# Transmission dynamics of the monogenean Gyrodactylus salaris under seminatural conditions 

## Running title: Transmission dynamics of G. salaris

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#### Abstract

Tracking individual variation in the dynamics of parasite infections in wild populations is often complicated by lack of knowledge of the epidemiological history of hosts. Whereas the dynamics and development of Gyrodactylus salaris Malmberg, 1957, on Atlantic salmon, Salmo salar L., is well known in laboratory studies, knowledge about infection development on individual wild fishes is currently sparse. In this study, the dynamics of an infection of $G$. salaris on individually marked Atlantic salmon parr was followed in a section of a natural stream. During the six-week experiment, the prevalence increased from $3.3 \%$ to $60.0 \%$, with an average increase in intensity of $4.1 \%$ day $^{-1}$. Survival analyses showed an initially high probability (93.6\%) of staying uninfected by G. salaris, decreasing significantly to $37 \%$ after six weeks. The results showed that even at subarctic water temperatures and with an initially low risk of infection, the parasite spread rapidly in the Atlantic salmon population, with the capacity to reach $100 \%$ prevalence within a short summer season. The study thus track individual infection trajectories of Atlantic salmon living under near-natural conditions, providing an integration of key population parameters from controlled experiments with the dynamics of the epizootic observed in free-living living populations.


Keywords: infection probability, host-parasite interactions, infection development, fish parasite, invasive species, parasite population dynamics.

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## Introduction

Parasites play a fundamental role in shaping life histories of a wide range of organisms (Begon, Harper \& Townsend 1996). The impacts of parasites on fitness, survival and behaviour can be severe, with consequences for evolution, population dynamics and ecosystem functioning (Lima et al. 2012, Poisot, Thrall \& Hochberg 2012). Pioneering theoretical work by Anderson and May (Anderson \& May 1978, Anderson \& May 1979, May \& Anderson 1979, Dobson \& May 1987) showed that host-parasite interactions can be pivotal for the long-term patterns in population dynamics. Such long-term patterns have also been observed in natural populations, like the cyclic nature of the red grouse, Lagopus lagopus scoticus (Latham, 1787) population in Scotland infected by the parasitic nematode, Trichostrongylus tenuis (Mehlin, 1846) (see Dobson \& Hudson 1992, Hudson, Newborn \& Dobson 1992), or the population collapse of red fox, Vulpes vulpes (L., 1758), populations following an infection with sarcoptic mange, Sarcoptes scabiei (L., 1758) (see Forchhammer \& Asferg 2000).

Tracking the underlying mechanisms of the structural dynamics of an infection in wild populations is complicated by the fact that the epidemiological and environmental history of hosts collected in the field is often unknown. This is particularly the case in systems with limited possibility to follow individuals, such as in aquatic systems. Experimental laboratory studies allow deciphering of mechanistic relationships, but at the expense of environmental complexity (Grenfell \& Dobson 1995). Interactions between hosts, parasites and environment, however, are often highly complex (Dobson \& Hudson 1986, Hatcher, Dick \& Dunn 2006, Tompkins et al. 2011, Dunn et al. 2012), and there is a need for studies integrating individual, longitudinal data with field data (Lefebvre et al. 2013).

Since the introduction of the monogenean Gyrodactylus salaris Malmberg, 1957, into Norway in the 1970s (Johnsen \& Jensen 1991, Johnsen, Møkkelgjerd \& Jensen 1999, Hansen,

Bachmann \& Bakke 2003), the parasite has caused a considerable decline in the survival of wild Atlantic salmon Salmo salar L., 1758, in affected rivers (Johnsen \& Jensen 1986, 1988, Mo 1992, Jansen \& Bakke 1993a). The parasite is highly pathogenic to several of the east Atlantic populations of Atlantic salmon and is considered one of the most important threats to Atlantic salmon in Norway (Bakke, Cable \& Harris 2007). Studies from infected rivers show that more than 80 \% of a cohort of juvenile Atlantic salmon may be killed (Anon 2011). The dynamics of G. salaris under laboratory conditions is well known (e.g. Jansen \& Bakke 1991, Harris, Jansen \& Bakke 1994). Likewise, the occurrence of G. salaris in populations of wild Atlantic salmon has been recorded repeatedly in field surveys (Heggberget \& Johnsen 1982, Johnsen \& Jensen 1986, 1991, Johnsen et al. 1999, Jansen, Matthews \& Toft 2007). While such surveys provide an instantaneous census of status, prevalence and intensity of the infection in a given river, they do not provide detailed information on how the parasite population develops over time. The early stages of infection and the initial transmission dynamics in free-living Atlantic salmon parr was studied by Soleng, Jansen \& Bakke (1999), but the rate at which naïve fish living under natural conditions are infected and the development of the infection on individual fishes over time is poorly known. The present study aimed at following the development and dynamics of $G$. salaris on infra- and metapopulation level (sensu Bush et al. 1997) in a group of newly infected Atlantic salmon parr during the initial weeks of an infection, to document temporal changes in prevalence, intensity and population growth, and to test whether the risk of infection changed over time in relation to biotic (weight, length, behaviour) and abiotic (temperature) factors.

## Materials and Methods

Study site

The experiment was carried out in a small tributary of the River Skibotnelva in northern Norway $\left(69^{\circ} 22^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 20^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{E}\right)$. The River Skibotnelva runs for 74 km from the origin in Lake Gálggojávri near the Finnish border, to the outlet in Lyngenfjord (NVE 2012) (Fig. 1). The catchment area is approximately $784 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$, primarily dominated by birch and pine forest. The fish community in the River Skibotnelva consists primarily of brown trout, Salmo trutta L., 1758, Atlantic salmon, Arctic char, Salvelinus alpinus (L., 1758) and burbot, Lota lota (L., 1758) (see Kristoffersen et al. 2005). Anadromous fish can migrate approximately 20 km upstream.
(Figure 1 around here)
The experiments were conducted in a section of a small spring-fed stream running into the lower part of the main stem of the River Skibotnelva (Fig. 1) between the $19^{\text {th }}$ of July and $5^{\text {th }}$ of September 2012. The stream was 1.5 m wide with a mean water depth of 7.5 cm (range: 530 cm , occasionally slightly higher at the upper and lower barrier), and a water velocity of 70 $1 /$ sec. Due to its natural spring origin, temperature in the experimental stream was relatively constant during the experimental period (mean daily temperature: $5.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, range: $4.8-6.2^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ). The parasite G. salaris was first recorded in the River Skibotnelva in 1979 (Heggberget \& Johnsen 1982). The river has since been treated twice, in 1988 and 1995, with CFT Legumin (rotenone) in an attempt to eradicate the parasite, but without success (Kristoffersen et al. 2005). The local population of Atlantic salmon is regarded as severely threatened due to the G. salaris infection (Thorstad et al. 2001).

## Experimental setup

A 23 metre section of the stream was closed for upward and downward migration by migration barriers (Fig. 2) and sub-divided into four sub-sections. Fish could move freely between sub-sections. The setup was checked approximately every second day and any debris
that was present was removed from the barriers to prevent them from clogging up. Water temperature was recorded by a temperature logger every hour (Hobo ${ }^{\circledR}$ pendant temperature/Light Data Logger, Onset Computer Corporation).
(Figure 2 around here)
Sixty-seven naïve Atlantic salmon parr of the local River Skibotnelva strain were used in the experiment (mean weight 1.59 g , s.e.m 0.04 g ). The fish were bred in the hatchery of the Norwegian Directorate for Nature Management gene bank at Haukvik, central Norway, and transported to Skibotn in early June. Prior to the experiment, the fish were kept in 20L perforated plastic containers in the stream with continuously running river water. All fish were weighed and measured, and individually tagged with 8 mm PIT-tags (Biomark HPT8) implanted into the abdominal cavity during anaesthesia (Finquel vet ${ }^{\circledR}$; tricaine methane sulfonate, at a concentration of 142.9 mg metacain/l). Fish were released into the stream two days after PIT-tagging and left for an additional five days to establish before the experiment was initiated. At this point (Day 0 of the experiment), eight fish were found dead at the lower migration barrier, thus the initial population size was 59 fish ( 171 fish per $100 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ ).

At the start of the experiment, $24^{\text {th }}$ of July 2012 (Day 0), three donor fish, each with ca. 150200 G. salaris, were released into the experimental stream. They were of the same hatchery bred stock as the recipient fish, and infected with G. salaris from wild-caught Atlantic salmon from the River Skibotnelva (haplotype B according to Hansen et al. 2003) for a period of up to two weeks in a 20 L tank.

To follow the development of the G. salaris infection in the recipient fish population, 15-30 fish were collected weekly by electro fishing (Geomega FA4, Terik Technology AS), anaesthetized (Finquel vet ${ }^{\circledR}$; tricaine methane sulfonate, same concentration as above), and examined for $G$. salaris infection. During examination, the fish was placed in a rectangular plastic tray with the outside painted black to provide a clearer contrast, and any G. salaris
specimens present on the skin and fins were counted under a stereomicroscope. Fish were released back into the stream after examination and recovery from anaesthesia. In order to avoid cross-infection, all fish were kept individually isolated throughout the process of catching, examination, and recovery.

After a six week experimental period (43 days), all the remaining fish in the experimental stretch of the stream were caught by electro fishing. The fishing was repeated until no fish were caught for three consecutive rounds. All the fish were killed by an overdose of anaesthetics, weighed and measured, and stored in $96 \%$ ethanol. The final count of $G$. salaris was performed in the laboratory.

## Statistical analyses

The intrinsic rates of increase, $r$, of the $G$. salaris infra- and metapopulations were estimated by means of linear regression on the log-transformed total number of $G$. salaris on recipient and donor fish each census day. The daily infection increase (R) expressed as percentage per day was then calculated as $R=1-e^{-r}$. Linear regression was also used to estimate the average intensity of $G$. salaris in the fish population.

A Kaplan-Meier survival function was applied to model the probability of escaping infection at a given time during the experiment. Since the exact day of infection was not known, we used Turnbull's estimator for interval-censored data (Turnbull 1976), which is considered to be more accurate than using mid-points (Odell, Anderson \& Dagostino 1992). Infected fish were scored as events, and fish that were still uninfected when the experiment was terminated were right censored (i.e. still available for infection at the end of the survey). Fish that disappeared during the experiment were included in the analysis until their disappearance.

Due to the presence of interval-censored data (Kleinbaum \& Klein 2005), a parametric survival regression model was used to investigate whether fish growth (measured as absolute
and relative weight gain during the experimental period), behaviour (propensity to move between sections of the stream) and temperature (measured as mean and max temperature in the stream in the week prior to the census) affected the risk of infection. Several different distributions were tested; the Weibull model outperformed the exponential model with $\Delta$ AIC $=11.36$ (Klein \& Moeschberger 2003, Kleinbaum \& Klein 2005). Model selection was based on AIC, models with $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}<2$ were considered to have equal support (Burnham \& Anderson 2002). A small number (0.0001) was added to all survival times to allow the survival regression model to handle observation intervals starting at time 0 (i.e. on the $24^{\text {th }}$ of July).

All statistical analyses were run in the statistical programme $R$, version 2.15.1 ( R Development Core Team 2008). The package 'survival' (Therneau 2012) was used for the survival analyses.

## Results

During the six week experiment, a G. salaris infection was recorded on 30 of the 59 initially naïve fish. The first infection was recorded at the first census after one week. Infection spread rapidly and when the experiment was terminated six weeks later, prevalence had increased from 3.3 \% to 60.0 \% of the remaining fish (Fig. 3A,B). Prevalence was low (< 7 \%) during the first weeks of the experiment, but increased sharply to 33.3 \% during the third week (Fig. 3A,B).
(Figure 3 around here)
Simultaneously, the average intensity of $G$. salaris on recipient fish increased from one to 5.3 parasites per fish, corresponding to an increase in average intensity of 4.1 \% per day (Fig. $3 A, B)$. The average intensity increased throughout the experiment, except for a period of apparent stabilisation at two parasites per fish during week 2-4, coinciding with the increase in prevalence (Fig. 3A,B).

The G. salaris metapopulation on the naïve Atlantic salmon population grew approximately exponentially (Fig. 3C) with an intrinsic rate of increase of 0.14 (12.7 \%) per day ( $t=16.5, p$ $\left.<0.0001, R^{2}=0.98\right)$, corresponding to a rate of $0.12(10.9 \%)$ per day $\left(t=6.5, p=0.003, R^{2}=\right.$ 0.89) when corrected for the estimated number of fish in the population at a constant disappearance rate (see below).

The three donor fish were recaptured at all census days except one. The development of the infection was similar in all three fish, with an intensity of 150-200 G. salaris per donor fish at the onset of the experiment, increasing linearly to $800-900$ at the end, corresponding to a linear increase of 18.1 parasites per fish per day $\left(t=14.9, p<0.004, R^{2}=0.99\right.$, last census day excluded due to the death, and subsequent loss of parasites in one donor fish) (Fig. 3C). The intrinsic rates of increase of the G. salaris infra-populations were highly variable on newly infected fish, but displayed a stable trend decreasing with infra-population size in the donor fish (Fig. 3D).

The Kaplan-Meier survival function showed that the probability of escaping of infection was high (93.6\%) during the first three weeks of the experiment, decreasing significantly (no overlap in $95 \%$ confidence intervals) after 18 days to $69 \%$ (Fig. 4). By the end of the experiment, the probability of not being infected had decreased to $37 \%$. The probability of escaping infection decreased with an average of 1.5 percentage points per day (Fig. 4). Neither weight gain (relative and absolute), nor behaviour (propensity to move within the stream) affected the risk of infection. The effect of temperature was inconclusive and strongly dependent on whether data from the last survey day were included, due to a slight increase in water temperature during the last week of the experiment.
(Figure 4 around here)
During the six weeks of the experiment, the number of fish in the stream decreased from 59 fish released ( 171 fish or 282 g fish per $100 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ ) to 45 fish at the final round up ( 130 fish or

249 g fish per $100 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ ). This corresponds to an average loss of 2.3 fish per week. The cause of loss / mortality remains unknown. Fish that disappeared during the experiment had significantly lower $G$. salaris infections (mean intensity $=0.09$, $\max =2$ ) than fish that were still in the stream at the end of the experiment (mean intensity $=3.31, \max =18)($ Welch Two Sample t-test, $t=-4.90$, d.f. $=45.7, p<0.0001$ ). Despite the observation of Saprolegnia sp., Nees, 1823, on some fish during the period, this was not considered substantial enough to have caused an increase in mortality. Of the 20 fish that were infected with Saprolegnia during the experiment, all were recaptured alive on the last census day.

## Discussion

The present study show that the probability that a fish of could stay uninfected by G. salaris decreased throughout the experimental period. The probability of staying uninfected was significantly higher during the first weeks of the experiment than during later stages, and decreased with the size of the G. salaris metapopulation. The change in the probability of infection around the third week of the experiment was mirrored in the dynamics of the $G$. salaris metapopulation on recipient fish, which displayed a sudden increase in prevalence and a corresponding stable level of intensity. Since the growth rate of the parasite metapopulation remained unchanged, this could suggest a phase of increased transmission from one host to another as a consequence of the age structure of the parasite infra-population in the early stage of an infection. Gyrodactylus salaris show increased activity after giving birth and the mother may shift to a new host if possible (Harris et al. 1994), presumably to avoid competition with her daughter. The observed pattern during the third week may therefore be caused by several equally aged parasites giving birth and moving to a new host at approximately the same time,
thereby increasing the prevalence, whilst keeping the intensity constant. Both experimental and modelling studies have shown the importance of the timing of births in the dynamics and growths of G. salaris populations. Cable, Harris \& Bakke (2000) suggested that the timing of the first birth, in particular, was critical for the population dynamics. In accordance with this, Denholm et al. (2013) found that delaying the first birth by 24 hours subsequently caused a major drop in the number of parasites, and an increased risk of population extinction of $G$. salaris. The simultaneous change in infection probability, prevalence and intensity in the present study can thus indicate that this sensitivity to timing of births, through modifying the infrapopulation growth rate and the transmission between fish, may influence the underlying probability of naïve fish being infected.

In the present study, the population growth of the G. salaris metapopulation in the recipient fish was similar to or higher than that reported on Atlantic salmon under controlled conditions (Olstad et al. 2007). Jansen \& Bakke (1991) found an intrinsic rate of increase of 0.06 parasites per day per parasite at a temperature of $6.6^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The observed rate of increase in this study was closer to 0.12 , which was a somewhat surprising given the lower water temperature (mean $5.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) during the experimental period. The high growth rate was presumably caused both by the reproduction of $G$. salaris on the recipient fish and, on top of that, a considerable and continuous transmission of parasites from the donor fish. Other factors may also have influenced the results, in particular the weekly electrofishing, anesthetising, and handling of fish. Studies across a wide range of taxa show that stress influences the immune response and that occurrence, intensity, and severity of infections increase when animals are in poor condition (Beldomenico \& Begon 2010). For example, in a study on a range of salmonid species with different susceptibility to G. salaris, Harris, Soleng and Bakke (2000) showed that stress induced immunosuppression may facilitate the population growth of the parasite. Johnson et al. (2011) showed that the risk of infection in guppies (Poecilia reticulata) was
related to fish density. The density of fish in the present experiment was 2-3 times higher than observed in other water bodies in Fennoscandia, although there are considerable differences between sites and years (Johansen, Elliott \& Klemetsen 2005, Jonsson et al. 2011). Atlantic salmon are territorial, and generally avoid direct contact (Aas et al. 2011), and it is possible that the high density together with the frequent electrofishing may have caused a higher degree of interaction between individual fish than would naturally occur, leading to a higher probability of infection.

The exponential growth in the metapopulation of G. salaris on the recipient fish, and a more moderate, linear growth in the metapopulation of the donor fish, corresponds with the tenet of density-dependent regulation of population growth in classical population theory (Hassell, Lawton \& May 1976, Case 2005). Whereas negative density dependence has been reported in macroparasites (e.g. Tyre et al. 2003), host-parasite interactions in freshwater systems commonly display non-equilibrium dynamics (Kennedy 2009). Detection of such patterns requires long-term studies and is beyond the scope of this study. According to the same schedule, we find that the intrinsic rate of increase in the individual infra-populations of the recipient fish was, not surprisingly, highly variable. Small populations are highly sensitive to demographic stochasticity (Lande 1993), and in G. salaris where each individual give birth to a single daughter, even small variations in individual timing can give considerable differences in life-history trajectories and fitness, as described above (Cable et al. 2000, Ramirez, Harris \& Bakke 2012, Denholm et al. 2013).

In the present experiment, there was no clear effect of temperature on the probability of being infected. Water temperature is known to play a pivotal role in the population dynamics and life history of gyrodactylids (Jansen \& Bakke 1993a,b, Andersen \& Buchmann 1998) through a strong impact on reproduction and survival (Scott \& Nokes 1984, Jansen \& Bakke 1991, Olstad et al. 2006). As a consequence of this, temperature influences the potential for spread
to previously unaffected populations (Denholm et al. 2013). Transmission rate of G. salaris increases with increasing water temperature (Bakke, Jansen \& Hansen 1991, Soleng et al. 1999), and studies of free-living populations of Atlantic salmon have shown that the observed seasonality in parasite abundance is related to water temperature (Jansen \& Bakke 1993a,b, Appleby \& Mo 1997). The lack of a temperature effect in the present study was likely due to the natural spring origin of the water in the stream, causing little variation in water temperature during the course of the experiment.

Transmission can be rapid. For example, Soleng et al. (1999) found a prevalence of 44.4\% in Atlantic salmon parr released into a G. salaris infected river for 24 hours, increasing to 57.9\% after 48 hours. Several studies have shown rapid development of G. salaris on Atlantic salmon (Heggberget \& Johnsen 1982, Johnsen \& Jensen 1986, 1988, Mo 1992, Appleby \& Mo 1997, Johnsen et al. 1999, Bakke et al. 2007, Ramirez et al. 2012), both in free-living populations and under controlled conditions, demonstrating considerable potential for population growth and transmission to new hosts. The present study extends this approach to show how an epidemic may develop during early stages of an infection under near-natural conditions. The results show, that if the spread of infection were to continue at a constant rate Fig. 4), $100 \%$ prevalence could theoretically be reached after 68 days, provided that all fish in the naïve population were susceptible/receptive to infection. This period is well within the duration of the short summer season with elevated water temperatures in the subarctic region (see e.g. Winger et al. 2008), facilitating rapid population growth in the parasite (Jansen \& Bakke 1991). This corresponds with observations of seasonal dynamics of $G$. salaris epizootics where prevalence and intensity may change dramatically over a short period of time. For example, Appleby \& Mo (1997) reported a consistent pattern of a shift in prevalence from $0-20 \%$ to $80-100 \%$ over the course of one month across four consecutive years. The arrival of a few highly infected fish to a free-living population of initially uninfected juvenile

Atlantic salmon mimics a situation where a new cohort of juvenile Atlantic salmon hatch and establishes in early spring among older, already highly infected parr that have survived the winter, or where an infected fish migrates to a previously uninfected site (Soleng, Bakke \& Hansen 1998). This is particularly relevant in the light of the large scale eradication programmes of G. salaris in Norway, where entire river systems are treated with CFT Legumin (rotenone). Whereas this strategy has been successful in several rivers, it has failed in others (Anon 2011). It has been proposed that salmonid fish escaping the rotenone treatment, or migrating from nearby infected regions may reintroduce the parasite into treated populations (Hansen et al. 2003, Kristoffersen et al. 2005, Winger et al. 2008).

## Ethical statement

The animal work presented was approved by the Norwegian Animal Research Authority (NARA; 2012/98665).

## Author Contributions

KO, DKH, RKr, KØG, RKn and AR designed the experiments. SK, EHH, AS, RKn, RKr and KØG performed the field experiments. DKH and KO analysed the data and wrote the manuscript with contributions from RKr, KøG, RKn, AR, SK, EHH and AS.

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## Figure legends

Figure 1: Map with the location of the experimental stream indicated by the star and arrow. The location in Norway is indicated by the square on the inset map.

Figure 2: Experimental setup. a) Picture of the experimental stream with a view from the lower barrier, b) Principal drawing of the stretch between the upper and lower barriers. Flow direction is indicated by arrows. The stream is divided into sub-sections by wooden pegs at every 5 metres (marked by squares).

Figure 3: Temporal development of Gyrodactylus salaris infection in juvenile Atlantic salmon, Salmo salar, in the experimental stream. A) Temporal change in prevalence and intensity (full and dashed lines, respectively). B) Relationship between prevalence and mean intensity in the experimental population (donor fish excluded). Numbers denote number of days passed since onset of the experiment. C) Total numbers of $G$. salaris in the recipient fish population as a function of time. Black dots represent the observed number of G. salaris in the fish captured at a given census day (donor fish excluded) and open dots the estimated number of $G$. salaris in the total population of recipient fish. The full and dashed lines are the corresponding predicted growth estimated from linear regressions on log-transformed counts. Triangles represent the observed number of G. salaris on the donor fish, and the dotted line the corresponding predicted growth estimated from linear regression on non-transformed counts. D) Intrinsic rate of increase for G. salaris infrapopulations as a function of infrapopulation size. Open dots denote recipient fish, black dots the donor fish.

Figure 4: Baseline probability of not being infected as a function of the time passed since the start of the experiment, modelled as a Kaplan-Meier survival function. The bold line indicates
the observed '‘survival'" function. The dashed lines indicate $95 \%$ confidence intervals around the estimated survival. The dotted line shows the predicted survival function given a constant (time independent) hazard rate. Vertical bars denote right censored data, where fish disappeared from the experiment before any infection was recorded.

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