

1 **Jessica L. Hite, Rachel M. Penczykowski, Marta S. Shocket, Alexander T. Strauss,**
2 **Paul A. Orlando, Meghan A. Duffy, Carla E. Cáceres, and Spencer R. Hall. 2015. Parasites**
3 **destabilize host populations by shifting stage-structured interactions. *Ecology* VOL:pp-pp.**

4

5 APPENDIX S1. Model derivation and results.

6

7 Here we present an *SIZA* model parameterized for our focal host-parasite system. This model
8 readily illustrates the parasite-mediated stabilization phenomenon (*HI disease stabilizes via host*
9 *mortality*, Figure S1) as shown previously for different epidemiology (Hilker & Schmitz 2008).

10 Our initial hypothesis (*HI disease stabilizes via host mortality*) envisions that disease
11 stabilizes Paradox-of-Enrichment-type host-resource cycles driven by prey escape (as proposed
12 by Hilker & Schmitz 2008). Disease is stabilizing because parasites increase per capita mortality
13 rate of hosts (averaged between infected and susceptible classes). This elevated mortality rate
14 then raises the minimal resource requirement of the host and diminishes its ability to depress its
15 resource so dramatically. Resources, in turn, reach higher densities; thus, their own negative
16 density dependence helps to stabilize the consumer-resource system. Without parasite-inflicted
17 mortality, consumers depress resources to low densities. At these low density levels, resources
18 experience very high per capita mortality. When they can increase, they experience ‘safety in
19 numbers’ (a strongly destabilizing form of positive density dependence). A model tailored
20 around the natural history of our zooplankton host-algal resource-fungal parasite system can
21 readily illustrate this parasite-driven stabilization phenomenon. The model tracks density of
22 susceptible (*S*) and infected (*I*) hosts, free-living infectious spores of the fungus (*Z*), and algal

23 resources (A) (largely following Cáceres et al. 2014 and Hurtado et al. 2014). The model is (equ.
 24 S1, see also Table S1):

$$25 \quad dS/dt = e f(A) A (S + \rho I) - d S - u f(A) S Z \quad (\text{S1.a})$$

$$26 \quad dI/dt = u f(A) S Z - (d + v) I \quad (\text{S1.b})$$

$$27 \quad dZ/dt = \sigma(A) (d + v) I - m Z - f(A) (S + I) Z \quad (\text{S1.c})$$

$$28 \quad dA/dt = r A (1 - A/K) - f(A) (S + I) A. \quad (\text{S1.d})$$

29 Here, susceptible hosts (dS/dt , equ. S1.a) increase due to births, where e is conversion efficiency
 30 of algal carbon into host carbon, $f(A)$ is ‘clearance rate’ from consumer-resource theory (see
 31 below), and ρ is fecundity reduction imposed by parasites (i.e., virulence on fecundity).

32 Susceptible hosts are then lost at background rate d and due to infection, where exposure is
 33 ‘clearance rate’, $f(A)$ (Hall et al. 2007), and u is per-spore susceptibility. Infected hosts then
 34 increase (dI/dt , equ. S1.b) due to these new infections, but then die at elevated rate $d + v$ due to
 35 virulence on survival (where v is the added mortality rate from parasites). Then, in the spore
 36 equation (dZ/dt , equ. S1.c), when infected hosts die, they release $\sigma(A)$ spores but are lost at
 37 background rate m (due to sinking, solar radiation [Overholt et al. 2012], consumption by other
 38 species [Hall et al. 2009c, Strauss et al. 2015]), etc.). They are also lost due to consumption by
 39 both infected and uninfected host classes. Finally, algal resources (dA/dt , equ. S1.d) increase
 40 logistically (where r is the maximal per capita growth rate, and K is the carrying capacity) but are
 41 lost due to consumption by both host classes.

42 In this model, algal density is connected to transmission in two fundamental ways. First,
 43 exposure to parasites equals ‘clearance rate’ from consumer-resource theory, $f(A)$:

$$44 \quad f(A) = f / (h + A) \quad (\text{S2})$$

45 where f is maximal feeding rate and h is the half-saturation constant of this type II functional
46 response. Clearance rate here is the per-prey — and per-spore — risk of being eaten, with
47 maximal rate f/h (when $A = 0$) that declines non-linearly as algal resources become more dense
48 (i.e., the safety in numbers that generates positive density dependence for the algal resource and
49 therefore drives consumer-resource cycles). Therefore, as algal resources become more dense
50 (higher A), per capita exposure to parasites, $f(A)$, drops. Second, parasite production (spore yield)
51 per infected host, $\sigma(A)$, increases proportionally to growth rate / birth rate of susceptible hosts
52 (Hall et al. 2009a,b, Hall et al. 2010):

$$53 \quad \sigma(A) = \sigma e f(A) \quad (S3)$$

54 where σ converts growth rate of hosts into parasite mass. Maximal spore yield is $\sigma e f$.

55 This *SIZA* model (equ. S1-S3), equipped with the type II functional response, readily
56 illustrates the parasite-mediated stabilization phenomenon (Figure S1) shown previously for
57 different epidemiology (Hilker & Schmitz 2008). As parameterized, the host without disease
58 (black lines, Fig. S1a) begins to oscillate (arrow) with its resource at lower carrying capacity (K)
59 than during an epidemic (grey lines, showing total host density, $N = S + I$). Once it oscillates, the
60 cycle amplitude (the difference between the maximal and minimal densities in the cycle) is
61 smaller with disease than without disease. Algal resources also begin to oscillate at higher K in
62 systems with parasites (Fig. S1b), of course, but mean algal biomass is also higher during
63 epidemics than without parasites. Higher mean algal density reduces the destabilizing positive-
64 dependence enjoyed by resources when they are more rare (i.e., when severely over-exploited).
65 Prevalence of infection, p (where $p = I / (S + I)$) reaches a high level, then begins to oscillate;
66 mean prevalence then declines with K (as the host oscillations increase: Fig. S1c). Mean per

67 capita death rate, \bar{d} , increases during epidemics relative to disease-free conditions (Fig S1d).

68 Mean per capita death rate is simply the weighted average of death rates for both host classes:

$$69 \quad \bar{d} = [d S + (d + v) I] / N \quad (S4)$$

70 and largely mirrors the prevalence pattern with increasing K . Thus, the increased parasite-
71 mediated per capita death rates of hosts delays the onset of cycling with K and produces smaller
72 host oscillations through time once they begin. Therefore, epidemics can stabilize host dynamics.

73 The example shown (Fig. S1) illustrates two other points, and then we must offer a
74 caveat. First, the examples show how a gradient of carrying capacity (K) in systems with disease
75 creates some problems for the spurious prevalence-instability mechanism (*H2: nutrient*
76 *enrichment destabilizes*). Imagine that higher nutrient supply (indexed by total phosphorus)
77 correlates positively with K (a completely reasonable assumption in lakes). We see how mean
78 prevalence first increases, then decreases with K . (Therefore, disease prevalence does not have to
79 increase with K *per se* once systems begin to cycle; Fig. S1a). Then, Panels A and C combined
80 show how higher mean prevalence does not have to necessarily correlate with higher cycle
81 amplitude (the difference between minima and maxima of cycles) since amplitude increases with
82 K . Thus, the enrichment-destabilization correlation (*H2*) makes common sense, but in this
83 particular model, it is not an inevitable outcome. Second, as a side note, we see a hydra effect
84 (Abrams 2009): host density during epidemics can be higher than host density without disease
85 when systems cycle (Fig. S1a). However, a caveat: we must note that the *SIZA* model (equ. S1-
86 S3) can produce other behaviors (described in detail by Hurtado et al. 2014). In particular, very
87 large oscillations of hosts without disease can inhibit successful invasions with disease. The
88 parameterized example does not show that behavior over the reasonable range of carrying

89 capacity, and we have never seen such behaviors in the field. Thus, we do not dwell on it here
90 (since it seems more like an exotic non-linear behavior rather than a practical result).

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111 **Table S1.** Description of state variables, parameters, and functions in the *SIZA* model (equ. S1-
 112 S3) used to illustrate *HI disease stabilizes via host mortality* (following Cáceres et al. 2014).

Symbol	Units	Meaning	Value
S	mg C/L	Susceptible host density	
I	mg C/L	Infected host density	
Z	mg C/L	Spore density	
A	mg C/L	Algal resource density	
t	days	Time	
d	day ⁻¹	Background death rate of hosts	0.05 ^a
e	-	Conversion efficiency	0.6 ^b
f	(mg C/L · day) ⁻¹	Maximal feeding rate	0.3 ^c
h	mg C/L	Half-saturation constant	0.2 ^d
K	mg C/L	Carrying capacity of resource	0.01-1.4 ^e
m	day ⁻¹	Background loss rate of spores	0.9 ^f
r	day ⁻¹	Maximal growth rate of algal resource	0.8 ^b
u	-	Per spore infectivity (susceptibility)	10 ^c
v	day ⁻¹	Added death rate due to infection	0.05 ^c
ρ	-	Fecundity reduction due to infection	0.9 ^c
σ	days	Spore release conversion parameter	15 ^c
\bar{d}	day ⁻¹	Mean death rate during epidemics (equ. A4)	

$f(A)$	day ⁻¹	Type II clearance rate: $f(A) = f/(h + A)$
N	mg C/L	Total host density: $N = S + I$
p	-	Prevalence of infection: $p = I/N$
$\sigma(A)$	mg C/L · day ⁻¹	Spore release: $\sigma(A) = \sigma e f(A)$

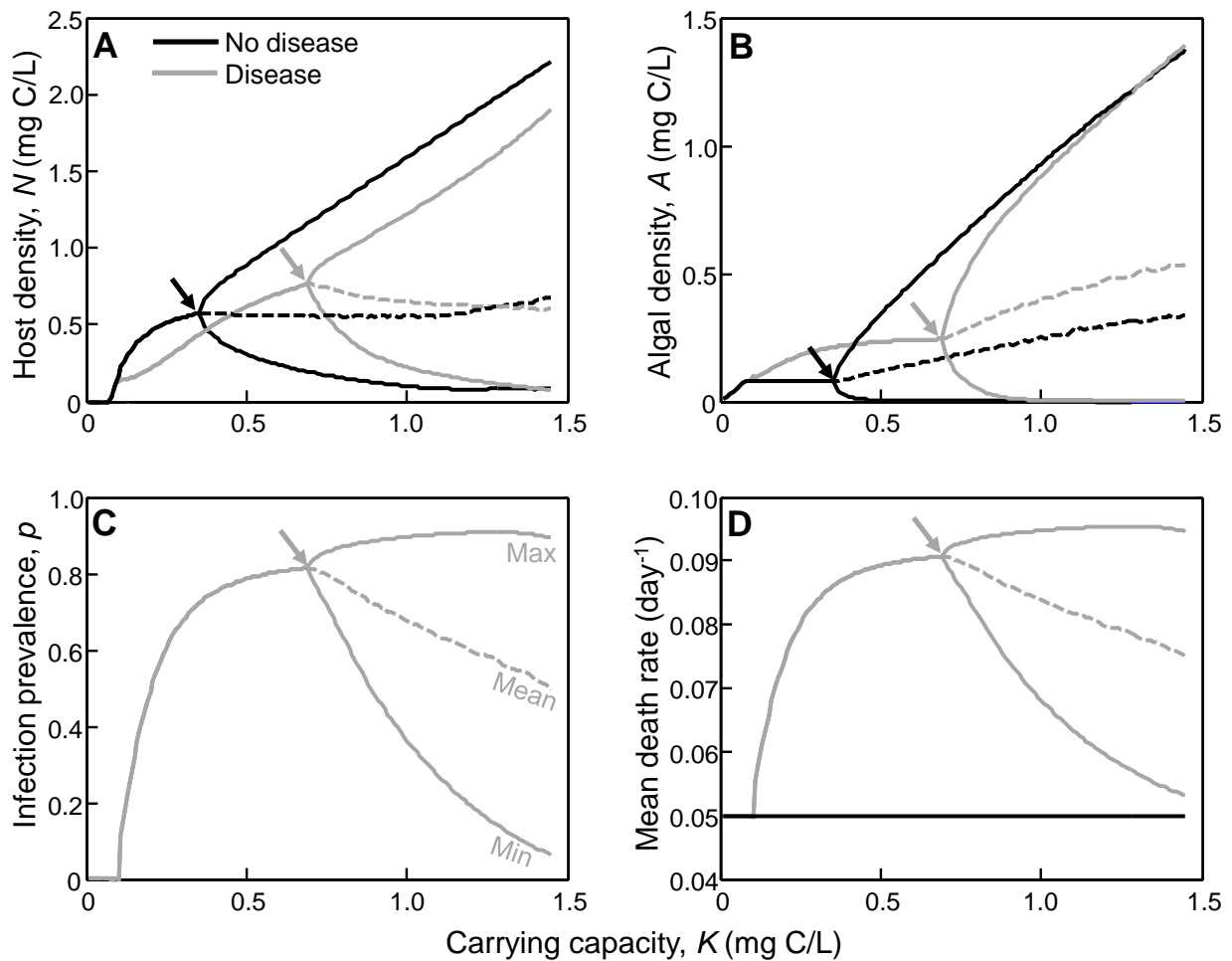
113 ^a Assuming a natural death rate plus some background mortality due to predation. ^b Reasonable
114 for higher quality algae (Andersen 1997). ^c Measured for adult sized hosts, converted to a per
115 carbon basis (Hall et al. 2009a, Hall et al. 2010). ^d Reasonable for focal host (Hall et al. 2007). ^e
116 A range relevant to the study lakes. ^f A high loss rate, envisioning high losses due to sinking,
117 solar radiation, and consumption by other species (Hall et al. 2009c, Overholt et al. 2012).

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121 **Figure S1.** Examples of the stabilizing effects of disease (*H1 disease stabilizes via host*
 122 *mortality*), illustrated with a one dimensional bifurcation diagram along a gradient of resource
 123 carrying capacity (K). The disease free example is in black; systems with epidemics are drawn in
 124 grey. Oscillations start at the arrows. Once they begin, maxima, minima, and means of cycles are
 125 shown (as labeled in panel C). (A) Total host density, N (where $N = S + I$); (B) density of algal
 126 resources, A ; (C) prevalence of infection, p (where $p = I/N$, or proportion infected); (D) weighted
 127 mean per capita death rate, \bar{d} (equ. A4).
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135 APPENDIX S2. Additional details regarding methods, results for the field survey and experiments,
136 and the effect of nutrient addition in the lake enclosure experiment on total phosphorous (TP)
137 levels, host density, and infection prevalence.

138

139 Here, we provide additional methods for birth rate calculations (field survey and experiments)
140 and for other aspects of the field experiment. We also show additional results from the lake
141 enclosure experiment for total phosphorous (TP), host density (integrated over the epidemic
142 season), and infection prevalence (integrated over the epidemic season).

143

144 **Methods: Birth rate calculations**

145 In the field survey, we calculated temperature-dependent birth rate in a way that
146 incorporates diel migration of the host. This species of host typically migrates below the
147 thermocline (into the ‘metalimnion’) of lakes during the day into deeper, colder, but still
148 oxygenated (> 1.0 mg/L dissolved O_2 [DO]) waters. Then, at night, it moves above the
149 thermocline into upper, warmer habitat (the ‘epilimnion’) (e.g., Duffy *et al.* 2005, Hall *et al.*
150 2005). Therefore, using temperature data, we calculated depth of the thermocline (during periods
151 of stratification) by: (1) converting temperature data into densities (following Chen and Millero
152 [1977]); (2) then calculating buoyancy frequency, $N = (g/\rho(d\rho/dz))^{1/2}$ [where g is acceleration
153 due to gravity, ρ is the mean density and $d\rho/dz$ is the vertical density gradient], at 0.1 m depths

154 by differentiating piece-wise cubic splines fit through the density-depth data (with pchip.m in
155 Matlab); and (3) finding the thermocline as the depth of maximum buoyancy frequency. We
156 found the oxygenation threshold (1.0 mg DO) using cubic splines fit through DO-depth data.
157 With temperature, thermocline depth, and oxygen threshold information, we calculated mean
158 development time in the oxygenated metalimnion (day, D_M) and epilimnion (night, D_E).

$$159 \quad D_M = \exp[\ln(a) + b \ln(T_M) + c (\ln(T_M))^2] \quad (\text{S1.a})$$

$$160 \quad D_E = \exp[\ln(a) + b \ln(T_E) + c (\ln(T_E))^2] \quad (\text{S1.b})$$

161 where T_M and T_E are mean temperatures in the metalimnion and epilimnion, respectively, and
162 coefficients $\ln(a) = 3.4$, $b = 0.22$, and $c = -0.3$ come from Botrell *et al.* (1977). Mean
163 development time at each lake-date, D_{ave} , is then just the weighted average of D_E and D_M :

$$164 \quad D_{ave} = \varphi_M D_M + \varphi_E D_E \quad (\text{S2})$$

165 where φ_M and φ_E are the proportion of time per day spent in the metalimnion and epilimnion,
166 respectively (taking into account waning of daylight as autumn progresses).

167 In the field exposure experiment, we used a simpler procedure. During the experiment,
168 University Lake was not stratified (i.e., the thermocline was weak), so we did not have to
169 account for temperature differences between habitat layers used during day and night. In the
170 indoor mesocosm experiment room temperature was maintained at approximately 22°C day and
171 night throughout the experiment. Thus, for these two experiments we calculated development
172 time, D , with a simpler form of equ. S1:

$$173 \quad D = \exp[\ln(a) + b \ln(T) + c (\ln(T))^2] \quad (\text{S3})$$

174 where we used mean water column temperature of the lake for T (field enclosure: temperature
175 decreased through time during the experiment) or $T = 22^\circ\text{C}$ (indoor mesocosm). We calculated
176 the average weighted egg ratio, E_{ave} , using data on infected and uninfected adult host classes.

177 Then, we calculated the population-level egg ratio, E_p , by multiplying E_{ave} times the percentage
178 of asexual females in the population. Finally, we calculated the per capita birth rate, b :

$$179 \quad b = \ln(E_p + 1) / D_{ave} \quad (S4)$$

180

181 **Additional Methods: Field enclosures**

182 The lake enclosure experiment also included a mixing treatment, where half of the
183 enclosures for each productivity x parasite treatment were mixed with a Secchi disk while the
184 other half were not. The effects of mixing on disease dynamics will be presented elsewhere
185 (Penczykowski et al., in prep *b*) We also had to exclude a total of 5 replicates from the analyses
186 for the following reasons: One replicate was accidentally contaminated with extra nutrients
187 during the first week of the experiment, in one replicate the host population crashed before the
188 experiment began, two replicates were infested with high densities of host predators resulting in
189 dramatic population declines, and one bag was destroyed by an anchor line malfunction.

190

191 **Additional Results: Field enclosures**

192 Nutrient additions significantly increased total phosphorous (ANOVA; N-effect: $F_{1,24} =$
193 27.46 , $p < 0.001$, Fig S1*a*) and were consistent across disease treatments (E-effect: $F_{1,24} = 0.09$, p
194 $= 0.76$; N x E: $F_{1,23} = 0.13$, $p = 0.73$). However, neither nutrient enrichment (N-effect: $F_{1,24} =$
195 2.43 , $p = 0.13$, Fig. B1*b*), disease (E-effect: $F_{1,24} = 3.40$, $p = 0.08$), nor their interaction (N x E:
196 $F_{1,23} = 1.23$, $p = 0.28$) significantly altered host density integrated over the course of the
197 epidemic. Epidemics tended to be higher in the enriched treatments. However, this effect was not
198 statistically significant (one-sided t-test; $t = 1.45$, $df = 8.27$, $p\text{-value} = 0.09$, Fig. S1*c*).

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200 **LITERATURE CITED**

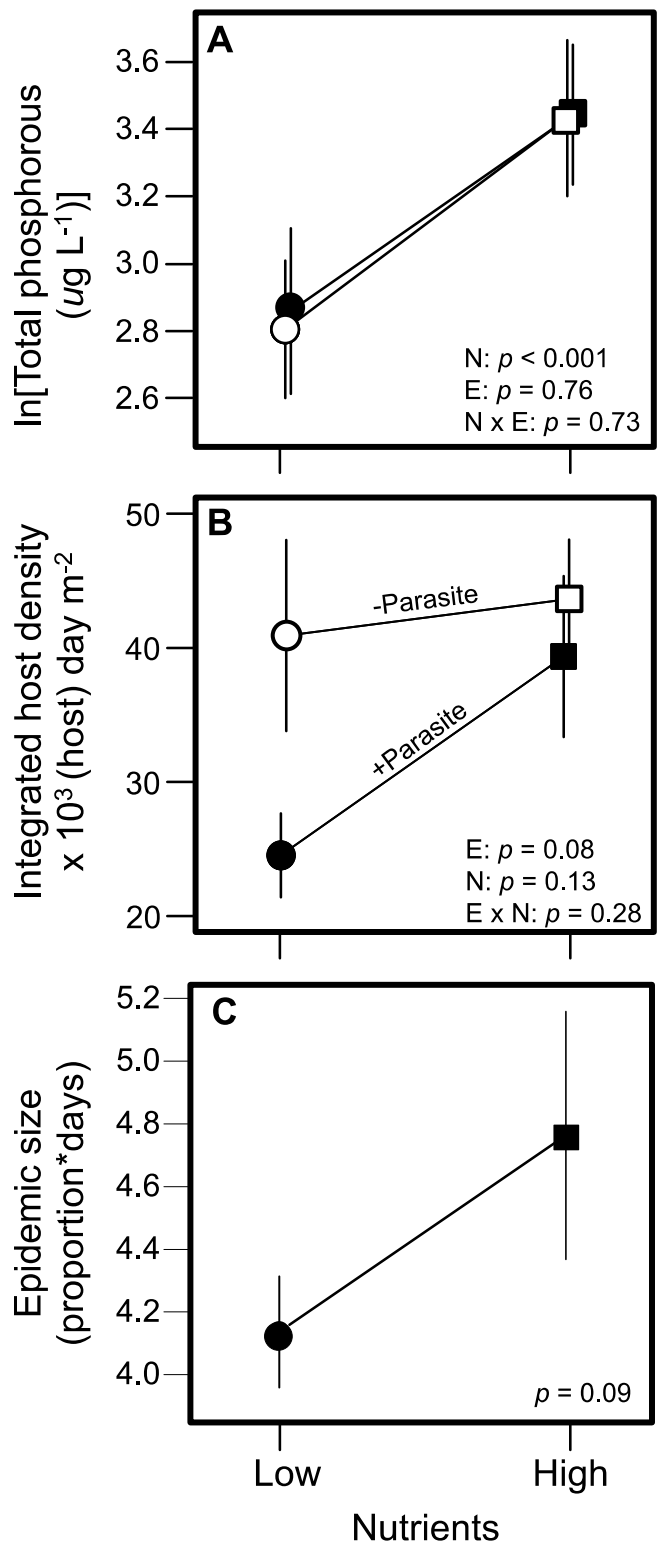
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213 **Figure S1.** Results from the lake enclosure experiment. (A) Nutrient additions consistently and
214 significantly increased total phosphorous (TP). (B) Neither nutrient enrichment nor disease
215 significantly altered host density over the course of the epidemic. *P*-values of ANOVA are
216 presented with “E” indicating epidemic effects, “N” indicating nutrient effects and E x N
217 indicating their interaction. (C) Epidemics tended to be higher in the enriched treatments.
218 However, this effect was not statistically significant. *P*-value is from a one-tailed t-test. Filled
219 symbols are + parasite treatments and unfilled symbols are – parasite treatments.

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