Histopathological Diagnosis of Diseases Affecting Amphibians Inhabiting Kihansi Gorge, Tanzania

Joshua J Malago

Department of Veterinary Pathology, Sokoine University of Agriculture, P. O. Box 3203, Morogoro, Tanzania.

E-mail: malagojj@yahoo.com; malagojj@gmail.com; jmalago@suanet.ac.tz

Abstract

Kihansi gorge is a natural habitat to Kihansi spray toad (KST), *Nectophrynoides asperginis*. The toad is extinct in its natural habitat partly due to diseases. Efforts to successfully re-introduce it are primed by awareness and mitigation of prevalent diseases at the gorge. This study aimed at exploring the prevalent amphibian diseases at and around Kihansi gorge. A total of 182 individuals from *Petropedetes yakusini* (n = 60), *Nectophrynoides tornieri* (n = 60) and *Leptopelis uluguruensis* (n = 62) species were collected, humanely sacrificed, fixed in formalin, routinely processed, sectioned, stained with haematoxylin and eosin and analysed for diseases by histopathology. Disease prevalence (percentage) in *P. Yakusini*, *N. Tornieri* and *L. uluguruensis* were strongyloidiasis 23.3, 31.7 and 29%; chytridiomycosis 8.3, 38.3 and 11.3%; inflammatory reactions 13.3, 6.7 and 14.5%; viral inclusion bodies 15, 11.7 and 9.7%; and granuloma 0, 0 and 1.6%, respectively. It is concluded that there are potentially fatal disease conditions at Kihansi gorge and its surroundings that can threaten the life of the re-introduced KSTs.

Keywords: Kihansi gorge, amphibians, Kihansi spray toad (KST), diseases, prevalence

Introduction

In 1993, the government of Tanzania approved construction of the lower Kihansi hydropower plant (LKHP). The plant was intended to use water from the Kihansi River. The river had a total water flow of 16 m³/s at the completion of LKHP. Ninety percent of the water flow was diverted leaving only 1.6-1.8 m³/s to the Kihansi gorge wetlands. The gorge wetlands were natural habitats to various fauna and flora, including the Kihansi spray toad, KST. The toad was discovered in 1996 during implementation of the environmental management plan in the course of establishing the LKHP. At the time of discovery, the number of KSTs was estimated to be around 22,000. A few years later, the numbers alarmingly declined and threatened the existence of the toad as a species. Five hundred toads were translocated to six zoos in the United States (USA) in 2001 to rescue against the presaged possibility of extinction.

The KSTs in the gorge continued to die and the population finally crashed in 2003. Factors considered to account for the crash include reduced water flow to the gorge wetlands, collapse of sprinkler system that mimicked the natural water spray, infection with chytrid fungus, flushing of sediments from the dam, and human activities upstream the dam that used pesticides. The KST was last seen in its natural habitat in 2004 (Channing et al. 2009). In 2009, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) declared that the KST was extinct in the wild.

Emergency of diseases due to changed microenvironments following the dam construction could have played roles to the extinction of the KST in the natural habitat. Indeed, chytrid infection has been proposed to account for the extinction of amphibians (Daszak et al. 1999). There could be other diseases in the gorge that might have

contributed to the population decline. The prevalence of these diseases poses a great survival challenge to the KST upon reintroduction. It is therefore worthy to establish the prevalent diseases at and around the gorge in order to mitigate any impending threats to the re-introduced KSTs.

Amphibians can be affected by viruses, bacteria, fungi, helminths and ectoparasites. Reported viral diseases in free-living amphibians include Ranaviral infection, Lucke frog herpesvirus (kidney cancer), Frog erythrocytic virus, and West Nile virus. The most common is Ranavirus. It causes erythema associated emaciation, petechial or paintbrush haemorrhage around the mouth or base of the hind limbs; raised, vesicular, or erosive skin lesions; focal to generalized swelling due to effusions in the lymphatic sacs and body cavity; oedema, enlargement, and haemorrhage discolouration of the spleen, liver, kidney, and gastrointestinal tract; focal to diffuse necrosis throughout the skin and internal organs, particularly the liver and hematopoietic tissues; basophilic intracytoplasmic inclusions in the liver (Bollinger et al. 1999, Docherty et al. 2003, Johnson and Wellehan 2005). Infection with Lucke herpesvirus is associated with renal carcinoma with intranuclear inclusions (Lucke 1934, Lunger et al. 1965). Currently, the disease is only diagnosed through histopathology. Other isolated viruses like frog adenovirus 1, Crotalus calicivirus type 1, and retroviruses appear to be non-pathogenic (Smith et al. 1986, Granoff 1989, Johnson and Wellehan 2005).

Bacteria diseases include bacterial dermatosepticemia also called Red leg disease caused by Aeromonas hydrophila. It appears as a reddening of the skin, particularly on the belly and underside of the thighs. The reddening is due to vasodilation, congestion, and petechial, paintbrush, or ecchymotic haemorrhages. Other changes include coelomic effusions, and epidermal erosions, ulcers, sloughing, or necrosis (Mauel et al.

2002). Flavobacteriosis or oedema syndrome caused by *Flavobacterium* is another bacterial disease characterised by effusions in the lymphatic sacs, hydrocoelom, lingual or corneal oedema, panopthalmitis, petechiation, and visceral congestion (Taylor et al. 2001). A less common mycobacteriosis, is a chronic, slowly progressive disease causing granulomatous inflammation that may appear grossly as solitary or multifocal nodules on the skin, liver, spleen, intestines, and mesonephros (kidney) (Green 2001).

Amphibian fungal infections include chytridiomycosis, zygomycosis, chromomycosis, Basidiobolus fungi, dermosporidiosis, ichthyophoniasis, Dermocystidium and Dermomycoides. Generally, they show up as areas of red inflammation based on soft white tissues, and sometimes any noticeable abnormal skin colour. Currently, chytridiomycosis is the most significant and well-described fungal disease of amphibians caused Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis (Bd). It is a global threat to a broad host range of wild amphibian populations (Berger et al. 1998) and can cause severe population declines, extirpations of populations, and extinctions (Daszak et al. 1999). Lesions include thickening of the skin (hyperkeratosis) associated with dysecdysis, massive numbers of intracytoplasmic thalli in multiple retained epidermis layers, increased number of cell layers in the epidermis from a normal number (3-5) to a much larger number (about 8-15), and acanthosis (Daszak et al. 1999).

Protozoan parasites include amoeba, ciliates, flagellates, and sporozoans. The numbers of parasites encountered, the presence or absence of lesions, and the general condition of the host are important to assess the significance of infection. Amoebae are most often found in the gastrointestinal tract, liver, or kidney (Wright 2006). Ciliates, opalinids, and flagellates are commonly found in the gastrointestinal tract and on the skin of amphibians, and the majority of these organisms are commensal and nonproblematic

(Densmore and Green 2007). Sporozoan parasites can be found in amphibian blood, the gastrointestinal tract, and other organs or tissues with varying pathogenicity. They include coccidia (*Eimeria* and *Isospora*) (Poynton and Whitaker 2001) and microsporidians that have a tropism for muscle, connective tissues of various organs, and oocytes (Schuetz et al. 1978).

Common metazoan parasites include myxozoans, helminths (particularly trematodes and nematodes) and arthropods. Trematodes (flukes) cause diseases in amphibians only when associated with high numbers of trematodes encysting in, attaching to, or migrating through host tissues. Nematodes infect amphibians from egg to adult life stages and affect a variety of organs and tissues. Nematodes of the genus Rhabdias are lungworms that are problematic among captive amphibians (Williams 1960) whereas Strongyloides may cause protein-losing enteropathy and death (Patterson-Kane et al. 2001). Other helminths reported to infect amphibians and occasionally produce disease include filarid nematodes and cestodes (Wright 2006). Arthropods are problematic to free living amphibians. Amphibians have a rich diversity of helminthic parasites (Poynton and Whitaker 2001). In general, most cestodes, trematodes and nematodes of amphibians are innocuous and not linked to specific clinical signs or mortalities.

Being a descendant of about 70 individuals and having stayed in captivity for more than a decade, the current KST population is thought to have acquired a new steady state away from the original state in the wild. Hypothetically therefore, the KST to be re-introduced to its natural habitat will face survival challenges before they acquire new steady state population numbers in the wild. The challenges include tolerance as well as survival against endemic amphibian diseases in the wetlands. These diseases have the potential to be fatal prior to immunity acquisition and adaptation of the toads to the

wild environment. Thus, establishing endemic amphibian diseases that pose a potential impending threat to the survival of KST in the wild is pertinent to instituting interventions geared at successful re-introduction of the toad. Unfortunately, the endemic amphibian diseases at Kihansi gorge are not currently known. This study was therefore aimed at exploring the endemic amphibian diseases affecting amphibians in and around Kihansi gorge.

Materials and Methods Study area

The study was conducted at and around Kihansi gorge, Tanzania.

The animals

A total of 182 frogs were collected from Kihansi gorge wetlands and the area around the gorge from February 2009 to February 2010. The collection was done by placing a net over the frog and gentle wrap of the hand around the frog's back and legs. The frogs were then placed in aerated containers and transported to the laboratory within 30 minutes. The animals were examined for any gross lesions prior to euthanization under chloroform and an autopsy examination. Faecal samples were taken and smears were prepared and examined for parasites.

Tissue processing

Following autopsy, tissue samples from all organs were taken and fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for at least 24 hours. Thereafter, they were trimmed and put in cassettes for routine tissue processing whereby the tissues were dehydrated in graded alcohol (70%, 90%, 95%, absolute alcohol), cleared in chloroform, impregnated, embedded and molded in molten (56 °C) paraffin wax. They were then sectioned with a rotary microtome at 4 µm, deparaffinized and stained with haematoxylin and eosin. The stained tissue sections were observed under a light microscope (BX41, Olympus, Japan) as done before (Malago and Nondoli 2008) and

digital photomicrographs were taken by a DP21 camera (Olympus, Japan) mounted on the microscope.

Statistical analysis

Numeric data were expressed as percentage prevalence, whereas pathologic changes were presented as photomicrographs.

Results

Figure 1 shows the prevalence of diseases at and around Kihansi gorge. According to the

figure, fungal infection and strongyloidiasis were highest in N. tornieri and P. yakusini (38.3% and 31.6%, respectively). Strongyloidiasis was the most prevalent disease condition encountered granulomatous lesion was the least and occurred only in L. uluguruensis at 1.6%. The least diseased animal species was the P. yakusini where 40% of the animals were normal, while N. tornieri was the most affected animal with only 11.6% of the animals being normal.

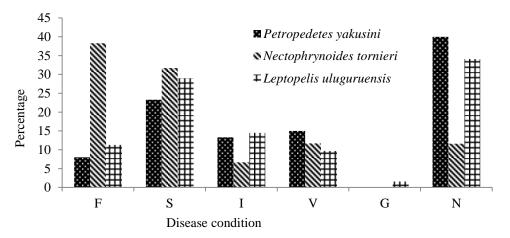


Figure 1: Prevalence of amphibian diseases at and around Kihansi gorge. F = fungal infections; S = strongyloidiasis; I = inflammatory reactions; V = viral infections; G = granulomatous lesions; and N = normal animals.

Figure 2 depicts mixed infections encountered at and around the Kihansi gorge. The figure shows that *N. tornieri* had the highest (15%) fungal and strongloides mixed infections followed by *P. yakusini* (5%) for the same mixed infections and *L. uluguruensis* (4.8%)

for strongyloidiasis and inflammatory Р. reactions. yakusini did not have inflammatory reactions during fungal infection and only L. uluguruensis had strongyloidiasis with viral or granulomatous lesions (Figure 2) prevalent at 1.6%.

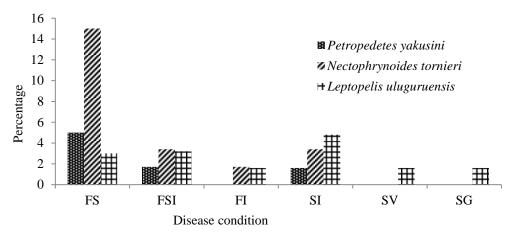


Figure 2: Prevalence of mixed amphibian infections at and around Kihansi gorge. FS, FSI, FI, SI, SV, and SG denote mixed conditions of F, fungal infections; S, strongyloidiasis; I, inflammatory reactions; V, viral infections; G, granulomatous lesions.

Among the diseases observed in amphibians at and around Kihansi gorge was chytridiomycosis. It is clear from the section that Bd proliferates in epidermal cells and causes thickening of the epidermis (hyperkeratosis), parakeratosis and sloughing of the outer skin layer (Figure 3).

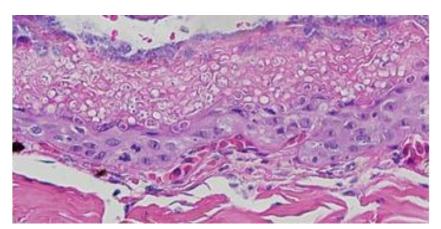


Figure 3: Section of skin from *L. uluguruensis* showing chytrid fungus infection. Note the hyperkeratosis, chytrid fungus appearing as clear circular spaces in the epidermis, homogenous immature stage, zoosporangium with discharging papillae containing zoospores, and empty zoosporangium formed after zoospores have discharged in the sloughing epithelium.

Nematodal infections, particularly strongyloides were also observed in the intestines of several amphibians. Some of

them caused intestinal disturbances (Figure 4).

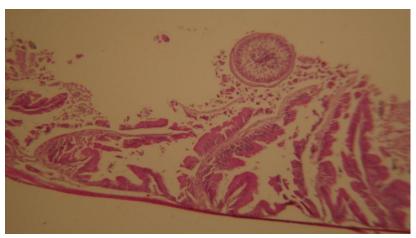


Figure 4: Cross section of a nematode parasite and associated disturbances to the intestine.

There were frogs observed to have well circumscribed lesions in the muscles (Figure 5A). The lesions had typical features of a hypersensitivity reaction granuloma with central area of necrosis, mononuclear cellular infiltration with epitheloid macrophages and giant cells and fibroplasias when viewed under higher magnification (Figure 5B).

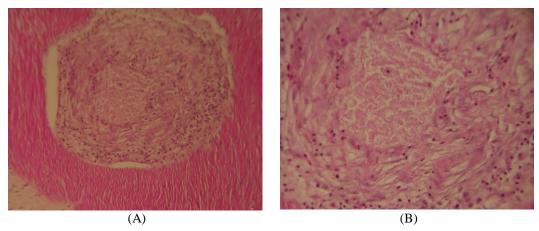
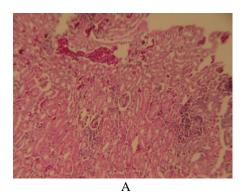


Figure 5: Granulomatous lesion in cardiac muscle at (A) low magnification and (B) high magnification. Note the typical features of the lesion: central area of necrosis, mononuclear cellular infiltration with typical epitheloid macrophages and giant cells and ongoing fibroplasias.

There were non-specific infiltration of inflammatory cells to various organs including the kidney, stomach and liver. The

cells were mainly lymphocytes and some macrophages (Figure 6).



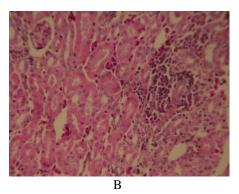


Figure 6: Section of a kidney of toad under low magnification (A) and high magnification (B). Interstitial nephritis with monocytic infiltration in the interstitium (macrophages and lymphocytes), necrosis of tubular epithelium, haemorrhages, presence of eosinophilic homogeneous materials (proteins) in the tubular lumen.

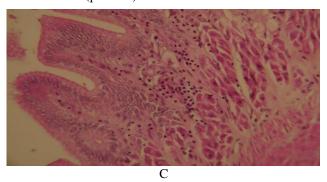


Figure 6C: Section of stomach of *L. uluguruensis*. Lymphoplasmacytic infiltration into the epithelial mucosa. Note also the high number of gastric glands, especially the chief (peptic) cells.

Discussion

Various disease conditions occur in amphibians at and around Kihansi gorge. According to the current study, amphibian diseases prevalent at Kihansi include chytridiomycosis, helminthosis and nonspecific conditions most probably attributed to bacterial and viral infections.

Toads can be infected by chytrid fungus (Lettoof et al. 2013). The presence of chytrid fungus around Kihansi has been established (Makange et al. 2014). Although chytrid is known to wipe up some amphibian populations, its infections do not always lead to fatal diseases. It appears that some factors like species differences, environmental stress

and the immune status of the host determine the outcomes of the infections (Rollins-Smith et al. 2002, Ramsey et al. 2010). Chytrid kills frogs by causing massive skin disruptions (Rosenblum et al. 2012). In this study, chytrid infections were observed in healthy sacrificed N. tornieri, P. yakusini and L. uluguruensis at prevalence of 38.3%, 8.3% and 11.3%, respectively (Figure 1). This indicates that some amphibians at and around Kihansi gorge harbour the fatal chytrid fungus without developing the disease. This is in harmony with earlier findings by Ramsey et al. (2010) who reported infection of South African clawed frog, Xenopus laevis with chytrid fungus without fatal illness.

Parasites are ubiquitous members of biotic communities. A study by Men et al. (2016) on investigating the infective status of helminth parasites in 90 frogs (Pelophylax nigromaculatus), found that 86.67% of the frogs were infected with 1 to 367 internal parasites. The parasites included trematodes, nematodes, cestodes, and acanthocephalas. Majority (60.04%) of parasites were parasitic in the intestines, followed by urinary bladder (24.8%) and lungs (7.38%). Based on morphological features, these researchers found 13 different helminth parasitizing the frogs. Toads can also contain gastric-encysting nematodes (Lettoof et al. 2013). Other researchers observed a parasite spectrum comprising monogeneans, trematodes (both adults and metacercaria stages), cestodes (both adult and larval stages), nematodes and acanthocephalan taxa (Imkongwapang et al. 2014). Consistently, all studied amphibian species in this very study (N. tornieri, P. yakusini and L. uluguruensis) were parasitized by nematodes at 31.7%, 23.3% and 29%, respectively.

The findings in this study that nematodes parasitize the intestines and cause morphological and possible functional disturbances are in harmony with earlier observations (Lettoof et al. 2013, Men et al. 2016). These disturbances may or may not be significant to the health of the amphibians. It depends on the available nutrients. A recent study exploring the effects of diet on frog resistance and tolerance against skinpenetrating, gut nematode Aplectana spp. infection has shown that a high resource diet enhances frog resistance to worm penetration and tolerance as worms travel to the gut. In contrast, a low resource diet increases resistance to establishment of the infections (Knutie et al. 2017). Furthermore, the study showed that following infection and parasitic access of food resources in the gut, a high resource diet enhanced host tolerance of worms. In high resource diets, frogs infected with nematodes consume more food than nonparasitized frogs. Under food restriction, the

mass of parasitized frogs decreases, while that of non-parasitized does not change (Knutie et al. 2017). Another study (De Donato et al. 2017) found a strong positive correlation between nematode prevalence and parasite numbers in frogs with trace elements like Mn, Co, Ni, As, Se and Cd. These observations strongly concluded that the outcome of parasitic infection is guided largely by the nutritional status of the animal. The free living amphibians at and around Kihansi have a wide range of resources that partly could explain the lack of clinical nematodiasis.

Granulomatous lesions result from body immune reactions against organisms that are hard to be killed by the body such as Mycobacteria or Brucella. It is hypersensitivity reaction primed by cellular immunity and characterised by mononuclear infiltration (Malago 2015). amphibians, granulomatous lesions have been reported in some frogs (Sanchez-Morgado et al. 2009, Sailasuta et al. 2011). It is a chronic granulomatous non-lethal disease but with low mortality rates. It is caused by various organisms including Mycobacterium and Hepatozoon species (Cosma et al. 2006, Sanchez-Morgado et al. 2009, Sailasuta et al. 2011). To the best available knowledge, the observed granulomatous lesion in this study observed in L. uluguruensis is a first report on occurrence of granulomatous lesions in amphibians at and around Kihansi gorge.

Conclusion and recommendations

This study has highlighted some of the conditions affecting amphibians inhabiting Kihansi gorge and the surroundings. The knowledge is pertinent to the re-introduction of the KST to its natural habitats at Kihansi wetlands. Although most of the encountered conditions are not fatal to the native amphibians, they may be mortal to the KST that has spent more than a decade in captivity with limited resource diversity. As indicated above, disease development and outcomes depend partly on nutritional environmental factors as well as host immune

status. It is therefore important to consider these factors during re-introduction of KSTs that are moved from a biosecured captive facility to wide taxa of parasites in the wild. research focusing Future on parasite pathogenicity under limited resources portraying life in captivity are encouraged so as to generate information pertinent to mitigating any fatality caused by endemic conditions at and around Kihansi gorge following re-introduction of KSTs.

References

- Berger L, Speare R, Daszak P, Green DE, Cunningham AA, Goggin CL, Slocombe R, Ragan MA, Hyatt AD, McDonald KR, Hines HB, Lips KR, Marantelli G and Parkes H 1998 Chytridiomycosis causes amphibian mortality associated with population declines in the rainforests of Australia and Central America. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 95: 9031-9036.
- Bollinger TK, Mao J, Schock D, Brigham RM and Chinchar VG. 1999 Pathology, isolation, and preliminary molecular characterization of a novel iridovirus from tiger salamanders in Saskatchewan. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 35: 413-429.
- Channing A, Howell K, Loader S, Menegon M and Poynton J 2009 *Nectophrynoides* asperginis. *IUCN Red List of Threatened Species*. Version 2011.2. International Union for Conservation of Nature.
- Cosma CL, Swaim LE, Volkman H, Ramakrishnan L and Davis JM 2006 Zebrafish and frog models of Mycobacterium marimum infection. Curr Protoc. Microbiol. 10: 10B.2
- Daszak P, Berger L, Cunningham AA, Hyatt AD, Green DE and Speare R 1999 Emerging infectious diseases and amphibian population declines. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 5: 735-748.
- De Donato C, Barca D, Milazzo C, Santoro R, Giglio G, Tripepi S and Sperone E 2017 Is trace element concentration correlated to parasite abundance? A case study in a population of the green frog *Pelophylax*

- synkl. *hispanicus* from the Neto River (Calabria, southern Italy). *Parasitol. Res.* 116: 1745-1753.
- Densmore CL and Green DE 2007 Diseases of amphibians *Ilar J.* 38: 235-254
- Docherty DE, Meteyer CU, Wang J, Mao J, Case ST and Chinchar VG 2003 Diagnostic and molecular evaluation of three iridovirus-associated salamander mortality events. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 39: 556-566.
- Granoff A 1989 Viruses of amphibia: An historical perspective. In: Ahne W, Kurstak E (ed). Viruses of Lower Vertebrates. Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag. p 3-12.
- Green DE 2001 Pathology of amphibia. In:
 Wright KM, Whitaker BR (eds).
 Amphibian Medicine and Captive
 Husbandry. Malabar FL: Krieger
 Publishing Company. p 401-485.
- Imkongwapang R, Jyrwa DB, Lal P, Tandon V 2014 A checklist of helminth parasite fauna in anuran Amphibia (frogs) of Nagaland, Northeast India. *J. Parasit. Dis.* 38: 85-100.
- Johnson AJ and Wellehan JFX 2005 Amphibian virology. Vet. Clin. Exot. Anim. Pract. 8: 53-65.
- Knutie SA, Wilkinson CL, Wu QC, Ortega CN and Rohr JR 2017 Host resistance and tolerance of parasitic gut worms depend on resource availability. *Oecologia* 183: 1031-1040.
- Lettoof DC, Greenlees MJ, Stockwell M and Shine R 2013 Do invasive cane toads affect the parasite burdens of native Australian frogs? *Int. J. Parasitol.: Parasites Wildl.* 2: 155-164.
- Lucke B 1934 A neoplastic disease of the kidney of the frog, Rana pipiens. II. On the occurrence of metastasis. *Amer. J. Cancer*: 22: 326-334.
- Lunger PD, Darlington RW and Granoff A 1965 Cell-virus relashionships in the Lucke renal adenocarcinoma: an ultrastructure study. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* 126: 289-314.

- Makange M, Kulaya N, Biseko E, Kalenga P, Mutagwaba S and Misinzo G 2014 *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* detected in Kihansi spray toads at a captive breeding facility (Kihansi, Tanzania). *Dis. Aquat. Organ.* 111: 159-164.
- Malago JJ and Nondoli H 2008 Sodium arsenite reduces severity of dextran sulfate sodium-induced ulcerative colitis in rats. *J. Zhejiang Univ. Sci. B* 9: 341-350.
- Malago JJ 2015 Contribution of microbiota to the innate and acquired gut immunity during health and disease. Nova Science Publishers, Inc. 400 Oser Avenue, Suite 1600, Hauppauge, NY, USA. 2015; ISBN: 978-1-63117-296-0.
- Mauel MJ, Miller DL, Frazier KS, Hines ME II. 2002 Bacterial pathogens isolated from cultured bullfrogs (*Rana catesbeiana*). *J. Vet. Diag. Invest.* 14: 431-433.
- Men Q, Han H, Zhao Q, Xia W, Dong H, Zhu S, Wang Z, Li C, Zhu X and Huang B 2016 The prevalence of helminth parasites in *Pelophylax nigromaculatus* (Anura: Ranidae) from Shanghai, China. *Acta Parasitol* 61: 802-807.
- Patterson-Kane JC, Eckerlin RP, Lyons ET and Jewell MA 2001 Strongyloidiasis in a Cope's grey tree frog (*Hyla chrysoscelis*). *J. Zoo. Wildl. Med.* 32: 106-110.
- Poynton SL and Whitaker BR 2001 Protozoa and metazoan infecting am-phibians. In: Wright KM, Whitaker BR, eds. Amphibian Medicine and Captive Husbandry. Malabar FL: Krieger Publishing Company, p 193-221.
- Ramsey JP, Reinert LK, Harper LK, Woodhams DC and Rollins-Smith LA 2010 Immune defenses against *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, a fungus linked to global amphibian declines, in the South African clawed frog, *Xenopus laevis*. *Infect. Immun*. 78: 3981-3992.
- Rollins-Smith LA, Doersam JK, Longcore JE, Taylor SK, Shamblin JC, Carey C and

- Zasloff MA 2002 Antimicrobial peptide defenses against pathogens associated with global amphibian declines. *Dev. Comp. Immunol.* 26: 63-72.
- Rosenblum EB, Poorten TJ, Settles M and Murdoch GK 2012 Only skin deep: shared genetic response to the deadly chytrid fungus in susceptible frog species. *Mol. Ecol.* 21: 3110-3120.
- Sailasuta A, Satetasit J and Chutmongkonkul M 2011 Pathological study of blood parasites in rice field frogs, Hoplobatrachus rugulosus (Wiegmann, 1834). Vet. Med. Int. 2011: 850-568.
- Sanchez-Morgado JM, Gallagher A and Johnson LK 2009 *Mycobacterium gordonae* infection in a colony of African clawed frogs (*Xenopus tropicalis*). *Lab. Anim.* 43: 300-303.
- Schuetz AW, Selman K and Samson D 1978 Alterations in growth, function and composition of *Rana pipiens* oocytes and follicles associated with microsporidian parasites. *J. Exp. Zool.* 204: 81-94.
- Smith AW, Anderson MP, Skilling DE, Barlough JE and Ensley PK 1986 First isolation of calicivirus from amphibians and reptiles. *J Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 47: 1718-1721.
- Taylor SK, Green DE, Wright KM and Whitaker BR 2001 Bacterial diseases. In: Wright KM, Whitaker BR, eds. Amphibian Medicine and Captive Husbandry. Malabar FL: Krieger Publishing Company. p 159-179.
- Williams RW 1960 Observations on the life history of *Rhabdias sphaerocephala* Goodey 1924 from *Bufo marinus* L., in the Bermuda Islands. *J. Helminthol.* 34: 93-98.
- Wright KM 2006 Overview of amphibian medicine. In: Mader DR (ed.) Reptile Medicine and Surgery. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Saunders, Elsevier, p 941-971.