identifying putative genes involved in keratin degradation. Using a bioinformatic pipeline to assemble and annotate the genome of *N. guarroi*, we investigate the presence and absence of enzymatic families known to be involved with keratin degradation and compare the enzyme presence across other fungal pathogen genome assemblies. We are already witnessing the effects of disease spillover from captive to wild populations, specifically involving diseases caused by other Nannizziopsis species like *N. barbatae* (Peterson *et al.* 2020). That *N. guarroi* may have some advantage in its pathogenicity compared to *O. ophiodiicola*, and potentially other CANV genera, further highlights its future as an EID and raises significant concerns about disease spread and spillover into non-target hosts.

#### **Methods**

## *DNA extraction of* N. guarroi

Cultures of *N. guarroi* were grown in glucose minimum media (GMM) with 5 g/L of yeast extract and incubated at 25°C for three days. Mycelia was put into Eppendorf tubes and dried via liquid nitrogen and overnight lyophilization. The dried mycelia were ground into a fine powder, 700 µl of LETS buffer (20 mM EDTA (pH 8), 0.5% SDS, 10 mM Tris-HCL (pH 8), 0.1 M LiCl) was added, and we mixed by inversion, letting the samples settle for five minutes at room temperature. We added 700 µl of Phenol:CHCI3:Isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1), mixed by inversion, and let the samples sit for 5 minutes at room temperature. We used a microcentrifuge to spin the samples for 10 minutes at  $4\degree C$  on maximum speed. We transferred the supernatants to new tubes and added 1 ml of 95% EtOH, gently mixed, and centrifuged the DNA pellets for 10 minutes at  $4\degree$ C. We removed the supernatant, washed the DNA pellets with 70% EtOH, and centrifuged for 2 minutes at room temperature. We discarded the supernatant and dried the pellets at room temperature for 5 minutes. After, we resuspended the pellets with 50 µl 10 mM Tris buffer (pH 8) and added 2 µl RNase (10 mg/ml stock). We used heat inactivation of DNase and RNA digestion at  $65^{\circ}$ C for 30 minutes.

### *De Novo Genome assembly of* N. guarroi

The DNA extracts were submitted to the Biotechnology Center at the University of Wisconsin—Madison for library preparation for Illumina (MiSeq) short reads platform with 250 bp paired-end reads and, additionally, for PacBio long reads platform. We used the Center for High Throughput Computing (CHTC) at the University of Wisconsin—Madison to assemble the genome of *N. guarroi* using the PacBio long reads, and we used the Illumina short reads for genome estimation via kmer analysis. We used Flye to assemble the PacBio reads, followed by assessing genome completeness using Busco, and genome annotation by Augustus (Fig. 1).

## *Protein BLAST*

Using documented keratinases, specialized enzymes that degrade keratin, within the serine and metalloprotease enzymatic families, we identified the presence and absence of these enzymes across the assembled genomes of multiple CANV-related species; *N.*  *guarroi*, *N. barbatae* (PRJNA662660)*, N. arthrosporioides* (PRJNA843904)*,* and *O. ophiodiicola* (MWKM00000000) (Qiu *et al.* 2020; 2022; Stchigel *et al.* 2013; Sigler *et al.* 2013; Ohkura *et al.* 2017). Our comparison across the different fungi used the MEROPS database to choose specific keratinases identified from the literature as being involved in keratin degradation, S1, S8, S9, S10, S16, M3, M4, M14, M16, M28, M36, M38, and M55 (Table 2). Because some of the keratinase proteins denoted in the MEROPS database were often first isolated from bacteria, when it was available, we used homologs of those proteins identified in fungal species. Except for *N. guarroi*, the other publicly available assembled genomes were used from NCBI. Additionally, we investigated and compared the signal peptides and transmembrane proteins between *O. ophiodiicola* and *N. guarroi* using DeepTMHMM (STable 1).

### **Results**

## *De Novo Genome assembly of* N. guarroi

The de novo PacBio assembly created using Flye produced a high-quality assembly with a Busco completeness score of 99.4% (Table 1). With the Illumina reads used for kmer analysis, the genome was estimated to be toward 39.8 Mbp; we deposited the genome into the NCBI database (PRJNA1003134).

## *Protein BLAST and DeepTMHMM*

Between the four fungal species, *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola* had all 13 serine and metalloproteases family proteins putatively appear in their assemblies while N. *arthrosporioides* and *N. barbatae* had 12 out of 13; chymotrypsin was absent from *N. arthrosporioides* and *N. barbatae*. Of the 13 proteins of interest, nine had an e-value of <0.05 and a percent identity over 60%, our chosen cut-off (Table 3); within the significant

nine, metalloproteases were the majority. Resulting from the DeepTMHMM interface, 1568 signal peptides between *N. guarroi* and *O. ophiodiicola* were identified either as transmembrane proteins (totaling to 1182) or as secreted proteins (totaling to 386; Fig. 3). Within our assembled *N. guarroi,* 1123 signal peptides were identified and split into 884 secreted proteins and 239 transmembrane proteins. Comparatively, within the 2015 Ohkura *et al.* assembled genome of *O. ophiodiicola,* 445 identified signal proteins split into 298 secreted proteins and 147 transmembrane proteins.

#### **Discussion**

Proteolytic activity has been investigated and implicated as being involved with pathogenicity for decades. Much of the research into genes behind the suite of endoproteases and exoproteases often used by pathogens have largely been within bacteria like *Bacillus subtilis* and other Bacillus species leaving a sizeable knowledge gap in fungi(Williams *et al.* 1990). However, within recent years many studies have dived into the secretomes of various fungal pathogens to identify specialized enzymes necessary for pathogenicity.

Our first steps into finding keratinases within CANV-related fungi revealed a variety of serine and metalloproteases previously associated with the infection process (Monod *et al.* 2002). Evident by our significant nine enzymes of interest (chymotrypsin, Map1, MepB, carboxypeptidase 1, pitrilysin, isoaspartyl dipeptidase, aminopeptidase, Daminopeptidase, and fungalysin) our *N. guarroi* genome appears to contain the majority of the significant nine. Chymotrypsin, carboxypeptidase 1, and Map1 are all within the super-family of serine proteases known for hydrolytic cleaving of peptide bonds whereas MepB, pitrilysin, isoaspartyl dipeptidase, aminopeptidase, D-aminopeptisdase, and
fungalysin live within the diverse metalloprotease families known for microbial pathogenesis. Because we used publicly available genomes in our protein comparison , the quality of each assembly may vary affecting the blast results; underestimating the number of specialized proteins present. Furthermore, because the protein sequences used as a query were from different fungal species, we kept to a strict cut off using both the percent identity and e-value. Therefore, other genes that potentially code for more specialized enzymes may still be present despite their resulting low values from our blast pipeline (STable1-4).

Although blast hits of the Subtilisin Carlsberg, a serine protease, did not meet our strict cut off, its presence throughout all four fungi, especially within *N. guarroi*, is notable. Subtilisin proteases are ubiquitous in fungi and have been closely tied to host-pathogen interactions, especially with entomopathogenic fungi (Bagga *et al*. 2004). Specifically, the subtilisins are often secreted by fungal pathogens to digest protein components of their hosts (Segers *et al.* 1999). Even if Subtilisin Carlsberg may not be the specific protein being identified in our blast results, a putative subtilisin-like protein appears across all four fungi with multiple copies in *N. guarroi*, possibly alluding to why YFD progresses so severely.

Of our results, the comparison of signal peptides between *N. guarroi* and *O.ophiodiicola* is the most striking. Our analysis is the first to explicitly show that *N. guarroi* could have far more diverse and expansive pathogenicity factors evident by the quantity of secreted proteins compared to *O. ophiodiicola* (Fig. 3). That *O. ophiodiicola* requires a disturbance in the epidermis of reptiles for infection to establish is not an uncommon requirement among primary (infects healthy hosts without preexisting conditions) and secondary

(opportunistic) fungal pathogens (Lorch *et al*. 2015; Allender *et al.* 2015). However, *N. guarroi* can cause severe, and often, fatal infections within bearded dragons and green iguanas as a primary pathogen, and without requiring an entry point in the epidermis. Although putative, we believe our findings in addition to what is known about YFD support our initial hypothesis. *Nannizziopsis guarroi* is an EID and as we lay the groundwork for further research into the pathogenicity of the fungus, we may be on the precipice of creating a new model system with the Nannizziopsis genus.

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## **FIGURES & TABLES**



Figure 1. Bioinformatic Workflow. The yellow path illustrates the programs used to assemble PacBio data of *N. guarroi.* The green path illustrates programs used on the Illumina data of *N. guarroi.*



Figure 2. Protein blast comparisons across four fungal species. The X axis denotes fungal species, and the Y axis denotes the number of times a sequence within the assembled genomes potentially codes for a protein of interest.



Figure 3. Putative secreted and transmembrane proteins from DeepTMHMM. The X axis denotes fungal species, and the Y axis denotes the number of genes identified as signal peptides. The orange represents secreted proteins, and the blue represents transmembrane proteins.

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<b>Total Length</b>	37647880 bp	
Contigs	44	
N <sub>50</sub>	4331355 bp	
Mean Coverage	929	
<b>Busco Completeness</b>	99.4%	

Table 1. PacBio genome assembly statistics.

Table 2. MEROPS protein identifiers.

<b>Protein</b> <b>MEROPS</b>	<b>Proteins We Used</b>	Our <b>NCBI</b>
ID		<b>Accessions</b>
S <sub>1</sub>	Chymotrypsin	CAB60729.1
S <sub>8</sub>	<b>Subtilisin Carlsberg</b>	XP 049137919.1
S <sub>9</sub>	Prolyl Oligopeptidase	QKM76211.1
S <sub>10</sub>	Carboxypeptidase I	AAR91697.1
S <sub>16</sub>	Map1	XP 003867298.1
M <sub>3</sub>	MepB	AAB66656.1
M4	Thermolysin	XP 025455915.1
M14	Carboxypeptidase	GBF59608.1
M16	Pitrilysin	KAG8205452.1
M28	Aminopeptidase	CAC38353.1
M36	Fungalysin	KMQ48706.1
M38	<b>Isoaspartyl Dipeptidase</b>	KAF5563136.1
M <sub>55</sub>	D-aminopeptidase	KGQ03962.1

Table 3. Protein blast e-value and percent identity.



The shaded boxes represent the absence of a protein at the chosen cut off.

# **APPENDIX I – Supplementary Material**

**Supplementary Table 1**. Fungi and bacteria cultured from individual inoculation sites on each corn snake used in this study. ant



Grey boxes indicate no microbe isolated from that area.





This table includes data from Gentry *et al.* 2021. \* BD8N developed a lesion on its tail from which a culture was taken, resulting in a positive identification of N. guarroi. BD11N developed a lesion near the eye and a part was taken for culture, also resulting in a positive identification of N. guarroi. Grey boxes indicate no microbe isolated from that area. \*\*Genbank accession no. included from our previously published manuscript (Gentry *et al.* 2021).

# **APPENDIX II – Supplementary Material**

#### **Supplementary Table 1.** Protein blast results of *Nannizziopsis arthrosporioides*.













#### **Supplementary Table 2.** Protein blast results of *Nannizziopsis barbatae*.









## **Supplementary Table 3.** Protein blast results of *Nannizziopsis guarroi*. *Nannizziopsis guarroi*















**Supplementary Table 4.** Protein blast results of *Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola*.



*Ophidiomyces ophiodiicola*







