

This is a preprint of:

Welsh, J.E.; Hempel, A.; Markovic, M.; van der Meer, J. & Thieltges, D.W. (2019). Consumer and host body size effects on the removal of trematode cercariae by ambient communities. *Parasitology*, 146, 342-347

Published version: <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0031182018001488">https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0031182018001488</a>

NIOZ Repository: <a href="http://www.vliz.be/nl/imis?module=ref&refid=308739">http://www.vliz.be/nl/imis?module=ref&refid=308739</a>

[Article begins on next page]

The NIOZ Repository gives free access to the digital collection of the work of the Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research. This archive is managed according to the principles of the Open Access Movement, and the Open Archive Initiative. Each publication should be cited to its original source - please use the reference as presented.

When using parts of, or whole publications in your own work, permission from the author(s) or copyright holder(s) is always needed.

1	Consumer and host body size effects on the removal of trematode cercariae by ambient
2	communities
3	
4	Jennifer E Welsh, Anke Hempel, Mirjana Markovic, Jaap van der Meer, David W. Thieltges
5	
6	NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Department of Coastal Systems, and
7	Utrecht University, P.O. Box 59, 1790 AB den Burg, Texel, the Netherlands
8	
9	Corresponding author: Jennifer.Welsh@nioz.nl
10	

Running title: Body size effects on trematode removal

#### **SUMMARY**

Parasite transmission can be altered via the removal of parasites by the ambient communities in which parasite-host interactions take place. However, the mechanisms driving parasite removal remain poorly understood. Using marine trematode cercariae as a model system we investigated the effects of consumer and host body size on parasite removal rates. Lab experiments revealed that consumer or host body size significantly affected cercarial removal rates in crabs, oysters and cockles but not in shrimps. In general, cercarial removal rates increased with consumer (crabs and oysters) and host (cockles) body size. For the filter feeding oysters and cockles, the effects probably relate to their feeding activity which is known to correlate with bivalve size. Low infection levels found in cockle hosts suggest that parasite removal by hosts also leads to significant mortality of infective stages. The size effects of crab and shrimp predators on cercarial removal rates were more complex and did not show an expected size match-mismatch between predators and their cercarial prey, suggesting that parasite removal rates in predators is species-specific. We conclude that, to have a comprehensive understanding of parasite removal by ambient communities, more research into the various mechanisms of cercarial removal is required.

### **KEYWORDS**

- 30 Transmission interference, trematode, parasite-host interactions, predator-prey relations,
- 31 predator size.

#### **KEY FINDINGS**

- Experiments showed that cercarial removal rates by ambient communities can be
  affected by host body size
- Cercarial removal rates of consumers (crabs and oysters) increased with body size
- Removal rates also increased with body size of hosts (cockles)
- Low infections of cockle hosts suggest significant mortality of infective transmission
  stages in hosts
  - Parasite prevalence and intensity was low in cockle hosts showing that host organisms also remove a large proportion of parasites from the system.

#### INTRODUCTION

Parasite transmission between hosts can be significantly altered by the ambient communities in which parasite-host interactions take place. The associated change in disease risk for hosts in a given environment can result from indirect mechanisms, e.g. via competitors or predators affecting host densities (Keesing *et al.* 2006; Johnson and Thieltges, 2010), but can also stem from direct mechanisms in form of the removal of free-living infectious stages by other organisms (Thieltges *et al.* 2008a; Johnson and Thieltges, 2010). In the latter case, consumption of parasites by non-hosts living in the vicinity of target hosts has been identified to lead to significant reduction in infectious stages which subsequently leads to lower infection levels and disease risk for hosts (Johnson *et al.* 2010). For example, consumption of cercarial stages of trematodes by various aquatic invertebrates and juvenile fish has repeatedly shown to reduce cercarial density and lower infection levels in target hosts (e.g. Thieltges *et al.* 2008b; Kaplan *et al.* 2009; Orlofske *et al.* 2012; Welsh *et al.* 2014). The removal of cercariae and other infective stages of parasites is not limited to specific feeding types but occurs in pursuit and ambush predators as well as in filter and deposit feeders (Thieltges *et al.* 

2008a; Johnson *et al.* 2010). Similarly, parasite removal can also be caused by hosts, either in form of conspecifics or by susceptible alternative host species. In both cases, additional hosts can become infected by infectious stages and thereby remove infective stages from the local infection pool and reduce average infection intensity of individual target hosts (Thieltges and Reise, 2007; Orlofske *et al.* 2012; Magalhães *et al.* 2017). It is likely that both forms of removal of infectious stages are very common in natural systems and thus understanding the mechanisms driving the magnitude of parasite removal are important for our understanding of the multiple effects of ambient communities on disease risk.

One of the factors likely to affect parasite removal rates is the body size of both consumers and hosts of infective stages. The importance of consumer size for resource consumption is well known from predator-prey interactions where it is strongly linked to both prey and predator population dynamics (Caswell, 1989; Fryxell and Lunberg, 1998; Beaugrand et al. 2003). Predators usually target prey of specific sizes with larger predators generally consuming larger prey and smaller predators consuming smaller prey (Brose et al. 2006; Costa, 2009). The preference for specific prey size classes can result in a match-mismatch between a predator and its prey if prey items are either too small or too large (e.g. Neill, 1975; Nilsson and Bronmark, 2000; Strasser, 2002). Such a match-mismatch can also be expected to occur in the case of predation upon infective stages of parasites. Indeed, a negative relationship between predator body size and parasite removal has been observed in invertebrate predators (damselfly nymphs and dragonfly larvae) and vertebrate (juvenile versus adult mosquitofish) of trematode cercarial stages in freshwater systems (Orlofkse et al. 2015; Catania et al. 2016). Further studies, also from different ecosystems, would be helpful to evaluate the generality of the effects of predator body size on parasite removal. Secondary to the size match-mismatch phenomenon, consumer size may also determine the per capita

removal rates of parasites, with larger consumers removing more infective stage than smaller ones. This may be particularly true for some known parasite consumers such as filter feeders. Filter feeder filtration rate, which is a factor of gill area and shell length, changes as filter feeders grow (Møhlenberg and Riisgård 1978; Jones et al. 1992; Gosling, 2003). Consequently, the number of parasites of a given size range removed (the clearance rate) can potentially increase with an increase in the size of the filter feeder. Finally, similar to consumers, the size of alternative hosts is likely to affect parasite removal rates as host body size is generally positively correlated with parasite infection levels (Poulin, 2011). Hence, larger hosts may remove more infective stages than smaller hosts. To date, neither the effects of filter feeders or alternative hosts on parasite removal rates have been investigated. In this study, we investigated the effects of consumer and host body size on parasite removal using cercariae of a marine trematode as a model system. The echinostome trematode Himasthla elongata (body length: 605–665 µm; tail length: 535–605 µm; Werding, 1969) is found in marine intertidal systems around Europe and has a complex life cycle with birds serving as definitive hosts and periwinkles (Littorina littorea) as first intermediate hosts (de Montaudouin et al. 2009). The cercarial stages released from the periwinkles infect bivalves such as the common cockle Cerastoderma edule as second intermediate host (Thieltges and Reise, 2007; de Montaudouin et al. 2009). Several intertidal non-host organisms (organisms which are not infected by *H. elongata*) have been shown to remove the cercariae of *H*. elongata and subsequently reduce infection levels in bivalve target hosts (Thieltges et al. 2008b; Welsh et al. 2014). Among those are predatory brown shrimps Crangon and shore crabs Carcinas maenas and filter feeding Pacific oysters Magallana gigas (which do not become infected by the parasite). We used mesocosm experiments to investigate the removal rates of these consumers (crabs, shrimps, oysters) and hosts (cockles) depending on

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

their body size to identify potential size match-mismatches and to quantify whether larger individuals remove more cercariae than smaller individuals. With this experimental approach investigating several different parasite removal mechanisms we aim to advance our understanding of the phenomenon of parasite removal and its effects on disease risk.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Source of consumers and hosts

Shore crabs (*Carcinus maenas*), brown shrimps (*Crangon crangon*), common cockles (*Cerastoderma edule*) and Pacific oysters (*Magallana gigas*; also commonly known as *Crassostrea gigas*) of various sizes were collected from the intertidal area along the eastern coast of the island of Texel (Wadden Sea, The Netherlands). Cockles (known to serve as intermediate hosts for *Himasthla elongata*) were collected from an intertidal sand flat north of Texel where *H. elongata* infections are known to be low (confirmed by dissecting 50 cockles: 3 infected individuals with <2 metacercariae per host). The other three species do not serve as hosts for *H. elongata* (Thieltges *et al.* 2006) and were therefore not dissected. After collection, all epibionts, if present, were gently removed and all four species were kept in tanks containing filtered and aerated seawater within a climate-controlled room (15°C) at the NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research (Texel, The Netherlands).

Source of cercariae

Periwinkles (*Littorina littorea*) collected from the intertidal area around the island of Texel were screened for the presence of *H. elongata* infections by checking for the release of cercariae under increased temperature treatments (for details see Welsh *et al.* 2014). Infected periwinkles were stored in flow though aquaria at 15°C and regularly fed sea lettuce (*Ulva lactuca*). To obtain cercariae for the experiments, 150-200 infected snails were incubated in

1800 mL of filtered seawater at 27°C under light for 3 hours to encourage the release of cercariae. From this concentrated cercariae solution, 50 *H. elongata* cercariae (40 in the crab experiment) were pipetted under a stereo microscope into small 100 mL plastic containers within 1.5 hours and then added to the experimental units (thus a maximum age of cercariae of 4.5 hours).

# Experimental set up

The effect of consumer and host body size on removal rates of cercariae was investigated in laboratory experiments by determining removal rates of five size categories of each species (Table 1). In addition, a sixth treatment without consumers or hosts served as a control to account for potential loses of cercariae due other factors (knowing the number of added cercariae was 40 or 50) and to test for the general presence of a cercarial reduction effect (control vs. species addition treatments). The experiments were conducted in four separate runs, with each run testing removal rates of a single species (one individual per replicate, 6 replicates per treatment level, Table 1). Each replicate consisted of a 21 aquarium filled with 1500 mL of filtered seawater and randomly placed in a single climate-controlled room  $(18.5^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 0.2^{\circ}\text{C})$ .

All consumers and hosts were starved and kept in the experimental aquaria for 24 hours prior to the experiments to allow for acclimation. After this acclimation period, 40 or 50 (for crab treatments and all other species, respectively) cercariae were added to each replicate aquaria and left undisturbed for 3 hours. This time period ensured full swimming ability of cercariae for the whole experimental period, which is known to slowly decrease after about 8 hours (Thieltges and Rick, 2006; Studer and Poulin, 2013). At termination, the test organisms were quickly removed from the aquaria using long forceps and the water from the aquaria was

sieved using a 25µm sieve. The retained cercariae were backwashed into individual 100 mL pots which contained 10 mL of 99% ethanol for fixation and 0.5 mL Rose Bengal for staining. Cercariae were later enumerated under a light stereomicroscope. In addition, 24 hours after the experiment ended all cockles were dissected under a light microscope and metacercariae counted to determine infection intensity. This allowed for the determination of actual cercarial removal from cercarial loss due to infections.

*Analyses* 

The effect of presence/absence and of the size of cercarial consumers and hosts was analysed using three binomial Generalized Linear Models (GLM) with log-links. Including a log-link assumed a linear pure death process, i.e. all predatory incidences were considered to be independent events (see Liddell *et al.* 2017 for further details).

The first model (1) included all factor levels for each consumer or host body size class, the second model (2) included only two levels, the control versus consumer or host presence, and the third model (3) only included a constant, thus assuming that the control and all size class treatments show the same removal rate. Comparing model 1 and 2 allowed to test whether consumer or host body size had a significant effect on the removal of cercariae. Comparing models 2 and 3 allowed to test whether there was an overall effect of consumer or host presence. Model comparisons were done using analysis of deviance. The difference in deviance between two models ( $\Delta$  Dev) was divided by the dispersion factor ( $\phi$ ) from the most complete model and then compared to the delta degree of freedom  $\chi^2$  at 0.05. Calculations of  $\phi$  were derived by dividing the residual deviance for the most complex model by the degrees of freedom. When two models significantly differed, this indicated that the most complex model had the better fit. From the best fitting models, the clearance rate (L h<sup>-1</sup>) of each

consumer or host was calculated by dividing the instantaneous cercarial removal rates retrieved from the model outputs by the volume of the experimental units (2 L). This was done in an effort to allow for comparisons with literature data on clearance rates.

All analyses were carried out using R (R Development Core Team, 2013) version 3.0.2 in R Studio (version 0.98.1103; R Studio Team, 2014).

#### RESULTS

Consumer or host body size significantly affected cercarial removal in crabs, oysters and cockles, but it did not affect removal by shrimps (Figure 1; Table 2). Similarly, while these three species lead to a significant removal compared to the control, the presence of shrimps had no significant effect on the number of remaining cercariae (Table 2). The removal of cercariae by crabs showed an overall increase with an increase in crab size, i.e. the number of cercariae remaining decreased with an increase in crab size class (Figure 1). As such, the clearance rate of crabs increased with crab size (Table 3). A similar pattern was seen in the filter feeding oysters and cockles (the latter also serving as host for the parasite). In both cases the number of cercariae remaining decreased with an increase in shell length (Figure 1, Table 2), hence the clearance rates increased with an increase in oyster and cockle size (Table 3).

Although cockles are known to serve as intermediate host for *Himasthla elongata*, overall infection levels were unexpectedly low. Prevalence varied between 16.7 and 66.7% among the cockle size classes but infected cockles harboured, on average, onlybetween 1 and 2.7 metacercarial stages (Table 4), suggesting that the observed cercarial loss in the experimental units only marginally resulted from cercariae infecting the cockles. There was no observed correlation between infection intensity or prevalence and cockle size.

# **DISCUSSION**

Our series of experiments revealed that consumer and host body size significantly affected cercarial removal in crabs, oysters and cockles but not in shrimps. In general, cercarial removal rates increased with consumer or host body size.

Infection intensity observed within the cockle host species was extremely low across all sizes, with no correlation occurring between size and infection intensity. This contradicts previous findings which suggested that older, and thus larger, filter feeding hosts accumulate more trematode metacercariae than younger and smaller individuals via their increased filtration rate (Wegeberg et al. 1999). In cockle sizes of 0.6-1.4cm a 60% *H. elongate* infection success was observed, which was significantly higher than the 16% success observed in cockles <0.6cm (Wegeberg et al. 1999). In this study infection success was considerably lower with a maximum of 5.4% success in the smallest size class (1.6cm). However, as the size range did not cover cockles smaller than 1.6cm we are not able to directly compare infection intensities. As the number of cercariae recovered at the end of the experiment combined with the low number of recovered metacercariae from within cockle tissue did not equate to the total number of cercariae added, we can assume that the cockle host removed cercariae via filter feeding, just as observed in the non-host oysters. The cercarial loss from the system caused by hosts may have consequences for energy flow (Thieltges et al. 2008).

In the two filter feeders, oysters and cockles, this increase in parasite removal rates with oyster or cockle body size relates to the general feeding ecology of the species. Bivalves constantly filter water via their gills and the filtration rate is a function of gill area which is positively correlated with bivalve body size (Møhlenberg and Riisgård, 1978; Jones *et al.* 

1992; Gosling, 2003). However, as the filter feeding mesh of the bivalves' gills is independent of body size, prey size selection in bivalve filter feeders does not change as the organism grows (Gosling, 2003). Hence, particles that are captured by the filter feeding mesh of the gills will be filtered at an increasing rate with increasing body size. As cercarial stages of trematodes fall within the size range of particles filtered by bivalves (Gosling, 2003), cercarial removal can also be expected to increase with bivalve body size as observed in our experiments. As the positive relationship between body size and filtration rates are universal in bivalves and possibly also in other filter feeders, measures of filtration capacity such as clearance rates can probably, as long as the size range of the particles captured overlaps with the size of the respective infective stages of parasites, be used as a proxy for the parasite removal capacity of any filter feeding organism. As filtration is often relatively unspecific within the range of particles filtered, a large range of filter feeding organisms such as bivalves may be able to remove infective stages of parasites and may thus play an important role in altering parasite transmission in aquatic ecosystems (Burge *et al.* 2016).

Although both oysters and cockles significantly removed cercariae from the water, the subsequent fate of the removed cercariae is likely to differ between oysters and cockles. In the case of oysters, the uptake of cercariae of *Himasthla elongata* will not lead to infections as Pacific oysters are not infected with metacercarial stages of the species (Krakau *et al.* 2006). The cercarial removal capacity of oysters has previously been recognised and has been shown to lead to reduced infection levels in the parasite's target hosts (Thieltges *et al.* 2008c). However, when those studies were conducted the dependency of cercarial removal on oyster body size was, and remained, unknown until now. In contrast to the oysters, common cockles do serve as hosts to metacercarial stages of *H. elongata* (Thieltges *et al.* 2006; de

their filtration can lead to infections. As filtration rates increase with body size, larger cockle hosts will be exposed to larger numbers of infective stages and most likely have higher infection levels. While there is some evidence for a positive relationship between cockle size (or age) and metacercarial infection levels in the literature (de Montaudouin *et al.* 1998; Jensen *et al.* 1999; Thieltges 2008), cercarial removal only lead to very low infections of cockles in our experiment, with a mean intensity of 1-2.7 metacercariae and no relationship with cockle size. This suggests that the uptake of cercariae by cockles does not necessarily lead to infections but that a large number of cercariae may rather be lost in the course of the filtration, possibly by immobilising cercariae on the cockles' gills and thereafter, being potentially digested.

Like oysters and cockles, crabs also showed a positive relation between body size and cercarial removal but this pattern differed from our expectation. We had assumed that a size match—mismatch would occur in crabs, whereby the infective parasite stages would be too large for smaller crabs and too small for larger crabs to remove. However, cercarial stages were removed by all size classes of crab with larger crabs removing more cercariae than smaller crabs. As the range in crab sizes used in our study not only covered the most common sizes found in our study area but also included very small and very large crabs, it is not expected that a size mismatch has been missed. The observed increase in cercarial removal rates with crab size suggests that cercarial removal is possibly not a result of direct predation by crabs (using their claws) but rather a different mechanism. Various crab species have been shown to use their mouth parts to catch small particles, similar to filter feeding in bivalves (Gerlach *et al.* 1976; Watts, 2014). In addition, small 10μm polystyrene microspheres have been shown to be taken up by *C. maenas* crabs and retained by their gills which are normally used only for oxygen uptake and not particle filtration (Watts, 2014). It is thus likely, that

cercarial removal in shore crabs is based on mechanisms similar to filter feeding in bivalves and indeed we have observed cercariae stained with fluorescent dye in the digestive tract and on the gills of shore crabs (pers. obs.). Such alternative mechanisms of cercarial removal may explain the different findings in other aquatic predators where a negative relationship between predator body size and parasite removal due to prey size mismatches has been observed (e.g. damselfly nymphs, dragonfly larvae, mosquitofish; Orlofkse *et al.* 2015; Catania *et al.* 2016). Our findings thus suggest that predator effects on cercarial removal rates may be more diverse than only relating to direct predation and may also include indirect mechanisms such removal via mouth parts or gills similar to the filter feeding in bivalves and other filter feeders.

In contrast to shore crabs, the second predator investigated, the brown shrimp, did not significantly remove cercariae. This contradicts with previous studies which have reported cercarial removal by brown shrimps (Welsh *et al.* 2014; Thieltges *et al.* 2008b). However, these differences in findings are probably related to differences in the experimental designs used among the studies. Welsh *et al.* (2014) used 6 shrimps with a length of 3 cm per replicate and found a significant reduction in the number of cercariae by 93%. In contrast, our study only used a single shrimp per replicate and we observed about 20% fewer cercariae in a comparable size class (3.2-3.5 cm). Although cercarial removal was not statistically significant in this study, the results from Welsh *et al.* (2014) suggest that higher densities of shrimps would have probably led to higher removal rates. In a different previous study, brown shrimps of 1.5-2.5cm length lead to a reduction in infection levels of cockle hosts by 78% (Thieltges *et al.* 2008b). However, this study used 10 shrimps per replicate and the observed effect was most likely not only due to cercarial removal by shrimps but also due to interactions of shrimps and cockles leading to disturbances in cockle filtration and subsequently to lower infection levels (Thieltges *et al.* 2008b). These comparisons show that

brown shrimps have the ability to remove cercariae but only at higher shrimp densities. The absence of an effect of shrimp body size shown in this study may further suggest that cercarial removal may be independent of body size in shrimps in general, again differing from the expectation that there should be a size dependent match-mismatch as observed in other cercarial predators (Orlofkse *et al.* 2015; Catania *et al.* 2016). Hence, the effect of predators on cercarial removal may be less predictable than in filter feeders and probably depends strongly on the mechanisms of cercarial removal in a respective predator.

In conclusion, our study shows that consumer and host body size can significantly affect cercarial removal rates and that removal rates generally increased with the body size of consumers (crabs and oysters) and hosts (cockles). In the case of filter feeders (oysters and cockles), the observed effects probably directly relate to the filter feeding activity and suggest that general measures of filtration capacities, such as clearance rates, may be used as proxies of cercarial removal capabilities. In contrast, size effects on cercarial removal rates by predators were more complex and did not show a consistant size match-mismatch, suggesting cercarial removal rates depend on species specific mechanisms. It is suggested that other host and non-host organisms be tested for body size effects on cercariae removal in order to calculate the net effects of different size classee on cercarial abundances. It is also recommended to test the combined effects of non-host organisms sizes with varying cercariae sizes (i.e. different cercarial species). Our results indicate that more research into the various mechanisms of cercarial removal is needed to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms underlying parasite removal in communities.

# **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We will acknowledge the reviewers.

333	
334	FINANCIAL SUPPORT
335	This research received no specific grant from any funding agency, commercial or non-profit
336	sectors.
337	
338	REFERENCES
339	Beaugrand, G., Brander, K. M., Alistair Lindley, J., Souissi, S. and Reid, P. C. (2003).
340	Plankton effect on cod recruitment in the North Sea. Nature 426, 661-4.
341	Brose, U., Jonsson, T., Berlow, E., Warren, P., Banasek-Richter, C., Berier, LF.,
342	Blanchard, J. L., Brey, T., Carpenter, S. R., Blandenier, C. MF., Cushing, L.,
343	Dawah, H. A., Dell, T., Edwards, F., Harper-Smith, S., Jacob, U., Ledger, M. E.,
344	Martinez, N. D., Memmott, J., Mintenbeck, K., Pinnegar, J. K., Rall, B. C.,
345	Rayner, T. S., Reuman, D. C., Ruess, L., Ulrich, W., Williams, Richard J.
346	Woodward, G. and Cohen, J. E. (2006). Consumer-resource body-size relationships
347	in natural food webs. <i>Ecology</i> <b>87</b> , 2411–2417.
348	Burge, C. A., Closek, C. J., Friedman, C. S., Groner, M. L., Jenkins, C. M., Shore-
349	Maggio, A. and Welsh, J. E. (2016). The use of filter-feeders to manage disease in a
350	changing world. Integrative and Comparative Biology 56, 573-587.
351	Caswell, H. (1989). Matrix population models: construction, analysis, and interpretation.
352	Sunderland (Massachusetts): Sinauer Associates.
353	Catania, S. V. L., Koprivnikar, J. and Mccauley, S. J. (2016). Size-dependent predation
354	alters interactions between parasites and predators. Canadian Journal of Zoology 94,
355	631–635.
356	Costa, G. C. (2014). Predator size, prey size, and dietary niche breadth relationships in

marine predators. *Ecology* **90**, 2014–2019.

358	de Montaudouin, X., Wegeberg, A., Jensen, K. and Sauriau, P. (1998). Infection
359	characteristics of Himasthla elongata cercariae in cockles as a function of water
360	current. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 34, 63-70.
361	de Montaudouin, X., Jensen, K. T., Desclaux, C., Wegeberg, A. M. and Sajus, M. C.
362	(2005). Effect of intermediate host size (Cerastoderma edule) on infectivity of
363	cercariae of Himasthla quissetensis (Echinostomatidae: Trematoda). Journal of the
364	Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom 85, 809–812.
365	de Montaudouin, X., Thieltges, D. W., Gam, M., Krakau, M., Pina, S., Bazairi, H.,
366	Dabouineau, L., Russell-Pinto, F. and Jensen, K. T. (2009). Digenean trematode
367	species in the cockle Cerastoderma edule: identification key and distribution along the
368	north-eastern Atlantic shoreline. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the
369	United Kingdom 89, 543–556.
370	Fryxell, J. M. and Lunberg, P. (1998). Individual behavior and community dynamics.
371	London: Chapman & Hall.
372	Gerlach, S. A., Ekstrøm, D. K. and Eckardt, P. B. (1976). Filter feeding in the hermit crab,
373	Pagurus bernhardus. Oecologia 24, 257–264.
374	Gosling, E. (2003). Bivalve molluscs: biology, ecology and culture. Oxford: Blackwell
375	Science.
376	Jensen, K., Castro, N. and Bachelet, G. (1999). Infectivity of <i>Himasthla</i> spp. (Trematoda)
377	in cockle (Cerastoderma edule) spat. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of
378	the United Kingdom <b>79</b> , 265–271.
379	Johnson, P. T. J. and Thieltges, D. W. (2010). Diversity, decoys and the dilution effect: how
380	ecological communities affect disease risk. The Journal of Experimental Biology 213,
381	961–70.

382	Johnson, P. T. J., Dobson, A., Lafferty, K. D., Marcogliese, D. J., Memmott, J., Orlofske,
383	S., Poulin, R. and Thieltges, D. W. (2010). When parasites become prey: ecological
384	and epidemiological significance of eating parasites. Trends in Ecology and Evolution
385	25, 362–371.
386	Jones, H. D., Richards, O. G. and Souther, T. A. (1992). Gill dimensions, water pumping
387	rate and body size in the mussel Mytilus edulis L. Journal of Experimental Marine
388	Biology and Ecology 155, 213–237.
389	Kaplan, A. T., Rebhal, S., Lafferty, K. D., Kuris, A. M., Biology, M. and Science, M.
390	(2009). Small estuarine fishes feed on large trematode cercariae: lab and field
391	investigations. Journal of Parasitology 95, 477–480.
392	Keesing, F., Holt, R. D. and Ostfeld, R. S. (2006). Effects of species diversity on disease
393	risk. Ecology Letters 9, 485–498.
394	Krakau, M., Thieltges, D. W. and Reise, K. (2006). Native parasites adopt introduced
395	bivalves of the North Sea. Biological Invasions 8, 919–925.
396	Liddell, C., Welsh, J. E., Meer, J. Van Der and Thieltges, D. W. (2017). Effect of dose and
397	frequency of exposure to infectious stages on trematode infection intensity and success
398	in mussels. Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 125, 85-92.
399	Magalhães, L., Freitas, R., Dairain, A. and de Montaudouin, X. (2017). Can host density
400	attenuate parasitism? Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United
401	Kingdom <b>97</b> , 497–505.
402	Møhlenberg, F. and Riisgård, H. U. (1979). Filtration rate, using a new indirect technique,
403	in thirteen species of suspension-feeding bivalves. Marine Biology 54, 143–147.
404	Neill, W. E. (1975). Experimental studies of microcrustacean competition and researouce
405	utilization. <i>Ecology</i> <b>56</b> , 809–826.

406	<b>Nilsson, P. A. and Bronmark, C.</b> (2000). Prey vulnerability to a gape-size limited predator:
407	behavioural and morphological impacts on northern pike piscivory. Oikos 88, 539-
408	546.
409	Orlofske, S. A., Jadin, R. C., Preston, D. L. and Johnson, P. T. J. (2012). Parasite
410	transmission in complex communities: Predators and alternative hosts alter pathogenic
411	infections in amphibians. <i>Ecology</i> <b>93</b> , 1247–1253.
412	Orlofske, S. A., Jadin, R. C. and Johnson, P. T. J. (2015). It's a predator–eat–parasite
413	world: how characteristics of predator, parasite and environment affect consumption.
414	Oecologia <b>178</b> , 537–547.
415	Poulin, R. (2011). Evolutionary ecology of parasites. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
416	R Core Development Team (2013). A language and environment for statistical computing.
417	R Studio Team (2014). RStudio: Integrated Development for R. Version 1.0.143. Boston,
418	MA: RStudio, Inc.
419	Riisgård, H. U. (2001). On measurement of filtration rates in bivalves - the stony road to
420	reliable data: review and interpretation. Marine Ecology Progress Series 211, 275-
421	291.
422	Strasser, M. (2002). Reduced epibenthic predation on intertidal bivalves after a severe winter
423	in the European Wadden Sea. Marine Ecology Progress Series 241, 113–123.
424	Studer, A. and Poulin, R. (2013). Cercarial survival in an intertidal trematode: a
425	multifactorial experiment with temperature, salinity and ultraviolet radiation.
426	Parasitology Research 112, 243–9.
427	Thieltges, D. W. (2008). Effect of host size and temporal exposure on metacercarial infection
428	levels in the intertidal cockle Cerastoderma edule. Journal of the Marine Biological
429	Association of the United Kingdom 88, 613–616.

130	Thieltges, D. and Reise, K. (2006). Metazoan parasites in intertidal cockles Cerastoderma
131	edule from the northern Wadden Sea. Journal of Sea Research 56, 284–293.
132	Thieltges, D. W. and Reise, K. (2007). Spatial heterogeneity in parasite infections at
133	different spatial scales in an intertidal bivalve. <b>Oecologia 150</b> , 569–81.
134	Thieltges, D. W. and Rick, J. (2006). Effect of temperature on emergence, survival and
135	infectivity of cercariae of the marine trematode Renicola roscovita (Digenea:
136	Renicolidae). Diseases of Aquatic Organisms 73, 63-8.
137	Thieltges, D. W., Krakau, M., Andresen, H., Fottner, S. and Reise K (2006)
138	Macroparasite community in molluscs of a tidal basin in the Wadden Sea. Helgoland
139	Marine Research <b>60</b> , 307-316.
140	Thieltges, D. W., Jensen, K. T. and Poulin R (2008a) The role of biotic factors in the
141	transmission of free-living endohelminth stages. Parasitology 135, 407-426.
142	Thieltges, D. W., Bordalo, M. D., Hernández, C., Prinz, K. and Jensen, K. T. (2008b).
143	Ambient fauna impairs parasite transmission in a marine parasite-host system.
144	Parasitology <b>135</b> , 1111–1116.
145	Thieltges, D. W., Reise, K., Prinz, K. and Jensen, K. T. (2008c). Invaders interfere with
146	native parasite-host interactions. <i>Biological Invasions</i> 11, 1421–1429.
147	Watts, A. J. R., Lewis, C., Goodhead, R. M., Beckett, S. J., Moger, J., Tyler, C. R. and
148	Galloway, T. S. (2014). Uptake and retention of microplastics by the shore crab
149	Carcinus maenas. Environmental Science & Technology 48, 8823–8830.
150	Welsh, J. E., van der Meer, J., Brussaard, C. P. D. and Thieltges, D. W. (2014). Inventory
451	of organisms interfering with transmission of a marine trematode. Journal of the
152	Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom 94, 697–702.
153	Werding, B. (1969). Morphologie, Entwicklung und Ökologie digener Trematoden-Larven
154	der Strandschnecke Littorina littorea. Marine Biology 3, 306–333.