

Wildlife Disease Ecology

Linking Theory to Data and Application

Just like humans, animals and plants suffer from infectious diseases, which can critically threaten biodiversity. This book describes key studies that have driven our understanding of the ecology and evolution of wildlife diseases. Each chapter introduces the host and disease, and explains how that system has aided our general understanding of the evolution and spread of wildlife diseases, through the development and testing of important epidemiological and evolutionary theories.

Questions addressed include: How do hosts and parasites coevolve? What determines how fast a disease spreads through a population? How do coinfecting parasites interact? Why do hosts vary in parasite burden? Which factors determine parasite virulence and host resistance? How do parasites influence the spread of invasive species? How do we control infectious diseases in wildlife? This book will provide a valuable introduction to students new to the topic, and novel insights to researchers, professionals, and policymakers working in the field.

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978-1-107-13656-4 — Wildlife Disease Ecology

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Cambridge University Press
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CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Cambridge University Press
978-1-107-13656-4 — Wildlife Disease Ecology
Edited by Kenneth Wilson , Andy Fenton , Dan Tompkins
Frontmatter
[More Information](#)

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

University Printing House, Cambridge CB2 8BS, United Kingdom

One Liberty Plaza, 20th Floor, New York, NY 10006, USA

477 Williamstown Road, Port Melbourne, VIC 3207, Australia

314–321, 3rd Floor, Plot 3, Splendor Forum, Jasola District Centre,
New Delhi – 110025, India

79 Anson Road, #06–04/06, Singapore 079906

Cambridge University Press is part of the University of Cambridge.

It furthers the University's mission by disseminating knowledge in the pursuit of education, learning, and research at the highest international levels of excellence.

www.cambridge.org

Information on this title: www.cambridge.org/9781107136564

DOI: 10.1017/9781316479964

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First published 2019

Printed in the United Kingdom by TJ International Ltd, Padstow Cornwall

A catalogue record for this publication is available from the British Library.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Wilson, Kenneth, 1963– editor.

Title: Wildlife disease ecology : linking theory to data and application / edited by Kenneth Wilson, Lancaster University, Andy Fenton, University of Liverpool, Dan Tompkins, Predator Free 2050 Ltd.

Description: Cambridge, United Kingdom ; New York, NY : Cambridge University Press, 2019. | Series: Ecological reviews | Includes bibliographical references and index.

Identifiers: LCCN 2019012298 | ISBN 9781107136564 (alk. paper)

Subjects: LCSH: Communicable diseases.

Classification: LCC RC112 .W54 2019 | DDC 616.9–dc23

LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2019012298>

ISBN 978-1-107-13656-4 Hardback

ISBN 978-1-316-50190-0 Paperback

Additional resources for this publication at www.cambridge.org/9781107136564.

Cambridge University Press has no responsibility for the persistence or accuracy of URLs for external or third-party internet websites referred to in this publication and does not guarantee that any content on such websites is, or will remain, accurate or appropriate.

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Cambridge University Press
978-1-107-13656-4 — Wildlife Disease Ecology
Edited by Kenneth Wilson , Andy Fenton , Dan Tompkins
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Preface: Wildlife Disease Ecology

KENNETH WILSON, ANDY FENTON & DAN TOMPKINS

Introduction

Infectious diseases are ubiquitous and account for some of the most dramatic impacts in human history. These include The Black Death, caused by the bacterium *Yersinia pestis*, which killed at least 25 million people across Eurasia between 1347 and 1352 (Cohn, 2002); the Spanish Flu pandemic of 1918, caused by a highly virulent form of the influenza virus, which caused the deaths of 25–50 million people (Taubenberger, 2006); and, more recently, the global AIDS epidemic, caused by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), which is responsible for the mortality of an estimated 35 million people worldwide since its emergence in the early 1980s (Fajardo-Ortiz et al., 2017). In many instances, microparasites like influenza mutate and evolve over time into new lethal forms, re-emerging as new epidemics or global pandemics (Nichols, 2006).

However, infectious diseases are not exclusive to humans; wildlife, both animals and plants, experience potentially huge burdens of disease. Indeed, many of the most devastating infectious diseases of humans, including all those mentioned above, had a wildlife (zoonotic) origin. Infectious diseases are a significant driver of global biodiversity loss, illustrated by the amphibian species extinctions and population declines globally caused by the fungal disease chytridiomycosis (Fisher et al., 2009), and more localised impacts such as the loss of much of the native Hawaiian avifauna due to avian malaria and pox (Atkinson & LaPointe, 2009). With ongoing wildlife disease emergence, arising primarily from increasing human-driven global connectivity (Tompkins et al., 2015), the understanding for management that wildlife disease ecology gives has never been more important.

Not all parasites, though, cause high levels of mortality, but instead cause significant morbidity in terms of reduced growth rate and fertility. This is particularly true of macroparasites, such as gut helminths and ectoparasites, where morbidity increases as a function of parasite load (Wilson et al., 2002). Even when not resulting in extinctions or declines, wildlife diseases can have

profound ecological and evolutionary impacts on their wildlife hosts, causing the evolution of costly resistance mechanisms, potentially driving sexual selection for exaggerated traits, altering host population dynamics, and shaping the structure of ecological communities. There has thus been a considerable effort to understand and address disease across a wide range of wildlife systems in which management is important for both conservation and public health reasons. Many of the most influential studies of infectious diseases in wildlife systems have achieved their status by coupling intensive observational and experimental studies together with a strong connection to mathematical models of infectious disease dynamics. In recent decades this has allowed the amendment, advancement and refining of earlier theories and ideas.

Mathematical models have played a key part in our understanding of human infectious diseases and their control since the first epidemiological models developed over a century ago by people such as Ronald Ross and George Macdonald (Smith et al., 2012). In the late 1970s and early-mid 1980s, Roy Anderson and Robert May applied the same basic principles to the diseases of wildlife (Heesterbeek & Roberts, 2015). Those models allowed simple exploration of key aspects of host–parasite ecology; for example, by laying bare the potential for parasites to regulate host populations, or to drive cycles in host population dynamics. Since then, a burgeoning array of mathematical models have been developed for wildlife diseases, parameterised with empirical data collected during meticulous field and laboratory studies. The aim of this book is to present a core group of those studies, some of which are now decades old, highlighting the connection of these studies to general epidemiological and evolutionary theory, and emphasising the contribution they have made, and continue to make, in advancing our understanding of the spread and impact of infectious diseases more generally.

This book is aimed at researchers working in the field but we specifically asked authors to write their chapters in an engaging style that would also appeal to non-experts such as advanced undergraduates. To help the novice reader, we have included a Glossary of Terms (page xvi) and provide both technical Abstracts and non-technical Lay Summaries (available online at www.cambridge.org/9781107136564).

Book structure

The book is loosely divided into three parts depending on the scale of the interactions that are the main focus of each chapter. Perhaps inevitably, given the inherent multi-scale nature of disease ecology (Johnson et al 2015), no chapter is limited in scope to their ‘assigned’ part, but this grouping was chosen as an attempt to bring together chapters that deal with similar concepts, and is perhaps preferable to (or at least no less arbitrary than) one based on taxonomy or geography.

Part I deals with our understanding of within-host processes, such as interactions between different parasite strains and species within individual hosts, the evolution of parasite virulence, host resistance and the immune system, and host–parasite coevolution. Part II explores our understanding of between-host processes, such as the roles that parasites play in regulating and driving host population dynamics, the factors influencing parasite transmission between individuals, and herd immunity. Part III expands out to interactions at the host community and landscape scale, including the effects of climate and seasonality, trophic interactions, host migration, and spatial and multi-host dynamics.

Case studies were selected for inclusion based on their contributions to the field of wildlife disease ecology, and to cover the comprehensive range of theoretical concepts in disease epidemiology, evolution, and ecology. To illustrate the ubiquity of wildlife diseases, we chose a broad variety of host taxa (including plants, insects, gastropods, crustacea, fish, amphibia, birds, and mammals) and geographical regions (Europe, Americas, Australasia, Asia, and Africa). We wanted authors to focus on their particularly well-understood study systems but also to place their work in the broader context of other wildlife disease ecology studies; we also asked them to reflect on why their studies had been so successful, to discuss the history and natural history of the system and, where appropriate, to highlight its applied relevance.

Although all the case studies are guided by theoretical considerations, the extent of the system-specific mathematical modelling varies. We asked authors to reflect on the reasons for this, and to identify areas for future empirical and modelling work, particularly where this might benefit from advances in methods and theory (such as novel molecular or statistical approaches, new remote sensing and logging technology, and enhanced computational capacity).

Some concluding remarks

Several common themes emerge from this book. First, our understanding of wildlife disease ecology is greatly enhanced by studies that: (i) collect long-term observational field data, providing time series and accumulated knowledge of the system (i.e. most of the chapters in this book); (ii) combine observational data with well-designed field and laboratory experiments, especially those that include experimental perturbations such as short-term parasite removals/additions (e.g. Chapters 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 14, 21); (iii) have a strong theoretical component and integrate empirical data with statistical, simulation and/or mathematical models (again, most of the chapters in this book); (iv) take advantage of new and developing technologies, such as modern molecular approaches to characterise host/parasite genetic variation (e.g. Chapters 1, 2, 4, 10, 13, 15, 18), or sophisticated statistical approaches, particularly allowing the rigorous fitting of models to data (e.g. Chapter 8).

A second theme to emerge is that the types of questions that can be addressed, and their success, are often determined by the specific natural history of the system and the logistical constraints they present. For example, the ladybird system provides an ideal opportunity for studying sexually transmitted infections (STIs) in the field because mating contacts and the STI (an ectoparasitic mite) are both easily scored visually (Chapter 7). Likewise, the fact that the snail *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* has both sexual and asexual (parthenogenic) females, often in the same lake, makes it an ideal system for studying the interaction between mode of reproduction and parasite resistance (Chapter 2). Isolated populations, such as the Soay sheep on St Kilda (Chapter 4) and the reindeer on Svalbard (Chapter 14), provide relatively simple ecological systems in which to study wildlife diseases in the absence of significant pressure from predators or competitors (although the logistics of getting there can often add an extra layer of complexity!). Most ecological systems, however, are not this simple and some, such as the three aquatic systems in this book (Chapters 9, 16 and 19), as well as the monarch butterfly system (Chapter 17), seem to lend themselves particularly well to studying these multi-trophic interactions.

A third theme to emerge is the key role that variation and heterogeneity play in determining wildlife disease dynamics at all scales. The theory of host-parasite interactions initially developed in a ‘mean field’ manner, such that accompanying mathematical models frequently contained simplifying assumptions and parameter values expressed as population or subpopulation averages. This was not solely due to the developmental stage of the field of study, but also to the data requirements to accurately parameterise more complex models. Many of the long-term studies presented here show that when sufficient data are amassed, allowing more complex models to be employed, our understanding of wildlife disease dynamics is improved through the realisation of how variation alters previous mean field predictions. In turn, this allows more accurate projections, and more effective management, of wildlife disease impacts.

This consideration of management illustrates a final theme to emerge from this book – while some systems are ideally placed to ask interesting and fundamental questions about wildlife disease ecology and evolution, others have the added attribute that they also have significant applied relevance. For example, a number of the study systems in this book focus on emerging diseases that have conservation and policy relevance (e.g. Chapters 5, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 18, 20) or impact on the management of harvested stocks (e.g. Chapters 8 and 19).

With increased international movements and global change (climate, land use, population growth, etc.), we are likely to see continued emergence of infectious diseases in humans, livestock and wildlife, and further exchange of infectious diseases between them. Based on the work presented in this book, it seems to us that the ongoing development and application of new tools and

approaches makes the field of wildlife disease ecology better placed than ever to understand and overcome these challenges.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all our authors for their hard work and patience during the long process of pulling this book together. We would also like to thank Mike Boots for his input during the early stages of book development and the many reviewers who helped to improve the chapters. During the editing of this book, KW was in receipt of funding from Innovate UK and the UK's Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BB/P023444/1, BB/P004970/1, TS/P000436/1, BB/L026821/1) and AF received funding from the UK's Natural Environment Research Council (NE/N009800/1).

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Glossary of Terms

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Term Definition

Acquired immunity	<i>Antigen</i> -specific immunity gained from prior exposure to that antigen .
Adaptive immunity	The components of the vertebrate immune system involved in developing acquired immunity .
Aetiology/aetiological agent	The cause/causative agent of a disease .
Agent-based (or individual-based) models (ABMs or IBMs)	Computational simulation models in which individuals or groups of individuals ('agents') are explicitly modelled, for example to consider how variation in states, actions or experiences between those individuals combine to affect population-level dynamics.
Aggregated parasite distribution	The often-observed highly skewed distribution of macroparasite burdens among hosts , characterised by high variance: mean ratios, such that typically most hosts are observed to have relatively light (or zero) burdens, but some hosts have very high burdens. The observed distribution is often described statistically by a negative binomial distribution .
Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), Watanabe-Akaike Information Criteria (WAIC), Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC), etc.	Measures of the statistical fit of a model to data that take into account the goodness of fit (often related to the likelihood of the data given the model parameters) and model complexity (penalising in some way models with higher numbers of parameters).

Allee effect	Demographic and behavioural changes that cause fitness to increase with population density (positive density dependence) at low population density.
Antibody	Large protein, specific to a given antigen , used as part of the vertebrate immune system to fight certain parasites containing that antigen.
Antigen	A foreign substance which stimulates an immune response.
Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)	Peptides produced by all classes of hosts (vertebrates, invertebrates and plants) as part of their innate immune system, to combat bacteria, viruses and fungi.
Apex predator	The predator species at the top of a food chain.
Apparent competition	A negative interaction occurring between two or more host species, mediated by a shared natural enemy
Arrested development	A life-cycle stage of some helminth parasites in which infecting worms undergo a temporary cessation of development or dormancy inside the host.
Assortative contact	The tendency to make contact with individuals of the same type as self. Contrast with disassortative contact .
Basic reproductive number/ratio/rate (R_0)	A measure of the parasite's maximum potential to spread through a host population. Defined differently for microparasites (the number of secondary infections produced by a single primary infection in an otherwise wholly susceptible host population) and macroparasites (the number of mature parasite offspring produced by a single mature parasite in a wholly susceptible host population)
Capture–Mark(–Release)–Recapture (CMR or CMRR)	The recapturing of previously marked individuals to allow estimation of (for example) population sizes, and (state-dependent) survival, state transition and recapture probabilities.

Coefficient of variation	A measure of relative variability, defined as the standard deviation of a trait divided by its mean, producing a scalable measure of variation.
Coinfection (or co-infection or polyparasitism)	Simultaneous infection of an individual host by multiple parasite genotypes (intraspecific coinfection) or species (interspecific coinfection).
Community assembly	The order in which the species in an ecological community (e.g. a parasite infracommunity) assemble, and the underlying processes determining that order.
Compartmental model	Mathematical model of host–parasite population dynamics, in which the abundances of hosts and/or parasites are represented as ‘compartments’, with flows of individuals into and out of compartments being determined by epidemiologically important processes (births, deaths, transmission , recovery). See SIR, SEIR, SIS, etc. models .
Competitive release	The expansion or increase in abundance of a competitively inferior species due to suppression or removal of a dominant competitor.
Contact network	Who contacts whom at an individual level, defined in terms of nodes (the individuals on network) and edges or links (the contacts between nodes); often used within a network-based model .
Covert infections	Non-lethal infections that may be hard to detect, but which can contribute to overall transmission and persistence of the parasite in the host population.
Cytokine	Small signalling molecules secreted by cells of the immune system .
Density-dependent prophylaxis	A phenomenon where hosts invest more in defence at high densities.
Density-dependent transmission	Transmission in which the <i>per-capita</i> rate of acquisition of new infections increases

	with host density. Contrast with frequency-dependent transmission .
Deterministic	A system or modelling framework which does not incorporate any random components. Contrast with stochastic .
Dilution effect	The phenomenon by which low competence host species reduce infection risk for other potential host species, through the removal of parasite infective stages.
Directly transmitted parasites	Parasites which transmit from one host to another, possibly via an environmental stage, but without involvement of an alternative, intermediate, or vector host species.
Disassortative contact	The tendency to make contact with dissimilar individuals, those of the opposite type to self. Contrast with assortative contact .
Disease	The pathological, detrimental impact of parasitic infection on host health.
Disease triangle	A concept that recognises that the occurrence and outcome of infection depends on the interaction between the parasite , the host and the environment they occur in.
Effective partner acquisition rate	A measure of partner acquisition for a sexually transmitted infection (STI) , measured from the perspective of the infection, rather than hosts generally, which includes both mean and variation in partner acquisition.
Emerging infectious disease (EID)	An infectious disease which has recently emerged in a novel host species or population.
Endemic (infection)	An infectious disease regularly found infecting a population of hosts .
Enemy release hypothesis	The hypothesis that invasive alien species perform better in their introduced habitat because they have been introduced without natural enemies (predators and parasites) from their native range.

Enzootic	An infectious disease regularly found infecting a population of wild animal hosts . Contrast with epizootic .
Epidemic	A rapid increase in the occurrence of an infectious disease in a population.
Epizootic	An infectious disease that suddenly increases in frequency in a wild animal population. Contrast with enzootic .
Extirpation	The local extinction of a species from a given location.
Faecal egg count (FEC)	The number of eggs of a gastrointestinal parasite counted from a faecal sample of the host , often used as an indirect measure of the infection intensity of the host.
Force of infection	The <i>per-capita</i> rate at which susceptible individuals become infected.
Frequency-dependent transmission	Transmission in which the <i>per-capita</i> rate of acquisition of new infections is independent of host density, but increases with the frequency of infection in the host population. Contrast with density-dependent transmission .
Functional response	The relationship between resource availability and consumer ingestion rate.
Gene-for-gene model of host–parasite compatibility	Genetic model of host–parasite compatibility in which there is a universally infective parasite genotype that experiences high infection rates across all host genotypes. Contrast with inverse gene-for-gene, matching alleles and inverse matching alleles models of host–parasite compatibility .
Handicap principle	The hypothesis that the honesty of extravagant sexual signals of quality relies on costs (possibly mediated by parasitic infection) involved in their production or maintenance. See also Immunocompetence Handicap Hypothesis (ICHH) .
Healthy herds hypothesis	The hypothesis that predators selectively remove diseased individuals, thereby

	raising the overall health of the remaining prey population.
Heterogeneity (e.g. in contacts, susceptibility, etc.)	The occurrence of differences among individuals or groups of individuals that result in transmission deviating from assumptions of mass action .
Horizontal transmission	Transmission occurring between host individuals that does not involve direct mother-to-offspring (vertical) transmission.
Host	An organism infected by a parasite .
Immune priming	The reduction in host susceptibility to infection due to prior exposure to the same parasite .
Immune system	The collection of cells and molecules that a host uses to fight infection.
Immunocompetence Handicap Hypothesis (ICHH)	An extension of the handicap principle of the evolution of extravagant sexual signals, which argues that androgens (e.g. testosterone) mediate a trade-off between enhanced sexual behaviours or signals and ability to resist parasites via immunosuppression .
Immunomodulation/ immunosuppression	The alteration of a host’s immune response by an infecting parasite . If immune function is in some way impaired, this is termed immunosuppression.
Immunoparasitology	The study of the interaction between parasitic infection and the immune response of the host .
Immunosenescence	The loss in immune function as the individual ages.
Infection	The presence of a parasite within a host .
Infection intensity	Number of parasites in an infected host .
Infectious disease	Disease (pathology) caused by a parasite , capable of being transmitted between hosts .
Infracommunity	The collection of parasites coinfecting an individual host .
Innate immunity	The non-specific (or less specific) immune response. Contrast with adaptive immunity .

Integral projection (or population) models (IPMs)	A population dynamic modelling approach which links demographic rates across individuals to population dynamics.
Interactionist parasite communities	Within- host parasite communities which are structured by interactions between coinfecting parasites. Contrast with isolationist parasite communities .
Intraguild predation (IGP)	Predation among competitors within a trophic level.
Invasive alien species (IAS)	Species that have been introduced and established outside their native range.
Inverse gene-for-gene model of host-parasite compatibility	Genetic model of host-parasite compatibility in which there is a universally resistant host genotype that experiences reduced infection rates for all parasite genotypes. Contrast with gene-for-gene, matching alleles and inverse matching alleles models of host-parasite compatibility .
Inverse matching alleles model of host-parasite compatibility	Genetic model of host-parasite compatibility by which a host must genetically match its parasite at relevant loci in order to resist infection . Contrast with gene-for-gene, inverse gene-for-gene and matching alleles models of host-parasite compatibility .
Isolationist parasite communities	Within- host parasite communities in which interactions between coinfecting parasites are rare, there are many vacant niches, and species infect largely independently of each other. Contrast with interactionist parasite communities .
Iteroparous	An organism which reproduces multiple times in its life. Contrast with semelparous .
Koch’s postulates	Criteria established by Robert Koch to identify the causative (aetiological) agent of a disease .
Latent period	The time between an individual becoming infected with a parasite , and it becoming infectious to other individuals.

Macroparasite	Parasites which do not multiply inside individual hosts (e.g. helminths, ectoparasites); typically the parasite is the unit of study (e.g. the number of infecting worms). Contrast with microparasite .
Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC)	A cluster of genes that code for cell-surface proteins, which are used by the adaptive immune response to recognise specific antigens .
Mass action transmission	The assumption that susceptible and infectious individuals contact each other, and therefore transmit infections, randomly.
Matching alleles model of host–parasite compatibility	Genetic model of host–parasite compatibility by which a parasite must genetically match its host at relevant loci in order to infect. Contrast with gene-for-gene , inverse gene-for-gene and inverse matching alleles models of host–parasite compatibility .
Mean field approximation	The approximation of a large number of individual effects by a single averaged effect. This approximation is commonly used in compartmental models of disease spread (see SIR , etc.).
Metapopulation	A collection of discrete populations in isolated patches, connected by occasional dispersal events.
Microbiota	The community of microorganisms associated with individual hosts .
Microparasite	Parasites which multiply inside individual hosts (e.g. viruses, bacteria, protozoa); typically the host is the unit of study (e.g. the number or proportion of infected hosts). Contrast with macroparasite .
Migratory allopatry	The spatial separation of adults and juveniles after breeding, which can reduce infection risk from adults to vulnerable juveniles.

Migratory culling	Mortality of infected hosts during long-distance movement events.
Migratory escape	Migration of hosts from parasite -contaminated areas, thereby lowering their risk of infection .
Mixing matrix	Mathematical matrix that defines the contact patterns of individuals from one population group with individuals of another group.
Muller’s ratchet	The accumulation of deleterious mutations in clonal (asexual) lineages.
Negative binomial distribution	Discrete statistical distribution often used to describe the typically observed aggregated distribution of macroparasite burdens across the host population.
Network-based models	Models that include explicit contact network structure between individuals (see contact network).
Ordinary infectious disease (OID)	A parasite where the majority of transmission infection occurs infectiously outside of mating contact. Contrast with sexually transmitted infection (STI) .
Oxidation Handicap Hypothesis (OHH)	An extension of the Immunocompetence Handicap Hypothesis of sexual signalling, which argues that the main cost of elevated testosterone is increased oxidative stress.
Pair approximation	Deterministic model approximating the dynamics of pairs of individuals in a network (see contact network), rather than the dynamics of individuals themselves.
Pandemic	An epidemic of infectious disease that has spread across a large region, such as multiple continents or globally.
Parasite	An organism that lives in (endoparasite) or on (ectoparasite) another organism (the host), and obtains resources from it.
Pathogen	Parasites that typically cause acute, highly pathogenic infections , often used as a synonym for microparasite .

Pathosystem	Part of an ecosystem that involves parasitism .
Phenology	The pattern and timing of life-history events such as of birth, maturation, reproduction, and death through the year.
Phyllosphere	The above-ground elements of plants, particularly in terms of the microbes associated with it.
Polygyny/polyandry	Where a single male mates with more than one female, and where a single female mates with more than one male, respectively.
Population Viability Analysis (PVA)	An analytical tool that seeks to predict the viability and extinction risk of a population.
Prevalence	The proportion of infected individuals in the host population.
Regulation (of host population dynamics)	The limitation of (host) population size through density-dependent feedback processes.
Reservoir (environmental)	The persistence of parasite infective stages in the abiotic environment, acting as a potential source of new infections .
Reservoir (host)	A host species, or collection of species, that maintains a parasite and acts as a source of infection to another host species.
Resistance	The ability of hosts to prevent an infection from establishing or to limit its growth rate. Contrast with tolerance .
Semelparous	An organism that reproduces once in its life. Contrast with iteroparous .
Sexually transmitted infection (STI)	A parasite transmitted during its host 's mating activity. Contrast with ordinary infectious disease (OID) .
SIR, SEIR, SIS, etc. models	Compartmental models of microparasite dynamics, structured according to assumptions about the flow of host individuals between compartments defined by their infection status (S=susceptible (uninfected), I=infected (and infectious), E=exposed (infected but

	not infectious), R=recovered (and immune from reinfection)).
Social immunity	Collective host behaviours that reduce the likelihood of infection in social or communal species.
Spillover	The process by which parasites from one host species (typically a reservoir host) cross over to infect a different host species.
Stochastic	A system or modelling framework which incorporates some element of random variation. Contrast with deterministic .
Subclinical infections	Infections which result in no obvious signs of disease in the host .
Supershedder	Individuals that are highly infectious through high levels of release of parasite infective stages. See also superspreader .
Superspreader	An individual host that contributes disproportionately highly to parasite transmission (e.g. due to their high number of contacts with other individuals). See also supershedder .
Susceptible [host]	A host that can be infected by a specific parasite .
Th1/Th2 immune response	Characterisation of the immune response into the ‘T-helper 1’ (Th1) and ‘T-helper 2’ (Th2) arms, based on the different cytokines and antibodies produced, typically in response to intracellular (~ microparasitic) or extracellular (~ macroparasitic) infections, respectively. Often these arms of the immune response are assumed to trade-off against each other, such that investment in one response limits the ability of the host to invest in the other.
Threshold population size/critical community size	The minimum host population size required for a parasite to persist.
Tolerance	The ability of hosts to reduce the detrimental impact of a given infection . Contrast with resistance .

Trait-mediated effects (of parasitism)	<p>Infection alters host traits such as appearance or behaviour, which affects vulnerability to predation, potentially affecting population, community, or ecosystem dynamics.</p>
Trait-mediated indirect effects (TMIE) (predator-mediated)	<p>Indirect effects on a host–parasite interaction, mediated by another member of the community. May be predator-mediated (e.g. non-lethal effects of natural enemies on hosts, which alter traits such as host behaviour, rather than survival) or resource plant) mediated (e.g. plant traits affect the interaction between herbivores and their natural enemies).</p>
Transmission	<p>The process by which a susceptible (uninfected) host acquires a new infection.</p>
Trickle infection	<p>Experimentally infecting hosts with low, repeated doses of parasites, to mimic the natural rate of acquisition of infections.</p>
Trophic cascade	<p>Changes in the structure of a community occurring when predators reduce the density of their prey, which has knock-on effects at lower trophic levels.</p>
Trophic transmission	<p>The transmission of parasites between trophic levels through the ingestion of infected prey by predators, which then become infected.</p>
Vertical transmission	<p>Transmission directly from parent to offspring, for example trans-placental (in mammals) or via eggs (e.g. in insects). Contrast with horizontal transmission.</p>
Virulence	<p>The impact of a parasite on its host's fitness (i.e. through reduction in individual host survival or reproduction). See also virulence (density-dependent).</p>
Virulence (density-dependent)	<p>Host fitness cost of infection (virulence) increases as host density increases.</p>
Zoonosis	<p>An infectious disease that is maintained in a wild reservoir, but which may cause infection in humans.</p>

Cambridge University Press
978-1-107-13656-4 — Wildlife Disease Ecology
Edited by Kenneth Wilson , Andy Fenton , Dan Tompkins
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