

# High prevalence of dermal parasites among coral reef fishes of Curaçao

Moisés A. Bernal · Sergio R. Floeter ·  
Michelle R. Gaither · Guilherme O. Longo ·  
Renato Morais · Carlos E. L. Ferreira ·  
Mark J.A. Vermeij · Luiz A. Rocha

Received: 26 August 2014 / Revised: 8 January 2015 / Accepted: 12 February 2015  
© Senckenberg Gesellschaft für Naturforschung and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2015

**Abstract** During expeditions to Curaçao in August and October of 2013, a large number of fish infected with dermal parasites was observed. Infected individuals presented black spots and white blemishes on their skin and fins that were easily observed by divers, and which have been associated with infections by trematodes, turbellarians, and protozoans (*Cryptocaryon*). In order to compare rates of infection across localities in the Caribbean, we conducted visual censuses of reef fish communities along 40 m<sup>2</sup> belt transects in Belize (n=35), Curaçao (n=82), and Mexico (n=80) over a 4-week period. Three affected individuals were recorded in Belize, 75 in Curaçao, and none in Mexico. Approximately 68 % of the infected individuals in Curaçao were surgeonfishes

(Acanthuridae). There was no correlation between incidence of infection and species abundance ( $r^2=0.03$ ), or with functional traits (diet, mobility, schooling behavior, or position in the water column). The causes of the strikingly high incidence of dermal parasites in Curaçao and its consequences remain unknown. However, considering that parasites with complex life cycles have several hosts throughout their lives, and that past disease outbreaks have had severe consequences on communities of the Caribbean, we caution that coral reef ecosystems of Curaçao should be closely monitored.

**Keywords** Tropical Western Atlantic · Caribbean · Infectious diseases · Metacercaria · Turbellaria · Marine fishes

---

Communicated by B. W. Hoeksema

**Electronic supplementary material** The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s12526-015-0322-z) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

---

M. A. Bernal (✉)  
University of Texas Marine Science Institute, 750 Channel View Dr.,  
Port Aransas, TX 78373, USA  
e-mail: bernal.moises@utexas.edu

M. A. Bernal · M. R. Gaither · L. A. Rocha  
Institute for Biodiversity, Science and Sustainability, Department of  
Ichthyology, California Academy of Sciences, 55 Music Concourse  
Dr, San Francisco, CA 94118, USA

S. R. Floeter · G. O. Longo · R. Morais  
Laboratório de Biogeografia e Macroecologia Marinha,  
Departamento de Ecologia e Zoologia, Universidade Federal de  
Santa Catarina, Florianópolis, SC 88040-900, Brazil

M. R. Gaither  
School of Biological and Biomedical Sciences, Durham University,  
South Road, Durham DH1 3LE, UK

C. E. L. Ferreira  
Departamento de Biologia Marinha, Universidade Federal  
Fluminense, Niterói, RJ 24001-970, Brazil

M. J. Vermeij  
Carmabi Foundation, Willemstad, Curaçao

M. J. Vermeij  
Aquatic Microbiology, Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem  
Dynamics, University of Amsterdam, 1090, GE  
Amsterdam, The Netherlands

## Introduction

Parasites are a major component of marine ecosystems (Kuris et al. 2008), affecting the survival (Finley and Forrester 2003), fecundity (Rosenqvist and Johansson 1995), and behavior (Barber et al. 2000; Poulin et al. 2005) of their hosts. They can also influence biodiversity and community structure by altering the outcome of competitive interactions between host species (Price et al. 1986; Poulin and Fitzgerald 1987) and can occupy vital links in local food webs (Grutter 1995; Cheney and Cote 2003). Thus, documenting and quantifying parasite–host interactions and occurrences is essential for improving our understanding of the dynamics of marine ecosystems. Yet, despite their importance, marine parasites have received little attention compared to their host organisms (i.e., fishes and corals), in part because they are often inconspicuous, specimen preparation requires expertise, and many groups are poorly resolved taxonomically (Justine 2010).

Studies on parasite abundance and diversity have typically focused on global patterns (Grutter 1998). These studies reveal that parasite diversity in aquatic systems varies predictably, with more species found in shallow waters (Rohde and Heap 1998) and near the equator (Rohde 1999; Luque and Poulin 2008). Taking this into account, shallow water habitats of tropical coral reefs offer a great opportunity to advance our understanding of the dynamics of host–parasite interactions in marine environments. A growing body of work in coral reef fishes has demonstrated dramatic changes in parasite density and diversity at small spatial scales. At a regional scale, a comparison between a pristine and a highly fished atoll revealed higher diversity and abundance of parasites in the former (Lafferty 2008). Within the same locality, Grutter (1998) found stark differences in the number of parasitic isopods between individuals inhabiting reef flats and reef slopes in the blackeye thicklip wrasse, *Hemigymnus melapterus*, at a scale of hundreds of meters. Other studies have revealed temporal differences in parasite density in the same area (Grutter 1994; Grutter and Hendrikz 1999). Due to these variations across spatial and temporal scales, parasites hold great promise as natural tags of coral reef fishes (Williams et al. 1992; Hutson et al. 2011), as well as indicators of ecological impacts on coastal communities (Lafferty 2008). However, most published studies have focused on the fish faunas of the Indo-Pacific, with fewer examples from the Caribbean.

With more than 815 species of coral reef fishes, the Caribbean is the biodiversity hotspot of the Western Atlantic (Floeter et al. 2008). Because parasite diversity can be at least 20 times higher than that of their fish hosts (Justine et al. 2012), there is great potential for variation in the interactions between parasites and their hosts in the Caribbean. During surveys in Curaçao, we noticed a remarkably high incidence of dermal parasites on coral reef fishes. Infections presented themselves as dark or white blemishes on the epidermal

tissues, which are usually associated with the presence of digenean metacercaria, turbellarians, and/or protozoan infections (Fig. 2, Fig. S1). These observations prompted additional visual surveys to assess the prevalence of parasites in Curaçao and to compare rates of infection of this island with two other locations in the Caribbean. With the exception of one individual of *Acanthurus tractus* (Fig. S1), no detailed histological work was done to identify the parasites causing the blemishes. As such, this study focused on comparing rates of infection of reef fishes with dermal parasites from three localities in the Caribbean (Belize, Curaçao, and Mexico) to determine which groups of fishes were most prone to infection and to test for correlation between functional traits (diet, mobility, schooling behavior, and position in the water column) and parasite load.

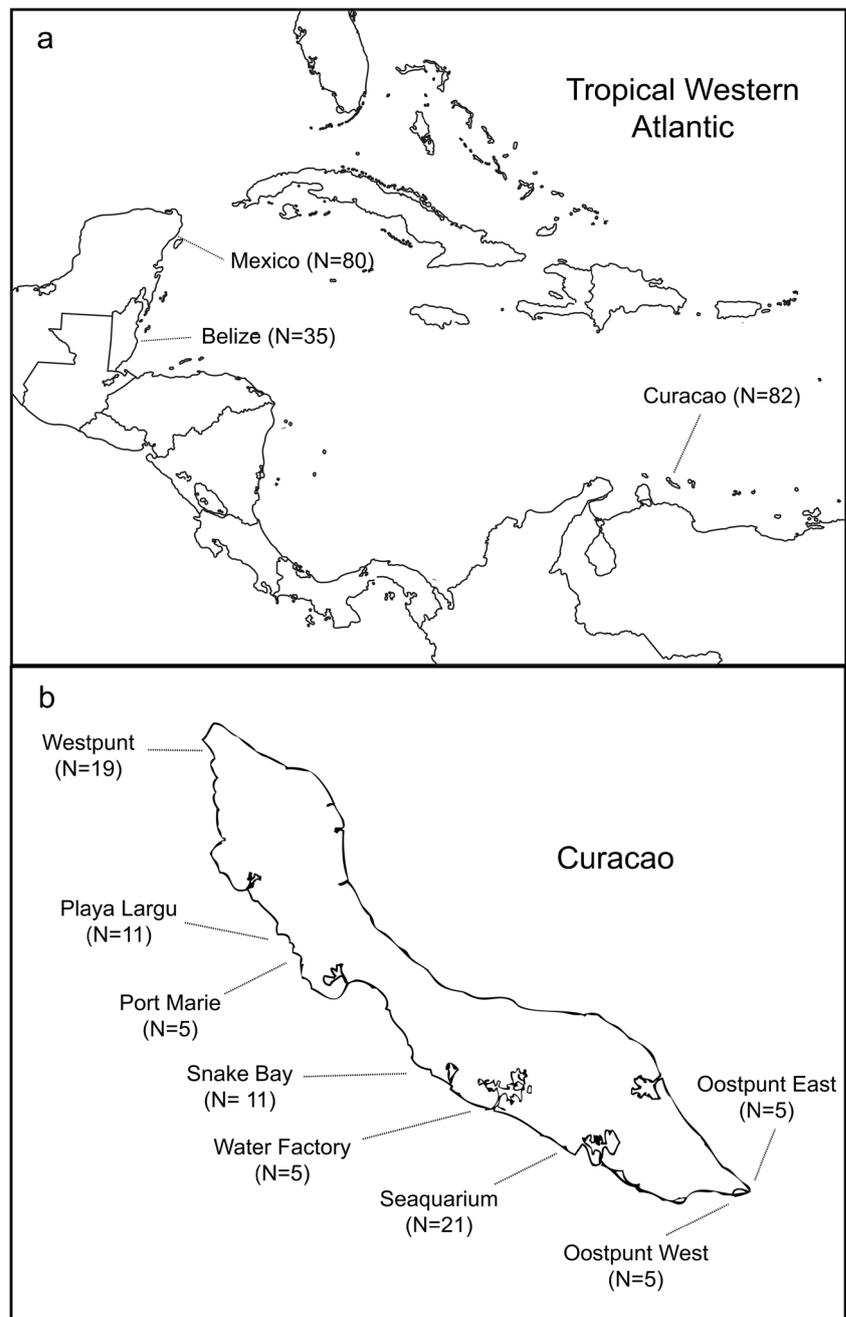
## Materials and methods

### Study sites

Visual counts of reef fishes were made between October and November 2013 in Belize, Curaçao and Mexico (Fig. 1). In Belize, visual surveys were conducted along 35 transects at depths of 3–12 m, comprising the reef slope (10–12 m), patch reefs, and shallow reef crest (3–6 m). The surveys were conducted October 7–10 at six sites around the Smithsonian Institution's field station at Carrie Bow Cay. These reefs are part of the Meso-American Barrier Reef system, forming a semicontinuous barrier reef parallel to the coast (Arias-Gonzalez et al. 2008). Surveyed reefs were relatively flat, with some sites dominated by octocorals (e.g., gorgonians), while others were characterized by higher complexity due to coral boulders (e.g., *Porites*). Some areas demonstrated low complexity and algal overgrowth, most likely due to human impacts.

In Curaçao, visual surveys were conducted October 26–31 along 82 transects at eight different sites on the southwestern edge of the island (Fig. 1b). All sites were located on the shallow plateau that begins at the waterline and gradually slopes down to 10 m (usually 50 to 100 m from the high watermark), from where it drops off quickly (Bak 1975; Van den Hoek et al. 1975). Due to the abrupt drop-off as well as the direct influences of the Caribbean Current (Fratantoni 2001), this island has a very distinct assemblage of coral reef fishes compared to other sites in the Caribbean. Approximately 50 % of the fish biomass consists of planktivores, and herbivores comprise 43 % (Sandin et al. 2008). There is a noticeable absence of large-bodied fishes, and apex predators represent only 7 % of the total biomass (Sandin et al. 2008). The slope and reef crest harbored most of the living coral cover, having great structural complexity. In these areas,

**Fig. 1** Map of the greater Caribbean with (a) the three locations where the surveys were made, as well as (b) the eight sites surveyed in Curaçao



scleractinian coral colonies were interspersed with large octocorals (e.g., gorgonians) and sponges. At most sites, the plateau comprised sandy substrate with scattered patch reefs and abundant coral rubble (mainly *Acropora cervicornis*). At two survey sites, the plateau was covered with large colonies of the coral *Acropora palmata*, the fire coral *Millepora complanata*, and gorgonians.

In Mexico, visual surveys were conducted November 13–15 along 80 transects in the Quintana Roo region at five sites along the reefs of Playa del Carmen and at two sites on

Cozumel. Surveys were at depths of 6–12 m in the coastal back reefs of Playa del Carmen and patch reefs of Cozumel. Like the reefs surveyed in Belize, these reefs are part of the Meso-American Barrier Reef system. The reefs along Playa del Carmen form large plateaus, which were dominated by octocorals (e.g., gorgonians), sponges, and algal turfs, interspersed with areas of low coral cover. The sites in Cozumel were characterized by extensive coral cover and high topographic complexity. All sites in Mexico are influenced by moderate to strong ocean currents, are in close proximity to

large tourist facilities, and are heavily used by the diving industry.

#### Underwater visual census

For each of the localities, replicated visual censuses were conducted by scuba divers using belt transects. Each transect was  $20 \times 2$  m, allowing for the observation of camouflaged or cryptic species (Floeter et al. 2007) as well as the clear observation of individuals with dermal infections. While laying out the transect tape, divers counted, identified, and estimated the size (total length in cm) of all fishes observed within the water column above the reef, whereas benthic, small, and cryptic species were recorded while rolling up the transect line on the return swim. Fishes that showed dark blemishes and/or white spots in the skin and fins were reported as infected

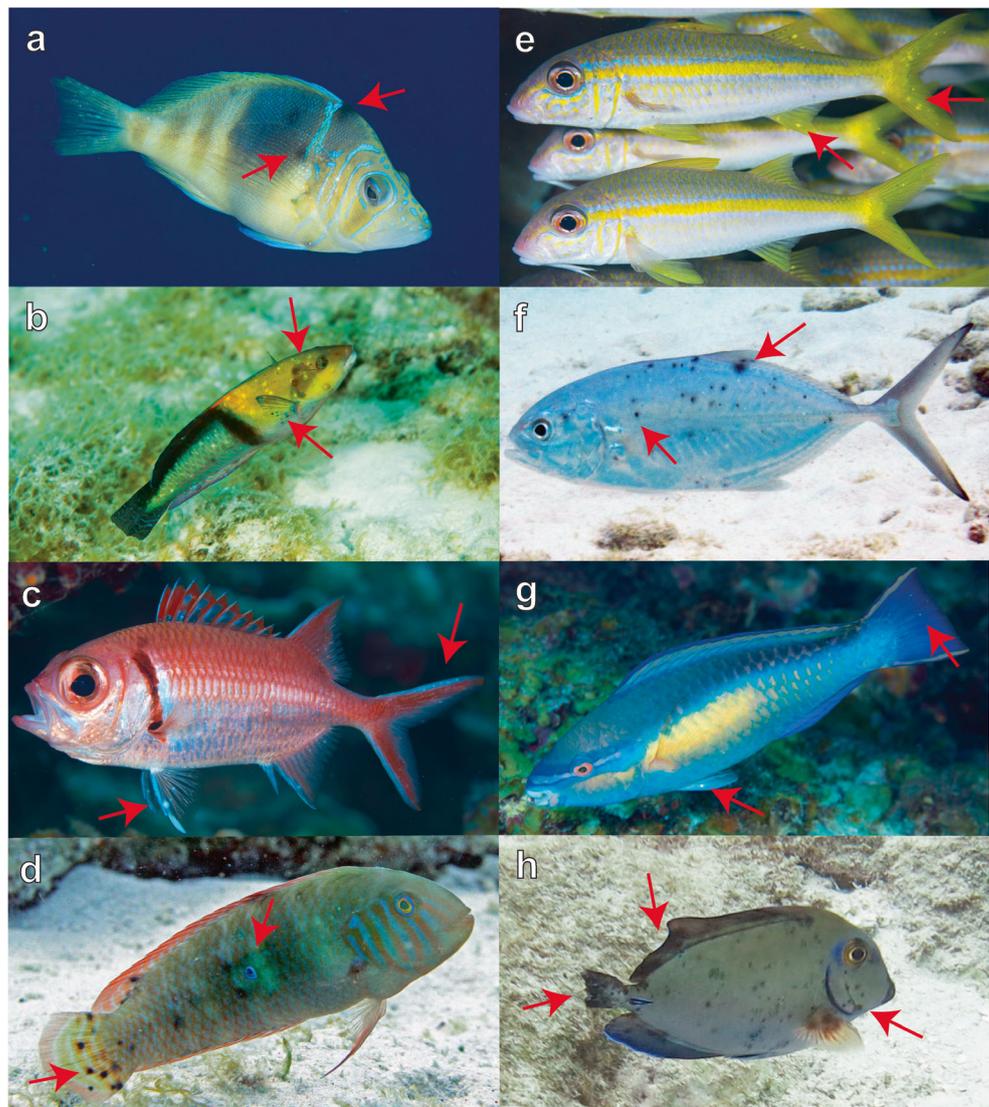
(Fig. 2). Large parasites such as isopods were not considered in the analysis. Observations in the three locations were conducted by the same group of divers (SRF, RM, GOL, and CELF).

In addition, 1,200 underwater photographs of fishes from Curaçao were examined (photos taken by LAR and SRF). These photographs made it possible to determine whether species that were not observed in the transects are also affected by dermal parasites.

#### Data analysis

A Fisher's exact test was used to determine whether the number of infected fish differed among locations. For this analysis, host species that showed infections in Curaçao were considered 'species prone to infection'. For each of these species, the

**Fig. 2** Fishes infected with dermal parasites in Curaçao. Infected species include: **a** *Hypoplectrus puella*, **b** *Halichoeres poeyi*, **c** *Myripristis jacobus*, **d** *Xyrichtys splendens*, **e** *Mulloidichthys martinicus*, **f** *Caranx crysos*, **g** *Scarus taeniopterus*, **h** *Acanthurus tractus*. Photos **a**, **b**, **c**, **e**, **g** by LAR, **d**, **h** by SRF, and **f** by MJAV



total number of individuals observed (abundance) and the proportion infected at each of the three localities were calculated. A linear regression was used to determine whether host species abundance correlated with the number of infected individuals. A generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with binomial distribution and taxonomic family as a random intercept was used to determine whether functional traits had a significant effect on the rate of infection. The random intercept was added to diminish taxonomic pseudo-replication, since some families were represented by more than one species. Following the procedure described by Mouillot et al. (2014), the traits considered as independent class variables were: diet (piscivores, herbivores-detritivores, macro-algal herbivores, sessile invertebrate feeders, mobile invertebrates feeders, omnivores, and planktivores), mobility (sedentary, mobile within a reef, highly mobile), schooling behavior (solitary; small group, 3–20 individuals; medium group, 21–50; large group 51 and higher), and position in the water column (bottom, above the bottom, pelagic). The response variable was the combination of the number of infected (“successes”) and healthy (“failures”) individuals for each species. All statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2013).

## Results

During the visual censuses, we recorded 3,364 reef fishes of 79 species in Belize (96.11 individuals per transect), 33,890 of 96 species in Curaçao (413.29 individuals per transect), and 8,200 of 110 species in Mexico (102.50 individuals per transect) (Table 1). The larger number of fishes observed on Curaçao was due, in part, to the abundance of planktivorous species, mostly *Chromis* spp. (7,712 individuals) and *Coryphopterus* spp. (13,957 individuals). Of the fishes observed, 75 individuals belonging to 14 species were affected by dermal parasites in Curaçao (Table 2). In contrast, only three infected individuals of one species, *Acanthurus tractus*, were observed in Belize, and no infected individuals were observed in Mexico. The 14 species prone to infection in Curaçao totaled 1,951 individuals, of which 3.80 % were infected. In Belize, we found 736 individuals of species prone to infection, and 0.40 % was infected. Thus Curaçao had higher total counts as well as a higher proportion of infected individuals

compared to the other two localities (Fisher’s exact test,  $p < 0.0001$ ).

In Curaçao, the species with the highest infection rates were *A. tractus*, with 19.7 %, followed by *Cantherhines pullus* (18.2 %), *Caranx ruber* (17.7 %), and *A. chirurgus* (11.5 %) (Table 2). The rate of infection was not related to host species abundance (linear regression;  $r^2 = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.54$ , Fig. S2), and none of the functional traits considered had a significant influence on the probability of infection (Table S1).

In an examination of the 1,200 photographs taken in Curaçao, infections were detected in 22 additional species not recorded during the visual surveys (Table S2). Parrotfishes and wrasses (Labridae) had the highest number of infected species—seven and six, respectively (Fig. 3)—when visual census data and photographs were combined. For the other groups, there was at least one infected individual for every species of the family. This was the case for the boxfishes (Ostraciidae; three species), surgeonfishes (Acanthuridae; three species), soldierfishes (Holocentridae; two species), tilefishes (Malacanthidae; one species), and triggerfishes (Balistidae; one species). Other groups that were well represented in our surveys, such as gobies (Gobiidae; seven species) and angelfishes (Pomacanthidae; five species), showed no signs of infection (Fig. 3).

## Discussion

The rate of parasite infections in coral reef fishes is known to vary in both space and time, yet the scale at which these variations can occur has been relatively unexplored in the Caribbean. Here we report a dramatically higher rate of infection (tenfold) by dermal parasites on reef fishes of Curaçao compared to Belize, where infection rates were very low, and Mexico, where no infected individuals were observed. Affected fishes showed black blemishes and white spots across the body that were easily detected visually and that have been associated with digeneans, turbellarians, and/or protozoan infections (Fig. 2).

Several studies have offered general explanations as to why dermal parasites can become more prevalent in certain locations, yet it is still unclear why Curaçao has such dramatic rates of infection. First, the abundance of mutualistic cleaners, such as shrimps and fishes, can affect the number and size of

**Table 1** Total area surveyed, number of fishes counted, and number of infected fish by location

Location	Number of transects	Total area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Number of fish species	Number of individuals	Individuals per transect	Infected	Infected per transect
Belize	35	1,400	79	3,364	96.11	3	0.08
Curaçao	82	3,280	96	33,890	413.29	76	0.93
Mexico	80	3,200	110	8,200	102.50	0	–

**Table 2** Fish species infected and total number of infected individuals observed in visual censuses in Curaçao

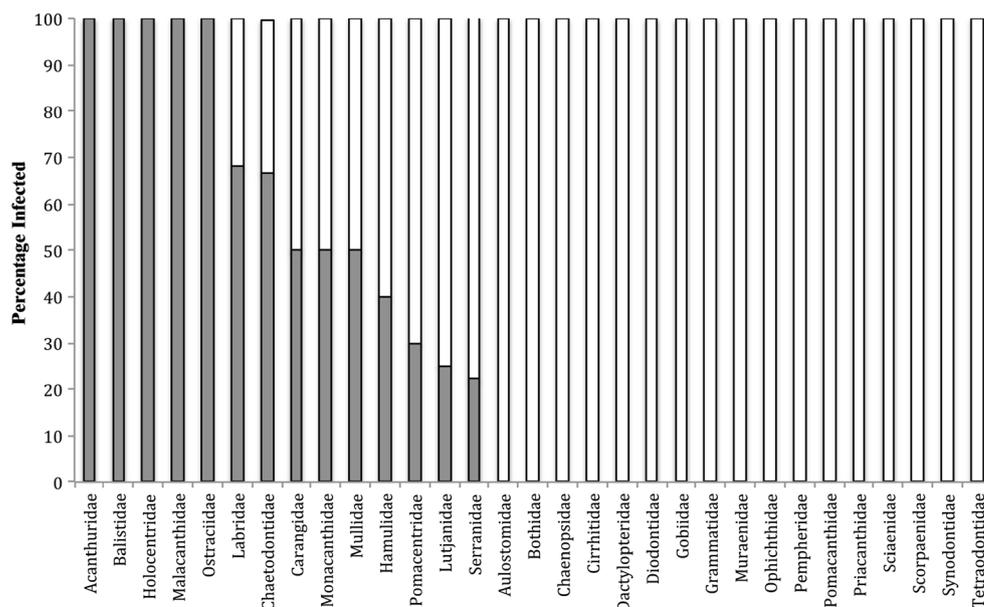
Species	Total	Infected	Percentage infected
<i>Acanthurus chirurgus</i>	52	6	11.54
<i>Acanthurus coeruleus</i>	241	17	7.05
<i>Acanthurus tractus</i>	147	29	19.73
<i>Cantherhines pullus</i>	11	2	18.18
<i>Canthigaster rostrata</i>	277	2	0.72
<i>Caranx ruber</i>	17	3	17.65
<i>Haemulon chrysargyreum</i>	151	2	1.32
<i>Halichoeres garnoti</i>	266	2	0.75
<i>Lactophrys triqueter</i>	20	1	5.00
<i>Lutjanus apodus</i>	36	1	2.78
<i>Mulloidichthys martinicus</i>	275	6	2.18
<i>Scarus iseri</i>	224	2	0.89
<i>Sparisoma rubripinne</i>	13	1	7.69
<i>Sparisoma viride</i>	221	1	0.45

parasites per infected fish (Grutter 1995; McCammon et al. 2010; but see Kent and Olson 1986). However, during surveys in Curaçao, we observed a great number of shrimps actively cleaning fishes. Further, there was no scarcity of cleaner fishes in Curaçao, including *Thalassoma bifasciatum* (1,953 individuals; 23.82 per transect), *Elacatinus evelynae* (58 individuals; 0.71 per transect), and *Bodianus rufus* (28 individuals; 0.34 per transect). These numbers are comparable to or higher than observed abundance in Mexico (*T. bifasciatum*=1,293, 16.16 per transect; *E. evelynae*=5, 0.06 per transect; *B. rufus*=20, 0.25 per transect), and Belize (*T. bifasciatum*=144, 4.11 per transect; *E. evelynae*=1, 0.03 per transect; *B. rufus*=2, 0.01

per transect). Thus, it appears unlikely that the high rates of infection in Curaçao is due to a scarcity of cleaners.

Habitat preference of the host is another factor known to influence parasite abundance. On Heron Island, Australia, the number of monogeneans found on the blackedge thicklip wrasse, *Hemigymnus melapterus*, was much higher in individuals inhabiting reef flats than in those found on the reef slope (Grutter 1998). In this particular location, monogenean eggs were more abundant on reef flats, suggesting that individuals inhabiting shallower reef flats come into contact with the parasites more often than the individuals on reef slopes (Grutter 1998). However, this was not likely the case in our study, as Curaçao has narrow ledges surrounded by steep slopes, while Mexico and Belize have very broad continental shelves.

An important difference among the three studied locations was the remarkably low abundance of large-bodied piscivores in Curaçao (Sandin et al. 2008). Previous studies have suggested that removal of predators can lead to an increase in parasite abundance (Packer et al. 2003). This is especially important for parasites with direct transmission, where the absence of predators can lead to increased population size, which in turn increases the chance of contact between infected and healthy individuals. Furthermore, in the absence of top predators, heavily infected fish are not effectively removed from the ecosystem by top-down control (e.g., Lafferty and Morris 1996). For example, many surgeonfish individuals in Curaçao presented black blemishes that covered most of their body and fins, and showed compromised swimming ability compared to mildly infected or healthy fish (Fig. 2h). In some cases, these individuals moved so slowly that it seemed that they could be caught with bare hands. This compromised swimming ability makes it unlikely that fish with high parasite

**Fig. 3** Fish species infected with dermal parasites in Curaçao, by family. Gray bars represent the percentage of infected species per family

loads would be able to survive in communities with high numbers of predators.

On the other hand, studies have suggested that a high incidence of parasites reflects a healthy, well-structured ecosystem (Hudson et al. 2006). This is especially relevant for groups of parasites with complex life cycles, such as trematodes, for which coral reef fishes are intermediate hosts (Bray et al. 2005). The first hosts are usually mollusks, and their definitive hosts, in which they reproduce, are large predatory fish or birds (Poulin and Cribb 2002). Thus, parasites with complex life cycles are expected to be in low abundance if one or more of their required hosts is rare or missing (Hechinger and Lafferty 2005). For example, a study that compared the abundance and diversity of parasites in five fish species between the pristine Palmyra Atoll and the heavily fished Kirimati Atoll showed a richer parasite community in the former compared to the latter (Lafferty 2008). The authors suggested that overfishing in Kirimati could have reduced the number of hosts necessary for the proper development of groups with complex life cycles, which in turn led to lower parasite diversity (Lafferty 2008). In this context, it is possible that many more species of hosts required for the development of parasites with complex life cycles are present in Curaçao than in the other localities. Although Curaçao has more coral cover and biomass of grazers than other locations included in the surveys, (Jackson et al. 2014), this hypothesis has not been tested.

Our results indicate that surgeonfishes were disproportionately affected by dermal parasites. Previous studies have reported high rates of infection by monogeneans, turbellarians, and parasitic copepods in Acanthuridae in both the Caribbean (Sikkel et al. 2009; McCammon et al. 2010) and the Indo-Pacific (Lewis 1964; Work and Aeby 2014). The elevated rates of infection could be related, at least in part, to their behavior. Surgeonfishes roam the reef in large feeding schools, which may increase the chance of parasite transmission between individuals (Grutter 1998; Sikkel et al. 2009). Also, acanthurids are frequently found at the bottom, where they can come into contact with eggs and larvae of parasites (Grutter 1998; Marcogliese 2002). Even though these traits (association with the benthos and schooling) have been found to correlate with elevated infection rates, our analysis for fishes of Curaçao detected no correlation between any of the functional traits surveyed and the probability of infection (Table S1).

At this time, the reason for the high rates of parasite infection in Curaçao, and the full impact it may have on the health of local ecosystems, remain unknown. Several factors, including oceanographic conditions, lack of predators, and high biodiversity, could all contribute to the observed patterns. In light of the devastating effects that infections have previously had in communities of the Caribbean (e.g., *Diadema* mass mortality, Lessios 2005; white band disease in corals, Pantos and

Bythell 2006), and that multiple parasites have complex life cycles that include several hosts, we recommend further studies to gain an understanding of the causes and effects of high rates of infection in Curaçao. Lastly, the marine ecosystems of Curaçao offer a great opportunity to study parasite–host interactions in Caribbean coral reef fishes, and to improve our understanding of the ecological consequences of parasites on the wider reef community at various spatial scales.

**Acknowledgments** We thank Freeland Dunker, Alexandra Grutter, Paul Sikkel, Alistair Dove, Mark Hay, Juan Pablo Quimbayo, the staff of CARMABI (Caribbean Marine Biological Institute), and one anonymous reviewer for their help with the manuscript. Funding was provided by a California Academy of Sciences grant to MAB, MRG, and LAR; Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) grant to SRF; Secretaría Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (SENACYT) to MAB; and Brazilian Marine Biodiversity Network (SISBIOTA-Mar) through CNPq (563276/2010-0) and Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa e Inovação do Estado de Santa Catarina (FAPESC) (6308/2011-8).

## References

- Arias-Gonzalez JE, Legendre P, Rodriguez-Zaragoza FA (2008) Scaling up beta diversity on Caribbean coral reefs. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol* 366: 28–36
- Bak RPM (1975) Ecological aspects of the distribution of reef corals in the Netherlands Antilles. *Bijdr Dierk* 45:181–190
- Barber I, Hoare D, Krause J (2000) Effects of parasites on fish behaviour: a review and evolutionary perspective. *Rev Fish Biol Fish* 10:131–165
- Bray RA, Webster BL, Bartoli P, Littlewood TJ (2005) Relationships with the Acanthocolpidae Luhe, 1906 and their place among the Digenea. *Acta Parasitol* 50:281–291
- Cheney KL, Cote IM (2003) Do ectoparasites determine cleaner fish abundance? Evidence on two spatial scales. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 263:189–196
- R Core Team (2013) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <http://www.R-project.org/>
- Finley RJ, Forrester GE (2003) Impact of Ectoparasites on the Demography of a Small Reef Fish. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 248:305–309
- Floeter SR, Krohling W, Gasparini JL, Ferreira CEL, Zalmon IR (2007) Reef fish community structure on coastal islands of the southeastern Brazil: the influence of exposure and benthic cover. *Environ Biol Fish* 78:147–160
- Floeter SR, Rocha LA, Robertson DR, Joyeux JC, Smith-Vaniz WF, Wirtz P, Edwards AJ, Barreiros JP, Ferreira CEL, Gasparini JL, Brito A, Falcon JM, Bowen BW, Bernardi G (2008) Atlantic reef fish biogeography and evolution. *J Biogeogr* 35:22–47
- Fratantoni DM (2001) North Atlantic surface circulation during the 1990's observed with satellite-tracked drifters. *J Geophys Res* 106:22067–22093
- Grutter AS (1994) Spatial and temporal variations of the ectoparasites of seven reef fish species from Lizard Island and Heron Island, Australia. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 115:21–30
- Grutter AS (1995) Relationship between cleaning rates and ectoparasite loads in coral-reef fishes. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 118:51–58
- Grutter AS (1998) Habitat-related differences in the abundance of parasites from a coral reef fish: an indication of the movement patterns of *Hemigymnus melapterus*. *J Fish Biol* 53:49–57

- Grutter AS, Hendrikz J (1999) Diurnal variation in the abundance of juvenile parasitic gnathiid isopods on coral reef fish: implications for parasite cleaner fish interactions. *Coral Reefs* 18:187–191
- Hechinger RF, Lafferty KD (2005) Host diversity begets parasite diversity: bird final hosts and trematodes in snail intermediate hosts. *Proc R Soc B* 272:1059–1066
- Hudson PJ, Dobson AP, Lafferty KD (2006) Parasites and ecological systems: is a healthy system one with many parasites? *Trends Ecol Evol* 21:381–385
- Hutson KS, Brock EL, Steer MA (2011) Spatial variation in parasite abundance: evidence of geographical population structuring in southern garfish *Hyporhamphus melanochir*. *J Fish Biol* 78:166–182
- Jackson JBC, Donovan MK, Cramer KL, Lam VV (2014) Status and Trends of Caribbean Coral Reefs: 1970–2012. Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network, IUCN, Gland
- Justine JL (2010) Parasites of coral reef fish: how much do we know? With a bibliography of fish parasites in New Caledonia. *Belg J Zool* 140:155–190
- Justine JL, Beveridge I, Boxshall GA, Bray RA, Miller TL, Moravec F, Trilles JP, Whittington ID (2012) An annotated list of fish parasites (Isopoda, Copepoda, Monogenea, Digenea, Cestoda, Nematoda) collected from Snappers and Bream (Lutjanidae, Nemipteridae, Caesionidae) in New Caledonia confirms high parasite biodiversity on coral reef fish. *Aquat Biosys* 8:22
- Kent ML, Olson AC (1986) Interrelationships of a parasitic turbellarian, (*Paravortex* sp.) (Graffillidae, Rhabdocoela) and its marine fish hosts. *Fish Pathol* 21:65–72
- Kuris AM, Hechinger RF, Shaw JC, Whitney KL, Aguirre-Macedo L, Boch CA, Dobson AP, Dunham EJ, Fredensborg BL, Huspeni TC, Lorda J, Mababa J, Mancini FT, Mora AB, Pickering M, Talhouk NL, Torchin ME, Lafferty KD (2008) Ecosystem energetic implications of parasite and free-living biomass in three estuaries. *Nature* 454:515–518
- Lafferty KD (2008) Ecosystem consequences of fish parasites\*. *J Fish Biol* 73:2083–2093
- Lafferty KD, Morris AK (1996) Altered behavior of parasitized killifish increases susceptibility to predation by bird final hosts. *Ecology* 77:1390–1397
- Lessios HA (2005) *Diadema antillarum* populations in Panama twenty years following mass mortality. *Coral Reefs* 24:125–127
- Lewis AG (1964) Caligoid copepods (Crustacea) of the Hawaiian islands: parasitic on fishes of the family Acanthuridae. *Proc US Natl Mus* 115:137–244
- Luque JL, Poulin R (2008) Linking ecology with parasite diversity in Neotropical fishes. *J Fish Biol* 72:198–204
- Marcogliese DJ (2002) Food webs and the transmission of parasites to marine fish. *Parasitology* 124:83–99
- McCammon A, Sikkell PC, Nemeth D (2010) Effects of three Caribbean cleaner shrimps on ectoparasitic monogeneans in a semi-natural environment. *Coral Reefs* 29:419–426
- Mouillot D, Villéger S, Parravicini V, Kulbicki M, Arias-Gonzales JE, Bender MG, Chabanet P, Floeter SR, Friedlander A, Vigliola L, Bellwood DR (2014) Functional over-redundancy and high functional vulnerability in global fish faunas of tropical reefs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111:13757–13762
- Packer C, Holt RD, Hudson PJ, Lafferty KD, Dobson AP (2003) Keeping the herds healthy and alert: implications of predator control for infectious disease. *Ecol Lett* 6:797–802
- Pantos O, Bythell JC (2006) Bacterial community structure associated with white band disease in the elkhorn coral *Acropora palmata* determined using culture-independent 16S rRNA techniques. *Dis Aquat Org* 69:79–88
- Poulin R, Cribb TH (2002) Trematode life cycles: short is sweet? *Trends Parasitol* 18:176–183
- Poulin R, FitzGerald GJ (1987) The potential of parasitism in the structuring of a salt marsh stickleback community. *Can J Zool* 65:2793–2798
- Poulin R, Fredensborg BL, Hansen E, Leung TLF (2005) The true cost of host manipulation by parasites. *Behav Process* 68:241–244
- Price PW, Westoby M, Rice B, Atsatt PR, Fritz RS, Thompson JN, Mobley K (1986) Parasite mediation in ecological interactions. *Annu Rev Ecol Syst* 487–505
- Rohde K (1999) Latitudinal gradients in species diversity and Rapoport's rule revisited: a review of recent work and what can parasites teach us about the causes of the gradients? *Ecography* 22:593–613
- Rohde K, Heap M (1998) Latitudinal differences in species and community richness and in community structure of metazoan endo- and ectoparasites of marine teleost fish. *Int J Parasitol* 28:461–474
- Rosenqvist G, Johansson K (1995) Male avoidance of parasitized females explained by direct benefits in a pipefish. *Anim Behav* 49:1039–1045
- Sandin SA, Sampayo EM, Vermeij MJA (2008) Coral reef fish and benthic community structure of Bonaire and Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles. *Caribb J Sci* 44:137–144
- Sikkell PC, Nemeth D, McCammon A, Williams EH (2009) Habitat and species differences in prevalence and intensity of *Neobenedenia melleni* (Monogenea: Capsalidae) on sympatric Caribbean Surgeonfishes (Acanthuridae). *J Parasitol* 95:63–68
- Van den Hoek C, Cortel-Breeman AM, Wanders JBW (1975) Algal zonation in the fringing coral reef of Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles, in relation to zonation of corals and gorgonians. *Aquat Bot* 1:269–308
- Williams HH, MacKenzie K, McCarthy AM (1992) Parasites as biological indicators of the population biology, migrations, diet, and phylogenetics of fish. *Rev Fish Biol Fish* 2:144–176
- Work TM, Aeby GS (2014) Skin pathology in Hawaiian goldring surgeonfish, *Ctenochaetus strigosus* (Bennett). *J Fish Dis* 37:357–362