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CICERO RICARDO DE OLIVEIRA

**INTERAÇÕES PARASITO-HOSPEDEIRO EM ANUROS DE UM ENCLAVE DE
FLORESTA TROPICAL ALTITUDINAL DO SEMIÁRIDO BRASILEIRO**

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Tese apresentada a Coordenação do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais da Universidade Federal do Ceará, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Doutor em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais.
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“É melhor ser odiado pelo que você é, do que amado por aquilo que você não é”

- Kurt Cobain

RESUMO

A heterogeneidade ambiental tem sido um fator bastante usado para explicar as diferentes riquezas de espécies no mundo, visto que a distribuição, diversidade e a riqueza das espécies podem ser determinadas pela estrutura do ambiente. Além disso, ambientes mais diversos abrigam maior riqueza de espécies. Outro aspecto que pode influenciar é o gradiente de altitude, um fator limitante para um conjunto de fatores bióticos e abióticos que influenciam a estrutura das comunidades. Esse tem sido o foco de muitos estudos em ecologia, principalmente de anfíbios, animais estritamente relacionados as condições ambientais, fazendo desses hospedeiros um excelente modelo para avaliar padrões na estrutura das comunidades de parasitos. Além disso, muitos processos são relatados influenciando a estrutura de comunidades de helmintos em anfíbios, dentro dos quais se incluem o tamanho do hospedeiro, o gênero, a dieta, o sítio da infecção, a espécie e o comportamento, levando a riqueza parasitária a variar dependendo das condições ambientais e devido à forma como as espécies respondem aos fatores bióticos. O domínio das Caatingas é conhecido por apresentar alto grau de endemismo da herpetofauna, principalmente nos enclaves de mata úmida, denominados por “brejos-de-altitude”. Considerando esses aspectos, utilizamos a Área de Proteção Ambiental da Serra de Maranguape para este estudo, principalmente devido a diversidade de microambientes. Distribuímos nove pontos amostrais ao longo de três gradientes de altitude e coletamos os anuros durante a estação chuvosa, através de busca ativa. Portanto, no presente estudo, tivemos como objetivos: (A) descrever a composição de endoparasitos associados a anuros de um enclave de floresta altitudinal no Nordeste do Brasil, a Serra de Maranguape; (B) testar a influência do uso de microhabitats na abundância e riqueza de endoparasitos; (C) testar a hipótese de que rãs maiores tendem a ser mais parasitadas; (D) testar a influência da heterogeneidade de habitats e do gradiente altitudinal nas relações parasito-hospedeiro em anfíbios anuros, quanto a abundância e riqueza dos endoparasitos; (E) testar a relação filogenética entre hospedeiros e parasitos; (F) testar a hipótese de que os parasitos são distribuídos seguindo seus hospedeiros, sem influência da variação ambiental; e (G) obter informações sobre a relação parasito-hospedeiro da helmintofauna da espécie criticamente em perigo *Adelophryne maranguapensis*.

Palavras-chave: parasitismo; anfíbios; brejos-de-altitude; semiárido brasileiro.

ABSTRACT

Environmental heterogeneity has been a factor often used to explain the different species richness around the world, since the distribution, diversity and richness of species can be determined by the structure of the environment. In addition, more diverse environments harbour higher species richness. Another aspect that may influence this is the altitude gradient, a limiting factor for a set of biotic and abiotic factors that influence the structure of communities. This has been the focus of many studies in ecology, especially of amphibians, animals strictly related to environmental conditions, making these hosts an excellent model to assess patterns in the structure of parasite communities. Many processes are reported to influence the structure of helminth communities in amphibians, including host size, genus, diet, site of infection, species and behaviour, leading parasite richness to vary depending on environmental conditions and the way species respond to biotic factors. The Caatinga domain is known to have a high degree of herpetofauna endemism, especially in wet forest enclaves, known as “brejos-de-altitude”. Considering these aspects, we will use the Environmental Protection Area of Serra de Maranguape due to the diversity of microenvironments, to carry out the study. Thus, we distributed nine sampling points along three altitude gradients and collected anurans during the rainy season, by active search. Therefore, in the present study, we aimed to (A) describe the composition of endoparasites associated with anurans from an altitudinal forest enclave in Northeast Brazil, the Serra de Maranguape; (B) test the influence of microhabitat use on endoparasite abundance and richness; (C) test the hypothesis that larger frogs tend to be more parasitized; (D) test the influence of habitat heterogeneity and altitudinal gradient on endoparasite abundance and richness; (E) test the phylogenetic relationship between hosts and parasites; (F) test the hypothesis that parasites are distributed following their hosts without influence of environmental variation; and (G) obtain information on the host-parasite relationship of the helminth fauna of the critically endangered species *Adelophryne maranguapensis*.

Keywords: parasitism; amphibians; “brejos-de-altitude”; brazilian semiarid.

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1 INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

O Domínio morfoclimático da Caatinga é composto por um mosaico de florestas secas e vegetação arbustiva (savana-estépica), com enclaves de florestas úmidas montanhosas e áreas de Cerrados (TABARELLI; SILVA, 2003). Este domínio é marcado pelo alto grau de endemismo da herpetofauna, tanto em áreas abertas (RODRIGUES; SANTOS, 2008; ALBUQUERQUE *et al.*, 2012), quanto nos enclaves de mata úmida, conhecidos como “brejos-de-altitude” (BORGES-NOJOSA; CARAMASCHI, 2003; BORGES-NOJOSA *et al.*, 2016b). Conforme dados do Ministério do Meio Ambiente (2000) e Sousa e colaboradores (2004), a identificação de ações e áreas prioritárias para a conservação da biodiversidade tem-se mostrado importante instrumento de proteção no Brasil e no mundo. Classificadas em quatro níveis de importância biológica (Extrema importância biológica - EIB; Muito alta importância biológica - MAIB; Alta importância biológica - AIB; e Insuficientemente conhecida, mas de provável importância biológica - IC), no estado do Ceará são descritas 11 destas áreas, sendo elas: Planalto da Ibiapaba, Serra de Baturité, Serra de Maranguape/Aratanha e Chapada do Araripe (EIB); Camocim/Jericoacoara, Serra de Uruburetama, Quixadá/Estevão (MAIB); Serra da Meruoca, Foz do Acaraú, Foz do Rio Ceará e Baixo Jaguaribe (AIB).

Portanto, o complexo da Serra de Maranguape/Aratanha, área de estudo deste trabalho, desde então vem sendo classificada como uma das áreas de extrema importância biológica, por ser considerado um ambiente de enclave úmido, e de exceção no domínio das Caatingas, devido as condições climáticas locais. Como os demais brejos-de-altitude, a Serra de Maranguape forma um sistema isolado único e exclusivo, que deve ser considerado como um mantenedor de elementos vegetais e faunísticos amazônicos e atlânticos, além das espécies endêmicas (VANZOLINI, 1981; BORGES-NOJOSA; CARAMASCHI, 2003).

Sendo a estrutura do ambiente fundamental para determinar a distribuição, diversidade e a riqueza das espécies, MacArthur e MacArthur (1961) e MacArthur e colaboradores (1964) relacionaram a heterogeneidade do ambiente com riqueza de espécies, propondo que ambientes mais diversos abrigam maior riqueza de espécies. Esse tem sido um fator bastante usado para explicar as diferentes riquezas de espécies no mundo, tentando esclarecer o porquê de algumas regiões apresentarem maior riqueza de espécies do que outras. A partir dessa ideia, muitos estudos foram propostos na tentativa de explicar o porquê das diferenças entre riquezas em ambientes heterogêneos (HERRERA *et al.*, 2011; BILIA *et al.*, 2015; ALFARO *et al.*, 2016). Essa relação positiva entre o aumento da heterogeneidade ambiental e o aumento da riqueza já foi registrada para várias espécies de animais (SILVA *et*

al., 2010). No entanto, dependendo do grupo taxonômico e da escala espacial, a riqueza pode ter relação negativa com o aumento da heterogeneidade ambiental (TEWS *et al.*, 2004; GONZÁLEZ-MEGIAS *et al.*, 2007).

Outro aspecto observado que pode influenciar a riqueza de espécies é o gradiente de altitude. Segundo Colwell e Lees (2000) e Romdal e Grytnes (2007), os fatores ecológicos que influenciam a riqueza e a biologia das espécies variam em função dos gradientes altitudinais. De acordo com Rahbek (2005) a altitude é um fator limitante para um conjunto de fatores bióticos e abióticos que influenciam a estrutura das comunidades. Esse declínio na riqueza de espécies com o aumento da altitude é largamente aceito como um padrão (RAHBK, 1995). Contudo, o padrão de variação na riqueza de espécies em gradientes ambientais pode diferir entre táxons, e em um mesmo táxon o padrão pode diferir entre localidades (ALMEIDA-NETO *et al.*, 2006). Esse tem sido o foco de muitos estudos em ecologia, principalmente de anfíbios (QIAN *et al.*, 2007; FLESCHE *et al.*, 2010; LEMCKERT; MAHONY, 2010; HU *et al.*, 2012; SIQUEIRA; ROCHA, 2013).

Os anfíbios são considerados como um grupo dos vertebrados com alta diversidade no Planeta, sendo o Brasil atualmente o país com maior riqueza de espécies (SEGALLA *et al.*, 2021). Estes animais apresentam uma estreita ligação com as condições ambientais (DUELLMAN; TRUEB, 1994; WELLS, 2007), sendo os fatores abióticos importantes para determinar a riqueza e abundância de espécies, tanto em invertebrados (FERREIRA, 2010; AZEVEDO; KRÜGER, 2013; PETSCH *et al.*, 2013) quanto em vertebrados (MORENO-RUEDA; PIZARRO, 2007; QIAN *et al.*, 2007).

Amphibia é um dos grupos de animais que vem sendo bem estudado nas serras úmidas do Ceará (BORGES, 1991; BORGES-NOJOSA, 2007; RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2012; CASTRO *et al.*, 2019). Dentro dessa diversidade aparente há uma diversidade oculta de espécies de organismos que vivem dentro de outros animais, como é o caso de alguns helmintos parasitos de anfíbios (POULIN; MORAND, 2004; TOLEDO *et al.*, 2013; AGUIAR *et al.*, 2015; LINS *et al.*, 2017; ALCANTARA *et al.*, 2018; OLIVEIRA *et al.*, 2019; SILVA-NETA *et al.*, 2020; MASCARENHAS *et al.*, 2021). Segundo Aho (1990), a biologia desses hospedeiros os tornam excelentes modelos para avaliar padrões na estrutura das comunidades de helmintos. Porém, a última lista de helmintos associados a anfíbios aponta que somente cerca de 8% das espécies de anfíbios foi estudado quanto a sua helmintofauna (CAMPIÃO *et al.*, 2014). Estima-se que 40% dos seres vivos seja constituído por parasitos (BEGON, 1996), que é uma das estratégias de vida mais comuns do planeta. Mesmo assim, parasitos passaram por

muito tempo despercebidos dentro da biodiversidade (POULIN; MORAND, 2004; DOBSON *et al.*, 2008).

Embora o número de estudos com parasitos seja crescente, a ciência ainda está muito distante de conhecer completamente a ecologia de espécies parasitos (POULIN; MORAND, 2004). Poucos são os trabalhos que se propõe a explicar os processos relacionados à ecologia de helmintos parasitos (POULIN; MORAND, 2004). Algumas destas publicações (HAMANN *et al.*, 2010; SANTOS; AMATO, 2010; CAMPIÃO *et al.*, 2014, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c; LINS *et al.*, 2017), relatam muitos processos influenciando essa estrutura de comunidades de helmintos em anfíbios, dentro os quais se incluem o tamanho do hospedeiro, o gênero, a dieta, o sítio da infecção, a espécie e o comportamento. Segundo Poulin e Krasnov (2010), a riqueza parasitária varia dependendo das condições ambientais, devido à forma como as espécies respondem a fatores bióticos. No entanto, poucos estudos mostram as relações parasito-hospedeiro em anfíbios anuros considerando a influência das variações ambientais, e menos ainda em áreas tão especiais quanto os brejos-de-altitude nordestinos.

A compreensão dos padrões de interação e dos determinantes da associação parasito-hospedeiro contribui para preencher as lacunas de conhecimento na ecologia da comunidade e da doença (CAMPIÃO *et al.*, 2015a). Esses organismos parasitos são uma parcela considerável da biomassa global, e parte importante da natureza (KURIS, 2008). Assim, o estudo da fauna parasitária é de extrema importância, pois além de contribuir para o conhecimento da biodiversidade e entendimento da relação parasito-hospedeiro, também podem ser considerados como bioindicadores e até colaborar na conservação de espécies (GALLI *et al.*, 2001; POULIN; MORAND, 2004; BRANDÃO, 2017). Além disso, os estudos parasitológicos são necessários para a compreensão do papel das espécies de parasitos nos diferentes níveis de organização ecológica (WOOD; JOHNSON, 2015).

Dessa forma, a Área de Proteção Ambiental da Serra de Maranguape, criada pelo Poder Público Municipal a partir da Lei Nº 1168, de 08 de julho de 1993, visando um melhor controle sobre o ecossistema da serra, e sendo um pico residual de embasamento cristalino com altitude máxima de 920 m, que durante muito tempo foi explorado na produção de diversas culturas como laranja, café e bananicultura (LIMA, 2005). Concentra uma diversidade de anfíbios e répteis espetacular, com vários casos de endemismos (HOOGMOED *et al.*, 1994; BORGES-NOJOSA *et al.*, 2016a; 2016b). Considerando esses aspectos, observou-se que a serra de Maranguape mantinha um ambiente ideal para a realização de um trabalho com os seguintes objetivos: (A) descrever a composição de endoparasitos associados a anuros de um enclave de floresta altitudinal no Nordeste do Brasil, a Serra de Maranguape; (B) testar a

influência do uso de microhabitats nas relações parasito-hospedeiros em anfíbios anuros; (C) testar a hipótese de que rãs maiores tendem a ser mais parasitadas; (D) testar a influência da heterogeneidade de habitats e do gradiente altitudinal nas relações parasito-hospedeiros em anfíbios anuros, quanto a abundância e riqueza dos endoparasitos; (E) testar a relação filogenética entre hospedeiros e parasitos; e (F) testar a hipótese de que os parasitos são distribuídos seguindo seus hospedeiros sem influência da variação ambiental.

1.1 Organização da Tese

Os dados encontrados neste trabalho representam a continuidade das pesquisas e esforços que já vem sendo desenvolvidas pelos pesquisadores do Núcleo Regional de Ofiologia do Ceará (NUROF-UFC) ao longo dos últimos anos, nos brejos-de-altitude do Ceará.

Conforme explicitado anteriormente, teve-se como objetivos descrever a composição dos endoparasitos associados aos anuros de um enclave de floresta tropical altitudinal no nordeste do Brasil, para simultaneamente testar as seguintes hipóteses: da relação entre a heterogeneidade de habitats e o gradiente altitudinal; da influência do uso de microhabitats e dos efeitos filogenéticos e ecológicos nas relações parasito-hospedeiro em anfíbios anuros; e que as rãs maiores são mais parasitadas. Entretanto, aproveitando a oportunidade, também foi possível incluir mais um objetivo: (G) obter informações sobre a helmintofauna do sapinho *Adelophryne maranguapensis*, uma espécie endêmica do Estado do Ceará, que consta como criticamente em perigo (BRASIL, 2022), e assim entender melhor algumas características na relação parasita-hospedeiro e no uso da área deste anuro.

Os resultados, que possibilitaram atender a todos estes objetivos, são apresentados aqui, divididos em três manuscritos (dois já publicados e um submetido), que seguem as regras de formatação das revistas de publicação:

Capítulo 1: Comunidade endoparasitária de anuros de um enclave de floresta tropical altitudinal no semiárido brasileiro (*Endoparasite community of anurans from an altitudinal rainforest enclave in a Brazilian semiarid area*) - Neste capítulo, descreve-se a composição da comunidade endoparasitária associado aos anuros da Serra de Maranguape, relaciona-se a abundância e riqueza de endoparasitos com o uso de microhabitats dos hospedeiros e foi testada a hipótese de que rãs maiores são mais parasitadas, atendendo aos objetivos A, B e C. O artigo foi publicado na revista

Journal of Helminthology 96, e62, 1–17, 2022
(<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022149X22000499>).

Capítulo 2: Efeito da Altitude e Heterogeneidade Espacial na Relação Parasito-Hospedeiro em Anuros de um Remanescente de Floresta Úmida no Semiárido Brasileiro (*Effect of altitude and spatial heterogeneity on the host-parasite relationship in anurans from a remnant humid forest in the Brazilian semiarid*) - No presente estudo, investigou-se os efeitos da heterogeneidade ambiental e do gradiente altitudinal na abundância e riqueza de endoparasitos, analisou-se a influência dos efeitos filogenéticos e ecológicos nos parâmetros parasitas (tais como prevalência, riqueza e abundância de espécies) e foi testada a hipótese de que os parasitos seguem a distribuição de seus hospedeiros, independentemente da variação altitudinal e/ou heterogeneidade, atendendo aos objetivos D, E e F. O artigo foi submetido a revista *Parasitology Research*, e encontra-se em avaliação. (Link para normas: <https://www.springer.com/journal/436/submission-guidelines>); e

Capítulo 3: Endoparasitos de *Adelophryne maranguapensis* Hoogmoed, Borges & Cascon, 1994, (Anura, Eleutherodactylidae), uma espécie endêmica e ameaçada de um pântano de altitude no nordeste do Brasil (*Endoparasites of Adelophryne maranguapensis Hoogmoed, Borges & Cascon, 1994 (Anura, Eleutherodactylidae), an endemic and threatened species from an altitude swamp in northeastern Brazil*) - Neste artigo, são apresentados os dados sobre os helmintos endoparasitos, a relação da abundância parasitária com o tamanho dos indivíduos e com o sexo de *Adelophryne maranguapensis*, espécie endêmica do Estado do Ceará, considerada criticamente em perigo, para entender algumas características na relação parasito-hospedeiro e no uso da área deste anuro. Assim fornecer dados que possam servir na produção de políticas voltadas a conservação dessa espécie, atendendo ao objetivo G. O artigo foi publicado na revista *Parasitology Research*, 121(3), 1053-1057, 2022. (<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-022-07458-y>).

Chapter 1 –

2. Endoparasite community of anurans from an altitudinal rainforest enclave in a Brazilian semiarid area

Comunidade endoparasitária de anuros de um enclave de floresta tropical altitudinal no semiárido brasileiro

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Endoparasite community of anurans from an altitudinal rainforest enclave in a Brazilian semiarid area

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Abstract.

In the present study, we aimed to describe the composition of endoparasites associated with anurans from an altitudinal rainforest enclave in northeastern Brazil. Additionally, we tested if microhabitat use influences endoparasite abundance and richness, as well as the hypothesis that larger frogs tend to be more parasitized. We sampled 306 individuals from 25 anuran species that were necropsied and analysed using a stereomicroscope. The total endoparasite prevalence was 79.08%, with a parasitic community consisting of 46 taxa. Overall, we found the common pattern described for Neotropical amphibians, which is the predominance of generalist and direct-cycle parasites. Twenty new host records and two possible new parasite species were found, highlighting the importance of this type of inventory. We also observed that microhabitat use was associated with a significant difference in parasite richness between groups, in which arboreal and terrestrial species, and aquatic and arboreal species contributed to these differences. Moreover, larger frogs tended to be more parasitized regarding only an interspecific view. Our results suggest that parasite richness is directly related to infection cycle and how the host exploits its habitat.

Keywords: helminths; parasite; amphibians; maranguape mountain

Resumo.

No presente estudo, objetivamos descrever a composição de endoparasitas associados a anuros de um enclave de floresta tropical altitudinal no nordeste do Brasil. Além disso, testamos se o uso de microhabitat influencia a abundância e riqueza dos endoparasitas, bem como a hipótese de que os sapos maiores tendem a ser mais parasitas. Amostramos 306 indivíduos de 25 espécies de anuros que foram necropsiados e analisados usando um estereoscópio. A prevalência total de endoparasitas foi de 79,08%, com uma comunidade parasitária composta de 46 *taxa*. Em geral, encontramos o padrão comum descrito para os anfíbios neotropicais, que é a predominância de parasitas generalistas e de ciclo direto. Vinte novos registros de hospedeiros e duas possíveis novas espécies de parasitos foram encontrados, destacando a importância deste tipo de inventário. Observamos também que o uso de microhabitats foi associado a uma diferença significativa na riqueza parasitária entre grupos, nos quais espécies arbóreas e terrestres, e espécies aquáticas e arbóreas contribuíram para estas diferenças. Além disso, os sapos maiores tendiam a ser mais parasitados em relação a uma visão interespecífica. Nossos resultados sugerem que a riqueza parasitária está diretamente relacionada ao ciclo de infecção e à forma como o hospedeiro explora seu habitat.

Palavras-chave: helmintos; parasita; anfíbios; montanha de maranguape.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Parasites are diverse organisms that are an integral part of nature, representing most of the global biodiversity and one of the most common life strategies on the planet (Windsor, 1998; Poulin & Morand, 2004; Kuris, 2008). Parasitic organisms are also ecologically important (Marcogliese, 2004; Poulin & Morand, 2004) because they are closely related to environmental conditions, and thus, might be considered potential indicators of environmental quality (Catalano *et al.*, 2013). Despite the increase of parasitological studies, the science as a whole is still far from having complete knowledge about the parasite biodiversity and ecology on Earth (Poulin & Morand, 2004). Therefore, inventories are the basis for studies, and determining which and how many species is part of an ecosystem is essential for understanding the diversity and functioning of organisms (Segalla *et al.*, 2021). In addition, these organisms are involved in various processes of nature regulation and might influence host population conditions because they interfere in crucial processes such as competition, migration, dispersal and speciation (Vitt & Caldwell, 2009; Matias *et al.*, 2018). Thus, knowledge about parasite diversity and distribution is important to understand the role of parasite-host ecological relationships on ecosystem dynamics (Poulin & Krasnov, 2010; Campião *et al.*, 2015b).

The altitudinal enclaves of humid montane forests known as ‘brejos-de-altitude’ [highland swamps] are isolated areas in the morphoclimatic domain of the Caatingas, which are marked by a high degree of endemism of their herpetofauna (Borges-Nojosa & Caramaschi, 2003; Albuquerque *et al.*, 2012; Borges-Nojosa *et al.*, 2016). As they are considered exceptional environments, due to local climatic conditions, they form isolated systems considered as unique elements (Vanzolini, 1981; Borges-Nojosa & Caramaschi, 2003). Such areas are classified as of extreme biological importance (MMA, 2000; Sousa *et al.*, 2004), and responsible for the greatest richness of anurans in Ceará state, northeastern Brazil (Roberto & Loebmann, 2016). Despite the recent increase of parasitological studies dealing with anurans from these mountains (Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020; Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021; Machado *et al.*, 2022), their parasite diversity is still underestimated.

According to Aho (1990), anurans show low parasite richness that is variable and isolationist when compared to other vertebrate groups. However, some amphibian species may present a higher richness of helminths (Hamann *et al.*, 2006), being currently accepted that amphibians harbour rich and diverse helminth fauna (Camião *et al.*, 2014; Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021; Machado *et al.*, 2022). Recently published studies (e.g. Campião *et al.*, 2015b; Lins *et al.*, 2017; Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020; Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021) report processes that influence the structure of helminth communities in amphibians,

including host size, genus, diet, site of infection, species and behaviour. In addition, features of host habitats are key factors in parasite colonization (Goater *et al.*, 2005), drawing attention to the composition of parasite communities, which vary widely among host populations of the same species (Poulin *et al.*, 2011; Bezerra *et al.*, 2016).

In the present study: (i) we aimed to describe the composition of endoparasites associated with anurans from an altitudinal rainforest enclave in northeastern Brazil; (ii) to test if microhabitat use influences endoparasite abundance and richness; and (iii) to test the hypothesis that larger frogs tend to be more parasitized.

2.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.2.1 Study area

Sampling took place in the Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, northeastern Brazil (Fig. 1), a crystalline residual massif with a maximum altitude of 920 m, vegetation composed of humid forest covering the highest points, dry forest in the intermediate points gradually replacing the humid forest, and Caatinga in the lowlands (Borges-Nojosa & Caramaschi, 2003). The climatic regime is defined by two distinct seasons: dry season from June to December, and rainy season from January to May, with average annual precipitation of 1300 mm, and temperatures ranging from 26°C to 28°C (Ceará, 2002; IPECE, 2017).

2.2.2 Sampling

Anuran sampling occurred during the rainy season, from April to May 2019 (15 days of sampling) and from February to May 2020 (17 days of sampling), through visual and auditory searches (Bernarde, 2012). The sampling period started at dusk and extended until midnight (17:00–00:00 h), which is the time period when the majority of anuran species are most active in foraging and reproduction. For each individual, we determined the microhabitat use considering the site of capture (arboreal, aquatic or terrestrial).

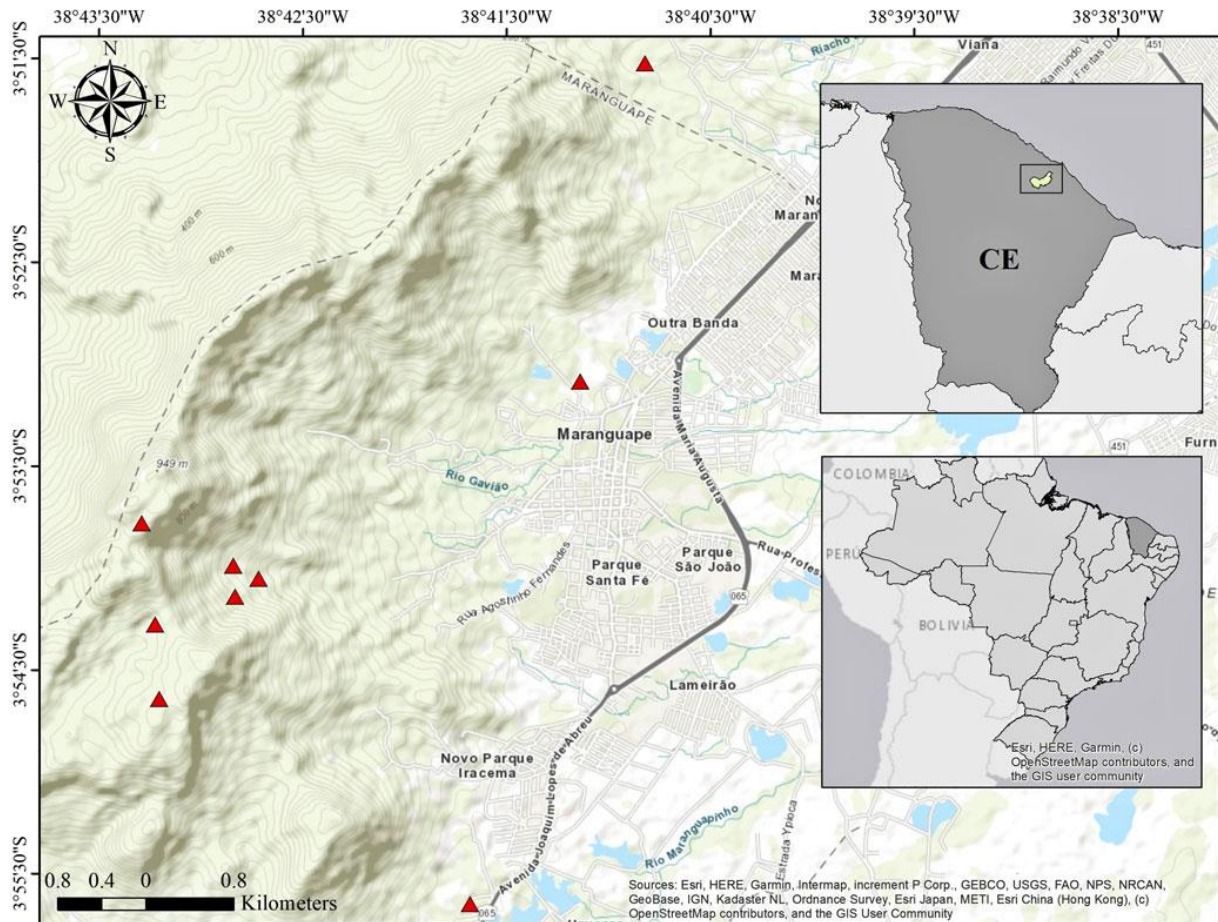


Fig. 1. Schematic map of the sampling points in Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, northeastern Brazil. Red triangles represent sampling points.

The collected specimens were euthanized with a lethal injection of sodium thiopental (Thiopentax®), following the ethical procedures of the Federal Council of Veterinary Medicine – CFMV (2013). Afterwards, we measured the mass with a Pesola scale (precision 0.1 g) and the snout–vent length (SVL) using a Mitutoyo® digital caliper (precision 0.01 mm). Voucher specimens were fixed in 10% formalin according to Calleffo (2002) and deposited in the Herpetological Collection of the Federal University of Ceará (CHUFC – A 9762 to A 9953), Fortaleza, Brazil.

2.2.3 Parasitological Procedures

We necropsied the anurans after performing a ventral incision and examined for the presence of endoparasites in the organs (gastrointestinal tract, lungs, liver and kidneys) and internal cavity using a stereomicroscope according to Amato *et al.* (1991). For species identification, we collected and prepared the endoparasites following specialized

methodologies according to each taxonomic group (Yamaguti, 1971; Schmidt, 1986; Vicente *et al.*, 1991; Andrade, 2000). Temporary slides were analysed using a light microscope. Voucher specimens were deposited in the Parasitological Collection of the Universidade Federal do Ceará (CPUFC – 196 to 441), Fortaleza, Brazil.

We measured the following parasitological parameters according to Bush *et al.* (1997): prevalence (percentage of parasitized amphibians in each host species); mean intensity of infection (mean number of parasites in parasitized amphibians); and mean parasite abundance.

2.2.4 Statistical Analyses

We used the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Shapiro-Wilk < 0.05) to investigate whether parasite richness and abundance vary in response to microhabitat used by anuran species (aquatic, arboreal and terrestrial), followed by Dunn's *post-hoc* test to investigate which groups contributed most to the differences (P -values adjusted with the Benjamini-Hochberg method). Regarding both interspecific and intraspecific views, we tested the influence of anuran body size (SVL and mass) on the abundance and richness of parasites with a linear mixed model, using host sex as a random effect. For this test, we used only anuran species with more than five individuals parasitized. Analyses and graphs were performed using the packages ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), nlme (Pinheiro & Bates, 2000), vegan (Oksanen *et al.*, 2016) and FSA (Ogle *et al.*, 2022) from R software (R core team, 2021).

2.2.5 Ethical standards

The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional guides on the care and use of laboratory animals. Collection permit Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade – ICMBio (#72384-1 and #73215-1) and Ethic Committee on Animal Use of the Federal University of Ceará (CEUA-UFC) (#CEUA 6314010321).

2.3 RESULTS

We sampled 306 individuals from 25 anuran species (Fig. 2), of which 242 individuals (75 females, 161 males and six juveniles) were parasitized with at least one parasite taxon. We found 7042 helminth specimens, with an overall prevalence of 79.08%, mean infection intensity of 29.09 and total abundance of 23.01 ± 1.58 . The endoparasite community consisted of 46 taxa. The most abundant taxa were *Raillietnema spectans*, *Oswaldocruzia*

mazzai and *Schrankiana schranki*. The highest prevalence values were observed for *Oswaldocruzia mazzai*, *Physaloptera* sp. and *Centrorhynchus* sp. Endoparasite richness ranged from two to 17 parasites taxa per host, *Oswaldocruzia mazzai* and *Physaloptera* sp. being the most prevalent parasites (Table 1).

The most parasitized anurans were *Trachycephalus typhonius* (n = 17), *Pristimantis relictus* (n = 17) and *Physalaemus cuvieri* (n = 15). *Adelophryne maranguapensis* was not parasitized, while *Leptodactylus troglodytes* (n = 2), *Rhinella granulosa* (n = 3) and *Adenomera juikitam* (n = 3) had few associated parasite taxa. In addition, we found 20 new host records and two possible new parasite species (Table 2).



Fig. 2. Anurans found in Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, northeastern Brazil: (A) *Rhinella diptycha*; (B) *Rhinella granulosa*; (C) *Adelophryne maranguapensis*; (D) *Boana raniceps*; (E) *Corythomantis greeningi*; (F) *Dendropsophus minusculus*; (G) *Dendropsophus minutus*; (H) *Dendropsophus nanus*; (I) *Dendropsophus tapacurensis*; (J) *Scinax x-signatus*; (K) *Trachycephalus typhoni*; (L) *Adenomera juikitam*; (M) *Leptodactylus fuscus*; (N) *Leptodactylus macrosternum*; (O) *Leptodactylus mystaceus*; (P) *Leptodactylus pustulatus*; (Q) *Leptodactylus syphax*; (R) *Leptodactylus troglodytes*; (S) *Leptodactylus vastus*; (T) *Physalaemus cuvieri*; (U) *Elachistocleis piauiensis*; (V) *Proceratophrys cristiceps*; (W) *Proceratophrys renalis*; (X) *Pithecopus gonzagai*; and (Y) *Pristimantis relictus*.

Table 1. The endoparasite community found in the anuran species from Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, northeastern Brazil.

PARASITES	N	N.H	P (%)	M.I. + R	Ab. ± S.E.	S.I.
Acanthocephala						
<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	168	14	16.67	0.69 (1 – 15)	0.55 ± 0.50	S. C. SI. LV.
<i>Oligacanthorhynchus</i> sp.	16	3	1.96	0.07 (1 – 10)	0.05 ± 1.47	C.
Annelida						
<i>Dero (Allodero) lutzii</i>	4	3	0.98	0.02 (1 – 2)	0.01 ± 0.33	UD.
Nematoda						
<i>Aplectana crucifer</i>	7	1	0.33	0.03 (7)	0.02	LI.
<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	43	6	4.58	0.18 (1 – 9)	0.14 ± 0.69	SI. LI.
<i>Aplectana meridionalis</i>	45	1	1.96	0.19 (3 – 21)	0.15 ± 2.81	SI. LI.
<i>Capillaria</i> sp.	1	1	0.33	0.004 (1)	0.003	UD.
<i>Cosmocerca brasiliense</i>	10	1	0.33	0.04 (10)	0.03	SI. LI.
<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	265	12	13.07	1.10 (1 – 74)	0.87 ± 2.08	S. SI. LI. LG.
<i>Cosmocerca podicipinus</i>	46	1	1.63	0.19 (2 – 26)	0.15 ± 4.28	S. SI. LI. LG.
<i>Cosmocerca rara</i>	85	4	1.96	0.35 (2 – 48)	0.28 ± 7.76	SI. LI.
<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	282	10	15.36	1.17 (1 – 41)	0.92 ± 1.32	S. SI. LI.
<i>Cosmocercoides</i> sp.	4	1	0.52	0.02 (4)	0.01	LI.
<i>Falcaustra mascula</i>	23	4	1.31	0.10 (1 – 11)	0.08 ± 2.49	SI. LI.
<i>Ochoterenella convolute</i>	4	1	0.33	0.02 (4)	0.01	C.
<i>Ochoterenella</i> cf. <i>vellardi</i>	12	1	0.65	0.05 (2 – 10)	0.04 ± 4	C.
<i>Ochoterenella</i> sp.	4	3	0.65	0.02 (1 – 3)	0.01 ± 1	C. S.
<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	980	15	27.12	4.05 (1 – 87)	3.20 ± 1.90	C. S. SI. LI.
<i>Oxyascaris caatingae</i>	21	3	0.98	0.09 (1 – 18)	0.07 ± 5.50	SI. LI.
<i>Parapharyngodon</i> cf. <i>duniae</i>	15	1	0.65	0.06 (6 – 9)	0.05 ± 1.50	SI. LI.
<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	247	19	19.61	1.02 (1 – 37)	0.81 ± 0.78	C. S. LV. LG.
<i>Physalopteroides venancioi</i>	8	2	0.65	0.03 (2 – 6)	0.03 ± 2.0	C. S. SI.
<i>Porrocaecum</i> sp.	13	4	1.31	0.05 (1 – 8)	0.04 ± 1.60	C. S. LV.
<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	1026	13	13.73	4.24 (1 – 253)	3.35 ± 7.79	SI. LI.
<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	276	11	11.44	1.14 (1 – 80)	0.90 ± 2.68	LG. LV.
<i>Rhabdias</i> cf. <i>stenocephala</i>	10	2	1.63	0.04 (1 – 4)	0.03 ± 0.54	LG.
<i>Rhabdias pseudosphaerocephala</i>	27	2	0.98	0.11 (9)	0.09	LG.
<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	447	13	14.38	1.85 (1 – 105)	1.46 ± 2.90	LG.
<i>Schrankiana schranki</i>	905	4	1.96	3.74 (1 – 700)	2.96 ± 111.62	SI. LI.
<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	14	6	2.61	0.06 (1 – 4)	0.05 ± 0.41	S. SI. LI.
Nematoda gen. sp.	7	2	0.65	0.03 (1 – 6)	0.02 ± 2.50	S. LI.
Unidentified Ascarididae larvae	2	2	0.52	0.008 (1)	0.007	C.
Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	1740	18	18.30	7.19 (1 – 247)	5.69 ± 7.36	S. SI. LI. LV.
Platyhelminthes						
Cestoda						
<i>Cylindrotaenia americana</i>	6	2	0.98	0.02 (2)	0.02	SI.

Monogenea						
<i>Polystoma cf. lopezromani</i>	14	2	0.98	0.06 (1 – 8)	0.05 ± 2.02	UB.
Trematoda						
<i>Catadiscus marinholutzi</i>	1	1	0.33	0.004 (1)	0.003	LI.
<i>Catadiscus propinquus</i>	76	3	2.61	0.31 (2 – 22)	0.25 ± 2.67	SI. LI.
<i>Choledocystus simulans</i>	37	1	0.98	0.15 (1 – 35)	0.12 ± 11.33	SI.
<i>Choledocystus vitellinophilum</i>	1	1	0.33	0.004 (1)	0.003	SI.
<i>Gorgoderina parvicava</i>	3	1	0.33	0.01 (3)	0.01	UB.
<i>Lophosicyadiplostomum sp.</i>	17	3	0.98	0.07 (3 – 7)	0.06 ± 1.33	K.
<i>Mesocoelium monas</i>	3	1	0.65	0.01 (1 – 2)	0.01 ± 0.50	SI.
<i>Neohaematoloechus neivai</i>	56	1	1.31	0.23 (3 – 21)	0.18 ± 4.18	G. SI.
<i>Rauschiella linguatula</i>	13	2	1.96	0.05 (1 – 4)	0.04 ± 0.60	S. SI.
<i>Rudolphitrema sp.</i>	5	1	0.33	0.02 (5)	0.02	SI.
Unidentified Metacercaria larvae	53	4	1.96	0.22 (5 – 18)	0.17 ± 2.05	K.
Total	7042	242	79.08	29.09 (1 – 700)	23.01 ± 1.58	

n, number of parasites; N.H, number of infected hosts; P%, prevalence; M.I., mean intensity; R, range; Ab., abundance; S.E., standard error; S.I., site of infection; C, cavity; S, stomach; SI, small intestine; LI, large intestine; LV, liver; LG, lung; G, gallbladder; PA, pancreas; K, kidney; UB, urinary bladder; and UD, urinary duct.

We observed that microhabitat use was associated with a significant difference in parasite richness between groups ($H = 13.35$, $P = 0.0012$), in which Dunn's *post-hoc* test evidenced that arboreal and terrestrial species ($P = 0.001$) and aquatic and arboreal species ($P = 0.023$) contributed significantly to these differences (Fig. 3). By contrast, parasite abundance did not vary significantly between groups ($H = 5.2821$, $P > 0.05$).

We also observed that larger frogs (SVL) tend to be more parasitized considering the parasite abundance ($T = 2.148$, $P = 0.0328$) and richness ($T = 4.576$, $P = 0.0001$), regardless of sex (intercept = 0.0041 and 0.1291, respectively) (Fig. 4). Mass had no significant influence on both abovementioned parasitological descriptors ($P > 0.05$). In an intraspecific view, parasite load (richness and abundance) seemed not to be influenced by the size of each anuran species (Table 3).

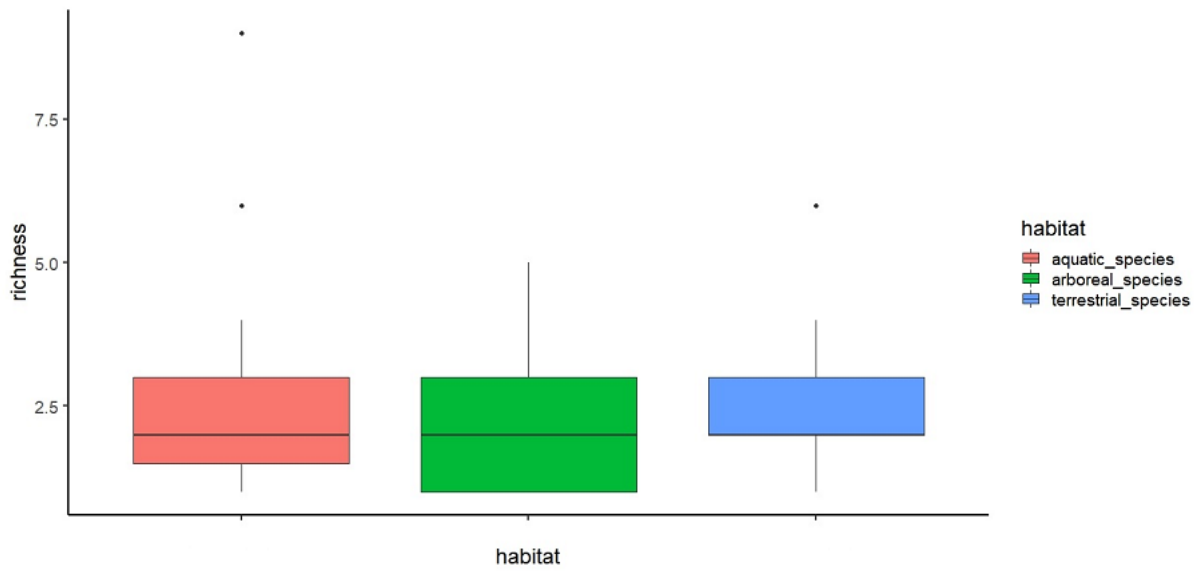


Fig. 3. Boxplot representing the parasite richness between the groups of microhabitats used by the anurans.

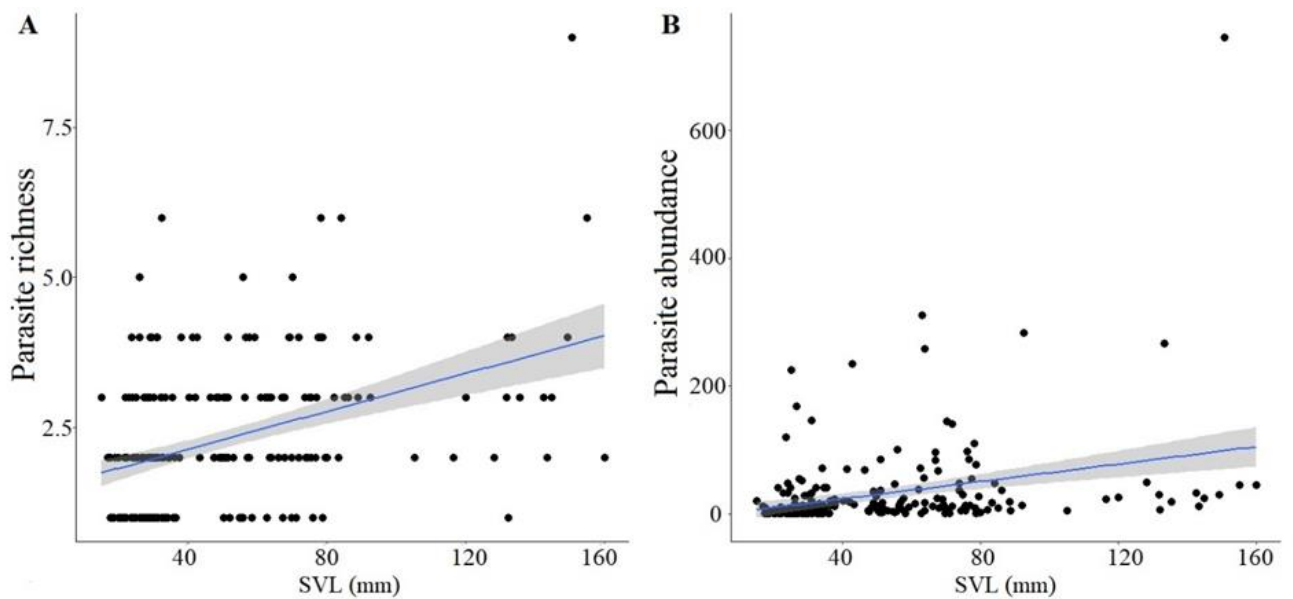


Fig. 4. Relationship of parasite richness (A) and abundance (B) with the host's body size (anuran interspecific view) from Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, northeastern Brazil.

Table 2. List of endoparasites found in the anuran species from Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, Brazil and literature review for previous records. *n*= Number of hosts; *P*%= Prevalence; A.M.= Abundance; * Possible new species.

Hosts (<i>n</i> = 306)	Parasite Species	<i>P</i> (%)	A.M.	Reference
BUFONIDAE				
<i>Rhinella diptycha</i> (<i>n</i> =15; <i>P</i> %=86.7)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	13.3	16.7	-
	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	26.7	3.5	New record
	<i>Ochoterenella</i> sp.	6.7	0.2	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	53.3	8.9	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	13.3	0.4	Amorim <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	6.7	0.9	Amorim <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	<i>Rhabdias pseudosphaerocephala</i>	20	1.8	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	60	4.8	Amorim <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Schrankiana schranki</i>	6.7	0.1	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	13.3	0.6	New record
<i>Rhinella granulosa</i> (<i>n</i> =6; <i>P</i> %=83.3)	<i>Oligacanthorhynchus</i> sp.	6.7	0.1	New record
	<i>Mesocoelium monas</i>	13.3	0.2	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	66.7	3.2	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	66.7	5.7	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Teles <i>et al.</i> , 2018
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	83.3	14.8	Teles <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
STRABOMANTIDAE				
<i>Pristimantis relictus</i> (<i>n</i> =45; <i>P</i> %=88.9)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	15.6	7.2	-
	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	13.3	0.5	New record
	<i>Aplectana meridionalis</i>	13.3	1	New record
	<i>Capillaria</i> sp.	2.2	0.02	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	8.9	0.1	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca rara</i>	2.2	1.1	New record

	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	33.3	1.4	New record	
	<i>Ochoterenella</i> cf. <i>vellardi</i>	4.4	0.3	New record	
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	2.2	0.02	New record	
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	13.3	0.2	New record	
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	20	6.1	New record	
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	15.6	0.2	New record	
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	13.3	0.7	New record	
	<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	2.2	0.02	New record	
	Nematoda gen. sp. (females)	2.2	0.02	*	
	<i>Choledocystus simulans</i>	6.7	0.8	New record	
	<i>Gorgoderina parvicava</i>	2.2	0.1	New record	
ELEUTHERODACTYLIDAE					
	<i>Adelophryne maranguapensis</i>	-	-	Not parasitized	
HYLIDAE					
	<i>Boana raniceps</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	60	30.67	-
(n=15; P%=93.3)	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>		6.7	0.53	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Sani <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>		13.3	5.67	González & Hamann, 2011, 2015; Machado <i>et al.</i> , 2022
	<i>Cosmocerca rara</i>		6.67	1.73	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>		46.67	17.2	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2015a; Machado <i>et al.</i> , 2022
	<i>Oxyascaris caatingae</i>		6.67	0.07	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.		13.33	1.27	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2016a; Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Sani <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Physalopteroides venancioi</i>		6.67	0.4	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2016b
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>		33.33	9.67	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.		40	8.73	Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Sani <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Machado <i>et al.</i> , 2022
	<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.		6.67	0.27	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.		20	0.8	New record
	<i>Choledocystus vitellinophilum</i>		6.67	0.07	Travassos <i>et al.</i> , 1969; Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021

<i>Corythomantis greeningi</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	20	11	-
(n=5; P%=100)	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	20	2.2	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	60	1.2	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	20	2.6	New record
	<i>Dero (Allodero) lutzii</i>	20	0.2	Morais <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Polystoma</i> cf. <i>lopezromani</i>	20	0.2	New record
<i>Dendropsophus minusculus</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	13.3	0.8	-
(n=15; P%= 40)	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	6.7	0.8	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	6.7	3.4	New record
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	13.3	0.8	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	6.7	0.4	New record
	<i>Cylindrotaenia americana</i>	6.7	0.4	New record
	Unidentified Metacercaria larvae	6.7	2.2	-
<i>Dendropsophus minutus</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	6.3	2.5	-
(n=16; P%=75)	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	31.3	2.9	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	12.5	0.1	Martins-Sobrinho <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Ochoterenella</i> sp.	6.3	0.06	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	6.3	0.06	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	6.3	0.06	New record
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	6.3	0.06	New record
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	6.3	0.4	New record
	<i>Rhabdias pseudosphaerocephala</i>	6.3	0.1	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	6.3	0.06	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	6.3	0.9	New record
	<i>Lophosicyadiplostomum</i> sp.	6.3	0.4	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	Unidentified Metacercaria larvae	6.3	0.3	-
<i>Dendropsophus nanus</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	7.7	0.06	-

(n=13; P%=38.5)	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	23.1	0.8	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	<i>Cylindrotaenia americana</i>	15.4	0.3	Hamann & Kehr, 1998
	<i>Lophosicyadiplostomum</i> sp.	7.7	0.4	Queiroz <i>et al.</i> , 2020
<i>Dendropsophus tapacurensis</i> (n=17; P%= 23.5)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	5.9	0.06	-
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	17.6	0.4	New record
<i>Scinax x-signatus</i> (n=23; P%= 69.6)	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	5.9	0.06	New record
	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	17.4	2	-
	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	4.3	0.04	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	8.7	0.5	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca rara</i>	4.3	0.2	New record
	<i>Cosmocercoides</i> sp.	4.3	0.2	*
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	21.7	1.9	New record
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	26.1	2.9	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	13	3.2	New record
	<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	4.3	0.04	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	8.7	1.2	Martins-Sobrinho <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Oligacanthorhynchus</i> sp.	4.3	0.04	New record
	<i>Dero (Allodero) lutzi</i>	4.3	0.04	Morais <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Trachycephalus typhonius</i> (n=18; P%=100)	<i>Lophosicyadiplostomum</i> sp.	4.3	0.1	New record
	Unidentified Metacercaria larvae	4.3	0.3	-
	Unidentified Ascarididae larvae	5.6	0.1	-
	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	50	13.5	-
	<i>Aplectana crucifer</i>	5.6	0.4	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	5.6	0.2	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	27.8	3.3	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	55.6	10.4	New record
	<i>Parapharyngodon</i> cf. <i>duniae</i>	11.1	0.8	Burse & Brooks, 2004

	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	5.6	0.1	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2016a; Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	22.2	1.1	New record
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	5.6	0.1	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	5.6	0.1	Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Schrankiana schranki</i>	5.6	0.1	New record
	<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	11.1	0.3	New record
	Nematoda gen. sp. (female)	5.6	0.3	*
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	38.9	0.7	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Dero (Allodero) lutzii</i>	5.6	0.1	Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Polystoma</i> cf. <i>lopezromani</i>	11.1	0.7	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017
LEPTODACTYLIDAE				
<i>Adenomera juikitam</i>	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	25	0.5	New record
(n=8; P%= 25)	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	12.5	0.13	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	12.5	0.13	New record
<i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i>	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	25	0.3	Morais, 2013; Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
(n=4; P%=100)	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	50	2	Morais, 2013
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	50	29.5	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	50	1.3	Cañizales, 2021
	<i>Schrankiana schranki</i>	75	50.5	Morais, 2013
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	50	1.3	Sani <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Catadiscus propinquus</i>	25	0.5	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	14.3	0.2	-
(n=14; P%=100)	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	7.1	2.6	González & Hamann, 2011; Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	14.3	0.7	New record
	<i>Falcaustra mascula</i>	7.1	0.07	Morais, 2013; Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	35.7	5.1	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	42.9	2.2	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2016a; Queiroz <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Vieira <i>et al.</i> , 2021

	<i>Physalopteroides venancioi</i>	7.1	0.1	Morais, 2013; Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2016a
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	21.4	0.5	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	35.7	0.9	González & Hamann, 2011; Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Queiroz <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Vieira <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	21.4	0.3	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	<i>Porrocaecum</i> sp.	7.1	0.6	González & Hamann, 2015
	<i>Catadiscus propinquus</i>	7.1	0.1	Queiroz <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Rauschiella linguatula</i>	14.3	0.4	Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Leptodactylus mystaceus</i>	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	66.7	0.7	New record
(n=3; P%=100)	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	66.7	1.7	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2015a
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	33.3	0.07	Queiroz <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	33.3	2.7	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
<i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	9.1	0.3	-
(n=11; P%=90.9)	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	9.1	0.4	New record
	<i>Oxyascaris caatingae</i>	9.1	0.2	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	9.1	0.5	Morais, 2013
	<i>Rhabdias</i> cf. <i>stenocephala</i>	36.4	0.5	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	9.1	0.2	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	18.2	0.5	New record
	<i>Catadiscus propinquus</i>	54.5	6.5	New record
	<i>Rauschiella linguatula</i>	36.4	0.7	New record
<i>Leptodactylus syphax</i>	<i>Falcaustra mascula</i>	50	4.5	Morais, 2013
(n=2; P%=100)	<i>Ochoterenella convoluta</i>	50	2	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	100	3.5	New record
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	100	96	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> cf. <i>stenocephala</i>	50	2	New record
	<i>Porrocaecum</i> sp.	50	1	New record
<i>Leptodactylus troglodytes</i>	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	100	1	-

	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	100	17	New record
<i>Leptodactylus vastus</i> (n=9; P%=100)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	22.2	0.4	-
	<i>Falcaustra mascula</i>	11.1	1.2	New record
	<i>Ochoterenella</i> sp.	11.1	0.1	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	55.6	1.6	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Oxyascaris caatingae</i>	11.1	2	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	55.6	3.3	New record
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	11.1	28.1	Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	44.4	1.9	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	33.3	4	New record
	<i>Schrankiana schranki</i>	11.1	77.8	Campião <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	33.3	2.9	New record
	<i>Oligacanthorhynchus</i> sp.	44.4	1.6	New record
	<i>Neohaematoloechus neivai</i>	44.4	6.2	New record
	<i>Porrocaecum</i> sp.	11.1	0.2	New record
<i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> (n=29; P%=96.6)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	17.2	6.7	-
	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	3.4	0.1	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	27.6	1	Santos & Amato, 2013
	<i>Cosmocerca podicipinus</i>	10.3	0.2	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca rara</i>	24.1	2.5	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	20.7	0.5	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	27.6	0.4	Oliveira <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	17.2	0.6	Toledo <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Sani <i>et al.</i> , 2021;
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	17.2	2.3	Oliveira <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Silva-Neta <i>et al.</i> , 2020
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	3.4	0.03	New record
	<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	17.2	1.6	Graça <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Toledo <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Aguiar <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	10.3	0.2	New record

	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	3.4	0.03	New record
	<i>Porrocaecum</i> sp.	3.4	0.2	New record
	<i>Rudolphitrema</i> sp.	20.7	0.3	New record
MICROHYLIDAE				
<i>Elachistocleis piauiensis</i> (n=4; P%=75)	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	50	9.5	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	25	0.3	New record
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	25	1	New record
ODONTOPHRINIDAE				
<i>Proceratophrys cristiceps</i> (n=2; P%=100)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	50	0.04	-
	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	50	0.04	Teles <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Silva <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	<i>Falcaustra mascula</i>	50	0.04	Silva <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	50	1	Teles <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Silva <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> (n=14; P%=92.9)	Unidentified Ascarididae larvae	7.1	0.1	-
	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	21.4	3.1	-
	<i>Aplectana membranosa</i>	14.3	0.4	New record
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	42.9	1.4	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	85.7	13.8	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	21.4	0.7	New record
	<i>Raillietnema spectans</i>	28.6	1.5	New record
	<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	21.4	0.6	New record
PHYLLOMEDUSIDAE				
<i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> (n=14; P%= 92.9)	Unidentified Cosmocercidae larvae	21.4	1.5	-
	<i>Cosmocerca parva</i>	7.1	0.07	Martins-Sobrinho <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	<i>Cosmocerca brasiliense</i>	7.1	0.7	New record
	<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i>	7.1	0.5	New record
	<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	14.3	0.3	New record
	<i>Rhabdias breviensis</i>	14.3	0.7	New record

<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	14.3	0.1	New record
<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	42.9	1.1	Martins-Sobrinho <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Catadiscus marinholutzi</i>	7.1	0.07	New record
Unidentified Metacercaria larvae	21.4	2.1	-

Table 3. Relationship between parasite richness and abundance with anuran body size (snout–vent length - SVL and mass), regarding an interspecific view, obtained through linear mixed models.

TAXA	Parasite richness			Parasite abundance			
	St. D. ± S.E.	T	P	RE	T	P	RE
Bufonidae							
<i>Rhinella diptycha</i>				0.000131			0.00604
Mass	141.86 ± 39.34	-0.566	0.586		-0.584	0.575	
SVL	31.09 ± 8.62	0.183	0.859		0.322	0.755	
Hylidae							
<i>Boana raniceps</i>				1.721969			43.6378
Mass	6.62 ± 1.76	0.0891	0.930		-0.262	0.798	
SVL	7.80 ± 2.08	0.880	0.399		-0.067	0.947	
<i>Dendropsophus minutus</i>				2.577e-05			0.00364
Mass	0.17 ± 0.05	-0.116	0.910		0.099	0.923	
SVL	3.13 ± 0.94	1.562	0.162		-0.294	0.776	
<i>Scinax x-signatus</i>				7.145e-05			0.00087
Mass	0.49 ± 0.12	0.453	0.658		-1.731	0.108	
SVL	2.60 ± 0.65	-0.537	0.600		1.964	0.073	
<i>Trachycephalus typhonius</i>				2.401e-05			0.00168
Mass	6.69 ± 1.57	-0.734	0.474		-1.429	0.174	
SVL	10.02 ± 2.36	0.498	0.625		1.305	0.212	
Leptodactylidae							
<i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i>				2.686e-05			0.000906
Mass	25.08 ± 6.70	0.727	0.485		0.971	0.356	
SVL	15.34 ± 4.10	0.966	0.359		-1.110	0.295	
<i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i>				0.4825533			13.08361
Mass	5.19 ± 1.64	-0.664	0.530		-0.743	0.485	
SVL	9.22 ± 2.91	0.754	0.479		1.190	0.278	
<i>Leptodactylus vastus</i>				6.832e-05			0.028361
Mass	104.23 ± 34.74	1.473	0.200		1.257	0.264	
SVL	37.15 ± 12.38	-0.352	0.738		-0.777	0.472	
<i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i>				2.987e-05			13.82402
Mass	0.42 ± 0.07	0.634	0.531		-0.263	0.794	
SVL	1.87 ± 0.35	-0.242	0.810		-0.427	0.672	
Odontophrynidae							
<i>Proceratophrys renalis</i>				3.469e-05			9.79580
Mass	3.47 ± 0.96	1.138	0.284		1.184	0.266	
SVL	3.33 ± 0.92	-0.475	0.645		-2.072	0.068	
Phyllomedusidae							
<i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i>				3.101e-05			0.000532
Mass	0.33 ± 0.09	1.249	0.243		0.790	0.449	
SVL	2.29 ± 0.63	-0.118	0.908		-0.093	0.927	
Strabomantidae							
<i>Pristimantis relictus</i>				4.676e-05			0.002645
Mass	0.48 ± 0.07	0.919	0.363		-0.196	0.864	
SVL	3.81 ± 0.60	-0.012	0.990		0.171	0.845	

St. D. ± S.E.= Standard deviation and standard error.

Significant values and percentage of variation in response that is explained by the fixed effects (mass and SVL) are represented by *P* and *T* values. Random effects were obtained through the intercept values (RE).

2.4 DISCUSSION

Communities of endoparasites associated with anurans generally show high richness and diversity (Campião *et al.*, 2014); in the present study, we found 46 parasite *taxa*, corroborating this pattern. Following the same infection pattern found in other Neotropical anurans (Lins *et al.*, 2017; Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020; Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021), as well as in other vertebrate groups, such as reptiles (Brito *et al.*, 2014; Carvalho *et al.*, 2018), mammals (Santos *et al.*, 2015; Biolchi *et al.*, 2021) and birds (Santos *et al.*, 2015), nematodes was the helminth group with the highest representation (65.2%) of the collected specimens. Nematodes are abundant in the number of species, generalists, and well distributed in the environment. Species with direct life cycle reach their hosts by oral ingestion or active penetration of infectious larvae through the skin, not requiring an intermediate host for their development (Anderson, 2000), which facilitates the dispersion and high incidence of infection of this parasite group. Although parasitological studies dealing with anuran communities in northeastern Brazil have recently increased, there are still important gaps in our knowledge about them. For example, of the 25 host species sampled herein, six have not been surveyed for parasites yet. In addition, we present 20 new host records (see table 2), reinforcing the importance of parasite checklists.

Due to the increase in parasitological studies (Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021), it is quite common to find records of parasites not previously reported for host species (Aguiar *et al.*, 2014; Silva *et al.*, 2019). In the last decade, several studies on parasitism in Neotropical amphibians have been conducted (Madelaire *et al.*, 2012; Aguiar *et al.*, 2015; Chero *et al.*, 2016; Amorim *et al.*, 2019; Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020; Sani *et al.*, 2021; Machado *et al.*, 2022), with the nematode parasites *Falcaustra mascula*, *Ochoterenella* sp., *Oswaldocruzia mazzai*, *Oxyascaris oxyascaris*, *Physaloptera* sp., *Raillietnema spectans* and *Rhabdias* sp. being the most commonly reported species. In our study, we found the same scenario, despite the low prevalence for some of the aforementioned species. This result is possibly due to the wide distribution of these parasites and their generalist habitats regarding host selection (Campião *et al.*, 2014, 2015b; Oliveira *et al.*, 2019). In addition, the lack of taxonomic studies can be a limiting factor for an accurate identification of some parasite species distributed in the studied region. However, the description of new species has been increasing as parasitological studies progress (Felix-Nascimento *et al.*, 2020).

Oswaldocruzia mazzai showed the highest prevalence (27.12%) and was present in 60% of the parasitized host species in the anuran community in our study. This result may be related to the direct life cycle of this parasite and the simple mode of transmission (Anderson,

2000). The genus *Physaloptera* had the second highest prevalence (19.61%). Parasites of this group are commonly found in all anuran parasite studies and have also been observed in several classes of terrestrial vertebrates (Ogassawara *et al.*, 1986; Tung *et al.*, 2009; Cabral *et al.*, 2018). In amphibians, they are usually found in the larval stage, suggesting that these vertebrates are used as paratenic hosts. We also collected four individuals of *Cosmocercoides* sp. (one male and three females) in the large intestine of one specimen of *Scinax x-signatus*. The species was assigned to the genus *Cosmocercoides* due to the presence of a large number of rosette-like caudal papillae surrounded by punctuations. This is the first record of *Cosmocercoides* sp. for altitudinal rainforest enclave areas within the large Caatinga phytophysiognomy, nevertheless, further studies are necessary to define the species. Additionally, we also provide the first record of infection in Brazil of the species *Parapharyngodon* cf. *duniae*.

We also found nematode larvae parasitizing the small intestine and/or large intestine of several host species. Larvae of this type are commonly found in amphibian and reptile species (Ávila & Silva, 2010; Campião *et al.*, 2014), and this larval stage may be associated with the monoxenous cycle of the parasite (Anderson, 2000), besides representing a recent infection and/or reproduction of the adult parasites in the host.

Platyhelminthes was the second most diverse phylum found in the present study, with 13 different taxa belonging to three classes (Cestoda, Monogenea and Trematoda). The most diverse class of Platyhelminthes was Trematoda with 11 *taxa* recorded. The aquatic habitat facilitates trematodes' infection, which usually have snails as intermediate hosts (Madelaire *et al.*, 2012). These parasites also use amphibians as intermediate hosts (Guillén-Hernández *et al.*, 2000), found more often in aquatic and semiaquatic frogs such as leptodactylids (Camião *et al.*, 2014; Oliveira *et al.*, 2019). *Catadiscus propinquus* was the most abundant trematode and represents a new host record for *Leptodactylus pustulatus*. Indeed, some species are new host records; however, all trematodes had low prevalence considering the species pool (see table 2). Cestodes were represented by *Cylindrotaenia americana*, a cestode commonly found in Brazil, including in altitudinal rainforest's enclaves (Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020). Herein, we provide the first record of this cestode in the treefrogs *Dendropsophus minusculus* and *Dendropsophus nanus*. Regarding monogenean parasites, we found 14 individuals of *Polystoma* cf. *lopezromani* parasitizing *Corythomantis greeningi* and *Trachycephalus typhoni*. *Polystoma* is the most diverse genus known in Polystomatidae (Sinnappah *et al.*, 2001), having a direct life cycle, which can be completed in the gills of tadpoles or urinary duct of adult anurans (Bentz *et al.*, 2006).

Acanthocephalans are extensively reported for reptiles (Matias *et al.*, 2018; Araújo *et al.*, 2020) and amphibians (Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020) as cystacanths. They are parasites with indirect life cycle, in which arthropods act as intermediate hosts, and fish, mammals or waterfowl as final hosts (Baker, 2007). The presence of these cystacanths in amphibian hosts indicates that these species are used as paratenic hosts, possibly infected through the diet. In the present study, we found two genera represented by *Centrorhynchus* and *Oligacanthorhynchus*. *Centrorhynchus* sp. is the most common genus reported in Brazil for anuran hosts (Fabio, 1982; Smales, 2007). *Oligacanthorhynchus* sp. are heteroxenous parasites and usually have mammals as final hosts (Richardson *et al.*, 2014). In South America, they are reported infecting *Odontophrynus americanus* (Silva *et al.*, 2018) and *Pleurodema diplolister* (Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020). This study is the first record of *Oligacanthorhynchus* sp. for the anurans *Leptodactylus vastus*, *Rhinella diptycha* and *Scinax x-signatus*.

Regarding the phylum Annelida, we found four individuals of *Dero (Allodero) lutzi* in the urinary duct of *Corythomantis greeningi*, *Scinax x-signatus* and *Trachycephalus typhoni*. The genus *Dero* is known to use frogs for transport and as hosts (Oda *et al.*, 2015). This behaviour is stimulated by chemicals released by the amphibians, which are used by the parasite for dispersal (Lopez *et al.*, 2005). *Dero (Allodero) lutzi* has been found parasitizing different amphibians, mainly arboreal species (Oda *et al.*, 2015), likely because these parasites are free-living inhabitants of bromeliad ponds and tree holes (Lopez *et al.*, 1999).

The characteristics and the way the host explores its habitat can influence the composition and structure of the helminth fauna, and explain the richness and diversity of the parasites associated with it (Poulin & Morand, 2004; Chandra & Gupta, 2007; Euclides *et al.*, 2021). Thus, anuran amphibians have a diverse parasite fauna due to their natural history (Prudhoe & Bray, 1982), which are generally associated with two types of environments, aquatic and terrestrial (Chandra & Gupta, 2007). Species of arboreal amphibians tend to have low parasite richness, due to a possible reduction in the encounter with infective parasitic larvae. On the other hand, host anurans with terrestrial or semiaquatic habitats tend to have greater contact with the terrestrial environment when searching for water bodies, increasing the odds of contact with a greater number of parasites (Pizzatto *et al.*, 2013; Euclides *et al.*, 2021).

However, we observed that the arboreal habitat had great parasite richness. The higher number of individuals classified as arboreal (n = 163) in the present study may be an explanation for the significant relationship of arboreal habitat with parasite richness. Most species classified as arboreal were found during the reproductive period, in which anurans seek out puddles and mate for reproduction, passing through terrestrial and aquatic environments.

This provides a greater likelihood of direct contact with infectious larvae, which allows a greater variety of parasites to become established in these animals (Chandra & Gupta, 2007).

According to Todd (2007), endoparasitic helminths of amphibians require an aquatic environment for the development and transmission of their infective stages, as this promotes increased parasite transmission. However, we observed that the use of terrestrial and arboreal microhabitat contributed significantly to the abundance of parasites, showing that most helminth parasites of amphibians do not require an aquatic environment in the process of transmission and infection. Our data also indicated no relationship between host sex and parasite richness, but this result may have been influenced by the difference in the number of individuals of each sex analysed (Madeira & Sogayar, 1993). Moreover, most anuran hosts do not present differentiation in habitat use according to sex, being both subject to the same chances of infection by infective larvae available in the environment. It is also noteworthy that biotic factors such as the immune system and host age also affect parasitism, as they influence the life of both parasite and host (Pietroock & Marcogliese, 2004).

Overall, at an interspecific view, we observed that larger frogs tend to be more parasitized. Indeed, larger hosts can support a higher parasite load and even higher species richness because they offer greater microhabitat diversity favouring the development and reproduction of parasites (George-Nascimento *et al.*, 2004; Campião *et al.*, 2015b). However, this hypothesis was not supported in the present study at intraspecific views. This pattern was also found in other parasitological studies dealing with amphibians (e.g. Oliveira *et al.*, 2019; Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2021; Machado *et al.*, 2022). It seems that this hypothesis might be more evidenced concerning a species pool with anuran species of different sizes (e.g. Silva-Neta *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, for congeneric species, we believe that other aspects such as microhabitat use, physiology, behaviour and seasonality, might have a greater influence on parasite load than the anuran size.

We conclude that the endoparasite composition of anurans from Maranguape mountain follow the common pattern described for Neotropical amphibians, showing high species richness and prevalence. We also recorded the first parasitological data for six anuran species and 20 new host records, which corroborates the hypothesis that amphibians are good models for parasite studies due to their way of life, behaviour and feeding. Furthermore, we stress the importance of parasite inventories for host species in understudied regions. We also emphasize that endoparasite composition has a significant relationship with the type of habitat used by the host due to the life cycle and mode of transmission of the parasites. As for the

relationship between richness and host size, we indicate here that the size factor is predictive only if it has a large variation from the average host size.

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Chapter 2 –

3 Effect of Altitude and Spatial Heterogeneity on the Host-Parasite Relationship in Anurans from a Remnant Humid Forest in the Brazilian Semiárido

Efeito da Altitude e Heterogeneidade Espacial na Relação Parasito-Hospedeiro em Anuros de um Remanescente de Floresta Úmida no Semiárido Brasileiro

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Effect of Altitude and Spatial Heterogeneity on the Host-Parasite Relationship in Anurans from a Remnant Humid Forest in the Brazilian Semiarid

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Abstract

In the present study, we investigated the effect of habitat heterogeneity, altitudinal gradient, and phylogeny on the abundance and richness of anuran endoparasites, assuming that parasites follow the distribution of their hosts independently of environmental variation. We collected 192 anurans, representing 23 host species, distributed in three altitude ranges. We performed discriminant principal component analysis to verify if there is a formation of species groups in each altitude range. We estimated the niche width and overlap of the parasites and assessed whether parasite abundance is more influenced by historical or ecological effects in each altitude category and overall. Finally, we use network analyses to understand how the interaction between parasites and hosts are formed. We found 22 parasite species and the overall prevalence of infection was 74%. We did not detect abiotic (altitude and heterogeneity gradients) or phylogenetic effects acting on the parasite species. Overall, our results suggest that the parasites are distributed following the dispersal of their hosts, and are dispersed to most anuran species.

Keywords: Ecology, Phylogeny, Interaction networks, Species distribution, Helminth, Amphibians.

Resumo

No presente estudo, investigamos o efeito da heterogeneidade do habitat, gradiente altitudinal e filogenia sobre a abundância e riqueza dos endoparasitas em anuros, assumindo que os parasitos seguem a distribuição de seus hospedeiros independentemente da variação ambiental. Coletamos 192 anuros, representando 23 espécies hospedeiras, distribuídas em três faixas de altitude. Realizamos análise discriminante dos componentes principais para verificar se há formação de grupos de espécies em cada faixa de altitude. Estimamos a largura do nicho e a sobreposição dos parasitas, avaliamos se a abundância de parasitas é mais influenciada por efeitos históricos ou ecológicos em cada categoria de altitude e no geral. Finalmente, usamos análises de rede para entender como se forma a interação entre os parasitas e os hospedeiros. Encontramos 22 espécies de parasitas e a prevalência geral de infecção foi de 74%. Não detectamos efeitos abióticos (gradientes de altitude e heterogeneidade) ou filogenéticos agindo sobre as espécies parasitárias. Em geral, nossos resultados sugerem que os parasitas são distribuídos após a dispersão de seus hospedeiros, e estão dispersos para a maioria das espécies de anuros.

Palavras-chave: Ecologia, Filogenia, Redes de interação, Distribuição das espécies, Helmintos, Anfíbios.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the main objectives of ecology is to determine the causes of the distribution and abundance of organisms (Krebs 2001). In this sense, ecologists have sought to identify the characteristics of populations and communities along geographical or environmental gradients that influence the species distribution (Kessler 2009; Junior and Gomes 2012; Silva and Rossa-Feres 2017). As a result, diverse ecological hypotheses and theories have been formulated to explain the patterns of distribution and species richness on the planet.

Environmental heterogeneity (MacArthur and MacArthur 1961) and latitudinal gradient (Pianka 1966; Rohde 1992), widely accepted as predictors of distribution patterns and species richness (Oliveira and Oliveira 2014), are some of the hypotheses and theories postulated to try to explain the distribution and species richness of individuals in certain habitats. In northeastern Brazil, some studies have shown that among environmental factors, temperature, humidity, and precipitation represent the main predictors of species diversity, especially of amphibians (Andrade et al. 2012; Araújo et al. 2018) and lizards (Gonçalves-Sousa et al. 2022).

Species richness is the first and oldest concept of species diversity (Krebs 2001) and the search for general patterns along environmental gradients has been investigated in different geographic areas and with different taxa, such as: amphibians (Pombal 1997; Dias-Terceiro et al. 2015; Araújo et al. 2018), birds (Kattan and Franco 2004), lizards (Gonçalves-Sousa et al. 2022), snakes (Fraga et al. 2018), mammals (Geise et al. 2004; Remonti et al. 2009); and plants (Bhattarai and Vetaas 2006; Lovett et al. 2006). Environmental heterogeneity is one of the best predictors of species diversity (Huston 1994) since the greater number of microenvironments found in more complex environments allows a greater number of species to coexist (Santos et al. 2007, 2012; Araújo et al. 2018).

Another aspect that can influence species richness is altitude (Rahbek 1995; Nunes and Santos 2011; Arita et al. 2014), which may be a limiting factor of several biotic factors and structuring the biological communities along altitudinal gradients (Colwell and Lees 2000; Rahbek 2005; Romdal and Grytnes 2007). Species richness tends to decrease with increasing altitude, with richer communities at intermediate altitudes (Rahbek 1995; Nunes and Santos 2011). However, variation in species richness across environmental gradients may differ between taxa, and the pattern found within the same taxon may differ between localities (Bernal and Lynch 2008; Hu et al. 2012; Siqueira and Rocha 2013).

According to Campião et al. (2014), anurans have parasitic communities composed of generalist helminths, which are species with wide distribution, high diversity, and low host specificity. These communities are mainly composed of direct transmission species, favoring parasites with an infectious stage in the soil, such as nematodes (Barton 1999; Bursey et al. 2001). Where, the characteristics of the habitats that hosts inhabit may be critical to parasite colonization (Goater et al. 2005). Because of the way hosts respond to biotic factors, parasite richness can vary depending on environmental conditions (Poulin and Krasnov 2010). However, few studies show the influence of environmental variations on parasite-host relationships (Azevedo et al. 2006; Vasconcelos and Dias 2014), and even fewer in areas as specific as altitudinal rainforest enclaves.

Many species distribution models using the ecological niche are useful for solving questions in ecology, conservation, and biogeography, which can be used to understand the potential distribution of these parasites (Peterson et al. 2004; Guisan and Thuiller 2005; Haverkost et al. 2010). Analyzing communities across complex networks also allows us to highlight and analyze ecological patterns (Brito et al. 2014; D'Bastiani et al. 2020), due to the importance of considering the community context to understand the ecological implications of host-parasite interactions (Poisot et al. 2015; Gonzalez and Inés 2015). Likewise, studies of biological or macro ecological interactions, including patterns of ecological networks, are important for understanding the structure of the relationships between living organisms across wide geographic spaces (Gaston 2000; Vázquez et al. 2005; Guilhaumon et al. 2012). Studies emphasizing the structure of parasite-host networks have been increasing in the last decade (Krasnov et al. 2012; Brito et al. 2014; Poisot et al. 2015; D'Bastiani et al. 2020). These studies have found that phylogeny (Cattin et al. 2004), habitat constraints (Tylianakis et al. 2007), interspecific interactions (Ings et al. 2009), and morphology (Woodward et al. 2005) are key features of the architecture of an interaction network.

In the present study we investigated (i) the effects of environmental heterogeneity and an altitudinal gradient on the abundance and richness of endoparasites; (ii) the influence of phylogenetic and ecological effects on parasite parameters (such as prevalence, species richness and abundance); (iii) and tested the hypothesis that parasites follow the distribution of their hosts, independently of variation across several environmental gradients, heterogeneity and altitudinal gradients.

3.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.2.1 Study area

The study area consists of the Maranguape mountain, state of Ceará, Brazil, an enclave of the altitudinal rainforest with maximum altitude of 920m, usually known as "Brejo de altitude" (Andrade-Lima 1982; Tabarelli and Santos 2004). With a climatic regime is defined in two distinct seasons, a dry one from June to December and a rainy one concentrated between January to May, with average annual precipitation of 1300 mm, and temperatures ranging between 26°C and 28°C (Ceará 2002; Ipece 2017). Where, the humid vegetation is preserved, mainly in the part facing the coast, due to the altitude and location near the sea (Moro et al. 2015; Oliveira and Araújo 2007). This retained moisture helps to preserve the upper part of the mountain vegetation quite different from that found in the lower part and surroundings (Borges-Nojosa and Caramaschi 2003).

All these factors provide great variation along the vegetation gradient found on Maranguape mountain, where the open formation landscape corresponding to Caatinga (in the lower part) is being replaced by humid forest towards the top of the elevation. There is also a reduction in the total area that is covered by humid vegetation. Three basic vegetation types are found in the region, in the higher altitude range: Subperennial Cloudy Tropical Forest (Humid Forest); in the intermediate altitude range: Subcaducifolic Tropical Forest (Dry Forest); and in the lower altitude range: Thorny Caducifolic (Arboreal Caatinga), both marked by high woody components, interspersed with shrubs and vines (Figueiredo 1997; Moro et al. 2015). These vegetation variations by altitude observed in the Maranguape mountain make possible a huge environmental and climatic heterogeneity that allows different species to coexist (Borges-Nojosa and Caramaschi 2003; Diogo et al. 2021). It is also worth noting that the high and intermediate altitude ranges have long been exploited in the production of various crops, such as orange, coffee, and banana cultivation (Lima and Cascon 2008). This may have a great influence on the reduction of local species richness and diversity.

3.2.2 Data collection

We used the active search method (visual and auditory; Bernarde 2012) and manually collected, during 17 days in the rainy season from February to May 2020, 192 anurans at nine sampling points distributed over three altitude ranges in the Maranguape mountain (Fig. 1). To gauge the heterogeneity of each sampling point, we cataloged local and historical environmental descriptors according to Santos et al. (2007, 2012), and through the National Institute for Space Research - INPE. To test the altitudinal gradient, we divided the nine sample points (SP) into three altitude ranges: low (100 - 200m), intermediate (400 - 500m) and high (700 - 800m), to sample the three basic vegetation types with altitudinal variation (see Fig. 1).

In the laboratory, with lethal injection of lidocaine hydrochloride (CFMV, 2013), and then necropsied the anurans with a ventral incision and examined the presence of endoparasites in the organs (gastrointestinal tract, lungs, liver and kidneys) and internal cavity using a stereoscope according to Amato et al. (1991). We analyzed the infection parameters according to Bush et al. (1997). All identified endoparasites were deposited in the Parasitological Collection of the Federal University of Ceará (CPUFC - 196 to 441), Fortaleza, Brazil, and their hosts in the Herpetological Collection of the Federal University of Ceará (CHUFC - A 9762 to A 9953), Fortaleza, Brazil.

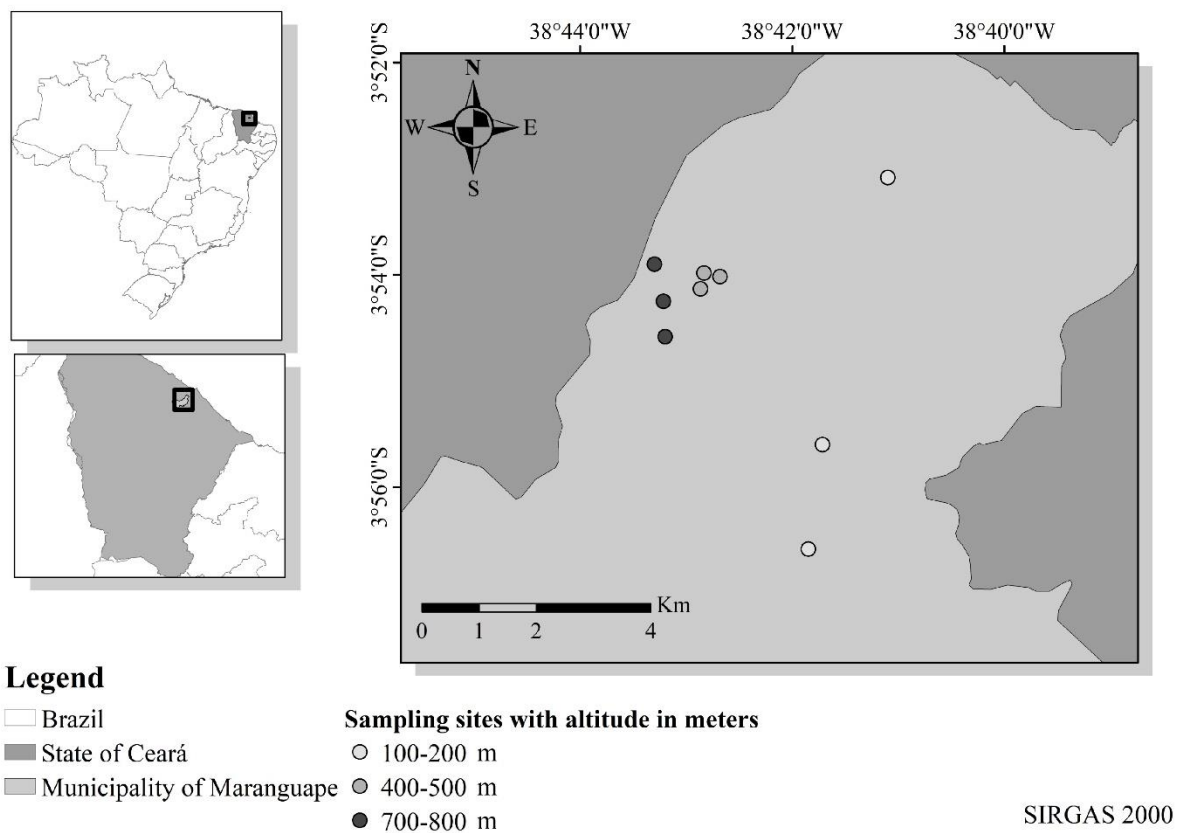


Figure 1. Schematic map of the sampling points in Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, Brazil.

3.2.3 Data Analysis

To verify if there is group formation in the occurrence of parasites and their hosts along the altitudinal ranges of the Maranguape mountain, we performed a principal component discriminant analysis (DAPC) on Jaccard dissimilarity matrices, calculated based on binary data (presence and absence), using the adegenet R-package (Jombart 2008). Then, we developed poncho plots to visualize which species occur in each altitudinal range. To verify how altitude interfere with local diversity, we calculated Shannon's diversity index (H') and

Jaccard's similarity (S) for host species and their endoparasites, and estimated niche width and overlap of parasites considering each host species as a "microhabitat" category, using the *spaa* R-package (Jinlong Zhang 2016). We considered values above 0.8 as a high niche overlap between pairs of species.

To understand how parasite-host interaction is formed in our dataset, we used complex network analysis with help of the bipartite R-package (Dormann et al. 2009). To check how connected are parasites and hosts in our sample community (connection is understood as the presence of interaction between at least one individual of a given parasite species and at least one individual of a given host species), we used the connectance metric (Dunne et al. 2002), and graphs were generated with the *igraph* R-package (Csardi and Nepusz 2006). This metric reveals the value of connections made amidst all possible connections in our dataset. To identify where the clustering density of interactions is most concentrated, i.e., where parasites or hosts would be most clustered, or, where most connections are, we used the clustering coefficient (Watts and Strogatz 1998). To verify the formation of clusters of interactions between parasites and hosts, we used the DIRTLPAbw+ algorithm (Beckett 2016), which uses the weighted data from the data matrix. This method considers the abundance of parasites in each host as the weight of the interaction and clusters will be detected around stronger interactions following this criterion. Graphs were generated with the *igraph* R-package (Csardi and Nepusz 2006).

We constructed a phylogenetic subtree, for the anuran community, total and for each of the altitudinal ranges, adapted from the most recent amphibian phylogenetic hypothesis (Jetz and Pyron 2018) using the *ape* R-package (Paradis et al. 2004). This phylogenetic hypothesis references 7238 species, and uses a Phylogenetic Set with Taxonomic Approaches and Inferences that includes all available sequence data for 15 genes (5 mitochondrial and 10 nuclear) and identifies 174 subclusters. To test whether historical effects (host phylogeny) are better predictors of parasite abundance than ecological factors, we performed phylogenetic principal component analyses (pPCA) for each altitudinal profile. To test whether phylogeny explains abundance within clades, we performed canonical phylogenetic ordering (CPO) analyses. In both cases, we used the same matrix as in the niche width analyses.

To evaluate beta diversity of parasite communities of Maranguape mountain, we used the following environmental gradients: vertical height relative to drainage-HAND, temperature, altitude, precipitation, and drainage density. We obtained altitude during field expeditions, using a Garmin eTrex 10 handheld GPS, Datum SIRGAS-2000. Data on HAND,

drainage density, mean annual temperature and annual precipitation were obtained from the National Institute for Space Research (<http://www.dpi.inpe.br/Ambdata/index.php>).

We executed a PERMANOVA (999 randomizations) to test whether there are significant differences in parasite dispersal along different environmental gradients in the vegan R-package (Oksanen et al. 2016). Temperature and altitude showed a high positive correlation with precipitation and HAND, respectively. Considering the habits of the hosts in the study, which are strongly influenced by water-related variables, we removed the temperature and altitude from our models to avoid spatial autocorrelation effects. Then, we executed a PERMANOVA with the occurrence and abundance of parasite species per point and also per independent variable. In this analysis, we used the square root of abundance to decrease the chance of bias caused by the presence of very abundant species. Finally, we executed a PERMIDISP to check for possible dispersal effects and performed an ANOVA to test the significance of the PERMIDISP.

3.3 RESULTS

We analyzed 192 individuals distributed in 23 species of anurans (Table 1). The species *Pristimantis relictus*, *Physalaemus cuvieri*, *Scinax x-signatus* and *Rhinella diptycha* were the most abundant, while *Adelophryne maranguapensis*, *Adenomera juikitam*, *Corythomantis greeningi*, *Leptodactylus mystaceus* and *Proceratophrys cristiceps* were the rarest species.

Of the 192 specimens examined, 142 individuals (42 females, 94 males and 6 juveniles) were parasitized with at least one parasitic species (overall prevalence = 74%), mean infection intensity of 26.3 ± 4.16 and total abundance of 19.5. The endoparasite community consisted of 22 taxa (Table 2), of which *Raillietnema spectans*, *Oswaldocruzia mazzai* and *Rhabdias* sp. were the most abundant in the community, and *Oligacanthorhynchus* sp., *Falcaustra mascula*, *Cosmocercoides* sp., *Oxyascaris caatingae* and *Rauschiella linguatula* the rarest species observed.

Table 1. List of anuran hosts of the Maranguape mountain, Ceará state, Brazil.

Anurans Hosts	Site (Altitudinal ranges)			Number of specimens
	Low	Middle	High	
Bufonidae				
<i>Rhinella diptycha</i> (Cope, 1862)	7	4	1	12
<i>Rhinella granulosa</i> (Spix, 1824)	5	-	-	5
Eleutherodactylidae				
<i>Adelophryne maranguapensis</i> Hoogmoed, Borges and Cascon, 1994	-	-	3	3
Hylidae				
<i>Boana raniceps</i> (Cope, 1862)	5	4	-	9
<i>Corythomantis greeningi</i> Boulenger, 1896	-	1	1	2
<i>Dendropsophus minusculus</i> (Rivero, 1971)	-	5	1	6
<i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> (Peters, 1872)	3	-	7	10
<i>Dendropsophus nanus</i> (Boulenger, 1889)	8	-	-	8
<i>Dendropsophus tapacurensis</i> Oliveira, Magalhães, Teixeira, Moura, Porto, Guimarães, Giaretta and Tinôco, 2021	-	4	7	11
<i>Scinax x-signatus</i> (Spix, 1824)	12	2	-	14
<i>Trachycephalus typhonius</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	-	2	6	8
Leptodactylidae				
<i>Adenomera juikitam</i> Carvalho and Giaretta, 2013	-	1	-	1
<i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> (Schneider, 1799)	4	-	-	4
<i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i> Miranda-Ribeiro, 1926	4	1	2	7
<i>Leptodactylus mystaceus</i> (Spix, 1824)	-	-	2	2
<i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i> (Peters, 1870)	7	-	-	7
<i>Leptodactylus vastus</i> Lutz, 1930	2	1	1	4
<i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> Fitzinger, 1826	9	9	5	23
Microhylidae				
<i>Elachistocleis piauiensis</i> Caramaschi and Jim, 1983	4	-	-	4
Odontophrynidae				

<i>Proceratophrys cristiceps</i> (Müller, 1884)	-	1	-	1
<i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> (Miranda-Ribeiro, 1920)	-	2	8	10
Phyllomedusidae				
<i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> Andrade, Haga, Ferreira, Recco-Pimentel, Toledo and Bruschi, 2020	8	-	-	8
Strabomantidae				
<i>Pristimantis relictus</i> Roberto, Loebmann, Lyra, Haddad and Ávila, 2022	-	16	17	33

The DAPC indicated the formation of three species occurrence groups for both parasites and hosts, corresponding to the altitude categories of the sampled points (Fig. 2A, B). With a small overlap being observed between the intermediate and high group. Poncho plots shown host and parasites species turnover and parasitic species but indicated that parasitic species are more dispersed along the entire gradient compared to their hosts (Fig. 3A, B).

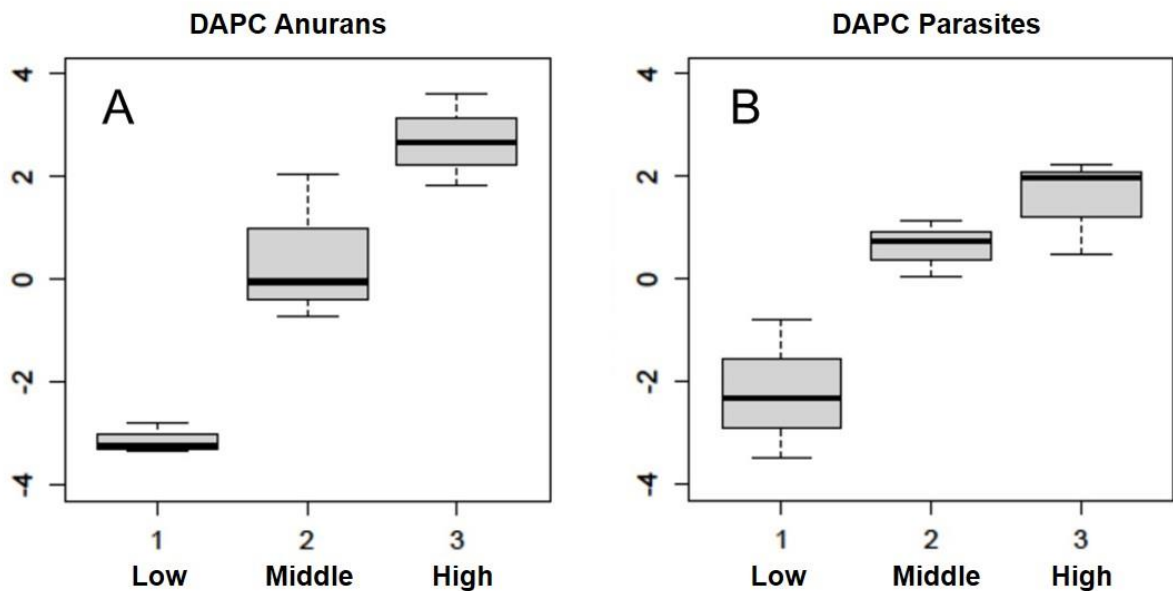


Figure 2. Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components - DAPC of the altitudinal ranges of the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará state, Brazil. A= DAPC for Anuran Hosts; B= DAPC for Parasitic Helminths.

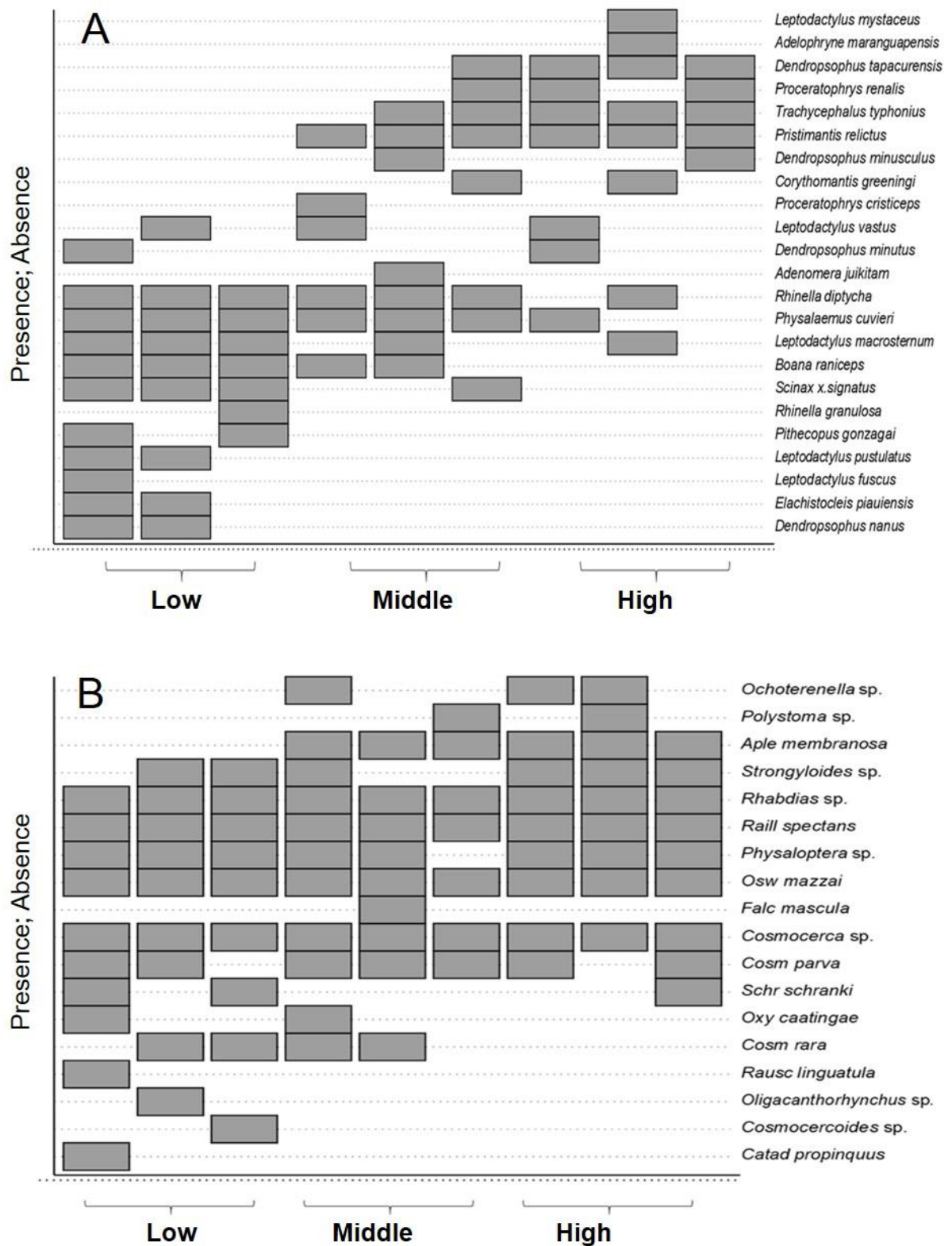


Figure 3. Distribution of species in the altitudinal ranges of the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará state, Brazil. Graphs showing: A= Anuran hosts; B= Parasites.

Table 2. Endoparasites of anuran hosts from Maranguape Mountain, Ceará state - Brazil. N= Number of parasites; P%= Prevalence; M.I.= Mean intensity of infection; S.E.= Standard error; A.M.= abundance.

ENDOPARASITE	N	P (%)	M.I. ± S.E.	A.M.	ANURAN HOSTS
Acanthocephala					
<i>Centrorhynchus</i> sp.	57	11.98	2.47 ± 0.73	0.30	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Dendropsophus nanus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>L. macrosternum</i> ; <i>L. pustulatus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> .
<i>Oligacanthorhynchus</i> sp.	1	0.52	1	0.01	<i>Leptodactylus vastus</i>
Nematoda					
<i>Aplectana membranosa</i> (Schneider, 1866)	43	7.29	3.07 ± 0.69	0.22	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys cristiceps</i> ; <i>P. renalis</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> .
<i>Cosmocerca parva</i> Travassos 1925	200	14.06	7.40 ± 2.93	1.04	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Elachistocleis piauiensis</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>L. macrosternum</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> .
<i>Cosmocerca rara</i> Freitas and Vicente, 1966	85	3.13	14.16 ± 7.76	0.44	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> .
<i>Cosmocerca</i> sp.	282	24.48	6 ± 1.32	1.47	<i>Adenomera juikitam</i> ; <i>Corythomantis greeningi</i> ; <i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i> ; <i>L. mystaceus</i> ; <i>L. pustulatus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhonius</i> .
<i>Cosmocercoides</i> sp.	4	0.52	4	0.02	<i>Scinax x-signatus</i>
<i>Falcaustra mascula</i> (Rudolphi, 1819)	1	0.52	1	0.01	<i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i>
<i>Ochoterenella</i> sp.	6	1.56	2 ± 0.57	0.03	<i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Rhinella diptycha</i> .

<i>Oswaldocruzia mazzai</i> Travassos, 1935	497	27.60	9.37 ± 2.27	2.59	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Corythomantis greeningi</i> ; <i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i> ; <i>L. mystaceus</i> ; <i>L. vastus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> ; <i>Rhinella diptycha</i> ; <i>R. granulosa</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
<i>Oxyascaris caatingae</i> Felix-Nascimento, Vieira, Muniz-Pereira, Moura, Ribeiro and Oliveira, 2020	3	1.04	1.50 ± 0.5	0.02	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i> .
<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	175	20.83	4.37 ± 1.09	0.91	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Elachistocleis piauiensis</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus macrosternum</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus vastus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> ; <i>Rhinella diptycha</i> ; <i>Rhinella granulosa</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
<i>Raillietnema spectans</i> Gomes, 1964	558	6.77	42.92 ± 8.94	2.91	<i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Elachistocleis piauiensis</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>L. mystaceus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Proceratophrys renalis</i> ; <i>Rhinella diptycha</i> ; <i>Rhinella granulosa</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
<i>Rhabdias</i> sp.	447	10.94	21.28 ± 4.20	2.33	<i>Adenomera juikitam</i> ; <i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Corythomantis greeningi</i> ; <i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>L. macrosternum</i> ; <i>L. pustulatus</i> ; <i>L. vastus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
<i>Schrankiana schranki</i> (Travassos, 1925)	205	2.60	41 ± 24.36	1.07	<i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>Rhinella diptycha</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
<i>Strongyloides</i> sp.	13	3.65	1.85 ± 0.45	0.07	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pithecopus gonzagai</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
Nematoda gen. sp.	7	1.04	3.50 ± 2.5	0.04	<i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
Unidentified Ascarididae	1	0.52	1	0.01	<i>Proceratophrys renalis</i>

Unidentified Cosmocercidae	1115	8.85	65.58 ± 16.75	5.81	<i>Boana raniceps</i> ; <i>Dendropsophus minutus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus vastus</i> ; <i>Physalaemus cuvieri</i> ; <i>Pristimantis relictus</i> ; <i>Scinax x-signatus</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
Platyhelminthes					
Monogenea					
<i>Polystoma</i> sp.	6	1.04	3 ± 2	0.03	<i>Corythomantis greeningi</i> ; <i>Trachycephalus typhoni</i> .
Digenea					
<i>Catadiscus propinquus</i> Freitas and Dobbin Jr, 1956	22	1.56	7.33 ± 2.90	0.11	<i>Leptodactylus fuscus</i> ; <i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i> .
<i>Rauschiella linguatula</i> (Rudolphi, 1819)	3	1.04	1.5 ± 0.5	0.02	<i>Leptodactylus pustulatus</i>
Total	3731	74	26.3 ± 4.16	19.5	

Parasite and host diversity declined with increasing elevation (Fig. 4). The similarity of endoparasite species was highest among altitudinal ranges (Parasites: low vs intermediate= 0.52; low vs high= 0.44; intermediate vs high= 0.78), compared to host species (Hosts: low vs intermediate= 0.31; low vs high= 0.27; intermediate vs high= 0.57).

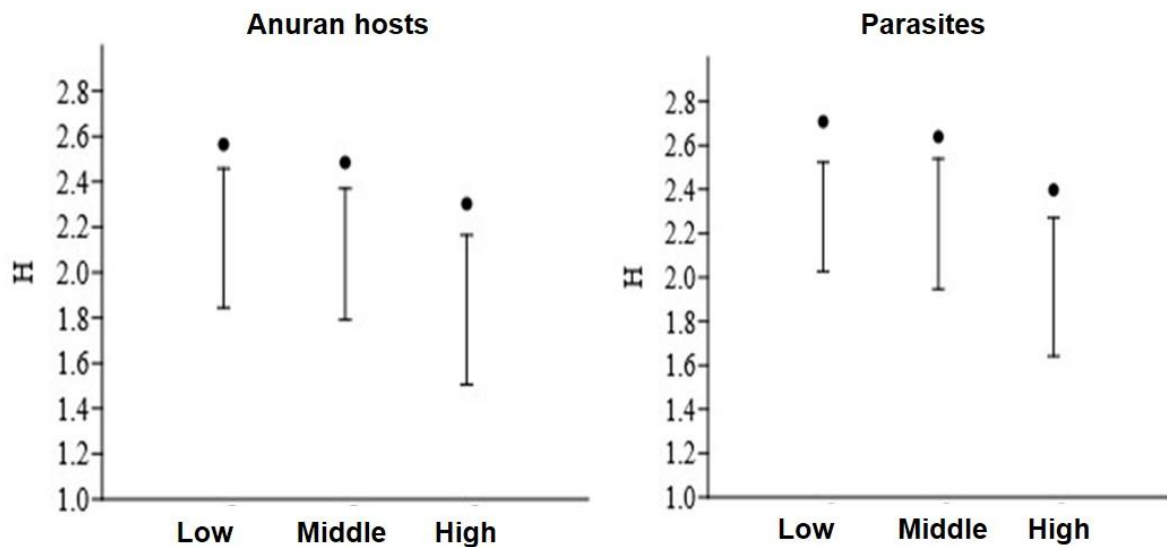


Figure 4. Diversity index of parasite and host species as a function of altitudinal ranges in the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará state, Brazil.

Overall, *R. spectans* vs *A. membranosa* (0.82); *O. mazzai* vs *C. parva* (0.83); *O. caatingae* vs *C. propinquus* (0.89); *R. linguatula* vs *O. caatingae* (0.89); *Cosmocercoides* sp. vs *Centrorhynchus* sp. (0.9); *C. rara* vs *A. membranosa* (0.96) and *R. linguatula* vs *C. propinquus* (1.0) showed high niche overlap.

We analyzed the altitudinal quotas individually, for the highest stratum, the species: *O. mazzai* vs *C. parva* (0.72); *Strongyloides* sp. vs *Polystoma* sp. (0.79); *Strongyloides* sp. vs *S. schranki* (0.79) showed a high niche overlap, but we did not find niche overlap above 0.8 between pairwise species in the highest stratum of Maranguape mountain. In the intermediate range, *Falcaustra mascula* vs *Physaloptera* sp. (0.82); *C. parva* vs *Centrorhynchus* sp. (0.90) and *C. rara* vs *Strongyloides* sp. (0.97) showed the highest niche overlap. The lowest altitude range was the only with total species overlap (1.0): *Catadiscus propinquus* vs *Rauschiella linguatula*; *Catadiscus propinquus* vs *Oxyascaris caatingae*; *Rauschiella linguatula* vs *Oxyascaris caatingae* and *Rhabdias* sp. vs *C. rara* with overlap of 0.85.

When analyzing the dataset under the metrics of complex network analysis, we found that only 29% of the possible interactions occurred given the possibilities of the dataset

($C=0.29$). Looking at the clustering coefficient values, we found that there is more clustering, meaning that there is more interaction between parasites than between hosts (0.51 and 0.40, respectively). We observed the formation of six clusters in the endoparasite anuran community of Maranguape mountain (Fig. 5). These clusters were detected due to the greater interaction between the cluster components relative to all other components of the dataset.

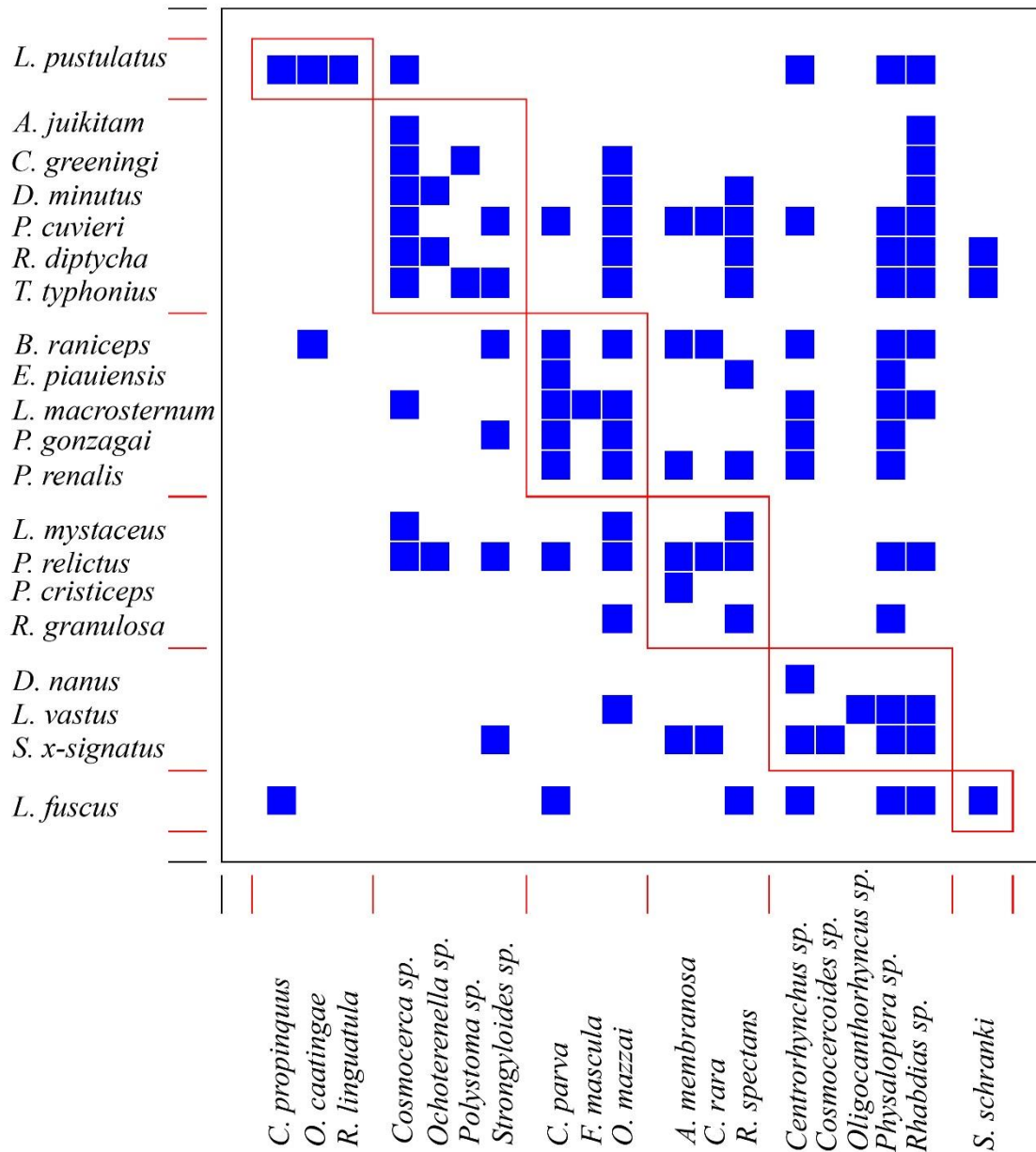


Figure 5. Clusters of parasite-host relationships in anurans of the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará state, Brazil. Legends: X axis - parasite species; Y axis - anuran species; red lines represent the clusters of interactions.

In general, phylogenetic principal component analyses (pPCA) suggest that ecological factors are better predictors than historical factors on parasite abundance at Maranguape mountain (Fig. 6), but this pattern was not followed when analyzing each altitudinal range separately. Ecological factors are stronger in the intermediate range community (Fig. 7B); historical factors were stronger in the lower range community (Fig. 7A); and both factors were influential in the higher range (Fig. 7C). The canonical phylogenetic ordering (CPO) analyses showed no significance values for any of the clades analyzed, corroborating that ecological factors are better predictors than historical factors.

We found no position effects of environmental variables on parasite occurrence (PERMANOVA, $F= 1.4942$; $p= 0.215$). Analyzing variables individually, results were significant for tree cover ($F= 2.8657$; $p= 0.049$). The PERMDISP showed that there is no dispersion effect (heterogeneity) along the tree cover gradient ($F= 1.2378$; $p= 0.511$), showing that there are no effects of environmental variables on the occurrence of parasites. Using the square root values of abundance ($F= 1.0578$; $p= 0.401$) and absolute abundance ($F= 1.4942$; $p= 0.228$) the results for PERMDISP were similar.

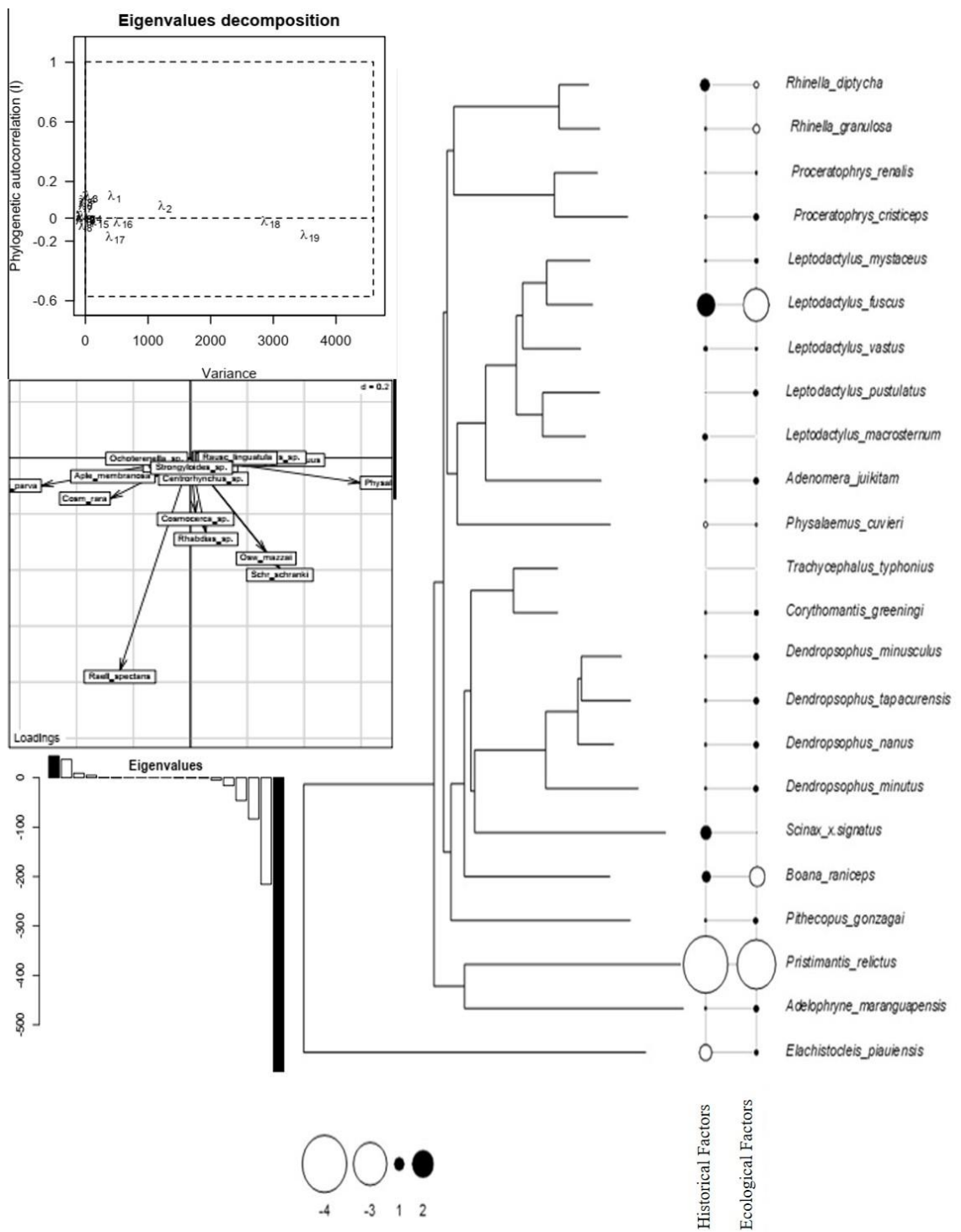


Figure 6. pPCA of parasite data in anurans from the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará State, Brazil.

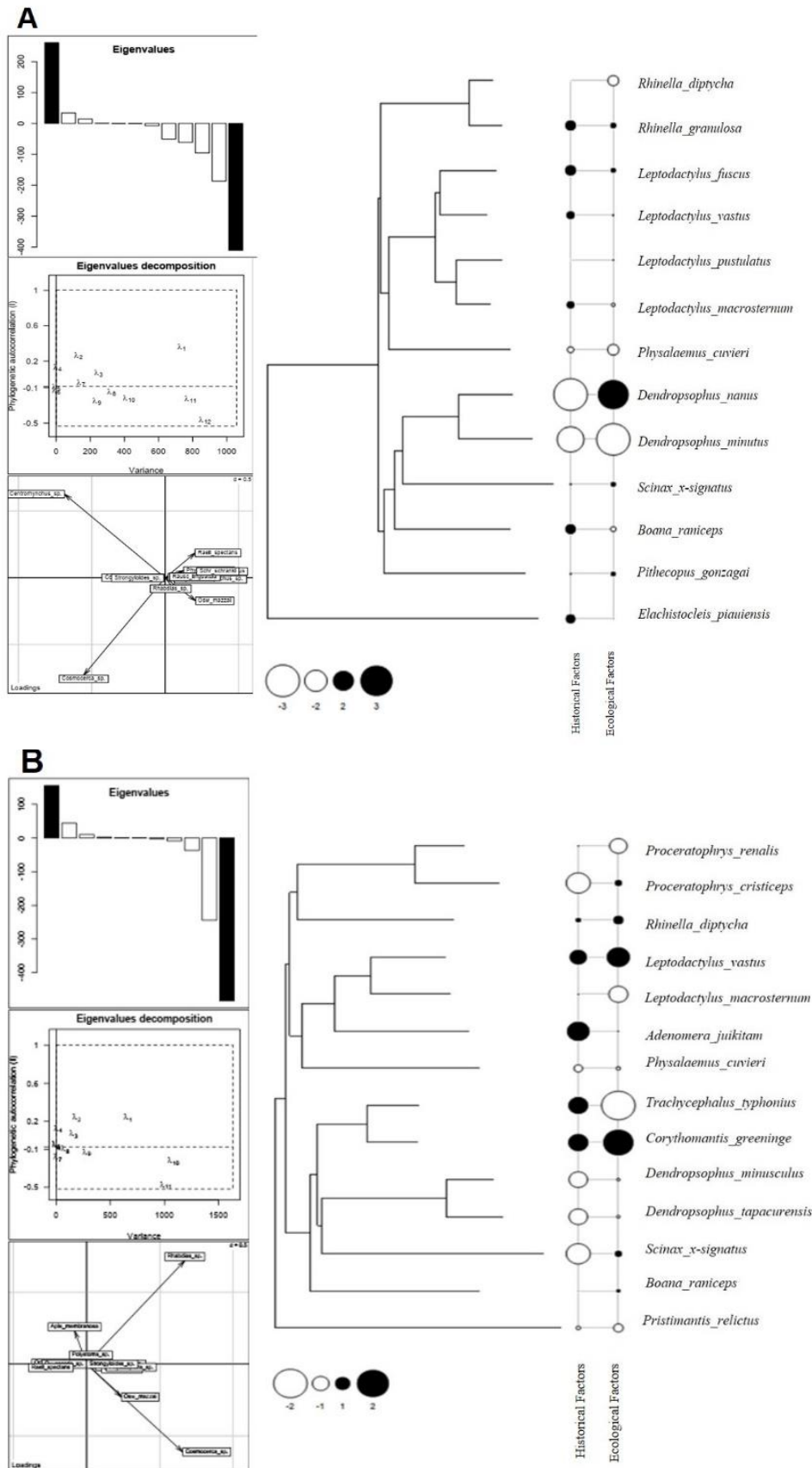


Figure 7. pPCA of parasite data in anurans relative to each altitudinal range of the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará State, Brazil. **A** = Low range (200m altitude); **B** = Intermediary range (500m altitude); **C** = High range (800m altitude).

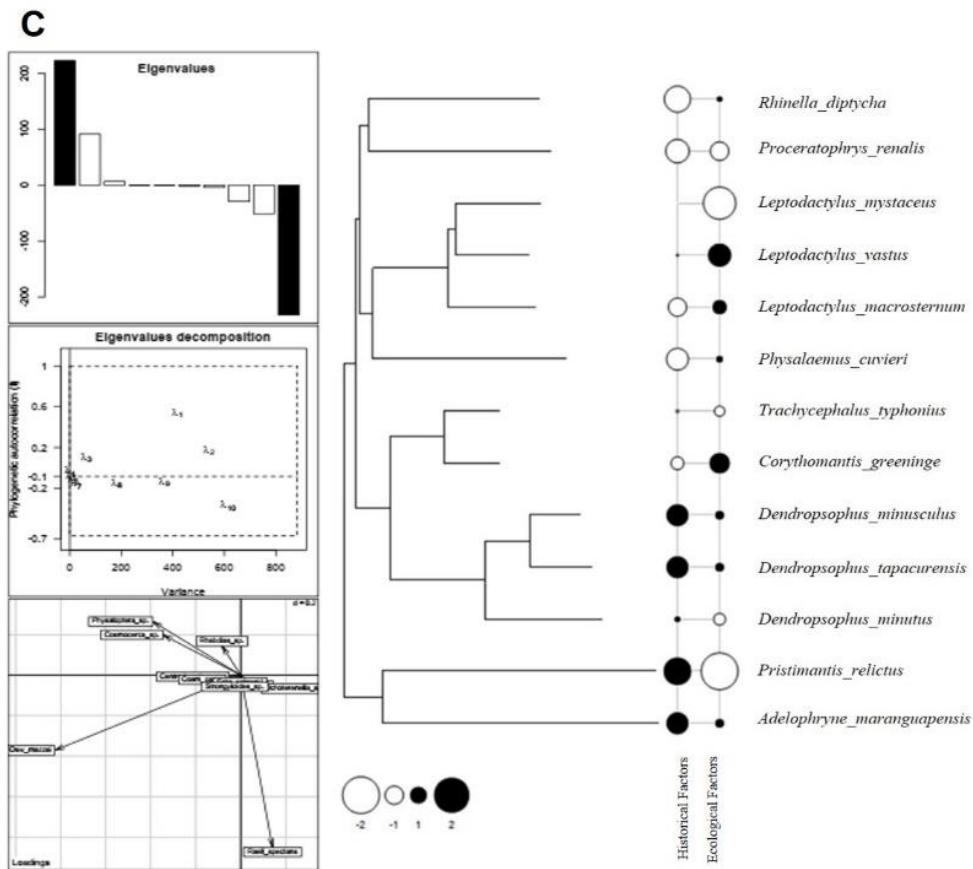


Figure 7 (continued). pPCA of parasite data in anurans relative to each altitudinal range of the Maranguape Mountains, Ceará State, Brazil. **A** = Low range (200m altitude); **B** = Intermediary range (500m altitude); **C** = High range (800m altitude).

3.4 DISCUSSION

Anurans are usually parasitized by generalist helminths, which have low host specificity and wide distribution (Campião et al. 2014). Nematodes usually represent a significant portion of the parasitic community because they are mostly direct-cycle parasites, transmitted through oral ingestion or active penetration of infective larvae in the skin (Anderson 2000). The high prevalence of nematode infection (70.3%) found in the present study reinforces these statements. We also observed that most parasite species, even those less abundant, are well distributed throughout Brazil and are often found in a large number of hosts (Campião et al. 2014), suggesting that parasitic species have a broad local and geographic distribution, especially those of direct cycle and low host-specificity.

Environmental heterogeneity in altitudinal gradients favors species variation along the gradient (e.g. Araújo et al. 2018; Caglioni et al. 2018; Gonçalves-Sousa et al. 2022). In our study, we detected the formation of three distinct groups of hosts and parasites along altitudinal gradients, where, the increase in altitudinal gradient negatively influenced the diversity of parasite and host species for the community in Maranguape mountain. This finding indicates species substitution along the gradient, however, the parasite species had lower species diversity across gradients than observed for their anuran hosts. This is corroborated by the fact that only 17% of the host species are distributed in all the areas sampled on the Maranguape mountain. Although lower than the hosts, the beta diversity of parasites is also high, with only 39% of species occurring in all sampled areas. Showing a greater similarity between altitude ranges compared to their hosts, demonstrating a greater distribution along the mountain.

The distribution of organisms may be influenced by environmental conditions of different levels, including temperature, humidity, precipitation, and environmental heterogeneity (e.g. Vasconcelos et al. 2010; Siqueira and Rocha 2013; Araújo et al. 2018). Parasite species diversity depends on how their hosts exploit the habitat (Poulin and Morand 2004; Hamann et al. 2006; Oliveira et al. 2022). On a regional scale, beta diversity tends to be lower at sites that are closer together or have similar environmental conditions (Koleff et al. 2003; Bishop et al. 2015; Caglioni et al. 2018). It is quite likely that endoparasites are not as impacted by these conditions to the same degree as their hosts. Because of this, endoparasite species can colonize any environment in our studied area as long as a host is available for colonization. The presence of anurans with a wide distribution throughout the Maranguape mountain makes them excellent parasite dispersers, allowing them to colonize several different areas, regardless of altitude gradient or heterogeneity. This characteristic, along with the direct life cycle of most parasites (Anderson 2000), explains the observed greater distribution of parasites compared to hosts in the present study along environmental gradients. This finding is supported by the fact that the majority of the found parasites are hosted by *Leptodactylus vastus*, *Leptodactylus macrosternum*, *Physalaemus cuvieri* and *Rhinella diptycha*, which are species with generalist habits and they are dispersed along the entire studied gradient. In addition, parasite species that were more abundant and distributed in the altitudinal gradient studied were species commonly found in hosts with greater phenotypic plasticity and greater distribution along the Maranguape mountain, which could justify the high rates of overlap in some species.

Overall, we recorded several parasite species with high niche overlap (based on host species) in the Maranguape mountain. Parasite aggregation may increase with host age as they are exposed to infection for a longer period of time (Pacala and Dobson 1988; Pietrock and

Marcogliese 2004). Furthermore, additional factors, such as more host species available, higher parasite abundance in particular hosts and rare parasite species, may have contributed to increasing niche overlap between parasite species (Crofton 1971; Anderson and Gordon 1982; Poulin 1993). Considering altitudinal ranges, in the lowest stratum there was total overlap between some species sharing the same host (*Leptodactylus pustulatus*). These parasite species were most trematodes. Possibly, this high niche overlap is related to the life cycle of the parasite and the type of host habitat use, which inhabits mainly aquatic environments (Anderson 2000). Becoming more visible due to the parental care behavior with the offspring exercised by species of the genus *Leptodactylus* (Santos and Amorim 2006; de Castro et al. 2013), which remain longer in aquatic environments providing greater probability of contact with this type of parasite.

The parasite-host interaction network analyses showed a higher interaction between parasites than between their hosts. According to Brito et al. (2014), the clustered structure observed for parasites may occur due to a high degree of specialization. In this case, it is expected that interaction networks between endoparasites and hosts show a compartmentalized structural pattern (Brito et al. 2014). Such interactions can also be influenced by the microhabitat in which the hosts inhabit (Krause et al. 2003; Oliveira et al. 2022). It is expected that species coexisting in the same habitats will be grouped together in the same clusters of interactions. However, there are few studies on interaction networks investigating the role of host microhabitat use on parasites (Brito et al. 2014; Sampaio et al. 2022).

In the present study, we detected six distinct groups made by the network interaction between parasites and their anuran hosts in the Maranguape mountain. The formation of three of these groups suggests that the structure of the interaction network is more related to host species than to altitude. This finding is similar to that observed for anurans in the Pantanal and Atlantic Forest (D'Bastiani et al. 2020). Herein, the formation of the groups mostly clustered different host species that were infected by the same parasite species along the altitudinal gradient. Thus, host abundance and parasite generalist may have contributed to the formation of these groups, as parasites can infect different hosts (Weaver et al. 2016), and/or expand the width of their niches in response to the availability of new resources (MacArthur et al. 1972; Wright 1980; Malcicka et al. 2015).

The heteroxenic cycle of some species was also a determining factor in the formation of two groups. The first was formed by the frog *Leptodactylus pustulatus* and the parasites *Catadiscus propinquus*, *Rauschiella linguatula*, and *Oxyascaris caatingae*. In this group, most parasitic species are trematodes that require aquatic intermediate hosts such as

gastropods (Anderson 2000). These organisms facilitate the transmission of trematodes and anurans inhabiting this type of environment are more easily infected (Guillén-Hernández et al. 2000; Madelaire et al. 2012). The second group was formed by the anurans *Dendropsophus nanus*, *Leptodactylus vastus* and *Scinax x-signatus*, and the parasites *Centrorhynchus* sp., *Oligacanthorhynchus* sp., and *Physaloptera* sp., most of these parasites have an indirect life cycle, with arthropods as intermediate hosts and some species of anurans, waterfowl, mammals and fishes as final hosts (Baker 2007).

Host phylogeny may influence the parasitic fauna and is a determining factor in structuring webs between parasites and hosts, since phylogenetically close species tend to be phenotypically similar, which contributes to the relative similarity of parasite species infecting congeneric hosts (Krasnov et al. 2012; Brito et al. 2014; Oliveira et al. 2019). Seven out of eight anuran families found in Maranguape mountain were infected by at least one parasite species. Anurans of the families Bufonidae, Hylidae and Leptodactylidae were the most abundant throughout Maranguape mountain (66%) as well as in the entire Neotropical region. Studies on the distribution of parasites show that they can disperse together with ancestral species and maintain a close evolutionary relationship with these species (Rausch 1994). However, other factors such as the trophic position in the food chain of the host can also influence parasite richness (Chen et al. 2008), the higher the host is in the trophic chain, the more parasites it can potentially harbor (Marcogliese 2002).

Ecological factors exerted greater influence than phylogeny on the abundance of anuran parasites from the entire Maranguape mountain. This result suggests that most parasitic species found are not influenced by phylogenetic relationships with their hosts, similarly to the results found by D'Bastiani and Campião (2021), where the composition of parasite communities was not related to host phylogeny, species variability or functional diversity. Overall, the host-parasite relationship may be mediated by random behaviors, such as the opportunistic contact between individuals, where species that share the same habitat is supposed to have similar parasite communities (D'Bastiani and Campião 2021).

In our study, we detected an overall substitution of parasitic species along the environmental gradients tested. Where the tree cover gradient showed significance in the occurrence of parasites, but we did not detect a dispersal effect (heterogeneity) for this gradient. Thus, we can conclude that in the parasite-host relationship in anuran amphibians, ecological effects are stronger than phylogenetic effects, and parasites tend to follow their hosts independent of external factors. Not being influenced by the heterogeneity and altitude of environmental gradients, because they are protected in their hosts from environmental

variations. Thus, the distribution of hosts in the environment and their niche overlap in resource use represents a key factor in structuring the interactions observed in this study.

STATEMENTS AND DECLARATIONS

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Conflict of interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest related to the publication of this manuscript.

Availability of data and material: Authors declare the availability of the data upon personal request.

Authors' contributions: Cicero Ricardo de Oliveira and Elvis Franklin Fernandes de Carvalho collected and analyzed the data and material; Elvis Franklin Fernandes de Carvalho and José Guilherme Gonçalves-Sousa performed the statistics; Cicero Ricardo de Oliveira prepared the figures; Robson Waldemar Ávila and Diva Maria Borges-Nojosa revised the manuscript text. All authors participated in the writing of the main text.

Ethics approval: All procedures used in this work follow the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional guides on the care and use of laboratory animals. Collection permit Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade - ICMBio (#73215-1) and the Ethics Committee on Animal Use of the Federal University of Ceará (CEUA-UFC) (#CEUA 6314010321).

Consent to participate: Not applicable

Consent for publication: Not applicable

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Chapter 3 –

4 Endoparasites of *Adelophryne maranguapensis* Hoogmoed, Borges & Cascon, 1994 (Anura, Eleutherodactylidae), an endemic and threatened species from an altitude swamp in northeastern Brazil

Endoparasitas de Adelophryne maranguapensis Hoogmoed, Borges & Cascon, 1994, (Anura, Eleutherodactylidae), uma espécie endêmica e ameaçada de um pântano de altitude no nordeste do Brasil

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Endoparasites of *Adelophryne maranguapensis* Hoogmoed, Borges & Cascon, 1994 (Anura, Eleutherodactylidae), an endemic and threatened species from an altitude swamp in northeastern Brazil

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Abstract

Adelophryne maranguapensis is an endangered anuran species endemic to the Maranguape residual mountain, Ceará State, northeastern Brazil, which is under strong anthropogenic pressure. There are still few studies on the natural history of this species that allow a better understanding of its biology and can provide the basis for conservation actions. Studies on endoparasitism are an important source for the comprehension of ecological relationships, as well as for providing information on host biology and its relevance to ecosystems. Thus, we present information about the endoparasites helminths, the relationship of parasite abundance with the size of individuals and the parasite difference between the sexes in *A. maranguapensis*, to elucidate some characteristics in the host-parasite relationship and the use of the area of this anuran. We analysed 107 specimens deposited in the Herpetological Collection of the Federal University of Ceará, sampled from 2010 to 2012. Total prevalence of 24.30% was recorded, and four parasitic taxa were identified, *Aplectana* sp., *Physaloptera* sp., *Parapharyngodon* sp. and an unidentified Ascarid. No relationship between the abundance of parasites and snout-vent length was found and the parasite difference between the sexes. Even though identification of the parasites at species level was not possible, *A. maranguapensis* follows a common pattern in parasitism of Neotropical species.

Key words: Helminth, Parasite, Frog, Threatened.

Resumo

Adelophryne maranguapensis é uma espécie anura endêmica e em perigo de extinção da montanha residual de Maranguape, Estado do Ceará, nordeste do Brasil, que se encontra sob forte pressão antropogênica. Ainda há poucos estudos sobre a história natural desta espécie que permitam um melhor entendimento de sua biologia e possam fornecer a base para ações de conservação. Os estudos sobre endoparasitismo são uma fonte importante para a compreensão das relações ecológicas, assim como para fornecer informações sobre a biologia do hospedeiro e sua relevância para os ecossistemas. Assim, apresentamos informações sobre os helmintos endoparasitas, a relação da abundância parasitária com o tamanho dos indivíduos e a diferença parasitária entre os sexos em *A. maranguapensis*, para elucidar algumas características na relação hospedeiro-parasita e o uso da área deste anuro. Analisamos 107 espécimes depositados na Coleção Herpetológica da Universidade Federal do Ceará, amostrados de 2010 a 2012. Registramos uma prevalência total de 24,30%, e foram identificadas quatro taxas parasitas, *Aplectana* sp., *Physaloptera* sp., *Parapharyngodon* sp. e um Ascarídeo não identificado. Não foi encontrada nenhuma relação entre a abundância de parasitas e o comprimento total ou diferença de parasitas entre os sexos. Embora não tenha sido possível identificar os parasitas em nível de espécie, *A. maranguapensis* segue um padrão comum no parasitismo das espécies Neotropicais.

Palavras Chave: Helmintos, Parasitas, Sapo, Ameaçado.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Belonging to the family Eleutherodactylidae, the genus *Adelophryne* Hoogmoed and Lescure, 1984 currently comprises 12 species distributed in South America (Frost 2021). *Adelophryne maranguapensis* Hoogmoed, Borges and Cascon 1994 is a threatened species endemic to Maranguape residual mountain, Ceará, northeaster Brazil (IUCN 2020), which is under strong pressure from anthropic degradation. In general, threatened species are more vulnerable due to certain characteristics, including low population densities and restricted distribution, making them more fragile and susceptible to changes in the environment (Abrahão and Escarlata-Tavares 2019).

Studies on natural history are important for understanding the biology of a species, providing basis for conservation actions (Ramírez-Bautista et al. 2000), specially for species inhabiting threatened areas (Tabarelli et al. 2005). In the available literature, there are limited results on the ecology of *A. maranguapensis*, with studies reporting on reproductive biology (Cassiano-Lima et al. 2020), annunciation song (Cassiano-Lima et al. 2014) and conservation status (Silvano and Segalla 2005). However, there are still gaps on the knowledge about the life history of this species, such as diet and parasitism.

Many parasitic studies with amphibians have been conducted in the high altitude swamp or surrounding Caatinga areas; these report a high species richness, with the predominance of nematodes being a common feature of these inventories (Lins et al. 2017; Oliveira et al. 2019; Silva-Neta et al. 2020; Mascarenhas et al. 2021). These studies also share some species in common, such as *Aplectana membranosa* (Schneider, 1866), *Oswaldocruzia mazzai* Travassos, 1935, *Physaloptera* sp. Rudolphi, 1819, *Raillietnema spectans* Gomes, 1964 and *Rhabdias* sp. Stiles and Hassall, 1905 which suggests that these species are well distributed throughout the environment. Therefore, parasitism studies can reveal information on host biology, the parasite/host relationship and its relevance to ecosystems, contributing substantially to a better understanding of species conservation (Marcogliese 2004). Thus, their knowledge is of fundamental importance for the preservation of these species, which is particularly significant for hosts with restricted distribution. Since the composition of parasite communities is often significantly variable between populations of the same species (Poulin et al. 2011; Bezerra et al. 2016), and influenced by various factors such as host size, sex, diet, location and behaviour (Campião et al. 2015).

In this context, in the present study, we provide data on the endoparasites helminths, the relationship of parasite abundance with the size of individuals and the parasite difference

between the sexes of the frog *Adelophryne maranguapensis*, a threatened species endemic to Ceará State, northeastern Brazil, in order to understand some characteristics in the host-parasite relationship and the use of the area of this anuran.

4.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Located 25 km off the coast of Ceará State, Brazil, the Maranguape residual mountain (03° 53' 40.6" S, 38° 43' 21.2" W, 920-m elevation) has annual precipitation of 1,300 mm, and the average temperature is between 23 and 26°C (Cassiano-Lima et al. 2020). Given these particular characteristics and the number of endemic species recorded, Maranguape residual mountain is considered one of the highest priority areas for amphibian conservation in northeastern Brazil (Camardelli and Napoli 2012).

Since it is an endangered species (IUCN 2020), this study was conducted using deposited host specimens. A total of 107 specimens of *A. maranguapensis* (56 males, 45 females and six juveniles), deposited in the Herpetological Collection of the Federal University of Ceará (CHUFC), Ceará State, Brazil, were surveyed for parasites. The host sampling was conducted each month from April 2010 to June 2012.

In the laboratory, we performed necropsy on all samples, and the contents of the gastrointestinal tract were analysed under a stereoscopic microscope to investigate the presence of endoparasites in the following organs: digestive tract, lungs, heart, liver and kidneys analysed according to Amato et al. (1991). For identification of parasite species, we used the following literature: Vicente et al. (1991) and Gibbons (2010). All parasites were prepared according to Amato et al. (1991).

The infection parameters analysed were prevalence, mean intensity of infection and mean abundance, according to Bush et al. (1997). We also checked whether there was a correlation between endoparasite abundance and body size (snout-vent length - SVL) of the hosts and between males and females, using Pearson's coefficient. To check the parasite abundance difference with respect to sex, we performed a t-test.

4.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Amphibians are an excellent model for assessing patterns in helminth community structure (Aho 1990) because they occupy a variety of habitats and different positions in food webs (Koprivnikar et al. 2012). Thus, we analysed 107 specimens of *A. maranguapensis*, from which 26 individuals were infected with at least one endoparasite species (prevalence 24.30%).

We recorded a total of 56 helminth specimens, identified as four parasite taxa: *Aplectana* sp. Railliet and Henry 1916, *Physaloptera* sp., *Parapharyngodon* sp. Chatterji 1933 and unidentified specimens of Ascarididae (Table 1). In the present study, *Adelophryne maranguapensis* presented helminth fauna composed of nematodes. This infection pattern is common to other anuran species, such as *Physalaemus* spp. (Oliveira et al. 2019) and *Proceratophrys ararype* Mângia et al. 2018 (Mascarenhas et al. 2021).

Nematodes usually infect hosts by ingestion of prey infected with their larvae or skin penetration (Anderson 2000). Meanwhile, trematodes generally require aquatic intermediate hosts in addition to snails. Thus, anurans living in aquatic habitats are more easily infected than terrestrial species (Guillén-Hernández et al. 2000). Therefore, endoparasitic infections composed of nematodes in *A. maranguapensis* may be related to the direct life cycle of the host, which is associated with burlap and the use of bromeliads for egg laying and tadpole development (Cassiano-Lima et al. 2020).

Table 1 – Endoparasites of *Adelophryne maranguapensis* in Maranguape residual mountain, Ceará State, Brazil. *NS* number of parasite specimens, *P%* prevalence, *MII* mean intensity of infection, *R* range, *MA ± SE* mean abundance and standard error, *SI* site of infection.

ENDOPARASITES	NS	P%	MII	R	MA ± SE	SI
<i>Aplectana</i> sp.	38	20.56	1.73	1 – 6	0.36 ± 0.26	Id; Ig
<i>Physaloptera</i> sp.	3	2.80	1	1	0.03	Sto
<i>Parapharyngodon</i> sp.	1	0.93	1	1	0.01	Ig
Ascarididae gen. sp.	14	0.93	14	14	0.13	Id
Total	56	24.30	2.15	1 – 14	0.52 ± 0.50	

Sto stomach, *Lgi* large intestine, *Smi* small intestine.

Host body size (SVL) is widely suggested as a determinant in predicting species richness, affecting the composition of parasite communities (Campião et al. 2015). However, we found no correlation between SVL values and parasite abundance in the present study ($r=0.15$; $p=0.11$) nor between males ($r=0.01$; $p=0.92$) or females ($r=0.10$; $p=0.48$). This result may be related to the variation in the mean size (14.0 ± 2.63) of the analysed individuals. Thus, low variation in size seems to not influence the success of parasitism (Oliveira et al. 2022). Furthermore, the heteroxenous life cycle of the parasitic nematodes observed in *A. maranguapensis* suggests that diet may be a strong factor influencing the parasite composition

of this host species (Klaion et al. 2011). Additionally, we found no significant difference in parasitism between sexes in *A. maranguapensis* ($p= 0.36$).

The nematode *Aplectana* spp. are commonly found infecting the large intestine of reptiles and amphibians, have a direct life cycle and actively infect their hosts (Anderson 2000). Species of this genus have been observed in a variety of anurans in northeastern Brazil (Silva-Neta et al. 2020; Mascarenhas et al. 2021). These nematodes have a mouth with three lips each with two papillae, a small pharynx, a pyriform bulb posterior to oesophagus, an excretory pore located at bulb level and the nerve ring located in the middle of oesophagus (Miranda 1924). In our study, the morphometry of the total body length, distance from the excretory pore to the anterior end, distance from the vulva to the posterior and anterior end, eggs and the shape of the papillae along with the known distribution and records for anuran species matches the species of *Aplectana membranosa*. However, we did not identify the parasite to the species level due to the existence of only females in the sample, which does not allow the observation of concise identification characters. *Aplectana* spp. had the highest prevalence (18.8%) of infection in *A. maranguapensis*, which may be associated with the high number of infectious larvae in the environment produced by *Aplectana* spp. (Lins et al. 2017).

The genus *Physaloptera* is composed of approximately 100 species parasitizing amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals throughout the world (Pereira et al. 2012). These are worms with cuticles forming a cephalic collar around the anterior end, which have a mouth with large and triangular lips, each with teeth. The oesophagus is divided into a short anterior muscular portion and long posterior glandular portion (Vicente et al. 1991). In amphibians, the acquisition of *Physaloptera* occurs through the ingestion of infected insects, mainly Orthoptera (Klaion et al. 2011). This parasite is usually found in the larval stage, which makes its identification at the species level impossible, and also suggests that amphibians are not definitive hosts (Boquimpani-Freitas et al. 2001) and could be acting as intermediate or paratenic hosts.

The genus *Parapharyngodon* currently includes 55 valid species distributed globally, eight of which have been recorded in Brazilian hosts (Burseley and Goldberg 2015; Ferreira et al. 2021). They are parasites with a mouth with three lips, with lips usually bilobed and papillae present, oesophagus with posterior bulb and presence of lateral wings, they have a truncated tail with a dorsal appendix and with lateral papillae, and the larvae usually have a fusiform body with a transversely striated cuticle with small spines (Freitas 1957). In the Caatinga biome, only the species *Parapharyngodon alvarengai* Freitas 1957 found in both lizards and amphibians (Luque et al. 2005), *Parapharyngodon sceleratus* Travassos, 1923

parasitizing lizards (Ávila et al. 2012), the species taxonomically described on hosts of the Caatinga biome, *Parapharyngodon verrucosus* on the lizard *Diploglossus lessonae* Peracca, 1890 (Freitas and Dobbin, 1959), *Parapharyngodon silvoi* described from the anuran *Dermatonotus muelleri* Boettger, 1885 (Araújo-Filho et al. 2015) and *Parapharyngodon hispidus* described for the lizard *Tropidurus hispidus* Spix, 1825 (Ferreira et al. 2021) are known. In the present study, we did not identify the parasite at the species level due to its larval stage. However, possibly this is one of the species previously mentioned, due to the distribution and record in anuran hosts in this type of environment. Although the life cycle of members of this genus remains unknown (Campião et al. 2016), we believe it is related to the feeding behaviour of the hosts, being acquired through the ingestion of arthropods.

We found 14 parasitic individuals in the gastrointestinal tract of *A. maranguapensis* belonging to the Ascarididae family, due to the larval stage at which they were found, and because they were individuals from the zoological collection, it was not possible to observe the morphological attributes (Hartwich 2009) and identify the genus. González and Hamann (2013) reported the occurrence of larvae of *Brevimulticaecum* sp. Mozgovoii, 1951 parasitizing the anurans *Lepidobatrachus laevis* Budgett, 1899, *Physalaemus albonotatus* Steindachner, 1864 and *Pseudis paradoxa* Linnaeus, 1758. Campião et al. (2016) recorded the same parasite taxon for the species *Dendropsophus nanus* Boulenger, 1889, *Boana raniceps* Cope, 1862, *Scinax nasicus* Cope, 1862, *Pseudis platensis* Gallardo, 1961, *Trachycephalus typhonius* Linnaeus, 1758 and *Pithecopus azureus* Cope, 1862, as well as a record of *Porrocaecum* Railliet and Henry, 1912 for the species *B. raniceps* and *P. azureus*. These parasites use trophic interactions to migrate hosts, with infected invertebrates being the source of infection for anurans (Campião et al. 2016), crocodylians, freshwater rays and teleosts which are considered the main definitive hosts in the life cycle of these parasites (Reyda 2008). The occurrence of these larvae in amphibian hosts indicates that they may play a role in the transmission of these nematodes, serving as intermediate or paratenic hosts (Moravec and Kaiser 1994), and based on the above records, we believe that the larvae found possibly belong to one of those genera already reported for anurans.

The parasite composition of *A. maranguapensis* follows a common pattern in neotropical species. These parasites can affect host immunity and population dynamics. Thus, the low parasite prevalence indicates that *A. maranguapensis*, despite anthropic effects on its habitat, presents a stable relationship without negative population effects, demonstrating a high resilience and a good immunological health of the species. The negative relationship between parasitism and body size of the individuals analysed and the similarity in parasitism between

the sexes indicates that the species probably shares the same home range over time and presents an overlap in habitat use, and considering the life cycle of the parasites, we believe that *A. maranguapensis* present a feeding overlap, and consequently they are exposed to the same probabilities of infection. Although a more precise identification of these parasites was not possible in this study, we present relevant information for the knowledge of the natural history of this endangered anuran, thus contributing to its conservation.

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5 CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

Os resultados obtidos neste trabalho corroboraram que os anfíbios são bons modelos para estudos com parasitos, devido ao seu modo de vida e comportamento. Também mostraram que os anfíbios da Montanha de Maranguape apresentam grande riqueza e prevalência na composição de espécies parasitos, e seguem o padrão comum descrito para os anfíbios neotropicais. Além disso, ainda permitiram o registo dos primeiros dados parasitológicos para seis espécies de anuros, 20 novos registos de hospedeiros e a indicação de duas possíveis novas espécies de parasitas, salientando a importância de inventários parasitológicos para espécies hospedeiras em regiões sub estudadas.

Não observamos indícios da influência dos gradientes ambientais na relação parasito-hospedeiro, possivelmente por serem endoparasitas, protegidos por seus hospedeiros. Quanto à relação entre riqueza e tamanho do hospedeiro, o fator tamanho só foi preditivo se existisse uma grande variação em relação ao tamanho médio. Ainda ressaltamos que a filogenia foi pouco relevante para a maioria das espécies parasitas, sendo a forma como o hospedeiro explora o ambiente o fator determinante na riqueza e abundância parasitária. Assim a composição endoparasitária tem uma relação significativa com o tipo de habitat utilizado pelo hospedeiro. Isto ocorre devido ao ciclo de vida direto da maioria dos parasitos e por serem generalistas na escolha de seus hospedeiros. Dessa forma, concluímos que os parasitos se distribuem seguindo a dispersão de seus hospedeiros, e uma vez instalados no ambiente, se dispersam para a maioria das espécies de anuros, independente dos fatores ambientais.

Quanto a composição parasitária de *Adelophryne maranguapensis*, espécie endêmica e em perigo de extinção, consideramos que a mesma seguiu o padrão comum em espécies neotropicais, com predominância de nematódeos. E a baixa prevalência de parasitas indica que *A. maranguapensis* apresenta uma relação estável com o parasitismo sem efeitos populacionais negativos e uma boa saúde imunológica. Já a relação negativa entre o parasitismo e o tamanho do corpo e a similaridade entre os sexos, considerando o ciclo de vida dos parasitos, indica que a espécie compartilha o mesmo nicho ao longo do tempo e apresenta uma sobreposição na utilização do habitat.

Por fim concluímos, com as observações morfológicas dos anuros coletados que não apresentaram indícios de perda de peso, redução de tamanho ou qualquer outra característica anormal ao padrão conhecido para as espécies em estudo, que a relação Parasito-Hospedeiro dos anuros da montanha de Maranguape, apesar dos efeitos antrópicos ao longo dos anos, se mantem estável sem efeitos negativos às populações de anuros. Dessa forma, a

relação parasitaria não parece ser uma ameaça a conservação das espécies locais, principalmente para aquelas criticamente ameaçadas.

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