

Long-term temporal trends in gastrointestinal parasite infection in wild Soay sheep

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1 **Summary**

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3 Monitoring the prevalence and abundance of parasites over time is important for addressing
4 their potential impact on host life-histories, immunological profiles, and their influence as a
5 selective force. Only long-term ecological studies have the potential to shed light on both the
6 temporal trends in infection prevalence and abundance and the drivers of such trends,
7 because of their ability to dissect drivers that may be confounded over shorter time scales.

8 Despite this, only a relatively small number of such studies exist. Here, we analysed
9 changes in the prevalence and abundance of gastrointestinal parasites in the wild Soay
10 sheep population of St Kilda across 31 years. The host population density has increased
11 across the study, and population density is known to increase parasite transmission, but we
12 found that density and year explained temporal variation in parasite prevalence and
13 abundance independently. Prevalence of both strongyle nematodes and coccidian
14 microparasites increased during the study, and this effect varied between lambs, yearlings
15 and adults. Meanwhile, abundance of strongyles was more strongly linked to host density
16 than to temporal (yearly) dynamics, while abundance of coccidia showed a strong temporal
17 trend without any influence of density. Strikingly, coccidian abundance increased threefold
18 across the course of the study in lambs, while increases in yearlings and adults were
19 negligible. Our decades-long, intensive, individual-based study will enable the role of
20 environmental change and selection pressures in driving these dynamics to be determined,
21 potentially providing unparalleled insight into the drivers of temporal variation in parasite
22 dynamics in the wild.

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24 **Key words:** Coccidia, epidemiology, global change, helminths, host-parasite interactions,
25 host-parasite dynamics, *Ovis aries*, strongyle nematodes, wildlife disease.

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30 **Key findings**

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32 • We studied temporal trends in gastrointestinal parasites of wild sheep over 31 years

33 • Year and host population density explained temporal variation in parasites independently

34 • Prevalence of both strongyle nematodes and coccidia varied across the study period

35 • Abundance of strongyles was more closely linked to host density than year

36 • Abundance of coccidia increased threefold over time in lambs, but did not vary in adults

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57 **Introduction**

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59 Parasite infections are widely known to follow seasonal patterns, with variation in prevalence
60 and abundance of parasites apparent within each year (Altizer *et al.*, 2006). This seasonality
61 is known to be driven by a number of factors, including climatic effects on parasite
62 development and mortality, host physiology or behaviour, or seasonal variability in the
63 availability of naïve hosts (Cizauskas *et al.*, 2015; Halvorsen *et al.*, 1999; Haukisalmi &
64 Henttonen, 1990; Haukisalmi *et al.*, 1988; Montgomery & Montgomery, 1988; Pelletier *et al.*,
65 2005; Rossin *et al.*, 2010; Turner & Getz, 2010). Much less well understood is how parasite
66 communities change across years, and specifically the extent to which parasites show long-
67 term temporal trends in prevalence (the proportion of the host population that they infect) or
68 abundance (the number of individual parasites harboured per host). Long-term studies of
69 wild animal populations have frequently found evidence for variation and trends in population
70 size across time (Andreassen *et al.*, 2021; Armitage, 2012; Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2004;
71 Crawley *et al.*, 2021), and trends in phenological traits such as timing of breeding (Bonnet *et*
72 *al.*, 2019; Charmantier *et al.*, 2008), morphological traits (Ozgul *et al.*, 2009), and sexually-
73 selected traits (Evans & Gustafsson, 2017). Given these long-term trends in host dynamics,
74 one would expect similar temporal effects to apply to their parasites, but the link between
75 long-term host and parasite dynamics is not well-understood. Similar long-term monitoring of
76 the prevalence and abundance of parasites is important for addressing their potential impact
77 on host life-histories, immunological profiles, and their influence as a selective force on host
78 populations (Babayan *et al.*, 2018; Hudson *et al.*, 1998). Such long-term changes may be
79 linked to a number of drivers, including: climatic variation (Haukisalmi & Henttonen, 1990;
80 Huntley *et al.*, 2014), since the development of transmission stages and vectors may be
81 temperature- and moisture-dependent (Nordenfors *et al.*, 1999; O'Connor *et al.*, 2006; Rose
82 *et al.*, 2014); changes in host demography, for example if more vulnerable host age or sex
83 classes change in relative abundance; or changes in selection on host immune function
84 and/or related traits. Only long-term studies offer the power to identify temporal trends in

85 parasite prevalence and abundance and determine their drivers, and indeed the power of
86 studies to make inferences about the impact of diseases on host health, fitness and
87 population dynamics is positively associated with their duration (Barroso *et al.*, 2021).

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89 The prevalence and abundance of many common and rare parasite species has been
90 shown to be remarkably stable across years in studies of wild rodent populations (Bajer *et*
91 *al.*, 2004; Behnke *et al.*, 2018; Behnke *et al.*, 2008; Haukisalmi *et al.*, 1988; Knowles *et al.*,
92 2013). Where temporal variation does occur, it appears to consist of fluctuations between
93 years rather than consistent trends across time (Behnke *et al.*, 1999; Grzybek *et al.*, 2015;
94 Haukisalmi & Henttonen, 2000; Irvine *et al.*, 2000; Lachish *et al.*, 2011; Peet *et al.*, 2022). In
95 some cases, however, both colonisation of hosts by novel species and extinction of
96 previously prevalent species have been reported (Grzybek *et al.*, 2015; Kennedy *et al.*,
97 2001; Lyndon & Kennedy, 2001). The majority of these studies take place across a
98 maximum of 10 years, and use destructive sampling of a relatively small number of hosts in
99 order to identify and enumerate the species present. Two recent studies have, however,
100 found evidence for consistent temporal trends in parasite prevalence and abundance. In a
101 26-year study of the helminth fauna of a population of wood mice (*Apodemus sylvaticus*) in
102 NE England, the parasite community was dominated by the nematode *Heligmosomoides*
103 *polygyrus*, which showed a marked decline in prevalence and abundance across the study
104 period, patterns that were not observed for other parasite species in the system (Behnke *et*
105 *al.*, 2021). Further, a similar decline in *H. polygyrus* faecal egg count was observed over 6
106 years in *A. sylvaticus* populations in NW England (Sweeny *et al.*, 2021). These studies may
107 have been able to detect these temporal trends because of their sampling regimes, which
108 occurred over a long time scale (Behnke *et al.*, 2021) or were non-destructive (Sweeny *et*
109 *al.*, 2021), both leading to a larger sample size and hence potentially greater power to detect
110 consistent temporal trends. Perhaps most importantly, both studies returned to the same
111 sampling sites every year, while many destructive sampling studies sample intermittently,
112 leaving gaps in the data in order to enable host populations to recover. The lack of evidence

113 for temporal trends may therefore stem from a combination of relatively small sample sizes,
114 short time spans and intermittent sampling. Studies sampling sufficient individuals
115 consistently at the same sites across a longer period would therefore seem to offer the
116 greatest ability to discern temporal variation.

117
118 In addition to changes in the prevalence and mean abundance of parasites, temporal
119 changes in the distribution of parasites among individuals across time may also be important
120 (Grenfell *et al.*, 1995; Haukisalmi & Henttonen, 1999). Generally, only hosts with the highest
121 parasite burdens will experience fitness effects (although tolerance of infection may play a
122 role in mitigating this), and the number and proportion of hosts to which this applies will
123 depend on the distribution of parasites across the host population (Poulin & Vickery, 1993).
124 Parasites tend to follow a negative binomial distribution among hosts, the shape of which
125 dictates that the majority of hosts have relatively few parasites and a long 'tail' of a few hosts
126 with high parasite burdens (Haukisalmi, 1986; Wilson *et al.*, 2002; Woolhouse *et al.*, 1997).
127 The negative binomial distribution is characterised by the aggregation parameter k , and as k
128 increases, the distribution becomes essentially Poisson or random. Thus, as k increases a
129 greater proportion of the hosts fall into the tail of the distribution with high burden and
130 parasites may be more likely to act as a regulatory factor for hosts (Anderson & May, 1978;
131 May & Anderson, 1978). Variation in k across time may be generated through a number of
132 processes that may serve to reduce aggregation, such as parasite mortality and parasite-
133 induced host mortality, and increase it, such as heterogeneity in host resistance to infection
134 as a result of genes or the environment (Anderson & Gordon, 1982). Determining if, for
135 example, parasite distributions are becoming more or less aggregated across time may help
136 us to determine which of these processes are occurring in a given host-parasite system, and
137 lead us to identify the ecological or evolutionary drivers.

138
139 In this study, we determined how parasite prevalence and abundance have changed over 31
140 years in the wild Soay sheep population living in the St Kilda archipelago, NW Scotland.

141 Since the study of this population began in 1985, longitudinal data have been collected on
142 the prevalence and abundance of several gastrointestinal parasite species, including
143 apicomplexan and helminth parasites, with an abundance of associated data on host
144 phenotype and environmental conditions (Clutton-Brock & Pemberton, 2004b). The sheep
145 population has experienced significant temporal change during this time, with average body
146 size declining (Ozgul *et al.*, 2009) and population size increasing along with grassland
147 productivity (Crawley *et al.*, 2021). The known impacts of gastrointestinal parasites on
148 condition and fitness in the Soay sheep (Craig *et al.*, 2008; Gulland, 1992; Hayward *et al.*,
149 2011) suggest that parasites may play a role in these dynamics, and the long-term nature of
150 the study and abundance of metadata make the Soay sheep an excellent system in which to
151 study long-term temporal trends in parasite infection and its drivers. Here, we take the first
152 step by describing temporal changes in four parasite taxa across 31 years.

153

154 **Materials and methods**

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156 *Study population and data collection*

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158 We collected data from the wild population of Soay sheep living on Hirta in the St Kilda
159 archipelago, NW Scotland (57°49'N 08°34'W). The population are descendants of early
160 European domestic sheep that were introduced to the island of Soay several thousand
161 years ago (Clutton-Brock & Pemberton, 2004a); in 1934-5, 108 sheep were moved from
162 Soay onto Hirta and the population has since expanded across the island. The population
163 living in the Village Bay area of Hirta has been intensively studied since 1985, with data
164 collected on births, deaths, morphometrics, genetics, parasite infections and abundance,
165 spatial use and environmental variation (Clutton-Brock & Pemberton, 2004a). Summer
166 population density is estimated by ten censuses of the population in August of each year;
167 any animal seen in any census is included in the population estimate (Fig. S1).

168

169 Since 1988, faecal samples have been collected and gastrointestinal parasite infection
170 quantified as faecal egg counts (FEC), using a modified version of the McMaster egg-
171 counting technique, accurate to 100 eggs per gram (epg) of faeces (M.A.F.F., 1986). Around
172 85% of the parasite data included in this study was collected by one of the authors (JGP).
173 The McMaster egg-counting technique has been shown to be a good index of actual parasite
174 burden in Soay sheep, both on St Kilda and elsewhere (Wilson *et al.*, 2004). The present
175 study exploits data collected in August of each year when animals were captured for
176 weighing, skeletal measurement and blood and faecal sampling. Faecal samples were
177 collected *per rectum* and stored at 4°C until processing, usually within a week of collection,
178 all of which took place on Hirta. The parasite fauna in Soay sheep is very similar to that of
179 domestic sheep on the mainland, with the notable exception of the nematode *Haemonchus*
180 *contortus*. Among the principal taxa are strongyle nematodes, a group of six species of the
181 gastrointestinal tract, namely *Teladorsagia circumcincta*, *Trichostrongylus axei*,
182 *Trichostrongylus vitrinus*, *Chabertia ovina*, *Bunostomum trigonocephalum*, and *Strongyloides*
183 *papillosus*. Since the eggs of these species are indistinguishable by eye, they are counted
184 as a single 'strongyle' FEC. The sheep also experience infection with 11 species of
185 apicomplexan microparasites of the genus *Eimeria*, the oocysts of which are again difficult to
186 distinguish by eye and which are therefore incorporated as a single 'coccidia' faecal oocyst
187 count (FOC). Strongyles and coccidia are by far the most prevalent and abundant parasite
188 taxa present on St Kilda (Craig, 2005). In addition, eggs of the nematodes *Nematodirus* spp,
189 *Trichuris ovis*, and *Capillaria longipes* are enumerated, and the presence or absence of eggs
190 of the cestode *Moniezia expansa* is recorded. Data on strongyles were collected 1988-2018,
191 while collection for the other taxa commenced in 1993; the exceptionally low prevalence
192 (<1%) of *T. ovis* and *C. longipes* meant that we did not include them in any of our analyses
193 (Table 1). Across the history of the project, several experiments have given anthelmintic
194 treatments to a small number of animals in order to determine the effects on parasite burden
195 and particularly survival and reproduction (Craig *et al.*, 2009; Gulland, 1992). Most of these
196 were long-lasting intraruminal boluses that released albendazole across several months and

197 which were shown to be associated with lower worm burden at death in the following spring
198 (Craig *et al.*, 2009). Our analyses aimed to quantify changes in the annual prevalence of four
199 of these parasite taxa (strongyles, coccidia, *Nematodirus* spp., *M. expansa*), and abundance
200 of strongyles and coccidia across the 31 years of the study.

201
202 *Statistical analyses*
203

204 All statistical analyses were conducted using R ver. 4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2021).

205
206 For each parasite group (strongyles, coccidia, *Nematodirus*, *M. expansa*), we first modelled
207 changes in prevalence across time. We fitted generalized additive mixed-effects models
208 (GAMMs) using the R package 'gamm4' (Wood & Scheipl, 2020). GAMMs fit non-parametric
209 smoothing terms for continuous explanatory variables, meaning that the response variable is
210 not restricted to following parametric forms (e.g. linear, quadratic). To determine the
211 temporal dynamics of infection, we fitted binomial models, such that each sample scored 0 if
212 the parasite was absent and 1 if it was present. We then tested a series of models to
213 determine how prevalence changed across the years of the study, and whether changes in
214 prevalence differed between age or sex classes. All models included individual animal
215 identity and year as random effects in order to account for repeated sampling of individuals
216 across years. We also included a categorical fixed effect ("Treatment") in each model to
217 account for anthelmintic treatments that were given as part of experiments in some years of
218 the long-term study. Animals given an anthelmintic treatment in the year prior to data
219 collection were scored as 1, while animals that did not receive a 0; only 133/6873 samples
220 (~2%) were associated with a treatment in our data set. We took this conservative approach
221 because of the long-lasting effect of treatments on worm burden (Craig *et al.*, 2009). All
222 models also included a 3-level categorical fixed effect for age group, distinguishing lambs
223 (animals aged ~4 months) from yearlings (animals aged ~16 months) and adults (animals
224 aged ~28 months and older), due to the generally higher prevalence and abundance of
225 parasites in younger animals (Wilson *et al.*, 2004); 37% of our data was from lambs, 15%

226 from yearlings and 48% from adults. All models included sex as a fixed categorical variable
227 with two levels (67% female; 33% male), and the interaction between age class and sex.

228

229 To this 'base' model, we then added fixed effects describing temporal trends as described in
230 detail in Table 2. Given the increase in population density (PD) across time (Fig. S1), and
231 the role of host density in driving parasite transmission, accounting for PD in our analyses
232 was essential. In models 1-8, we explored main effects of both year and PD, fitting models
233 with linear and/or non-parametric smooth terms for year and/or PD. Linear models tested for
234 directional trends, while smooth terms tested for non-linear variation across time. In all
235 models, year and PD were both standardised to mean = 0 and SD = 1 in order to aid model
236 convergence. In models 9-23, we then introduced interactions between smooth terms for
237 year and/or PD with age class, sex, or the combined age.sex category; we used smooth
238 rather than linear terms since the smooth simply reduces to a linear function if a linear
239 association is present. Each of models 9-23 always included smooth terms for both year and
240 PD, ensuring that any effects of either that we observed were independent of the other
241 variable. We compared the AIC values for each model, and considered models with lower
242 AIC values to be better supported by the data. Models within 2 AIC units of the best model
243 were considered to receive some support from the data, and this is reflected in our
244 presentation of results.

245

246 For strongyles and coccidia, we then repeated a similar analysis in order to identify temporal
247 patterns of abundance measured as FEC and FOC respectively, once again accounting for
248 PD. For both parasite groups, we used negative binomial models with a log link function in
249 'gamm4', where the variance is modelled as $\sigma^2 = \mu + \mu^2/k$, where μ is the mean and k is
250 the dispersion parameter. The dispersion parameter was estimated from the data and
251 provided to the model as a starting value. We fitted the same 23 models as described above
252 for prevalence and as shown in Table 3.

253

254 Finally, we tested for changes in three parameters describing the distribution of strongyle
255 FEC and coccidian FOC across time. For each year, we calculated the variance ($\sigma^2 =$
256 $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 / (n - 1)$), the dispersion index ($I = \sigma^2 / \mu$) and the negative binomial dispersion
257 parameter ($k = \mu^2 / \sigma^2 - \mu$), where x_i , μ and σ are the value for an individual sample i , the
258 population mean and the population standard deviation of FEC/FOC respectively, for that
259 year. We then fitted a linear model testing for linear and quadratic changes in each of these
260 parameters across time, accounting for PD. We then calculated age class-specific (lamb,
261 yearling, adult) parameters and tested whether these differed between age classes in their
262 distribution parameters across time, and then did the same for sex-specific parameters. All
263 associations were tested with Wald F-tests.

264

265 **Results**

266

267 *Temporal variation in prevalence*

268

269 The prevalence of strongyles was influenced by year and population density (PD)
270 independently. Of the main effect only models 0 to 8, the model with smooth terms for both
271 year and PD had the lowest AIC (model 8 $\Delta AIC = -2.30$ compared to model 4 with same
272 terms but no smoothing, Table 2). The model with the lowest AIC overall was model 15,
273 which fitted interactions between the smooth terms for both year and PD with age class
274 (Table 2). The model predicted an approximately linear increase in the prevalence of
275 strongyles in lambs and adults over time, with a curvilinear association in yearlings,
276 predicting an increase in 1988-1995, a decline towards 2010 and then stasis thereafter
277 (Figure 1A). In addition, the model predicted higher strongyle prevalence at higher host
278 densities, although the shape of this association varied among age classes: the model
279 predicted an approximately linear increase with PD in lambs, while in yearlings and adults
280 the model predicted steep increases in prevalence from low to moderate PD and relative

281 stasis at higher PD (Figure 1B). Models 16 and 17 had $\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$ and so were considered to
282 receive some support; they both supported the interaction between year and age, but also
283 provided support for interactions between PD and sex (model 16) and between PD, sex and
284 age (model 17). These results are presented in Fig. S2.

285

286 The prevalence of coccidia was only weakly influenced by year and PD. The model with the
287 lowest AIC value was model 1, which fitted just a linear effect of year (Table 2). The null
288 model, however, had a ΔAIC value of only +0.88, suggesting that the effect of year was only
289 marginal. Also within ΔAIC of 2 were models 3 and 4 (Table 2), both of which included main
290 effects of year. Models that included PD and interactions with age and sex fitted poorly.
291 Overall, there appeared to be a weak increase in the prevalence of coccidia across the study
292 period (Fig. 1C).

293

294 For both *Nematodirus* spp. and *M. expansa*, the best-supported model was the null model,
295 suggesting no strong influence of either year or PD (Table S1). Although the prevalence of
296 both varied between around 0.05 and 0.20 across the study period, neither linear trends nor
297 non-parametric smooth terms were supported (Fig. S3). As described above, both *T. ovis*
298 and *C. longipes* had mean prevalence of <1% and were not analysed (Figure S3).

299

300 *Temporal variation in abundance*

301

302 Strongyle FEC was largely associated with population density rather than year (Table 3). For
303 example, while models including year (e.g. models 1 and 4) generally had lower AIC than
304 the null model, this was not true once PD was added to the model (e.g. compare models 5
305 and 8). The best-supported model, with AIC -2.55 compared to the next-best model,
306 suggested that strongyle FEC varied with PD in a manner that varied between age and sex
307 classes (model 14). Broadly, males and younger animals had higher FEC than females and
308 adults, and the increase in FEC with increasing PD was greatest in lambs, while in yearlings

309 and adults there was a relatively weak positive association (Fig. 2A). There were also subtle
310 differences among the sexes, which may explain why this model fitted better than the solely
311 age-specific PD model 12 (Table 3). For example, among lambs, the difference between the
312 sexes was greatest at higher OD, while among yearlings, the difference between the sexes
313 was greater at lower PD (Figure 2A).

314

315 In contrast to strongyle FEC, coccidian FOC was chiefly associated with year rather than
316 population density (e.g. compare models 4, 5, and 8 in Table 3). The best-supported model
317 (model 11) had AIC -4.20 relative to the next-best model and supported variation in
318 coccidian FOC across years that varied between age and sex classes (Table 3). The most
319 notable pattern was the increase in FOC among lambs, with the model predicting around a
320 3-fold increase in FOC across the course of the study (Fig. 2B). Meanwhile, FOC in
321 yearlings and adults appears relatively stable across time. Looking more closely at the
322 model predictions, however, sex differences become apparent, which explain why model 11
323 was best-supported. For example, the increase in FOC across time appears to have been
324 slightly stronger in female lambs than in male lambs, while in yearlings and adults there
325 appear to have been slight declines across time in males and slight increases in females,
326 with a non-linear pattern apparent in adult females (Fig. S4).

327

328 *Abundance distribution parameters*

329 None of the distributional parameters for strongyle FEC changed across time, and nor did
330 changes across time vary between the sexes or age classes (Table S2; Figure 3A-C).
331 However, all three distributional parameters for coccidian FOC varied across time. Variance
332 in FOC increased with time (Table S3), but this increase was really only apparent in lambs
333 (Figure 3D), matching the increase in mean abundance that we saw. The variance-to-mean
334 ratio, also known as the dispersion parameter I , increased with time (Figure 3E), but this
335 increase did not differ with age class or sex (Table S3). Finally, although the aggregation

336 parameter k did not change with year as a main effect (Table S3), there was evidence for an
337 interaction with age class, such that the aggregation parameter decreased with time in adults
338 and especially yearlings but increased with time in lambs (Figure 3F).

339
340 **Discussion**

341
342 Long-term studies of wildlife disease are vital to enable us to understand how these systems
343 respond to individual, population and environmental change, and to separate the drivers of
344 host-pathogen/parasite dynamics (Barroso *et al.*, 2021). In this study, we describe the nature
345 of temporal trends in parasite infections in the Soay sheep of St Kilda across 31 years. Our
346 results show that the prevalence and/or abundance of two prevalent and pathogenic types of
347 parasite have changed across the study period in age- and sex-dependent ways.

348
349 Strongyles and coccidia are the most prevalent and abundant parasites infecting St Kilda
350 Soay sheep, and here we show that the prevalence of both, and the abundance of coccidia,
351 increased across time. These increases were over-and-above any effect of host population
352 density, which was positively associated with prevalence and abundance of most of our
353 parasite taxa, and which itself increased across time by around 5 sheep per year between
354 1988 and 2018 (Fig. S1; linear regression of density on year estimate $4.95 \pm 2.25\text{SE}$, $F=4.85$,
355 $P=0.036$). Furthermore, we accounted for host age and sex in our models, so these year-on-
356 year trends are independent of these factors. Previous studies of wildlife disease have
357 determined that changes in host population density can play a role in generating temporal
358 patterns of disease prevalence, such as the case of tuberculosis in European badgers
359 (*Meles meles*), red deer (*Cervus elaphus*), fallow deer (*Dama dama*) and wild boar (*Sus*
360 *scrofa*), which has increased across time in these populations at least partly in response to
361 host density (Barroso *et al.*, 2020; Delahay *et al.*, 2013; Vicente *et al.*, 2013). Due to the
362 particularly long-term nature of our study, we were able to disentangle effects of density and
363 year in our analyses, and found that both influenced prevalence and/or abundance of

364 strongyles and/or coccidia in an age-dependent manner. While prevalence of coccidia
365 increased with time in a roughly linear fashion, prevalence of strongyles increased linearly in
366 lambs and adults, but followed a non-linear trajectory in yearlings, with an increase in
367 prevalence early in the study followed by stasis thereafter. Meanwhile, although prevalence
368 of strongyles was high in lambs (94% overall), it still increased with host population density
369 in a linear fashion; in yearlings and adults, the pattern was more of an increase between low
370 and moderate density and stasis at higher density. Transmission is expected to be higher at
371 higher density in this population (Hayward *et al.*, 2009) and lambs at 4 months are likely to
372 be more susceptible to infection due to their less effective parasite-specific immune
373 responses compared to adults and yearlings (Sparks *et al.*, 2019). The linear association
374 between density and prevalence in lambs may reflect the fact that naïve lambs act as
375 “sentinels” of infection pressure (Hayward *et al.*, 2014), but once transmission reaches a
376 certain level in older animals, their acquired immunity may prevent further increases in
377 infection. This result was also reflected in that for strongyle abundance: lambs experienced
378 increased strongyle FEC at higher density, while the effect of density was much weaker in
379 adults and yearlings (Figure 2A). By far the most striking result was the marked increase in
380 coccidian FOC across the study period in lambs that was largely absent from yearlings and
381 adults (Figure 2B). Coccidian parasites can cause considerable clinical signs and pathology
382 in lambs from domestic sheep flocks. In these livestock systems, infection levels generally
383 peak just after weaning (Chartier & Paraud, 2012), which is just before we sampled the St.
384 Kilda Soay Sheep in August. If lambs also act as sentinels of coccidian infection, our results
385 suggest that infection pressure applied by coccidia has increased across the course of the
386 study independently of host density. Explaining the temporal trends we observed, and
387 particularly the striking increase in coccidia abundance in lambs, remains a task for further,
388 detailed, analysis, but several potential mechanisms could be involved.
389
390 When explaining long-term temporal trends in ecology, climate and specifically global
391 warming naturally spring to mind (Huntley *et al.*, 2014). Since the start of the Soay sheep

392 study in 1985, mean temperature across all parts of the year on St Kilda has increased by
393 ~0.03°C per year (Crawley *et al.*, 2021). Both strongyles and coccidia are directly
394 transmitted, and both temperature and moisture are associated with the survival and
395 development of strongyle larvae (O'Connor *et al.*, 2006; Rose *et al.*, 2014) and coccidian
396 oocysts (Makau *et al.*, 2017; Waldenstedt *et al.*, 2001) in the external environment. These
397 observations are reflected in the associations between (for example) warmer temperatures
398 and greater parasite abundances in other wild (Holand *et al.*, 2019; Mennerat *et al.*, 2019)
399 and domestic animal populations (Kenyon *et al.*, 2009; van Dijk *et al.*, 2009). Indeed, a
400 warming climate has been predicted to cause an increase in infection pressure by
401 gastrointestinal nematodes in domestic sheep (Morgan & van Dijk, 2012; Rose *et al.*, 2016;
402 Rose *et al.*, 2015; van Dijk *et al.*, 2008). Projected changes in precipitation are also likely to
403 play a role (O'Connor *et al.*, 2006). The availability of long-term climate data on St Kilda
404 (Crawley *et al.*, 2021), means that the role of climate in driving temporal trends in
405 parasitology can be thoroughly investigated in future analyses.

406
407 Another factor potentially explaining the temporal trends in parasite prevalence and
408 abundance could be changes in selection pressure in the population. Higher strongyle
409 burdens (in particular) are associated with reduced winter survival in Soay sheep, an
410 association that is restricted to lambs and absent in adults (Gulland, 1992; Hayward *et al.*,
411 2011). If selection has weakened such that lambs with less effective immune responses and
412 higher parasite burdens are now more likely to survive, increases in parasite abundance
413 may become apparent. This hypothesis is, however, somewhat troubled by the observation
414 that, despite the much lower strongyle-specific antibody levels in lambs compared to adults
415 (Sparks *et al.*, 2019), strongyle-specific antibodies are associated with survival in adult
416 females, but not in lambs (Sparks *et al.*, 2018). Selection on August FEC in lambs does vary
417 among years, with FEC being associated with survival in low-mortality years but not high-
418 mortality years (Hayward *et al.*, 2011). Temporal changes in patterns of selection have been
419 observed in other studies of wild populations: warming temperature can explain a shift from

420 selection for larger to selection for smaller forehead patch size in male collared flycatchers
421 (*Ficedula albicollis*) (Evans & Gustafsson, 2017) and weakening of selection on hatch date in
422 pied flycatchers (*Ficedula hypoleuca*) (Visser *et al.*, 2015). Despite all of these findings, no
423 formal analysis of temporal or environment-dependent variation in selection on
424 immunoparasitological traits has been conducted on the Soay sheep population.

425

426 We saw no evidence for changes in the distribution of strongyles across time, which was
427 perhaps unsurprising given that we found no change in mean abundance. We did, however,
428 observe variation in all three distributional parameters for coccidia (Fig. 3). An intriguing
429 result from the point of view of parasite epidemiology is the age-specific trend in the
430 aggregation parameter k for coccidian FOC (**Fig. 3F**), which suggests that FOC is becoming
431 less aggregated among lambs (increasing k) and more aggregated in adults and especially
432 yearlings (decreasing k), although the trends in lambs and adults are relatively weak. This
433 result broadly supports theory that predicts that aggregation should decrease as encounters
434 with parasites (i.e. the force of infection) increases (Gourbière *et al.*, 2015). Given that k
435 increases (and aggregation decreases) with the mean, it is perhaps unsurprising that we
436 saw this result in lambs, and visual inspection of the distribution of FOC in lambs suggests a
437 year-on-year reduction in aggregation (Figure S5). Where parasites are abundant,
438 increasing k places a greater proportion of hosts under potentially health-limiting parasite
439 burdens (Poulin & Vickery, 1993), suggesting that lambs are increasingly facing selection
440 pressures from coccidian infection. A major advantage of the Soay sheep system is that
441 hypotheses about selection on parasite resistance can be tested, thanks to the detailed data
442 on survival, reproduction and parasitology that have been collected across the decades
443 (Clutton-Brock & Pemberton, 2004a), plus a cache of stored blood samples that has been
444 interrogated for parasite-specific antibody responses (Froy *et al.*, 2019; Hayward *et al.*,
445 2014; Sparks *et al.*, 2019).

446

447 The strength of our study lies in its long-term nature: data have been collected at the same
448 time in every year since 1988, making it a rarity among studies of wildlife disease (Barroso *et*
449 *al.*, 2021). The longitudinal nature of the study has enabled us to identify temporal trends
450 and to separate them from effects of host density and demography. The next challenge is to
451 make use of the associated meta-data in order to identify the forces that are driving the
452 changes we have observed. On the other hand, the main weakness of our study lies in the
453 lack of parasite species-specificity in our data, which arises because of the difficulty of
454 distinguishing individual parasite species based on egg/oocyst morphology alone. The focus
455 has been on faecal sampling throughout the St. Kilda Soay sheep study largely because of
456 its non-invasive nature. Previous work on the Soay sheep has identified helminth species
457 based on adult worm morphology by necropsy of animals that died over winter (Craig *et al.*,
458 2006) and *Eimeria* species through labour-intensive sporulation of oocysts and identification
459 based on morphology (Craig *et al.*, 2007). These studies have provided intriguing results: for
460 example, while *Trichostrongylus axei* and *T. vitrinus* dominate the strongyle species in
461 lambs, *Teladorsagia circumcincta* is much more common in adults (Craig *et al.*, 2006);
462 meanwhile, *Eimeria* species diversity is high in lambs but declines with age (Craig *et al.*,
463 2007). It is currently impossible to determine which species are responsible for the temporal
464 trends observed here, but elucidating this is important, because of the different locales of the
465 parasites within the host, and their potentially different impacts on host health. Application of
466 new meta-barcoding techniques to both nematodes (Avramenko *et al.*, 2015) and coccidia
467 (Heitlinger *et al.*, 2017) could help in this regard.

468
469 Overall, our results provide evidence for temporal trends in the prevalence and abundance
470 of fitness-limiting parasites across three decades in a wild ungulate population. These trends
471 were generally stronger in the youngest and most susceptible animals in the population than
472 in older animals, and were absent for rarer parasite species. Decades of intensive,
473 individual-based study of this population, plus new data on parasite species identity, will
474 enable the role of environmental change and selection pressures in driving these dynamics

475 to be determined, potentially providing unrivalled insight into the drivers of temporal variation
476 in parasite dynamics in the wild.

477

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479

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803 **Tables**

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806 Table 1. Number of samples (N), host individuals (IDs) and summary statistics for the
807 parasite taxa analysed. The mean abundance of *M. expansa* is NA because only presence
808 or absence is noted.

809

Parasite	N	IDs	Prevalence	Mean abundance	SD abundance
Strongyles	6873	3326	0.739	392.35	836.84
Coccidia			0.912	4365.52	12971.89
<i>Nematodirus</i> spp.			0.125	41.25	146.85
<i>M. expansa</i>	6077	3008	0.091	NA	NA
<i>T. ovis</i>			0.005	0.68	11.96
<i>C. longipes</i>			0.007	0.81	10.15

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824 Table 2. A comparison of models describing temporal trends in the prevalence of strongyles
825 and coccidia in St Kilda Soay sheep. In the model terms list, “s(Year/PD)” indicates a non-
826 parametric smooth function was fitted to the variable inside parentheses. Note that both year
827 and PD (population density) were standardized to mean = 0 and SD = 1 to aid model
828 convergence. “ ΔAIC ” is the difference in AIC value between the model in question and the
829 model with the lowest AIC value, which is highlighted in bold. Models shaded in grey fall
830 within $AIC = 2$ of the best-supported model and are considered to receive some support from
831 the data.

832

Model	Terms	Strongyles		Coccidia	
		AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC
0	Null	6126.42	35.53	2675.48	0.88
1	Year	6116.49	25.60	2674.60	0.00
2	PD	6120.53	29.64	2676.88	2.28
3	Year + PD	6114.70	23.82	2676.18	1.57
4	s(Year)	6110.22	19.33	2676.60	1.99
5	s(PD)	6116.23	25.34	2678.88	4.28
6	s(Year) + PD	6111.42	20.53	2678.18	3.58
7	Year + s(PD)	6112.02	21.13	2678.18	3.58
8	s(Year) + s(PD)	6107.92	17.03	2680.18	5.58
9	s(Year):Age + s(PD)	6100.26	9.37	2686.51	11.91
10	s(Year):Sex + s(PD)	6110.94	20.05	2684.08	9.48
11	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD)	6109.60	18.71	2695.03	20.42
12	s(Year) + s(PD):Age	6093.03	2.14	2687.33	12.73
13	s(Year) + s(PD):Sex	6100.42	9.53	2684.19	9.58
14	s(Year) + s(PD):Age:Sex	6096.67	5.78	2698.63	24.03
15	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Age	6090.89	0.00	2693.94	19.33

16	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Sex	6091.70	0.81	2690.53	15.93
17	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Age:Sex	6092.86	1.97	2705.15	30.55
18	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Age	6096.98	6.09	2691.27	16.66
19	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Sex	6105.20	14.31	2688.01	13.40
20	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Age:Sex	6100.56	9.67	2702.47	27.87
21	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Age	6097.58	6.70	2702.54	27.94
22	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Sex	6103.05	12.16	2698.97	24.36
23	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Age:Sex	6098.77	7.88	2713.21	38.60

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853 Table 3. A comparison of models describing temporal trends in the abundance of strongyles
854 and coccidia in St Kilda Soay sheep. In the model terms list, “s(Year/PD)” indicates a non-
855 parametric smooth function was fitted to the variable inside parentheses. Note that both year
856 and PD (population density) were standardized to mean = 0 and SD = 1 to aid model
857 convergence. “ ΔAIC ” is the difference in AIC value between the model in question and the
858 model with the lowest AIC value, which is highlighted in bold.

859

Model	Terms	Strongyles		Coccidia	
		AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC
0	Null	85374.56	16.50	104487.40	28.90
1	Year	85370.87	12.81	104476.60	18.10
2	PD	85363.82	5.76	104489.40	30.90
3	Year + PD	85363.89	5.83	104478.20	19.70
4	s(Year)	85370.98	12.92	104478.60	20.10
5	s(PD)	85364.02	5.96	104491.40	32.90
6	s(Year) + PD	85365.89	7.83	104480.20	21.70
7	Year + s(PD)	85365.00	6.94	104480.20	21.70
8	s(Year) + s(PD)	85367.00	8.94	104482.20	23.70
9	s(Year):Age + s(PD)	85371.17	13.11	104464.80	6.30
10	s(Year):Sex + s(PD)	85369.77	11.71	104482.90	24.40
11	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD)	85382.67	24.61	104458.50	0.00
12	s(Year) + s(PD):Age	85360.61	2.55	104485.00	26.50
13	s(Year) + s(PD):Sex	85360.95	2.89	104483.00	24.50
14	s(Year) + s(PD):Age:Sex	85358.06	0.00	104496.40	37.90
15	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Age	85369.26	11.20	104468.90	10.40
16	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Sex	85368.43	10.37	104469.90	11.40
17	s(Year):Age + s(PD):Age:Sex	85366.66	8.60	104480.40	21.90

18	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Age	85366.18	8.12	104489.60	31.10
19	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Sex	85366.95	8.89	104487.00	28.50
20	s(Year):Sex + s(PD):Age:Sex	85364.06	6.00	104500.50	42.00
21	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Age	85380.51	22.45	104462.70	4.20
22	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Sex	85380.32	22.26	104463.40	4.90
23	s(Year):Age:Sex + s(PD):Age:Sex	85377.88	19.82	104474.40	15.90

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882 **Figure legends**

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884 Figure 1. Variation in strongyle prevalence across both (A) the study period and (B)
885 population density varied between age classes; (C) the prevalence of coccidia increased
886 across the study period in an approximately linear fashion. Points show raw mean
887 prevalence, while lines and shaded areas show predictions and standard errors from model
888 15 for strongyles and model 3 for coccidia in Table 2.

889

890 Figure 2. Generalized additive mixed-effects model-predicted variation in strongyle FEC and
891 coccidian FOC from the best-supported models in Table 3. (A) Variation in strongyle FEC
892 with population density in each of 6 age and sex classes; (B) variation in coccidian FOC
893 across time in the same age and sex classes. Points show raw mean abundance, while lines
894 and shaded areas show predictions and standard errors from model 14 for strongyles and
895 model 11 for coccidia in Table 3.

896

897 Figure 3. Temporal variation distribution parameters for (A – C) strongyle faecal egg count
898 (FEC) and (D – F) coccidian faecal oocyst count (FOC). Points show raw parameters
899 estimates from the data and lines show results of linear models $\pm 1SE$; lambs are in orange,
900 yearlings in red, and adults in blue.

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