



**Temporal and spatial variation in prevalence of the parasite
Syngamus trachea in a metapopulation of House Sparrows
 (*Passer domesticus*).**

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1 **Full title: Temporal and spatial variation in prevalence of the**
2 **parasite *Syngamus trachea* in a metapopulation of House Sparrows**
3 **(*Passer domesticus*).**

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5 **Short title: Parasite prevalence in House sparrows.**

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28 **SUMMARY**

29 When investigating parasite-host dynamics in wild populations, a fundamental parameter to
30 investigate is prevalence. This quantifies the percentage of individuals infected in the
31 population. Investigating how prevalence changes over time and space can reveal interesting
32 aspects in the parasite-host relationship in natural populations. We investigated the dynamic
33 between a common avian parasite (*Syngamus trachea*) in a host metapopulation of House
34 Sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. We found that
35 parasite prevalence varied in both time and space. In addition, the parasite prevalence was
36 found to be different between demographic groups in the local populations. Our results reveal
37 just how complex the dynamic between a host and its parasite may become in a fragmented
38 landscape. The mechanisms causing this complexity are not fully understood, but needs to be
39 further examined to understand how parasite-host interactions may affect the ecological and
40 evolutionary dynamics and viability of host populations.

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43 **Key words:** Parasite, *Syngamus trachea*, House Sparrow, prevalence, metapopulation.

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58 KEY FINDINGS

- 59 - Parasite prevalence can vary substantially in time and space in a metapopulation of
60 wild hosts.
- 61 - Demographic groups of wild hosts may have different levels of parasite prevalence.
- 62 - Long term studies needed to reveal dynamic of parasite-host relationship.

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65 INTRODUCTION

66 Understanding the temporal and spatial distribution of parasite populations within and across
67 host populations is fundamental for understanding the possible impact the respective
68 parasite(s) may have on the evolutionary dynamics as well as population dynamics of the host
69 species (Hudson *et al.*, 2002). In addition, differences in parasite distributions among sub-
70 groups in the host population can reveal important aspects of the parasite-host relationship
71 (Hudson *et al.*, 2002; Gurski and Ebbert, 2003). Few empirical studies of parasite prevalence
72 in vertebrate populations span over longer time periods (but see: Gulland *et al.*, 1993; Hudson
73 *et al.*, 1998) and even fewer contain observations of temporal and spatial variations of
74 prevalence in host metapopulations (Atkinson *et al.*, 2000; Vogeli *et al.*, 2011). Theoretical
75 metapopulation models have shown that spatial fragmentation of a host population may
76 increase the persistence of infective agents (Earn *et al.*, 1998) and that persistence of an
77 infective agent is determined by a balance between spatial, demographic and epidemiological
78 components (Jesse and Heesterbeek, 2011). Although a theoretical framework for modelling
79 parasites in a metapopulation exists, there is a need for empirical datasets preferably
80 stretching over as many subpopulations and time periods as possible (Hudson *et al.*, 2002).
81 This need has become urgent due to an increase in number of fragmented populations as a
82 result of human impact (Saunders *et al.*, 1991). In such a system, parasites may play an
83 important role in conservation of endangered populations (Hess, 1996).

84 The parasite of interest in this study is the nematode worm *Syngamus trachea*
85 (henceforth *S. trachea*). *S. trachea* has a cosmopolitan distribution and has been found in most
86 terrestrial bird genera (Yamaguti, 1961). In Norway the parasite has been recorded in several
87 wild bird species (for list see: Bakke, 1973). The parasite is known as “Gape worm” in the
88 domestic bird industry, where outbreaks have caused substantial problems (Atkinson *et al.*,
89 2008). *S. trachea* has a lifecycle that may include one intermediate vector host in addition to
90 the final avian host. These intermediates can be earthworms, snails or insects (Atkinson *et al.*,

91 2008). By eating one or more of these intermediate hosts containing an egg or larvae of *S.*
92 *trachea*, the bird can become infected (Clapham, 1934). The larva makes its way from the
93 stomach of the bird, through the blood vascular system to the lungs or trachea, where it then
94 grows into an adult and finds a mate to copulate with (Atkinson *et al.*, 2008). The prepatent
95 period in chickens (*Gallus gallus*) is 12-17 days and the adults can live 2-4 months (Barus,
96 1966b). After a female and male are joined, they mate and the female releases eggs which are
97 coughed up by the host and then swallowed (Atkinson *et al.*, 2008). The eggs then pass out in
98 the faeces and may enter another bird either directly or via an intermediate host (Clapham,
99 1934; Bakke, 1973). The adult male parasite is 3-5 mm long and the adult female is 17-30 mm
100 long (Barus and Blazek, 1965). After copulation the adult male and female are permanently
101 attached to each other in a Y-shape. The parasites feed on blood in the trachea tissue causing
102 mechanical damage, anaemia, inflammation and excess mucus production. The birds that are
103 infected may develop symptoms consisting of gasping, wheezing and shaking of the head.
104 This discomfort may affect food uptake, and combined with the blood loss, may cause death
105 (Atkinson *et al.*, 2008).

106 The House Sparrow is a small passerine bird with a global distribution, and is widely
107 spread on the Northern hemisphere (Anderson, 2006). The House Sparrows along the coast of
108 northern Norway live in close association with human settlements, in particular dairy farms.
109 This is strongly reflected in the behaviour ecology and foraging patterns of the species.
110 During the winter a substantial part of the diet consists of concentrated cattle food, and seeds
111 from cultivated crops (Anderson, 2006). In the summer season the House Sparrows forage
112 outdoors, to a large extent, on different types of seeds and insects (Anderson, 2006). Sparrows
113 living on farms most frequently place their nests inside cowsheds and barns. House Sparrows
114 also shelter inside farm buildings when the weather is harsh (especially in winter) (Summers-
115 Smith 1988). Because of the species' sedentary nature and the high proportion of individually
116 recognizable birds in our metapopulation, we have the opportunity to track individual
117 movement between islands in the study area (Pärn *et al.*, 2009; Pärn *et al.*, 2012).

118 In the present study we explore the prevalence of the parasite *S. trachea* in a
119 metapopulation of House Sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) in the Helgeland archipelago in
120 northern Norway over a 4-year period. This is a metapopulation that has been thoroughly
121 studied at an individual based level since 1993 and offers a unique opportunity to shed light
122 on parasite-ecology in a spatially distributed population of wild hosts. Our aim was to
123 investigate whether the prevalence of *S. trachea* varied in time and/or space on the respective

124 islands. We also investigated the possibility that prevalence patterns could be explained by
125 differences among the demographic groups in the respective populations.

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For Peer Review

154 METHODS

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156 Study area

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158 The study was carried out in an archipelago consisting of 18 islands in the Helgeland district
159 in northern Norway. The House Sparrows on these islands have been studied on an individual
160 based level by capture-mark-recapture methods since 1993 (e.g Sæther *et al.*, 1999; Ringsby
161 *et al.*, 2002; Jensen *et al.*, 2008). In this study we focus on 4 of the main study islands (Aldra,
162 Gjerøy, Hestmannøy and Indre Kvarøy). On these islands a high proportion of the individuals
163 have been individually marked (>90%), the annual recapture probability is high (>0.7, see
164 Billing *et al.*, 2012), and faecal samples have been collected since 2007. These are islands
165 where the birds live mainly in connection with farms. House Sparrows have been captured,
166 marked and sampled several times during their lifetime.

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168 Sample collection and analysis

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170 During field work House Sparrows were captured using mist-nets. For the purpose of
171 obtaining a faecal sample they were thereafter placed in paper bags with a small hole at the
172 top to prevent asphyxiation. After approximately 10 to 15 minutes in the paper bag, a faecal
173 sample had usually been obtained. According to procedures described in (Gjerde, 2007) each
174 faecal sample was placed in 1 ml of MilliQ H₂O in a 1.5 ml cryo-tube. Samples were then
175 kept refrigerated (at between 1 and 8 °C) until analysed. 1150 faecal samples were collected
176 during the breeding seasons 2007 – 2010 (1st May – 15th August) from 752 birds. In addition,
177 we also collected samples from one of the study islands (Hestmannøy) in the winters
178 (February-March) of 2009 (32 samples) and 2010 (46 samples).

179 To individually mark each bird, they were assigned unique individual ring codes
180 consisting of a numbered metal ring and three additional plastic colour rings; two rings on
181 each tarsus. In this way individual birds could later be identified by observation/capture to
182 determine e.g. age and dispersal distance. When captured, the sex was determined for adult
183 birds based on plumage characteristics. Individuals were also categorized into juveniles (birds
184 younger than one year) and adults (birds in their first breeding season or older). (See Ringsby
185 *et al.* 2002; Jensen *et al.*, 2008; Pärn *et al.*, 2009, for further description of field work)

186 To analyse parasite load the faecal samples were first centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 60
187 sec. The supernatant of MilliQ H₂O was then removed and replaced with sucrose-saturated

188 water. The samples were centrifuged again at 1500 rpm for 45 sec, and placed in a
189 McMaster/Whitlock counting chamber under a microscope (Leica, model: DMLS). The
190 number of *S. trachea* eggs were counted by eye using a handheld Redington Counter.
191 Detection of eggs from *S. trachea* in bird faeces has been shown to be a reliable and stable
192 way of monitoring infection in populations (Barus, 1966b; Barus, 1966c).

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194 **Statistical analyses**

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196 The response variable used in our statistical analyses was infection status. If eggs of *S.*
197 *trachea* were found in a faecal sample the individual's infection status was defined as 1
198 (i.e. "infected"). Correspondingly, if eggs were not detected in the faeces the individual was
199 given an infection status of 0 (i.e. zero eggs).

200 Island was the only spatial explanatory variable used in the analyses. Temporal
201 explanatory variables were year and seasonal day number (SDN). SDN indicated which day
202 during the season a bird was sampled, where day 1 was set to 1st of May. The SDN variable
203 was then centred on zero (mean = 0) in order to increase interpretability of possible
204 interactions (Aiken and West, 1991).

205 Demographic explanatory variables consisted of age-class (adult/juveniles) and life-
206 stage group (LSG: juvenile, adult male, adult female). We were not able to include sex of
207 juveniles in the study due to difficulties in confidently determining sex of birds that had not
208 acquired their adult plumage.

209 All analyses were done using the statistical software package R version 2.14.1 (R
210 Development Core Team 2012). We applied generalized linear mixed models (package
211 glmmADMB version 0.7.2.5) with a Bernoulli response variable and a logit link function in
212 our investigation of prevalence. Because some birds (N=213) were caught more than once
213 during a respective season we used individual identity as a random factor in order to avoid
214 pseudoreplication.

215 To evaluate the effect of our explanatory variables we applied multiple model
216 comparisons using an information-theoretic approach based on Akaike information criterion
217 corrected for small sample sizes (AICc), which penalizes models with a high number of
218 parameters relative to sample size (Burnham and Anderson, 2002).

219 In all our models we included the first order term of SDN due to the *a priori*
220 assumption that prevalence of *S. trachea* varied significantly within years (Barus, 1966c). All
221 models were created manually and explored all possible 2 way interactions between

222 explanatory variables. We separated our analysis into two sections in order to reduce the
223 number of potential models. In the first section, we ran a set of models that included all our
224 spatial and temporal explanatory variables (SDN, year and island). The best model according
225 to AICc was then used as the base model in the second section of analyses. In the second
226 section of analyses, we investigated if demographic variables such as age-class and LSG
227 could further improve the fit of the best model selected in the first section of analyses.
228 Because the two demographic variables (age-classes and LSG) contained much of the same
229 information, they were not included in the same models.

230 When including a random effect u representing heterogeneity between individuals the
231 prevalence p becomes a random variable. For a given value of the random effect u (e.g.
232 within a given individual), the relationship between the prevalence p and covariates X of
233 interests becomes: $p = \text{logit}^{-1}(X\beta + u)$. Here our interest, however, is in the relationship
234 between mean prevalence p of a randomly selected individual and the covariates X , which is
235 given by

$$236 \quad E(p) = \int \text{logit}^{-1}(X\beta + u) f(u) du,$$

237 where $f(u)$ is the density function of the random effect u . (Agresti, 2002, p. 498). This
238 relationship (sometimes referred to as the marginal model) has a considerably shallower slope
239 than the relationship between p and X conditional on u (the conditional model, see (Agresti,
240 2002), section 12.2.2 for an in-depth discussion). We computed the above integral using
241 adaptive quadrature numerical integration (function `integrate` in R).

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256 RESULTS

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258 First section of analyses

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260 When analysing whether the prevalence of *S. trachea* was influenced by spatial and temporal
261 variables the model comparisons (Table 1) showed that the model which received most
262 support given the data included all the main effects of all the explanatory variables (island,
263 SDN, SDN² and year), along with the interactions year × SDN, island × SDN, island × SDN²
264 and island × year (see Appendix 1 for details). This model had an AICc value of 866.94
265 which was 4.27 lower than the second best model, suggesting that the highest ranked model
266 was considerably better than the second best model. In addition, the AICc weight of the
267 highest ranked model indicated that there was an 88.21 % probability that this model was the
268 best given the data and the set of candidate models. The highest ranked model showed that a
269 general difference in prevalence existed both between and within years and between and
270 within islands (see Fig. 1).

271 The inclusion of the second order term of SDN as a main effect in the highest ranked
272 model, pointed to a seasonal peak of prevalence within years on our islands. The mean
273 prevalence appeared to increase during the breeding season to a general maximum in late
274 summer and then decline towards autumn (see Fig. 1). Samples taken from Hestmannøy in the
275 winters of 2009 (N=32) and 2010 (N=46) indicated a prevalence of only 3% and 0%,
276 respectively, which strongly suggest that a seasonal peak pattern in the prevalence of *S.*
277 *trachea* was present.

278 The main effect of year, showed an overall difference in prevalence between years
279 (see Fig. 1). The main effect of islands indicated that the mean prevalence in the total
280 sampling period was highest on Aldra and lowest on Gjerøy (see Fig. 1).

281 The interactions between the first order term of SDN and year/island (Table 1)
282 suggested that the rate of change in prevalence with SDN differed both among years and
283 islands, respectively. In addition, the interaction between the second order term of SDN and
284 island (Table 1) points to a difference in date for the “peak” prevalence between islands (see
285 Fig. 1).

286 The interaction between island and year indicated that the yearly change in prevalence
287 was not the same on all islands. For example, at Hestmannøy the mean prevalence decreased
288 successively each year, while on Aldra the mean prevalence decreased from 2007 to 2009 and
289 then increased in 2010 compared to previous years (see Fig. 1).

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Second section of analyses

The extension of the highest ranked model from our first section of analyses by inclusion of demographic variables resulted in an improvement of the model (see Table 2). Here, the highest ranked model (see Appendix 2 for details) had an AICc value of 849.07 which was only 0.96 lower than the second best model (Table 2). This suggests that also the second best model should be viewed as a good model when interpreting the results. Accordingly, the AICc weights strongly supported the explanative properties of the two highest ranked models (Table 2). The highest ranked model from our first section of analyses obtained an AICc value which was 17.86 higher than the new highest ranking model, given the data and the alternative models.

The two highest ranked models in the second section of analyses included the main effects of LSG, year and island along with the interactions $LSG \times year$ and $LSG \times island$. The highest ranked model also contained the interaction $LSG \times SDN^2$. The main effect of LSG suggested differences in prevalence between the 3 life-stage groups. In general, juveniles appeared to have the highest mean prevalence and adult males the lowest (see Fig. 2). The interaction terms indicated that these differences were not the same between years or islands, and suggested that the peak date in prevalence may differ between the 3 groups (see Fig. 2).

324 **DISCUSSION**

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326 This study demonstrates that the prevalence-pattern of a parasite in a metapopulation of hosts
327 can become quite complex and vary in time, space and among sub-groups of hosts. To our
328 knowledge, this is the first empirical study to show such detailed prevalence-dynamics of a
329 macroparasite in a metapopulation of wild avian hosts. Furthermore, our results emphasize the
330 importance of establishing a sampling regime that accounts for seasonal variation in
331 prevalence throughout the year, over several years and spatially among populations in order to
332 achieve a more complete picture of parasite-host dynamics.

333 The within-year variation in prevalence of *S. trachea* is supported by studies
334 conducted by Barus (1966c). He also found a peak in prevalence of the parasite on poultry
335 farms in Germany in late summer. In concordance with our results Barus (1966b) also found
336 that prevalences dropped to nearly zero during winter time and attributed this pattern to
337 climatic patterns, especially temperature, throughout the year. This link was investigated in
338 another study by Barus (1966a) with experimental observations of egg development time of *S.*
339 *trachea* from embryo to invasive stage larvae. It was then found that embryos did not develop
340 when the temperature was 16 °C or lower. Development time dropped with increasing
341 temperature and reached an “optimum” of ca. 7 days at 29 °C. This may indicate an important
342 limiting factor for *S. trachea* in our study system which is located on the Arctic Circle. In
343 wintertime, the temperature inside or outside the barns at Helgeland does not exceed the
344 minimal temperature of 16 °C in a normal year (Ringsby *et al.* unpublished results). In
345 summertime, the mean daily temperature recorded by the Norwegian Meteorological
346 Institute’s weather stations in the area usually do not exceed 16 °C (Ringsby *et al.*, 2002).
347 Nevertheless, the temperature often exceeds 16 °C in sunlight and under the tin sheet roofs on
348 barns at Helgeland (Ringsby *et al.* unpublished results). Furthermore, there may be several
349 factors other than temperature affecting seasonal parasite prevalence in our population(s),
350 such as for example host density and inter-individual variation between host age-classes and
351 sexes in energy available for defence against the parasite that may change over the breeding
352 season (e.g. Hudson *et al.*, 2002).

353 The highest ranked model from our first section of analyses also indicated that
354 differences between years was an important contributor to explaining prevalence patterns.
355 Inter-annual variation in prevalence have been found in several other parasite-host systems
356 (Weatherhead and Bennett, 1991; Thompson *et al.*, 1998; Macdonald *et al.*, 1999), and may

357 be explained by several factors. For example, climate (Kutz *et al.*, 2005), host population
358 densities (Arneberg, 2001) and vector availability (Weatherhead and Bennett, 1991) may have
359 an effect on the parasite prevalence in a given year. Disentangling what may have caused the
360 temporal patterns observed in this study, should however be a topic for future work.

361 Our results also indicate that the yearly and within year change in prevalence was not
362 the same on all islands. This may be due to differences in local abiotic conditions among
363 islands (patches), difference in vector availability, or could be caused by genetic differences
364 between islands in either host or parasite. For example, it seems possible that there may be
365 differences between our island populations with respect to genetic variation in the immune
366 system. Accordingly, the island of Aldra, with the highest prevalence of *S. trachea*, has a
367 population history involving a recent population bottleneck and high level of inbreeding
368 (Billing *et al.*, 2012), low effective population size (Engen *et al.* 2007, Baalsrud *et al.*, in
369 review), and low level of “neutral” genetic variation (Jensen *et al.*, 2007, Jensen *et al.*, in
370 review). Although based on very small sample sizes (five individual sparrows from each
371 island population), a recent study suggested however that the level of variation at major
372 histocompatibility complex genes which are important in the vertebrate immune system was
373 similar on Aldra and Hestmannøy (Borg *et al.*, 2011). Other studies have shown that
374 inbreeding may affect parasite prevalence. This was for example found by (Ilmonen *et al.*,
375 2008) who showed that inbreeding could have a significant negative effect on host (*Mus*
376 *musculus domesticus*) resistance to *Salmonella*. Alternatively, the differences between islands
377 may be caused by different strains/sub-species of *S. trachea* inhabiting our islands. Spatial
378 differences in strains/sub-species of parasites have been found in other study systems (Bensch
379 and Akesson, 2003; Gaspar da Silva *et al.*, 2007; Wood *et al.*, 2007; Henriques-Gil *et al.*,
380 2010). There may also be complex interactions between *S. trachea* and other local parasites.
381 We have detected several other parasites inhabiting our study populations (Holand *et al.*,
382 unpublished results), both from our faecal samples (endoparasites: *Isoospora spp.*, *Capillaria*
383 *spp.*, *Choanotaenia spp.*) and visual inspection of House Sparrows (ectoparasites:
384 *Hippoboscidae spp.*, *Ornithonyssus spp.*, *Ceratophyllus spp.*). Oocysts of Coccidian (*Isoospora*
385 *spp.*) species were found in 59% of faecal samples while eggs of *Capillaria spp.* and
386 *Choanotaenia spp.* were only found in 0.2% and 0.09% of faecal samples, respectively.
387 Interactions between different parasite species have been demonstrated in other studies (see
388 (Poulin, 2007). However, more detailed studies are needed in order to investigate the relative
389 importance of alternative causes for the different patterns in prevalence between our islands.

390 The second section of our analyses revealed that the difference in prevalence between
391 discrete demographic groups explained a substantial part of the total variation in prevalence.
392 Life-stage group (LSG: juvenile, adult male, adult female) seemed to explain more of the
393 variation in prevalence than the simpler age class variable (adult/juvenile). This was partly
394 due to a general difference between the 3 groups, but also due to considerable differences
395 between the groups in both time and space (Fig. 2). Although adult males and females
396 generally had a lower prevalence compared to juveniles, this pattern was opposite in some
397 years on some islands. The apparent difference in prevalence and the relationship between
398 date and prevalence between the demographic groups may be due to unequal exposure to
399 infective stage of the parasite. For instance, Ringsby *et al.* (2009) showed that females in
400 general have a higher feeding rate of nestlings compared to males. If the parasite is
401 transmitted through food items (insects etc.) one may expect the females and nestlings (of
402 which some survive to become juveniles) to show similarities in prevalence (see Zuk and
403 McKean, 1996). On the other hand, differences in prevalence may be caused by differences in
404 immunity. Other studies (Clapham, 1934; Bakke, 1973; Wissler and Halvorsen, 1975) have
405 found higher prevalence of *S. trachea* in juvenile birds. This pattern has been attributed to
406 acquired immunity with age (Atkinson *et al.*, 2008). If this is the case in our populations, one
407 might expect to see a higher prevalence in juveniles compared to adults and that birds rarely
408 get infected more than once. Indeed, out of the 121 birds sampled in more than one year, only
409 5 birds were shown to be infected in more than one year. This seems to indicate that infection
410 by *S. trachea* is generally a “once in a lifetime” event for our House Sparrows. All these
411 possibilities along with several others (see Zuk and McKean, 1996; McCurdy *et al.*, 1998;
412 Hudson *et al.*, 2002; Lachish *et al.*, 2011) may explain the demographic prevalence patterns
413 observed in our study.

414 Investigating and understanding parasite prevalence-patterns in space and time is a
415 fundamental step in determining the possible evolutionary and ecological effects parasites
416 may have on host populations. In natural populations, this is however a relatively novel area
417 of research but one that probably will increase in importance as the climate changes and
418 populations are exposed to novel parasites, or effects of parasites are amplified by shortened
419 development time, longer transmission season and reduced generation times expected as a
420 consequence of rising temperatures (see Kutz *et al.* 2005).

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604 Appendix 1

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606 Table listing the estimates and standard errors from the top model in an AICc comparison of
 607 generalized linear mixed models explaining prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in a
 608 metapopulation of house sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. All models
 609 included individual identity as a random factor. Data was collected on 4 islands during the
 610 breeding season (1.May – 17.August) in the years 2007-2010. SDN is a continuous variable
 611 indicating which day during the breeding season a bird was sampled. Interaction terms
 612 between two variables are denoted A x B. Intercept contains the estimates of the year 2007
 613 and the island Gjerøy.

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Coefficients	Estimates	Standard errors
Intercept	-9.8200	3.0500
SDN	0.1160	0.1210
SDN ²	-0.0019	0.0020
YEAR 2008	-3.0500	2.9800
YEAR 2009	-9.7100	4.8600
YEAR 2010	-15.0000	4.8100
ISLAND Hestmannøy	-0.0676	2.5700
ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	1.4600	4.6300
ISLAND Aldra	16.2000	5.4200
SDN × YEAR 2008	0.0727	0.0632
SDN × YEAR 2009	-0.0163	0.0765
SDN × YEAR 2010	0.2710	0.0864
SDN × ISLAND Hestmannøy	0.0243	0.1090
SDN × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-0.2630	0.2190
SDN × ISLAND Aldra	-0.1240	0.1100
SDN ² × ISLAND Hestmannøy	-0.0006	0.0021
SDN ² × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	0.0050	0.0039
SDN ² × ISLAND Aldra	-0.0045	0.0025
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	0.8450	2.1600
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	9.4500	4.2500
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	1.9500	3.0700
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-19.4000	250.0000
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	10.1000	5.2900
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	1.5000	3.5400
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Aldra	-10.4000	4.9300
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Aldra	-2.8900	6.0400
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Aldra	13.6000	5.4000

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624 Appendix 2

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626 Table listing the estimates and standard errors from the top model in an AICc comparison of
 627 generalized linear mixed models explaining prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in a
 628 metapopulation of house sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. All models
 629 included individual identity as a random factor. Data was collected on 4 islands during the
 630 breeding season (1.May – 17.August) in the years 2007-2010. SDN is a continuous variable
 631 indicating which day during the breeding season a bird was sampled. LSG is a categorical
 632 variable denoting the 3 main demographic groups in house sparrow populations: adult males,
 633 adult females and juveniles. Interaction terms between two variables are denoted A x B. Note
 634 that models with interactions also include the main effects of A and B. Intercept contains the
 635 estimates of the year 2007, the island Gjerøy and adult females.

Coefficients	Estimates	Standard errors
Intercept	-9.4100	5.6900
SDN	0.0737	0.1220
SDN ²	-0.0030	0.0025
YEAR 2008	-12.2000	5.1900
YEAR 2009	-19.8000	6.4800
YEAR 2010	-22.0000	6.7100
ISLAND Hestmannøy	-0.9170	5.1600
ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	19.5000	7.0600
ISLAND Aldra	40.9000	9.2000
LSG Juvenile	1.0100	4.5800
LSG Adult Male	-24.3000	8.5800
SDN × YEAR 2008	0.1640	0.1040
SDN × YEAR 2009	-0.0235	0.1060
SDN × YEAR 2010	0.3060	0.1310
SDN × ISLAND Hestmannøy	0.1100	0.0897
SDN × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-0.2440	0.2270
SDN × ISLAND Aldra	-0.0775	0.0887
SDN ² × ISLAND Hestmannøy	-0.0005	0.0022
SDN ² × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	0.0060	0.0043
SDN ² × ISLAND Aldra	-0.0047	0.0028
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	1.5500	3.2600
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	12.5000	5.1500
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Hestmannøy	1.2800	4.1700
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-35.9000	625.0000
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-3.1500	9.9600
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Indre Kvarøy	-9.5700	7.2300
YEAR 2008 × ISLAND Aldra	-27.0000	7.8800
YEAR 2009 × ISLAND Aldra	-22.7000	8.7100
YEAR 2010 × ISLAND Aldra	-2.0700	7.8900
SDN ² × LSG Juvenile	0.0001	0.0015
SDN ² × LSG Adult Male	0.0030	0.0016
YEAR 2008 × LSG Juvenile	6.2900	3.5800
YEAR 2009 × LSG Juvenile	8.9500	3.8200
YEAR 2010 × LSG Juvenile	8.6200	3.8500

YEAR 2008 × LSG Adult Male	26.4000	5.5100
YEAR 2009 × LSG Adult Male	31.7000	6.5900
YEAR 2010 × LSG Adult Male	24.2000	5.6200
ISLAND Hestmannøy × LSG Juvenile	-2.8200	3.7700
ISLAND Indre Kvarøy × LSG Juvenile	-19.1000	6.2500
ISLAND Aldra × LSG Juvenile	-31.0000	8.1100
ISLAND Hestmannøy × LSG Adult Male	-4.3600	5.9500
ISLAND Indre Kvarøy × LSG Adult Male	-8.0500	7.4500
ISLAND Aldra × LSG Adult Male	-4.1700	6.4600

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For Peer Review

677 Tables

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679 **Table 1:** Top 10 (of 44) models in an AICc comparison of generalized linear mixed models680 explaining prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in a metapopulation of house

681 sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. All models included individual

682 identity as a random factor. Data was collected on 4 islands during the breeding season

683 (1.May – 17.August) in the years 2007-2010. SDN is a continuous variable indicating which

684 day during the breeding season a bird was sampled. Interaction terms between two variables

685 are denoted A x B. Note that models with interactions also include the main effects of A and

686 B.

Model	DF	Δ AICc	AICc weight
SDN \times YEAR + SDN \times ISLAND + SDN ² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	28	0.00	0.8821
SDN \times YEAR + SDN ² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	25	4.27	0.1043
SDN ² \times YEAR + SDN \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	25	9.84	0.0064
SDN ² \times YEAR + SDN \times ISLAND + SDN ² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	28	11.01	0.0036
SDN \times YEAR + SDN \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	24	11.25	0.0032
SDN \times ISLAND + SDN ² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	25	18.10	0.0001
SDN + SDN ² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	22	18.41	< 0.0001
SDN \times YEAR + ISLAND \times YEAR	21	19.46	< 0.0001
SDN ² + SDN \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR	22	20.22	< 0.0001
SDN ² + SDN \times YEAR	10	21.79	< 0.0001

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690 **Table 2:** Top 10 (of 31) models in an AICc comparison of generalized linear mixed models691 explaining prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in a metapopulation of house

692 sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. All models included individual

693 identity as a random factor. Data was collected on 4 islands during the breeding season

694 (1.May – 17.August) in the years 2007-2010. SDN is a continuous variable indicating which

695 day during the breeding season a bird was sampled. Ageclass is a categorical variable dividing

696 house sparrows into juveniles and adults. LSG is a categorical variable denoting the 3 main

697 demographic groups in house sparrow populations: adult males, adult females and juveniles.

698 All models also contain the terms from the best model in a previous model comparison (SDN

699 \times YEAR + SDN \times ISLAND + SDN² \times ISLAND + ISLAND \times YEAR, see Table 1).

700 Interaction terms between two variables are denoted A x B. Note that models with interactions

701 also include the main effects of A and B.

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Model	DF	$\Delta AICc$	AICc weight
LSG \times ISLAND + LSG \times YEAR + LSG \times SDN ²	44	0.00	0.5694
LSG \times ISLAND + LSG \times YEAR	42	0.96	0.3528
LSG \times ISLAND + LSG \times YEAR + LSG \times SDN	44	5.14	0.0435
AGECLASS \times ISLAND	32	7.85	0.0112
AGECLASS \times ISLAND + AGECLASS \times SDN ²	33	8.71	0.0073
AGECLASS \times ISLAND + AGECLASS \times SDN	33	8.93	0.0065
LSG \times SDN ² + LSG \times SDN	34	10.52	0.0030
AGECLASS \times ISLAND + AGECLASS \times SDN + AGECLASS \times SDN ²	34	10.84	0.0025
AGECLASS \times ISLAND + AGECLASS \times YEAR	35	13.08	0.0008
LSG \times ISLAND	36	14.09	0.0005

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728 Figure legends

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730 **Fig. 1:** Graphical presentation of predictions from the best generalized linear mixed model
731 describing prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in an insular metapopulation of
732 House Sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. The response variable in the
733 model was the binary occurrence (1) or absence (0) of eggs in faeces of House Sparrows.
734 Individual identity was used as a random factor. Data was obtained from faecal samples from
735 4 islands during the breeding seasons of the years 2007 – 2010. The predicted relationships
736 from the model between season and prevalence for the four islands are plotted as lines.
737 Sample sizes are shown as “sunflower” points denoting number of negative (individual
738 prevalence = 0%) and positive (individual prevalence = 100%) samples, respectively.

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740 **Fig. 2:** Graphical presentation of predictions from the best generalized linear mixed model
741 describing prevalence of the parasite *Syngamus trachea* in an insular metapopulation of
742 House Sparrows on the coast of Helgeland in northern Norway. The response variable in the
743 model was the binary occurrence (1) or absence (0) of eggs in faeces of House Sparrows of
744 different life-stage groups (juvenile, adult female or adult male). Individual identity was used
745 as a random factor. Data was obtained from faecal samples from 4 islands during the breeding
746 seasons of the years 2007 – 2010. Sample sizes are shown as “sunflower” points denoting
747 number of negative (individual prevalence = 0%) and positive (individual prevalence = 100%)
748 samples, respectively.

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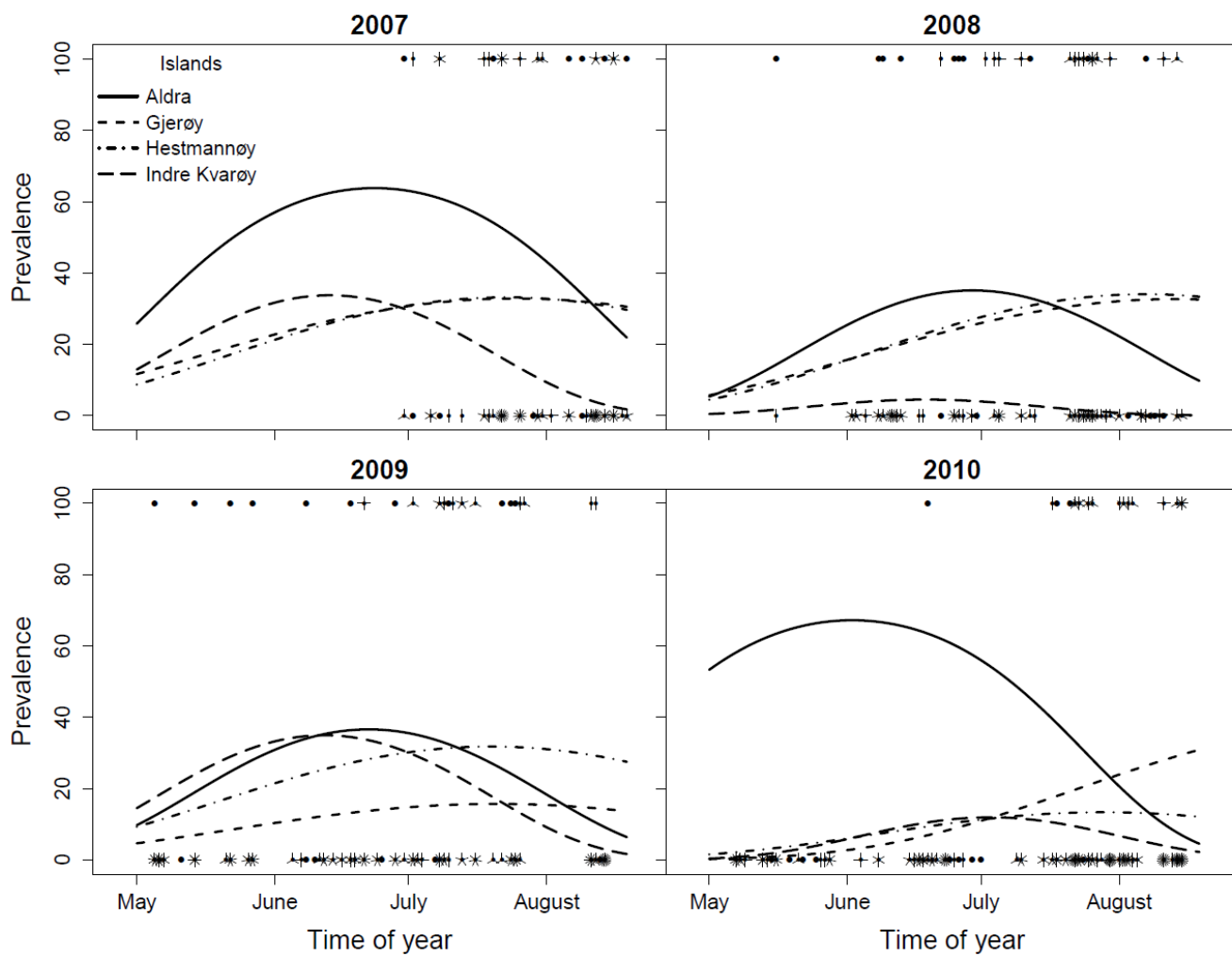
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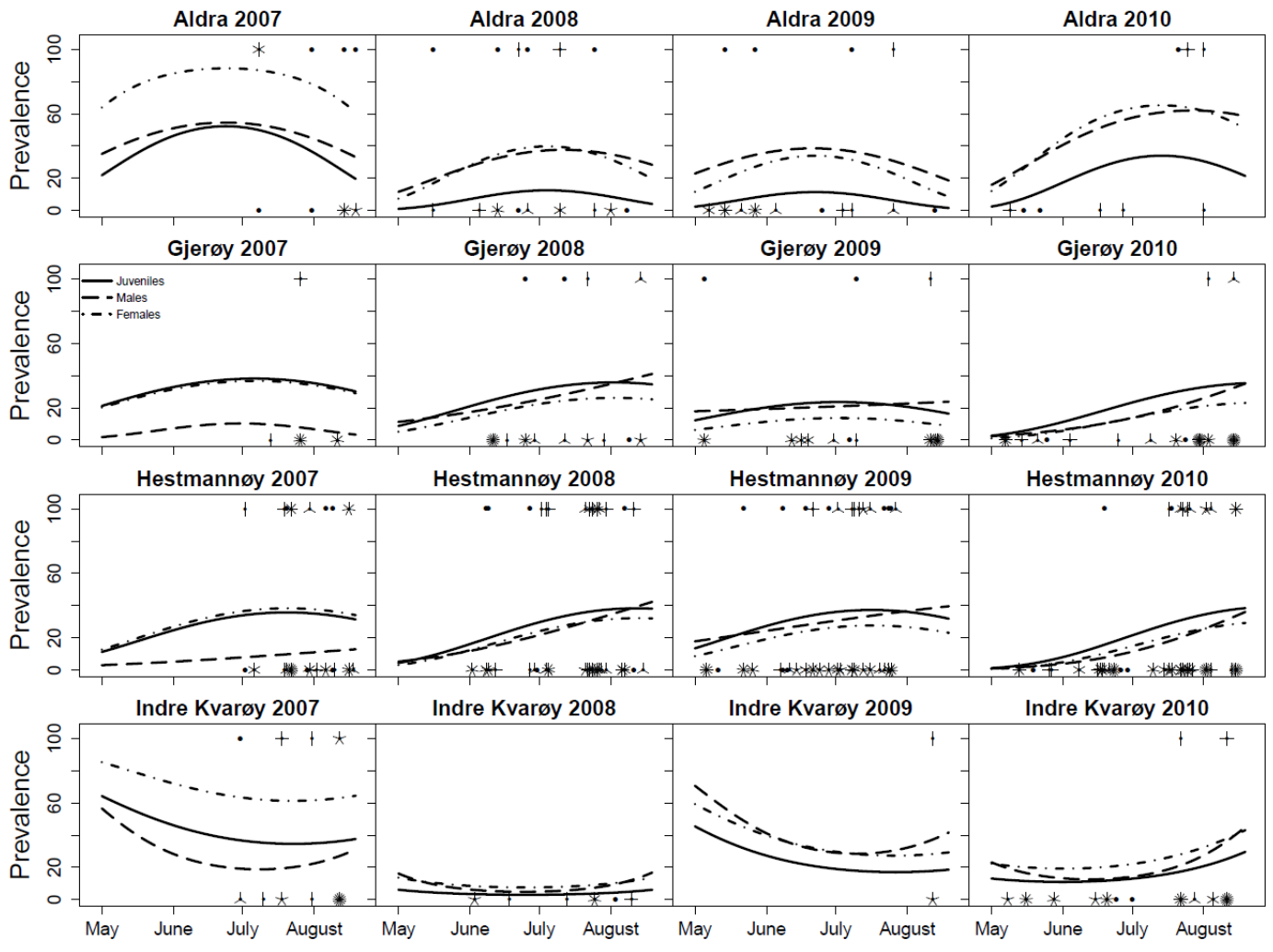
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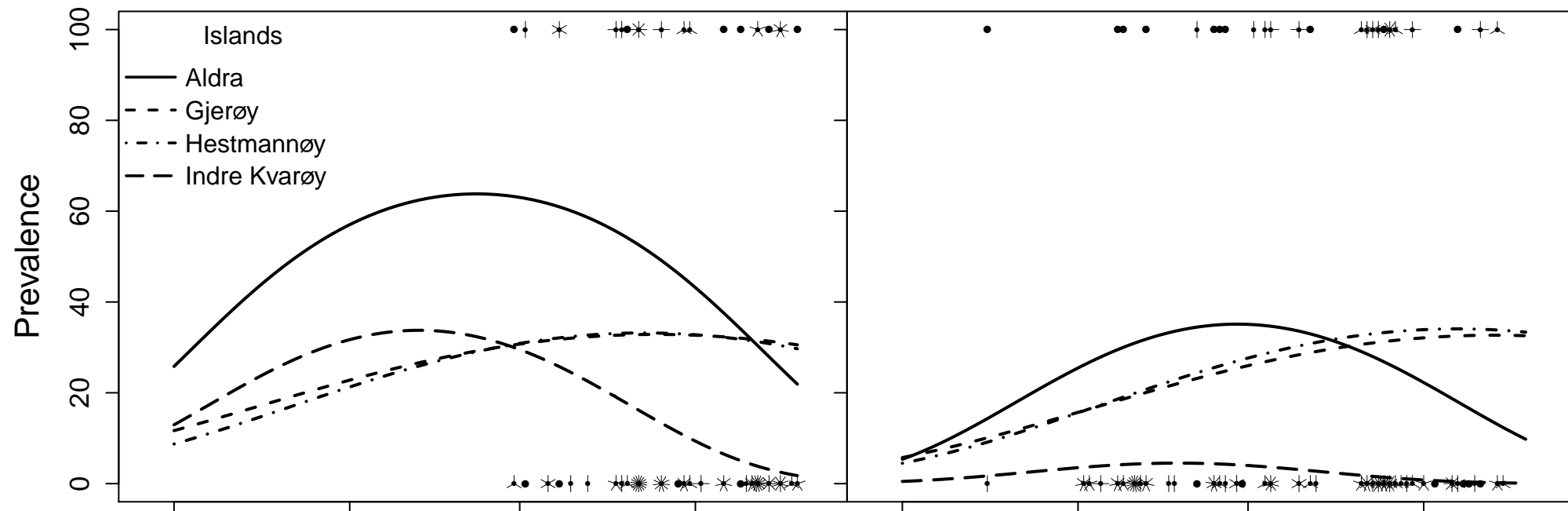


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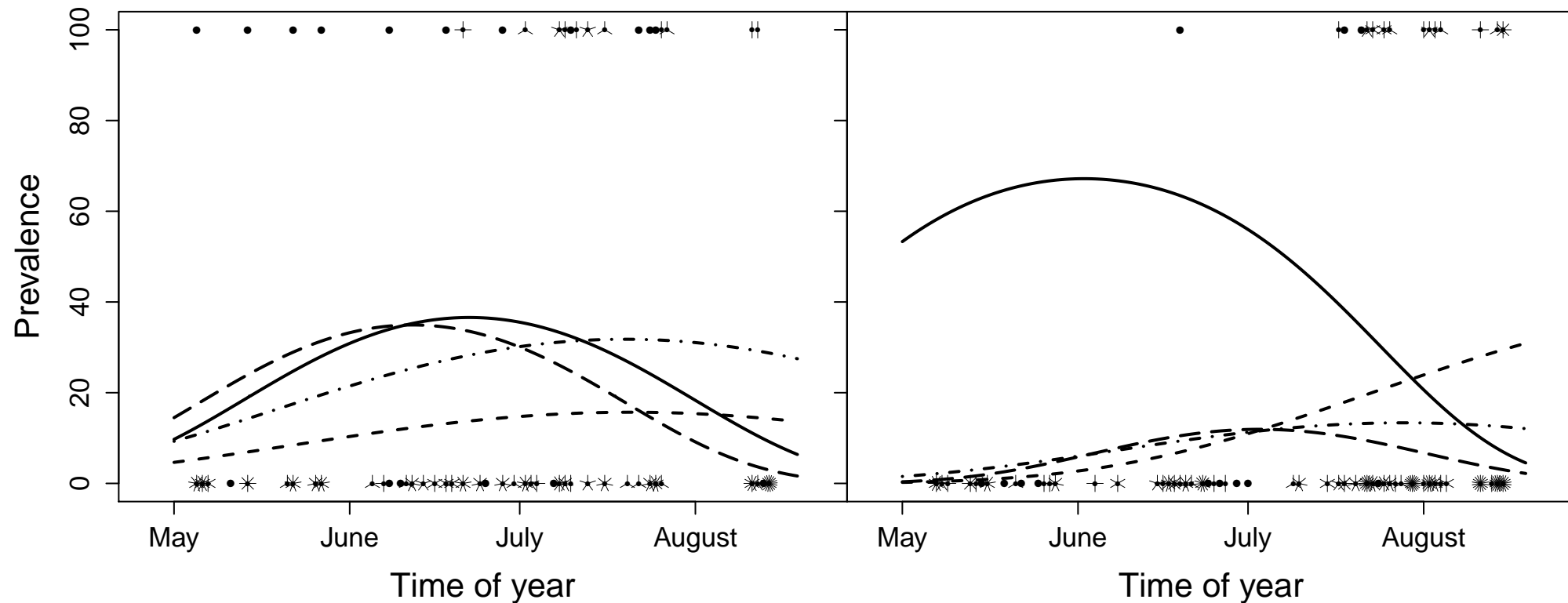
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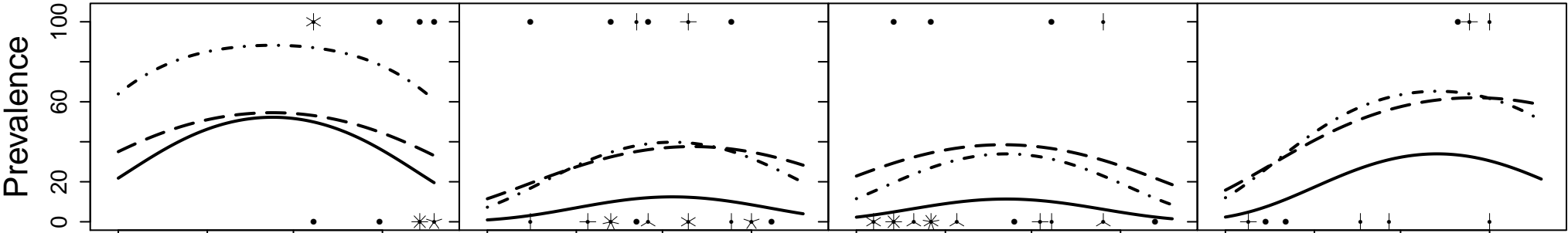


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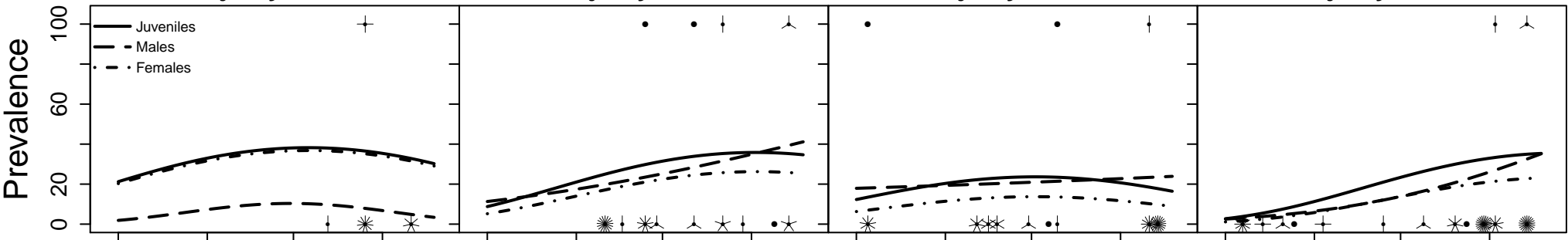


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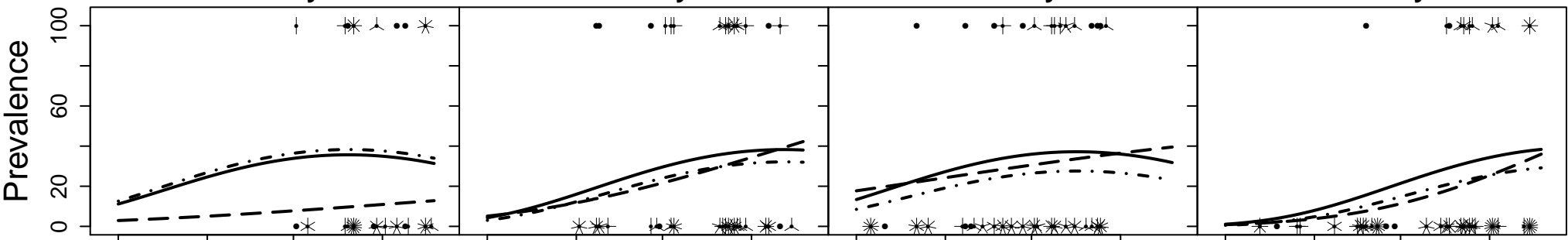


Hestmannøy 2007

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Hestmannøy 2010



Indre Kvarøy 2007

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