# 1 The association between parasite infection and growth rates

2 in Arctic charr – do fast growing fish have more parasite	ast growing fish	ave more parasite
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### Abstract

Trophically transmitted parasites are known to impair fish growth in experimental studies, but this is not well documented in natural populations. For Arctic charr (Salvelinus alpinus (L.)), individual growth is positively correlated with food consumption. However, increased food consumption will increase the exposure to trophically transmitted parasites. Using a correlative approach, we explore the association between parasite abundance and the individual growth of Arctic charr from five lakes within the same watercourse. The studied parasite species differ in their life cycles and cost to the host. We predicted a positive association between parasite abundance and fish growth for parasites of low pathogenicity reflecting high consumption rates, and a negative association at higher parasite abundances for more costly parasites. We found no direct negative associations between parasite abundance and fish growth. The relationship between parasite abundance and growth was linearly positive for the low costly Crepidostomum sp. and concave for the more costly Eubothrium salvelini. In natural fish populations the negative effects of parasites on fish growth might be outweighed by the energy assimilated from feeding on the intermediate host. However, experimental studies with varying food consumption regimes are needed to determine the mechanisms underlying our observations.

### Introduction

Parasites occur in all animal populations and, by definition, have negative effects on their hosts (Poulin & Morand, 2000; Dobson et al., 2008). For fishes, parasite infections can result in reduced growth rates as seen for juvenile rainbow smelt (*Osmerus mordax*, Mitchill, 1814) infected with *Proteocephalus* sp. (Sirois & Dodson, 2000), 3-spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*, L.) infected with *Schistocephalus solidus* (Müller, 1776) (Pennycuick, 1971) and sockeye salmon (*Onchorynchus* nerka, Walbaum, 1792) infected with *Eubothrium salvelini* (Schrank, 1790) (Boyce, 1979). It might therefore seem paradoxical that parasite infection typically increases with fish length (Poulin, 2000). This can be attributed to the accumulation of parasites with host age, as age is closely related to body size in fish (Pacala & Dobson, 1988; Zelmer & Arai, 1998; Poulin, 2000). However, within a fish age class there is often substantial variation in size because of differences in individual growth rates (Wootton, 1998). Whether parasites contribute to the variation in fish growth rates is not well studied. Here, we investigate the association between parasitism and growth rates of Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus* (L.)).

Many helminth parasites infect their hosts via the ingestion of parasitized prey. Such trophically transmitted parasites display aggregated distributions in host populations (Shaw & Dobson, 1995; Poulin, 2013). Trophic niche specialization can be an important determinant of parasite burden for many fishes (Bell & Burt, 1991; Williams et al., 1992), including Arctic charr (Knudsen et al., 2004, 2014). Because parasites are harmful to their hosts, it would seem obvious that predators should avoid parasitized prey. However, there might be no selection pressure to avoid parasitized prey if the cost of becoming infected is low (Lafferty, 1992).

For Arctic charr, individual growth rates are positively correlated with food consumption (Larsson & Berglund, 2005; Amundsen et al., 2007). Elevated consumption rates should increase the exposure to trophically transmitted parasites, and heavy infections of such parasites are observed in large-sized Arctic charr (Hammar, 2000; Gallagher & Dick, 2010; Henriksen et al., 2016). Des Clers (1991) modelled the functional relationship between sealworm (Pseudoterranova decipiens, Krabbe, 1878) burden, food consumption and size of Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua L.) under the assumption that the parasite did not affect fish growth. The study found a linear increase in parasite burden with food consumption, and an exponential increase with the length of fish (des Clers, 1991). Fish that ate more grew faster and had more parasites. For 3-spined sticklebacks infected with the large-sized cestode S. solidus, individual fish are able to sustain high growth rates if access to food is not limiting (Barber et al., 2008). However, the relationship between growth rates and parasite infection and food consumption depend on the energetic value of the intermediate host that is consumed and the cost of the parasite (Lafferty, 1992). For low-cost parasites, a positive linear assumption might be expected. In contrast, for parasites that are costly, e.g. through causing mechanical damage, or evoking energetically costly immune responses, one might expect a density-dependent response where higher infections result in reduced host growth rates due to energy allocation to the immune system rather than growth. This might influence investment in gonad development since there is a trade-off between immunity and reproductive effort (Nordling et al., 1998; Lochmiller & Deerenberg, 2000). For instance, high infections of Diphyllobothrium spp. may inhibit gonadal development in Arctic charr (Curtis, 1984).

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In the present study, we investigate infections of five trophically transmitted parasites within three Arctic charr age classes from five lakes in the same watercourse. Of the five parasites, three species (*Eubothrium salvelini*, *Diphyllobothrium* spp. and *Proteocephalus* sp.) use

- copepods as intermediate hosts, while the remaining two (*Cyathocephalus truncatus* (Pallas, 1781) and *Crepidostomum* sp.) are transmitted via benthic invertebrates, mainly amphipods or insect larvae (*Crepidostomum* sp. only). In addition, at least two of the parasites, *E. salvelini* and *Diphyllobothrium* spp., can infect charr via paratenic fish hosts. Because the parasites vary in their cost and which intermediate hosts they parasitize we expect them to associate differently with individual growth rates. Three of the studied parasites have been described as costly to Arctic charr development or growth: *E. salvelini* (Bristow & Berland, 1991; Saksvik et al., 2001), *Diphyllobothrium* sp. (Bylund, 1972; Curtis, 1984; Halvorsen & Andersen, 1984) and *C. truncatus* (Vik, 1958). *Proteocephalus* sp. and *Crepidostomum* sp. are intestinal parasites where there are no clear evidence of high costs for infected fish. Our main research questions are:
  - 1. Is there a correlation between parasite infection and Arctic charr growth rates, and does the direction or shape of the association differ between parasite species?
    - 2. Does parasite infection relate to the probability that Arctic charr are sexually mature?

### We hypothesize that

- 1. For low-cost parasites, like *Crepidostomum* sp. and *Proteocephalus* sp., there is a linear positive relationship between fish growth and parasite intensity reflecting higher consumption rates. For more costly parasites like *C. truncatus*, *Diphyllobothrium* spp. and *E. salvelini* the association is non-linear with highly infected individuals having a reduced size compared to moderately infected fish.
- 2. High infections of costly parasites will reduce the probability that an individual will sexually mature.

### Materials and methods

### Study lakes

The five study lakes are all located in the Målselv river system in Troms county, northern Norway (Table 1). All lakes are dimictic and oligotrophic. Three lakes, Fjellfrøsvatn, Lille Rostavatn and Takvatn, are larger in size (> 6 km² surface area) and situated between 100 and 215 meters above sea level. Moskanjavri and Vuomajavri, are smaller (< 2 km² surface area) shallower lakes located above the tree line (at 595 and 709 m.a.s.l. respectively). These two lakes are remote (> 10 km from nearest road) and Vuomajavri is located within Dividalen national park, and therefore under strong regulation regarding access with motorized transportation (e.g. snowmobile or helicopter) as well as fishing equipment. The number of sympatric fish species differ between the lakes (1-6 species; Table 1), but Arctic charr is the most abundant fish species in all five lakes.

### Fish sampling and processing

Fjellfrøsvatn, Lille Rostavatn and Takvatn were sampled in August 2010 using multi-meshed gill nets with panels from 10 mm to 45 mm. Moskanjavri was sampled using the same method in August 2016. Vuomajavri was sampled during the ice-covered period in April and May in 2016 and 2017 using traditional ice-fishing methods with baited hooks as required by legislation. All fish were measured (fork length, mm), weighed (g), and assigned to sex and maturation status (male vs. female and immature vs. mature). Sagittal otoliths were collected and age was determined by surface readings of otoliths submerged in glycerol. Stomachs were opened and fullness determined on a scale from 0 to 100 %. Prey groups were identified and the contribution of each prey category to the total stomach fullness was calculated as a percentage for each fish individual (Amundsen et al., 1996).

### **Parasite sampling**

The number of *Diphyllobothrium* spp. cysts on the stomach wall was counted. There are two species of *Diphyllobothrium* present in charr from these systems, *D. dendriticum* and *D. ditremum*, and cyst counts provide an estimate of their combined total number (Kuhn et al., 2017). Both *Diphyllobothrium* parasites are trophically transmitted to charr via ingestion of infected copepods or small fish that are paratenic hosts (Halvorsen, 1970; Henriksen et al., 2016). They mature in piscivorous birds (Halvorsen, 1970). All intestines were frozen and later screened for parasites as described by Kuhn et al., (2016). A total of four taxa of metazoan parasites were identified from the intestines; *Proteocephalus* sp., *Eubothrium salvelini*, *Cyathocephalus truncatus* and *Crepidostomum* sp. All intestinal parasites use charr as their final hosts. *Proteocephalus* sp. and *E. salvelini* are trophically transmitted from copepods, whereas *C. truncatus* infects charr via the amphipod *Gammarus lacustris*. *Crepidostomum* sp. infects charr via *G. lacustris* or insect larvae (Soldánová et al., 2017).

### Statistical analysis

#### Parasite infracommunities across lakes and diets.

Because of the strong association between charr diet and parasite infection (Knudsen et al., 2004, 2008) we investigated if parasite infracommunities (the community of parasites within a single host individual (Bush et al., 1997)), could be predicted by individual diets and lake. This relationship was modelled using canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) in the R package 'Vegan' (Oksanen et al., 2013).

### Associations between parasite infection, growth and maturation

The association between parasite infection and growth was examined using multiple regressions with fish length as the response variable. As predictors we included the abundance of the individual parasite species, and age and lake to control for differences in growth rates between populations and cohorts. Fish sex was also included to test if there were differences between males and females. We hypothesized that some associations between growth and parasitism might be non-linear. To test for this we included a quadratic term (i.e. second order polynomial) for all parasite species. Potential associations between parasite infection and probability of maturation were examined using logistic regression with immature and mature fish as the binomial response variable, controlling for age, lake, length and sex. For all models we included interaction terms between parasites to see if co-infections could have a multiplicative rather than additive effect. The models were then stepwise simplified using AIC values to end up with the most parsimonious model. All statistical analyses were run in the software R (R Core Team, 2018).

### **Results**

### Parasite infracommunity was predicted by lake and diet

Infracommunities of parasites differed between lake populations (Fig. 1). *Crepidostomum* sp., *Diphyllobotrhium* spp. and *E. salvelini* were most common (Table 2). *Proteocephalus* sp. and *C. truncatus* were only prevalent in lakes Lille Rosta and Vuoma respectively, where they had a high mean abundance (Table 2). In the CCA, Arctic charr were separated based on their parasite infracommunities (Fig. 1). Arctic charr from Fjellfrøsvatn, Moskanjavri and Takvatn clustered together and were mostly infected with *E. salvelini* and *Crepidostomum* sp (Fig. 1). Arctic charr from Vuoma were mainly infected with the benthic transmitted *C. truncatus* and

Crepidostomum sp. strongly associated to a benthic diet (especially *G. lacustris*) (Fig. 1). In contrast, Lille Rosta Arctic charr showed a clear separation from the other populations with infracommunities dominated by copepod-transmitted *Proteocephalus* sp. and *Diphyllobothrium* species and a diet dominated by zooplankton (Fig. 1). Diet and lake accounted for 61.3 % of the total inertia in parasite infracommunity composition.

### Faster growing Arctic charr had higher infections of Crepidostomum sp. and E. salvelini

There was substantial variation in growth within age classes (Fig. 2). Model diagnostic plots identified four clear outliers that were removed from multiple regression analysis. Interestingly, these were all large (>350 mm) Arctic charr from lake Vuoma with very low parasite infections. Lake, age, *Crepidostomum* sp. and *E. salvelini*. predicted variation in growth (Table 3, stepwise multiple regression,  $F_{8,178} = 44.9$ , p < 0.001, adjusted  $r^2 = 0.65$ ). For *E. salvelini* a second-order polynomial term significantly improved model fit (Fig. 3), whereas the association between *Crepidostomum* sp. and fish size was linear (Fig. 3). The two parasites were not correlated (Spearman rank correlation = 0.06, P = 0.44) and differed in their abundance range (*E. salvelini* range 0 - 54, *Crepidostomum* sp. range 0 - 496). On average, when keeping all other predictors constant, an increase of 10 *Crepidostomum* was associated with a 1.2 mm increase in length. The association between length and *E. salvelini* abundance was concave, and positive until around  $\sim 30$  parasites, thereafter decreasing (Fig. 3).

### No associations were found between parasite infection and maturation probability

Logistic regression indicated no association between the abundance of any parasite species and Arctic charr maturation probability (Wald test, all P > 0.19). Following stepwise model

selection the final model included only age (Wald  $\chi^2 = 13.3$ , df = 1, P < 0.001), lake (Wald  $\chi^2 = 17.8$ , df = 4, P = 0.001) and sex (Wald  $\chi^2 = 9.4$ , df = 1, P = 0.002).

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### **Discussion**

We found no evidence of any negative associations between parasite abundance and Arctic charr growth rates. In contrast, there was a linear positive association between parasite intensity and growth rate for the trematode Crepidostomum sp.. For E. salvelini the association was concave and heavily infected fish were shorter than Arctic charr with moderate (~30 parasites) infections. However, these heavily infected individuals were still larger than average sized fish. Both Crepidostomum sp. and E. salvelini survive ~ 1 year in the fish (Thomas, 1958; Hernandez & Muzzall, 1998), and are therefore indicative of feeding over the last year. In experimental studies, Eubothrium salvelini can adversely affect the growth of salmonids (Boyce, 1979; Saksvik et al., 2001) including Arctic charr (Gerdeaux et al., 1995). This tapeworm can infect Arctic charr via both benthic and pelagic copepods as well as fish (Boyce, 1974; Poulin et al., 1992; Hernandez & Muzzall, 1998), and is therefore difficult to use as a trophic tracer (Knudsen et al., 2008, 2014). This was evident from our canonical correspondent analysis (CCA) where E. salvelini was associated with surface insects in the stomachs, which are not hosts for the parasite. The observed concave relationship could suggest that the presence of the parasite might be harmful at elevated intensities, e.g. through infected Arctic charr individuals having to allocate more energy to maintenance than growth.

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We expected a positive relationship between *Crepidostomum* sp. and Arctic charr growth rates because *Crepidostomum* spp. are small parasites (usually < 1 cm) with low pathogenicity to the fish (Awachie, 1968). The intermediate hosts for *Crepidostomum* are large benthic prey items,

insect larvae and G. lacustris (Soldánová et al., 2017). Arctic charr feeding on G. lacustris have high somatic growth rates (Hooker et al., 2017), and the positive association between Crepidostomum sp. and Arctic charr growth could indicate elevated consumption rates on these intermediate hosts. The linearity of the association suggests that the cost of high intensities of Crepidostomum sp. is negligible. However, the assumption that parasite intensity exactly represents transmission rates and thereby consumption rates of fish may be too simplistic. Fishes elicit both adaptive and innate immune responses towards helminths, but the success of these responses in preventing parasite establishment or expelling current infections is poorly understood (Alvarez-Pellitero, 2008; Dezfuli et al., 2016). Lysne et al. (2006) suggested that Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua L.) infected with the directly transmitted gill parasite Lernaecoera branchialis (L.) grew faster than uninfected cod because the latter group spent energy to avoid parasite establishment. A trade-off between immune function and growth have been observed in other animals (Van Der Most et al., 2011), including 3-spined sticklebacks (Barber et al., 2001). If such a trade-off exists for Arctic charr, the positive association between parasite infection and growth rates observed for Crepidostomum sp. and E. salvelini could be a result of slow-growing individuals allocating energy to immune functions rather than growth despite having high consumption rates.

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Diphyllobothrium spp. can live for several years in the fish and are considered harmful (Vik, 1957; Bylund, 1972). Because of its longevity, we expected this parasite to associate negatively with growth, since high parasite loads would be indicative of long-term exposure to the parasite. However, no evidence of negative association was found. Previous studies have suggested elevated mortality of charr infected with Diphyllobothrium, particularly for D. dendriticum (Henricson, 1978; Halvorsen & Andersen, 1984). We cannot address mortality rates in our data, but the reduced growth rates observed in Arctic charr experimentally infected with D.

dendriticum (Blanar et al., 2005) were not observed in the present study of charr from natural systems. However, because the majority of *Diphyllobothrium* spp. in Arctic charr in this watercouse probably are *D. ditremum* (Henriksen et al., 2016; R. Knudsen, unpublished data), we cannot rule out detrimental effects of *Diphyllobothrium* on Arctic charr from systems where the relative abundance of *D. dendriticum* is higher.

Cyathocephalus truncatus and Proteocephalus sp. were the least prevalent parasite species across all lakes. Thus, the sample size of infected fish was much reduced, and a larger sample may have been required to detect any significant associations. Proteocephalus sp. was only abundant in lake Lille Rosta, where the Arctic charr population feed mainly in the pelagic (Knudsen et al., 2010, present study). The parasite resides in the intestine of Arctic charr, and probably lives for up to 1 year in the fish (Scholz, 1999). Although not described as having deleterious effects on rainbow trout (Ingham & Arme, 1973), results from other fish species suggests that the pathogenicity of Proteocephalus species might vary between fish species and stages (Ingham & Arme, 1973; Joy & Madan, 1989; Sirois & Dodson, 2000).

Cyathocephalus truncatus, was only abundant in lake Vuoma, where the fish fed heavily on benthic prey items, mostly *G. lacustris*. Although previously described as highly pathogenic (Vik, 1958), we did not observe a negative association with Arctic charr growth. *Cyathocephalus truncatus* only lives for 2 months in the fish (Vik, 1958; Amundsen et al., 2003) and the correlative approach used in the present study is problematic because the infection history of each Arctic charr individual is unknown. It is worth noting that we caught four large (34 – 37 cm) 6-year old individuals in lake Vuoma that, despite having fed heavily on the intermediate host *Gammarus lacustris*, had very low *C. truncatus* infections. Considering

that Arctic charr exposed to high parasite intensities can develop an immune response to prevent future establishment of *C. truncatus*. For instance, reduced parasite establishment rates were seen for rainbow trout repeatedly infected with *Diplostomum spathaceum* (Rudolphi, 1819) (Stables & Chappell, 1986; Höglund & Thuvander, 1990). An important factor to consider is that diet and parasite infections vary seasonally in Arctic charr (Amundsen et al., 2003; Knudsen et al., 2008). Lake Vuoma was sampled in April and May by ice-fishing, whereas the four other lakes were sampled in August using gill-nets. It is possible that the different sampling periods (month and year) and methods could have influenced our results.

We expected that heavy parasite loads would delay maturity because there is a trade-off between investments in immune responses and reproductive effort (Nordling et al., 1998; Lochmiller & Deerenberg, 2000). It has previously been shown that *Diphyllobothrium* spp. can inhibit gonadal development at elevated infection intensities (Curtis, 1984). However, if individuals invest in reproduction at the cost of immune defense one would expect that mature individuals suffer higher parasite infections. For instance, the cost of reproduction is associated with immune suppression in male Arctic charr (Skarstein et al., 2001). Despite this, we could not detect any negative or positive effects of parasite intensity on maturation probability. It could be that the scale we used was too coarse-grained, and that potential effects manifest in egg numbers or egg size, rather than the timing of maturation.

The results of the present study substantiate the complex nature of the host-parasite relationship where the effects of parasites on hosts from wild populations are difficult to predict, particularly for parasites that are trophically transmitted. More long-term studies are needed to investigate

effects of parasites on Arctic charr at the population level. Some of the parasites in the present study (e.g. *E. salvelini* and *C. truncatus*) are known to manipulate the intermediate host to facilitate predation from the final fish host (Poulin et al., 1992; Knudsen et al., 2001). Lafferty (1992) suggested that if the strength of the manipulation is strong enough and the cost of the parasite is relatively benign, such parasites may induce a net positive effect on their host. The Arctic charr, with its highly plastic growth rates (Klemetsen, 2013), might be an ideal system for testing this in controlled feeding experiments in future studies.

### Conclusion

Whereas directly transmitted parasites have a negative effect on their fish host (e.g. Johnsen & Jensen, 1991; Krkosek et al., 2013), the association is not straightforward for trophically transmitted parasites. Although laboratory studies using experimental infections will show negative effects of parasites on fish growth, the situation in natural systems may be quite different. This is because high consumption rates, the behavior associated with acquiring parasite infections, is beneficial to the fish. Therefore, potential negative effects on fish growth could be mitigated by a positive effect of higher feeding rates that translates into elevated infections with trophically transmitted parasites. Parasite infections observed in the present study have been assimilated over a period between some months up to a few years. Growth, however, has varied over the lifespan of the host (up to 6 years in the present study). It is therefore problematic to draw lines between cause and effect. An experimental approach where the relationship between food consumption, parasite infection, immunity and other physiological parameters is tested properly clearly deserves attention in future work.

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**Tables** 

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the five study lakes from the Målselv river system.

Lake name	Location	Altitude (m)	Surface Area	Max. depth	Fish
	(Lat, Lon)				community
Fjellfrøsvatn	69°05′N,	125	$6.5 \text{ km}^2$	80 m	AC, BT
	19°20′E				
Lille Rostavatn	69°00′N,	102	12.9 km <sup>2</sup>	92 m	AC, BT, B, G,
	19°35′E				AS, CM
Moskanjavri	68°92´N,	595	1.8 km <sup>2</sup>	< 15 m	AC, BT, B
	20°19′E				
Takvatn	69°07′N,	214	15.0 km <sup>2</sup>	80 m	AC, BT, TS
	19°05 Έ				
Vuomajavri	68°67′N,	709	1.3 km <sup>2</sup>	< 15 m	AC
	19°51Æ				

AC = Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus*), BT = brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), B = burbot (*Lota lota*), AS = Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*), CM = common minnow (*Phoxinus phoxinus*), G = grayling (*Thymallus thymallus*), TS = three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*).

**Table 2.** Prevalence (P) and mean abundance (MA, standard error in parentheses) of the five different parasite species in Arctic charr from the five study lakes (n = number of Arctic charr examined). Lake abbreviatons: FF = Fjellfrøsvatn, LR = Lille Rostavatn, MO = Moskanjavri, TA = Takvatn, VU = Vuoma. *Diphyllobothrium* spp. abbreviated to *Diph.* spp.

		Prevalence					Mean abundance (SE)				
Lake	n	Crep	Cyat	Diph	Eub	Prot	Crep	Cyat	Diph	Eub	Prot
FF	54	68.5	3.7	68.5	96.3	9.3	24.6 (9.9)	0.1 (0.1)	4.6 (0.9)	11.5 (1.5)	0.1 (0.1)
LR	33	36.4	3.0	97.0	69.7	93.9	9.9 (8.5)	0.1 (0.1)	84.3 (14.0)	1.7 (0.4)	124.5 (20.3)
MO	18	100	5.6	33.3	88.9	0.0	44.1 (11.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.9 (0.6)	12.9 (2.8)	-
TA	48	62.5	4.2	53.2	95.8	6.3	12.3 (2.6)	<0.1 (<0.1)	2.0 (0.4)	10.7 (1.0)	<0.1 (0.1)
VU	40	90.0	97.5	20.0	0.0	0.0	58.5 (14.4)	29.5 (4.7)	0.3 (0.1)	-	-

**Table 3.** Summary statistics from multiple regression model predicting Arctic charr fork length. Full model summary: Residual standard error = 24.35 on 178 degrees of freedom, adjusted  $r^2 = 0.65$ ,  $F_{8,178} = 24.35$ , P < 0.001.

Predictor variable	Coefficient (SE)	t value	P value
E. salvelini	3.20 (0.60)	5.35	< 0.001
E. salvelini ^2	-0.05 (0.01)	-3.44	< 0.001
Crepidostomum sp.	0.12 (0.03)	4.16	< 0.001
Age	15.50 (2.64)	5.86	< 0.001
Lake Lille Rosta	44.86 (6.31)	7.11	< 0.001
Lake Moskanjavri	51.79 (6.80)	7.61	< 0.001
Lake Takvatn	-16.79 (5.23)	-3.21	0.002
Lake Vuoma	-15.93 (6.67)	-2.39	0.018

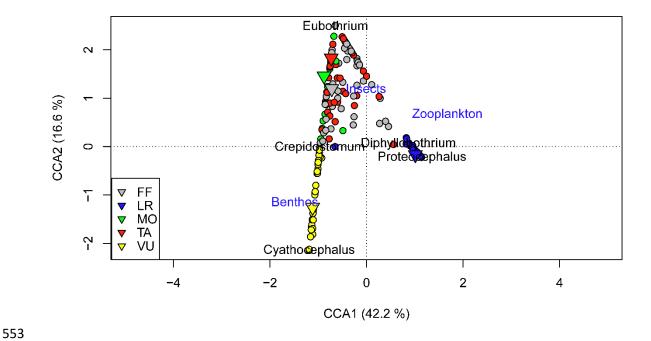
### Figure legends

**Figure 1.** Canonical correspondence analysis of parasite abundances (*Crepidostomum* sp, *Cyathocephalus truncatus*, *Diphyllobothrium* spp., *Eubothrium salvelini* and *Proteocephalus* sp.) as a function of lake and charr diet: benthos, insects (surface) or plankton. Individual Arctic charr are given as circle, the mean for each lake is given as large triangle. The two primary axes accounted for 95.9 % of the total inertia (61.3 %) explained by the model. Lake abbreviatons: FF = Fjellfrøsvatn (gray), LR = Lille Rostavatn (blue), MO = Moskanjavri (green), TA = Takvatn (red), VU = Vuoma (yellow).

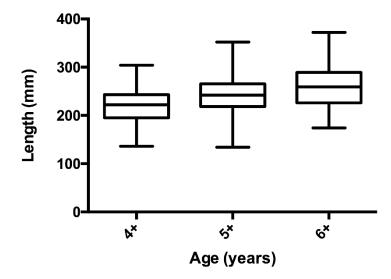
**Figure 2.** Variation in size distributions of the three age classes of Arctic charr examined. All five study lakes are pooled together. Boxplots show median (bold line), upper and lower quartiles (boxes) and 95 % confidence levels (whiskers).

**Figure 3.** Predicted relationship between Arctic charr length and the abundance of (a) *Eubothrium salvelini* and (b) *Crepidostomum* sp. from the multiple regression analysis. Mean values for age and lake were set to Fjellfrøsvatn. Stipled lines indicate the standard error of the mean. The average size of Fjellfrøsvatn Arctic charr is given by the dotted line.

### Figure 1



## **Figure 2**



**Figure 3** 

