1	Infection with cerebral metacercariae of microphallid trematode parasites reduces
2	reproductive output in the gammarid amphipod Gammarus insensibilis (Stock 1966) in
3	UK saline lagoons
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12	ABSTRACT
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14	Saline lagoons are priority habitats in the United Kingdom supporting several protected
15	specialist species. One specialist, the amphipod Gammarus insensibilis, is infected with
16	behaviour-altering microphallid trematodes such as Microphallus papillorobustus. In saline
17	lagoons around the coast of England (Gilkicker and Lymington-Keyhaven on the Hampshire
18	coast and Moulton Marsh in Lincolnshire) there is variation in the prevalence of this parasite
19	in the gammarid populations (0 at Salterns in the Lymington-Keyhaven lagoon system to
20	98% at Gilkicker). Infection intensity ranged from 0 to 20 metacercariae in individual
21	amphipods. Higher infection intensity can alter the shape of the amphipod's head. Under
22	experimental conditions respiration rate is significantly reduced in infected animals and
23	reproductive output (expressed as early stage embryos mg g dw ⁻¹) is significantly lower in
24	infected females. It is important to consider the role of host-parasite interactions in order to
25	understand the ecology of specialist lagoon species such as G. insensibilis and their lagoon
26	habitats.
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29	INTRODUCTION
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31	The amphipod Gammarus insensibilis is a priority species, protected under the UK
32	Biodiversity Action Plan. In the UK it is near the northern limit of its range and is restricted
33	to brackish pools and coastal saline lagoons where it can be locally abundant (Gilliland &
34	Sanderson, 2000, Sheader & Sheader, 1985). The ENLag. Veg biotope is utilized by G .
35	insensibilis through its close association with the filamentous alga Chaetomorpha linum
36	(Bamber et al., 2001), upon which it feeds readily. G. insensibilis is not found sympatrically
37	with the morphologically similar but taxonomically distinct (Costa et al., 2004) G. locusta
38	(common in fully marine environments). The only recorded fully marine habitats of G .
39	insensibilis are in the Mediterranean, where G. locusta is absent (Sheader & Sheader, 1987).
40	
41	Gammarid amphipods demonstrate plasticity of reproductive strategy in which reproductive
42	investment can vary interspecifically but may also vary intraspecifically and can be related to
43	the environmental conditions of their habitat (Johnson et al., 2001, Nelson, 1980,
44	Saintemarie, 1991, Steele & Steele, 1975). In the Mediterranean G. insensibilis demonstrates
45	continuous recruitment and a variable (female dominant) sex ratio throughout the year with
46	reproductive output greatest in the winter months (Karakiri & Nicolaidou, 1987). In UK
47	saline lagoons there is an inverse relationship between egg size and temperature (Sheader,
48	1996), and reproductive investment (clutch volume) is greatest in the summer months (Gates,
49	2006).
50	
51	Saline lagoons are listed as priority habitats under the European Union Habitats Directive
52	(Council of the European Communities 1992) and are frequently designated as, or lie within,
53	Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSI), National Nature Reserves, Ramsar sites and
54	Special Protection Areas (SPAs) (Bamber et al., 2000). In the UK lagoons are of particular
55	conservation importance because they are uncommon habitats (important physiographic
56	features in their own right), and they frequently support plant and animal species and
57	communities absent or rare in other saline habitats (Beer & Joyce, 2013), including
58	"specialist lagoon species" (Bamber et al., 1992, Barnes, 1980, Barnes, 1991). Specialist
59	lagoon species are those that are "distinctly more characteristic of lagoons and lagoon-like
60	habitats than of other habitats" (Bamber et al., 2000). Owing to the rarity of their habitat,
61	specialist lagoon species are uncommon nationally. There are 13 specialist lagoon species of
62	priority concern under the UK biodiversity action plan including G. insensibilis. Furthermore,

53	coastal lagoons provide important habitats and feeding grounds for species of charadriiform
54	seabirds such as Larus melanocephalus (Mediterranean gull), Sterna albifrons (little tern) and
55	S. sandvicensis (sandwich tern) (Bamber et al. 2000) and Recurvirostra avocetta (avocet)
56	(Hill et al., 1993).
57	
58	Parasites can have direct (e.g. mortality) and indirect (e.g. behavioural modification) effects
59	on populations and communities (Mouritsen & Poulin, 2002, Thomas et al., 1998a).
70	Differential susceptibility to parasite infection or variation in the symptoms of infection may
71	be as important a factor in determining success and distribution of a species as other factors
72	such as resource availability, physicochemical parameters, and intra/interspecific interactions
73	(Fredensborg et al., 2004). In lagoon systems parasites appear to play a key role (Thomas &
74	Renaud, 2001) and should be considered in the conservation of coastal and wetland habitats
75	(Thomas et al., 1997). Gammarus insensibilis can be an intermediate host for a number of
76	trematode parasites including Maritrema subdolum, Microphallus hoffmanni, Microphallus
77	papillorobustus and Levinseniella propinqua (Kostadinova & Mavrodieva, 2005a) in various
78	localities in continental Europe including Pomorie lagoon in the Black Sea (Kostadinova &
79	Mavrodieva, 2005b) and the Thau lagoon in France (Thomas et al., 1998b).
80	
31	It has been suggested that the ecology of G. insensibilis cannot be fully understood without
32	considering the implications of infection with M. papillorobustus (Ponton et al., 2005). G.
33	insensibilis is the second intermediate host in a life cycle that begins within a hydrobiid snail.
34	The amphipod is infected by the cercarial stage of the trematode. The cercariae enter through
35	the abdomen of the amphipod and encyst in the head, as cerebral metacercariae. M .
36	papillorobustus manipulates the behaviour of G. insensibilis, inducing positive phototaxis,
37	negative geotaxis and aberrant evasive behaviour when disturbed, thereby increasing
88	vulnerability to predation by the charadriiform avian definitive host (Arnal et al., 2015,
39	Brown et al., 2003, Helluy, 1984, Thomas et al., 1996b). Behavioural modification only
90	occurs when animals are infected by cerebral metacercariae, not when metacercariae are only
91	located in the abdomen. Behavioural modification is associated with variations in
92	neurological architecture related to levels of the neurotransmitter serotonin (5-
93	hydroxytryptamine) but the mechanism is not fully understood (Tain et al., 2007). Modified
94	behaviour can be induced by injection with serotonin (Helluy & Holmes, 1990, Helluy &
95	Thomas, 2003, Maynard et al., 1996). It is not clear whether serotonin is secreted by the
96	metacercaria itself or whether it is a result of a host response to the infection (Thomas et al.,

97 2005). Documented effects on G. insensibilis include assortative pairing; when infected individuals pair with similarly infected animals and vice versa owing to population sub units 98 99 based on behaviour (Thomas et al., 1996a, Thomas et al., 1995). 100 101 Given the conservation importance of G. insensibilis and the desire to maintain lagoon 102 habitats some consideration of the relationship between G. insensibilis and its trematode 103 parasite is necessary in UK lagoons. This study demonstrates the presence of the microphallid 104 trematode parasites in G. insensibilis populations in UK saline lagoons of conservation 105 importance. Population structure, physiological rates and estimates of reproductive output are 106 used to consider the effects of the parasite on the amphipod host. 107 108 **METHODS** 109 110 **Study sites** 111 112 The Gilkicker lagoon system lies on the shores of The Solent near Gosport on the south coast of England (50.776° N, -1.138° E, Figure 1 c). Its 36,750 m² area consists of two connected 113 114 lagoons and is separated from the sea by a shingle bank and sea wall. The larger (seaward 115 lagoon) is 210 m long and 145 m wide and connected to the sea by a channel of 85 m in length and 10 m wide ending in a metal pipe (0.8 m diameter) that penetrates the barrier. The 116 117 landward lagoon is 130 m long and 80 m wide and is connected to the seaward lagoon by two pairs of metal pipes of 0.5 m diameter (Al-Suwailem, 1991). The lagoons do not exceed 0.75 118 119 m in depth with a low tide mean of 0.46 m. There is a substratum comprised predominantly of mud in the middle and sand on the western and eastern sides with a 1 m belt of shingle 120 121 around the shores. In much of the lagoon the surface sediments lie above a layer of shingle 122 or silt (Al-Suwailem, 1991). 123 124 The Keyhaven-Lymington lagoon system is located approximately 40 km west of Gilkicker 125 (50.742° N, -1.536° E, Figure 1 c). There are a series of lagoons stretching from Normandy 126 Farm lagoon towards Keyhaven at the mouth of the Lymington river estuary. The lagoons are 127 artificial and were created from relict salterns when the sea wall was repaired in the 1980s, in order to maintain the populations of lagoon specialists present in the salterns (Bamber et al., 128 129 2000). The lagoons to the west of the system are prone to low salinity resulting from excess

130	freshwater input after high precipitation so specialist lagoon biota is low. The lagoons used in
131	this study were Eight Acre Pong and Salterns. These are located to the east of the system
132	where salinity is usually around 25-35.
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134	The Moulton Marsh lagoon system in Lincolnshire is on the east coast of the UK (52.882° N,
135	-0.010° E, Figure 1 b). There are four lagoons and a series of 'scrapes' (small lagoon-like
136	habitats). Specialist lagoon species have previously been recorded in lagoons 1 and 2 of the
137	system. The alga <i>Chaetomorpha linum</i> was abundant in all the lagoon systems.
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139	Sample collection
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141	Gammarus insensibilis specimens were collected under the under license of Section 16 (3) (a)
142	of the Wildlife & Countryside Act 1981 (amended by the Environmental Protection Act
143	1990), licenses were held by Dr. R. N. Bamber (numbers: 2003-2004 no. 20031279; 2004-
144	2005 no. 20041787). At Gilkicker samples were collected monthly (March to July 2004,
145	Table 1) with a hand net from within the mats of Chaetomorpha linum near the southern
146	shore of the lagoon, where they were abundant. This varied depending on the location of the
147	mats of C. linum, which was affected by the particular wind and wave conditions. The
148	collection method was non-quantitative because of the three dimensional nature of the
149	habitat, and assumed that that all sizes and life history stages were correctly represented in
150	the samples. Samples were collected from the Lymington – Keyhaven system and the
151	Moulton Marsh lagoons using the same method but on fewer occasions (Table 1). Sampling
152	these locations was carried out later in order to find examples of uninfected amphipods. A
153	subset of animals for physiological study were returned to the National Oceanography Centre
154	research aquarium alive and transferred to aquarium water in outdoor holding tanks at
155	ambient temperature. Lagoon water salinity was measured in the field with a t/s probe and on
156	return to the aquarium and diluted to match the water collected in the field. Animals for
157	parasite prevalence and population dynamics study were preserved in 10% buffered
158	formaldehyde solution and transferred to 70% ethanol. In addition a small archive sample of
159	G. insensibilis taken from Gilkicker in 1982 was examined.
160	
161	Population structure and parasite prevalence

Specimens were examined under a dissecting microscope. The body length, dry weight, sex and number of cerebral metacercariae were recorded. The animals were categorised as juvenile (no visible sexual differentiation), immature female (Female with non-setose oöstegites), mature female (setose oöstegites) and mature male (genital papillae and large gnathopods). Mature females were further categorised as ovigerous (carrying embyos in the oöstegites) and empty. The number of embryos carried by ovigerous females and their stage of development were recorded. Embryo classification was based on 6 developmental stages (I, II, III, IV, V, J) in which the early cleavage stages are represented by stage I and newly hatched juveniles are represented by stage J (Sheader & Chia, 1970). In order to increase sample sizes the developmental stages were grouped into early (I-III) and late (IV-V) stage (Ford et al., 2003). Investment in individual embryos as estimated from the mean embryo volume (mm³) of eight embryos following the methods of Sheader (1996). Brood mass (μg) was determined by removal from the marsupium and weighed in tin foil capsules and dried for 24 hours at 50 °C. Clutch volume (total reproductive investment) was estimated as brood size (number of embyros) x mean embryo volume.

DATA ANALYSIS

Metacercarial presence in the population and the population structure (juvenile, female, male) were not tested statistically. The mean size of juveniles, females and males in the population at Gilkicker were tested independently for significance using one way ANOVA.

Reproductive investment data were initially considered on a monthly basis and then pooled to increase sample size. Linear regression was carried out to test the relationship between number of metacercariae and brood size. Following these analyses the monthly data were pooled to increase sample size and one-way ANOVA was used to test for significance of

Physiological rate experiments

effect on brood size.

Amphipods used in physiological rate experiments were collected in the field and maintained in aquaria at constant temperature and salinity for a minimum of one week before experiments were conducted.

196	Respiration rate experiments were carried out to compare infected and uninfected animals. In
197	the first experiment specimens were selected based on their activity. Nine individuals of
198	approximately similar size were taken from within or under their C. linum food source
199	(assumed uninfected) and nine animals of similar size demonstrating aberrant escape
200	behaviour were taken from the surface of the aquarium (strongly positively phototactic and
201	negatively geotactic when disturbed, these were assumed infected). In the second experiment
202	animals were selected randomly and dissected after the experiment to determine parasite
203	infection.
204	
205	In both cases temperature was maintained (± 0.5 $^{\circ}\text{C})$ in controlled temperature rooms in the
206	aquarium, salinity measured with a t/s probe and experiments were run under a 12 h light, 12
207	h dark regime. Assays were run for 24 hours and results were standardized to body mass.
208	Before the assays began the animals were acclimatized to the filtered aquarium water and
209	starved for 24 hours. Air-tight control chambers containing filtered seawater and
210	experimental chambers containing an individual amphipod were incubated for 24 hours at the
211	temperature and salinity recorded in the lagoon when the animals were collected. After 24
212	hours water samples were extracted from the chambers for analysis of oxygen concentrations.
213	Respiration rate was determined as the difference between oxygen concentrations before
214	(control) and after (experiment) the amphipods had been incubated in the chambers, using
215	Winkler titrations.
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217	Feeding rate was determined in a 24 hour experiment carried out at 5°C and salinity of 30 in
218	which individual amphipods were provided with C. linum as a food source. The amount
219	consumed was determined as the difference in wet weight of the alga over the course of the
220	experiment. The uninfected animals $(n = 17)$ were from Salterns and the infected animals
221	(n=6) from Gilkicker.
222	
223	Data analysis
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225	Respiration rate experiments were statistically tested using one-way ANOVA. Where data
226	were not normally distributed the non-parametric Kruskall-Wallis ANOVA on ranks test was
227	applied. For the second experiment the individual animals were examined and cerebral
228	metacercariae counted. The effect parasite infection intensity (parasite load) was tested by

229	linear regression for males and females separately and as both sexes combined. Amphipod
230	respiration rate at 5 and 15°C was compared using pooled infection data.
231	
232	RESULTS
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234	Metacercaria infection in the population
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236	In pooled data from samples collected over four months (April to July 2004) at Gilkicker
237	approximately 85% of the animals were infected by cerebral metacercariae of trematode
238	parasites (Table 1). The greatest proportion of amphipods (45%) was infected by 1
239	metacercaria with infection intensity decreasing thereafter. The maximum infection intensity
240	was 20 metacercariae in a single amphipod (Figure 2 a). In such cases of high parasite load
241	the shape of the head was distorted. Mean parasite load of infected animals was 2.20
242	metacercariae per animal (females = 2.16 , males = 2.27 , juveniles = 2.06). Cerebral
243	metacercariae of trematode parasites were also confirmed from animals from a small archive
244	sample of Gammarus insensibilis from Gilkicker lagoon collected in 1982.
245	
246	In samples from the Keyhaven-Lymington lagoon system parasite prevalence was lower.
247	Infection rate in amphipods from Eight-Acre Pond infection rate was 58.3% but animals from
248	The Salterns were rarely infected (0% and 3.9%). At Moulton Marsh 8% of G. insensibilis
249	were infected with cerebral metacercariae, although it must be noted that low numbers were
250	examined (twelve specimens). In uninfected animals there was a male bias to the sex ratio.
251	This is related to the size at which it was possible to differentiate the sexes, 20% of the
252	population was juvenile animals (Figure 2 b). In the infected population there was a
253	decreasing proportion of juveniles with increasing parasite load. Parasite load had no
254	significant effect on mature amphipod size (Figure 2c) but infected juvenile animals were
255	significantly larger than uninfected juveniles (0, 1 and 2+ cerebral infections) (ANOVA; F 2,
256	$_{69} = 21.512$, P < 0.001) (Figure 2 c).
257	
258	Physiological rate experiments
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260	Mean respiration rate of all animals (infected and uninfected) was significantly lower at 5°C
261	than at 15°C (Mann-Whitney U=62.0, n=14, 18, P<0.05). In the first respiration rate
262	experiment (5°C), infected amphipods (selected based on behaviour - positive phototaxis,

263	negative geotaxis) demonstrated significantly lower respiration rate than uninfected
264	individuals (ANOVA; $F_{1-17} = 6.533$, P< 0.05) (Figure 3 a). In animals selected from different
265	lagoons (Salterns and Gilkicker) mean respiration rate of animals from Gilkicker (infected)
266	was significantly lower than those collected at the Salterns (uninfected (Figure 3 b, ANOVA:
267	$F_{1,13} = 8.463$, P<0.05). Linear regression showed no significant effect of parasite load (males,
268	females and sexes combined) (Figure 3 c). In feeding experiments there was no significant
269	difference between mean feeding rate of uninfected individuals (11.9 mg g dry wt ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) and
270	infected animals (14.6 mg g dry wt ⁻¹ h ⁻¹).
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272	Reproductive investment
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274	Mean weight-specific early stage brood size of G. insensibilis differed significantly with
275	infection by trematode metacercariae when all gravid females from April to July were pooled
276	(Kruskall-Wallis ANOVA on ranks $H=19.808,2$ df; $P<0.001,Figure4$ b). Pairwise
277	multiple comparisons (Dunn's method) showed females infected with 3 or more
278	metacercariae to have significantly lower brood size than both uninfected animals, and those
279	infected with 1 or 2 metacercariae. Brood size reduced by 36.6% between uninfected and
280	heavily infected (3+) individuals. There was no significant difference in investment in
281	individual embryos as estimated from embryo volume (mm $^{\!3}\!)$ and embryo mass (µg), changes
282	reproductive investment (clutch volume) were therefore related to the number of embryos.
283	
284	Mean late-stage brood size was higher in uninfected individuals but there was no significant
285	difference in embryo number in either stage IV or V broods (note, low numbers of uninfected
286	females). Uninfected females showed a rate of loss of embryos of 27.8 % while females
287	infected with three or more metacercariae lost 28.9 % of their embryos during development
288	from early stage (I-III) to late stage (V). Females with intermediate parasite load
289	demonstrated higher rates of embryo loss during development of 44.5 %.
290	
291	DISCUSSION
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293	The presence of the metacercariae of microphallid trematodes in the cephalic region of G .
294	insensibilis became apparent during the examination of animals for a separate study (Gates,
295	2006). The presence of the metacercariae is consistent with the other studies of the species
296	(Helluy 1983). The size and shape of the metacercariae were consistent with the 270×350

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um ovoid cysts of M. papillorobustus (Rebecq, 1964) but the parasite species has not been identified in this study. On occasions there were smaller metacercariae present in the abdomen which may represent a different species of trematode or may be immature metacercariae from new infections. The observations reported here are the first from the UK despite other studies of UK populations of G. insensibilis (Pearson et al., 2002, Sheader, 1996) but when researchers do not have a "search image" for parasites they can be easily missed (Schwartz & Cameron, 1993). These results have implications for the understanding of the ecology of a priority species under the biodiversity action plan, and more widely the ecology of saline lagoon systems. For example, at an estuarine site in close proximity to Gilkicker high levels of infection by trematode metacercariae had a detrimental effect on the overall population size of *Echinogammarus marinus* (Guler et al., 2015). While our study did not find major detrimental effects on the population there were effects at the individual level. Mean infected male parasite load at Gilkicker (2.26) was higher than Thau lagoon (1.83) but female parasite load (2.16) was lower than Thau (2.26-3.19) (Ponton et al., 2005). In this study metacercaria infection ranged from 0-20 per host but amphipods with more than five metacercariae were rare. Presumably, increased infections caused an increase in the rate of predation by the definitive host so these animals were removed from the population (Lafferty, 1996). Furthermore, increased mortality of the amphipod *Paracalliope novizealandiae* was reported from wounding and loss of haemolymph following infection with "intermediate" and "high" levels of Maritrema novaezelandensis (Microphallidae) infection (Fredensborg et al., 2004). G. insensibilis hosting many metacercariae had distorted head shape supporting the idea of maximum volume of infection proposed for metacercariae of microphallids infecting Cyathura carinata (Jensen et al., 2004). At low infection intensities a greater proportion of the host animals were juveniles, likely owing to a shorter time period for infection to occur. The prevalence of cerebral metacercariae in *Gammarus insensibilis* was higher at Gilkicker and Eight-Acre Pond. These lagoons are separated by approximately 40 km but The Salterns, where prevalence was lower, is only about 50 m from Eight Acre Pond. Gilkicker and Eight-Acre Pond are both wide, shallow lagoons with a muddy sediment and gravel in the margins. In contrast, the Salterns and the Moulton Marsh lagoons are narrower, deeper bodies of water. The differential infection rates between the two lagoon types could be explained by the same phenomenon that splits the host population into two discrete subunits based on infection (Ponton et al., 2005, Thomas et al., 1996a, Thomas et al., 1995). Within Gilkicker and Eight-

331 Acre Pond, the water is shallow (<0.75 m), so such discrete populations are less feasible. The shallower lagoons may also be more suitable for feeding by wading birds, thus increasing the 332 333 potential for successful completion of the trematode life cycle, and increasing the selective 334 advantage for parasite prevalence at these sites. 335 336 At Gilkicker the highest parasite prevalence (98.3%) was recorded in July 2004. The previous 337 month had the highest recorded water temperature (26°C). The release activity of 338 microphallid cercariae from the initial molluscan host is known to increase in warmer water. 339 Amphipods increased their gill ventilation to increase oxygen uptake at higher temperature. 340 In this study this was demonstrated by higher respiration rate at 15°C, as expected for peracarid crustaceans (Dorgelo, 1977, Garnacho et al., 2001). Increased gill ventilation could 341 342 increase contact with trematode cercariae (Mouritsen & Jensen, 1997). Fredensborg et al 343 (2004) showed that high temperature induced severe *Corophium* sp. mortality as a result of 344 increased risk of injury associated with cercarial penetration in conjunction with temperature 345 stress. Such a situation can be envisaged for lagoonal habitats where the warmest summer 346 months (extremes of temperature and salinity, along with temperature related reduced oxygen 347 levels) in conjunction with high injury rates from cercarial penetration may present a severe 348 physiological challenge. 349 350 Respiration rate was significantly lower in G. insensibilis infected by metacercariae in both 351 experiments. This does not support the hypothesis that higher respiration rate may be 352 expected in infected animals as a symptom of increased stress. There are conflicting patterns 353 in parasite effects on metabolic rates but similar results have been reported for G. pulex 354 infected by the behaviour modifying acanthacephalan *Pomphorhynchus laevis* (Rumpus & Kennedy, 1974). A plausible explanation for reduced respiration rates in animals infected by 355 356 behaviour modifying parasites is reduced activity in the host. Aberrant escape behaviour 357 occurs in response to disturbance (Ottaviani & Franceschi, 1996). Arnal et al. (2015) reported 358 greatest activity by infected G. insensibilis in the presence of fish slime and bird faeces, both 359 associated with potential definitive hosts. In the current study disturbance was minimal in the 360 laboratory assay so activity may be reduced in the infected animals. 361 362 In this study there was a reduction in the early-stage brood size with increased parasite load. 363 In any single month there was no difference in the size of individual embryos associated with 364 infection with cerebral metacercariae. In amphipods reproductive plasticity is achieved

through the balance of reproductive investment in fewer, larger individual embryos (e.g. in
winter) or more smaller individuals (summer) (Kolding & Fenchel, 1981, Sheader, 1996).
The same microphallid-gammarid system in the Thau lagoon has demonstrated assortative
pairing (Thomas et al., 1996a) influencing the fitness of infected males by pairing with
smaller, infected females (Ponton et al., 2005) but there was no evidence of effects infection
on the size of reproductive females in this study. Early and late stage brood size was similarly
reduced by parasite infection where rates of brood mortality were approximately 29% in
infected and uninfected animals. The similar rates of brood mortality suggest that the smaller
broods of infected animals was not related to the re-ingestion of the developing embryos at a
later stage of development to compensate for energetic imbalances because of parasite
infections. Therefore the effects of trematode infection on reproduction were likely initiated
prior to the release of eggs into the marsupium, perhaps because of reduced energy to allocate
to reproduction. Increased activity by hosts generated by manipulative parasites (Arnal et al.,
2015), melanisation and encapsulation responses induced following infection (Kostadinova &
Mavrodieva, 2005b) and wounding and haemolymph loss through penetration of the
abdomen by cercariae (Fredensborg et al., 2004) are likely energetically costly, reducing
resources available for reproduction.
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In any consideration of the conservation of lagoon habitats and specialist lagoon species the
interaction with parasites must be understood. Microphallid trematodes are frequently
associated with lagoons or habitats where temperature can reach high levels, such as the
intertidal zone on the seashore. The success of organisms such as <i>G. insensibilis</i> in lagoon
habitats may be the result of an ability to maintain healthy reproductive rates and population
sizes despite stressful environmental conditions, continual parasite infection and occasional
parasite-induced reductions in population size.
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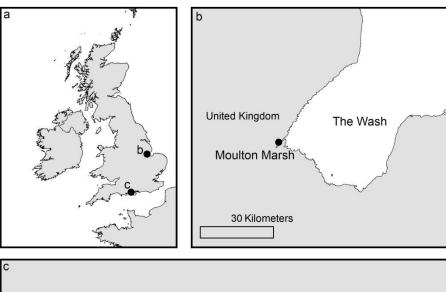
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Tables

Table 1. The prevalence of cerebral metacercariae of microphallid trematodes in *G*. *insensibilis* from saline lagoons on the UK coast.

Site	Sampling date	Temperature	Salinity	Number of	%
				amphipods	prevalence
Salterns	04/10/2004	16.8	31.4	51	0
Salterns	09/02/2005	7.9	18.3	69	3.9
8-Acre Pond	09/02/2005	7.3	25.7	24	58.3
Moulton Marsh 1	12/10/2004	10.7	29.1	12	8.0
Gilkicker	08/03/2004	7.6	33.1	68	76.5
Gilkicker	19/04/2004	11.0	32.4	150	92.7
Gilkicker	20/05/2004	19.1	36.9	110	60.9
Gilkicker	14/06/2004	26.2	39.5	167	80.2
Gilkicker	19/07/2004	21.3	37.7	181	98.9
Gilkicker Total	March – July 2004	-	-	676	84.3

Figures



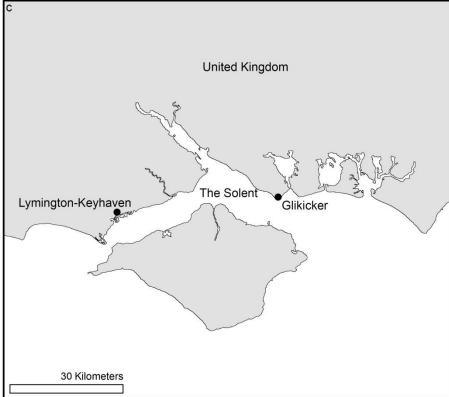


Fig 1. a) Location of the study sites in the United Kingdom, b) Location of Moulton Marsh on the east coast and c) location of the Gilkicker and Lymington-Keyhaven lagoon systems on the south coast.

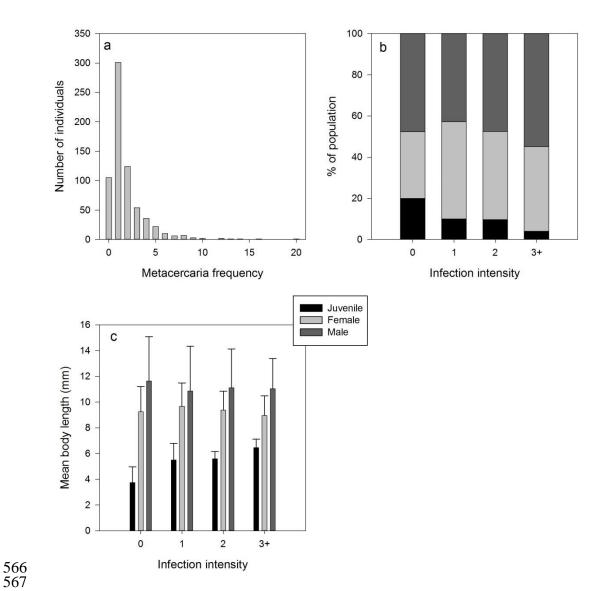


Fig 2. Trematode metacercaria infection in the *Gammarus insensibilis* population from Gilkicker between March and July 2004. a) Metacercaia infection intensity in the G. *insensibilis* population, b) proportion of the population at increasing infection intensity, c) The size of amphipods (\pm 1 sd) from three life history categories with increasing infection intensities (legend refers to b and c).

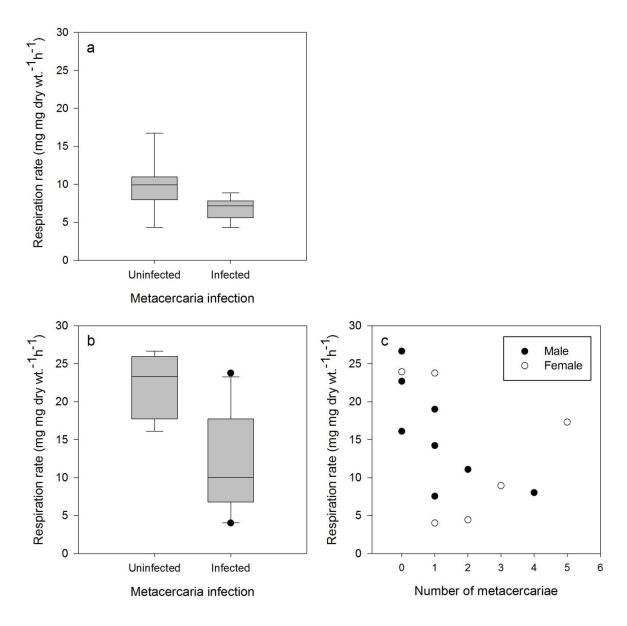


Fig. 3. The effect of metacercarial infection on respiration rate of *Gammarus insensibilis*. a) Experiment 1, Respiration rate (± 1 sd) of uninfected and infected *G. insensibilis* selected based on behaviour (n=9). b) Respiration Experiment 2, Respiration rate of infected (n=4) and uninfected (n=10) *G. insensibilis* randomly selected and dissected after the experiment to determine metacercaria presence. c) Scatter plot of data from b) separated by sex.

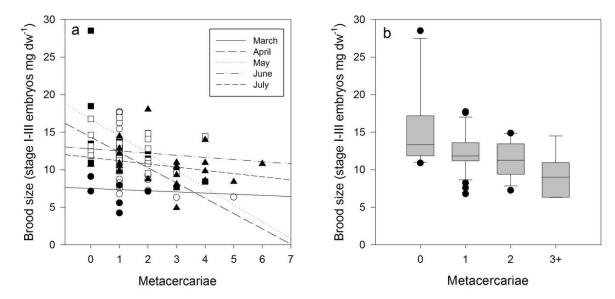


Fig 4. The effect of intensity of cerebral metacercaria infection on the early stage brood size (embryos mg dry wt.⁻¹) of *G. insensibilis*. a) Monthly data b) all monthly data pooled.