1	Title: The drivers and consequences of unstable <i>Plasmodium</i> dynamics: A 26-year study
2	of three malaria parasite species infecting a tropical lizard
3	Running title: Long-term drivers and consequences of parasite dynamics
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20 Abstract. The dynamics of vector-borne diseases are driven by interactions between 21 factors intrinsic to the parasite, its host, and environmental fluctuations. Understanding 22 these interactions requires a long-term view, especially to predict the consequences of 23 climate change on parasite dynamics. We examined temporal fluctuations in risk of 24 infection, its environmental drivers and consequences for host body condition of three 25 malaria parasites (*Plasmodium azurophilum*, *P. leucocytica*, and *P. floridense*) infecting the lizard, Anolis gundlachi, in the rainforest of Puerto Rico. Our analyses included 13 26 surveys totaling > 8000 lizards over 26 years. During the early years of the study, 27 28 prevalence of all three *Plasmodium* species appeared stable despite disturbances from short droughts and hurricanes. Taking the longer view, we found that the risk of infection 29 30 and overall prevalence vary significantly over the years, and this fluctuation was driven in non-linear ways by variations in temperature and rainfall. We also found that risk of 31 infection was maximized at intermediate levels of temperature and precipitation; relative 32 proportions of the three *Plasmodium* species changed over time; and no significant 33 34 negative effects of parasite infection on the lizard's body condition. Overall, the results emphasize the need for long-term studies to reveal host-parasite dynamics, their drivers 35 36 and consequences.

Key-words: *Anolis*, body condition, climate change, long-term disease dynamics,
malaria, parasite community, precipitation, Puerto Rico, temperature, virulence

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### INTRODUCTION

41 Understanding the drivers and consequences of infectious disease dynamics is a

- 42 venerable challenge in ecology. From the first theoretical models developed in the 18th
  - 2

43 century as part of smallpox control efforts to the Ross-Macdonald modeling approach
44 that describes the dynamics of malaria prevalence (Smith et al. 2012), ecology has a long
45 tradition studying long-term disease dynamics. Yet, how abiotic and biotic factors drive
46 long-term disease risk and virulence remains an open question in disease ecology (Lively
47 et al 2014).

Malaria parasites (Plasmodium) are vector-borne, and thus sensitive to 48 environmental fluctuations. While malaria prevalence seems often stable and robust to 49 environmental fluctuations, it can also change abruptly during epidemics (Schall et al. 50 51 2000, Chiyaka et al. 2013). Theoretical models predict stability, but only under the 52 assumption of small environmental fluctuations; severe changes can push the system outside its stable equilibrium (Scheffer et al. 2001; Rohr et al. 2011). Thus, nonlinear 53 54 links between prevalence and environmental terms can result in unstable dynamics. A current pressing issue is the possible influence of predicted climate change on malaria 55 prevalence. Unfortunately, there is little consensus on the expected influence of climate 56 57 change on the dynamics of vector-borne parasites including *Plasmodium* (Harvell 2009, Rohr et al. 2011). 58

Two connected issues are how changes in the dynamics of vector-borne parasites may be tempered both by the life history traits of the parasite itself (the "intrinsic factors" of epidemiology) and interactions among players in the overall parasite-host community. This story becomes circular if the parasite's prevalence drives evolutionary changes in both parasite and host life histories or changes the parasite community composition (Karvonen et al. 2013). Theoretical models suggest that transmission intensity plays into selection for parasite virulence (Ewald 1994, Schall 2002). These changes in virulence

66	can also mediate the outcome of competition among parasite species that share the same
67	host including parasite colonization and/or extinctions, or changing individual species
68	dominance within the community (e.g. Dobson and Pacala 1992, Karvonen et al. 2013).
69	Here we present a long-term study on the dynamics of three lizard malaria
70	parasites (Plasmodium azurophilum, P. floridense, and P. leucocytica) infecting Anolis
71	gundlachi in the tropical rainforest of Puerto Ricoa system that was undisturbed by
72	deliberate human intervention. Schall et al. 2000 studied the long-term dynamics of this
73	lizard-malaria system from 1990 to 1999 and found stable prevalence, no temporal
74	variation in virulence and stable parasite community composition. Here we leverage
75	their data (Schall et al. 2000), add extensive recent sampling, and reanalyze the data
76	taking a longer-term view spanning 26 years to ask: (1) Is parasite prevalence and risk of
77	infection stable during the 26 years' period? (2) If not, is this temporal variability driven
78	by abiotic factors (e.g., temperature and precipitation)? (3) Was parasite species
79	composition stable during this period? (4) Was there temporal variability in parasite
80	virulence to the host?
81	METHODS
82	Study system, field sampling, and diagnostics
83	We sampled lizards in a rainforest at the El Verde Field Station at the Luquillo
84	Experimental Forest in eastern Puerto Rico (N 18°19.263'- W 65°49.146'). Anolis
85	gundlachi is among seven anoles at the site, but the others are only very rarely infected
86	(Schall et al. 2000). We sampled during 13 periods over 26 years: summers (May-
87	August) 1990, 1996, 1997, 1998, 2015, 2016, and winters (January-March) 1991, 1997,

1998, 1999, 2001, 2002 and 2016. To insure consistency over time we replicated rigorously the protocols of field sampling and diagnostics used in the original study by Schall et al. (2000). Specifically, we sampled the same sites within the forest (between 4 and 10 trails each year) and collected similar sample sizes (N > 650). Infection status was determined by examination of stained blood smears, and parasite species scored based on morphological traits and cell class infected (Telford 2016).

94 We compiled temperature and rainfall data from the El Verde weather station records and estimated the daily mean minimum, maximum, and variance of registered 95 96 temperatures and rainfall 30 and 120 days prior to the sampling month (Schall et al. 97 2000). Hurricane events occurred in September 1995 (two), July 1996, and September 98 1998. We do not include hurricanes *per se* in the analysis, but high rainfall would mark 99 those periods in the precipitation data. To estimate host body condition- a sub-lethal 100 measure of parasite virulence–we measure the snout-vent length (SVL) and mass of each 101 lizard. Detailed field and laboratory methods and collection locations are given in the Supplemental Information. 102

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### Analyses

To determine if the risk of infection was stable through the 26-year study period, we compared eight binomial models in their ability to predict the individual probability of infection. Each model represents a hypothesis describing what factors better explained temporal variability in infection probability. These models (with exception of the null model) included sex, season and/or SVL as a predictor because Schall et al. 2000 found strong evidence showing that the probability of infection increases with body size (SVL) with males having a higher probability of infection than females (sex). They also found 111 that the probability of infection was higher in the summer than in the winter (season). We 112 compared models predicting the probability of infection as a function of (1) SVL, year, and sex separately, (2) the additive effect of sex, SVL and season, (3) a similar model 113 114 with an additive effect of year (4) a model including the same sex, SVL and season with an interactive effect between sex and SVL, (5) a similar model with an additive effect of 115 116 year, and (6) an intercept-only model that represented the null hypothesis that neither of the tested variables explains the observed temporal variability in probability of infection. 117 These models were fitted using maximum likelihood and compared using Akaike 118 119 Information Criterion adjusted for small sample sizes (AICc), where the most 120 parsimonious model will result in the lowest score. If there was significant temporal variation in the dynamics, the most parsimonious model (lowest AICc score) would 121 122 include the effect of sampling year. We followed a similar model selection approach to test which environmental 123 124 variables (i.e., rainfall and/or temperature) better predicted the proportion of infected 125 individuals. Following Schall et al. 2000, we compared models that included mean 126 rainfall 30 days and 120 days before the field sampling. We also fitted models with the 127 variance of rainfall or temperature 30 or 120 days before the field sampling (Vasseur et 128 al. 2014). To allow for a possible non-linear effect we also fitted individual and additive models with a second-degree polynomial. Last, we fitted a null (intercept only) model to 129 130 describe the case where none of the tested variables better explains the observed patterns 131 in prevalence. All models were fitted using maximum likelihood and we used AICc to select the most parsimonious model. 132

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To assess changes in composition of the three *Plasmodium* species through time

134	we compared 10 multinomial logit models in their ability to predict the individual
135	probability of being healthy, or infected by one of three Plasmodium parasites (four
136	categories; co-infections were not considered). This modeling approach is an extension
137	of a logistic regression for multinomial response variables. These models included (1) the
138	single effect of sex, SVL, or year; (2) models considering the additive and interactive
139	effect of year and SVL; (3) a model considering the additive effect of sex and SVL; (4)
140	the additive effect of these three variables, with either interactions of year with SVL and
141	sex. We also fitted a null (intercept-only) model that represents the case where any of
142	these variables explains the probability of getting infected by either of the three
143	Plasmodium parasites. The models were fitted using maximum likelihood using the nnet
144	package and compared using AICc.
145	To estimate body condition (a proxy for sub-lethal parasite virulence to the host;
146	Schall and Pearson 2000) we used the residual index $R_i$ (Cox and Calsbeek 2015). We
147	calculated this index using the residuals of the linear regression of log10 mass on log10
148	SVL. We made a separate analysis for each sex, and for each year for which body mass
149	and SVL data were available (1996, 1997, 1998, 2015, and 2016). Lizards with positive
150	residuals are heavier than average (better body condition), while lizards with negative
151	residuals are skinnier relative to their SVL than average (Schall et al. 2000). To test for
152	differences in body condition due to infection state or time, we used a two-way ANOVA,
153	where the two factors were year and infection state (infected vs. non-infected). All
154	analyses were done in R 3.0.3 (R Development Core Team 2016).

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# RESULTS

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# Long-term dynamics and its environmental drivers

157	A total of 8055 Anolis gundlachi lizards were sampled over the 26-year period.
158	The most parsimonious model explaining the variability in the risk of infection in this
159	period included the additive effect of sex, SVL, season, year, and the interaction between
160	sex and SVL ( $\triangle AIC = 8.58$ between this model and the next best; Table S1). For both
161	summer and winter samples, the risk of infection was relatively stable for the early years,
162	dropping significantly during the 2015–2016 period (Fig. 1, Table S2). Overall
163	prevalence dropped ~ half for males and > half for females from 1990–2002 vs. 2015–
164	2016 (Fig. S1).
165	The most parsimonious model explaining temporal variations in the proportion of
166	infected individuals included the additive quadratic effect of mean maximum daily
167	temperature and mean daily rainfall through 120 days before the sampling ( $\Delta AIC = 90.37$
168	between this model and the next best; Table S3). The risk of infection followed a
169	nonlinear response to temperature at a variety of rainfall levels (Fig. 2, Table S4).
170	Maximal predicted risk of infection was maximized at a minimum temperature of ~ $26^{\circ}$
171	and rainfall of 9.62 mm.
172	Long-term changes in parasite species composition
173	The most parsimonious model explaining the probability of an individual being
174	healthy, or infected by P. azurophilum, P. leucocytica or P. floridense included the
175	additive effect of SVL, sex and year ( $\Delta AIC = 3.29$ between this model and the next best;
176	Table S5). This model predicts a decrease in the probability of infection of all
177	Plasmodium parasites after 2002 (Fig. 3). Thus, the drop in prevalence during the most
178	recent sample periods was not due to only one species of parasite declining, but an
179	overall decline. P. azurophilum was consistently the most common species, and remained

180	at a similar proportion of all infections throughout the 26-year period. P. floridense and
181	P. leucocytica changed their relative dominance, but this apparently was due to a secular
182	decline in <i>P. floridense</i> over the entire study period. This model predicted no differences
183	in the partial relationship between SVL and probability of infection by the different
184	Plasmodium parasites (Fig. S4). Whereas the model predicts little differences between
185	sexes in the probability of getting infected by P. azurophilum, the probability of getting
186	infected by <i>P. floridense</i> and <i>P. leucocytica</i> is predicted to be greater in females (Fig.
187	S5).

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# Long-term changes in the body condition due to infection

The body condition index (BCI) of females in the summer did not vary 189 significantly by infection state ( $F_{1.753} = 3.84$ , P = 0.05), year ( $F_{3.753} = 0.039$ , P = 0.99) or 190 their interaction ( $F_{3,753} = 0.56$ , P = 0.64; Fig. S6). We found a similar pattern in males in 191 the summer season where BCI did not vary significantly by infection state ( $F_{1,1357}$  = 192 0.042, P = 0.84), year ( $F_{3,753} = 0.001$ , P = 1.0) or their interaction ( $F_{3,753} = 0.530$ , P =193 0.66; Fig. S6). The pattern in the winter season resembles that of the summer where BCI 194 for females did not vary significantly by infection state ( $F_{1,356} = 3.01$ , P = 0.084), year 195 196  $(F_{2,356} = 0.12, P = 0.89)$ , or their interaction  $(F_{1,356} = 1.36, P = 0.24;$  Fig. S6). BCI for males in the winter did not vary significantly by infection state ( $F_{1,752} = 0.42$ , P = 0.52), 197 year ( $F_{2,752} = 0.01$ , P = 0.99), or their interaction ( $F_{2,752} = 0.36$ , P = 0.70; Fig. S6). 198

199 DISCUSSION

We assembled a long-term data set spanning 26 years to explore the dynamics of three malaria parasites and their vertebrate host. This is one of the longest of such studies on a 202 natural system of a vector-borne disease infecting a nonhuman host (see also Schall and 203 St. Denis 2010). Our results show that risk of infection for the anole by *Plasmodium* 204 parasites varied little early in the study despite several short droughts and hurricane 205 events. Prevalence of all three *Plasmodium* species, though, declined substantially during 206 the most recent years. Overall, variation in risk of infection was associated with 207 fluctuations in temperature and rainfall four months before each sample period, but the 208 relationship with temperature was nonlinear such that maximum risk of infection is 209 predicted at an intermediate temperature and rainfall. The recent drop in risk of infection 210 coincided with a severe drought in Puerto Rico. During the study, one species, P. azurophillum was consistently the most common parasite, but one of the others, P. 211 floridense, declined slowly. Finally, we found that body condition did not fluctuate 212 213 significantly over time for both summer and winter periods and was not significantly different between non-infected and infected individuals. Overall, these patterns were not 214 215 apparent during the early years of the study; thus, a long-term approach was needed to 216 reveal the true response of the parasite dynamics to environmental changes. The delayed link between rainfall and temperature with parasite prevalence (120 217 218 days) most likely is a consequence of shifting vector abundance and biting behavior. 219 Unfortunately, the identity of vector(s) of the three parasite species is not known, but P. 220 *floridense* is known to infect *Culex* mosquitoes in Florida (Klein et al. 1987). During the

severe 2015 drought we noted an overall dry aspect to the forest, with little standing

222 water in puddles, *Heliconia* flowers or epiphytic bromeliads, which could have restricted

breeding locations for mosquitoes. Most striking, despite the general effect of variation

in temperature and humidity over the 26-year period, no dramatic effect on prevalence,

nor risk of infection, was seen after short environment disruptions from dry periods or
severe hurricanes during the first 10 years of the study period. Schall et al. (2000) noted
that the hurricanes caused severe physical damage to the forest, including massive
defoliation. Thus, the drop in risk of infection in the later samples could indicate that the
2015 drought was of sufficient duration to shift the system to a new dynamic state.

230 But, what caused the differences in parasite prevalence for the summer vs. winter 231 seasons? Rainfall is greater in the summer, which increases potential habitats for vector 232 breeding increasing the rate of vectors to hosts. Also, summer is the mating season for A. 233 gundlanchi anoles when lizards are more active and defending territories (Reagan 1992, Gorman and Licht 1974). If the vectors are daytime active, the lizards could be more 234 exposed to vector bites. Alternatively, the lower prevalence in winter may be only 235 236 apparent if the parasite reduces reproduction in the lizard blood if vector activity ceases. Using a PCR-based method to detect very low-parasitemia infections and cryptic 237 238 infections were more common in the winter season (unpublished data).

239 Our study adds to the growing evidence that the relation between prevalence of malaria parasites and climatic measures is complex, and often nonlinear (Mordecai et al. 240 241 2013, Garamszegi 2011). Adding to the complexity is the role of spatial scale (Wilkinson 242 et al. 2016). For example, in the Sceloporus occidentalis- Plamodium mexicanum system in California, when looking at the relationship between landscape features and infection 243 244 prevalence, the type of ground cover (grass, rocks, and leaf litter) affected the probability 245 of capturing infected or healthy lizards (Eisen and Wright, 2001). Note that changes in 246 temperature and rainfall could alter microhabitat quality, such as production of leaf litter 247 and ground cover. Thus, suggestions that simple rising temperatures during climate

change will increase prevalence of malaria parasites ignore the more complex story.

Indeed, our data suggest anole's risk of infection by malaria parasites may decrease incurrent climate change scenarios.

251 The El Verde lizard malaria system has an added interest because we could follow 252 through time the relative proportions of three species of *Plasmodium* that infect a single 253 lizard host. Despite the major drop in the probability of infection during the later sample 254 periods, and the major disruption of the forest by hurricanes in the early years, P. 255 azurophilum remained at a constant higher proportion of infections. P. floridense 256 gradually changed over the years and switched proportion of infections with the third 257 species, *P. leucocytica*. What could account for this secular change? These two species infected different cell classes (erythrocytes for P. floridense and several classes of white 258 259 blood cells for *P. leucocytica*), and therefore are not likely to be competitors for withinhost habitats, and are unlikely to cross-react with the immune system. The competitive 260 261 interactions of malaria parasite species that exploit the same host are poorly studied (but 262 see Schall and Bromwich, 1994). We suspect the explanation falls to the biology of the 263 vectors, either different insect host species or how parasites may compete within a single 264 vector.

Body condition is used as a proxy of the energetic state of lizards and their fitness (Cox and Calsbeek 2015). Our results are consistent with previous studies that found little evidence of a relationship between lizard health and parasite infection in the Caribbean (Schall and Pearson 2000; Schall and Staats 2002). This may be explained by two non-multually exclusive explanations. First, parasitaemia of Caribbean *Plasmodium* species is lower than those of California or Africa, which may result in a lower rate of

271	blood cells turnover. Second, low virulence could be the result of lower transmission				
272	intensity as predicted by the theory of virulence evolution (e.g., Ewald 1994).				
273	We conclude that the most significant finding of this study is the value, even the				
274	necessity, of a long-term approach (> 20 yrs) to understanding the ecology of host-				
275	parasite systems. Studying the A. gundlachi - Plasmodium spp. system over decades				
276	allowed us to gain a better picture of the patterns and possible mechanisms behind				
277	prevalence changes, shifts in the blood parasite community, and the effects on the body				
278	condition of the hosts. The influence of environmental variables, exactly the kind				
279	expected with ongoing climate change, became apparent only after taking this long-term				
280	approach.				
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287	Committee protocols from the University of Puerto Rico				
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# 362 **Figure captions:**

Fig 1. Risk of infection of *Anolis gundlachi* by three malaria parasite species over time at a rainforest in eastern Puerto Rico. Risk of infection is higher in the summer vs. winter months. Note how the risk of infection is relatively constant in the early years, but decreases in 2015–2016. Dots are the infection probability estimates and bars represent the standard errors.

**Fig 2.** Predictions of the most parsimonious model explaining the temporal variation in

the proportion of infected *Anolis gundlachi* by malaria parasites. This model predicted

the proportion of infected individuals by the additive effect of squared mean daily rainfall

and mean daily temperature 120 days before sampling. Lines represent estimated means

and shaded areas 95% confidence intervals.

Fig 3. Partial predictions from the most parsimonious multinomial model showing a
general decrease through time in the risk of infection of *Anolis gundlachi* by three *Plasmodium* parasites. The model predicts a decrease in the probability of infection by *P*. *floridense* in the last three censuses compared to *P. leucocytica*. Dots represent the
infection probability estimates by each *Plasmodium* species and the bars represent 95%
confidence intervals. The letters "w" and "s" following the year describes the winter of
summer season respectively.

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Figure 1.



Figure 2



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#### Figure 3

